

International Journal of Science and Research Archive

eISSN: 2582-8185 CODEN (USA): IJSRO2 Cross Ref DOI: 10.30574/ijsra Journal homepage: https://ijsra.net/



(Review Article)



Microplastic pollution-A major health problem-An update

Kiran P. Kolkar ¹, Ravindra B. Malabadi ^{2, 3}*, Raju K. Chalannavar ⁴, Divakar MS ⁵, Swathi ⁴, Avinash A. Kamble ⁶, Kishore S. Karamchand ⁷, Karen Viviana Castaño Coronado ⁸, Antonia Neidilê Ribeiro Munhoz ⁹ and Simuzar S. Mammadova ¹⁰

- ¹ Department of Botany, Karnatak Science College, Dharwad-580003, Karnataka State, India.
- ² Miller Blvd, NW, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.
- ³ Scientist and Biotechnology Consultant (Independent), Shahapur- Belagavi-590003, Karnataka State, India.
- ⁴ Department of Applied Botany, Mangalore University, Mangalagangotri-574199, Mangalore, Karnataka State, India
- ⁵ Food Science and Nutrition, Department of Biosciences, Mangalore University, Mangalagangotri- 574199, Karnataka State, India.
- ⁶ Department of Industrial Chemistry, Mangalore University, Mangalagangotri- 574199, Karnataka State, India.
- ⁷ Department of Zoology, Poornaprajna College, Autonomous, Udupi- 576101, Karnataka State, India.
- ⁸ Chief Communications Officer (CCO), Research Issues and CO-Founder of LAIHA (Latin American Industrial Hemp Association), and CEO- CANNACONS, Bogota, D.C., Capital District, Colombia
- ⁹ Department of Chemistry, Environment and Food, Federal Institute of Amazonas, Campus Manaus Centro, Amazonas, Brazil- 69020-120
- ¹⁰ Department of Business Management, Azerbaijan State University of Economics (ASUE), 6 Istiglaliyyat Street, AZ 1001 Baku, AZERBAIJAN.

International Journal of Science and Research Archive, 2025, 14(03), 1551-1561

Publication history: Received on 11 February 2025; revised on 20 March 2025; accepted on 23 March 2025

Article DOI: https://doi.org/10.30574/ijsra.2025.14.3.0868

Abstract

Microplastics are small plastic pieces less than five millimeters long which can be harmful to ocean, aquatic and human life. Plastic is everywhere. A lot of it ends up in the ocean. Most plastics in the ocean break up into very small particles. These small plastic bits are called "microplastics. Other plastics are intentionally designed to be small. They're called microbeads and are used in many health and beauty products. Human uptake of microplastic occurs via inhalation of airborne fibers and ingestion of microplastic-contaminated foods and beverages. Contamination of food can also stem from airborne deposition and the release of microplastic particles and fibers from clothing, production lines and packaging. Additional chemicals are added to give the plastic particular characteristics. Some of these are carcinogens or endocrine disruptors such as bisphenol A and phthalates (plasticizers). Phthalates are associated with elevated blood pressure, obesity, elevated levels of triglycerides. Bisphenol A (BPA) is associated with breast, prostate, ovarian, and endometrial cancers. However, following the intake of microplastics into the human body, their fate and effects are still controversial and not well known and warrants further detailed clinical studies.

Keywords: Bisphenol A (BPA); Cancer; Dioxins; Endocrine Disruptors Microplastics; Phthalates; Plasticizers; Toxic Chemicals

1. Introduction

Microplastics (MPs) are defined by as "synthetic solid particles or polymeric matrices, with regular or irregular shape with size ranging from 1 μ m to 5 mm, of either primary or secondary manufacturing origin, which are insoluble in water [1-40-125]. Microplastics are a prolific environmental contaminant that have been evidenced in human tissues [1-40].

^{*} Corresponding author: Ravindra B. Malabadi

Human uptake of microplastics occurs via inhalation of airborne fibers and ingestion of microplastic-contaminated foods and beverages [1-50]. A key concern of microplastics pollution is whether they represent a risk to ecosystems and human health. However, there is much uncertainty associated with this issue [1-80]. Data on the exposure and effect levels of microplastics are therefore, required to evaluate the risk of microplastics to environments and human health [1-80-125]. The adverse effects on organisms that are exposed to microplastics can be separated into two categories: physical effects and chemical effects [40-85]. The former is related to the particle size, shape, and concentration of microplastics, and the latter is related to hazardous chemicals that are associated with microplastics [1-40]. Though data on microplastic exposure levels in environments and organisms have rapidly increased in recent decades, limited information is available on the chemicals that are associated with microplastics [1-40]. Now a days, microplastic particles have been ubiquitously detected in a broad range of shapes, polymers, sizes and concentrations in the environments of marine water, freshwater, agroecosystems, atmosphere, food, drinking-water, biota, and other remote locations [1-85-125]. Plastic and PTFE-coated cookware and food contact materials may release micro- and nanoplastics into food during food preparation [78]. Plastics are chemically stable compounds, comprised of a diverse suite of polymers, chemicals and additives used in a variety of industrial commercial and domestic products [78-125].

