

Non-monotonic association between chlorinated polyfluorinated ether sulfonic acids exposure and the risk of overweight/obesity status in adults

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Abstract

Background

Chlorinated polyfluorinated ether sulfonic acids (Cl-PFESA 6:2 and 8:2), used as perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS) alternatives, affect lipid metabolism *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies. The association between Cl-PFESAs exposure and the prevalence of overweight /obesity in human is unknown.

Objectives

We investigated associations of serum 6:2 CI-PFESA and 8:2 CI-PFESA with overweight/obesity status in adults.

Methods

We quantified four perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS), including 6:2 Cl-PFESA, 8:2 Cl-PFESA, PFOS, and perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) in 1275 Chinese adults from the Isomers of C8 Health Project in China study. Participants were categorized into normal weight group [body mass index (BMI) < 25 kg/m^2] and overweight/obesity group (BMI $\geq 25 \text{ kg/m}^2$).

Results

Adjusted for potential confounders, BMI in the second quartile of each In-ng/mL greater concentration of 6:2 CI-PFESA and 8:2 CI-PFESA were 0.45 [95% confidence interval (CI): 0.08, 0.82], and 0.39 (95% CI:0.03, 0.76) significantly higher than the lowest quartile, respectively. CI-PFESAs displayed inverted U-shaped associations with the risk of overweight/obesity, and the inflection point of 6:2 CI-PFESA and 8:2 CI-PFESA were 1.80 ng/mL, 0.01 ng/mL, respectively. PFOS was associated with waist circumference (WC) but not BMI in each quartile. For PFOA, the associations with outcomes were linearly positive (*P* for trend < 0.05).

Conclusions

This study reports the first observations on non-monotonic associations between serum 6:2 Cl-PFESA and 8:2 Cl-PFESA concentrations and the prevalence of overweight/obesity in adults. More epidemiological investigations are required to confirm the observed associations.

1. Introduction

Obesity is a global public-health problem that increases mortality, decreases life expectancy, and elevates risk for many comorbidities including type 2 diabetes, metabolic syndrome, reproductive abnormalities, hypertension, coronary heart disease, cancers and others (Flegal et al. 2013; Haslam and James 2005; Riaz et al. 2018). The trends in obesity prevalence have been growing over the past 40 years, with 39% of the global adult population becoming overweight and 13% becoming obese in 2016 (Jaacks et al. 2019; WHO 2021). The etiology of obesity is intricate. It is not simply an energy imbalance, but is also related to ubiquitous obesogens, such as poly- and perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) (Heindel and Blumberg 2019). PFAS are a series of highly fluorinated aliphatic compounds with wide distribution, bio-accumulative properties and extreme environmental persistence (Dhore and Murthy 2021), among which perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS) are the most commonly studied and used (Sunderland et al. 2019). Previous literature suggests the association of exposure to PFOS and PFOA with increasing body mass index (BMI) and overweight/obesity (Jain 2014; Tian et al. 2019), though conclusions are not consistent (Chen et al. 2019; Lin et al. 2009; Timmermann et al. 2014).

Chlorinated polyfluorinated ether sulfonic acids (Cl-PFESAs, commercially named F-53B), including 6:2 Cl-PFESA and 8:2 Cl-PFESA, have been used as a mist suppressant in China for over 40 years as PFOS alternatives. Because of an oxygen atom in the perfluoroalkyl chain, Cl-PFESAs were presupposed less persistent environmentally (Brase et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2013). Due to global actions to phase out PFOS and PFOA, many alternatives are being used in increasing quantities. However, there is increasing evidence that the health risks and toxicity of Cl-PFESAs may be greater than PFOS (Chu et al. 2020; Cui et al. 2018; Shi et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2018). Yao et al (Yao et al. 2020) reported that exposure to Cl-PFESAs was significantly positively associated with cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol and triglycerides. Evidence *in vitro* and *in vivo* indicates that Cl-PFESAs might disrupt lipid metabolism, as Cl-PFESAs affected both metabolic transcription and organismal metabolic phenotype in fertilized zebrafish embryos (Tu et al. 2019), and elevated the relative triglyceride content in mouse 3T3-L1 preadipocyte (Li et al. 2018). However, there are few epidemiological studies currently to assess the risk of adiposity exposure to Cl-PFESAs in human beings.

