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The regulatory role of gut microbiota in energy metabolism disorders of distal organs by emerging contaminants

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ABSTRACT: Emerging contaminants (ECs) are a significant category of newly recognized pollutants with potential risks to human health. Human are exposed to ECs via several ways including air, food, and water. The gut microbiota (GM) and its metabolites can be closely linked to multi-organ energy metabolism in the body. Despite substantial studies on the health impacts induced by ECs, a comprehensive understanding of the pathways through which ECs influence gut-target organ energy metabolism remains absent. This study demonstrates that ECs disrupt GM balance, which subsequently triggers systemic inflammation through the nuclear factor kappa-B (NF- κ B)/janus kinase-signal transducer and activator of transcription (JAK-STAT) pathways, induces insulin resistance (IR) by inhibiting insulin receptor substrate 1 (IRS1) phosphorylation, and impairs bile acid (BA) metabolism via farnesoid X receptor (FXR) signaling dysregulation. Ultimately, these mechanisms lead to abnormal energy metabolism in multiple organs including the liver, brain, and reproductive system. In addition, probiotics hold promising application potential in alleviating the harmful metabolic effects induced by ECs. By modulating the composition of the GM, enhancing intestinal barrier function, reducing inflammation, and producing metabolic products, probiotics are expected to restore metabolic homeostasis in distant organs. Therefore, this review explores the potential interactions between ECs and the energy metabolism of gut-target organs. It summarizes the detrimental effects of ECs-induced GM, consolidates possible mechanistic pathways linking GM disruption to abnormal energy metabolism, discusses probiotics as potential interventions to support preventive strategies, and suggests that Future research should focus on developing personalized and combined probiotic intervention strategies, and further elucidate their mechanisms of action, in order to fully exploit the health-protective potential of probiotics.

Keywords: emerging contaminants; gut-energy metabolism; probiotics

1. Introduction

Emerging contaminants (ECs) are compounds that present in various environmental media. Exposure to ECs can occur via inhalation, cutaneous contact, and dietary consumption (Zhan, 2023). Notable ECs, including antibiotics, bisphenol, microplastics, and et al., exhibit possible hazards to human health (Shao et al., 2021), mainly focus on neurotoxicity, endocrine disruption, immunotoxicity, reproductive toxicity, and hepatotoxicity (Smital, 2008). Multiple studies have identified substantial correlations between ECs

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exposure and metabolic impairment, and disruptions to gut microbiota (GM), highlighting its potential impacts on health (Fu et al., 2019; SARGIS, 2023).

These pollutants can directly harm the gut environment in several ways. On one hand, ECs can damage the tight junctions between intestinal cells, weakening the gut barrier and making it more permeable (Dmytriv et al., 2024). On the other hand, they may alter the pH and redox balance inside the intestinal lumen, disrupting normal physiological conditions (Zhao et al., 2021). Such a disturbed gut environment not only directly impairs nutrient absorption and local immunity but also sets the stage for subsequent microbial imbalance.

GM is comprised of a variety of microorganisms, with bacteria playing a prominent role. The primary bacterial phyla can be categorized into *Bacteroidetes*, *Proteobacteria*, and *Firmicutes*. GM regulates several physiological functions (Burgos-Aceves et al., 2024) and then significantly influences metabolomics, including immune responses, hormone regulation, and impacts on distant organs (Zhao et al., 2024). Exposure to ECs can disrupt GM through altering its quantity and function, ultimately resulting in dysbiosis (Bao et al., 2015). This perturbation can further affect energy metabolism in both the gastrointestinal tract and remote organs (Kakakhel et al., 2023). Based on previous research, it suggested that GM may contribute to organ impairment by altering energy metabolism pathways, supporting

the concept of the gut-energy metabolism axis, which is fundamentally defined as the bidirectional interaction and regulation between the gut and systemic energy homeostasis through multiple pathways. This axis involves the GM, intestinal barrier function, gut-derived metabolites, and various host physiological systems. It plays a critical role in maintaining energy intake, storage, expenditure, and overall metabolic health (Stojanović, Ozren, et al., 2022).

Recent research suggests that GM dysbiosis might impair the intestinal barrier and allow microbial components to reach distant organs, contributing to disease development (Gruener et al., 2023; Schoeler and Caesar, 2019). Additionally, exposure to ECs has been linked to significant metabolic imbalances within GM (Li et al., 2016). Furthermore, commensal bacteria experience oxidative stress damage, which then leads to certain adverse effects on target organs (Montenegro et al., 2023). However, limited evidence has been given to how GM changes affect energy metabolism in target organs, and the key metabolic pathways remain unexplored (Ray, 2014).

Probiotics have been confirmed to exert beneficial effects in counteracting the harmful impacts of ECs (Dahiya et al., 2024). In recent years, researchers have actively explored the potential of probiotics in alleviating damage induced by exogenous chemical pollutants (Abdolmaleki et al., 2022), with particular focus on the mechanisms by which probiotics regulate GM to improve the metabolic functions of target organs (Sarлак et al., 2021). Probiotics, mainly consisting of beneficial microorganisms such as *Lactobacillus*, *Bifidobacterium*, and *Saccharomyces*, exert multiple health-promoting effects by modulating GM composition, enhancing intestinal barrier integrity, suppressing inflammatory responses, and producing bioactive metabolic products (Ni et al., 2023). These actions contribute to alleviating GM dysbiosis caused

by ECs exposure and restoring metabolic homeostasis in distant organs. Emerging evidence further indicates that probiotics can regulate host energy metabolism by influencing mitochondrial function, lipid oxidation, and glucose utilization in peripheral tissues (Song et al., 2023). However, the key signaling pathways involved in these processes remain insufficiently summarized and require further systematic investigation.

