

Metabolomics as a powerful tool to decipher the biological effects of environmental contaminants in humans

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1	Metabolomics as a powerful tool to decipher the biological effects
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22 Graphical abstract



26 Abstract

Humans are exposed daily to a variety of environmental contaminants. For many of these, the 27 associated health effects remain largely unexplored. There is growing evidence that 28 untargeted metabolomics-based techniques could be used to identify simultaneously 29 biomarkers of effect (i.e. disruption of endogenous metabolite profiles) and exposure (i.e. 30 xenobiotic mixtures) in biological samples. This approach is expending quickly and has been 31 used in several studies over the last 5 years to study biological effects of many environmental 32 contaminants in humans. Hence, this review attempts to determine whether metabolomics 33 might constitute a relevant tool to discover new early biomarkers of effects related to 34 chemical exposure in humans. Published results suggest that common metabolic pathways are 35 affected by specific groups of chemicals such as PAHs, metals, organochlorine compounds, 36 pesticides, and endocrine disrupting plasticizers. Remarkably, disruption of cellular signaling 37 38 pathways associated with oxidative stress may be primary drivers for further effects for all studied chemicals. In the future, the introduction of more sensitive analytical techniques to 39 perform untargeted profiling of biological samples seems to be a good option to improve the 40 coverage of the xeno-metabolome and to provide more relevant information on both chemical 41 exposure and metabolic signatures of environmental contaminants. Some current challenges 42 43 are finally discussed.

44

45 Introduction

Humans are exposed to a large variety of environmental contaminants through diet, water, air 46 or direct skin contact. Exposure modalities rely on lifestyle, place of residence, occupation, 47 food habits and air quality. Deciphering the potential health effects resulting from exposure to 48 chemical mixtures humans are really exposed is extremely difficult and needs the 49 combination of different approaches including epidemiology, toxicology or analytical 50 chemistry. Metabolomics is increasingly used in toxicology, opening new perspectives to 51 study changes at the metabolome level associated with chemical exposure. These holistic 52 approaches combined with chemometrics allow to profile biological samples and 53 simultaneously detect thousands of endogenous and exogenous small molecules (usually 54 below 1000 Da) involved in fundamental biological processes (development, growth, and 55 homeostasis). Metabolic fingerprints allow to seek for a discrimination between sub-56 populations according to exposure conditions. Beyond that, current developments of 57 metabolomics aim to investigate the link between exposure and health issues, define markers 58 of toxicity, and explore adverse outcome pathways (AOP) (1). Metabolomics account for the 59 ultimate step in the cellular response (2). Of particular interest is the fact that metabolomics 60 can be based on biological matrices whose collection uses non-invasive or minimally invasive 61 62 methods (i.e. urine, blood, saliva). So far, most of the metabolomic studies carried out in human have aimed to identify biomarkers in clinical research (3-6). In toxicology, it was 63 recently suggested that metabolomics may provide data of interest for the identification of 64 65 both exposure biomarkers and mechanisms of toxicity but the relevancy of animal-to-human extrapolation remain a key challenge that needs to be explored (7). This review examines 66 whether metabolomics may be considered as a relevant tool to unveil unidentified early 67 68 biomarkers of effects related to chemical exposure directly in human. The search covered the period until October, 2017. Using the Web Of KnowledgeTM and the Pubmed websites 69

70 (http://webofknowledge.com; http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed), publications were selected by searching in the field "topic" for: ((metabolomics OR metabonomics) AND 71 environmental AND exposure). Publications were selected in line with the following criteria: 72 applying non targeted metabolomics, addressing human environmental exposure, any kind 73 (occupational or not, proximity to polluted areas, dietary exposure...); collecting human 74 biological samples (urine, blood, saliva...). Publications focusing of human behavioral / 75 recreational exposure (alcohol, tobacco) or exclusively solely relying on animal's exposure 76 were not considered (laboratory mammals, fishes, invertebrates, crustaceans). 77

78 Description of covered populations and metabolomics approaches

79 **used**

80 The search identified 22 publications that applied metabolomics to biological fluids of human populations environmentally exposed to contaminants (Table 1). Sixteen publications (8–23) 81 studied the general population, including – for 7 of them – specifically vulnerable individuals: 82 pregnant women, children or elder persons (9,12,14,20-23). The other studies concerned 83 occupational exposure (24-29). Most studies were related to heavy metals: n=10, chlorinated 84 persistent organic compounds (POPs): n=6 and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs): 85 n=3, followed by particulate matter (fine particles and PM2.5), pesticides, phthalates, 86 bisphenol A (BPA) and trichloroethylene (TCE). For the general population, the proximity of 87 a polluted area was studied in half of the cases (foundries, coking plants, waste incinerators, 88 petrochemical complexes, agricultural areas, contaminated soils). For workers, all studies 89 suggested an association between specific professional activities and occupational exposure 90 91 (foundry and metals, herbicide production and dioxins, cleaning processes factories and TCE, boiler makers and welding fumes + PM). Except for pesticide exposure, which was estimated 92 from geographic information systems (GIS) (data on agricultural activities matched with 93

