



TOXDetect
PROFILE®

TOXDetect Profile® Interpretation Guide

Page Section

- 2 Introduction
- 3 Phthalates
- 4 Bisphenols
- 5 VOCs - Volatile Organic Compounds
- 8 Parabens
- 9 Pesticides
- 11 Other:
 - 11 Diphenyl Phosphate (DPP)
 - 11 N-Acetyl (Carbonmethyl) Cysteine (NAE)
 - 12 Perchlorate (PERC)
 - 12 Oxybenzone (OBZ)
- 13 Glyphosate



Introduction

The information provided in this guide is intended solely for educational purposes and should not be construed as treatment recommendations. It is recommended that you consult with your healthcare provider for any necessary treatment.

The interpretation information included in this guide includes all of the metabolite/parent compounds assessed on MosaicDX TOXDetect Profile® test report.

Legend:

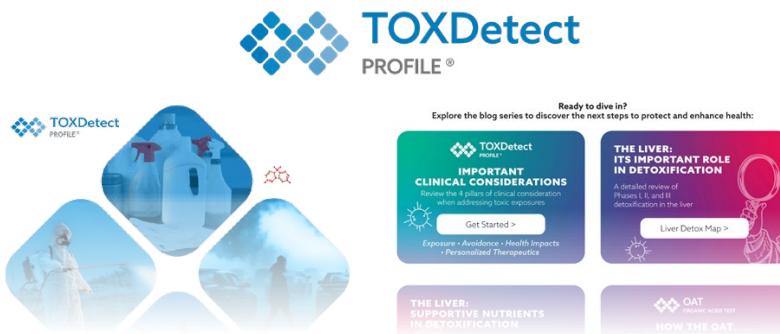
Metabolite → *example:* **1) Monoethylphthalate (MEP)**
Parent → **Diethylphthalates**

The TOXDetect Profile is a urinary assessment of exposure to environmental toxicants. The profile screens for exposure to common chemicals used to make plastics (phthalates, bisphenols), pesticides, and other industrial chemicals found in personal care products, cleaning products, food packaging, and flame retardants added to furniture and textiles.

The **TOXDetect Profile measures 27 metabolites**, providing insight into exposure to phthalates, bisphenols, volatile organic compounds, parabens, pesticides, glyphosate, and more.

The increased use of environmental toxicants has had several negative consequences for human health and the environment. Exposure to certain toxic chemicals has been linked to an increased risk of cancer, birth defects, neurological disorders, immune dysfunction, endocrine disruption and other health problems. Additionally, these chemical toxicants can pollute air, water, and soil, harming wildlife and ecosystems.

For more information on important clinical considerations when dealing with known or suspected exposure to environmental toxicants please see our [TOXDetect Blog Series](#).



[Read the MosaicDX TOXDetect Blog Series >](#)

PHTHALATES

1) Monoethylphthalate (MEP)

Diethylphthalates

2) Monobutyl phthalate (MBP)

Di-n-butyl Phthalate (DBP)

3) Mono-2ethylhexyl phthalate (MEHP)

Di(2-ethylhexyl) Phthalate (DEHP)

4) Mono-(2-ethyl-5-oxohexyl) phthalate (MEOHP)

Di(2-ethylhexyl) Phthalate (DEHP)

5) Monoisobutyl phthalate (MiBP)

Di(2-ethylhexyl) Phthalate (DEHP)

1-5) PHTHALATES are referred to as “the everywhere chemical” due to the fact they are used in hundreds of products, including toys, food packaging, shampoo, vinyl flooring, and more.

Enhanced insight into phthalate exposure is provided by measuring five phthalate metabolites. Phthalates are a series of widely used chemicals found in most products that have contact with plastics during production, packaging, or delivery. These plasticizers which make plastic more flexible, and durable are associated with a number of health problems including reproductive, neurological, respiratory, and increased risk of certain types of cancer.^{1,2,3} Most significantly they are known as endocrine disruptors.⁴ Exposure can occur through various routes including ingestion - phthalates can leach from food and beverage packaging materials, inhalation - phthalates can be released into the air from products such as vinyl flooring, shower curtains and air fresheners, dermal contact - phthalates can be absorbed through the skin from personal care products, as well as from vinyl gloves and vinyl flooring.³ Phthalates are metabolized through various pathways, they are conjugated with glucuronic acid or sulfate in the liver, these conjugated metabolites are eliminated from the body through urine or feces.⁵ Induced perspiration can be a useful method to facilitate the elimination of certain toxic phthalate compounds, including DEHP and MEHP.⁶

BISPHENOLS

Bisphenol A (BPA)

Bisphenol A (BPA)

Bisphenol S (BPS)

Bisphenol S (BPS)

6) Bisphenol A (BPA) is a chemical produced in the manufacturing process of polycarbonate plastics and epoxy resins. Found in consumer products such as food and beverage containers, medical devices, shatterproof windows, toys, dental sealants, some metal food container liners, water supply pipes, and more, makes exposure quite common. Recently, BPA is often replaced in many of these products by bisphenol analogs such as bisphenol S (BPS) which has comparable toxicological effects. BPA is most often leached into food from food and beverage containers then ingested. Leaching from containers depends more on the temperature of the liquid or vessel than the age of the container. Other exposure sources of BPA can occur through dust, air, water, dermal absorption, and breastmilk.⁷⁻⁸ BPA exposure has both developmental and reproductive effects.⁸⁻⁹ Exposure to BPA has been linked to various cardiovascular and metabolic diseases such as hypertension, diabetes mellitus, obesity, and more.¹⁰

Neurotoxic effects of BPA including depression, anxiety, neurodevelopmental, and behavioral disorders are documented.⁹ BPA can also modulate the immune response increasing susceptibility to autoimmune disease and infections.¹³ BPA has been found to promote carcinogenesis through several mechanisms especially leading to an increased risk of hormone-dependent cancers.⁹⁻¹⁰ Human metabolism of BPA involves both phase I and phase II reactions in the liver and then quickly clears via the urine especially via glucuronidation. Glucuronidation is primarily driven by uridine diphosphate glucuronosyltransferases (UGTs) in the liver and digestive tract. UGT hepatic activity is low in infancy and increases with age.¹¹

7) Bisphenol S (BPS) is generated as a result of exposure to bisphenol S. Bisphenol S (BPS) is metabolized in the body through phase II metabolism, specifically glucuronidation and sulfation.¹² Bisphenols are synthetic compounds used in the production of plastics and resins, commonly found in various consumer products, including food and drink containers, water bottles, thermal receipt papers, dental sealants, toys, cosmetics, and the lining of canned goods.¹³⁻¹⁴ Along with being a known endocrine disruptor, BPA has raised concerns due to potential health impacts related to reproductive and developmental effects, increased risk of obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and certain cancers. In response to concerns, many companies now produce "BPA-Free" products, however, some BPA alternatives like BPS have also raised concerns about potential similar effects.¹⁵⁻¹⁶

VOCs - VOLATILE ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

2-3-4 Methylhippuric Acid (2,-3-,4-MHA)

Xylene

Phenylglyoxylic Acid (PGO)

Styrene/Ethylbenzene

N-Acetyl Phenyl Cysteine (NAP)

Benzene

N-Acetyl (2-Cyanoethyl) Cysteine (NACE)

Acrylonitrile

N-Acetyl (Propyl) Cysteine (NAPR)

1-bromopropane

N-Acetyl (3,4-Dihydroxybutyl) Cysteine (NADB)

1,3 butadiene

2-Hydroxyethyl Mercapturic Acid (HEMA)

