



HAL
open science

RENEB Inter-Laboratory Comparison 2017: limits and pitfalls of ILCs.

Eric Gregoire, Joan Francesc Barquinero, Gaetan Gruel, Mohamedamine Benadjaoud, Juan Martinez Guerrero, Christina Beinke, Adyabalam Balajee, Philip Beukes, William Blakely, Inmaculada Dominguez, et al.

► **To cite this version:**

Eric Gregoire, Joan Francesc Barquinero, Gaetan Gruel, Mohamedamine Benadjaoud, Juan Martinez Guerrero, et al.. RENEB Inter-Laboratory Comparison 2017: limits and pitfalls of ILCs.. International Journal of Radiation Biology, 2021, 97 (7), pp.888-905. 10.1080/09553002.2021.1928782 . hal-03513527

HAL Id: hal-03513527

<https://hal.science/hal-03513527>

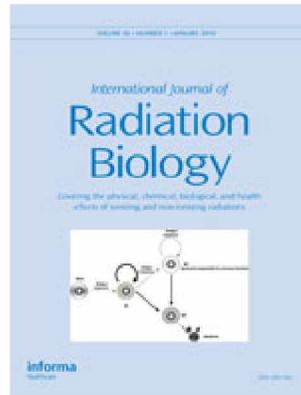
Submitted on 5 Jan 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License



RENEB InterLaboratory Comparison 2017; limits and pitfalls of ILCs.

Journal:	<i>International Journal of Radiation Biology</i>
Manuscript ID	TRAB-2020-IJRB-0440.R2
Manuscript Type:	Original Manuscript
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	<p>GREGOIRE, ERIC; Institut de Radioprotection et de Surete Nucléaire, PSE-SANTE/SERAMED/LRACC</p> <p>Barquintero, Joan Francesc; Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Biologia Animal, Biologia Vegetal i Ecologia</p> <p>GRUEL, Gaëtan; Institut de Radioprotection et de Sûreté Nucléaire, Department of Research in Radiobiology and Regenerative Medicine</p> <p>Benadjaoud, Mohamedine; Institut de Radioprotection et de Surete Nucléaire, PSE-SANTE/SERAMED/LRACC</p> <p>Martinez, Juan; Institut de Radioprotection et de Sûreté Nucléaire, Department of Research in Radiobiology and Regenerative Medicine</p> <p>Beinke, Christina; 4. Inst. für Radiobiologie der Bundeswehr in Verb. mit der Univ. Ulm, ; Institut für Radiobiologie</p> <p>Balajee, Adayabalam; ORISE</p> <p>Beukes, Philip; iThemba LABS, Radiobiology</p> <p>Blakely, William; 43Armed Forces Radiobiology Research Institute, Uniformed Service University of the Health Sciences, Scientific Research Department</p> <p>Dominguez, Inmaculada; University of Sevilla</p> <p>Pham Ngoc, Duy; Nuclear Research Institute, Biotechnology</p> <p>Monteiro Gil, Octavia; Instituto Superior Técnico, Universidade de Lisboa, Centro de Ciências e Tecnologias Nucleares</p> <p>Güçlü, İnci; Turkish Atomic Energy Authority, Cekmece Nuclear Research and Training Center Radiobiology Unit Yarimburgaz</p> <p>Guogyte, Kamile; Radiation Protection Centre</p> <p>Hadjidekova, Savina; Sofia University St Kliment Ohridski</p> <p>Hadjidekova, Valeria; National Center for Radiobiology and Radiation Protection</p> <p>Hande, M Prakash; National University of Singapore, Physiology</p> <p>Jang, Seongjae; KIRAMS</p> <p>Lumnicky, Katalin; OKK-OSSKI</p>

	<p>Meschini, Roberta; Universita degli Studi della Tuscia Dipartimento di Scienze Ecologiche e Biologiche, Ecological and Biological Sciences</p> <p>Milić, Mirta; Institute for Medical Research and Occupational Health, Montoro, A.; HOSPITAL UNIVERSITARIO LA FE, SERVICIO DE PROTECCIÓN RADIOLÓGICA</p> <p>Moquet, Jayne; Public Health England Centre for Radiation Chemical and Environmental Hazards, Radiation Effects</p> <p>Moreno, Mercedes; Hospital General Universitario Gregorio Marañon, Radiotherapy Oncology</p> <p>Norton, Farrah; Canadian Nuclear Laboratories</p> <p>Oestreicher, Ursula; Federal Office for Radiation Protection, Department of Radiation Protection and Health</p> <p>Pajic, Jelena; Serbian Institute of Occupational Health, Radiation Protection Center,</p> <p>Sabatier, L.; CEA, Radiation Biology</p> <p>Sommer, Sylwester; ICHTJ</p> <p>Testa, Antonella; ENEA Casaccia Research Center, Radiation Biology</p> <p>Terzoudi, Georgia; National Centre for Scientific Research "Demokritos", Health Physics, Radiobiology & Cytogenetics</p> <p>Valente, Marco; Institut de Recherche Biomédicale des Armées (IRBA), Département des Effets Biologiques des Rayonnements (EBR)</p> <p>PERUMAL, VENKATACHALAM; Sri Ramachandra Institute of Higher Education and Research (Deemed to be University), Human Genetics</p> <p>Vral, Anne; Ghent University , Basic Medical Sciences</p> <p>Wilkins, Ruth; Health Canada, Ionizing Radiation Health Sciences Division</p> <p>Wojcik, Andrzej; Stockholms Universitet, Molecular Biosciences;</p> <p>Zafiropoulos, Demetre; Istituto Nazionale di Fisica Nucleare, Laboratori Nazionali di Legnaro</p> <p>Kulka, Ulrike; Federal Office for Radiation Protection, Radiation and Health</p>
Keywords:	Inter Laboratory Comparison, Biodosimetry, Chromosomal aberrations, Statistical tests

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

RENEB Inter-Laboratory Comparison 2017: limits and pitfalls of ILCs.

Eric Gregoire^{1*}, Joan Francesc Barquinero^{2*}, Gaetan Gruel^{1*}, Mohamedamine Benadjaoud^{1*}, Juan S. Martinez¹, Christina Beinke³, Adayabalam Balajee⁴, Philip Beukes⁵, William F. Blakely⁶, Inmaculada Dominguez⁷, Pham Ngoc Duy⁸, Octávia Monteiro Gil⁹, Inci Güçlü¹⁰, Kamile Guogyte¹¹, Savina Petrova Hadjidekova¹², Valeria Hadjidekova¹³, Prakash Hande¹⁴, Seongjae Jang¹⁵, Katalin Lumniczky¹⁶, Roberta Meschini¹⁷, Mirta Milic¹⁸, Alegria Montoro¹⁹ Jayne Moquet²⁰, Mercedes Moreno²¹, Farrah N Norton²², Ursula Oestreicher²³, Jelena Pajic²⁴, Laure Sabatier²⁵, Sylwester Sommer²⁶, Antonella Testa²⁷, Georgia Terzoudi²⁸, Marco Valente²⁹, Perumal Venkatachalam³⁰, Anne Vral³¹, Ruth C. Wilkins³², Andrzej Wojcik³³, Demetre Zafiroopoulos³⁴, Ulrike Kulka²³⁺.

* These authors contributed equally to this work

+ Chair of RENEb e.V.

1. Institut de Radioprotection et de Sûreté Nucléaire, Fontenay-aux-Roses, France
2. Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain
3. Bundeswehr Institute of Radiobiology affiliated to the University of Ulm, Munich, Germany
4. Oak Ridge Institute for Science and Education (ORISE), USA
5. NRF iThemba LABS, Cape Town, South Africa
6. Armed Forces Radiobiology Research Institute, Uniformed Service University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, USA
7. University of Sevilla, Sevilla, Spain
8. Center of Biotechnology, Nuclear Research Institute, Nuclear Research Institute, Dalat city, Vietnam
9. Centro de Ciências e Tecnologias Nucleares, Instituto Superior Técnico, Universidade de Lisboa, Bobadela-LRS, Portugal
10. Turkish Atomic Energy Authority, Cekmece Nuclear Research and Training Center Radiobiology Unit Yarımburgaz, Istanbul, Turkey
11. Radiation Protection Center, Vilnius, Lithuania
12. Medical University of Sofia, Sofia, Bulgaria
13. National Center for Radiobiology and Radiation Protection, Sofia, Bulgaria
14. Department of Physiology, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine: National University of Singapore, Singapore
15. KIRAMS, Seoul, Korea
16. National Research Institute for Radiobiology & Radiohygiene, Budapest, Hungary
17. UNITUS, Viterbo, Italy
18. IMROH, Zagreb, Croatia
19. Fundación para la Investigación del Hospital Universitario LA FE de la Comunidad Valenciana, Valencia, Spain
20. Public Health England, Centre for Radiation Chemical and Environmental Hazards, Chilton, UK
21. Servicio Madrileño de Salud - Hospital General Universitario Gregorio Marañón, Madrid, Spain
22. Canadian Nuclear Laboratories, Radiobiology & Health, Chalk River, Ontario, Canada
23. Federal Office for Radiation Protection (BfS), Oberschleissheim, Germany
24. Serbian Institute of Occupational Health, Radiation Protection Center, Belgrade, Serbia
25. PROCyTOX, Commissariat à l'Énergie Atomique et aux Énergies Alternatives, Fontenay aux-Roses, France and Université Paris-Saclay, France
26. Institute of Nuclear Chemistry and Technology (INCT), Warsaw, Poland
27. Agenzia Nazionale per le Nuove Tecnologie, L'Energia e lo Sviluppo Economico Sostenibile, Rome, Italy
28. National Center for Scientific Research "Demokritos", NCSR"D", Athens, Greece
29. IRBA, Bretigny sur Orge, France
30. Sri Ramachandra University, Chennai, India
31. Radiobiology Research Unit, Gent University, Gent, Belgium
32. Health Canada, Ottawa, Canada
33. Stockholm University, Institute Molecular Biosciences, Stockholm, Sweden
34. Laboratori Nazionali di Legnaro – INFN, Legnaro, Italy

Biographical notes:

Eric Gregoire, scientist, cytogenetician in biological dosimetry, Institute for Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), Radiobiology of Accidental Exposure Laboratory (LRAcc), Fontenay aux Roses, France

Joan-Francesc Barquinero, PhD, Biologist, University Professor, Department of Animal Biology, Plant Biology and Ecology, Faculty of Biosciencies, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB), Bellaterra (Cerdanyola del Vallès), Spain

Gaetan Gruel, PhD, Researcher and head of the Laboratory, Institute for Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), Radiobiology of Accidental Exposure Laboratory (LRAcc), Fontenay aux Roses, France

Mohamedamine Benadjaoud, PhD, Biomathematician, Institute for Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), Radiobiology of Accidental Exposure Laboratory (LRAcc), Fontenay aux Roses, France

Juan S. Martinez, PhD, Researcher, Institute for Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), Radiobiology of Accidental Exposure Laboratory (LRAcc), Fontenay aux Roses, France

Christina Beinke, PhD, scientist in the cytogenetics laboratory of the Bundeswehr Institute of Radiobiology, Munich, Germany.

Adayabalam Balajee, Head of the Cytogenetic Biodosimetry Laboratory, Radiation Emergency Assistance Center/Training Site, Oak Ridge Institute for Science and Education, Oak Ridge Associated Universities, Oak Ridge, Tennessee, USA.

Philip Beukes, Radiation Protection Physicist and Head of Radiation Safety Health Environment and Quality at the National Research Foundation (NRF) iThemba LABS, Cape Town, South Africa.

William F. Blakely, senior scientist at his Institute and assistant professor at his University. He is a classically trained radiobiologist and for ~25 years associated with the applied biodosimetry research

1
2
3 and service programs. He is a member of the Scientific Research Department (SRD), Armed Forces
4 Radiology Research Institute (AFRRI) affiliated with the Uniformed Services University of Health
5 Sciences (USUHS), Bethesda, Maryland, United States. He is also the course director for a graduate
6 course in Radiation Biology (PMO-582) at his University, a Council Member of the National Council
7 on Radiation Protection and Measurements (NCRP) serving on program area committee 6 (PAC-6)
8 entitled Radiation Measurements and Dosimetry, and members on International Standard Organization
9 (ISO) Working Groups 18 (Performance criteria for service laboratories performing biological
10 dosimetry by cytogenetics) and 25 (Radiological protection – Radiological monitoring for emergency
11 workers and population following nuclear/radiological accidents – Part 1: General principles).

12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22 **Inmaculada Dominguez**, scientist, research in DNA damage and repair, lecturer in Cell Biology, Cell
23 Culture and Radiobiological Group, Cell Biology Department, Faculty of Biology, University of
24 Sevilla, Spain.

25
26
27
28 **Pham Ngoc Duy, PhD**, Researcher, Biodosimetry Section, Centre of Radiation Technology and
29 Biotechnology, Dalat Nuclear Research Institute, Viet Nam.

30
31
32
33
34 **Octávia Monteiro Gil**, PhD, Biology- Genetic, works in the area of radiobiology and biological
35 dosimetry, Instituto Superior Técnico, Centro de Ciências e Tecnologias Nucleares
36 (C2TN/IST/ULisboa), Bobadela, Portugal.

37
38
39
40
41 **Inci Güçlü**, scientist, Head of the Radiobiology unit, Turkish Atomic Energy Authority, Cekmece
42 Nuclear Research and Training Center, Istanbul, Turkey

43
44
45
46 **Kamile Guogyte**, PhD, Chief specialist Radiation Protection Centre Kalvarijų 153 street, Vilnius,
47 Lithuania

48
49
50
51 **Savina Petrova Hadjidekova**, MD, Assistant Professor, Department of Medical Genetics, Medical
52 University - Sofia, Bulgaria.

53
54
55
56 **Valeria Hadjidekova**, Director, National Center for Radiobiology and Radiation Protection, Sofia,
57 Bulgaria

1
2
3 **Prakash HANDE**, Associate Professor at the Department of Physiology, Yong Loo Lin School of
4 Medicine, National University of Singapore (NUS) and a Fellow at Tembusu College (NUS).
5
6 biomarkers of radiation exposure, DNA-repair-telomeres-telomerase in ageing and cancer,
7
8 experimental cancer therapeutics. Dr Hande is one of the pioneers who identified the role of DNA
9
10 repair factors in telomere regulation in mammalian systems and is an expert in Radiation
11
12 Biodosimetry. Dr Hande teaches cancer biology and ageing and conducts integrated study module on
13
14 Biomedicine and Society and Radiation and Society. He holds adjunct professor appointments at the
15
16 Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore, India and Mangalore University, Mangalore, India. Dr.
17
18 Hande is a visiting scientist at the National Institute of Radiological Sciences, Chiba, Japan. He was a
19
20 consultant at the Division of Human Health, International Atomic Energy Agency, Vienna, Austria in
21
22 2015 -2016 while on sabbatical from NUS. Dr Hande is currently an expert member of the workgroup
23
24 on “Biological mechanisms influencing health effects from low-dose radiation exposure” with United
25
26 Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR).
27
28
29
30

31 **Seongjae Jang**, Research scientist in biological dosimetry, National Radiation Emergency Medical
32
33 Center, Korea Institute of Radiological and Medical Sciences, Seoul, Republic of Korea
34
35

36 **Katalin Lumniczky**, M.D., Ph.D., radiation biologist, head of the Unit of Radiation Medicine,
37
38 Department of Radiobiology and Radiohygiene, National Public Health Centre, Budapest, Hungary.
39
40

41 **Roberta Meschini**, Research Assistant Professor, Expert in classical and Molecular Cytogenetic and
42
43 Mutagenesis, Laboratory of Molecular Cytogenetic and Mutagenesis, Department of Ecological and
44
45 Biological Sciences, University of Tuscia
46
47

48 **Mirta Milić**, scientist, molecular biologist, toxicologist and cytogenetician in biological dosimetry,
49
50 Institute for Medical Research and Occupational Health (IMROH), Mutagenesis Unit, Zagreb, Croatia
51
52

53 **Alegria Montoro**, PhD in Biology and Master’s Degree in Occupational Hazard Prevention,
54
55 specialising in Hygiene and Security. Supervisor for Radioactive Facilities and head of the
56
57 biodosimetry laboratory in the Radiation Protection Service (RPS), University-Polytechnic Hospital
58
59 La Fe, Valencia, Spain
60

1
2
3 **Jayne Moquet**, Principal Radiation Protection Scientist in the Cytogenetics and Pathology Group,
4 Public Health England - Centre for Chemical Radiation and Environmental Hazards, Oxfordshire, UK.
5
6

7
8 **Mercedes Moreno Domene**, MSc in radiation biology, Biological dosimetry laboratory.
9
10 Radiopeathology Centre, Service of Radiation Oncology. Hospital General Universitario Gregorio
11
12 Marañón (HGUGM-SERMAS), Madrid, Spain
13
14

15 **Farrah N Norton**, Research Scientist-Biologist, lead of the Biodosimetry emergency response
16
17 capability as well the portfolio lead for the Emergency Response suite of research projects in the
18
19 Safety and Security program at Canadian Nuclear Laboratories (CNL) in Chalk River, Ontario,
20
21 Canada.
22
23

24 **Ursula Oestreicher**, PhD, biologist and head of section: “Biological Dosimetry” at the Federal Office
25
26 for Radiation Protection (BfS), Oberschleissheim, Germany
27
28

29 **Jelena Pajic**, doctor of medical sciences, employed at the Cytogenetic Biodosimetry Laboratory,
30
31 Serbian Institute of Occupational Health. Main area of research: radiation biology, biodosimetry,
32
33 genotoxicology.
34
35

36 **Laure Sabatier**, PhD, research director, radiobiologist with molecular cytogenetics expertise,
37
38 coordinator of biology and health programs and infrastructures at the fundamental research division of
39
40 the French Alternative Energies and Atomic Energy Commission (CEA)
41
42

43 **Sylwester Sommer**, PhD, radiobiologist, Institute of Nuclear Chemistry and Technology (INCT),
44
45 Unit: Radiobiology and Biological Dosimetry, Warsaw, Poland
46
47

48 **Antonella Testa**, Antonella Testa, radiobiologist, Italian National Agency for New Technologies,
49
50 Energy and Sustainable Economic Development(ENEA), Department for Sustainability, Division
51
52 Health Protection Technologies, Laboratory Health and Environment, Rome, Italy
53
54

55 **Georgia Terzoudi**, physicist and radiobiologist, is Director of Research at the Institute of Nuclear and
56
57 Radiological Sciences & Technology, Energy & Safety, National Centre for Scientific Research
58
59
60

1
2
3 “Demokritos”, working in the Health Physics, Radiobiology & Cytogenetics Laboratory in Athens,
4
5 Greece.

6
7 **Marco Valente**, PhD, biologist, cytogenetician, French Armed Forces Biomedical Research Institute
8
9 (IRBA), Lab: Biological Dosimetry Lab (LDBI), Brétigny-sur-Orge, France.

10
11
12 **Venkatachalam PERUMAL**, Professor in Human Genetics, who is having an extensive background
13
14 in Radiation Genetics, with explicit training and capability in radiation biodosimetry, bystander
15
16 response, and genomic instability of high and low dose ionizing radiation, differed in their LET. Sri
17
18 Ramachandra Institute of Higher Education & Research, Chennai, INDIA.

19
20
21 **Anne Vral**, PhD, full professor and head of the radiobiology research group, principal investigator of
22
23 the radiobiology group and has 30 years of experience in the field of basic and medically applied
24
25 radiobiology, radiation protection, biological dosimetry and cancer. The topics related to cancer are
26
27 dealing with radiosensitivity and DNA repair. An important line of research involves the development
28
29 and validation of biomarkers of exposure and individual radiosensitivity. Ghent University, Belgium.

30
31
32
33 **Ruth C. Wilkins**, Research Scientist, Radiobiologist, Health Canada, Ionizing Radiation Health
34
35 Sciences Division, Ottawa, Canada

36
37
38 **Andrzej Wojcik**, PhD, is professor of radiation biology at the Stockholm University (Sweden) and
39
40 Jan Kochanowski University in Kielce (Poland). Wojcik focuses on studying cellular effects of
41
42 radiation, with special focus on factors influencing the radiosensitivity and on combined exposure to
43
44 radiations of different qualities.

45
46
47 **Demetre Zafiroopoulos**, PhD in Biological Dosimetry, italian delegate, of the NEA-OECD Committee
48
49 on Radiological Protection and Public Health (CRPPH), Radiation Protection Service of Laboratori
50
51 Nazionali di Legnaro of National Institute of Nuclear Physics.

52
53
54 **Ulrike Kulka**, PhD in biology, head of section national and international cooperation and reporting at
55
56 the Federal Office for Radiation Protection (BfS) in Oberschleissheim, Germany and chair of RENEB
57
58 e.V.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only

ABSTRACT

Purpose

In case of a mass-casualty radiological event, there would be a need for networking to overcome surge limitations and to quickly obtain homogeneous results (reported aberration frequencies or estimated doses) among biodosimetry laboratories. These results must be consistent within such network. Inter-laboratory comparisons (ILCs) are widely accepted to achieve this homogeneity. At the European level, a great effort has been made to harmonize biological dosimetry laboratories, notably during the MULTIBIODOSE and RENE B projects. In order to continue the harmonization efforts, the RENE B consortium launched this intercomparison which is larger than the RENE B network, as it involves 38 laboratories from 21 countries. In this ILC all steps of the process were monitored, from blood shipment to dose estimation. This exercise also aimed to evaluate the statistical tools used to compare laboratory performance.

Materials and Methods

Blood samples were irradiated at three different doses, 1.8, 0.4 and 0 Gy (samples A, C and B) with 4-MV X-rays at 0.5 Gy min^{-1} , and sent to the participant laboratories. Each laboratory was requested to blindly analyze 500 cells per sample and to report the observed frequency of dicentric chromosomes per metaphase and the corresponding estimated dose.

Results

This ILC demonstrates that blood samples can be successfully distributed among laboratories worldwide to perform biological dosimetry in case of a mass casualty event.

Having achieved a substantial harmonization in multiple areas among the RENE B laboratories issues were identified with the available statistical tools, which are not capable to advantageously exploit the richness of results of a large ILCs. Even though Z- and U-tests are accepted methods for biodosimetry

1
2
3 ILCs, setting the number of analyzed metaphases to 500 and establishing a tests' common threshold for
4 all studied doses is inappropriate for evaluating laboratory performance.
5
6
7

8 Another problem highlighted by this ILC is the issue of the dose-effect curve diversity. It clearly appears
9 that, despite the initial advantage of including the scoring specificities of each laboratory, the lack of
10 defined criteria for assessing the robustness of each laboratory's curve is a disadvantage for the "one
11 curve per laboratory" model.
12
13
14
15

16 17 Conclusions

18
19
20 Based on our study, it seems relevant to develop tools better adapted to the collection and processing of
21 results produced by the participant laboratories. We are confident that, after an initial harmonization
22 phase reached by the RENE B laboratories, a new step towards a better optimization of the laboratory
23 networks in biological dosimetry and associated ILC is on the way.
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1- INTRODUCTION

In case of a large-scale radiation emergency, the dose estimation of the victims should be assessed as fast and accurate as possible. Firstly, a triage should be performed by qualified medical staff according to clinical signs. Subsequently, a categorization of the exposed people by dosimetry must be carried out according to their degree of suspected overexposure. Biological dosimetry rapid assessment complements the clinical triage by categorizing potentially exposed victims in different ranges of exposure (Vaurijoux et al. 2015; Ainsbury et al. 2014) and is a key element when physical dosimetry is not available (Christie et al. 2010; Romm et al. 2014a). Because triage based on manual dicentric chromosome analysis (DCA) is done with a low number of analyzed cells (usually 50), it makes it highly imprecise as it has large confidence intervals. For this reason, the categorization should be defined by dose ranges and not in terms of dose alone. Furthermore, after initial triage, dose assessment is needed in order to confirm the categorization and to give a more precise individual dose estimation (Romm et al. 2014a). As precise dose assessment requires the analysis of a large number of cells, usually from 500 to 1000 by DCA, the time needed for a correct dose assessment is larger than that needed for triage. As an example, using manual scoring, one operator would perform triage in 1 hour per sample, but dose estimation would take approximately two days.

