

Chmielewski J., Łuszczki J., Czarny-Działak M., Dutkiewicz E., Król H., Gworek B., Nowak-Starz G. 2021. Environmental exposition to xenoestrogens and related health effects. J. Elem., 26(3): 717-730. DOI: 10.5601/jelem.2021.26.2.2157

RECEIVED: 19 May 2021 ACCEPTED: 4 August 2021

REVIEW PAPER

ENVIRONMENTAL EXPOSITION TO XENOESTROGENS AND RELATED HEALTH EFFECTS*

Jarosław Chmielewski¹, Jarogniew Łuszczki², Małgorzata Czarny-Działak³, Ewa Dutkiewicz³, Halina Król³, Barbara Gworek⁴, Grażyna Nowak-Starz³

¹ College of Rehabilitation in Warsaw, Poland
² Isobolographic Analysis Laboratory
Institute of Rural Health, Lublin, Poland
³ Collegium Medicum
Jan Kochanowski University in Kielce, Poland
⁴ Department of Environmental Chemistry and Risk Assessment
National Research Institute, Warsaw, Poland

Abstract

The aim of this study is to present the impact of environmental pollutants disrupting the human endocrine system and their negative effects on human health. Xenoestrogens are a group of chemical compounds structurally similar to natural estrogens that mimic the action of natural hormones. Xenoestrogens include substances such as diphenol A (BPA), dimethylacrylated diphenol A (BAD), triethyl dimethyl acrylate glycol (TEGDMA), herbicides, pesticides, PCBs, plasticizers and polystyrenes. These chemicals are widely used in industry, agriculture and households. Environmental research conducted for years has shown that substances that disrupt the functioning of the endocrine system accumulate in the environment in an increasing amount, and thus also in the human body. To provide information on the environmental impact of chemicals, including xenoestrogens, on human health at work, the issues related to occupational health hazards related to the use of pesticides, phthalate release and associated health risks, the health impact of polychlorinated dibenzodioxins and dibenzofurans and the health impact of pollutants released into the environment as a result of landfill fires, were addressed in this study. It has been shown that xenoestrogens, classified as endocrine disruptors, are present as pollutants practically everywhere: in sewage, water, soil, air, food and in everyday products, including household chemicals and cosmetics. The above means that a large part of the human population around the world is exposed to xenoestrogens both, in private and professional life (at work). Long-term exposure to even low doses of xenoestrogens may ultimately have

Jarosław Chmielewski, PhD, College of Rehabilitation in Warsaw, 01-234 Warsaw, St. Kasprzaka 49, e-mail: j.chmielewski@ios.gov.pl

^{*} Funding: This work was supported by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (project No. 024/RID/2018/19 entitled "Regional Initiative Excellence in 2019-2022").

a negative impact on human health, leading to disturbances in the endocrine system, as well as contributing to the development of neoplastic diseases. The most dangerous is the exposition to xenoestrogens in the early intrauterine period of fetal development or puberty. Considering the above facts, environmental exposure to xenoestrogens should be of particular interest to public and environmental health at every stage of human life.

Keywords: xenoestrogens, exposure, subjection, environment, health.

INTRODUCTION

Other than bringing about economic and civilizational growth, the industrial revolution, whose onset took place in the 19th century, contributed to the increase in the pollution of the environment. During the production process, chemical substances are released into the environment through elution from manufactured products, landfilling and waste disposal. In this manner, they become potential risk factors for the health. Many of these chemical substances have a detrimental effect on the physiological functions of the organism, especially the human endocrine system and they are thus referred to as endocrine disrupting compounds (EDCs). It is estimated that there are about 1000 chemicals with endocrine-acting properties (KABIR et al. 2015, XIN et al. 2015, YILMAZ et al. 2020).

The issue of endocrine disruption is the subject of a multitude of research and articles. Studies show that EDCs are related to changes in reproductive functions of men and women alike, an increased rate of breast cancer development, incorrect height patterns and neurodevelopmental retardation of children, as well as changes in the immune function. As defined by the World Health Organization, EDC is "an exogenous substance or mixture that alters function(s) of the endocrine system and consequently causes adverse health effects in an intact organism, or its progeny, or (sub)populations." Exposure to EDCs may take place during water or food product consumption, the intake of dust, inhaling gases and particles in the air, or through the skin. They can also be passed down from a mother to a developing fetus or to her child through the placenta or breast milk, respectively (MARINO 2014, STYPUŁA--TRĘBAS et al. 2015, KULIK-KUPKA et al. 2017, PATERNI et al. 2017, RIPAMONTI et al. 2018, OCHWANOWSKA et al. 2019, CHMIELEWSKI et. al. 2020, 2020*a*).

The aim of the study is to present the influence of environmental pollutants which disturb the human endocrine system. To practically illustrate the purpose of the work, publications relating to pesticide exposure issues; phthalates; polychlorinated dibenzodioxins and dibenzofurans as well as pollutants released into the environment as a result of fires in landfills and the related health risks, were presented.

XENOESTROGENS

Xenoestrogens are a group of chemical compounds of exogenous origin, widespread in the environment, exhibiting the ability to interact with the endocrine system through actions that mimic natural hormones – estrogens. An xenoestrogen binds to estrogen receptors to imitate natural hormones, thereby having a possible detrimental effect on the human health. Xenoestrogens can be of synthetic or natural origin alike (FORMA et al. 2013, PATERNI et al. 2017, Hu et al. 2020).

Whether a compound is classified as a xenoestrogen or not is determined by the way it affects the organism rather than its chemical structure (GALAMON, LIWARSKA-BIZUKOJĆ 2018).

Xenoestrogens include substances used in manufacturing, agriculture and the household, such as polychlorinated biphenyls, pharmaceutical estrogens, chloroorganic compounds present in pesticides, phthalate esters, isoflavones, lignans, coumestans, stilbenes, phytoestrogens, metalloestrogens, alkylphenols, parabens and UV filters (MATEJCZYK, ZALEWSKI 2011, ENGLER, LEMLEY 2013, FORMA et al. 2013, GORE et al. 2015, CHMIELEWSKI et al. 2016, SAWANIEWSKA et al. 2019).