Ethylene Oxide, Vinyl Chloride

8) 2-3-4 METHYLHIPPURIC ACID (2,-3-,4-MHA) Is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to xylene, an aromatic hydrocarbon widely used in industry and medical laboratories. It is used extensively as a solvent in the rubber, printing, and leather industries. It is also used as a thinner for paints, cleaning agents, and varnishes. Xylene is released primarily from industrial sources. One can also come in contact with xylene through automobile exhaust and a variety of consumer products such as cigarette smoke, paints, varnish, rust preventives, and shellac. Literature suggests that xylene exposure causes toxic effects on various systems of the body. Central nervous system toxicity may lead to headaches, irritability, depression, insomnia, agitation, extreme tiredness, tremors, impaired concentration, and damage to short-term memory. Longer term effects can damage the liver and kidneys.¹⁷ Xylene is primarily eliminated through metabolism in the liver and subsequent excretion of 70-80% of metabolites in urine within 24 hours after exposure. Xylene is metabolized in the liver by side-chain (CH₃) dehydroxylation, finally forming the metabolite methylhippuric acid.¹⁸

9) PHENYLGLYOXYLIC ACID (PGO) Is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to styrene/ethylbenzene widely used to make plastics and rubber, which are used to manufacture a variety of products, such as insulation, pipes, automobile parts, printing cartridges, food containers, and carpet backing. Exposure occurs through breathing indoor air that has styrene vapors from building materials, photocopiers, tobacco smoke, and other products. Styrene may also leach from polystyrene containers used for food products, especially when food is heated in these containers.¹⁹ Short term exposure can cause CNS depression and skin and respiratory irritation. Long term exposure can damage the reproductive system and cause problems such as infertility and birth defects,²⁰⁻²¹ can cause neurological damage such as memory loss, difficulty concentrating, and can cause impaired motor function.²² Exposure to PGO has been linked to an increased risk of leukemia and lymphoma.²³ In the liver, styrene is metabolized to styrene-7,8-

oxide (SO) by cytochrome P-450 enzymes. SO can then be further metabolized to styrene glycol, mandelic acid, and phenylglyoxylic acid, which are excreted in the urine. Glutathione conjugation is also a significant pathway for detoxification.²⁴⁻²⁵

10) N-ACETYL PHENYL CYSTEINE (NAP) is a metabolite generated as a result of the exposure to benzene, an industrial solvent. Its use has been reduced due to toxicity and potential health hazards. Exposure has been associated with a range of acute and long-term adverse health effects and diseases, including cancer and hematological effects. Exposure can occur occupationally, in the general environment and in the home as a result of the ubiquitous use of benzene-containing petroleum products, including motor fuels and solvents. Active and passive exposure to tobacco smoke is also a significant source of exposure. Benzene exposure has been linked to respiratory, hepatic, cardiovascular, immune, nervous, and endocrine system dysfunction.²⁶⁻³² High exposure to benzene may cause nausea, vomiting, dizziness, poor coordination, central nervous system depression, and even death.^{32,33} The metabolism of benzene is complex and involves multiple enzymatic pathways. Benzene is primarily metabolized in the liver by the cytochrome P450 enzyme system. It undergoes oxidation to form several metabolites. These metabolites can further undergo conjugation with glucuronic acid or sulfate to form more water-soluble compounds that can be excreted in urine.^{35,36}

11) N-ACETYL (2-CYANOETHYL) CYSTEINE (NACE) is a metabolite generated as a result of the exposure to acrylonitrile. Acrylonitrile exposure comes from the use of products containing acrylonitrile, such as acrylic fiber clothing or carpeting, acrylonitrile-based plastics, leaching into foods from plastic food containers, and cigarette smoke. Humans exposed to high levels via inhalation experience respiratory tract irritation, labored breathing, dizziness, cyanosis, limb weakness and convulsions.³⁷ Long-term exposure to acrylonitrile has been associated with subjective symptoms such as headache, fatigue, and general malaise.³⁸ Acrylonitrile is primarily metabolized by the liver, involving the conjugation with glutathione by glutathione transferases. This chemical reaction results in the formation of N-Acetyl (2-Cyanoethyl) Cysteine, which is excreted in the urine.³⁹⁻⁴⁰ It is considered a probable human carcinogen, with evidence suggesting an association with lung cancer.⁴¹⁻⁴²

12) N-ACETYL (PROPYL) CYSTEINE (NAPR) is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to 1-bromopropane, a solvent in adhesives, dry cleaning, degreasing, and electronic and metal cleaning products. Low levels of NAPR can cause headaches, decreased sensation in the fingers and toes, and a drunk-like feeling. Long-term exposure can have lasting effects on the nervous system including weakness, incoordination, loss of feeling, inability to walk, and damage to nerves. Health impacts of 1-bromopropane exposure include neurotoxicity, reproductive toxicity, hematopoietic disorders, DNA damage, and respiratory toxicity. It can also cause symptoms such as headache, mucosal irritation, decreased sensation, paresthesia, and stumbling.⁴³⁻⁴⁶ In the metabolism of 1-bromopropane, conjugation reactions involving the attachment of a cysteine group result in the formation of metabolites like N-Acetyl (Propyl) Cysteine, aiding in its detoxification and elimination.⁴⁷ Supplementation with glutathione or NAC may accelerate elimination.

13) N-ACETYL (3,4-DIHYDROXYBUTYL) CYSTEINE (NADB) is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to 1,3 butadiene, a petrochemical used to produce synthetic rubber used for car and truck tires and is also an environmental toxicant found in car exhaust, combustion of fuels for warmth or energy production and cigarette smoke. It is associated with adverse health impacts, including cancer, and cardiovascular disease.⁴⁸⁻⁴⁹ The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) concluded that 1,3 butadiene is a human carcinogen. Exactly how humans metabolize 1,3 butadiene is unknown. The predominant route of exposure is inhalation, about half of inhaled 1,3 butadiene is broken down and exhaled. The remaining is broken down to its metabolites in the liver and excreted in the urine.⁵⁰

14) 2-HYDROXYETHYL MERCAPTURIC ACID (HEMA) - is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to ethylene oxide or vinyl chloride. Ethylene oxide is a man made substance widely used in the production of various chemicals such as plastics, textiles and antifreeze (ethylene glycol). Additionally, ethylene oxide is commonly used as a sterilizing agent for medical equipment. Inhalation is the most common route of exposure in occupational settings and via tobacco smoke. There is some evidence that exposure to ethylene oxide can cause a pregnant woman to lose a pregnancy. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) concluded that ethylene oxide is a known human carcinogen, exposure is linked to increased risk of leukemia and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma.⁵¹⁻⁵² Ethylene oxide is then metabolized by epoxide hydrolase (EH) and glutathione S-transferase (GST) enzymes. These enzymes handle the breakdown and removal of ethylene oxide from the body.⁵³

Vinyl chloride is colorless gas used primarily to manufacture polyvinyl chloride (PVC) widely used in numerous products such as pipes, wire and cable insulation, packaging materials, various construction materials and disposable medical products. Inhalation is the most common route of exposure primarily in occupational settings, also via smoke from cigars or cigarettes. Low level exposure is possible via contaminated drinking water. Individuals living near hazardous waste sites and landfills may be exposed to higher levels. Acute high level exposure can produce headaches, dizziness, drowsiness, and loss of consciousness. Long term exposure can result in hepatocellular changes and increased incidence of liver cancer. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) concluded that vinyl chloride is carcinogenic to humans.⁵⁴ Metabolism in humans is attributed to the P-450 monooxygenases in the liver. Intermediates are detoxified primarily via glutathione conjugation and excreted in the urine.⁵⁴