The previous researches have not sufficiently emphasized alterations in the energy metabolism of target organs following exposure to ECs, leading to limited discussion of key pathways and potential therapies. This study explores how EC-induced dysbiosis affects the energy metabolism of distant organs, referred to as the gut-energy metabolism axis. Moreover, it summarizes the underlying mechanisms and proposes the potential role of probiotics in enhancing distal organ function after intervention.

2.Interactions between ECs and GM

2.1 Common ECs and effects

Currently, there is no international consensus on the classification of ECs, which can permeate into all aspects of human life and negatively impact multiple organs. Table 1 lists the classification of ECs, exposure methods, and relevant health risks.

Table 1 Classification of emerging pollutants

Emerging contaminants	Classification	Source of contaminant	Health hazards	Reference
Antibiotics	Sulfonamides, macrolides (MA), tetracyclines, fluoroquinolones	Farming wastewater, municipal sewage discharge, medical waste, agricultural activities, industrial production discharges	Bacterial and environmental antibiotic resistance leads to treatment failures and deaths.	(Ben et al., 2019)
Hormones	Estrone (E1), estradiol (E2), estriol (E3), phytoestrogens, progestins (P4)	Industrial production, daily life, medical waste, agricultural activities.	Systemic hypersensitivity, inhibition of enzymes responsible for central nervous system functioning	(Keerthanan et al., 2021)
Antipyretic and analgesic (medicine)	Acetaminophen (APAP), Ibuprofen (IBU)	Medical waste, personal medicines and care products, municipal sewage discharges, farming wastewater	Cardiovascular risk	(Wong et al., 2005)
Doping (in athletics)	Amphetamines, cocaine (coke), caffeine,	Pharmacogenetic intake, foodborne Intake, external additions	Poor mental health, violence, injury, sexually transmitted infections, Risk of bloodborne viruses and harm to the fetus	(Farrell et al., 2019)
Contrast medium	Odated X-ray contrast media, gadolinium-based contrast agents.	Medical wastewater, Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plant, Direct Discharge	Cytotoxicity, genotoxicity and developmental toxicity	(Yan et al., 2024)
Bisphenol	Bisphenol A (BPA), bisphenol S (BPS), bisphenol F (BPF), bisphenol B (BPB), bisphenol AF (BPAF)	Industrial production, Plastic products, Wastewater treatment plants, Food and beverages, Personal care products	Cumulative poison	(Gopal et al., 2021)
Phthalate ester	Di(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP), Dibutyl phthalate (DBP), Diphenyl Phthalate (DPHP), Dihexyl phthalate (DnHP), Di(2-methoxy)ethyl phthalate (DEHP), Diallyl Phthalate (DAP), Octyldecyl phthalate (ODP),	Industrial production and processing, Consumer products, Agriculture, Environmental media, Medical waste	Anti-estrogenic/androgenic Effects, reduced fertility	(Huang et al., 2022)

Triclosan	Didecyl phthalate (DIDP), Diisopentyl phthalate (DIPP)	Personal care products, Medical products, Textiles and Products,Agriculture	Plastic	Cumulative poison	(Gopal et al., 2021)
Perfluorinated chemical compound	Perfluorocarboxylic acids (PFCA), perfluorosulfonates (PFAS)	Industrial production discharge, product use		Mainly developmental toxicity, hepatotoxicity, neurotoxicity, reproductive toxicity	(Lau et al., 2004; Zeng et al., 2019)
Poly fluorine chemical compound	Hydroxypolyfluoride (PVDF), chlorinated polyfluorinated compounds (PFCs)	Industrial production discharge, product use		Obesity, asthma, immunotoxicity, cardiovascular toxicity	(Zhang et al., 2023)
New brominated flame retardants (NBFRs)	Decabromodiphenyl ethane (DBDPE), 1,2-Bis(2,4,6-tribromophenoxy)ethane (BTBPE), tetrabromoethylcyclohexane (TBECH), tris(2,3-dibromo propyl) isocyanurate (TBC)	Industrial production, product use, environmental migration, waste disposal, international trade		Altered thyroid function, liver and kidney damage, neurodevelopmental toxicity, endocrine toxicity, damage to nerve cells and tissues	(Chen et al., 2019; Feiteiro et al., 2021; Dong et al., 2015)
Microplastic	Polystyrene (PS), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polyethylene (PE), polyvinyl chloride (PVC)	Household products,packaging materials,textiles, industrial products, marine activities, atmospheric deposition, sewage Discharge		Hemolysis, disruption of cell membranes, intestinal inflammation, induces chronic respiratory disease, depression, liver damage, obesity, cancer	(Choi et al., 2020; Chmielewski et al., 2022)
An engineering project nanomaterials	Silver-engineered nanomaterials (Ag ENMs),zinc oxide-engineered nanomaterials(ZnO ENMs), titanium dioxide-engineered nanomaterials.(TiO2 ENMs)	Industrial production, commercial distribution		Inflammation of the cardiovascular system, respiratory symptom level inflammation, lung inflammation	(Ferdous et al., 2019; Schulte et al., 2019; Pini et al., 2016)

2.2 Ecological interaction between ECs and GM

GM is a complex and dynamic community of microorganisms that has recently been recognized as a “vital organ”. It communicates with other organs through neurological, endocrine, immune, and metabolic pathways, playing a key role in various physiological functions, including metabolism, barrier homeostasis, inflammation, and hematopoiesis. (Ahlawat et al., 2021).

The interaction between GM and exogenous compounds can generally be divided into three main mechanisms: direct absorption and utilization, metabolism through the liver, and alternations in the structure and abundance of the GM community and interactions (Li et al., 2024).

Meanwhile, GM plays a crucial role in metabolizing ECs through various metabolic processes. Although most environmental toxins do not directly target GM, some pollutants can enter the human body and interact with it in multiple ways. Several studies have revealed that exposure to ECs can disrupt GM composition, leading to changes such as dysfunction of energy metabolism, reduced nutrition absorption, and a weakened immune system (Wang et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2015).

