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1 **An overview of mycotoxin biomarker application in exposome-health**
2 **studies**

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16

17 **Highlights**

- 18
- Monitoring of biomarkers reveal the exposure to AF, OTA and DON, mainly
- 19
- Biomarkers results in blood and urine give complementary exposure information.
- 20
- Improved instrumental techniques enable multimycotoxin detection
- 21
- Few studies deal with simultaneous exposure to mycotoxins and other chemical
- 22
- hazards.
- 23
- There is a need to include the mycotoxins in exposome approaches.

24

25 **List of Abbreviations**

- 26 Aflatoxin (AF)
- 27 Aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁)
- 28 Aflatoxin M₁ (AFM₁)
- 29 Aflatoxin P₁ (AFP₁)
- 30 Aflatoxin Q₁ (AFQ₁)
- 31 Alternariol (AOH)
- 32 Citrinin (CIT)
- 33 Deoxynivalenol (DON)
- 34 De-epoxy-deoxynivalenol (DOM-1)
- 35 Environmental-wide associations studies (EWAS)
- 36 Fumonisin B (FB)
- 37 Fumonisin B₁ (FB₁)
- 38 Glucoside (Glc)
- 39 Glucuronide (GlcA)
- 40 Hydrolysed Fumonisin (HFB)
- 41 High resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS)
- 42 Liquid chromatography (LC)
- 43 Mass spectrometry (MS)
- 44 Nivalenol (NIV)
- 45 Ochratoxin A (OTA)
- 46 Ochratoxin alpha (OT α)
- 47 Patulin (PAT)
- 48 Probable daily intake (PDI)
- 49 Tolerable daily intake (TDI)
- 50 Zearalenone (ZEN)
- 51 Zearalanone (ZAN)
- 52 Zearalenol (ZEL)
- 53

54

55 **Abstract**

56 Exposure assessment in epidemiological studies remains as a key bias domain, prompting for
57 reliable and accurate methods reflecting the true individual exposure. For that reason, the use
58 of exposure biomarkers has become the gold-standard method for environmental chemicals
59 and food contaminants in epidemiology. In the last few years, a growing list of biomonitoring
60 studies has revealed the widespread exposure of population to mycotoxins, mainly aflatoxins,
61 ochratoxins or trichothecenes, subject to geographical localisation. Despite the advances in
62 mass-spectrometry, mycotoxins remain largely overlooked by mainstream epidemiological
63 research. To date, the scarce epidemiological evidence has elucidated the associations
64 between exposure to aflatoxins and hepatocellular carcinoma, cirrhosis or impairment of infant
65 growth. The novel exposome paradigm offers a unique opportunity to boost the epidemiological
66 research of mycotoxins. Nonetheless, there is an urgent need that mycotoxins catch the
67 attention of mainstream epidemiological researchers, especially those intending to develop
68 chemical-agnostic approaches in pathologies and populations where mycotoxins may represent
69 a concern.

70

71 **Keywords:** mycotoxins, exposome, environmental health, biomonitoring, biomarkers

72 Biomarkers were defined by Vidal et al. (2018) as characteristics that are objectively measured
73 and evaluated as an indicator of normal biological or pathogenic processes, pharmacologic
74 responses to a therapeutic intervention or toxic responses to a toxic agent. Mycotoxins are
75 fungal secondary metabolites that are capable of causing disease and death in humans and
76 other animals. They are usually present in plant-derived food products; thus human exposure is
77 related to vegetable products intake.

78

79 **Biomonitoring of mycotoxins**

80

81 Mycotoxin biomarkers have been defined as the compounds (e.g., parent toxins and/or a
82 metabolite) or the products of their interaction with target molecules (e.g., protein or DNA
83 adducts and glucuronide conjugates) that can be measured in body fluids or tissues and can be
84 correlated with ingested mycotoxins. Very often urine is the matrix of choice, as it is easily
85 collected. Urine biomarkers mainly represent recent mycotoxin intake, whereas measurements
86 in plasma/serum are more likely to represent long-term exposure. Biomarkers analysed both in
87 24h and first-morning urine paired samples have shown that exposure assessment of
88 mycotoxins with fast excretion rates, such as ZEN, DON and AOH, is influenced by the type of
89 urine sample chosen, with lower concentrations in the first-morning urines than in 24h urines,
90 suggesting that morning urines mainly reflect the exposure from some previous hours and is not
91 representative of the overall daily exposure [1].

