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Application of AOPs to assist regulatory assessment of chemical risks: case studies, needs and recommendations

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1 Application of AOPs to assist regulatory assessment of 2 chemical risks – case studies, needs and recommendations

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63 **Abstract**

64 While human regulatory risk assessment (RA) still largely relies on animal studies, new approach
65 methodologies (NAMs) based on in vitro, in silico or non-mammalian alternative models are
66 increasingly used to evaluate chemical hazards. Moreover, human epidemiological studies with
67 biomarkers of effect (BoE) also play an invaluable role in identifying health effects associated with
68 chemical exposures. To move towards the next generation risk assessment (NGRA), it is therefore
69 crucial to establish bridges between NAMs and standard approaches, and to establish processes for
70 increasing mechanistically-based biological plausibility in human studies. The Adverse Outcome
71 Pathway (AOP) framework constitutes an important tool to address these needs but, despite a
72 significant increase in knowledge and awareness, the use of AOPs in chemical RA remains limited. The
73 objective of this paper is to address issues related to using AOPs in a regulatory context from various
74 perspectives as it was discussed in a workshop organised within the European Union partnerships
75 HBM4EU and PARC in spring 2022. The paper presents examples where the AOP framework has been
76 proven useful for the human RA process, particularly in hazard prioritization and characterization, in
77 integrated approaches to testing and assessment (IATA), and in the identification and validation of BoE
78 in epidemiological studies. Nevertheless, several limitations were identified that hinder the optimal
79 usability and acceptance of AOPs by the regulatory community including the lack of quantitative
80 information on response-response relationships and of efficient ways to map chemical data (exposure
81 and toxicity) onto AOPs. The paper summarizes suggestions, ongoing initiatives and third-party tools
82 that may help to overcome these obstacles and thus assure better implementation of AOPs in the
83 NGRA.

84

85 **Keywords:**

86 adverse outcome pathways; mechanistic toxicology; hazard assessment; regulatory risk assessment;
87 biomarkers of effect; new approach methodologies

88

89 **1 Abbreviations**

90 AEP, aggregated exposure pathways

91 AO, adverse outcome

92 AOP, adverse outcome pathway

93 BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor

94 BP (A, F or S), bisphenol (A, F or S)

95 BoE, biomarker of effect

96 CF, Conceptual Framework

97 DNT, developmental neurotoxicity

98 EASIS, Endocrine Active Substances Information System

99 ECHA, European Chemicals Agency

100 EDC, endocrine disrupting chemical

101 EFSA, European Food Safety Authority

102 FB1, fumonisin B1

103 HBM, human biomonitoring

104 IATA, integrated approaches to testing and assessment

105 IVB, in vitro testing battery

106 JRC, (European commission's) Joint Research Centre

107 KE, key event

108 KER, KE relationship

109 MIE, molecular initiating event

110 MoA, mode of action

111 NAMs, new approach methodologies

112 nFRs, novel flame retardants

113 NGRA, next generation risk assessment

114 NTDs, neural tube defects

115 ODEs, ordinary differential equations

116 OECD, organisation for economic co-operation and development

117 OHT, OECD harmonized template

118 PBDE, polybrominated diphenyl ether
119 PBPK model, Physiologically based pharmacokinetic model
120 PPR, Plant Protection Products and their Residues
121 qAOP, quantitative AOP
122 qIVIVE, quantitative in vitro to in vivo extrapolation
123 RA, risk assessment
124 Sa/So, sphinganine/sphingosine ratio
125 TH, thyroid hormone
126 US EPA, United States Environmental Protection Agency
127 WoE, weight of evidence
128 WPHA, Working Party on Hazard Assessment
129 WNT, Working Group of National Coordinators of the Test Guidelines program

130

131 **2 Introduction and objectives**

132

133 Next generation risk assessment (NGRA) is an approach used for regulatory purposes that has the
134 potential of reducing the use of animal testing that poses several issues related to ethics, relevance to
135 human health, costs and efficacy. The beginning of the 21st century has therefore marked a paradigm
136 shift in toxicity testing from animal-based (in vivo) approaches towards new approach methodologies
137 (NAMs) that mostly rely on molecule- and cell-based (in vitro) and computational (in silico) methods
138 (Andersen et al., 2007; Hartung, 2009). In parallel, epidemiological and biomonitoring studies are
139 crucial to identify hazards potentially associated with chemical exposures in humans. To increase the
140 regulatory acceptance of information from NAMs and epidemiological studies, it is crucial to have a
141 transparent, evidence-based mechanistic knowledge framework linking molecular perturbations to
142 adverse outcomes relevant for human health (Krewski et al., 2020). To help establish these bridges,
143 Adverse Outcome Pathways (AOPs) appear to be an instrumental tool that has become a broadly
144 accepted framework supported by the international OECD Environmental, Health and Safety (EHS)
145 Programme (<https://www.oecd.org/chemicalsafety/testing/adverse-outcome-pathways-molecular-screening-and-toxicogenomics.htm>) (Vinken, 2013). An AOP is a pragmatic evidence-based description
146 of the chain of causally linked biological effects (key events, KEs) and the relationships between them
147 – Key Event Relationships (KERs) - leading from a molecular perturbation (molecular initiating event,
148 MIE) by a stressor to an adverse health effect on the organism or population level (adverse outcome,
149

150 AO) (Ankley et al., 2010). By synthesizing mechanistic knowledge from different levels of biological
151 organization, the AOP framework should help assessors to relate results obtained from in vitro assays
152 and in silico models (at molecular or cellular levels) to apical endpoints of regulatory relevance. The
153 OECD AOP-Wiki (<https://aopwiki.org/>) was launched in 2013 and serves as an AOPs open-access
154 repository allowing the contribution to AOP content by international crowdsourcing. However,
155 although the number of AOPs, general awareness of the AOP framework, and training of different
156 stakeholders have substantially increased, the actual application of AOPs in RA processes remains
157 limited, and discussions on how to best use AOPs for regulatory purposes are still ongoing (Carusi et
158 al., 2018; EU JRC, 2020; Hoffmann, 2022; Sauer et al., 2020).

159 Increasing the communication and understanding between the communities of AOP developers
160 and (potential) AOP users, and having a better overview of concrete examples of the successful
161 application of AOPs in chemical RA, would help to overcome the obstacles in adopting AOPs for
162 regulatory purposes. In that context, various activities have been organized within the European
163 Partnership Human Biomonitoring for Europe, HBM4EU (<https://www.hbm4eu.eu/>), the Eurion
164 Cluster (<https://eurion-cluster.eu/>), the United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA)
165 (<https://www.epa.gov/>), the OECD Working Party on Hazard Assessment (WPHA), Working Party on
166 Exposure Assessment (WPEA) project, EU Horizon 2020 projects EuroMix
167 (<https://www.euromixproject.eu/>) and EU-ToxRisk (<https://www.eu-toxrisk.eu/>), ASPIS cluster
168 (<https://aspis-cluster.eu/>) or the Mystery of ROS consortium (Tanabe et al., 2022a, 2022b). These
169 initiatives also organized workshops (Hoffmann, 2022; Paini et al., 2022) or OECD webinars on AOPs
170 ([https://www.oecd.org/chemicalsafety/testing/webinars-on-testing-and-assessment-
171 methodologies.htm](https://www.oecd.org/chemicalsafety/testing/webinars-on-testing-and-assessment-methodologies.htm)). To bridge from HBM4EU to a follow-up pan-European Partnership on Risk
172 Assessment of Chemicals (PARC), a workshop was organized in April 2022, which discussed issues
173 related to using AOPs in a regulatory context from various perspectives. The present paper presents
174 the outcomes of the workshop and aims to (1) provide a broad overview of case studies where the
175 AOP framework was successfully applied in the chemical RA process, (2) discuss the needs identified
176 by potential AOP users such as toxicologists or chemical risk assessors, and (3) summarize existing tools
177 and initiatives to further facilitate the application of AOPs for regulatory purposes.

178 Considering the scope of the HBM4EU project and the expertise of the partners involved, the
179 present paper focuses on human health. It should, however, be highlighted that AOPs were initially
180 proposed as a tool in the environmental ecotoxicological hazard and risk assessment (Ankley et al.,
181 2010), and there are many examples of AOP use in this context. Likewise, some of the considerations
182 presented in this manuscript are valid for both human and ecological RA.

