

**A STUDY ON THE IMPACT OF ENDOCRINE-DISRUPTING COMPOUNDS
ON SEXUAL BEHAVIOR**

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ABSTRACT

A plethora of hormones regulates many of the body's functions, including growth and development, metabolism, electrolyte balances, and reproduction. Numerous glands throughout the body produce hormones. The hypothalamus produces several releasing and inhibiting hormones that act on the pituitary gland, stimulating the release of pituitary hormones. Of the pituitary hormones, several act on other glands located in various regions of the body, whereas other pituitary hormones directly affect their target organs. Other hormone-producing glands throughout the body include the adrenal glands, which primarily produce cortisol; the gonads (i.e., ovaries and testes), which produce sex hormones; the thyroid, which produces thyroid hormone; the parathyroid, which produces parathyroid hormone; and the pancreas, which produces insulin and glucagon. Many of these hormones are part of regulatory hormonal cascades involving a hypothalamic hormone, one or more pituitary hormones, and one or more target gland hormones.

Keywords: endocrine function; hormones; hypothalamus; pituitary gland; gonad function;

1. INTRODUCTION

Sexual reproduction in vertebrates requires sexually differentiated behaviors to ensure attraction between partners and mating. These behaviors are a key factor in the success of sexual reproduction, on which species survival depends. Males and females adopt different behaviors and postures during attraction and mating. Male rodents readily express sexual behavior whenever a receptive female is present. During the precopulatory or appetitive phase, males engage in their investigation, displaying an olfactory preference for receptive females. Males generate ultrasonic vocalizations in response to females or their odors. These vocalizations have characteristics in common with the songs of songbirds. The emission of courtship vocalizations conveys information about the male's motivational state and helps to attract the female partner. During the copulatory or consummatory phase, males mount, thrust, and intromit. In male mice, the mating ends with the ejaculation, where

in male rats reach satiety after several ejaculations and do not then copulate again for 1–3 days. In female rodents, receptivity is constrained by threshold levels of estradiol (E₂) following progesterone secretion, and is, therefore, limited to the estrous phase of the cycle corresponding to the ovulation period. The female also participates actively in mating, through three phases of sexual behavior: attractivity, proceptivity, and receptivity. During attractivity, the female stimulates male behavior by emitting pheromones. The female then adopts several proceptive behaviors (hops, darts, solicitations) in response to stimuli from the male.

Sexual behavior is tightly controlled by finely tuned neural processes, which begin during development and are tightly regulated by gonadal hormones. These processes may, therefore, be highly sensitive to exposure to endocrine-disrupting compounds (EDC), defined by the WHO and the Endocrine Society as exogenous chemical substances or a mixture of substances that alter the functions of the endocrine system. Exposure to EDC has been reported to alter several reproductive functions, including organ development, germ cell production, pubertal timing, and other physiological processes required for fertility, as documented by both experimental and epidemiological studies. Several studies have addressed the effects of exposure to EDC on mating behavior. Here, we review the experimental studies in rodents performed to address the potential effects of exposure to EDC on sexual behavior. We focus on the underlying molecular and neural processes affected by such exposure, paying particular interest to molecules with estrogenic and/or antiandrogenic activities. A recent review by Gore et al. provided the general ethological background to sexual selection and reproductive competence in animal species and their sensitivity to EDC.

2. HORMONAL REGULATION OF SEXUAL BEHAVIOR AND UNDERLYING SEXUAL DIMORPHISM: CRITICAL PERIODS OF HORMONAL REGULATION/PERINATAL PERIOD

Since the pioneering work of Phoenix et al., it has become clear that gonadal hormones play a key role in the sexual differentiation of mating behavior. This process begins early, in the perinatal (late gestational and early neonatal) period. In males, testosterone released from the fetal and neonatal testes permanently potentiates male (masculinization) behavioral and anatomic characteristics whilst inhibiting female (defeminization) characteristics in the neural circuitry underlying sexual behavior. This circuitry is stimulated by pheromonal cues emitted by receptive females and transmitted from the main olfactory epithelium and vomeronasal organ to the main and accessory olfactory bulbs, respectively, and then to the chemosensory responsive nuclei in the medial amy

gdala, the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, and the medial preoptic area, where they are processed in behavioral responses. Projections are sent from the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus to the spinal centers that promote penile erection and ejaculation, including the spinal nucleus of the bulbocavernosus, and the gastrin-releasing peptide system.