residence), all studies quantified exposure either by using external (personal air exposure 94 measurements at work shift) or internal measurements (biomonitoring based on blood or urine 95 analyses). Only one study used both GIS, external measurements and biomarkers 96 quantification (16). Metabolic profiles were generated from urine and/or blood using 97 chemometrics analyses generally based on mass spectrometry or NMR, associated with 98 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Partial Least Discriminant Square Analysis (PLS-99 DA). 100

Metabolic features related to environmental exposures 101

A summary of the reported metabolic changes and suggested pathways is presented in Table 102 2.

103

Metals and Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) 104

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) - mediated oxidative stress, and to a lesser extent, nitrosative 105 stress, may be considered as one of the potential modes of action of metals and PAHs: all 106 107 studies have shown changes in levels of metabolites indicating oxidation both for exposure to As, Cd, V, PAHs or to more complex mixtures (8,10–12,15,16,19,22–24): TCA-cycle 108 disruption and amino-acid metabolism impairment evoke a mitochondrial dysfunction with 109 insufficient energy production. Perturbation of lipid metabolism may also be due to oxidative 110 or inflammatory processes (12,19,22,24). These modes of action have been related to liver 111 and renal dysfunction, particularly for As and Cd (8,10,15,23). Modifications of cellular 112 signaling may be considered as another mode of action, as it was suggested for V and PAHs 113 which has an impact on PPAR and insulin signaling pathways leading to carbohydrate and 114 115 amino-acid metabolism (16). Finally, endocrine disruption is one another mode of action suggested for As and Cd, with altered steroid hormone profiles (10,11). 116

Welding fumes are complex mixtures containing various types of gases (carbon monoxide, 117 nitrogen oxides) and particulate matter composed of heavy metals, depending on the welding 118 technique. Metabolites that are modified in exposed workers are involved in carbohydrate 119 metabolism, amino-acid metabolism, redox pathways, and urea metabolism (25), which 120 confirms the oxidative stress and inflammatory processes already suggested in populations 121 exposed to heavy metals. Only three unsaturated fatty acids were found to be significantly 122 reduced (26) but this is consistent with an impact on signaling pathway respectively involved 123 in lipid regulation and apoptosis (PPAR and caspases), suggesting a potential risk to develop 124 chronic diseases such as obesity, diabetes, atherosclerosis or cancer. In (25), the distinctive 125 metabolic pattern of exposed workers compared to controls was masked when smokers were 126 included, suggesting similar responses between welding fumes and smoking. This has been 127 confirmed in (30), which study showed modifications both in anti-oxidant defense, amino-128 129 acid metabolism, and lipid regulation, relevant with the development of tobacco specific diseases (atherosclerosis, cancer). 130

131 **Persistent organic pollutants (POPs)**

Metabolomics studies that have investigated POPs exposure focused on dioxins and PCBs 132 133 (13,18,20,27,28), and to a lesser extent, organochlorine pesticides (DDE, HCB and HCH) (14,18). Most of them showed dysregulations in cholesterol, steroid metabolism and bile acid 134 135 biosynthesis which are consistent with AhR mediation and liver injury. Conjugated steroids and bile acids were considered as valuable biomarkers characterizing the exposure to several 136 dioxins with various exposure scenarios (poisoning, acute/high occupational exposure, and 137 chronic/low doses exposure in general population near a waste incinerator (13,28)). These 138 139 biomarkers were also associated with prevalent type 2 diabetes in four Swedish cohorts (31), supporting associations between POPs and metabolic diseases. Surprisingly, (27) did not 140 identify any significant metabolic feature after multiple testing correction. Impairment of lipid 141

metabolism (involving fatty acids, glycerophospholipids, sphingolipids and glycerolipids) was
also demonstrated in populations exposed to PCBs, DDE and HCB (14,18,20). In case of
PCBs exposure, glutathione pathway and amino-acid metabolism was also affected,
suggesting an oxidative stress, inflammatory response and disruption of energy metabolism
(20). This was recently confirmed in a Swedish cohort where serum ATP content was
negatively associated with PCBs exposure in elderly individuals (32).