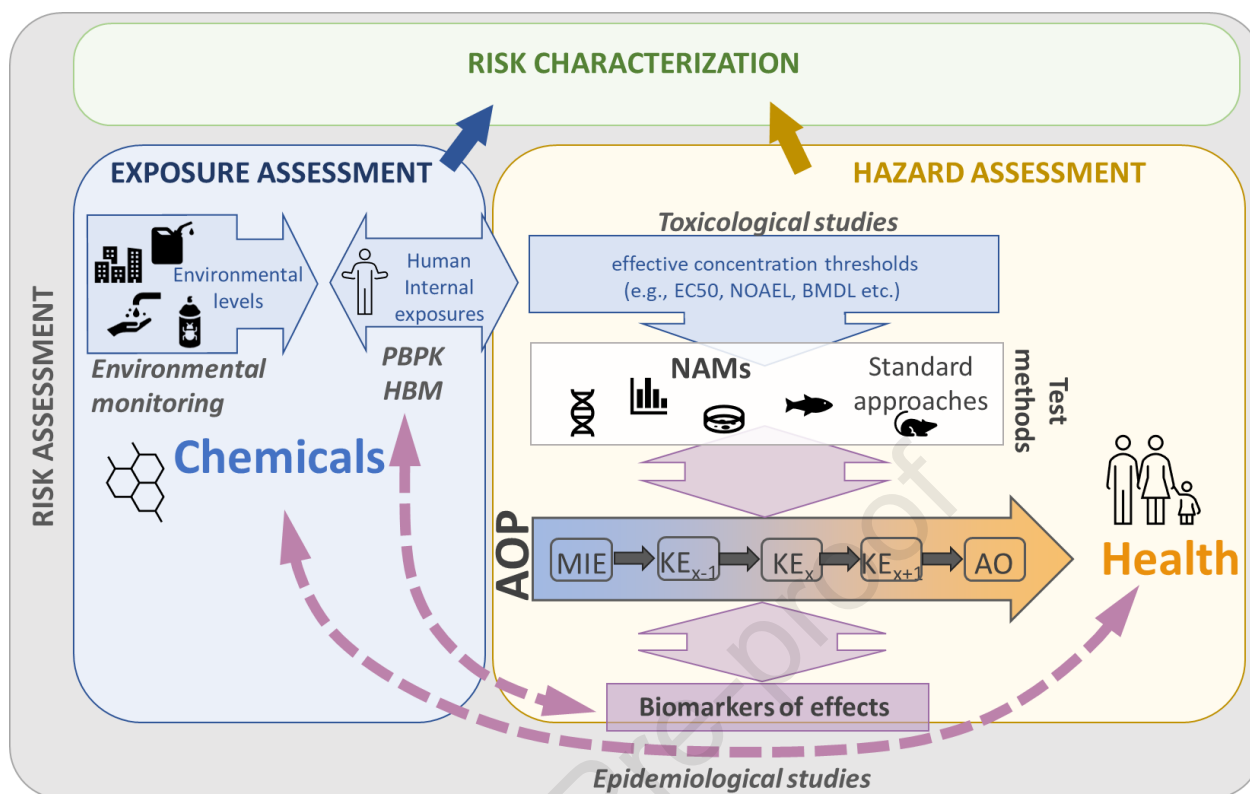
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184 **3 Next generation risk assessment and the use of AOPs**

185

186 All actors involved in chemical RA and risk management aim to protect environmental and human
187 health from the potential adverse effects of chemicals (sometimes also referred to as “stressors”). For
188 specific compounds such as carcinogenic substances, “generic approach to risk management” (i.e.
189 automatic trigger based on hazardous properties and generic considerations on exposure) has been
190 applied by EU chemical legislation but the risks of most chemicals are typically assessed individually
191 (European Commission, 2020). To date, chemical RA is a standardized process typically conducted
192 through a sequence of steps including exposure assessment, hazard assessment, and risk
193 characterisation (EC JRC, 2003; ECHA, 2013; UNEP, 1999; WHO, 2021). The exposure assessment
194 estimates the route(s) of exposure, frequency, duration, and levels of exposure to the chemical. The
195 hazard assessment includes hazard identification that evaluates if the substance is capable, in
196 principle, of causing adverse effects and hazard characterisation that defines the relationship between
197 the dose and the (markers of) severity or the incidence of anticipated adverse effect(s). It also aims to
198 derive threshold values (e.g., health-based guidance values (HBGVs)); that is, the levels of chemical
199 below which no significant risks to human health are expected. Finally, risk characterization evaluates
200 the risk (probability) of adverse health effects in population groups by integrating the information on
201 exposure and hazard assessments; in particular, addressing if exposure exceeds the threshold value
202 (Figure 1).

203



204

205 **Figure 1 – The place of the AOP framework in bridging the different components of next generation**
 206 **risk assessment, improving causal inference in exposure-health relationships in epidemiological**
 207 **studies, and identifying and validating biomarkers of effects.** Abbreviations: HBM, human
 208 biomonitring; PBPK, physiologically based pharmacokinetic modelling; NAMS, new approach
 209 methodologies; AOP, adverse outcome pathway; MIE, molecular initiating event; KE, key event; AO,
 210 adverse outcome; EC50, half maximal effective concentration; NOAEL, no observed adverse effect
 211 level; BMDL, benchmark dose level.

212 The long-used, traditional approach for assessing the hazards of chemicals mainly relies on animal
 213 tests typically following OECD test guidelines. However, in vivo experiments with animals raise
 214 concerns regarding ethics, relevance to human health, costs and efficacy. Human epidemiology and
 215 measurements of biomarkers of effects (BoEs) in human biomonitring (HBM) and epidemiological
 216 studies provide invaluable information on hazards associated with chemical exposure in the relevant
 217 species. The adoption of alternatives to animal tests and implementation of NAMS - such as in vitro
 218 methods (e.g., using human cell-based systems or organoids), utilization of omics (transcriptomics,
 219 metabolomics, etc.), epigenetics, or in silico structure-based model predictions - address ethical,
 220 financial and efficacy issues (Andersen et al., 2007; Escher et al., 2022; Pistollato et al., 2021; Thomas
 221 et al., 2018; Vrijenhoek et al., 2022). Advances in omics technologies and computational approaches
 222 bring a major opportunity for a holistic understanding of toxicological mechanisms that should be

223 better captured in AOPs, thus providing substantial advancement to NGRA. In particular, coupling of
224 gene expression-based molecular response pathways (through transcriptomics) with the prevalent
225 pathways identified from bioinformatics analysis of metabolite profiles (through metabolomics) allows
226 to identify the perturbed pathways and their potential links to adverse outcomes and exposures
227 (Barouki et al., 2022; Sarigiannis et al., 2021). These should also be linked to epigenetic changes such
228 as methylation of DNA, histone modifications and noncoding RNAs but linking them to health
229 outcomes (including integration into AOPs) is a major challenge (Angrish et al., 2018). Nevertheless,
230 because of their low cost and high speed, high-throughput and high-content screening are promising
231 approaches for NGRA. The combination of NAMs with computational modelling has fostered the
232 development of a non-animal, NGRA framework to support regulatory decisions relevant to human
233 health (Hernandez, 2021).

234 NGRA has the advantage of integrating NAMs, that provide information at different levels of
235 biological organization, into the regulatory process. This can be done using, for example, a workflow
236 comprising several levels, tiered approaches, or guidance for reporting omics data (Harrill et al., 2021).
237 However, to our knowledge, there are only a few examples of the acceptance of NAMs in the
238 regulatory RA process, beyond screening, prioritization, and use in IATAs. The same is true for exposure
239 and effect biomarker associations in human biomonitoring and epidemiological studies. Some of the
240 main challenges for adopting NAMs in chemical regulation were presented in a recent Science for
241 Policy report from the European Commission's Joint Research Centre (JRC) based on a survey that
242 aimed at gathering the stakeholders' perceptions. According to this report, stakeholders frequently
243 noted that chemical regulation is insufficiently science-driven and highlighted the importance of
244 establishing bridges between NAMs and standard approaches, and between data and evidence (Carusi
245 et al., 2022).

246 By providing integrated and curated representation of the mechanistic knowledge connecting data
247 from different levels of biological organization, AOPs have great potential to become a standard tool
248 for NGRA. AOPs are by definition chemical agnostic (i.e. chemical independent), meaning that the
249 biology depicted should hold for any stressor (mostly chemicals) perturbing the biological pathway(s).
250 Information in the AOP-Wiki is therefore limited to "prototypical" stressors (usually those used to
251 provide evidence for AOP development). The AOP-Wiki does not aim at providing a comprehensive
252 database of chemicals perturbing the AOPs, which has the benefit of providing more "universal"
253 mechanistic knowledge but also makes the usability of AOPs for risk assessors more challenging (also
254 discussed later in this paper). The KERs in AOPs can be quantified, thereby offering a formal approach
255 to quantitatively predict an AO from MIEs or KEs, which would greatly support NGRA. The development
256 of quantitative AOPs (qAOPs) will therefore be an important step to consolidating the relationship

257 between toxicokinetics and toxicodynamics within NGRA (Punt et al., 2020). Importantly, a guidance
258 for the weight of evidence (WoE) evaluation based on adapted Bradford-Hill criteria (i.e., biological
259 plausibility, essentiality, and empirical support) has been developed for KEs, KERs and AOPs taking into
260 account the domains of applicability and the levels of uncertainty (OECD, 2022; an online version
261 regularly updated is also available on the AOP-Wiki website). An extensive internal and external
262 standardisation and harmonisation of the evaluation and reporting of each AOP is ensured through
263 templates and guidance documents (OECD, 2022, 2017), assignment of dedicated AOP coaches to each
264 AOP, and external review within the OECD AOP development programme (OECD, 2021). Ultimately,
265 endorsement by WPHA and Working Group of National Coordinators of the Test Guidelines program
266 (WNT) ensures that an AOP has undergone the review process and can be disseminated. Finally, if two
267 or more AOPs share some of their KE(s)/MIE/AO, these can be assembled into AOP networks that
268 better represent biological complexity and real-life scenarios, where mixtures of stressors can trigger
269 multiple effects (Knapen et al., 2018). In the past decade, the number of AOPs captured in the AOP-
270 Wiki has increased substantially and are now counting more than 450 at different levels of scientific
271 and review maturity (22 AOPs are endorsed by WPHA/WNT as of August 10th 2022; see the AOP-Wiki
272 for details).

273 Several examples exist where AOP knowledge was used to inform chemical hazard and risk
274 assessment, as reviewed in the following section.