92 Different biomarkers have been proposed for the main mycotoxins in urine. Free DON, DON-15-
93 GlcA, and DON-3-GlcA are considered as the best DON-biomarkers of exposure, whereas HT-2
94 toxin is the prevailing biomarker of T-2 toxin, and OTA, OT α , and their glucuronides are the
95 main OTA metabolites. Besides, free FB and HFB are the potential FB-biomarkers, while a
96 cascade of ZEN metabolites (α -ZEL, β -ZEL, 8-OH-ZEN, 15-OH-ZEN, and ZEN-14-GlcA) are
97 considered as ZEN biomarkers in urine. To evaluate acute AF exposure, AFM1, AFQ1, AFP1,
98 and AFB1-N7-guanine should be considered in urine.

99 Few studies have reported the evaluation of human exposure by coupling the analysis of
100 mycotoxins in human urine to that in blood. A recent study in China, showed that in the plasma
101 samples, OTA was the most prevalent one (incidence of 27.7%), followed by AFB1-lysine

102 (19.6%). On the other hand, in the urine samples, DON-15-GlcA (incidence of 43.8%) was the
103 most abundant mycotoxin, followed by DON-3-GlcA (15.8%), AFM1 (10.4%) and DON (10.0%).
104 In the plasma samples, the mean concentrations of OTA (1.21 mg/L) and ZEN (0.157 mg/L)
105 were higher than those in urine. Conversely, the mean concentrations of FB1 (0.697 mg/L),
106 DON (2.60 mg/L) and ZAN (0.260 mg/L) in plasma were lower than those in urine [2]. Similarly,
107 mycotoxin prevalence was compared in serum and 24h urine by De Ruyck et al. [3], however,
108 they found higher prevalence and smaller differences between these two fluids. Significant
109 correlations have been observed across almost all mycotoxins, when comparing serum to the
110 urinary measurements.

111 The use of breast milk in biomonitoring studies is gaining interest due to its easy collection, and
112 because it shows not only the mother's internal exposure levels but also the external exposure
113 of infants during critical windows of development. Most studies exploring AFM1 showed
114 percentages of positive samples exceeding the 25% of analysed samples, and mean
115 concentrations of positive samples ranged from 0.56 to 44000 ng/L [4;X,X]. Recent efforts have
116 been devoted to develop highly sensitive multi-biomarker methods for this matrix [5].
117 Interestingly, wastewater-based epidemiology has recently proved to be a complementary
118 approach to human biomonitoring. It is based on the chemical analysis of biomarkers in urban
119 wastewater to measure the collective consumption or exposure to chemicals [6].

120

121 **Methods of analysis**

122

123 Human biomonitoring of mycotoxins relies on suitable methods of analysis, availability of
124 mycotoxin standards and, due to methods improvement, includes an increasing number of co-
125 occurring mycotoxins, although studies rarely include other chemical contaminants. In the last
126 decade, the latest generation of high performance LC-MS/MS instruments, and rapid 'dilute and
127 shoot' methods have allowed for convenient simultaneous analysis of a range of parent
128 mycotoxins in urine, usually including their modified forms. However, multidetection of
129 biomarker's studies in blood plasma or serum are scarce. In the last few years, efforts have
130 been done to develop accurate and sensitive UHPLC-MS/MS methods for multibiomarker's
131 detection in urine [7, 8]. Recently, Vidal et al. [9] highlighted the capability of HRMS to record

132 full-scan spectra results of a theoretically unlimited number of compounds that can be detected
133 simultaneously at low concentration levels, often belonging to different classes, at the same
134 time, and consequently, its potential for mycotoxin-biomarker research.

