



Exposure to Mycotoxins and Its Importance in Public Health

**Dulce D. Cordero-Mendoza^{a++},
María del Carmen A. Hernández-Ceruelos^{b++},
Sergio Muñoz-Juárez^c,
Alelí Julieta Izquierdo-Vega^b, Indira Vega-Gaitan^b
and Jesús Carlos Ruvalcaba Ledezma^{b++*}**

^a *Instituto de Ciencias de la Salud-Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Hidalgo, México.*

^b *Department of Medicine, Instituto de Ciencias de la Salud-Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Hidalgo, México.*

^c *Hospital General de Pachuca-[SSH] Servicios de Salud de Hidalgo, México.*

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/EJNFS/2023/v15i101342

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: <https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/105602>

Review Article

Received: 26/06/2023

Accepted: 01/09/2023

Published: 07/09/2023

ABSTRACT

There are a wide variety of toxic compounds that are produced by fungi, known as mycotoxins, which are extremely important because they are found as contaminants in food for human and animal consumption, mycotoxicoses are diseases caused by mycotoxins, exposure to it occurs by ingestion, by skin contact and inhalation, which cause adverse damage to human and animal health, these effects cost millions of dollars annually in global losses in human and animal health, as well as in agricultural products, some mycotoxins of importance in public health they include aflatoxins, trichothecenes, fumonins, ochratoxins, among others.

⁺⁺ *Master in Public Health at [ICSa-UAEH];*

^{*}*Corresponding author: Email: dcspjcarlos@gmail.com;*

Objective: The objective was to describe the state of the art on exposure to mycotoxins and its importance in public health. The state of the art allows us to conclude that exposure to food contaminated with this type of toxin.

Methodology: A search was carried out in information sources indexed in Crossref, Google Scholar, Web of Science and in some specific journals such as *Toxins*, *Biomedical Journal*, and *Public Health Journal*, using the keywords: mycotoxins, mycotoxigenic foods, aflatoxins, aflatoxigenic foods.

Results and Conclusions: Has a negative impact on public health. In conclusion it is also urgent to search for alternatives to inhibit the growth of said toxigenic fungi and guarantee food quality, free of mycotoxins. and therefore, risks to human health.

Keywords: Aflatoxins; aflatoxigenic foods; effect; fumonisins; mycotoxigenic; mycotoxins; ochratoxin; trichothecenes.

1. INTRODUCTION

Mycotoxins are secondary metabolites produced by different genera and species of fungi, the main ones being *Aspergillus spp.*, *Fusarium spp.* and *Penicillium spp.* that colonize and contaminate substrates used in human and animal food [1].

These effects on animal and human health are known as mycotoxicosis, the severity of which depends on the toxicity of the mycotoxin, the degree of exposure, the age, the nutritional status of the individual, and the possible synergistic effects of other chemical agents to which the individual is exposed [2].

The consumption of a contaminated diet produces acute and chronic effects; generally, the effects are teratogenic (birth defects during gestation), carcinogenic, estrogenic and immunosuppressive [3]. There are other reported effects such as neurotoxicity, nephrotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, myelotoxicity, pulmonary and endocrine toxicity [4,5], the most important mechanisms for the occurrence of such manifestations are oxidative stress and mycotoxin-induced genotoxicity [6].

Mycotoxicosis has been described since ancient times and for some researchers it was the cause of the last of the ten plagues of Egypt [7]. The first documented cases of these intoxications date back to the Middle Ages in Europe where this clinical picture was called "fire from hell", due to hallucinations, psychosis, delirium, convulsions, burning sensation, and distal necrosis [7,8].

The general interest in mycotoxins increased in 1960, when a feed-borne mycotoxicosis in farm animals in England was reported as turkey "X"

disease, which was later found to be caused by aflatoxins [2].

There is a long tradition of the use of some molds in the production of cheese and salami, as well as in the fermentation of beer and wine, and in the pharmaceutical industry in the manufacture of antibiotics. The classification of mold metabolites as antibiotics or as mycotoxins is based on their toxicity or therapeutic effects. There are some mold metabolites initially considered as antibiotics that later turned out to be very toxic, such as Citrinin, which is now classified as a toxin [9].

