

Occupational exposure and effects on the male reproductive system

Exposição ocupacional e efeitos sobre o sistema reprodutor masculino

Erika Kaltenecker Retto de Queiroz ¹
William Waissmann ¹

Abstract

A significant increase in the incidence of male infertility has been described in the international literature, raising questions about its causes. Part of this effect may result from synthetic toxic substances acting on the endocrine system (endocrine disruptors), many of which are routinely used in work processes. We provide a critical review of the specialized literature on work-related chemical substances capable of causing male infertility. Pesticides such as DDT, linuron, and others, heavy metals like mercury, lead, cadmium, and copper, and substances from various industrial uses and residues such as dioxins, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), ethylene dibromide (EDB), phthalates, polyvinyl chloride (PVC), and ethanol are among the main endocrine disruptors that can cause male infertility. Based on the literature, gonadal dysfunction and congenital malformation are the main alterations caused by these substances in the male reproductive system. We conclude that despite the relative lack of studies on this issue, the relevance of such risk calls for further studies as well as measures to prevent workers' exposure to the various substances.

Male Infertility; Occupational Exposure; Endocrine System

Introduction

Some chemical substances have the capacity to interfere in the functioning of the endocrine system, in the hormones' mechanism of action, and are called endocrine deregulators or endocrine disruptors ^{1,2,3}, with the latter term adopted in this paper.

Alterations caused by endocrine disruptors can be temporary or permanent ^{2,4,5}. Endocrine disruptors can cause the following, among others: reproductive anomalies (morphological and functional gonadal dysfunction, e.g., infertility and decreased libido) and congenital malformations (altered embryonic and fetal intrauterine development) ^{2,6,7,8}.

The principal effects of exposure to endocrine disruptors on male fertility are temporal reduction in sperm concentration and quality ⁹, high incidence of cryptorchidism and hypospadias ¹⁰, and altered sex ratio ^{11,12}.

Despite the diversity of habits and cultures around the world, an increase in male infertility has been observed, apparently constituting an international phenomenon ^{13,14,15,16,17}, although alterations in fertility can be said to suffer influences from physical, chemical, and/or psychological factors.

Male reproduction involves complex and delicate processes and depends on normal development and organization during the fetal period as well as during growth and puberty ¹⁸. In-

¹ Escola Nacional de Saúde Pública Sergio Arouca, Fundação Oswaldo Cruz, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Correspondence

W. Waissmann
Centro de Estudos da Saúde do Trabalhador e Ecologia Humana, Escola Nacional de Saúde Pública Sergio Arouca, Fundação Oswaldo Cruz, Rua Leopoldo Bulhões 1480, Rio de Janeiro, RJ 21041-210, Brasil.
waissman@ensp.fiocruz.br

terference in sex hormone function during these phases can thus have repercussions throughout adult life.

It is undeniable that good quality semen is essential for reproductive success. This quality appears to have been directly affected in recent years, and evidently there are now unfavorable trends in male reproductive health¹⁹.

For example, Carlsen²⁰ demonstrated a 45% drop in human sperm count, from an average of 113 million per ml of semen in 1940 to 66 million in 1990, potentially jeopardizing male fertility^{7,21}.

Since the 1970s various authors have reaffirmed the possible significant drop in sperm quality and consequently an increase in male infertility rates^{13,22}. The actual causes of increased infertility remain controversial^{13,14,16,23}, but research suggests that many substances to which men are exposed and that can affect their fertility may be work-related^{24,25,26}.

The international technological shift in industrial and agricultural development in the 20th century involved handling and exposure to various substances that are harmful to humans, some of which affecting the male reproductive system, such as pesticides, metals, estrogen-like substances, chlorinated compounds, etc.^{3,13,16,27}.

This raises the hypothesis that the effects of these substances on the male reproductive organs may shed light on numerous issues related to the increase in male infertility.

Some 6% of reproductive-age men present male infertility. The most frequent causes, accounting for 90% of the total, are associated with spermatogenesis. The other causes are related to alterations in sperm transport and accessory glands in the male genital tract (6%), erectile disorders (2%), ejaculatory disorders (1%), and functional alterations in the sperm and coitus (1%)²⁸. There may be absence of sperm (azoospermia), a decrease in the number (oligozoospermia), alteration in form (teratozoospermia), in the motile capacity (astenozoospermia), or in the vitality (necrospermia)^{29,30}.

Exposure to endocrine disruptors can modify hormone metabolism by altering the synthesis and/or breakdown of testosterone, FSH, LH, or other hormones. Most steroid metabolism occurs in the liver, the main target for some exogenous toxic substances³¹.

Methods

The current study reviewed the specialized literature for substances that can act as endocrine disruptors and lead to male infertility through occupational exposure.

The research consisted of a bibliographic survey and data collection in books and articles in journals or periodicals. The material collected for the study was limited to that published in the Portuguese, English, and Spanish languages, based on the review of the domestic and international literature through books, articles in indexed periodicals and websites. Due to the scarcity of material published in this area, we did not adopt any restriction on the time period researched.