148 Chlorinated volatile organic compounds

Only one study investigated the metabolic pattern associated with TCE exposure in workers 149 from cleaning process plants (29). The presence of numerous known and unknown 150 chlorinated compounds and cysteine and methionine metabolites was in accordance with TCE 151 detoxification in the liver (glutathione conjugation). The modification of bile acids 152 biosynthesis may be a marker of both TCE glucuronidation and liver damage. Modifications 153 in fatty acid metabolism and palmitoylcarnitine levels confirm this hypothesis by an alteration 154 in PPAR signaling. Uric acid was related to the nephrotoxicity of TCE and alteration of 155 purine catabolism to immunotoxic pathways (29). An oxidative stress was not suggested 156 although modifications in amino-acid relate to TCA cycle remind to an imbalance in anti-157 158 oxidant defenses.

159 **Pesticides**

Only one study investigated the metabolic pattern associated with pesticides exposure (9). Few metabolites were found to be correlated with pesticide exposure after adjustment of confounding factors, likely because exposure was solely estimated from GIS and not further confirmed by individual pesticide measurements. Nevertheless, metabolome modifications suggest a protective mechanism linked with oxidative stress (impairment of TCA cycle, depletion of anti-oxidant defenses). This was supported by animal studies showing an

impairment of amino-acid metabolism, mitochondrial dysfunction, alteration of lipid
regulation and glucose regulation imbalance, in association with organochlorine or
organophosphorus alone or in mixture (7) or with a more complex pesticide mixture including
herbicides, fungicides and insecticides (33).

170 Plasticizers

One study investigated the metabolic pattern associated with DEHP and DBP exposure (17). 171 Authors suggested an oxidative stress induced by phthalates, due to changes in mitochondrial 172 fatty acid beta-oxidation (modification of carnitine levels), amino-acids metabolism and 173 antioxidant defenses (precursors of glutathione synthesis), based on the dysregulation of 174 PPARs pathways. Another interesting mechanism concerns the disruption of prostaglandin 175 pathways, which are largely involved in hormone regulation and inflammatory processes, and 176 are consistent with the known endocrine disrupting properties of DEHP and DBP. Oxidative 177 stress, lipid dysregulation, and impairment of amino-acid metabolism have also been 178 suggested in mammals experiment (7). 179

The consequences of BPA exposure on the urinary metabolic profiles of children aged 7-9 180 were investigated (21). This study showed that the biosynthesis of steroid hormones and the 181 metabolism of amino acids and glucose were affected in highly exposed children (highest 182 quartile) compared to children with limited exposure (lowest quartile), mainly in females (21). 183 These modifications observed in female may represent a risk of developing pathologies at an 184 adult age (polycystic ovary syndrome, diabetes, metabolic syndrome or cardiovascular 185 186 diseases). Other altered pathways (glucose) suggest an imbalance in energy homeostasis. These results are supported by data previously obtained in mice (34) and rats (35) showing 187 that BPA exposure disrupts energy metabolism, glucose metabolism and amino acid 188 189 metabolism. In these animals, alterations of neurotransmitters were also identified.

190 **Discussion**

191 Metabolomics technologies provide extensive information about phenotypic features of 192 populations, by integrating upstream information given by transcriptomics and proteomics 193 approaches. Their most important advantage in environmental health is their ability to detect 194 early biological modifications, prior to more obvious signs of toxicity and adverse effects (8).

195 Metabolomics for identifying mechanisms of chemical toxicity

A growing body of literature over the last five years demonstrates that metabolic fingerprints can efficiently discriminate sub-populations characterized by distinctive exposure modalities, with extremely robust and valid multivariate statistic models. Discriminant metabolites provide valuable clues on the involved mechanisms. In this review we were able to distinguish four groups of chemicals characterized by common features, which may be used to explore or confirm adverse outcomes pathways (AOP) directly in humans:

- Heavy metals and PAHs have very similar metabolic features including
 modifications in anti-oxidant and anti-nitrosant processes, amino-acid metabolism,
 and lipid regulation.
- Chlorinated compounds, persistent or not (dioxins, PCBs, organochlorine insecticides and TCE) also display similar profiles, but involving more lipid classes including cholesterol and sphingolipid metabolism and bile acid biosynthesis, confirming the potential to induce chronic diseases such as atherosclerosis, diabetes or obesity.
- Metabolic changes induced by phthalates concern both anti-oxidant mechanisms
 (mitochondrial beta-oxidation, amino-acid metabolism) and the disruption of
 prostaglandin regulated pathway.

213	•	Bisphenol A was found to alter predominantly the biosynthesis of steroid hormones
214		and the metabolism of amino acids in children, mostly in females.