To address this research gap, we explored the associations between exposure to CI-PFESAs and overweight status in Isomers of C8 Health Project Study among Chinese adults. We hypothesized that exposure to 6:2 CI-PFESA and 8:2 CI-PFESA would be positively associated with BMI, waist circumferences (WC), and risks for being overweight/obese.

2. Materials And Methods

2.1. Study population

The Isomers of C8 Health Project in China is a cross-sectional study which recruited residents of Shenyang city, Liaoning province from July 2015 to October 2016. We explored the associations between PFAS exposure and health outcomes among people generally exposed to high PFAS concentrations (Yeung et al. 2006). Details about participants enrollment and data collection have been described

elsewhere (Bao et al. 2017; Zeeshan et al. 2020). Briefly, following the inclusion criteria, of those aged \geq 35 years with \geq 5 years residency at their current address, of 1750 participants enrolled, 1275 (72.9%) completed the questionnaire assessment, anthropometric measurements, and provided blood samples. The local Institutional Review Board of Sun Yat-Sen University Research Ethics Committee approved our study, and study procedures followed the principles of the Helsinki Declaration.

2.2. Outcome measurements

Outcomes included standing height (centimeters), weight (kilograms) and WC (centimeters) measured by physicians following the anthropometric measurements method from the Chinese Ministry of Health (CMoH 2013). Standing height was measured to the nearest 0.1 centimeter using a stadiometer with a vertical backboard and a sliding horizontal head piece. Digital weight scales calibrated by calibration weights were used to measure weight to the nearest 0.1 kilogram. Procedures included positioning the measuring tape around a horizontal plane perpendicular to the bilateral midaxillary line at the midpoint between the lowermost of costal margin and the uppermost lateral border of the ilium, then recording the WC measurement values to the nearest 0.1 centimeter at the end of participants' normal expiration. We calculated BMI as weight divided by height (kg/m²). BMI between 25.0 and 29.9 kg/m² corresponds to overweight, and BMI of $\geq 30.0 \text{ kg/m²}$ is obesity for adults, according to the World Health Organization (WHO 2021). Participants were categorized into an overweight/ obesity group (BMI $\geq 25 \text{ kg/m²}$) and normal group (BMI $\leq 25 \text{ kg/m²}$).

2.3. Serum PFAS measurement

Serum PFAS methods were described in detail in a previous study (Chu et al. 2020). In brief, PFAS including novel and legacy in 0.2 mL serum were extracted by solid phase extraction and detected by an Agilent ultra-performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) 1290 attached to an Agilent 6495B triple-quadrupole tandem mass spectrometer (MS/MS) (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA). We purchased PFAS standards from Wellington Laboratories (Guelph, ON, Canada). Our detailed analytic approach, including methods for quality control, is described in the **Supplementary Information**. The limit of detection (LOD) of PFAS was set as the minimum detectable concentration in PFAS samples requested to attain a signal-to-noise ratio of 3 (S/N = 3). Table S1 provides abbreviation and detection parameters of the studied PFAS. PFAS concentrations were replaced with LOD divided by the square root of 2, when lower than the LOD (Hornung 1990).