In general, biodosimetry laboratories can manage only a limited number of victims at one time. Thus, in the case of a mass-casualty radiation incident, where the management of several hundreds of victims would need to be performed, there is a prerequisite for national and/or international networking. However, networking must be based on the ability to provide homogeneous results (Voisin 2015; Kulka et al. 2015, 2017). This means that for any single case, the reported chromosomal aberration frequencies or estimated doses should be consistent and comparable among the laboratories responding to the emergency. Harmonization needs standardized procedures; this is an essential point for the successful coordination of different laboratories (Beinke et al. 2013; ISO 19238; Wilkins et al. 2008; Christie et al. 2010; Beinke et al. 2011). The strategy of establishing a cooperative network among laboratories requires that each laboratory follows internationally accepted methods for analysis (IAEA 2011, ISO 19238 2014) and regular inter-laboratory comparisons (ILCs) to test performance analysis (Wilkins et

1
2
3 al. 2008, Di Giorgio et al. 2011). Nowadays it is widely accepted that networking should include regular
4 international ILC exercises simulating different scenarios, as this would guarantee a more rapid response
5 and a higher reliability of dose estimates (Wojcik et al. 2010).
6
7
8
9

10 During the last decade several ILCs have been performed. Some of them were focused on the triage
11 (Wilkins et al. 2011; Lloyd et al. 2000; Ainsbury et al. 2009; Garcia et al. 2013; Romm et al. 2011,
12 2014a, b, Oestreicher et al 2017) while others mainly on dose-assessment (Yoshida et al. 2007; Pan et
13 al. 2019; Bakkiam et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2016, Roy et al. 2004). In a large-scale ILC involving 7 countries
14 from the Latin American Biological Dosimetry Network (LBDNet) and 6 laboratories from the
15 European Union, a good agreement among participants was shown in terms of the reported dicentric
16 chromosome yields and assessed doses. In this ILC the results after the analysis of 50, 100 or 500 cells
17 from shared stained slides were evaluated by using robust methods described in different ISO standards
18 (Di Giorgio 2011). Another effort in validating international networking using the DCA in the case of a
19 potential mass-casualty event was done by Wilkins et al. (2008). Several ILCs based on triage have
20 shown that more than 90% of the participant laboratories correctly categorize the tested samples (Miller
21 et al. 2007; Di Giorgio et al. 2011; Beinke et al. 2011, 2013; Bhavani et al. 2014; Yoshida et al. 2007;
22 Roy et al. 2004).
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 At European level, different projects have been founded in order to improve standardization and
39 harmonization for the different biomarkers of dose. MULTIBIODOSE helped in defining what would
40 be the best assay to use depending on different exposure scenarios (Jaworska et al. 2015, Ainsbury et al.
41 2014). In addition, a NATO project studied the possibility of reducing the number of analyzed cells from
42 50 to 20 for triage purposes (Beinke et al. 2013). Recently, several RENEB (Realising the European
43 Network of Biodosimetry) project training sessions and ILCs have allowed the main cytogenetic assays
44 to be homogenized and standardized among participants. Therefore, RENEB has helped in creating an
45 efficient European network of biodosimetry laboratories (Kulka et al. 2012). The harmonization and the
46 quality of the results for triage mode obtained among the RENEB members let us claim that at the
47 present day RENEB is able to categorize a large number of victims in mass-casualty radiological events
48 (Kulka et al. 2017; Gregoire et al. 2017; Oestreicher et al. 2017).
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 As indicated above, an individual dose assessment should be performed after triage (Romm et al. 2014a,
4 Wojcik et al. 2010). The present ILC concerned different biomarkers (Micro-Nucleus (MN), Premature
5 Chromosome Condensation (PCC), gamma H2AX and Gene Expression) and its main goal is to delve
6 deeper and check the entire process needed for proper networking, from blood sample shipment to dose
7 estimation. The present work has been focused on the DCA. In addition to the 20 RENEb laboratories,
8 another 19 laboratories were invited to participate. Finally, as this ILC evaluates the entire process for
9 dose-assessment by biodosimetry, we will take advantage of the large data set to critically review the
10 statistical tools used to evaluate laboratory performance.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23

24 **2- MATERIALS and METHODS**

25 **a. Irradiation and Shipment**

26 A 420 ml blood sample from a female donor (Etablissement Français du Sang (EFS), France; Agreement
27 CPSL UNT N°13/EFS/123) was irradiated at 37°C in a water bath with 4-MV X-rays delivered by a
28 Linear medical accelerator (Elekta Synergy, IRSN, Fontenay aux Roses, France) at 0.5 Gy·min⁻¹, dose
29 in water. The irradiation field was 30 x 30 cm and the distance between the source and the sample was
30 of 1.07 m. Radiation field mapping and dosimetry was confirmed using cylindrical ionization chamber
31 (0.125cc n° 4920) calibrated in dose to water. The blood sample was placed in 3 tubes corresponding to
32 the different dose points, a high dose of 1.8 Gy, a low dose of 0.4 Gy, and a sham-irradiated sample.
33 After irradiation, samples were maintained 2 h at 37°C and then the blood was aliquoted into 2 mL
34 tubes. Blood samples were then coded as follows: the high dose as A, the low dose as C and the sham
35 irradiated as B. Then, samples were sent to the 39 participant laboratories from 19 countries who were
36 informed by e-mail of the shipment of three samples. The e-mail informed that there were three blind
37 samples, that corresponded to high-, low- and sham- irradiated samples. In the same e-mail the RENEb
38 standard scoring sheet for dicentric, or dicentric plus centric ring, analysis was attached.
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 Shipment was performed using commercial express delivery services as UN 3373 Biological Substance
56 Category B, as described in detail in the manual of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 2011). Each package of blood samples included a temperature logger and a dosimeter to monitor the
4 temperature and any dose received during transportation. A second blood sample (male donor,
5 Etablissement Français du Sang (EFS), France; Agreement CPSL UNT N°13/EFS/123) was processed
6 as above and sent to 2 laboratories for whom there were shipment issues (see section 3).
7
8
9

10
11
12 In this study, the laboratories classified as RENEb laboratories (L1 to L20) correspond to those
13 belonging to the RENEb project that took part in the last RENEb ILC in 2015 (Oestreicher et al. 2017).
14 The other participants are classified as non-RENEb group (L21 to L38).
15
16
17

18 19 **b. Cell culture and dicentric chromosome assay**

20
21
22 Thirty of the participant laboratories were requested to set up lymphocyte cultures. Blood samples were
23 transmitted to three other participants by an intermediary laboratory in Bulgaria or South Korea. Thus
24 33 laboratories received blood samples. In all cases, cultures were processed using each laboratory's
25 standard protocol following the recommendations of the IAEA (2011) and the ISO standard 19238
26 (2014). Finally, a contact laboratory from Canada set up the lymphocyte cultures and sent stained slides
27 to its network of 6 laboratories. In all cases, the analyses were performed according to a RENEb standard
28 scoring sheet for the dicentric chromosome assay that was provided to the 39 participants. For each
29 sample, manual scoring of dicentric chromosomes (or dicentric chromosomes plus centric rings) in 500
30 cells by two different scorers if possible and using at least two slides (250 cells in each) was requested.
31 In addition to dicentric frequency per metaphase and dose assessment (Gy) for each sample, participants
32 were asked to report the Colcemid treatment used and the coefficients and associated errors of their
33 calibration curve. All participants sent the results directly (30 laboratories) or indirectly (through their
34 reference laboratory in Bulgaria, Canada and South Korea) to the organizing laboratory at the IRSN.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 51 **c. Dose assessment**

52 For dose assessment, laboratories converted the frequency of aberrations observed per metaphase into
53 absorbed dose using their own calibration curves based on dicentric chromosomes or dicentric
54 chromosomes plus centric rings scoring. Some of the laboratories without their own calibration curve
55 decided to use the calibration curve data available in the last technical IAEA report on biodosimetry
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 (IAEA, 2011). The calculations needed to convert the observed dicentric chromosomes (or dicentric
4 chromosomes plus centric rings) into estimated doses were made by means of various software
5 programs: CABAS V2.0 (Deperas et al 2007), different versions of Dose Estimate (Ainsbury and Lloyd
6 2010), or in-house developed software based on Microsoft Excel (L6, L15, L19 and L34). All
7 laboratories estimated the doses in Gray (Gy) and included the 95% confidence intervals as requested.
8
9
10
11
12

13 14 **d. Statistics**

15
16 To assess the performance of each laboratory and the reproducibility of the exercise, the statistical
17 analysis followed the (ISO 5725 1998) recommendations which provide detailed guidance of general
18 statistical methods to use in proficiency testing schemes. These methods were successfully applied for
19 biological dosimetry in Di Giorgio et al. (2011). In brief, the robust estimations of the mean and standard
20 deviations of frequencies or doses were performed using the Algorithm A (algA function of the R
21 software “metrology” package) (ISO 13528, 2015). This algorithm yields robust location and scale
22 estimates by the “winsorisation” of the original data (the extreme values, instead of being deleted, are
23 shifted towards the bulk of the data using adequate upper and lower thresholds obtained by an iterated
24 scale). The “Breakdown points” for these estimators (proportion of outliers without an adverse impact
25 on the estimates) are approximately 30, which constitutes an adequate resistance to outlying values. A
26 robust estimation of the coefficient of variation can then be obtained as the ratio of the robust standard
27 deviation to the robust mean.
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 Once the mean and standard deviation robustly estimated, the performance analysis was conducted using
43 the Z- and U-tests. The Z-test measures the deviation of each laboratory’s reported frequency or
44 estimated dose from the robust mean of the reported frequencies or the delivered dose, both considered
45 as reference values. The Z-test also takes into account a robust standard deviation from the reported
46 frequencies or doses, and a standard uncertainty of the reference value. Laboratory performance using
47 the Z-test categorizes reported values into “satisfactory” when the $|Z|$ value is ≤ 2 , “questionable” for
48 a $|Z|$ value between 2 and 3, and “unsatisfactory” when the $|Z|$ value is ≥ 3 . Z-tests do not consider the
49 uncertainty of each participating laboratory. On the other hand, the U-test considers the mean value and
50 its confidence interval. With the U-test, the results of each laboratory are interpreted considering the
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 upper critical value of Student's t distribution, usually with a 0.05 probability of exceeding the critical
4 value, and with $N-1$ degrees of freedom (where N is the number of laboratories). For both tests, Z and
5
6
7 U , and to prevent against the multiple testing issues in the statistical inference, the Benjamini-Hochberg
8
9 (BH) (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995) adjustment was performed for controlling the false discovery rate
10 (FDR). This FDR-based control has been widely used in cases where a large number of hypotheses are
11
12 simultaneously tested and has been shown to be less conservative than the Bonferroni adjustment
13
14 (Shaffer 1995).
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only

3- RESULTS

a. Shipment

A total of 39 laboratories were involved in this ILC. From the initial shipping of blood samples by the organizing laboratory (IRSN), 11 laboratories belonging to the European Union (EU) received them within a period of 24h; and 22 laboratories received them within a period of 48 h regardless of location (EU or non-EU). 4 laboratories received the blood samples after a period larger than 48 h (from 48.5 h to 68 h), and 2 laboratories did not receive the samples due to an issue with customs authorities. A new shipment for the latter 2 was made by the IRSN laboratory and it was received within 48 hours. Each package included a dosimeter and none of the recorded doses was above 0.1 mSv. Among the laboratories that received blood samples, 32 out of 33 were able to set up lymphocyte cultures and to successfully obtain chromosome spreads. Considering all participants, including the 6 labs that received coded slides with chromosome spreads, a total of 38 laboratories were able to report their results.

b. Reported Frequencies

Table 1 shows the total number of dicentric chromosomes or dicentric chromosomes plus centric rings found by each laboratory for the three evaluated samples (A, B and C). From the total 114 reported values (38 labs x 3 samples), 99 of them correspond to the analysis of around 500 cells and the other 15 values correspond to 300 analyzed cells or less (Table 1). Two laboratories submitted 2 dose-effect curves each for manual scoring, as follows: one sent curves based on different kinds of staining (Giemsa (L2) or FISH coupled with pan-telomeric and pan-centromeric probes (L2b)), and one sent curves based on chromosomal aberration scoring (dicentrics (L31) and dicentrics plus centric rings (L31b)). All the sent results have been included in the analysis to show what can happen in a real case. Indeed it is possible, whatever the cause, that a laboratory obtains a poor mitotic index, even when it is a very experienced laboratory.

TABLE 1 NEAR HERE

1
2
3 The figure 1 shows only the dicentric frequency per metaphase in order to effectively compare the same
4 frequencies to each other. For sample A (1.8 Gy), the dicentric frequencies sent by each participant
5 laboratories are shown in Figure 1A. The observed frequencies of dicentric chromosomes per cell ranged
6 from 0.10 to 0.34. The robust estimate of the mean (\pm robust standard deviation) was 0.22 ± 0.058 , and
7 the coefficient of variation (CV) was of 27%. When only RENEB laboratories were considered CV was
8 20%. Figure 1 also shows the results of the Z and U tests.
9
10
11
12
13
14
15

16
17 FIGURE 1 NEAR HERE
18
19
20

21 Z- and U-tests were only done using the frequency of reported dicentric chromosomes per metaphase
22 (Figure 1). For both tests, the BH adjustment was applied. The Z-score obtained for 97% of the labs
23 were satisfactory. Different results were obtained using the U test, where the results of 10 labs (26% of
24 labs) were unsatisfactory after BH adjustment. Evaluating separately RENEB (from L1 to L20) and non-
25 RENEB laboratories (L21 to L38), we can notice that 85% of RENEB laboratories had satisfactory U-
26 test values and among non-RENEB laboratories, only 61% showed satisfactory U-scores.
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34

35 For sample B (0 Gy), dicentric chromosome frequencies sent by each participant laboratories are shown
36 in Figure 1B. The observed frequencies of dicentric chromosomes per cell ranged from 0.0 to 0.01 and
37 the robust estimate of the mean (\pm robust standard deviation) was 0.0014 ± 0.0017 and the CV was
38 128%. The results of the Z and U tests are also shown in Figure 1B. Concerning the Z-test, the results
39 of only three participants (L14, L20 and L29) were considered unsatisfactory. 90% of the RENEB and
40 94% of the non-RENEB participants had a satisfactory Z-score. The U- test considered that all the values
41 given by the laboratories are satisfactory.
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

52 The dicentric frequencies for sample C (0.4 Gy) sent by each participant laboratories are shown in Figure
53 1C. Observed mean frequencies of dicentric chromosome per cell ranged from 0.0 to 0.08 and the robust
54 estimate of the mean (\pm robust standard deviation) was 0.025 ± 0.011 . The CV was 44%.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 As shown in Figure 1C, only one Z value was considered as unsatisfactory (L7). Therefore, 97% of the
4 participants present satisfactory Z-scores. When the U-test was applied, 2 frequencies gave
5 unsatisfactory results (L36 and L37). With the U-test, L7 was not unsatisfactory anymore as the
6 uncertainty associated with its frequency per metaphase is quite large due to the analysis of only 12
7 cells. So, 95% of the participants had a satisfactory U-score.
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15

16 c. Estimated Doses

17
18 TABLE 2 NEAR HERE
19

20
21 The second step of this intercomparison was to estimate the three delivered doses. The ILC requested
22 each laboratory to calculate the estimated doses and their associated confidence intervals, using their
23 own dose-effect curve and applying the statistical method established in their laboratory. In addition,
24 the RENEB scoring sheet requested each laboratory to indicate the coefficients and standard errors of
25 the calibration curve used (Table 2). Twenty-nine laboratories sent the coefficients of a single dose-
26 effect curve, generally constructed using gamma- or X-rays (Table 3). Four laboratories submitted 2
27 dose-effect curves each, as follows: 2 participants sent curves based on different irradiation sources
28 (gamma- (L4 and L5) and x-rays (L4b and L5b)), and the two others (L2/L2b and L31/L31b) were
29 mentioned earlier in the “reported frequencies” section. Finally, five laboratories did not have any
30 calibration curve but two of them chose to use the calibration curve data available in the last technical
31 IAEA report on biodosimetry (IAEA, 2011), as it is also an acceptable method. For the other three, as it
32 was their first time of participation to an intercomparison, they were not aware of the possibility to use
33 an established dose-effect curve. Figure 2 shows only the values from the participants that reported an
34 estimated dose.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50
51 TABLE 3 NEAR HERE
52

53
54 FIGURE 2 NEAR HERE
55

56
57 Using the values sent by each laboratory, 65% of the reported dose estimation participants include the
58 high dose (sample A) in the 95% confidence interval of their dose estimates (93% and 89% for sham
59
60

1
2
3 irradiation (sample B) and low dose (sample C), respectively). As mentioned above, each laboratory
4 calculated the absorbed doses using the program routinely used in their laboratory, and there was a great
5 heterogeneity in the calculation of the 95% confidence interval. In fact, 16 laboratories used the CABAS
6 software that only considers Poisson's error on the observed yield. 13 participants used Dose Estimate
7 software, that can consider both, the error of the curve and the error of the observed yield of dicentric
8 chromosomes applying the delta method (IAEA manual 405, 2001). Among the 13 participants which
9 used the Dose Estimate software, 11 considered the delta method, and 2 only considered the error of the
10 observed yield. As well 6 laboratories that used their own software applied a Merkle approach to
11 consider both errors (Merkle, 1983). Finally, 3 laboratories gave no results on dose estimation. Among
12 the 38 laboratories that sent results, 2 laboratories sent miscalculated doses due to typo errors. To avoid
13 the impact of this heterogeneity in Z- and U-test analysis, all the dose estimations were recalculated
14 using a single method. The method used was Merkle's approach that was proposed in the last IAEA
15 manual (IAEA, 2011). However, because covariances of the fitted coefficients of curves were not
16 previously requested, the 95% confidence intervals were calculated considering only the standard errors
17 on curve coefficients. These results are reported in Figures 3, which show 39 results each because some
18 laboratories provided 2 dose effect curves leading each to dose estimations.

19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

FIGURE 3 NEAR HERE

For the high dose (sample A), the estimated doses ranged from 1.31 to 2.51 Gy, and 90% of the participants included the delivered dose in their 95% confidence interval (Figure 3A). After applying the BH adjustment all laboratories showed satisfactory Z-scores. Using the U-test, 90% of the laboratories showed satisfactory results, 96% for RENE B and 81% for NON-RENE B participants. The CV was of 15%.

For the sham-irradiated sample (B), the estimated doses ranged from 0.0 to 0.19 Gy, and in all cases the 95% confidence intervals included the 0 Gy dose, except L35 (Figure 3B). For sample B, results cannot be analyzed using the Z-test because of the algorithm A convergence failure of the robust

1
2
3 standard deviation estimation (abundance of null values). The U-test showed that 97% of the results
4
5 were satisfactory. All RENEb and 94% of non-RENEb participants had satisfactory U-scores.
6
7

8 Results for the low dose (sample C) can be seen in Figure 3C. Estimated doses ranged from 0.24 to 1.20
9
10 Gy, and the Z-test shows unsatisfactory result for only one participant. Therefore, 97% of the
11
12 laboratories had satisfactory scores. All U-scores were satisfactory. The CV was 29%.
13
14

15
16 Importantly, we noticed a substantial heterogeneity in the calibration curves from the participants as
17
18 reported in Table 3 and Figure 4. Concerning the gamma-rays calibration curves, the lowest dose rate
19
20 was $0.04 \text{ Gy}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ (L3), and the highest $1.16 \text{ Gy}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ (L34). For calibration curves using X-rays, dose
21
22 rates ranged between $0.35 \text{ Gy}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ irradiating with X-rays of 243 kVp (L4b) and $2.5 \text{ Gy}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$
23
24 irradiating with X-rays of 6 MeV (L19). The IAEA technical report (IAEA, 2011) recommends that to
25
26 produce a dose-effect curve applicable to an acute accidental exposure the dose rate should be chosen
27
28 such that all doses are given in less than 15 min. Considering this recommendation and taking into
29
30 account that usually the highest dose used in a calibration curve is 4 or 5 Gy, a dose rate of about 0.34
31
32 $\text{Gy}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ will allow to irradiate the highest dose in less than 15 minutes. Therefore 7 laboratories (L3,
33
34 L7, L16, L22, L33 and L34) used a dose rate that is under the IAEA recommendations.
35
36
37

38
39 An alternative to reporting satisfactory result rates is to rank the results of each laboratory belonging to
40
41 the same network for a given sample based on their Z- and U-scores. Table 4 shows the differences in
42
43 ranking of the laboratories between the 2 tests.
44

45
46 TABLE 4 NEAR HERE
47

48
49 In fact, differences in scoring criteria should be balanced by the use of individual curves, which logically
50
51 includes the specific scoring criteria of each laboratory. This effect is not clearly observed in the present
52
53 study. Table 5 shows the differences of laboratory ranking from the frequency to the dose estimation by
54
55 Z-score. For example, at group level, the mean Z-score calculated for the RENEb network or the non-
56
57 RENEb group does not change as much between frequency and estimated dose. For frequency and dose
58
59 estimation, RENEb and non-RENEb laboratories were ranked based on their Z-scores, from the lower
60

1
2
3 to the higher values. The mean of the rank obtained for RENEb and non-RENEb laboratories are 17.4
4 and 21.8 respectively. This is quite the same for dose estimation, the mean of the laboratory rank based
5 on Z-scores is 18.7 for RENEb, and 21.8 for non-RENEb laboratories. It should be noted that the mean
6 dose for all laboratories is not far from the delivered dose (1.74 Gy vs 1.80 Gy).
7
8
9
10

11
12 TABLE 5 NEAR HERE
13

14
15 The curves reported for the present ILC show great variability in their calibration curve coefficients
16 (Table 2) and highlight the existing diversity among laboratories. A more visual representation of these
17 differences can be seen in figure 4. As an example, a frequency of 0.5 dicentric chromosome per
18 metaphase gives a dose of 1.80 Gy for L2b and a dose of 3.90 Gy for L9.
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 FIGURE 4 NEAR HERE.
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

4- DISCUSSION

In a mass-casualty radiological event, networks of biological dosimetry laboratories can decide to share different types of samples such as whole-blood, fixed cells, slides or metaphase images. Multiple Inter-Laboratory Comparisons (ILCs) have already tested different possibilities: blood (Roy et al. 2004; Oestreicher et al. 2017, Bakkiam et al. 2015, Romm et al. 2011, Pan 2019, and Wilkins et al. 2008); fixed cells (Roy et al. 2004); slides (Liu et al. 2016; Miller et al. 2007); or metaphase images (Garcia et al. 2013, Romm et al. 2014a and 2016). The present ILC has chosen to send whole blood to test all the steps of a biological dosimetry study (i.e. blood culture, slide preparation and staining, dicentric analysis and dose estimation).

Evaluating the shipment, 87% of the participant laboratories received the blood samples within 48h, including those outside Europe (Canada, USA, South Africa, South Korea, India and Vietnam). In addition, 97% of the laboratories were able to obtain chromosome spreads, even those that received the samples after 48h. In fact, only 6 out of 38 laboratories did not reach the 500 metaphases needed. The only laboratory that did not obtain any chromosome spreads received the blood sample in 48h. Therefore, no link could be established between sample-travel time and culture growth, and some delay in the shipment did not prevent lymphocyte growth in this study. In future ILCs it would be of interest to report the mitotic index in order to evaluate lymphocyte activation. Moreover, the impact of the shipment itself has been tested in other exercises. Particularly, in the ShipEx exercise between the Latin-American network (LDBNet) and several laboratories around the world. In this case, blood samples were also properly received and lymphocytes were able to satisfactorily grow for most of the participants (Garcia et al. 2013). The blood shipment has also been tested in other European ILCs (Beinke et al. 2013), where the same observation was made for the longest shipment times, including 96 h but this was not optimal (Oestreicher et al. 2017).