Microplastics come from a variety of sources, including from larger plastic debris that degrades into smaller and smaller pieces [1-60-125]. In addition, microbeads, a type of microplastic, are very tiny pieces of manufactured polyethylene plastic that are added as exfoliants to health and beauty products, such as some cleansers and toothpastes [1-60-125]. These tiny particles easily pass through water filtration systems and end up in the ocean and Great Lakes, posing a potential threat to aquatic life. Of growing societal concern is the risk microplastics pose to human health [1-60-125]. To date, microplastics have been found in the gastro-intestinal tract, lung tissues, blood and the placenta of humans. Intake can occur via inhalation of airborne microplastics, or ingestion of contaminated food and liquids [1-78-125]. Microplastics have been widely evidenced in fresh and bottled drinking water, with concentrations ranging 0-10,000 microplastics L-1 and a range of foodstuffs, including seafood, animal-products, plant-products, beverages, table salt, sugar, honey, milk, and tea bags [1-83-125]. Prior to harvest, microplastics can be ingested, adhered or otherwise takenup by animals and plants used in food [1-78-125]. Contamination of food can also stem from airborne deposition and the release of microplastic particles and fibers from clothing, production lines and packaging [1-40-125]. There is also growing evidence that preparing food with plastic food contact materials and cookware may also be contributing microand nanoplastics into prepared food [1-78]. One of the studies by Cole et al., (2024) [78] provides an estimation of the release of >10 µm microplastics from plastic cookware used to prepare food in a real-world scenario [1-78-125]. Both new and old plastic cookware were shown to release significantly greater amounts of microplastics and PTFE particles than non-plastic cookware [1-78]. The results of this study provide a warning that plastic and PTFE-coated cookware may introduce microplastics and PTFE-particles into food [1-78-125]. Based on the wider literature, the release of microplastics stem from thermal and mechanical degradation; as such, microplastic release is likely to be exacerbated if using hard or sharp utensils with plastic and PTFE-coated cookware or heating these materials at higher temperatures [1-78-125]. There is currently a paucity of high-quality data assessing the risks posed by microplastics and PTFE particles to human health [78]. In the following section, toxic chemicals and their effect on human health has been discussed and updated.

2. Microplastic: Toxic Chemical and Effects on Human Health

Microplastics can contain two types of chemicals: (i) additives and polymeric raw materials (e.g., monomers or oligomers) originating from the plastics, and (ii) chemicals absorbed from the surrounding ambience [1-78-83-125]. Additives are chemicals intentionally added during plastic production to give plastic qualities like color and transparency and to enhance the performance of plastic products to improve both the resistance to degradation by ozone, temperature, light radiation, mold, bacteria, humidity, mechanical, thermal and electrical resistance [1-78-83]. Plasticizers are complex chemical products that have low vapor pressure, are insoluble in liquids, are chemically stable, and which are inserted between molecular chains to reduce their forces of physical attraction and increase their mobility, workability or dispensability [1-78-83]. In this way, the flexibility and plasticity of a resin that is processed and the impact resistance of the product during use are increased [1-78-83-125].

Microplastics (MPs, with a particle size from 1 μ m to <5 mm) are ubiquitous pollutants on earth. These emerging pollutants have been found everywhere that they have been looked for in terrestrial and in aquatic (marine and freshwater) systems, as well as in the air (atmospheric transport and deposition) [1-78-83-125]. These plastic particles are readily taken up into organisms via ingestion and respiration and are found throughout food webs [1-78-83-125]. Their effects have been studied extensively in a wide range of plants and animals; health effects ranging from genetic and biochemical up to organismal levels have been reported [1-78-83-125]. Some of their observed negative impacts (i.e., tissue injury) can be tied to physical effects caused by their shape, size, volume, density, and roughness, while other impacts are due to the toxicity of chemical additives that can leach from the plastic (e.g., bisphenol A (BPA), phthalates,

polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs), and per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs), among other toxic substances) [1-78-83-125].

Plastics, including microplastics, have generally been regarded as harmful to organisms because of their physical characteristics [1-78-83-125]. There has recently been a call to understand and regard them as persistent, bioaccumulative, and toxic [1-78-85]. Furthermore, these chemicals can be released into tissues of animals that consume microplastics and can be responsible for the harmful effects observed on biological processes such as development, physiology, gene expression, and behavior [1-78-85-125]. In addition, microplastics that have been in the environment for a period of time get "weathered" and acquire additional chemicals adsorbed from the environment [1-78-83]. Microplastics are polymers created from monomers [1-78-83]. Additional chemicals are added to give the plastic particular characteristics. Some of these are carcinogens or endocrine disruptors such as bisphenol A and phthalates (plasticizers) [1-78-85]. Many of these chemicals have not been studied, so their toxicity is unknown [1-78-83]. Some toxic chemicals that are used in the production of microplastics include per-fluorooctanesulfonic acid (PFOS) [1-78-83-125]. Bisphenol A (BPA) and phthalates are known endocrine-disrupting chemicals that affect development and reproduction in humans and other species [1-78-83]. BPA and phthalates from microplastics may also induce changes in the neuroendocrine system and signaling [1-78-83-125]. Bisphenol A (BPA) can pass through the blood-brain barrier, and exposure is linked with neuropsychological dysfunction, neurobehavioral disorders, and neurodegenerative disease, as well as affecting DNA methylation, and epigenetic alterations that impact heart development and metabolism [1-78-83]. Other sources of microplastics include carpeting and personal care products [1-78-83]. Cigarette filters, made of cellulose acetate fibers (semi-synthetic plastic), are another major source of microplastics. It has been estimated that 4.5 trillion cigarette filters are littered annually, generating about 0.3 million tons of microplastics annually [1-78-83]. Toxic chemicals that are associated with cigarette filters (butts) include polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and metals [1-78-83-125]. **Phthalates** from cigarette filters have been shown to be toxic [1-78-83]. Following are the toxic chemicals of plastic preparation and affecting human health. These toxic chemicals might be leaching out when food material is heated in plastic container in microwave or exposure and inhalation of microplastic [1-78-83-125].