2.4. Statistics

Distributions were characterized for demographic features, socioeconomic characteristics, behavioral habits, outcomes and exposures. We used Q-Q plots and Shapiro-Wilk tests to evaluate the normality for continuous variables. Due to right-skewed distributions, serum PFAS concentrations were natural log-transformed. To explore associations of BMI, WC and overweight/obesity with PFAS, we used restricted cubic spline (RCS) with three knots at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles to modify models. We found possible non-linear associations between PFAS exposure and outcomes except for PFOA (Figure S1), so we calculated categorical quartiles of PFAS concentrations in models. We conducted generalized additive

models (GAMs) to estimate correlations of PFAS quartiles as predictors with BMI and WC as outcomes. Logistic regression models were used to estimate odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for overweight/obesity as functions of PFAS quartiles. P-values for trend were estimated by converting each corresponding PFAS into an ordinal variable in the model. We also used the R "segmented" package to analyze the inflection points for the non-linear associations and then conducted a 2-piecewise binary logistic regression model. We assessed associations between PFAS and outcomes stratified by sex for sensitivity analyses, due to sex-specific effects reported in previous studies (Hales et al. 2017). To evaluate the robustness of our results, we conducted additional analyses by excluding participants for smoking (Audrain-McGovern and Benowitz 2011; Carreras-Torres et al. 2018; Chiolero et al. 2008), alcohol consumption (Sim 2015), and physical inactivity (Basterfield et al. 2014; Hankinson et al. 2010) given changes for BMI, WC and being obese in these groups. Smoking was defined as at least one cigarette per day that lasted for a year. Drinking was defined as \geq 8 mL of alcohol (either wine, beer or spirits) per day. Physical activity was defined as self-reported exercise greater than or equal to 60 minutes/day for the past year, or physical inactivity (Tian et al. 2019).

We adjusted essential potential confounding variables in the regression models as factors related to PFAS exposure and outcomes or their precursors. These included age (years, continuous), sex (male/female), education (≤ high school/> high school), occupation (blue collar/white collar), family income (< 30,000, 30,000-100,000 and > 100,000 Yuan/year), smoking (yes/no), drinking (yes/no), and physical activity (yes/no). These socio-economic factors and behavioral habits were considered to affect either the sources or the distribution and clearance of PFAS exposure (Brantsaeter et al. 2013; Christensen et al. 2016; Eriksen et al. 2011), that may also affect BMI and WC by changing calorie intake, lipid metabolism, and energy balance (Audrain-McGovern and Benowitz 2011; Carreras-Torres et al. 2018; Chiolero et al. 2008; Sim 2015). Directed acyclic graphs (DAGs) were used to characterize minimally sufficient covariables for reducing confounding bias (Figure S2). The statistical analyses were conducted in R (Version 4.1.0; R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) and SAS (version 9.4, SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

3. Results

The characteristics of 1275 participants, including demographic characteristics, behavioral habits, outcomes, and selected PFAS concentrations stratified by group, are presented in Table 1. The population was 62 years old on average, principally white-collar workers, high school educated, and 72.6% from middle-income family (30,0000-100,000 Yuan/year). People in the overweight/obesity group were younger (mean = 59 years) and more of them were men (84.6% vs. 43.9%) compared to normal weight group. There was a significantly greater proportion of participants who smoked (P = 0.014) and drank alcohol (P = 0.001) in the overweight/obesity group. Average BMI was 24.6 kg/m², with an average WC of 87.5 cm overall. Except for 8:2 CI-PFESA (70.1%), PFAS in all participants' serum were measured above the LODs (Table S1). The dominant PFAS in serum was PFOS (24.67 ng/mL). Table S2 lists the Spearman correlation coefficients between PFAS.

Table 1
Distribution of demographic, lifestyle factors and PFAS concentrations among participants by overweight/obesity

Characteristic	Total	Normal	Overweight/obesity	P
	(n = 1275)	(n = 931)	a	
			(n = 344)	
Age (year) ^a	61.63 ± 14.64	62.45 ± 13.92	59.42 ± 16.27	0.002
Sex ^b				< 0.001
Male	700 (54.9%)	409 (43.93%)	291 (84.59%)	
Female	575 (45.1%)	522 (56.07%)	53 (15.41%)	
Education ^b				0.042
≤ High school	404 (31.69%)	280 (30.08%)	124 (36.05%)	
> High school	871 (68.31%)	651 (69.92%)	220 (63.95%)	
Occupation ^b				0.367
White Collar	1072 (84.08%)	788 (84.64%)	284 (82.56%)	
Blue Collar	203 (15.92%)	143 (15.36%)	60 (17.44%)	
Family income ^b				0.407
< 30,000	172 (13.49%)	129 (13.86%)	43 (12.50%)	
30,000-100,000	925 (72.55%)	679 (72.93%)	246 (71.51%)	
> 100,000	178 (13.96%)	123 (13.21%)	55 (15.99%)	
Smoking (Yes) ^b	137 (10.75%)	88 (9.45%)	49 (14.24%)	0.014
Drinking (Yes) ^b	321 (25.18%)	211 (22.66%)	110 (31.98%)	0.001

