



<b>Title</b>	Demonstration of the utility of biomarkers for dietary intake assessment; proline betaine as an example
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<b>Publication date</b>	2017
<b>Publication information</b>	Gibbons, Helena, Charlotte J. R. Michielsen, Milena Rundle, Breige A. McNulty, Anne P. Nugent, Michael J. Gibney, Lorraine Brennan, and et al. "Demonstration of the Utility of Biomarkers for Dietary Intake Assessment; Proline Betaine as an Example." Wiley, 2017. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.201700037">https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.201700037</a> .
<b>Publisher</b>	Wiley
<b>Item record/more information</b>	<a href="http://hdl.handle.net/10197/8524">http://hdl.handle.net/10197/8524</a>
<b>Publisher's statement</b>	This is the author's version of the following article: Gibbons, H.; Michielsen, C.J.R.; Rundle, M.; Frost, G.; McNulty, B.A.; Nugent, A.P.; Walton, J.; Flynn, A.; Gibney, M.J.; Brennan, L. untranslated (2017) "Demonstration of the utility of biomarkers for dietary intake assessment; proline betaine as an example" Molecular Nutrition and Food Research, 61 (10) : which has been published in final form at <a href="http://dx.doi.org/DOI:10.1002/mnfr.201700037">http://dx.doi.org/DOI:10.1002/mnfr.201700037</a> .
<b>Publisher's version (DOI)</b>	10.1002/mnfr.201700037

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**Demonstration of the utility of biomarkers for dietary intake assessment; proline betaine as an example**

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Keywords: citrus fruit, dietary assessment, dose-response, metabolomics, proline betaine.

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Abbreviations: NANS, National Adult Nutrition Survey

1 **Abstract (no more than 200 words)**

2 **Scope:** There is a dearth of studies demonstrating the use of dietary biomarkers for  
3 determination of food intake. The objective of this study was to develop calibration curves for  
4 use in quantifying citrus intakes in an independent cohort.

5 **Methods and results:** Participants (n=50) from the NutriTech food-intake study consumed  
6 standardized breakfasts for three consecutive days over three consecutive weeks. Orange juice  
7 intake decreased over the weeks. Urine samples were analyzed by NMR-spectroscopy and  
8 proline betaine was quantified and normalized to osmolality. Calibration curves were  
9 developed and used to predict citrus intake in an independent cohort; the Irish National Adult  
10 Nutrition Survey (NANS) (n=565). Proline betaine displayed a dose-response relationship to  
11 orange juice intake in 24h and fasting samples ( $p<0.001$ ). In a test set, predicted orange juice  
12 intakes displayed excellent agreement with true intake. There were significant associations  
13 between predicted intake measured in 24h and fasting samples and true intake( $r=0.710-$   
14  $0.919$ ). Citrus intakes predicted for the NANS cohort demonstrated good agreement with self-  
15 reported intake and this agreement improved following normalization to osmolality.

16 **Conclusion:** The developed calibration curves successfully predicted citrus intakes in an  
17 independent cohort. Expansion of this approach to other foods will be important for the  
18 development of objective intake measurements.

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## 26 **1 Introduction**

27 In an endeavor to overcome some of the methodological issues associated with current dietary  
28 assessment methods, dietary biomarkers are being utilized. Dietary biomarkers, for example  
29 urinary nitrogen a marker of protein intake, provide unbiased estimates of intake and can  
30 therefore be used to validate classical self-reporting approaches [1, 2]. More recently  
31 metabolomics has emerged as a valuable tool in the discovery of dietary biomarkers. A  
32 number of dietary biomarkers have been successfully identified including biomarkers of fish  
33 [3-5], red meat [6-8], cruciferous vegetables [9, 10], whole-grain cereals [11, 12] and coffee  
34 [13, 14]. However, the majority of these studies with the exception of alkylresorcinols,  
35 biomarkers of wholegrain intake, have not demonstrated dose-response relationships between  
36 dietary biomarkers and food intake. Furthermore, clear examples of how such biomarkers can  
37 be used for assessment of intake are lacking.

38  
39 To date one of the most studied dietary biomarkers identified using a metabolomics approach  
40 is proline betaine [15, 16]. A number of acute and medium term interventions and cohort  
41 studies have identified proline betaine as a robust biomarker of citrus fruit intake [15-20].  
42 Proline betaine was originally identified as a potential citrus fruit biomarker by Atkinson et al.  
43 [21]. Following this Heinzmann and colleagues performed an acute intervention study [16]. In  
44 this acute study participants consumed a mixed-fruit meal and urine samples were collected  
45 and analyzed by  $^1\text{H}$  Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) [16]. Multivariate analysis  
46 identified proline betaine as a potential biomarker of citrus fruit intake. Furthermore, proline  
47 betaine was assessed in a number of fruit and commercially available fruit juices and was  
48 found in higher concentrations in citrus fruit. The urinary excretion profile of proline betaine  
49 was measured following orange juice consumption in six participants. This biomarker was  
50 then confirmed using data from participants in the INTERMAP UK cohort, demonstrating a