PARABENS

15) Methylparaben (MeP)

Methylparaben (MeP)

16) Ethylparaben (EtP)

Ethylparaben (EtP)

17) Propylparaben (PrP)

Propylparaben (PrP)

18) Butylparaben (BuP)

Butylparaben (BuP)

15-18) PARABENS are a class of synthetic chemicals commonly used as preservatives in cosmetics, personal care products, pharmaceuticals, and some food items. Some individuals may experience skin irritation or allergic reactions to parabens. Concerns about their impact on human health include the potential for endocrine disruption, links to breast cancer, and increased BMI.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁸ Enhanced insight into paraben exposure is provided by measuring four types of parabens and a metabolite of exposure, p-hydroxybenzoic acid. Parabens are a class of synthetic chemicals commonly used as preservatives in cosmetics, personal care products, pharmaceuticals, and some food items. The two most commercially used parabens are methylparaben and propylparaben. They help prevent the growth of bacteria, yeast, and mold, thereby extending the shelf life of these products. Some individuals may experience skin irritation or allergic reactions to parabens. Concerns about their impact on human health include the potential for endocrine disruption, links to breast cancer, and increased BMI.⁵⁹⁻⁶³ Parabens are metabolized in humans through hydrolysis to p-hydroxybenzoic acid, followed by conjugation and excretion in urine.⁶⁴⁻⁶⁵

PESTICIDES

Atrazine mercapturate

Atrazine mercapturate

2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic Acid (2,4-D)

2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic Acid (2,4-D)

3-Phenoxybenzoic Acid (3-PBA)

Pyrethroids, Permethrin, Cypermethrin, Cyhalothrins, Fenpropathrin, Deltamethrin, Trihalomethrin

Diethylphosphate (DEP)

Organophosphates

19) Atrazine mercapturate Is a urinary metabolite of atrazine, a widely used triazine herbicide. Atrazine inhibits photosynthesis in plants and is used to kill broadleaf weeds especially in agriculture for crops such as corn and along roadways. Other uses of atrazine include sugarcane crops, golf course turf, and residential lawns. Predominant use is in the Midwest region of the United States.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁷ Atrazine may migrate out of the soil via surface runoff to bodies of water such as rivers, lakes or groundwater where it does not significantly degrade. The half-life in surface water is over 200 days. Atrazine may also evaporate from the soil into the atmosphere.⁶⁸ Exposure to atrazine has been associated with primarily endocrine disruptive impacts. Interference with the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis affecting steroid synthesis, reproductive, and developmental processes are reported. Atrazine is considered neurotoxic and influences dopamine synthesis.⁶⁹ In addition, it has been associated with neurobehavioral changes causing anxiety and social deficits.⁷⁰⁻⁷¹ Exposure may lead to hepatotoxic effects.⁷²

Some studies have found increased risk of lung, prostate, non-Hodgkin lymphoma, and kidney cancers associated with exposure.⁷³ Atrazine is primarily metabolized by humans in the liver, creating various toxic metabolites. The CYP1A2 and CYP3A4 enzymes are primarily responsible for phase I metabolism of atrazine in the liver followed by phase II biotransformation including glutathione conjugation. Atrazine is rapidly excreted from the body, usually within 24-48 hours of exposure, but may be distributed into adipose tissue where it can take longer to be excreted, and potentially remain toxic.^{68,74}

20) 2,4-DICHLOROPHENOXYACETIC ACID (2,4-D) is the result of exposure to 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic Acid (2,4-D) is one of the most widely used herbicides in the world. It is commonly used in agriculture and landscaping. Chronic exposure to lower levels of 2,4-D has been associated with potential health effects, including endocrine disruption, reproductive effects, developmental effects, and increased risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma.⁷⁵⁻⁷⁷ The specific enzymes and genes involved in the metabolism of 2,4-D in humans have not been extensively studied. In animals it is metabolized through processes like conjugation, forming glucuronide, sulfation, and other conjugations, which generate products that are excreted in urine.⁷⁸

21) 3-Phenoxybenzoic Acid (3-PBA) is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to pyrethroids, one of the most commonly used pesticides in household and agricultural fields accounting for 30% of insecticide used worldwide. They are modeled after the natural insecticidal compounds found in chrysanthemum flowers, known as pyrethrins. They are widely used in agriculture, household insect control, and veterinary medicine. Pyrethroids work by targeting the nervous system of insects, causing hyperexcitation and paralysis. The most common potential impacts to health include neurobehavioral, neurodevelopmental, and endocrine disruption.⁷⁹⁻⁸⁰ Exposure has also been associated with an increased risk of all-cause and cardiovascular disease mortality.⁸¹⁻⁸² There is limited information on the metabolism of pyrethroids, their metabolism involves enzymes such as cytochrome P450 isoforms and carboxylesterases.⁸³

22) DIETHYLPHOSPHATE (DEP) is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to a number of organophosphate pesticides used widely in agriculture to control pests, as well as in residential settings to manage insects and rodents. The organophosphate pesticides work by inhibiting the activity of acetylcholinesterase, an enzyme essential for proper nerve function. Exposure to organophosphates has been associated with neurological deficits, neurodegenerative diseases, peripheral nerve effects, and neurodevelopmental issues. Additionally, long-term exposure has been linked to oxidative stress, psychological effects, and liver function abnormalities.⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶ Organophosphates metabolize to dialkyl phosphate metabolites in humans through various enzymatic reactions. Cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes and paraoxonases (PONs) play a significant role in the formation of these metabolites.⁸⁷

Organophosphate Pesticides that are converted to DEP

Chlorethoxyphos	Ethion
Chlorfenvinphos	Malathion
Chlorpyrifos- methyl	Parathion
Coumaphos	Phorate
Diazinon	Sulfotep
Diathion	TEPP
Disulfoton	Terbufos
Dimathoate	Triazophos

OTHER

DIPHENYL PHOSPHATE (DPP)

Triphenyl Phosphate

N-ACETYL (CARBOMETHYL) CYSTEINE (NAE)

Acrylamide

PERCHLORATE (PERC)

Perchlorate

OXYBENZONE (OBZ)

Oxybenzone

23) DIPHENYL PHOSPHATE (DPP) is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to triphenyl phosphate (TPHP), commonly used as a flame retardant in consumer products such as furniture, electronics, and textiles. It is also present in personal care products, such as nail polish and cosmetics and contact with these products can lead to dermal absorption. It can be released into the air from products or during manufacturing processes, causing exposure via inhalation. Another route of exposure is from food and beverages due to migration from packaging materials or contamination during food processing. Exposure to triphenyl phosphate can alter endocrine function and impacts reproduction. Altered thyroid function and decreased semen quality has been observed in humans.⁸⁸⁻⁹¹ TPHP is primarily metabolized by cytochrome P450 enzymes, specifically CYP1A2 and CYP2E1, in the liver. These enzymes catalyze the oxidation of TPHP, leading to the formation of its major metabolite, diphenyl phosphate (DPP).⁹²⁻⁹³

24) N-ACETYL (CARBOMETHYL) CYSTEINE (NAE) is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to acrylamide, which is formed when starchy foods, such as potatoes, grains, and coffee beans, are cooked at high temperatures. Other potential sources of acrylamide exposure include cigarette smoke, as acrylamide is formed during the combustion of tobacco, and certain cosmetic products that may contain acrylamide as a contaminant.⁹⁴ Acrylamide has been linked to an increased risk of cancer, particularly in organs such as the kidneys, ovaries, and uterus. Additionally, acrylamide exposure has been associated with neurotoxicity, which can lead to cognitive and motor abnormalities. Other potential health effects include genotoxicity, reproductive toxicity, hepatotoxicity, immunotoxicity, and increased cardiovascular risk.⁹⁵⁻⁹⁷ To decrease exposure, people can use lower cooking temperatures and opt for cooking methods that produce less acrylamide like boiling, steaming, and microwaving foods instead of baking, roasting, or frying.⁹⁸