Abbreviations: PFAS, Perfluoroalkyl and polyfluoroalkyl substance; BMI, body mass index; WC, waist circumference; CI-PFESA, chlorinated polyfluorinated ether sulfonic acids; PFOS, perfluorooctane sulfonate; PFOA, perfluorooctanoic acid.

^a Values are mean ± SD; difference tested using Student's *t*-test.

^b Values are n (%); difference tested using Chi-square test.

^c Values are median (interquartile range), difference tested using Wilcoxon rank-sum test.

^d BMI ≥ 25 kg/m²

Characteristic	Total	Normal	Overweight/obesity	P
	(n = 1275)	(n = 931)	u	
			(n = 344)	
Physical activity (Yes)	404 (31.69%)	294 (31.58%)	110 (31.98%)	0.892
Weight (kg) ^a	69.88 ± 9.70	66.09 ± 13.92	79.74 ± 9.83	< 0.001
Height (cm) ^a	168.64 ± 6.33	168.21 ± 5.49	169.77 ± 8.02	0.001
BMI (kg/m²) ^a	24.59 ± 2.61	23.43 ± 1.63	27.61 ± 2.23	< 0.001
WC (cm) ^a	87.52 ± 7.43	84.67 ± 5.39	94.89 ± 6.92	< 0.001
6:2 CI-PFESA ^c	1.75 (1.21, 2.50)	1.75 (1.13, 2.51)	1.75 (1.46, 2.37)	0.356
8:2 CI-PFESA ^c	0.01 (.001, 0.02)	0.01 (.001,0.03)	0.01 (.001, 0.02)	0.256
PFOS ^c	24.67 (17.38, 35.20)	24.52 (16.78, 35.86)	25.26 (18.14, 34.21)	0.164
PFOA ^c	4.81 (3.58, 7.43)	4.72 (3.49, 6.80)	5.56 (3.90, 8.91)	0.002

Abbreviations: PFAS, Perfluoroalkyl and polyfluoroalkyl substance; BMI, body mass index; WC, waist circumference; CI-PFESA, chlorinated polyfluorinated ether sulfonic acids; PFOS, perfluorooctane sulfonate; PFOA, perfluorooctanoic acid.

After adjusting confounders, participants with serum concentrations of 6:2 CI-PFESA and 8:2 CI-PFESA in the second quartile had higher BMI compared with those who had serum concentrations in the lowest quartile in models (Table 2). For example, participants' BMI in the second quartile of 6:2 CI-PFESA were 0.45 (95% CI: 0.08, 0.82), significantly higher than those in the reference group. The continuous trends for associations of CI-PFESAs exposure with BMI and WC were null (*P* for trend > 0.05). PFOS was not associated with BMI but was associated with WC in each quartile. For PFOA, the associations with outcomes were linear (*P* for trend < 0.05). Table 2 shows the adjusted ORs with 95% CIs of overweight/obesity with categorical serum PFAS concentrations. We detected 1.80-fold (95% CI: 1.23, 2.63) greater odds of overweight/obesity in the second quartile of 6:2 CI-PFESA compared to the reference group, which had not been found significant in the higher quartile.

^a Values are mean ± SD; difference tested using Student's *t*-test.

^b Values are n (%); difference tested using Chi-square test.

^c Values are median (interquartile range), difference tested using Wilcoxon rank-sum test.

