study because of the limited experimental data provided in the review article and supplemental information.]

In another study in male and female Wistar rats (identified as Study 8, 2009b), groups of 51 male and 51 female rats [age at start not reported] were fed diets containing glyphosate (purity, 95.7%) at a concentration of 0, 1500, 5000, or 15 000 ppm, ad libitum, for 24 months. The highest dose was progressively increased to reach 24 000 ppm by week 40. A non-significant increase in tumour incidence was noted for adenocarcinoma of the mammary gland in females at the highest dose (6/51) compared with controls (2/51). [The Working Group was unable to evaluate this study because of the limited experimental data provided in the review article and supplemental information. The Working Group noted that tumours of the mammary gland had been observed in other studies in rats reviewed for the present *Monograph*.]

4. Mechanistic and Other Relevant Data

4.1 Toxicokinetic data

4.1.1 Introduction

The herbicidal activity of glyphosate is attributed to interference with the production of essential aromatic amino acids (EPA, 1993b). In plants, glyphosate competitively inhibits the activity of enolpyruvylshikimate phosphate synthase, an enzyme that is not present in mammalian cells. Glyphosate is degraded by soil microbes to aminomethylphosphonic acid (AMPA) (see Fig. 4.1), a metabolite that can accumulate in the environment. In mammals, glyphosate is not metabolized efficiently, and is mainly excreted unchanged into the urine; however, it has been suggested that glyphosate can undergo gut microbial metabolism in humans (Motojyuku *et al.*, 2008) and rodents (Brewster *et al.*, 1991).

4.1.2 Absorption

(a) Humans

Data on the absorption of glyphosate via intake of food and water in humans were not available to the Working Group. Inhalation of glyphosate is considered to be a minor route of exposure in humans, because glyphosate is usually formulated as an isopropylamine salt with a very low vapour pressure (Tomlin, 2000).

In the Farm Family Exposure Study, 60% of farmers had detectable levels of glyphosate in 24-hour composite urine samples taken on the day they had applied a glyphosate-based formulation (Acquavella *et al.*, 2004). Farmers who did not use rubber gloves had higher urinary concentrations of glyphosate than those who did use gloves [indicating that dermal absorption is a relevant route of exposure]. In a separate study, detectable levels of glyphosate were found in urine samples from farm families and non-farm families (Curwin *et al.*, 2007).

In accidental and deliberate intoxication cases involving ingestion of glyphosate-based formulations, glyphosate was readily detectable in the blood (Zouaoui *et al.*, 2013). After deliberate or accidental ingestion, one glyphosate-based formulation was found to be more lethal to humans than another (Sørensen & Gregersen, 1999). [Greater lethality was attributed to the presence of trimethylsulfonium counterion, which might facilitate greater absorption after oral exposure.]

Small amounts of glyphosate can be absorbed after dermal exposures in humans in vitro. For example, when an aqueous solution of 1% glyphosate was applied in an in-vitro human skin model, only 1.4% of the applied dose was absorbed through the skin. Glyphosate is typically formulated as an isopropylamine salt, and is dissolved in a water-based vehicle, while the

stratum corneum is a lipid-rich tissue (Wester *et al.*, 1991). In-vitro studies using human skin showed that percutaneous absorption of a glyphosate-based formulation was no more than 2% of the administered dose over a concentration range of 0.5–154 μg/cm^2 and a topical volume range of 0.014–0.14 mL/cm^2. In addition, very little glyphosate (≤ 0.05% of the administered dose) was sequestered in the stratum corneum after dermal application (Wester *et al.*, 1991).

In the human Caco-2 cell line, an in-vitro model of intestinal enterocytes, glyphosate (> 10 mg/mL) was shown to significantly disrupt barrier properties, leading to an increase in paracellular permeability (transport of substances that pass through the intercellular space between the cells) (Vasiluk *et al.*, 2005).

(b) Experimental systems

Three studies have been conducted to investigate the absorption of a single oral dose of glyphosate in rats (Brewster *et al.*, 1991; Chan & Mahler, 1992; EPA, 1993b).

In male Sprague-Dawley rats given [^{14}C]-labelled glyphosate (10 mg/kg bw), the majority of the radiolabel was associated with the gastrointestinal contents and small intestinal tissue 2 hours after administration (Brewster *et al.*, 1991). Approximately 35–40% of the administered dose was found to be absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. Urinary and faecal routes of elimination were equally important. [The Working Group concluded that glyphosate is incompletely absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract after oral exposure in rats.]

In a study by the United States National Toxicology Programme (NTP) in Fisher 344 rats, 30% of the administered oral dose (5.6 mg/kg bw) was absorbed, as determined by urinary excretion data (Chan & Mahler, 1992). This finding was in accordance with the previously described study of oral exposure in rats (Brewster *et al.*, 1991).

In a study reviewed by the EPA, Sprague-Dawley rats were given an oral dose of glyphosate (10 mg/kg bw); 30% and 36% of the administered dose was absorbed in males and females, respectively (EPA, 1993b). At a dose that was ~10-fold higher (1000 mg/kg bw), oral absorption of glyphosate by the rats was slightly reduced.

In a 14-day feeding study in Wistar rats given glyphosate at dietary concentrations of up to 100 ppm, only ~15% of the administered dose was found to be absorbed (JMPR, 2006). In New Zealand White rabbits or lactating goats given glyphosate as single oral doses (6–9 mg/kg bw), a large percentage of the administered dose was recovered in the faeces [suggesting very poor gastrointestinal absorption of glyphosate in these animal models] (JMPR, 2006).

In monkeys given glyphosate by dermal application, percutaneous absorption was estimated to be between 1% and 2% of the administered dose (Wester *et al.*, 1991). Most of the administered dose was removed by surface washes of the exposed skin.

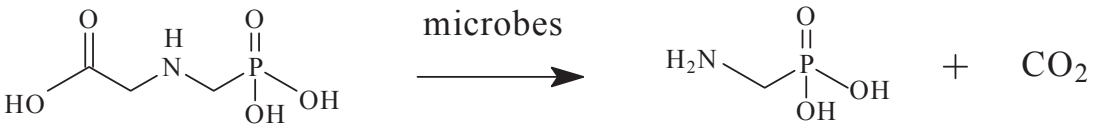
4.1.3 Distribution

(a) Humans

No data in humans on the distribution of glyphosate in systemic tissues other than blood were available to the Working Group. In cases of accidental or deliberate intoxication involving ingestion of glyphosate-based formulations, glyphosate was measured in blood. Mean blood concentrations of glyphosate were 61 mg/L and 4146 mg/L in mild-to-moderate cases of intoxication and in fatal cases, respectively (Zouaoui *et al.*, 2013).

One report, using optical spectroscopy and molecular modelling, indicated that glyphosate could bind to human serum albumin, mainly by hydrogen bonding; however, the fraction of glyphosate that might bind to serum proteins in blood was not actually measured (Yue *et al.*, 2008).

Fig. 4.1 Microbial metabolism of glyphosate to AMPA



Glyphosate is degraded to AMPA by microbial metabolism
Compiled by the Working Group

(b) Experimental systems

In Sprague-Dawley rats given a single oral dose of glyphosate (100 mg/kg bw), glyphosate concentrations in plasma reached peak levels, then declined slowly from day 1 to day 5 (Bernal *et al.*, 2010). The plasma data appeared to fit a one-compartment model with an elimination rate constant of k_{el} = 0.021 hour^{-1}. [The Working Group estimated the elimination half-life of glyphosate to be 33 hours.] Tissue levels of glyphosate were not determined in this study. In a study by Brewster *et al.* (1991), the tissue levels of glyphosate at 2, 6.3, 28, 96, and 168 hours in Sprague-Dawley rats given a single oral dose (10 mg/kg bw) declined rapidly. Tissues with the greatest amounts of detectable radiolabel (> 1% of the administered dose) were the small intestine, colon, kidney, and bone. Peak levels were reached in small intestine tissue and blood by 2 hours, while peak levels in other tissues occurred at 6.3 hours after dosing. After 7 days, the total body burden of [^{14}C]-labelled residues was ~1% of the administered dose, and was primarily associated with the bone (~1 ppm). In every tissue examined after administration of [^{14}C]-labelled glyphosate, essentially 100% of the radiolabel that was present in the tissue was unmetabolized parent glyphosate. Thus, essentially 100% of the body burden was parent compound, with no significant persistence of glyphosate after 7 days (Brewster *et al.*, 1991). In a 14-day feeding study in Wistar rats given diets containing glyphosate at 100 ppm, glyphosate reached steady-state levels in the blood by day 6 (JMPR, 2006). The tissue concentrations of glyphosate had the following rank order: kidneys > spleen > fat > liver. Tissue levels declined rapidly after cessation of exposure to glyphosate. A second study in rats given glyphosate (10 mg/kg bw per day, 14 days) followed by a single oral dose of [^{14}C]-glyphosate (at 10 mg/kg bw) showed that repeated dosing did not alter the tissue distribution of glyphosate (JMPR, 2006).

In rhesus monkeys, tissues harvested 7 days after dermal exposures to [^{14}C]-labelled glyphosate did not contain radiolabel at detectable levels (Wester *et al.*, 1991).

4.1.4 Metabolism and modulation of metabolic enzymes

(a) Metabolism

Glyphosate is degraded in the environment by soil microbes, primarily to AMPA and carbon dioxide (Fig. 4.1; Jacob *et al.*, 1988). A minor pathway for the degradation of glyphosate in bacteria (*Pseudomonas sp.* strain LBr) is via conversion to glycine (Jacob *et al.*, 1988). In a case of deliberate poisoning with a glyphosate-based formulation, small amounts of AMPA (15.1 µg/mL) were detectable in the blood (Motojyuku *et al.*, 2008) [suggesting that this pathway might also operate in humans]. In rats given a single high oral dose of glyphosate (100 mg/kg bw), small amounts of AMPA were detected in the plasma (Bernal *et al.*, 2010). In

male Sprague-Dawley rats given an oral dose of glyphosate (10 mg/kg bw), a very small amount of AMPA (< 0.04% of the administered dose) was detected in the colon 2 hours after dosing; this was attributed to intestinal microbial metabolism (Brewster *et al.*, 1991).

(b) Modulation of metabolic enzymes

(i) Humans

In human hepatic cell lines, treatment with one of four glyphosate-based formulations produced by the same company was shown to enhance CYP3A4 and CYP1A2 levels, while glutathione transferase levels were reduced (Gasnier *et al.*, 2010). [The Working Group noted that it was not clear whether the effects were caused by glyphosate alone or by the adjuvants contained in the formulation.]

