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1	Endocrine Disruptors in Endometriosis
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#### 6 Abstract

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Endometriosis is an estrogen-dependent disease, which involves the growth of endometrial 7 tissue outside the uterine cavity, commonly in the pelvic region. The etiology of the disease is 8 unclear, but multiple factors may contribute to its prognosis. Toxicological studies indicate 9 that many chemicals are able to interfere with endocrine homeostasis, called endocrine 10 disrupting chemicals (EDC) like Bisphenol A, Phtalate, Polychlorinated Biphenyls and 11 Dioxins. As well documented, endometriosis is an estrogen-dependent disease; therefore, 12 environmental toxicants that either mimic estrogen or enhance estrogenic exposure in the 13 endometrium are thought to increase the risk of endometriosis. The purpose of this 14 mini-review is to provide an overview of epidemiological studies, which have evaluated the 15 relationship between endometriosis and exposure to endocrine disruptors. 16

18 Index terms— endometriosis, endocrine disruptors, infertility, bisphenol-A, phthalate, PCBs, TCDD.

### <sup>19</sup> 1 I. Endometriosis

ndometriosis is an estrogen-dependent disease defined as the growth of endometrial glands and stroma at extra-20 uterine sites. Reports on the incidence of endometriosis vary widely, from approximately 10% of reproductive-21 aged women (Barbieri 1990) up to 30% of women with chronic pelvic pain (Howard 1993). These reports may 22 underestimate the true prevalence of this disease, which may approach 45% of women in their reproductive 23 years (Rawson 1991). Although retrograde menstruation occurs in 70-80% of women of reproductive age, not 24 25 all develop endometriosis (Halme et al. 1984). Therefore, other factors must play a role in the pathogenesis of 26 endometriosis, like genetic background, malfunctioning inflammatory/immunological mechanisms and potentially environmental factors (Bischoff & Leigh 2004). 27

Endometriosis is intimately associated with steroid metabolism and associated pathways, corresponding to 28 29 the dominant roles estrogen receptors (ESRs) and progesterone receptors (PGRs) play in uterine biology. Both human and animal model studies show endometriosis is estrogen (E2) dependent and is regulated through the 30 ESRs alpha and beta (ESR1 and ESR2) (Burns et al. 2012; Han et al. 2015; Zhao et al. 2015). Toxicological 31 studies indicate that many chemicals are able to interfere with endocrine homeostasis, called endocrine disrupting 32 chemicals (EDC), may directly or indirectly impair female reproduction (Mantovani 2006). The definition of 33 endocrine disruptor by European Union is an exogenous substance able to mime the hormones that can interfere 34 with the production, release, transportation, metabolism, link, action or elimination of natural hormones, which 35 36 are responsible of maintenance of homeostasis and regulation on development processes (Caserta et al. 2008). 37 The main targets EDC are bisphenol A (BPA), di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP), mono-ethyl-hexyl phthalate 38 (MEHP) and polyhalogenated aromatic hydrocarbons that consists of dioxins, mainly, 2,3,7,8-Tetrachlorodibenzop-dioxin (TCDD) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB). Recently, they have gained special attention as emerged 39 chemicals because of their persistence in the environment, potential for bioaccumulation and toxicity. Nuclear 40 receptors pathways are the main cellular targets of the EDC under study, thus they are considered meaningful 41 biomarkers of effective dose. The panel of nuclear receptors includes estrogen receptor alpha (ER?) and beta 42 (ER?), and rogen receptor (AR) and aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR), it of these act in different pathways 43 (Caserta et al. 2013). 44

As well documented, endometriosis is an estrogen-dependent disease; therefore, environmental toxicants that either mimic estrogen or enhance estrogenic exposure in the endometrium are thought to increase the risk of endometriosis. Therefore, this article aims to review the main endocrine disrupters that may be involved with endometriosis.