^d BMI \geq 25 kg/m²

Table 2 Associations of BMI (kg/m²), WC (cm) and overweight or obesity (BMI \geq 25 kg/m²) with serum PFAS (ln ng/mL) (n = 1275)

PFAS	BMI (kg/m²)	WC (cm)	Overweight/obesity
Quartile (In ng/mL)	β (95%CI) ^a	β (95%CI) ^a	Adjusted OR (95%CI) ^a
6:2 CI-PFESA			
≤ 1.21	Reference	Reference	1.00 (reference)
> 1.21 to 1.75	0.47 (0.09, 0.84)	1.62 (0.58, 2.65)	1.80 (1.23, 2.63)
> 1.75 to 2.50	0.40 (-0.04, 0.84)	1.03 (-0.20, 2.26)	1.41 (0.89, 2.21)
> 2.50	0.29 (-0.11, 0.69)	1.24 (0.13, 2.35)	1.21 (0.81, 1.82)
P for trend ^b	0.274	0.109	0.276
8:2 CI-PFESA			
≤ 0.001	Reference	Reference	1.00 (reference)
> 0.001 to 0.01	0.39 (0.03, 0.76)	0.93 (-0.09, 1.95)	1.39 (0.98, 1.96)
> 0.01 to 0.02	0.02 (-0.41, 0.45)	0.11 (-1.09, 1.30)	0.78 (0.50, 1.21)
> 0.02	0.17 (-0.21, 0.54)	0.45 (-0.60, 1.50)	0.96 (0.66, 1.39)
P for trend ^b	0.705	0.661	0.350
PFOS			
≤ 17.38	Reference	Reference	1.00 (reference)
> 17.38 to 24.67	0.29 (-0.11, 0.68)	1.72 (0.63, 2.82)	1.05 (0.71, 1.56)
> 24.67 to 35.20	0.34 (-0.06, 0.74)	1.84 (0.74, 2.95)	1.02 (0.69, 1.50)
> 35.20	0.04 (-0.36, 0.44)	1.67 (0.56, 2.78)	0.86 (0.57, 1.28)
P for trend ^b	0.809	0.005	0.810
PFOA			
≤ 3.58	Reference	Reference	1.00 (reference)

Abbreviations: PFAS, Perfluoroalkyl and polyfluoroalkyl substance; BMI, body mass index; WC, waist circumference; CI-PFESA, chlorinated polyfluorinated ether sulfonic acids; PFOS, perfluorooctane sulfonate; PFOA, perfluorooctanoic acid; OR, odds ratios; CI, confidence intervals.

^a Adjusted for sex, age, education, occupation, family income, smoking, drinking, and physical activity.

^b Tested using the median value for each category.

PFAS Quartile (In ng/mL)	BMI (kg/m²)	WC (cm)	Overweight/obesity
	β (95%CI) ^a	β (95%CI) ^a	Adjusted OR (95%CI) ^a
> 3.58 to 4.81	0.08 (-0.31, 0.48)	0.32 (-0.76, 1.40)	1.06 (0.72, 1.58)
> 4.81 to 7.43	0.21 (-0.18, 0.61)	1.18 (0.09, 2.27)	1.00 (0.67, 1.49)
> 7.43	0.61 (0.21, 1.01)	2.19 (1.07, 3.30)	1.68 (1.14, 2.49)
P for trend ^b	0.003	< 0.001	0.003

Abbreviations: PFAS, Perfluoroalkyl and polyfluoroalkyl substance; BMI, body mass index; WC, waist circumference; CI-PFESA, chlorinated polyfluorinated ether sulfonic acids; PFOS, perfluorooctane sulfonate; PFOA, perfluorooctanoic acid; OR, odds ratios; CI, confidence intervals.

Figure 1A and B also described the non-monotonic relationship and the inflection points of 6:2 Cl-PFESA and 8:2 Cl-PFESA exposure with overweight/obesity, respectively. The risk of overweight/obesity increased (OR= 1.94; 95%Cl: 1.24, 3.01) until around 1.80 ng/mL of predicted 6:2 Cl-PFESA concentration and then decreased (OR= 0.69; 95%Cl: 0.39, 1.21). Similarly, below 0.01 ng/mL of 8:2 Cl-PFESA exposure, the OR of overweight/obesity was 1.24 (95%Cl: 1.05, 1.46). The relationship between Cl-PFESAs exposure and overweight/ obesity was strongly inverted U-shaped.