135

136 **Recent studies on biosurveillance of mycotoxins**

137

138 In 2018, Marín et al. [10] reviewed the existing surveys on mycotoxins biomonitoring. DON,
139 OTA, and AF were the most often searched and detected mycotoxins in urine, and they co-
140 occurred in most samples. DON and its metabolites were the most frequent mycotoxins'
141 biomarkers detected. As a result, risk characterization showed that between 6 and 29% of the
142 considered populations were exposed to DON at levels over the TDI, suggesting a medium but
143 worrying risk for the population, and, at the same time, they could be co-exposed to OTA or
144 AFB1 at levels of concern.

145 Recent studies across Europe showed almost 100% occurrence of mycotoxins in urine
146 samples. The most prevalent groups were aflatoxins (51%), ergot alkaloids (56%), fumonisins
147 (40%), ochratoxins (48%), and type B trichothecenes (52%) [3]. In Portugal, DON and its
148 metabolites (DOM-1, DON-15-GlcA and DON-3-GlcA) were the most frequently detected
149 biomarkers in 24h urine samples with 63% (DON), 41% (DOM-1), 52% (DON-15-GlcA), 44%
150 (DON-3-GlcA) of positive samples. If considering DON and its metabolites, 78% of participants
151 were exposed to DON, and 20% of samples were positive also to DON-3Glc. ZEN was the
152 second most frequent detected mycotoxin with 48% of positive samples. Regarding ZEN
153 metabolites, ZEN-14-GlcA was detected in the same proportion. OTA was detected in 18% of
154 urine samples, whereas AOH was detected in 29% of the urine samples for the first time.
155 Regarding FB1, 7% of urine samples were positive for FB1 [1].

156 In China, 2.3%, 0.4%, 1.2% of the population exhibited PDI exceeding the TDI values for FB1,
157 DON and OTA, respectively [2]. In particular, children are at risk of high-level exposure because
158 of their high cereal intake relative to body weight. Gratz et al. [11] reported mean levels in UK
159 children urine samples of DON (13.10 ± 12.69 ng/mL), NIV (0.36 ± 0.16 ng/mL), OTA ($0.05 \pm$
160 0.02 ng/mL), and ZEN (0.09 ± 0.07 ng/mL). Some samples contained T-2, HT-2, α -ZEL, and β -

161 ZEL, but not aflatoxins. Dietary mycotoxin estimation showed that children were frequently
162 exposed to levels exceeding the TDI (52 and 95% of cases for DON and OTA).

163 Overall, data on the occurrence of mycotoxin biomarkers in human urine indicate high rates of
164 dietary exposure to AF, FB, ZEN, and DON, especially in African and Asian countries. Among the
165 studies that performed the calculation of probable daily intake based on the urinary levels,
166 African countries show worrying levels for FB₁ and DON. In America, only Guatemala presented
167 a level of concern with total fumonisin. From Asia, the worrying level was presented in China,
168 with more than half of the samples above the tolerable level for DON, and in European
169 countries, the DON also shows levels of concern [1].

170

171 Regarding biomarkers co-occurrence, improved methods have led to up to 13 individual targets
172 co-detected, with a mode of 5 co-detections in 18% of samples, and only 4% returning a single
173 detection [3]. *Fusarium* toxins and OTA have been shown to co-occur [12], for example, the
174 combinations DON-ZEN-OTA and DON-ZEN-FB₁-OTA co-occurred in 38 and 52% of urine
175 analysed samples [13].

176

177 **Application of mycotoxin biomarkers in epidemiological studies**

178

179 Exposure assessment in epidemiological studies remains as a key bias domain, prompting for
180 reliable and accurate methods reflecting the true individual exposure during the window of
181 interest. For that reason, the use of exposure biomarkers has become the gold-standard
182 method for environmental chemicals and food contaminants in epidemiology.