In the Anglo-Saxon understanding, xenoestrogens are classified as endocrine disrupting compounds (EDCs) or endocrine disruptors (EDs) (DOBRZYŃSKA 2015, PATERNI et al. 2017, SŁOWIKOWSKA-HILCZER 2018).

In the research, Paterni et al. pose that natural xenoestrogens include compounds such as phytoestrogens (PhyEs), mycoestrogens and narcotic drugs, meanwhile they classified compounds produced through chemical synthesis as synthetic xenoestrogens. Their study included an evaluation of natural and synthetic xenoestrogens as far as their biological activity and sources are concerned, the results of which are illustrated in Table 1 and Table 2 (PATERNI et al. 2017).

A literature review can also provide one with a classification of XEs into subgroups, which include: phytoestrogens, metals, pesticides and synthetic compounds (BRONOWICKA-KLYS et al. 2016).

Xenoestrogens include chemicals in plastics such as bisphenol-A (BPA), phthalates and polyvinyl chloride (PVC), pesticides and insecticides like DDTs, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), parabens and placental extracts in cosmetics, aromatic amines, industrial solvents like benzene and toluene, and air pollutants such as polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (DEY et al. 2010, LA MARCA, GAVA 2017, RIPAMONTI et al. 2018).

XENOESTROGENS IN THE ENVIRONMENT, FOOD AND PRODUCTS OF EVERYDAY USE

The ubiquitous nature of xenoestrogens in the environment has been confirmed by research whose purpose was the indication of the level of polychlorinated biphenyl congeners in edible fungi in the Warmia and Masuria

Natural xenoestrogens	Compounds		$Activities^1$	$Sources^2$	
		Lariciresinol	cardioprotective	berries, seeds,	
	T • 9	Matairesinol	(clinical trial)	grain, nuts, fruits and cruciferous vegetables	
	Lignans ³	Pinoresinol	reduced risk breast cancer		
		Secoisolariciresinol	(in vitro)		
	Chalcones	Isoliquiritigenin	increased breast cancer risk <i>(in vitro)</i>	Glycyrrhiza glabra	
	Other structure	Pterostilbene	neuroprotective (in vitro)	grapes and berries	
Phytoestrogens			protective role in prostate cancer cells <i>(in vitro)</i>	parsley and mint	
	Flavonoids ⁴	Apigenin	protective role in colorectal cancer cells <i>(in vitro)</i>		
		Daidzin	<i>in vitro</i> estrogenic activity	Pueraria mirifica leaves	
		Liquiritigenin	antinociceptive activity <i>(in vivo)</i>	Glycyrrhiza uralensis root	
	Zearalenone		false pregnancy (in vivo)	contaminant in corn, oats, wheat, rice (produced by Fusarium species)	
Mycoestrogens			decreased fertility (in vivo)		
			negatively affects male reproductive system (in vitro)		
Drugs of abuse	Δ^9 -Tetrahydrocannabinol		affects ERα/ERβ ratio <i>(in vitro)</i> and reproductive behavior	marijuana	

Selected natural xenoestrogens: biological activity and sources

¹ The activity is mediated by interaction with ERs.

² For details, see USDA database. The origin is reported when specified in the reference paper. ³ Metabolized to active enterolignans (enterolactone and enterodiol).

⁴ Generally found in soybean, plants, berries, wine, seeds, grains, nuts and legumes.

region in Poland. Warmia and Masuria is a region where forests constitute over 30% of the territory, thereby it is an area referred to as the "Green Lungs of Poland". As the focus in the region's economy is on tourism, industries are poorly developed, therefore the effect of the emission of fumes or any other such risks is not large. The studies used five species of fresh fungi native to the region: Greville's bolete (*Suillus grevillei*), golden chanterelle

Selected synthetic xenoestrogens: biological activities and sources.

Synthetic xenoestrogens	Activities	Sources	
Synthetic xendestrogens	correlated with hormone related cancer	Sources	
	alteration neuroendocrine system		
Bisphenol A (BPA)	altered development observed in aquatic species	generally found in plastic and,	
	negatively affects pregnancy and development	consequently, as contaminants in foodstuff, fruits and vegetables	
Bisphenol S	cardiotoxicity	Vegetables	
Dibutyl phtalate	negatively affects pregnancy and development		
Benzylbutylphtalate	negatively affects pregnancy and development		
Butylated hydroxyanisole	<i>in vitro</i> estrogenic/antiestrogenic activity	food preservatives	
Polychlorinated biphenyls	neurological and hormonal diseases	used as coolant, plasticizers and pesticides and found in several food supplies	
	reduced fertility and fecundity		
Ethynil estradiol	behavior changes in aquatic species	pharmaceuticals (found in aquatic environment)	
TCDD	carcinogenicity, hepatotoxicity, immunotoxicity reproductive and developmental toxicity	environmental contaminant	

(*Cantharellus cibarius*), bay bolete (*Xerocomus badius*), penny bun (*Boletus edulis*), parasol mushroom (*Macrolepiota procera*). The studies showed that fresh mushroom had the highest concentration of polychlorinated biphenyls, with 13.11 μ g kg⁻¹ of lipid substance. Taking into consideration the fact that PCB congeners accumulate in the human body even at small amounts, they can pose a threat to the health for a long period of time (KOTLARSKA et al. 2010).

Xenoestrogens as chemical compounds are commonly present in the environment. They are found in plants, food, cosmetics, pharmaceutical drugs, plastic materials, tin food containers, infants' feeding bottles and even children's toys (MARINO et al. 2014, GORE et al. 2015, BRONOWICKA-KLYS et al. 2016, RIPAMONTI et al. 2018, CHMIELEWSKI et al. 2019).

The release of both industrial and domestic sewage is the source of pollution of the environment and leads to the accumulation of xenoestrogens in the soil, air, as well as surface and ground waters. Literature states that



Fig. 1. EDCs distribution in the environment

xenoestrogens were identified in various aqueous environments, including sewage from treatment plants, rivers, lakes, seas, oceans and even drinking water (CITULSKI, FARAHBAKHSH 2010, ENGLER, LEMLEY 2013, JIN et al. 2013, ABDALLAH 2016, KESSLER et al. 2019).