The results of crude regression models were generally consistent with the main analysis (Table S3). There were slightly different associations between PFAS and overweight/obesity status stratified by sex (Table S4-5). When the participants who smoked and drank were excluded, results were similar (Table S6-7), but the associations among PFAS and outcomes in the subgroup of physical activity were weaker than in the main analysis (Table S8).

4. Discussion

In this cross-sectional study, our results indicated that CI-PFESAs exposure was associated with overweight/obesity status. We found that serum concentrations of 6:2 CI-PFESA and 8:2 CI-PFESA in the second quartile had higher BMI compared with these in the lowest quartile, but not in the higher quartiles, suggesting the non-monotonic relationship between exposure to CI-PFESAs and overweight/obesity incidence. CI-PFESAs displayed an inverse U-shape association with the prevalence of overweight/obesity. Our study also demonstrated that exposure to PFOA was linearly positively associated with each outcome, and PFOS was only positively associated waist circumference. This is the first study to report the non-monotonic associations between CI-PFESAs exposure and overweight status in human populations.

^a Adjusted for sex, age, education, occupation, family income, smoking, drinking, and physical activity.

^b Tested using the median value for each category.

Among 1275 Chinese adults' serum, 6:2 Cl-PFESA, PFOA, and PFOS were all detected and 8:2 Cl-PFESA was detected in 70% of participants. A recent review summarized Cl-PFESAs concentrations in China, the means of which are 4.20, 102, 941 ng/mL in the general population, high fish consumers, and metal plating workers, respectively (Brase et al. 2021). In Shandong province of China, the 6:2 Cl-PFESA level of 977 residents living near a fluorochemical plant was 2.311 ng/mL (Yao et al. 2020). These were slightly higher than our results. But the median value of 6:2 Cl-PFESA concentrations was 0.34 ng/mL that lower than ours among 519 pregnant women in Shanxi, China (X Liu et al. 2020). The concentrations of Cl-PFESAs varied regionally (Chen et al. 2017; Chu et al. 2020; X Liu et al. 2020; Pan et al. 2017). The serum PFOA and PFOS concentrations found by the current study were higher than those reported in most other national studies (Schulz et al. 2020).

To date, there are no human studies available to explore the association between the levels of CI-PEFSA and overweight/obesity status, but several studies have reported the associations of exposure to PFOS and PFOA with obesity outcomes (Averina et al. 2021; Chen et al. 2019; Christensen et al. 2016; Eriksen et al. 2011; Geiger et al. 2021; Jain 2014; Lin et al. 2009; Liu et al. 2018; Nelson et al. 2010; Timmermann et al. 2014). We summarize them in Table S7. In line with our results, Geiger et al (Geiger et al. 2021) reported greater PFOA exposure was associated with higher risk of overweight/obesity in US children during 1999-2012 ($OR_{O3 \text{ vs. O1}} = 2.22$, 95%CI: 1.20, 4.13; $OR_{O4 \text{ vs. O1}} = 2.73$, 95%CI: 1.10, 6.74). Also consistent with our studies, increased PFOA levels measured in 5591 US people aged 12 and older was associated with increases in BMI (P = 0.038) (Jain 2014). However, the relationship of human exposure and overweight/ obesity status is still controversial, given concerns about reverse causality and effective dose (Jain 2020). Due to different modeling approaches and inconsistent confounding variables, the results of some studies were not consistent with ours (Averina et al. 2021; Chen et al. 2019; Christensen et al. 2016; Eriksen et al. 2011; Lin et al. 2009; Timmermann et al. 2014). For example, a cross-sectional study about the associations between PFAS concentrations in Norwegian adolescents and obesity, without adjustment for socioeconomic status, showed null associations for PFOS and PFOA (Averina et al. 2021).