3. Brominated flame retardants (BFRs)

Brominated flame retardants (BFRs) are a class of chemicals used to reduce flammability in plastic products and prevent the spread of fires [1-78-83-125]. They are used in foams, polystyrenes, and epoxy resins that are used to manufacture electronic casings and wire coatings (examples include the plastic casings for computers, TVs, and home appliances), textiles, furniture foams, carpets, building materials, and are commonly found in plastic children's toys [1-78-83-125]. BFRs leach from products and are present in household dust. Small children ingest BFRs from hand to mouth behavior, and from mouthing toys made from recycled plastics that contain BFRs [1-78-83]. Processing of plastic waste is a significant source of human BFR exposure because although BFRs are controlled, the Stockholm Convention allows some BFRs in plastic materials for recycling [1-78-83-125]. Global sampling has demonstrated that the widespread presence of BFRs in plastic children's toys made from recycled plastics are available in stores throughout the world [1-78-83-125]. Brominated flame retardants (BFRs) disrupt male and female reproductive development, alter thyroid development, and affect neurodevelopment [1-78-83]. BRF exposure is associated with psychomotor and attention-related IQ performance in children [1-78-83-125].

4. UV stabilizers

UV stabilizers are chemical additives used to protect plastic building materials, automotive parts, waxes, and paints from deterioration due to UV radiation [1-78-83-125]. Several UV stabilizers are on the Candidate List of Substances of Very High Concern by the European Chemicals Agency (ECHA) because of their persistent, bio-accumulative, and toxic nature [1-78-83]. The Swiss government has recently submitted a proposal to the Stockholm Convention to list UV-328, for listing as a Persistent Organic Pollutant under provisions of the Stockholm Convention [1-78-83]. UV stabilizers can leach from food packaging materials into our food. The chemicals also have been found in house dust. Several studies demonstrated that UV stabilizers disrupt endocrine function, impeding normal development and inducing estrogenic effects [1-78-83-125].

5. Dioxins

Dioxins, considered the world's most toxic substances, are byproducts of industrial and combustion processes [1-78-83-125]. Dioxins occur in the production of plastic products with BFRs. When plastics with BFRs are incinerated or heated in a recycling process to be re-molded into new products. There is no safe level of dioxin exposure [1-78-83-125]. They are fat soluble, bind to soils, and can accumulate in animal and human fatty tissues. Dioxin exposures affect

brain development, disrupt thyroid and immune system functions, and are associated with increased risk of multiple cancers, and immune system damage. Dioxin exposures can occur through oral, dermal and inhalation routes [1-78-83-125]. Children mouthing toys made of recycled plastic that derives from e-waste are at risk of dangerous health effects from the toxic material. Dioxin contamination of local food chains has been documented in communities where e-waste shipments are dumped and incinerated, landfills where plastic waste accumulates, and where plastic waste is incinerated for fuel at levels that are comparable to dioxin hotspots [1-78-83-125].

6. Phthalates

Phthalates are chemical additives widely used to produce or promote flexibility and to reduce brittleness in plastics [1-78-83-125]. Phthalates are used as plasticizers in PVC consumer, medical, and building products, as matrices and solvents in personal care products, and as fillers in medications and dietary supplements, food and beverage packaging, and children's toys [1-78-83-125]. The phthalate DEHP is common in medical devices such as plastic tubing. Some phthalates are restricted in the European Union and are classified as substances of very high concern [1-78-83-125]. Daily human exposures via oral ingestion, inhalation, and skin contact are common. Phthalates frequently leach from items such as food packaging, cosmetics, body care products, and toys into the environment and into products that humans use and consume. The most common routes of exposure are via oral ingestion from food packaging and the use of cosmetic products, but high levels of phthalates are also present in household dust [1-78-83-125]. metabolized quickly and are present in 90-100% of amniotic fluid samples from second-trimester fetuses, cord blood samples from newborns, breast milk from nursing mothers, and even in human ovarian follicular fluid [1-78-83-125]. Phthalates reduce testosterone and estrogen levels, block thyroid hormone action, and have been identified as reproductive toxicants [1-78-83-125]. Decreased pregnancy and high miscarriage rates, anemia, toxemia, preeclampsia, early menopause, and abnormal sex steroid hormone levels are associated with phthalates. Phthalate exposures are not only associated with reduced fertility but can affect fertility across multiple generations [1-78-83-125]. Developmental exposure to phthalates affects gene expression, and perinatal phthalate exposure affects asocial behaviors [1-78-83]. Phthalate exposure increases the risk of insulin resistance and has been persistently linked to diabetes. Phthalates are associated with elevated blood pressure, obesity, elevated levels of triglycerides [1-78-83-125].

7. Alkylphenols

Commonly used in latex paints, pesticides, industrial cleaners, detergents, personal care products, and many different kinds of plastics as UV stabilizers, alkylphenols are used to spread substances like paints and coatings over surfaces [1-78-83-125]. Alkylphenols are used in numerous applications that contribute to human exposures, including cleaners and degreasers, adhesives, emulsifiers, cosmetics, and personal care products, paints, and dust control agents [1-78-83-125]. Some alkylphenols are approved for use as indirect food contact substances, and others are used as heat stabilizers for PVC in water pipes and flooring [1-78-83]. These chemicals mimic estrogen and disrupt reproductive systems. Alkylphenols are linked to male infertility, low sperm count, and disrupted prostate development. Studies have shown occupational exposures is associated with heightened risk of male and female breast cancers [1-78-83-125].

8. Bisphenols (bisphenol A -BPA)

Bisphenols, such as bisphenol A (BPA), are used as chemical building blocks in polycarbonate plastics and epoxy resins and are used in reusable food and beverage containers, re-usable water bottles, the linings of food cans, medical and sports equipment, eyeglass lenses, thermal paper receipts, and plastic water pipes [1-78-83-125]. BPA leaches from landfills to contaminate wastewater, groundwater, and freshwater, and has been found around the world in beach sand from plastic marine waste. BPA, listed as a substance of very high concern by the European Union, and has been demonstrated to be toxic by hundreds of chemicals studies [1-78-83-125]. Many countries have moved to ban PBA from baby bottles, but there is strong evidence that replacement chemicals exhibit the same health impacts [1-78-83]. A large body of evidence confirms that BPA can affect brain development and behavior. Exposure can increase anxiety, depression, hyperactivity, inattention, behavioral problem, and is also associated with adverse reproductive outcomes affecting cell division in eggs [1-78-83-125]. BPA is associated with Polycystic Ovary Syndrome (PCOS)—a complex hormonal condition associated with irregular menstrual cycles, reduced fertility, and increased risk of diabetes. In men, BPA affects fertility and is associated with sexual dysfunction among men exposed to high occupational levels. BPA is associated with breast, prostate, ovarian, and endometrial cancers [1-78-83-125].