2.3 GM Dysbiosis Induced by ECs

ECs may disrupt GM, and further lead to dysbiosis, ecological homeostasis, and adverse health outcomes in humans. Therefore, investigating their mechanisms of ECs-GM interaction is essential (Zhao et al., 2024).

ECs affect both the composition and abundance of GM (Sun et al., 2019). Previous studies indicated that intestinal epithelial lesions increase with prolonged exposure time and ECs concentration, however, the fraction of microbial community composition and abundance varied significantly (Sun et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023). Similarly, a pharmacological study found that patients with ECs-induced peripheral neuropathy have higher serum deoxycholic acid levels and an elevated relative abundance of *Clostridium* (Zhong, 2022). These findings suggested that the dynamic balance of GM populations was severely disrupted after exposure to ECs. Further research shows that ECs can interact with GM.

ECs and their metabolites could interact with GM and disrupt their normal metabolic activities. One study demonstrated that ECs contribute to GM dysbiosis, intestinal barrier dysfunction, and metabolic disturbances (Jin et al., 2019). Another investigation observed that the short-chain fatty acids (SCFA) produced by GM increased significantly in adult offspring after maternal exposure to DBDPE. This suggests that DBDPE treatment affects gut microbial composition and modifies the metabolic function within the gut ecosystem (Zhang et al., 2023). These findings highlight that ECs can be detrimental to the metabolic health of the host.

Beyond metabolic disruption, ECs can directly damage intestinal tissues, causing mucosal irritation, inflammation, and other physiological disturbances. For example, PFCA exposure has been linked to tissue damage by reducing GM diversity (Jiao et al., 2023). Similarly, transcriptome analysis following BPS exposure revealed abnormal gene expression in the intestinal mucosal barrier, contributing to inflammation (Li et al., 2024).

3. GM-Mediated Energy Metabolism Influence of ECs

3.1 GM-Mediated Energy Metabolism Influence of ECs

ECs disrupt systemic energy metabolism through multiple pathways, altering key metabolites (Li et al., 2023; Provencher et al., 2022; Ratelle et al., 2020) and inducing oxidative stress, inflammation, and cell death (Lebeau-Roche et al., 2023; Marie and Gallet, 2022; Zhang et al., 2022a). These dose-dependent effects (Assiri et al., 2024) impair hepatic lipid metabolism, mitochondrial function, and nucleic acid synthesis (Sun et al., 2024; Cayer et al., 2024), ultimately leading to multi-organ metabolic dysfunction. Importantly, ECs also disrupt energy homeostasis by impairing GM, which acts as a critical intermediary, as shown in models such as mussels (Dumas et al., 2020). Further mechanistic studies and targeted interventions are urgently needed.

To investigate how ECs impact energy metabolism through GM, a comprehensive literature search was conducted using PubMed, Web of Science, and Scopus. The search strategy incorporated Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) terms to refine results based on inclusion and exclusion criteria. This review aims to assess the impact of ECs on distant organs by examining their interactions with GM, particularly through the metabolism of key bridging molecules. Emission standards are detailed in Table 2, and the search results are summarized in Table 3.

The present studies indicated the importance of bridge chemicals in metabolomics, which connects the GM and the distal organs that collectively regulate the organism.

Table 2 Emission standards

Key Considerations	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Research approach	Animal studies	No animal studies, human studies, in vitro, or ex vivo studies
Exposure method	ECs Exposure	No ECs exposure
Control subjects	Control subjects	No control group
Result	Through the bridge, substance reflecting on the influence of GM, distal systems	Only reflects intestinal damage

Table 3 Effects of emerging contaminants on distal organs via GM

Target organ	Emerging contaminants	Animal model (including animal, age, exposure group, exposure duration, exposure dose)	Changes in GM	Bridge metabolites	Energy metabolism	Reference
Gut	Microplastics (MP)	18 Kunming mice; 8 weeks old; 6 groups; 1 week exposure; dose 20 mg/mL (Different MP per group)	↑: Diversity of GM in the exposed group, Mycobacteriaceae, Thick-walled Mycobacteriaceae, Ruminococcaceae, Trichosporonaceae.	Triglyceride	Inflammatory cells of gut↑	(Xie et al., 2022)
	Microplastics (MP)	36 female ICR mice; 8 weeks old; 3 groups; 30 days exposure; dose:0, 0.002, and 0.2 µg/d, respectively	↑: Mycobacteriophage; ↓: Thick-walled Mycobacteriophage.	Amino acids, lipopolysaccharides, proteins	exposure group amino acid of gut metabolism↑	(Sun et al., 2021)
	Broad-spectrum antibiotics such as ampicillin, streptomycin, and clindamycin	40 male mice (C57BL/6) 20 ± 2 g; 4 groups; 2 week exposure; exposed groups received receiving antibiotic drinking water containing 1 mg/ml	↑: Anaplasma phylum, Aspergillus phylum; ↓: Bacterial diversity and abundance, Filamentous, Actinomycetes.	Bile acids	Multiple bile acids in the enterohepatic circulation are affected	(Liu et al., 2020)
	TP (tretinoin), ampicillin, metronidazole, vancomycin and neomycin sulfate	TP: male C57BL/6J mice; 6-8 weeks old; 2 groups; exposed to 600 µg/kg TP, 5 days. Antibiotics (ABX): 200 mg/kg (100 mg/kg for vancomycin), 5 days	Alteration of gut microbial composition and structure; ↓: Abundance of Lactobacillus rhamnosus.	Bile acids	Unconjugated BAs in the cecum contents↓, lactobacilli abundance was negatively correlated with unconjugated bile acid content	(Hu et al., 2024)
Liver	Microplastics (MP)	15 zebrafish; 6 months of age or older; 3 groups; 14 days exposure; 300, 600 mg/L drinking water	↑: Rhizobiaceae, Xanthobacteraceae; ↓: exposure groups Enterobacteriaceae, Cetobacteriaceae.	Transcriptomics	hepatocyte injury	(Tian et al., 2024)
	Ceftriaxone	32 male C57BL/6J mice; 8 weeks old; 4 groups; 8 weeks exposure, exposed groups received a 6.8 mg/L penicillin G in drinking water	↑: Opportunistic pathogens, Klebsiella, Morganella; ↓: Probiotics, Bifidobacterium, Lactobacillus.	Bile acids, indole, erucic acid	Affect the bacterial composition, alter the faecal metabolome.	(Hill et al., 2014)
	Ceftriaxone sodium	48 male C57BL/6J mice; 4 weeks old; 2 groups; 8 days exposure; exposure group received ceftriaxone sodium solution 400 mg/mL, 0.2 mL per dose	↑: Parasutterella, Akkermansia, Warty Microbacteria, Ascomycota; ↓: Parasutterella, Lachnospiraceae_NK4A136_group, Thick-walled Bacteria, Deferribacterota, Patesicibacteria.	Bile acids, amino acids	Alter intestinal metabolism, resulting in hepatic metabolic disorders	(Lai et al., 2023)