EDC distribution in the environment is illustrated in Figure 1 (ABDALLAH 2016).

As part of their research, Sodré et al. detected xenoestrogens (BPA) in water samples taken from the basin of the Atibaia river in the state of São Paulo in Brazil. BPA levels ranged from 25 to 84 ng L^{-1} (SODRÉ et al. 2010).

Xenoestrogen (parabens and BPA) pollution of surface waters was discovered in the Great Pittsburgh Region by Renz et al. Based on the research conducted, the authors came to the conclusion that it was caused by an obsolete sewage system. According to them, personal hygiene products and plasticizers could have potentially spread to the water through treated and untreated wastewater (RENZ et al. 2013).

In their research aimed at determining potential health risks related with newly emerging chemical pollutants in the main rivers and treated water, Kessler et al. produced a summary table of the data related to EDC concentrations. Data related to EDC concentrations in surface waters, rivers, settlements, and tap water that emerged in their research are presented in Table 3 (KESSLER et al. 2019).

A literature review will reveal studies related to the exposure to xenoestrogens present in the air (LIU et al. 2015). Fucic and Alberto show a relationship between traffic and the xenoestrogen pollution in the air (FUCIC, ALBERTO 2016). The release of xenoestrogens, and consequently their pollution of air, also takes place during waste incineration as well as landfill fires (CHMIELEWSKI et al. 2020, 2020*a*).

Concentrations of emerging contaminants (µg L⁻¹, µg kg⁻¹)

EDC	Concentration (ppb)	$\mu g \ L^{\cdot 1}$	μg kg ⁻¹ (in sediments)	Presence in tap/ drinking water
Atrazine (ppb)	0.19 to 1.88 (Ohio River)			detected in 28 U.S. states
Bis-phenol A		0.016-0.5		detected in Asia, Europe, North America
Chlorpyrifos	0.24 (ground water, MN)	0-2.828		detected in drinking water
Endosulfan		<1 (WHO), 0.020-0.11		detected in drinking water
Nonyl phenol		0.1-0.5 (Ohio Tributary) 0000.1-0.0027 (tap water, Chongqing China)	75-340 (Ohio Tributary)	detected in drinking water
Buprenorphine		0.042–0.195 (sewage water, Paris)		detected in waste water

Bisphenol A (BPA) is identified in the outdoor and indoor air (Rudkowski 2013). Other studies also show a possible presence of BPA in the indoor air environment (LA MARCA, GAVA 2017).

At room temperature, BPA has the ability to migrate from polycarbonate bottles to food or mouth plates of pacifiers, where it can spread to the organism (ALIPRANDINI et al. 2011, COOPER et al. 2011).

Food is one of the primary exposure pathways to endocrine disrupting compounds for humans, e.g. phytoestrogens (PhyE). It is due to the presence of xenoestrogens in food products (GUZIK et al. 2014, OCHWANOWSKA et al. 2019).

Xenoestrogens are highly lipophilic substances that can accumulate in food with high fat content, red meat, milk, and dairy products. (MATEJCZYK, ZALEWSKI 2011, SAWANIEWSKA et al. 2019). Studies show that milk and dairy products are contaminated with xenoestrogens (FARKE et al. 2011, STYPUŁA--TREBAS et al. 2015, 2017).

Xenoestrogens can also be found in more complex compounds that are contained in paints, varnishes, substances coating the inside of food cans, many types of plastics as well as during the production of cosmetics, perfumes, deodorants, and shampoos (MATEJCZYK, ZALEWSKI 2011, BIESTERBOS et al. 2013, RIPAMONTI et al. 2018). Studies indicate the use of phthalates in personal hygiene products (ORECCHIO et al. 2015) and the use of parabens as preservatives in cosmetics, pharmaceutical drugs, and food additives (ŚWIERKOT et al. 2017).

THE EFFECT OF XENOESTROGENS ON THE HEALTH

Laboratory analyses used in disease diagnosis allow one to detect the presence of chemical substances absorbed from the environment in the blood and tissues. Substances that are often detected include bisphenol A (BPA), phthalates, flame retardants, fluoropolymers, and pesticides (RUDKOWSKI 2013).

Xenoestrogens raise much concern due to their potential effect on the human endocrine system (Kulik-Kupka et al. 2017, PATERNI et al. 2017, RIPAMONTI et al. 2018, KESSLER et al. 2019, YILMAZ et al. 2020).

The exposure of the organism to estrogenic compounds in different periods of the life may facilitate the development of dysfunctions or even tumors of hormone-dependent tissues (HILAKIVI-CLARKE et al. 2013).

The human body is not usually exposed to one particular substance, but rather a mixture of various substances, which may work synergically or antagonistically to each other. While estimating the potential effects of exposure, the age of the victim of exposure, type of substance, period of exposure, and size of the dose have to be taken into account. It also has to be taken into consideration that endocrine disrupting compounds are active in doses smaller than the toxic dose threshold. Moreover, it needs to be considered that a long time may elapse between the exposure to those compounds and the emergence of the first disease symptoms (KOTLARSKA et al. 2010, MUNCKE 2011, BIESTERBOS et al. 2013, KULIK-KUPKA et al. 2017, ELONHEIMO et al. 2021).

Over the years, various health complications manifesting in men, such as a higher incidence of testicle cancer, decrease in sperm quality or malformations of genital organs (TOPPARI et al. 2010, SNOJ, MAJDIČ 2018), as well as in women, such as a higher incidence of breast cancer, reproductive system tumors (GIBSON, SAUNDERS 2014, KONDURACKA et al. 2014, VOGL 2015, ROGOWSKA et al. 2019), were observed, which contributed to a significant increase of the interest in the cause of their origin. A multitude of studies showed that xenoestrogens, exogenous substances exhibiting estrogen-like properties, are responsible for many of those diseases, and have an effect on the development and condition of the human reproductive system (HE et al. 2015, SHEIKH et al. 2017, YUAN et al. 2018, GONZALEZ et al. 2019).

Epidemiological research suggests a relationship between the consumption of dairy products (especially, whole milk) containing xenoestrogens and the risk of prostate cancer development (PETTERSSON et al. 2012, Song et al. 2013). Higher consumption of dairy was related to a greater risk of testicle cancer (GIANNANDREA et al. 2013). There is also a hypothesis that estrogens in milk play a significant role in supporting ovary cancer development (GANMAA et al. 2012).