Perinatal testosterone secretion has organizational effects, resulting in structural, neurochemical, and molecular differences in circuitry between the sexes. Differences in cell number and morphology or fiber density between the sexes have frequently been described for the medial amygdala, the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, and the medial preoptic area. For instance, the sexually dimorphic nucleus (SDN) and a corresponding cluster of calbindin-immunoreactive neurons, both located in the medial preoptic area, contain more cells in males than in females. Conversely, neurons expressing kisspeptin and tyrosine hydroxylase in the anteroventral periventricular (AVPV) nucleus, a subdivision of the preoptic area involved in the ovulatory surge of LH, are more numerous in females than in males. The regulation of these neuronal populations, or of other sexually dimorphic features, by perinatal testosterone can be mimicked by E2 because gonadal testosterone is aromatized into neural E2 by the aromatase cytochrome P450. At the molecular level, testosterone and its neural metabolite E2 also trigger differences in gene expression between the sexes, through long-lasting changes including epigenetic modifications.

3. PREPUBERTAL/PUBERTAL PERIOD

The pubertal period is characterized by the central activation of pulsatile GnRH secretion, which stimulates the pituitary gonadotropin secretion required for sexual maturation and fertility. During this period, testosterone also exerts long-term effects on behavior to ensure the maturation of processes initiated during the perinatal period. Indeed, the prepubertal castration of male hamsters has been shown to decrease sexual behavior (fewer mountings and intromissions and longer time to ejaculation) and to shorten the time to lordosis relative to that for males castrated after

puberty. Neural processes, such as cell proliferation, in sexually dimorphic regions are influenced by gonadal hormones during the peripubertal period. In females, α -fetoprotein levels decrease after birth and the ovaries begin releasing E2 on a postnatal day (PND). Postnatal/prepubertal E2 secretion plays an active role in the feminization of sexual behavior. Indeed, E2 administration between PND15 and PND25 in aromatase knockout mice, which normally have highly impaired lordosis behavior, partially restores this behavior. During this postnatal period, ovarian E2 is also essential for the establishment of the LH surge, which is synchronized with the receptivity period. In particular, prepubertal E2 activates an increase in kisspeptin expression in the rostral periventricular area of the third ventricle.

4. ADULTHOOD

In adult males, gonadal testosterone acts on the male neural circuitry to stimulate sexual behavior. This activational effect of testosterone is transient by comparison to the permanent organizational changes induced during the developmental and pubertal periods. Male sexual stimulation is reduced or inhibited by castration but can be restored by hormonal supplementation. Testosterone and its neural metabolite E₂ regulate the signaling pathways of neurotransmitters and neuropeptides playing an important role in displays of sexual behavior, such as oxytocin, dopamine, and glutamate.

Cyclic females mate only during the estrous phase and are sexually inactive during the rest of the cycle. The preovulatory surge of E₂, which occurs during the proestrus phase, triggers not only an ovulatory surge of LH but also the expression of progesterone receptors (PR) in the ventromedial hypothalamus. Progesterone release under the control of LH then induces female receptivity, which is perfectly synchronized with ovulation in such species. The increase in E₂ levels also relieves constraints exerted by the inhibitory system through suppression of the inhibition exerted by the lateral septum and inactivation of the β -endorphin system in the preoptic area. Several neuropeptides and neurotransmitters present in the ventromedial hypothalamus display differences between the sexes. For example, estrogen receptors (ER), PR, GABA, and enkephalin are all more abundant in females than in males and are known to promote female sexual behavior.

5.

