

Leveraging open cheminformatics tools for non-targeted metabolomics analysis of *C. elegans*: a workflow comparison and application to strains related to xenobiotic metabolism and neurodegeneration

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Abstract

Caenorhabditis elegans (*C. elegans*) is a well-established nematode model for studying metabolism and neurodegenerative disorders, such as Alzheimer's (AD) and Parkinson's disease (PD). Non-targeted metabolomics via liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) has proven useful for uncovering metabolic changes in biological systems. Here, we present workflows for *C. elegans* metabolomics, leveraging advanced open science tools. We compared two metabolite extraction methods: a monophasic extraction, which provided broader metabolite coverage in analyses conducted in hydrophilic interaction with positive polarity (HILIC POS), and a biphasic extraction, which yielded more features in reverse-phase C18 chromatography with negative polarity (RPLC NEG) analyses. Data were processed using patRoön, integrating IPO, XCMS, CAMERA, and MetFrag, which incorporated PubChemLite compounds and *C. elegans*-specific metabolites from an expanded WormJam database enhanced with PubChem and literature sources. MS-DIAL was also employed for data processing, allowing for expanded annotations with predicted spectra for the expanded WormJam metabolites calculated using CFM-ID. Significant metabolite differences were identified when comparing the Bristol (N2) wildtype strain with two knockout strains of xenobiotic-metabolizing enzymes and two transgenic strains related to neurodegenerative

pathways. Pooled quality control (QC) samples for each strain ensured robust data quality and the detection of strain-related metabolites. Our study indicates the potential of non-targeted metabolomics for metabolite discovery employing open science tools in metabolomics studies of model organisms.

Keywords

Untargeted metabolomics; exposomics; CYP enzyme mutant; FMO enzyme mutant; SV2C expression; Tau aggregation.

1. Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) and Parkinson's disease (PD) are the most prevalent neurodegenerative diseases, affecting millions worldwide, characterised by complex biological mechanisms [1]. The aetiology involves an interplay of genetic and environmental factors, with a prolonged latency between initial triggers and symptom onset [2, 3]. Understanding the biological mechanisms underlying these diseases is crucial for developing therapeutic interventions. However, human studies are constrained by long disease progression timespan, ethical issues, and limited access to relevant sample material, such as brain tissues and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). Model organisms, therefore, offer valuable alternatives for investigating these neurodegenerative processes. The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans*) has emerged as a robust model for studying various biological processes, including neurodegeneration [4]. Its advantages include a short lifespan, which enables rapid experimental manipulations and observations [5], and a fully sequenced genome, which shares approximately 60–80% homology with human genes, with many involved in neurodegeneration [6–8]. Moreover, the simpler nervous system, with fewer neurons compared to mammals, reduces complexity and enhances experimental precision while retaining disease relevance [4].

Mutant *C. elegans* strains are increasingly accessible for modeling neurodegenerative disease progression and related exposome factors. For example, wild-type strains serve as baselines for understanding biological processes under physiological conditions. Knockout strains targeting xenobiotic metabolizing enzymes—such as mutations affecting cytochrome P450 expression [9] or multidomain flavoprotein monooxygenase (FMO) activity [10]—enable investigations into chemical metabolism. Transgenic strains modelling aspects of PD and AD, such as those overexpressing

tyrosine hydroxylase in dopaminergic neurons (PD-related) [11, 12] or pro-aggregation tau fragments (AD-related) [13], provide critical insights into the molecular mechanisms underlying these disorders.

In the omics cascade founded on the central dogma of molecular biology, the genome encompasses all genetic information, while the metabolome comprises all small molecules within an organism. While genomics reveals what “*can* possibly happen”, metabolomics reflects “what *has* actually happened,” providing direct insights into the phenotype [14–16]. The *C. elegans* genome has been fully characterised [6], and several recent efforts have been made to characterize its metabolome. The WormJam consensus model, established through community collaboration, integrated and curated multiple metabolic network reconstructions, offering an extensive data source of *C. elegans*-specific metabolic pathways and metabolites [17]. In parallel, PubChem’s taxonomy pages compile species-specific data including those for *C. elegans* [18, 19]. Moreover, a list of metabolites related to *C. elegans* was curated from a literature review [20]. These rapid research advancements underscore the need for open source, collaborative workflows to ensure continuous updates and knowledge sharing.

Investigating metabolomic alterations in disease-related transgenic strains is of particular interest for understanding the disease-related biochemistry. To accomplish this, metabolomics strategies are broadly categorized into *targeted* approaches, which focuses on accurate and sensitive quantification of a known set of metabolites, and *non-targeted* approaches, which aim to detect and screen as many metabolites as possible. While non-targeted metabolomics offers broad exploratory potential, it presents challenges across the workflow, from sample preparation to compound annotation—the latter being a primary bottleneck in non-targeted workflows [21]. Various extraction methods have been applied to maximize metabolite recovery and coverage from *C. elegans* in non-targeted studies. Monophasic solvent extraction ranged from methanol [22–28], acetonitrile [29], or a combination of both [30, 31]. Biphasic extraction methods have also been used to separate polar and non-polar compounds. Traditional protocols from Folch et al. and from Bligh & Dyer utilize chloroform, methanol, and water for lipid analyses [25, 32–35]. More recently, the Matyash method, substituting chloroform with methyl-tert-butyl-ether (MTBE) [26, 36], has gained traction. For instrumental analysis, liquid chromatography (LC) coupled with high-resolution tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) remains one of the preferred analytical approaches due to its versatility in accommodating various chromatographic conditions—reversed phase (RPLC) and hydrophilic interaction (HILIC)—and mass spectrometry polarity modes (positive and negative ionizations) [20].

The most challenging aspect of non-targeted metabolomics is data processing and compound annotation [21]. To address this, open source tools have been developed [37–39]. Among them, patRoan is an R-package that streamlines the use of multiple established algorithms for non-targeted data processing, although primarily with an environmental focus and increasingly applicable to metabolomics [40, 41]. MS-DIAL is another widely implemented tool, which specializes in metabolomics and lipidomics analyses, visualization, and interpretation [42]. Metabolite annotation typically involves matching experimental mass fragmentation patterns against spectral libraries of known compounds or against fragmentation patterns predicted from *in silico* fragmentation simulations, usually produced from a list of chemicals retrieved via mass or formula from compound databases. MS-DIAL encompasses a large spectral library with more than 15,000 unique molecules (MSP) [43]. PubChem, a comprehensive open chemistry database, contains >119 million small molecules [18]. However, considering all these molecules can lead to irrelevant annotations and unnecessary computational burden. PubChemLite was developed as an exposomics-relevant subset of PubChem, optimizing candidate selection for chemical annotation [44, 45], and has been integrated into workflows such as patRoan. Further refinement is possible by incorporating organism-specific resources, such as *C. elegans*-specific metabolite databases.