Liver	Sulfamethoxazole (SMX)	1000 largemouth bass juveniles; mean weight 30.65 ± 0.02 g; 3 groups; 8 weeks exposure, two levels of sulfamethoxazole (0, 0.3%)	↑: Cetobacterium, Brevinema; ↓: Exposed group Pleslomonas, Mangrovibacter, Shewanella, Enterococcus, Bifidobacterium, Aurantimicrobium.	Bile acids	Oxidative stress, inflammation↑, apoptosis↑	(Xie et al., 2020)
	Antibiotics, anticoagulants	SD female and male rats; 6 weeks old; 3 groups; amoxicillin to establish an intestinal dysbiosis model (90 mg/kg); exposure groups warfarin sodium (0.2 mg/Kg), dabigatran (20 mg/kg) and rivaroxaban (2.6 mg/kg)	↑: Ascomycota phylum; ↓: Thick-walled phylum, Anaplasma phylum.	Amino acids	Affect the expression of heparanase and P-gp, transport and metabolism of oral anticoagulants.	(Chen et al., 2022)
	Perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS)	ICR mice; 4-5 weeks old; 4 groups (n=8-11); 14-day exposure; doses of 1 mg/kg, 5 mg/kg, and 10 mg/kg	↑: Bacteroides spp. Allobaculum; ↓: Lactobacillus spp, Enterococcus spp.	Amino acids	One hundred sixteen hepatic metabolites and 23 faecal metabolites differed.	(Jiang et al., 2022)
	Perfluorobutane sulfonate (PFBS)	24 male C57BL/6 mice; 8 weeks old; 4 groups; 6 weeks exposure; 50 µg/L	↑: Enterococcus ; ↓: Akkermansia, Lactobacillus.	Amino acids	39 metabolites↓	(Liu et al., 2023)
	Cadmium and nano plastics (NPs)	300 bass; mean initial weight: 14.67 ± 0.08 g; 4 groups; 7 and 9 days exposure; 10 µg/L Cd, 100 µg/L NPs	↑: Thick-walled phylum, Tenereus, Aspergillus, Enterobacteriaceae; ↓: Clostridiaceae, Mycoplasma.	Antioxidant indicators	MDA↑, the liver oxidative stress and oxidative damage↑	(Chen et al., 2023)
	Polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE)	8week C57BL/6J mice bred for three generations resulted (n=5);exposed until 15 months of age; dose 57 mg/kg	↓: intestinal tight junction protein transcripts; altered intestinal environment and dysregulation of inflammation-related metabolites	Diastase	lipid metabolizing enzymes↓, genes involved in microbial endocytosis in hepatocytes↑	(Lim et al., 2024)
	Diethyl (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP)	56 ICR mice; 3 weeks old; 7 groups; 6 weeks exposure; 1000 mg/kg bw/day	↑:Exposure group Mycobacterium avium.	Hormones	↑: T-SOD, CuZn-SOD, MDA	(Lu et al., 2024)
Liver	Quercetin Nanoparticles (QNP)	240 Nile tilapia; 40 ± 0.45 g; 4 groups; 60 days exposure; 400 mg QNPs/kg diet	↑: Total GM, Aeromonas.	Hormones	↓: CAT, SOD, GSH	(Farag et al., 2023)
Brian	Antibiotics	16 male NIH Swiss mice; 8 weeks old; 2 groups; 30 days exposure; ampicillin (1 mg/ml),	↓: GM interact with Toll-like receptors.	Amino acids	MyD88 expression↓	(Johnson and Burnet, 2020)

Reproduction	Diethyl (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP)	vancomycin (5 mg/ml), neomycin (10 mg/ml), metronidazole (10 mg/ml) and amphotericin-B (0.1 mg/ml) 30 female ICR mice; 4 weeks old; 3 groups; 30 days exposure; doses of 500 and 1500 mg/kg	↑: Exposed group Thick-walled bacillus phylum;↓: Anaplasma phylum, Actinobacillus phylum, Epsilon phylum.	Amino short-chain acids	acids, fatty	165 metabolites↓, 65 metabolites↑	(Fu et al., 2021)
	Bisphenol A	60 male C57BL/6j; 7 weeks old; 6 groups; 6 weeks exposure; 50 mg/kg b.w/d	↑: Exposure group E. faecalis, Parasutterella; ↓: Heterobacterium spp., H. pylori, Mycobacterium avium.	Bile acids	acids, amino	Altered KEGG pathway, BA metabolism in arginine and proline metabolism	(Wu et al., 2024)
Reproduction	Diethyl (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP)	36 BALB/c mice; 4 weeks old; 6 groups; 4 weeks exposure; 400 µg/L	Differences in the composition of bacteria at the genus level changed significantly	Short-chain acid	fatty	↓: Acetic acid, butyric acid concentrations, SCFA; ↑: hepatic TG, plasma LDL	(Teng et al., 2024)
Kidney	Triclosan (TCS)	16 C57BL/6J male mice; 7-8 weeks old; 2 groups; 10 weeks exposure; dose 50 mg/kg	↑: Exposed group Thick-walled phylum, Actinobacteria phylum, ↓: Anaplasma phylum, Cyanobacteria phylum, Patascibacteria, Warty Microbacteria phylum.	Fatty acids		↑: MDA; ↓: SOD, TCHO	(Zhuang et al., 2024)

Note: ↑means upregulation while↓indicates downregulation

3.2 Mechanism of the Gut-metabolic axis

Although the processes of ECs in metabolomics and their harmful effects on distal organs have been the focus of attention, the precise mechanisms remain incompletely explored. The gut-metabolism axis might play a key role in this process.