25) PERCHLORATE (PERC) is a metabolite generated as a result of exposure to perchlorate, a chemical used in fireworks, road flares, explosives, and rocket fuel. Perchlorates are considered environmental contaminants due to their widespread use and persistence in the environment. Perchlorates can leach into groundwater from industrial facilities, military sites, or areas where perchlorate-containing products are used or disposed of improperly causing contamination of drinking water. Perchlorate can also enter the food supply through contaminated water used for irrigation or through food processing. Milk is also a source of perchlorate, the content in milk is related to the presence of perchlorate in feed. Certain crops such as leafy greens, vegetables, and fruit have been found to accumulate perchlorate. The main target organ for perchlorate is the thyroid gland. Perchlorate inhibits the thyroid's uptake of iodine. This interference can disrupt thyroid function and lead to health problems such as hypothyroidism (underactive thyroid) or other thyroid disorders. Pregnant women, infants, and children are particularly vulnerable to the effects of perchlorate exposure on thyroid function. Perchlorate does not appear to be modified in the body, either by degradation or covalent binding.⁹⁹⁻¹⁰⁰

26) OXYBENZONE (OBZ) is a chemical compound of the benzophenone class often used in sunscreen and other personal care products due to its ability to absorb ultraviolet light protecting the skin from UV radiation making exposure common.¹⁰¹ Oxybenzone is often found in effluents of wastewater treatment plants and surface waters. Adverse impacts of oxybenzone on marine and aquatic ecosystems has caused it to be classified as an emerging environmental contaminant.¹⁰² The chemical composition of oxybenzone allows it easily to pass through the skin and placenta barriers. The UV filter is a recognized endocrine disrupting chemical and has been found in both fetal and umbilical cord blood. Some recent findings have associated higher levels of oxybenzone in women's urine with an increased incidence of giving birth to neonates with Hirschsprung's Disease.¹⁰³ Some studies have indicated menstrual cycle abnormalities, increased incidence of endometriosis, and uterine fibroid formation associated with exposure. Oxybenzone shows estrogenic activity at commonly found concentrations in the human body.¹⁰⁴ Oxybenzone undergoes hydroxylation in phase I metabolism, and then further conjugation in phase II metabolism.¹⁰ It is rapidly photo-oxidized after topical application producing a potent electrophile that reacts with antioxidants. This inactivation of important antioxidant systems causes concern for the harmful impact it may have on the epidermis.¹⁰⁶

GLYPHOSATE

GLYPHOSATE (GLY)

Glyphosate is a broad-spectrum herbicide used in over 750 different products, ranging from agriculture and forestry to home use. Glyphosate is the world's most widely produced herbicide and a key ingredient in products like Roundup™.¹⁰⁷ Glyphosate residues can be found in food and water, leading to exposure through consumption. Studies have shown that dietary intake is a significant source of glyphosate exposure, with higher levels detected in individuals consuming a conventional versus an organic diet.¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹⁰ Glyphosate can be found in indoor dust, which can lead to exposure through inhalation or ingestion of contaminated dust particles. This route of exposure is relevant for both urban and rural settings.¹¹¹⁻¹¹²

Glyphosate has been classified as a "probable carcinogen" by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), particularly associated with non-Hodgkin lymphoma.¹¹³ Glyphosate alters the gut microbiome by reducing microbial diversity and disrupting beneficial bacteria. Glyphosate affects microbes through interference with key pathways, including the shikimate pathway which is essential for the synthesis of aromatic amino acids in plants, fungi, and many bacteria. Exposure to glyphosate also impairs microbial functions essential for digestion, immunity, and health.¹¹⁴ Evidence indicates glyphosate can have significant adverse effects on the brain and behavior, increasing the risk for serious neurological diseases such as Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease.¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁸ Glyphosate exposure can lead to significant metabolic alterations, including disruptions in lipid metabolism and glucose homeostasis, higher urinary concentrations of glyphosate have been associated with an increased risk of T2DM.¹¹⁹⁻¹²⁰

Glyphosate is rapidly metabolized in the body, with half-lives generally ranging from a few hours to about a day.¹²¹⁻¹²⁴ Due to its high solubility in water glyphosate is readily absorbed across epithelial tissues, including the intestine, liver, and kidney.¹²⁵ Higher urinary glyphosate levels are associated with increased biomarkers of liver dysfunction and renal injury.¹²⁶⁻¹²⁷ The best way to reduce exposure to glyphosate is to eat organic foods. Multiple studies have demonstrated that an organic diet significantly reduces urinary glyphosate levels. Other ways to reduce exposure are avoiding living in areas where glyphosate is sprayed especially during spray season, genetically modified organism (GMO) foods, and animal products from which GMO foods were used to feed the animal.¹²⁸⁻¹³¹

References

1. Liu G, Cai W, Liu H, Jiang H, Bi Y, Wang H. The Association of Bisphenol A and Phthalates with Risk of Breast Cancer: A Meta-Analysis. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*. 2021;18(5):2375. doi:10.3390/ijerph18052375
2. Segovia- Mendoza M, Nava- Castro KE, Palacios- Arreola MI, Garay- Canales C, Morales- Montor J. How microplastic components influence the immune system and impact on children health: Focus on cancer. *Birth Defects Research*. 2020;112(17):1341-1361. doi:10.1002/bdr2.1779
3. Wang Y, Qian H. Phthalates and Their Impacts on Human Health. *Healthcare*. 2021;9(5):603. doi:10.3390/healthcare9050603
4. Benjamin S, Masai E, Kamimura N, Takahashi K, Anderson RC, Faisal PA. Phthalates impact human health: Epidemiological evidences and plausible mechanism of action. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*. 2017;340:360-383. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2017.06.036
5. (ATSDR. ATSDR Xylene ToxGuide.
6. Langman JM. Xylene: its toxicity, measurement of exposure levels, absorption, metabolism and clearance. *Pathology*. 1994;26(3):301-309. doi:10.1080/00313029400169711
7. Bisphenol A (BPA). National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences. September 17, 2024. Accessed November 15, 2024. <https://www.niehs.nih.gov/health/topics/agents/sya-bpa>
8. Coppola L, La Rocca C. Special Issue "Molecular Mechanisms of Bisphenol A Toxicity and Effects of Environmental Levels on Health." *International journal of molecular sciences*. 2023;24(9):8028. doi:10.3390/ijms24098028)
9. Martínez-Ibarra A, Martínez-Razo LD, MacDonald-Ramos K, et al. Multisystemic alterations in humans induced by bisphenol A and phthalates: Experimental, epidemiological and clinical studies reveal the need to change health policies. *Environmental pollution (Barking, Essex : 1987)*. 2021;271:116380. doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2020.116380)
10. Cimmino I, Fiory F, Perruolo G, et al. Potential Mechanisms of Bisphenol A (BPA) Contributing to Human Disease. *International journal of molecular sciences*. 2020;21(16):5761. doi:10.3390/ijms21165761)
11. Nachman RM, Hartle JC, Lees PSJ, Groopman JD. Early Life Metabolism of Bisphenol A: A Systematic Review of the Literature. *Current environmental health reports*. 2014;1(1):90-100. doi:10.1007/s40572-013-0003-7)
12. Oh J, Choi JW, Ahn YA, Kim S. Pharmacokinetics of bisphenol S in humans after single oral administration. *Environment International*. 2018;112:127-133. doi:10.1016/j.envint.2017.11.020
13. Liu J, Wattar N, Field CJ, Dinu I, Dewey D, Martin JW. Exposure and dietary sources of bisphenol A (BPA) and BPA-alternatives among mothers in the APrON cohort study. *Environment International*. 2018;119:319-326. doi:10.1016/j.envint.2018.07.001
14. Wu LH, Zhang XM, Wang F, et al. Occurrence of bisphenol S in the environment and implications for human exposure: A short review. *Science of The Total Environment*. 2018;615:87-98. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.09.194