Taken together, the primary aim of this work was to establish a comprehensive experimental and data-processing pipeline for *C. elegans* metabolomics. For a pilot and exploratory investigation, this pipeline leverages state-of-the-art open source cheminformatics tools to optimize metabolite extraction, data processing, and annotation. Specifically, the workflow was designed to address the unique challenge of analysing knockout strains deficient in xenobiotic-metabolizing enzymes and transgenic strains associated with neurodegenerative diseases. By integrating advanced analytical strategies with a comprehensive data interpretation framework, this study seeks to provide reference data for future studies aiming for enhanced accuracy and efficiency in characterizing the *C. elegans* metabolome, uncovering exposome-biology interplay, and ultimately, resolving etiologic causes and disease mechanisms.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. *Caenorhabditis elegans*: strains, culturing, and synchronization

Five *C. elegans* strains were selected for their relevance in neurobiological and neurotoxicological research. These included: wildtype Bristol (“N2”), serving as the baseline for physiological comparisons; two knockout strains of xenobiotic metabolizing enzymes (“VC40”: CYP enzyme

mutant, genotype *cyp-13A7(gk31) II*; and “VC1668”: a flavin-containing monooxygenase (FMO) enzyme mutant with the genotype *fmo-2(ok2147) IV* [46]; two transgenic strains related to neurodegeneration (“UA57”: PD-related, expresses the ortholog of tyrosine hydroxylase in dopamine neurons, genotype *bals4 [dat-1p::GFP + dat-1p::CAT-2]*; and “BR5270”: AD-related, pan-neuronal over-expression of the pro aggregation fragment of human Tau, Model of AD, severe tauopathies, genotype: *byls161 [rab-3p::F3(delta)K280 + myo-2p::mCherry]*).

Worms were grown at 20°C on NGM agar plates seeded with UV-treated *Escherichia coli* OP50 (Stiernagle, 2006). After ~5 days, gravid worms (post-L4 stage) were synchronized via hypochlorite bleaching. For each strain, worms were washed off four plates with 4 mL sterile M9 buffer per plate, pooled into a 15 mL conical tube, and allowed to settle for 5 min. The supernatant was removed, and ~2.5 mL of worm suspension was split into two 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes. After centrifugation (max speed, 1 min), the supernatant was discarded, and 1 mL of bleach solution was added. Tubes were vortexed (30 sec) and monitored under a dissecting microscope until only eggs remained. Eggs were pelleted by centrifugation (15,000 rpm, 1 min), washed three times with M9 buffer to remove bleach, and resuspended in 100 µL M9. The suspension was pipetted onto a seeded 10 cm NGM plate, left to dry under a biosafety cabinet, and incubated at 20°C for hatching. Hatched worms were considered synchronized.

Hatched L1 worms were cultured at 20 °C for 48 hours until the majority reached the L4 larval stage (young adult with discernible vulva). Worms were then washed from the NGM plates with M9 buffer and subjected to flow cytometric sorting using a COPAS Flow Pilot FP-250 system (Union Biometrica, MA, USA). L4-stage worms were sorted based on an established gating strategy [47] and collected into 300 worms per tube. For each strain, corresponding M9 blanks were prepared by collecting the supernatant after one-minute centrifugation of the worm suspension. Both sorted worms and M9 blanks were snap-frozen and stored at -80 °C.

2.2. Metabolite extraction

Two metabolite extraction schemes were independently applied to all strains. Scheme 1 utilized a monophasic protocol [29, 48, 49], while Scheme 2 followed a biphasic approach [36, 50].

2.2.1. Scheme 1

For each strain, four worm replicates and duplicate M9 blanks were extracted, along with pooled quality control (QC) and method blanks (from 100 µL LC-MS grade water). Frozen samples were thawed on ice and reduced to 100 µL by centrifugation (2,000 rpm, 1 min) with 200 µL of the M9

supernatant removed. Zirconium oxide beads (~20) were added, followed by 200 μ L of ice-cold acetonitrile containing internal standards (SPLASH® LIPIDOMIX®, Avanti Research), achieving a 2:1 (v/v) acetonitrile:aqueous ratio. Samples were vortexed (30 sec), homogenized on a bead beater (5 min, max speed, air-cooled), and equilibrated at -20°C for 30 min. After centrifugation (15,000 \times g, 10 min), supernatants were split into 100 μ L raw extracts and 100 μ L dried extracts (via SpeedVac). QC pools were prepared by combining 50 μ L from each replicate (total 200 μ L), then split into raw and dried aliquots (100 μ L each).

2.2.2. Scheme 2

Similarly, four worm replicates and duplicate M9 blanks were extracted per strain, along with QC and method blanks. Samples were thawed on ice, reduced to 100 μ L (2,000 rpm, 1 min), and combined with zirconium oxide beads (~20). Each tube was added with 225 μ L of ice-cold methanol containing internal standards (SPLASH® LIPIDOMIX® Mass Spec Standard, Avanti Research), followed by vortexing (10 sec). Subsequently, 750 μ L of methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE) was added, and samples were homogenized (10 min, max speed, air-cooled). After adding 188 μ L of LC-MS grade water and vortexing (20 sec), samples were centrifuged (14,000 \times g, 2 min) to separate phases. A total of 250 μ L of the upper (MTBE:methanol) phase and 100 μ L of the lower (methanol:water) phase were collected. QC pools were prepared by combining 100 μ L from each replicate for the upper phase (400 μ L total) and 50 μ L from each for the lower phase (200 μ L total). Each pool was split equally into raw and dried extracts (e.g., 200 μ L raw and dried for upper; 100 μ L raw and dried for lower). All samples (scheme 1 and scheme 2, raw and dried) were shipped from Columbia University (U.S.A.) to the University of Luxembourg on dry ice with a world courier. In the present paper, results are reported only for the dry samples, while analyses also on raw samples are reported in the external repository [51].

2.3. LC-MS/MS analyses

Dried scheme 1 samples and dried scheme 2 bottom-phase samples were resuspended in 100 μ L of acetonitrile:water solution (50:50), while scheme 2 dried upper phase samples were resuspended in 100 μ L of acetonitrile. All samples were vortexed for 30 seconds and transferred to autosampler vials for analysis.