9. Perfluorinated chemicals

Perfluorinated chemicals are widely used in water and stain-resistant clothing, food contact wrappers, lubricants, carpet treatments, paints, cookware, and as a dispersant in firefighting foams, as well as other industrial and consumer applications [1-78-83-125]. PFAS and PFOA are listed under the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic

Pollutants, and PFHxS, used as a substitute, has been recommended for listing by the convention's technical experts [1-78-83-125]. Perfluorinated chemicals are used to make fluoropolymers for plastics. PFAS chemicals contaminate local water sources. The use of PFAS chemicals in industry and firefighting foam used in airports and military bases are sources of pervasive drinking water and groundwater contamination throughout the world. Most people are exposed to PFAS from drinking tap water [1-78-83-125]. PFAS also leaches into local water systems from PFAS containing waste in landfills. In addition, PFAS leaches from wrappers and cookware into our food [1-78-83-125]. PFAS are metabolism disrupting chemicals affecting the immune systems, liver, and thyroid function. They alter puberty, raise breast cancer risk, and are associated with kidney, testicular, prostate, and ovarian cancers, and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma [1-78-83-125].

The intake of microplastics by humans is quite evident. According to the literature survey by Campanale et al., (2020) [79], the entry point may be through ingestion (through contaminated food or via trophic transfer), through inhalation, or through skin contact [1-78-83-125]. Following the intake of microplastics into the human body, their fate and effects are still controversial and not well known [79-125]. Only microplastics smaller than 20 μm should be able to penetrate organs, and those with a size of about 10 µm should be able to access all organs, cross cell membranes, cross the bloodbrain barrier, and enter the placenta, assuming that a distribution of particles in secondary tissues, such as the liver, muscles, and the brain is possible [79]. Not enough information is available to fully understand the implications of microplastics for human health [1-79-83]. However, effects may potentially be due to their physical properties (size, shape, and length), chemical properties (presence of additives and polymer type), concentration, or microbial biofilm growth [1-79-83-125]. How toxic chemicals adsorb/desorb onto/from microplastics is not well known, but plausible mechanisms include hydrophobic interactions, pH variations, the ageing of particles, and polymer composition [79-125]. Furthermore, not enough studies have fully explained the primary sources of pollutants that are present on microplastics and whether their origin is extrinsic from the surrounding ambient space, intrinsic from the plastic itself. Furthermore probably, from a combination of both and from a continuous and dynamic process of absorption and desorption that is related to the spread of the particles into the environment and to their consequent exposure to weathering[1-79-83-86-125].

10. Conclusion

On the basis of literature survey, it is reported that microplastics (1) contain toxic chemicals, including bisphenols and phthalates that are carcinogens or endocrine disruptors. Microplastics can adsorb additional chemicals from the aquatic environment, including metals, PAHs, chlorinated pesticides, and industrial chemicals such as PCBs. Studies have also demonstrated that these chemicals can be transferred to exposed organisms and chemicals from plastics can cause toxic effects. A large body of evidence confirms that bisphenol A (BPA) can affect brain development and behavior. Exposure can increase anxiety, depression, hyperactivity, inattention, behavioral problem, and is also associated with adverse reproductive outcomes affecting cell division in eggs. Alkylphenols are linked to male infertility, low sperm count, and disrupted prostate development. Decreased pregnancy and high miscarriage rates, anemia, toxemia, pre-eclampsia, early menopause, and abnormal sex steroid hormone levels are associated with phthalates. Phthalate exposures are not only associated with reduced fertility but can affect fertility across multiple generations. Children mouthing toys made of recycled plastic that derives from e-waste are at risk of dangerous health effects from the toxic material. Brominated flame retardants (BFRs) are a class of chemicals used to reduce flammability in plastic products and prevent the spread of fires. Brominated flame retardants (BFRs) disrupt male and female reproductive development, alter thyroid development, and affect neurodevelopment.

Therefore, avoid drinking tea, coffee and any hot beverages in the plastic cups. Toxic chemicals of the plastic cups enter into beverages leading to cancer and other health related issues. Avoid warming food in plastic containers in microwave. This also resulted in the leakage of toxic chemicals of the plastic and ends up in the major health issues like cancer, loss of male sterility, and other health issues.

Compliance with ethical standards

Disclosure of conflict of interest

No conflict of interest to be disclosed.