3.2.1 Microbial molecular correlation patterns (MAMPs)

The gut acts as an immunological organ, serving as a physical barrier against substances (Chassaing et al., 2014). It also has adaptive and innate immune cells that protect against infections. The GM contributes to the maturation of the immune response, with Microbial Molecular Correlation Patterns (MAMPs) serving as key immune signaling components (Patten and Collett, 2013).

Exposure to ECs can compromise the intestinal barrier, allowing macromolecules such as lipopolysaccharides (LPS) to enter the bloodstream (Liu et al., 2021). This subsequently triggers immune responses by activating dendritic cells, macrophages, and neutrophils, leading to the release of inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) and interleukins-1 (IL-1) and interleukins-6 (IL-6) (Fleshner, 2013; Nakkarach et al., 2021). These cytokines can interact with afferent neurons and cross the blood-brain barrier (BBB), activating microglia and causing inflammation. This process primarily triggers systemic inflammation via the nuclear factor kappa-B (NF- κ B) pathway, influences fatty acid metabolism through the janus kinase-signal transducer and activator of transcription (JAK-STAT) pathway, and governs energy metabolism through the activation of Adenosine 5'-monophosphate (AMP)-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathways (Hotamisligil, 2006). Ultimately, these disruptions lead to changes in pro-inflammatory gene expression, metabolic imbalances, and insulin resistance (IR), altering both fatty acid and glucose metabolism.

3.2.2 Insulin resistance (IR)

IR is a key characteristic of various chronic metabolic disorders. Research suggests that changes in the GM, inflammation, and immune system dysfunction play crucial roles in its development (Petersen and Shulman, 2018). Studies have indicated that exposure to ECs has been linked to IR, which in turn exacerbates GM imbalance. This imbalance is marked by reduced microbial diversity, lower abundance of beneficial bacteria, and structural abnormalities within the microbial community (Li et al., 2024b).

ECs' exposure has been shown to significantly alter GM composition, leading to an increase in pro-inflammatory bacteria associated with gut barrier dysfunction. Specifically, there is a rise in the abundance of opportunistic pathogenic bacteria such as *Haemophilus*, *Bifidobacteria* and *Wadsworthia* in the feces. At the same time, the LPS level is increased in exposed individuals, binding to lipopolysaccharide-binding proteins in the bloodstream. These complexes interact with clusters of differentiation 14 (CD14) receptors, forming trimers that signal through Toll-like and pattern-recognition receptors (Neves et al., 2013). This process activates multiple inflammatory signaling pathways, leading to a systemic chronic inflammatory response (WRIGHT et al., 1990). As a result, there is an increased expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines, including IL-1 and TNF- α , which disrupt insulin signaling. TNF- α

contributes to IR by inhibiting the phosphorylation of serine residues in insulin receptor substrate 1 (IRS1), resulting in elevated blood glucose levels (Cseh et al., 2000). Overall, exposure to ECs frequently disrupts GM balance and induces systemic inflammatory responses, both of which contribute to metabolic disorders linked to impaired energy regulation.

3.2.3 Bile acids (BA)

It has been observed that exposure to ECs impacts GM metabolism, including changes in BA, which plays a key role in regulating energy metabolism. A recent study has discovered that BA can influence GM composition by modulating the abundance of beneficial bacteria such as *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* (Ridlon et al., 2020). Some secondary BA, such as deoxycholic acid (DCA), may contribute to gut dysbiosis and inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) by increasing the prevalence of harmful bacteria like *Enterococcus*. In contrast, lithocholic acid (LCA) can inhibit pathogenic bacteria like *Escherichia coli* while promoting beneficial anaerobic bacteria such as *Bacteroides*, thereby supporting gut health (Collins et al., 2023).

Beyond their impact on microbial composition, BA also significantly influence the host metabolism via their metabolic byproducts. SCFA, produced as a result of BA metabolism, can cross the intestinal barrier into the bloodstream, altering the host's metabolic status. Additionally, secondary BA activates G protein-coupled receptors and nuclear receptors in the gut, regulating cholesterol metabolism, glucose-lipid metabolism, and other physiological processes (Fleishman and Kumar, 2024).

Exposure to ECs disrupts BA homeostasis by affecting the abundance and composition of the host GM, reducing ileal BA reabsorption and increasing hepatic BA production (Zhao et al., 2024b). A study has shown that long-term exposure to ECs strengthens the expression of *Cyp8b1*, a crucial enzyme in CA synthesis, and *Cyp7a1*, a rate-limiting enzyme. Meanwhile, the ileal expression of *Fgf15*, a regulator of *Cyp7a1*, was significantly reduced. This feedback mechanism normally prevents excessive BA accumulation, which could otherwise cause liver and organ damage (Gadaleta and Moschetta, 2019).