Finally, for pesticides, available metabolomics studies only demonstrate (so far) an
 impact on oxidative stress pathways.

217 It is worth mentioning that some of the metabolites identified in available studies (such

as serine, glutamate, glutathione, taurine, glycine, betaine, hippurate...) cannot be

219 considered as specific biomarkers. In addition, disruption of cellular signaling pathways

associated with oxidative stress seems to be primary drivers for further altered

221 metabolic pathways including lipids, bile acids or amino-acids. These observations do

not provide sufficient data for a relevant use in public health, and point out the need to

223 provide simultaneously more quantitative exposure information. Finally,

224 epidemiological study designs used (i.e. transversal rather than longitudinal) do not

allow to ensure the predictive nature of biomarkers for further health

226 effects.Metabolomics and xeno-metabolomics: the sensitivity issue

Metabolomics aim at identifying in an unbiased manner biomarkers of effects and exposure 227 that have so far remained unidentified. However, many xenobiotics and signaling compounds 228 such as steroids are present at trace levels in biological matrices and most of the current 229 platforms used to characterize the metabolome are not sensitive enough to detect these low 230 231 abundant chemicals. To date, these platforms encompass NMR, GC-HRMS or LC-HRMS. However, the most widely used platform is LC-HRMS, typically utilizing an electrospray 232 ionisation source. The popularity of LC-HRMS compared to other platforms can be explained 233 by its increased sensitivity compared to NMR analysis and the soft ionisation process which 234 allows structural elucidation. To illustrate this problem of sensitivity, out of the 22 studies 235 considered here, only two were able to identify sensitive biomarkers of environmental 236 exposure, urinary N-methyl-L-histidine was associated with Cd exposure and was considered 237

as a more sensitive biomarker of renal function than urinary N-acetyl-beta-D-glucosaminidase 238 (U-NAG) (10); dodecadienyl-carnitine was considered as a reliable and sensitive biomarker 239 for PAHs exposure since his level is associated with 1-hydroxyphenanthrene (12), although 240 not very specific. To overcome this sensitivity issue, innovative analytical strategies (e.g., 241 more selective sample preparation, miniaturized LC-ESI platforms to improve ionization 242 efficiency, new HRMS such as ion mobility) as well as new bioinformatics tools are now 243 being developed to improve the coverage of both the metabolome and the xeno-metabolome, 244 namely endogenous metabolites and xenobiotic exposome (36–40). One study included in this 245 review detected numerous metabolic features corresponding to xenobiotics (chlorinated 246 chemicals) including unknown compounds (29). Another example includes the detection of 247 many metabolites of five pesticides in urine samples from pregnant women by non-targeted 248 UHPLC-HRMSn (41). Some of them may be considered as specific metabolites. It can be 249 250 expected in the near future than the introduction of more sensitive analytical techniques for metabolomics will allow to better characterize the xeno-metabolome in order to provide more 251 252 relevant information on both chemical exposure and biological signatures of xenobiotics. Furthermore, a more automated annotation work-flow with increased confidence in the 253 annotations is needed to overcome the problems linked to unidentified features. 254

255

256 The importance of studying mixtures: some perspectives?

The hypothesis of a common metabolic feature involving oxidative stress and signaling pathway confirms the importance of carefully exploring mixture approaches. In the near future, the modeling of metabolomics data into metabolic networks should enable to tackle current limitations in the interpretation of the biological pathways modulated by chemicals, based on the list of discriminant metabolites. In this context, multi-omics data integration

involving not only the metabolome but also upstream information associating transcriptomic 262 and proteomic data (when available) is desirable. Such an integrative approach provides 263 global biological signatures to better categorize groups of chemicals both for environmental 264 epidemiology and risk assessment. An innovative work is carrying out in order to integrate 265 massive toxicogenomics data for classification of chemicals and prediction of toxicity. First 266 results are promising with the identification of several clusters from a dataset comprised more 267 than 500 chemicals for 7000 experimental conditions (42). Methodologies developed and 268 provided knowledge will be made publicly available on the web (43). 269

270 Conclusion

A growing body of literature applying metabolomics in populations differently exposed to 271 environmental contaminants was published last years. It shows that the application of this 272 approach in the field of environmental health is still in its infancy, at a discovery stage. 273 Metabolomics may become a powerful tool in the near future both in the identification of 274 specific biomarkers related to mixtures, the characterization of exposures and the definition of 275 adverse outcome pathways as it was suggested by (44) but it needs to consider several 276 challenges, and particularly the acquisition of reproducible results in a prospective context 277 (longitudinal designs) to obtain early biomarkers of disease and to address reverse causation; 278 279 the validation of biomarkers in different groups of similarly exposed population (as it was done in (13)); and the characterization of the xeno-metabolome to provide more information 280 on quantitative exposures (44). 281