The descriptors researched in English were the following, in addition to their Portuguese and Spanish equivalents: infertility, male infertility, azoospermia, endocrine disruptors, environmental contaminants, infertility versus occupational, effects of occupational exposure, male reproductive system, gonads, reproduction and human development, male gonadal hormone control, chronic effects of pesticides, heavy metals, and others, toxicology, male infertility, and occupational exposure to endocrine disruptors.

Male infertility and occupational exposure to endocrine disruptors

External causes include factors that are exogenous to the body, and exposure to them can occur consciously, for example in alcohol consumption or smoking, or unconsciously or accidentally as with infections or occupational or environmental contamination²⁸.

The numerous external causes of infertility include exposure to work-related substances; contact with toxic substances like pesticides, or exposure to extremely hot areas such as blast furnace operations^{3,13,30,31,32}.

Chia & Tay³³ assessed a total of 640 men who were incapable of conceiving with their wives, asking about the men's exposure to agents known to affect spermatogenesis, such as alcohol consumption, smoking, and stress. They evaluated total semen concentration, density, motility, viability, and morphology. Smoking proved to be a significant risk factor and exposure to electromagnetic fields and high stress levels may have contributed to this increased risk of infertility in occupations with these characteristics, although the factors require further in-depth study and validation of the hypothesis.

There was a significant increase in the incidence of testicular cancer in the 20th century, which could be correlated with the increase in male infertility. There has also been an increase in the incidence of prostate cancer³⁴. A signifi-

cant difference is that testicular cancer occurs in young, reproductive-age men, while prostate cancer occurs mainly in elderly men, so that the latter increase is explained mainly by the increase in the population's mean age.

Several studies have correlated the increase in testicular cancer with exposure to certain substances³⁵. As important as the chemical agent is the duration of exposure to the inductive agent³².

In recent decades, the increasing incidence of testicular cancer has been associated with exposure to endocrine disruptors like pesticides and industrial residues^{36,37}.

Sheiner et al.³⁸ investigated the influence of work conditions (such as exposure to toxic substances) on reproduction. The study concluded that industrial and construction workers present an increased infertility rate as compared to other professions, due mainly to greater exposure to stress. Workers in these sectors smoked more and were more exposed to noise and physical effort as compared to other professions. These workers presented sperm abnormalities, hormonal alterations, varicocele, and/or cryptorchidism.

Among the many external causes of infertility are exposure to substances related to occupation, such as pesticides, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), dioxins and furans, ethanol, phenols, phthalates, and metals like cadmium, lead, mercury etc.^{7,10,36} and adverse work situations (exposure to hot areas like blast furnace operations etc.)^{13,28,29,32}.

Cadmium

Some toxic substances act on the testes, causing problems in spermatogenesis and spermiogenesis. One example is cadmium³⁹.

Industrial cadmium exposure is extremely relevant, affecting more than 1,500,000 workers a year in the United States alone⁴⁰. Cadmium is used in pesticides, batteries, rubber processing, production of pigments, and galvanizing⁴¹. It is also bioaccumulative and persistent in the environment (with a half-life of 10-30 years)¹⁴.

Cadmium can directly injure the testes. A testicular toxin and various derived compounds were shown to induce severe damage to the spermatogenic epithelium in an animal model³⁹. The effect of cadmium on the testes appears to be manifested mainly in the Sertoli cells, which present more morphological changes under scanning electron microscopy. Cadmium can also interfere with the normal functions of mitochondrial enzymes²⁸.

Testicular lesion from cadmium is primarily vascular, and the vascular damage determines the degree of lesion in the germ cells and Leydig cells. This lesion can generate Leydig cell tumors, tubular degeneration (in high-dose exposure), and atrophy⁴², in addition to inducing tissue necrosis and deficient androgen production^{42,43}.

In chronic exposures to lower doses, the greater availability of metallothionein, bound to cadmium, means that the testicular lesion is less aggressive as compared to cases of acute intoxication⁴⁴.

In a study by the World Health Organization (WHO) on the effects of lead and cadmium in the blood of adult men, the overall results indicate that even low-level exposure to lead (400µg/l) and cadmium (10µg/l) can significantly reduce the quality of semen, although the study did not show conclusive evidence of male endocrine reproductive alterations^{45,46,47,48}.

Lead

Reproductive dysfunction has been described in men exposed to lead at the workplace, including oligozoospermia and dose-dependent astenozoospermia^{48,49,50}.

Blood and semen samples were analyzed from battery factory workers, showing an inverse association between plasma lead levels and sperm volume and concentration.

Significant correlations were observed between lead, dehydratase, and protoporphyrin levels and reproductive parameters, indicating a decrease in sperm density and motility and viability counts and an increase in abnormal sperm head morphology⁴⁵.

Other authors have also reported a reduction in spermatogenesis among battery workers as one of the findings in symptomatic lead poisoning^{51,52,53,54}.

The 1950s witnessed a reduction in gonadotropin secretion among individuals exposed to lead, while moderate exposure only led to higher FSH levels⁵⁵.