Long-term EC exposure may also increase BA hydrophobicity, promoting cholesterol transport from the gut to the liver and leading to elevated cholesterol levels and chronic metabolic disorders. This process involves the regulation of cholesterol metabolism and the activation of the farnesoid X receptor (FXR). An increase in hydrophobic BA, such as DCA, might trigger a feedback response in the liver to enhance cholesterol conversion, helping maintain BA balance (Calkin and Tontonoz, 2010). However, long-term exposure to ECs might alter FXR function, affecting BA synthesis, cholesterol synthesis, and clearance (Gao et al., 2018). Additionally, these BA might also affect fatty acid production and lipid metabolism by modifying GM composition (Russell, 2003), ultimately leading to energy metabolism disturbances in various organs.

3.3 Intestinal-energy metabolism on target organs

Liver

Exposure to ECs disrupts gut microbiota balance, reduces mucus secretion, and impairs tight junction proteins, significantly increasing intestinal permeability. As a result, this facilitates the accumulation of LPS

in the bloodstream, triggering inflammatory responses that ultimately cause liver damage (Liu et al., 2021). Additionally, excessive LPS synthesis, combined with a deficiency in secondary BA, leads to the formation of α -keto acids, amines, and carbon dioxide during amino acid metabolism, which can further harm the body. Simultaneously, smaller ECs can also accumulate in the liver and blood vasculature, impairing insulin signaling pathways by downregulating IRS1 and phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI3K) expression, thereby contributing to insulin resistance and organ dysfunction (Huang et al., 2022). In conclusion, ECs influence multiple metabolic pathways in the liver, resulting in metabolic abnormalities and hepatic damage (Zhang et al., 2022).

Brain

ECs exposure strengthens the activity of superoxide dismutase and catalase in the liver and intestine while diminishing acetylcholinesterase activity in the brain (Zhang et al., 2022b). These disruptions contribute to BA irregularities, which can impact neurodevelopment (Lai et al., 2023). In the context of metabolic diseases, ECs exposure or stress-induced inflammation can influence the activation of microglial cells, thereby modifying signaling in the hypothalamus. These conditions can lead to hyperphagia, obesity, insulin resistance (Rosin and Kurrasch, 2018), and ultimately long-term cognitive effects and other behavioral alterations.

Reproductive System

Exposure to ECs can reduce estrogen levels, cause immune dysfunction, and trigger inflammation, leading to alterations in gut metabolites, including BA (McCallum et al., 2017). These changes might ultimately contribute to the formation of uterine fibroids (Vineetha et al., 2023) and negatively affect offspring growth and development (Blake et al., 2022). In males, higher EC exposure correlates with decreased scrotal circumference and total sperm motility (Solaiman et al., 2009). Endocrine-disrupting ECs, commonly found in contaminated food and water, have been widely studied as obesogens. Their effects may include prenatal weight gain, IR (Podratz et al., 2020), pancreatic β -cell dysfunction, and reduced sperm quality.

Other organs

At the same time, ECs exposure has been linked to various degrees of damage across multiple organs (Zhao et al., 2024c). For example, disruptions in cholesterol metabolism, arginine biosynthesis, and bile secretion pathways have been observed in both infected and antibiotic-treated groups (Li et al., 2022). These findings highlight the systemic impact of ECs on energy metabolism and overall health.

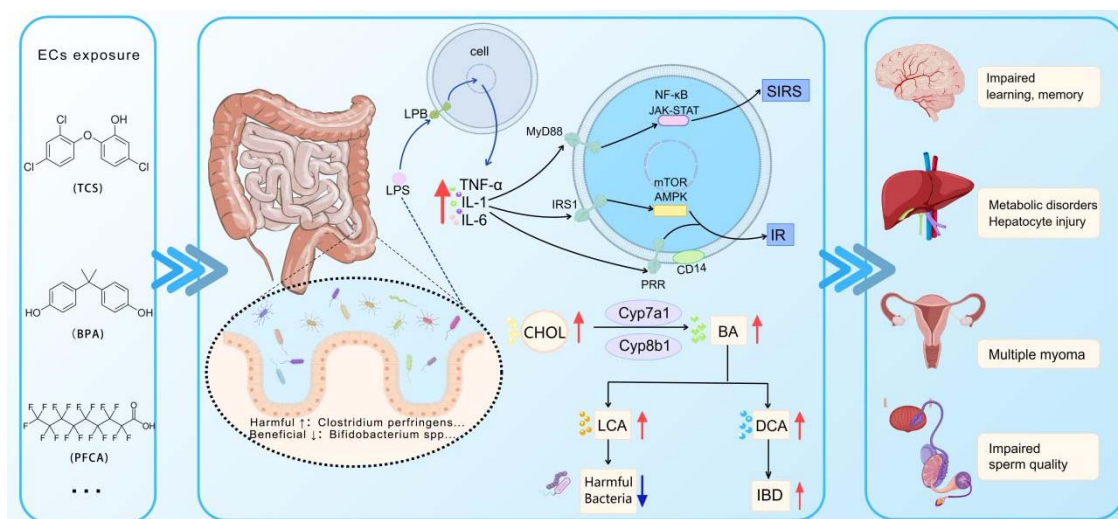


Figure 1. Effects of ECs on multiple organs via GM.

3.4 Summary

To systematically elucidate the mechanisms by which ECs disrupt multi-organ metabolism via GM, a summary Table 4 was constructed. It compares GM alterations, key metabolic pathway changes, and functional impairments in major target organs following EC exposure.