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Table 1: Studies using metabolomic	s to reveal biological	pathways associated	with environmenta	l exposures in human
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Refs.	Population, number of individuals, hypothesis of exposure	Measurement of exposure	Samples, metabolomics analyses
(8)	Volunteers. n=178. Proximity of foundry, contaminated environment with metals	Urinary Cd & NAG (+ 8-oxodG in samples < p15 & > p85 Cd). 2 groups: < p15 and > p85 of urinary Cd	1 st morning spot urine, ¹ H NMR, PLS
(9)	Volunteers, pregnant women (cohort participants). n=83. Proximity to agricultural activities	SIG: 3 groups according to the surface of land dedicated to agricultural activities in the town of residence	1 st morning spot urine, 1 st trimester, ¹ H NMR, PLS-DA
(10)	Volunteers adult females ≥ 40y, rural areas. n=94. Diet exposure via contaminated soils	Urinary Cd & NAG + Pb, Cu. 2 groups: urinary Cd > or < 5 μ g/L (according to WHO)	1 st morning spot urine, LC-QTOF-MS, GC-MS, OPLS-DA
(11)	Volunteers, general population. adult males. n=1027 (cohort participants)	Urinary As (2 inorganic + 3 organic forms). 2 groups: < p20 and > p80 of urinary As	1 st morning spot urine, HPLC-QTOF- MS, PLS-DA
(12)	Elderly (352) & children (214). n=566. PAHs polluted rural area < 2 km downwind of a coking plant.	9 urinary PAHs metabolites. 2 groups dichotomized according to localization: exposed (359) vs non exposed (197)	1 st morning spot urine, UHPLC-TOF- MS, OPLS-DA
(13)	Volunteers, adult males. n=24. Proximity to a waste incinerator (evaluation of a set of biomarkers in an independent human cohort exposed to dioxins)	SIG: 2 groups. The first corresponds to males living or working near the waste incinerator (24). Healthy male volunteers constitute a control group (24)	1 st morning spot urine, UPLC-QTOF- MS, OPLS-DA
(14)	Volunteers, 70y males. n=965 (cohort participants)	Plasmatic DDE & HCB	Blood, fasted individuals, UPLC-TOF- MS, multivariate linear regression
(15)	Volunteers, adult females, rural areas with Cd contaminated soils. n=21.	Urinary Cd & NAG + Pb, Cu. 3 groups (high, low and control): urinary Cd > 15, 5-15 or < 5 µg/L	1 st morning spot urine, GC-MS, OPLS-DA
(16)	Volunteers, < 40 km of petrochemical complex. n=160. Potentially exposed to V & PAHs	Urinary V, 1-OHP (+ oxidative stress markers). 2 groups: highly exposed: <10 km + > p75 1-OHP & V (80) vs lower exposed : > 10km (80)	Blood, ¹ H NMR, OPLS-DA
(17)	Volunteers, adult males from general population. n=364 (cohort participants)	Urinary metabolites of DEHP & DBP. 3 groups: terciles according to Σmetabolites	1 st morning spot urine, HPLC-QTOF- MS, PLS-DA
(18)	Healthy volunteers, general population. n=34	Serum POPs (DDE, HCB, β-HCH, PCB28, 138, 153). 2 groups according to individual POP concentrations	Serum collected fasted (3 samples/ ind), ULPC-QTOF-MS, OPLS-DA