In our study, the dose received during the transport of the samples (mainly cosmic radiation and X-ray safety checks) amounted to a maximum of 0.1 mSv. In addition, only long-distance shipments were exposed to measured doses between 0.05 and 0.1 mSv. As comparison, similar exposures were reported in the ShipEx-1 exercise (Garcia et al. 2013). Thus, these dose levels can be considered negligible

1
2
3 compared to the sensitivity limits of the biological dosimetry method used. However, it seems prudent
4
5 to systematically include a dosimeter in the blood sample shipment, in case there are abnormal exposure
6
7 levels during transit safety checks. The results presented here and those previously reported (Oestreicher
8
9 et al. 2017, Wilkins et al. 2008) show that blood samples could be shared among laboratories around the
10
11 world in the event of a major radiological accident in order to perform biological dosimetry based on
12
13 chromosome aberrations.
14
15

16 17 18 **Interpretation of ILC Results**

19
20 Periodic ILCs allow the evaluation of the performance of laboratories that belong to a network. They
21
22 help to standardize practices and contribute to the improvement of the quality and robustness of the
23
24 results from such a network. One important aim of ILCs is to identify problems encountered by the
25
26 participants and define actions for improvement, such as harmonization, training and dose estimation
27
28 exercises. In biological dosimetry, the results are mainly based on the estimation of the chromosome
29
30 aberration frequency per metaphase. This value is subsequently converted into an estimated absorbed
31
32 dose using a pre-established dose-response curve specific to each laboratory. For biodosimetry
33
34 laboratories, the main goal of an ILC is to compare the results for these two values, frequency and
35
36 estimated dose, among the participant laboratories.
37
38

39
40 The objectivity of these comparisons is generally achieved through the Z- and U- score tests (Di Giorgio
41
42 et al. 2011). These two quantities evaluate, under different normalizations, the difference between the
43
44 value reported by each laboratory and a reference value considered as correct (i.e. the robust mean for
45
46 frequencies, or the delivered dose for dose estimation). In fact, the Z-Score is computed under a common
47
48 normalization based on the robust standard deviation while the U-score is computed using a laboratory
49
50 specific normalization based on the uncertainty measurement of each participant (which is highly
51
52 associated to the number of cells scored, but also to the level of exposure). Thus, these two tests give
53
54 complementary elements to interpret ILC results. In the present study, the U- and Z-scores were adjusted
55
56 using the Benjamini & Hochberg (1995) correction in order to take into account the large number of
57
58 calculated scores (at least one for each participating laboratory) and the associated increase of false
59
60

1
2
3 positive risk. Finally, by defining thresholds, one could distinguish acceptable, questionable and
4
5 unsatisfactory results. The comparison of frequencies aims to provide an overview of the state of
6
7 harmonization between the participating laboratories concerning chromosome aberration recognition.
8
9 In other words, this analysis allows the evaluation of the homogeneity among participating laboratories
10
11 concerning aberration detection and scoring criteria. From an overall perspective, with the Z-score, the
12
13 percentage of satisfactory results decreases with the level of exposure: 100%, 97% and 92% for samples
14
15 A (1.8 Gy), C (0.4 Gy), and B (non-exposed) respectively. Contrary to what the percentages of
16
17 satisfactory results might suggest, it cannot be concluded solely on the basis of the Z-score that
18
19 laboratory harmonization is worse at low doses than at high doses. The reason is that these percentages
20
21 are simply not directly comparable. In fact, the standard ISO 13528 (2015) justifies the use of the limits
22
23 “2” and “3” for the Z-score by the fact that “measurements that are carried out correctly are assumed to
24
25 generate results that can be described by a normal distribution”. Therefore, it is easy to see that the
26
27 validity of the Z-scores limits (2 and 3) is intrinsically related to the large-sample asymptotic normal
28
29 approximation of a Poisson distribution, which is usually used to describe the distribution of dicentric
30
31 chromosomes in a uniform irradiation context. The Berry-Essen Theorem (Berry 1941, Essen 1942)
32
33 provides an easy way to quantify this convergence rate which, in the case of a Poisson distribution, states
34
35 that a bound on the maximal error of the normal approximation is inversely proportional to the square
36
37 root of the product of the number of metaphases times the dicentric rate.

40
41 According to the sample A and the sample C aberration rates per cell (approximately 0.2 and 0.02
42
43 respectively), this implies that 5000 analyzed metaphases are needed for the low dose (sample C) to
44
45 achieve the normal approximation precision after analyzing 500 metaphases of the high dose (sample
46
47 A). In other words, by fixing the number of analyzed metaphases to 500 for all investigated doses, the
48
49 corresponding Z-score distributions are significantly different in terms of normal approximation,
50
51 making it inappropriate to have common satisfactory/unsatisfactory thresholds (here 2 and 3).

53
54 The same conclusion can be made for the U-score, even though it gives opposite results. With the U-
55
56 test, the percentage of satisfactory results decreases when the sample dose increases: 100% for non-
57
58 irradiated sample (dose B), 95% for 0.4 Gy (dose C) and 74% for 1.8 Gy (dose A). Once again, and for
59
60

1
2
3 the same reasons explained above for the Z-scores, it would be erroneous to conclude that laboratory
4 harmonization is worsening as the dose to be estimated increases.
5

6
7 An alternative to reporting satisfactory result rates is to rank the results of each laboratory belonging to
8 the same network for a given sample based on their Z- and U-scores. As explained above, the
9 methodology underlying the Z- and the U-score is not the same and the analysis of the ranking obtained
10 with each one should be interpreted in light of these differences. The Z-score ranks the laboratories
11 based on the distance between the value reported by each of them and the reference frequency (i.e. the
12 robust mean of all reported frequencies). Basically, the farther you are from this average value
13 representative of the group, the lower you are ranked. A disadvantage of this method is that two
14 laboratories that report the same mean frequency will have the same score, even if one of them has a
15 larger uncertainty for the measurement. This can be illustrated by comparing the Z-score of L6 and L7
16 for sample A. The two laboratories obtained a Z score very similar (0.34 and 0.28) as their reported
17 frequencies for sample A are similar (Table 4). However, the frequency of L7 has a much higher
18 uncertainty due to the low number of scored metaphases, and it can be considered less reliable than the
19 result of L6, which is not reflected in the Z-score ranking. The U-score makes it possible to account for
20 this difference between the 2 laboratories, but not in the direction that one would expect. In fact, the U
21 score for L7 (0.12), is lower than for L6 (0.86). Therefore, when performing the U-test for two
22 laboratories with similar frequencies, one of them can be better ranked because of its large uncertainty.
23 Because the number of dicentric chromosomes that can be detected will depend on the delivered dose
24 and on the number of cells analyzed, these two tests should be used carefully when ILC frequencies of
25 detected aberrations are considered. It seems more reasonable to use these tests to evaluate the level of
26 harmonization between laboratories, or networks of laboratories, rather than to evaluate each
27 laboratory's performance. The present RENEb ILC involves laboratories belonging to different groups
28 (RENEb network and non-RENEb participants) that have independently harmonized dicentric
29 chromosome scoring. In the present ILC, RENEb laboratories constitute half of the participants and
30 most of them have already participated to several ILCs (Oestreicher et al. 2017, Jaworska et al. 2015,
31 Romm et al. 2014a, Ainsbury et al. 2014). This has a strong effect in the robust mean and robust standard
32 deviation considered as reference values.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The global analysis of frequencies by Z-score and U-score as presented in Table 4 can lead to
4 misinterpretations. As mentioned above, the real interest of the frequency analysis is to evaluate the
5 level of harmonization in the recognition of dicentric chromosomes. The present study involving 38
6 laboratories around the world that do not belong to the same network, or do not even belong to a network,
7 necessarily highlights an expected heterogeneity in the results, which is not very surprising or
8 informative. It might be of interest to focus on a sub-group of laboratories that have worked to harmonize
9 themselves, and to assess the gain associated with this harmonization process.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19

20 TABLE 6 NEAR HERE
21
22
23

24 Table 6 presents the results for sample A and for the Z-score analysis performed only on the 20
25 laboratories belonging to the RENE network. Within this group, the robust coefficient of variation is
26 20.1%, with 3 labs (15% of all RENE labs) showing questionable results (L11, L18 and L3). If these
27 3 laboratories are excluded, the coefficient of variation calculated from the frequencies obtained by the
28 remaining 85% of the laboratories is around 15%. These values can then be compared to the expected
29 value for the coefficient of variation which can be obtained by simulating 20 or 17 chromosome
30 aberration frequency estimates following a Poisson distribution with a parameter (λ) equal to the
31 robust means observed on the RENE subgroup, and taking into account the respective numbers of
32 metaphases scored by each laboratory. Then, the median value of these "theoretical" coefficients of
33 variation is 13.5% with 95% confidence interval of [7.7% - 27.4%]. This means that, due to the
34 stochastic nature of the measures, 20 laboratories involved in a "fully harmonized" ILC situation is
35 expected to obtain, in median, a coefficient of variation of 13.5%. Thus, the dispersion of the values
36 obtained for the RENE network, 20% or 15% is included within the 95% confidence interval of the
37 "theoretical" coefficient of variation and close to the median "theoretical" value of 13.5%. In
38 comparison, the robust coefficient of variation obtained for all 38 laboratories is 26.7%, and if only the
39 non-RENE laboratories are considered, the dispersion reaches a value of 36.5%. This shows that an
40 intercomparison analysis based on chromosomal aberration frequencies only makes sense among
41 laboratories that are involved in a common effort of harmonization. This should not be interpreted as a
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 better proficiency of a specific network in detecting dicentric chromosomes with respect to another, but
4 as a reflection of different ways of harmonization.
5
6
7
8

9 In conclusion, although Z- and U- tests are accepted methods to assess laboratory performance in
10 metrology (ISO 13528 2015), they are not ideal for ILCs. To this day, no commonly used tool proves to
11 be fully adapted and relevant to the needs of ILCs that are based on the frequency of radiation-induced
12 dicentric chromosomes per metaphase. To mitigate this deficiency, it seems appropriate for the
13 reliability of future ILCs to focus on radiation doses that are able to generate enough dicentric
14 chromosomes for 500 analyzed cells. This would limit the impact of Poisson uncertainties on the ILC
15 results. In addition, it seems essential to only include in the intercomparison analysis those laboratories
16 that have analyzed the requested number of metaphases, and to exclude those that have not, thus
17 allowing a comparison with an equivalent Poisson uncertainty. Otherwise, a comparison of results from
18 all participants appears hazardous. Additionally, one should consider that ILCs may include laboratories
19 from different networks that could have their own harmonized way of scoring dicentric chromosomes.
20 This could lead to questionable or unsatisfactory results because of different scoring criteria, and it
21 should not be interpreted as bad performance, but as a lack of harmonization among all the participating
22 laboratories.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 While ILCs based on the frequency evaluate the level of harmonization of scoring criteria,
40 intercomparisons based on estimated doses involve additional elements to be taken into account when
41 analyzing the results. One is the dose-effect curve required to estimate a dose from the observed
42 frequency, of which most of the participant laboratories have their own. It is widely accepted that in
43 ILCs, better results are generally obtained with estimated doses than with observed frequencies (Di
44 Giorgio et al. 2011). In fact, differences in scoring criteria should be balanced by the use of individual
45 curves, which logically includes the specific scoring criteria of each laboratory. This effect is not clearly
46 observed in the present study. For example, at group level, the mean Z-score calculated for the RENE
47 network or the non-RENEB group does not change as much between frequency and estimated dose. For
48 frequency, the mean rank based on the Z-scores obtained for RENE and non-RENEB laboratories are
49 17.4 and 21.8 respectively. This is quite the same for dose estimation, the mean rank based on the Z-
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 scores are 18.7 for RENEb, and 21.8 for non-RENEb. This is confirmed at the laboratory level, as
4
5 drastic changes in Z-score ranking (gain or loss of more than 15 places) between frequency and dose
6
7 estimation are limited to a minority of laboratories (Table 5). This is the case for L18, which
8
9 systematically improves its Z-score by more than 1.5 points between frequency and estimated dose (a
10
11 progress of 25 ranking places). Inversely, L9 gained more than 2 Z-score points when its dose-effect
12
13 curve was used to convert its chromosome aberration frequency to an estimated dose (a 35-row drop in
14
15 the overall ranking).
16

17
18 It is interesting to note that, although these changes in results between frequency and dose are small in
19
20 magnitude for most laboratories, globally, they are quite unfavorable. In fact, an increase of the Z-score
21
22 is observed for the majority of participants (58% for the high dose, sample A and 55% for the low dose,
23
24 sample C) when estimated doses are considered. Indeed, for the high dose, a mean loss of 2 ranks per
25
26 lab were observed between the ranking obtained for frequency and the one obtained for dose estimation.
27
28 This could indicate that the dose-effect curves include biases that prevent them from positively
29
30 compensating for differences in scoring criteria. The curves reported for the present ILC show great
31
32 variability in their calibration curve coefficients (table 2) and highlight the existing diversity among
33
34 laboratories. A more visual representation of these differences can be seen in figure 4.
35

36
37 The above-mentioned differences have multiple origins such as the number of dose points used to
38
39 calibrate the curve, the number of metaphases analyzed at each dose point, the dose-rate and the radiation
40
41 source (X- or gamma-rays). Another source of uncertainty is the way that the delivered doses were
42
43 calculated (Trompier et al, 2017). Briefly, depending on the radiation source, X-or gamma-rays, and
44
45 their energy, the calculation of the delivered dose to the samples can be based on air Kerma or dose to
46
47 water. Depending on the overall energy of the source, this could lead to different absorbed dose values
48
49 for the same irradiation. Consequently, this can impact the result of the dose estimation in an ILC if the
50
51 doses of a given dose-effect curve are not calibrated the same way than the dose delivered to the analyzed
52
53 sample. It is important to mention that usually in biodosimetry laboratories, all these details are not very
54
55 well traced. Furthermore, there are no minimum criteria for defining whether or not a dose-response
56
57 curve is acceptable for use in a given intercomparison. Currently, and in most of ILCs, calibration curves
58
59 from all participants are used, regardless of the way they are built. In fact, 7 laboratories reported dose
60

1
2
3 effect curves that were built using a dose rate too low to fully respect the IAEA recommendations
4 concerning how to build a dose effect curve applicable to an acute exposure. This point must absolutely
5 be considered for future intercomparisons as it has a very strong impact on the interpretability of the
6 results and on the identification of improvement areas for a specific network. Additionally, evolution in
7 the scoring criteria within a laboratory over the time elapsed between the calibration curve establishment
8 and the present intercomparison may lead to additional uncertainty in the dose assessment. In fact,
9 scorers are changing over the time so there is a need for periodical harmonization. Another important
10 issue is how the participation in intercomparisons have modified the scoring criteria and so the dose-
11 effect curve. This is particularly important if the dose-effect curves were produced prior to the
12 harmonization work carried out within the RENEb network.

13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24 One more issue brought forward by this intercomparison was the lack of homogeneity in the calculation
25 of the uncertainties associated to the doses reported by the participants. In fact, there are different
26 generally accepted ways to estimate a dose and its associated uncertainties, as several calculation
27 software programs are available (CABAS, Dose Estimate and Microsoft Excel-based spreadsheets).
28 Considering that these tools do not implement the same methodologies to calculate uncertainties, it made
29 it difficult to compare the raw reported values because they were not calculated in a homogenous
30 manner. In the present study, the estimated doses and uncertainties initially sent by participants were
31 calculated by each laboratory using their own methods. This led to a great heterogeneity in the reported
32 values and in the reported curve coefficients, which further complicated their interpretation in the
33 context of an intercomparison. For this reason, all dose estimates were re-calculated using the reported
34 frequencies and their own dose-response curves using the method described by Merkle et al (1983) and
35 mentioned in the IAEA manual (2011). For future ILCs, it seems essential to clearly define the
36 methodology to be applied by the laboratories for the calculation of the dose and the associated
37 uncertainties. To go further, the implementation of a single integrated and open-ended tool available to
38 the participants seems to be relevant. This was the strategy adopted by the RENEb association, through
39 the development of BiodoseTools, a software based on R with a Shiny interface
40 (<https://github.com/biodosetools-team/biodosetools>).

5- CONCLUSION AND PERSPECTIVES

Standardization of chromosomal aberration scoring during the various European projects (MULTIBIODOSE and RENEB) has improved results of dose assessment in ILC exercises (Jaworska et al. 2015, Oestreicher et al. 2017). The present work demonstrates that harmonized and trained networks such as RENEB (in terms of chromosomal aberration scoring) obtain better results than a non-harmonized group. This is illustrated by the high level of satisfactory results obtained either in frequency or dose by L1-L20 when using classical intercomparison analysis tools, such as the Z-score and its associated decision thresholds. However, one cannot conclude that RENEB laboratories are fully harmonized, not only for those non-satisfactory results but also by the statistical tools used. These statistical tools appear to be limited and are not able to advantageously exploit the richness of results from large intercomparisons. At present, these tools do not allow a fine diagnosis of laboratory performance, neither do they serve as new avenues for improvement for the network of laboratories. For example, it would seem interesting to be able to easily discriminate results such as those obtained by the L5, L7 and L9, which intuitively do not seem equivalent, but are considered as such by looking at their Z- and U-scores. After this first stage of harmonization using these tools, the use of other approaches to test laboratory performance in future intercomparisons seems to be necessary. Solutions based on the bias-variance trade-off are currently being explored.

Another issue highlighted by this ILC is the question of the infinite diversity of dose-effect curves. It clearly appears that, despite the initial advantage of including the scoring specificities of each laboratory, the lack of recommendations and minimum criteria to evaluate the robustness of each laboratory's curve seems to be a negative point for the model of "a curve per lab". The construction of a robust curve is a long-term procedure, which should be part of a constant and dynamic evolution process in order to take into account the changes occurring over time in the laboratories, or the evolutions inherent to the process of harmonization of a network. In addition, the relevance of a dose-effect curve established 25 or 30 years ago by members who are no longer present in a given laboratory is questionable. By definition, the process of harmonization would generate a change in practices and may raise questions about the validity of a pre-existing dose-response curve. One of the main advantages of a large laboratory network

1
2
3 is its power in terms of data production. The present intercomparison generated the analysis of a striking
4
5 20,000 different metaphases per dose. When harmonization of practices is achieved, such a network
6
7 could build an extremely robust dose-response curve in just 2 or 3 intercomparisons. This would also
8
9 have the advantage of consolidating practices in terms of calculating coefficients and the associated
10
11 uncertainties, making it a strategy that should be seriously considered in large.

12
13
14 Finally, and in the same spirit of unification, it seems relevant to develop tools that are better adapted to
15
16 the collection and processing of results produced by the various participant laboratories. For the moment,
17
18 this collection happens at a relatively small-scale (notably through the exchange of spreadsheet files).
19
20 The coupling of tools such as BiodoseTools and web portals for collecting results seems to be
21
22 particularly promising, both in terms of definition and application of the methodologies necessary for
23
24 their processing (in particular, the calculation of uncertainties), but also in terms of the reliability
25
26 associated with the traceability of results.
27
28

29
30 After a first harmonization phase lasting more than ten years (Kulka et al. 2017, Oestreicher et al. 2017,
31
32 Gregoire et al. 2017), and even if there is still room for improvement, the level of harmonization reached
33
34 by RENEb members definitely confirms the operational value of international networks of biological
35
36 dosimetry laboratories, particularly in the case of large-scale radiological accidents.
37
38
39
40
41

42 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS & DISCLAIMERS

43
44
45 One author's (WFB) efforts in this study was funded by AFRRI's intramural protocols RBB44313 and
46
47 AFR-B4-4313. The author (WFB) wishes to thank Uma Subramanian and Dr David L. Bolduc for their
48
49 contributions in this study. The opinions and assertions expressed herein are those of the author (WFB)
50
51 and do not necessarily reflect the official policy or position of the Uniformed Services University of the
52
53 Health Sciences or the United States Department of Defense. The research protocol was reviewed and
54
55 approved by the USUHS IRB Committee in accordance with all Federal regulations governing the
56
57 protection of humans in research.
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6 DISCLOSURE STATEMENT
7
8

9 No conflict of interest was reported by the authors
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Ainsbury E, Livingston GK, Abbott MG, Moquet JE, Hone PA, Jenkins MS, Christensen DM, Lloyd DC and Rothkamm K. Interlaboratory variation in scoring dicentric chromosomes in a case of partial-body x-ray exposure: implications for biodosimetry networking and cytogenetic “trriage mode” scoring. 2009. *Radiat Res.* 172:746–752.
2. Ainsbury EA and Lloyd DC. 2010. Dose estimation software for radiation biodosimetry. *Health Phys.* 98:290–295.
3. Ainsbury EA, Al-Hafidh J, Bajinskis A, Barnard S, Barquinero JF, Beinke C, de Gelder V, Gregoire E, Jaworska A, Lindholm C, Lloyd D, Moquet J, Nylund R, Oestreicher U, Roch-Lefèvre S, Rothkamm K, Romm H, Scherthan H, Sommer S, Thierens H, Vandevoorde C, Vral A and Wojcik A. 2014 Feb. Inter- and intra-laboratory comparison of a multibiodosimetric approach to triage in a simulated, large scale radiation emergency. *Int J Rad Biol.* 90:193–202.
4. Bakkiam D, Bhavani M, Anantha Kumar AA, Sonwani S, Venkatachalam P, Sivasubramanian K and Venkatraman B. 2015. Dicentric assay: inter-laboratory comparison in Indian laboratories for routine and triage applications. *Appl Radiat Isot.* 99:77–85.
5. Bhavani M, Tamizh Selvan G, Kaur H, Adhikari JS, Vijayalakshmi J, Venkatachalam P, Chaudhury NK. 2014. Dicentric chromosome aberration analysis using giemsa and centromere specific fluorescence in-situ hybridization for biological dosimetry: An inter- and intra-laboratory comparison in Indian laboratories. *Appl Radiat Isot.* 92:85–90.
6. Beinke C, Oestreicher U, Riecke A, Kulka U, Meineke V, Romm H. Inter-laboratory comparison to validate the dicentric assay as a cytogenetic triage tool for medical management of radiation accidents. 2011. *Radiat Meas.* 46:929-935.
7. Beinke C, Barnard S, Boulay-Greene H, De Amicis A, De Sanctis S, Herodin F, Jones A, Kulka U, Lista F, Lloyd D, Martigne P, Moquet J, Oestreicher U, Romm H, Rothkamm K, Valente M, Meineke V, Braselmann H and Abend M. 2013. NATO dosimetry study Laboratory Intercomparison of the Dicentric Chromosome Analysis Assay. *Radiat Res.* 180:129–137.

- 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 4
 - 5
 - 6
 - 7
 - 8
 - 9
 - 10
 - 11
 - 12
 - 13
 - 14
 - 15
 - 16
 - 17
 - 18
 - 19
 - 20
 - 21
 - 22
 - 23
 - 24
 - 25
 - 26
 - 27
 - 28
 - 29
 - 30
 - 31
 - 32
 - 33
 - 34
 - 35
 - 36
 - 37
 - 38
 - 39
 - 40
 - 41
 - 42
 - 43
 - 44
 - 45
 - 46
 - 47
 - 48
 - 49
 - 50
 - 51
 - 52
 - 53
 - 54
 - 55
 - 56
 - 57
 - 58
 - 59
 - 60
8. Benjamini Y and Hochberg Y. 1995. Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. *J R Stat Soc Series B Stat (Methodol)*. 57(1):289-300.
9. Berry AC. 1941. The accuracy of the Gaussian approximation to the sum of independent variates. *Trans. Amer. Math. Soc.* 49(1):122-136.
10. Christie DH, Chu MC and Carr Z. 2010. Global networking for biodosimetry laboratory capacity surge in radiation emergencies. *Health Phys.* 98:168–17.
11. Deperas J, Szluinska M, Deperas-Kaminska M, Edwards A, Lloyd D, Lindholm C, Romm H, Roy L, Moss R, Morand J, Wojcik A. 2007. CABAS: a freely available PC program for fitting calibration curves in chromosome aberration dosimetry. *Radiat Protect Dosimetry*. 124:115–123.
12. Di Giorgio M, Barquinero JF, Vallerga MB, Radl A, Taja MR, Seoane A, De Luca J, Stuck Oliveira M, Valdivia P, Garcia Lima O, Lamadrid A, Gonzalez Mesa J, Romero Aguilera I, Mandina Cardoso T, Guerrero Carvajal YC, Arceo Maldonado C, Espinoza ME, Martinez-Lopez W, Mendez-Acuna L, Di Tomaso MV, Roy L, Lindholm C, Romm H, Guclu I and Lloyd D. 2011. Biological dosimetry intercomparison exercise: an evaluation of triage and routine mode results by robust methods. *Radiat Res.* 175:638–649.
13. Esseen CG. 1942. On the Liapunoff limit of error in the theory of probability. *Arkiv for Matematik Astronomi och Fysik.* A28 (9):1-19.
14. Garcia O, Di Giorgio M, Vallerga MB, Radl A, Taja MR, Seoane A, De Luca J, Stuck Oliveira M, Valdivia P, Lamadrid AI, Gonzalez JE, Romero I, Mandina T, Pantelias G, Terzoudi G, Guerrero-Carbajal C, Arceo Maldonado C, Espinoza M, Oliveros N, Martinez-Lopez W, Di Tomaso MV, Mendez-Acuna L, Puig R, Roy L and Barquinero JF. 2013. Interlaboratory comparison of dicentric chromosome assay using electronically transmitted images. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry*. 154(1):18–25.
15. Gregoire E, Kulka U, Barrios L, Ainsbury E, Bassinet C, Fattibene P, Oestreicher U, Pantelias, G, Terzoudi G, Trompier F, Voisin P, Vral A, Wojcik A and Roy L. 2017 Jan. The harmonization process to set up and maintain an operational biological dosimetry and physical retrospective dosimetry network: QA QM applied to the RENE network. *Int J Rad Biol.* 93(1): 81-86.
16. International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). 2001. Manual 405 Vienna: IAEA
17. International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). 2011. Cytogenetic dosimetry: applications in preparedness for and response to radiation emergencies. Vienna: IAEA.

