

Effects of bisphenols on testicular steroidogenesis

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FB, SLV, AEC, concept and design; RAC, LM and RC, articles research; FB, writing of the original draft; SLV, AEC and AA, final approval.

Keywords

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Abstract

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Over the last decades, the adverse effects of human exposure to the so-called "endocrine disruptors" have been the subject of scientific debate and media interest, with great concern for the toxicity on reproductive function. Bisphenols are synthetic chemicals, widely used in the manufacture of hard plastic products. Bisphenol A (BPA) is among the best known environmental toxicants proven to be related to the impairment of male reproductive function and other health problems. BPA is known to migrate from packaging materials into foodstuffs and liquids. Consumer concern resulted in "BPA free" products and in the gradual development of a number of bisphenol analogs (BPA-A) to replace BPA in several applications. However, these other bisphenols derivatives seem to have effects similar to those of BPA. BPA can exhibit weak estrogenic and antiandrogenic proprieties. It interferes with the hypothalamic-pituitary-testicular axis and modulates the gene expressions and enzyme activities involved in steroidogenesis. In addition, it also appears to be involved in DNA methylation. The antiandrogenic properties of BPA have been described in various experimental animal studies. However, the evidence on humans remains ambiguous. Contradictory outcomes may depend on several factors including experimental design, BPA dose, timing and route of exposure and other confounding factors. The effects of BPA appear to be most relevant during development. BPA has been proposed to influence fetal testis development and predispose to testicular dysgenesis syndrome. This includes anatomical abnormalities identified at birth, such as cryptorchidism and hypospadias, but also disorders that occur in adulthood, including testicular tumors, hypogonadism and/or infertility. This review aims to summarize the evidence on the relationship between BPA and testicular function, focusing on its effects on testicular steroidogenesis.

Contribution to the field

Bisphenols are synthetic chemicals, widely used in the manufacture of hard plastic products. Bisphenol A (BPA) is among the best known environmental toxicants proven to be related to the impairment of male reproductive function and other health problems. BPA can exhibit weak estrogenic and antiandrogenic proprieties. However, the evidence on humans remains ambiguous. Contradictory outcomes may depend on several factors including experimental design, BPA dose, timing and route of exposure and other confounding factors. This review aims to summarize the evidence on the relationship between BPA and testicular function, focusing on its effects on testicular steroidogenesis.

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30 Abstract

Over the last decades, the adverse effects of human exposure to the so-called "endocrine disruptors" 31 have been matter of scientific debate and public attention. Bisphenols are synthetic chemicals, widely used in 32 the manufacture of hard plastic products. Bisphenol A (BPA) is one of the best known environmental toxicants 33 34 proven to alter the reproductive function in men and to cause other health problems. Consumer concern resulted in "BPA free" products and in the development of bisphenol analogs (BPA-A) to replace BPA in many 35 applications. However, these other bisphenol derivatives seem to have effects similar to those of BPA. 36 37 Although a number of review have summarized the effects of BPA on human reproduction, the purpose of this article is to review the effects of bisphenols on testicular steroidogenesis and to explore their mechanisms of 38 39 action. Testicular steroidogenesis is a fine-regulated process and its main product, testosterone (T), has a crucial role in fetal development and maturation and in adulthood for the maintenance of secondary sexual 40 41 function and spermatogenesis. Contradictory outcomes of both human and animal studies on the effects of BPA on steroid hormone levels may related to various factors that include study design, dosage of BPA used 42 in *in-vitro* studies, timing and route of exposure, and other confounding factors. We described the main 43 possible molecular target of bisphenols on this complex pathway. We report that Leydig cells (LCs), the 44 45 steroidogenic testicular component, are highly sensitivity to BPA and several mechanisms concur to the functional impairment of these cells. 46