Studies on workers in lead foundry workers showed hypogonadism and decreased serum testosterone, with a reproductive and endocrine impact, especially in the hypothalamic-pituitary-testicular axis, associated with occupational exposure to inorganic lead^{54,56}.

Another lead foundry study evaluated exposure and damage over time. The study demonstrated a non-progressive increase in LH in individuals exposed for less than one year, while those exposed for more than three years showed a reduction in both testosterone and the testos-

terone/steroid transport protein ratio, suggesting a correlation between testicular dysfunction and duration of exposure ⁵⁸.

Studies in rodents have also demonstrated both a direct effect of lead on the testes and interference in the hypothalamic-pituitary axis ^{59,60}.

Studies in laboratory animals exposed to lead showed lower plasma LH levels after stimulation with GnHR as compared to controls, in addition to decreased inhibin/FSH ratio ⁶¹.

Continuous intrauterine exposure of male rodents also showed harmful effects on male sexual maturity and reduced neonatal sex steroid levels. In addition, exposure during puberty induced a reduction in testosterone concentrations and decreased plasma LH ⁶² in males exposed to high lead levels, thus suggesting secondary effects in relation to the hypothalamic-pituitary effects, with alterations in FSH levels ⁶³.

Lead can reduce the amount of sulfated steroids excreted in the urine and can cause a reduction in testosterone levels and sperm concentration ⁶⁴. In addition to the effects on hormone levels, Assennato et al. ⁵² describe a reduction in sperm concentration by a direct, non-hormonal effect, in sperm production or transport. A direct effect of lead on the testes has also been shown in rodents ^{55,65}.

Animal studies appear to confirm lead's toxic effect on the reproductive system. Excess lead intake can result in decreased sperm production and testicular weight ⁵⁹.

Studies in monkeys chronically exposed to lead showed alterations in Sertoli cell function ^{53,66}.

Lead can alter prostate secretory function ⁴⁶ (concentration of zinc, acid phosphatase, and citric acid in the seminal fluid). Donovan et al. ⁶⁷ showed that in animals lead, like other divalent cations, can inhibit the binding of dihydrotestosterone to specific receptors in the prostate and seminal vesicle.

A study in which men were exposed to lead in the workplace showed that increased levels were associated with decreased libido and an increase in semen abnormalities ⁴⁹. The principal source of lead contamination occurs in workplaces ²⁸.

Mercury

Research on mercury increased after the accident in Japan in 1968, when more was learned about exposure to this metal in rats and humans ⁶⁸.

Mercury can concentrate in the kidneys, cerebellum, and testes. Mercury poisoning leads

to neurological disorders, kidney failure, and infertility ⁶⁸.

Mercury can interfere in spermatogenesis and also affects the epididymis. It can also cause Young syndrome, associated with obstructive lesion of the upper epididymis ⁶⁹.

Copper

Copper can act on FSH receptors, interfering in spermatogenesis ⁵⁷. In animals, the main endocrine alterations are in testosterone, LH ⁷⁰, and FSH secretion ⁷¹.

Pesticides

The main pesticides with effects described on the reproductive system are beta-HCH, carbaryl, chlordane, dicofol, dieldrin, DDT (dichlorodiphenyl-trichloro-ethane) and its metabolites, endosulfan, heptachloro and H-epoxide, lindane (gamma-HCH), malathion, mathomyl, methoxychlor, mirex, oxychlordane, parathion, synthetic pyrethroids, toxaphene, and trans-nonachlor ³⁷.

A recent study by Dalvie ⁷² attempted to elucidate the effects of the pesticide DDT on workers from the province of Limpopo in South Africa. The study hypothesis was that there could be long-term reproductive effects on malaria vector control workers who were regularly exposed to DDT. The study measured sperm count, density, and motility. Normal morphology recording included $2.5 \pm 1.8\%$ of the individuals. Most (84%) of the morphological counts were below the WHO and Tygerberg criteria, with the highest individual recording at 6%, which is precisely on the subfertility line according to the Tygerberg criterion. Persistent problems with sexual function extended to 10-20% of the patients. The most prevalent genital abnormality (71%) was abnormal testicular placement ⁷².

According to several studies, DDT and some organic solvents lead to decreased fertility and altered sperm counts ^{42,73}.

DDT can also delay puberty ^{7,28,42,74,75}. The estrogenic activity of DDT isomers is very weak as compared to estradiol (10^3 - 10^6 less powerful), but the properties of bioaccumulation and long half-life indicate that human exposure levels can cause estrogenic effects under certain circumstances ^{7,76} and act as an androgenic agonist at high doses ^{77,78,79}.

DDE, a metabolite of DDT, has anti-androgenic action and can also jeopardize estrogen metabolism in its synthesis or breakdown and physiological elimination ^{77,78}. According to Je-

quier ²⁸, DDE can suppress the spermatogenic epithelium in humans.

Exposure to the pesticide DBCP (1,2-dibromo-3-chloropropane) in rodents profoundly affected the germ cells and androgen-dependent sexual differentiation (there was a reduction in testicular mass, androgen levels, and size of the hypothalamus) ^{19,75}.

