TOXICOKINETICS AND METABOLISM

Metabolism of alcohol ethoxylates (AEs) in rat, hamster, and human hepatocytes and liver S9: a pilot study for metabolic stability, metabolic pathway, and metabolites identifcation in vitro and in silico

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Received: 28 November 2023 / Accepted: 10 April 2024 / Published online: 6 June 2024 © The Author(s) 2024

Abstract

Alcohol ethoxylates (AEs) are a well-known class of non-ionic surfactants widely used by the personal care market. The aim of this study was to evaluate and characterize the in vitro metabolism of AEs and identify metabolites. Five selected individual homologue AEs (C_8EO_4 , $C_{10}EO_5$, $C_{12}EO_4$, $C_{16}EO_8$, and $C_{18}EO_3$) were incubated using human, rat, and hamster liver S9 fraction and cryopreserved hepatocytes. LC–MS was used to identify metabolites following the incubation of AEs by liver S9 and hepatocytes of all three species. All AEs were metabolized in these systems with a half-life ranging from 2 to 139 min. In general, incubation of AE with human liver S9 showed a shorter half-life compared to rat liver S9. While rat hepatocytes metabolized AEs faster than human hepatocytes. Both hydrophobic alkyl chain and hydrophilic EO head group groups of AEs were found to be target sites of metabolism. Metabolites were identifed that show primary hydroxylation and dehydrogenation, followed by O-dealkylation (shortening of EO head groups) and glucuronidation. Additionally, the detection of whole EO groups indicates the cleavage of the ether bond between the alkyl chain and the EO groups as a minor metabolic pathway in the current testing system. Furthermore, no diference in metabolic patterns of each individual homologue AE investigated was observed, regardless of alkyl chain length or the number of EO groups. Moreover, there is an excellent agreement between the in vitro experimental data and the metabolite profle simulations using in silico approaches (OECD QSAR Toolbox). Altogether, these data indicate fast metabolism of all AEs with a qualitatively similar metabolic pathway with some quantitative diferences observed in the metabolite profles. These metabolic studies using diferent species can provide important reference values for further safety evaluation.

Keywords Alcohol ethoxylates (AEs) · Hepatocytes · Liver S9 · OECD QSAR toolbox · Biotransformation pathways · Metabolites profles

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Introduction

Alcohol ethoxylates (AEs) are a major class of non-ionic surfactants that are commonly manufactured and utilized by many industrial practices and commercial markets (Sanderson et al. [2013\)](#page-52-0). These compounds are synthesized via the reaction of fatty alcohols and ethylene oxide, resulting in a molecule that contains a hydrophobic alkyl chain attached via an ether linkage to hydrophilic ethylene oxide (EO) groups. Due to the amphiphilic structure of AEs, where a molecule can inhabit the interface of two immiscible phases (i.e. oil and water) and efectively bring them closer together, AEs are widely used in laundry and dishwasher detergents and to a lesser extent in household cleaners, institutional and industrial cleaners, cosmetics, agriculture, and in textile, paper, oil and other process industries (HERA [2009](#page-51-0)). AEs have the general structure: $R(OCH_2CH_2)_nOH$; where R is the alkyl chain which can vary in length and in the degree of linearity. AEs are also typically defned as "C*x*EO*n*" where the subscript *x* following the '*C*' indicates the range of carbon chain units, and typically between 8 and 18 carbons long (for detergent range surfactants) (HERA [2009\)](#page-51-0). The subscript n following the 'EO' indicates the degree of ethoxylation, which can also vary in length from 1 to 40 EO groups (fatty alcohol are the special case to the formula where $n = 0$, $C_xEO₀$) (Sanderson et al. [2013\)](#page-52-0). For example, an AE with the structure $C_{10}EO_5$ contains an alkyl chain length of 10 carbon atoms and a side chain composed of 5 EO groups. In addition, during the manufacturing, the ethoxylation process leads to a distribution of EO units attached to each alkyl chain resulting in complex technical mixtures. For instance, $C_{9-11}EO_{2.5}$, which contains a range of alkyl chain lengths of 9–11 and averages 2.5 EO units per alkyl chain (full EO range typically being EO_0-EO_{14} but distribution peaks at 2–3 mol EO).

The evaluation of absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME) properties of chemicals plays a useful role in providing insights into the relevant toxicological properties of a compound which are important for toxicity interpretation in human risk assessment (Barton et al. [2006;](#page-51-1) Schroeder et al. [2011;](#page-52-1) WHO [2009](#page-52-2)). Typically, data on chemical metabolism and toxicokinetics generated during early hazard assessment include metabolic stability (rate of metabolism), potential metabolic pathways, and metabolite identifcation (Prasad et al. [2011\)](#page-51-2). Overall, the information obtained not only serves as an adequate basis for hazard characterization related to the active chemical entity in the circulation or tissue, but can also provide essential information to underpin grouping AEs and applying the read-across defned by European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) "*Readacross Assessment Framework*" (RAAF) (ECHA [2017\)](#page-51-3).

The ADME of AEs has been extensively studied in vivo in both rats and human volunteers (Drotman [1980;](#page-51-4) HERA [2009;](#page-51-0) Talmage [1994;](#page-52-3) Unilever [1978](#page-52-4)). In a study, female Colworth Wistar rats were orally administrated with three ¹⁴C-labelled AEs (i.e. C₁₂EO₃, C₁₂EO₆, and C₁₂EO₁₀), and placed in a metabolism chamber for 4 days while feces, urine, air, and various tissues and organs were monitored for $¹⁴C$ activity. In this study, the total recovery in urine, feces,</sup> air, and carcass of the administered compound was close to 100%, and 14 C was excreted mainly in the urine (about 10% 14C in air) after oral administration (Unilever [1978](#page-52-4)). In another study, elimination and resorption of 14 C-labelled $C_{14-18}EO_{10}$ were monitored over 72 h after a single oral gavage application to Wistar rats. Approximately 90% of the compound was excreted within the frst 24 h and about 98–99% of the compound was eliminated within 72 h. Again, the majority of the administrated compound was excreted in the urine and in the feces, and about 2% was excreted as $14^{\circ}CO_2$ in air. In a human volunteer study, six adult males (bodyweight 60–90 kg) per treatment group were given a capsule containing 50 mg of the radio-labelled surfactant (i.e. ¹⁴C-labelled $C_{12}EO_6$ and $C_{13}EO_6$ labelled in the carbon chain or ethoxy chain), and their blood, urine, feces, and expired $CO₂$ were collected (Drotman [1980](#page-51-4)). Most of the radioactivity (i.e. about 83–89%) for both compounds was recovered after 144 h in urine, feces, and air while the amounts in the blood were very low and never exceeded 1%.

The Human and Environmental Risk Assessment on ingredients of European household cleaning products report summarized all relevant ADME studies from AEs and concluded that the metabolism of AE is shown to be rapid and complete (HERA [2009](#page-51-0)). Meanwhile, the report also hypothesized that the major biotransformation pathway of AEs appears to be the hydrolysis of the ether linkage and subsequent oxidation of the resulting alcohol to fatty acids which are degraded to C_2 -fragments and shorter alkyl chains and ultimately to carbon dioxide and water. The other lower molecular weight polyethylene glycol (PEG) by-products from primary metabolism are further degraded by breakdown of the ether linkage or are excreted via urine (HERA [2009\)](#page-51-0). Moreover, studies with radio-labelled compounds showed that both the alkyl chain and the EO groups are sites of attack. Thus, the PEG materials will also be degraded to varying C chain lengths.