47

1. Introduction

Over the last decades, the adverse effects of human exposure to the so-called "endocrine disruptors" 48 49 have been matter of deep debate by the scientific community and the layman. Particular attention has been paid to their toxicity on the reproductive function. Bisphenol A (2,2-bis(4-hydroxyphenyl) propane) (BPA) is 50 51 among the most well-known endocrine disruptors proven capable of impairing the male reproductive function 52 and to cause other health problems. BPA is an organic synthetic compound, including to the group of dyphenylmenthane derivatives and bisphenols, widely used in the manufacture of hard plastic products. BPA 53 54 has been used since the 1950s, in food packaging, industrial materials, dental sealants, personal hygiene products, and thermal receipts (Rochester et al., 2013; Huo et al., 2015). A significant exposure to BPA for 55 56 children is given by toys, books, and feeding bottles (Brede et al., 2003; Sajiki et al., 2010). BPA penetrates the body through the skin, inhalation and the digestive system (Kang et al., 2006). Once adsorbed, BPA is then 57 58 metabolized by the liver and excreted with the urine in 24 hours (Huo et al., 2015). Despite the rapid metabolism, BPA can accumulate in different tissues (Komarowska et al., 2015). Consumer concern for BPA 59 effects on health, resulted in "BPA free" products and in the development of bisphenol analogs to replace 60 BPA in many applications. However, these compounds seem to have endocrine disrupting capabilities similar 61 62 to BPA and their impact on reproduction has been little investigated (Roelofs et al., 2015; Rochester & Bolden, 63 2015; Siracusa et al., 2018).

64 BPA seems to influence fetal testis development and predispose to the testicular dysgenesis syndrome 65 (TDS). This syndrome may manifest itself not only at birth with cryptorchidism and hypospadias, but also in 66 adulthood when it shows up with testicular tumors, hypogonadism and/or infertility (Matuszczak et al., 2019). Current evidence suggest that BPA can cause testicular histological abnormalities which encompass 67 dysregulated proliferation and apoptosis of Leydig cells (LCs) and alteration of steroidogenesis (Williams et 68 al., 2014). In mice, pubertal exposure to high doses of BPA causes LC and germ cells apoptosis, resulting in 69 70 underdeveloped testis with histopathological changes including atrophied seminiferous tubules, decreased number of late spermatids and increased karyopyknotic cells (Li et al., 2009). The reduction of testicular weight 71 72 and the alteration of spermatogenesis persist till adulthood, long after the period of BPA exposure (Li et al., 2009). The gestational period is a sensitive window of exposure to BPA. Male rats maternally exposed to BPA 73 74 from gestation to the postnatal period have low testicular weight and testosterone (T) levels in the testicular interstitial fluid in adulthood (Akingbemi et al., 2004). These effects may involve different molecular pathways
discussed in the section 3b.

77 Many studies have investigated the effects of BPA on human reproduction and extensive reviews have 78 addressed the strength of the evidence on BPA toxicity (Vom Saal et al., 2007; Perets et al., 2014; Siracusa et 79 al., 2018; Matuszczak et al., 2019). Contradictory outcomes may depend on several factors including study 80 design, BPA dose, timing and route of exposure and other confounding factors (Peretz et al., 2014). Several mechanisms of action have been described. First of all, BPA exhibits weak estrogenic and antiandrogenic 81 82 proprieties. It binds to both estrogen receptors (ERs), ER α and ER β (Rochester et al., 2013; Matuszczak et al., 2019) and. at high concentrations, BPA binds to the androgen receptor (AR) on which it acts as an antagonist 83 84 (Hejmej et al., 2011). In addition to binding to the ARs, it disturbs the hypothalamic-pituitary-testicular axis and modulates gene expression and the enzymatic activity of testicular steroidogenesis (Hejmej et al., 2011). 85 86 Furthermore, exposure to BPA is also associated with a decrease in the activity of the antioxidant system, 87 resulting in increased oxidative stress, the most common cause of sperm damage (Wang et al., 2014; Lanzafame et al., 2009). Although several studies have supported the harmful effects of BPA on testicular 88 function, its mechanism(s) remains not fully understood. 89

90 The purpose of this article is to review the evidence on the relationship between bisphenols and
91 testicular steroidogenesis, focusing on their mechanism(s) of action on LCs function.