Xenoestrogens may embed themselves into the sperm cell membrane and, as a result, decrease the mobility of the semen (SAWANIEWSKA et al. 2019). Liu et al. examined the relationship between breast cancer risk and the exposure to ambient factors disrupting estrogen activity amongst the participants in a large cohort study, the California Teachers Study. They observed an elevated risk of hormone-responsive-negative tumors in the case of greater exposure to cadmium compounds and probably inorganic arsenic amongst people who have never smoked. Analyzing the results, they came to the conclusion that long-term exposure to low doses of cadmium compounds in the environment, or probably inorganic arsenic, may be a risk factor for breast cancer (Liu et al. 2015).

In the paper, Fucic and Alberto indicate a relationship between the xenoestrogen-polluted air as a result of traffic and the possible increased risk of breast cancer development (FUCIC, ALBERTO 2016).

Exposure to xenoestrogens is primarily related to endocrine system disruptions, the dysfunction of the reproductive system, the dysfunction of the immune system, and the risk of breast, prostate and uterus cancer. Studies also show a correlation between a lower weight at birth, premature childbirth, developmental defects, behavioral changes and a lower IQ of the progeny. Xenoestrogens are also considered to have an effect on the occurrence of diabetes, obesity, metabolic syndrome, reduction of sperm cell count, lower testosterone concentration, liver, kidney and heart damage, impact on the immune system resulting in a higher susceptibility of infection (HILAKIVI-CLARKE et al. 2013, FUCIC, ALBERTO 2016, KULIK-KUPKA et al. 2017, PATERNI et al. 2017, RIPAMONTI et al. 2018, CHMIELEWSKI et al. 2019, KESSLER et al. 2019, ROGOWSKA et al. 2019, CHMIELEWSKI et al. 2020, 2020*a*).

The effect of xenoestrogens on the endocrine system, and thus, on human health, has been the subject of a longitudinal study conducted by The Endocrine Society. The Endocrine Society's analyses and research resulted in the publication of the 2nd statement on the impact of environmental chemicals known to be endocrine disruptors (EDCs) on human health and possible diseases (GORE et al. 2015). The effects of EDCs on the human body are shown in Table 4 (GORE et al. 2015).

CONCLUSION

The significant development of the production sector of the economy, and consequently the growth of manufacturing and the use of chemical substances, exposed the human body to to the chemicals introduced into the environment in considerable quantities, with such consequences as the human body's dysfunctions and the development of many diseases.

Monitoring concentrations of chemical substances in different elements of the environment, as well as products of everyday use, is crucial for the health risk assessment of the exposure to endocrine disrupting compounds,

mode of action for hbos	Mode	of	action	for	EDCs
-------------------------	------	----	--------	-----	------