Despite extensive studies on the absorption and excretion of AEs, very little is known about the comparability of the metabolism pathway, kinetic constancy, and potential metabolites in diferent species. Hence, to investigate this further and gather information about the comparability of metabolite patterns/parameters in diferent species and with diferent AEs underlining the hypothesis within the HERA [2009](#page-51-0) assessment, in vitro metabolism (phase I and phase II) studies on five individual homologue AEs (i.e. C_8EO_4 , $C_{10}EO_5$, $C_{12}EO_4$, $C_{16}EO_8$ and $C_{18}EO_3$) using rat, hamster and human liver S9 and cryopreserved hepatocytes was performed. Within this pilot study, information on the metabolic stability, metabolites, biotransformation pathways, and concluding toxicokinetic parameters of AEs was collected. In addition, in silico quantitative structure–activity relationship (QSAR) modelling using the OECD QSAR Toolbox (version 4.5) was used to simulate the metabolic fate of AEs for comparison with the experimental in vitro studies.

Materials and methods

Chemicals and suppliers

HPLC-grade methanol and acetonitrile: Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). HPLC-grade formic acid, acetic acid, ammonium acetate, and ammonium formate: BDH Laboratory Supplies (Poole, UK). Other chemicals: Sigma Aldrich (Helsinki, Finland), the highest purity available. Water was in-house freshly prepared with a Direct-Q3 (Millipore Oy, Espoo, Finland) purifcation system and UP grade (ultrapure, 18.2 MΩ). The study compounds were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and described in Table [1](#page-2-0).

Incubation materials and procedures for liver S9 fraction

The metabolic stability assay was performed in a 48-well plate format (duplicate with cofactors and single without cofactors). The pooled liver S9 from three species (i.e. human, hamster, and rat) were purchased from Bioreclamation IVT (see ["Appendix 1"](#page-17-0) Table [9](#page-17-1) for a detailed description). Results (half-lives) for disappearance control midazolam are shown in ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [11,](#page-18-0) showing that enzyme activities were at a normal level.

Each incubation contained test compound (final concentration of 1 or 10 μ M), liver S9 (1.5 mg/ml protein content), Cofactors (1 mM NADPH + 1 mM UDPGA + 0.2 mM PAPS), $MgCl₂$ (2 mM), and potassium phosphate buffer (100 mM at pH 7.4). The final incubation volume was 300 µl containing 0.5% DMSO as solvent for all the AEs or 0.25% DMSO + 0.25% IPA for $C_{18}EO_3$. The incubation was carried out at 37 °C for 60 min with and without cofactors. At each time point (0, 5, 10, 20, 40, and 60 min), the reactions were quenched with twofold volume of 75% acetonitrile. The samples were collected and stored at -20 °C for further analysis. Midazolam $(1 \mu M)$ was used as a disappearance control for determining the disappearance rate.

Incubation materials and procedures for hepatocytes

The metabolic stability assay was performed in a 48-well plate format (duplicate with cells and single without cells). The pooled cryopreserved hepatocytes from three species/ strain (i.e. human, hamster, and rat) were purchased from Bioreclamation IVT (see ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [10](#page-18-1) for a detailed description). Results (half-lives) for disappearance of control verapamil are shown in ["Appendix 1"](#page-17-0) Table [12,](#page-18-2) showing that enzyme activities were at a normal level.

The hepatocytes were thawed and re-suspended in Celsis InVitro KHB medium (pH 7.4). Cell count and cell viability (i.e. Human viability 86%, Hamster viability 69%, and Rat viability 62%) were determined by Trypan Blue exclusion method. The final incubation volume was 320 µl containing 1 million viable cells/ml and 0.5% DMSO (0.25% DMSO + 0.25% IPA for $C_{18}EO_3$) with test compounds achieving a final concentration of 1 or 10 μ M. The incubation (with and without cells) was carried out at 37 °C for 120 min with shaking (600 rpm). At each time point (0, 5, 15, 30, 60 and 120 min), the reactions were quenched with twofold volume of 75% acetonitrile. The samples were collected and stored at − 20 °C for further analysis. Verapamil $(1 \mu M)$ was used as a disappearance control for determining the disappearance rate.

Analytical methods for metabolites profling in hepatocytes and liver S9

The samples were thawed at room temperature (RT), shaken, and centrifuged for 20 min at $2272 \times g$ (Thermo SL16, room

Table 1 chemical name and properties of each test item

Abbreviation name	CAS no.	Sigma number	Lot	МW	Full name	Purity $(\%)$
C_8EO_4	19327-39-0	T3394	BCCF1360	306.44	Tetraethylene glycol monooctyl ether	> 98
$C_{10}EO_5$	23244-49-7	76436	BCCB9565	378.54	Pentaethylene glycol monodecyl ether	> 97
$C_{12}EO_4$	5274-68-0	1372424	FOJ132	362.54	Tetraethylene glycol monododecyl ether	\geq 99
$C_{16}EO_8$	5698-39-5	74717	BCCF0615	594.86	Octaethylene glycol monohexadecyl ether	> 98
$C_{18}EO_3$	4439-32-1	AS-3199 KEY465201438	Bx 96596	402.65	Triethylene glycol monooctadecyl ether	> 99

temperature), and pipetted to Waters 96-well UPLC-plate for analysis.

The in vitro metabolism of the fve individual homologue AEs (i.e. C_8EO_4 , $C_{10}EO_5$, $C_{12}EO_4$, $C_{16}EO_8$, and $C_{18}EO_3$) was analyzed by liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry (LC–MS). The UPLC-Q-Exactive Orbitrap MS system consisted of a Thermo Vanquish Horizon UHPLC with an autosampler, vacuum degasser, photodiode array (PDA) detector (210–500 nm), and column oven coupled to a Q-Exactive Orbitrap Focus mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The analytical column used was a Waters Acquity BEH C8 2.1×50 mm with 1.7 particle size (Waters Corp, Milford, MA, USA). The temperature of the column oven was 40 \degree C, and the injection volume was 4 μ l. The aqueous eluent (A) was 0.1% formic acid (B) was acetonitrile. A gradient elution with 98–98–(100-*X*)–2–2–98% (B) in 2–2-*X*–98–98–2 min $(X=60$ for C₈EO₄, 80 for C₁₀EO₅ and C₁₂EO₄, 98 for C₁₆EO₈ and $C_{18}EO_3$) was applied, followed by 1 min equilibration time. The eluent fow rate was 0.5 ml/min and the fow was directed to the MS through a PDA detector. The data acquisition was performed using positive Electrospray Ionization (ESI+) polarity with a capillary voltage of 3000 V. Capillary temperature was 320 °C and auxiliary gas temperature was 500 °C. The mass spectrometer was operated in the datadependent MS2 mode, which acquires full-scan MS and MS/ MS fragment ion data in the same run. Scan was performed with a resolution of 35,000 (full width at half maximum at m/z 200), while an Automated Gain Control target of a million ions, maximum injection time of 100 ms, and a scan range of 100–1000 m/z were used. Resolution of 17,500 (full width at half maximum at m/z 200) and collision energies of 20, 40, and 60 eV were used in the $dd{MS}^2$ mode. Nitrogen was used as a sheath gas with 50 units, auxiliary gas with 10 units and as a sweep gas with 5 units. Ion chromatograms were extracted from the total ion chromatograms using calculated monoisotopic accurate masses with 5 mDa window. Calibration curves were generated using an external standard. The data were processed with Thermo Xcalibur 4.1.31.9 software.