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93 **2.** Testicular steroidogenesis

94 The testis is a complex endocrine organ regulated by intra- and extra-testicular pathways that interact synergistically (Tena-Sempere et al., 2002). Leydig cells (LCs) have a crucial role in the regulation of 95 steroidogenesis and spermatogenesis. LCs produce testosterone (T), which has a main role in fetal development 96 and maturation. During the masculinization programming window, the fetal testes begin to produce T, which 97 98 allows male gonadal differentiation and development (Scott et al., 2009). Hence, T is necessary for the maintenance of secondary sexual function and spermatogenesis (Mathur & D'Cruz, 2011). Intratesticular T 99 levels are approximately one hundred times higher than the levels found in systemic circulation (Ochsenkuhn 100 101 and De Kretser, 2003). The high local production rate of T implies the need for its intratesticular transport 102 from LCs to Sertoli cells which nourish and support the development of the germinal cells during the various stages of spermatogenesis (Dankers et al., 2013). LCs derive from mesenchymal cells located in the interstitial 103

104 compartment of the testis. Their development occurs through three different stages during which they are called 105 progenitor, immature and adult LCs. Apoptosis seems to have a main role in maintaining a constant population 106 of LCs, although other mechanisms may be involved (Siracusa et al., 2018).

LCs produce T in response to the luteinizing hormone (LH). LH binding to the LH receptors (LHR) 107 on LCs activates Gs protein and adenylyl cyclase, increasing cAMP levels. cAMP acts as a key second 108 109 messenger and up-regulates the expression of genes related to the steroidogenesis (Dufao et al., 1988). The steroidogenesis consists in a complex multi-enzyme process by which precursor cholesterol is converted to 110 111 biologically active steroid hormones in a tissue specific manner (Figure 1). Cholesterol can be synthesized in the endoplasmic reticulum but the first source of this precursor for steroidogenesis is via uptake of cholesteryl 112 esters from high-density lipoprotein by the scavenger receptor SR-B1 (Shen et al., 2016). Therefore, SR-B1 113 has a key role for the maintenance of cholesterol balance. The first step in steroidogenesis takes place within 114 115 mitochondria. The steroidogenic acute regulatory protein (StAR) mediate the transport of cholesterol from the outer to the inner mitochondrial membrane (Devoto et al., 2002). The StAR-mediated transport of cholesterol 116 is a crucial step for steroidogenesis (Stocco et al., 1996; Hasegawa et al., 2000) and appropriate concentrations 117 of cAMP are necessary for the regulation of StAR expression (Stocco et al., 1997). However, cAMP/PKA is 118 119 not the only pathway that regulates StAR expression. Other factors such as steroidogenic factor, activator protein and cAMP-response element-binding protein are also associated with StAR regulation (Stocco et al., 120 121 2005). Then, cholesterol is metabolized to pregnenolone into the smooth endoplasmic reticulum through a 122 cascade of reactions that are catalyzed by the cytochrome P-450 proteins. Pregnenolone then is converted to T by 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (3 β -HSD), 17 α -hydroxylase/17,20 lyase (CYP17A1) and 17 β -123 hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (17 β -HSD). This complex process of steroid genesis itself can be responsible 124 for the increase of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Hanukoglu, 2006). Thus, the normal products of 125 steroidogenesis can act as pseudosubstrates and interact with P-450 enzymes, resulting in a pseudosubstrate-126 P-450–O₂ complex, which is a source of dangerous free radicals (Quinn & Payne, 1985). 127

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3. Bisphenols and testicular steroidogenesis

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3.a. Effects of bisphenol A on steroid hormone levels

Experimental studies in male animals have shown that exposure to BPA is associated with altered hormone 131 levels suggesting direct effects of BPA on LCs. However, these data are discordant. Low-dose BPA decreased 132