References

- [1] Weis JS, Alava JJ. (Micro)Plastics Are Toxic Pollutants. Toxics. 2023; 11: 935. https://doi.org/10.3390/toxics11110935.
- [2] Baj J, Dring JC, Czeczelewski M, Kozyra P, Forma A, Flieger J, Kowalska B, Buszewicz G, Teresinski G. Derivatives of Plastics as Potential Carcinogenic Factors: The Current State of Knowledge. Cancers. 2022; 14: 4637. https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers14194637.
- [3] Deng X, Gui Y, Zhao L. The micro(nano)plastics perspective: exploring cancer development and therapy. Molecular Cancer. 2025: 24:30. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12943-025-02230-z.
- [4] Wang X, Xing Y, Lv M, Zhang T, Ya H, Jiang B. Recent advances on the effects of microplastics on elements cycling in the environment. Sci Total Environ. 2022:849:157884.
- [5] Zhao B, Rehati P, Yang Z, Cai Z, Guo C, Li Y. The potential toxicity of microplas-tics on human health. Sci Total Environ. 2024;912:168946.
- [6] Hirt N, Body-Malapel M. Immunotoxicity and intestinal effects of nano- and microplastics: A review of the literature. Part Fibre Toxicol. 2020;17:57.
- [7] Casella C, Ballaz SJ. Genotoxic and neurotoxic potential of intracellular nano¬plastics: A review. J Appl Toxicol. 2024;44:1657–78.
- [8] Casella C, Vadivel D, Dondi D. The Current Situation of the Legislative Gap on Microplastics (MPs) as New Pollutants for the Environment. Water, Air, & Soil. Pollution. 2024;235.
- [9] Li S, Keenan JI, Shaw IC, Frizelle FA. Could Microplastics Be a Driver for Early Onset Colorectal Cancer? Cancers (Basel). 2023; 24;15(13):3323. doi: 10.3390/cancers15133323.
- [10] Cheng Y, Yang Y, Bai L. et al. Microplastics: An often-over looked issue in the transition from chronic inflammation to cancer. J. Transl Med. 2024; 22: 959. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12967-024-05731-5.
- [11] Auta HS, Emenike CU, Fauziah SH. Distribution and importance of micro¬plastics in the marine environment: A review of the sources, fate, effects, and potential solutions. Environ Int. 2017;102:165–76.
- [12] Alimba CG, Faggio C. Microplastics in the marine environment: Current trends in environmental pollution and mechanisms of toxicological profile. Env. Toxicol. Pharm. 2019; 68: 61–74.
- [13] Rakowski M, Grzelak A. A new occupational and environmental hazard-nanoplastic. Med. Pr. 2020; 71: 743–756.
- [14] Rhodes CJ. Plastic pollution and potential solutions. Sci. Prog. 2018; 101: 207–260.
- [15] Lau WWY, Shiran Y et al., Evaluating scenarios toward zero plastic pollution. Science. 2020; 369:1455–1461.
- [16] Meijer LJJ, van Emmerik T. et al., More than 1000 rivers account for 80% of global riverine plastic emissions into the ocean. Sci. Adv. 2021; 7: eaaz5803.
- [17] Setälä O, Fleming-Lehtinen V, Lehtiniemi M. Ingestion and transfer of microplastics in the planktonic food web. Environ. Pollut. 2014; 185: 77–83.
- [18] Van Emmerik T, Schwarz A. Plastic debris in rivers. WIREs Water. 2020; 7, e1398.
- [19] Waring R, Harris R, Mitchell S. Plastic contamination of the food chain: A threat to human health? Maturitas 2018; 115: 64–68.
- [20] Wright SL, Kelly FJ. Plastic and Human Health: A Micro Issue? Environ. Sci. Technol. 2017; 51: 6634-6647.
- [21] Toussaint B, Raffael B. et al., Review of micro- and nanoplastic contamination in the food chain. Food Addit. Contam. Part A. 2019; 36: 639–673.
- [22] Yee M, Hii, LW et al., Impact of Microplastics and Nanoplastics on Human Health. Nanomaterials. 2021; 11: 496.
- [23] Ebere EC et al., Uptake of microplastics by plant: A reason to worry or to be happy? World Sci. News. 2019; 131: 256–267.
- [24] Mintenig SM. et al., Low numbers of microplastics detected in drinking water from ground water sources. Sci. Total Environ. 2019; 648: 631–635.
- [25] Gasperi J, et al., Microplastics in air: Are we breathing it in? Curr. Opin. Environ. Sci. Health. 2018;1:1-5.

- [26] Ragusa A et al. Plasticenta: First evidence of microplastics in human placenta. Environ. Int. 2020; 146: 106274.
- [27] Schwabl P et al., Detection of Various Microplastics in Human Stool, Ann. Intern. Med. 2019: 171: 453-457.
- [28] Domenech J, Marcos R. Pathways of human exposure to microplastics, and estimation of the total burden. Curr. Opin. Food Sci. 2021; 39: 144–151.
- [29] Zarus GM et al., A review of data for quantifying human exposures to micro and nanoplastics and potential health risks. Sci. Total Environ. 2020; 756: 144010.
- [30] Anderson, A et al., icroplastics in personal care products: Exploring perceptions of environmentalists, beauticians and students. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 2016; 113: 454–460.
- [31] EFSA Panel on Contaminants in the Food Chain (Contam). Presence of microplastics and nanoplastics in food, with particular focus on seafood. EFSA J. 2016; 14: e04501.
- [32] Campanale C et al., A Detailed Review Study on Potential Effects of Microplastics and Additives of Concern on Human Health. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health. 2020; 17: 1212.
- [33] Gregory MR. Plastic 'scrubbers' in hand cleansers: A further (and minor) source for marine pollution identified. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 1996; 32: 867–871.
- [34] Sharma S, Chatterjee S. Microplastic pollution, a threat to marine ecosystem and human health: A short review. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 2017; 24: 21530–21547.
- [35] Fendall LS, Sewell MA. Contributing to marine pollution by washing your face: Microplastics in facial cleansers. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 2009; 58: 1225–1228.
- [36] Napper IE et al., Characterisation, quantity and sorptive properties ofmicroplastics extracted from cosmetics. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 2015; 99:178–185.
- [37] Thompson R et al., New Directions in Plastic Debris. Science. 2005; 310: 1117.
- [38] Andrady AL. Microplastics in the marine environment. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 2011; 62:1596–1605.
- [39] Pironti C et al., Microplastics in the Environment: Intake through the Food Web, Human Exposure and Toxicological Effects. Toxics. 2021; 9: 224.
- [40] Kik K et al., Polystyrene nanoparticles: Sources, occurrence in the environment, distribution in tissues, accumulation and toxicity to various organisms. Environ. Pollut. 2020; 262: 114297.
- [41] Andrady AL, Rajapakse N. Additives and Chemicals in Plastics. In Hazardous Chemicals Associated with Plastics in the Marine Environment; Takada, H., Karapanagioti, H.K., Eds.; The Handbook of Environmental Chemistry; Springer International Publishing: Cham, Switzerland, 2019; pp. 1–17. ISBN 978-3-319-95568-1.
- [42] Verla AW et al., Microplastic-toxic chemical interaction: A review study on quantified levels, mechanism and implication. SN Appl. Sci. 2019; 1: 1400.
- [43] Weis JS, Alava JJ. (Micro) Plastics Are Toxic Pollutants. Toxics. 2023; 17;11(11):935. doi: 10.3390/toxics11110935.
- [44] New study links microplastics to serious health harms in humans | Environmental Working Group (ewg.org).
- [45] Marfella R et al., Microplastics and Nanoplastics in Atheromas and Cardiovascular Events. N Engl J Med. 2024;390:900-910 DOI: 10.1056/NEJMoa2309822. VOL. 390 NO. 10.
- [46] What's in your water bottle? Concerns about microplastics in caps | Environmental Working Group (ewg.org).
- [47] Difference Among Microplastics, Phthalates, BPA, and PFAS Consumer Reports.
- [48] Haleem N, Kumar P, Zhang C, Jamal Y, Hua G, Yao B, Yang X. Microplastics and associated chemicals in drinking water: A review of their occurrence and human health implications. Science of The Total Environment. 2024; 912:169594. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.169594.
- [49] Why You Should Never Microwave Food In Plastic Beyond Plastics Working To End Single-Use Plastic Pollution.
- [50] Are Dangerous Chemicals Getting into Your Food from Plastic Containers and Plastic Wrap? National Center for Health Research (center4research.org).