Half‑life and clearance calculations

The first-order rate constants k (min⁻¹) of the metabolism were obtained from the slope of time versus ln (% remaining) plots using Excel software. All time points (log-scale) were used in ftting the rate constant *k* based on visual inspection of the curves.

The in vitro half-life (*t*1/2) of the test compound(s) is defned as:

 $t_{1/2} = \ln 2/k$

Intrinsic in vitro clearance was calculated as follows:

 $CL_{intinc} = k*V/(M)$, where *V* is the volume of the incubation and *M* is the number of cells or amount of S9 protein in the incubation.

In silico OECD QSAR Toolbox prediction

The potential metabolites of the fve individual homologue AE substances were predicted using the OECD QSAR Toolbox (version 4.5) (<https://qsartoolbox.org>). The metabolism and transformation simulators used to identify potential metabolites are:

- Hydrolysis (acidic)
- In vivo Rat metabolism
- Rat liver S9 metabolism
- Skin metabolism

The simulation of metabolism and transformation was performed for each individual AE homologue using Simplifed Molecular Input Line Entry System (SMILES) codes as input to the model. Results of the in silico metabolic simulations with OECD QSAR toolbox are summarized in ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [18](#page-27-0).

Results

Metabolic stability in liver S9 fraction

For each AE, the relative LC/MS peak areas with and without cofactors in liver S9 fraction of the investigated species (i.e. human, rat, and hamster) over the 60 min time period are shown in Fig. [1.](#page-4-0) In general, a cofactor-dependent disappearance was observed for all investigated compounds, being most apparent with C_8EO_4 , $C_{10}EO_5$, and $C_{12}EO_4$ whilst no disappearance was observed without cofactors. At a concentration of 1 and 10 μ M C₈EO₄, only 1–6% of the initial concentration was remaining after 60 min incubation with human and hamster liver S9, while the corresponding value in rat was 34–49%. At a concentration of 1 and 10 μ M C₁₀EO₅, only 0.01–4% of the initial concentration was remaining after 60 min incubation with human, rat, and hamster liver S9. The disappearance of $C_{12}EO_4$ showed high fluctuation in LC/MS peak areas at 1μ M, while the quality of data from 10 μM incubations was substantially better. At a concentration of 10 μ M, the remaining abundances after 60 min incubation were 3% for human, 3% rat, and 24% for hamster. A high fuctuation of LC/MS peak areas was observed in the results with $C_{16}EO_8$ and $C_{18}EO_3$ at both high and low concentrations which hampered further investigation on these two individual AE homologues.

Fig. 1 Relative LC/MS peak areas for C_8EO_4 , $C_{10}EO_5$, $C_{12}EO_4$, $C_{16}EO_8$, and $C_{18}EO_3$ in investigated time points with initial concentration of 1 and 10 µM and liver S9 fraction concentration 1.5 mg/ml, with cofactor $(n=2)$ and without $cofactors (n=1)$

A Springer

Metabolic stability in hepatocytes

The results from incubation with human, rat, and hamster hepatocytes and without hepatocytes are shown in Fig. [2.](#page-6-0) In general, no disappearance was observed in incubations without cells, but high variation in the peak areas was observed with all compounds, including no detection of test item ($C_{16}EO_8$ at 1 µM and $C_{18}EO_3$ for both concentrations) in buffer incubations. At a concentration of 1 and 10 μ M C_8EO_4 , only 0.1–3% of the initial concentration was remaining after 120 min incubation with human, rat, and hamster hepatocytes. At a concentration of 1 and 10 μ M C₁₀EO₅, only 0.2–4% of the initial concentration was remaining after 120 min. Similar to results with the liver S9 incubations, the disappearance of $C_{12}EO_4$ at a concentration of 1 µM showed high fuctuation in LC/MS peak areas. However, the data from 10 μ M incubations with this AE homologue was of good quality and the incubations at $1 \mu M$ were not subject to further investigation. At a concentration of 10 μ M, the remaining $C_{12}EO_4$ after 120 min incubation was 40% for human, 12% for rat and 11% for hamster. At a concentration of 1 and 10 μ M C₁₆EO₈, 11–36%, 1–16%, and 4–5% of the compound was remaining after 120 min in human, rat, and hamster hepatocytes, respectively. A high fuctuation of LC/MS peak areas was observed in the data of $C_{18}EO_3$, at both test concentrations which hampered further investigation efforts.

Half‑life and clearance calculations

Based on the disappearance data (Figs. [1,](#page-4-0) [2\)](#page-6-0), half-lives and in vitro clearances were calculated and are presented in Table [2.](#page-7-0) Due to some poor-quality data shown by fuctuation of LC/MS peak areas as a function of incubation time, kinetic calculations were not able to be performed and are therefore shown as Not Available (NA) (see Table [2\)](#page-7-0).

The majority of the AEs were metabolized within the incubation time in both liver S9 and hepatocytes. Half-lives for human liver S9 fraction and hepatocytes are comparable for C_8EO_4 and $C_{10}EO_5$ and ranged from 2 min in liver S9 and 4 min in hepatocytes for C₁₀EO₅ to \geq 29 min for C₁₈EO₃ in liver S9. The majority of the half-lives were less than 30 min for most systems and test compounds. The outlier values might possibly be due to low concentrations of residual parent AE compounds and inherent analytical fuctuations.

In addition, the interpretation of data with AE with longer alkyl carbon chain lengths $(>C12)$ was more problematic compared to the shorter C chain homologues. It seems that these higher molecular weight homologues are harder to detect or less metabolism could occur, which is observed by fluctuating data in $C_{12}EO_{4}$ (rat and hamster liver S9 at 1 µM, human and rat hepatocyte at 1 μ M), C₁₆EO₈ (all species liver S9 at 10 μ M) and C₁₈EO₃ (all species liver S9 at 10 μ M and all hepatocyte). AEs (except $C_{16}EO_8$) were metabolized faster in human liver S9 (approx. 1.1–4.4 times) than rat liver S9 at both concentrations. All AEs were metabolized faster in rat (approx. 1.4–9.2 times) when compared with data from incubations with human hepatocytes.

Metabolite identification for C₈EO₄

In liver S9 fraction, 20 metabolites (M1–M20) were detected across all species for C_8EO_4 (Table [3](#page-8-0) and ["Appendix 1"](#page-17-0) Table [13\)](#page-19-0). In human S9 fraction, 17 metabolites were detected, with octane hydroxylation M2 (54%) being the most abundant metabolite, followed by octane di-hydroxylation and dehydrogenation M9 (16.1%) and ethoxy hydroxylation and dehydrogenation M8 (10.6%). In rat S9 fraction, 16 metabolites were detected, with M2 (26.6%) being clearly the most abundant metabolite, followed by M8 (5.8%) and octane hydroxylation M1 (4.6%). In hamster S9 fraction, 20 metabolites were detected with M1 (17.7%), M2 (34.3%), and hydroxylation in octane (M3, 9.7%) being the most abundant.