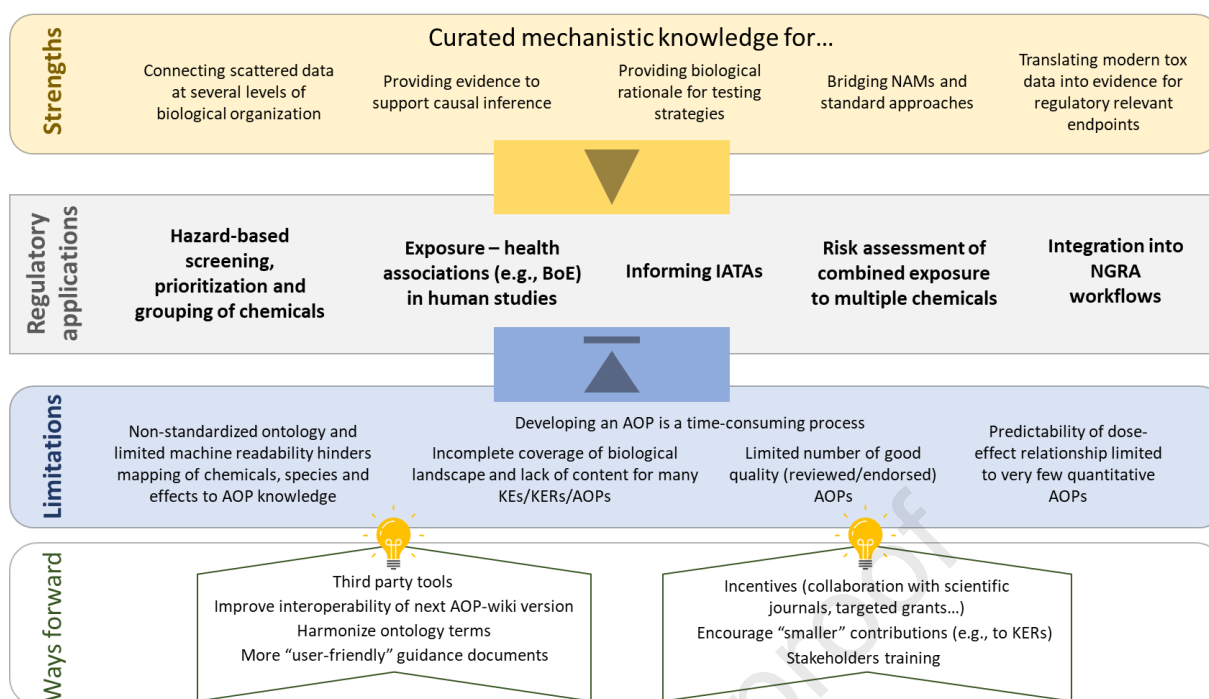
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276 **4 Existing case studies of AOP application in chemical** 277 **hazard and risk assessment**

278

279 In this section, we identified five main areas in which AOPs can be applied: (1) to support hazard-
280 based screening and prioritization of chemicals, (2) to provide biological plausibility for exposure-
281 health associations (e.g., BoE) in human studies, (3) to inform Integrated Approaches to Testing and
282 Assessment (IATA), (4) to assist risk assessment of combined exposure to multiple chemicals and (5)
283 to become an integral part of NGRA workflows. Figure 2 summarizes the following paragraphs by
284 highlighting the benefits of AOPs, their main regulatory applications as well as the current drawbacks
285 limiting the use of AOPs, and some possible ways forward.

286



287

288

289 **Figure 2: Strengths and limitations of AOPs as a tool to translate scientific data into regulatory**
 290 **relevant knowledge to support risk assessment** . Five regulatory applications (light grey box) benefit
 291 from the curated and chemical-agnostic AOP-knowledge (light yellow box and yellow arrowhead), but
 292 the full adoption of AOPs is currently hindered by several limitations (light blue box and blue
 293 arrowhead). Some ongoing or proposed initiatives should help overcome the limitations in future
 294 (ways forward). Benefits, applications, limitations and ways forward are all commented in greater
 295 details in the manuscript. Abbreviations: AOP, adverse outcome pathway; IATAs, integrated
 296 approaches to testing and assessment; BoE, biomarkers of effect; KE, key events; KERs, key event
 297 relationships; NGRA, next generation risk assessment.

298

299 4.1 Hazard-based screening and prioritization of chemicals

300

301 Humans are exposed to tens of thousands of potentially bioaccumulative and hazardous
 302 chemicals (over 26 000 registered in REACH as of May 2022 [https://echa.europa.eu/fr/information-](https://echa.europa.eu/fr/information-on-chemicals/registered-substances)
 303 [on-chemicals/registered-substances](https://echa.europa.eu/fr/information-on-chemicals/registered-substances)), and a proper hazard assessment of all chemicals is not
 304 technically or economically feasible through classical approaches. Therefore, hazard-based screening
 305 and prioritization of chemicals is an essential step towards pragmatic risk assessment and
 306 management. NAMs, assisted by AOP knowledge, can play crucial roles in that process.

307 A good example is endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs). EDCs can adversely interfere with any
308 aspect of hormone action at different levels of hormonal regulation, potentially leading to a wide
309 variety of adverse health outcomes, ranging from infertility to metabolic disorders, developmental
310 neurotoxicity, and other chronic health outcomes (Kucheryavenko et al., 2020; WHO and UNEP, 2012).
311 The Endocrine Disruptor Screening Program (EDSP) of the US EPA focuses on estrogen, androgen, and
312 thyroid hormone signalling pathways, using a variety of NAMs, including in vitro test batteries and
313 computational tools, aimed at identifying and prioritizing EDCs (reviewed in Browne et al., 2017). In
314 this US EPA program, the AOP concept has been used to structure and evaluate mechanistic
315 information, establish connections among pathways leading to different adverse outcomes, and design
316 screening strategies by mapping assays to AOPs and AOP networks. Further, the OECD Conceptual
317 Framework (CF) for Testing and Assessment of Endocrine Disrupters (OECD, 2018a) is a pragmatic
318 example of how the use of non-testing information (CF level 1) can be leveraged with mechanistically-
319 informed in vitro data (CF2), mechanistically-informed in vivo data (CF3), in vivo adverse effects for
320 limited test duration (CF4) and in vivo adverse effects from assays covering more extensive parts of
321 the life cycle of the organism (CF5). The CF is not intended to be a testing strategy nor align directly to
322 AOPs, but it provides a guide to test methods that can populate AOPs related to endocrine disruption.
323 In addition, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA)/European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) guidance
324 on the identification of EDCs in the EU pesticides regulations requires the identification of an endocrine
325 disrupting-related adversity and mechanism (ECHA and EFSA, 2018). The key characteristics of EDCs
326 recently described in a consensus paper from leading experts in the field can be used to identify and
327 classify a chemical as EDC (La Merrill et al., 2020). Both the mechanism and the adversity are ideally
328 connected by an AOP. CF could also guide the identification and choice of methods for IATAs. AOP-
329 based IATAs help to combine and establish in vitro methods that are predictive of endocrine-related
330 adversities and may therefore make additional animal testing for some modalities unnecessary (OECD,
331 2019).

332 Finally, the JRC has recently published its Endocrine Active Substances Information System
333 (EASIS, <https://easis.jrc.ec.europa.eu/>), which contains information on the endocrine activity of
334 chemicals as well as adverse effects that may be linked to certain endocrine activities. AOPs were used
335 to identify mechanistic effects that are involved in the endocrine activity. In combination with AOP
336 knowledge, these data help interested parties to get a picture of a substance's potential to be an EDC.
337 EASIS currently contains data on over 600 chemicals collected from around 10,000 study entries
338 covering in vitro and in vivo assays in different species, including some human data. EASIS is a JRC-run
339 installation of IUCLID 6, the software explicitly designed to manage scientific data on chemicals in a
340 regulatory context, for example under the EU Biocides and EU REACH regulations. Parties familiar with

341 the IUCLID software immediately feel comfortable when using EASIS, which improves its usability. Like
342 all IUCLID instances, EASIS uses the OECD Harmonised Templates (OHTs) to facilitate the reuse and
343 exchange of the data. It is actually the first IUCLID installation that makes full use of a special template
344 (OHT 201) dedicated to reporting mechanistic data derived from non-animal methods, mostly from
345 the published scientific literature. This fulfils one of the main requirements of the European
346 Commission's Chemical Strategy for Sustainability, which calls for the increased uptake of non-animal
347 methods and the better use of academic data (European Commission, 2020).

348 Another application where prioritization is relevant includes hazard identification for
349 substitute chemicals. However, this is particularly challenging because of the typically scarce
350 availability of data for such substitutes. For example, a literature review of 52 novel flame retardants
351 (nFRs) used as substitutes for the restricted brominated flame retardants such as polybrominated
352 diphenyl ethers (PBDEs), showed that hazard data for nFRs are very limited (Bajard et al., 2019). Nine
353 out of 52 nFRs were prioritized based on evidence for hazards, and the biological effects reported in
354 peer-reviewed literature and databases were mapped onto AOP knowledge. Knowledge from the AOP-
355 Wiki provided additional supporting evidence highlighting the health outcomes of highest concern
356 (namely hepatotoxicity, neurotoxicity, and reproductive toxicity) and major data gaps (e.g., insufficient
357 information on MIEs) (Bajard et al., 2019). In a follow-up study, the AOP knowledge was also used to
358 design a testing strategy for screening the effects of nFRs on hepatic steatosis (Negi et al., 2021). The
359 approach refined the prioritization to four nFRs and helped to identify a potential mechanism for this
360 endpoint (Negi et al., 2021). For bisphenol F (BPF) and bisphenol S (BPS), alternatives to the well-known
361 EDC bisphenol A (BPA), an artificial intelligence computational tool, the AOP-helpFinder ([http://aop-
362 helpfinder.u-paris-sciences.fr/index.php](http://aop-helpfinder.u-paris-sciences.fr/index.php)), was used to automatically decipher connections between
363 data on stressors and the biological events reported in the literature (Carvaillo et al., 2019; Rugard et
364 al., 2019). This approach optimized the identification of dispersed data available and allowed to predict
365 the main health outcomes associated with BPA substitutes in terms of obesity and metabolic
366 disruption (e.g. for BPS) and thyroid cancer (e.g. for BPF) (Carvaillo et al., 2019; Rugard et al., 2019).
367 Associations between exposure to BPS and metabolic disorders were indeed reported in several, but
368 not all, epidemiological studies examining this endpoint (Beausoleil et al., 2022).