133 T levels in CD-1 mice exposed during perinatal and postnatal periods (Xi et al., 2011), but not in adult C57BL/6 mice exposed in utero (LaRocca et al., 2011). In addition, low-dose BPA lowered T levels in Holtzman rats 134 135 exposed during gestation or in the neonatal age (Salian et al., 2009a; Salian et al., 2009b) and albino (El Beshbishy et al., 2012) and Wistar (D'Cruz et al., 2012a) rats exposed in adulthood. In contrast, by examining 136 the gestational and neonatal exposure of low-dose BPA in Long Evans (Howdeshell et al., 2008) or Sprague-137 Dawley (SD) rats (Kobayashi et al., 2012, Qiu et al., 2013), the levels of T did not change. Treatment with 138 increasing concentrations of BPA (1 to 1000 nM) did not significantly lower basal or hCG-stimulated T 139 140 secretion by primary culture of LCs of young adult male rats (Muromo et al., 2001). However, although Sánchez and colleagues reported that low-dose BPA did not decrease T levels in Wistar rats, 141 dihydrotestosterone levels decreased (Sánchez et al. 2013). Gamez and colleagues reported that exposure to 142 low-doses BPA led to an increase in serum LH and FSH levels in young Wistar rats (Gamez et al., 2014). 143 144 Nevertheless, another study in adult Wistar rats showed that exposure to BPA decreased serum T, LH and FSH levels, but increased the levels of 17ß-estradiol (E2) (Wisniewski et al., 2015). In two studies in SD rats, 145 postnatal exposure to low-dose BPA decreased serum T and E₂ levels (Guurmet et al., 2014). BPA exposure 146 lowered T levels in Swiss albino and C57BL/6 mice, but at variable dosage between $0.5 \,\mu$ g/kg and $100 \,$ mg/kg 147 148 (Chouhan et al., 2015; Zang et al., 2016). Sadowski and colleagues described a decrease in FSH concentrations 149 in Long-Evans rats at wearing, after exposure to BPA at both 4 and 400 µg/kg/day (Sadowski et al., 2014). 150 An *in-vitro* study conducted on fetal testes explanted from mice, rats and humans demonstrated that exposure 151 to 10 nM of BPA was enough to decrease basal T secretion in human fetal testes, but higher concentrations 152 were required in rats and mice (10 μ M and 1 μ M, respectively) (N'Tumba-Byn et al., 2012).

The epidemiological studies evaluating the effects of BPA exposure on serum hormone levels in men 153 have also shown conflicting results. In the INChianti adult population study, Galloway and colleagues found 154 155 a correlation between higher urinary BPA concentrations and higher serum T, but not E_2 levels in 307 Italian 156 men living in Chianti, Italy (Galloway et al., 2010). Another study, conducted on 308 young men from Denmark's general population, reported that higher urinary BPA concentration was associated with a 157 significant increase of LH, T and E₂ levels (Lassen et al., 2014). In contrast, in a cross-sectional study of 290 158 men, Zhou and colleagues found that increased serum BPA concentrations were statistically significantly 159 160 associated with the reduction of androstenedione, free T and free androgen index (FAI) levels and with the increase of sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG) levels (Zhou et al., 2013). Two cross-sectional studies, 161

162 respectively of 167 and 302 men, did not report any associations between BPA and T concentrations (Meeker et al., 2010; Mendiola et al., 2010). According to Meeker and colleagues, men with elevated urinary BPA 163 164 concentrations had higher FSH and lower inhibin B levels with a higher FSH/inhibin B ratio and a lower E₂/T 165 ratio (Meeker et al., 2010). Mendiola and colleagues found that higher urinary BPA levels were associated with lower FAI and FAI/LH and free T/LH ratios in fertile men (Mendiola et al., 2010). Two cross-sectional 166 studies reported that urinary BPA levels were associated with higher SHBG in men occupationally exposed to 167 BPA (Liu et al., 2015; Zhuangh et al., 2015). The NHANES 2011-2012 study showed an inverse correlation 168 169 between urinary BPA levels and serum T concentrations in male adolescents (Scinicariello & Buser, 2016). However, a retrospective cohort study did not find any effects on hormone levels in boys aged 8 to 14 years 170 after prenatal or childhood exposure to BPA (Ferguson et al., 2014). 171

Although these results are controversial, they suggest that BPA alters steroid hormones pathways inmen.