Instrumental analyses followed a previously published method [52] with modifications. Samples were analyzed using reverse-phase liquid chromatography with negative polarity mode (RPLC NEG) and hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography with positive mode (HILIC POS). For RPLC NEG, 5 μ L of each sample was injected into the HPLC system (Thermo Scientific Accela LC system) equipped with a Waters Acquity CSH C18 column (100 \times 2.1mm, 1.7 μ m) and a Acquity CSH C18

VanGuard precolumn (5 x 2.1 mm, 1.7 μ m). Metabolites were separated with a linear gradient consisting of two mobile phases: the A phase was a solution of 40% water and 60% acetonitrile containing 10 mM ammonium acetate, while the B phase was a solution of 90% isopropanol and 10% acetonitrile containing 10 mM ammonium acetate. A constant flow rate of 400 μ L/min was applied, and the percentage of the B phase changed as follows: from 15% to 30% between 0 to 2 min; 30 to 48%, 2 to 2.5 min; 48% to 82%, 2.5 to 11 min; 82% to 99%, 11 to 11.5 min; held constant 99%, 11.5 to 12 min, then 99% to 15%, 12 to 12.1 min; held constant at 15%, 12.1 to 15 min. The autosampler was kept at 4 $^{\circ}$ C, while the column was kept at 65 $^{\circ}$ C. After the chromatographic separation, the flow was delivered to a mass spectrometer (Q ExactiveTM HF, Thermo Scientific) operating in electrospray ionization (ESI) negative mode; for each scan cycle, a full mass scan was carried out (scan range from 60 to 900 m/z; resolution 120,000; AGC target 1e6, Maximum IT 70ms) followed by a top 10 data-dependent MS² experiment (isolation window: 1 m/z, collision energy: 30V, resolution 30000, dynamic exclusion 10 sec, AGC target 1e5, Maximum IT 70ms). For HILIC POS, 5 μ L of each sample was injected onto a Waters Acquity BEH Amide column (150 x 2.1 mm, 1.7 μ m), equipped also with a Acquity BEH Amide VanGuard precolum (5 x 2.1 mm, 1.7 μ m). The A phase was a solution of 10 mM ammonium formate and 0.125% formic acid in water, while B phase was a solution of 10mM ammonium formate and 0.125% formic acid in water:acetonitrile (5:95). A linear gradient at a constant flow rate of 400 μ L/min was run with the follow B phase percentage: constant 100%, from 0 to 2 min; 100% to 70%, 2 to 7.7 min; 70% to 40%, 7.7 to 9.5 min; 40% to 30%, 9.5 to 10.25 min; 30% to 100%, 10.25 to 12.75 min; constant 100%, 12.75 to 17 min. The autosampler was kept at 4 $^{\circ}$ C while the column was kept at 45 $^{\circ}$ C. The mass spectrometer operated in ESI positive mode; for each scan cycle, a full mass scan was carried out (scan range from 60 to 900 m/z; resolution 60000; AGC target 1e6, Maximum IT 70ms) followed by a top 5 data-dependent MS² experiment (isolation window: 1 m/z, collision energy: 20V, resolution 30000, dynamic exclusion 10 sec, AGC target 1e5, Maximum IT 70ms).

Scheme 1 samples were analysed both with the RPLC NEG and HILIC POS methods, while scheme 2 upper phase samples were analysed only with the RPLC NEG method, and scheme 2 bottom phase samples were analysed only with the HILIC POS method.

2.4. Data processing

Raw files were converted to the open mzML format using MSConvertGUI (ProteoWizard, version: 3.0.22108-f83e548) [53], with peak-picking filter, vendor algorithm, and all MS levels enabled. These files were then processed both with patRoan (version 2.3.1) [40, 41] and MS-DIAL (version

5.1.230912) [42]. Data analysis in R (version 4.3.1) [54] with the RStudio interface (2023.06.1) utilized the tidyverse package (version 2.0.0) [55].

A custom *C. elegans* metabolite collection, termed “WormJam expanded” hereafter, was compiled from the WormJam database [17], PubChem *C. elegans*-related metabolites [19] and literature-sourced metabolites [20], as documented in an RMarkdown file [56].

2.4.1. patRoön

The following data analyses were carried out using different functions from the patRoön R-package. Specifically, the features, i.e. signals with a defined m/z ratio and retention time, were extracted and aligned using the “xcms3” algorithm [57–59]. The XCMS parameters were selected by running the IPO algorithm [60] on pooled quality control samples; the componentisation, i.e., grouping features likely originated from or related to the same molecule by isotope patterns and adducts, was conducted using the CAMERA algorithm [61]. Then, after retrieving the MS/MS peak list within patRoön, annotation was performed with MetFrag [62] considering two databases separately: PubChemLite (Version 1.19.0) [45, 63] and the “WormJam expanded” collection [56]. Details of all the parameters and processing workflow used can be found in the R-scripts available in a publicly available GitHub repository [64].

2.4.2. MS-DIAL

The parameters used for data processing in MS-DIAL (version 5.1.230912) were: ionization type: soft ionization, separation type: chromatography, MS method type: conventional LC/MS or data dependent, collision type: CID/HCD, data type: centroid data, target omics lipidomics (for RPLC NEG) and metabolomics (for HILIC POS), MS1 accuracy tolerance: 0.02 Da, MS2 accuracy tolerance: 0.025 Da, minimum peak height: 1000 amplitude, mass slice width: 0.1 Da. For annotation, the MSMS_Public_EXP_NEG_VS17 and the MSMS_Public_ExpBioInsilico_NEG_VS17 (in negative) and the MSMS_Public_EXP_POS_VS17 (in positive) MSP libraries were used, MS1 accurate mass tolerance: 0.02, MS2 accurate mass tolerance: 0.05, dot product score cut off: 50, weighted dot product score cut off: 100, reverse dot product score cut off: 100, matched spectrum percentage: 0%, minimum number of matched spectrum: 1. The adducts considered were $[M-H]^-$, $[M-H_2O-H]^-$, $[M+Na-2H]^+$, $[M+HCOO-H]^-$, $[M+CH_3COO-H]^-$, $[M+CH_3COONa-H]^-$ (in negative) and $[M+H]^+$, $[M+NH_4]^+$, $[M+Na]^+$, $[M+CH_3OH+H]^+$, $[M+K]^+$, $[M+ACN+H]^+$, $[M+H-H_2O]^+$ (in positive). Analyses were aligned against a pooled quality control file, with retention time tolerance of 0.1 min, MS1 tolerance of 0.02 Da, retention time, and MS1 factor of 0.5. Manual curation was performed for the significant

compounds before exporting the area intensity table, which was used for further elaboration and statistical analyses.