In hepatocytes, 22 metabolites were detected across all species (Table [3](#page-8-0) and ["Appendix 1"](#page-17-0) Table [13\)](#page-19-0). 21 metabolites were detected in human hepatocytes and the main metabolite was M9 (81.4%), followed by hydroxylation and dehydrogenation in the ethoxy moiety (i.e. the EO 'tail') (M8, 3.7%), $3 \times$ hydroxylations and $2 \times$ dehydrogenations (M23, 3.3%) and O-dealkylation (hydroxylation and loss of C4H8O2) with $4 \times$ hydroxylations + dehydrogenation (M26, 2.8%). In rat, 20 metabolites were detected and M9 (66.1%) was the most abundant, followed by O-dealkylation with $3 \times$ hydroxylations and $2 \times$ dehydrogenations (M25, 9.8%). In hamster, 22 metabolites were detected and the most abundant were hydroxylation and dehydrogenation in octane (M7, 31.4%) and M9 (25.1%).

Diferences were observed for M10, M16, M18, and M19, which were detected in S9 fraction, but not in hepatocytes whereas M21–M26 were not detected in S9 fraction but were detected in hepatocytes.

Metabolite identification for C₁₀EO₅

For $C_{10}EO_5$, 26 metabolites were detected in liver S9 (Table [4](#page-9-0) and ["Appendix 1"](#page-17-0) Table [14](#page-20-0)). All metabolites were detected in human, with decane di-hydroxylation and dehydrogenation M6 (56.5%) being the most abundant metabolite, followed by decane hydroxylation M1 (25.3%). In rat, M1 (70%) was the most abundant metabolite, followed by M5 (5.8%) and M6 (6.9%) formed via ethoxy hydroxylation and dehydrogenation. The most abundant metabolites in hamster were M1 (32.3%), M6 (16%), and M25 (12.7%) formed via O-dedecylation.

Fig. 2 Relative LC/MS peak areas for C_8EO_4 , $C_{10}EO_5$, $C_{12}EO_4$, $C_{16}EO_8$ and $C_{18}EO_3$ in investigated time points with initial concentration of 1 and 10 μM and hepatocytes content of 1 million/ml $(n=2)$

Control (Buffer) 0 0 0

Control (B

ffer) 0 0 0

 $\overline{}$ $\overline{}$ $\overline{\circ}$ $\overline{}$ $\overline{0}$ **Table 2** Kinetic in vitro calculations based on the disappearance data in liver S9 and hepatocytes (*n*=2)

NA not available

In hepatocytes in all species, 28 metabolites were detected for $C_{10}EO_5$ (Table [4](#page-9-0) and ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [14](#page-20-0)). All metabolites in hepatocytes were detected in human and clearly the most abundant was M6 (53.3%), followed by O-dealkylation (loss of $C_6H_{12}O_3$ with $5 \times$ hydroxylations and dehydrogenation (M36, 18.4%) and O-dealkylation with $3 \times$ hydroxylations and dehydrogenation in decane (M33, 10.6%). All metabolites were detected in rat, and M6 (60.9%) was clearly the main metabolite, followed by M36 (10.8%), O-dealkylation (loss of $C_8H_{18}O_4$ with 6×hydroxylations and dehydrogenation (M39, 8.1%) and M33 (5%). All metabolites were detected in hamster as well, and the most abundant metabolite was M6 (31.2%), followed by M36 $(20.6\%),$ Loss of C₁₀H₂₀ (M25, 10.1%), and M33 (8.1%).

M4b, M6b, and M18–M23 were detected in S9 fraction but were not detected in hepatocytes. M30–M38 were detected in hepatocytes but not in liver S9 fraction.

Metabolite identifcation for C12EO4

In liver S9 fraction, a total of 20 metabolites were detected across all species for $C_{12}EO_4$ (Table [5](#page-10-0) and ["Appendix 1"](#page-17-0) Table [15](#page-21-0)). The most abundant metabolites in all species were ethoxy hydroxylation and dehydrogenation M4 (18.5% in human, 21.4% in rat, and 12.9% in hamster liver S9), dodecane di-hydroxylation and dehydrogenation M5 (30.1% in human, 16.4% in rat, and 11.9% in hamster liver S9), and O-dealkylation with dodecane di-hydroxylation and dehydrogenation M10 (23.7% in human, 18.6% in rat, and 16% in hamster liver S9). Additionally, M1 (14.5%) formed via dodecane hydroxylation had about similar abundance than M4, M5 and M10 in rat.

In hepatocytes (across all species), 28 metabolites were detected (Table [5](#page-10-0) and ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [15\)](#page-21-0). All hepatocyte metabolites were detected in human, and the most abundant metabolites were O-dealkylation with 6×hydroxylations and dehydrogenation (M28, 12.1%), O-dealkylation (loss of $C_4H_8O_2$) with 6 × hydroxylations and dehydrogenation (M30, 14.3%), O-dealkylation (loss of $C_6H_1_2O_3$) with $6 \times$ hydroxylations and dehydrogenation (M32, 12.9%), and O-dealkylation (loss of $C_8H_{16}O_4$) with 6×hydroxylations and dehydrogenation (M34, 10.7%). In rat, the most abundant metabolites were M25 (9.8%) and M28–M35 (5.1–10.4%). In hamster, the most abundant metabolites were M28 (10.3%), M30 (16%), M32 (13.4%), and M34 $(12.6\%).$

M2, M6, M11–M13, M19, and M20 were detected in liver S9 fraction but not in hepatocytes, while M21–M34 were detected in hepatocytes but not in liver S9 fraction.

Liver S9 without cofac-

Hepatocytes, $\%$ ^b

a For liver S9 data, results were from 60 min in liver S9 and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 60 min time point from 10 µM incubation

^bFor hepatocyte data, results were from 120 min in hepatocytes and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 120 min time point from 10 µM incubation

c Data from 15 min sample

Metabolites code Liver S9 with cofac-

Metabolite identification C₁₆EO₈

The same 33 metabolites were detected for $C_{16}EO_8$ in liver S9 of all species (Table [6](#page-11-0) and ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [16](#page-23-0)). The most abundant metabolites in all species were hexadecane di-hydroxylation and dehydrogenation M3 (3.8%), O-dehexadecylation M4 (4.8%), and O-dealkylation M12 $(4.6\%).$

In hepatocytes, 32 metabolites were detected in all species for $C_{16}EO_8$ $C_{16}EO_8$ $C_{16}EO_8$ (Table 6 and ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [16\)](#page-23-0). In human, M3 (12.3%) and M4 (15.9%) were most abundant, while in rat and hamster, M4 (84.4% in rat and 45.9% in hamster) was the most abundant.

M2, M12–M16, M18–M20, M23–M26, and M30–M33 were detected in liver S9 fraction, but not in hepatocytes while M34–M49 were detected in hepatocytes but not in liver S9 fraction.