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3.b. Bisphenol A molecular mechanisms of action on testicular steroidogenesis

Although both animal and human studies support the harmful effects of BPA on steroid hormones, the 176 177 mechanism of action of BPA in negatively interfering with testicular steroidogenesis still remains unclear. Since LCs are the site of testicular steroidogenesis, several studies have been conducted on these cells to 178 investigate the effects of BPA. In Wistar/ST pubertal rats, continuous exposure to BPA at high doses reduced 179 180 the number of LCs and the expression of steroidogenic enzymes in these cells (Nakamura et al. 2010). In 181 contrast, Long-Evans rats exposed to low dose of BPA during gestation and at birth had an increase in the number of LCs in adulthood through the up-regulation of mitogen factors. However, although low-dose of 182 BPA increased LC proliferation, the expression of steroidogenic enzymes and T biosynthesis decreased 183 (Nanjappa et al. 2012). Chen and colleagues reported that BPA did not stimulate staminal LC proliferation but 184 185 it induced the differentiation of stem LCs into more mature LCs. They used an *in-vivo* ethane dimethane 186 sulfonate (EDS)-induced LC regeneration model to mimic the pubertal development of LCs. They treated rats with EDS to eliminate LCs and then, they injected BPA within the testis. The intratesticular injection of BPA 187 avoided possible interference of hypothalamus and pituitary. The results of this study showed that BPA 188 significantly increased the number of 11β -HSD1 positive cells, which is a biomarker for LCs at an advanced 189 stage. Thus, BPA promoted the differentiation of staminal LCs, increasing T production and upregulating LC 190

specific genes (LHCGR, StAR, CYP11A1, HSD3B1, CYP17A1, HSD17B3 and HSD11B1). These findings 191 suggest a possible role of BPA in sexual precocious puberty in males (Chen et al., 2018). Exposure to high-192 193 doses of BPA (480 and 960 mg/kg/day at postnatal days 31-44) has been reported to induce apoptosis in Leydig and germ cells via the upregulation of Fas, FasL and caspase-3 (Li et al., 2009). The apoptosis of LCs was 194 195 associated with a decreased testicular testis weight and histopathological changes, which persisted into 196 adulthood (Li et al., 2009). In another study, Thuillier and colleagues reported that SD rats exposed in-utero 197 to BPA had an increase number of LCs but did not present significant change in serum T levels (Thuillier et 198 al., 2009). Moreover, BPA can also induce Nur77 gene expression, an orphan nuclear receptor which plays an important role in the regulation of LH-mediated steroidogenesis, altering LC steroidogenesis (Song et al., 199 200 2002). BPA induced Nur77 gene expression via PKA and MAPK signaling pathways in a time- and dosedependent manner. BPA-mediated Nur77 expression resulted in the upregulation of steroidogenesis both *in*-201 202 *vitro* and *in-vivo*, with a significant increase of T synthesis (2-fold) (Song et al., 2002).

203 The inhibition of testicular steroidogenesis by BPA can be also associated with a decreased LH 204 secretion. Akingbemi and colleagues reported that Long-Evans rats exposed to low doses of BPA (2.4 205 μ g/kg*d) from postnatal days 21-35, decreased both serum LH and T levels, downregulating pituitary LH β 206 expression but increasing ER β pituitary mRNA levels (Akingbemi et al., 2004).

The expression of LH and FSH receptors may also be altered by BPA. Li and colleagues showed that treatment of adult male zebrafish (Danio rerio) by 500 ng/L BPA for 7 weeks down-regulated the expressions of FSHr and LHCGr (Li et al., 2017). For the first time, Roelofs and colleagues demonstrated that BPA, BPF, and TBBPA showed clear glucocorticoid receptor antagonism, other than AR antagonism. They also found that bisphenol analogues up-regulated the 5α Red1 gene expression suggesting a redirection of steroidogenesis, which may have significant consequences for fetal testis development and function (Roelofs et al., 2015).