[Return to
Table of Contents](#)

15. Pang Q, Li Y, Meng L, Li G, Luo Z, Fan R. Neurotoxicity of BPA, BPS, and BPB for the hippocampal cell line (HT-22): An implication for the replacement of BPA in plastics. *Chemosphere*. 2019;226:545-552. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.03.177
16. Ma Y, Liu H, Wu J, et al. The adverse health effects of bisphenol A and related toxicity mechanisms. *Environmental Research*. 2019;176:108575. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2019.108575
17. ATSDR. ATSDR Xylene ToxGuide
18. Langman JM. Xylene: its toxicity, measurement of exposure levels, absorption, metabolism and clearance. *Pathology*. 1994;26(3):301-309. doi:10.1080/00313029400169711
19. Styrene. National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences. Accessed December 4, 2023. <https://www.niehs.nih.gov/health/topics/agents/styrene/index.cfm>
20. Härkönen H, Holmberg PC. Obstetric histories of women occupationally exposed to styrene. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health*. 1982;8(1):74-77. doi:10.5271/sjweh.2493
21. Birks L, Casas M, Garcia AM, et al. S07-2 Occupational exposure to endocrine-disrupting chemicals and birth weight and length of gestation: a european meta-analysis. In: *Symposium 7 – Reproductive Health and Endocrine Disruption at the Workplace*. BMJ Publishing Group Ltd; 2016. Accessed December 4, 2023. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/oemed-2016-103951.285>
22. ATSDR. ATSDR Styrene ToxGuide.)
23. Styrene Factsheet. CDC. Published September 2, 2021. Accessed December 4, 2023. https://www.cdc.gov/biomonitoring/Styrene_FactSheet.html
24. Mendrala AL, Langvardt PW, Nitschke KD, Quast JF, Nolan RJ. In vitro kinetics of styrene and styrene oxide metabolism in rat, mouse, and human. *Archives of Toxicology*. 1993;67(1):18-27. doi:10.1007/bf02072030
25. Watabe T, Hiratsuka A. Metabolism and Genotoxicity of the Plastic Monomer Styrene. *Eisei kagaku*. 1983;29(5):247-263. doi:10.1248/jhs1956.29.5_247
26. ATSDR. ATSDR Benzene Tox Profile.
27. Bi Y, Li Y, Kong M, et al. Gene expression in benzene-exposed workers by microarray analysis of peripheral mononuclear blood cells: Induction and silencing of CYP4F3A and regulation of DNA-dependent protein kinase catalytic subunit in DNA double strand break repair. *Chemico-Biological Interactions*. 2010;184(1-2):207-211. doi:10.1016/j.cbi.2009.12.024
28. Niu Z, Wen X, Wang M, Tian L, Mu L. Personal exposure to benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylenes (BTEXs) mixture and telomere length: a cross-sectional study of the general US adult population. *Environmental Research*. 2022;209:112810. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2022.112810
29. Li W, Ruan W, Cui X, Lu Z, Wang D. Blood volatile organic aromatic compounds concentrations across adulthood in relation to total and cause specific mortality: A prospective cohort study. *Chemosphere*. 2022;286:131590. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2021.131590
30. Chapter 8 Benzene, toluene, xylene (BTX). In: *Industrial Catalysis*. De Gruyter; 2021:29-32. Accessed December 4, 2023. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/9783110542868-008>
31. Teras LR, Diver WR, Deubler EL, et al. Residential ambient benzene exposure in the United States and subsequent risk of hematologic malignancies. *International Journal of Cancer*. 2019;145(10):2647-2660. doi:10.1002/ijc.32202

32. Bahadar H, Mostafalou S, Abdollahi M. Current understandings and perspectives on non-cancer health effects of benzene: A global concern. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*. 2014;276(2):83-94. doi:10.1016/j.taap.2014.02.012
33. Al-Harbi M, Alhajri I, AlAwadhi A, Whalen JK. Health symptoms associated with occupational exposure of gasoline station workers to BTEX compounds. *Atmospheric Environment*. 2020;241:117847. doi:10.1016/j.atmosenv.2020.117847
34. 1999 CDC and ATSDR Symposium on Statistical Methods. *JAMA*. 1998;279(22):1776. doi:10.1001/jama.279.22.1776-jwr0610-4-1
35. Snyder R, Sammett D, Witmer C, Kocsis JJ. An Overview of the Problem of Benzene Toxicity and Some Recent Data on the Relationship of Benzene Metabolism to Benzene Toxicity. In: *Genotoxic Effects of Airborne Agents*. Springer US; 1982:225-240. Accessed December 4, 2023. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4613-3455-2_18
36. Rappaport SM, Kim S, Lan Q, et al. Human benzene metabolism following occupational and environmental exposures. *Chemico-Biological Interactions*. 2010;184(1-2):189-195. doi:10.1016/j.cbi.2009.12.017
37. Kawai T, Takeuchi A, Miyama Y, et al. Biological monitoring of occupational exposure to 1-bromopropane by means of urinalysis for 1-bromopropane and bromide ion. *Biomarkers*. 2001;6(5):303-312. doi:10.1080/13547500110034817
38. Kaneko Y, Omae K. Effect of Chronic Exposure to Acrylonitrile on Subjective Symptoms. *The Keio Journal of Medicine*. 1992;41(1):25-32. doi:10.2302/kjm.41.25
39. Dubois JL, Kaliaguine S. 2 Alternative routes to more sustainable acrylonitrile: biosourced acrylonitrile. In: *Industrial Green Chemistry*. De Gruyter; 2020:31-62. Accessed December 4, 2023. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/9783110646856-002>
40. Kedderis GL, Batra R, Koop DR. Epoxidation of acrylonitrile by rat and human cytochromes P450. *Chemical Research in Toxicology*. 1993;6(6):866-871. doi:10.1021/tx00036a017
41. Marsh GM, Gula MJ, Youk AO, Schall LC. Mortality among chemical plant workers exposed to acrylonitrile and other substances. *American Journal of Industrial Medicine*. 1999;36(4):423-436. doi:10.1002/(sici)1097-0274(199910)36:4<423::aid-ajim3>3.0.co;2-m
42. Sakurai H. Carcinogenicity and Other Health Effects of Acrylonitrile with Reference to Occupational Exposure Limit. *INDUSTRIAL HEALTH*. 2000;38(2):165-180. doi:10.2486/indhealth.38.165
43. Ichihara G. Neuro-reproductive toxicities of 1-bromopropane and 2-bromopropane. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*. 2004;78(2):79-96. doi:10.1007/s00420-004-0547-9
44. Toraason M, Lynch DW, DeBord DG, et al. DNA damage in leukocytes of workers occupationally exposed to 1-bromopropane. *Mutation Research/Genetic Toxicology and Environmental Mutagenesis*. 2006;603(1):1-14. doi:10.1016/j.mrgentox.2005.08.015
45. Kawai T, Takeuchi A, Miyama Y, et al. Biological monitoring of occupational exposure to 1-bromopropane by means of urinalysis for 1-bromopropane and bromide ion. *Biomarkers*. 2001;6(5):303-312. doi:10.1080/13547500110034817
46. Frasch HF, Dotson GS, Barbero AM. In vitro Human Epidermal Penetration of 1-Bromopropane. *Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health, Part A*. 2011;74(19):1249-1260. doi:10.1080/15287394.2011.595666

