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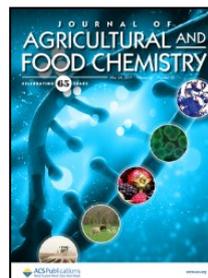
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**A new method to estimate total polyphenol excretion: comparison of Fast Blue  
BB vs. Folin-Ciocalteu performance in urine**

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1           **ABSTRACT**

2           Polyphenols are bioactive substances of vegetal origin with a significant impact on human  
3 health. The assessment of polyphenols intake and excretion is therefore important. The Folin-Ciocalteu  
4 (F-C) method is the reference assay to measure polyphenols in foods as well as their excretion in urine.  
5 However, many substances can influence the method, making it necessary to conduct a prior clean up  
6 using solid phase extraction (SPE) cartridges. In this paper we demonstrate the use of the Fast Blue BB  
7 reagent (FBBB) as a new tool to measure the excretion of polyphenols in urine. Contrary to F-C,  
8 FBBB showed no interference in urine, negating the time-consuming and costly SPE clean up. In  
9 addition, it showed excellent linearity ( $r^2 = 0.9997$ ) with a recovery of 96.4% and a precision of 1.86-  
10 2.11%. The FBBB method was validated to measure the excretion of polyphenols in spot urine  
11 samples from Spanish children, showing a good correlation between polyphenols intake and excretion.

12  
13           **KEYWORDS**

14           Polyphenols, daily intake, urinary excretion, Folin-Ciocalteu, Fast Blue BB.  
15  
16

## 17 INTRODUCTION

18 Polyphenols are a group of chemical substances found in plants characterized by the presence of  
19 more than one phenol unit or building block per molecule.<sup>1</sup> Fruits, vegetables, and beverages are the  
20 main sources of phenolic compounds in the human diet.<sup>2</sup> Western populations consume around 1–2  
21 g/day polyphenols, mainly from fruits, vegetables and beverages such as tea, coffee, wine and fruit  
22 juices.<sup>3</sup> Many associations between intake of certain polyphenols and a reduction in disease risk  
23 factors have been observed in cohort studies<sup>4-7</sup> mainly due to their antioxidant,<sup>8-9</sup> anti-inflammatory,<sup>10</sup>  
24 cardio-protective,<sup>11</sup> cancer chemo-preventive<sup>12-13</sup> and neuroprotective properties.<sup>14</sup>

25 Polyphenol intake is most commonly estimated using dietary recalls, food-frequency  
26 questionnaires and databases on the polyphenol content of foods. These tools, particularly the  
27 development of databases on the food content of polyphenols, have improved significantly over the  
28 past few years.<sup>15-17</sup> In this sense, Phenol-Explorer is a searchable database that has revolutionized the  
29 estimation of dietary intake of polyphenols.<sup>17</sup> It contains the average polyphenol composition of more  
30 than 500 food items as well as their retention factors.<sup>18</sup> As a comprehensive polyphenol knowledge  
31 base, the Phenol-Explorer database has become a unique and essential tool for polyphenol scientists.

32 There is an urgent necessity to obtain accurate biomarkers of polyphenol intake in order to  
33 identify associations between polyphenol intake, and health and disease outcomes in cohort studies.<sup>19</sup>  
34 Biomarkers are objective measures since they do not depend on dietary-assessment methods, limiting  
35 potential bias and error associated with dietary assessment and inaccuracies in food-composition  
36 data.<sup>20-21</sup> The main biomarker of polyphenol intake is the excretion of phenol metabolites in urine<sup>22</sup>.  
37 This is due to the short half-life of polyphenols in plasma and the stronger expected dependence of  
38 polyphenol concentrations on sampling time in urine.<sup>23</sup>

39 The main method to quantify polyphenols in natural products is the Folin–Ciocalteu (F-C) assay,  
40 with some improvements described by Singleton & Rossi.<sup>24</sup> However, the F-C assay is affected by  
41 several non-phenolic interfering substances (such as sugars, aromatic amines, sulfur dioxide, ascorbic  
42 acid or organic acids) that react with the F-C reagent.<sup>25</sup> Roura et al.<sup>22</sup> studied the effect of such