DBCP can reduce sperm production. Exposure to this product can be associated with a reduction in the number of male births ^{3,7,76}. It can reduce the concentration of ejaculated sperm in exposed workers as compared to samples in unexposed men ⁸⁰. Removing workers from the exposure site allows a return to normal values, while those suffering azoospermia remain sterile. Testicular biopsies show that the target of DBCP is the spermatogonium ⁷⁹.

A study on farm workers who handled pesticides showed the action of the latter over a three-year period on testosterone metabolism. A significant increase was observed in FSH, PRL, and testosterone. An immediate effect was the temporary reduction of testosterone levels. There was also a reduction in estradiol levels. An important caveat is that the study involved a small number of workers ⁴².

According to Gray ⁸¹, the pesticide linuron displays anti-androgenic activity. It increases the incidence of testicular tumors in rodents. It can lead to pituitary stimulation, with an increase in LH ⁴².

The pesticide vinclozolin can have anti-androgenic effects. The metabolites of vinclozolin, M1 and M2, but not the substance itself, competitively inhibit the binding of androgens to the androgen receptor in mammals ⁸². Exposure of adult and pubertal rats to the pesticide altered the hypothalamic-pituitary function ⁸³.

Exposed workers in factories producing lindane showed a significant increase in LH, a non-significant increase in FSH, and a slight decrease in testosterone ⁸⁴.

Studies have shown that lindane can accumulate in the testes, damaging the germinal epithelium and the number of spermatids and Sertoli cells in humans ⁸⁴.

The pesticide procimidone binds to the androgen receptor, acting as an antagonist in monkey cells, and in the laboratory it is capable of inhibiting the transcription induced by dihydrotestosterone ⁸¹. In rats it induced hypospadias and smaller accessory glands and reduced the size of various androgen-dependent tissues such as: prostate, seminal vesicle, and glans penis, even when these rodents were exposed to low doses ⁷⁴.

Endosulfan is a xenoestrogen that is capable of increasing prolactin expression and com-

peting with estrogens for the estrogen nuclear receptor ⁸⁴. According to Saiyed et al. ³¹, exposure to endosulfan in boys can delay sexual maturity and interfere with hormone synthesis.

Dioxins

Dioxins are the result of various industrial processes and are considered the most toxic anthropogenic agents. Studies with dioxin in sexually mature laboratory animals showed the effects of exposure to relatively high doses. The animals displayed decreased spermatogenesis, decreased testicular weight, and abnormal testes with reduced fertility ⁸⁵.

A study on sexually mature laboratory animals exposed to high doses of dioxins showed alteration of accessory sex organs ⁸⁵.

Dioxins can affect libido and fertility, causing changes in the sexual behavior of male fish, birds, mammals, and reptiles ^{83,86,87}. Tetrachloro-dibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD) can interfere with libido ⁷³.

A study showed similar effects in animals exposed to dioxin in uterus. This study reported that sperm counts have dropped and alterations in the male reproductive tract have increased since the 1950s ^{14,88}.

TCDD can have an anti-androgenic and anti-estrogenic effect ⁸⁹, inducing a decrease in the testicular response to LH ^{89,90}.

The effects of high exposure to TCDD and "TCDD-like" compounds on important sites for development and reproduction have been recognized for years ⁸⁹. The reproductive system has even been considered the most sensitive "end point" for dioxins ^{83,89}.

PCBs

According to Brouwer et al. ⁸⁵, PCBs can affect not only estrogen levels but also those of androgenic, thyroid, pituitary, corticosteroid, and other hormones.

Some of the analogs or metabolites of PCBs act as endocrine disruptors ⁸⁵. Both estrogenic and anti-estrogenic effects can be induced by these substances ^{91,92}. The levels of some PCB analogs were inversely correlated to sperm motility in semen samples in which the sperm concentration was less than 20 million/ml ⁹².

Boys born to women exposed to PCBs presented penile underdevelopment ^{42,90}. Other studies have described a powerful gonadotoxic action of PCBs, and exposure to these agents induced major testicular alterations ²⁸.

Ethylene dibromide (EDB)

EDB, a substance used to remove lead traces from gasoline⁹³, has testicular and post-testicular effects. A study of workers exposed to this substance indicated an increase in the number of abnormal sperm and decreased sperm concentration⁹⁴. Even short exposure can reduce sperm velocity and semen volume^{31,95}.

Phthalates

Phthalates are substances used in the manufacturing of automobiles, medical supplies, plastics, beverage containers, coating of metal cans etc.⁴². One of the principal forms of exposure is through food, in addition to medical materials and by occupational contact⁹⁶. Phthalates can alter reproductive development regardless of binding to androgen or estrogen receptors. Some phthalate esters inhibit steroidogenesis in Leydig cells, displaying an anti-androgenic effect⁸⁸. Through exposure by food, they can cause testicular atrophy and reduced fertility^{30,74}. In pubertal male rats, phthalates can alter testicular function, producing malformations in androgen-dependent tissues⁷⁴.