Mycotoxins are produced mainly by filamentous fungi under optimal temperature conditions ranging from 20 - 25°C, requiring a pH between 4 and 8 and a relative humidity of 80 - 90% [10]. Currently, more than 400 toxins produced by 350 species of fungi have been isolated and characterized; of these, research has focused on those that cause significant damage in humans and animals [11].

The effects of mycotoxins cost millions of dollars annually in worldwide losses in human and animal health, as well as in agricultural products [12]. Some mycotoxins of public health importance include aflatoxins, trichothecenes, fumonisins, ochratoxins and zearalenone [3].

This review analyzes the different types of mycotoxins that report effects on human health and are of public health importance.

1.1 Objective

Describe the state of the art on exposure to mycotoxins and its importance in public health.

2. METODOLOGY

A search was carried out in information sources indexed in Crossref, Google scholar Web of Science and in some specific journals such as toxins, Biomedical Journal, and Public Health Journal, using the keywords: mycotoxins, mycotoxigenic foods, aflatoxins, aflatoxigenic foods.

3. AFLATOXINS

Aflatoxins are a group of approximately 20 compounds produced by species of the genus *Aspergillus*. The term "Aflatoxin" was coined in England in the 1960s, when thousands of turkeys were fed peanut meal contaminated with the mycotoxin and died from an unknown disease that was called turkey "X" disease [13].

They are carcinogenic, teratogenic, mutagenic mycotoxins, which have tropism for organs such as liver, brain, and kidney. These toxins are produced under optimal conditions of temperature and humidity [14]. They are produced in nuts, cereals, and rice and constitute an under-recognized human health risk, the two most important aflatoxin-producing species of *Aspergillus* are *Aspergillus flavus*, which only produces aflatoxin B, and *Aspergillus parasiticus* and *Aspergillus nomius*, which produces aflatoxins B and G. aflatoxins M1 and M2 are oxidative metabolites of aflatoxins B1 and B2 produced by animals after ingestion of these, they appear in breast milk, (both animal and human), urine and feces [15], aflatoxin B1 is the

most toxic of all, and has been correlated with hepatocellular carcinoma in humans and in a wide variety of animal species [16, 17], as depicted in Fig. 1.

Aflatoxin B1 (AFB1) is a common contaminant in tropical and subtropical climates of stored foods (peanuts, pistachios, corn and rice), this mycotoxin has been described as a potent dietary carcinogen and is implicated in the etiology of hepatocellular carcinoma, it has also been associated with immunosuppression and severe nutritional deficits [18, 19, 20].

Intoxication with this toxin is called aflatoxicosis, and there are two clinical forms: acute and chronic. The acute form is related to nephrotoxicity, cardiotoxicity and hepatotoxicity and the chronic form is related to protein malnutrition, carcinogenesis and immunosuppression, because these substances induce thymic aplasia, affect the number and function of lymphocytes, inhibit phagocytosis, reduce complement activity and decrease IL-2 expression, as a result of permanent exposure to sublethal doses of this mycotoxin [21].

Its toxicological mechanism is based on its epoxide radical which interacts with conjugated proteins to produce toxicity and inhibition of protein synthesis, in addition to which it can produce genotoxicity and induce carcinogenic events due to mutation of the P53 gene, with the conversion of guanine to thymine at codon 249 [10].

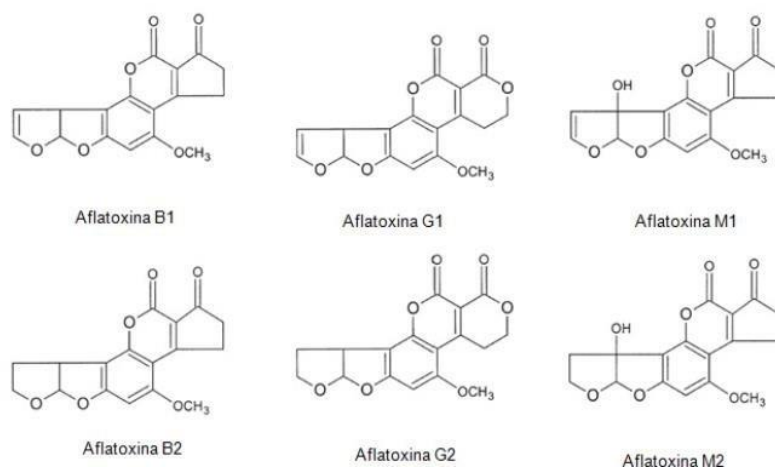


Fig. 1. Chemical structure of aflatoxins b1, b2, g1, g2, m1 and m2

Source: Maggio de Castro Souto, P. C., Augusto, L., Carraro Di Gregorio, M., & Fernandes de Oliveira, C. A. (2017). Principais micotoxicoses em suínos. *Veterinária E Zootecnia*, 24(3), 480-494. <https://doi.org/10.35172/rvz.2017.v24.286>