(ii) Experimental systems

Exposure of Wistar rats to a glyphosate-based formulation significantly altered some hepatic xenobiotic enzyme activities (Larsen *et al.*, 2014). Liver microsomes obtained from male and female rats treated with the formulation exhibited ~50% reductions in cytochrome P450 (CYP450) content compared with control (untreated) rats. However, opposing effects were observed when assessing 7-ethoxycoumarin *O*-deethylase activity (7-ECOD, a non-specific CYP450 substrate). Female rats treated with the glyphosate-based formulation exhibited a 57% increase in hepatic microsomal 7-ECOD activity compared with controls, while male rats treated with the formulation exhibited a 58% decrease in this activity (Larsen *et al.*, 2014). [The Working Group noted that it was not clear whether the effects were caused by glyphosate alone or by adjuvants contained in the formulation.]

4.1.5 Excretion

(a) Humans

Excretion of glyphosate in humans was documented in several biomonitoring studies. For example, as part of the Farm Family Exposure Study, urinary concentrations of glyphosate were evaluated immediately before, during, and after glyphosate application in 48 farmers and their spouses and children (Acquavella *et al.*, 2004). Dermal contact with glyphosate during mixing, loading, and application was considered to be the main route of exposure in the study. On the day the herbicide was applied, 60% of the farmers had detectable levels of glyphosate in 24-hour composite urine samples, as did 4% of their spouses and 12% of children. For farmers, the geometric mean concentration was 3 µg/L, the maximum value was 233 µg/L, and the highest estimated systemic dose was 0.004 mg/kg bw (Acquavella *et al.*, 2004). In a separate study, detectable levels of glyphosate were excreted in the urine of members of farm families and of non-farm families, with geometric means ranging from 1.2 to 2.7 µg/L (Curwin *et al.*, 2007).

In a study of a rural population living near areas sprayed for drug eradication in Colombia (see Section 1.4.1, Table 1.5), mean urinary glyphosate concentrations were 7.6 µg/L (range, undetectable to 130 µg/L) (Varona *et al.*, 2009). AMPA was detected in 4% of urine samples (arithmetic mean, 1.6 µg/L; range, undetectable to 56 µg/L).

(b) Experimental systems

In an NTP study in Fisher 344 rats given a single oral dose of [^{14}C]-labelled glyphosate (5.6 or 56 mg/kg bw), it was shown that > 90% of the radiolabel was eliminated in the urine and faeces within 72 hours (Chan & Mahler, 1992). In Sprague-Dawley rats given [^{14}C]-labelled glyphosate at an oral dose of 10 or 1000 mg/kg bw, ~60–70% of the administered dose was excreted in the faeces, and the remainder in the urine (EPA,

1993b). By either route, most (98%) of the administered dose was excreted as unchanged parent compound. AMPA was the only metabolite found in the urine (0.2–0.3% of the administered dose) and faeces (0.2–0.4% of the administered dose). [The large amount of glyphosate excreted in the faeces is consistent with its poor oral absorption.] Less than 0.3% of the administered dose was expired as carbon dioxide.

In rhesus monkeys given glyphosate as an intravenous dose (9 or 93 μg), > 95% of the administered dose was excreted in the urine (Wester *et al.*, 1991). Nearly all the administered dose was eliminated within 24 hours. In contrast, in rhesus monkeys given glyphosate by dermal application (5400 μg/20 cm^2), only 2.2% of the administered dose was excreted in the urine within 7 days (Wester *et al.*, 1991).

Overall, systemically absorbed glyphosate is not metabolized efficiently, and is mainly excreted unchanged into the urine.

4.2 Mechanisms of carcinogenesis

4.2.1 Genetic and related effects

Glyphosate has been studied for genotoxic potential in a wide variety of assays. Studies carried out in exposed humans, in human cells in vitro, in other mammals in vivo and in vitro, and in non-mammalian systems in vivo and in vitro, respectively, are summarized in Table 4.1, Table 4.2, Table 4.3, Table 4.4, and Table 4.5. [A review article by Kier & Kirkland (2013) summarized the results of published articles and unpublished reports of studies pertaining to the genotoxicity of glyphosate and glyphosate formulations. A supplement to this report contained information on 66 unpublished regulatory studies. The conclusions and data tables for each individual study were included in the supplement; however, the primary study reports from which these data were extracted were not available to the Working Group. The information provided in the supplement was insufficient regarding topics such as details of statistical methods, choice of the highest dose tested, and verification of the target tissue exposure. The Working Group determined that the information in the supplement to Kier & Kirkland (2013) did not meet the criteria for data inclusion as laid out in the Preamble to the *IARC Monographs*, being neither "reports that have been published or accepted for publication in the openly available scientific literature" nor "data from governmental reports that are publicly available" (IARC, 2006). The review article and supplement were not considered further in the evaluation.]

(a) Humans

(i) Studies in exposed humans

See Table 4.1

In exposed individuals (n = 24) living in northern Ecuador in areas sprayed with a glyphosate-based formulation, a statistically significant increase in DNA damage (DNA strand breaks) was observed in blood cells collected 2 weeks to 2 months after spraying (Paz-y-Miño *et al.*, 2007). The same authors studied blood cells from individuals (n = 92) in 10 communities in Ecuador's northern border, who were sampled 2 years after the last aerial spraying with a herbicide mix containing glyphosate, and showed that their karyotypes were normal compared with those of a control group (Paz-y-Miño *et al.*, 2011).

Bolognesi *et al.* (2009) studied community residents (137 women of reproductive age and their 137 spouses) from five regions in Colombia. In three regions with exposures to glyphosate-based formulations from aerial spraying, blood samples were taken from the same individuals at three time-points (before spraying (baseline), 5 days after spraying and 4 months after spraying) to determine the frequency of micronucleus formation in lymphocytes. The baseline frequency of binucleated cells with micronuclei was significantly higher in subjects

from the three regions where there had been aerial spraying with glyphosate-formulations and in a fourth region with pesticide exposure (but not through aerial spraying), compared with a reference region (without use of pesticide). The frequency of micronucleus formation in peripheral blood lymphocytes was significantly increased, compared with baseline levels in the same individuals, after aerial spraying with glyphosate-based formulations in each of the three regions (see Table 4.1; Bolognesi *et al.*, 2009). Immediately after spraying, subjects who reported direct contact with the glyphosate-based spray showed a higher frequency of binucleated cells with micronuclei. However, the increase in frequency of micronucleus formation observed immediately after spraying was not consistent with the rates of application used in the regions, and there was no association between self-reported direct contact with pesticide sprays and frequency of binucleated cells with micronuclei. In subjects from one but not other regions, the frequency of binucleated cells with micronuclei was significantly decreased 4 months after spraying, compared with immediately after spraying.

(ii) Human cells in vitro

See Table 4.2

Glyphosate induced DNA strand breaks (as measured by the comet assay) in liver Hep-2 cells (Mañas *et al.*, 2009a), lymphocytes (Mladinic *et al.*, 2009b; Alvarez-Moya *et al.*, 2014), GM38 fibroblasts, the HT1080 fibrosarcoma cell line (Monroy *et al.*, 2005), and the TR146 buccal carcinoma line (Koller *et al.*, 2012). DNA strand breaks were induced by AMPA in Hep-2 cells (Mañas *et al.*, 2009b), and by a glyphosate-based formulation in the TR146 buccal carcinoma cell line (Koller *et al.*, 2012).

In human lymphocytes, AMPA (Mañas *et al.*, 2009b), but not glyphosate (Mañas *et al.*, 2009a), produced chromosomal aberrations. Glyphosate did not induce a concentration-related increase in micronucleus formation in human lymphocytes at levels estimated to correspond to occupational and residential exposure (Mladinic *et al.*, 2009a). Sister-chromatid exchange was induced by glyphosate (Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997), and by a glyphosate-based formulation (Vigfusson & Vyse, 1980; Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997) in human lymphocytes exposed in vitro.

(b) Experimental systems

(i) Non-human mammals in vivo

See Table 4.3

The ability of glyphosate or a glyphosate-based formulation to induce DNA adducts was studied in mice given a single intraperitoneal dose. Glyphosate induced DNA adducts (8-hydroxy deoxyguanosine) in the liver, but not in the kidney, while a glyphosate-based formulation caused a slight increase in DNA adducts in the kidney, but not in the liver (Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997). Peluso *et al.* (1998) showed that a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 30.4%), but not glyphosate alone, caused DNA adducts (as detected by ^{32}P-DNA post-labelling) in mouse liver and kidney. Glyphosate and a glyphosate-based formulation produced DNA strand breaks in the liver and kidney after a single intraperitoneal dose (Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997).

In mice given a single dose of glyphosate by gavage, no genotoxic effect was observed by the dominant lethal test (EPA, 1980a).

After a single intraperitoneal dose, no chromosomal aberrations were observed in the bone marrow of rats treated with glyphosate (Li & Long 1988), while chromosomal aberrations were increased in the bone marrow of mice given a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate isopropylamine salt, ~41%) (Prasad *et al.*, 2009). A single oral dose of a glyphosate-based formulation did not cause chromosomal aberrations in mice (Dimitrov *et al.*, 2006).