MECHANISMS UNDERLYING THE HORMONAL REGULATION OF SEXUAL BEHAVIOR

Sex steroids regulate sexual behavior principally through nuclear superfamily receptors. As the detailed mechanisms underlying the expression of sexual behavior have been largely reviewed, this paragraph summarizes very briefly the genetic studies investigating the relative contribution of androgen (AR) and ER. Indeed, the involvement of each of these receptors in this regulation has been studied by ubiquitous gene invalidations. In males, data from the testicular feminization mutation and global AR knockout models, both of which result in a feminine phenotype, have suggested that this receptor plays some kind of role in the expression of sexual behavior in rats and mice. Global ER α knockout mice are infertile and have impaired sexual behavior. Global ER β knockout males have normal sexual behavior, but mutant males derived from an ER β knockout mouse line completely devoid of ER β transcripts are infertile and display a mild impairment of sexual

behavior. In the global ER α and ER β knockout models, females are infertile, with much lower frequencies of lordosis and proceptive behaviors than wild-type females.

The neural role of these receptors was dissected more precisely by conditional gene invalidation, which has the advantage of preserving peripheral receptor expression and not interfering with gonadal and genital tract effects. In males, the estrogenic and androgenic pathways seem to play complementary roles in the organization and activation of the neural circuitry underlying sexual behavior. The perinatal masculinization and defeminization of brain structures involve the estrogenic pathway, whereas the neural AR is involved principally in the postnatal organization of spinal nuclei; however, both pathways seem to be involved in the adult activation of sexual behavior.

6. EFFECTS OF EDC ON SEXUAL BEHAVIOR

We here describe the data collected for rodents up to December 2017, with a special focus on EDC exhibiting estrogenic/anti-estrogenic or anti-androgenic activities given the nature of signaling pathways involved in the expression of sexual behavior. Table 1 lists the EDC analyzed, with their estrogenic or anti-androgenic activities, uses, and reference doses established by agencies when available.

Table1: The analyzed EDC presented by hormonal activity, uses and referenced doses established by agencies when available

Source or use	Reference doses
<i>Estrogenic compounds</i>	
Bisphenol A (BPA)	In polycarbonate plastic used in the manufacture of food containers, dental resins, thermal papers TDI = 0.004 mg/kg/day (EFSA, 2015) TDI = 0.05 mg/kg/day (US EPA, 2012)
Diethylstilbestrol (DES)	Used in cases of preterm labor. Banned in 1971 in the USA and since 1975 in several European countries
Ethinyl estradiol (EE)	Oral contraceptive treatment
Methoxychlor (MXC)	Organochlorine insecticide banned since 2002 in EU and 2003 in the USA. Still present in the environment and used for applications such as mosquito and malaria control in developing countries ADI: 0.1 mg/kg/day (EU Pesticides Database)
Nonylphenol (NP)	Nonionic surfactant used in industrial, agricultural and domestic applications such as soap, cosmetics, paints, herbicides and pesticides, or plastic fabrication TDI: 0.005 mg/kg/day (Danish EPA, 2000)
<i>Phytoestrogens</i>	
Coumestrol	Present in plants (Alfalfa, soybeans...)
Ferutinin	Present in roots of Ferula plants
Isoflavones (daidzein, genistein)	Present in plants (lupin, soybeans, fava beans...) LOAEL of 35 mg/kg/day for isoflavones with safety factor of 300 (Anses 2015)
Resveratrol (RVT)	Present in grapes, blueberries, raspberries...
<i>Anti-androgenic compounds</i>	
<i>Phthalates</i>	
Dibutyl phthalate (DBP)	Used in the manufacture of PVC plastics, adhesives, inks TDI: 0.01 mg/kg/day (EFSA, 2005) DNEL: 0.0067 mg/kg/day (ECHA 2017)
Di-(2-ethylhexyl) adipate (DEHA)	Used as a substitute for DEHP (marginal use): PVC, food plastic, cosmetics
Di-(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate (DEHP)	Used in PVC, food containers, medical products, automobile... TDI: 0.050 mg/kg/day (EFSA, 2005) NOAEL: 4.8 mg/kg/day, DNEL: 0.034 mg/kg/day (ECHA 2017)
Diisononyl phthalate (DINP)	Used as a replacement for DEHP: PVC, paint, inks, toys, plastic, soles, automobile Sum DIDP/DINP: 0.15 mg/kg/day (EFSA, 2005)
Vinclozolin	Fungicide widely used on fruits and vegetables to avoid rot and mildew ADI = 0.01 mg/kg/day (WHO, 1998) NOAEL = 1.2 mg/kg/day (US EPA, 2003) ADI = 0.005 mg/kg/day (EU Pesticides Database)

ADI, acceptable daily intake dose; DNEL, derived no-effect level; LOAEL, lowest observed adverse effect level; NOAEL, no-observed effect level; TDI, tolerable daily intake dose.