4. HEALTH IMPACTS

Mycotoxins have acute toxic activity on sensitive species that produces inhibition of protein synthesis, Reye's syndrome and Kwashiorkor especially in children in the tropics, immunosuppression, skin irritation, endocrine disruption, acute hepatitis and other metabolic disturbances, the clinical picture includes fatty liver and severe cerebral edema, long term carcinogenic, mutagenic, teratogenic, estrogenic, immunotoxic, nephrotoxic and neurotoxic effects [22].

Mycotoxins usually enter the body through ingestion of contaminated food, although inhalation and direct skin contact are important routes [22, 23]. They are absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract due to their high liposolubility and biotransformed in the liver by microsomal enzymes of the cytochrome p450 superfamily [24].

There is evidence of the effect of aflatoxins in animals and humans, it is known that acute outbreaks can cause embryonic death, toxicity to the fetus, contamination of breast milk, umbilical cord damage and low birth weight [15].

Aflatoxin B1 is considered by the (IARC) as an evident carcinogen in experimental animals and has also been classified as a human carcinogen (group I) and is the most important in public health [25]. On the other hand, they are also implicated in pathogenesis of other types of malnutrition, such as loss of muscle size (wasting), growth retardation and in experimental animal studies aflatoxins lead to micronutrient

deficiencies including vitamins A and D, as well as zinc and selenium deficiencies [26].

5. OCHRATOXINS

They are a group of toxic secondary metabolites produced mainly by fungi of the genera *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium*, which are common contaminants of cereals, coffee, bread and foods of animal origin, five types of ochratoxins have been described: A, B, C. α and β , the most toxic being ochratoxin A [7].

5.1 Ochratoxin A (OTA)

As shown in Fig. 2, ochratoxin A, a nephrotoxic, carcinogenic, and mutagenic mycotoxin, which is produced essentially by *Aspergillus ochraceus* and *Asperillus nigri* species, is soluble in organic solvents and slightly soluble in water, is absorbed in the digestive tract, especially in the small intestine and transported by the circulatory system to the kidneys and in lower concentrations deposited in the liver, muscle and fat [27].

They have been shown to have nephrotoxic, hepatotoxic, teratogenic, and immunotoxic effects, as well as having synergism with other nephrotoxic mycotoxins such as citrin [28].

The toxicological mechanism is mediated by inhibition of nuclear factor erythrode-2 (Nrf2) and Nrf2 gene transcription, which generates oxidative stress, production of reactive oxygen species, which induce inhibition of protein synthesis, similarly intervene in metabolic systems, disrupt calcium homeostasis, inhibit mitochondrial respiration and cause DNA damage [29].

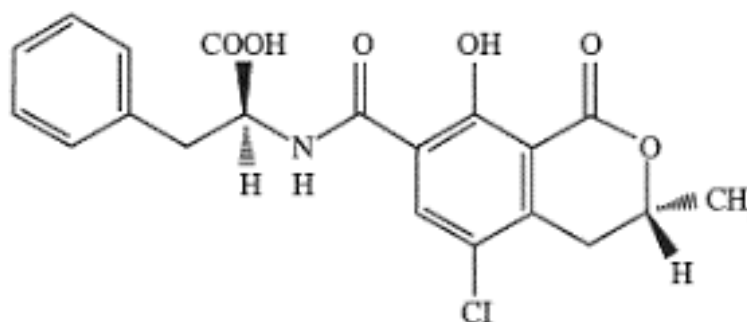


Fig. 2. Chemical structure of Ochratoxin A

Source: Ochratoxin A in food for human consumption: review. 2011.

https://scielo.isciii.es/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S0212-16112011000600004