18. International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 13528: 2015. Statistical methods for use in proficiency testing by interlaboratory comparison.
19. International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 5725. 1998. Precision of test methods- determination of repeatability & reproducibility for a standard test method by interlaboratory tests..
20. International Organization for Standardization (ISO). 19238. 2014. Radiation protection- performance criteria for service laboratories performing biological dosimetry by cytogenetics. Geneva: ISO.
21. Jaworska A, Ainsbury EA, Fattibene P, Lindholm C, Oestreicher U, Rothkamm K, Romm H, Thierens H, Trompier F, Voisin P, Vral A, Woda C and Wojcik A. 2015 Apr. Operational guidance for radiation emergency response organizations in Europe for using biodosimetric tools developed in EU MULTIBIODOSE project. *Radiat Protect Dosimetry*. 164:1–5.
22. Kulka U, Ainsbury, EA, Atkinson M, Barquinero JF, Barrios L, Beinke C, Bognar G, Cucu A, Darroudi F, Fattibene P, Gil O, Gregoire E, Hadjidekova V, Haghdoost, Herranz R, Jaworska A, Lindholm C, M'kacher R, Möertl S, Montoro A, Moquet J, Moreno M, Ogbazghi A, Oestreicher U, Palitti F, Pantelias G, Popescu I, Prieto MJ, Romm H, Rothkamm K, Sabatier L, Sommer S, Terzoudi G, Testa A, Thierens H, Trompier F, Turai I, Vandesickel V, Vaz P, Voisin P, Vral A, Ugletveit F, Woda C and Wojcik A. Realising the European network of biodosimetry (RENEB). 2012. *Radiat. Prot. Dosimetry*. 151(4): 621-625.
23. Kulka U, Ainsbury, EA, Atkinson M, Barnard S, Smith R, Barquinero JF, Barrios L, Bassinet C, Beinke C, Cucu A, Darroudi F, Fattibene P, Bortolin F, Della Monaca S, Gil O, Gregoire E, Hadjidekova V, Haghdoost S, Hatzi V, Hempel W, Herranz R, Jaworska A, Lindholm C, Lumniczky K, M'kacher R, Möertl S, Montoro A, Moquet J, Moreno M, Noditi M, Ogbazghi A, Oestreicher U, Palitti F, Pantelias G, Popescu I, Prieto MJ, Roch-Lefèvre S, Roessler U, Romm H, Rothkamm K, Sabatier L, Sebastia N, Sommer S, Terzoudi G, Testa A, Thierens H, Trompier F, Turai I, Vandevoorde C, Vaz P, Voisin P, Vral A, Ugletveit F, Wieser A, Woda C and Wojcik A. Realising the European network of biodosimetry: RENEB-status quo. 2015. *Radiat. Prot. Dosimetry*. 164:42–45.
24. Kulka U, Abend M, Ainsbury E, Badie C, Barquinero JF, Barrios L, Beinke C, Bortolin E, Cucu A, De Amicis A, Dominguez I, Fattibene P, Frovig AM, Gregoire E, Guogyte K, Hadjidekova V, Jaworska A, Kriehuber R, Lindholm C, Lloyd D, Lumniczky K, Lyng F, Meschini R, Mörtl S, Della

- 1
2
3 Monaca S, Monteiro Gil O, Montoro A, Moquet J, Moreno M, Oestreicher U, Palitti F, Pantelias G,
4 Patrono C, Piqueret-Stephan L, Port M, Prieto MJ, Quintens R, Ricoul M, Romm H, Roy L, Sáfrány
5 G, Sabatier L, Sebastià N, Sommer S, Terzoudi G, Testa A, Thierens H, Turai I, Trompier F, Valente
6 M, Vaz P, Voisin P, Vral A, Woda C, Zafiroopoulos D and Wojcik A. 2017. RENEb – Running the
7 European Network of biological dosimetry and physical retrospective dosimetry. *Int J Rad Biol.*
8 93(1):2-14.
9
10
11
12
13
14
15 25. Liu JX, Pan Y, Ruan JL, Piao C, Su X. 2016. Intercomparison in cytogenetic dosimetry among 22
16 laboratories in China. *Genome Integr.* 7:6.
17
18
19 26. Lloyd DC, Edwards AA, Moquet JE, Guerrero-Carbajal YC. 2000. The role of cytogenetics in early
20 triage of radiation casualties. *Appl Radiat Isot.* 52:1107-1112.
21
22
23 27. Merkle W. 1983. Statistical methods in regression and calibration analysis of chromosome aberration
24 data. *Radiat Environ Biophys.* 21(3):217–233.
25
26
27 28. Miller SM, Ferrarotto CL, Vlahovich S, Wilkins RC, Boreham DR and Dolling J A. 2007. Canadian
28 cytogenetic emergency network (CEN) for biological dosimetry following radiological/nuclear
29 accidents. *Int J Rad Biol.* 83:471–477.
30
31
32 29. Oestreicher U, Samaga D, Ainsbury E, Antunes AC, Baeyens A, Barrios L, Beinke C, Beukes P,
33 Blakely WF, Cucu A, De Amicis A, Depuydt J, De Sanctis S, Di Giorgio M, Dobos K, Dominguez
34 I, Ngoc Duy P, Espinoza ME, Flegal FN, Figel M, Garcia O, Monteiro Gil O, Gregoire E, Guerrero-
35 Carbajal C, Güçlü İ, Hadjidekova V, Hande P, Kulka U, Lemon J, Lindholm C, Lista F, Lumniczky
36 K, Martinez-Lopez W, Maznyk N, Meschini R, M'kacher R, Montoro A, Moquet J, Moreno M,
37 Noditi M, Pajic J, Radl A, Ricoul M, Romm H, Roy L, Sabatier L, Sebastià N, Slabbert J, Sommer
38 S, Stuck Oliveira M, Subramanian U, Suto Y, Que T, Testa A, Terzoudi G, Vral A, Wilkins R, Yanti
39 LY, Zafiroopoulos D and Wojcik A. 2017. RENEb intercomparisons applying the conventional
40 Dicentric Chromosome Assay (DCA). *Int J Rad Biol.* 93(1):20-29.
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49 30. Pan Y, Ruan J, Gao G, Wu L, Piao C, and Liu J. 2019 Jan-Mar. Laboratory intercomparison of
50 cytogenetic dosimetry among 38 laboratories in china. *Dose-Response.* 17(1):1-7.
51
52
53 31. Romm H, Wilkins RC, Coleman CN, Lillis-Hearne PK, Pellmar TC, Livingston GK, Awa AA,
54 Jenkins MS, Yoshida MA, Oestreicher U and Prasanna PGS. 2011. Biological dosimetry by the triage
55 dicentric chromosome assay: potential implications for treatment of acute radiation syndrome in
56 radiological mass casualties. *Radiat Res.* 175:397–404.
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 32. Romm H, Ainsbury E, Bajinskis A, Barnard S, Barquinero JF, Beinke C, Puig-Casanovas R,
4 Deperas-Kaminska M, Gregoire E, Kulka U, Oestreicher U, Lindholm C, Moquet J, Rothkamm K,
5 Sommer S, Thierens H, Vral A, Vandersickel V, Wojcik A. 2014a. Web-based scoring of the
6 dicentric assay, a collaborative biodosimetric scoring strategy for population triage in large scale
7 radiation accidents. *Radiat Environ Biophys.* 53(2):241-254.
8
9
10
11
12 33. Romm H, Ainsbury E, Barnard S, Barrios L, Barquinero JF, Beinke C, Deperas M, Gregoire E,
13 Koivistoinen A, Lindholm C, Moquet J, Oestreicher U, Puig R, Rothkamm K, Sommer S, Thierens
14 H, Vandersickel V, Vral A, Wojcik A. 2014b June. Validation of semi-automatic scoring of dicentric
15 chromosomes after simulation of three different irradiation scenarios, *Health Phys.* 106(6):764-71.
16
17
18 34. Romm H, Beinke C, Garcia O, Di Giorgio M, Gregoire E, Livingston G, Lloyd D, Martinez-Lopez
19 W, Moquet JE, Sugarman SL, Wilkins RC and Ainsbury EA. 2016. A new cytogenetic biodosimetry
20 image repository for the dicentric assay. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry.* 172(1-3): 192–200
21
22
23
24
25 35. Roy L, Buard V, Delbos M, Durand V, Paillole N, Gregoire E and Voisin P. 2004. International
26 intercomparison for criticality dosimetry: the case of biological dosimetry. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry.*
27 110(1-4):471–476.
28
29
30
31 36. Shaffer JP. 1995. Multiple hypothesis testing. *Annual Review of Psychology.* 46:561-584.
32
33
34 37. Trompier F, Baumann M, Barrios L, Gregoire E, Abend M, Ainsbury E, Barnard S, Barquinero JF,
35 Bautista JA, Brzozowska B, Perez-Calatayud J, De Angelis C, Domínguez I, Hadjidekova V, Kulka
36 U, Mateos JC, Meschini R, Monteiro Gil O, Moquet J, Oestreicher U, Montoro Pastor A, Quintens
37 R, Sebastià N, Sommer S, Stoyanov O, Thierens H, Terzoudi G, Villaescusa JI, Vral A, Wojcik A,
38 Zafiroopoulos D and Roy L. 2017 Jan. Investigation of the influence of calibration practices on
39 cytogenetic laboratory performance for dose estimation. *Int J Rad Biol.* 93(1):118-126.
40
41
42
43 38. Vaurijoux A, Gruel G, Gregoire E, Roch-Lefevre S, Voisin Pa, Martin C, Voisin Ph, Roy L,
44 Barquinero JF. 2015. Automatic dicentric scoring a real option to be used in biological dosimetry.
45 *Rad Emerg Med.* 4:16-21.
46
47
48
49 39. Voisin P. Standards in biological dosimetry: A requirement to perform an appropriate dose
50 assessment. 2015. *Mutat Res.* 793:115–122.
51
52
53
54 40. Wilkins R, Romm H, Kao TC, Awa AA, Yoshida MA, Livingston GK, Jenkins MS, Oestreicher U,
55 Pellmar TC, and Prasanna PGS. 2008. Interlaboratory comparison of the dicentric chromosome assay
56 for radiation biodosimetry in mass casualty events. *Radiat Res.* 169(5):551-560.
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 41. Wilkins RC, Romm H, Oestreicher U, Marro L, Yoshida M A, Suto Y, and Prasanna PGS. 2011
4
5 Sept. Biological dosimetry by the triage dicentric chromosome assay – further validation of
6
7 international networking. *Radiat Meas.* 46(9): 923–928.
8
9 42. Wojcik A, Lloyd D, Romm H and Roy L, Biological dosimetry for triage of casualties in a large-
10
11 scale radiological emergency: capacity of the EU member states. 2010. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry.*
12
13 138(4):397–401.
14
15 43. Yoshida MA, Hayata I, Tateno H, Tanaka K, Sonta S, Kodama S, Kodama Y and Sasaki MS. 2007.
16
17 The chromosome network for biodosimetry in Japan. *Radiat Meas.* 42:1125–1127.
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figures and Tables Legends

Table 1. Reported scoring values from each laboratory; dicentric (dic) and dicentric plus ring (dic+r). In italics, reported values that did not include the cell distribution of aberrations. L1 to L20 are RENEb members and L21 to L38 are non-RENEb group. *L2 and L2b represent different kinds of staining (Giemsa (L2) or FISH coupled with pan-telomeric and pan-centromeric probes (L2b)). **L31 and L31b represent chromosomal aberration scoring (dicentrics (L31) and dicentrics plus rings (L31b)).

Figure 1: Dicentric frequencies per metaphase for sample A (A), sample B (B) and sample C (C) from each of the participant laboratories. Triangles represent the dicentric frequency per metaphase obtained by each laboratory for sample A (A), sample B (B) and sample C (C). The solid black line is the robust mean when laboratories reported the dicentric frequency per metaphase. Dashed lines mark the 95% confidence interval of the robust mean. Z- and U-scores were calculated with a Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment. Stars denote an unsatisfactory U-score and circles denote an unsatisfactory Z score. RENEb laboratories are within the grey rectangle.

Table 2. Calibration curve coefficients of the participant laboratories. NA: Not Available. These laboratories have no dose-effect curve. Some laboratories did not include standard deviations for the coefficients (\pm NA). *L2 and L2b represent different kinds of staining (Giemsa (L2) or FISH coupled with pan-telomeric and pan-centromeric probes (L2b)). **L4/L5 and L4b/L5b represent calibration curves based on different irradiation sources (gamma- (L4 and L5) and x-rays (L4b and L5b)). ***L31 and L31b represent chromosomal aberration scoring (dicentrics (L31) and dicentrics plus rings (L31b)). L1 to L20 are RENEb members and L21 to L38 are non-RENEb group.

Table 3: Source and dose rate used by the laboratories for their calibration curve.

* : L2 used Giemsa for dicentric chromosomes and centric rings staining, and L2b used TC-FISH for dicentric chromosomes and centric rings staining. ** : L31 scored only dicentric chromosomes to

1
2
3 build its curve and L31b scored dicentric chromosomes and centric rings to build its curve. L1 to L20
4 are RENEb members and L21 to L38 are non-RENEb group. NP : Not Provided
5
6
7

8 **Figure 2: Dose estimations sent by the participant laboratories for samples A, B, C.** Solid circles
9 represent the dose estimation based on the total number of metaphases analyzed. Some laboratories
10 sent two estimated doses for each sample, which are represented by open triangles. Error bars
11 correspond to the reported 95% confidence interval. The horizontal line represents the delivered
12 physical dose to the blood.
13
14
15
16
17
18

19 **Figure 3: Re-calculated doses by the IRSN based on Merckle's approach and using each**
20 **laboratory's own curve coefficients for sample A (3A), sample B (3B) and sample C (3C).**
21
22
23

24 Diamonds represent the average dose obtained and error bars correspond to the 95% confidence
25 interval of the estimated dose. Values considered as unsatisfactory by the U-test are indicated with a
26 star. Unsatisfactory results by the Z-test are indicated with a circle. RENEb laboratories are within the
27 grey rectangle.
28
29
30
31
32

33 **Table 4: Laboratory ranking by Z-Score (A) and by U-Score (B).** a : CA Frequency : Frequency of
34 chromosomal aberrations (dicentric chromosomes per cell).
35
36
37

38 **Table 5: Comparison of laboratory rankings between the Z-score obtained for dicentric**
39 **frequency per metaphase and the Z-score obtained for assessed dose.** Rectangles show the
40 laboratories whose rank changes the most between frequency and dose. L9 is highlighted by a solid
41 line rectangle and L18 is highlighted by a dashed line rectangle. L36, L37 and L38 are not present in
42 the dose column since they did not provide dose estimations. L4b, L5b and L31b are present only in
43 the dose column because the dicentric frequencies are similar within the same laboratory (L4/L4b ;
44 L5/L5b ; L31/L31b). NA: Not Available: The Z-score for L2b was not calculated because the staining
45 technique (TC-FISH) was different from the rest (GIEMSA staining) and thus could not be compared
46 using this test.
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57

58 **Figure 4: Calibration curves of the Inter-Laboratory Comparison participants.** The horizontal
59 line represents the frequency of 0.5 dicentric chromosomes or dicentrics + centric rings per metaphase
60

1
2
3 and the grey vertical lines indicate the mean estimated dose obtained with the two most distant curves.
4

5 The dashed curve, indicated by an arrow, is that of the IAEA manual (IAEA 2011).
6
7

8 **Table 6: Comparison of robust values among laboratory categories.** \bar{x} , s and CV correspond
9
10 respectively to the calculated robust mean, robust standard deviation and robust coefficient of
11
12 variation calculated.
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Laboratory	SAMPLE								
	A			B			C		
	cells	dic	dic+r	cells	dic	dic+r	cells	dic	dic+r
L1	500	106	-	500	0	-	500	8	-
L2*	501	104	120	511	0	0	500	14	19
L2b*	517	158	185	570	1	1	656	27	35
L3	300	98	104	300	0	0	300	13	14
L4	500	127	-	500	0	-	500	8	-
L5	500	122	-	500	3	-	525	9	-
L6	473	93	104	510	1	1	512	18	19
L7	15	3	-	38	0	-	12	1	-
L8	500	116	-	500	2	-	500	14	-
L9	500	113	116	500	0	0	500	5	6
L10	520	116	124	500	0	0	531	8	9
L11	250	31	33	250	0	0	250	7	7
L12	500	93	-	500	0	-	500	12	-
L13	259	51	57	344	0	0	298	7	7
L14	500	90	-	500	5	-	500	9	-
L15	500	118	-	500	1	-	500	14	-
L16	500	98	-	500	1	-	500	13	-
L17	500	87	89	500	0	0	500	24	24
L18	540	167	-	500	1	-	526	19	-
L19	474	79	88	500	0	0	477	10	11
L20	500	143	-	500	4	-	500	17	-
L21	421	100	106	500	3	3	603	14	15
L22	500	151	-	500	0	-	500	20	-
L23	427	100	100	500	1	1	500	11	11
L24	500	101	104	500	1	1	500	10	10
L25	500	105	-	500	0	-	500	8	-
L26	500	121	121	500	0	0	500	11	11
L27	500	104	-	500	1	-	500	11	-
L28	500	160	-	500	0	-	500	20	-
L29	500	128	-	500	5	-	500	15	-
L30	500	86	86	500	1	1	500	14	15
L31**	500	129	147	500	1	-	500	10	10
L31b**	500	129	-	500	1	1	500	10	-
L32	500	71	75	500	0	0	500	5	5
L33	256	59	-	500	0	-	500	15	-
L34	500	98	-	500	1	-	500	12	-
L35	500	172	-	500	0	-	500	12	-
L36	500	53	57	500	1	1	500	0	0
L37	500	56	63	500	1	1	500	2	2
L38	200	20	33	500	3	4	200	12	12

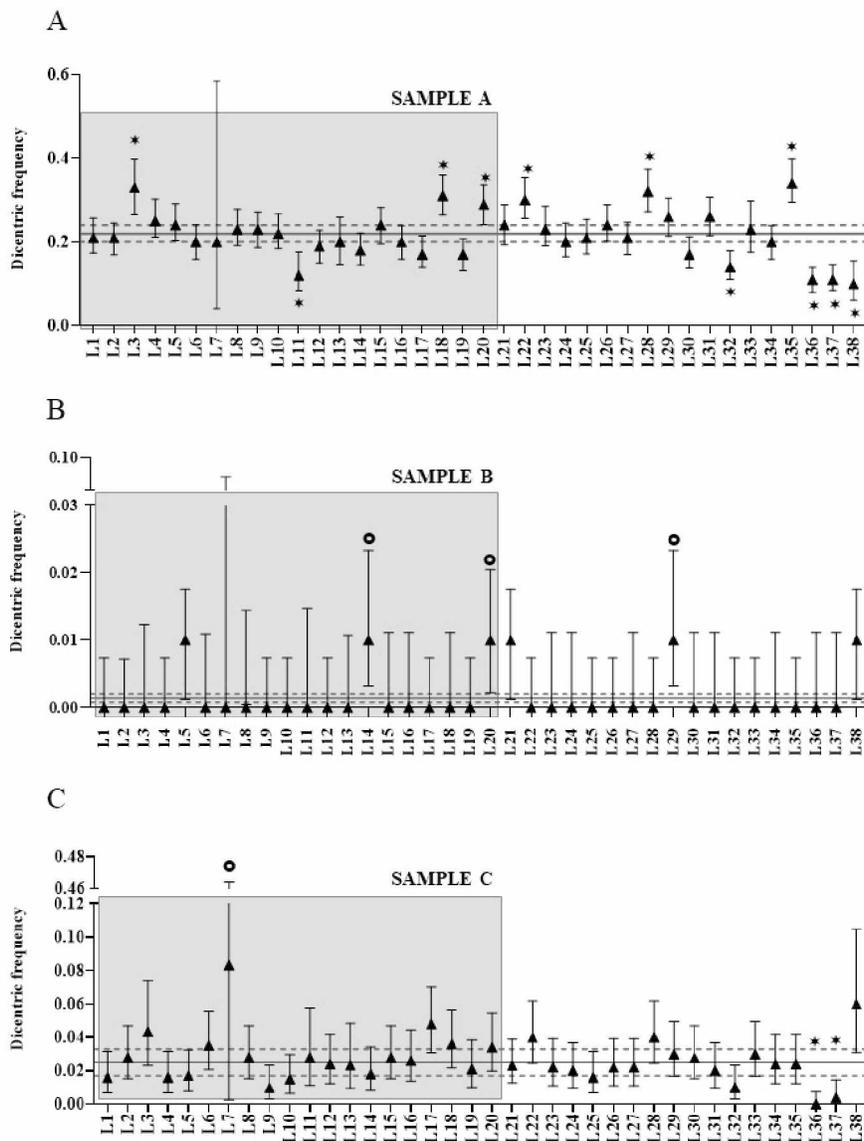


Figure 1: Dicentric frequencies per metaphase for sample A (A), sample B (B) and sample C (C) from each of the participant laboratories. Triangles represent the dicentric frequency per metaphase obtained by each laboratory for sample A (A), sample B (B) and sample C (C). The solid black line is the robust mean when laboratories reported the dicentric frequency per metaphase. Dashed lines mark the 95% confidence interval of the robust mean. Z- and U-scores were calculated with a Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment. Stars denote an unsatisfactory U-score and circles denote an unsatisfactory Z score. RENE laboratories are within the grey rectangle.

190x254mm (96 x 96 DPI)

Laboratory	$\alpha \pm \text{SE:}$		$\beta \pm \text{SE:}$		$C \pm \text{SE:}$	
L1	0.0187	± 0.0047	0.0527	± 0.0039	0.0002	± 0.0001
L2*	0.0573	± 0.0090	0.0778	± 0.0037	0.0012	± 0.0006
L2b*	0.0956	± 0.0248	0.1010	± 0.0089	0.0014	± 0.0017
L3	0.0057	± 0.0053	0.0817	± 0.0051	0.0012	± 0.0006
L4**	0.0120	± 0.0030	0.0560	± 0.0020	0.0010	± 0.0040
L4b**	0.0350	± 0.0030	0.0640	± 0.0020	0.0010	± 0.0040
L5**	0.0197	± 0.0064	0.0597	± 0.0037	0.0012	± 0.0010
L5b**	0.0537	± 0.0123	0.0626	± 0.0218	0.0006	± 0.0017
L6	0.0399	± 0.0061	0.0485	± 0.0029	0.0010	± 0.0003
L7	0.0105	± 0.0035	0.0480	± 0.0019	0.0011	± 0.0006
L8	0.0413	± 0.0058	0.0444	± 0.0033	0.0007	± 0.0060
L9	0.0283	± 0.0056	0.0255	± 0.0030	0.0008	± 0.0005
L10	0.0193	± 0.0024	0.0612	± 0.0036	0.0004	± 0.0002
L11	0.0117	± 0.0020	0.0456	± 0.0064	0.0043	± 0.0017
L12	0.0142	± 0.0044	0.0759	± 0.0027	0.0005	± 0.0005
L13	0.0101	± 0.0051	0.0720	± 0.0043	0.0006	± 0.0004
L14	0.0690	± 0.0230	0.0310	± 0.0110	0.0000	± 0.0000
L15	0.0229	± 0.0049	0.0622	± 0.0039	0.0081	± 0.0030
L16	0.0419	± 0.0080	0.0529	± 0.0018	0.0010	± 0.0063
L17	0.0283	± NA	0.0718	± NA	0.0005	± NA
L18	0.0612	± 0.0097	0.0650	± 0.0052	0.0008	± 0.0004
L19	0.0073	± 0.0194	0.0668	± 0.0046	0.0008	± 0.0000
L20	0.0322	± 0.0123	0.0459	± 0.0069	0.0028	± 0.0015
L21	0.0210	± 0.0052	0.0631	± 0.0040	0.0013	± 0.0005
L22	0.0210	± 0.0052	0.0631	± 0.0040	0.0013	± 0.0005
L23	0.0355	± 0.0041	0.0644	± 0.0027	0.0011	± 0.0001
L24	0.0120	± 0.0080	0.0510	± 0.0030	0.0010	± 0.0001
L25	0.0208	± 0.0045	0.0710	± 0.0033	0.0002	± 0.0002
L26	0.0331	± 0.0077	0.0359	± 0.0036	0.0012	± 0.0006
L27	0.0419	± 0.0017	0.0890	± 0.0047	0.0027	± 0.0008
L28	0.0813	± 0.0046	0.0824	± 0.0021	0.0025	± 0.0004
L29	0.0356	± 0.0096	0.0779	± 0.0065	0.0021	± 0.0014
L30	0.0682	± 0.0038	0.0344	± 0.0066	0.0013	± 0.0008
L31***	0.0416	± 0.0080	0.0585	± 0.0073	0.0009	± 0.0002
L31b***	0.0305	± 0.0079	0.0624	± 0.0113	0.0009	± 0.0005
L32	0.0209	± 0.0057	0.0711	± 0.0025	0.0005	± 0.0002
L33	0.0421	± 0.0042	0.0602	± 0.0022	0.0009	± 0.0003
L34	0.0419	± 0.0080	0.0529	± 0.0018	0.0010	± 0.0063
L35	0.0313	± NA	0.0537	± NA	-0.0078	± NA
L36	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
L37	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
L38	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Laboratory	Source	Dose Rate (Gy/min)
L1	137 Cs	0.42
*L2	60 Cobalt	0.5
*L2b	60 Cobalt	0.5
L3	60 Cobalt	269mGy/7min: 0.04
L4	60 Cobalt	0.35
L4b	243 kV X Rays	0.35
L5	60 Cobalt	0.3
L5b	200 kV X Rays	1.271
L6	60 Cobalt	0.5
L7	60 Cobalt	0.18-0.13
L8	60 Cobalt	0.5774
L9	137 Cs	0.87
L10	60 Cobalt	0.5
L11	60 Cobalt	<0.5
L12	60 Cobalt	0.5
L13	60 Cobalt	0.24
L14	60 Cobalt	1
L15	60 Cobalt	1
L16	60 Cobalt	1Gy/5min: 0.2
L17	NP	NP
L18	60 Cobalt	0.3
L19	60 Cobalt	0.5
L20	6 MeV X Rays	2.5
L21	60 Cobalt	0.5
L22	60 Cobalt	ND
L23	60 Cobalt	0.5
L24	60 Cobalt	0.7
L25	60 Cobalt	0.275
L26	60 Cobalt	0.66
L27	250 kVp X-rays	0.37
L28	250 kVp X-rays	0.37
L29	137 Cs	0.94
L30	250 kVp X-rays	0.37
**L31	250 kVp X-rays	0.37
**L31b	250 kVp X-rays	0.37
L32	60 Cobalt	0.457
L33	60 Cobalt	0.16
L34	60 Cobalt	0.2
L35	137 Cs	1.16
L36	NP	NP
L37	NP	NP
L38	NP	NP