Table 4 Comparative Responses of Different Organs in the ECs/GM/Energy Metabolism Axis

Target Organ	Major ECs Types	GM Alterations	Key Bridging Metabolites	Energy Metabolism Dysregulation	Typical Mechanisms
Gut	Microplastics, Antibiotics	Diversity ↓, Pathogenic bacteria ↑	SCFA, Amino acids	Local inflammation ↑, Amino acid metabolism disorder	Mucosal barrier damage, Immune activation
Liver	Various ECs, Antibiotics, PFCs	Probiotics ↓, BA-metabolizing bacteria disorder	BA, Amino acids	Lipid accumulation ↑, β-oxidation ↓, Gluconeogenesis disorder	BA–FXR axis disruption, Mitochondrial dysfunction
Brain	Antibiotics	GM–Toll-like receptor interaction ↓	Amino acids	Neurotransmitter imbalance, Energy supply deficiency	Neuroinflammation, Microglial activation
Reproductive System	Phthalates, Bisphenol A	Firmicutes ↑/ Actinobacteria ↓	Bile acids, SCFA	Sex hormone synthesis disorder, Oocyte energy deficiency	Endocrine–metabolic crosstalk disruption

Note: ↑means upregulation while↓indicates downregulation

4. GM-Mediated Antagonism of Emerging Pollutants by Probiotics

4.1 Probiotics

Probiotics are live microorganisms that provide health benefits to the host when consumed in sufficient amounts (Hill et al., 2014). Many studies have demonstrated that probiotics have the ability to mediate bridging molecules and counteract the harmful effects of ECs.

4.2 Physicochemical Functions of Probiotics

Probiotics have been playing an increasingly significant role in environmental remediation, particularly in the bioremediation of pollutants, where they exhibit unique advantages. In terms of biodegradation, probiotics are capable of decomposing organic pollutants such as petroleum hydrocarbons and pesticides through metabolic activity, as well as removing inorganic contaminants like heavy metals via biosorption on their cell surfaces (Huixiong et al., 2024). Additionally, probiotics possess the ability to biotransform pollutants into less toxic or non-toxic substances, effectively reducing environmental risks (Reshu et al., 2024). Studies have demonstrated that probiotics rely on a combination of enzymatic degradation, biosorption, and ecological modulation to enhance the efficiency of pollutant transformation and removal (Arshad et al., 2024). Recent research also indicates that probiotics, as crucial biological regulators of host GM, play a key role in mitigating the adverse effects of emerging pollutants on intestinal health.

4.3 GM-Mediated Antagonism of Emerging Pollutants by Probiotics

4.3.1 Improvement of Gut Condition

Probiotics can effectively alleviate disruptions in gut barrier integrity and microbiota metabolic homeostasis induced by emerging pollutants by modulating gut microbial ecology and enhancing barrier functions, thus demonstrating considerable potential in ecological safety and intestinal protection (Wang et al., 2021). Specifically, probiotics suppress pathogenic and harmful bacteria through competitive exclusion while promoting the proliferation of beneficial microbes, thereby restoring microbiota composition and maintaining microbial homeostasis (Song et al., 2023). Moreover, probiotics can upregulate the expression of tight junction proteins, improve their localization and distribution, repair pollutant-induced intestinal barrier damage, reduce gut permeability, and minimize the translocation of endotoxins and pollutants (Distrutti et al., 2013). Additionally, by enhancing mucus layer secretion, probiotics form a physical barrier that effectively prevents pathogens and harmful substances from contacting epithelial cells, thereby further preserving barrier integrity (GAO et al., 2013).

4.3.2 Antioxidant and Anti-inflammatory Effects

Exposure to emerging pollutants often triggers excessive production of free radicals, leading to oxidative stress, cellular structural damage, and disrupted physiological functions. Studies indicate that probiotics can reduce oxidative stress by upregulating the activity of various antioxidant enzymes, such as glutathione peroxidase (GPX), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and catalase (CAT), thereby scavenging free radicals, decreasing reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels, and protecting hepatic and intestinal tissues

(Qinqin et al., 2024). Concurrently, probiotics can inhibit pollutant-induced activation of inflammatory pathways, including NF- κ B and AMPK signaling, thereby reducing the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6, TNF- α , and IL-1, and ameliorating chronic inflammatory states (Qinqin et al., 2024).

4.3.3 Promotion of Pollutant Metabolism and Excretion

Certain probiotic strains facilitate the metabolism and excretion of pollutants through mechanisms such as binding, degradation, and modulation of BA metabolism, effectively reducing pollutant accumulation within the host. In cholesterol metabolism, for instance, administration of various doses of *Lactobacillus casei* Zhang and its fermented dairy products in rats significantly lowered hepatic total cholesterol and triglyceride levels, increased fecal total bile acid content, and modulated serum apolipoprotein levels, suggesting an indirect regulatory effect on cholesterol absorption and excretion via BA metabolism (Zhang, 2011). Furthermore, some probiotics can enhance heavy metal excretion by modulating the enterohepatic circulation. Oral administration of *Lactobacillus plantarum*, for example, has been shown to increase cadmium excretion and alleviate its accumulation and toxicity in vivo. Notably, docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) has also been reported to promote cadmium detoxification by restoring *Parabacteroides* abundance in the intestines of cadmium-exposed mice (Jianzhen et al., 2023).