5.2 Trichothecenes

They are a group of mycotoxins belonging to the genus *Fusarium*, produced by the species *Fusarium tricinctum*, *Fusarium nivale*, *Fusarium roseum*, *Fusarium graminearum*, *Fusarium solani*, *Fusarium culmorum* and *Fusarium poae*, have been reported more than 200 derivatives of mycotoxins that are divided into two groups A and B, The most important toxins of group A are T2 toxin, HT-2 toxin, diacetoxyscirpenol, monoacetoxyscirpenol, triacetoxyscirpenol and scirpentriol, and those of group B are vomitoxin, fugarennone X, nivalelol. They are contaminants of cereals and can generate toxicity in animals and humans [5, 28].

The toxicological mechanism is mediated by its interaction with the ribosomal unit 60s, which generates the separation of the rRNA 28s subunit, the blocking of elongation processes and the activation of ribosome inactivating proteins (RIPs), which causes ribotoxic stress and damage to the rRNA, causing inhibition of the translation process and protein synthesis, generating toxicity, inhibition of DNA and RNA synthesis, alteration in cell division, in the membrane structure, besides compromising the integrity and function of the mitochondria [30].

Exposure to some of these mycotoxins such as deoxynivalenol and T2 toxin are associated with aleukia toxica alimentativa (ATA), an intoxication characterized by skin inflammation, vomiting, damage to hematopoietic tissues [31].

6. FUMONISINS

They are produced by species of the genus *Fusarium*, being corn the cereal most affected by this group of toxins, although they have been reported in sorghum and rice [16]. They were the first mycotoxins implicated in diseases in humans since 1988, later in the United States it was observed that corn contaminated with Fumonisin-producing molds caused the death of hundreds of horses and pigs [32].

According to the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) since 1993, they are classified in group 2B as possible human carcinogens behind AFB1 which is in group I of this classification, there are 15 types of Fumonisin grouped into four categories (A, B, C, P) being the

best known FB1, FB2 and FB3, of which FB1 is the most toxic [33].

6.1 Fumonisin B1

This mycotoxin is synthesized during the metabolism of toxinogenic strains of *Fusarium verticilloides* and *Fusarium proliferatum*. Intoxications with this toxin have been associated with the consumption of corn and derived foods that are contaminated with small amounts of FB1. In humans, it has been associated with esophageal cancer and neural tube closure defects [10, 34].

The mechanism of toxicity of FB1 consists of blocking the synthesis of sphingolipids, which are essential elements in the structure of the cell membrane, particularly in nerve cells. This alteration in the biosynthesis of sphingolipids occurs as a consequence of the inhibition of the enzyme ceramide synthetase, which generates the accumulation of compounds such as sphingonine and sphingosine, which produce neurotoxicity, nephrotoxicity and hepatotoxicity [35].

7. CONCLUSIONS

Mycotoxins are a real problem that affects public health in developing countries, so it is essential to conduct research to mitigate its impact on health, most outbreaks come from food contaminated by mycotoxins so it is necessary to have a strict control on the quality and safety of food, this derived from the techniques and/or methods of determination of this type of toxigenic compounds that by minimal exposure could generate teratogenic-carcinogenic impact.

The state of the art allows us to conclude that exposure to food contaminated with this type of toxin has a negative impact on public health and that it is also urgent to search for alternatives to inhibit the growth of said toxigenic fungi and guarantee food quality, free of mycotoxins. and therefore risks to human health.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