Data have demonstrated that perinatal exposure to a variety of phthalate esters alters the development of the male reproductive tract in an anti-androgenic way, causing underdevelopment and agenesis of the epididymis at relatively low doses⁸¹.

Others

Polyvinyl chloride (PVC) in exposed workers is associated with cancer of the testes⁴².

In rats, ethanol can cause a decrease in plasma testosterone and LH levels⁵.

Final remarks

The themes approached in the field of workers' health are important for any country's economic system. The issue of male infertility caused by occupational exposure is pertinent worldwide. Protection of workers against exposure may also allow preventing other alterations and injuries to the human body.

In addition to the reproductive system, endocrine disruptors can interfere in other areas such as the immune and endocrine-metabolic systems and can even cause diseases like cancer. The effects of chronic exposure can interfere in growth, physiology, behavior, and reproduction. Monitoring chronic effects requires sufficient time for the manifestations to occur.

Progress is needed in the knowledge of possible effects of exposure on male fertility. Such progress will allow the development of preventive measure within the field of workers' health. Studies in this field should be encouraged, since they are scarce in light of the almost unlimited range of substances to which workers are potentially exposed.

Resumo

Um significativo aumento da incidência de infertilidade masculina tem sido descrito na literatura mundial, o que gera questionamentos sobre suas causas. Parte deste efeito pode dever-se à ação de substâncias tóxicas sintéticas sobre o sistema endócrino (endocrine disruptors ou interferentes endócrinos), sendo muitas delas utilizadas em processos laborais. Realizou-se revisão crítica da literatura especializada sobre fatores químicos de origem laboral capazes de provocar infertilidade masculina. Entre os principais endocrine disruptors que podem causar infertilidade masculina destacam-se agrotóxicos, como DDT, linuron e outros; metais pesados, como mercúrio, chumbo, cádmio e cobre; além de substâncias de utilidades variadas ou que

correspondem a resíduos de processos industriais, como dioxinas, bifenilas policloradas, dibromoetileno, ftalatos, PVC e etanol. Disfunção gonadal e má formação congênita foram as principais alterações descritas como causadas por estas substâncias sobre o aparelho reprodutor masculino. Conclui-se que, apesar da escassez de estudos sobre o tema, a relevância do risco faz com que estes sejam estimulados, assim como que se tomem medidas preventivas para se evitar a exposição de trabalhadores a substâncias que carreguem tais riscos.

Infertilidade Masculina; Exposição Ocupacional; Sistema Endócrino

Contributors

E. K. R. Queiroz and W. Waissmann participated equally in the design, elaboration, formatting, and revision of the article.