Additionally, the MS-DIAL processing was repeated with the same parameters, using MSP libraries created by *in silico* fragmentation the compounds in the WormJam expanded database. The function "cfm-predict" of the Competitive Fragmentation Modeling tool CFM-ID [65–68] was used through Docker Desktop to predict mass spectral fragments from the SMILES of the WormJam expanded compounds. The *in silico* fragmentation was performed separately in positive and negative mode, each considering three collision energies (low or “energy0”, 10 V; medium or “energy1”, 20 V; high or “energy2”, 40 V). Intensity weights were applied to combine fragments obtained with the three collision energies: energy0, energy1, and energy2 were weighted 10%, 80%, and 10% in positive (since HILIC POS analyses were carried out with a collision energy of 20V); and 10%, 45%, and 45% in negative (since collision energy in RPLC NEG were 30V) modes respectively. The resulting positive and negative MSP libraries were exported and used for the MS-DIAL re-analysis. The code created to perform this elaboration is publicly available [64].

2.4.3. Feature processing, statistical and pathway analysis

A summary of all the experimental and data analyses workflow is shown in Figure 1, while all the R-scripts written to perform all the data elaborations, statistical analyses, visualisations, and pathway analyses are publicly available [64]. The annotated compounds were ranked according to the confidence levels (‘2a’, ‘2b’, ‘3a’, ‘3b’, ‘3c’, ‘4a’, ‘5’) in particular using MoNAScore cut-offs in patRoom, and dot product and fragment presence cut-offs in MS-DIAL, as previously reported [69, 70]. Every feature table was filtered considering the pooled quality controls: in particular, separately for each pooled QC type of sample, only features that were present in at least 50% of QC samples, that have a relative standard deviation less than 50% in QCs, and a blank contribution (the ratio of average intensity in blanks and QCs) less than 50% were considered as biologically plausible. Then, every feature that passed this check in at least one QC sample type was retained and considered for the following statistical analyses [71]. Data intensities from each feature that passed the pooled QC check were transformed as follows: missing values were replaced by 1/5 of the minimum intensity, then they were log-transformed (base 10) and Pareto-scaled (mean subtracted and divided by the squared root of the standard deviation). Afterwards, one-way ANOVA was performed on transformed intensities for each feature, considering the five sample groups (N2, VC40, VC1668, UA57, and BR5270); pairwise group comparison was performed with the Fisher’s LSD post-hoc test implementing the agricolae package [72]; false discovery rate (FDR) correction was also applied on

the ANOVA p -values [73], and an FDR p -values less than 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. Separate statistical analyses were conducted for each extraction procedure, for both RPLC NEG and HILIC POS.

Chemical information was retrieved using the R-packages “RChemMass” [74], “webchem” [75], “classyfireR” [76], and “metaboliteIDmapping” [77]. Eulero-venn diagrams were created with the “eulerr” package [78] and the “ggven” package [79], to compare the features among the different sample extraction procedures; similarly, an upset plot was also built using the “UpSetR” package [80]. SankeyNetwork graphs, with the “networkD3” package [81], were built to visualise the different categories of annotated compounds. A dedicated graph was created to visualise the presence of annotated compounds among the different procedures and to visualise which of those were statistically significantly different from the control group, using the packages “ggplot” [55], “patchwork” [82], “grid” and “gridExtra” [83]. For each compound, the KEGG code was assigned using metaboliteIDmapping [77] and, if there was no correspondence, it was manually retrieved from the PubChem page of that molecule, if present; then, considering statistically significant metabolites for which a KEGG code was found, a pathway enrichment analyses was performed with the “FELLA” R-package [84], after building KEGG knowledge model from the “cel” (*C. elegans*, nematode) organism.