- CAST (Council for Agricultural Science and Technology). Mycotoxins: Risks in plant, animal, human systems. Task Force Report. 2003;139:1-199. Available: https://cardbluetone.live/?utm_campaign=INccHxHRWrew3TQsLBbfNnbGFYUZobMqxXT9Zrw5Fh11&t=main9ljs2
- Peraica M, Radic C, Lucic Ay, Pavlovic M. Efectos tóxicos de las micotoxinas en el ser humano. Boletín de la Organización Mundial de la Salud. 2000;2:80-92. Available: https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/57586/RA_2000_2_80-92_spa.pdf
- Abrunhosa I, Morales H, Soares C, Calado T, Villa-Chã AS, Pereira My Venâncio A. Micotoxinas detectadas en productos alimenticios en Portugal: Revisión. Revista Bio Ciencias; 2014. Available: <https://revistabiociencias.uan.edu.mx/index.php/BIOCIENCIAS/article/view/23/175>
- Marroquín- Cardona AG, Johnson NM, Phillips TD, Hayes AW. Mycotoxins in a changing global environment - A review. Food and Chemical Toxicology: and International Journal Published for the British industrial Biological Research Association. 2014;69:220-30. Available: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0278691514002075?via%3Dihub>
- Gimeno A, Martins ML. Micotoxinas y microtoxicosis en animales y humanos. 3 edición; 2011. Available: <https://www.specialnutrients.com/pdf/book/3%20edicion%20MICOTOXINAS%20LR%20Secure.pdf>
- Hope J. A review of the mechanism of injury and treatment approaches for illness resulting from exposure to water-damaged buildings, mold, and micotoxins. The Scientific World Journal. 2013;767482. Available: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3654247/>
- González Salgado A. Diagnóstico y control de especies de *Aspergillus* productoras de Ocratoxina A. Universidad Complutense de Madrid; 2009. Available: <https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/tesis?codigo=196316>
- Beardall JM, Miller JD. Diseases in humans with mycotoxins as possible causes. En: Mycotoxins in Grain: Compounds Other than Aflatoxin; 1994.
- Reiss J. Effects of mycotoxins on higher plants, algae, fungi and bacteria. En Wyllie T, Morehouse L, eds: Mycotoxic fungi, mycotoxins, mycotoxicoses, Nueva York, Marcel Dekker. 1978;3:118-144.
- Murray PR, Rosenthal KS, Pfaffler MA. Medical microbiology. 6th ed. St. Louis: Mosby; 2009.
- Brase S, Encinas A, Keck J, Nising CF. Chemistry and biology of mycotoxins and related fungal metabolites. Chemical Reviews. 2009;109(9):3903-3990. Available: <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/full/10.1021/cr050001f>
- Vasanthi S, Bath RV. Mycotoxins in foods- occurrence, health & economic significance and food control measures. Indian Journal of Medical Research. 1998;108:212-224.
- Blount WP. Turkey "x" disease. Journal of British Turkey Federation. 1961;9(52):52-61.
- Shan X, Williams WP. Toward elucidation of genetic and functional genetic mechanisms in corn host resistance to *Aspergillus flavus* infection and aflatoxin contamination. Frontiers in Microbiology. 2014;5:364. Available: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4104783/pdf/fmicb-05-00364.pdf>
- Ruvalcaba Ledezma JC, Interián Gómez L, Flores Salinas EE, Raygoza Anaya M. Aflatoxigenic feeding and its possible implications after pregnancy. Biomedical & Pharmacology Journal. 2014;7(1):183-193.
- Richard JL. Some major mycotoxins and their mycotoxicose. An overview. International Journal of Food Microbiology. 2007;119(1-2):3-10. Available: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0168160507003790?via%3Dihub>
- Wu F, Groopman JD, Pestka JJ. Public Health impacts of foodborne mycotoxins. Annual Review of Food Science and Technology. 2014;5:351-372. Available: https://www.annualreviews.org/doi/10.1146/annurev-food-030713092431?url_ver=Z39.88-2003&rft_id=ori%3Arid%3Acrossref.org&rft_dat=cr_pub++0pubmed
- Abaroa Aguirre MF, Sánchez Godoy EG, Escamilla Violante R, Ruvalcaba Ledezma JC. Intake time safer corn tortilla by *Aspergillus* sp. growth in culture.