References

- Brown AE. Pesticides and the endocrine system. College Park: Department of Entomology, University of Maryland; 1999. (Pesticide Information Leaflet Series, 34).
- Waissmann W. Health surveillance and endocrine disruptors. *Cad Saúde Pública* 2002; 18:511-7.
- Cox C. Masculinity at risk. *Journal of Pesticide Reform* 1996; 16:2-7.
- Kavlock RJ, Daston GP, DeRosa C, Fenner-Crisp P, Gray LE, Kaattari S, et al. Research needs for the risk assessment of health and environmental effects of endocrine disruptors: a report of the U.S. EPA-sponsored workshop. *Environ Health Perspect* 1996; 104:715-40.
- World Health Organization. World Water Day 2001: pollution from industry, mining and agriculture water, sanitation and health. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2001.
- Lemos H. Poluentes orgânicos persistentes. A intoxicação química do planeta. Rio de Janeiro: Instituto Brasil PNUMA; 2001.
- Santamarta J. Por um futuro sem contaminantes orgânicos persistentes. *Agroecologia e Desenvolvimento Rural Sustentável* 2001; 2:46-56.
- Nelson P. Epidemiology, biology, and endocrine disruptors. *Occup Environ Med* 2003; 60:541-2.
- Pflieger-Bruss S, Schuppe HC, Schill WB. The male reproductive system and its susceptibility to endocrine disrupting chemicals. *Andrologia* 2004; 36:337-45.
- Melnick RL. Introduction – workshop on characterizing the effects of endocrine disruptors on human health at environmental exposure level. *Environ Health Perspect* 1999; 107 Suppl 4:603-4.
- Mocarelli P, Brambilla PM, Gerthoux DG, Patterson N. Change in sex ratio with exposure to dioxin. *Lancet* 1996; 348:409.
- Whitten PL. Effects of a phytoestrogen diet on estrogen-dependent reproductive processes in immature female rats. *Advances of Modern Environmental Toxicology* 1992; 21:311.
- Pasqualotto FF, Locambo CV, Athayde KS, Arap S. Measuring male infertility: epidemiological aspects. *Rev Hosp Clín Fac Med Univ São Paulo* 2003; 58:173-8.
- Swan HS, Elkin EP, Fenster L. Have sperm densities declined? A reanalysis of global trend data. *Environ Health Perspect* 1997; 105:1228-32.
- Swan HS, Elkin EP, Fenster L. The question of declining sperm density revisited: an analysis of 101 studies published 1934-1996. *Environ Health Perspect* 2000; 108:961-6.
- Golden AL, Moline JM, Bar-Chama N. Male reproduction and environmental and occupational exposures: a review of epidemiologic methods. *Salud Pública Méx* 1999; 41:93-105.
- Auger J, Kunstmann JM, Czyglik E, Jouanet P. Decline in semen quality among fertile men in Paris during the past 20 years. *N Engl J Med* 1995; 332:281-5.
- Jensen TK, Vierula M, Hjollund NH, Saaranen M, Scheike T, Saarikoski S, et al. Semen quality among Danish and Finnish men attempting to conceive. The Danish First Pregnancy Planner Study Team. *Eur J Endocrinol* 2000; 142:47-52.
- Guillette Jr. LJ, Crain DA. Environmental endocrine disruptors: an evolutionary perspective. New York: Taylor & Francis; 2000.
- Carlsen E, Giwercmen A, Keiding N, Skakkebaek N. Evidence for decreasing quality of semen during past 50 years. *BMJ* 1992; 305:609-13.
- Skakkebaek NE, Raipert-De Meyts E, Main KM. Testicular dysgenesis syndrome: an increasingly common developmental disorder with environmental aspects. *Hum Reprod* 2001; 16:972-8.
- Nelson C, Bunge R. Semen analysis: evidence for changing parameters of male fertility potential. *Fertil Steril* 1974; 25:503-7.
- Multigner L, Oliva A. Secular variations in sperm quality: fact or science fiction? *Cad Saúde Pública* 2002; 18:403-12.
- De Los Rios P, Manini N, Tosatti E. Dynamical Jahn-Teller effect and Berry phase in positively charged fullerenes: basic considerations. *Phys Rev B Condens Matter* 1996; 154:7157-67.
- Lerda D, Rezzi R. Study of reproductive function in persons occupationally exposed to 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D). *Mutat Res* 1991; 262:47-50.
- Petrelli G, Musti M, Figa-Talamanca I. Exposure to pesticides in greenhouses and male fertility. *G Ital Med Lav Ergon* 2000; 22:291-5.
- Cooper RL, Kavlock RJ. Endocrine disruptors and reproductive development: a weight-of-evidence overview. *J Endocrinol* 1997; 152:159-66.
- Jequier AM. Male infertility – a guide for the clinician. Oxford: Blackwell Science; 2002.
- Bigazzi PE. Immunology of the male reproductive system. New York: Marcel Dekker; 1987.
- Kazantzis G, Lam TH, Sullivan KR. The mortality of cadmium-exposed workers: a five-year update. *Scand J Work Environ Health* 1988; 14:220-3.
- Saiyed H, Dewan A, Bhatnagar V, Shenoy U, Shenoy R, Rajmohan H, et al. Effect of endosulfan on