- [51] Wirnkor VA et al., Microroplastics, an Emerging Concern: A Review of Analytical Techniques for Detecting and Quantifying Microplatics. Anal. Methods Environ. Chem. J. 2019; 2: 13–30.
- [52] Almeida S et al., Bisphenol A: Food Exposure and Impact on Human Health. Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf. 2018; 17: 1503–1517.
- [53] Cox KD et al., Human Consumption of Microplastics. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2019; 53: 7068-7074.
- [54] Oßmann BE et al., Small-sized microplastics and pigmented particles in bottled mineral water. Water Res. 2018; 141: 307–316.
- [55] Chang X et al., Potential health impact of environmental micro- and nanoplastics pollution. J. Appl. Toxicol. 2019; 40: 4–15.
- [56] Prata JC. Airborne microplastics: Consequences to human health? Environ. Pollut. 2018; 234: 115–126.
- [57] Kang H.-M et al., Different effects of nano- and microplastics on oxidative status and gut microbiota in the marine medaka Oryzias melastigma. J. Hazard. Mater. 2020; 405: 124207.
- [58] Leslie, HA et al., Discovery and quantification of plastic particle pollution in human blood. Environ. Int. 2022; 163: 107199.
- [59] Vincoff S et al., The Known and Unknown: Investigating the Carcinogenic Potential of Plastic Additives. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2024; 58: 10445–10457.
- [60] Zhao B et al., The potential toxicity of microplastics on human health. Science of The Total Environment. 2024; 912: 168946. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.168946.
- [61] Osman AI, Hosny M, Eltaweil AS, Omar S, Elgarahy AM, Farghali M, Yap PS, Wu YS, Nagandran S, Batumalaie K, Gopinath SCB, John OD, Sekar M, Saikia T, Karunanithi P, Hatta MHM, Akinyede KA. Microplastic sources, formation, toxicity and remediation: a review. Environ Chem Lett. 2023; 4:1-41. doi: 10.1007/s10311-023-01593-3.
- [62] Menger et al., Screening the release of chemicals and microplastic particles from diverse plastic consumer products into water under accelerated UV weathering conditions. Journal of Hazardous Materials. 2024; 477: 135256.
- [63] Ali T, Habib A, Muskan F, Mumtaz S, Shams R. Health risks posed by microplastics in tea bags: Microplastic pollution a truly global problem. Int J Surg. 2023; 1;109(3):515-516. doi: 10.1097/JS9.000000000000055.
- [64] Wang Y, Xu X, Jiang G. Microplastics exposure promotes the proliferation of skin cancer cells but inhibits the growth of normal skin cells by regulating the inflammatory process. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf. 2023; 15;267:115636. doi: 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2023.115636.
- [65] MacLeod M, Arp HPH, Tekma MB, Jahnke A. The global threat from plastic pollution. Science. 2021; 373: 61–65.
- [66] Weis JS, Palmquist KH. Reality check: Experimental studies on microplastics lack realism. Appl. Sci. 2021; 11: 8529.
- [67] Wang H et al., The toxicity of microplastics and their leachates to embryonic development of the sea cucumber Apostichopus japonicus. Mar. Environ. Res. 2023; 190: 106114.
- [68] Fries E, Suhring R. The unusual suspects: Screening for persistent, mobile and toxic plastic additives in plastic leachates. Environ. Pollut. 2023; 335: 122263.
- [69] Luo H et al., Interactions between microplastics and contaminants: A review focusing on the effect of aging process. Sci. Total Environ. 2023; 899: 165615.
- [70] Diepens NJ, Koelmans AA. Accumulation of plastic debris and associated contaminants in aquatic food webs. Enviro. Sci. Technol. 2018; 52: 8510–8520.
- [71] Brennecke D et al., Microplastics as vector for heavy metal contamination from the marine environment. Estuar. Coast. Shelf Sci. 2016; 178: 189–195.
- [72] Verla AW et al., Microplastic-toxic chemical interaction: A review study on quantified levels, mechanism and implication. SN Appl. Sci. 2019; 1:1400.
- [73] Manikkam M et al., Plastics derived endocrine disruptors (BPA, DEHP and DBP) induce epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of obesity, reproductive disease and sperm epimutations. PLoS ONE; 2013:8, e55387.