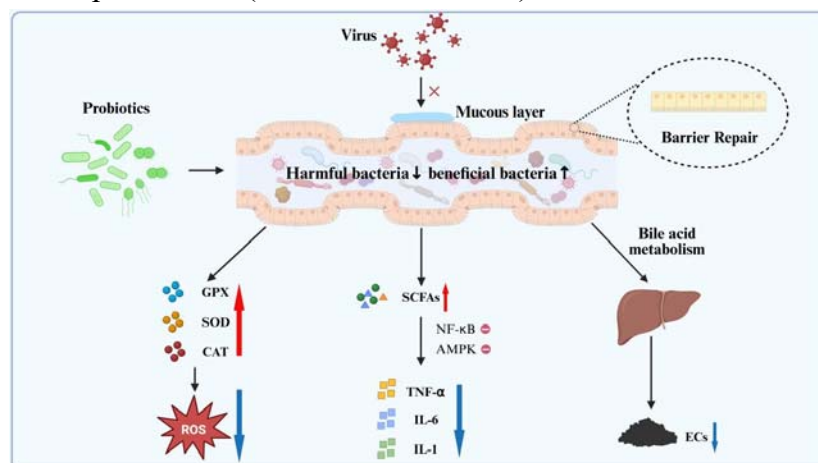


Figure 2. Probiotics antagonize emerging pollutants by GM

4.3.4 Restoration of Disrupted Intestinal Metabolites

Recent studies demonstrate that probiotics mitigate pollutant-induced metabolic toxicity and organ dysfunction through modulation of gut-derived metabolites. Specifically, *Akkermansia muciniphila* converts primary to secondary BA via bile salt hydrolase activity, activating FXR and G protein-coupled bile acid receptor 1 (TGR5) signaling pathways to regulate hepatic lipid metabolism and reproductive hormone homeostasis (Cui, X. et al, 2025). *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG generates SCFA that activate G protein-coupled receptors 41/43 (GPR41/GPR43) and suppress histone deacetylase activity, thereby enhancing intestinal barrier integrity and reducing NF- κ B-mediated testicular inflammation (Zhen, H. et al., 2024). Multi-strain formulations of *Lactobacillus plantarum* confer multi-organ protection through BA metabolic remodeling, acetylcholine precursor synthesis, and tight junction protein upregulation (Razzaq, A. et al., 2024). A systematic summary of these mechanisms is presented in Table 5.

Table 5 Beneficial Effects of Probiotics in Antagonizing ECs

Probiotics	Regulating intermediates	Energy metabolism	Improvement of distal organs	Reference
P. freudenreichii freudenreichii B3523 (PF) and P. freudenreichii shermanii B4327 (PS)	BA	The involvement of the gut-liver axis influences liver damage and metabolic disturbances resulting from ECs exposure.	Liver disease	(Nair and Johny, 2018)
Bacillus subtilis (bacillus subtilis)	Amino acids	the gut microbiota is capable of modifying and converting primary bile acids into secondary bile acids through dehydroxylation reactions.	Liver disease	(Zhang et al., 2024)
Baker's yeast (BY), Chrysomycin (CTC)	Amino acids	Serum glutamic oxalacetic transaminase (GOT)↑	Liver disease	(Çelyk et al., 2003)
Commercial Probiotics Hypro-calves	Amino acids	blood IgA↑and serum CD4↑	Skeleton	(Karamzadeh-Dehaghani et al., 2021)
Mucinophilic Ackermannia (genus of bacteria)	BA	Grow in the presence of bile salts	Reproduction	(Asadi et al., 2022)
Lactobacillus plantarum ATG-K2, ATG-K6 and ATG-K8	BA	↑:antibacterial activity, bile salt hydrolase activity, hydrogen peroxide production	Reproduction	(Beck et al., 2019)
Lactobacillus plantarum strain Tensia	Amino acids	↑: L-histidine, L-glutamine, L-ornithine, L-arginine, or L-lysine	Reproduction	(Songisepp et al., 2012)
Lactobacillus rhamnosus, Lactobacillus plantarum	SCFA	A restored balance of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs)	Reproduction	(Wu et al., 2024)
Probiotics SLAB51	Amino acids	oxidative stress↓	Brain, liver	(Wu et al., 2024)
Lactobacillus plantarum TW1-1	Antioxidant indicators	hyper-permeability↓, serum lipopolysaccharide level↑	Reproduction	(Tian et al., 2019)
Lactobacillus plantarum DP189	Acetylcholine ACh (amine-related vitamin B complex)	oxidative stress↓,inflammatory response↓, a rebound in the release of acetylcholine.	Cranial nerves	(Wang et al., 2024)
Lactobacillus, Bifidobacterium	SCFA	glutathione↑, malonaldehyde contents↓, indicated the improved oxidative status.	Intestinal tract	(Song et al., 2018)
Lactobacillus acidophilus	Amino acids	alanine transaminase, aspartate aminotransferase, albumin, creatinine, and urea were significantly different in treated and non-treated animals.	Cytotoxicity	(Khalifa et al., 2023)

Note: ↑means upregulation while↓indicates downregulation

4.4 Future Perspectives

Despite the promising potential of probiotics in mitigating the toxicity of emerging pollutants, their precise mechanisms of action and optimal application strategies remain to be elucidated. Considering individual variations in GM composition, personalized probiotic interventions represent a crucial future research direction to achieve targeted reduction of pollutant toxicity. Additionally, combined intervention strategies incorporating probiotics with other measures might exert synergistic protective effects. For example, studies have shown that co-administration of vitamin D and probiotics can enhance protection against cadmium toxicity. Furthermore, the screening, identification, and application of novel probiotic strains with superior pollutant metabolism capacity and organ-protective functions hold significant scientific value and practical potential in fields such as food safety and environmental remediation. In-depth investigation of the mechanisms by which probiotics modulate pollutant toxicity and organ function through GM regulation, BA metabolism, and the gut-organ axis will be crucial for the rational application of probiotics. Of particular note, probiotics also possess broad prospects in emerging applications, such as the development of functional endophytic colonization systems to prevent polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon contamination in agricultural products, which offer both market potential and investment value, providing new research avenues for the diversified application of probiotics.

In conclusion, future research should prioritize the development of personalized and combined probiotic intervention strategies and elucidate their underlying mechanisms, thereby maximizing the health-protective functions of probiotics in safeguarding human health.

Conclusion

Despite more evidence provided by recent ECs researches, significant gaps remain in understanding their metabolic impact across multiple organs. Most studies focus on the outcomes of ECs' exposure and the potential benefits of probiotics, but few investigate the specific metabolic pathways involved in multi-organ dysfunction. This review synthesizes current literature to highlight how ECs induce metabolic disruptions through the gut-metabolism axis. By providing a detailed analysis of these mechanisms, our study offers a more comprehensive understanding of ECs-related toxicity and helps bridge the existing knowledge gap in multi-organ metabolic dysfunction.

Ethical Approval

Not applicable.

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Data and Materials availability

No data and materials was used for the research described in the article.

Competing Interests

The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose including employment, consultancies, stock ownership, honoraria, paid expert testimony, patent applications/registrations, and grants or other funding.

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