Within the steroid hormone biosynthetic pathway, steroidogenic enzymes are recognized as important targets for the actions of endocrine-disrupting chemicals. Several studies showed that BPA decreases the expression of steroidogenic enzymes (Nakamura et al. 2010; Xi et al. 2011; Horstman et al. 2012; Naijappa et al., 2012; Qiu et al. 2013; Samova et al., 2018). Moreover, some compounds, including BPA, seem to disturb steroidogenesis by inhibiting the cAMP pathway. Nikula and colleagues analyzed the effects of BPA at micromolar concentration in cultured mouse Leydig tumor cells (mLTC-1). BPA did not have any effects on hCG binding to LH receptors but it inhibited LH-receptor mediated signal transduction by decreasing hCG-

stimulated cAMP. Specifically, they found that after preincubation of mLTC-1 cells for 48 h with different 220 doses of BPA, hCG-stimulated cAMP and progesterone production was inhibited. Whereas preincubation with 221 222 17ß-estradiol inhibited progesterone production but had no effect on cAMP. Thus, the effects of BPA did not seem to be estrogen-related (Nikula et al., 1999). Moreover, the inhibitory effect of BPA could not be seen 223 224 when cAMP formation was directly stimulated by forskolin (Fk) or through Gs protein by cholera toxin (CT), 225 and when steroidogenesis was directly activated by 8-Br-cAMP which can penetrate the plasma membranes and directly activate the protein kinase A. These results suggested that the negative effect of BPA is exerted 226 227 between the LH receptor and the adenylate cyclase. Accordingly, Feng and colleagues found that BPA exposure inhibited progesterone secretion in hCG-stimulated mouse Leydig tumor cell line (mLTC-1) by 228 229 decreasing SR-B1 and P450scc expression due to the adverse effects on cAMP. Moreover, lower SR-B1 levels cause a reduction in cholesterol levels within LCs that alters steroidogenesis (Feng et al., 2018). The role of 230 231 StAR is instead controversial. According to Feng and colleagues (2018), StAR seem not be the molecular target of BPA. Similarly, male rats exposed to BPA showed decreased T levels but did not exhibit significant 232 changes in StAR expression (Nanjiappa et al., 2012). However, other previous studies have reported that BPA 233 decreased StAR expression in cell culture in-vitro (Peretz et al., 2011; Xi et al., 2011; Chouhan et al., 2014), 234 235 but, in contrast, other studies have shown that StAR expression is upregulated (Qiu et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017). 236 Takamiya and colleagues reported that StAR gene expression increased in presence of both hCG ($10 \mu g/l$) plus BPA (10⁻⁵ M) or by hCG alone, but was not influenced by BPA alone. They found that BPA had only a weak 237 238 modulating effect on gene expression of hCG-stimulated mLTC-1 cells (Takamiya et al., 2007). Li and 239 colleagues showed that the exposure of adult male zebrafish to low doses (0.22 nM-2.2 nM) of BPA for 7weeks resulted in abnormal expression of genes involved in testicular steroidogenesis, specifically of 3β-240 HSD1, CYP17A1 and CYP11C1 (Li et al., 2017). Samova and colleagues found that BPA significantly and 241 dose-dependently affected the functions of 3β-HSD and 17β-HSD in the testis of inbred Swiss strain male 242 243 albino mice (Samova et al., 2018). Ye and colleagues reported that BPA significantly inhibited 3β -HSD, 244 CYP17A1 and 17β -HSD3 activities in both human and rat testis. However, the inhibition of 17β -HSD3 activity was much weaker compared with that on the other two enzymes. They also found that human enzymes were 245 more sensitive to BPA (Ye et al., 2011). Specifically, their results suggested that BPA did not exert a 246 competitive inhibition of 3β-HSD against its substrate (pregnenolone), but it competed with the cofactor 247 248 NAD+ in the cofactor binding site of the enzyme. Whereas BPA inhibition of CYP17A1 was mixed-type for