183 Epidemiological research on specific mycotoxins have already provided a list of notorious
184 studies encouraging the application of biomarkers in observational settings, especially for
185 aflatoxins, the most studied group. For instance, the body of epidemiological evidence gathered
186 by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) to evaluate the associations
187 between AFB₁ and hepatocellular carcinoma, included 7 cohort studies tracing AFB₁ exposures
188 with their metabolite AFM₁ in urine, albumin adducts or AF-lysine (AF-lys) in plasma or urinary
189 AF 8-oxodeoxyguanosine (AF 8-oxodG) [14]. Some population-based studies have also

190 successfully implemented the mutation of codon 249 of the TP53 gene (249ser TP53)
191 measured in plasma DNA as biomarker resulting from AFB1 exposure, supporting the IARC
192 evaluation [14]. The biomarkers AF-albumin adduct or 249ser TP53 mutation have been also
193 implemented in 5 epidemiological studies from China, Taiwan, India and Gambia on cirrhosis
194 risk, which meta-analysis has revealed positive consistent associations with absence of
195 heterogeneity [15].

196 Child growth may be impaired by AF or FBs, as revealed by observational studies that applied
197 established biomarkers (AF-albumin and AFB-lys in blood or urinary FB) conducted in sub-
198 Saharan African countries such as Tanzania, Benin, Togo or Gambia. On this basis, a novel
199 study design based on a community-based cluster randomized trial has been recently proposed
200 to assess the causal associations between AF and growth of infants from central Tanzania [16].

201 The exposure of mycotoxins has also been associated with the impairment of pregnancy
202 outcomes in humans, despite the limited number and quality of published studies recently
203 appraised elsewhere [17]. Interestingly, most studies included in the mentioned systematic
204 review used biomarker-based approaches, including AF in blood or the postpartum
205 sphinganine:sphingosine ratio in maternal serum as biomarker of FB exposure. Biomarkers of
206 OTA and CIT in blood and urine, respectively, have been used to explore whether carcinogenic
207 and nephrotoxic mycotoxins may contribute to kidney diseases in a small Czech cohort of
208 patients. Despite the lack of control population, the authors did not notice major differences with
209 published data in the general healthy population [18]. A recent pilot case-control study
210 conducted in Tunisia implemented a multi-mycotoxin detection LC-MS/MS approach for the
211 characterization of PAT and CIT in plasma and urine from 50 patients with colorectal cancer
212 and 50 respective controls [19]. Despite CIT was found in most urine samples, no statistical
213 differences were found between cases and controls.

214

215 **Mycotoxin biomarkers in exposome-health studies**

216

217 The 'exposome' concept has evolved during the last 15 years as a novel paradigm to better
218 characterize the role of environment in disease risk during the lifetime, complementing the
219 genomic influences [20]. In practice, the new paradigm translates into more comprehensive and

220 exposure-agnostic approaches to identify environmental exposures and their endogenous
221 metabolic fingerprint. In other words, the traditional hypothesis-driven approaches, targeting few
222 exposures or chemicals, are replaced by large panels of exposure candidates. To tackle the
223 exposome challenge and analogously to the genomic field, environment-wide association
224 studies (EWAS) have been appearing during the last decade applied to metabolic diseases,
225 preterm birth, reproductive function, or cancer, among others [21]. This conception realigns the
226 epidemiological design around the individual profiling and its exposure-disease continuum of
227 biomarkers, boosting the hypothesis generation from the order of some few exposures to large
228 panels of hundreds or thousands. The novel generation of (ultra) high resolution mass
229 spectrometers (U/HRMS) are favouring this transformative process in biomonitoring, enhancing
230 consolidated targeted approaches with suspect or non-targeted workflows [22]. Some inspiring
231 proof-of-concept studies have demonstrated the capabilities of HRMS approaches to screen
232 chemical hazards in biological samples (serum and breast milk), with sufficient sensitivity and
233 selectivity to identify low abundant xenoestrogens, including mycotoxins [23]. However, the
234 published EWAS approaches still favour the conventional targeted approaches, establishing a
235 panel of priority chemicals to screen based on prior knowledge, biospecimens availability, or
236 cost, which in all cases has neglected the role of mycotoxins [24]. Since the exposome concept
237 was first coined in 2005 by the visionary mycotoxin researcher Christopher Wild, the scientific
238 community has delivered an exponentially growing number of publications translating the
239 concept and its applicability to different scientific disciplines. For instance, up to date (13
240 October 2020) the keyword 'exposome' retrieved a total of 806 hits in Pubmed. Nonetheless, if
241 we refine the search adding the keyword 'mycotoxin', the list of references dramatically falls to
242 17 with no applied observational studies, highlighting the mycotoxin research gap. Geographic
243 area of residence, air pollution, dietary habits or lifestyle, account for relevant external variables
244 shaping the lifetime exposome of individuals. Nonetheless, considering the high toxicity and
245 relevant exposure of mycotoxins, especially in low-income countries, it is likely that a relevant
246 number of fungal toxins may have a relevant role in the human exposome [10].