- [74] Wang H et al., Bisphenol-a induces neurodegeneration through disturbance of intracellular calcium homeostasis in human embryonic stem cells-derived cortical neurons. Chemosphere. 2019; 229, 618–630.
- [75] Peretz J et al. Bisphenol A and reproductive health: Update of experimental and human evidene, 2007–2013. Environ. Health Persp. 2014; 122: 775–786.
- [76] Solleiro-Villavicencio H et al., The detrimental effect of microplastics on critical periods of development in the neuroendocrine system. Birth Defects Res. 2020; 112: 1326–1340.
- [77] Meeker JD, Sathyanarayana S, Swan SH. Phthalates and other additives in plastics: Human exposure and associated health outcomes. Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B Biol. Sci. 2009; 364: 2097–2113.
- [78] Wiesinger H, Wang Z, Hellweg S. Deep dive into plastic monomers, additives, and processing aids. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2021; 55: 9339–9351.
- [79] Everaert G et al., Risks of floating microplastic in the global ocean. Environ. Pollut. 2020; 267: 115499.
- [80] Cole M et al., Microplastic and PTFE contamination of food from cookware. Science of the Total Environment. 2024:172577.
- [81] Campanale C, Massarelli C, Savino I, Locaputo V, Uricchio VF. A Detailed Review Study on Potential Effects of Microplastics and Additives of Concern on Human Health. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2020; 13;17(4):1212. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17041212.
- [82] Pivokonsky M et al., Occurrence of microplastics in raw and treated drinking water. Sci. Total Environ. 2018; 643: 1644–165.
- [83] Frias J, Nash R. Microplastics: Finding a consensus on the definition. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 2018; 138: 145–147.
- [84] Andrady AL, Rajapakse N. Additives and Chemicals in Plastics. Hazardous Chemicals Associated with Plastics in the Marine Environment. In The Handbook of Environmental Chemistry; Takada, H., Karapanagioti, H., Eds.; Springer: Cham, Switzerland, 2016; p. 78.
- [85] Massos A, Turner A. Cadmium, lead and bromine in beached microplastics. Environ. Pollut. 2017; 227: 139–145.
- [86] Jambeck JR et al., Plastic waste inputs from land into the ocean. Science. 2015; 347:768–771.
- [87] Liao Y, Yang J. Microplastic serves as a potential vector for Cr in an in-vitro human digestive model. Sci. Total. Environ. 2019.
- [88] Belmaker I et al., Adverse health effects of exposure to plastic, microplastics and their additives: environmental, legal and policy implications for Israel. Israel Journal of Health Policy Research. 2024; 13:44. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13584-024-00628-6.
- [89] King S, Locock KE. A circular economy framework for plastics: a semisystematic review. J Clean Prod. 2002;364: 132503.
- [90] Bouwmeester H, Hollman PC, Peters RJ. Potential health impact of environmentally released micro- and nanoplastics in the human food production chain: experiences from nanotoxicology. Environ Sci Technol. 2015;49(15):8932–47.
- [91] Chang X, Xue Y, Li J, Zou L, Tang M. Potential health impact of environmental micro- and nanoplastics pollution. J. Appl. Toxicol. 2020;40(1):4–15.
- [92] Machtinger R, Berman T, Adir M, Mansur A, Baccarelli AA, Racowsky C, et al. Urinary concentrations of phthalate metabolites, bisphenols and personal care product chemical biomarkers in pregnant women in Israel. Environ Int. 2018;116:319–25.
- [93] Ramírez Carnero A, Lestido-Cardama A, Vazquez Loureiro P, Barbosa- Pereira L, Rodríguez Bernaldo de Quirós A, Sendón R. Presence of perfluoroalkyl and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) in food contact materials (FCM) and its migration to food. Foods. 2021;10(7).
- [94] Rudel RA, Gray JM, Engel CL, Rawsthorne TW, Dodson RE, Ackerman JM, et al. Food packaging and bisphenol A and bis(2-ethyhexyl) phthalate exposure: findings from a dietary intervention. Environ Health Perspect. 2011;119(7):914–20.
- [95] Gore AC, La Merrill MA, Patisaul H, Sargis RM. Endocrine distrupting chemicls: Threats to human health: pesticides, plastics, forever chemicals, and beyond. Endocrine Society; 2024.