Metabolite identification for C₁₈EO₃

In liver S9 fraction, a total of 11 metabolites were detected for $C_{18}EO_3$, all of them were found in human liver S9 whereas in rat and hamster liver S9, not all metabolites could be detected (Table [7](#page-12-0) and ["Appendix 1"](#page-17-0) Table [17\)](#page-26-0). The most abundant metabolites in human liver S9 were octadecane di-hydroxylation and dehydrogenation M5 (13.7%), and **Table 4** Metabolite profles for $C_{10}EO_5$

a For liver S9 data, results were from 60 min in liver S9 and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 60 min time point from 10 µM incubation

^bFor hepatocyte data, results were from 120 min in hepatocytes and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 120 min time point from 10 µM incubation

octadecane hydroxylation with glucuronide conjugation M9 (20.1%). In rat and hamster liver S9, octadecane hydroxylation M1 (8% in rat and 12.4% in hamster) was the most abundant metabolite, while in hamster liver S9, also M5 (5.3%) had relatively high abundance.

In hepatocytes, 9 metabolites were detected in total for $C_{18}EO_3$ (Table [7](#page-12-0) and ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [17](#page-26-0)). All 9 metabolites could be detected for human hepatocytes whereas for rat and hamster only 4 metabolites each could be measured. M9 (40.7%) and M5 (15.5%) were the main metabolites in

Liver S9 without cofac-

Hepatocytes, $\%$ ^b

a For liver S9 data, results were from 60 min in liver S9 and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 60 min time point from 10 µM incubation

^bFor hepatocyte data, results were from 120 min in hepatocytes and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 120 min time point from 10 µM incubation

c Data from 15 min time point

Metabolite code Liver S9 with cofactors,

d Data from 60 min time point

human. In rat and hamster, detected metabolite levels were low, but M5 (1% in rat and 1.9% in hamster) appeared to also be the main metabolite in these species.

Only M5 and M9 were detected both in liver S9 and hepatocytes, while M12–M18 were detected only in hepatocytes.

Table 6 Metabolite profles for $C_{16}EO_8$

a For liver S9 data, results were from 60 min in liver S9 and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 60 min time point from 10 µM incubation

^bFor hepatocyte data, results were from 120 min in hepatocytes and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 120 min time point from 10 µM incubation

a For liver S9 data, results were from 60 min in liver S9 and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 60 min time point from 10 µM incubation

^bFor hepatocyte data, results were from 120 min in hepatocytes and presented as percentages of the total peak area at 120 min time point from 10 µM incubation

OECD QSAR toolbox prediction

The in silico metabolism simulation results with OECD QSAR Toolbox, including the predicted metabolites structures are presented in ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [18](#page-27-0) and ["Appen](#page-17-0)[dix 1](#page-17-0)" Tables [19,](#page-28-0) [20,](#page-30-0) [21,](#page-32-0) [22,](#page-34-0) [23,](#page-37-0) and a summary of the predicted metabolites and pathways is provided in Table [8](#page-13-0).

In general, all compounds considered were predicted to be metabolized following a common mechanism with the number of predicted metabolites increasing with increasing number of EO groups. From the metabolic conversions identifed (["Appendix 1"](#page-17-0) Tables [19,](#page-28-0) [20](#page-30-0), [21,](#page-32-0) [22](#page-34-0), [23\)](#page-37-0), hydrolysis of ether group will occur whenever possible and is predicted by the hydrolysis simulator as well as the hepatic simulators used. Both simulations demonstrated that all available ether groups are subject to hydrolysis, and hydrolysis can occur at various positions in the AEs investigated. In addition, alcohols originating from hydrolysis of the ether group between the alkyl chain and the EO groups are oxidized to carboxylic (fatty) acids via the intermediate stage of aldehydes. Fatty acids are degraded by β-oxidation (i.e. fatty

acids containing 2, 4, 6, etc. C atoms less than the parent fatty acid or alcohol (removed C_2 -units)) are simulated. Furthermore, the insertion of hydroxyl groups at various positions in the alkyl chain and their subsequent oxidation to carbonyl groups (i.e. dehydrogenation) is simulated for all compounds. Moreover, available hydroxyl group(s) in mono and oligo ethylene glycol ethers are oxidized via the corresponding aldehyde(s) to acidic compounds, for example, glycolaldehyde, glycolic acid, glyoxylic acid, oxalic acid, 8-hydroxy-3,6-dioxaoctanal, β-hydroxyethoxyacetic acid and 2-carboxymethoxy-ethoxy)-acetic acid.

Discussion

Metabolism is considered to be one of the most important factors impacting the potential of a chemical to cause toxicity (Nebbia [2012](#page-51-5)). The results of our present investigation with AEs sheds light on the metabolic profle and the mechanism of biotransformation of AEs in both liver S9 and hepatocytes from humans, rats and hamsters.

Table 8 Metabolites and metabolic pathways identifed from OECD QSAR toolbox

Metabolic stability and clearance were measured in vitro (in both liver S9 and hepatocytes) to study the kinetic properties of AEs across a variety of species (human, rat, and hamster). In general, all AEs were metabolized by liver S9 and hepatocytes from human, rat, and hamster. There were some analytical issues with the detection of the disappearance of AEs in both test system when the alkyl chain length of AEs was greater than C12. As these AE are more hydrophobic compared to the shorter C Chain homologues, the potential cause of this may be due to non-specifc binding to the incubation wells which has been reported by other researchers (Proença et al. [2021\)](#page-51-6). Additionally, some technical analytical limitations are possible. Due to the poor quality of the LC/MS data for the higher C Chain AE homologues, it was not possible to reliably calculate halflife/clearance (shown as NA in Table [2\)](#page-7-0). Furthermore, some estimations are considered less accurate due to a substantial fluctuation of the LC/MS peak areas pertaining to $C_{16}EO_8$ and $C_{18}EO_3$, which may be due to their hydrophobic and poorly soluble nature with increased potential for binding to the plastic incubation well walls. Therefore, it could not be concluded which factors (i.e. alkyl chain or EO group) infuence the metabolism rate for these compounds in both metabolizing systems.

Specifically, the *t*1/2 values obtained for the 1 μ M and 10 µM incubations were comparable with both C8EO4 and C10EO5. Therefore, these AEs can be considered to be metabolized quickly and there are no signifcant variations

between the two initial concentrations within each metabolizing system (liver S9 vs. hepatocytes).

Interestingly, we also observed differences between the two metabolizing systems, where AEs were metabolized faster in human than rat in liver S9, whereas the opposite was observed in the hepatocyte test systems. However, all of the AE compounds were metabolised within comparable timeframes. A reason for the small differences might be due to the well-known variances in cellular uptake of compounds and/or membrane permeability, which may contribute to species differences observed in the hepatocyte data. However, in some cases, this study suggests a more efficient metabolic breakdown in the presence of a human metabolic system (liver S9). In addition, the human kinetic in vitro data in this study shows good agreement with the observations detailed in the HERA report (HERA [2009](#page-51-0)) where 75% of radiolabeled $C_{12}EO_6$ and $C_{13}EO_6$ were excreted in human male volunteers within the first 24 h (Drotman [1980\)](#page-51-4). The results are also consistent with prior observations of almost complete excretion with 24 h after exposure to $C_{16}EO_8$ (139 min with 1 µM in liver S9) which was the longest half-life established in this study.