43 interferences in urine in order to assess the intake of polyphenols coming from cocoa. These authors  
44 have proposed a method where such interfering substances are removed from urine after a single solid  
45 phase extraction (SPE) cleanup procedure, so that they were not present in the eluate and cannot react  
46 with the F–C reagent. An alternative method of analyzing polyphenols in food extracts has been  
47 developed by Medina.<sup>26</sup> This new assay does not suffer from interferences with the same substances as  
48 the F-C method, because of the use of the Fast Blue BB diazonium salt (FBBB). In this salt, the  
49 diazonium group specifically couples with reactive phenolic hydroxyl groups under alkaline  
50 conditions, to form stable azo complexes that can be measured at 420 nm.<sup>27,28</sup> The aim of this study  
51 was to study the feasibility of the Fast Blue BB method in order to assess the amount of total phenols  
52 excreted in urine, avoiding the time-consuming and costly SPE clean up used with the Folin-  
53 Ciocalteu method. We tested the application of this method in a population of children to determine  
54 the associations between polyphenol intake (assessed with a Food Frequency Questionnaire) and  
55 excretion of total phenolics (measured with the FBBB reagent).

56  
57

## 58 MATERIALS AND METHODS

59 **Chemicals.** 4-Amino-2,5-diethoxybenzanilide diazotated zinc double salt (Fast Blue BB), Folin-  
60 Ciocalteu reagent, gallic acid, quercetin, luteolin, naringenin, catechins, genistein, malvidine,  
61 enterodiol, caffeic acid, resveratrol, hydroxytyrosol, picric acid, creatinine, sodium hydroxide, calcium  
62 chloride, magnesium chloride, sodium chloride, sodium sulphate, sodium citrate, dihydrogen  
63 phosphate, potassium chloride, ammonium chloride and urea were from Sigma-Aldrich (Germany).  
64 All these reagents were of analytical grade.

65

66 **Human intervention.** Five schools located in a similar rural environment and with the same  
67 socio-economic status were included in the study. The study involved 228 children aged 10-11 years

68 old, of which 112 were girls and 116 boys. The sample was randomized at school-level into two  
69 groups. The program consisted of a group which did not receive any intervention (CG; n = 114) and  
70 another group which received nutritional education sessions (IG; n = 114). The study was carried out  
71 over a six month period. The nutritional education sessions informed participants about the benefits of  
72 the Mediterranean diet (high fruit, vegetable, legumes, fish, cereals, unsaturated to saturated fat ratio,  
73 and low meat, meat products and dairy products). Parents and students were invited to attend separate  
74 sessions. Parents received six classes, each lasting approximately two hours. One session was provided  
75 each week for the first six weeks of intervention. Either one or both parents could attend the sessions.  
76 Children received two nutritional education sessions during school hours (tutorial hours), each lasting  
77 about one hour. One session was held each week for the first two weeks of intervention. It was  
78 compulsory for pupils to attend both sessions. All children were healthy and were not receiving any  
79 medical treatment. All the participants took part voluntarily in accordance with the Declaration of  
80 Helsinki regarding ethical research. The bioethical committee of the University of Granada for human  
81 research approved the study under reference SA/11/AYU/246. Informed consent was also obtained  
82 from all of the children's parents.

83

84 **Polyphenol intake-excretion evaluation.** Nutritional data were obtained, both at pre-test and  
85 post-test by means of a semi-quantitative 136-item Food Frequency Questionnaire<sup>29</sup>. Participant's  
86 parents indicated the average frequency of consumption of each food over the past 6 months. For each  
87 food item, a commonly used portion size was specified, and the parent's participants were asked how  
88 often their children had consumed that unit over the previous year. Nine options for frequency  
89 consumption were offered: never or hardly ever, one to three times a month, once a week, two to four  
90 times a week, five to six times a week, once a day, two to three times a day, four or six times a day and  
91 more than six times a day. The evaluation of total phenols intake was performed with the data on  
92 polyphenols content retrieved from the Phenol Explorer 3.6 database. Foods were classified into eight

93 groups: carbohydrates/cereals, vegetables, fruits, legumes, nuts, oil, drinks and ‘others’ (chocolate,  
94 cacao, olives, among others). Processed foods such as pizzas, lasagnes, etc. were broken down into  
95 their principal ingredients, from which total phenols of that food in the diet was estimated. Excretion  
96 of total phenols was studied with first morning urine spot samples at the beginning and at the end of  
97 the study. The urine samples were acidified with HCl to preserve the phenolic compounds before  
98 storage at -80°C. Total phenols in urine were determined by means of the FBBB and F-C methods.