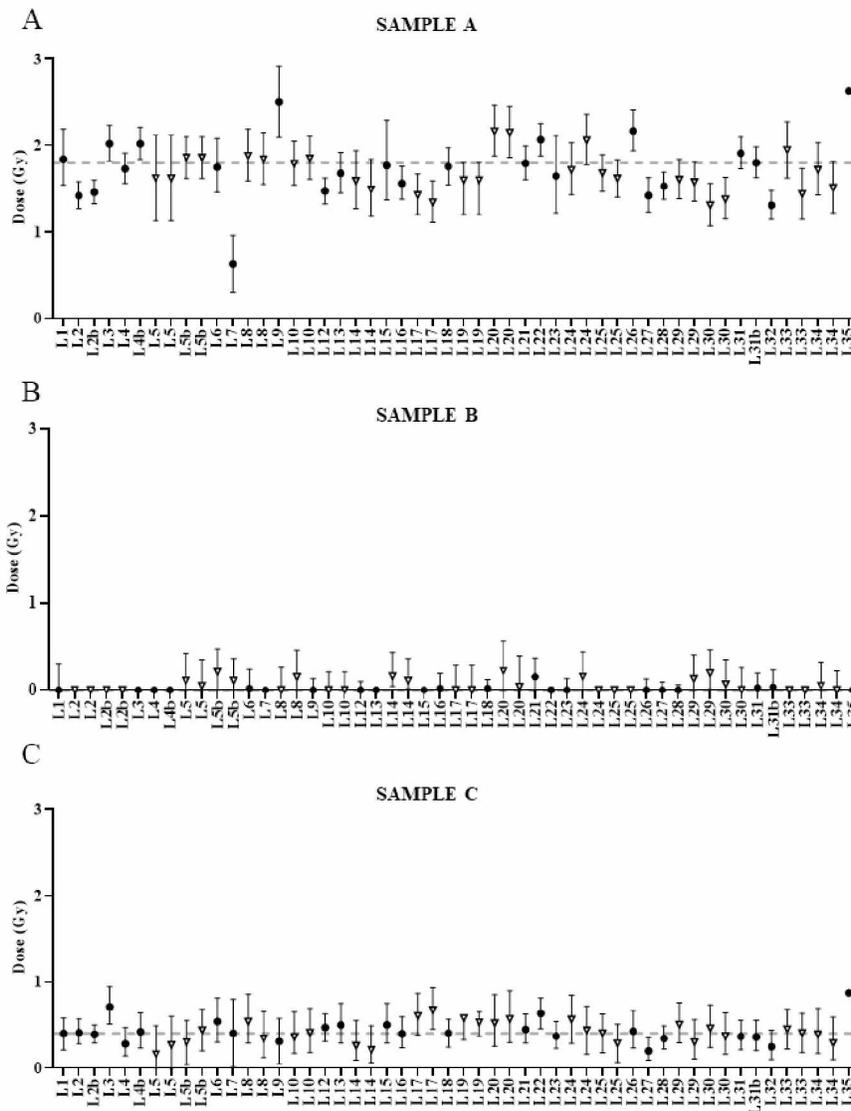


Figure 2: Dose estimations sent by the participant laboratories for samples A, B, C. Solid circles represent the dose estimation based on the total number of metaphases analyzed. Some laboratories sent two estimated doses for each sample, which are represented by open triangles. Error bars correspond to the reported 95% confidence interval. The horizontal line represents the delivered physical dose to the blood.

190x254mm (96 x 96 DPI)

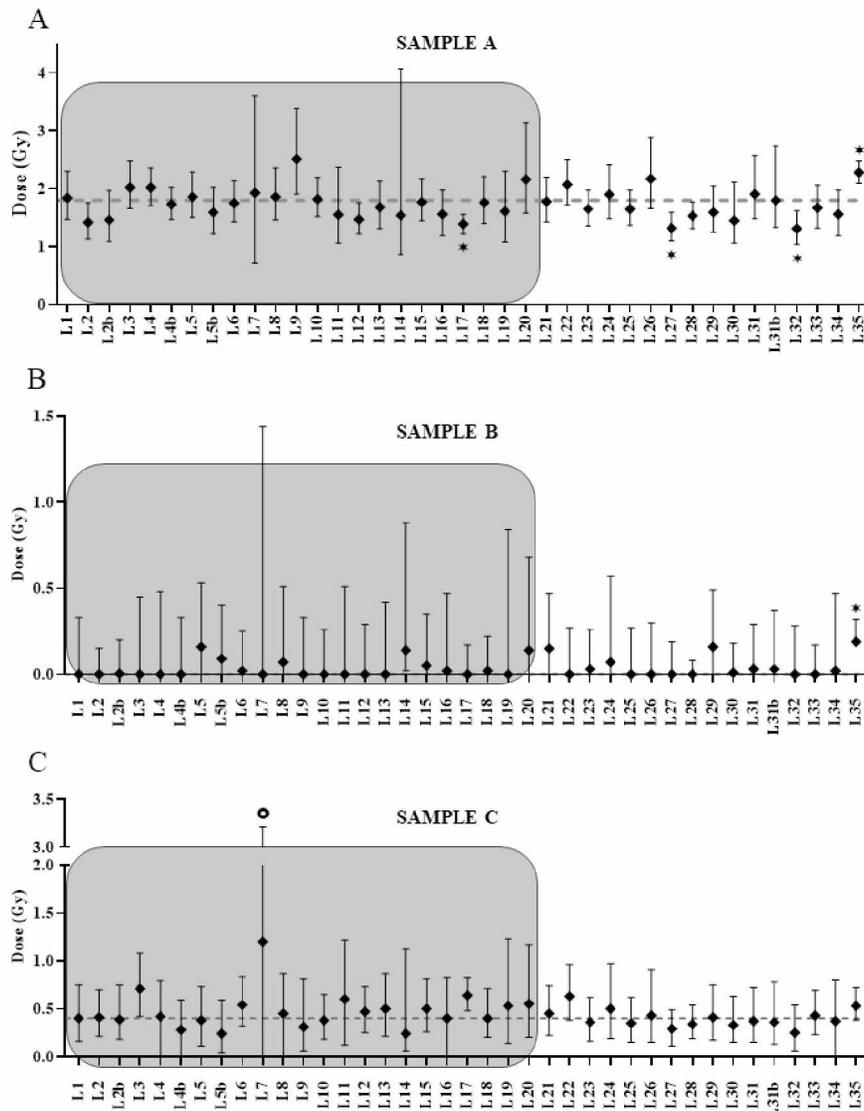


Figure 3: Re-calculated doses by the IRSN based on Merckle's approach and using each laboratory's own curve coefficients for sample A (3A), sample B (3B) and sample C (3C). Diamonds represent the average dose obtained and error bars correspond to the 95% confidence interval of the estimated dose. Values considered as unsatisfactory by the U-test are indicated with a star. Unsatisfactory results by the Z-test are indicated with a circle. RENEB laboratories are within the grey rectangle.

190x254mm (96 x 96 DPI)

A

Rank	Laboratory	Analyzed Metaphases	CA Frequency^a	Z Score
1	L1	500	0.212	0.083
2	L10	520	0.223	0.104
3	L25	500	0.210	0.117
4	L27	500	0.208	0.150
5	L9	500	0.226	0.154
6	L2	501	0.208	0.157
7	L33	256	0.230	0.229
8	L24	500	0.202	0.252
9	L8	500	0.232	0.255
10	L7	15	0.200	0.286
11	L23	427	0.234	0.292
12	L15	500	0.236	0.323
13	L13	259	0.197	0.338
14	L6	473	0.197	0.343
15	L21	421	0.238	0.349
16	L16	500	0.196	0.353
17	L34	500	0.196	0.353
18	L26	500	0.242	0.424
19	L5	500	0.244	0.458
20	L12	500	0.186	0.522
21	L14	500	0.180	0.624
22	L4	500	0.254	0.627
23	L29	500	0.256	0.661
24	L31	500	0.258	0.695
25	L17	500	0.174	0.725
26	L30	500	0.172	0.759
27	L19	474	0.167	0.849
28	L20	500	0.286	1.168
29	L32	500	0.142	1.266
30	L22	500	0.302	1.438
31	L18	540	0.309	1.561
32	L11	250	0.124	1.570
33	L28	500	0.320	1.743
34	L37	500	0.112	1.773
35	L3	300	0.327	1.855
36	L36	500	0.106	1.874
37	L38	200	0.100	1.976
38	L35	500	0.344	2.148

B

Rank	Laboratory	Analyzed Metaphases	CA Frequency^a	U-Score
1	L7	15	0.200	0.124
2	L1	500	0.212	0.206
3	L10	520	0.223	0.258
4	L25	500	0.210	0.291
5	L9	500	0.226	0.373
6	L27	500	0.208	0.398
7	L33	256	0.230	0.415
8	L2	501	0.208	0.417
9	L8	500	0.232	0.613
10	L24	500	0.202	0.637
11	L23	427	0.234	0.656
12	L13	259	0.197	0.657
13	L15	500	0.236	0.771
14	L21	421	0.238	0.774
15	L6	473	0.197	0.857
16	L16	500	0.196	0.903
17	L34	500	0.196	0.903
18	L26	500	0.242	1.003
19	L5	500	0.244	1.079
20	L12	500	0.186	1.360
21	L4	500	0.254	1.455
22	L29	500	0.256	1.529
23	L31	500	0.258	1.603
24	L14	500	0.180	1.643
25	L17	500	0.174	1.934
26	L30	500	0.172	2.032
27	L19	474	0.167	2.253
28	L20	500	0.286	2.589
29	L3	300	0.327	3.114
30	L22	500	0.302	3.120
31	L18	540	0.309	3.463
32	L11	250	0.124	3.604
33	L32	500	0.142	3.616
34	L28	500	0.320	3.694
35	L35	500	0.344	4.422
36	L38	200	0.100	4.474
37	L37	500	0.112	5.457
38	L36	500	0.106	5.864

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only

Ranks	Laboratory	Frequency (dicentric per metaphase)	Z Score		Ranks	Laboratory	Dose (Gy)	Z-Score
1	L1	0.212	0.083		1	L31b	1.8	0.000
2	L10	0.223	0.104		2	L10	1.82	0.074
3	L25	0.210	0.117		3	L21	1.78	0.074
4	L27	0.208	0.150		4	L15	1.77	0.111
5	L9	0.226	0.154		5	L1	1.84	0.148
6	L2	0.208	0.157		6	L18	1.76	0.148
7	L33	0.230	0.229		7	L6	1.75	0.184
8	L24	0.202	0.252		8	L5	1.86	0.221
9	L8	0.232	0.255		9	L8	1.86	0.221
10	L7	0.200	0.286		10	L4b	1.73	0.258
11	L23	0.234	0.292		11	L24	1.9	0.369
12	L15	0.236	0.323		12	L31	1.91	0.406
13	L13	0.197	0.338		13	L13	1.68	0.443
14	L6	0.197	0.343		14	L7	1.93	0.479
15	L21	0.238	0.349		15	L33	1.67	0.479
16	L16	0.196	0.353		16	L23	1.65	0.553
17	L34	0.196	0.353		17	L25	1.65	0.553
18	L26	0.242	0.424		18	L19	1.61	0.701
19	L5	0.244	0.458		19	L5b	1.59	0.775
20	L12	0.186	0.522		20	L29	1.59	0.775
21	L14	0.180	0.624		21	L3	2.02	0.811
22	L4	0.254	0.627		22	L4	2.02	0.811
23	L29	0.256	0.661		23	L16	1.56	0.885
24	L31	0.258	0.695		24	L34	1.56	0.885
25	L17	0.174	0.725		25	L11	1.55	0.922
26	L30	0.172	0.759		26	L14	1.54	0.959
27	L19	0.167	0.849		27	L22	2.07	0.996
28	L20	0.286	1.168		28	L28	1.53	0.996
29	L32	0.142	1.266		29	L12	1.47	1.217
30	L22	0.302	1.438		30	L2b	1.46	1.254
31	L18	0.309	1.561		31	L30	1.45	1.291
32	L11	0.124	1.570		32	L20	2.16	1.328
33	L28	0.320	1.743		33	L26	2.17	1.365
34	L37	0.112	1.773		34	L2	1.42	1.402
35	L3	0.327	1.855		35	L17	1.39	1.512
36	L36	0.106	1.874		36	L35	2.28	1.770
37	L38	0.100	1.976		37	L27	1.32	1.770
38	L35	0.344	2.148		38	L32	1.31	1.807
	L2b	0.305	NA		39	L9	2.51	2.619

Mean Frequency : 0.22 dicentric per metaphase

Dose : 1.74 Gy

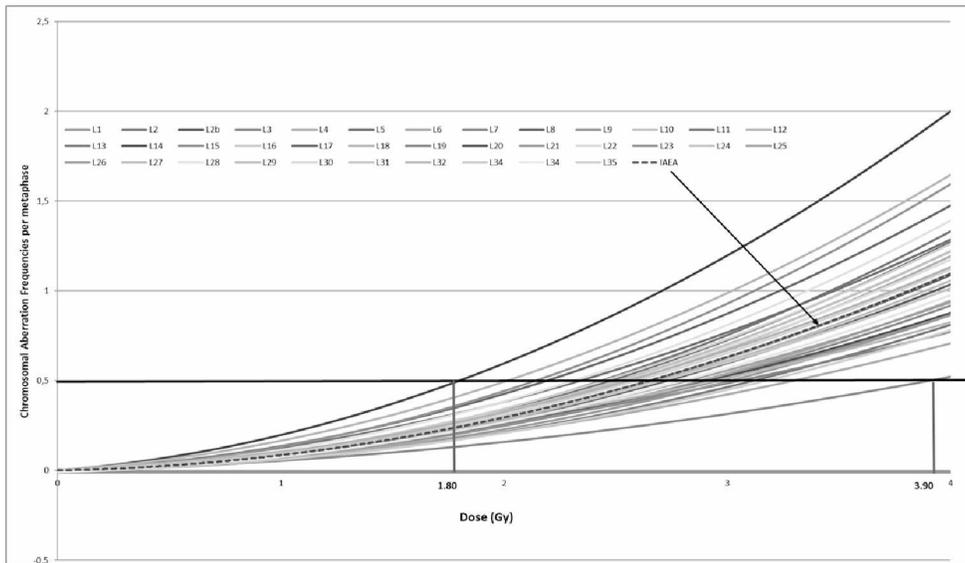


Figure 4: Calibration curves of the Inter-Laboratory Comparison participants. The horizontal line represents the frequency of 0.5 dicentric chromosomes or dicentrics + centric rings per metaphase and the grey vertical lines indicate the mean estimated dose obtained with the two most distant curves. The dashed curve, indicated by an arrow, is that of the IAEA manual (IAEA 2011).

338x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)

Laboratories (Number)	x	s	CV
ALL (38)	0.217	0.058	0.267
RENEB (20)	0.216	0.044	0.201
Non-RENEB (18)	0.214	0.078	0.365

For Peer Review Only

RENEB Inter-Laboratory Comparison 2017: limits and pitfalls of ILCs.

Eric Gregoire^{1*}, Joan Francesc Barquinero^{2*}, Gaetan Gruel^{1*}, Mohamedamine Benadjaoud^{1*}, Juan S. Martinez¹, Christina Beinke³, Adayabalam Balajee⁴, Philip Beukes⁵, William F. Blakely⁶, Inmaculada Dominguez⁷, Pham Ngoc Duy⁸, Octávia Monteiro Gil⁹, Inci Güçlü¹⁰, Kamile Guogyte¹¹, Savina Petrova Hadjidekova¹², Valeria Hadjidekova¹³, Prakash Hande¹⁴, Seongjae Jang¹⁵, Katalin Lumniczky¹⁶, Roberta Meschini¹⁷, Mirta Milic¹⁸, Alegria Montoro¹⁹ Jayne Moquet²⁰, Mercedes Moreno²¹, Farrah N Norton²², Ursula Oestreicher²³, Jelena Pajic²⁴, Laure Sabatier²⁵, Sylwester Sommer²⁶, Antonella Testa²⁷, Georgia Terzoudi²⁸, Marco Valente²⁹, Perumal Venkatachalam³⁰, Anne Vral³¹, Ruth C. Wilkins³², Andrzej Wojcik³³, Demetre Zafiroopoulos³⁴, Ulrike Kulka²³⁺.

* These authors contributed equally to this work

+ Chair of RENEb e.V.

1. Institut de Radioprotection et de Sûreté Nucléaire, Fontenay-aux-Roses, France
2. Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain
3. Bundeswehr Institute of Radiobiology affiliated to the University of Ulm, Munich, Germany
4. Oak Ridge Institute for Science and Education (ORISE), USA
5. NRF iThemba LABS, Cape Town, South Africa
6. Armed Forces Radiobiology Research Institute, Uniformed Service University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, USA
7. University of Sevilla, Sevilla, Spain
8. Center of Biotechnology, Nuclear Research Institute, Nuclear Research Institute, Dalat city, Vietnam
9. Centro de Ciências e Tecnologias Nucleares, Instituto Superior Técnico, Universidade de Lisboa, Bobadela-LRS, Portugal
10. Turkish Atomic Energy Authority, Cekmece Nuclear Research and Training Center Radiobiology Unit Yarımburgaz, Istanbul, Turkey
11. Radiation Protection Center, Vilnius, Lithuania
12. Medical University of Sofia, Sofia, Bulgaria
13. National Center for Radiobiology and Radiation Protection, Sofia, Bulgaria
14. Department of Physiology, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine: National University of Singapore, Singapore
15. KIRAMS, Seoul, Korea
16. National Research Institute for Radiobiology & Radiohygiene, Budapest, Hungary
17. UNITUS, Viterbo, Italy
18. IMROH, Zagreb, Croatia
19. Fundación para la Investigación del Hospital Universitario LA FE de la Comunidad Valenciana, Valencia, Spain
20. Public Health England, Centre for Radiation Chemical and Environmental Hazards, Chilton, UK
21. Servicio Madrileño de Salud - Hospital General Universitario Gregorio Marañón, Madrid, Spain
22. Canadian Nuclear Laboratories, Radiobiology & Health, Chalk River, Ontario, Canada
23. Federal Office for Radiation Protection (BfS), Oberschleissheim, Germany
24. Serbian Institute of Occupational Health, Radiation Protection Center, Belgrade, Serbia
25. PROCyTOX, Commissariat à l'Énergie Atomique et aux Énergies Alternatives, Fontenay aux-Roses, France and Université Paris-Saclay, France
26. Institute of Nuclear Chemistry and Technology (INCT), Warsaw, Poland
27. Agenzia Nazionale per le Nuove Tecnologie, L'Energia e lo Sviluppo Economico Sostenibile, Rome, Italy
28. National Center for Scientific Research "Demokritos", NCSR"D", Athens, Greece
29. IRBA, Bretigny sur Orge, France
30. Sri Ramachandra University, Chennai, India
31. Radiobiology Research Unit, Gent University, Gent, Belgium
32. Health Canada, Ottawa, Canada
33. Stockholm University, Institute Molecular Biosciences, Stockholm, Sweden
34. Laboratori Nazionali di Legnaro – INFN, Legnaro, Italy

Biographical notes:

Eric Gregoire, scientist, cytogenetician in biological dosimetry, Institute for Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), Radiobiology of Accidental Exposure Laboratory (LRAcc), Fontenay aux Roses, France

Joan-Francesc Barquinero, PhD, Biologist, University Professor, Department of Animal Biology, Plant Biology and Ecology, Faculty of Biosciencies, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB), Bellaterra (Cerdanyola del Vallès), Spain

Gaetan Gruel, PhD, Researcher and head of the Laboratory, Institute for Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), Radiobiology of Accidental Exposure Laboratory (LRAcc), Fontenay aux Roses, France

Mohamedamine Benadjaoud, PhD, Biomathematician, Institute for Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), Radiobiology of Accidental Exposure Laboratory (LRAcc), Fontenay aux Roses, France

Juan S. Martinez, PhD, Researcher, Institute for Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), Radiobiology of Accidental Exposure Laboratory (LRAcc), Fontenay aux Roses, France

Christina Beinke, PhD, scientist in the cytogenetics laboratory of the Bundeswehr Institute of Radiobiology, Munich, Germany.

Adayabalam Balajee, Head of the Cytogenetic Biodosimetry Laboratory, Radiation Emergency Assistance Center/Training Site, Oak Ridge Institute for Science and Education, Oak Ridge Associated Universities, Oak Ridge, Tennessee, USA.

Philip Beukes, Radiation Protection Physicist and Head of Radiation Safety Health Environment and Quality at the National Research Foundation (NRF) iThemba LABS, Cape Town, South Africa.

William F. Blakely, senior scientist at his Institute and assistant professor at his University. He is a classically trained radiobiologist and for ~25 years associated with the applied biodosimetry research

1
2
3 and service programs. He is a member of the Scientific Research Department (SRD), Armed Forces
4 Radiology Research Institute (AFRRI) affiliated with the Uniformed Services University of Health
5 Sciences (USUHS), Bethesda, Maryland, United States. He is also the course director for a graduate
6 course in Radiation Biology (PMO-582) at his University, a Council Member of the National Council
7 on Radiation Protection and Measurements (NCRP) serving on program area committee 6 (PAC-6)
8 entitled Radiation Measurements and Dosimetry, and members on International Standard Organization
9 (ISO) Working Groups 18 (Performance criteria for service laboratories performing biological
10 dosimetry by cytogenetics) and 25 (Radiological protection – Radiological monitoring for emergency
11 workers and population following nuclear/radiological accidents – Part 1: General principles).

12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22 **Inmaculada Dominguez**, scientist, research in DNA damage and repair, lecturer in Cell Biology, Cell
23 Culture and Radiobiological Group, Cell Biology Department, Faculty of Biology, University of
24 Sevilla, Spain.

25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

28 **Pham Ngoc Duy, PhD**, Researcher, Biodosimetry Section, Centre of Radiation Technology and
29 Biotechnology, Dalat Nuclear Research Institute, Viet Nam.

33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

33 **Octávia Monteiro Gil**, PhD, Biology- Genetic, works in the area of radiobiology and biological
34 dosimetry, Instituto Superior Técnico, Centro de Ciências e Tecnologias Nucleares
35 (C2TN/IST/ULisboa), Bobadela, Portugal.

40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

40 **Inci Güçlü**, scientist, Head of the Radiobiology unit, Turkish Atomic Energy Authority, Cekmece
41 Nuclear Research and Training Center, Istanbul, Turkey

45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

45 **Kamile Guogyte**, PhD, Chief specialist Radiation Protection Centre Kalvarijų 153 street, Vilnius,
46 Lithuania

50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

50 **Savina Petrova Hadjidekova**, MD, Assistant Professor, Department of Medical Genetics, Medical
51 University - Sofia, Bulgaria.