In mice treated by intraperitoneal injection, a single dose of glyphosate did not cause

Table 4.1 Genetic and related effects of glyphosate in exposed humans

Tissue	Cell type (if specified)	End-point	Test	Description of exposure and controls	Response[a]/ significance	Comments	Reference
Blood	NR	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	24 exposed individuals in northern Ecuador; areas sprayed with glyphosate-based formulation (sampling 2 weeks to 2 months after spraying); control group was 21 non-exposed individuals	+ $P < 0.001$		Paz-y-Miño *et al.* (2007)
Blood	NR	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	92 individuals in 10 communities, northern border of Ecuador; sampling 2 years after last aerial spraying with herbicide mix containing glyphosate); control group was 90 healthy individuals from several provinces without background of smoking or exposure to genotoxic substances (hydrocarbons, X-rays, or pesticides)	–	182 karyotypes were considered normal [Smoking status, NR]	Paz-y-Miño *et al.* (2011)
Blood	Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	55 community residents, Nariño, Colombia; area with aerial glyphosate-based formulation spraying for coca and poppy eradication (glyphosate was tank-mixed with an adjuvant)	+ [$P < 0.001$]	*P* values for after spraying vs before spraying in the same individuals	Bolognesi *et al.* (2009)
Blood	Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	53 community residents, Putumayo, Colombia; area with aerial glyphosate-based formulation spraying for coca and poppy eradication (glyphosate was tank-mixed with an adjuvant)	+ [$P = 0.01$]	*P* values for after spraying vs before spraying in the same individuals	Bolognesi *et al.* (2009)
Blood	Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	27 community residents, Valle del Cauca, Colombia; area where glyphosate-based formulation was applied through aerial spraying for sugar-cane maturation (glyphosate was applied without adjuvant)	+ [$P < 0.001$]	*P* values for after spraying vs before spraying in the same individuals	Bolognesi *et al.* (2009)

[a] +, positive; –, negative
NR, not reported; vs, versus

micronucleus formation in the bone marrow (Rank *et al.*, 1993), although two daily doses did (Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997; Mañas *et al.*, 2009a). AMPA, the main metabolite of glyphosate, also produced micronucleus formation after two daily intraperitoneal doses (Mañas *et al.*, 2009b). Conflicting results for micronucleus induction were obtained in mice exposed intraperitoneally to a glyphosate-based formulation. A single dose of the formulation at up to 200 mg/kg bw did not induce micronucleus formation in the bone marrow in one study (Rank *et al.* 1993), while it did increase micronucleus formation at 25 mg/kg bw in another study (Prasad *et al.*, 2009). After two daily intraperitoneal doses, a glyphosate-based formulation did not induce micronucleus formation at up to 200 mg/kg bw according to Grisolia (2002), while Bolognesi *et al.* (1997) showed that the formulation did induce micronucleus formation at 450 mg/kg bw. In mice given a single oral dose of a glyphosate-based formulation at 1080 mg/kg bw, no induction of micronuclei was observed (Dimitrov *et al.*, 2006).

(ii) Non-human mammalian cells in vitro

See Table 4.4

Glyphosate did not induce unscheduled DNA synthesis in rat primary hepatocytes, or *Hprt* mutation (with or without metabolic activation) in Chinese hamster ovary cells (Li & Long, 1988).

In bovine lymphocytes, chromosomal aberrations were induced by glyphosate in one study (Lioi *et al.*, 1998), but not by a glyphosate formulation in another study (Siviková & Dianovský, 2006). Roustan *et al.* (2014) demonstrated, in the CHO-K1 ovary cell line, that glyphosate induced micronucleus formation only in the presence of metabolic activation, while AMPA induced micronucleus formation both with and without metabolic activation. Sister-chromatid exchange was observed in bovine lymphocytes exposed to glyphosate (Lioi *et al.*, 1998) or a glyphosate formulation (in the absence but not the presence of metabolic activation) (Siviková & Dianovský, 2006).

(iii) Non-mammalian systems in vivo

See Table 4.5

Fish and other species

In fish, glyphosate produced DNA strand breaks in the comet assay in sábalo (Moreno *et al.*, 2014), European eel (Guilherme *et al.*, 2012b), zebrafish (Lopes *et al.*, 2014), and Nile tilapia (Alvarez-Moya *et al.*, 2014). AMPA also induced DNA strand breaks in the comet assay in European eel (Guilherme *et al.*, 2014b). A glyphosate-based formulation produced DNA strand breaks in numerous fish species, such as European eel (Guilherme *et al.*, 2010, 2012b, 2014a; Marques *et al.*, 2014, 2015), sábalo (Cavalcante *et al.*, 2008; Moreno *et al.*, 2014), guppy (De Souza Filho *et al.*, 2013), bloch (Nwani *et al.*, 2013), neotropical fish *Corydoras paleatus* (de Castilhos Ghisi & Cestari, 2013), carp (Gholami-Seyedkolaei *et al.*, 2013), and goldfish (Cavaş & Könen, 2007).

AMPA, the main metabolite of glyphosate, induced erythrocytic nuclear abnormalities (kidney-shaped and lobed nuclei, binucleate or segmented nuclei and micronuclei) in European eel (Guilherme *et al.*, 2014b). Micronucleus formation was induced by different glyphosate-based formulations in various fish (Grisolia, 2002; Cavaş & Könen, 2007; De Souza Filho *et al.*, 2013; Vera-Candioti *et al.*, 2013).

Glyphosate-based formulations induced DNA strand breaks in other species, including caiman (Poletta *et al.*, 2009), frog (Meza-Joya *et al.*, 2013), tadpoles (Clements *et al.*, 1997), and snail (Mohamed, 2011), but not in oyster (Akcha *et al.*, 2012), clam (dos Santos & Martinez, 2014), and mussel glochidia (Conners & Black, 2004). In earthworms, one glyphosate-based formulation induced DNA strand breaks while two others did not (Piola *et al.*, 2013; Muangphra *et al.*, 2014), highlighting the potential importance of components other than the active ingredient in the formulation.

Table 4.2 Genetic and related effects of glyphosate, AMPA, and glyphosate-based formulations in human cells in vitro

Tissue, cell line	End-point	Test	Results[a]		Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
			Without metabolic activation	With metabolic activation			
Glyphosate							
Liver Hep-2	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	NT	3 mM [507.2 µg/mL]	$P < 0.01$; dose–response relationship ($r \geq 0.90$; $P < 0.05$)	Mañas et al. (2009a)
Lymphocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, standard and hOGG1 modified comet assay	+	+	3.5 µg/mL	With the hOGG1 modified comet assay, + S9, the increase was significant ($P < 0.01$) only at the highest dose tested (580 µg/mL)	Mladinic *et al.* (2009b)
Lymphocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	NT	0.0007 mM [0.12 µg/mL]	$P \leq 0.01$	Alvarez-Moya *et al.* (2014)
Fibroblast GM 38	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	NT	4 mM [676 µg/mL]	$P < 0.001$	Monroy *et al.* (2005)
Fibroblast GM 5757	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	(+)	NT	75 mM [12 680 µg/mL]	Glyphosate (ineffective alone, data NR) increased strand breaks induced by H_2O_2 (40 or 50 µM) ($P < 0.004$ vs H_2O_2 alone)	Lueken *et al.* (2004)
Fibrosarcoma HT1080	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	NT	4.75 mM [803 µg/mL]	$P < 0.001$	Monroy *et al.* (2005)
Buccal carcinoma TR146	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, SCGE assay	+	NT	20 µg/mL	Dose-dependent increase ($P \leq 0.05$)	Koller *et al.* (2012)
Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	–	NT	6 mM [1015 µg/mL]		Mañas *et al.* (2009a)
Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	(+)	580 µg/mL	$P < 0.01$ at the highest exposure + S9 No concentration-related increase in micronuclei containing the centromere signal (C+)	Mladinic *et al.* (2009a)

Table 4.2 (continued)

Tissue, cell line	End-point	Test	Results[a]		Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
			Without metabolic activation	With metabolic activation			
Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Sister-chromatid exchange	+	NT	1000 µg/mL	$P < 0.05$	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
AMPA							
Liver Hep-2	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	NT	4.5 mM [500 µg/mL]	$P < 0.05$ at 4.5 mM; $P < 0.01$ at up to 7.5 mM Dose–response relationship ($r \geq 0.90$; $P < 0.05$)	Mañas *et al.* (2009b)
Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	+	NT	1.8 mM [200 µg/mL]	$P < 0.05$	Mañas *et al.* (2009b)
Glyphosate-based formulations							
Liver HepG2	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	(+)	NT	5 ppm	Glyphosate, 400 g/L Dose-dependent increase; greatest increase at 10 ppm Statistical analysis, NR	Gasnier *et al.* (2009)
Buccal carcinoma TR146	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, SCGE assay	+	NT	20 µg/mL	Glyphosate acid, 450g/L Dose-dependent increase ($P \leq 0.05$)	Koller *et al.* (2012)
Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Sister-chromatid exchange	+	NT	250 µg/mL	$P < 0.001$ No growth at 25 mg/mL	Vigfusson & Vyse (1980)
Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Sister-chromatid exchange	+	NT	100 µg/mL	Glyphosate, 30.4% $P < 0.05$	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)

[a] +, positive; -, negative; (+) or (-) positive/negative in a study with limited quality

AMPA, aminomethyl phosphonic acid; HID, highest ineffective dose; hOGG1, human 8-hydroxyguanosine DNA-glycosylase; LED, lowest effective dose; NR, not reported; NT, not tested; S9, 9000 × *g* supernatant; SCGE, single cell gel electrophoresis; vs, versus

Micronucleus formation was induced by a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 36%) in earthworms (Muangphra *et al.*, 2014), and by a different glyphosate-based formulation in caiman (Poletta *et al.*, 2009, 2011), and frog (Yadav *et al.*, 2013).

Insects

In standard *Drosophila melanogaster*, glyphosate induced mutation in the test for somatic mutation and recombination, but not in a cross of flies characterized by an increased capacity for CYP450-dependent bioactivation (Kaya *et al.*, 2000). A glyphosate-based formulation also caused sex-linked recessive lethal mutations in *Drosophila* (Kale *et al.*, 1995).

Plants

In plants, glyphosate produced DNA damage in *Tradescantia* in the comet assay (Alvarez-Moya *et al.*, 2011). Chromosomal aberration was induced after exposure to glyphosate in fenugreek (Siddiqui *et al.*, 2012), and in onion in one study (Frescura *et al.*, 2013), but not in another (Rank *et al.*, 1993). A glyphosate-based formulation also induced chromosomal aberration in barley roots (Truta *et al.*, 2011) and onion (Rank *et al.*, 1993), but not in *Crepis capillaris* (hawksbeard) (Dimitrov *et al.*, 2006). Micronucleus formation was not induced by glyphosate in *Vicia faba* bean (De Marco *et al.*, 1992) or by a glyphosate-based formulation in *Crepis capillaris* (Dimitrov *et al.*, 2006).

(iv) Non-mammalian systems in vitro

See Table 4.6

Glyphosate induced DNA strand breaks in erythrocytes of tilapia fish, as demonstrated by comet assay (Alvarez-Moya *et al.*, 2014).

Glyphosate did not induce mutation in *Bacillus subtillis, Salmonella typhimurium* strains TA1535, TA1537, TA1538, TA98, and TA100, or in *Escherichia coli* WP2, with or without metabolic activation (Li & Long, 1988). However, Rank *et al.* (1993) demonstrated that a glyphosate-based formulation was mutagenic in *S. typhimurium* TA98 in the absence of metabolic activation, and in *S. typhimurium* TA100 in the presence of metabolic activation.