369 These examples illustrate how the stepwise application of AOPs can aid in organizing and
370 simplifying a complicated issue, thereby assisting the regulatory process. The AOP framework has been
371 particularly valuable for the screening, prioritization and hazard identification of chemicals, especially
372 those with limited toxicity data. Knowledge stored in the AOP-Wiki and other data sources, such as the
373 CompTox database (<https://comptox.epa.gov/dashboard/>), was used to link scattered (toxicological)
374 data at different levels of biological organization. It also facilitated the identification of potential

375 molecular targets and key mechanistic nodes, which could assist in the design of the tiered approaches
376 in the NGRA (Ball et al., 2022).

377

378 **4.2 Biological plausibility for exposure-health associations in** 379 **human studies**

380

381 Epidemiological and HBM studies are invaluable sources of information to evaluate (mostly
382 qualitatively) the potential impact of chemical exposures on human health. Although they offer the
383 great advantage of examining the relevant species (human) in real-world environments, observational
384 epidemiological studies generally provide a lower proof of causality compared to experimental
385 research. Many existing studies also lack a real holistic approach. Although the science and
386 stakeholders call for truly exposome approaches, most of the studies assessed a limited, preselected,
387 small number of compounds that are unlikely to cover the complex exposure situation (Huhn et al.,
388 2021). Tools for evaluating causality in epidemiological studies exist but present several limitations
389 (Shimonovich et al., 2021). Mechanistic evidence from experimental studies (Caporale et al., 2022) and
390 AOPs contribute to provide support to the causal inference of exposure-health associations in human
391 studies.

392 In epidemiological studies, the associations of health effects with chemical exposures might be
393 observed "directly" as the adverse health outcome itself (e.g., case-control studies or cohort studies'
394 follow-up) or "indirectly" via BoEs. BoEs are measurable indicators of a biological change (e.g.,
395 molecular, cellular, physiological, behavioral) in response to a chemical exposure (NRC, 2006). In
396 contrast to overt clinical diseases, molecular BoEs are not apical outcomes but may represent
397 intermediate key events in the causal pathway leading to the adverse outcome, thereby allowing to
398 detect subclinical processes. In HBM and epidemiological studies, analyses of BoEs in parallel with
399 exposure biomarkers (chemicals or their metabolites typically measured in blood or urine) in the same
400 individuals bring a major added value, bridging the exposure and health domains (NRC, 2006). This
401 helps to identify threshold concentrations important for risk management. Advances in epigenetics
402 and omics technologies allowing for simultaneous analyses of responses at different levels
403 (transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, etc.) provide a unique opportunity for the development
404 and validation of novel BoEs. For a BoE to be a reliable tool in HBM studies, it is essential to have strong
405 confidence in the links between BoE and both chemical exposure and health outcomes. In the AOP
406 framework, BoEs tend to coincide with MIEs/KEs between a given exposure and a given adverse

407 outcome (Matos Dos Santos et al., 2020). For BoE identification and/or validation, AOP networks,
408 including feedback loops and modulating factors, are of particular interest, and shared KEs (nodes) are
409 potentially more relevant as they often connect to more MIEs, KEs and/or AOs. These nodes or central
410 KEs can, for example, provide information on whether different chemical families (acting through a
411 single or different MIEs) converge on the same KE or AO and therefore share the same AO. As such,
412 AOPs can support the identification of BoEs that are predictive, translatable, sensitive, specific and
413 robust for regulatory purposes. A challenge for risk assessment will be to acknowledge where subtle
414 and early changes along the toxicodynamic pathway are indicative of an increased chance for
415 downstream adverse outcomes (EFSA, 2017a). Also, considering that real-life exposure often involves
416 multiple chemicals at low doses for prolonged periods with potential fluctuations (Margina et al.,
417 2019), identifying and validating BoEs for low-dose and longer term exposure would be important for
418 the endorsement of BoE within the NGRA framework.

419 The following examples and case studies illustrate how AOPs can be used to identify and
420 potentially validate BoEs, and/or establish biological causality in epidemiological studies for various
421 groups of hazardous chemicals, supporting thus the science-based assessment of chemical risks.

422 **Reproductive effects associated with phthalate exposure**

423 The AOP framework has been used convincingly by Baken et al. (2019) to provide solid mechanistic
424 support for causal associations between phthalate exposure and reproductive outcomes reported in
425 epidemiology studies. A systematic literature search combined the information on BoEs previously
426 implemented in human observational studies, the mechanisms of action reported in experimental
427 studies as well as knowledge on existing AOPs to which phthalates were listed as stressors and/or that
428 were linked to the identified BoEs (Baken et al., 2019). This approach allowed to (1) show that the
429 majority of the biomarkers of reproductive effects associated with phthalate exposure are supported
430 by mechanistic information described in the AOP-Wiki, and (2) identify novel KEs for the development
431 of BoEs related to phthalate exposure. Readouts of these newly identified KEs are candidates for early
432 or late BoEs, depending on the "position" of the KE in the AOP (upstream or downstream).

433 **BDNF as a neurotoxic biomarker associated with BPA, pesticide and heavy metal exposures**

434 A structured comprehensive literature search was performed on BoEs related to 6 health outcomes
435 associated with BPA exposure. This research identified brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) as a
436 novel BoE for neurodevelopmental disorders (Mustieles et al., 2020). In a second step, an AOP network
437 containing BDNF as a central KE was constructed, and in vivo toxicological studies linking BPA to BDNF
438 alteration were matched to the AOP network. This approach validated BDNF as a BoE predictive of
439 neurodevelopmental impairments, and demonstrated that BPA interferes through several MIEs

440 (Mustieles et al., 2020). A follow-up pilot study in an existing European cohort “the Childhood and
441 Environment (INMA)-Granada cohort” confirmed that higher childhood urinary BPA concentrations
442 were associated with higher peripheral blood BDNF DNA methylation at adolescence, and that BDNF
443 methylation mediated 34% of the longitudinal association between BPA exposure and behavioral
444 problems (Mustieles et al., 2022). In the same cohort, BDNF has also been associated with exposures
445 to heavy metals and non-persistent pesticides (Rodríguez-Carrillo et al., 2022a, 2022b), suggesting that
446 BDNF could be a BoE for mixtures of neurotoxic chemicals. Altogether, this case study illustrated how
447 AOP data can (1) help to identify, prioritize and/or validate the implementation of BoEs in human
448 studies, synergizing the toxicological and epidemiological approaches, and (2) support the biological
449 plausibility of previously reported associations between stressors and neurodevelopmental outcomes
450 (Mustieles and Fernández, 2020).

451 **Association between fumonisin exposure and neural tube defects.**

452 A systematic search for BoE for mycotoxins found that increases in the urinary
453 sphinganine/sphingosine (Sa/So) ratio are associated with fumonisin B1 (FB1) exposure (Al-Jaal et al.,
454 2019; Riley et al., 2015). The Sa/So ratio is often used as a biomarker of fumonisin exposure, and was
455 proposed also as a BoE (HBM4EU, 2020), although it was not fully clear what specific health outcome
456 it might predict. Sphingolipids are known to affect cell membranes, cellular metabolism and basal
457 functioning of cells, and have been assigned a role in the pathogenesis of various metabolic diseases
458 (sphingolipidoses), myocardial infarction, hypertension and diabetes mellitus (Borodzicz et al., 2015;
459 Kolter and Sandhoff, 2006). In addition, one epidemiological study and circumstantial evidence in
460 humans, together with animal studies, suggested that exposure to FB1 might be associated with an
461 increased incidence of neural tube defects (NTDs) (Lumsangkul et al., 2019; Missmer et al., 2006).
462 Recently, the AOP framework has been used to structure and evaluate the available data, and the new
463 AOP (ID 449, <https://aopwiki.org/aops/449>) describes the chain of events leading from the inhibition
464 of ceramide synthase (MIE) to neural tube defects (AO), through two possible routes (van den Brand
465 et al., 2022). One of these routes, impacts folate uptake, which is associated with NTDs, and the other
466 involves inhibition of histone deacetylases that is linked to NTDs through another existing AOP (ID 275,
467 <https://aopwiki.org/aops/275>). A dual pathway leading to NTDs is plausible (Gelineau-Van Waes et al.,
468 2005; Sadler et al., 2002), and the proposed AOP provides mechanistic evidence for the fumonisin FB1-
469 NTDs association previously reported in experimental and human studies.

470 **Exposure to pesticides associated with Parkinson's disease.**

471 In 2017, the EFSA panel on Plant Protection Products and their Residues (PPR) performed an appraisal
472 of the meta-analyses available at that time and suggested there was sufficient evidence to conclude

473 an association between exposure to pesticides (broad definition) and Parkinson's disease, but a causal
474 relationship with specific pesticides or pesticide classes cannot be established due to several
475 limitations in epidemiological studies (EFSA, 2017b). To acquire evidence for such causality, the Panel
476 recommended, among others, using NAMs and AOPs to establish biological plausibility. An AOP (AOP
477 3) establishing a link between exposure to pesticides and Parkinson's disease has been developed. The
478 AOP has been endorsed by OECD and provides solid, qualitative, and mechanistic support for linking
479 the inhibition of the mitochondrial complex I of nigrostriatal neurons (MIE) to Parkinsonian motor
480 deficits (AO) (Bal-Price et al., 2018; Terron et al., 2018) (<https://aopwiki.org/aops/3>). Substantial data
481 link the insecticide rotenone to this AOP, but any stressor perturbing the KEs of this AOP can be
482 potentially connected to Parkinson's disease, as was shown for deguelin (OECD, 2020a). This AOP
483 therefore increases the biological plausibility of human associations and may guide the identification
484 and implementation of BoEs in future studies.