55
56
57
58
59
60

55 **Valeria Hadjidekova**, Director, National Center for Radiobiology and Radiation Protection, Sofia,
56 Bulgaria

1
2
3 **Prakash HANDE**, Associate Professor at the Department of Physiology, Yong Loo Lin School of
4 Medicine, National University of Singapore (NUS) and a Fellow at Tembusu College (NUS).
5
6 biomarkers of radiation exposure, DNA-repair-telomeres-telomerase in ageing and cancer,
7
8 experimental cancer therapeutics. Dr Hande is one of the pioneers who identified the role of DNA
9
10 repair factors in telomere regulation in mammalian systems and is an expert in Radiation
11
12 Biodosimetry. Dr Hande teaches cancer biology and ageing and conducts integrated study module on
13
14 Biomedicine and Society and Radiation and Society. He holds adjunct professor appointments at the
15
16 Vellore Institute of Technology, Vellore, India and Mangalore University, Mangalore, India. Dr.
17
18 Hande is a visiting scientist at the National Institute of Radiological Sciences, Chiba, Japan. He was a
19
20 consultant at the Division of Human Health, International Atomic Energy Agency, Vienna, Austria in
21
22 2015 -2016 while on sabbatical from NUS. Dr Hande is currently an expert member of the workgroup
23
24 on “Biological mechanisms influencing health effects from low-dose radiation exposure” with United
25
26 Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR).
27
28
29
30

31 **Seongjae Jang**, Research scientist in biological dosimetry, National Radiation Emergency Medical
32
33 Center, Korea Institute of Radiological and Medical Sciences, Seoul, Republic of Korea
34
35

36 **Katalin Lumniczky**, M.D., Ph.D., radiation biologist, head of the Unit of Radiation Medicine,
37
38 Department of Radiobiology and Radiohygiene, National Public Health Centre, Budapest, Hungary.
39
40

41 **Roberta Meschini**, Research Assistant Professor, Expert in classical and Molecular Cytogenetic and
42
43 Mutagenesis, Laboratory of Molecular Cytogenetic and Mutagenesis, Department of Ecological and
44
45 Biological Sciences, University of Tuscia
46
47

48 **Mirta Milić**, scientist, molecular biologist, toxicologist and cytogenetician in biological dosimetry,
49
50 Institute for Medical Research and Occupational Health (IMROH), Mutagenesis Unit, Zagreb, Croatia
51
52

53 **Alegria Montoro**, PhD in Biology and Master’s Degree in Occupational Hazard Prevention,
54
55 specialising in Hygiene and Security. Supervisor for Radioactive Facilities and head of the
56
57 biodosimetry laboratory in the Radiation Protection Service (RPS), University-Polytechnic Hospital
58
59 La Fe, Valencia, Spain
60

1
2
3 **Jayne Moquet**, Principal Radiation Protection Scientist in the Cytogenetics and Pathology Group,
4 Public Health England - Centre for Chemical Radiation and Environmental Hazards, Oxfordshire, UK.
5
6

7
8 **Mercedes Moreno Domene**, MSc in radiation biology, Biological dosimetry laboratory.
9
10 Radiopeathology Centre, Service of Radiation Oncology. Hospital General Universitario Gregorio
11 Marañón (HGUGM-SERMAS), Madrid, Spain
12
13

14
15 **Farrah N Norton**, Research Scientist-Biologist, lead of the Biodosimetry emergency response
16 capability as well the portfolio lead for the Emergency Response suite of research projects in the
17 Safety and Security program at Canadian Nuclear Laboratories (CNL) in Chalk River, Ontario,
18 Canada.
19
20
21
22

23
24 **Ursula Oestreicher**, PhD, biologist and head of section: “Biological Dosimetry” at the Federal Office
25 for Radiation Protection (BfS), Oberschleissheim, Germany
26
27

28
29 **Jelena Pajic**, doctor of medical sciences, employed at the Cytogenetic Biodosimetry Laboratory,
30 Serbian Institute of Occupational Health. Main area of research: radiation biology, biodosimetry,
31 genotoxicology.
32
33
34

35
36 **Laure Sabatier**, PhD, research director, radiobiologist with molecular cytogenetics expertise,
37 coordinator of biology and health programs and infrastructures at the fundamental research division of
38 the French Alternative Energies and Atomic Energy Commission (CEA)
39
40
41
42

43
44 **Sylwester Sommer**, PhD, radiobiologist, Institute of Nuclear Chemistry and Technology (INCT),
45 Unit: Radiobiology and Biological Dosimetry, Warsaw, Poland
46
47

48
49 **Antonella Testa**, Antonella Testa, radiobiologist, Italian National Agency for New Technologies,
50 Energy and Sustainable Economic Development (ENEA), Department for Sustainability, Division
51 Health Protection Technologies, Laboratory Health and Environment, Rome, Italy
52
53

54
55 **Georgia Terzoudi**, physicist and radiobiologist is Director of Research at the Institute of Nuclear and
56 Radiological Sciences & Technology, Energy & Safety, National Centre for Scientific Research
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 “Demokritos”, working in the Health Physics, Radiobiology & Cytogenetics Laboratory in Athens,
4
5 Greece.

6
7 **Marco Valente**, PhD, biologist, cytogenetician, French Armed Forces Biomedical Research Institute
8
9 (IRBA), Lab: Biological Dosimetry Lab (LDBI), Brétigny-sur-Orge, France.

10
11
12 **Venkatachalam PERUMAL**, Professor in Human Genetics, who is having an extensive background
13
14 in Radiation Genetics, with explicit training and capability in radiation biodosimetry, bystander
15
16 response, and genomic instability of high and low dose ionizing radiation, differed in their LET. Sri
17
18 Ramachandra Institute of Higher Education & Research, Chennai, INDIA.

19
20
21 **Anne Vral**, PhD, full professor and head of the radiobiology research group, principal investigator of
22
23 the radiobiology group and has 30 years of experience in the field of basic and medically applied
24
25 radiobiology, radiation protection, biological dosimetry and cancer. The topics related to cancer are
26
27 dealing with radiosensitivity and DNA repair. An important line of research involves the development
28
29 and validation of biomarkers of exposure and individual radiosensitivity. Ghent University, Belgium.

30
31
32 **Ruth C. Wilkins**, Research Scientist, Radiobiologist, Health Canada, Ionizing Radiation Health
33
34 Sciences Division, Ottawa, Canada

35
36
37 **Andrzej Wojcik**, PhD, is professor of radiation biology at the Stockholm University (Sweden) and
38
39 Jan Kochanowski University in Kielce (Poland). Wojcik focuses on studying cellular effects of
40
41 radiation, with special focus on factors influencing the radiosensitivity and on combined exposure to
42
43 radiations of different qualities.

44
45
46 **Demetre Zafiroopoulos**, PhD in Biological Dosimetry, italian delegate, of the NEA-OECD Committee
47
48 on Radiological Protection and Public Health (CRPPH), Radiation Protection Service of Laboratori
49
50 Nazionali di Legnaro of National Institute of Nuclear Physics.

51
52
53 **Ulrike Kulka**, PhD in biology, head of section national and international cooperation and reporting at
54
55 the Federal Office for Radiation Protection (BfS) in Oberschleissheim, Germany and chair of RENE
56
57 e.V.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only

ABSTRACT

Purpose

In case of a mass-casualty radiological event, there would be a need for networking to overcome surge limitations and to quickly obtain homogeneous results (reported aberration frequencies or estimated doses) among biodosimetry laboratories. These results must be consistent within such network. Inter-laboratory comparisons (ILCs) are widely accepted to achieve this homogeneity. At the European level, a great effort has been made to harmonize biological dosimetry laboratories, notably during the MULTIBIODOSE and RENEb projects. In order to continue the harmonization efforts, the RENEb consortium launched this intercomparison which is larger than the RENEb network, as it involves 38 laboratories from 21 countries. In this ILC all steps of the process were monitored, from blood shipment to dose estimation. This exercise also aimed to evaluate the statistical tools used to compare laboratory performance.

Materials and Methods

Blood samples were irradiated at three different doses, 1.8, 0.4 and 0 Gy (samples A, C and B) with 4-MV X-rays at 0.5 Gy min⁻¹, and sent to the participant laboratories. Each laboratory was requested to blindly analyze 500 cells per sample and to report the observed frequency of dicentric chromosomes per metaphase and the corresponding estimated dose.

Results

This ILC demonstrates that blood samples can be successfully distributed among laboratories worldwide to perform biological dosimetry in case of a mass casualty event.

Having achieved a substantial harmonization in multiple areas among the RENEb laboratories issues were identified with the available statistical tools, which are not capable to advantageously exploit the richness of results of a large ILCs. Even though Z- and U-tests are accepted methods for biodosimetry

1
2
3 ILCs, setting the number of analyzed metaphases to 500 and establishing a tests' common threshold for
4 all studied doses is inappropriate for evaluating laboratory performance.

5
6
7
8 Another problem highlighted by this ILC is the issue of the dose-effect curve diversity. It clearly appears
9 that, despite the initial advantage of including the scoring specificities of each laboratory, the lack of
10 defined criteria for assessing the robustness of each laboratory's curve is a disadvantage for the "one
11 curve per laboratory" model.
12
13
14
15

16 17 Conclusions

18
19
20 Based on our study, it seems relevant to develop tools better adapted to the collection and processing of
21 results produced by the participant laboratories. We are confident that, after an initial harmonization
22 phase reached by the RENE B laboratories, a new step towards a better optimization of the laboratory
23 networks in biological dosimetry and associated ILC is on the way.
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1- INTRODUCTION

In case of a large-scale radiation emergency, the dose estimation of the victims should be assessed as fast and accurate as possible. Firstly, a triage should be performed by qualified medical staff according to clinical signs. Subsequently, a categorization of the exposed people by dosimetry must be carried out according to their degree of suspected overexposure. Biological dosimetry rapid assessment complements the clinical triage by categorizing potentially exposed victims in different ranges of exposure (Vaurijoux et al. 2015; Ainsbury et al. 2014) and is a key element when physical dosimetry is not available (Christie et al. 2010; Romm et al. 2014a). Because triage based on manual dicentric chromosome analysis (DCA) is done with a low number of analyzed cells (usually 50), it makes it highly imprecise as it has large confidence intervals. For this reason, the categorization should be defined by dose ranges and not in terms of dose alone. Furthermore, after initial triage, dose assessment is needed in order to confirm the categorization and to give a more precise individual dose estimation (Romm et al. 2014a). As precise dose assessment requires the analysis of a large number of cells, usually from 500 to 1000 by DCA, the time needed for a correct dose assessment is larger than that needed for triage. As an example, using manual scoring, one operator would perform triage in 1 hour per sample, but dose estimation would take approximately two days.

In general, biodosimetry laboratories can manage only a limited number of victims at one time. Thus, in the case of a mass-casualty radiation incident, where the management of several hundreds of victims would need to be performed, there is a prerequisite for national and/or international networking. However, networking must be based on the ability to provide homogeneous results (Voisin 2015; Kulka et al. 2015, 2017). This means that for any single case, the reported chromosomal aberration frequencies or estimated doses should be consistent and comparable among the laboratories responding to the emergency. Harmonization needs standardized procedures; this is an essential point for the successful coordination of different laboratories (Beinke et al. 2013; ISO 19238; Wilkins et al. 2008; Christie et al. 2010; Beinke et al. 2011). The strategy of establishing a cooperative network among laboratories requires that each laboratory follows internationally accepted methods for analysis (IAEA 2011, ISO 19238 2014) and regular inter-laboratory comparisons (ILCs) to test performance analysis (Wilkins et

1
2
3 al. 2008, Di Giorgio et al. 2011). Nowadays it is widely accepted that networking should include regular
4 international ILC exercises simulating different scenarios, as this would guarantee a more rapid response
5 and a higher reliability of dose estimates (Wojcik et al. 2010).
6
7
8
9

10 During the last decade several ILCs have been performed. Some of them were focused on the triage
11 (Wilkins et al. 2011; Lloyd et al. 2000; Ainsbury et al. 2009; Garcia et al. 2013; Romm et al. 2011,
12 2014a, b, Oestreicher et al 2017) while others mainly on dose-assessment (Yoshida et al. 2007; Pan et
13 al. 2019; Bakkiam et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2016, Roy et al. 2004). In a large-scale ILC involving 7 countries
14 from the Latin American Biological Dosimetry Network (LBDNet) and 6 laboratories from the
15 European Union, a good agreement among participants was shown in terms of the reported dicentric
16 chromosome yields and assessed doses. In this ILC the results after the analysis of 50, 100 or 500 cells
17 from shared stained slides were evaluated by using robust methods described in different ISO standards
18 (Di Giorgio 2011). Another effort in validating international networking using the DCA in the case of a
19 potential mass-casualty event was done by Wilkins et al. (2008). Several ILCs based on triage have
20 shown that more than 90% of the participant laboratories correctly categorize the tested samples (Miller
21 et al. 2007; Di Giorgio et al. 2011; Beinke et al. 2011, 2013; Bhavani et al. 2014; Yoshida et al. 2007;
22 Roy et al. 2004).
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 At European level, different projects have been founded in order to improve standardization and
39 harmonization for the different biomarkers of dose. MULTIBIODOSE helped in defining what would
40 be the best assay to use depending on different exposure scenarios (Jaworska et al. 2015, Ainsbury et al.
41 2014). In addition, a NATO project studied the possibility of reducing the number of analyzed cells from
42 50 to 20 for triage purposes (Beinke et al. 2013). Recently, several RENEB (Realising the European
43 Network of Biodosimetry) project training sessions and ILCs have allowed the main cytogenetic assays
44 to be homogenized and standardized among participants. Therefore, RENEB has helped in creating an
45 efficient European network of biodosimetry laboratories (Kulka et al. 2012). The harmonization and the
46 quality of the results for triage mode obtained among the RENEB members let us claim that at the
47 present day RENEB is able to categorize a large number of victims in mass-casualty radiological events
48 (Kulka et al. 2017; Gregoire et al. 2017; Oestreicher et al. 2017).
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 As indicated above, an individual dose assessment should be performed after triage (Romm et al. 2014a,
4 Wojcik et al. 2010). The present ILC concerned different biomarkers (Micro-Nucleus (MN), Premature
5 Chromosome Condensation (PCC), gamma H2AX and Gene Expression) and its main goal is to delve
6 deeper and check the entire process needed for proper networking, from blood sample shipment to dose
7 estimation. The present work has been focused on the DCA. In addition to the 20 RENEb laboratories,
8 another 19 laboratories were invited to participate. Finally, as this ILC evaluates the entire process for
9 dose-assessment by biodosimetry, we will take advantage of the large data set to critically review the
10 statistical tools used to evaluate laboratory performance.

2- MATERIALS and METHODS

a. Irradiation and Shipment

28 A 420 ml blood sample from a female donor (Etablissement Français du Sang (EFS), France; Agreement
29 CPSL UNT N°13/EFS/123) was irradiated at 37°C in a water bath with 4-MV X-rays delivered by a
30 Linear medical accelerator (Elekta Synergy, IRSN, Fontenay aux Roses, France) at 0.5 Gy·min⁻¹, dose
31 in water. The irradiation field was 30 x 30 cm and the distance between the source and the sample was
32 of 1.07 m. Radiation field mapping and dosimetry was confirmed using cylindrical ionization chamber
33 (0.125cc n° 4920) calibrated in dose to water. The blood sample was placed in 3 tubes corresponding to
34 the different dose points, a high dose of 1.8 Gy, a low dose of 0.4 Gy, and a sham-irradiated sample.
35 After irradiation, samples were maintained 2 h at 37°C and then the blood was aliquoted into 2 mL
36 tubes. Blood samples were then coded as follows: the high dose as A, the low dose as C and the sham
37 irradiated as B. Then, samples were sent to the 39 participant laboratories from 19 countries who were
38 informed by e-mail of the shipment of three samples. The e-mail informed that there were three blind
39 samples, that corresponded to a high-, low- and sham- irradiated samples. In the same e-mail the RENEb
40 standard scoring sheet for dicentric, or dicentric plus centric ring, analysis was attached.

41 Shipment was performed using commercial express delivery services as UN 3373 Biological Substance
42 Category B, as described in detail in the manual of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 2011). Each package of blood samples included a temperature logger and a dosimeter to monitor the
4 temperature and any dose received during transportation. A second blood sample (male donor,
5 Etablissement Français du Sang (EFS), France; Agreement CPSL UNT N°13/EFS/123) was processed
6 as above and sent to 2 laboratories for whom there were shipment issues (see section 3).
7
8
9

10
11
12 In this study, the laboratories classified as RENE B laboratories (L1 to L20) correspond to those
13 belonging to the RENE B project that took part in the last RENE B ILC in 2015 (Oestreicher et al. 2017).
14 The other participants are classified as non-RENE B group (L21 to L38).
15
16
17

18 19 **b. Cell culture and dicentric chromosome assay**

20
21
22 Thirty of the participant laboratories were requested to set up lymphocyte cultures. Blood samples were
23 transmitted to three other participants by an intermediary laboratory in Bulgaria or South Korea. Thus
24 33 laboratories received blood samples. In all cases, cultures were processed using each laboratory's
25 standard protocol following the recommendations of the IAEA (2011) and the ISO standard 19238
26 (2014). Finally, a contact laboratory from Canada set up the lymphocyte cultures and sent stained slides
27 to its network of 6 laboratories. In all cases, the analyses were performed according to a RENE B standard
28 scoring sheet for the dicentric chromosome assay that was provided to the 39 participants. For each
29 sample, manual scoring of dicentric chromosomes (or dicentric chromosomes plus centric rings) in 500
30 cells by two different scorers if possible and using at least two slides (250 cells in each) was requested.
31 In addition to dicentric frequency per metaphase and dose assessment (Gy) for each sample, participants
32 were asked to report the Colcemid treatment used and the coefficients and associated errors of their
33 calibration curve. All participants sent the results directly (30 laboratories) or indirectly (through their
34 reference laboratory in Bulgaria, Canada and South Korea) to the organizing laboratory at the IRSN.
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 51 **c. Dose assessment**

52 For dose assessment, laboratories converted the frequency of aberrations observed per metaphase into
53 absorbed dose using their own calibration curves based on dicentric chromosomes or dicentric
54 chromosomes plus centric rings scoring. Some of the laboratories without their own calibration curve
55 decided to use the calibration curve data available in the last technical IAEA report on biodosimetry
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 (IAEA, 2011). The calculations needed to convert the observed dicentric chromosomes (or dicentric
4 chromosomes plus centric rings) into estimated doses were made by means of various software
5 programs: CABAS V2.0 (Deperas et al 2007), different versions of Dose Estimate (Ainsbury and Lloyd
6 2010), or in-house developed software based on Microsoft Excel (L6, L15, L19 and L34). All
7 laboratories estimated the doses in Gray (Gy) and included the 95% confidence intervals as requested.
8
9
10
11
12
13

14 **d. Statistics**

15
16 To assess the performance of each laboratory and the reproducibility of the exercise, the statistical
17 analysis followed the (ISO 5725 1998) recommendations which provide detailed guidance of general
18 statistical methods to use in proficiency testing schemes. These methods were successfully applied for
19 biological dosimetry in Di Giorgio et al. (2011). In brief, the robust estimations of the mean and standard
20 deviations of frequencies or doses were performed using the Algorithm A (algA function of the R
21 software “metrology” package) (ISO 13528, 2015). This algorithm yields robust location and scale
22 estimates by the “winsorisation” of the original data (the extreme values, instead of being deleted, are
23 shifted towards the bulk of the data using adequate upper and lower thresholds obtained by an iterated
24 scale). The “Breakdown points” for these estimators (proportion of outliers without an adverse impact
25 on the estimates) are approximately 30, which constitutes an adequate resistance to outlying values. A
26 robust estimation of the coefficient of variation can then be obtained as the ratio of the robust standard
27 deviation to the robust mean.
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 Once the mean and standard deviation robustly estimated, the performance analysis was conducted using
43 the Z- and U-tests. The Z-test measures the deviation of each laboratory’s reported frequency or
44 estimated dose from the robust mean of the reported frequencies or the delivered dose, both considered
45 as reference values. The Z-test also takes into account a robust standard deviation from the reported
46 frequencies or doses, and a standard uncertainty of the reference value. Laboratory performance using
47 the Z-test categorizes reported values into “satisfactory” when the $|Z|$ value is ≤ 2 , “questionable” for
48 a $|Z|$ value between 2 and 3, and “unsatisfactory” when the $|Z|$ value is ≥ 3 . Z-tests do not consider the
49 uncertainty of each participating laboratory. On the other hand, the U-test considers the mean value and
50 its confidence interval. With the U-test, the results of each laboratory are interpreted considering the
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 upper critical value of Student's t distribution, usually with a 0.05 probability of exceeding the critical
4 value, and with $N-1$ degrees of freedom (where N is the number of laboratories). For both tests, Z and
5
6
7 U , and to prevent against the multiple testing issues in the statistical inference, the Benjamini-Hochberg
8
9 (BH) (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995) adjustment was performed for controlling the false discovery rate
10 (FDR). This FDR-based control has been widely used in cases where a large number of hypotheses are
11
12 simultaneously tested and has been shown to be less conservative than the Bonferroni adjustment
13
14 (Shaffer 1995).
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only

3- RESULTS

a. Shipment

A total of 39 laboratories were involved in this ILC. From the initial shipping of blood samples by the organizing laboratory (IRSN), 11 laboratories belonging to the European Union (EU) received them within a period of 24h; and 22 laboratories received them within a period of 48 h regardless of location (EU or non-EU). 4 laboratories received the blood samples after a period larger than 48 h (from 48.5 h to 68 h), and 2 laboratories did not receive the samples due to an issue with customs authorities. A new shipment for the latter 2 was made by the IRSN laboratory and it was received within 48 hours. Each package included a dosimeter and none of the recorded doses was above 0.1 mSv. Among the laboratories that received blood samples, 32 out of 33 were able to set up lymphocyte cultures and to successfully obtain chromosome spreads. Considering all participants, including the 6 labs that received coded slides with chromosome spreads, a total of 38 laboratories were able to report their results.

b. Reported Frequencies

Table 1 shows the total number of dicentric chromosomes or dicentric chromosomes plus centric rings found by each laboratory for the three evaluated samples (A, B and C). From the total 114 reported values (38 labs x 3 samples), 99 of them correspond to the analysis of around 500 cells and the other 15 values correspond to 300 analyzed cells or less (Table 1). Two laboratories submitted 2 dose-effect curves each for manual scoring, as follows: one sent curves based on different kinds of staining (Giemsa (L2) or FISH coupled with pan-telomeric and pan-centromeric probes (L2b)), and one sent curves based on chromosomal aberration scoring (dicentrics (L31) and dicentrics plus centric rings (L31b)). All the sent results have been included in the analysis to show what can happen in a real case. **Indeed it is possible, whatever the cause, that a laboratory obtains a poor mitotic index, even when it is a very experienced laboratory.**

TABLE1NEARHERE

The figure 1 shows only the dicentric frequency per metaphase in order to effectively compare the same frequencies to each other. For sample A (1.8 Gy), the dicentric frequencies sent by each participant

laboratories are shown in Figure 1A. The observed frequencies of dicentric chromosomes per cell ranged from 0.10 to 0.34. The robust estimate of the mean (\pm robust standard deviation) was 0.22 ± 0.058 , and the coefficient of variation (CV) was of 27%. When only RENEB laboratories were considered CV was 20%. Figure 1 also shows the results of the Z and U tests.

FIGURE 1 NEAR HERE

Z- and U-tests were only done using the frequency of reported dicentric chromosomes per metaphase (Figure 1). For both tests, the BH adjustment was applied. The Z-score obtained for 97% of the labs were satisfactory. Different results were obtained using the U test, where the results of 10 labs (26% of labs) were unsatisfactory after BH adjustment. Evaluating separately RENEB (from L1 to L20) and non-RENEB laboratories (L21 to L38), we can notice that 85% of RENEB laboratories had satisfactory U-test values and among non-RENEB laboratories, only 61% showed satisfactory U-scores.

For sample B (0 Gy), dicentric chromosome frequencies sent by each participant laboratories are shown in Figure 1B. The observed frequencies of dicentric chromosomes per cell ranged from 0.0 to 0.01 and the robust estimate of the mean (\pm robust standard deviation) was 0.0014 ± 0.0017 and the CV was 128%. The results of the Z and U tests are also shown in Figure 1B. Concerning the Z-test, the results of only three participants (L14, L20 and L29) were considered unsatisfactory. 90% of the RENEB and 94% of the non-RENEB participants had a satisfactory Z-score. The U-test considered that all the values given by the laboratories are satisfactory.

The dicentric frequencies for sample C (0.4 Gy) sent by each participant laboratories are shown in Figure 1C. Observed mean frequencies of dicentric chromosome per cell ranged from 0.0 to 0.08 and the robust estimate of the mean (\pm robust standard deviation) was 0.025 ± 0.011 . The CV was 44%.