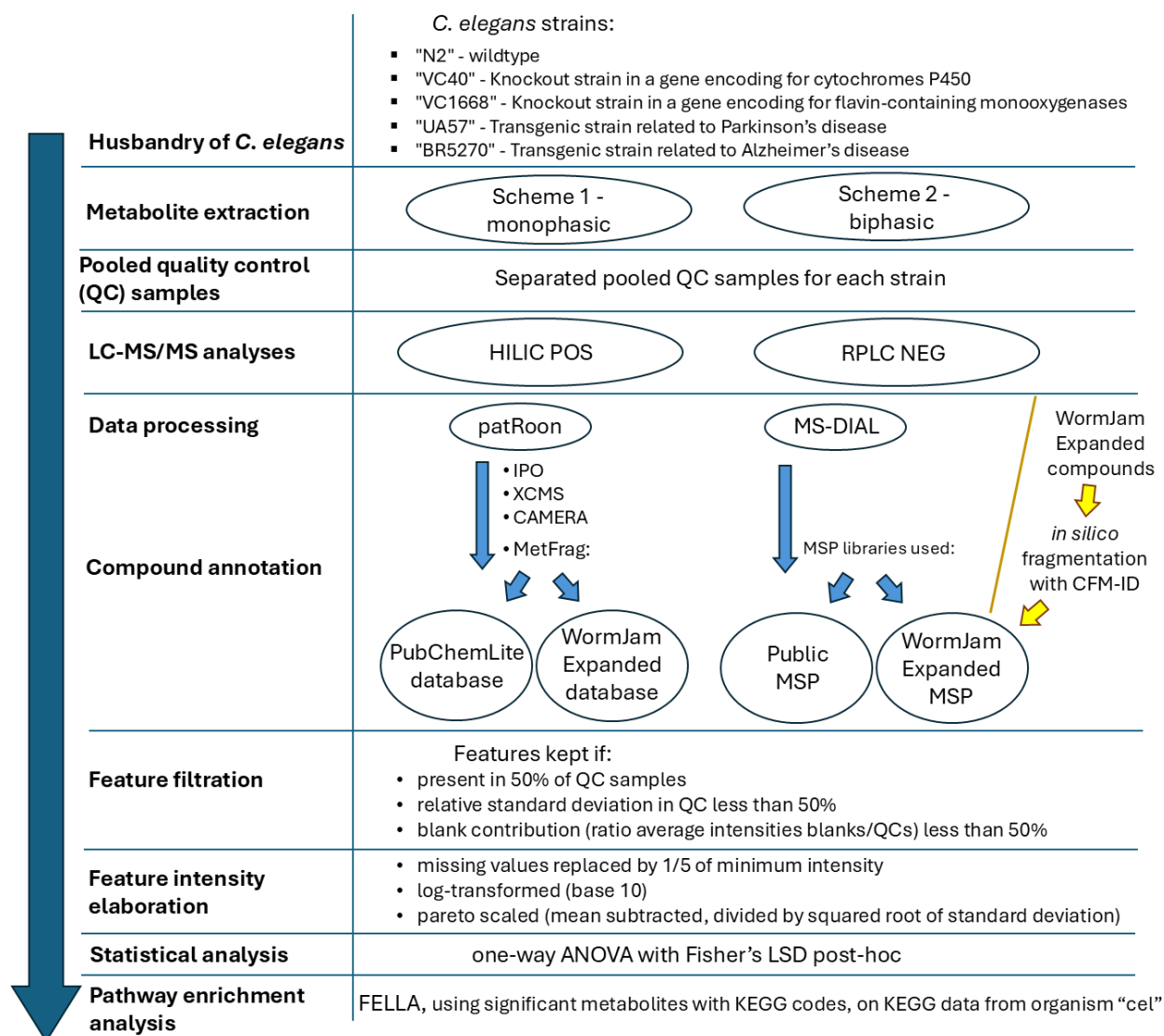


Figure 1. An overview of the experimental and data analysis workflow, as detailed in the Materials and Methods section. Circles represent steps performed in parallel, with results subsequently compared for comprehensive analysis.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Sample preparation schemes

Considering the various data processing workflows, distinct feature tables were generated using patRoön and MS-DIAL for both RPLC NEG and HILIC POS analyses. Features were filtered based on their consistency in QC samples to retain only biologically plausible features. The number of features retained at each processing step, including the different sample preparation schemes, is summarized in Figure 2.

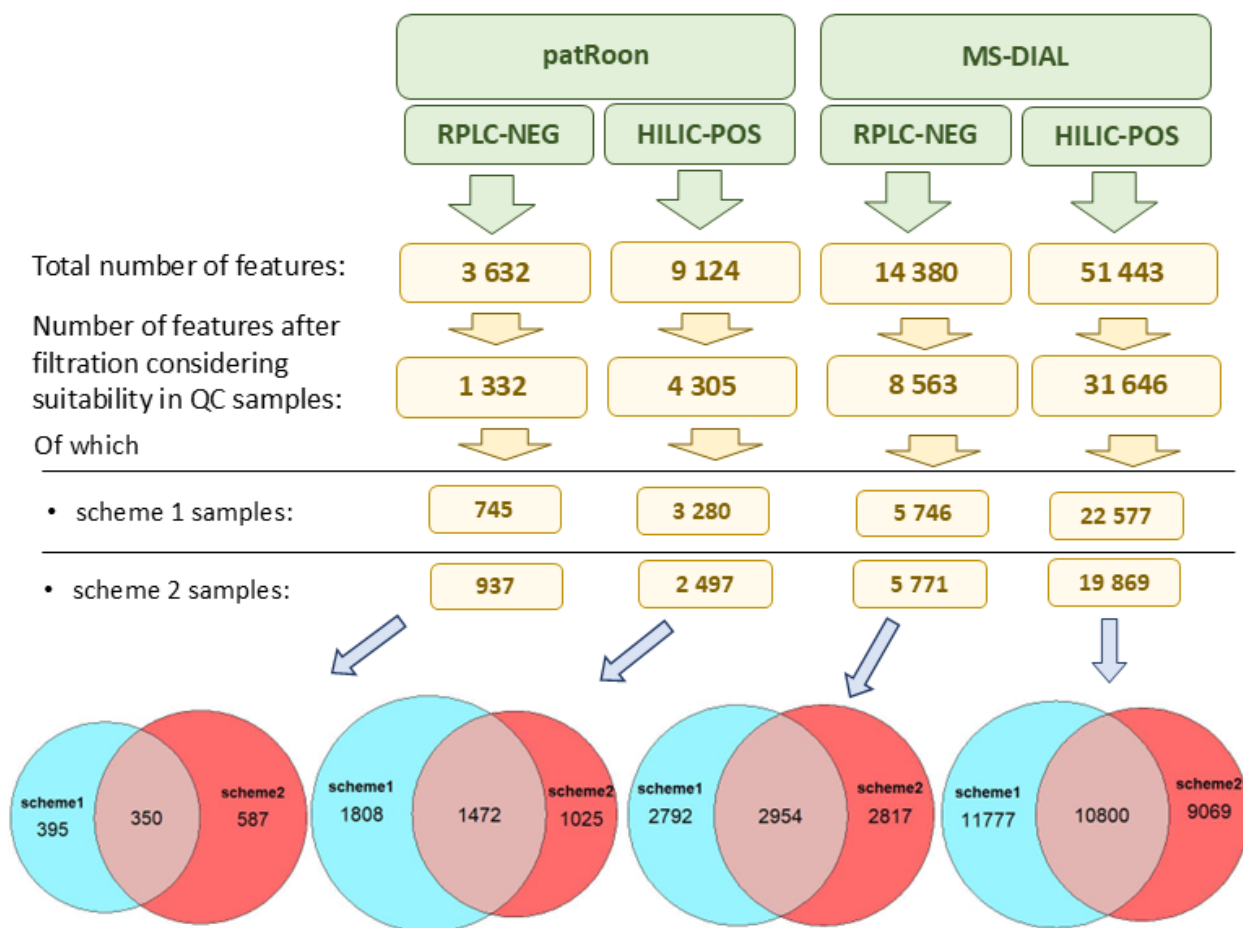


Figure 2. Summary of feature counts obtained across different analytical setups—RPLC NEG and HILIC POS—using either patRoön or MS-DIAL. Initial feature counts were refined by applying pooled QC filtering. The lower section shows the number of features passing the QC check for each sample preparation scheme, while Euler-Venn diagrams depict feature overlaps among the schemes.

Here, we compared the biologically plausible features across analytical steps. Among features that passed the pooled QC check, a higher number was detected in HILIC POS analyses (4,305 with patRoön and 31,646 with MS-DIAL) compared with RPLC NEG (1,332 using patRoön and 8,563 with MS-DIAL). In terms of extraction schemes, differences emerged depending on the analytical setup and processing tool. For RPLC NEG analyses, the biphasic extraction (scheme 2) yielded a higher number of plausible features when processed with patRoön (937 features in scheme 2 compared to 745 in scheme 1), while feature counts were comparable in MS-DIAL (5,771 and 5,746). In contrast, HILIC POS analyses favoured scheme 1: when processed with patRoön, scheme 1 resulted in 3,280 features, surpassing scheme 2 with 2,497 features; similarly, MS-DIAL processing yielded 22,577 features for scheme 1 and 19,869 for scheme 2.