Based on the metabolic profiles of liver S9 and hepatocytes, a potential metabolism pathway for each AE could be established since it was evident that there were filiations within the identified metabolites (see ["Appendix 1](#page-17-0)" Table [13](#page-19-0), [14,](#page-20-0) [15,](#page-21-0) [16,](#page-23-0) [17](#page-26-0) and ["Appendix 2"](#page-39-0) Figs. [5](#page-39-1), [6,](#page-40-0) [7,](#page-41-0) [8](#page-42-0), [9,](#page-43-0) [10,](#page-44-0) [11](#page-44-1), [12](#page-45-0), [13](#page-45-1), [14\)](#page-46-0). For example, in C_8EO_4 metabolism, the parent compound predominantly occurred with one or two hydroxyl groups (–OH) at the octane part (M1, M2, M3, M4, M5, and M6) probably via the omega or omega-1 oxidation route. This step of hydroxylation is most likely induced by cytochrome P450 (CYP450) enzymes (i.e. monooxygenases) which is frequently seen in hydrocarbon metabolism which inserts one molecular oxygen atom into the substrate (Miura [2013;](#page-51-7) Ortiz de Montellano [2010](#page-51-8)). Subsequently M1, M2, M3, or M4 is further oxidized to form the aldehyde (–CHO, M7, or M21) and subsequent carboxylic acid (–COOH, M9) at the octane terminal if it followed the omega oxidation route, or form the keto (R-CO-CH3, M7, or M21) if it followed the omega-1 oxidation route (Krettler et al. [2020;](#page-51-9) Miura [2013\)](#page-51-7). Alternatively, the EO groups of the parent compound form carboxylic acid (–COOH) via hydroxylation and dehydrogenation (M8) which is observed in PEG metabolism and is mediated by alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) and aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH) (Webster et al. [2007](#page-52-5); Zakhari [2006](#page-52-6)). Subsequently, M8 is oxidized (via CYP450) from the PEG end to shorten the EO groups via O-dealkylation which is the loss of one EO group C_2H_4O (Miura [2013\)](#page-51-7). The oxidation process is repeated and expected to remove all the EO groups from the AEs. In addition, omega-1 oxidation is expected to occur during AE metabolism as evidenced by the observation of metabolites, which have exactly the same mass and proposed reactions, as was seen with, M7 and M21 in C_8EO_4 metabolism. Interestingly, it has been reported that omega-1 oxidation is the preferred route of metabolism in hamster (Lhuguenot et al. [1988](#page-51-10)). The report observed this to be the case in C_8EO_4 metabolism and not for other AEs. It also reported that glucuronidation occurred throughout the entire metabolism process. For instance, the parent compound (i.e. C8EO4) could be conjugated with glucuronidation directly (M17), after hydroxylation (M20), and after each O-dealkylation (M18 and M19).

All in all, the metabolic profiles for human, rat, and hamster were compared to assess potential metabolic clearance pathways. For liver S9, the metabolite profiles of the three species were qualitatively similar although some quantitative differences were observed. In general, all investigated compounds were mono- and di-hydroxylations followed by dehydrogenation in the alkyl chain and further oxidation forming possibly carboxylic acids (–COOH). In addition, abundant metabolites via oxidation of EO groups, and shortening of EO groups (via consecutive losses of C_2H_4O) were detected in our study. For some of the compounds, low abundance glucuronide and sulfate conjugates were also observed after hydroxylation of the alkyl chain. Similar to liver S9, the metabolic profiles were qualitatively similar across all AEs although some of the minor metabolites were not detected in hepatocytes and several hepatocyte-specific metabolites were detected. Generally, the metabolism in hepatocytes seems to proceed further with several hydroxylation reactions and shortening of the EO groups, while the main metabolites detected in liver S9 fraction were most abundant in the earlier time points of hepatocyte experiments. Such phenomenon has previously been observed as this is the most significant difference between these two in vitro systems where hepatocytes contain the whole set of metabolic enzymes and cofactors at physiological levels (Li [2007](#page-51-11)). Interestingly, chain shortening was only observed at the site of the hydrophilic EO head groups, not at the hydrophobic alkyl chain. This may be due to the limitations of the analytical method in the current study and is not necessarily contradictory to metabolism of fatty alcohol cycle which has been reported previously (Rizzo [2014](#page-52-7)). Shortening of EO groups can be achieved

Fig. 4 Proposed general AEs metabolism pathway identifed in current study

by oxidative cleavage of C_2H_4O via CYP450 oxidative dealkylation (O-dealkylation) (Steber and Wierich [1985](#page-52-8)). During the shortening process, there are two possible oxidation processes based on our QSAR metabolites simulation (Appendix I Tables [19,](#page-28-0) [20](#page-30-0), [21,](#page-32-0) [22](#page-34-0), [23\)](#page-37-0): 1) a hemiacetal maybe formed, then hydrolyzes to the shorter aldehyde plus ethylene glycol (Fig [3](#page-15-0)a), or 2) the hydroxyl group is oxidized to carboxylic acid, then further oxidized to the shorter alcohol plus oxalic acid (Fig [3b](#page-15-0)). In addition, evidence from studies with PEG indicate that ethylene glycol is not formed as a metabolites of PEG in humans, but minor amounts of oxalic acid may be formed (Fruijtier-Pölloth [2005;](#page-51-12) Shaffer et al. [1950\)](#page-52-9). However, small fragments, like ethylene glycol and oxalic acid, could not be detected in our current study due to technical limitations.

Cleavage of the ether bond between the alkyl chain and the EO groups was also detected in both liver S9 and hepatocytes (M15 in C_8EO_4 , M25 in $C_{10}EO_5$, M16 in $C_{12}EO_4$, and M4 in $C_{16}EO_8$). Although there was no such metabolite (i.e. free 3 EO groups) identified in incubations with $C_{18}EO_3$, the existence of such a metabolite is highly probable. This can be explained by two facts: the existence of M17 which is a hydroxylated and dehydrogenated C18 alcohol, and the limitations of the current study. In addition, it is known that free alcohols and PEG are the by-products of AE biodegradation as the results of the "central fission" pathway, and such a metabolism pathway may also be applicable in mammalian cells (Swisher [1986;](#page-52-10) Szymanski et al. [2000\)](#page-52-11). In principle, the 3EO metabolite should be detected since the percentage of whole EO groups increased with increasing alkyl chain where $0.6-1.5\%$ for C_8EO_4 , 2.0–3.2% for $C_{10}EO_5$, 0.8–2.4% for $C_{12}EO_4$, and 4.8–84.4% for $C_{16}EO_8$ was found. The analytical method was capable of detecting AEs with 3 or more EO units with good sensitivity, but this in fact did not occur. Additionally, fatty alcohols (without an EO head group) were not detected and the detection sensitivity for fatty alcohols with one EO group was extremely poor as these were not ionized in ESI or APCI ionization techniques. Similar technical difficulties have also been reported by other groups (Zembrzuska [2017](#page-52-12)).