47. Zhang Y, Xiao J, Lv J, et al. Biomarkers of exposure and effect in the serum and urine of rats or workers exposed to 1-bromopropane. *Toxicology and Industrial Health*. 2022;38(6):351-364. doi:10.1177/07482337221096306
48. Lin CY, Lee HL, Jung WT, Sung FC, Su TC. The association between urinary levels of 1,3-butadiene metabolites, cardiovascular risk factors, microparticles, and oxidative stress products in adolescents and young adults. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*. 2020 Sep;396:122745
49. Penn A, Snyder CA. 1,3-Butadiene and Cardiovascular Disease. In: *Comprehensive Toxicology* [Internet]. Elsevier; 2018 [cited 2024 Feb 8]. p. 538-44. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-801238-3.66180-9>
50. ATSDR. ATSDR 1,3-Butadiene ToxGuide).
51. Landrigan PJ, Meinhardt TJ, Gordon J, Lipscomb JA, Burg JR, Mazzuckelli LF, et al. Ethylene oxide: An overview of toxicologic and epidemiologic research. *American Journal of Industrial Medicine*. 1984 Jan;6(2):103-15.
52. (ATSDR ToxGuide for Ethyleneoxide [cited 2024 Feb 7]. Available from: <http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxguides.ethyleneoxide> 137)
53. Li Q, Csanády GA, Kessler W, Klein D, Pankratz H, Pütz C, et al. Kinetics of Ethylene and Ethylene Oxide in Subcellular Fractions of Lungs and Livers of Male B6C3F1 Mice and Male Fischer 344 Rats and of Human Livers. *Toxicological Sciences*. 2011 Jul 23;123(2):384-98.)
54. (ATSDR) A for TS and DR. *ToxGuide for Vinyl Chloride*.
55. Lester C, Hewitt NJ, Müller-Vieira U, Mayer M, Ellison C, Duplan H, et al. Metabolism and plasma protein binding of 16 straight- and branched-chain parabens in in vitro liver and skin models. *Toxicology in Vitro*. 2021 Apr;72:105051
56. Charles AK, Darbre PD. Combinations of parabens at concentrations measured in human breast tissue can increase the proliferation of MCF- 7 human breast cancer cells. *Journal of Applied Toxicology*. 2013 Jan 31;33(5):390-8
57. Harvey PW, Everett DJ. Significance of the detection of esters of p- hydroxybenzoic acid (parabens) in human breast tumours. *Journal of Applied Toxicology*. 2004 Jan;24(1):1-4
58. Kolatorova L, Sramkova M, Vitku J, Vcelak J, Lischkova O, Starka L, et al. Parabens and Their Relation to Obesity. *Physiological Research*. 2018 Nov 12;S465-72
59. Dietary predictors of urinary environmental biomarkers in young girls, BCERP, 2004-7. (n.d.). *Environmental Research*, 133, 12-19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2014.04.040>
60. Lester C, Hewitt NJ, Müller-Vieira U, Mayer M, Ellison C, Duplan H, et al. Metabolism and plasma protein binding of 16 straight- and branched-chain parabens in in vitro liver and skin models. *Toxicology in Vitro*. 2021 Apr;72:105051
61. Charles AK, Darbre PD. Combinations of parabens at concentrations measured in human breast tissue can increase proliferation of MCF- 7 human breast cancer cells. *Journal of Applied Toxicology*. 2013 Jan 31;33(5):390-8
62. Harvey PW, Everett DJ. Significance of the detection of esters of p- hydroxybenzoic acid (parabens) in human breast tumours. *Journal of Applied Toxicology*. 2004 Jan;24(1):1-4
63. Kolatorova L, Sramkova M, Vitku J, Vcelak J, Lischkova O, Starka L, et al. Parabens and Their Relation to Obesity. *Physiological Research*. 2018 Nov 12;S465-72

64. Obringer C, Wu S, Troutman J, Karb M, Lester C. Effect of chain length and branching on the in vitro metabolism of a series of parabens in human liver S9, human skin S9, and human plasma. *Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology*. 2021 Jun;122:104918
65. Lakeram M, Paine AJ, Lockley DJ, Sanders DJ, Pendlington R, Forbes B. Transesterification of p-hydroxybenzoate esters (parabens) by human intestinal (Caco-2) cells. *Xenobiotica*. 2006 Jan;36(9):739-49
66. CDC. Appendix A: Background Information for Atrazine and Deethylatrazine. [atsdr.cdc.gov. https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/interactionprofiles/ip-10/ip10-a.pdf](https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/interactionprofiles/ip-10/ip10-a.pdf)
67. U.S. EPA, Toxicity and Exposure Assessment for Children's Health. Atrazine Chemical Summary . *TEACH Chemical Summaries*. Published online April 24, 2007. Accessed November 8, 2024. https://archive.epa.gov/region5/teach/web/pdf/atrazine_summary.pdf
68. ATSDR. ATSDR Atrazine ToxGuide
69. Zhao H, Qian H, Cui J, et al. Endocrine toxicity of atrazine and its underlying mechanisms. *Toxicology*. 2024;505:153846. doi:10.1016/j.tox.2024.153846
70. Horzmann KA, Lin LF, Taslakjian B, Yuan C, Freeman JL. Anxiety-related behavior and associated brain transcriptome and epigenome alterations in adult female zebrafish exposed to atrazine during embryogenesis. *Chemosphere*. 2022;308:136431. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.136431
71. Ricci EL, Zaccarelli-Magalhães J, Pantaleon LP, et al. Peripubertal exposure of atrazine cause decrease in exploratory activity, deficits in sociability and few alterations on brain monoaminergic systems of rats. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*. 2024;483:116819. doi:10.1016/j.taap.2024.116819
72. Owagboriaye F, Oladunjoye R, Adekunle O, et al. Human health risks and hepatotoxicity associated with exposure to atrazine surveyed in drinking water from Ijebu-North, Southwest, Nigeria. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*. 2023;195(3). doi:10.1007/s10661-023-10980-w
73. Remigio RV, Andreotti G, Sandler DP, et al. An Updated Evaluation of Atrazine-Cancer Incidence Associations among Pesticide Applicators in the Agricultural Health Study Cohort. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2024;132(2). doi:10.1289/ehp13684
74. Joo H, Choi K, Hodgson E. Human metabolism of atrazine. *Pesticide Biochemistry and Physiology*. 2010;98(1):73-79. doi:10.1016/j.pestbp.2010.05.002
75. Forde MS, Robertson L, Laouan Sidi EA, et al. Evaluation of exposure to organophosphate, carbamate, phenoxy acid, and chlorophenol pesticides in pregnant women from 10 Caribbean countries. *Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts*. 2015;17(9):1661-1671. doi:10.1039/c5em00247h
76. Wilson NK, Strauss WJ, Iroz-Elardo N, Chuang JC. Exposures of preschool children to chlorpyrifos, diazinon, pentachlorophenol, and 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid over 3 years from 2003 to 2005: A longitudinal model. *Journal of Exposure Science & Environmental Epidemiology*. 2009;20(6):546-558. doi:10.1038/jes.2009.45
77. de Azevedo Mello F, Magalhaes Silva BB, Barreiro EBV, et al. Evaluation of genotoxicity after acute and chronic exposure to 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid herbicide (2,4-D) in rodents using machine learning algorithms. *The Journal of Toxicological Sciences*. 2020;45(12):737-750. doi:10.2131/jts.45.737