#### <sup>49</sup> 2 II. Bisphenol a (bpa)

BPA is a compound used in the production of polycarbonate plastics and epoxy resins. Given its similarity to 50 endogenous estrogen, BPA has the ability to interact with estrogen receptors and stimulate estrogen production 51 and also alter gonadotrophin hormone secretion (Buck Louis et al. 2013). Cobellis and coworkers correlated 52 BPA and endometriosis (Cobellis et al. 2009). In this study, they found detectable BPA serum levels in more 53 than half of patients with endometricsis, whereas it was absent in women without the disease. This data is still 54 controversial once other studies could not observe a relation between BPA and endometriosis (Buck Louis et al. 55 2013; Itoh et al. 2007). More studies should be performed once it was reported that BPA causes subfertility in 56 male rats that neonatally exposed to 2.4 µg of the compound per day for five days, by subcutaneous injection. 57 This subfertility is manifested as embryo resorption, also known as postimplantation loss. In these resorbed 58 embryos, the expression levels of three types of DNA methyltransferases involved in CpG methylation were 59 significantly decreased compared to viable embryos of neonatally BPA exposed males or control embryos. The 60 authors suggested that BPA might have altered the epigenome. As suggested by Guo (2009), there is accumulating 61 evidence supporting a concept that endometriosis is an epigenetic disease, therefore further studies should be 62 performed to demonstrate the correlation between the epigenetics changes and BPA in endometriosis. 63

### <sup>64</sup> **3** III. Phthalates

Phthalates are chemicals used in numerous industrial and consumer products and also exhibit endocrine disruptive 65 properties or to mimic or alter endogenous hormone activity. Adult human exposure to phthalates is primarily 66 through ingestion of contaminated food from food processing machines and packaging materials and dermal 67 application of personal care and cosmetic products. Exposure is also possible through inhalation of indoor air 68 contaminated from building materials, and parenteral exposure through medical equipment such as IV tubing and 69 blood bags (Upson et al. 2013). Di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP) is the most commonly used chemical additive 70 to provide flexibility to polyvinylchloride and in humans, it is likely that the stomach acid lipases hydrolyze DEHP 71 into mono-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (MEHP)) (Albert & Jégou 2013). This compound is metabolized quickly and 72 excreted in urine without evidence of accumulation within the body. Phthalates produce antiandrogenic effects 73 largely through the reduction in testosterone production and, possibly, reduced estrogen production at high doses 74 (Buck Louis et al. 2013). Results of investigations into the pathophysiology of endometriosis have suggested 75 76 that disease onset and progression involve steroid-related mechanisms, including hormonerelated changes of the 77 endometrium and peritoneal cavity, excess estrogen production by ectopic endometriotic lesions, and alterations in ovarian steroidogenesis. Thus, it is plausible that endocrinedisrupting chemicals such as phthalates may affect 78 endometriosis risk (Ulukus et al. 2006). 79 The in utero and neonatal exposure to low doses of bisphenol A (BPA) and/or phthalates (DEHP/MEHP 80

and BBP/DBP/MBP) may cause DNA hypermethylation/hypomethylation at CpG islands near gene promoter regions, histone modifications (acetylation, methylation, phosphorylation, ubiquitynation, sumoylation and ADP ribosylation), and expression of non-coding RNAs, including micro RNAs. These epigenetic marks can induce up/down alterations in gene expression that may persist throughout a lifetime (Singh & Li 2012).

### <sup>85</sup> 4 IV. PCBS and TCDD

The main group of environmental pollutants that have been proposed to play a role in the pathogenesis of endometriosis includes polyhalogenated aromatic hydrocarbons, a class of widespread environmental contaminants consisting of polychlorinated dibenzo-pdioxins (PCDD), dibenzofurans and 12 polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB) (Schecter et al. 2006).

Dioxins are byproducts of industrial processes such as bleaching of paper pulp and the manufacture of certain pesticides and incineration of plastic and medical waste (Foster et al. 2010). Dioxins are lipophilic substances that resist biological and environmental degradation, remaining in the environment. Studies in animals have shown that 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-pdioxin (TCDD) is considered the environmental contaminant, within

dioxin group, with the greatest toxicity and thus is also significant to human health (Schecter et al. 2006).