In summary, based on the identified metabolites from each of the AEs, major similarities in metabolism were observed for the different AEs. Metabolism pathways for each AEs are shown in ["Appendix 2"](#page-39-0) Figs. [15](#page-46-1), [16,](#page-47-0) [17](#page-47-1), [18,](#page-48-0) [19,](#page-48-1) [20](#page-49-0), [21](#page-49-1), [22](#page-50-0), [23](#page-50-1) and [24.](#page-51-13) Despite some of the analytical problems and limitations, the metabolites detected and identified allowed for general metabolism pathways to be derived (see Fig. [4\)](#page-15-1). The in vitro data generated in this study provide a fresh insight into the metabolism of AEs and the results are aligned with HERA's hypothesis that both the hydrophobic alkyl chain and the hydrophilic EO head groups are the main target sites for metabolism. Cleavage of the ether bond of AEs to form fatty alcohol and PEG is only a minor metabolism pathway within the in vitro test systems investigated in this study. It is recognized only ESI+ was used in the current study, and it is suggested that for future investigations to the use of ESI− should be considered to enable some metabolites, such as sulfate conjugates, carboxylic acids, etc., to be detected and to add further to the complete picture of AE metabolism in vitro.

An excellent agreement between the in vitro experiments and the in silico metabolite predictions with OECD QSAR Toolbox was found. Both methodologies confirm that there is no difference in metabolic patterns of the various AEs evaluated, regardless of the alkyl chain length or the number of EO groups. None of the metabolites, either simulated or detected, indicates the presence different metabolic pathways or mechanisms. No unexpected chemical or enzymatic conversion

resulting in the occurrence of unexpected metabolites was identified. When comparing the metabolite profiles in detail, not all metabolites observed in the in vitro experiments were simulated by the OECD QSAR toolbox and vice versa. No compounds with less than or equal to three EO groups and small fragments could be reliably detected using the LC–MS analytical method applied in this study, including *inter alia*, the non-ethoxylated alcohols and mono and oligo ethylene glycol derivatives, e.g. glycolaldehyde, glycolic acid, glyoxylic acid, and oxalic acid. These analytical limitations have been previously documented for alcohol ethoxylates in the scientific literature (Zembrzuska [2017\)](#page-52-12). Furthermore, the OECD QSAR toolbox is also not capable of predicting phase II metabolism. These two explanations provide a reasonable basis to explain the differences between experimental in vitro and in silico metabolites in this study.

Conclusions

This study provides substantial information on the metabolism of AEs in humans, rats, and hamster hepatic systems. The metabolic stability test of AEs in vitro indicates that all AEs have comparable metabolisms in liver microsomes, hepatocytes in all three species investigated. The metabolic rates of rodents (i.e. rats and hamsters) are similar to those of humans. All investigated AEs showed a similar metabolic pathway and metabolite profile across species. Although some quantitative differences were observed, indicating that the rat is likely to be an appropriate species for studies evaluating human health hazard endpoints for AEs. In both liver S9 and hepatocytes, metabolites were observed with hydroxylation (i.e. insertion of one oxygen in either the alkyl chain or EO groups or both), dehydrogenation (i.e. conversion of hydroxyl groups to carbonyl groups), O-dealkylation (i.e. via CYP450 oxidation to removal of C2 units from EO groups), glucuronidation proposed to be the major metabolic pathways. Cleavage of the ether bond is proposed to be a possible but minor metabolic pathway. Despite the minor differences identified for each of the individual homologue AE subject to testing, the authors assert that according to the EU RAAF guidance document, AEs from C8 to C18 can be grouped together based on their similarity of metabolism profile and metabolic rate.

Appendix 1

See Tables [9,](#page-17-1) [10,](#page-18-1) [11](#page-18-0), [12,](#page-18-2) [13,](#page-19-0) [14](#page-20-0), [15,](#page-21-0) [16,](#page-23-0) [17](#page-26-0), [18,](#page-27-0) [19,](#page-28-0) [20](#page-30-0), [21,](#page-32-0) [22](#page-34-0) and [23.](#page-37-0)

Table 9 Characteristics of the used liver S9 fractions (activities by the supplier)

Table 10 Characteristics of the used hepatocytes (activities by the supplier)

Pooled cryopreserved human hepatocytes (50-donor mixed gender)

Bioreclamation IVT product number X008005

Pooled cryopreserved male Sprague Dawley rat hepatocytes

Bioreclamation IVT product number M00005

Table 11 Stability data of control compound in Hepatocytes: Kinetic in vitro clearance and $T_{1/2}$ for verapamil (1 μ M). CL_{int,inc,} = intrinsic in vitro clearance, $T_{1/2}$ = in vitro half-life

a Complete disappearance in 120 min

Table 12 Stability data of control compounds in liver S9: Kinetic in vitro clearance and $T_{1/2}$ for midazolam (1 μ M). CL_{int,inc,} = intrinsic in vitro clearance, $T_{1/2}$ =in vitro half-life