Table 1: Studies using	metabolomics to reveal b	piological pat	thways associated y	with environmental ex	posures in human (continued)
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Refs.	Population, number of individuals, hypothesis of	Measurement of exposure	Samples, metabolomics analyses
(19)	Volunteers, general population close to oil refineries / coal-fired power plants. n=252. Potentially exposed to PAHs and metals	SIG and urinary 1-OHP & V, Ni, Cu, As, Sr, Cd, Hg, Tl (+ oxidative stress markers). 2 groups: highly exposed close to the complex (111) and lower exposed (141) further away	1 st morning spot urine, GC-TOF-MS, PLS-DA
(20)	Volunteers, pregnant women (cohort participants). n=67	Serum PCBs in women and cord-blood. 2 groups: 1st and last quartile	Blood collected at 32w pregnancy and in cord-blood at delivery, HILIC- MS/MS, PCA, random forest
(21)	Volunteers, female and male children 7-9 year old. n=18 (birth cohort participants)	Urinary total BPA (deglucuronidation). 2 groups: lower and higher quartile (9 vs 9 with >501 µg/g creat and < 4 µg/g creat). Separated in low and high BMI in each group	1 st morning spot urine, UPLC-QTOF- MS, PLS-DA
(22)	Volunteers, pregnant women (cohort participants). n=50	As (inorganic and total) in maternal urine prior to the time of delivery and in cord blood	Cord-blood at delivery, ¹ H NMR, multivariate linear regressions, pFDR
(23)	Volunteers, pregnant women. n=246	Total urinary As. 3 groups according to terciles	1 st morning spot urine, 1 st trimester, UPLC-QTOF-MS, PLS-DA
(24)	Workers in a copper foundry. n=391. Exposed to lead, Cd, As	Not included in the statistical analyses (As, Pb, Cd at work shift). 2 groups: exposed (359) vs non-occupationally exposed (32)	Blood collected the morning before work, ¹ H NMR, PLS-DA
(25)	Male welders and office workers. N=51. Exposed to welding fumes.	Personal sampling of fine particles. Cr, Ni and Mn detection. Inflammatory marker measurements. 2 groups: exposed (35) vs non exposed – office workers (16)	1 st morning spot urine, ¹ H NMR, PCA and pFDR
(26)	Boilermakers recruited at an apprentice welding school. n=11. Exposed to welding fumes	Personal integrated measurement of PM2.5. Individuals are their own controls with samples collected before and after the work	Blood collected before and after work, GC and LC-MS, PCA and LMM (linear mixed-effect model)
(27)	Workers from chlorophenoxy herbicide production plants. n=144. Exposed to TCDD following an accident	Plasmatic 2,3,7,8-TCDD. 2 groups: exposed (81) vs non exposed (63)	Blood collected during home visits, UHPLC-QTOF-MS, PLS
(28)	Workers from herbicide production plant intoxicated by dioxins & V. Yushchenko. n=23. Exposed to TCDD following an accident	Plasmatic 2,3,7,8-TCDD. 2 groups: exposed (11) vs non exposed (11) and positive control (V. Yushchenko)	24h-Urine, UHPLC-QTOF-MS, OPLS- DA
(29)	Workers from cleaning process plants. n=175. Exposed to TCE	Air personal measurement of TCE + other VOCs. 2 groups according to the TCE median (80 exposed vs 95 non exposed)	Blood, LC-MS, linear regressions, pFDR

Table 2: Biomarkers that have been changed in blood or urine when populations are exposed to environmental contaminants

Exposure (ref.)	Sample used	Metabolites that are modified between exposed and non-exposed groups: number (n) and name	Suggested altered pathway/ mechanism
As (tot) (23)	Urine	n=9. LysoPC(14:0), glutathione, leukotriene E4 metabolites, cystathionine ketimin, dihydropyridine, thiocysteine, p-cresol glucuronide, vanillactic acid	Oxidative stress
As (tot) (11)	Urine	n=5. testosterone, guanine, hippurate, acetyl-N-formyl-5- methoxykynurenamine, serine	Endocrine disruption and oxidative stress
iAs (22)	Cord blood	n=17. Aceto-acetate, acetone, betaine, ethanol, glutamate, glycerol, glycine, isoleucine, lactate, mannose, methionine, O-acetylcholine, pyruvate, serine, taurine, tyrosine, 3-hydroxybutyrate	Impaired vitamin metabolism, TCA cycle, and amino-acid metabolism \rightarrow oxidative stress
Metals, Cd (close to foundry) (8)	Urine	n=6. Citrate, 3-hydroxyisovalerate, 4-deoxyerythronic acid, dimethylglycine, creatinine, creatine	Impaired mitochondrial metabolism & one-carbon metabolism. Oxidative stress
Metals, Pb, Cd, As (copper foundry) (24)	Blood	n=7. LDL, VLDL, unsaturated lipids, 1-methylhistidine, phenylalanine, tyrosine, glutamate	Impaired lipid metabolism & amino-acid metabolism
Cd (contaminated areas) (10)	Urine	n=27. Glutamine, cysteine, tyrosine, N-methyl-L-histidine, L-histidinol, taurine, phenylacetylglutamine, hippurate, pyroglutamic acid, galactose, myoinositol, xanthine, urea, deoxyadenosine monophosphate, creatine, creatinine, $17-\alpha$ -hydroxyprogesterone, tetrahydrocortisone, estrone & corticosterone	Impaired amino acid metabolism, galactose metabolism, purine metabolism, creatine pathway, steroid hormone biosynthesis impairment. N-methyl-L-histidine appears as a more sensitive biomarker of renal function than U-NAG
Cd (contaminated areas) (15)	Urine	n=27; 8 of which have a dose-response relationship: glucose, $3-\alpha$ -mannobiose, cellobiose, phosphate, glycine, threonine, azelaic acid, butanoic acid	Impaired carbohydrate and glucose metabolism, amino-acid metabolism, bone metabolism, TCA cycle, mitochondrial disorder. Modification of human microbiome. Increase of all metabolites suggests impaired tubular reabsorption
PAHs, V (close to petro-chemistry) (16)	Blood	n=18. VLDL, LDL, lipids, isoleucine, valine, alanine, lysine, glutamine, tyrosine, histidine, phenylalanine, pyruvate, lactate, α - / β -glucose, n-acetylglycoprotein	Impaired amino-acid metabolism, carbohydrate metabolism by elevating PPAR and insulin signaling. Oxidative/ nitrosative stress
PAHs, metals (close to petro- chemistry) (19)	Urine	n=45 in children, n=42 in elderly. Alanine, aspartate, glutamate, phenylalanine, tryptophan metabolism in children. Glycine, serine, threonine, alanine, aspartate, glutamate metabolism, & aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis in elderly	Impaired amino-acid metabolism associated with oxidative stress markers in urine. Oxidative/ nitrative DNA damage, lipid peroxidation. Age-dependent response
PAHs (close to coking plant) (12)	Urine	n=18 (elderly non-smokers). 3-methylhistidine, pyroglutamic acid, uric acid, 10 carnitines, 2-isopropylmalic acid, decenedioylglucuronide, azelaic acid, decenedioic acid, hydroxytetradecanedioic acid	Impaired amino-acid metabolism, purine metabolism, lipid metabolism and glucuronic acid metabolism. Dodecadienyl- carnitine as a reliable biomarker of PAH exposure. Oxidative stress hypothesis \rightarrow lipid peroxidation, mitochondrial dysfunction, up-regulation of UGTs & depletion of antiox.