4.2.2 Receptor-mediated mechanisms

(a) Sex-hormone pathway disruption

(i) Humans

Studies in exposed humans

No data were available to the Working Group.

Human cells in vitro

In hormone-dependent T47D breast cancer cells, the proliferative effects of glyphosate (10^{-6} to 1 μM) (see Section 4.2.4) and those of 17β-estradiol (the positive control) were mitigated by the estrogen receptor antagonist, ICI 182780; the proliferative effect of glyphosate was completely abrogated by the antagonist at a concentration of 10 nM (Thongprakaisang *et al.*, 2013). Glyphosate also induced activation of the estrogen response element (ERE) in T47D breast cancer cells that were stably transfected with a triplet ERE-promoter-luciferase reporter gene construct. Incubation with ICI 182780 at 10 nM eliminated the response. When the transfected cells were incubated with both 17β-estradiol and glyphosate, the effect of 17β-estradiol was reduced and glyphosate behaved as an estrogen antagonist. After 6 hours of incubation, glyphosate increased levels of estrogen receptors ERα and ERβ in a dose-dependent manner in T47D cells; after 24 hours, only ERβ levels were increased and only at the highest dose of glyphosate. [These findings suggested that the proliferative effects of glyphosate on T47D cells are mediated by ER.]

In human hepatocarcinoma HepG2 cells, four glyphosate-based formulations produced by the same company had a marked effect on the activity and transcription of aromatase, while glyphosate alone differed from controls, but not significantly so (Gasnier *et al.*, 2009).

Table 4.3 Genetic and related effects of glyphosate, AMPA, and glyphosate-based formulations in non-human mammals in vivo

Species, strain (sex)	Tissue	End-point	Test	Results	Dose (LED or HID)	Route, duration, dosing regimen	Comments	Reference
Glyphosate								
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Liver	DNA damage	DNA adducts, 8-OHdG by LC/UV	+	300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1×; sampled after 8 and 24 h	Single dose tested only $P < 0.05$ after 24 h	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Kidney	DNA damage	DNA adducts, 8-OHdG by LC/UV	–	300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1×; sampled after 8 and 24 h	Single dose tested only	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M, F)	Kidney	DNA damage	DNA adducts, ^{32}P-DNA post labelling	–	270 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 24 h	Glyphosate isopropylammonium salt	Peluso *et al.* (1998)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M, F)	Liver	DNA damage	DNA adducts, ^{32}P-DNA post labelling	–	270 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 24 h	Glyphosate isopropylammonium salt	Peluso *et al.* (1998)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Liver	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, alkaline elution assay	+	300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 4 and 24 h	Single dose tested only $P < 0.05$ after 4 h	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Kidney	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, alkaline elution assay	+	300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 4 and 24 h	Single dose tested only $P < 0.05$ after 4 h	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, CD-1 (M)	Uterus after mating	Mutation	Dominant lethal test	–	2000 mg/kg bw	Oral gavage; 1 ×	Proportion of early resorptions evaluated after mating of non-treated females with glyphosate-treated male mice	EPA (1980)
Rat, Sprague-Dawley (M, F)	Bone marrow	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	–	1000 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 6, 12 and 24 h	Single dose tested only	Li & Long (1988)
Mouse, NMRI-bom (M, F)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	200 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 24 and 48 h	Glyphosate isopropylamine salt	Rank *et al.* (1993)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 2 × 150 mg/kg bw with 24 h interval; sampled 6 or 24 h after the last injection	Single dose tested only $P < 0.05$ after 24 h	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)

Table 4.3 (continued)

Species, strain (sex)	Tissue	End-point	Test	Results	Dose (LED or HID)	Route, duration, dosing regimen	Comments	Reference
Mouse, Balb C (M, F)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	400 mg/kg bw	i.p.; one injection per 24 h, 2 × 200, sampled 24 h after the last injection	$P < 0.01$ at the highest dose (400 mg/kg bw)	Mañas *et al.* (2009a)
AMPA								
Mouse, Balb C (M, F)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	200 mg/kg bw	i.p.; one injection per 24 h, 2 × 100, sampled 24 h after the last injection	$P < 0.01$ at the lowest dose (200 mg/kg bw)	Mañas *et al.* (2009b)
Glyphosate-based formulations								
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Liver	DNA damage	DNA adducts, 8-OHdG by LC/UV	–	~300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×, sampled after 8 and 24 h	Glyphosate, 30.4% Single dose tested only	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Kidney	DNA damage	DNA adducts, 8-OHdG by LC/UV	+	~300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×, sampled after 8 and 24 h	Glyphosate, 30.4% Single dose tested only $P < 0.05$	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M, F)	Kidney	DNA damage	DNA adducts, ^{32}P-DNA post labelling	+	400 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 24 h	Glyphosate isopropylammonium salt, 30.4%	Peluso *et al.* (1998)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M, F)	Liver	DNA damage	DNA adducts, ^{32}P-DNA post labelling	+	400 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 24 h	Glyphosate isopropylammonium salt, 30.4%	Peluso *et al.* (1998)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Liver	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, alkaline elution assay	+	~300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 4 and 24 h	Glyphosate, 30.4% Single dose tested only $P < 0.05$ only after 4 h	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Kidney	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, alkaline elution assay	+	~300 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 4 and 24 h	Glyphosate, 30.4% Single dose tested only $P < 0.05$ only after 4 h	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, C57BL (M)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	–	1080 mg/kg bw	p.o. in distilled water; 1 ×; sampled after 6, 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 h	Single dose tested only	Dimitrov *et al.* (2006)

Table 4.3 (continued)

Species, strain (sex)	Tissue	End-point	Test	Results	Dose (LED or HID)	Route, duration, dosing regimen	Comments	Reference
Mouse, Swiss albino (M)	Bone marrow	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	+	25 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 24, 48 and 72 h	Glyphosate isopropylamine salt, > 41% The percentage of aberrant cells was increased vs control in a dose- and time-dependent manner ($P < 0.05$)	Prasad *et al.* (2009)
Mouse, NMRI-bom (M, F)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	200 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 ×; sampled after 24 h	Glyphosate isopropylammonium salt, 480 g/L The percentage of PCE decreased	Rank *et al.* (1993)
Mouse, Swiss (M, F)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	200 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 2 × within 24 h interval and sampled 24 h after the last injection	Glyphosate isopropylammonium salt, 480 g/L	Grisolia (2002)
Mouse, Swiss albino (M)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	25 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 1 × ; sampled after 24, 48 and 72 h	Glyphosate isopropylamine salt, > 41% Significant induction of micronuclei vs control at both doses and all times ($P < 0.05$)	Prasad *et al.* (2009)
Mouse, Swiss CD1 (M)	Bone marrow (PCE)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	450 mg/kg bw	i.p.; 2 × 225 mg/kg with 24 h interval; sampled 6 or 24 h after the last injection	Glyphosate, 30.4% Single dose tested only $P < 0.05$ after 6 h and 24 h	Bolognesi *et al.* (1997)
Mouse, C57BL (M)	Bone marrow	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	1080 mg/kg bw	p.o. in distilled water; 1 × ; sampled after 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 h	Single dose tested only	Dimitrov *et al.* (2006)

[a] +, positive; -, negative; (+) or (-) positive/negative in a study with limited quality

bw, body weight; F, female; h, hour; HID, highest effective dose; i.p., intraperitoneal; LC, liquid chromatography; LED, lowest effective dose; M, male; PCE, polychromatic erythrocytes; p.o., oral; 8-OHdG, 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine; UV, ultraviolet

Table 4.4 Genetic and related effects of glyphosate, AMPA, and glyphosate-based formulations in non-human mammalian cells in vitro

Species	Tissue, cell line	End-point	Test	Results[a]		Dose (LEC or HIC)	Comments	Reference
				Without metabolic activation	With metabolic activation			
Glyphosate								
Rat, Fisher F334	Hepatocytes	DNA damage	Unscheduled DNA synthesis	–	NT	125 µg/mL		Li & Long (1988)
Hamster, Chinese	CHO-K_1BH_4 ovary, cell line	Mutation	*Hprt* mutation	–	–	22 500 µg/mL		Li & Long (1988)
Bovine	Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	+	NT	17 µM [3 µg/mL]	$P < 0.05$	Lioi *et al.* (1998)
Hamster, Chinese	CHO-K1 ovary cell line	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	+	10 µg/mL	$P \leq 0.001$, in the dark +S9 Negative –S9 in the dark or with light irradiation	Roustan *et al.* (2014)
Bovine	Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Sister-chromatid exchange	+	NT	17 µM [3 µg/mL]	$P < 0.05$	Lioi *et al.* (1998)
AMPA								
Hamster, Chinese	CHO-K1 ovary cell line	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	+	0.01 µg/mL	$P \leq 0.05$, in the dark –S9 Highest increase was observed at very low dose (0.0005 µg/mL) –S9 but with light-irradiation ($P < 0.01$)	Roustan *et al.* (2014)
Glyphosate-based formulations								
Bovine	Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	–	NT	1120 µM [190 µg/mL]	Glyphosate, 62%	Siviková & Dianovský (2006)
Bovine	Lymphocytes	Chromosomal damage	Sister-chromatid exchange	+	–	56 µM [9.5 µg/mL]	Glyphosate, 62% Time of exposure, 24 h $P < 0.01$, –S9, at ≥ 56 µM	Siviková & Dianovský (2006)

[a] +, positive; –, negative; (+), weakly positive

AMPA, aminomethyl phosphonic acid; HIC, highest ineffective concentration; *Hprt*, hypoxanthine guanine phosphoribosyl transferase gene; LEC, lowest effective concentration; NT, not tested

Table 4.5 Genetic and related effects of glyphosate, AMPA, and glyphosate-based formulations in non-mammalian systems in vivo