- [96] Authority EFS. Outcome of a public consultation on the draft risk assessment of perfluoroalkyl substances in food. EFSA Supporting Publications. 2020;17(9):1931E.
- [97] Sun Z, Wen Y, Wang B, Deng S, Zhang F, Fu Z, et al. Toxic effects of per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances on sperm: Epidemiological and experimental evidence. Front Endocrinol (Lausanne). 2023;14:1114463.
- [98] Stahl T, Mattern D, Brunn H. Toxicology of perfluorinated compounds. Environ Sci Eur. 2011;23:38.
- [99] Sevelsted A, Gürdeniz G, Rago D, Pedersen CT, Lasky-Su JA, Checa A, et al. Effect of perfluoroalkyl exposure in pregnancy and infancy on intrauterine and childhood growth and anthropometry. Sub study from COPSAC2010 birth cohort. EBioMedicine. 022;83:104236.
- [100] Mora AM, Oken E, Rifas-Shiman SL, Webster TF, Gillman MW, Calafat AM, et al. Prenatal exposure to perfluoroalkyl substances and adiposity in early and mid-childhood. Environ Health Perspect. 2017;125(3):467– 73
- [101] Gore AC, Chappell VA, Fenton SE, Flaws JA, Nadal A, Prins GS, et al. EDC- 2: The endocrine society's second scientific statement on endocrinedisrupting chemicals. Endocr Rev. 2015;36(6):E1-e150.
- [102] Szilagyi JT, Avula V, Fry RC. Perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) and their effects on the placenta, pregnancy, and child development: a potential mechanistic role for placental peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs). Curr Environ Health Rep. 2020;7(3):222–30.
- [103] Trasande L, Nelson ME, Alshawabkeh A, Barrett ES, Buckley JP, Dabelea D, et al. Prenatal phthalate exposure and adverse birth outcomes in the USA: a prospective analysis of births and estimates of attributable burden and costs. Lancet Planet Health. 2024;8(2):e74–85.
- [104] Martino-Andrade AJ, Liu F, Sathyanarayana S, Barrett ES, Redmon JB, Nguyen RH, et al. Timing of prenatal phthalate exposure in relation to genital endpoints in male newborns. Andrology. 2016;4(4):585–93.
- [105] Thurston SW, Mendiola J, Bellamy AR, Levine H, Wang C, Sparks A, et al. Phthalate exposure and semen quality in fertile US men. Andrology. 2016;4(4):632–8.
- [106] Welch BM, Keil AP, Buckley JP, Calafat AM, Christenbury KE, Engel SM, et al. Associations between prenatal urinary biomarkers of phthalate exposure and preterm birth: a pooled study of 16 US cohorts. JAMA Pediatr. 2022;176(9):895–905.
- [107] Qian Y, Shao H, Ying X, Huang W, Hua Y. The endocrine disruption of prenatal phthalate exposure in mother and ffspring. Front Public Health. 2020;8:366.
- [108] Shan S, Zhang Y, Zhao H, Zeng T, Zhao X. Polystyrene nanoplastics penetrate across the blood-brain barrier and induce activation of microglia in the brain of mice. Chemosphere. 2022;298: 134261.
- [109] Wright SL, Kelly FJ. Plastic and human health: A micro issue? Environ Sci Technol. 2017;51(12):6634-47.
- [110] Prado Y, Aravena C, Aravena D, Eltit F, Gatica S, Riedel CA, et al. Small plastics, big inflammatory problems. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2023;1408:101–27.
- [111] Wang Y, Huang J, Zhu F, Zhou S. Airborne microplastics: a review on the occurrence, migration and risks to humans. Bull Environ Contam Toxicol. 2021;107(4):657–64.
- [112] Alimba C, Faggio C, Sivanesan S, Ogunkani A, Krishnamurthi K. Micro(nano)-plastics in the environment and risk of carcinogenesis: insight into possible mechanisms. J Hazard Mater Adv. 2021;416:126143.
- [113] Banerjee A, Shelver WL. Micro- and nanoplastic induced cellular toxicity in mammals: a review. Sci Total Environ. 2021;755(Pt 2): 142518. 78. Blackburn K, Green D. The potential effects of microplastics on human health: what is known and what is unknown. Ambio. 2022;51(3):518–30.
- [114] Prata JC. Airborne microplastics: Consequences to human health? Environ Pollut. 2018;234:115–26.
- [115] Vasse GF, Melgert BN. Microplastic and plastic pollution: impact on respiratory disease and health. Eur Respir Rev. 2024;33(172).
- [116] Marfella R, Prattichizzo F, Sardu C, Fulgenzi G, Graciotti L, Spadoni T, et al. Microplastics and nanoplastics in atheromas and cardiovascular events. N Engl J Med. 2024;390(10):900–10.
- [117] Hu CJ, Garcia MA, Nihart A, Liu R, Yin L, Adolphi N, et al. Microplastic presence in dog and human testis and its potential association with sperm count and weights of testis and epididymis. Toxicol Sci. 2024.

- [118] Turner A, Filella M. Hazardous metal additives in plastics and their environmental impacts. Environ Int. 2021;156: 106622.
- [119] Kim JJ, Kumar S, Kumar V, Lee YM, Kim YS, Kumar V. Bisphenols as a legacy pollutant, and their effects on organ vulnerability. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2019;17(1).
- [120] Sayıcı IU, Simsek Orhon F, Topçu S, Ulukol B, Baskan S. Preliminary study on bisphenol A levels and possible exposure history of mother and exclusively breastfed infant pairs. Eur J Pediatr. 2019;178(4):541–50.
- [121] Pacyga DC, Sathyanarayana S, Strakovsky RS. Dietary predictors of phthalate and bisphenol exposures in pregnant women. Adv Nutr. 019;10(5):803–15.
- [122] Pasecnaja E, Bartkevics V, Zacs D. Occurrence of selected per- and polyfluorinated alkyl substances (PFASs) in food available on the European market—a review on levels and human exposure assessment. Chemosphere. 2022;287(Pt 4): 132378.
- [123] Calafat A, Wong L, Kuklenyik Z, Reidy J, LL N. Polyfluoroalkyl chemicals in the US population: data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 2003–2004 and Comparisons with NHANES 1999–2000. In: NIH, editor. Environmental Health Perspectives 2007.
- [124] Braun JM. Early-life exposure to EDCs: role in childhood obesity and neurodevelopment. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2017;13(3):161–73.
- [125] Kumar N, Singh AK. Impact of environmental factors on human semen quality and male fertility: a narrative review. Environ Sci Europe. 2022;34.
- [126] Kahn LG, Philippat C, Nakayama SF, Slama R, Trasande L. Endocrinedisrupting chemicals: implications for human health. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. 2020;8(8):703–18.
- [127] Siracusa JS, Yin L, Measel E, Liang S, Yu X. Effects of bisphenol A and its analogs on reproductive health: a mini review. Reprod Toxicol. 2018;79:96–123.
- [128] Pivonello C, Muscogiuri G, Nardone A, Garifalos F, Provvisiero DP, Verde N, et al. Bisphenol A: an emerging threat to female fertility. Reprod Biol Endocrinol. 2020;18(1):22.