Table 2: E	Biomarkers th	at have	been changed	l in blood	or urine	when po	oulations a	re exposed t	o environmental	contaminants ((continued)	ļ
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Exposure (ref.)	Sample used	Metabolites that are modified between exposed and non-exposed groups: number (n) and name	Suggested altered pathway/ mechanism
Welding fumes, metals, fine PM ± smoking (25)	Urine	n=10. Creatine, taurine, trimethylamine-N-oxide/ betaine, acetone, creatinine, glycine, gluconate, hippurate, S-sulfocystein, serine.	Impairment of carbohydrate metabolism, amino-acid metabolism. Oxidative stress.
Welding fumes PM2.5 (26)	Blood	n=3. Eicosapentaenoic acid, docosapentaenoic acid n3, n6.	Impairment of unsaturated fatty acids metabolism.
2,3,7,8-TCDD (herbicide production plant) (28)	Urine	n~11 in exposed workers. Etiocholanolone conjugates, androsterone glucuronide and features associated to bile acids: glycocholic acid, its glucuronide metabolite, glycodeoxycholic acid, chenodeoxycholic acid sulfate or ursodeoxycholicacid sulfate, glucuro-and sulfoconjugates of glycochenodeoxycholic, glucuroconjugated forms of hydroxyandrosterone or hydroxyetiocholanolone, hydroxyDHEA or hydroxytestosterone, andestrone, glycoursodeoxycholic acid glucuronide and sulfate. n=24 in VY samples (+ drugs metabolites associated with VY treatment). Some steroids such as DHEA sulfate, androsterone sulfate and androsterone glucuronide	Altered cholesterol metabolism and bile acid biosynthesis in exposed workers. Hypothesis of cholesterol homeostasis dysregulation following TCDD exposure mediated by AhR. Results for VY sample consistent with altered steroid metabolism and liver damage, compatible with an increased expression of cytochrome P450s, persistent hepatotoxicity, bile acid homeostasis dysregulation and oxidative stress.
Dioxins (close to waste incinerator) (13)	Urine	Targeted analysis based on the 24 putative conjugated steroids and bile acids obtained from (10) (VY samples). n=9 unambiguously identified biomarkers. Dehydroepiandrosterone 3β -sulfate, androsterone 3α - glucuronide, androsterone 3α -sulfate, pregnanediol 3α -glucuronide, 11- ketoetiocholanolone 3α -glucuronide, glucuronide conjugates of 11 β - hydroxyandrosterone, glycochenodeoxycholic acid, glycocholic acid and glycoursodeoxycholic acid sulfate.	Impairment of steroid metabolism and bile acid biosynthesis. A set of biomarkers valuable in characterizing various dioxin exposure situations.
2,3,7,8-TCDD (herbicide prod. plant) (27)	Blood	No obvious metabolic perturbations after multiple testing correction.	TCDD exposure at levels present in this study does not lead to significant perturbations of the serum metabolome.
POPs (DDE, HCB, β-HCH, PCB28-138-153) (18)	Blood	n=40 but only 10 unambiguously identified, including sphingolipids, glycerophosphocholines, glycerophosphoethanolamines	Lipid metabolism impairment associated to DDE, HCB and PCBs revealing a similar mode of action.