As shown in Figure 1C, only one Z value was considered as unsatisfactory (L7). Therefore, 97% of the participants present satisfactory Z-scores. When the U-test was applied, 2 frequencies gave unsatisfactory results (L36 and L37). With the U-test, L7 was not unsatisfactory anymore as the

1
2
3 uncertainty associated with its frequency per metaphase is quite large due to the analysis of only 12
4 cells. So, 95% of the participants had a satisfactory U-score.
5
6
7
8
9

10 c. Estimated Doses

11
12 TABLE2NEARHERE
13

14 The second step of this intercomparison was to estimate the three delivered doses. The ILC requested
15 each laboratory to calculate the estimated doses and their associated confidence intervals, using their
16 own dose-effect curve and applying the statistical method established in their laboratory. In addition,
17 the RENEB scoring sheet requested each laboratory to indicate the coefficients and standard errors of
18 the calibration curve used (Table 2). Twenty-nine laboratories sent the coefficients of a single dose-
19 effect curve, generally constructed using gamma- or X-rays (Table 3). Four laboratories submitted 2
20 dose-effect curves each, as follows: 2 participants sent curves based on different irradiation sources
21 (gamma- (L4 and L5) and x-rays (L4b and L5b)), and the two others (L2/L2b and L31/L31b) were
22 mentioned earlier in the “reported frequencies” section. Finally, five laboratories did not have any
23 calibration curve but two of them chose to use the calibration curve data available in the last technical
24 IAEA report on biodosimetry (IAEA, 2011), as it is also an acceptable method. For the other three, as it
25 was their first time of participation to an intercomparison, they were not aware of the possibility to use
26 an established dose-effect curve. Figure 2 shows only the values from the participants that reported an
27 estimated dose.
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 TABLE3NEARHERE
46

47 FIGURE2NEARHERE
48

49
50 Using the values sent by each laboratory, 65% of the reported dose estimation participants include the
51 high dose (sample A) in the 95% confidence interval of their dose estimates (93% and 89% for sham
52 irradiation (sample B) and low dose (sample C), respectively). As mentioned above, each laboratory
53 calculated the absorbed doses using the program routinely used in their laboratory, and there was a great
54 heterogeneity in the calculation of the 95% confidence interval. In fact, 16 laboratories used the CABAS
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 software that only considers Poisson's error on the observed yield. 13 participants used Dose Estimate
4 software, that can consider both, the error of the curve and the error of the observed yield of dicentric
5 chromosomes applying the delta method (IAEA manual 405, 2001). Among the 13 participants which
6 used the Dose Estimate software, 11 considered the delta method, and 2 only considered the error of the
7 observed yield. As well 6 laboratories that used their own software applied a Merkle approach to
8 consider both errors (Merkle, 1983). Finally, 3 laboratories gave no results on dose estimation. Among
9 the 38 laboratories that sent results, 2 laboratories sent miscalculated doses due to typo errors. To avoid
10 the impact of this heterogeneity in Z- and U-test analysis, all the dose estimations were recalculated
11 using a single method. The method used was Merkle's approach that was proposed in the last IAEA
12 manual (IAEA, 2011). However, because covariances of the fitted coefficients of curves were not
13 previously requested, the 95% confidence intervals were calculated considering only the standard errors
14 on curve coefficients. These results are reported in Figures 3, which show 39 results each because some
15 laboratories provided 2 dose effect curves leading each to dose estimations.

16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31 FIGURE3NEARHERE

32
33
34 For the high dose (sample A), the estimated doses ranged from 1.31 to 2.51 Gy, and 90% of the
35 participants included the delivered dose in their 95% confidence interval (Figure 3A). After applying
36 the BH adjustment all laboratories showed satisfactory Z-scores. Using the U-test, 90% of the
37 laboratories showed satisfactory results, 96% for RENEb and 81% for NON-RENEb participants. The
38 CV was of 15%.

39
40
41 For the sham-irradiated sample (B), the estimated doses ranged from 0.0 to 0.19 Gy, and in all cases
42 the 95% confidence intervals included the 0 Gy dose, except L35 (Figure 3B). For sample B, results
43 cannot be analyzed using the Z-test because of the algorithm A convergence failure of the robust
44 standard deviation estimation (abundance of null values). The U-test showed that 97% of the results
45 were satisfactory. All RENEb and 94% of non-RENEb participants had satisfactory U-scores.

1
2
3 Results for the low dose (sample C) can be seen in Figure 3C. Estimated doses ranged from 0.24 to 1.20
4 Gy, and the Z-test shows unsatisfactory result for only one participant. Therefore, 97% of the
5 laboratories had satisfactory scores. All U-scores were satisfactory. The CV was 29%.
6
7
8
9

10
11 Importantly, we noticed a substantial heterogeneity in the calibration curves from the participants as
12 reported in Table 3 and Figure 4. Concerning the gamma-rays calibration curves, the lowest dose rate
13 was 0.04 Gy·min⁻¹ (L3), and the highest 1.16 Gy·min⁻¹ (L34). For calibration curves using X-rays, dose
14 rates ranged between 0.35 Gy·min⁻¹ irradiating with X-rays of 243 kVp (L4b) and 2.5 Gy·min⁻¹
15 irradiating with X-rays of 6 MeV (L19). The IAEA technical report (IAEA, 2011) recommends that to
16 produce a dose-effect curve applicable to an acute accidental exposure the dose rate should be chosen
17 such that all doses are given in less than 15 min. Considering this recommendation and taking into
18 account that usually the highest dose used in a calibration curve is 4 or 5 Gy, a dose rate of about 0.34
19 Gy·min⁻¹ will allow to irradiate the highest dose in less than 15 minutes. Therefore 7 laboratories (L3,
20 L7, L16, L22, L33 and L34) used a dose rate that is under the IAEA recommendations.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

33 An alternative to reporting satisfactory result rates is to rank the results of each laboratory belonging to
34 the same network for a given sample based on their Z- and U-scores. Table 4 shows the differences in
35 ranking of the laboratories between the 2 tests.
36
37
38
39

40 TABLE4NEARHERE
41

42
43 In fact, differences in scoring criteria should be balanced by the use of individual curves, which logically
44 includes the specific scoring criteria of each laboratory. This effect is not clearly observed in the present
45 study. Table 5 shows the differences of laboratory ranking from the frequency to the dose estimation by
46 Z-score. For example, at group level, the mean Z-score calculated for the RENEB network or the non-
47 RENEB group does not change as much between frequency and estimated dose. For frequency and dose
48 estimation, RENEB and non-RENEB laboratories were ranking ranked based on their Z-scores, from
49 the lower to the higher values. The mean of the rank obtained for RENEB and non-RENEB laboratories
50 are 17.4 and 21.8 respectively. This is quite the same for dose estimation, the mean of the laboratory
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 rank based on Z-scores is 18.7 for RENEb, and 21.8 for non-RENEb laboratories. It should be noted
4
5 that the mean dose for all laboratories is not far from the delivered dose (1.74 Gy vs 1.80 Gy).
6
7

8 TABLE5NEARHERE
9

10
11 The curves reported for the present ILC show great variability in their calibration curve coefficients
12
13 (Table 2) and highlight the existing diversity among laboratories. A more visual representation of these
14
15 differences can be seen in figure 4. As an example, a frequency of 0.5 dicentric chromosome per
16
17 metaphase gives a dose of 1.80 Gy for L2b and a dose of 3.90 Gy for L9.
18
19

20
21
22 FIGURE4NEARHERE
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

4- DISCUSSION

In a mass-casualty radiological event, networks of biological dosimetry laboratories can decide to share different types of samples such as whole-blood, fixed cells, slides or metaphase images. Multiple Inter-Laboratory Comparisons (ILCs) have already tested different possibilities: blood (Roy et al. 2004; Oestreicher et al. 2017, Bakkiam et al. 2015, Romm et al. 2011, Pan 2019, and Wilkins et al. 2008); fixed cells (Roy et al. 2004); slides (Liu et al. 2016; Miller et al. 2007); or metaphase images (Garcia et al. 2013, Romm et al. 2014a and 2016). The present ILC has chosen to send whole blood to test all the steps of a biological dosimetry study (i.e. blood culture, slide preparation and staining, dicentric analysis and dose estimation).

Evaluating the shipment, 87% of the participant laboratories received the blood samples within 48h, including those outside Europe (Canada, USA, South Africa, South Korea, India and Vietnam). In addition, 97% of the laboratories were able to obtain chromosome spreads, even those that received the samples after 48h. In fact, only 6 out of 38 laboratories did not reach the 500 metaphases needed. The only laboratory that did not obtain any chromosome spreads received the blood sample in 48h. Therefore, no link could be established between sample-travel time and culture growth, and some delay in the shipment did not prevent lymphocyte growth in this study. In future ILCs it would be of interest to report the mitotic index in order to evaluate lymphocyte activation. Moreover, the impact of the shipment itself has been tested in other exercises. Particularly, in the ShipEx exercise between the Latin-American network (LDBNet) and several laboratories around the world. In this case, blood samples were also properly received and lymphocytes were able to satisfactorily grow for most of the participants (Garcia et al. 2013). The blood shipment has also been tested in other European ILCs (Beinke et al. 2013), where the same observation was made for the longest shipment times, including 96 h but this was not optimal (Oestreicher et al. 2017).

In our study, the dose received during the transport of the samples (mainly cosmic radiation and X-ray safety checks) amounted to a maximum of 0.1 mSv. In addition, only long-distance shipments were exposed to measured doses between 0.05 and 0.1 mSv. As comparison, similar exposures were reported in the ShipEx-1 exercise (Garcia et al. 2013). Thus, these dose levels can be considered negligible

1
2
3 compared to the sensitivity limits of the biological dosimetry method used. However, it seems prudent
4
5 to systematically include a dosimeter in the blood sample shipment, in case there are abnormal exposure
6
7 levels during transit safety checks. The results presented here and those previously reported (Oestreicher
8
9 et al. 2017, Wilkins et al. 2008) show that blood samples could be shared among laboratories around the
10
11 world in the event of a major radiological accident in order to perform biological dosimetry based on
12
13 chromosome aberrations.
14

15 16 17 18 **Interpretation of ILC Results**

19
20 Periodic ILCs allow the evaluation of the performance of laboratories that belong to a network. They
21
22 help to standardize practices and contribute to the improvement of the quality and robustness of the
23
24 results from such a network. One important aim of ILCs is to identify problems encountered by the
25
26 participants and define actions for improvement, such as harmonization, training and dose estimation
27
28 exercises. In biological dosimetry, the results are mainly based on the estimation of the chromosome
29
30 aberration frequency per metaphase. This value is subsequently converted into an estimated absorbed
31
32 dose using a pre-established dose-response curve specific to each laboratory. For biodosimetry
33
34 laboratories, the main goal of an ILC is to compare the results for these two values, frequency and
35
36 estimated dose, among the participant laboratories.
37
38

39
40 The objectivity of these comparisons is generally achieved through the Z- and U- score tests (Di Giorgio
41
42 et al. 2011). These two quantities evaluate, under different normalizations, the difference between the
43
44 value reported by each laboratory and a reference value considered as correct (i.e. the robust mean for
45
46 frequencies, or the delivered dose for dose estimation). In fact, the Z-Score is computed under a common
47
48 normalization based on the robust standard deviation while the U-score is computed using a laboratory
49
50 specific normalization based on the uncertainty measurement of each participant (which is highly
51
52 associated to the number of cells scored, but also to the level of exposure). Thus, these two tests give
53
54 complementary elements to interpret ILC results. In the present study, the U- and Z-scores were adjusted
55
56 using the Benjamini & Hochberg (1995) correction in order to take into account the large number of
57
58 calculated scores (at least one for each participating laboratory) and the associated increase of false
59
60

1
2
3 positive risk. Finally, by defining thresholds, one could distinguish acceptable, questionable and
4
5 unsatisfactory results. The comparison of frequencies aims to provide an overview of the state of
6
7 harmonization between the participating laboratories concerning chromosome aberration recognition.
8
9 In other words, this analysis allows the evaluation of the homogeneity among participating laboratories
10
11 concerning aberration detection and scoring criteria. From an overall perspective, with the Z-score, the
12
13 percentage of satisfactory results decreases with the level of exposure: 100%, 97% and 92% for samples
14
15 A (1.8 Gy), C (0.4 Gy), and B (non-exposed) respectively. Contrary to what the percentages of
16
17 satisfactory results might suggest, it cannot be concluded solely on the basis of the Z-score that
18
19 laboratory harmonization is worse at low doses than at high doses. The reason is that these percentages
20
21 are simply not directly comparable. In fact, the standard ISO 13528 (2015) justifies the use of the limits
22
23 “2” and “3” for the Z-score by the fact that “measurements that are carried out correctly are assumed to
24
25 generate results that can be described by a normal distribution”. Therefore, it is easy to see that the
26
27 validity of the Z-scores limits (2 and 3) is intrinsically related to the large-sample asymptotic normal
28
29 approximation of a Poisson distribution, which is usually used to describe the distribution of dicentric
30
31 chromosomes in a uniform irradiation context. The Berry-Essen Theorem (Berry 1941, Essen 1942)
32
33 provides an easy way to quantify this convergence rate which, in the case of a Poisson distribution, states
34
35 that a bound on the maximal error of the normal approximation is inversely proportional to the square
36
37 root of the product of the number of metaphases times the dicentric rate.

40
41 According to the sample A and the sample C aberration rates per cell (approximately 0.2 and 0.02
42
43 respectively), this implies that 5000 analyzed metaphases are needed for the low dose (sample C) to
44
45 achieve the normal approximation precision after analyzing 500 metaphases of the high dose (sample
46
47 A). In other words, by fixing the number of analyzed metaphases to 500 for all investigated doses, the
48
49 corresponding Z-score distributions are significantly different in terms of normal approximation,
50
51 making it inappropriate to have common satisfactory/unsatisfactory thresholds (here 2 and 3).

53
54 The same conclusion can be made for the U-score, even though it gives opposite results. With the U-
55
56 test, the percentage of satisfactory results decreases when the sample dose increases: 100% for non-
57
58 irradiated sample (dose B), 95% for 0.4 Gy (dose C) and 74% for 1.8 Gy (dose A). Once again, and for
59
60

1
2
3 the same reasons explained above for the Z-scores, it would be erroneous to conclude that laboratory
4 harmonization is worsening as the dose to be estimated increases.
5

6
7 An alternative to reporting satisfactory result rates is to rank the results of each laboratory belonging to
8 the same network for a given sample based on their Z- and U-scores. As explained above, the
9 methodology underlying the Z- and the U-score is not the same and the analysis of the ranking obtained
10 with each one should be interpreted in light of these differences. The Z-score ranks the laboratories
11 based on the distance between the value reported by each of them and the reference frequency (i.e. the
12 robust mean of all reported frequencies). Basically, the farther you are from this average value
13 representative of the group, the lower you are ranked. A disadvantage of this method is that two
14 laboratories that report the same mean frequency will have the same score, even if one of them has a
15 larger uncertainty for the measurement. This can be illustrated by comparing the Z-score of L6 and L7
16 for sample A. The two laboratories obtained a Z score very similar (0.34 and 0.28) as their reported
17 frequencies for sample A are similar (Table 4). However, the frequency of L7 has a much higher
18 uncertainty due to the low number of scored metaphases, and it can be considered less reliable than the
19 result of L6, which is not reflected in the Z-score ranking. The U-score makes it possible to account for
20 this difference between the 2 laboratories, but not in the direction that one would expect. In fact, the U
21 score for L7 (0.12), is lower than for L6 (0.86). Therefore, when performing the U-test for two
22 laboratories with similar frequencies, one of them can be better ranked because of its large uncertainty.
23 Because the number of dicentric chromosomes that can be detected will depend on the delivered dose
24 and on the number of cells analyzed, these two tests should be used carefully when ILC frequencies of
25 detected aberrations are considered. It seems more reasonable to use these tests to evaluate the level of
26 harmonization between laboratories, or networks of laboratories, rather than to evaluate each
27 laboratory's performance. The present RENE B ILC involves laboratories belonging to different groups
28 (RENE B network and non-RENE B participants) that have independently harmonized dicentric
29 chromosome scoring. In the present ILC, RENE B laboratories constitute majority half of the participants
30 and most of them have already participated to several ILCs (Oestreicher et al. 2017, Jaworska et al.
31 2015, Romm et al. 2014a, Ainsbury et al. 2014). This has a strong effect in the robust mean and robust
32 standard deviation considered as reference values.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The global analysis of frequencies by Z-score and U-score as presented in Table 4 can lead to
4 misinterpretations. As mentioned above, the real interest of the frequency analysis is to evaluate the
5 level of harmonization in the recognition of dicentric chromosomes. The present study involving 38
6 laboratories around the world that do not belong to the same network, or do not even belong to a network,
7 necessarily highlights an expected heterogeneity in the results, which is not very surprising or
8 informative. It might be of interest to focus on a sub-group of laboratories that have worked to harmonize
9 themselves, and to assess the gain associated with this harmonization process.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19

20 TABLE 6 NEAR HERE

21
22
23
24 Table 6 presents the results for sample A and for the Z-score analysis performed only on the 20
25 laboratories belonging to the RENE network. Within this group, the robust coefficient of variation is
26 20.1%, with 3 labs (15% of all RENE labs) showing questionable results (L11, L18 and L3). If these
27 3 laboratories are excluded, the coefficient of variation calculated from the frequencies obtained by the
28 remaining 85% of the laboratories is around 15%. These values can then be compared to the expected
29 value for the coefficient of variation which can be obtained by simulating 20 or 17 chromosome
30 aberration frequency estimates following a Poisson distribution with a parameter (λ) equal to the
31 robust means observed on the RENE subgroup, and taking into account the respective numbers of
32 metaphases scored by each laboratory. Then, the median value of these "theoretical" coefficients of
33 variation is 13.5% with 95% confidence interval of [7.7% - 27.4%]. This means that, due to the
34 stochastic nature of the measures, 20 laboratories involved in a "fully harmonized" ILC situation is
35 expected to obtain, in median, a coefficient of variation of 13.5%. Thus, the dispersion of the values
36 obtained for the RENE network, 20% or 15% is included within the 95% confidence interval of the
37 "theoretical" coefficient of variation and close to the median "theoretical" value of 13.5%. In
38 comparison, the robust coefficient of variation obtained for all 38 laboratories is 26.7%, and if only the
39 non-RENE laboratories are considered, the dispersion reaches a value of 36.5%. This shows that an
40 intercomparison analysis based on chromosomal aberration frequencies only makes sense among
41 laboratories that are involved in a common effort of harmonization. This should not be interpreted as a
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 better proficiency of a specific network in detecting dicentric chromosomes with respect to another, but
4
5 as a reflection of different ways of harmonization.
6
7

8
9 In conclusion, although Z- and U- tests are accepted methods to assess laboratory performance in
10 metrology (ISO 13528 2015), they are not ideal for ILCs. To this day, no commonly used tool proves to
11 be fully adapted and relevant to the needs of ILCs that are based on the frequency of radiation-induced
12 dicentric chromosomes per metaphase. To mitigate this deficiency, it seems appropriate for the
13 reliability of future ILCs to focus on radiation doses that are able to generate enough dicentric
14 chromosomes for 500 analyzed cells. This would limit the impact of Poisson uncertainties on the ILC
15 results. In addition, it seems essential to only include in the intercomparison analysis those laboratories
16 that have analyzed the requested number of metaphases, and to exclude those that have not, thus
17 allowing a comparison with an equivalent Poisson uncertainty. Otherwise, a comparison of results from
18 all participants appears hazardous. Additionally, one should consider that ILCs may include laboratories
19 from different networks that could have their own harmonized way of scoring dicentric chromosomes.
20 This could lead to questionable or unsatisfactory results because of different scoring criteria, and it
21 should not be interpreted as bad performance, but as a lack of harmonization among all the participating
22 laboratories.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 While ILCs based on the frequency evaluate the level of harmonization of scoring criteria,
40 intercomparisons based on estimated doses involve additional elements to be taken into account when
41 analyzing the results. One is the dose-effect curve required to estimate a dose from the observed
42 frequency, of which most of the participant laboratories have their own. It is widely accepted that in
43 ILCs, better results are generally obtained with estimated doses than with observed frequencies (Di
44 Giorgio et al. 2011). In fact, differences in scoring criteria should be balanced by the use of individual
45 curves, which logically includes the specific scoring criteria of each laboratory. This effect is not clearly
46 observed in the present study. For example, at group level, the mean Z-score calculated for the RENE
47 network or the non-RENEB group does not change as much between frequency and estimated dose. For
48 frequency, the mean rank based on the Z-scores obtained for RENE and non-RENEB laboratories are
49 17.4 and 21.8 respectively. This is quite the same for dose estimation, the mean rank based on the Z-
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 scores are 18.7 for RENEB, and 21.8 for non-RENEB. This is confirmed at the laboratory level, as
4
5 drastic changes in Z-score ranking (gain or loss of more than 15 places) between frequency and dose
6
7 estimation are limited to a minority of laboratories (Table 5). This is the case for L18, which
8
9 systematically improves its Z-score by more than 1.5 points between frequency and estimated dose (a
10
11 progress of 25 ranking places). Inversely, L9 gained more than 2 Z-score points when its dose-effect
12
13 curve was used to convert its chromosome aberration frequency to an estimated dose (a 35-row drop in
14
15 the overall ranking).
16

17
18 It is interesting to note that, although these changes in results between frequency and dose are small in
19
20 magnitude for most laboratories, globally, they are quite unfavorable. In fact, an increase of the Z-score
21
22 is observed for the majority of participants (58% for the high dose, sample A and 55% for the low dose,
23
24 sample C) when estimated doses are considered. Indeed, for the high dose, a mean loss of 2 ranks per
25
26 lab were observed between the ranking obtained for frequency and the one obtained for dose estimation.
27
28 This could indicate that the dose-effect curves include biases that prevent them from positively
29
30 compensating for differences in scoring criteria. The curves reported for the present ILC show great
31
32 variability in their calibration curve coefficients (table 2) and highlight the existing diversity among
33
34 laboratories. A more visual representation of these differences can be seen in figure 4.
35

36
37 The above-mentioned differences have multiple origins such as the number of dose points used to
38
39 calibrate the curve, the number of metaphases analyzed at each dose point, the dose-rate and the radiation
40
41 source (X- or gamma-rays). Another source of uncertainty is the way that the delivered doses were
42
43 calculated (Trompier et al, 2017). Briefly, depending on the radiation source, X-or gamma-rays, and
44
45 their energy, the calculation of the delivered dose to the samples can be based on air Kerma or dose to
46
47 water. Depending on the overall energy of the source, this could lead to different absorbed dose values
48
49 for the same irradiation. Consequently, this can impact the result of the dose estimation in an ILC if the
50
51 doses of a given dose-effect curve are not calibrated the same way than the dose delivered to the analyzed
52
53 sample. It is important to mention that usually in biodosimetry laboratories, all these details are not very
54
55 well traced. Furthermore, there are no minimum criteria for defining whether or not a dose-response
56
57 curve is acceptable for use in a given intercomparison. Currently, and in most of ILCs, calibration curves
58
59 from all participants are used, regardless of the way they are built. In fact, 7 laboratories reported dose
60

1
2
3 effect curves that were built using a dose rate too low to fully respect the IAEA recommendations
4 concerning how to build a dose effect curve applicable to an acute exposure. This point must absolutely
5 be considered for future intercomparisons as it has a very strong impact on the interpretability of the
6 results and on the identification of improvement areas for a specific network. Additionally, evolution in
7 the scoring criteria within a laboratory over the time elapsed between the calibration curve establishment
8 and the present intercomparison may lead to additional uncertainty in the dose assessment. In fact,
9 scorers are changing over the time so there is a need for periodical harmonization. Another important
10 issue is how the participation in intercomparisons have modified the scoring criteria and so the dose-
11 effect curve. This is particularly important if the dose-effect curves were produced prior to the
12 harmonization work carried out within the RENE network.
13
14

15
16 One more issue brought forward by this intercomparison was the lack of homogeneity in the calculation
17 of the uncertainties associated to the doses reported by the participants. In fact, there are different
18 generally accepted ways to estimate a dose and its associated uncertainties, as several calculation
19 software programs are available (CABAS, Dose Estimate and Microsoft Excel-based spreadsheets).
20 Considering that these tools do not implement the same methodologies to calculate uncertainties, it made
21 it difficult to compare the raw reported values because they were not calculated in a homogenous
22 manner. In the present study, the estimated doses and uncertainties initially sent by participants were
23 calculated by each laboratory using their own methods. This led to a great heterogeneity in the reported
24 values and in the reported curve coefficients, which further complicated their interpretation in the
25 context of an intercomparison. For this reason, all dose estimates were re-calculated using the reported
26 frequencies and their own dose-response curves using the method described by Merkle et al (1983) and
27 mentioned in the IAEA manual (2011). For future ILCs, it seems essential to clearly define the
28 methodology to be applied by the laboratories for the calculation of the dose and the associated
29 uncertainties. To go further, the implementation of a single integrated and open-ended tool available to
30 the participants seems to be relevant. This was the strategy adopted by the RENE association, through
31 the development of BiodoseTools, a software based on R with a Shiny interface
32 (<https://github.com/biodosetools-team/biodosetools>).
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

5- CONCLUSION AND PERSPECTIVES

Standardization of chromosomal aberration scoring during the various European projects (MULTIBIODOSE and RENEb) has improved results of dose assessment in ILC exercises (Jaworska et al. 2015, Oestreicher et al. 2017). The present work demonstrates that harmonized and trained networks such as RENEb (in terms of chromosomal aberration scoring) obtain better results than a non-harmonized group. This is illustrated by the high level of satisfactory results obtained either in frequency or dose by L1-L20 when using classical intercomparison analysis tools, such as the Z-score and its associated decision thresholds. However, one cannot conclude that RENEb laboratories are fully harmonized, not only for those non-satisfactory results but also by the statistical tools used. These statistical tools appear to be limited and are not able to advantageously exploit the richness of results from large intercomparisons. At present, these tools do not allow a fine diagnosis of laboratory performance, neither do they serve as new avenues for improvement for the network of laboratories. For example, it would seem interesting to be able to easily discriminate results such as those obtained by the L5, L7 and L9, which intuitively do not seem equivalent, but are considered as such by looking at their Z- and U-scores. After this first stage of harmonization using these tools, the use of other approaches to test laboratory performance in future intercomparisons seems to be necessary. Solutions based on the bias-variance trade-off are currently being explored.