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Glyphosate							
Fish	*Prochilodus lineatus* (sábalo), erythrocytes and gill cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	0.48 mg/L	Time of exposure 6, 24, and 96 h For erythrocytes, $P = 0.01$ after 6 h, and $P = 0.014$ after 96 h; no significant increase after 24 h For gill cells, $P = 0.02$ only after 6 h at 2.4 mg/L	Moreno *et al.* (2014)
Fish	*Anguilla anguilla* L. (European eel), blood cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	0.0179 mg/L	Time of exposure 1 and 3 days $P < 0.05$	Guilherme *et al.* (2012b)
Fish	*Danio rerio* (zebrafish), sperm	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, acridine orange method	+	10 mg/L	After 96 h, DNA integrity was 78.3 ± 3.5%, significantly reduced from control (94.7 ± 0.9%) and 5 mg/L (92.6 ± 1.9%), ($P < 0.05$)	Lopes *et al.* (2014)
Fish	*Oreochromis niloticus* (Nile tilapia) branchial erythrocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	7 µM [1.2 mg/L]	Time of exposure, 10 days $P < 0.001$ with concentrations ≥ 7 µM	Alvarez-Moya *et al.* (2014)
Oyster	Oyster spermatozoa	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	–	0.005 mg/L	Time of exposure, 1 h	Akcha *et al.* (2012)
Insect	*Drosophila* standard cross	Mutation	SMART	+	1 mM [0.169 mg/L]	Purity, 96% Increased frequency of small single spots (≥ 1 mM) and total spots (≥ 2 mM) $P = 0.05$	Kaya *et al.* (2000)
Insect	*Drosophila melanogaster*, high bioactivation cross	Mutation	SMART	–	10 mM [1.69 mg/L]	Purity, 96%	Kaya *et al.* (2000)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Plant systems	*Tradescantia* clone 4430 (spiderworts), staminal hair nuclei	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	0.0007 mM [0.12 µg/mL]	Glyphosate isopropylamine salt $P < 0.01$ for directly exposed nuclei (dose-dependent increase) and plants	Alvarez-Moya *et al.* (2011)
Plant systems	*Allium cepa* (onion)	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	+	3%	Single dose tested only Partial but significant reversal with distilled water	Frescura *et al.* (2013)
Plant systems	*Allium cepa* (onion)	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	–	2.88 µg/mL	Glyphosate isopropylamine	Rank *et al.* (1993)
Plant systems	*Trigonella foenum-graecum* L. (fenugreek)	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	+	0.2%	$P < 0.001$; positive dose–response relationship	Siddiqui *et al.* (2012)
Plant systems	*Vicia faba* (bean)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	1400 ppm (1400 µg/g of soil)	Tested with two types of soil, but not without soil	De Marco *et al.* (1992)
AMPA							
Fish	*Anguilla anguilla* L. (European eel)	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	0.0118 mg/L	Time of exposure, 1 and 3 days $P < 0.05$ after 1 day of exposure	Guilherme *et al.* (2014b)
Fish	*Anguilla anguilla* L. (European eel)	Chromosomal damage	Other (ENA)	+	0.0236 mg/L	$P < 0.05$ only at highest dose after 3 day exposure (not after 1 day)	Guilherme *et al.* (2014b)
Glyphosate-based formulations							
Fish	*Anguilla anguilla* L. (European eel), blood cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	0.058 mg/L	$P < 0.05$ Positive dose–response relationship	Guilherme *et al.* (2010)
Fish	*Anguilla anguilla* L. (European eel), blood cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay improved with the DNA-lesion-specific FPG and Endo III	+	0.058 mg/L	Glyphosate-based formulation, 30.8% Time of exposure, 1 and 3 days With FPG, $P < 0.05$; with comet assay alone, $P < 0.05$ at 116 µg/L	Guilherme *et al.* (2012b)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Fish	*Anguilla anguilla* L. (European eel), blood cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay improved with the DNA-lesion-specific FPG and Endo III	+	0.116 mg/L	Single dose tested only Time of exposure, 3 days; recovery from non-specific DNA damage, but not oxidative DNA damage, 14 days after exposure $P < 0.05$	Guilherme *et al.* (2014a)
Fish	*Anguilla anguilla* L. (European eel), liver	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay improved with the DNA-lesion-specific FPG and Endo III	+	0.058 mg/L	Glyphosate-based formulation, 485 g/L Time of exposure, 3 days $P < 0.05$	Marques *et al.* (2014, 2015)
Fish	*Prochilodus lineatus* (sábalo), erythrocytes and bronchial cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	10 mg/L	Single dose tested only, for 6, 24, and 96 h $P < 0.05$ for both erythrocytes and bronchial cells	Cavalcante *et al.* (2008)
Fish	*Prochilodus lineatus* (sábalo), erythrocytes and gill cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	1 mg/L	Glyphosate-based formulation, 480 g/L Time of exposure, 6, 24 and 96 h $P < 0.001$ after 24 and 96 h in erythrocytes and 24 h in gill cells	Moreno *et al.* (2014)
Fish	*Poecilia reticulata* (guppy) gill erythrocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	2.83 µL/L [1.833 mg/L]	Glyphosate, 64.8%, m/v (648 g/L) $P < 0.05$	De Souza Filho *et al.* (2013)
Fish	*Channa punctatus* (bloch), blood and gill cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	3.25 mg/L	Exposure continued for 35 days; blood and gill cells collected on day 1, 7, 14, 21, 28 and 35 $P < 0.01$, for blood and gill cells; DNA damage increased with time and concentration	Nwani *et al.* (2013)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Fish	*Corydoras paleatus* (blue leopard corydoras, mottled corydoras and peppered catfish), blood and hepatic cells	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	0.0067 mg/L	Glyphosate, 48% (corresponding to 3.20 µg/L) Single dose tested only, for 3, 6, and 9 days $P < 0.01$, in blood and in liver cells	de Castilhos Ghisi & Cestari (2013)
Fish	*Cyprinus carpio* Linnaeus (carp), erythrocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	2 mg/L (10% LC_{50}, 96 h)	Glyphosate, equivalent to 360 g/L Single dose tested only, for 16 days $P < 0.01$	Gholami-Seyedkolaei *et al.* (2013)
Fish	*Carassius auratus* (goldfish), erythrocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	5 ppm	Glyphosate equivalent to 360 g/L Time of exposure, 2, 4 and 6 days After 48 h: $P < 0.05$ (5 mg/L) and $P < 0.001$ (10 and 15 mg/L)	Cavaş & Könen (2007)
Fish	*Prochilodus lineatus* (sábalo) erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	10 mg/L	Single dose tested only, for 6, 24, and 96 h Nuclear abnormalities (lobed nuclei, segmented nuclei and kidney-shaped nuclei)	Cavalcante *et al.* (2008)
Fish	*Corydoras paleatus* (blue leopard corydoras, mottled corydoras and peppered catfish), blood and hepatic cells	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	0.0067 mg/L	Glyphosate, 48% (corresponding to 3.20 µg/L) Single dose tested only, for 3, 6 and 9 days	de Castilhos Ghisi & Cestari (2013)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Fish	*Tilapia rendalli* (redbreast tilapia) blood erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	42 mg/kg bw	Glyphosate, 480 g/L Increased frequency of micronucleus formation vs control ($P < 0.05$) in blood samples collected 4 days after a single intra-abdominal injection of 42, 85, or 170 mg/kg bw	Grisolia (2002)
Fish	*Carassius auratus* (goldfish), erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	5 ppm	Glyphosate equivalent to 360 g/L Time of exposure, 2, 4 and 6 days Statistically significant differences: 96 h ($P < 0.05$); 144 h ($P < 0.01$)	Cavaş & Könen (2007)
Fish	*Poecilia reticulata* (guppy) gill erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation, ENA	+	1.41 µL/L [0.914 mg/L]	Glyphosate, 64.8%, m/v (648 g/L) Micronucleus formation, $P < 0.01$ Other nuclear abnormalities, $P < 0.05$ at 1.41 to 5.65 µL/L; concentration-dependent ($r^2 = 0.99$)	De Souza Filho *et al.* (2013)
Fish	*Cnesterodon decemmaculatus* (Jenyns, 1842) peripheral blood erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	3.9 mg/L	Glyphosate, 48% Time of exposure, 48 and 96 h $P < 0.05$, with 3.9 and 7.8 mg/L for 48 and 96 h	Vera-Candioti *et al.* (2013)
Fish	*Cnesterodon decemmaculatus* (Jenyns, 1842) peripheral blood erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	22.9 mg/L	Glyphosate, 48% Time of exposure, 48 and 96 h $P < 0.01$, with 22.9 and 45.9 mg/L, and $P < 0.05$ at 68.8 mg/L, for 96 h	Vera-Candioti *et al.* (2013)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Fish	*Prochilodus lineatus* (sábalo) erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	–	10 mg/L	Single dose tested only, for 6, 24, and 96 h Nuclear abnormalities (lobed nuclei, segmented nuclei and kidney-shaped nuclei)	Cavalcante *et al.* (2008)
Fish	*Anguilla anguilla* L. (European eel), peripheral mature erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Other (ENA)	+	0.058 mg/L	Time of exposure, 1 and 3 days Chromosomal breakage and/or chromosomal segregational abnormalities after 3 days of exposure, $P < 0.05$	Guilherme *et al.* (2010)
Caiman	*Caiman latirostris* (broad-snouted caiman), erythrocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	0.500 mg/egg	Glyphosate, 66.2% In-ovo exposure; blood sampling at the time of hatching $P < 0.05$ in both experiments (50–1000 µg/egg in experiment 1; 500–1750 µg/egg in experiment 2)	Poletta *et al.* (2009)
Caiman	*Caiman latirostris* (broad-snouted caiman), erythrocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	–	19 800 mg/L	Glyphosate, 66.2% Single dose tested only; in-ovo exposure First spraying exposure at the beginning of incubation period, a second exposure on day 35, then incubation until hatching	Poletta *et al.* (2011)
Caiman	*Caiman latirostris* (broad-snouted caiman), erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus fomation	+	0.500 mg/egg	Glyphosate, 66.2% In-ovo exposure; blood sampling at the time of hatching $P < 0.05$ in both experiments (50–1000 µg/egg in experiment 1; 500–1750 µg/egg in experiment 2)	Poletta *et al.* (2009)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Caiman	*Caiman latirostris* (broad-snouted caiman), erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus fomation	+	19.8 g/L	Glyphosate, 66.2% One dose tested; in-ovo exposure First spraying exposure at the beginning of incubation period, a second exposure on day 35, then incubation until hatching. Micronucleus formation, $P < 0.001$ Damage index, $P < 0.001$	Poletta *et al.* (2011)
Frog tadpole	*Rana catesbeiana* (ouaouaron), blood	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	1.687 mg/L, p.o.	Time of exposure, 24 h $P < 0.05$, with 6.75 mg/L; and $P < 0.001$ with 27 mg/L (with 108 mg/L, all died within 24 h)	Clements *et al.* (1997)
Frog	*Eleutherodactylus johnstonei* (Antilles coqui), erythrocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	0.5 µg a.e./cm^2	Glyphosate-based formulation, 480 g/L Exposure to an homogenate mist in a 300 cm^2 glass terrarium Time of exposure: 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8 and 24 h $P < 0.05$	Meza-Joya *et al.* (2013)
Frog	*Euflictis cyanophlyctis* (Indian skittering frog), erythrocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	1 mg a.e./L	Glyphosate isopropylamine salt, 41% Time of exposure: 24, 48, 72, and 96 h $P < 0.001$ at 24, 48, 72 and 96 h	Yadav *et al.* (2013)
Snail	*Biomphalaria alexandrina*, haemolymph	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	10 mg/L	Glyphosate, 48% Single dose tested only, for 24 h. The percentage of damaged DNA was 21% vs 4% (control) No statistical analysis	Mohamed (2011)
Oyster	Oysters, spermatozoa	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	–	5 µg/L	Glyphosate, 200 µg equivalent/L Time of exposure, 1 h	Akcha *et al.* (2012)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Clam	*Corbicula fluminea* (Asian clam) haemocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	–	10 mg/L	Time of exposure, 96 h Significant increase when atrazine (2 or 10 mg/L) was added to glyphosate ($P < 0.05$) No increase after exposure to atrazine or glyphosate separately	dos Santos & Martinez (2014)
Mussels	*Utterbackia imbecillis* (Bivalvia: Unionidae) glochidia mussels (larvae)	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	–	5 mg/L	Glyphosate, 18% Doses tested: 2.5 and 5 mg/L for 24 h NOEC, 10.04 mg/L	Conners & Black (2004)
Worm	Earthworm, *Eisenia andrei,* coelomocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	–	240 µg a.e./cm^2	Monoammonium salt, 85.4%, a.e. Epidermic exposure during 72 h (on filter paper)	Piola *et al.* (2013)
Worm	Earthworm, *Eisenia andrei*, coelomocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	15 µg a.e./cm^2	Monoammonium salt, 72%, a.e. Epidermic exposure during 72 h (on filter paper) $P < 0.001$	Piola *et al.* (2013)
Worm	Earthworm, *Pheretima peguana*, coelomocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	–	251.50 µg/cm^2	Active ingredient, 36% (w/v) Epidermic exposure 48 h on filter paper; LC_{50}, 251.50 µg/cm^2	Muangphra *et al.* (2014)
Worm	Earthworm, *Pheretima peguana*, coelomocytes	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	+	251.50 µg/cm^2	Active ingredient, 36% (w/v) Exposure, 48 h on filter paper; LC_{50}, 251.50 µg/cm^2 filter paper $P < 0.05$, for total micro-, bi-, and trinuclei frequencies at 0.25 µg/cm^2; when analysed separately, micro- and trinuclei frequencies significantly differed from controls only at the LC_{50}	Muangphra *et al.* (2014)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Species, strain, tissue	End-point	Test	Results[a]	Dose (LED or HID)	Comments	Reference
Insect	*Drosophila melanogaster*	Mutation	Sex-linked recessive lethal mutations	+	1 ppm	Single dose tested only $P < 0.001$	Kale *et al.* (1995)
Plant systems	*Allium cepa* (onion)	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	+	1.44 µg/mL	Glyphosate-based formulation, 480 g/L The doses of formulation were calculated as glyphosate isopropylamine $P < 0.005$	Rank *et al.* (1993)
Plant systems	*Crepis capillaris* (hawksbeard)	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	–	0.5%	The highest dose tested (1%) was toxic	Dimitrov *et al.* (2006)
Plant systems	*Hordeum vulgare* L. cv. Madalin (barley roots)	Chromosomal damage	Chromosomal aberrations	(+)	360 µg/mL (0.1%)	Reported as "significant"	Truta *et al.* (2011)
Plant systems	*Crepis capillaris* (hawksbeard)	Chromosomal damage	Micronucleus formation	–	0.5%	The highest dose tested (1%) was toxic	Dimitrov *et al.* (2006)