- male reproductive development. *Environ Health Perspect* 2003; 111:1958-62.
32. Joffe M. Are problems with male reproductive health caused by endocrine disruption? *Occup Environ Med* 2001; 58:281.
 33. Chia SE, Tay SK. Occupational risk for male infertility: a case-control study of 218 infertile and 227 fertile men. *J Occup Environ Med* 2001; 43:946-51.
 34. Waalkes MP, Rehm S, Sass B, Kovatc R, Ward JM. Chronic carcinogenesis and toxic effects of a single subcutaneous dose of cadmium in male NFS and C57 mice and male Syrian hamsters. *Toxic Subst J* 1994; 13:15-28.
 35. Swan SH, vom Saal S. Alterations in male reproductive development: the role of endocrine disrupting chemicals. In: Metzler M, editor. *The handbook of environmental chemistry. v. 3M: endocrine disruptors*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag; 2002. p. 131-70.
 36. Eertmans F, Dhooge WM, Stuyvaert S, Comhaire F. Endocrine disruptors: effects on male fertility and screening tools for their assessment. *Toxicol In Vitro* 2003; 17:515-24.
 37. Carman NJ. Endocrine-disrupting chemicals. http://www.ghasp.org/publications/toxics_report/edc.htm (accessed in Feb/2005).
 38. Sheiner E, Hadar A, Shoham-Vardi I, Hallak M, Katz M, Mazor M. The effect of meconium on perinatal outcome: a prospective analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2002; 11:54-9.
 39. Boscolo P, Sacchettoni-Logroscino G, Ranelletti FO, Gioia A, Carmignani M. Effects of long-term cadmium exposure on the testis of rabbits: ultrastructural study. *Toxicol Lett* 1985; 24:145-9.
 40. Ragan HA, Mast TJ. Cadmium inhalation and male reproductive toxicity. *Rev Environ Contam Toxicol* 1990; 114:1-22.
 41. Kidambi SS, Lee DK, Ramamoorthy A. Interaction of Cd and Zn with biologically important ligands characterized using solid-state NMR and ab initio calculations. *Inorg Chem* 2003; 42:3142-51.
 42. Weissmann W. Endocrinopatologia associada ao trabalho. In: Mendes R, organizador. *Patologia do trabalho*. São Paulo: Editora Atheneu; 2003. p. 1093-138.
 43. Waalkes MP, Anver M, Diwan BA. Carcinogenic effects of cadmium in the noble (NBL/Cr) rat: induction of pituitary, testicular, and injection site tumors and intraepithelial proliferative lesions of the dorsolateral prostate. *Toxicol Sci* 1999; 52:154-61.
 44. Favino A. Studio della funzione andrógena di uomini esposti al cadmio. *Med Lav* 1968; 59:105-9.
 45. Telisman S, Cvitkovic P, Jurasovic J, Pizent A, Gavella M, Rocic B. Semen quality and reproductive endocrine function in relation to biomarkers of lead, cadmium, zinc, and copper in men. *Environ Health Perspect* 2000; 108:45-53.
 46. Alloway BJ. *Heavy metals in soils*. New York: John Wiley Inc.; 1990.
 47. U.S. Public Health Services. *Toxicological profile for cadmium on CD-ROM*. Atlanta: Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry/U.S. Public Health Services; 1997.
 48. Hamilton A, Hardy IL. *Industrial toxicology*. 2nd Ed. New York: Paul B. Hoeber; 1949.
 49. Lancranjam I. Reproductive ability of workmen occupationally exposed to lead. *Arch Environ Health* 1975; 30:396-401.
 50. Rom WN. Effects of lead on the female and reproduction: a review. *Mt Sinai J Med* 1976; 43:542-52.
 51. Rachootin P, Olsen J. The risk of infertility and delayed conception associated with exposures in the Danish workplace. *J Occup Med* 1983; 25:394-402.
 52. Assennato G, Paci C, Baser ME, Molinini R, Candela RG, Altamura BM, Giorgino R. Sperm count suppression without endocrine dysfunction in lead-exposed men. *Arch Environ Health* 1987; 42:124-7.
 53. McGregor AJ, Mason HJ. Chronic occupational lead exposure and testicular endocrine function. *Human Exp Toxicol* 1990; 9:371-6.
 54. Cullen MR, Kayne RD, Robins JM. Endocrine and reproductive dysfunction in men associated with occupational inorganic lead intoxication. *Arch Environ Health* 1984; 39:431-40.
 55. Raule A, Morra G. Prime ricerche sulla funzionalità gonadotropica preipofisaria negli intossicati da piombo. *Med Lav* 1952; 43:262-5.
 56. Cullen MR, Robins JM, Eskenazi B. Adult organic lead intoxication: presentation of 31 new cases and review of the recent advances in literature. *Medicine* 1983; 62:221-47.
 57. Weibe JP, Salhanick AI, Myers KI. On the mechanism of action of lead in the testis: in vitro suppression of FSH receptors, cyclic AMP and steroidogenesis. *Life Sci* 1983; 32:1997-2005.
 58. Rodamilans M, Osaba MJ, To-Figueras J, Rivera Fillat F, Marques JM, Perez P, et al. Lead toxicity on endocrine testicular function in an occupationally exposed population. *Hum Toxicol* 1988; 7:125-8.
 59. Saxena DK. Lead induced testicular changes in protein malnourished rats. *Folia Histochem Cytobiol* 1989; 1:57-62.
 60. Eyden BP, Maisin JR, Mattelin G. Long-term effects of dietary lead acetate on survival, body weight and seminal cytology in mice. *Bull Environ Contam Toxicol* 1978; 19:266-72.
 61. Foster WG. Reproductive endocrine effects of chronic lead exposure in the male cynomolgus monkey. *Reprod Toxicol* 1993; 7:203-9.
 62. Camoratto AM. Inhibition of rat pituitary growth hormone release by subclinical levels of lead. *Toxicologist* 1990; 10:641.
 63. Petrusk P. Lead poisoning and reproduction: effects on pituitary and serum gonadotropins in neonatal rats. *Environ Res* 1979; 19:383-91.
 64. Apostoli PL, Romeo E, Peroni A, Ferioli S, Ferrari F, Pasini FA. Steroid hormone sulphation in lead workers. *Br J Ind Med* 1989; 46:204-8.
 65. Murthy RC. Lead induced ultrastructural changes in the testis of rats. *Exp Pathol* 1991; 42:95-100.
 66. Gustafson A. Occupational lead exposure and pituitary function. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health* 1989; 61:277-81.
 67. Donovan MP, Schein LG, Thomas JA. Inhibition of androgen-receptor interaction in mouse prostate gland cytosol by divalent metal ions. *Mol Pharmacol* 1980; 17:156-62.
 68. Eto K, Yasutake A, Miyamoto K, Tokunaga H, Otsuka Y. Chronic effects of methylmercury in rats.