247 The examples mentioned in the previous section illustrate the successful applicability of
248 validated mycotoxin biomarkers in observational research using conventional methods targeting
249 specific toxins. Nonetheless, there is an urgent need that mycotoxins catch the attention of

250 mainstream epidemiological researchers, especially those intending to develop exposome-
251 based approaches in pathologies and populations where mycotoxins may represent a concern.
252 Mycotoxins have been identified as a health risk priority in developing countries, where food
253 control policies are scarce and traditional cereal-based diets dominate the nutritional intake for
254 the majority of the population [24]. A high level of concern was concluded for the main
255 mycotoxins consumed in Benin, Cameroon, Mali, and Nigeria, included in the unprecedented
256 total diet study conducted in sub-Saharan Africa [25]. For risk assessment purposes, a final list
257 of 24 chemicals with reliable toxicological data to derive health-based guidance values were
258 retained, of which 7 were mycotoxins. The risk characterization highlighted the high health
259 concern derived from exposure to AFB1, FB, OTA and CIT, especially in Benin, Cameroon and
260 Nigeria. Limited resources for public health and epidemiological research in these low income
261 areas may justify the lack of observational research on mycotoxins [26]. Nonetheless,
262 epidemiological research has also been overlooked in developed countries despite the fact that
263 dietary exposure to mycotoxins such as OTA, DON or T-2 toxins is widespread and may even
264 pose health risks among certain population clusters. The French ANSES expert panel showed
265 in the infant French Total Diet Study that 5 to 10 % of infants (5-12months) may exceed the
266 health-based guidance values for T-2 and HT-2 toxins and 7.5-27% of 5-month or older children
267 would exceed the safety levels for DON [27]. It is noteworthy that in Western countries low-
268 levels of mycotoxins are likely to occur in mixtures with other environmental chemicals such as
269 bisphenol A or polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, whose combined effects are unknown [10]

270

271 **Conclusion**

272

273 In the last few years, risk characterisation studies based on internal exposure have been
274 preferred over those based on external exposure assessment. In general, there is a
275 discrepancy between internal and external exposure assessments [3], with more accurate
276 estimates derived from internal biomarkers. Mycotoxins vary widely in rates of intestinal
277 absorption which may be further affected by co-exposures with other mycotoxins, or even
278 varying dietary composition [28]. Hence, there is need to accurately predict the intestinally

279 absorbed fraction of oral mycotoxin intake for suitable assessments of risk associated with
280 mycotoxin contamination [29].
281 Ten years later since Christopher Wild raised attention on mycotoxins as ‘a largely ignored
282 health issue’ [26], fungal toxins remains largely ignored. Nonetheless, the current technological
283 HRMS scene and emerging consortiums on exposome-health research represent a unique
284 opportunity to bring mycotoxins into more mainstream areas. To move forward, it is fundamental
285 to establish solid bridges between concerned disciplines such as epidemiology, statistics,
286 mycotoxicology and biomonitoring, especially for those diseases and populations where
287 mycotoxins may be relevant.

288

289 **Declaration of interest**

290

291 None

292

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294

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297

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299 Papers of particular interest, published within the period of review, have been highlighted as:

300 * of special interest

301 ** of outstanding interest

302

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