7. MODE OF ACTION

Endocrine disruption of sexual behavior may occur through indirect or direct pathways (Fig. 1). The indirect pathway involves changes in the levels of gonadal hormones, which then affect the organization or activation of neural structures involved in the expression of behavior. The circulating levels of gonadal hormones may be modified by dysregulation of the hypothalamic GnRH system and upstream regulators including kisspeptin neurons and/or the disruption of pituitary function or gonadal steroidogenesis. Exposure to EDC can also directly affect the neural structures underlying sexual behavior, by interfering with the neural synthesis of hormones, such as the aromatization of testosterone into E2, binding to and activation of sex steroid receptors, or the

expression of these receptors. Modes of action involving agonism or antagonism are more difficult to demonstrate in vivo. They can be suggested or supported by parallel comparisons with the effects of positive controls, such as estrogens or their analogs, or anti-androgens, such as flutamide, although such comparisons may be limited for the reasons described in the section “Effects of Developmental versus Adult Exposure to Estrogenic Compounds”.

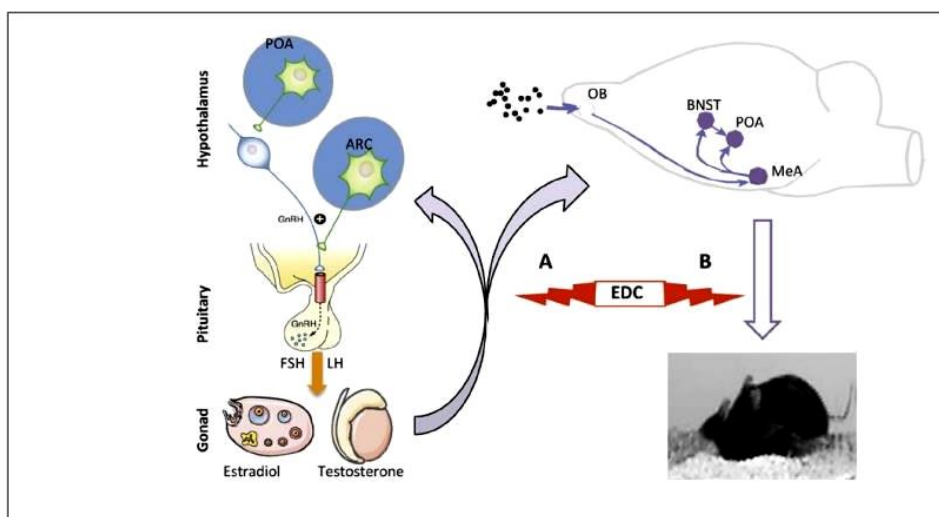


Fig. 1. Exposure to endocrine disrupting compounds (EDC) can alter sexual behavior through indirect (A) and/or direct pathways (B). A Kisspeptin neurons (green cells) of the preoptic area (POA) and arcuate nucleus (ARC) activate synthesis and liberation of GnRH, which stimulates gonadotropin hormone (LH, FSH) liberation, and consequently gonadal synthesis and liberation of sex steroid hormones. Estradiol and testosterone exert in turn a feedback on this gonadotropic axis. Disruption of this axis by EDC may interfere with the hormonal dependent regulation of the neural structures underlying sexual behavior in males and females. B Simplified scheme of the male neural circuitry including the olfactory bulb (OB), medial amygdala (MeA), bed nucleus of stria terminalis (BNST), and preoptic area (POA). EDC can also directly target these neural structures, to disrupt hormonal signaling pathways necessary to elicit male sexual behavior.