51 high sensitivity and specificity for citrus fruit consumption (90.6 % and 86.3 %, respectively)  
52 and a significant correlation with citrus consumption ( $R^2 = 0.80$ ) [16]. Furthermore, following  
53 consumption of 200 ml of orange juice as part of a standardized test breakfast Lloyd et al.  
54 identified proline betaine and a number of biotransformed products in postprandial urine [17].  
55 Urinary proline betaine measurements also distinguished between low, medium and high  
56 habitual intakes of citrus foods (estimated by food frequency questionnaire (FFQ)) with  
57 sensitivities and specificities of 80.8 – 92.2 % and 74.2 – 94.1 %, respectively, for elevated  
58 proline betaine in high reporters of citrus fruit consumption [17]. In another study, urinary  
59 metabolomes were profiled for volunteers that had consumed an acute dose of orange or  
60 grapefruit juice, volunteers that had consumed orange juice regularly for one month as part of  
61 their habitual diet and also volunteers whom had reported high or low consumption of citrus  
62 products in a large cohort study [15]. Proline betaine was identified as a biomarker of citrus  
63 fruit intake in all research designs [15]. Considering that independent metabolomics studies  
64 with different population groups, different analytical methods and exposures consistently  
65 reported proline betaine as a marker of citrus fruit intake, the evidence base is therefore  
66 substantial to support its use. However, a clear demonstration of the utility of this biomarker  
67 in predicting citrus intake is lacking.

68

69 The objective of the present work was to develop calibration curves for use in quantifying  
70 citrus intakes in an independent cohort. This study investigated the dose-response relationship  
71 of proline betaine with orange juice intake in a controlled intervention study and subsequently  
72 developed calibration curves for use in quantifying citrus intakes.

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## 76 **2 Materials and methods**

### 77 **2.1 Study design and population; the NutriTech study**

78 Ethical approval was received from London Brent Ethics Committee (reference number:  
79 12/LO/0139). The NutriTech study is a randomized control trial comprised of two parts; the  
80 food intake study which aimed to investigate the use of metabolomic profiling as a method of  
81 independent food quantification and secondly the weight loss intervention that aimed to  
82 quantify the effect of diet on ‘phenotypic flexibility’ (adaptation of biological and  
83 physiological processes in the state of challenged homeostasis) (NCT01684917) (Supporting  
84 Information Figure S1). For the present study data from the NutriTech food intake study is  
85 included. Recruitment took place between June 2012 and April 2014. Participants attended  
86 the NIHR/Wellcome Trust Imperial Clinical Research Facility for three days over three  
87 consecutive weeks. Eligibility criteria included males and females of all ethnicities, aged  
88 between 18 and 65 y with a BMI of 18.5-35 kg/m<sup>2</sup> and free from any chronic medical  
89 condition. Participants (n = 50) were randomly assigned (using nested randomization based  
90 on sex, age and BMI) to one of five different diets; red meat, fish, poultry, processed meat or  
91 a supplement and vegetarian option (Supporting Information Table S1). An independent  
92 researcher, not linked to the study, performed the randomization by sealed envelopes. On each  
93 day of each intervention week participants consumed a standardized breakfast at 8 am and  
94 their test meals at midday (12 pm) and evening (7 pm). All test meals were designed to  
95 provide similar intakes of dietary energy and fiber but macronutrient composition varied over  
96 the intervention weeks with carbohydrate decreasing from week one to week three and protein  
97 and fat intake increasing from week one to week three (Supporting Information Figure S2).  
98 Leftovers were measured and recorded where appropriate. Urine and plasma samples were  
99 collected (Supporting Information Figure S3). On day one of each intervention week no  
100 biofluids were collected. A 24 h urine sample was collected on day two of each intervention

101 week. Participants began the 24 h urine collection at 8 am (or at the time of the first, fasting,  
102 morning urine void of day two). All voids throughout the day were collected in a single 5 L  
103 container. 24 h urine samples were kept chilled at 4°C until all urine had been collected and  
104 the final volume was recorded (at 8 am day three or at the time of the first, fasting, urine void  
105 of day three). On day three of each intervention week participants were only allowed void at  
106 the designated times: 0 h (11.55 am), 2 h (2 pm or 2 h after their midday meal) and 6 h (6 pm  
107 or 6 h after they eat their midday meal). Blood samples were also collected at 0 h, 2 h and 6  
108 h. On day four of each intervention week, before participants left the clinical investigation  
109 unit, fasting blood and urine samples were collected. Participants returned to their normal  
110 dietary habits until returning to the study the subsequent week. The present study focused on  
111 the breakfast meal. Each diet received the same breakfast which included white bread, eggs,  
112 butter, yoghurt and orange juice. The amount of orange juice provided decreased from week  
113 one to week three. In weeks one, two and three the breakfast was designed for females to  
114 receive 250 g/d, 220 g/d and 50 g/d of orange juice respectively and males to receive 520 g/d,  
115 450 g/d and 30 g/d respectively. Participants did not consume any other citrus fruits or juices  
116 during the three day intervention. The 24 h urine samples and the fasting urine samples are  
117 used in this present analysis.