- International Journal of Pure & Applied Bioscience. 2015;3(3):22-27.
Available:<http://www.ijpab.com/form/2015%20Volume%203,%20issue%203/IJPAB-2015-3-3-22-27.pdf>
19. Yunus AW, Razzazi-Fazeli E, Bohm J. Aflatoxin B(1) in affectin broiler's performance, immunity, and gastrointestinal tract: A review of history and contemporary issues. *Toxins*. 2011;3(6):566-590.
Available: <https://www.mdpi.com/2072-6651/3/6/566>
 20. Gross-Steinmeyer K, Eaton DL. Dietary modulation of the biotransformation and genotoxicity of aflatoxin B (1). *Toxicology*. 2012;299(2-3):69-79.
Available:<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0300483X12001722?via%3Dihub>
 21. Yard EE, Daniel JH, Lewis LS, Rybak ME, Paliakov EM, Kim AA, Montgomery JM, Bunnell R, Mamo Umuru Abudo, Willis Akhwale, Breiman R, Shahnaaz KS Human aflatoxin exposure in Kenya, 2007: A cross sectional study. *Food Additives & Contaminants. Part A, Chemistry, Analysis, Control, Exposure & Risk Assessment*. 2013;30(7):1322-1331.
Available:
<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/19440049.2013.789558>
 22. Urrego Novoa JR, Diaz GJ. Aflatoxinas: Mecanismos de toxicidad en la etiología del cáncer hepático celular. *Rev Fac Med Univ Nac Colomb*. 54(2):108-116.
Available:http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S01200011200600200006
 23. Zahin ME. Impacts of mycotoxins on humans and animals. *Journal of Saudi Chemical Society*. 2011;15(2):129-144.
Available:
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1319610310000827>
 24. International Agency for Research On Cancer (IARC). Chemical Agents and Related Occupations: Review of Human Carcinogens- Aflatoxins. IARC. Monographs on the Evaluation Of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. 2012;100:25-248.
Available:<https://publications.iarc.fr/Book-And-Report-Series/Iarc-Monographs-On-The-Identification-Of-Carcinogenic-Hazards-To-Humans/Chemical-Agents-And-Related-Occupations-2012>
 25. Duarte S, Villamil LC. Micotoxinas en la salud pública. *Revista Salud Pública*. 2006;8(1):129-135.
Available:http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci_abstract&pid=S0124-00642006000400011&lng=es&nrm=iso&tln_g=es
 26. Chen K, Yuan S, Chen J, Peng X, Wang F, Cui H, Fang J. Effects of sodium selenite on the decreased percentage of T cells subsets, contents of serum IL-2 and IFN-c induced by aflatoxin B1 in broilers. *Research in Veterinary Science*. 2013;95(1):143-145.
Available:<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0034528813000738?via%3Dihub>
 27. Sorrenti V, Di Giacomo C., Acquaviva R, Barbagallo I, Bognanno M, Galvano F. Toxicity of ochratoxin and its modulation by antioxidants: A review. *Toxins*. 2013;5(10):1742-1766. Available:
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3813909/>
 28. Ostry V, Malir F, Ruprich J. Producers and important dietary sources of ochratoxin A and citrinin. *Toxins*. 2013;5 (9):1574-1586.
Available:
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3798874/>
 29. Limonciel A, Jennings P. A review of the evidence that ochratoxin A is an Nrf2 inhibitor: implications for nephrotoxicity and renal carcinogenicity. *Toxins*. 2014;6(1):371-379.
Available:<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3920267/>
 30. Bin-Umer MA, McLaughlin JE, Basu D, McCormick S, Tumer NE. Trichothecene mycotoxins inhibit mitochondrial translation-implication for the mechanism of toxicity. *Toxins*. 2011;3(12):1484-1501. Available:
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3268453/>
 31. Bennett JW, Klich M. Mycotoxins. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*. 2003;16(3):497-516.
Available:<https://journals.asm.org/doi/10.1128/cmr.16.3.497-516.2003>
 32. Missmer SA, Suarez L, Felkner M, Wang E, Merrill AH, Jr Rothman KJ, Hendricks KA. Exposure to fumonisins and the occurrence of neural tube defects along the Texas-México border. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2006;114(2):237-241.
Available:<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1367837/>

33. Torres-Sánchez L, López-Carrillo L. Fumonisin intake and human health. *Salud pública México*. 2010;52(5):461-467. Available:<https://scielosp.org/pdf/spm/v52n5/a14v52n5.pdf>
34. Theumer M, Mary V, Arias S, Rubinstein H. Toxicity mechanism of fumonisin B1 in animals and plant cells. *Revista Bioscience*. 2012;2(1):31-44.
35. Merrill AH, Jr Sullards MC, Wang E, Voss KA, Ryley RT. Sphingolipid metabolism: Roles in signal transduction and disruption by fumonisins. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2001; 2:283-289. Available:<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1240677/>

© 2023 Cordero-Mendoza et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/105602>