Although there was substantial overlap in features detected among extraction schemes, certain features were unique to specific methods. In patRoön-processed RPLC NEG data, scheme 2 had more unique features (587). Conversely, for HILIC POS analyses, scheme 1 exhibited greater uniqueness, with 1,808 features exclusive to this extraction method. Overall, the results suggest that biphasic scheme 2 is more suitable for RPLC analyses, while monophasic scheme 1 performs better with HILIC analyses.

Our findings align with the observations of Geiger et al., who reported significant differences in feature counts across extraction strategies for *C. elegans* in RPLC NEG: their results underscored the critical role of solvent choice, despite using different solvent combinations (80% methanol in water vs. chloroform/methanol) [25]. In contrast, a previous study that investigated reproducibility and yield of tissue extraction procedures, although not in *C. elegans*, suggested monophasic extraction for the concurrent analysis of polar and non-polar metabolites [85]. Moleenars and co-workers developed and validated a simple biphasic extraction (using water:methanol:chloroform 1:1:2) for *C. elegans* metabolomics and lipidomics. Their comparison of lipidomics outcomes indicated that most lipids were consistently detected across methods, but some lipid subclasses displayed extraction-specific patterns. For instance, lysophosphatidylethanolamines were uniquely identified in monophasic extracts (using methanol:chloroform 1:1), while bis(monoacylglycero)phosphates and other low-abundance lipids were better captured using biphasic extraction [34].

Regarding instrumental method choice, although implementing all four combinations of chromatographic methods (RPLC and HILIC) and mass spectrometry polarities (negative and positive) maximizes metabolite coverage [86, 87], in this work, we combined RPLC NEG and HILIC POS only to balance throughput and metabolite coverage, following prior recommendations [88].

When comparing feature detection tools, MS-DIAL consistently detected a higher number of features than patRoön (XCMS algorithm), a trend also reported by [70]. However, Li et al. (2018) observed the opposite in their study, finding XCMS to yield both a higher number of features and more reliable results compared to MS-DIAL [89]. These discrepancies highlight the importance of employing multiple data processing tools for non-targeted metabolomics, as their combined use and cross-reference can enhance biomarker discovery and reduce methodological bias [89].

3.2. Compound annotation strategies

Following feature and mass spectral processing with MS-DIAL and patRoön, extensive comparisons were conducted. The number of annotated features across chromatographic runs, sample

preparation schemes, and annotation strategies—grouped by annotation levels—are detailed in supplementary figures S1-S13. Combining results from RPLC NEG and HILIC POS analyses across both sample preparation schemes, a total of 821 unique compounds were annotated at level 3 or above. Specifically, 738 compounds were uniquely annotated using MS-DIAL with the Public MSP, 102 with MS-DIAL and the WormJam MSP, 34 using patRoön with PubChemLite, and 29 with patRoön and WormJam. A visual summary of these results is presented in Figure 3, with an accompanying upset plot provided in supplementary figure S14. Full details of the annotated compounds are available in supplementary table S1.

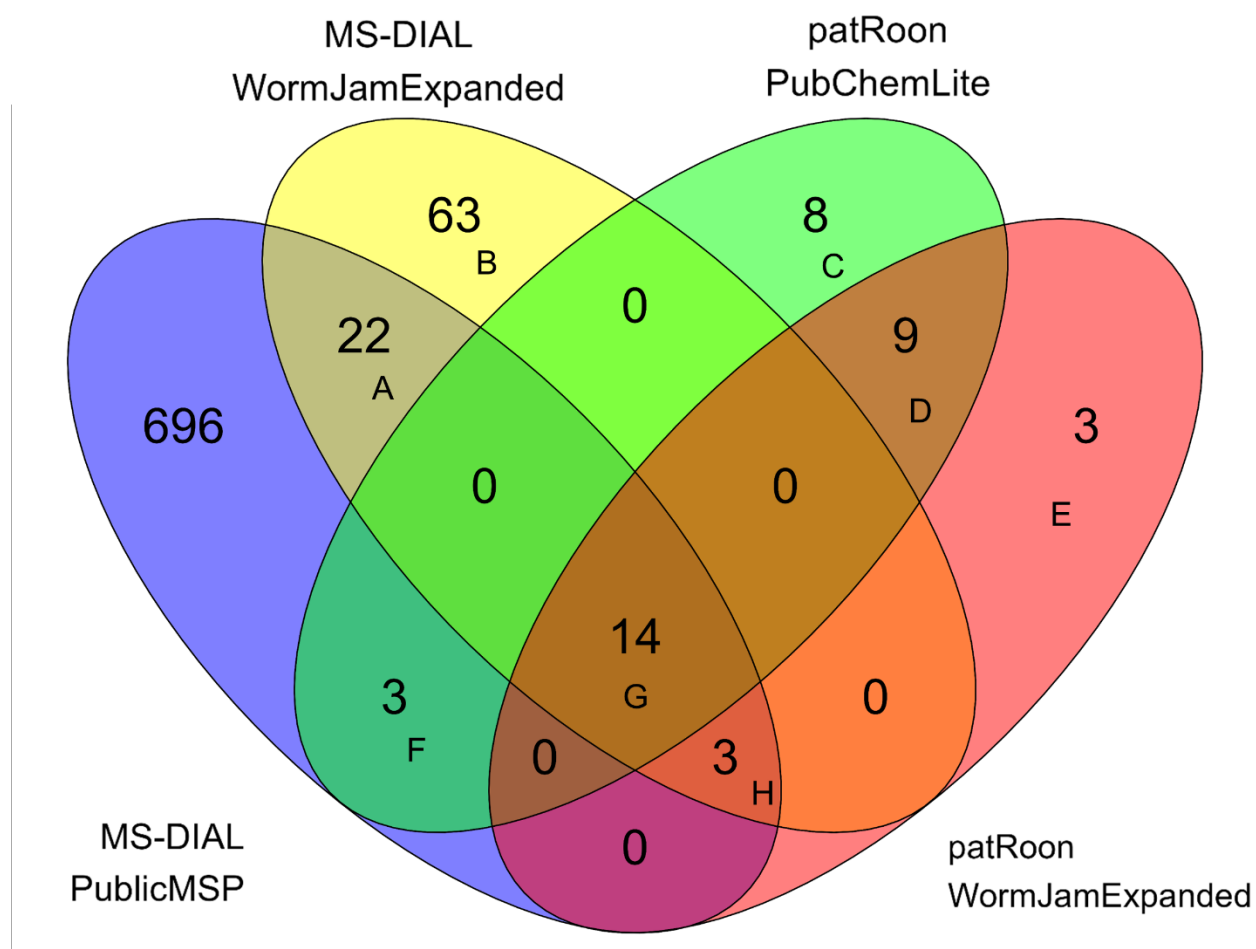


Figure 3. Euler-Venn diagram illustrating the unique compounds annotated at level 3 or above. The results integrate all sample preparation schemes and chromatographic runs, and are grouped by the four annotation strategies applied, highlighting intersections among them. The compounds contained in the overlaps are (click embedded hyperlink): A: ([22 compounds](#)), B: ([63 compounds](#)), C: ([8 compounds](#)), D: ([9 compounds](#)), E: ([3 compounds](#)), F: ([3 compounds](#)), G: ([14 compounds](#)), H: ([3 compounds](#)).