118

## 119 **2.2 Validation study; the NANS study**

120 Dietary and urinary metabolomic data from the National Adult Nutrition Survey (NANS) was  
121 used to demonstrate further the utility of dietary biomarkers in predicting intake. Ethical  
122 approval was obtained from the University College Cork Clinical Research Ethics Committee  
123 of the Cork Teaching Hospitals (ECM 3 (p) 4 September 2008) and recruitment began in May  
124 2008. NANS investigated habitual food and beverage consumption, lifestyle, health indicators  
125 and attitudes to food and health in a representative sample of 1500 adults aged 18 - 90 y in the

126 Republic of Ireland during 2008 - 2010 [22]. For the present study dietary and urinary  
127 metabolomic data from 565 NANS participants are included in the analysis. The 565  
128 participants were randomly selected from the main NANS database ensuring equal numbers  
129 of men and women across the age range. Dietary data was collected, over four consecutive  
130 days, using a four day semi-weighed food diary. Participants recorded detailed information on  
131 the amount and type of all foods, drinks and nutritional supplements consumed over four  
132 consecutive days in the food diary. Each of the 2552 food codes consumed during the survey  
133 were assigned to one of 68 food groups. For the purpose of this analysis citrus containing  
134 food groups (fruit squashes, cordials and fruit juice drinks, fruit juices and citrus fruit) were  
135 combined to form the total citrus food group. Mean daily citrus intake (average citrus intake  
136 based on the four days of recording) was computed for the total citrus food group. Under-  
137 reporters of energy intake were identified as having a ratio of energy intake:BMR of  $< 1.1$   
138 [23]. During the data collection period, a 50 ml first void urine sample was also collected  
139 from participants. All urine samples were centrifuged at  $1800 \times g$  for 10 min at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  and stored  
140 at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  for analysis.

141

### 142 **2.3 Urine analysis and metabolite quantification**

143 Urine samples were prepared for  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy by the addition of 250  $\mu\text{L}$  phosphate  
144 buffer (0.2 mol  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4/\text{L}$ , 0.8 mol  $\text{K}_2\text{HPO}_4/\text{L}$ ) to 500  $\mu\text{L}$  urine. After centrifugation at  $5360$   
145  $\times g$  for 5 min at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 10  $\mu\text{L}$  sodium trimethylsilyl [2,2,3,3- $^2\text{H}_4$ ] proprionate (TSP) and 50  $\mu\text{L}$   
146 deuterium oxide ( $\text{D}_2\text{O}$ ) were added to 540  $\mu\text{L}$  of the supernatant. Spectra were acquired on a  
147 600-MHz Varian NMR spectrometer by using the first increment of a nuclear Overhauser  
148 enhancement spectroscopy pulse sequence at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Spectra were acquired with 16,384 data  
149 points and 128 scans. Water suppression was achieved during the relaxation delay (2.5 s) and  
150 the mixing time (100 ms). All  $^1\text{H}$  NMR urine spectra were referenced to TSP at 0.0 parts per

151 million and processed manually with the Chenomx NMR Suite (version 7.7, Inc.; Edmonton,  
152 Canada) by using a line broadening of 0.2 Hz, followed by phase and baseline correction. A  
153 <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum was acquired for a proline betaine standard. This spectrum was added to  
154 the Chenomx Spectral Reference Library using the company's recommended spectral  
155 acquisition and formatting protocols. Proline betaine was identified and quantified by using  
156 the Chenomx Profiler (version 7.7). Osmolality was measured by using an Advanced  
157 Osmometer model 3D3 (Advanced Instruments, Norwood, MA). Aliquots of urine were  
158 tested for osmolality with the use of micro-osmometry by freezing point depression, with  
159 values reported as the number of solute particles, in moles, dissolved in a kilogram of urine.  
160 Metabolite concentrations were normalized to osmolality where appropriate, by dividing the  
161 metabolite concentration by the osmolality reading for the sample.

162

## 163 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

164 Paired sample t-tests were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 to compare proline  
165 betaine concentrations between intervention week one and intervention week three in the 24 h  
166 and fasting urine samples. Ten participants were randomly selected from the 50 NutriTech  
167 participants and served as a test set, the remaining 40 participants served as a training set.  
168 Concentration curves were determined based on data from the training set and orange juice  
169 intakes were predicted in the test set based on the proline betaine concentrations in urine  
170 using curve-fitting software (WinCurveFit). Concentration curves were also determined using  
171 data from the NutriTech total population (n = 50) and citrus intakes were predicted in the  
172 NANS cohort. Bland and Altman plots were made via GraphPad Prism 6.0 to assess  
173 agreement between the predicted (based on proline betaine concentrations) citrus intake and  
174 actual (NutriTech intake) or recorded (food diary) citrus intake in the test set and the NANS

175 cohort [24]. The association between the actual intake and the predicted orange juice intake  
176 was also examined using Spearman's correlations.