enzyme substrate progesterone, indicating a combination of two different types of reversible enzyme 249 inhibition, both competitive and uncompetitive (Ye et al., 2011). Additionally, not only BPA, but also 250 251 bisphenol S (BPS) and bisphenol F (BPF) exposure decreased T production in fetal mouse testis by inhibiting mRNA expression of StAR, 3β-HSD and cytochrome P45017A1 (CYP17A1), but not of P450scc (Eladak et 252 al., 2015). Moreover, Dankers and colleagues suggested that the changes in T secretion after BPA or TBBPA 253 254 exposure were only partly due to alterations of steroidogenic enzyme expression. These authors hypothesized 255 that the inhibition of ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters, expressed in the blood-testis barrier (BTB), 256 may play a role in this process. The BTB divides the seminiferous epithelium into a basal and an apical compartment and provides structural and protective support for the differentiation of spermatogonia into 257 258 spermatocytes. It consists of tight junctions, testis-specific atypical adherent junctions, desmosomes and gap junctions. In the active part of BTB, ABC transporters are present to allow the passage of endogenous 259 260 molecules involved in cellular signaling and to block the passage of dangerous compounds within the testes and to protect germ cells. The cellular membranes of LCs, Sertoli cells and capillary endothelial cells are 261 provided of these transporters. For this reason, the association between endocrine disruptors and ABC 262 transporters has a strong toxicological impact (Dankers et al., 2013). The breast cancer resistance protein 263 264 (BCRP/ABCG2), the P-glycoprotein (P-gp/ABCB1) and the multidrug resistance proteins 1 and 4 (MRP1,4/ABCC1,4) are the major efflux transporters in the BTB with a differential expression in the various 265 parts of the BTB (Dankers et al., 2013). LCs express P-gp, MRP1 and MRP4, but not BCRP in adult human 266 267 testis (Bart et al., 2004; Morgan et al., 2012). Dankers and colleagues investigated the effects of BPA and of 268 TBBPA (tetrabromobisphenol A) on BCRP, MRP1, MRP4 and P-gp. They found that TBBPA inhibited all 269 these transporters; thus, it is considered a noncompetitive transporter inhibitor; whereas BPA inhibited only BCRP activity. They also showed that BPA, but not TBBPA, is transported by BCRP (Dankers et al., 2013). 270 Interestingly, they found that, although exposure to BPA and TBBPA significantly increased T level in MA-271 272 10 cells, the effects on steroidogenic genes were not so significant. Thus, these authors hypothesized that the 273 changes in T levels upon BPA or TBBPA exposure were associated to the inhibition of efflux of T precursors. Increased availability of these precursors, such as androstenedione or DHEA, could be responsible of the 274 275 increased T levels found.

276 Moreover, many compounds increase the levels of ROS in the testis, altering steroidogenesis.
277 Oxidative stress has also been found to induce apoptosis in LCs and germ cells (Song et al.,2008). Recent

studies have reported an inverse relationship between NOS activity and StAR expression (Srivastava et al., 278 2007). Srivastava and colleagues exposed Swiss albino mice to BPA at concentrations of 0.5, 50 and 100µg/kg 279 280 body weight/day intraperitoneally for 60 days. They showed that BPA upregulated the expression of iNOS, downregulating the expression of StAR in mouse testis (Srivastava et al., 2007). It was also supposed that 281 282 BPA impaired steroidogenesis by decreasing testicular glucose levels (D'Cruz et al., 2012). Glucose homeostasis is crucial for testicular spermatogenesis and steroidogenesis. D'Cruz and colleagues reported that 283 low dose BPA exposure impaired insulin signaling interacting with GLUT-2 and GLUT-8 and inhibiting the 284 285 uptake in the testis (D'Cruz et al., 2012).