[a] +, positive; –, negative; (+) or (–) positive/negative in a study with limited quality

a.e., acid equivalent; AMPA, aminomethyl phosphonic acid; bw, body weight; ENA, erythrocytic nuclear abnormalities; Endo III, endonuclease III; FPG, formamidopyrimidine glycosylase; h, hour; HID, highest ineffective dose; LC_{50}, median lethal dose; LED, lowest effective dose; NOEC, no-observed effect concentration; p.o., oral; SMART, somatic mutation and recombination test

Table 4.6 Genetic and related effects of glyphosate and glyphosate-based formulations on non-mammalian systems in vitro

Phylogenetic class	Test system (species; strain)	End-point	Test	Results[a]		Concentration (LEC or HIC)	Comments	Reference
				Without metabolic activation	With metabolic activation			
Glyphosate								
Eukaryote Fish	*Oreochromis niloticus* (Nile tilapia), erythrocytes	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, comet assay	+	NT	7 µM [1.2 µg/mL]	Glyphosate isopropylamine, 96% $P \leq 0.001$; positive dose–response relationship for doses ≥ 7 µM	Alvarez-Moya *et al.* (2014)
Prokaryote (bacteria)	*Scytonema javanicum* (cyanobacteria)	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, FADU assay	(+)	NT	10 µM [1.7 µg/mL] (in combination with UVB)	Co-exposure to glyphosate (not tested alone; single dose tested only) enhanced UVB-induced increases	Wang *et al.* (2012)
Prokaryote (bacteria)	*Anabaena spherica* (cyanobacteria)	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, FADU assay	(+)	NT	10 µM [1.7 µg/mL] (in combination with UVB)	Co-exposure to glyphosate (not tested alone; single dose tested only) enhanced UVB-induced increases	Chen *et al.* (2012)
Prokaryote (bacteria)	*Microcystis viridis* (cyanobacteria)	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks, FADU assay	(+)	NT	10 µM [1.7 µg/mL] (in combination with UVB)	Co-exposure to glyphosate (not tested alone; single dose tested only) enhanced UVB-induced increases	Chen *et al.* (2012)
Prokaryote (bacteria)	*Bacillus B. subtilis*	Differential toxicity	Rec assay	–	NT	2000 µg/disk		Li & Long (1988)
Prokaryote (bacteria)	*Salmonella typhimurium* TA1535, TA1537, TA1538, TA98 and TA100	Mutation	Reverse mutation	–	–	5000 µg/plate		Li & Long (1988)
Prokaryote (bacteria)	*Escherichia coli* WP2	Mutation	Reverse mutation	–	–	5000 µg/plate		Li & Long (1988)

Table 4.6 (continued)

Phylogenetic class	Test system (species; strain)	End-point	Test	Results[a]		Concentration (LEC or HIC)	Comments	Reference
				Without metabolic activation	With metabolic activation			
Acellular systems	Prophage superhelical PM2 DNA	DNA damage	DNA strand breaks	(–)	NT	75 mM [12.7 mg/mL] (in combination with H_2O_2 (100 µM)	Glyphosate inhibited H_2O_2-induced damage of PM2 DNA at concentrations where synergism was observed in cellular DNA damage (data NR)	Lueken *et al.* (2004)
Glyphosate-based formulations								
Prokaryote (bacteria)	*Salmonella typhimurium* TA98	Mutation	Reverse mutation	+	–	360 µg/plate	Glyphosate isopropylammonium salt, 480 g/L	Rank *et al.* (1993)
Prokaryote (bacteria)	*Salmonella typhimirium* TA100	Mutation	Reverse mutation	–	+	720 µg/plate	Glyphosate isopropylammonium salt, 480 g/L	Rank *et al.* (1993)

[a] +, positive; –, negative; (+) or (–) positive/negative in a study with limited quality

FADU, fluorometric analysis of DNA unwinding; HIC, highest ineffective concentration; LEC, lowest effective concentration; NR, not reported; NT, not tested; UVB, ultraviolet B

Additionally, although all four glyphosate-based formulations dramatically reduced the transcription of ERα and ERβ in ERE-transfected HepG2 cells, glyphosate alone had no significant effect. Glyphosate and all four formulations reduced androgen-receptor transcription in the breast cancer cell line MDA-MB453-kb2, which has a high level of androgen receptor, with the formulations showing greater activity than glyphosate alone.

In a human placental cell line derived from choriocarcinoma (JEG3 cells), 18 hours of exposure to a glyphosate-based formulation (IC_{50} = 0.04%) decreased aromatase activity (Richard *et al.*, 2005). Glyphosate alone was without effect. The concentrations used did not affect cell viability.

Glyphosate, at non-overtly toxic concentrations, decreased aromatase activity in fresh human placental microsomes and transformed human embryonic kidney cells (293) transfected with human aromatase cDNA (Benachour *et al.*, 2007). A glyphosate-based formulation, at non-overtly toxic concentrations, had the same effect. The formulation was more active at equivalent doses than glyphosate alone.

In human androgen receptor and ERα and ERβ reporter gene assays using the Chinese hamster ovary cell line (CHO-K1), glyphosate had neither agonist nor antagonist activity (Kojima *et al.*, 2004, 2010).

(ii) Non-human mammalian experimental systems

In vivo

No data were available to the Working Group.

In vitro

Benachour *et al.* (2007) and Richard *et al.* (2005) reported that glyphosate and a glyphosate-based formulation inhibited aromatase activity in microsomes derived from equine testis. Richard *et al.* (2005) reported an absorbance spectrum consistent with an interaction between a nitrogen atom of glyphosate and the active site of the purified equine aromatase enzyme.

In the mouse MA-10 Leydig cell tumour cell line, a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 180 mg/L) markedly reduced [$(Bu)_2$] cAMP-stimulated progesterone production (Walsh *et al.*, 2000). The inhibition was dose-dependent, and occurred in the absence of toxicity or parallel reductions in total protein synthesis. In companion studies, the formulation also disrupted steroidogenic acute regulatory protein expression, which is critical for steroid hormone synthesis. Glyphosate alone did not affect steroidogenesis at any dose tested up to 100 µg/L. Forgacs *et al.* (2012) found that glyphosate (300 µM) had no effect on testosterone production in a novel murine Leydig cell line (BLTK1). Glyphosate did not modulate the effect of recombinant human chorionic gonadotropin, which served as the positive control for testosterone production.

(iii) Non-mammalian experimental systems

Gonadal tissue levels of testosterone, 17β-estradiol and total microsomal protein were significantly reduced in adult snails (*Biomphalaria alexandrina*) exposed for 3 weeks to a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 48%) at the LC_{10} (10% lethal concentration) (Omran & Salama, 2013). These effects persisted after a 2-week recovery period, although the impact on 17β-estradiol was reduced in the recovery animals. The formulation also induced marked degenerative changes in the ovotestis, including absence of almost all the gametogenesis stages. CYP450 1B1, measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), was substantially increased in the treated snails, including after the recovery period.