177

### 178 **3 Results**

#### 179 **3.1 The NutriTech study population**

180 Characteristics of the NutriTech participants (n = 50) are presented in Table 1. The training  
181 set (n = 40) comprised of 21 males and 19 females, with a mean age of  $60 \pm 4$  y and a mean  
182 BMI of  $28.5 \pm 3.6$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>. The test set (n = 10) comprised of four males and six females, a  
183 mean age of  $59 \pm 5$  y and a mean BMI of  $29.2 \pm 3.4$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>.

184

#### 185 **3.2 Proline betaine quantification**

186 Proline betaine was quantified using Chenomx Profiler and concentrations were compared  
187 between intervention week one and intervention week three in the training set. Two samples  
188 were missing for the 24 h analysis and one sample was missing for the fasting sample,  
189 therefore data presented is based on 38 participants and 39 participants respectively. In both  
190 the 24 h urine samples and the fasting urine samples proline betaine concentrations  
191 significantly decreased from intervention week one to intervention week three ( $p < 0.001$ ) in  
192 response to decreasing orange juice consumption (Table 2). Proline betaine also decreased  
193 significantly ( $p < 0.001$ ) in both the 24 h urine and the fasting urine samples when normalized  
194 for osmolality (Supporting Information Table S2).

195

#### 196 **3.3 Development of calibration curves for prediction of orange juice intakes**

197 Calibration curves were determined using proline betaine concentrations and actual orange  
198 juice intakes from the training set. This was completed for the 24 h and fasting urine, both

199 normalized and not normalized to osmolality. The calibration curve based on proline betaine  
200 concentrations from the training set 24 h urine sample not normalized to osmolality is  
201 presented in Figure 1 ( $Y=1.63E-03*X+1.31E-01$ ). From this orange juice intake was  
202 predicted for the test set ( $n = 10$ ) (Supporting Information Table S3).

203

204 Bland and Altman plots, used to assess the agreement between actual orange juice intakes and  
205 predicted orange juice intakes in the test set are presented in Figure 2. The 24 h urine sample  
206 had less than 10 % of the observations fall outside the 95 % limits of agreement (the dotted  
207 lines) (Figure 2A). Similar results are found with the fasting samples, as less than 10 % of the  
208 observations also fall outside the 95 % limits of agreement (Figure 2C). The mean difference  
209 (bias) between predicted and actual orange juice intake was small (43.1 and -18.1 g for the 24  
210 h and fasting samples respectively). Overall these plots indicate good agreement between the  
211 predicted and actual orange juice intakes. 24 h urine samples and fasting urine samples  
212 normalized to osmolality also had less than 10 % of the observations fall outside the 95 %  
213 limits of agreement. The mean difference (bias) between predicted and actual orange juice  
214 intake was smaller for 24 h and fasting urine samples normalized to osmolality (9.8 and -4.1 g  
215 respectively) (Figure 2B, Figure 2D).

216

217 The association between actual orange juice intakes and predicted orange juice intakes was  
218 assessed using Spearman's correlations coefficient. Actual orange juice intake showed a  
219 significant association with predicted orange juice (Supporting Information Table S4). The  
220 spearman correlation was 0.712 ( $p < 0.001$ ) and 0.710 ( $p < 0.001$ ) for 24 h and fasting urine  
221 respectively, while proline betaine concentrations normalized to osmolality in the 24 h urine  
222 and the fasting urine samples had correlations of 0.859 and 0.919 ( $p < 0.001$ ) respectively  
223 (Supporting Information Table S4).

### 224 **3.4 Prediction of citrus intakes in an independent cohort**

225 The calibration curve determined using NutriTech participant's (n = 50) fasting urine proline  
226 betaine concentrations was used to predict citrus intake for the NANS participants (n = 565).  
227 Bland and Altman plots were used to assess the agreement between participant's self-reported  
228 mean daily citrus intake and predicted citrus intakes from the participant's proline betaine  
229 concentrations in the fasting urine sample (normalized and not normalized to osmolality)  
230 (Figure 3A, Figure 3B). Mean daily citrus intake both normalized and not normalized for  
231 osmolality had <5 % of the observations fall outside the 95 % limits of agreement. The mean  
232 difference (bias) between recorded citrus intake and predicted citrus intake using proline  
233 betaine concentrations not normalized to osmolality was 21.6 g (Figure 3A). The mean  
234 difference (bias) between recorded citrus intake and predicted citrus intake using proline  
235 betaine concentrations normalized to osmolality was smaller (4.3 g) (Figure 3B).  
236 Disagreement between measurements was greatest for high predicted intakes. Twenty-two  
237 participants were predicted to have higher citrus intake compared to the self-reported data.  
238 Upon further investigation, seven participants were identified as under-reporters and three  
239 participants were supplement users. When data was normalized to osmolality the number of  
240 participants having predicted citrus intakes higher than recorded intakes was reduced (15  
241 participants).