$ \begin{tabular}{ c c c c c } \hline \end{tabular} tabul$	EDC	Mechanism	Mode of action
$ \begin{array}{l} & \mbox{ER-mediated nongenomic pathway} & \mbox{Er}\beta \mbox{signaling cascades through} \\ & \mbox{PI3K-pAkt and MAPK-pErk and GPER-pErk pathways} \\ & \mbox{nonsteroidal receptor} & \mbox{antagonist of ThR; binds to GPR30} \\ & \mbox{activates emebrane ER}\beta\mbox{-Ca}^{2*} \mbox{pathway;} \\ & \mbox{activates eR}\beta\mbox{-KATP} \\ & \mbox{antagonist of thR; binds to GPR30} \\ & \mbox{activates eR}\beta\mbox{-KATP} \\ & \mbox{antagonist of thR; binds to GPR30} \\ & \mbox{activates eR}\beta\mbox{-KATP} \\ & \mbox{antagonist of thR; binds to GPR30} \\ & \mbox{activates eR}\beta\mbox{-Ca}^{2*} \mbox{ pathway;} \\ & \mbox{activates eR}\beta\mbox{-Ca}^{2*} \mbox{ molilization; up-regulation} \\ & \mbox{of } Ca^{2*} \mbox{ molilization; up-regulation} \\ & \mbox{antagonist of thR; binds and transactivates baded} \\ & \mbox{duces and increases hyperplasia} \\ & \mbox{inflammation} & \mbox{induces proinflammatory cytokines} \\ & \mbox{and chemokines} \\ & \mbox{and chemokines}$		nuclear receptor	antiandrogen; increased PR expression;
BPAactivates membrane $ER\beta$ - Ca^{2+} pathway; activates $ER\beta$ -KATP and Ca^{2+} mobilization; up-regulation of Ca^{2+} ion channel gene and protein, Orail alters MaSC gene expression and induces early neoplastic lesions; induces beaded ducts and increases hyperplasiaDDT and metabolitesinflammationinduces proinflammatory cytokines and chemokinesDDT and metabolitesnuclear receptorbinds and transactivates ERa and $ER\beta$; DDE binds AR and represses transcription in breast adipose tissueDESnuclear receptor ERa agonist; AR binding; suppresses activation of $ERR \alpha, \beta,$ and γ DESepigenetichypermethylation of HOXA10; DNA methylationDioxinsnonsteroidal receptorbinds to AhRPCBssteroid hormone biosynthesisaromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPFOAnuclear receptorWeak binding to ER, weak binding to AR proteinsPHALALnuclear receptorbinds to ER and ERESPFOAnuclear receptorweak binding to ER, weak binding to AR proteinsPhythalatesnuclear receptorbinds to ER and ERESPhythalatesnuclear receptorparterinsPhythalatesnuclear receptorparterinsNuclear receptorparterinsNuclear receptorparterinsNuclear receptorparterinsNuclear receptorparterinsNuclear receptorparterinsNuclear receptorparterinsNuclear receptorparterinsNuclear receptorparterins <t< td=""><td></td><td>ER-mediated nongenomic pathway</td><td>$\mathrm{Er}\beta$ signaling cascades through PI3K-pAkt and MAPK-pErk</td></t<>		ER-mediated nongenomic pathway	$\mathrm{Er}\beta$ signaling cascades through PI3K-pAkt and MAPK-pErk
ion channelsactivates ER/-KATP and Ca2* ion channel gene and protein, Orail alters MaSC gene expression and induces early neoplastic lesions; induces beaded ducts and increases hyperplasiaDDT and metabolitesinflammationinduces proinflammatory cytokines and chemokinesDDT and metabolitesnuclear receptorbinds and transactivates ERa and ERβ; DDE binds AR and represses transcription induced estrogenic microenvironment in breast adipose tissueDESRemediated non-genomic path- wayeRa agonist; AR binding; suppresses activation of ERR α, β, and γDioxinsnonsteroidal receptorbinds to AhR coactivator recruitmentPCBssteroid hormone biosynthesisinhibits sulfotransferase, inhibits aromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and ERB proteinsPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and ERB activates MAPK and PI3K and induces phosphorylation of HOXA10; DNA methylationProbationnonsteroidal receptorbinds to AhR coactivator recruitmentPCBsnuclear receptorweak binding to ER, weak binding to AR binds to ER and EREs proteinsPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREsPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREsPhysical receptorpPARa agonistNuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREsPFOA		nonsteroidal receptor	antagonist of ThR; binds to GPR30
uninhibited growthearly neoplastic lesions; induces beaded ducts and increases hyperplasiainflammationinduces proinflammatory cytokines and chemokinesDDT and metabolitesnuclear receptorbinds and transactivates ERα and ERβ; DDE binds AR and represses transcriptionmicroenvironment/stromainduced estrogenic microenvironment in breast adipose tissueDESnuclear receptorERα agonist; AR binding; suppresses activation of ERR α, β, and γDESepigenetichypermethylation DNA methylationDioxinsnonsteroidal receptorbinds to AhRPCBssteroid hormone biosynthesiscompetes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPFOAnuclear receptorwak binding to ER, weak binding to AR proteinsPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREs proteinsPFOAnuclear receptorpresses T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPFOAnuclear receptorPPARa agonist uninhibited growth increased hyperplasia and stromal densityPhthalatesnuclear receptorPPARa agonist	BPA	ion channels	activates ERβ-KATP and Ca ²⁺ mobilization; up-regulation
Innammationand chemokinesDDT and metabolitesnuclear receptorbinds and transactivates ERα and ERβ; DDE binds AR and represses transcriptionmicroenvironment/stromainduced estrogenic microenvironment in breast adipose tissueDESnuclear receptorERα agonist; AR binding; suppresses 		uninhibited growth	early neoplastic lesions; induces beaded
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$		inflammation	
microenvironment/stromainduced estrogenic inferoenvironment in breast adipose tissueDESnuclear receptor $ER\alpha$ agonist; AR binding; suppresses activation of ERR α , β , and γ DES ER -mediated non-genomic path- wayactivates MAPK and PI3K and induces phosphorylation of ERKepigenetichypermethylation of HOXA10; DNA methylationDioxinsnonsteroidal receptorbinds to AhRcoactivator recruitmentrecruitment of coactivator p300recruitment of coactivator p300inhibits sulfotransferase, inhibits aromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPCBsnuclear receptorweak binding to ER, weak binding to ARPFOAnuclear receptorPPAR α agonistuninhibited growthincreased hyperplasia and stromal densityPthalatesnuclear receptorDBP weak affinity for ER	DDT and	nuclear receptor	
$PCBs \begin{cases} nuclear receptor & activation of ERR \alpha, \beta, and \gamma \\ ER-mediated non-genomic path-way & activates MAPK and PI3K and induces phosphorylation of ERK \\ epigenetic & hypermethylation of HOXA10; DNA methylation \\ nonsteroidal receptor & binds to AhR \\ coactivator recruitment & recruitment of coactivator p300 \\ inhibits sulfotransferase, inhibits aromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteins \\ nuclear receptor & weak binding to ER, weak binding to AR \\ pFOA & nuclear receptor & pPAR\alpha agonist \\ uninhibited growth & increased hyperplasia and stromal density \\ Phthalates & \\ \hline \end{tabular}$	metabolites	microenvironment/stroma	0
DESwayphosphorylation of ERKepigenetichypermethylation of HOXA10; DNA methylationDioxinsnonsteroidal receptorbinds to AhRCoactivator recruitmentrecruitment of coactivator p300recruitment of coactivator recruitmentinhibits sulfotransferase, inhibits aromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPCBsnuclear receptorweak binding to ER, weak binding to ARPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREsPFOAnonsteroidal receptorPPARα agonistPhthalatesnuclear receptorDBP weak affinity for ER		nuclear receptor	
epigeneticDNA methylationDioxinsnonsteroidal receptorbinds to AhRcoactivator recruitmentrecruitment of coactivator p300PCBssteroid hormone biosynthesisinhibits sulfotransferase, inhibits aromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPCBsnuclear receptorweak binding to ER, weak binding to ARPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREsPFOAnonsteroidal receptorPPARα agonistuninhibited growthincreased hyperplasia and stromal densityPhthalatesnuclear receptorDBP weak affinity for ER	DES		
DioxinsDirectional cooperationDifferencecoactivator recruitmentrecruitment of coactivator p300PCBssteroid hormone biosynthesisinhibits sulfotransferase, inhibits aromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPCBsnuclear receptorweak binding to ER, weak binding to ARPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREsPFOAnonsteroidal receptorPPARa agonistuninhibited growthincreased hyperplasia and stromal densityPhthalatesDBP weak affinity for ER		epigenetic	
PCBscoactivator recruitmentrecruitment of coactivator p300PCBssteroid hormone biosynthesisinhibits sulfotransferase, inhibits aromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsPCBsnuclear receptorweak binding to ER, weak binding to ARPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREsPFOAnonsteroidal receptorPPARα agonistuninhibited growthincreased hyperplasia and stromal densityPhthalatesnuclear receptorDBP weak affinity for ER	D:	nonsteroidal receptor	binds to AhR
PCBssteroid hormone biosynthesisaromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding proteinsnuclear receptorweak binding to ER, weak binding to ARPFOAnuclear receptorbinds to ER and EREsnonsteroidal receptorPPARα agonistuninhibited growthincreased hyperplasia and stromal densityPhthalatesDBP weak affinity for ER	Dioxins	coactivator recruitment	recruitment of coactivator p300
PFOA nuclear receptor binds to ER and EREs nonsteroidal receptor PPARα agonist uninhibited growth increased hyperplasia and stromal density Phthalates nuclear receptor	PCBs	steroid hormone biosynthesis	aromatase; increases T4 glucuronidation, competes with thyroid hormone binding
PFOA nonsteroidal receptor PPARα agonist uninhibited growth increased hyperplasia and stromal density Phthalates nuclear receptor DBP weak affinity for ER		nuclear receptor	weak binding to ER, weak binding to AR
number of point Decision against uninhibited growth increased hyperplasia and stromal density Phthalates nuclear receptor	PFOA	nuclear receptor	binds to ER and EREs
Phthalates nuclear receptor DBP weak affinity for ER		nonsteroidal receptor	PPARa agonist
Phthalates		uninhibited growth	increased hyperplasia and stromal density
$\begin{array}{c} \hline \text{microenvironment/stroma} & \text{MEHP induced PPAR}\beta \text{ in adipose} \end{array}$	Phthalates	nuclear receptor	DBP weak affinity for ER
		microenvironment/stroma	MEHP induced PPAR β in adipose