99

100 **FBBB assay.** Polyphenol excretion was assessed by means of the FBBB method<sup>26</sup> adapted to  
101 urine instead of aqueous food extracts. In summary, 25 µL of urine were diluted with 975 µL of water.  
102 Then, 100 µL FBBB reactive (prepared as an aqueous 0.1% solution by sonication over 5 minutes) and  
103 400 µL 5% NaOH were added, vortexed for 30 s and the resulting mixture allowed to incubate for 90  
104 min at room temperature. Absorbance was measured at 420 nm on a FLUOStar Omega microplate  
105 reader (BMG Labtech, Germany) with temperature control (37°C). Quantification was carried out  
106 using a standard curve of gallic acid. Results were expressed as mg gallic acid/g creatinine.

107

108 **F-C assay.** F-C assay was performed according to the Folin-Ciocalteu.<sup>24</sup> Briefly, 30 µL of urine  
109 were mixed with 15 µL Folin-Ciocalteu reagent, 60 µL sodium carbonate solution 10% (w/v) and 190  
110 µL of distilled deionized water. Absorbance readings were taken every 60 s for 60 min on a FLUOStar  
111 Omega microplate reader (BMG Labtech, Germany) with temperature control (37°C). Quantification  
112 was carried out using a standard curve of gallic acid. Results were expressed as mg gallic acid/g  
113 creatinine.

114

115 **Creatinine assay.** We used first morning urine samples instead of 24 h urine samples. Thus, it  
116 was necessary to standardize diuresis with creatinine concentration in urine.<sup>22</sup> In the absence of  
117 disease, creatinine concentrations in serum and urine are usually very stable and can be used to

118 estimate the urinary excretion of substances with only spot urine samples.<sup>30-33</sup> In the Jaffe method<sup>34</sup> a  
119 red color is formed when creatinine reacts with picric acid in an alkaline medium, being the  
120 absorbance at 500 nm proportional to creatinine concentration. Briefly, 40  $\mu$ L of urine were mixed  
121 with 800  $\mu$ L of aqueous picric acid solution (1%, vol/vol) and 60  $\mu$ L of sodium hydroxide (0.01%  
122 w/vol). After shaking, the mixture was left in the dark for 15 min at room temperature. Then, 3.1 mL  
123 of water was added and the absorbance at 500 nm was read on a Lambda 25 spectrophotometer  
124 (Perkin Elmer, USA).

125

126 **Synthetic urine.** Artificial urine was prepared as blank for the different assays as previously  
127 reported by Roura et al.<sup>22</sup> Synthetic urine was composed of calcium chloride (0.65 g/L), magnesium  
128 chloride (0.65 g/L), sodium chloride (4.6 g/L), sodium sulphate (2.3 g/L), sodium citrate (0.65 g/L),  
129 dihydrogen phosphate (2.8 g/L), potassium chloride (1.6 g/L), ammonium chloride (1.0 g/L) urea (25  
130 g/L) and creatinine (1.1 g/L) and adjusted to pH = 6.5. After solubilization of the different salts, the  
131 solution was filtered and stored at -80°C until use.

132

133 **SPE purification.** In order to check the presence of interfering compounds in urine, a solid  
134 phase extraction cleanup was also performed before the determination of polyphenols in urine.<sup>22</sup>  
135 Briefly, 1 mL of the participants control or acidified urine samples was applied to an activated Waters  
136 Oasis HLB 3-mL (60 mg) cartridge. The SPE cartridge was washed with 2 mL of formic acid (1.5 M)  
137 and 2 mL of water–methanol (95:5 vol/vol). The polyphenols were eluted with 1 mL of acidified  
138 methanol (1 mL formic acid/L).