242

### 243 **4 Discussion**

244 The present study has made significant advancements in the dietary biomarker field.  
245 Primarily, the development of calibration curves successfully enabled proline betaine to be  
246 used to estimate citrus intakes in a large cross-sectional study. Furthermore, this was  
247 supported by demonstrating a dose-response relationship between proline betaine and orange  
248 juice intake. This approach, using dietary biomarkers to quantify food or beverage intake can

249 be developed and utilized in future studies, therefore aiding the translation of these  
250 biomarkers into practice.  
251  
252 Our study is an important demonstration of the successful use of dietary biomarkers. The  
253 study design enabled the examination of the dose-response relationship between the  
254 biomarker and actual food intake. Importantly, the orange juice was consumed as part of a  
255 mixed meal, which is more reflective of habitual dietary intake and demonstrates the  
256 sensitivity of proline betaine as it can still classify participant's intakes irrespective of other  
257 components of the diet. Demonstration of the use of the developed calibration curves to  
258 predict intake in the cross-sectional study was a valuable aspect of this study. Proline betaine  
259 concentrations successfully predicted citrus intakes. The ability to predict mean daily citrus  
260 intake is important for future use of proline betaine as a marker of habitual intake of citrus  
261 fruit. Although the calibration curves were built using orange juice the use of the NANS  
262 cohort demonstrated their ability to predict citrus intake which included both juices and fruit.  
263  
264 Both 24 h urine and fasting urine samples were examined in this study. Interestingly, the  
265 results indicate that the fasting samples performed well and once corrected for osmolality  
266 outperformed the 24 h samples. This is particularly important for nutritional epidemiology  
267 where many cohort studies have fasting samples collected and not 24 h urine samples. For  
268 future studies it also demonstrates the potential use of fasting samples once corrected for  
269 osmolality. Collection of a fasting sample is less burdensome on the volunteer and should  
270 enable easier compliance within studies. In the current study fasting samples were used to  
271 predict citrus intake in the free-living NANS population. Bland and Altman plots  
272 demonstrated good agreement between predicted and recorded intakes. The disagreement  
273 observed between methods in the NANS cohort was predominantly as a result of higher

274 predicted intakes compared to the self-reported intakes. Interestingly, when participants with  
275 self-reporting issues (under-reporters, overweight or obese participants) were taken into  
276 account, this disagreement accounted for less than 2 % of the total population. Agreement was  
277 further improved between predicted and recorded intakes when samples were normalized to  
278 osmolality. In both datasets in the current study normalization with osmolality improved the  
279 agreement between predicted and actual/reported intakes. A previous study also reported the  
280 importance of normalizing urine to osmolality for the detection of changes in metabolite  
281 profiles [25].

282

283 While there has been significant interest in using metabolomics to identify dietary biomarkers  
284 there has been a lack of studies demonstrating the use of such biomarkers in predicting intake.  
285 In a recent study a dose-response relationship between tartaric acid and grape intake was  
286 demonstrated [26]. Tartaric acid was subsequently quantified in participants (n=19) following  
287 four four-day dietary interventions which included 0 g/d, 50 g/d, 100 g/d, and 150 g/d of  
288 grapes in standardized diets in a randomized controlled trial. Predicted grape intake was found  
289 to be most accurate for 24 h urine samples compared to spot urine samples ( $r^2 = 0.90$ ) [26]. In  
290 relation to citrus fruit biomarkers, Lloyd and colleagues demonstrated the potential  
291 quantitative relationship between proline betaine and citrus fruit consumption as urinary  
292 proline betaine levels differed among low, medium and high citrus consumers after an  
293 overnight fast [17]. However, estimations of consumption were based on self-reporting data  
294 from an FFQ and the dose-response of proline betaine with citrus intake was not investigated.  
295 Proline betaine has also been identified as a biomarker of citrus intake using three study  
296 designs; a short term intervention where an acute dose of orange/grapefruit juice was  
297 consumed, a medium term intervention where orange juice was consumed regularly for one  
298 month, and a cohort study where high or low consumers of citrus products were identified

299 from a 24 h recall [15]. The focus of this study however was on the discovery of biomarkers  
300 and therefore did not examine the dose-response. Furthermore, previous studies have shown  
301 that proline betaine has a relatively short half-life; however, this did not seem to impact on its  
302 ability to predict habitual dietary intake. An earlier study targeted four metabolites in 24 h  
303 urine samples following the consumption of controlled diets containing low red meat (60 g/d),  
304 medium red meat (120 g/d) and high red meat (420 g/d) [6]. Two metabolites demonstrated a  
305 dose-response relationship with meat intake, increasing as the amount of meat in the diet  
306 increased, however no further practical use of these biomarkers in quantifying red meat intake  
307 were demonstrated [6]. The current study used a well-controlled intervention study to develop  
308 calibration curves which enabled prediction of intake in a free-living cross-sectional cohort  
309 marks a very significant step forward in the field of dietary biomarkers.