78. Van Ravenzwaay B, Hardwick TD, Needham D, Pethen S, Lappin GJ. Comparative metabolism of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) in rat and dog. *Xenobiotica*. 2003;33(8):805-821. doi:10.1080/0049825031000135405
79. (41 Koureas M, Tsakalof A, Tsatsakis A, Hadjichristodoulou C. Systematic review of biomonitoring studies to determine the association between exposure to organophosphorus and pyrethroid insecticides and human health outcomes. *Toxicology Letters*. 2012;210(2):155-168. doi:10.1016/j.toxlet.2011.10.007
80. Pitzer EM, Williams MT, Vorhees CV. Effects of pyrethroids on brain development and behavior: v Deltamethrin. *Neurotoxicology and Teratology*. 2021;87:106983. doi:10.1016/j.ntt.2021.106983
81. Koureas M, Tsakalof A, Tsatsakis A, Hadjichristodoulou C. Systematic review of biomonitoring studies to determine the association between exposure to organophosphorus and pyrethroid insecticides and human health outcomes. *Toxicology Letters*. 2012;210(2):155-168. doi:10.1016/j.toxlet.2011.10.007
82. Yan D, Zhang Y, Liu L, Yan H. Pesticide exposure and risk of Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Scientific Reports*. 2016;6(1). doi:10.1038/srep32222
83. Godin SJ, Crow JA, Scollon EJ, Hughes MF, DeVito MJ, Ross MK. Identification of Rat and Human Cytochrome P450 Isoforms and a Rat Serum Esterase That Metabolize the Pyrethroid Insecticides Deltamethrin and Esfenvalerate. *Drug Metabolism and Disposition*. 2007;35(9):1664-1671. doi:10.1124/dmd.107.015388
84. Perry J, Cotton J, Rahman MA, Brumby S. Organophosphate exposure and the chronic effects on farmers: a narrative review. *Rural and Remote Health*. 2020 Jan 6
85. Fghihi-Zarandi A, Dabaghzadeh F, Vaziri A, Karami-Mohajeri S, Ghorbaninejad B, Zamani A, et al. Occupational risk assessment of organophosphates with an emphasis on psychological and oxidative stress factors. *Toxicology and Industrial Health*. 2022 May 5;38(6):342-50
86. Beach JR, Spurgeon A, Stephens R, Heafield T, Calvert IA, Levy LS, et al. Abnormalities on neurological examination among sheep farmers exposed to organophosphorous pesticides. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*. 1996 Aug 1;53(8):520-5
87. Kupfermann N, Schmoldt A, Steinhart H. Rapid and Sensitive Quantitative Analysis of Alkyl Phosphates in Urine after Organophosphate Poisoning. *Journal of Analytical Toxicology*. 2004 May 1;28(4):242-8
88. Meeker JD, Cooper EM, Stapleton HM, Hauser R. Exploratory analysis of urinary metabolites of phosphorus-containing flame retardants in relation to markers of male reproductive health. *Endocrine Disruptors*. 2013;1(1):e26306. doi:10.4161/endo.26306
89. Meeker JD, Stapleton HM. House Dust Concentrations of Organophosphate Flame Retardants in Relation to Hormone Levels and Semen Quality Parameters. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2010;118(3):318-323. doi:10.1289/ehp.0901332
90. Belcher SM, Cookman CJ, Patisaul HB, Stapleton HM. In vitro assessment of human nuclear hormone receptor activity and cytotoxicity of the flame retardant mixture FM 550 and its triarylphosphate and brominated components. *Toxicology Letters*. 2014;228(2):93-102. doi:10.1016/j.toxlet.2014.04.017
91. Pillai HK, Fang M, Beglov D, et al. Ligand Binding and Activation of PPAR - by Firemaster® 50: Effects on Adipogenesis and Osteogenesis in Vitro. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2014;122(11):1225-1232. doi:10.1289/ehp.1408111)

92. Wang X, Li F, Liu J, Ji C, Wu H. Transcriptomic, proteomic and metabolomic profiling unravel the mechanisms of hepatotoxicity pathway induced by triphenyl phosphate (TPP). *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*. 2020;205:111126. doi:10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.111126
93. Metabolic Mechanism of Aryl Phosphorus Flame Retardants by Cytochromes P450: A Combined Experimental and Computational Study on Triphenyl Phosphate. doi:10.1021/acs.est.8b03965.s001)
94. Martínez Steele E, Buckley JP, Monteiro CA. Ultra-processed food consumption and exposure to acrylamide in a nationally representative sample of the US population aged 6 years and older. *Preventive Medicine*. 2023;174:107598.) doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2023.107598
95. Konings EJM, Baars AJ, van Klaveren JD, et al. Acrylamide exposure from foods of the Dutch population and an assessment of the consequent risks. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*. 2003;41(11):1569-1579. doi:10.1016/s0278-6915(03)00187-x
96. Wang B, Wang X, Yu L, et al. Acrylamide exposure increases cardiovascular risk of general adult population probably by inducing oxidative stress, inflammation, and TGF- β 1: A prospective cohort study. *Environment International*. 2022;164:107261. doi:10.1016/j.envint.2022.107261
97. Mucci LA. Dietary Exposure to Acrylamide and Cancer Risk: The Role of Epidemiology. *Epidemiology*. 2006;17(Suppl):S78. doi:10.1097/00001648-200611001-00179
98. Capuano E, Fogliano V. Acrylamide and 5-hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF): A review on metabolism, toxicity, occurrence in food and mitigation strategies. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*. 2011;44(4):793-810. doi:10.1016/j.lwt.2010.11.002
99. Perchlorate Factsheet [Internet]. CDC. 2021 [cited 2024 Feb 8]. Available from: https://www.cdc.gov/biomonitoring/Perchlorate_FactSheet.html
100. ATSDR. ATSDR Perchlorates ToxGuide
101. PubChem. (n.d.). Oxybenzone. PubChem. Retrieved December 2, 2024, from <https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/Oxybenzone#section=Pharmacology-and-Biochemistry>
102. Guesmi, A., Ohlund, L., & Sleno, L. (2020). In vitro metabolism of sunscreen compounds by liquid chromatography/high-resolution tandem mass spectrometry. *Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry* : RCM, 34(8), e8679. <https://doi.org/10.1002/rcm.8679>
103. DiNardo, J. C., & Downs, C. A. (2019). Can oxybenzone cause Hirschsprung's disease? *Reproductive Toxicology* (Elmsford, N.Y.), 86, 98–100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.reprotox.2019.02.014>
104. Mustieles, V., Balogh, R. K., Axelstad, M., et al. (2023). Benzophenone-3: Comprehensive review of the toxicological and human evidence with meta-analysis of human biomonitoring studies. *Environment International*, 173, 107739. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2023.107739>
105. Metabolism of oxybenzone in a hairy root culture: Perspectives for phytoremediation of a widely used sunscreen agent. (n.d.). *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 306, 230–236. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2015.12.022>
106. Schallreuter, K. U., Wood, J. M., Farwell, D. W., Moore, J., & Edwards, H. G. (1996). Oxybenzone oxidation following solar irradiation of skin: Photoprotection versus antioxidant inactivation. *The Journal of Investigative Dermatology*, 106(3), 583–586. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1523-1747.ep12344991>
107. Henderson, A. M.; Gervais, J. A.; Luukinen, B.; Buhl, K.; Stone, D.; Cross, A.; Jenkins, J. 2010. Glyphosate General Fact Sheet; National Pesticide Information Center, Oregon State University Extension Services. <http://npic.orst.edu/factsheets/glyphogen.html>