139

140 **Data Analysis.** Normality of the data was analyzed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with  
141 Lillieforts correction. Statistical significance of the data was tested using a T-test of pre- and post-test  
142 time points, followed by the Duncan test to compare the means of values showing significant variation  
143 ( $P < 0.05$ ). Evaluation of the relationship between polyphenol intake and excretion was carried out by

144 computing the relevant correlation coefficient (Pearson linear correlation) at the  $P < 0.05$  confidence  
145 level. All statistical analyses were performed using the Statgraphics Centurion XVI statistical software  
146 (2009).

147

## 148 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

149 **FBBB method suitability.** We elected to use the Fast Blue BB method to assess the amount of  
150 total phenols in urine since it has been proven to be a better approach than the Folin-Ciocalteu method  
151 when assessing foods.<sup>26,27,35</sup> In addition, we avoided the time-consuming and costly SPE clean up  
152 needed with the F-C method. Table 1 shows the results obtained with the FBBB and F-C methods  
153 (with and without SPE purification) in control urine (a syntetic urine prepared as previously reported  
154 by Roura et al., 2006), a regular sample spot urine and the same urine spiked with a known amount of  
155 Gallic acid. As stated in Table 1, bot FBBB and F-C reacted with urine components, giving rise to a  
156 higher absorbance in the case of the F-C reagent. The analysis of the same urine spiked with Gallic  
157 acid 10 mM gave rise to a statistically significant increase ( $P < 0.05$ ) in absorbance of 0.1 units in the  
158 case of FBBB and 0.3 units for F-C. When a prior SPE purification was performed for the control  
159 urine, the absorbance obtained with the FBBB method was statistically similar ( $P > 0.05$ ) to that  
160 obtained without SPE. However, in the case of the F-C method, absorbance decreased to 0.329 ( $P <$   
161  $0.05$ ), clearly showing the presence of interfering compounds in urine as discovered previously by  
162 Roura et al.<sup>22</sup> When urine was spiked with Gallic acid, both FBBB and F-C gave rise to the similar  
163 absorbances. No statistically significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) were obtained with the FBBB reagent  
164 with or without SPE clarification. Therefore, results indicated that a prior SPE process is needed when  
165 using the F-C method in order to avoid reactions with interfering substances, while the FBBB reagent  
166 allows the direct determination of polyphenols metabolites in urine with fewer interferences.

167

168 **FBBB linearity.** A series of gallic acid calibrators with concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 50  
169 mg/L were prepared in distilled water. The FBBB method showed an excellent linearity ( $r^2 = 0.9997$ )

170 with this calibration curve. When the same calibrators were applied to urine, the lineal range extended  
171 up to 40 mg/L of gallic acid added ( $r^2 = 0.9994$ ) as the non-lineal part of the graph was reached due to  
172 very high absorbance values at this concentration.

173

174 **FBBB accuracy and recovery.** Recovery was assessed by analyzing a urine sample spiked with  
175 known concentrations of gallic acid (Table 2). The average recovery of polyphenols from urine was  
176  $96.4 \pm 3.6\%$  and within the range of 10-55 mg gallic acid/L. Concentrations higher than 55 mg gallic  
177 acid/L gave rise to lower recoveries ( $\approx 76\%$ ) because the non-lineal part of the calibration curve is  
178 reached. The same recovery experiment was performed with 10 different phenols belonging to the  
179 main polyphenol families (Table S1). Recovery ranged from 90.2 to 98.4% for enterodiol and  
180 catechins, respectively, with a mean recovery of  $94.6 \pm 2.8\%$ . Therefore, the FBBB method  
181 demonstrated capability to react with different type of polyphenols present in foods, which in turn will  
182 be transformed into many different chemical species excreted through urine.

183

184 **FBBB precision.** Precision (repeatability) is defined as the closeness of agreement between a  
185 series of measurements obtained from multiple sampling under the same operating conditions over a  
186 short interval of time. For this evaluation, samples from four diferent children were collected and  
187 analyzed seven times using the FBBB method. As stated in Table 3, the mean intra-day precision was  
188 1.86. Repeatability was also assessed as intermediate precision (inter-day precision) by analyzing the  
189 urine of two children during two non-consecutive days (seven times each). The mean coefficient of  
190 variation obtained was 2.11% (Table 3), showing excellent reproducibility of the analysis conditions  
191 for the F-C method with SPE purification, similar to that found by Roura et al.<sup>22</sup>. In addition, an  
192 interlaboratory validation of the FBBB method was performed (Table S2), including analysis of the  
193 same six urine samples used to obtain the results of Table 1. The z-scores obtained ranged from -0.36  
194 to +1.02, with a mean z-score of 0.36. Thus, the FBBB method can be replicated and used in different  
195 labs to perform epidemiological analysis in large cohorts.