310

311 There are a number of strengths associated with the present study. Primarily this study reveals  
312 how a dietary biomarker, discovered through a metabolomics based approach can be used to  
313 successfully predict food intakes in a large cross-sectional study. Thus clearly demonstrating  
314 the potential application of dietary biomarkers in dietary assessment. Furthermore, the  
315 NutriTech food intake study provides a successful strategy for dietary biomarker  
316 identification, enabling the assessment of the dose-response relationship between the  
317 biomarker and food source. However, it must be noted that although there was excellent  
318 agreement between predicted citrus intake and self-reported citrus intakes, further  
319 interventions with repeated measurements over time may be needed to assess the dose-  
320 response relationship for long term intakes. It is also important to acknowledge that this work  
321 reflects a food intake biomarker and addresses the significant issue of improving estimations  
322 of food intake. However, we did not assess if this results in improvements in nutrient intake  
323 data.

324

325 The present study represents an important advancement in biomarker research by  
326 demonstrating the utility of calibration curves to successfully quantify intakes of citrus food.  
327 This study illustrates a clear dose-response relationship between actual food intake and a  
328 dietary biomarker in a mixed meal setting. The results presented here are very promising for  
329 the field of dietary biomarkers; however more studies on dose-response relationships are  
330 essential for further progression in this area. This work will pave the way for further  
331 development of dietary biomarkers that can be used to predict unbiased intakes and that can  
332 be used to obtain more reliable risk estimates in diet-disease analyses.

333 **Author contributions**

334 H. G. conducted research, analyzed data and prepared the manuscript. C. J. R. M. assisted in  
335 the statistical analyses, M. R., G. F., B. A. M., A. P. N., J. W., A. F. and M. J. G. provided  
336 essential materials, L. B. designed research, conducted research, analyzed data and prepared  
337 the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

338

339 **Acknowledgements/funding**

340 We thank all volunteers for their commitment and patience during the study.

341 HG is supported by a research grant from NutriTech (project number: 2896511). LB  
342 acknowledges the following funding: The European Research Council ERC (647783) and SFI  
343 (JPI-HDHL/B3075, Foodball). Data used in part of this analysis were supported by joint  
344 funding from the Irish Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Health  
345 Research Board under the Food for Health Research Initiative (2007–2012) (grant number  
346 7FHRIUCC2).

347

348 **Conflict of interest statement**

349 The authors have declared no conflict of interest.

350

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**Table 1** NutriTech food intake study characteristics <sup>a)</sup>

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Training set (n = 40)</b>	<b>Test set (n = 10)</b>
Gender	21 (M) 19 (F)	4 (M) 6 (F)
Age (y)	60 ± 4	59 ± 5
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	28.5 ± 3.6	29.2 ± 3.4
Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg)	133.5 ± 15.9	127.8 ± 14.4
Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg)	78.8 ± 10.6	74.2 ± 11.4

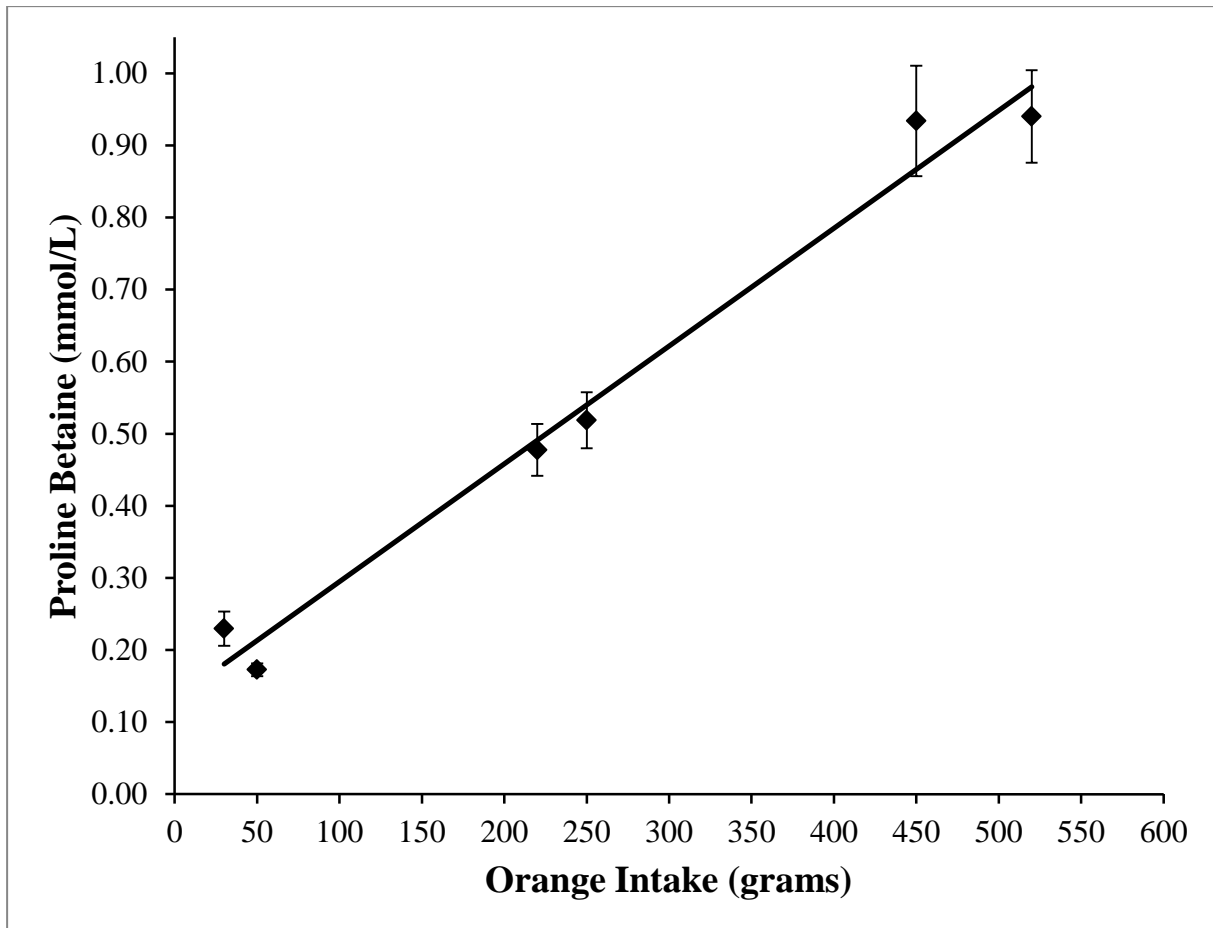
<sup>a)</sup>Data are Mean ± SD (all such vales). 10 participants were randomly selected from the 50 NutriTech food intake participants and served as the test set, the remaining 40 participants served as a training set.