Abbreviations: EREs – estrogen response elements, ERR – estrogen-related receptor, PI3K – phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase.

including xenoestrogens. As regards the broadly understood issue of public health, including the wellbeing of the population and cancer prevention, it is important to carry out large-scale educational activities for the entirety of society. The aim should be to disseminate information on existing dangers related to chemical substances in common use. Raising awareness in a society should help decrease environmental pollution and, as a consequence, depress the exposure to chemical substances and limit their detrimental effects on the health.

The data presented in this article highlight the need for an implementation of an environmental health strategy in the context of joint actions related to public health and environmental protection.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no potential conflict of interest with respect to the authorship and/or publication of this article.

REFERENCES

- ABDALLAH M.A.M. 2016. Endocrine disruptors as pollutants in Marine Ecosystem: A case study in Egypt. The Open Biotechnol J, 10: 131-150. DOI: 10.2174/1874070701610010131
- ALIPRANDINI P., FERREIRA F.B., BERTOL L.S., et al. 2011. Comparison of design, materials selection and characterization of pacifiers produced in Brazil. Austral Med J, 4(2): 76-80. DOI: 10.4066/AMJ.2011.529
- BIESTERBOS J.W.H., DUDZINA T., DELMAAR C.J.E. et al. 2013. Usage patterns of personal care products: Important factors for exposure assessment. Food Chem. Toxicol., 55: 8-17. DOI: 10.1016/j.fct.2012.11.014
- BRONOWICKA-KLYS D.E., LIANERI M., JAGODZIŃSKI P.P. 2016. The role and impact of estrogens and xenoestrogen on the development of cervical cancer. Biomed. Pharmacother., 84: 1945-1953. DOI: 10.1016/j.biopha.2016.11.007
- CHMIELEWSKI J., GORCZYCA D., DAWID U. et al. 2016. Occupational health risks associated with the use of pesticides. Przem. Chem., 95(3): 370-373. (in Polish) DOI: 10.15199/62.2016.3.7
- CHMIELEWSKI J., RUTKOWSKI A., WÓJTOWICZ B. et al. 2019. Release of phthalates to the environment and connected health risk. Przem. Chem., 98(1): 41-45. (in Polish) DOI: 10.15199/ /62.2019.1.2
- CHMIELEWSKI J., KOSOWSKA E., BAK-BADOWSKA J. et al. 2020. Polychlorinated dibenzodioxins and dibenzofurans as an environmental health threat. Przem. Chem., 99(1): 135-144. (in Polish) DOI: 10.15199/62.2020.1.21
- CHMIELEWSKI J., ŻEBER-DZIKOWSKA I., ŁUSZCZKI J. 2020a. Release of pollutants into the environment as a result of landfill fires and their impact on human health in the context of health education. Przem. Chem., 99(8): 1149-1154. (in Polish) DOI: 10.15199/62.2020.8.6
- CITULSKI J.A., FARAHBAKHSH K. 2010. Fate of endocrine-active compounds during municipal biosolids treatment: A review. Environ. Sci. Technol., 44(22): 8367-8376. DOI: 10.1021//es102403y
- COOPER J.E., KENDIG E.L., BELCHER S.M. 2011. Assessment of bisphenol A released from reusable plastic, aluminium and stainless steel water bottles. Chemosphere, 85(6): 943-947. DOI: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2011.06.060
- DEY S., SOLIMAN A.S., HABLAS A. et al. 2010. Urban-rural differences in breast cancer incidence by hormone receptor status across 6 years in Egypt. Breast Cancer Res. Tr., 120: 149-160. DOI: 10.1007/s10549-009-0427-9