Supplementary figure S15 presents a sankeyNetwork graph summarizing the distribution of annotated compound classes. According to ClassyFire classification, among compounds annotated at level 3 or above, 195 compounds (23.8%) belonged to the superclass of organoheterocyclic compounds, 164 (20.0%) were organic acids and derivatives—of which 111 were amino acids, peptides, or analogues—141 (17.2%) were lipids or lipid-like molecules, including 79 fatty acyls, and 106 (12.9%) were benzenoids. Since most compounds were annotated with MS-DIAL, a separate sankeyNetwork graph related only to the 40 compounds annotated with patRoön is also reported in supplementary figure S16. Among these, 13 compounds (32.5%) were organic acids and derivatives, including 10 amino acids and derivatives; 7 (17.5%) were nucleosides, nucleotides, and analogues; 6 (15.0%) were organoheterocyclic compounds; and 5 (12.5%) were lipids and lipid-like molecules, all classified as fatty acyls.

While MS-DIAL yielded a substantially higher number of annotated compounds, some unreliable annotations were noted, such as methylpyrrolidine and deethylatrazine—exogenous compounds unlikely to be present in these samples. However, employing in MS-DIAL the *in silico* MSP libraries generated from the WormJam expanded database significantly improved annotation reliability: although the number of compounds annotated using these *in silico* libraries was lower compared to public MSP libraries, unreliable annotations were notably absent, suggesting that dedicated MSP libraries can enhance the accuracy of candidate annotations in MS-DIAL. For patRoön, most annotated compounds overlapped between PubChemLite and WormJam expanded databases, although a few unique compounds were identified with PubChemLite. This highlights the complementary value of combining multiple annotation resources to improve compound identification confidence.

3.3. Metabolite differences across *C. elegans* strains

ANOVA tests were performed to assess biological differences among the *C. elegans* strains. An overview of all statistically significant features, including their annotation levels, is given in supplementary Fig S1-13, while detailed information on significantly different compounds annotated at level 3 or above is provided in supplementary Table S2. In RPLC NEG analyses, more significant features were identified in samples extracted with scheme 1 compared to scheme 2 (105 vs 71 with patRoön, and 182 vs 98 with MS-DIAL). For HILIC POS analyses, significant feature counts were similar between schemes using patRoön (148 vs 166), while MS-DIAL identified more significant features in scheme 1 (363 vs 233). Considering all extractions schemes, analytical modes (RPLC NEG and HILIC POS), and data processing tools (patRoön and with MS-DIAL), a total of 87 unique

compounds were significantly different among strains and annotated at least at level 3, as reported in supplementary table S2. The following section focuses on those 87 features.

Among these 87 compounds, 28 were annotated at confidence level 2a, 15 at level 3a, 43 at level 3b, and 1 at level 3c. According to ClassyFire classification, 24 compounds were fatty acyls, 18 were carboxylic acids and derivatives (17 of subclass amino acids, peptides, and analogues) and 16 were glycerophospholipids. A complete overview of the compound classification is presented in supplementary figure S17. Figure 4 provides a visualization of the significantly different compounds annotated at level 3 or above. Additionally, for each significant compound, individual boxplots illustrating the distribution across strain groups are provided in supplementary data 2.



Figure 4. A visual summary of compounds annotated at level 3 or above that were significantly different among the analysed groups. Compounds are sorted by FDR-corrected ANOVA p -values (lowest at the top). The central panel indicates the analysis types in which these compounds were detected and annotated, while the right-hand graph displays Fisher's LSD pairwise comparisons between the wildtype group (N2) and

other sample groups: white cells represent no significant difference, red indicates significantly higher intensity in N2, and blue denotes significantly lower intensity in N2, with deeper shades indicating stronger significance (lower *p*-value).

As shown in the left panel of Figure 4, the combined use of multiple extraction schemes, analysis type (HILIC POS and RPLC NEG), and data annotation strategies (patRoan and MS-DIAL) enabled a broader coverage of significant annotated compounds. Notably, RPLC NEG analyses with MS-DIAL—particularly for samples prepared with scheme 1—captured the majority of lipid compounds. This aligns with the recognition of MS-DIAL for lipidomic analysis [42, 90].

Among the 87 statistically significant compounds (annotated at level 3 or above), 47 valid KEGG codes were available and thus used for enrichment analysis using the FELLA package. Results of the comprehensive enrichment analysis, considering all significant annotated compounds, are reported in table S3 and in figure S18. In addition, enrichment analyses focused on significant compounds from the pairwise comparisons between each strain and the wildtype are detailed in supplementary tables S4-S7. The following sections discuss the biological implications of the significant compounds annotated for each knockout and transgenic strain, providing insights into potential metabolic alterations linked to xenobiotic metabolism and neurodegenerative processes.

3.3.1. Knockout strain in a gene encoding cytochrome P450 (“VC40”)

Comparing the wildtype sample group (N2) with the knockout strain “VC40”, 18 annotated compounds were higher in N2, while 10 were lower. The VC40 has a knockout in the *cyp-13A7* gene, which encodes cytochrome P450 enzymes (CYPs). These enzymes catalyse monooxygenase reactions for xenobiotic metabolism [91] and play a role in the biosynthesis and biodegradation of endogenous compounds, including fatty acids [9]. In line with this, several fatty acids were significantly lower in VC40 compared to wildtype, including lysophosphatidylethanolamine (LPE) 17:0, 16:0, 18:1; and fatty acids (FA) 18:1, 17:1, and 15:0. Previous studies have reported that *cyp-13A7* gene is up-regulated in *C. elegans* dauer larvae [92], suggesting that gene silencing could disrupt dauer formation. Notably, spermidine—a polyamine derived from putrescine [93]—was significantly higher in the wildtype group in our study. Putrescine itself is formed via decarboxylation of ornithine and arginine [94], further supporting the notion that the loss of *cyp-13A7* may influence key metabolic pathways related to development and cellular stress responses.