a Complete disappearance in 60 min

Table 13 Metabolite identification with UPLC/QE-orbitrap/MS data for C_8EO_4

Metabolite code	Retention time (min)	Calculated m/z	Proposed formula $(M + H^{+})$	Proposed reaction
C8EO ₄	3.86	307,2479	$C16H35O5+$	Parent compound
M1	2.57	323,2428	$C16H35O6^{+}$	Hydroxylation in octane (Form a hydroxyl group at octane terminal or part)
M ₂	2.61	323,2428	$C16H35O6^{+}$	Hydroxylation in octane (Form a hydroxyl group at octane terminal or part)
M ₃	2.68	323,2428	C16H35O6 ⁺	Hydroxylation in octane (Form a hydroxyl group at octane terminal or part)
M4	2.77	323,2428	C16H35O6 ⁺	Hydroxylation in octane (Form a hydroxyl group at octane terminal or part)
M ₅	2.05	339,2377	C16H35O7 ⁺	$2 \times$ Hydroxylation in octane (Form two hydroxyl groups at octane terminal or part)
M ₆	2.14	339,2377	$C16H35O7+$	$2 \times$ Hydroxylation in octane (Form two hydroxyl groups at octane terminal or part)
M7	2.59	321,2272	C16H33O6 ⁺	Hydroxylation + dehydrogenation in octane (probably omega or omega-1 oxidation of the hydroxyl group (i.e. M1, M2, M3 or M4) to an aldehyde at octane terminal or keto at octane part)
M8	3.91	321,2272	$C16H33O6^{+}$	Hydroxylation + dehydrogenation in ethoxy (probably form carboxylic acid at ethoxy terminal)
M9	2.58	337,2221	$C16H33O7+$	$2 \times$ Hydroxylation + dehydrogenation in octane (probably omega oxidation, form carboxylic acid at octane terminal)
M ₁₀	2.68	337,2221	$C16H33O7+$	Hydroxylation + dehydrogenation in ethoxy + hydroxylation in octane (probably form carboxylic acid at ethoxy terminal and hydroxyl group at octane terminal)
M11	3.56	305,2323	$C16H33O5+$	Dehydrogenation in octane (Loss of 2 H form a double bond at octane part)
M12	2.54	279,2166	C14H31O5 ⁺	O-dealkylation + hydroxylation in octane (Loss of one EO unit (i.e.C2H4O) from the EO groups and form of hydroxyl group at octane terminal)
M ₁₃	2.51	277,2010	$C14H29O5+$	O-dealkylation + oxidation + dehydrogenation in octane (Loss of one EO unit (i.e.C2H4O) from the EO groups of M7 or M21)
M14	3.89	277,2010	$C14H29O5+$	O-dealkylation + oxidation + dehydrogenation in octane (Loss of one EO unit (i.e.C2H4O) from the EO groups of M7 or M21)
M15	1.30	195,1227	$C8H19O5+$	O-deoctylation (Loss of the entire octane)
M ₁₆	1.29	209,1020	C8H17O6 ⁺	O-deoctylation + hydroxylation + dehydrogenation (probably formation of carbox- ylic acid at ethoxy terminal of M15)
M17	3.47	500,3065	C22H46NO11	Glucuronide conjugation (NH3 adduct) (Glucuronidation of parent compound)
M18	3.41	456,2803	C20H42NO10	O-dealkylation + glucuronide conjugation (NH3 adduct) (Loss of one EO unit (i.e. C2H4O) from the EO groups of parent compound and then glucuronided)
M19	3.33	417,2095	C18H35NO9Na	O-dealkylation (loss of C4H8O2) + glucuronide conjugation (Na adduct) (Loss of two EO units (i.e. C4H8O2) from the EO groups of parent compound and then glucuronided)
M ₂₀	2.37	499,2749	C22H43O12	Hydroxylation + glucuronide conjugation (Glucuronidation of M1, M2, M3 or M4)
M21	2.64	321,2272	C16H33O6	Hydroxylation + dehydrogenation in octane (probably omega or omega-1 oxidation of the hydroxyl group (i.e. M1, M2, M3 or M4) to an aldehyde at octane terminal or keto at octane part)
M22	2.64	335,2064	C16H31O7	2×Hydroxylation + 2×dehydrogenation (probably form aldehyde at octane termi- nal and carboxylic acid at ethoxy terminal)
M23	2.62	351,2013	C16H31O8	$3 \times$ Hydroxylation + 2 \times dehydrogenation (probably form carboxylic acid at both octane and ethoxy terminal)
M24	2.10	309,1908	C14H29O7	O-dealkylation $+3 \times$ Hydroxylation + dehydrogenation (Loss of C2H4O from the EO groups, omega oxidation forming carboxylic acid at octane terminal, and form hydroxyl group at ethoxy terminal)
M25	2.56	307,1751	C14H27O7	O-dealkylation + $3 \times$ Hydroxylation + $2 \times$ dehydrogenation (Loss of C2H4O from the EO groups, omega oxidation forming carboxylic acid at octane terminal, and form carboxylic acid at ethoxy terminal)
M26	1.73	281,1595	C12H25O7	O-dealkylation (loss of $C4H8O2$) + $4 \times$ Hydroxylation + dehydrogenation (Loss of two EO units (i.e. C4H8O2) from the EO groups, omega oxidation forming carboxylic acid at octane terminal, and form hydroxyl group at octane part or ethoxy terminal or both)

Table 14 Metabolite identification with UPLC/QE-orbitrap/MS data for $C_{10}EO_{5}$

Table 14 (continued)

Table 15 Metabolite identification with UPLC/QE-orbitrap/MS data for $C_{12}EO_4$

Table 15 (continued)

Table 15 (continued)

Table 16 (continued)

Table 16 (continued)

Table 16 (continued)

Table 17 (continued)

Table 18 Representative constitute and SMILES codes

Table 19 (continued)

Table 20 OECD QSAR toolbox metabolism profile simulation for $C_{10}EO_5$

Table 20 (continued)

Table 21 (continued)

Table 22 OECD QSAR toolbox metabolism profile simulation for $C_{16}EO_8$

Table 22 (continued)

Table 22 (continued)

Hydrolysis simulator (acidic)		HOMMMADOH	HIGARAMAMAMONOH	HO \sim OH	$H_0 \sim 10^{-10}$ OH
	$H_0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0$				
In vivo Rat metabolism simulator	HO ĊН _З	MONTON CONTROL	HOMMANDARDARDIE	Barmmanagrano	Mathematical
	Hammo	HOW MAN	Hammmanas	Hathmanagras	Mathematicanana
	Hillywwwwwalaouluon	H_3C_1 \sum_{OH}	BANAMARY	$\frac{1}{100}$	H_3C
	Manummanas	Mannenanana	Hammundoadon	H_3C M_{\circ}	H_3C $K_{\rm eff}$
	H_3C	H_3C	$m_{\rm s}$	Bannong	MOCOCOCOCO
	H_3 Communication	H_3 Commonwealth	Hommmas	Bannon More	Mannmmanado
	HyOurcommunication	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{1$	Hammmora	BULLARY DEPARTMENT	HOURSDOCKSONS
		$H_0 \sim 1$ $\begin{picture}(180,10) \put(0,0){\line(1,0){10}} \put(10,0){\line(1,0){10}} \put(10,0){\line($	H°	$H_0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0$	

Table 23 OECD QSAR toolbox metabolism profile simulation for $C_{18}EO_3$

Table 23 (continued)

Appendix 2

See Figs. [5](#page-39-1), [6,](#page-40-0) [7,](#page-41-0) [8,](#page-42-0) [9,](#page-43-0) [10,](#page-44-0) [11,](#page-44-1) [12,](#page-45-0) [13](#page-45-1), [14](#page-46-0), [15](#page-46-1), [16](#page-47-0), [17](#page-47-1), [18,](#page-48-0) [19,](#page-48-1) [20](#page-49-0), [21](#page-49-1), [22](#page-50-0), [23](#page-50-1) and [24.](#page-51-13)

Fig. 6 MS/MS spectrum of C_8EO_4

Fig. 7 MS/MS fragment ion identification for $C_{10}EO_5$

Fig. 8 MS/MS spectrum of $C_{10}EO_5$

Fig. 10 MS/MS spectrum of $C_{12}EO_4$

Fig. 11 MS/MS fragment ion identification for $C_{16}EO_8$

Fig. 12 MS/MS spectrum of $C_{16}EO_8$

Fig. 14 MS/MS spectrum of $C_{18}EO_3$

Fig. 15 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed C_8EO_4 metabolites in liver S9 fraction

Fig. 16 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed C_8EO_4 metabolites in hepatocytes

Fig. 17 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed $C_{10}EO_5$ metabolites in liver S9 fraction

Fig. 18 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed $C_{10}EO_5$ metabolites in hepatocytes

Fig. 19 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed $C_{12}EO_4$ metabolites in liver S9 fraction

Fig. 20 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed $C_{12}EO_4$ metabolites in hepatocytes

Fig. 21 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed $C_{16}EO_8$ metabolites in liver S9 fraction

Fig. 22 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed $C_{16}EO_8$ metabolites in hepatocytes

Fig. 23 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed $C_{18}EO_3$ metabolites in liver S9 fraction

Fig. 24 The suggested metabolic pathways for the observed $C_{18}EO_3$ metabolites in hepatocytes

Acknowledgements This project was sponsored by the EU REACH Alcohol Ethoxylate consortium. The authors would like to thank all members of the EU REACH Alcohol Ethoxylate consortium and its members for helpful discussions and input during development of the manuscript and for assistance in preparation of the manuscript.

Data availability The data are available under the Archive of Toxicology. Any additional requests for data access should be directed to the corresponding author.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The author(s) declared the following potential conficts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: The authors of this article are either employed by companies that manufacture Alcohol Ethoxylates products or consultants. This manuscript was written as part of their normal employment.

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