- DOBRZYŃSKA M.M. 2015. The impact of some xenoestrogens on mammalian male reproductive system. Post Androl Online/Advances in Andrology Online, 2(1): 41-59. (in Polish) http:// www.postepyandrologii.pl/pdf/Postepy%20Andrologii%20Online,%202015,%202(1).pdf# page=41
- ELONHEIMO H., LANGE R., TOLONEN H. et al. 2021. Environmental substances associated with osteoporosis – A scoping review. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health, 18(2): 738; DOI: 10.3390/ /ijerph18020738
- ENGLER K.N., LEMLEY A.T. 2013. Development of an in vitro thin-film solid-phase microextraction method to determine the bioavailability of xenoestrogens in soil. Environ. Toxicol. Chem., 32(9): 1962-1968. DOI: 10.1002/etc.2292
- FARKE C., RATTENBERGER E., ROIGER S.U. et al. 2011. Bovine colostrum: determination of naturally occurring steroid hormones by liquid chromatography – Tandem Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). J. Agric. Food Chem., 59(4): 1423-1427. DOI: 10.1021/jf103751z
- FORMA E., SZYMCZYK A., KRZESLAK A. 2013. Selected xenoestrogens and their impact on human health. Fol Med Lodziensia, 40(1): 79-97. (in Polish) http://psjd.icm.edu.pl/psjd/element/ bwmeta1.element.psjd-7038109e-d770-42f2-974f-5c6e2d29db5d
- FUCIC A., ALBERTO M. 2016. Gender and age related modulation of xenoestrogen-induced tumorigenesis. The Open Biotechnol J, 10: 42-53. DOI: 10.2174/1874070701610010042
- GALAMON M., LIWARSKA-BIZUKOJĆ E. 2018. Determination of the selected xenoestrogens in water and wastewater. Technologia i Jakość Wyrobów, 63: 95-104. (in Polish) https://yadda.icm. edu.pl/baztech/element/bwmeta1.element.baztech-4be3bc86-ad48-4dd7-8fff-2aafacd3da6a
- GANMAA D., CUI X., FESKANICH D. et al. 2011. Milk, dairy intake and risk of endometrial cancer: A 26-year follow-up. Int. J. Cancer, 130(11): 2664-2671. DOI: 10.1002/ijc.26265
- GIANNANDREA F., PAOLI D., FIGA-TALAMANCA I. et al. 2013. Effect of endogenous and exogenous hormones on testicular cancer: the epidemiological evidence. Int. J. Dev. Biol., 57: 255-263. DOI: 10.1387/ijdb.130015fg
- GIBSON D.A., SAUNDERS P.T. 2014. Endocrine disruption of oestrogen action and female reproductive tract cancers. Endocrine Related Cancer, 21(2): T13-31. DOI: 10.1530/ERC-13-0342
- GORE A.C., CHAPPELL V.A., FENTON S.E. et al. 2015. EDC-2: The Endocrine Society's Second Scientific Statement on Endocrine-Disrupting Chemicals. Endocrine Rev, 36(6): E1-E150. DOI: 10.1210/er.2015-1010
- GONZALEZ T.L., RAEB J.M., COLACINO J.A. 2019. Implication of environmental estrogens on breast cancer treatment and progression. Toxicology, 421: 41-48. DOI: 10.1016/j.tox.2019.03.014
- GUZIK A., SAWICKA E., DŁUGOSZ A. 2014. The role of estrogens and environmental factors in prostate cancer. Bromatol. Chem. Toksyk., 47(1): 57-63. (in Polish) https://ptfarm.pl/pub/File/ /Bromatologia/2014/BR%201-2014%20s_%20057-063.pdf
- HILAKIVI-CLARKE L., DE ASSIS S., WARRI A. 2013. Exposures to synthetic estrogens at different times during the life, and their effect on breast cancer risk. J. Mammary Gland Biol., 18(1): 25-42. DOI: 10.1007/s10911-013-9274-8
- HE D., YE X., XIAO Y. et al. 2015. Dietary exposure to endocrine disrupting chemicals in metropolitan population from China: A risk assessment based on probabilistic approach. Chemosphere, 139: 2-8. DOI: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2015.05.036
- Hu Q., GUAN X.Q., SONG L.L. et al. 2020. Inhibition of pancreatic lipase by environmental xenoestrogens. Ecotox. Environ. Safe., 192: 110305. DOI: 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2020.110305
- JIN S., YANG F., XU Y., et al. 2013. Risk assessment of xenoestrogens in a typical domestic sewageholding lake in China. Chemosphere, 93(6): 892-898. DOI: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2013.05.037
- KABIR E.R., RAHMAN M.S., RAHMAN I. 2015. A review on endocrine disruptors and their possible impacts on human health. Environ. Toxicol. Phar., 40(1): 241-258. DOI: 10.1016/j.etap. 2015.06.009
- KESSLER J., DAWLEY D., CROW D. et al. 2019. Potential health risks linked to emerging contaminants in major rivers and treated waters. Water, 11(12): 2615. DOI: 10.3390/w11122615