196

197       **Nutritional intervention.** Following validation of the FBBB method to measure excretion of  
198 polyphenols in spot urine samples from school children, polyphenol intake and excretion were  
199 measured to identify relationships among them and validate the method for a human cohort. The mean  
200 daily intake of total phenols was  $2079 \pm 654$  mg/day, which is close to that previously stated by Saura-  
201 Calixto et al.,<sup>36</sup> who defined a range of 2590–3016 mg gallic acid /person/day (including extractable  
202 and hydrolysable polyphenols) for the Spanish adult population. On the contrary, the PREDIMED  
203 estimated a mean phenols consumption of  $820 \pm 323$  mg/day for a Spanish adult cohort at high  
204 cardiovascular risk.<sup>37</sup> These differences could be due to the inclusion of both extractable and  
205 hydrolysable polyphenols in the search performed in Phenol-Explorer, while the PREDIMED study  
206 did not include such data. No statistically significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) were obtained according to  
207 sex (mean intake of  $2066 \pm 642$  mg/day for boys and  $2092 \pm 666$  mg/day for girls). The contribution of  
208 different food groups is shown in Table S3. The group “legumes” had the largest contribution to the  
209 daily polyphenol intake (935 mg gallic acid/day), due to the high polyphenol content of lentils. The  
210 other two groups with the highest contribution were “fruits” (oranges, bananas, apples and  
211 strawberries) and “others” (chocolate and cocoa powder) with 372 and 332 mg gallic acid/day.

212       The effect of the nutritional intervention is shown in Figure 1. At the pre-intervention level there  
213 were no statistically significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) between the intervention (Figure 1A) and  
214 control groups (Figure 1B) due to the homogeneity of both groups. However, after intervention there  
215 was a statistically significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) increase of 25.4% on total polyphenol intake in the  
216 intervention group (Figure 1A) from  $2031 \pm 180$  to  $2448 \pm 215$  mg gallic acid/day due to a higher  
217 consumption of fruits, vegetables and cereals (Table S3).

218       Total polyphenol excretion in the intervention and control groups was determined by the FBBB  
219 method and expressed as mg gallic acid/g creatinine.<sup>22</sup> As in the case of polyphenol intake, there were  
220 no significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) between polyphenol excretion at pre-intervention stage (Figures

221 1C and 1D). However, there was a statistically significant increase ( $P < 0.05$ ) in polyphenol excretion  
222 in the intervention group (Figure 1C)  $180 \pm 65$  to  $215 \pm 52$  mg gallic acid/g creatinine. Thus, the range  
223 of detected polyphenols in urine obtained in the present paper are in line with those reported by  
224 Hussein et al.<sup>38</sup> and Zamora-Ros et al.<sup>39</sup> for child-adolescent and elderly populations, respectively,  
225 which in turn were obtained with the F-C method after proper SPE purification.<sup>22</sup> In fact, it is  
226 noteworthy to mention that Hussein et al.<sup>38</sup> found an increase in polyphenol excretion (in a Egyptian  
227 population aged 7-14 years) from  $90 \pm 9$  mg gallic acid/g creatinine to  $287 \pm 64$  mg gallic acid/g  
228 creatinine after a 7-day nutritional intervention consisting of dietary supplementation with tomato  
229 juice. This increase is in the same range as that found in the present study.

230 Finally, the Pearson correlation between polyphenol intake and excretion was calculated at the  
231 pre-intervention (Figure 2A) and post-intervention (Figure 2B) levels. The high positive correlations  
232 found ( $r = 0.9405$  and  $0.9327$  for pre- and post-intervention, respectively) support the use of the  
233 analysis of polyphenol excretion in urine (measured by the FBBB method) as a good biomarker of  
234 polyphenols intake-excretion.