- II. Pathological aspects. *Tohoku J Exp Med* 1997; 182:197-205.
69. Hendry WF, A'Hern RP, Cole PJ. Was young's syndrome caused by exposure to mercury in childhood? *BMJ* 1993; 307:1579-82.
 70. Thoreux-Manley A, Velez de la Calle JE, Olivier ME, Soufir JC, Masse R, Pinon-Lataillade G. Impairment of testicular endocrine function after lead intoxication in the adult rat. *Toxicology* 1995; 100:101-9.
 71. Sokol RZ, Madding CE, Swerdloff RS. Lead toxicity and the hypothalamic-pituitary-testicular axis. *Biol Reprod* 1985; 33:722-8.
 72. Dalvie MA, Myers JE, Thompson ML, Robins TG, Omar S, Riebow J. Exploration of different methods for measuring DDT exposure among malaria vector-control workers in Limpopo Province, South Africa. *Environ Res* 2004; 96:20-7.
 73. Hakin LS, Oates RD. Non-surgical treatment of male infertility: specific therapy. In: Lipshultz LI, Howards SS, editors. *Infertility in the male*. St. Louis: Mosby Year Book; 1997. p. 395-402.
 74. Metzler M, editor. *The handbook of environmental chemistry*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag; 2002.
 75. Moreira JC, Wolff M. Dietary and reproductive determinants of plasma organochlorine levels in pregnant women in Rio de Janeiro. *Environ Res* 2003; 91:143-50.
 76. Gray Jr. LE, Kelce WR. Latent effects of pesticides and toxic substances on sexual differentiation of rodents. *Toxicol Ind Health* 1996; 12:515-31.
 77. Toppari J. Male reproductive health and environmental xenoestrogens. *Environ Health Perspect* 1996; 104:741-803.
 78. Kelce WR. The persistent DDT metabolite p,p'-DDE is a potent androgen receptor antagonist. *Nature* 1995; 375:581-5.
 79. Potashnik G, Abeliovich D. Chromosomal analysis and health status of children conceived to men during or following dibromochloropropane-induced spermatogenic suppression. *Andrologia* 1985; 17:291-6.
 80. Whorton DRM, Krauss SM, Milby TH. Infertility in male pesticide workers. *Lancet* 1977; 2:1259-60.
 81. Gray JR. Prostate cancer risk groups and comparisons: fruitless or fruitful? *J Clin Oncol* 2002; 20:4129-30.
 82. Holden H. Further mortality studies on works exposed to cadmium fumes. In: *Seminar on Occupational Exposure to Cadmium*. London: Cadmium Association; 1980. p. 23-4.
 83. Assunção JV, Pesquero CR. Dioxinas e furanos: origens e riscos. *Rev Saúde Pública* 1999; 33:523-30.
 84. Tomezak S, Baumann K, Lehnert G. Occupational exposure to hexachlorocyclohexane. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health* 1981; 48:283-7.
 85. Brouwer A, Longnecker MP, Birnbaum LS, Cogliano J, Kostyniak P, Moore J, et al. Characterization of potential endocrine-related health effects at low-dose levels of exposure to PCBs. *Environ Health Perspect* 1999; 107:639-49.
 86. Ribeiro G. Os pesticidas como disruptores endócrinos nos peixes. <http://www.fmv.utl.pt/stf/sem0001/G04.htm> (accessed on Feb/2003).
 87. Giwercman A, Carlsen E, Keiding N, Skakkebaek NE. Evidence for increasing incidence of abnormalities of the human testis: a review. *Environ Health Perspect* 1993; 101:65-71.
 88. Mantovani A. Problems in testing and risk assessment of endocrine disrupting chemicals with regard to developmental toxicology. *Chemosphere* 1999; 39:1293-300.
 89. Eskenazi B, Kimmel G. Workshop on perinatal exposure to dioxin-like compounds. II. Reproductive effects. *Environ Health Perspect* 1995; 103:143-5.
 90. Bush B, Lambert G, Tarbell A. Polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) and dichlorodiphenyl dichloroethylene (DDE) exposure among Native American men from contaminated Great Lakes fish and wildlife. *Toxicol Ind Health* 1996; 12:361-8.
 91. Goldstein EG. Procedimentos para utilização de testes de toxicidade no controle de efluentes líquidos. São Paulo: Companhia de Tecnologia de Saneamento Ambiental; 1990.
 92. Li LA, Wang PW, Chang LW. Polychlorinated biphenyl 126 stimulates basal and inducible aldosterone biosynthesis of human adrenocortical H295R cells. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* 2004; 195:92-102.
 93. Alexeeff GV, Kilgore WW, Li MY. Ethylene dibromide: toxicology and risk assessment. *Rev Environ Contam Toxicol* 1990; 112:49-122.
 94. Ratcliffe JM, Schrader SMK, Steenland DE, Clapp T, Turner RW. Semen quality in papaya workers with long term exposure to ethylene dibromide. *Br J Ind Med* 1987; 44:317-26.
 95. Schrader SM, Turner TW, Ratcliffe JM. The effects of ethylene dibromide on semen quality: a comparison of short term and chronic exposure. *Reprod Toxicol* 1988; 2:191-8.
 96. Wams TJ. Diethylhexylphthalate as an environmental contaminant: a review. *Sci Total Environ* 1987; 66:1-16.

Submitted on 12/May/2005

Final version resubmitted on 19/Aug/2005

Approved on 02/Sep/2005