**Table 2** Mean proline betaine concentrations in the 24 h urine (n = 38) and fasting urine samples (n = 39) <sup>a)</sup>

<b>mmol/L</b>	<b>Week 1</b>	<b>Week 3</b>	<b>P <sup>b)</sup></b>
24 h proline betaine	0.74 ± 0.32	0.20 ± 0.09	<0.001
Fasting proline betaine	0.71 ± 0.34	0.20 ± 0.10	<0.001

<sup>a)</sup>Data are Mean ± SD.

<sup>b)</sup>Paired sample t-test was used to examine the differences between intervention week 1 and week 3.



**Figure 1.** Calibration curve using the 24 h urine samples (mean and error bars (SEM) are presented). The x-axis; actual orange juice intake (grams) during the NutriTech food intake study, the y-axis; proline betaine concentrations measured in urine (mmol/L). Each point represents average proline betaine concentration for a particular orange juice intake.

$$(Y=1.63E-03*X+1.31E-01)$$

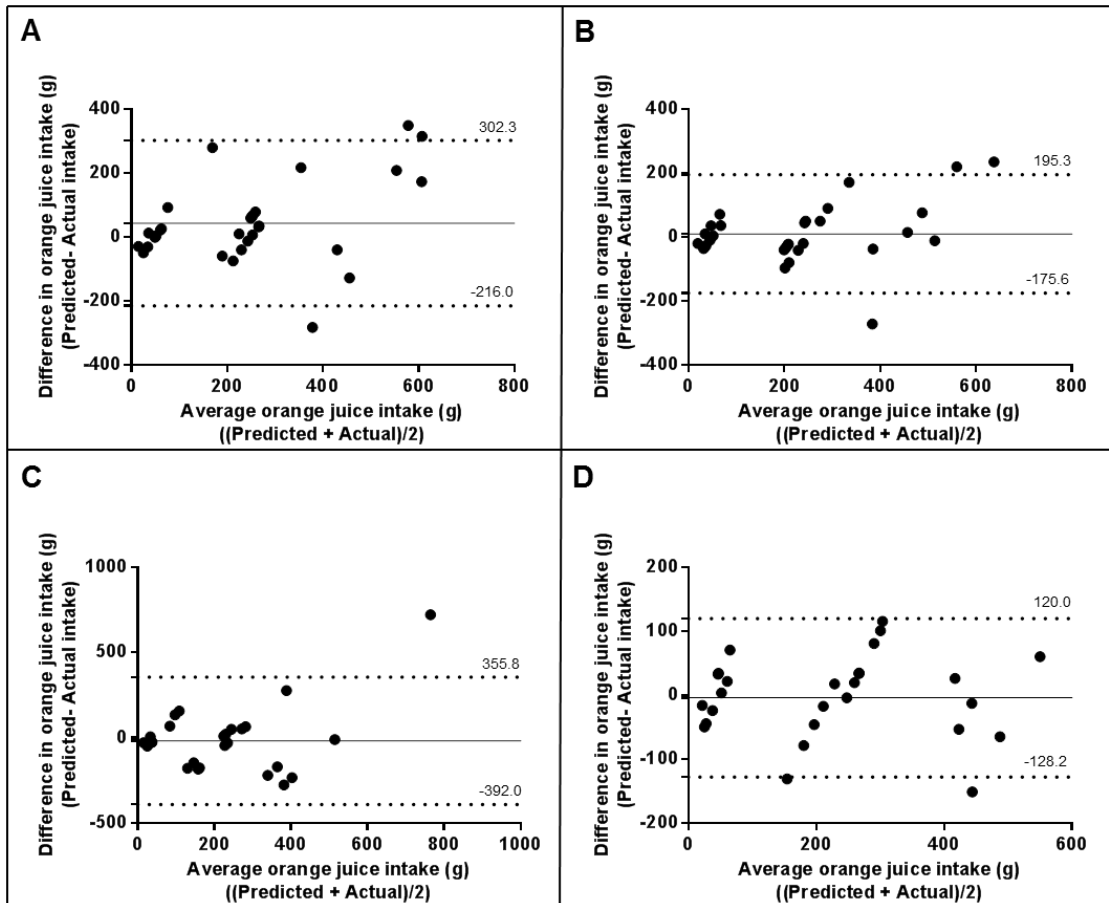


FIGURE 2

**Figure 2.** Bland and Altman plots for the test set **A:** Orange juice intakes were predicted from proline betaine concentrations measured in 24 h urine samples **B:** Orange juice intakes were predicted from proline betaine concentrations measured in 24 h urine samples normalized to osmolality **C:** Orange juice intakes were predicted from proline betaine concentrations measured in