235 In conclusion, the results of this study provide the first evidence that the Fast Blue BB method  
236 has some clear advantages over the Folin-Ciocalteu method since it is cheap, fast and repeatable. Thus,  
237 it is an easy way to assess the amount of total phenols excreted in urine, avoiding the time-consuming  
238 and costly SPE clean up used with the Folin-Ciocalteu method. In this sense, the FBBB method could  
239 be used in the future in large human cohort studies to unravel the intake, excretion and beneficial  
240 effects of polyphenols within the human diet. However, some drawbacks are still present including the  
241 differences in absorbance obtained after reaction with several phenolic standards, which could play a  
242 role in differences on polyphenol excretion when foods containing different phenol species are eaten.  
243 In addition, some other metabolites excreted in urine could slightly interfere with the FBBB reagent. In  
244 that sense, future studies should be performed with a strategy similar to that reported by Sánchez-  
245 Rangel et al.<sup>40</sup> in order to improve the specificity of the total phenolic determination.

246

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251

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255

256 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

257 Table S1: Recovery of Different Polyphenols in Urine With the FBBB Method. Table S2: Inter-  
258 Laboratory Validation of the FBBB Method. Table S3: Polyphenol Intake Grouped by Food Types.

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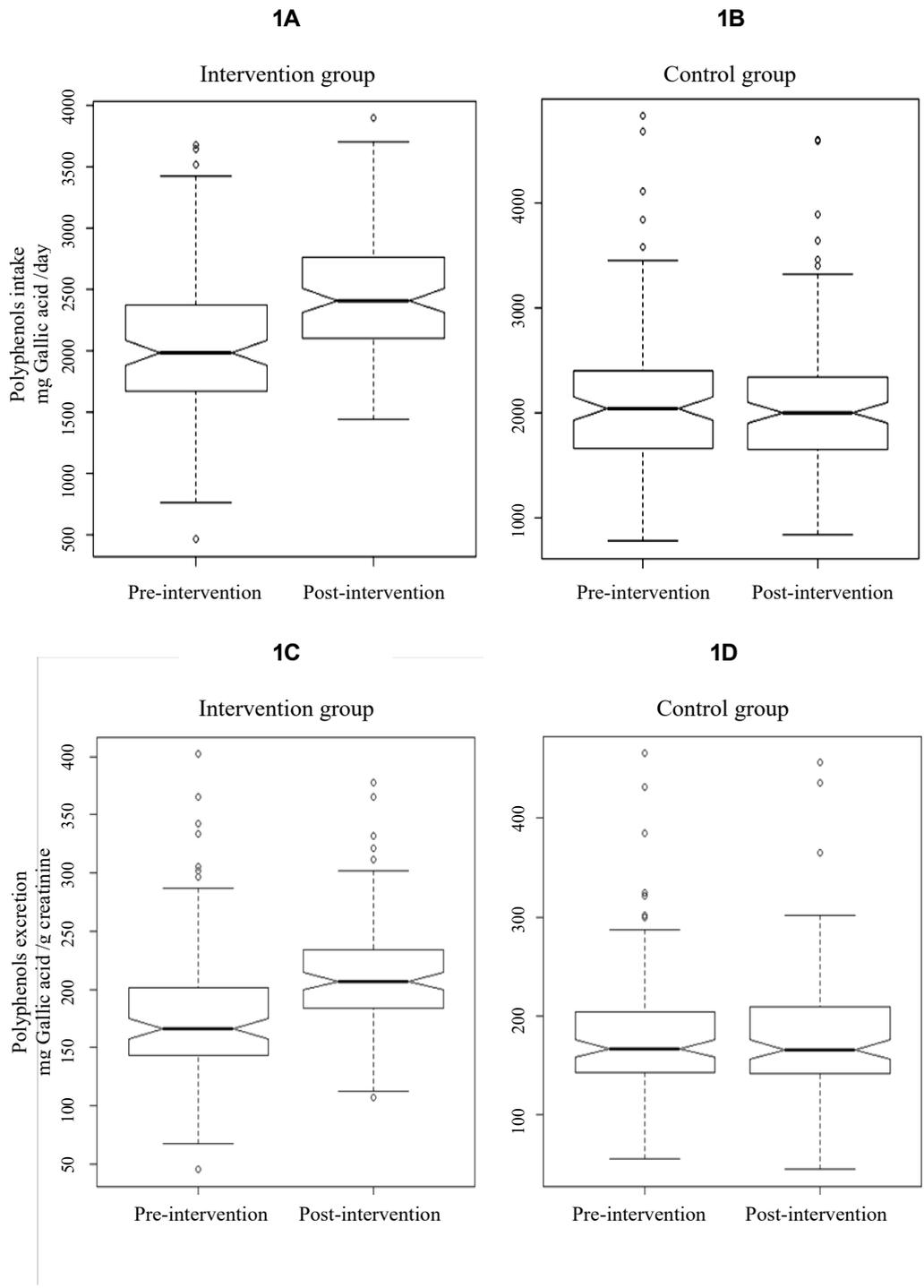
361