95 Seventy-five dioxin congeners and 135 furan congeners comprise the complex mixture of dioxins, 7:10 congeners 96 which are respectively capable of binding to and activating the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) (Van den Berg et 97 al. 2006). This binding induces the proliferation, differentiation and apoptosis, although the mechanism for this 98 stimulation is not completely understood ??Kogevinas 2001). Of the 209 congeners of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), twelve have the potential to activate the AhR (Van den Berg et al. 2006). In normal physiological 99 conditions, AhR resides in an inactive state in the cytoplasm. After association with TCDD, the AhR is activated 100 by a change in conformation and translocates to the nucleus where it forms a heterodimer with ARNT (Aryl 101 hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator). The heterodimer binds to the XRE (Xenobiotic Response Element) 102

and alters the expression of genes controlled by the enhancer XRES. XRES, with the conserved sequences

GCGTG " are found in the promoter regions of various genes involved in the metabolism of xenobiotics, including 104 CYP1A1 (Cytochrome P450 Family, subfamily a polypeptide 1a -1), CYP1A2 (Cytochrome P450 Family, 1, 105 subfamily a polypeptide -2) CYP1B1 (Cytochrome P450 family, subfamily B, polypeptide 1 -1) and NAD(P)H 106 quinone Oxidoreductase (Mimura & Fujii-Kuriyama 2003). In addition to the expression of various genes to 107 CYP connection with TCDD because several toxicological effects such as teratogenesis, tumor promotion and 108 immunosuppression (Shimizu et al. 2000). 109 Furthermore, it is reported that, in somatic cells, the gene expression of DNA methyltransferase 1 (Dnmt1) 110 is controlled by the transcription factor Sp1 also contains an Sp1 binding site (Ishida et al. 2003). The Sp1 is 111 important for a number of physiological processes, including angiogenesis, cell cycle progression, inflammation 112

and senescence (Chang & Hung 2012). Taking into account the involvement of Sp1 with DNMTs, the change of the activity of Sp1 may affect the level of expression of DNA methyltransferases and their activity. Lee et al (Lee et al. 2011) showed that exposure to TCDD causes Sp1 phosphorylation. Based on this evidence, the phosphorylated Sp1 would bind to receptors of DNMTs, thereby increasing its activity. Thus, changes in methylation status in the promoter region of some genes can cause alterations in gene expression and consequently contribute to endometriosis development.

Dioxins have also been postulated to stimulate the development of endometriosis via their immunesuppressive 119 120 effects and their interference with the estrogensignaling pathway. The immunosuppressive effect of high doses 121 of dioxins is well documented (Oh et al. 2005). Firstly, dioxin exposure may lead to inhibition of leukocyte phagocytic function, which is possibly important in the prevention of endometriosis by the elimination of 122 menstrual debris ??Levin et Local estrogen production can be increased following dioxin exposure and facilitate 123 development of endometriotic lesions by elevating mRNA expression of aromatase, the key catalytic enzyme in 124 estrogen synthesis (Attar & Bulun 2006). Dioxins and PCB are known to interfere with estrogen concentrations. 125 Both agonistic and antagonistic effects have been ascribed to dioxins and PCB by direct interference with the 126 estrogen receptor or by the interaction between the activated aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AHR)/aryl hydrocarbon 127 receptor nuclear translocator heterodimer and the estrogen receptor a and b, leading to estrogen-dependent gene 128 activation (Mimura & Fujii-Kuriyama 2003). 129

### <sup>130</sup> 5 V. Conclusion

Developing a better understanding the basic mechanisms that may allow environmental toxicants to promote endometriosis, will enable us to develop better strategies to reduce the potential toxic impact of these compounds to the future generation.

## <sup>134</sup> 6 Volume XVI Issue III Version I

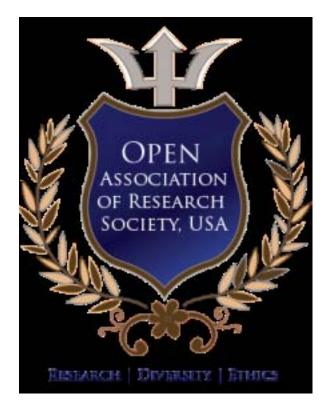


Figure 1: E

#### 6 VOLUME XVI ISSUE III VERSION I

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