Though there is no evidence that showed CI-PFESAs might be potential obesogens in human beings, our previous epidemiologic studies found serum CI-PFESAs concentrations were significantly positively associated with serum lipids (Cong et al. 2021) and the risk of metabolic syndrome (MetS) (Yu et al. 2021). In addition, Yao et al (Yao et al. 2020) reported multivariate linear regression coefficients of 9.80% (95% CI: 6.09, 13.63) for cholesterol (mmol/L), 9.59% (95% CI: 5.29, 14.07) for low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (mmol/L), 12.34% (95% CI: 2.80, 2.88) for triglycerides (mmol/L), higher 6:2 CI-PFESA per Inng/mL concentrations, respectively, which suggests potential elevated lipid parameters from exposure to 6:2 CI-PFESA. Furthermore, F-53B has a stronger metabolism-disrupting effect than PFOS in fertilized zebrafish embryos, affecting both metabolic transcription and organismal metabolic phenotype (Tu et al. 2019). A study *in vitro* indicated that CI-PFESAs elevated the relative triglyceride content in mouse 3T3-L1 preadipocyte with adipogenesis promotion potency greater than PFOS (Li et al. 2018).

Potential biological effects were described in previous studies that could reveal the hazard of CI-PFESAs exposure, although the mechanisms promoting adiposity risk by CI-PFESAs are not clear. 6:2 CI-PFESA displayed toxic effects on human liver HL-7702 cell, and significantly up-regulated gene Cd36 expression regulated long-chain fatty acids transportation through the adipocyte plasma membrane(Sheng et al. 2018). CI-PFESAs also affected osteogenic differentiation in human bone mesenchymal stem cells (hBMSCs) related to obesity and metabolic diseases (Pan et al. 2019). In several in vivo and in vitro investigations, CI-PFESAs showed agonistic activity toward the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) pathways related lipid metabolism (Li et al. 2018; Sheng et al. 2018; Shi et al. 2019). CI-PFESAs also have the characteristics of endocrine disruptors, which might be associated with glucocorticoids and progestogens synthesis in neonates (H Liu et al. 2020), sex hormone disorders in adult men (Cui et al. 2020), and induced estrogenic effects in zebrafish (Xin et al. 2020). The endocrine system is important for energy balance, fat distribution and fat deposition. For example, sex hormones affect food intake and alter the balance of glucose and insulin, lipogenesis and lipolysis to cause obesity (Heindel and Blumberg 2019). Endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs) are considered as obesogens promoting obesity in humans or animals (Nadal et al. 2017). However, we need more data before identifying CI-PFESAs as an obesogen.

Interestingly, CI-PFESAs displayed an inverted U-shaped relationship with the prevalence of overweight/obesity in our study. This unconventional dose-response relationship called non-monotonic dose-response (NMDR) relationship is normal in studies investigating the effects of EDCs (Lagarde et al. 2015; Vassilopoulou et al. 2017). Although there is less data about NMDR of CI-PFESAs, several studies had reported that NMDR relationships occurred between PFAS and health outcomes. For example, Liao et al found a J-shaped relationship of PFOA and PFNA with the risk of hypertension among adults in US (Liao et al. 2020). PFOS and progesterone levels displayed an inverse U-shape dose-response relationship in neonates (H Liu et al. 2020). NMDR relationship indicates the possibility of CI-PFESAs with endocrine disrupting characteristics, and this exposure-outcome association is a challenge for risk assessment of CI-PFESAs.

Our results were based on a community-based cross-sectional study with a relatively large population, which could reduce the occurrence of random errors. Moreover, we enrolled a comprehensive panel of potential confounders, consistent with previous studies, exploring the association between exposure to PFAS and overweight/obesity, including sociodemographic and behavior factors. Finally, we accounted for non-monotonic association of PFAS with the prevalence of overweight/obesity using a restricted cubic spline regression analysis and 2-piecewise binary logistic regression for statistical analyses.