## **Figure captions**

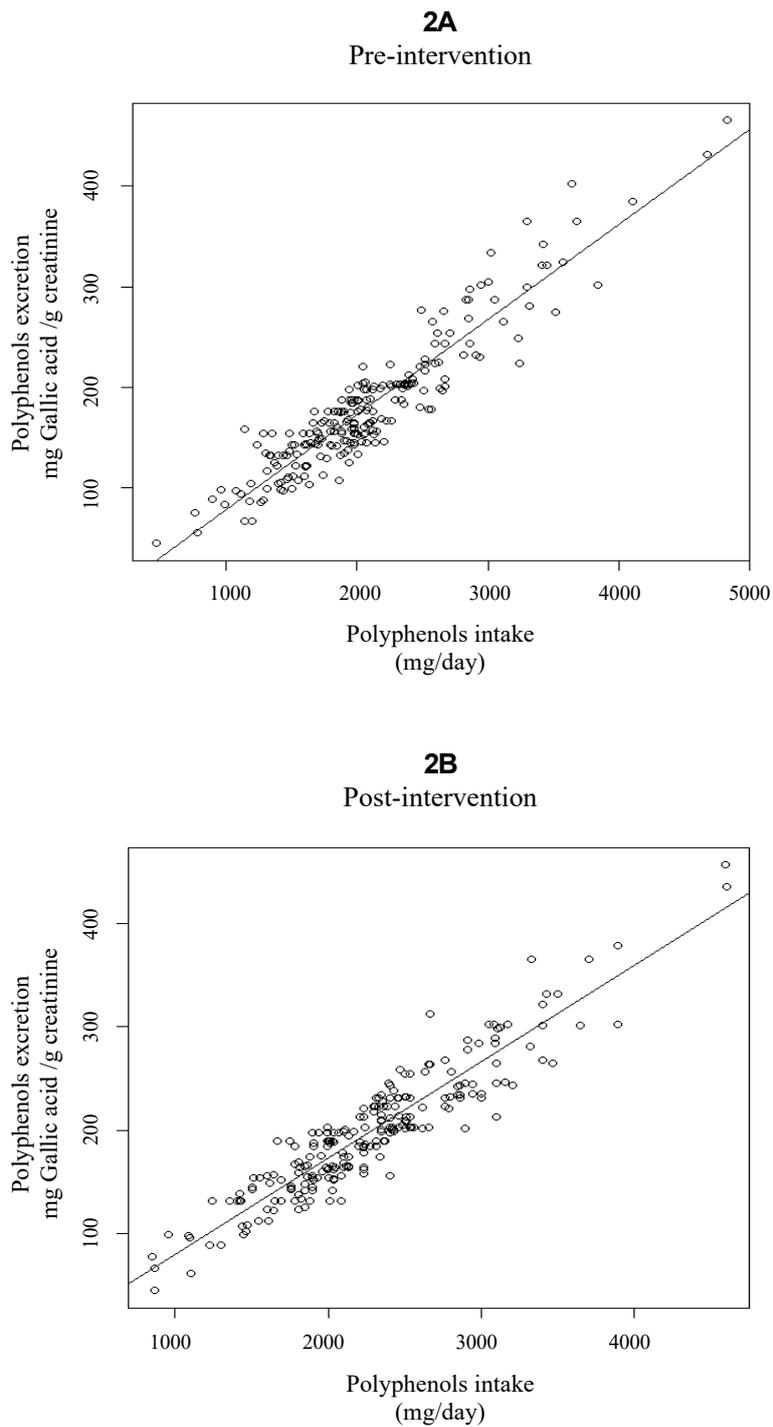
**Figure 1.** Effects of nutrition education program in daily polyphenols intake (intervention group, 1A; control group, 1B) and daily polyphenols excretion (intervention group, 1C; control group, 1D).