Glyphosate (0.11 mg/L for 7 days) did not increase plasma vittelogenin levels in juvenile rainbow trout (Xie *et al.*, 2005).

(b) Other pathways

(i) Humans

Studies in exposed humans

No data were available to the Working Group.

Human cells in vitro

Glyphosate did not exhibit agonist activity in an assay for a human pregnane X receptor (PXR) reporter gene in a CHO-K1 cell line (Kojima *et al.*, 2010).

(ii) Non-human mammalian experimental systems

In vivo

In rats, glyphosate (300 mg/kg bw, 5 days per week, for 2 weeks) had no effect on the formation of peroxisomes, or the activity of hepatic carnitine acetyltransferase and catalase, and did not cause hypolipidaemia, suggesting that glyphosate does not have peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor activity (Vainio *et al.*, 1983).

In vitro

Glyphosate was not an agonist for mouse peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors PPARα or PPARγ in reporter gene assays using CV-1 monkey kidney cells in vitro (Kojima *et al.*, 2010). Glyphosate was also not an agonist for the aryl hydrocarbon receptor in mouse hepatoma Hepa1c1c7 cells stably transfected with a reporter plasmid containing copies of dioxin-responsive element (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2008).

(iii) Non-mammalian experimental systems

As a follow-up to experiments in which injection of glyphosate, or incubation with a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 48%), caused chick and frog (*Xenopus laevis*) cephalic and neural crest terata characteristic of retinoic acid signalling dysfunction, Paganelli *et al.*, (2010) measured retinoic acid activity in tadpoles exposed to a glyphosate-based formulation. Retinoic activity measured by a reporter gene assay was increased by the formulation, and a retinoic acid antagonist blocked the effect. This indicated a possible significant modulation of retinoic acid activity by glyphosate.

4.2.3 Oxidative stress, inflammation, and immunosuppression

(a) Oxidative stress

(i) Humans

Studies in exposed humans

No data were available to the Working Group.

Human cells in vitro

Several studies examined the effects of glyphosate on oxidative stress parameters in the human keratinocyte cell line HaCaT. Gehin *et al.* (2005) found that a glyphosate-based formulation was cytotoxic to HaCaT cells, but that addition of antioxidants reduced cytotoxicity. Elie-Caille *et al.* (2010) showed that incubation of HaCaT cells with glyphosate at 21 mM (the half maximal inhibitory concentration for cytotoxicity, IC_{50}) for 18 hours increased production of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) as shown by dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate assay. Similarly, George & Shukla (2013) exposed HaCaT cells to a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 41%; concentration, up to 0.1 mM) and evaluated oxidative stress using the dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate assay. The formulation (0.1 mM) increased maximum oxidant levels by approximately 90% compared with vehicle, an effect similar to that of H_2O_2 (100 mM). Pre-treatment of the cells with the antioxidant *N*-acetylcysteine abrogated generation of oxidants by both the formulation and by H_2O_2. *N*-Acetylcysteine also inhibited cell proliferation induced by the glyphosate-based formulation (0.1 mM). [The Working Group noted the recognized limitations of using dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate as a marker of oxidative stress (Bonini *et al.*, 2006; Kalyanaraman *et al.*, 2012),

and that the studies that reported this end-point as the sole evidence for oxidative stress should thus be interpreted with caution.]

Chaufan *et al.* (2014) evaluated the effects of glyphosate, AMPA (the main metabolite of glyphosate), and a glyphosate-based formulation on oxidative stress in HepG2 cells. The formulation, but not glyphosate or AMPA, had adverse effects. Specifically, the formulation increased levels of reactive oxygen species, nitrotyrosine formation, superoxide dismutase activity, and glutathione, but did not have an effect on catalase or glutathione-*S*-transferase activities. Coalova *et al.* (2014) exposed Hep2 cells to a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate as isopropylamine salt, 48%) at the LC_{20} (concentration not otherwise specified) and evaluated various parameters of oxidative stress. Exposure to the formulation for 24 hours increased catalase activity and glutathione levels, but did not have an effect on superoxide dismutase or glutathione-*S*-transferase activity.

Using blood samples from non-smoking male donors, Mladinic *et al.* (2009b) examined the effects of in-vitro exposure to glyphosate on oxidative DNA damage in primary lymphocyte cultures and on lipid peroxidation in plasma. Both parameters were significantly elevated at glyphosate concentrations of 580 µg/mL (~3.4 mM), but not at lower concentrations. Kwiatkowska *et al.* (2014) examined the effects of glyphosate, its metabolite AMPA, and *N*-methylglyphosate (among other related compounds) in human erythrocytes isolated from healthy donors. The erythrocytes were exposed at concentrations of 0.01–5 mM for 1, 4, or 24 hours before flow cytometric measurement of the production of reactive oxygen species with dihydrorhodamine 123. Production of reactive oxygen species was increased by glyphosate (≥ 0.25 mM), AMPA (≥ 0.25 mM), and *N*-methylglyphosate (≥ 0.5 mM).

(ii) Non-human mammalian experimental systems

Most of the studies of oxidative stress and glyphosate were conducted in rats and mice, and examined a range of exposure durations, doses, preparations (glyphosate and glyphosate-based formulations), administration routes and tissues. In addition, various end-points were evaluated to determine whether oxidative stress is induced by exposure to glyphosate. Specifically, it was found that glyphosate induces production of free radicals and oxidative stress in mouse and rat tissues through alteration of antioxidant enzyme activity, depletion of glutathione, and increases in lipid peroxidation. Increases in biomarkers of oxidative stress upon exposure to glyphosate in vivo have been observed in blood plasma (Astiz *et al.*, 2009b), liver (Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997; Astiz *et al.*, 2009b), skin (George *et al.*, 2010), kidney (Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997; Astiz *et al.*, 2009b), and brain (Astiz *et al.*, 2009b). Several studies demonstrated similar effects with a glyphosate-based formulation in the liver (Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997; Cavuşoğlu *et al.*, 2011; Jasper *et al.*, 2012), kidney (Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997; Cavuşoğlu *et al.*, 2011) and brain (Cattani *et al.*, 2014), or with a pesticide mixture containing glyphosate in the testes (Astiz *et al.*, 2013). Pre-treatment with antioxidants has been shown to mitigate the induction of oxidative stress by a glyphosate-based formulation (Cavuşoğlu *et al.*, 2011) and by a pesticide mixture containing glyphosate (Astiz *et al.*, 2013).

DNA damage associated with oxidative stress after exposure to glyphosate (e.g. as reported in Bolognesi *et al.*, 1997) is reviewed in Section 4.2.1.

(iii) Non-mammalian experimental systems

Positive associations between exposure to glyphosate and oxidative stress were reported in various tissues in aquatic organisms (reviewed in Slaninova *et al.*, 2009). Glyphosate and various glyphosate-based formulations have been tested in various fish species for effects on a plethora of end-points (e.g. lipid peroxidation, DNA

damage, expression of antioxidant enzymes, levels of glutathione), consistently presenting evidence that glyphosate can cause oxidative stress in fish (Lushchak *et al.*, 2009; Ferreira *et al.*, 2010; Guilherme *et al.*, 2010, 2012a, b, 2014a, b; Modesto & Martinez, 2010a, b; Cattaneo *et al.*, 2011; Glusczak *et al.*, 2011; de Menezes *et al.*, 2011; Ortiz-Ordoñez *et al.*, 2011; Nwani *et al.*, 2013; Marques *et al.*, 2014, 2015; Sinhorin *et al.*, 2014; Uren Webster *et al.*, 2014). Similar effects were observed in bullfrog tadpoles exposed to a glyphosate-based formulation (Costa *et al.*, 2008), and in the Pacific oyster exposed to a pesticide mixture containing glyphosate (Geret *et al.*, 2013).

(b) Inflammation and immunomodulation

(i) Humans

Studies in exposed humans

No data were available to the Working Group.

Human cells in vitro

Nakashima *et al.* (2002) investigated the effects of glyphosate on cytokine production in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells. Glyphosate (1 mM) had a slight inhibitory effect on cell proliferation, and modestly inhibited the production of IFN-gamma and IL-2. The production of TNF-α and IL-1 β was not affected by glyphosate at concentrations that significantly inhibited proliferative activity and T-cell-derived cytokine production.

(ii) Non-human mammalian experimental systems

Kumar *et al.* (2014) studied the pro-inflammatory effects of glyphosate and farm air samples in wildtype C57BL/6 and TLR4$^{-/-}$ mice, evaluating cellular response, humoral response, and lung function. In the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid and lung digests, airway exposure to glyphosate (1 or 100 µg) significantly increased the total cell count, eosinophils, neutrophils, and IgG1 and IgG2a levels. Airway exposure to glyphosate (100 ng, 1 µg, or 100 µg per day for 7 days) also produced substantial pulmonary inflammation, confirmed by histological examination. In addition, glyphosate-rich farm-air samples significantly increased circulating levels of IL-5, IL-10, IL-13 and IL-4 in wildtype and in TLR4$^{-/-}$ mice. Glyphosate was also tested in wildtype mice and significantly increased levels of IL-5, IL-10, IL-13, and IFN-γ (but not IL-4). The glyphosate-induced pro-inflammatory effects were similar to those induced by ovalbumin, and there were no additional or synergistic effects when ovalbumin was co-administered with glyphosate.

Pathological effects of glyphosate on the immune system have been reported in 13-week rat and mouse feeding studies by the NTP (Chan & Mahler, 1992). Relative thymus weight was decreased in male rats exposed for 13 weeks, but increased in male mice. Treatment-related changes in haematological parameters were observed in male rats at 13 weeks and included mild increases in haematocrit [erythrocyte volume fraction] and erythrocytes at 12 500, 25 000, and 50 000 ppm, haemoglobin at 25 000 and 50 000 ppm, and platelets at 50 000 ppm. In female rats, small but significant increases occurred in lymphocyte and platelet counts, leukocytes, mean corpuscular haemoglobin, and mean corpuscular volume at 13 weeks.

Blakley (1997) studied the humoral immune response in female CD-1 mice given drinking-water containing a glyphosate-based formulation at concentrations up to 1.05% for 26 days. The mice were inoculated with sheep erythrocytes to produce a T-lymphocyte, macrophage-dependent antibody response on day 21 of exposure. Antibody production was not affected by the formulation.