485 **Metabolic perturbations potentially mediating the neurotoxic effects of phthalates and metals**

486 Two recent studies showed that co-exposure to phthalates and metals at real-life exposure levels leads
487 to metabolic perturbations in vitro and in humans (Papaioannou et al., 2021; Sarigiannis et al., 2021),
488 and this could mediate the neurotoxic effects reported in human cohort studies (Sarigiannis et al.,
489 2021). These interdisciplinary studies combining epidemiology with multi-omics analyses benefited
490 from the AOP framework to bring together human exposome analysis and toxicological assays, and
491 helped in identifying and validating BoEs from omics results (Barouki et al., 2022). The urea as well as
492 other BoEs from phosphatidylcholine biosynthesis and phospholipase metabolic pathways were of
493 particular importance since they have been identified as relevant both in experiments and in human
494 samples from two cohorts (Papaioannou et al., 2021; Sarigiannis et al., 2021).

495 In the examples outlined above, the AOP framework was found to be particularly useful in linking
496 information from different fields. AOPs helped to identify mechanistically based BoEs as (early)
497 indicators of the adverse outcomes demonstrating thus a much-needed approach to strengthen the
498 assessment of causal relationships between chemical exposures and health impacts and the
499 interpretation of human biomonitoring results.

500

501 **4.3 Inform Integrated Approaches to Testing and Assessment** 502 **(IATA)**

503 IATA are science-based approaches that integrate NAMs and mechanistic knowledge for hazard
504 characterization, in a specific regulatory context (Caloni et al., 2022). The AOP framework can be

505 particularly useful in this case to facilitate the identification of the most suitable assays for
506 measurement of MIE or KEs to predict adverse health effects (Tollefsen et al., 2014; Willett, 2019), as
507 demonstrated by the examples in the following paragraph.

508 A premium example where the AOP framework has been used to define a panel of suitable tests is the
509 development of IATAs for non-genotoxic carcinogens (Jacobs et al., 2020). Another study also used
510 the AOP-Wiki to identify several modes of action (MoAs) underlying non-genotoxic carcinogenicity for
511 more than 400 agrochemicals (Heusinkveld et al., 2020). Both studies hold promise for using
512 mechanistic-based approaches to reduce the use of standard long-term rodent carcinogenicity studies.
513 In addition, mechanistic knowledge can be used to assess species concordance (particularly human
514 relevance), as proposed by the WHO International Programme on Chemical Safety (Meek et al.,
515 2014b). The OECD IATA Case study project ([http://www.oecd.org/chemicalsafety/risk-
516 assessment/iata-integrated-approaches-to-testing-and-assessment.htm#Project](http://www.oecd.org/chemicalsafety/risk-assessment/iata-integrated-approaches-to-testing-and-assessment.htm#Project)) also contains
517 examples wherein AOPs were used, such as the evaluation of approaches for assessing skin sensitizers
518 (Hoffmann et al., 2018; Kleinstreuer et al., 2018; OECD, 2016). In another IATA case study, an AOP
519 network has been developed (based, in part, on 6 AOPs from the AOP-Wiki) to select an in vitro testing
520 battery for chemical-induced liver steatosis (OECD, 2020b). In this effort, 6 MIEs and one converging
521 downstream KE (triglyceride accumulation) were selected for the in vitro evaluation of the potential
522 of 2-Ethylbutyric acid. Another example is the use of the endorsed AOP 3 (Terron et al., 2018) in an
523 OECD IATA case study for the identification and characterization of Parkinsonian hazard liability of
524 rotenone and deguelin, two structurally similar mitochondrial complex I inhibitors. In silico models and
525 in vitro assays were the NAMs selected for a read-across safety assessment (OECD, 2020a). Finally, the
526 EFSA PPR Panel developed two AOP-informed IATA case studies assessing the applicability of the
527 developmental neurotoxicity (DNT) in vitro testing battery (IVB), for hazard identification and
528 characterisation of pesticide active substances. The DNT case studies illustrate the usefulness of a
529 postulated AOP network and probabilistic quantification of WoE to improve regulatory decision-
530 making (EFSA, 2021a). They are currently under review in the OECD IATA Case study project. Within
531 this large effort, mapping the assays from the DNT IVB on AOPs and AOP networks has greatly
532 facilitated their use in the IATA case studies and the design of the testing strategies. However, DNT-
533 related AOPs submitted to the AOP-Wiki remain limited. To fill in this gap, new (quantitative) AOPs are
534 being developed (such as the AOP 434) and derived from physiological maps of the developing brain
535 such as the neural tube closure physiological map (Heusinkveld et al., 2021) in the framework of the
536 ongoing European H2020 project ONTOX. The objective is the integration of the qAOP network into an
537 AI-based NAM that includes the DNT IVB and predicts systemic repeated dose toxicity for the purpose
538 of NGRA of chemicals (Vinken et al., 2021).

539 It should, however, be acknowledged that IATAs also have limitations, and connecting rather
540 simplistic in vitro assays or in silico models with complex regulatory relevant in vivo health outcomes
541 remains a major challenge. For example, predicting the apparent heterogeneity of adverse pregnancy
542 outcomes associated with placental dysfunction (Burton et al., 2019; Dieber-Rotheneder et al., 2012;
543 Jauniaux et al., 2006; Kovo et al., 2013) from the variety of in vitro and ex vivo models is not
544 straightforward (Gundacker and Ellinger, 2020). In general, proper validation and standardization of
545 protocols (e.g., by developing OECD test guidelines) is still lacking for most NAMs, and this important
546 limitation is further discussed below.

547

548 **4.4 Hazard assessment of chemical mixtures**

549

550 Current approaches to RA usually involve single chemical assessments, not taking into account
551 potential health risks from combined exposures to multiple chemical mixtures. A framework for RA of
552 combined exposures that includes MoA has been proposed (Meek et al., 2011) and EFSA has recently
553 developed a tiered methodology for grouping chemicals into assessment groups where the AOP/MoA
554 is considered the gold standard (EFSA, 2021b). In the USA and Canada, cumulative effects of different
555 pesticides that have a common mechanism of toxicity are considered in the process of human health
556 risk assessment (Rotter et al., 2018). However, the application of mechanistic knowledge (preferably
557 described in AOPs) for mixture RA is still limited (Kienzler et al., 2016). The need to move from
558 assessments of single substances towards assessment of multiple chemicals has been widely
559 recognized (Rotter et al., 2018). However, the current legal requirements do not fully reflect the
560 regulatory needs in this respect, and the identification of mixtures by grouping chemicals with similar
561 MoAs is a challenging task. Chemicals are often grouped based on shared molecular targets, which
562 may be pertinent in some cases, such as for the effects of combined exposure to estrogenic
563 perfluoroalkyl acids on fetal growth (Bjerregaard-Olesen et al., 2019). However, recent studies
564 highlight the importance of considering adverse outcomes (Kortenkamp, 2022; van der Ven et al.,
565 2022) or the whole AOP, i.e., from molecular target to AO through cellular and tissue effects (Conley
566 et al., 2018; Lichtenstein et al., 2020), when grouping chemicals with a similar toxic action. Similarly,
567 not all chemicals activating the same MIEs may fully trigger adversity, as shown in the case of CAR or
568 PXR transactivation in liver steatosis and thyroid hyperplasia, and it might therefore be necessary to
569 take into account downstream KEs rather than focussing on MIEs alone (Knebel et al., 2019;
570 Kucheryavenko et al., 2020).

571 AOPs greatly facilitate the identification of mechanisms that are shared by several stressors and
572 thereby highlight and provide supporting evidence for the assessment of mixture effects; AOP
573 networks might be particularly relevant in that context. Along those lines, a methodology for mixture
574 RA in which AOPs play a central role has been developed within the Horizon 2020 EuroMix project,
575 collecting relevant toxicological data, assigning substances into assessment groups, and identifying
576 potential upstream KEs that can be used to calculate relative potency factors (Beronius et al., 2020).
577 In practice, Conley et al. (2018) identified mixtures of anti-androgenic chemicals that trigger the same
578 AOP network. Although the 18 substances included in the mixture targeted five different MIEs, an
579 additive effect was observed. This highlights the importance of considering AOP networks where
580 several AOPs triggered from separate MIEs can converge in downstream KEs and therefore elicit the
581 same adverse outcome. In another study, an AOP network for liver steatosis was used to define a
582 battery of assays for testing the mixture effects of three steatosis-inducing chemicals. The authors
583 demonstrated that the dose addition model was applicable in all different assays, highlighting the
584 relevance of using an AOP-based testing strategy for mixture characterization and, ultimately, mixture
585 hazard assessment (Lichtenstein et al., 2020). In an OECD IATA case study for repeated dose toxicity
586 endpoints (focusing on hepatotoxicity), the MoA/AOP knowledge was used to inform read-across for
587 grouping p-alkylphenols (OECD, 2018b). The study examined the usefulness of the AOP-informed IATA
588 and read-across strategy for substance registration, but the approach might also be relevant for
589 mixture characterization. With regard to mixture risk assessment, the derivation of relative potency
590 factors can help to refine the risk assessment of combinations of stressors, as illustrated by Van der
591 Ven and colleagues (van der Ven et al., 2022). It should also be noted that quantitative hazard
592 characterisation is an important and challenging issue in the mixture assessment process. Particularly,
593 effective doses of individual compounds in mixtures are impacted by co-exposures and possible
594 synergistic or antagonistic interactions.

595 Overall, there is a major potential to use the AOP framework (and the AOP-Wiki) to identify the
596 hazards of chemical mixtures across different chemical groups. Nevertheless, while the current AOP-
597 Wiki can be instrumental in identifying shared mechanisms of toxicity for a defined mixture, it cannot
598 be used efficiently to map chemicals that would interact on a given AOP or AOP network because
599 stressors are not systematically listed in the AOP-Wiki. After all, such listing would require a thorough
600 evaluation of each stressor. This (intentional) disconnect between the AOP-Wiki (biological
601 information) and chemical data is further discussed below.