3.3.2. Knockout strain in a gene encoding for flavin-containing monooxygenases (“VC1668”)

In the comparison between wildtype and the “VC1668” knockout strain, 69 annotated compounds were significantly higher in the wildtype group, while only 2 were lower. The VC1668 strain carries a knockout in *fmo-2*, one of five genes in *C. elegans* encoding flavin-containing monooxygenases (FMO)—enzymes that catalyse the oxidation of nucleophilic heteroatom-containing compounds (e.g., nitrogen and sulphur substrates) [95]. FMOs are involved in the oxidation of both xenobiotics and endogenous compounds [96]. Recent research has demonstrated that *fmo-2* plays a role in regulating one-carbon metabolism [97], which encompasses the folate and methionine cycles. Intermediates from these cycles are a focal point for regulating longevity and/or age-related metabolic processes, including transsulfuration and lipid metabolism [98, 99]. Indeed, our analyses revealed significant differences in lipid profiles between the *fmo-2* knockout strain and the wildtype, including LPE 16:0, LPE 17:0, LPE 18:0, LPE 18:1, LPE O-18:0, and some fatty acids. Choi and colleagues confirmed that *fmo-2* expression impacts endogenous metabolism: they performed non-targeted and targeted metabolomics analyses on *C. elegans* comparing wildtype to both *fmo-2* overexpression and *fmo-2* knockout [97] and observed significant differences in polar metabolites, particularly between wildtype and the overexpression strains, such as for homocysteine, s-adenosylmethionine, cystathionine, and pyridoxal 5'-phosphate. Considering the knockout strains (the same strain we analysed), Choi et al. found significantly higher levels of phenylalanine in the wildtype, results in agreement with our analyses. Conversely, we also found significant differences in tryptophan levels, for which Choi et al. did not find a significant difference. Furthermore, Choi et al. proposed that FMO-2 interacts with the target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathway, consistent with our pathway results. These results indicate a link between *fmo-2* activity, metabolic regulation, and broader pathways for cellular growth.

3.3.3. Transgenic strain related to Parkinson’s disease (“UA57”)

For the PD-related transgenic strain “UA57” (*bals4 [dat-1p::GFP + dat-1p::CAT-2]*), 70 annotated compounds were significantly higher in the wildtype group, while 3 were lower. This strain overexpresses the gene *cat-2*, which encodes a protein that is equivalent to mammalian tyrosine hydroxylase, a rate-limiting enzyme in dopamine synthesis. This strain is characterized by dopamine overproduction in dopaminergic neurons and has been used to model key aspects of Parkinson’s disease, specifically dysregulated dopamine homeostasis [11, 12, 100]. Some metabolites identified as significantly altered in this strain have been previously suggested as potential PD biomarkers in human biological fluids (plasma, serum, urine, or cerebrospinal fluid) [101]. These include amino acids such as alanine [102–105], threonine [102, 105], tryptophan [104, 106], leucine/isoleucine

[102, 105], and valine [102]. In addition, metabolites such as spermidine [107] and hypoxanthine [107, 108] were also significantly altered, supporting their potential role in PD-related metabolic dysregulation.

3.3.4. Transgenic strain related to Alzheimer's disease ("BR5270")

In the Alzheimer (AD) related transgenic strain "BR5270," 75 annotated compounds were significantly higher in the wildtype, while 4 were lower. This strain overexpresses the pro-aggregation fragment of tau, leading to tau aggregation and tauopathy-related neurodegeneration. Tau is essential for microtubule stabilization under physiological conditions, but hyperphosphorylation of tau can lead to neurofibrillary tangles—one of the key pathological features of AD [13, 109]. In *C. elegans*, pan-neuronal tau expression induces insoluble, phosphorylated aggregates, causing neurodegeneration and locomotion defects that mirror human tauopathy [110]. Several metabolites that were significantly altered in BR5270 were previously suggested as potential AD biomarkers in human studies [101, 111]. Based on a proposed classification for AD pathophysiology, these include β -amyloid, phospho-tau, or neuronal injury [112]. Specifically, our analyses and previous studies have determined amino acids associated with these pathologies, spanning threonine [113], tryptophan [114–120], valine [113, 114, 121–124], and leucine/isoleucine [124]. Among the other altered metabolites in this strain, choline was found to be a potential disease progression biomarker [121]. Together. Our findings support the relevance of the BR5270 model in recapitulating key metabolic changes associated with AD and highlight potential biomarkers for future investigation.

4. Conclusions

In this work, we developed workflows for non-targeted metabolomics analyses of *C. elegans* samples, leveraging the latest advancements in open science resources. We compared two metabolite extraction schemes: a monophasic approach, which provided broader metabolite coverage particularly in HILIC analyses, and a biphasic approach, which yielded a higher number of features in RPLC analyses. All data were processed using the open source tool patRoön, integrating algorithms such as IPO, XCMS, CAMERA, and MetFrag. Compound annotation with MetFrag utilized two chemical databases, PubChemLite and expanded WormJam databases, incorporating *C. elegans*-specific metabolites curated from PubChem and the literature. In addition, data were processed using the open software MS-DIAL, which enabled the annotation of a larger number of compounds, particularly when implementing the public MSP libraries. To enhance annotation reliability and coverage, we generated MSP libraries by *in silico* fragmentation of compounds from

the expanded WormJam using CFM-ID. Although this approach yielded fewer candidates compared to public MSP libraries, it resulted in more reliable annotations, demonstrated by the absence of unreliable candidates detected with public MSPs in MS-DIAL. Significant metabolite differences were observed when comparing knockout strains of xenobiotic-metabolizing enzymes and transgenic strains related to neurodegenerative diseases, with results generally aligning with existing literature. The use of strain-specific pooled quality control samples ensured high data quality and facilitated the accurate detection of strain-related metabolites. Overall, the non-targeted approach described in this work may be valuable for metabolite discovery and/or hypothesis generation, paving ways for follow-up sensitive, targeted analyses that are equally essential for validation and in-depth etiologic investigation.

Data availability

The expanded WormJam chemical list and related MSP libraries, the raw files of LC-MS/MS analyses, and all the tables of features and following elaborations are reported in a Zenodo repository [51]. All the code written for data elaboration are available in a GitHub repository [64]. The code to produce the WormJam extended database is available on GitLab [56].

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Author contribution

GF, YL, ELS, and GWM conceived the study. YL cultured the worms and extracted the metabolites. GF conducted the LC-MS/MS analyses, wrote the code to perform the elaboration of the data, statistical and pathway analyses, and data visualization. ELS wrote the code to compile the WormJam extended collection. GF wrote the draft of the manuscript, with YL writing the “Husbandry of *C. elegans*” and “Metabolite extraction” sections. All authors critically revised the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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