**Figure 2.** Correlation between daily polyphenols excretion and intake pre-intervention (2A) and post-intervention (2B).

**Figure 1**



**Figure 2**



**Table 1.** Comparison of F-C and FBBB Methods With/Without Urine SPE Purification.<sup>a,b</sup>

<b>Samples</b>	<b>SPE Purification</b>	<b>F-C absorbance</b>	<b>FBBB absorbance</b>
Control urine	No	0.006 ± 0.002 <sup>a</sup>	0.002 ± 0.001 <sup>a</sup>
Sample urine	No	1.122 ± 0.031 <sup>b</sup>	0.354 ± 0.008 <sup>b</sup>
Sample urine + gallic acid 10 mM	No	1.435 ± 0.042 <sup>c</sup>	0.466 ± 0.010 <sup>c</sup>
Control urine	Yes	0.008 ± 0.001 <sup>a</sup>	0.001 ± 0.001 <sup>a</sup>
Sample urine	Yes	0.349 ± 0.009 <sup>d</sup>	0.369 ± 0.009 <sup>b</sup>
Sample urine + gallic acid 10 mM	Yes	0.456 ± 0.0011 <sup>e</sup>	0.477 ± 0.011 <sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Different letters within the same column indicate statistically significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ).

<sup>b</sup> Each assay was repeated with the urines of six different children ( $n = 6$ ).

**Table 2.** Gallic Acid Recovery in Urine With the FBBB Method.

<b>Sample</b>	<b>Water</b>	<b>Urine</b>	<b>Gallic acid</b>	<b>Gallic acid</b>	<b>Abs</b>	<b>Theoric Conc.</b>	<b>Experimental Conc.</b>	<b>Difference</b>	<b>%</b>
	( $\mu\text{L}$ )	( $\mu\text{L}$ )	( $\mu\text{L}$ )	( $\mu\text{g}$ )		( $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ )	( $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ )		
<b>Urine</b>	975	25	0	0	0.202	13.3	13.3	0.0	99.9
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	925	25	50	5	0.242	18.3	16.0	2.3	87.2
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	915	25	60	6	0.284	19.3	18.8	0.5	97.2
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	905	25	70	7	0.298	20.3	19.7	0.6	97.0
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	895	25	80	8	0.335	21.3	22.2	-0.9	104.0
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	885	25	90	9	0.36	22.3	23.8	-1.5	106.8
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	875	25	100	10	0.358	23.3	23.7	-0.4	101.7
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	775	25	200	20	0.49	33.3	32.5	0.8	97.6
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	675	25	300	30	0.658	43.3	43.7	-0.4	100.9
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	575	25	400	40	0.736	53.3	48.9	4.4	91.7
<b>Urine + gallic acid</b>	475	25	500	50	0.728	63.3	48.4	14.9	76.4
								<b>Average</b>	<b>96.4</b>
								<b>S.D.</b>	<b>3.6</b>

**Table 3.** Precision of FB BB Method in Urine.

Precision	Sample	Day	n	Average absorbance	DS precision (%)	Minimum absorbance	Maximum absorbance
Intra-day	<b>1</b>	1	7	0.184	1.46	0.181	0.187
	<b>2</b>	1	7	0.213	1.68	0.209	0.217
	<b>3</b>	1	7	0.241	1.86	0.237	0.245
	<b>4</b>	1	7	0.224	2.45	0.219	0.229
				<b>Mean</b>	<b>1.86</b>		
Inter-day	<b>1</b>	1	7	0.213	3.19	0.208	0.221
		2	7	0.217	1.74	0.215	0.222
	<b>2</b>	1	7	0.170	1.56	0.168	0.173
		2	7	0.165	1.93	0.161	0.167
				<b>Mean</b>	<b>2.11</b>		

# TOC Graphic