Table 2: Biomarkers that have been changed in blood or urine when populations are exposed to environmental contaminants (continued)

Exposure (ref.)	Sample used	Metabolites that are modified between exposed and non-exposed groups: number (n) and name	Suggested altered pathway/ mechanism
PCBs (20)	Blood	n=14 in maternal samples. Phosphorylcholine, hypoxanthine, cytosine, putrescine, carbamoyl phosphate, N6-acetyl-L-lysine, glutathione, uracil, norepinephrine, citraconic acid, xanthosine, kynurenic acid, serine, N- acetyl-glucosamine-1-phosphate. n=10 in cord samples. p-hydroxybenzoate, dihydroorotate, purine, ethanolamine, guanidoacetic acid, hydroxyproline, sedoheptulose 1,7- bisphosphate, betaine, tyrosine, glucosamine.	Biomarkers related to glutathione and amino acid metabolism in maternal serum and the amino acid metabolism, ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinone biosynthesis in cord serum. These pathways are linked with lipid synthesis, mitochondrial electron transport, fetal survival and growth \rightarrow disruption of energy metabolism.
TCE (cleaning process) (29)	Blood	n=15 (confirmed metabolites) + TCE metabolites and unknown chlorinated compounds. 7α -hydroxycholest-4-en-3-one, checnodeoxycholic acid, creatine, cysteine, glutamine, homocysteine, indolelactic acid, methylthioadenosine, palmitocarnitine, phenylacetic acid, taurine, tryptophan, tyrosine, uric acid, α -linolenic acid.	Disruption in purine catabolism and decreases in sulphur amino acid and bile acid biosynthesis pathways. Some metabolites changes are consistent with known toxic effects of TCE (immunosuppression, hepatotoxicity and nephrotoxicity, neurotoxicity).
Pesticides (close to agricultural areas) (9)	Urine	n=5. Glycine, threonine, lactate, glycerophosphocholine, citrate.	Impairment of amino-acids metabolism, oxidation/reduction pathways and mitochondrial function.
DEHP & DBP (17)	Urine	n=16. Acetylneuraminic acid, carnitine C8:1, carnitine C18:0, carnitine C16:2, cysteine, phenylglycine, phenylpyruvic acid, glutamylphenylalanine, diacetylspermine, alanine, taurine, tryptophan, ornithine, methylglutaconic acid, hydroxyl-PEG2, keto-PGE2.	Increased oxidative stress and fatty acid oxidation. Decreased prostaglandin metabolism. Disruption of urea cycle, tryptophan and phenylalanine metabolism.
BPA (21)	Urine	n=35. Cholesterol, 4-methylpentanal, 22β-hydroxycholesterol, progesterone, pregnanediol, corticosterone, cortisol, cortolone, dehydroandrosterone, androstenedione, testosterone-glucuronide, estrone 3-sulfate, <i>N</i> -acetylmuramic acid, <i>N</i> -acetylmuramic acid 6-phosphate, D- glucosamine ⁽⁻⁾ , D-glucosamine-6-phosphate, CMP- <i>N</i> -acetylneuraminic acid ⁽⁻⁾ , CMP- <i>N</i> -glycoloylneuraminate ⁽⁺⁾ , fructose 6-phosphate, D- phenylalanine, phenylacetylglycine, phenylpropanoate, malonyl-CoA ⁽⁻⁾ , crotonoyl-CoA ⁽⁻⁾ , anthranilic acid, <i>N</i> -acetylserotonin, 4- hydroxyphenylacetylglutamine, 3-methoxytyramine ⁽⁻⁾ , formyl pyruvate, L- glutamyl-5-phosphate, <i>N</i> ² -acetyl-L-ornithine, L-carnitine, <i>N</i> ⁶ -acetyl- <i>N</i> ⁶ - hydroxy-L-lysine, aerobactin, 5-acetamidopentanoate.	Disruption of steroidogenesis pathways in females, but inconclusive effects in males. Alteration of pathways related to amino acid and nucleotide biosynthesis, phenylalanine metabolism, tryptophan metabolism, tyrosine metabolism, lysine degradation, pyruvate metabolism and arginine biosynthesis. Alteration in glucose homeostasis were also observed. Male children were less affected than females by these metabolic variations.