Recently, a number of studies suggest epigenetic effects of BPA, including DNA methylation, histone 286 modifications and non-coding RNAs. Epigenetic mechanisms can have long-term effects and may be 287 transmitted across several generations (Kundakovic & Champagne, 2011). Specifically, Gao and colleagues 288 289 (Gao et al., 2018) have recently investigated the epigenetic effects of BPA on the expression of non-coding RNAs (e.g. microRNAs) in the regulation of testicular steroidogenesis. They used both cell culture and *in-vivo* 290 mouse models and showed that miR-146a-5p was expressed only in LCs and this expression was significantly 291 induced by BPA. Consequently, the high miR-146a-5p expression intensifies the negative effects of BPA on 292 293 testicular steroidogenesis by directly targeting the 3' UTR of Mta3 gene (Gao et al., 2018). Mta3 is a subunit 294 of the Mi-2/nucleosome remodelling and deacetylase (NuRD) protein complex that is exclusively expressed 295 in LCs (He et al., 2016). Specifically, Mta3 role in the control of testicular steroidogenic function is proven by 296 its negative regulation by the high levels of circulated insulin (He et al., 2016). He and colleagues showed that 297 a deficiency of Mta3 in LCs of diabetic mice was associated with low serum T level, indicating that Mta3 expression in LCs may be associated with androgen deficiency (He et al., 2016). Thus, the downregulation of 298 299 mir-146a-5p/Mta3 cascade seems to be involved in steroidogenic alterations caused by BPA (Gao et al., 2018).

DNA methylation is one of the best characterized epigenetic mechanisms. Liu and colleagues investigated the effects of BPA on DNA methylation in rare minnow Gobiocypris rarus. DNA hypermethylation consists of an addition of a methyl group to the cytosine bases of DNA to form 5methylcytosine and it may be associated with changes in gene expression. In their study, Liu and colleagues found that the global DNA methylation level was significantly increased in testis of male Gobiocypris rarus exposed to BPA for 7 days. Then, they specifically analyzed the change in DNA methylation in the 5' flanking region of the cytochrome P450 aromatase (CYP19A1A) gene. After 35-day exposure, the DNA methylation levels of CYP19A1A did not have significant change in the testis, whereas they significantly increased in theovary (Liu et al.,2014).

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310 Conclusions

This review summarizes the current evidences on the association between BPA and testicular 311 steroidogenesis. Altogether, these results show that LCs are very sensitive to BPA and that several mechanisms 312 concur to the functional impairment of these cells. Testicular steroidogenesis is a complex and fine regulated 313 314 process and each component of this pathway may be the molecular target of BPA. The main possible sites of BPA action are summarized in the Figure 2. The conflicting results of both human and animal studies may be 315 related to various factors that include study design, dose of BPA, timing and route of exposure and other 316 confounding factors. This review confirms that the widespread use of bisphenols is certainly dangerous for 317 318 testicular development and function, and that a reduction of its use is necessary to preserve male sexual and reproductive health. 319

320

321 Conflicts of Interest

322 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality323 of the research reported.

324

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556 Legends to figures

Figure 1. Leydig cell steroidogenesis. LH binds to its receptors (LHR) on the Leydig cell (LC) membrane. 557 This results in activation of Gs protein and adenylyl cyclase and increased concentration of intracellular cAMP. 558 cAMP stimulates the mobilization and transport of cholesterol within the mitochondria in part by activating 559 PKA and MAPK signaling. The first source of cholesterol for steroidogenesis is via uptake of cholesteryl esters 560 from high-density lipoprotein (HDL) by the scavenger receptor SR-B1. Steroidogenic acute regulatory 561 enzymes (StARs) regulate cholesterol transport from the outer to the inner mitochondrial membrane. At the 562 inner mitochondrial membrane cholesterol is converted into pregnenolone by CYP11A1 and pregnenolone is 563 converted into testosterone by enzymes in the smooth endoplasmic reticulum (3β-HSD, CYP17A1 and 17β-564 HSD). 565

Figure 2. Mechanisms of action of bisphenol A on testicular steroidogenesis. Testicular steroidogenesis is
a complex and fine-regulated process that bisphenol A (BPA) can perturb by acting with several mechanisms
represented in this figure (circled in red).



Figure 1.JPEG



Figure 2.JPEG