602

4.5 Integration within NGRA workflows

Risk characterisation integrates the information on hazards and exposure to evaluate whether levels of chemical(s) to which people are exposed may affect their health. It is therefore essential to quantitatively link internal exposures and experimental effective concentrations, using, for example, physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) and quantitative in vitro to in vivo extrapolation (qIVIVE) models. To derive effect thresholds, or more specially point of departure (POD) values for adverse health effects, it is important to have a quantitative understanding of the dose and time of exposure needed to trigger the entire chain of events from MIE to the downstream AO (Perkins et al., 2019). Activation of an MIE may be sufficient to affect early downstream KEs, but these effects may not be sufficient to reach a threshold to also activate late KEs and AOs. In addition, ideally, AOPs suitable for quantitative RA should have a high level of confidence, meaning that they have gone through a thorough WoE evaluation process being reviewed and endorsed by experts (Coady et al., 2019; Meek et al., 2014a). Nonetheless, considering the precautionary principle (<https://www.gdrc.org/u-gov/precaution-3.html>) and priorities of the European Chemical strategy for Sustainability (European Commission, 2020), risk managers are encouraged to consider AOP knowledge even before the full formal validation of an AOP by OECD. Although the number of AOPs with quantitative information and a high level of confidence is still limited, some case studies on the integration of AOP within RA workflows are listed below.

A well-described and endorsed AOP for skin sensitization has been developed, along with internationally validated test guidelines for the KEs (OECD, 2016). The qualitative and quantitative evaluation demonstrated that several of the in vitro and in silico approaches used have "equivalent or superior performance to existing animal tests and were successful in predicting human skin sensitization outcomes for both hazard and potency" (Kleinstreuer et al., 2018). Thanks to the high level of confidence in both the AOP and the methods, these alternative approaches may be integrated into regulatory processes (EPA, 2018) and in the next-generation skin allergy risk assessment (Gilmour et al., 2022). Moreover, recently, several AOPs for thyroid disruption have been developed and can be assembled into an AOP network whereby decreased thyroid hormone (TH) levels constitutes a KE shared with diverse MIEs and AOs, including neurodevelopmental defects (Klose et al., 2021; Knapen et al., 2020; Noyes et al., 2019). The evidence for associations between reduced TH levels and neurodevelopmental defects is strong, and some quantitative modelling has been performed, e.g., for polychlorinated biphenyls data (Wise et al., 2012). Therefore, with a quantitative understanding of the mechanisms upstream of maternal TH levels, and based on proper models (Lumen et al., 2015), information about MIE/early KEs may already provide threshold concentrations expected with some

636 probability to trigger an adverse health effect. Additionally, several test guidelines associated with
637 relevant KEs in an AOP network have been identified in fish (Knapen et al., 2020) and further
638 development of cross-species AOPs is ongoing to support the use of the vertebrate species (fish and
639 amphibians) for human hazard assessment. In another example, a pragmatic NGRA workflow (Luijten
640 et al., 2020) was used to validate the use of NAMs for the hazard characterization of three triazole
641 fungicides (Van Der Ven et al., 2020). The authors concluded that the combination of model predictions
642 and in vitro test battery was comparable to in vivo approaches for identifying hazards and may be used
643 in the future within an RA scheme. This NGRA workflow highlighted the usefulness of AOP knowledge
644 for organizing toxicological data and interpreting results from in silico and in vitro tests (Luijten et al.,
645 2020; Van Der Ven et al., 2020).

646 To further implement qAOPs in regulatory applications or risk assessment, combining
647 information from AOPs with computational models can be a fruitful way forward. Possible pathways
648 were described and illustrated with case examples in published reviews (Perkins et al., 2019; Wittwehr
649 et al., 2017). For example, three case studies demonstrated how Bayesian network modeling can be
650 used to estimate the probability to trigger an AOP network for hepatic steatosis or DNT outcomes,
651 thereby assisting RA for this specific endpoint (EFSA, 2021a; Perkins et al., 2019; Spînu et al., 2022). In
652 another example, Zgheib et al. (2019) compared three different qAOP approaches (dose response
653 modeling, dynamic bayesian networks and systems biology models in the form of ordinary differential
654 equations (ODEs)) in a renal toxicity case study. This study highlighted that each approach comes with
655 its own advantages and caveats, and the nature of the AOP (network) at hand as well as the data
656 availability jointly set the stage for which qAOP is most suitable. A major advantage of ODE models is
657 that they take into account the dynamic nature of cellular and tissue responses and that ODE models
658 are already available for several of these responses (Kuijper et al., 2017). Nevertheless, due to the likely
659 complicated relation of early KEs with late KEs, it will be challenging to combine and extend ODE
660 models for application in a full qAOP.

661

662 In summary, all the examples listed in this section demonstrate that the AOP framework has been
663 used successfully for applications in several aspects of the RA processes. These are mostly related to
664 screening, prioritization, and hazard identification, with some emerging successes in hazard
665 characterization. The benefits of AOPs are further apparent in assisting the identification and
666 validation of BoEs used in epidemiological studies and for improving the inference of causal
667 relationships in exposure-health associations in human studies. Several case studies have also shown
668 that AOP-based chemical grouping can aid the assessment of health risks from combined exposure to
669 chemical mixtures. However, despite the wide recognition of the usefulness of AOPs for hazard

670 assessment, some important limitations hinder a broad adoption of AOPs in chemical regulation. The
671 most prominent issues, as well as suggestions for overcoming these obstacles, are described in the
672 following section.

673

674 **5 Main limitations in the use of AOPs in the RA process** 675 **and suggestions for improvement** 676

677 **5.1 Insufficient coverage of the biological landscape by the** 678 **current AOPs**

679 The information currently available in the AOPs is far from representing all possible mechanisms
680 underlying adverse outcomes relevant for regulatory purposes. Some biological processes and adverse
681 outcomes are generally well covered (such as oxidative stress, TH metabolism, and reproductive
682 toxicity), while others are much less represented (such as immunotoxicity or metabolic disorders). This
683 represents an important limitation when using AOPs for hazard assessment. Incomplete coverage of
684 biological pathways in the AOP-Wiki can be attributable to the fact that the AOP concept is still
685 relatively recent (about 10 years old), elaboration of an AOP is time-consuming, and good incentives
686 to develop AOPs are lacking. Unfortunately, the efforts associated with AOP development are poorly
687 recognized within the general scientific community, and so far underrepresented among the
688 traditional scientists' track records consisting of peer-reviewed papers. In addition, a substantial part
689 of the scientific experts such as academic researchers in biology, pharmacology and medicine may not
690 be well aware of the AOP concept, and the knowledge of this community is thus not fully exploited for
691 the development of new AOPs.

692 Table 1 provides suggestions and ongoing initiatives to encourage, target and expedite AOP
693 development and broaden the coverage of the biological landscape. We particularly highlight the
694 necessity to raise awareness and upgrade education of early-stage researchers, encouraging the work
695 on smaller and prioritized AOPs and KERs, as well as stimulating the recognition of AOP work within
696 the scientific community.

697

698 **5.2 Mistrust by regulators**

699 Mistrust has been highlighted as a major limitation in the acceptance of NAMs and AOPs by the
700 regulatory field stakeholders (Carusi et al., 2022). Although the quality of the information recorded in

701 the AOP-Wiki is ensured via a rigorous review and endorsement process (OECD, 2021), the number of
702 actually reviewed and endorsed AOPs is still limited (22 as of August 10th 2022). This is because the
703 review and endorsement process is time-consuming and the number of reviewers (working as
704 volunteers) is limited. Also, there is a room for improvement in terms of making the WoE process for
705 AOPs more structured, systematic, harmonized and transparent.

706 Related to this, there is also a need for consistent and transparent systematic review
707 methodologies to overcome existing inconsistencies in methods across international and national
708 regulatory agencies and organizations (Chartres et al., 2019). Integration of mechanistic evidence in
709 such systematic review frameworks has confronted different challenges like the lack of tools to
710 evaluate the certainty (Rooney et al., 2016). Systematically structuring the mechanistic evidence also
711 represents a challenge, but AOP-inspired frameworks appear as an efficient option to support this
712 process, as shown in a recent evaluation of association between exposure to persistent organic
713 pollutants and endometriosis (Matta et al., 2021). An important additional factor affecting the trust of
714 regulators is the current lack of criteria, and thus lack of consensus, on appropriate methods to be
715 used for measuring MIEs/KEs in AOPs. Many experimental methods are used to generate data for AOPs
716 ("key event readouts"), but they largely lack standardized description and formal validation, which are
717 essential requirements in the regulatory process. Table 2 lists possible ways forward and ongoing
718 initiatives that could help increase the trust in AOPs for risk assessors to encourage their adoption in
719 the NGRA. In addition to raising the awareness among all stakeholders (which is a common theme for
720 most of the improvements needed), mapping of test guidelines to AOPs as well as other
721 standardization and validation efforts related to testing and data reporting are of particular
722 importance.

723 Regulatory confidence in AOP-based NAMs could also be improved by performing their
724 uncertainty analysis where both exposure and hazard are assessed in a probabilistic way. Using the
725 AOP framework to map uncertainties on all its levels would transparently show its weaknesses, but
726 also strengths and advantages (Maertens et al., 2022).