Another issue highlighted by this ILC is the question of the infinite diversity of dose-effect curves. It clearly appears that, despite the initial advantage of including the scoring specificities of each laboratory, the lack of recommendations and minimum criteria to evaluate the robustness of each laboratory's curve seems to be a negative point for the model of "a curve per lab". The construction of a robust curve is a long-term procedure, which should be part of a constant and dynamic evolution process in order to take into account the changes occurring over time in the laboratories, or the evolutions inherent to the process of harmonization of a network. In addition, the relevance of a dose-effect curve established 25 or 30 years ago by members who are no longer present in a given laboratory is questionable. By definition, the process of harmonization would generate a change in practices and may raise questions about the validity of a pre-existing dose-response curve. One of the main advantages of a large laboratory network

1
2
3 is its power in terms of data production. The present intercomparison generated the analysis of a striking
4
5 20,000 different metaphases per dose. When harmonization of practices is achieved, such a network
6
7 could build an extremely robust dose-response curve in just 2 or 3 intercomparisons. This would also
8
9 have the advantage of consolidating practices in terms of calculating coefficients and the associated
10
11 uncertainties, making it a strategy that should be seriously considered in large.

12
13
14 Finally, and in the same spirit of unification, it seems relevant to develop tools that are better adapted to
15
16 the collection and processing of results produced by the various participant laboratories. For the moment,
17
18 this collection happens at a relatively small-scale (notably through the exchange of spreadsheet files).
19
20 The coupling of tools such as BiodoseTools and web portals for collecting results seems to be
21
22 particularly promising, both in terms of definition and application of the methodologies necessary for
23
24 their processing (in particular, the calculation of uncertainties), but also in terms of the reliability
25
26 associated with the traceability of results.

27
28
29 After a first harmonization phase lasting more than ten years (Kulka et al. 2017, Oestreicher et al. 2017,
30
31 Gregoire et al. 2017), and even if there is still room for improvement, the level of harmonization reached
32
33 by RENEb members definitely confirms the operational value of international networks of biological
34
35 dosimetry laboratories, particularly in the case of large-scale radiological accidents.
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS & DISCLAIMERS

43
44
45 One author's (WFB) efforts in this study was funded by AFRRI's intramural protocols RBB44313 and
46
47 AFR-B4-4313. The author (WFB) wishes to thank Uma Subramanian and Dr David L. Bolduc for their
48
49 contributions in this study. The opinions and assertions expressed herein are those of the author (WFB)
50
51 and do not necessarily reflect the official policy or position of the Uniformed Services University of the
52
53 Health Sciences or the United States Department of Defense. The research protocol was reviewed and
54
55 approved by the USUHS IRB Committee in accordance with all Federal regulations governing the
56
57 protection of humans in research.
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6 DISCLOSURE STATEMENT
7
8

9 No conflict of interest was reported by the authors
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Ainsbury E, Livingston GK, Abbott MG, Moquet JE, Hone PA, Jenkins MS, Christensen DM, Lloyd DC and Rothkamm K. Interlaboratory variation in scoring dicentric chromosomes in a case of partial-body x-ray exposure: implications for biodosimetry networking and cytogenetic “trriage mode” scoring. 2009. *Radiat Res.* 172:746–752.
2. Ainsbury EA and Lloyd DC. 2010. Dose estimation software for radiation biodosimetry. *Health Phys.* 98:290–295.
3. Ainsbury EA, Al-Hafidh J, Bajinskis A, Barnard S, Barquinero JF, Beinke C, de Gelder V, Gregoire E, Jaworska A, Lindholm C, Lloyd D, Moquet J, Nylund R, Oestreicher U, Roch-Lefèvre S, Rothkamm K, Romm H, Scherthan H, Sommer S, Thierens H, Vandevoorde C, Vral A and Wojcik A. 2014 Feb. Inter- and intra-laboratory comparison of a multibiodosimetric approach to triage in a simulated, large scale radiation emergency. *Int J Rad Biol.* 90:193–202.
4. Bakkiam D, Bhavani M, Anantha Kumar AA, Sonwani S, Venkatachalam P, Sivasubramanian K and Venkatraman B. 2015. Dicentric assay: inter-laboratory comparison in Indian laboratories for routine and triage applications. *Appl Radiat Isot.* 99:77–85.
5. Bhavani M, Tamizh Selvan G, Kaur H, Adhikari JS, Vijayalakshmi J, Venkatachalam P, Chaudhury NK. 2014. Dicentric chromosome aberration analysis using giemsa and centromere specific fluorescence in-situ hybridization for biological dosimetry: An inter- and intra-laboratory comparison in Indian laboratories. *Appl Radiat Isot.* 92:85–90.
6. Beinke C, Oestreicher U, Riecke A, Kulka U, Meineke V, Romm H. Inter-laboratory comparison to validate the dicentric assay as a cytogenetic triage tool for medical management of radiation accidents. 2011. *Radiat Meas.* 46:929-935.
7. Beinke C, Barnard S, Boulay-Greene H, De Amicis A, De Sanctis S, Herodin F, Jones A, Kulka U, Lista F, Lloyd D, Martigne P, Moquet J, Oestreicher U, Romm H, Rothkamm K, Valente M, Meineke V, Braselmann H and Abend M. 2013. NATO dosimetry study Laboratory Intercomparison of the Dicentric Chromosome Analysis Assay. *Radiat Res.* 180:129–137.

- 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 4
 - 5
 - 6
 - 7
 - 8
 - 9
 - 10
 - 11
 - 12
 - 13
 - 14
 - 15
 - 16
 - 17
 - 18
 - 19
 - 20
 - 21
 - 22
 - 23
 - 24
 - 25
 - 26
 - 27
 - 28
 - 29
 - 30
 - 31
 - 32
 - 33
 - 34
 - 35
 - 36
 - 37
 - 38
 - 39
 - 40
 - 41
 - 42
 - 43
 - 44
 - 45
 - 46
 - 47
 - 48
 - 49
 - 50
 - 51
 - 52
 - 53
 - 54
 - 55
 - 56
 - 57
 - 58
 - 59
 - 60
8. Benjamini Y and Hochberg Y. 1995. Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. *J R Stat Soc Series B Stat (Methodol)*. 57(1):289-300.
9. Berry AC. 1941. The accuracy of the Gaussian approximation to the sum of independent variates. *Trans. Amer. Math. Soc.* 49(1):122-136.
10. Christie DH, Chu MC and Carr Z. 2010. Global networking for biodosimetry laboratory capacity surge in radiation emergencies. *Health Phys.* 98:168–17.
11. Deperas J, Szluinska M, Deperas-Kaminska M, Edwards A, Lloyd D, Lindholm C, Romm H, Roy L, Moss R, Morand J, Wojcik A. 2007. CABAS: a freely available PC program for fitting calibration curves in chromosome aberration dosimetry. *Radiat Protect Dosimetry*. 124:115–123.
12. Di Giorgio M, Barquinero JF, Vallerga MB, Radl A, Taja MR, Seoane A, De Luca J, Stuck Oliveira M, Valdivia P, Garcia Lima O, Lamadrid A, Gonzalez Mesa J, Romero Aguilera I, Mandina Cardoso T, Guerrero Carvajal YC, Arceo Maldonado C, Espinoza ME, Martinez-Lopez W, Mendez-Acuna L, Di Tomaso MV, Roy L, Lindholm C, Romm H, Guclu I and Lloyd D. 2011. Biological dosimetry intercomparison exercise: an evaluation of triage and routine mode results by robust methods. *Radiat Res.* 175:638–649.
13. Esseen CG. 1942. On the Liapunoff limit of error in the theory of probability. *Arkiv for Matematik Astronomi och Fysik.* A28 (9):1-19.
14. Garcia O, Di Giorgio M, Vallerga MB, Radl A, Taja MR, Seoane A, De Luca J, Stuck Oliveira M, Valdivia P, Lamadrid AI, Gonzalez JE, Romero I, Mandina T, Pantelias G, Terzoudi G, Guerrero-Carbajal C, Arceo Maldonado C, Espinoza M, Oliveros N, Martinez-Lopez W, Di Tomaso MV, Mendez-Acuna L, Puig R, Roy L and Barquinero JF. 2013. Interlaboratory comparison of dicentric chromosome assay using electronically transmitted images. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry*. 154(1):18–25.
15. Gregoire E, Kulka U, Barrios L, Ainsbury E, Bassinet C, Fattibene P, Oestreicher U, Pantelias, G, Terzoudi G, Trompier F, Voisin P, Vral A, Wojcik A and Roy L. 2017 Jan. The harmonization process to set up and maintain an operational biological dosimetry and physical retrospective dosimetry network: QA QM applied to the RENE network. *Int J Rad Biol.* 93(1): 81-86.
16. International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). 2001. Manual 405 Vienna: IAEA
17. International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). 2011. Cytogenetic dosimetry: applications in preparedness for and response to radiation emergencies. Vienna: IAEA.

- 1
2
3 18. International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 13528: 2015. Statistical methods for use in
4 proficiency testing by interlaboratory comparison.
5
6
7 19. International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 5725. 1998. Precision of test methods-
8 determination of repeatability & reproducibility for a standard test method by interlaboratory tests..
9
10
11 20. International Organization for Standardization (ISO). 19238. 2014. Radiation protection-
12 performance criteria for service laboratories performing biological dosimetry by cytogenetics.
13 Geneva: ISO.
14
15
16 21. Jaworska A, Ainsbury EA, Fattibene P, Lindholm C, Oestreicher U, Rothkamm K, Romm H,
17 Thierens H, Trompier F, Voisin P, Vral A, Woda C and Wojcik A. 2015 Apr. Operational guidance
18 for radiation emergency response organizations in Europe for using biodosimetric tools developed in
19 EU MULTIBIODOSE project. *Radiat Protect Dosimetry*. 164:1–5.
20
21
22
23 22. Kulka U, Ainsbury, EA, Atkinson M, Barquinero JF, Barrios L, Beinke C, Bognar G, Cucu A,
24 Darroudi F, Fattibene P, Gil O, Gregoire E, Hadjidekova V, Haghdoost, Herranz R, Jaworska A,
25 Lindholm C, M'kacher R, Möertl S, Montoro A, Moquet J, Moreno M, Ogbazghi A, Oestreicher U,
26 Palitti F, Pantelias G, Popescu I, Prieto MJ, Romm H, Rothkamm K, Sabatier L, Sommer S, Terzoudi
27 G, Testa A, Thierens H, Trompier F, Turai I, Vandesickel V, Vaz P, Voisin P, Vral A, Ugletveit F,
28 Woda C and Wojcik A. Realising the European network of biodosimetry (RENEB). 2012. *Radiat.*
29 *Prot. Dosimetry*. 151(4): 621-625.
30
31
32 23. Kulka U, Ainsbury, EA, Atkinson M, Barnard S, Smith R, Barquinero JF, Barrios L, Bassinet C,
33 Beinke C, Cucu A, Darroudi F, Fattibene P, Bortolin F, Della Monaca S, Gil O, Gregoire E,
34 Hadjidekova V, Haghdoost S, Hatzi V, Hempel W, Herranz R, Jaworska A, Lindholm C, Lumniczky
35 K, M'kacher R, Möertl S, Montoro A, Moquet J, Moreno M, Noditi M, Ogbazghi A, Oestreicher U,
36 Palitti F, Pantelias G, Popescu I, Prieto MJ, Roch-Lefèvre S, Roessler U, Romm H, Rothkamm K,
37 Sabatier L, Sebastia N, Sommer S, Terzoudi G, Testa A, Thierens H, Trompier F, Turai I,
38 Vandevoorde C, Vaz P, Voisin P, Vral A, Ugletveit F, Wieser A, Woda C and Wojcik A. Realising
39 the European network of biodosimetry: RENEB-status quo. 2015. *Radiat. Prot. Dosimetry*. 164:42–
40 45.
41
42
43 24. Kulka U, Abend M, Ainsbury E, Badie C, Barquinero JF, Barrios L, Beinke C, Bortolin E, Cucu A,
44 De Amicis A, Dominguez I, Fattibene P, Frovig AM, Gregoire E, Guogyte K, Hadjidekova V,
45 Jaworska A, Kriehuber R, Lindholm C, Lloyd D, Lumniczky K, Lyng F, Meschini R, Mörtl S, Della
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Monaca S, Monteiro Gil O, Montoro A, Moquet J, Moreno M, Oestreicher U, Palitti F, Pantelias G,
4 Patrono C, Piqueret-Stephan L, Port M, Prieto MJ, Quintens R, Ricoul M, Romm H, Roy L, Sáfrány
5 G, Sabatier L, Sebastià N, Sommer S, Terzoudi G, Testa A, Thierens H, Turai I, Trompier F, Valente
6 M, Vaz P, Voisin P, Vral A, Woda C, Zafiroopoulos D and Wojcik A. 2017. RENEb – Running the
7 European Network of biological dosimetry and physical retrospective dosimetry. *Int J Rad Biol.*
8 93(1):2-14.
- 9
10
11
12
13
14
15 25. Liu JX, Pan Y, Ruan JL, Piao C, Su X. 2016. Intercomparison in cytogenetic dosimetry among 22
16 laboratories in China. *Genome Integr.* 7:6.
- 17
18
19 26. Lloyd DC, Edwards AA, Moquet JE, Guerrero-Carbajal YC. 2000. The role of cytogenetics in early
20 triage of radiation casualties. *Appl Radiat Isot.* 52:1107-1112.
- 21
22
23 27. Merkle W. 1983. Statistical methods in regression and calibration analysis of chromosome aberration
24 data. *Radiat Environ Biophys.* 21(3):217–233.
- 25
26
27 28. Miller SM, Ferrarotto CL, Vlahovich S, Wilkins RC, Boreham DR and Dolling J A. 2007. Canadian
28 cytogenetic emergency network (CEN) for biological dosimetry following radiological/nuclear
29 accidents. *Int J Rad Biol.* 83:471–477.
- 30
31
32 29. Oestreicher U, Samaga D, Ainsbury E, Antunes AC, Baeyens A, Barrios L, Beinke C, Beukes P,
33 Blakely WF, Cucu A, De Amicis A, Depuydt J, De Sanctis S, Di Giorgio M, Dobos K, Dominguez
34 I, Ngoc Duy P, Espinoza ME, Flegal FN, Figel M, Garcia O, Monteiro Gil O, Gregoire E, Guerrero-
35 Carbajal C, Güçlü İ, Hadjidekova V, Hande P, Kulka U, Lemon J, Lindholm C, Lista F, Lumniczky
36 K, Martinez-Lopez W, Maznyk N, Meschini R, M'kacher R, Montoro A, Moquet J, Moreno M,
37 Noditi M, Pajic J, Radl A, Ricoul M, Romm H, Roy L, Sabatier L, Sebastià N, Slabbert J, Sommer
38 S, Stuck Oliveira M, Subramanian U, Suto Y, Que T, Testa A, Terzoudi G, Vral A, Wilkins R, Yanti
39 LY, Zafiroopoulos D and Wojcik A. 2017. RENEb intercomparisons applying the conventional
40 Dicentric Chromosome Assay (DCA). *Int J Rad Biol.* 93(1):20-29.
- 41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49 30. Pan Y, Ruan J, Gao G, Wu L, Piao C, and Liu J. 2019 Jan-Mar. Laboratory intercomparison of
50 cytogenetic dosimetry among 38 laboratories in china. *Dose-Response.* 17(1):1-7.
- 51
52
53 31. Romm H, Wilkins RC, Coleman CN, Lillis-Hearne PK, Pellmar TC, Livingston GK, Awa AA,
54 Jenkins MS, Yoshida MA, Oestreicher U and Prasanna PGS. 2011. Biological dosimetry by the triage
55 dicentric chromosome assay: potential implications for treatment of acute radiation syndrome in
56 radiological mass casualties. *Radiat Res.* 175:397–404.
- 57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 32. Romm H, Ainsbury E, Bajinskis A, Barnard S, Barquinero JF, Beinke C, Puig-Casanovas R,
4 Deperas-Kaminska M, Gregoire E, Kulka U, Oestreicher U, Lindholm C, Moquet J, Rothkamm K,
5 Sommer S, Thierens H, Vral A, Vandersickel V, Wojcik A. 2014a. Web-based scoring of the
6 dicentric assay, a collaborative biodosimetric scoring strategy for population triage in large scale
7 radiation accidents. *Radiat Environ Biophys.* 53(2):241-254.
8
9
10
11
12 33. Romm H, Ainsbury E, Barnard S, Barrios L, Barquinero JF, Beinke C, Deperas M, Gregoire E,
13 Koivistoinen A, Lindholm C, Moquet J, Oestreicher U, Puig R, Rothkamm K, Sommer S, Thierens
14 H, Vandersickel V, Vral A, Wojcik A. 2014b June. Validation of semi-automatic scoring of dicentric
15 chromosomes after simulation of three different irradiation scenarios, *Health Phys.* 106(6):764-71.
16
17
18 34. Romm H, Beinke C, Garcia O, Di Giorgio M, Gregoire E, Livingston G, Lloyd D, Martinez-Lopez
19 W, Moquet JE, Sugarman SL, Wilkins RC and Ainsbury EA. 2016. A new cytogenetic biodosimetry
20 image repository for the dicentric assay. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry.* 172(1-3): 192–200
21
22
23
24
25 35. Roy L, Buard V, Delbos M, Durand V, Paillole N, Gregoire E and Voisin P. 2004. International
26 intercomparison for criticality dosimetry: the case of biological dosimetry. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry.*
27 110(1-4):471–476.
28
29
30
31 36. Shaffer JP. 1995. Multiple hypothesis testing. *Annual Review of Psychology.* 46:561-584.
32
33
34 37. Trompier F, Baumann M, Barrios L, Gregoire E, Abend M, Ainsbury E, Barnard S, Barquinero JF,
35 Bautista JA, Brzozowska B, Perez-Calatayud J, De Angelis C, Domínguez I, Hadjidekova V, Kulka
36 U, Mateos JC, Meschini R, Monteiro Gil O, Moquet J, Oestreicher U, Montoro Pastor A, Quintens
37 R, Sebastià N, Sommer S, Stoyanov O, Thierens H, Terzoudi G, Villaescusa JI, Vral A, Wojcik A,
38 Zafiroopoulos D and Roy L. 2017 Jan. Investigation of the influence of calibration practices on
39 cytogenetic laboratory performance for dose estimation. *Int J Rad Biol.* 93(1):118-126.
40
41
42
43 38. Vaurijoux A, Gruel G, Gregoire E, Roch-Lefevre S, Voisin Pa, Martin C, Voisin Ph, Roy L,
44 Barquinero JF. 2015. Automatic dicentric scoring a real option to be used in biological dosimetry.
45 *Rad Emerg Med.* 4:16-21.
46
47
48
49 39. Voisin P. Standards in biological dosimetry: A requirement to perform an appropriate dose
50 assessment. 2015. *Mutat Res.* 793:115–122.
51
52
53
54 40. Wilkins R, Romm H, Kao TC, Awa AA, Yoshida MA, Livingston GK, Jenkins MS, Oestreicher U,
55 Pellmar TC, and Prasanna PGS. 2008. Interlaboratory comparison of the dicentric chromosome assay
56 for radiation biodosimetry in mass casualty events. *Radiat Res.* 169(5):551-560.
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 41. Wilkins RC, Romm H, Oestreicher U, Marro L, Yoshida M A, Suto Y, and Prasanna PGS. 2011
4
5 Sept. Biological dosimetry by the triage dicentric chromosome assay – further validation of
6
7 international networking. *Radiat Meas.* 46(9): 923–928.
8
9 42. Wojcik A, Lloyd D, Romm H and Roy L, Biological dosimetry for triage of casualties in a large-
10
11 scale radiological emergency: capacity of the EU member states. 2010. *Radiat Prot Dosimetry.*
12
13 138(4):397–401.
14
15 43. Yoshida MA, Hayata I, Tateno H, Tanaka K, Sonta S, Kodama S, Kodama Y and Sasaki MS. 2007.
16
17 The chromosome network for biodosimetry in Japan. *Radiat Meas.* 42:1125–1127.
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figures and Tables Legends

Table 1. Reported scoring values from each laboratory; dicentric (dic) and dicentric plus ring (dic+r). In italics, reported values that did not include the cell distribution of aberrations. L1 to L20 are RENEb members and L21 to L38 are non-RENEb group. *L2 and L2b represent different kinds of staining (Giemsa (L2) or FISH coupled with pan-telomeric and pan-centromeric probes (L2b)). **L31 and L31b represent chromosomal aberration scoring (dicentrics (L31) and dicentrics plus rings (L31b)).

Figure 1: Dicentric frequencies per metaphase for sample A (A), sample B (B) and sample C (C) from each of the participant laboratories. Triangles represent the dicentric frequency per metaphase obtained by each laboratory for sample A (A), sample B (B) and sample C (C). The solid black line is the robust mean when laboratories reported the dicentric frequency per metaphase. Dashed lines mark the 95% confidence interval of the robust mean. Z- and U-scores were calculated with a Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment. Stars denote an unsatisfactory U-score and circles denote an unsatisfactory Z score. RENEb laboratories are within the grey rectangle.

Table 2. Calibration curve coefficients of the participant laboratories. NA: Not Available. These laboratories have no dose-effect curve. Some laboratories did not include standard deviations for the coefficients (\pm NA). *L2 and L2b represent different kinds of staining (Giemsa (L2) or FISH coupled with pan-telomeric and pan-centromeric probes (L2b)). **L4/L5 and L4b/L5b represent calibration curves based on different irradiation sources (gamma- (L4 and L5) and x-rays (L4b and L5b)). ***L31 and L31b represent chromosomal aberration scoring (dicentrics (L31) and dicentrics plus rings (L31b)). L1 to L20 are RENEb members and L21 to L38 are non-RENEb group.

Table 3: Source and dose rate used by the laboratories for their calibration curve. * : L2 used Giemsa for dicentric chromosomes and centric rings staining, and L2b used TC-FISH for dicentric chromosomes and centric rings staining. ** : L31 scored only dicentric chromosomes to build its curve

and L31b scored dicentric chromosomes and centric rings to build its curve. L1 to L20 are RENE members and L21 to L38 are non-RENE group. NP : Not Provided

Figure 2: Dose estimations sent by the participant laboratories for samples A, B, C. Solid circles represent the dose estimation based on the total number of metaphases analyzed. Some laboratories sent two estimated doses for each sample, which are represented by open triangles. Error bars correspond to the reported 95% confidence interval. The horizontal line represents the delivered physical dose to the blood.

Figure 3: Re-calculated doses by the IRSN based on Merckle's approach and using each laboratory's own curve coefficients for sample A (3A), sample B (3B) and sample C (3C).

Diamonds represent the average dose obtained and error bars correspond to the 95% confidence interval of the estimated dose. Values considered as unsatisfactory by the U-test are indicated with a star. Unsatisfactory results by the Z-test are indicated with a circle. RENE laboratories are within the grey rectangle.

Table 4: Laboratory ranking by Z-Score (A) and by U-Score (B). a : CA Frequency : Frequency of chromosomal aberrations (dicentric chromosomes per cell)

Table 5: Comparison of laboratory rankings between the Z-score obtained for dicentric frequency per metaphase and the Z-score obtained for assessed dose. Rectangles show the laboratories whose rank changes the most between frequency and dose. L9 is highlighted by a solid line rectangle and L18 is highlighted by a dashed line rectangle. L36, L37 and L38 are not present in the dose column since they did not provide dose estimations. L4b, L5b and L31b are present only in the dose column because the dicentric frequencies are similar within the same laboratory (L4/L4b ; L5/L5b ; L31/L31b). NA: Not Available: The Z-score for L2b was not calculated because the staining technique (TC-FISH) was different from the rest (GIEMSA staining) and thus could not be compared using this test.

Figure 4: Calibration curves of the Inter-Laboratory Comparison participants. The horizontal line represents the frequency of 0.5 dicentric chromosomes or dicentrics + centric rings per metaphase

1
2
3 and the grey vertical lines indicate the mean estimated dose obtained with the two most distant curves.

4
5 The dashed curve, indicated by an arrow, is that of the IAEA manual (IAEA 2011).

6
7
8 **Table 6: Comparison of robust values among laboratory categories. \bar{x} , s and CV correspond**
9
10 **respectively to the calculated robust mean, robust standard deviation and robust coefficient of**
11
12 **variation calculated.**

13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Peer Review Only