108. Fagan J, Bohlen L, Patton S, Klein K. Organic diet intervention significantly reduces urinary glyphosate levels in U.S. children and adults. *Environmental Research*. 2020;189:109898. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2020.109898
109. Hyland C, Spivak M, Sheppard L, et al. Urinary Glyphosate Concentrations among Pregnant Participants in a Randomized, Crossover Trial of Organic and Conventional Diets. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2023;131(7). doi:10.1289/ehp12155
110. Lucia RM, Liao X, Huang WL, et al. Urinary glyphosate and AMPA levels in a cross-sectional study of postmenopausal women: Associations with organic eating behavior and dietary intake. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*. 2023;252:114211. doi:10.1016/j.ijheh.2023.114211
111. Saurat D, Raffy G, Bonvallet N, et al. Determination of glyphosate and AMPA in indoor settled dust by hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry and implications for human exposure. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*. 2023;446:130654. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2022.130654
112. Li ZM, Jeong H, Kannan K. Widespread occurrence of glyphosate and aminomethylphosphonic acid in indoor dust from urban homes across the United States and its contribution to human exposure. *Environment International*. 2024;192:109005. doi:10.1016/j.envint.2024.109005
113. IARC Monograph on Glyphosate. Accessed March 20, 2025. <https://www.iarc.who.int/featured-news/media-centre-iarc-news-glyphosate/>
114. Walsh L, Hill C, Ross RP. Impact of glyphosate (Roundup™) on the composition and functionality of the gut microbiome. *Gut Microbes*. 2023;15(2). doi:10.1080/19490976.2023.2263935
115. Ait-Bali Y, Ba-M'hamed S, Gambarotta G, Sassoè-Pognetto M, Giustetto M, Bennis M. Pre- and postnatal exposure to glyphosate-based herbicide causes behavioral and cognitive impairments in adult mice: evidence of cortical and hippocampal dysfunction. *Archives of Toxicology*. 2020;94(5):1703-1723. doi:10.1007/s00204-020-02677-7
116. Madani NA, Carpenter DO. Effects of glyphosate and glyphosate-based herbicides like Roundup™ on the mammalian nervous system: A review. *Environmental Research*. 2022;214:113933. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2022.113933
117. Li W, Lei D, Huang G, et al. Association of glyphosate exposure with multiple adverse outcomes and potential mediators. *Chemosphere*. 2023;345:140477. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2023.140477
118. Hsiao CC, Yang AM, Wang C, Lin CY. Association between glyphosate exposure and cognitive function, depression, and neurological diseases in a representative sample of US adults: NHANES 2013–2014 analysis. *Environmental Research*. 2023;237:116860. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2023.116860
119. Zhang F, Zhang Q, Liu X, et al. Human serum lipidomics analysis revealed glyphosate may lead to lipid metabolism disorders and health risks. *Environment International*. 2023;171:107682. doi:10.1016/j.envint.2022.107682
120. Zhang Q, Liu X, Gao M, et al. The study of human serum metabolome on the health effects of glyphosate and early warning of potential damage. *Chemosphere*. 2022;298:134308. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.134308
121. Zoller O, Rhyn P, Zarn JA, Dudler V. Urine glyphosate level as a quantitative biomarker of oral exposure. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*. 2020;228:113526. doi:10.1016/j.ijheh.2020.113526

122. Faniband MH, Norén E, Littorin M, Lindh CH. Human experimental exposure to glyphosate and biomonitoring of young Swedish adults. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*. 2021;231:113657. doi:10.1016/j.ijheh.2020.113657
123. Paosungnoen A, Kongtip P, Nankongnab N, Siri S, Robson MG, Woskie S. Estimation of glyphosate biological half-life among farmers and residents in Thailand. *Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International Journal*. 2024;30(3-4):311-325. doi:10.1080/10807039.2024.2347235
124. Connolly A, Jones K, Basinas I, et al. Exploring the half-life of glyphosate in human urine samples. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*. 2019;222(2):205-210. doi:10.1016/j.ijheh.2018.09.004
125. Xu J, Li G, Wang Z, et al. The role of L-type amino acid transporters in the uptake of glyphosate across mammalian epithelial tissues. *Chemosphere*. 2016;145:487-494. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2015.11.062
126. Liu J, Wang L, Li S, Lin Z, Yang G, Miao Z. Association of urine glyphosate levels with renal injury biomarkers in children living close to major vegetable-producing regions in China. *Science of The Total Environment*. 2024;912:168677. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.168677
127. Xiao T, Chen Y, Xu Y, et al. Higher urinary glyphosate exposure is associated with increased risk of liver dysfunction in adults: An analysis of NHANES, 2013–2016. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*. Published online October 19, 2023. doi:10.1007/s11356-023-30463-2
128. Hyland C, Bradman A, Gerona R, et al. Organic diet intervention significantly reduces urinary pesticide levels in U.S. children and adults. *Environmental Research*. 2019;171:568-575. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2019.01.024
129. Curl CL, Hyland C, Spivak M, et al. The Effect of Pesticide Spray Season and Residential Proximity to Agriculture on Glyphosate Exposure among Pregnant People in Southern Idaho, 2021. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2023;131(12). doi:10.1289/ehp12768
130. Hyland C, Spivak M, Sheppard L, et al. Urinary Glyphosate Concentrations among Pregnant Participants in a Randomized, Crossover Trial of Organic and Conventional Diets. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2023;131(7). doi:10.1289/ehp12155
131. Fagan J, Bohlen L, Patton S, Klein K. Organic diet intervention significantly reduces urinary glyphosate levels in U.S. children and adults. *Environmental Research*. 2020;189:109898. doi:10.1016/j.envres.2020.109898
132. Hansen LR, Roslev P. Behavioral responses of juvenile *Daphnia magna* after exposure to glyphosate and glyphosate-copper complexes. *Aquatic Toxicology*. 2016;179:36-43. doi:10.1016/j.aquatox.2016.08.010
133. Tsui MTK, Wang WX, Chu LM. Influence of glyphosate and its formulation (Roundup®) on the toxicity and bioavailability of metals to *Ceriodaphnia dubia*. *Environmental Pollution*. 2005;138(1):59-68. doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2005.02.018
134. Bemelmans N, Arbalestrie B, Agnan Y. Impact of glyphosate and aminomethylphosphonic acid on the mobility of trace elements in uncontaminated and contaminated agricultural soils. Goldschmidt2023 Abstracts. *European Association of Geochemistry*; 2023. Accessed March 20, 2025. <https://doi.org/10.7185/gold2023.14307>
135. Bemelmans N, Dejardin R, Arbalestrie B, Agnan Y. Glyphosate application may influence the transfer of trace elements from soils to both soil solutions and plants. *Chemosphere*. 2024;367:143603. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2024.143603



All trademarks are owned by the company and its affiliates.
©2025 Mosaic Diagnostics. All Rights Reserved. MDX-TOX-GUIDE 1-2025 v.1

Visit [MosaicDX.com](https://mosaicdx.com) for more resources

(800) 288-0383 customerservice@mosaicdx.com
8400 W 110th Street, Suite 500, Overland Park, KS 66210