fasting urine samples **D:** Orange juice intakes were predicted from proline betaine concentrations measured in fasting urine samples normalized to osmolality, with mean difference and limits of agreement.

The solid line represents the mean difference and the dotted line represents the limits of agreement. ‘Predicted’ indicates the predicted orange juice intake based on urinary proline betaine concentrations. ‘Actual’ indicates the actual orange juice intakes according to the NutriTech study taking into account leftovers.

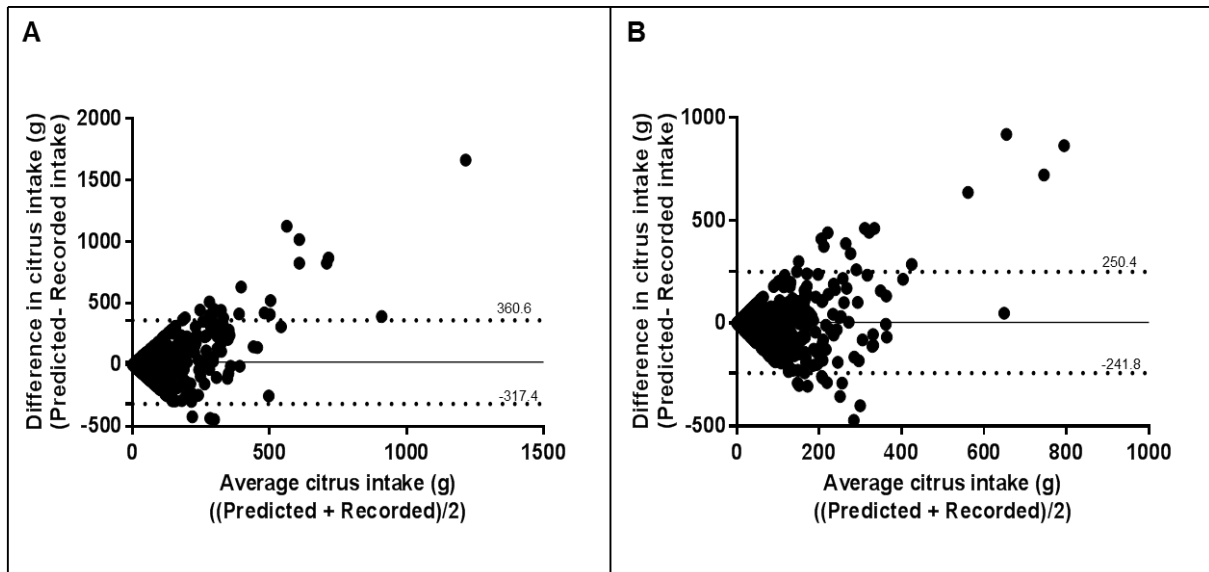


FIGURE 3

**Figure 3.** Bland and Altman plots for NANS **A:** Agreement between recorded mean daily citrus intake and citrus intakes predicted from proline betaine concentrations in a fasting sample **B:** Agreement between recorded mean daily citrus intake and citrus intakes predicted from proline betaine concentrations in a fasting sample normalized to osmolality, with mean difference and limits of agreement.

The solid line represents the mean difference and the dotted line represents the limits of agreement. ‘Predicted’ indicates the predicted citrus intake based on urinary proline betaine concentrations in a fasting sample. ‘Recorded’ indicates citrus intake recorded using the four-day food diary.