- KONDURACKA E., KRZEMIENIECKI K., GAJOS G. 2014. Relationship between everyday use cosmetics and female breast cancer. Pol. Arch. Med. Wewn., 124(5): 264-269. DOI: 10.20452/ /pamw.2257
- KOTLARSKA M.M., PIETRZAK-FIECKO R., SMOCZYNSKI S.S. et al. 2010. The level of polychlorinated biphenyls in edible mushrooms available at the market in the region of Warmia and Masuria. Żyw Nauka Technol Jakość, 17(1): 49-57. (in Polish) http://yadda.icm.edu.pl/ /yadda/element/bwmeta1.element.agro-article-29dbc5ab-6b23-4066-9cd4-b455302e72f0
- KULIK-KUPKA K., NOWAK J., KORZONEK-SZLACHETA I., et al. 2017. The effects of endocrine disrupting chemicals on the human organism. Post. Hig. Med. Dosw. (online)., 71: 1231-1238. (in Polish) http://31.186.81.235:8080/api/files/view/256084.pdf
- LA MARCA L., GAVA G. 2017. Air Pollution and gynecological diseases. Clinical Handbook of Air Pollution-Related Diseases, 459-478. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-62731-1_25
- LIU R., NELSON D.O., HURLEY S. et al. 2015. Residential exposure to estrogen disrupting hazardous air pollutants and breast cancer risk. Epidemiology, 26(3): 365-373. DOI: 10.1097/ede. 000000000000277
- MARINO M. 2014. Xenoestrogens challenge 17β-estradiol protective effects in colon cancer. World J Gastrointest Oncol, 6(3): 67-73. DOI: 10.4251/wjgo.v6.i3.67
- MATEJCZYK M., ZALEWSKI P. 2011. Endocrine disrupting compounds and its biological activity. Kosmos, 60(1-2): 17-32. (in Polish) https://kosmos.ptpk.org/index.php/Kosmos/article/ /view/864/849
- MUNCKE J. 2011. Endocrine disrupting chemicals and other substances of concern in food contact materials: An updated review of exposure, effect and risk assessment. J. Steroid Biochem., 127(1-2): 118-127. DOI: 10.1016/j.jsbmb.2010.10.004
- OCHWANOWSKA E., CZARNY-DZIAŁAK M., ŻEBER-DZIKOWSKA I. 2019. Chemicals in food as a health threat. Przem. Chem., 98(10): 1614-1618. (in Polish) DOI: 10.15199/62.2019.10.17
- ORECCHIO S., INDELICATO R., BARRECA S. 2015. Determination of selected Phthalates by Gas Chromatography – Mass Spectrometry in Personal Perfumes. J. Toxicol. Env. Healt, A, 78(15): 1008-1018. DOI: 10.1080/15287394.2015.1021433
- PATERNI I., GRANCHI C., MINUTOLO F. 2017. Risks and benefits related to alimentary exposure to xenoestrogens. Crit. Rev. Food Sci., 57(16): 3384-3404. DOI: 10.1080/10408398.2015.1126547
- PETTERSSON A., KASPERZYK J.L., KENFIELD S.A. et al. 2012. Milk and dairy consumption among men with prostate cancer and risk of metastases and prostate cancer death. Cancer Epidem. Biomar., 21(3): 428-436. DOI: 10.1158/1055-9965.epi-11-1004
- RENZ L., VOLZ C., MICHANOWICZ D. et al. 2013. A study of parabens and bisphenol A in surface water and fish brain tissue from the Greater Pittsburgh Area. Ecotoxicology, 22(4): 632-641. DOI: 10.1007/s10646-013-1054-0
- RIPAMONTI E., ALLIFRANCHINI E., TODESCHI S. et al. 2018. Endocrine disruption by mixtures in topical consumer products. Cosmetics, 5(4): 61. DOI: 10.3390/cosmetics5040061
- ROGOWSKA A., POMASTOWSKI P., SAGANDYKOVA G. et al. 2019. Zearalenone and its metabolites: Effect on human health, metabolism and neutralisation methods. Toxicon, 162: 46-56. DOI: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2019.03.004
- RUDKOWSKI Z. 2013. Environmental risk and influence of chemicals from plastic materials on children's health – the challenge also for paediatricians. Med Środ/Environ Med, 16(1): 7-15. (in Polish) http://www.environmed.pl/Narazenie-srodowiskowe-i-wplyw-na--zdrowie-dzieci-chemikaliow-zawartych-w-materialach,114020,0,1.html
- SAWANIEWSKA B., GAJEWSKA D., LANGE E. 2019. The influence of nutritin on women and men fertility. Kosmos, 68 (2): 227-237. (in Polish) https://kosmos.ptpk.org/index.php/Kosmos/article/ /view/2539/2517
- SHEIKH I.A., TAYUBI I.A., AHMAD E. et al. 2017. Computational insights into the molecular interactions of environmental xenoestrogens 4- tert -octylphenol, 4-nonylphenol, bisphenol A

(BPA), and BPA metabolite, 4-methyl-2, 4-bis (4-hydroxyphenyl) pent-1-ene (MBP) with human sex hormone-binding globulin. Ecotox. Environ. Safe., 135: 284-291. DOI: 10.1016/j. ecoenv.2016.10.005

- SLOWIKOWSKA-HILCZER J. 2018. Disorders of testicular development (gonadal dysgenesis) from fetal life to the adulthood. Quart J Fides Ratio., 35(3): 152-160. https://fidesetratio.com.pl/ /ojs/index.php/FetR/article/view/543
- SNOJ T, MAJDIČ G. 2018. Mechanisms in endocrinology: Estrogens in consumer milk: is there a risk to human reproductive health? Eur. J. Endocrinol., 179(6): R275-R286. DOI: 10.1530/ /EJE-18-0591
- SODRÉ F.F., PESCARA I.C., MONTAGNER C.C. et al. 2010. Assessing selected estrogens and xenoestrogens in Brazilian surface waters by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry. Microchem. J., 96(1): 92-98. DOI: 10.1016/j.microc.2010.02.012
- SONG Y., CHAVARRO J.E., CAO Y. et al. 2012. Whole milk intake is associated with prostate cancerspecific mortality among U.S. male physicians. J. Nutr., 143(2): 189-196. DOI: 10.3945/ /jn.112.168484
- STYPUŁA-TRĘBAS S., MINTA M., RADKO L. et al. 2015. Application of the yeast-based reporter gene bioassay for the assessment of estrogenic activity in cow's milk from Poland. Environ. Toxicol. Phar., 40(3): 876-885. DOI: 10.1016/j.etap.2015.09.022
- STYPUŁA-TRĘBAS S., MINTA M., RADKO L. et al. 2017. Assessment of the estrogenic activity of milk and milk products with the use of in vitro estrogen receptor transactivation bioassay. Med Środ/Environ Med, 20(3): 44-48. (in Polish) DOI: 10.19243/2017305
- ŚWIERKOT J., DUDA-GRYCHTOŁ K., KLASIK-CISZEWSKA S. 2017. Parabens as dangerous preservatives. Med Rodzinna, 3: 222-225. (in Polish) DOI: 10.25121/MR.2017.20.3.222
- TOPPARI J., VIRTANEN H.E., MAIN K. M. et al. 2010. Cryptorchidism and hypospadias as a sign of testicular dysgenesis syndrome (TDS): Environmental connection. Birth Defects Res. A, 88(10): 910-919. DOI: 10.1002/bdra.20707
- VOGL S. 2015. Endokrine disruptoren. Gynäkologische Endokrinologie, 13(3): 150-155. DOI: 10.1007/ /s10304-015-0026-2
- XIN F., SUSIARJO M., BARTOLOMEI M.S. 2015. Multigenerational and transgenerational effects of endocrine disrupting chemicals: A role for altered epigenetic regulation? Semin. Cell Dev. Biol., 43: 66-75. DOI: 10.1016/j.semcdb.2015.05.008
- YILMAZ B., TEREKECI H., SANDAL S. et al. 2020. Endocrine disrupting chemicals: exposure, effects on human health, mechanism of action, models for testing and strategies for prevention. Rev. Endocr. Metab. Dis., 21(1): 127-147. DOI: 10.1007/s11154-019-09521-z
- YUAN S., HUANG C., JI X. et al. 2018. Prediction of the combined effects of multiple estrogenic chemicals on MCF-7 human breast cancer cells and a preliminary molecular exploration of the estrogenic proliferative effects and related gene expression. Ecotox. Environ. Safe., 160: 1-9. DOI: 10.1016/j.ecoenv.2018.05.025