(iii) Non-mammalian experimental systems

A positive association between exposure to glyphosate and immunotoxicity in fish has been reported. Kreutz *et al.* (2011) reported alterations

in haematological and immune-system parameters in silver catfish (*Rhamdia quelen*) exposed to sublethal concentrations (10% of the median lethal dose, LC_{50}, at 96 hours) of a glyphosate-based herbicide. Numbers of blood erythrocytes, thrombocytes, lymphocytes, and total leukocytes were significantly reduced after 96 hours of exposure, while the number of immature circulating cells was increased. The phagocytic index, serum bacteria agglutination, and total peroxidase activity were significantly reduced after 24 hours of exposure. Significant decreases in serum bacteria agglutination and lysozyme activity were found after 10 days of exposure. No effect on serum bactericidal and complement natural haemolytic activity was seen after 24 hours or 10 days of exposure to glyphosate.

el-Gendy *et al.* (1998) demonstrated effects of a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 48%) at 1/1000 of the concentration recommended for field application on humoral and cellular immune response in bolti fish (*Tilapia nilotica*). The mitogenic responses of splenocytes to phytohaemagglutinin, concanavalin A, and lipopolysaccharide in fish exposed to glyphosate for 96 hours were gradually decreased and reached maximum depression after 4 weeks. Glyphosate also produced a concentration-dependent suppression of in-vitro plaque-forming cells in response to sheep erythrocytes.

4.2.4 Cell proliferation and death

(a) Humans

(i) Studies in exposed humans

No data were available to the Working Group.

(ii) Human cells in vitro

Cell proliferation potential was explored in HaCaT keratinocytes exposed to a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 41%; concentration, up to 0.1 mM) (George & Shukla, 2013). The formulation increased the number of viable cells, as assessed by the MTT assay (based on reduction of the dye 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) at concentrations up to 0.1 mM, while concentration- and incubation-time-dependent reductions were seen at higher concentrations (up to 1 mM). The formulation (0.01 or 0.1 mM for 72 hours) significantly enhanced cell proliferation (measured by staining for either proliferating cell nuclear antigen or 5-bromo-2′-deoxyuridine); at 0.1 mM, the increases exceeded levels for the positive control, tetradecanoyl-phorbol-13-acetate. The proportion of S-phase cells (assessed using flow cytometry) and the expression of G1/S cell-cycle regulatory proteins (cyclins D1 and E, CDK2, CDK4, and CDK6) increased after exposure to the formulation or the positive control.

Li *et al.* (2013) reported that glyphosate and AMPA inhibited cell growth in eight human cancer cell lines, but not in two immortalized normal prostate cell lines. An ovarian (OVCAR-3) and a prostate (C4–2B) cell line showed the greatest loss in viability, with glyphosate or AMPA at 15–50 mM. Further assays were conducted on AMPA, but not glyphosate, in two prostate cancer cell lines (C4–2B and PC-3), and found cell-cycle arrest (decreased entry of cells into S-phase) and increased apoptosis. [The Working Group noted that the findings from these assays with AMPA are of unclear relevance to the effects of glyphosate.]

Glyphosate (10^{-6} to 1 μM) increased growth by 15–30% relative to controls in hormone-dependent T47D breast cancer cells, but only when endogenous estrogen was minimized in the culture medium (by substitution with 10% dextran-charcoal treated fetal bovine serum). Glyphosate did not affect the growth of hormone-independent MDA-MB231 breast cancer cells cultured in either medium (Thongprakaisang *et al.*, 2013).

Glyphosate (up to 30 μM) did not show cell proliferation potential (5-bromo-2′-deoxyuridine) and did not activate caspase 3 or TP53 in human neuroprogenitor ReN CX cells (Culbreth *et al.*, 2012).

Several studies evaluated the impact of glyphosate or glyphosate-based formulations on apoptotic cell death in the HepG2 human hepatoma cell line. Glyphosate-based formulations induced apoptosis in HepG2 cells, while glyphosate alone was generally without effect or showed effects at considerably higher concentrations (Gasnier *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Mesnage *et al.*, 2013; Chaufan *et al.*, 2014; Coalova *et al.*, 2014). For example, 23.5% of the nuclei of HepG2 cells exposed to a glyphosate-based formulation showed condensed and fragmented chromatin ($P < 0.01$), and caspases 3 and 7 were significantly activated, both effects being indicative of apoptosis (Chaufan *et al.*, 2014). Caspases were unaffected by glyphosate or AMPA alone. Glyphosate and AMPA did not affect cell viability at concentrations up to 1000 mg/L, a concentration that increased rather than decreased cell viability after 48 and 72 hours of incubation. In contrast, cells exposed to glyphosate-based formulation at lower concentrations were not viable. Similarly, Coalova *et al.* (2014) reported that a glyphosate-based formulation (glyphosate, 48%) induced apoptotic cell death in HepG2 cells. Apoptosis was indicated by activation of caspases 3 and 7, and the significant fraction (17.7%) of nuclei with condensed and fragmented chromatin ($P < 0.001$).

In studies with glyphosate and nine different glyphosate-based formulations in three cell lines, glyphosate alone did not increase the activity of adenylate kinase (Mesnage *et al.*, 2013). The activity of caspases 3 and 7 was significantly increased by glyphosate in HepG2 and embryonic kidney HEK293 cells, and elevated (although not significantly) about 1.8 times above control levels in placental choriocarcinoma JEG-3 cells. Two formulations containing an ethoxylated adjuvant induced adenylate kinase activity to a greater extent than caspase activity. All formulations were reported to be more cytotoxic than glyphosate. [In concentration–response curves, glyphosate showed an effect on mitochondrial succinate dehydrogenase activity, a measure of cell viability, that was similar to that shown by one formulation. The calculated 50% lethal concentration in JEG3 cells for mitochondrial succinate dehydrogenase activity was greater for three formulations, although the values appeared inconsistent with the concentration–response curves.]

In HUVEC primary neonate umbilical cord vein cells, and 293 embryonic kidney and JEG3 placental cell lines, Benachour & Séralini (2009) found that glyphosate at relatively high concentrations induced apoptosis, as indicated by induction of caspases 3 and 7, and DNA staining and microscopy. At comparable or lower concentrations, four glyphosate-based formulations all caused primarily necrotic cell death. The umbilical cord HUVEC cells were the most sensitive (by about 100-fold) to the apoptotic effects of glyphosate.

Heu *et al.* (2012) evaluated apoptosis in immortalized human keratinocytes (HaCaT) exposed to glyphosate (5–70 mM). Based on annexin V, propidium iodide and mitochondrial staining, exposures leading to 15% cytotoxicity gave evidence of early apoptosis, while increases in late apoptosis and necrosis were observed at higher levels of cytotoxicity.

(b) Non-human mammalian experimental systems

(i) In vivo

In male Wistar rats, glyphosate (10 mg/kg bw, injected intraperitoneally three times per week for 5 weeks) reduced, but not significantly, the inner mitochondrial membrane integrity of the substantia nigra and cerebral cortex (Astiz *et al.* 2009a). Caspase 3 activity was unaltered in these tissues. Mitochondrial cardiolipin content was significantly reduced, particularly in the substantia nigra, where calpain activity was substantially higher. Glyphosate induced DNA fragmentation in the brain and liver.

(ii) In vitro

In adult Sprague Dawley rat testicular cells exposed in vitro, glyphosate (up to 1%; for 24 or 48 hours) did not provoke cell-membrane alterations (Clair *et al.*, 2012). However, caspase 3 and 7 activity increased with exposure in Sertoli cells alone, and in Sertoli and germ cell mixtures. On the other hand, a glyphosate-based formulation (a 0.1% solution, containing 0.36 g/L of glyphosate) induced membrane alterations and decreased the activity of caspase 3 and 7 in Leydig cells, and in Sertoli and germ cell mixtures. In a separate study, glyphosate increased apoptosis in primary Sertoli cell cultures from mice (Zhao *et al.*, 2013).

Glyphosate (5–40 mM, for 12, 24, 48, or 72 hours) significantly increased cell death in a time- and concentration-dependent manner in differentiated rat pheochromocytoma PC12 (neuronal) cells Gui *et al.* (2012). Apoptotic changes included cell shrinkage, DNA fragmentation, decreased Bcl2 expression, and increased Bax expression. Both autophagy and apoptosis were implicated, as pre-treatment with the pan-caspase inhibitor Z-VAD or the autophagy inhibitor 3-MA inhibited cell loss.

Induction of apoptosis by glyphosate or glyphosate-based formulations was also studied in other cell lines. Glyphosate (10 μM) induced apoptosis in rat heart H9c2 cells, the effect being enhanced when glyphosate was given in combination with the adjuvant TN-20 (5 μM), (Kim *et al.*, 2013). A glyphosate-based formulation induced apoptosis in mouse 3T3-L1 fibroblasts, and inhibited their transformation to adipocytes (Martini *et al.*, 2012). A glyphosate-based formulation (10 mM) did not increase rat hepatoma HTC cell death, but did affect mitochondrial membrane potential (Malatesta *et al.*, 2008).

Glyphosate (up to 30 μM) did not activate caspase 3 or show cell proliferation potential (5-bromo-2′-deoxyuridine) in a mouse neuroprogenitor cell line, but did activate Tp53 at the highest concentration tested (Culbreth *et al.*, 2012).

4.2.5 Other mechanisms

No data on immortalization, epigenetic alterations, altered DNA repair, or genomic instability after exposure to glyphosate were available to the Working Group.

4.3 Data relevant to comparisons across agents and end-points

No data on high-throughput screening or other relevant data were available to the Working Group. Glyphosate was not tested by the Tox21 and ToxCast research programmes of the government of the USA (Kavlock *et al.* 2012; Tice *et al.*, 2013).

4.4 Cancer susceptibility data

No studies that examined genetic, life-stage, or other susceptibility factors with respect to adverse health outcomes that could be associated with exposure to glyphosate were identified by the Working Group.

4.5 Other adverse effects

4.5.1 Humans

In the USA in the past decade, poison-control centres have reported more than 4000 exposures to glyphosate-containing herbicides, of which several hundred were evaluated in a health-care facility, and fatalities were rare (Rumack, 2015). In a pesticide surveillance study carried out by the National Poisons Information Service of the United Kingdom, glyphosate was among the most common pesticide exposure implicated in severe or fatal poisoning cases between 2004 and 2013 (Perry *et al.*, 2014). Deliberate poisonings with glyphosate resulting in toxicity and fatality