8. DEVELOPMENTAL EXPOSURE

Three of 12 studies on male rats reporting developmental effects of EDC on behaviors described a decrease in adult hormone levels following exposure to BPA, genistein, and resveratrol. The other 9 studies found no effect on adult levels of testosterone, E2, and gonadotropins. In mice, no change in hormone levels was observed following exposure to BPA or EE. Exposure to methoxychlor

did not change basal hormone levels but prevented the increase in testosterone levels following exposure to females. The observed impairment of male sexual behavior does not, therefore, seem to be systematically linked to changes in hormone levels. However, these findings do not rule out the possibility of transient changes in hormone levels during the exposure period, particularly if exposure occurs during development, thereby inducing long-term changes in the levels of these sex steroid receptors, ER and PR, have been reported to be induced by prenatal and postnatal exposure to BPA, DES or methoxychlor in the whole hypothalamus or more specifically hypothalamic areas (preoptic area, ventromedial hypothalamus), bed nucleus of stria terminalis or medial amygdala of rats, and mice. However, no effects of such exposure were reported in 2 other mouse studies in the same brain areas. Changes in total hypothalamic gene expression were observed for BPA and EE, or for neuropeptides involved in social behavior, such as AVP in the medial amygdala and lateral septum and oxytocin in the hypothalamus.

9. ADULT EXPOSURE

In male rats, changes in male sexual behavior following exposure to phytoestrogens were associated with lower levels of testosterone. In mice, the impairment of sexual behavior following chronic adult exposure to BPA, NP or DEHP was associated with unchanged hormonal levels and integrity of the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis, together with changes in the level of sex steroid receptor expression. In particular, DEHP down-regulated AR protein and mRNA levels in the neural circuitry involved in sexual behavior, while both the numbers of AR and ER α -immunoreactive cells were affected by NP exposure. The exposure of adult females to resveratrol or BPA increased E2 levels in both rats and mice. Interestingly, regardless of its behavioral effects, exposure to phytoestrogen or BPA increased the levels of ER α , ER β or PR expression in the preoptic area, the ventromedial hypothalamus or the paraventricular nucleus.

10. CONCLUSION

Several observations can be made based on the data concerning the impact of EDC on sexual behavior reviewed here. In general, sexual behavior appears to be highly sensitive to EDC, and can be added to the endpoints generally used in assessments of the risks of exposure to EDC and their potential impact on reproduction. Like other reproductive endpoints, the behavioral effects induced

by exposure to EDC depend on the period of exposure. The developmental and pubertal stages are particularly vulnerable due to the organizational effects of hormones during these periods, but exposure in adults may also have effects, the doses used in several studies having elicited effects at doses below the reference dose. Effects may also depend on the sex of the animals

The amounts of data published differ considerably between EDC compounds. The most frequently investigated compounds are estrogen-like molecules, such as BPA and phytoestrogens. However, published studies have not addressed all possible periods of exposure in both sexes. Developmental exposure to BPA or phytoestrogens has been extensively studied in both males and females, but adult exposure to phytoestrogens has been studied only in females. Much more studies are required for other estrogenic or anti-androgenic compounds, for which fewer data are available, regardless of the exposure period considered.

Another interesting observation is that changes in the level of expression of sex steroid receptors (ER, AR, PR) have been widely documented in both males and females. This finding strongly suggests that EDC may act, at least partly, through changes in the neural signaling pathways underlying sexual behavior, either directly through epigenetic modifications to the ER α promoter, as reported for developmental exposure to BPA, or through as yet unidentified pathways, as for the down-regulation of AR induced by the exposure of adults to DEHP. Finally, although caution is required when extrapolating findings from rodents to other species, these altered processes may be of considerable relevance in both humans and wildlife. The regulation of libido and erectile function or reproductive behaviors by sex steroid hormones at the neural level is highly conserved across species. In this context, human studies have reported an association between a decrease in sexual activity and exposure to environmental doses of DEHP and BPA, but the mechanisms underlying these effects remain unclear.

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