727

728 **5.3 Missing quantitative information on KERs**

729

730 Quantitative information is required for several regulatory applications of AOPs to support
731 hazard characterization, (quantitative) risk characterization or associations between chemical
732 exposures and BoE levels. Indeed, sufficient quantitative information describing time-course

733 predictions of exposure and effect, and response–response relationships across KEs (including MIE and
734 AO) is essential for identifying the threshold level of chemical stressors (internal dose) triggering the
735 MIE and leading to an AO (Perkins et al., 2019; Wittwehr et al., 2017). Despite this need, only a limited
736 number of qAOPs have been reported. Partly, this is due to the perception that the quantification of
737 AOPs is highly complex. Indeed, it is a significant effort to calibrate qAOP model parameters in order
738 to properly describe KERs and render the complexity of biological networks. This requires, inter alia,
739 to include feedback loops and knowledge on how factors such as diet, genetic susceptibility/resistance,
740 and disease states modulate the networks. Another limitation associated with AOP quantification is
741 that cell systems may not be fully representative for the tissues in which they reside in vivo. For
742 example, Heldring et al. (2022) recently showed that the effects of cisplatin differ in immortalized vs
743 primary hepatic cell lines for early KEs related to DNA damage signaling. Analogously, there are many
744 other examples documenting the complexity of in vivo toxicokinetics and the development of
745 sufficiently robust PBPK and qIVIVE models. Nevertheless, possible actions to help increase
746 quantitative AOPs are presented in Table 3, which highlights some recent efforts such as the
747 development of a general qAOP modelling framework or concerted crowdsourcing activities focused
748 on smaller units (KERs) within qAOPs.

749

750 **5.4 Mapping chemical data to AOP knowledge**

751

752 Because AOPs are by definition chemically-independent and focused only on toxicodynamic
753 processes, chemical-specific information such as toxicological data, toxicokinetics, or qIVIVE are not
754 emphasized in the current AOP-Wiki. This aims at ensuring that the biology depicted in the AOP should
755 hold for any stressor perturbing the MIE. However, studies are needed to investigate whether the
756 chemically agnostic nature of AOPs generally holds in a quantitative manner. In fact, variability in MIE
757 triggered by different chemicals may translate into a different quantitative relation to the next KE.
758 Such differences could potentially lead to significantly different quantitative conclusions at the AO
759 level despite similar MIEs. Even though AOPs are chemically-agnostic, the use of information from
760 prototypical stressors is encouraged during the development and submission of AOPs to the AOP-Wiki,
761 and can be stored in a dedicated “prototypical stressor” field of the AOP page. However, prototypical
762 stressors are not necessarily representative of chemicals from human exposome or found in the
763 environment, and may thus have limited applicability for realistic exposure scenarios. Assessing
764 chemical structure similarity as a basis for functional grouping (e.g., read-across or quantitative
765 structure-activity relationship) is anticipated to leverage some of these constraints, but is usually

766 missing in the AOP-Wiki as AOPs represent the toxicodynamic part of the toxicity pathways. Another
767 shortcoming is that stressor information currently stored in the AOP-Wiki is of variable quality and
768 some stressors are not supported by sufficiently developed harmonised ontologies, controlled
769 vocabularies or unique identifiers that can facilitate FAIR (Findable, Accessible, Interoperate and Re-
770 usable) compliance. For risk assessment or regulatory use, it is therefore necessary to map chemicals
771 of concern to AOP knowledge. Guidelines/criteria for linking a stressor to an existing AOP may increase
772 the applicability of AOPs in risk assessments, but are not available at the moment.

773 The following paragraphs and Table 4 provide suggestions and describe examples and tools for
774 establishing links between chemical-specific data from different sources (e.g., peer-reviewed
775 literature, reports from agencies, databases) and the knowledge on AOPs (MIEs/KEs) which is recorded
776 in the AOP-Wiki.

777

778 **Test methods as core elements for connecting chemicals to AOP knowledge**

779 Information on methods used to measure the KEs of an AOP is essential when connecting toxicological
780 data to AOP content. By bridging the gap between chemical data and AOP knowledge via the
781 introduction of test method information, the picture gets complete. AOP knowledge highlights the
782 necessity to explore certain mechanistic effects (KEs) by describing how these are linked to an adverse
783 outcome. Test method information captures how the mechanistic effects were actually explored.
784 Finally, a chemical tested in a certain method can then be directly linked to the mechanistic effect (KE)
785 in the AOP. As also mentioned above, for regulatory chemical risk assessment, validated methods with
786 test guidelines and properly assigned domains of applicability are preferred. From a practical point of
787 view, in the AOP-Wiki, the information on methods should be in the KE pages "How it is measured or
788 detected" section (see e.g. in the page of the KE 1253 "MLL chromosomal translocation",
789 <https://aopwiki.org/events/1253#measured>). (Semi-)automatic connections between the three
790 elements (AOP knowledge, chemical data, and test method description) can be achieved by the
791 introduction of harmonized ontology terms to ensure an efficient match between the assay and KEs.
792 This is currently being implemented at the OECD level in collaboration between the AOP-Wiki
793 development team, the team implementing the OECD Harmonised Template for reporting mechanistic
794 effects (i.e. the template OHT 201) and increasingly also with the test method database developers.
795 The connection between KEs and mechanistic effects reported in OHT 201 is already well under way
796 (Ives et al., 2017), with the ontologies currently being refined and further expanded. Development of
797 systematic ontologies based on AOPs is expected to have direct impacts on the accessibility of highly

798 fragmented mechanistic evidence and its application in risk evaluations using computational methods
799 (Whaley et al., 2020).

800

801 **Tools to assist AOP users in linking chemical data with existing KEs**

802 Establishing the connections between the effects of a chemical reported in the literature and
803 databases and the corresponding KE in the AOP-Wiki, can be challenging and time-consuming. In
804 addition, insufficient machine readability of the AOP-Wiki content, and the lack of harmonized
805 ontology terms used to characterize KEs (see above) further complicate the process of linking chemical
806 stressors with AOP-Wiki. Nevertheless, a number of ongoing efforts aim at improving the
807 interoperability of the AOP-Wiki in its future versions, and various tools have been developed. These
808 are outlined in Table 4, which thus clearly indicates the importance of linking chemical-specific data
809 with AOP knowledge assisting potential end-users such as chemical risk assessors.

810

811 **Bridging chemical exposures and AOP knowledge**

812 The AOP framework is a powerful tool for organizing biological knowledge, assisting hazard
813 identification. Ultimately, for risk characterization, AOPs also need to be integrated with the outcomes
814 of the exposure assessment. Since the aggregate exposure pathway (AEP) framework includes
815 toxicokinetic processes leading to an internal target site, there is the possibility to integrate AEP, AOP
816 and dose-response data. Connecting chemical external and internal exposure data (such as human
817 biomonitoring data or AEPs) to the AOP knowledge is therefore critical for its final acceptance in the
818 RA process. Even if a chemical is reported to trigger a MIE in toxicological assays, it may not be effective
819 at concentrations relevant for human exposures. Indeed, nominal concentrations traditionally used in
820 toxicological assays can be several orders of magnitude higher than human-relevant concentrations,
821 and the exposure duration in the range of days or weeks rarely corresponds to real-life scenarios in
822 which people may be exposed for years. In addition, continuous exposure may also not realistically
823 represent intermittent or fluctuating exposure scenarios (Geraets et al., 2016; Goeden, 2018). It is
824 therefore essential to (1) document the effective dose required to trigger MIEs (and the subsequent
825 chain of events in AOPs), taking into account that the dose that affects one KE should be typically lower
826 than the dose needed to induce a downstream KE (i.e., dose concordance), (2) translate the external
827 exposure levels into actual internal doses at the target, and (3) relate the actual (measured) exposures
828 with effective doses causing perturbations of MIEs/KEs. In practice, PBPK modelling, coupled with
829 exposure reconstruction algorithms can estimate the internal dose (i.e., the actual exposure metric)
830 needed to activate a MIE (Sarigiannis et al., 2016; Sillé et al., 2020). Similarly to the AOP framework,

831 the AEP framework aims at organizing exposure data from multiple lines of evidence, accounting for
832 sources, fate and transport exposure routes, as well as exposure modifiers such as age, gender, genetic
833 variability, etc. (Tan et al., 2018). Reinforcing and formalizing the connections between these two
834 frameworks is an important way forward.

835

836 **6 Conclusions**

837

838 Researchers from different fields such as human biomonitoring and (eco)toxicology support the
839 overarching efforts of risk assessors and risk managers that aim at protecting environmental and public
840 health from chemical exposures. With the growing number of chemicals and the fast increasing data
841 on their hazards, risk assessment processes need to be adapted in order to keep pace. NAMs are the
842 way forward in characterizing chemical hazards, and their use has considerably increased in the past
843 decade(s). RA, however, still lags behind due to relying on old guidelines, lack of trust, and various
844 levels of understanding among stakeholders. On the other hand, NAMs may lack the physiological
845 context, may have poorer predictability of the health outcome and should therefore be combined with
846 information from standard toxicological approaches, epidemiological studies and BoEs. The AOP
847 framework seems to offer an optimal solution for addressing these pressing issues in emerging NGRA.
848 AOPs were shown to be instrumental for integrating heterogeneous (but complementary) sources of
849 information, and for translating modern toxicological and HBM data into evidence relevant to
850 regulators. As illustrated in the present paper, a growing number of examples demonstrates the
851 relevance of AOPs for the screening and prioritization of chemicals, assisting IATAs, supporting
852 quantitative hazard characterization and RA workflows. Various tools, methodologies and initiatives
853 have been developed to assist users, as risk assessors, in the practical implementation of AOPs.

854 Nonetheless, developments are still needed on both sides. “Traditional” RA undergoes a major
855 transformation into the truly new NGRA, which needs to be open enough to implement NAMs and
856 AOPs. In parallel, the AOP framework needs to mature to become directly applicable in the future
857 NGRA. The main steps forward include (1) overcoming difficulties in mapping toxicological data for
858 environmental chemicals onto the AOP knowledge, (2) increasing the number of quantitative AOPs,
859 (3) establishing criteria and guidance for demonstrating the robustness and reliability of NAMs, and (4)
860 bringing thoroughly evaluated case studies for qIVIVE that can quantitatively link assays at different
861 levels of biological organisation to chemical exposures. Given the complexity of the human exposome,
862 linking AEPs to AOPs to characterise scientifically credible “source to outcome pathways” (STOPs) is an
863 additional challenge for the future. Regardless of many challenges, AOPs are likely to evolve into a

864 reliable, robust and specific tool serving future risk assessment and management as outlined for
865 example within the Partnership on Risk Assessment of Chemicals (PARC), a 7-year EU initiative starting
866 in 2022.