However, several limitations should not be ignored in this study. First, there may be reverse causality in our cross-sectional study design. However, it is difficult for PFAS to accumulate in adipose tissue with lipophobic properties (Aas et al. 2014; Fabrega et al. 2014; Wu et al. 2019). Lipid mobilization and not fat could effect PFAS concentrations in blood and other tissues (Aas et al. 2014). Second, although we included key confounding variables in the models, we did not adjust for diets, which could change PFAS exposure due to different PFAS-containing food consumption, dietary quality, and energy intake

(Christensen et al. 2016; Eriksen et al. 2011). Third, we did not consider the cocktail effect of various pollutants that may affect overweight/obesity, such as polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), phthalates and other POPs, as EDCs, which might act in a synergistic or antagonistic manner to impact PFAS metabolic disorder effects (Chamorro-Garcia and Veiga-Lopez 2021; Choi et al. 2021; Egusquiza and Blumberg 2020). Bayesian kernel machine regression (BKMR) models performed to analyze multiple-chemical exposures will be necessary for further research in a larger population. Fourth, we conducted a common but controversial approach that imputed values below detection limits by LOD/√2 (Huynh et al. 2014; Richardson and Ciampi 2003; Schisterman et al. 2006), due to the detection proportion of 8:2 Cl-PFESA being 70.12%. However, our results were similar by using multiple imputing values below LOD for a repeat analysis (Table S10), although modestly stronger for the second quartile of 8:2 Cl-PFESA. Fifth, the population in this study was in China, hence future research conducted in other areas is needed.

5. Conclusion

Our study suggested that exposure to CI-PFESAs displayed an inverted U-shaped association with the prevalence of overweight/obesity in Chinese adults. However, our results were based on a cross-sectional study with participants from only one city. Larger studies are needed to identify metabolic disorder effects and the active doses of CI-PFESAs in the future. The alternatives to PFOS are not anticipated to be less toxic than PFOS, so the widespread use of CI-PFESAs is a growing concern.

Declarations

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Statements and Declarations:

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability Statement

The raw data supporting the conclusions will be made available by the corresponding author (Guang-Hui Dong) on reasonable request.

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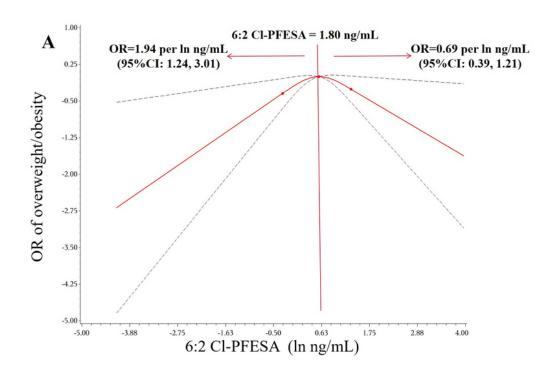
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Figures



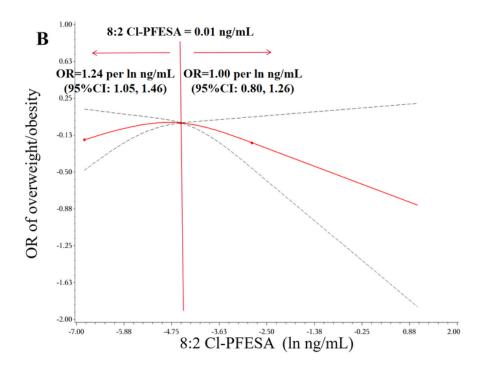


Figure 1

Dose-response relationship of participants 6:2 CI-PFESA (A) and 8:2 CI-PFESA (B) exposure with obesity The solid curves indicate adjusted odds ratios (OR) for overweight/ obesity, with the dashed curves indicate the 95% confidence intervals derived from restricted cubic spline. The inflection points for 6:2 CI-PFESA and 8:2 CI-PFESA are 1.80 ng/mL and 0.01 ng/mL, respectively. Models are adjusted for sex, age, education, occupation, family income, smoking, drinking, and physical activity (n = 1275)

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