867

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879

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Journal Pre-proof

1459 **Table 1** - Suggested ways forward to expedite and better target AOP development

Activity	Description	Notes, examples
Raising awareness of AOPs among early-stage researchers	Specific courses and trainings, AOPs included in toxicology curricula, offer dedicated workshops, organise theoretical and practical (hands-on) courses at relevant scientific conferences (e.g. SETAC, SOT).	Available resources for AOP training can be found on the AOP forum https://aopwiki.org/forums/showthread.php?tid=18 Sections on AOPs have been proposed within summer courses (e.g., organised by HBM4EU or university of Ottawa).
International concerted actions for selected AOP projects	Providing guidance and incentives to researchers and regulators for efficient development of priority AOPs and fostering collaborative efforts.	Modeling the COVID-19 pathogenesis with AOPs - CIAO project (https://www.ciao-covid.net/).
Development of smaller units (e.g., KERs)	Generating new AOPs and AOP networks through small and easily manageable efforts. Drafting of putative AOPs could also foster continuation by other authors.	Svingen et al., 2021
Prioritize the development of new AOPs that address RA needs and cover gaps	Priority focus on AOPs explaining exposure-health associations from epidemiological studies. Similarly, BoEs from human studies can be used to identify a KE, triggering the development of new AOPs/AOP networks.	van den Brand et al., 2022
Involve risk assessors and risk managers in the selection of AOPs that are most needed	Dedicated discussions of OECD bodies, such as the Working Party for Hazard Assessment (WPHA), the Working Group of the National Coordinators for the Test Guidelines Programme (WNT) and the Working Party on Manufactured Nanomaterial (WPMN).	Stakeholders may recommend focusing on a particular substance/AO and feel integrated into the process of development. The engagement strategy within the field of radiation research and regulation is one example (Chauhan et al., 2022).
Foster collaboration with scientific journals to allow the publication of AOP reports alongside creation of an AOP page in the AOP-Wiki	Ongoing initiative promoted by the OECD (e.g. https://youtu.be/Tl1bVpZNYJY). AOP developers prepare a peer-reviewed publication in the format of a citable AOP report (O'Brien and Yauk, 2022).	The first AOP reports were published recently (AOP 296 (Cho et al., 2022), AOP 263 (Song and Villeneuve, 2021), AOP 360 (Schmid et al., 2021)). Development of memorandums of understanding with additional journals are ongoing.

Recognize AOPs in the AOP-Wiki as important scientific records themselves	Current discussion (Ritchie, 2022) and implementation of principles of findability, accessibility, interoperability, and reusability (FAIR) suggest that other reporting formats than classical scientific papers may support timely, open access and flexible reporting of new AOPs.	AOP-Wiki is an open living platform that might be better suited for sharing knowledge in modern science.
Derive new AOPs from physiological maps	The physiological maps describe underlying mechanisms of human physiology of a relevant organ at the molecular and cellular level.	Vinken et al., 2021

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1462 **Table 2** – Suggested ways forward to increase the trust into and adoption of AOPs by risk assessors

Activity	Description	Notes, examples
Raising awareness of AOPs among risk assessors or regulators	Specific education and training programmes.	Training the stakeholders to correctly use AOPs is crucial for their implementation
Strengthen the role of test methods in the AOP Framework	Provide a more standardized and reliable description of methods used to measure KEs in the AOP-Wiki (currently described in free text), to better reflect their important role in linking chemicals to AOPs.	An ongoing initiative within OECD EAGMST, especially in its AOP-KB subgroup, is aiming at strengthening the role of test methods in the AOP-Wiki.
Mapping test guidelines (TGs) to KEs of AOPs/AOP networks	Putting more emphasis on existing TGs associated with KEs and facilitating their identification.	Including a dedicated section in the KE pages of the AOP-Wiki; Linking information on methods with the TSAR (https://tsar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/). Example case studies - skin sensitization and thyroid hormone regulation (Kleinstreuer et al., 2018; Knapen et al., 2020).
Proper method validation and good reporting of data for regulatory risk assessment	Education of (eco)toxicologists, implementation of data reporting standards in (eco)toxicological journals.	The JRC initiative BeAMS (Carusi et al., 2019); SciRAP approach (Beronius et al., 2018; Roth et al., 2021), CRED system (Moermond et al., 2016), ToxTemp (Krebs et al., 2019), FAIR principles (e.g. Mortensen et al., 2022). Efforts to standardize omics data reporting also provide good examples (Bridges et al., 2017; Buesen et al., 2017; Gant et al., 2017; Harrill et al., 2021; Kauffmann et al., 2017).
Promote the adoption of systematic literature review methodologies	Improving transparency and reproducibility of the entire process, broadening acceptance of AOPs by regulators through standardised review approaches that are “fit for purpose” and reported in the AOPwiki.	Discussions and elaboration of guidance for implementation of review methodology in AOP development are currently undertaken within an ongoing initiative of OECD EAGMST subgroups.
Define criteria for NAMs to be acceptable for regulatory use	Interactions between NAM developers/users and risk assessors to define criteria and accompanying guidance.	One of the objectives of the European Partnership for the Assessment of Risk from Chemicals (PARC).

Share the reviewing task through collaboration with scientific journals	The collaboration with scientific journals on the development, scientific review and publishing of AOPs (see also Table 1) will provide a higher level of confidence.	Consider official recognition of the reviewers' contributions (e.g., by issuing certificates or including as co-authors).
Make AOP visualisation more intuitive	Rethink the way AOPs are graphically depicted (currently box, arrow, box, arrow, etc.) to meet AOP users' expectations and intuition and better emphasise the crucial role of KERs. .	An ongoing initiative within OECD EAGMST, especially in its AOP-KB subgroup, is examining the role of AOP visualisation and will come up with recommendations to improve them.
Provide guidelines for linking chemical data to existing AOPs	Providing criteria, recommendations, tools available and practical advices would enhance the regulatory use of AOPs	An example can be found in the HBM4EU deliverable (HBM4EU, 2021)

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1465 **Table 3** – Suggested ways forward to increase quantitative information on AOPs

Activity	Description	Notes, examples
Development of a general qAOP modelling framework	A harmonised approach for regulators and scientists that would facilitate the qAOPs modelling. A framework should ideally allow for natural integration with (physiologically-based) pharmacokinetic models.	A framework for qAOP development was proposed and three case studies conducted (Paini et al., 2022).
Prioritisation of current qualitative AOPs for further qAOP development	Pragmatic prioritization considering (1) the foreseen regulatory application domain (e.g., potency ranking vs quantitative hazard characterisation for risk assessment), (2) the existence of established methods for the MIE/KEs, and (3) the expected time lapse between exposure and health effect.	The design of qAOPs may be complicated for endpoints where the adverse outcome only occurs after years of chronic exposure.
Concerted action through crowdsourcing and promoting the contribution to smaller units (e.g. quantitative KERs)	Stimulation of concerted activities on smaller parts of quantitative AOPs (quantitative KERs) to facilitate larger interactions and a more rapid generation of quantitative information.	A larger interlaboratory variation could be a limitation (Svingen et al., 2021).
Develop in silico extrapolation methods between assays using toxicokinetic models	Account for the toxicokinetic differences between species, assays and level of biological organization.	
Establish standardised approach for omics data	Harmonise and standardise the approaches for interpreting and quantitatively connecting omics data (e.g., gene expression and signalling pathways) to a phenotypic outcome.	An example is the Signaling Pathways Project for discovering consensomes, i.e. downstream genomic targets of signalling pathway nodes (receptors, enzymes, transcription factors and co-nodes) and cognate bioactive small molecules (Ochsner et al., 2019).
Flexible approach in qAOP development with respect to the available data and modeling tools	Consider other models if dose-response models are not applicable (do not take into account the dynamics of a system).	Hybrid approaches to properly quantify the KERs, i.e., combining different types of equations may be of value.

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1468 **Table 4** – Tools to assist the mapping of chemical data onto the knowledge organized in AOPs for
 1469 human RA.

Activity	Description	Examples, references
The AOP-helpFinder	A new computational tool based on artificial intelligence, text mining, and graph theory. It screens abstracts from the published scientific literature to identify links between data on stressors and biological information that may be included in AOPs as MIE, KE or AO. Optimised under the HBM4EU and OBERON projects (Audouze et al., 2020).	Freely available as an easy-to-use web interface (http://aop-helpfinder.u-paris-sciences.fr/index.php). Tested in several case studies (Carvaillo et al., 2019; Jornod et al., 2020; Rugard et al., 2019) and developed AOPs (AOP 439, AOP 441)
The Abstract Sifter	An Excel-based tool assisting researchers in their PubMed searches (Baker et al., 2017). It allows the researcher to store relevant queries and view quickly the literature landscape linking e.g. stressors with KEs.	Available from the EPA Comptox Chemicals Dashboard download page (https://epa.figshare.com/articles/code/PubMed_Abstract_Sifter/10324379).
The Kaptis collaborative project	Develops a tool to improve the visualisation and usability of AOPs in chemical RA, by, for example, highlighting the connection to relevant assays.	https://www.lhasalimited.org/products/kaptis.htm
AOP-Wiki content converted into Resource Description Framework (RDF)	AOP-Wiki content converted into RDF and annotated with over twenty ontologies facilitates the connections of AOP-Wiki with external databases, including chemical databases. This allows users to identify AOPs associated with stressors from a specific chemical group.	https://aopwiki.rdf.bigcat-bioinformatics.org/ . https://github.com/marvinm2/AOPWikiRDF (Martens et al., 2021)

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Declaration of interests

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.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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