



# Notre métier, rendre le vôtre plus sûr

## Endocrine disruptors and epidemiological evidences : methodological challenges

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- . Concerning occupational health*
- . Examples from reproductive system*

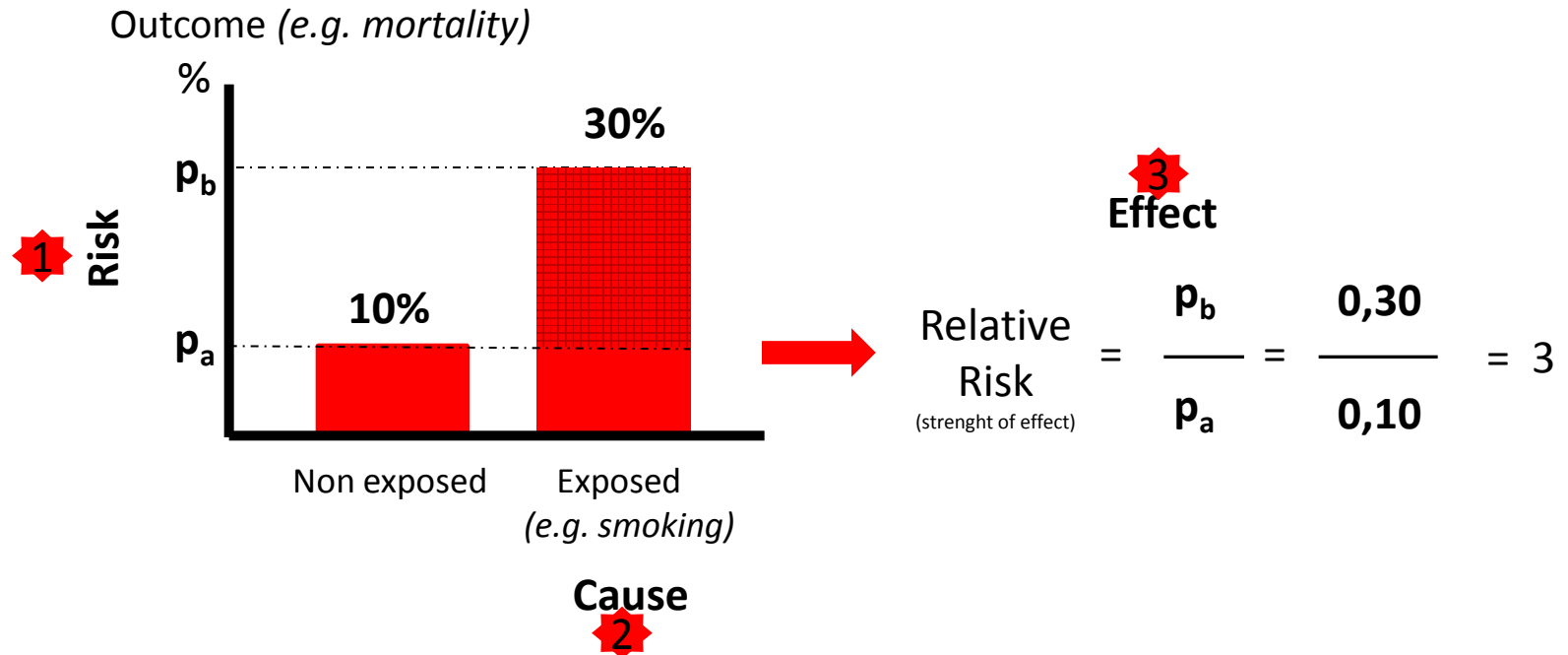
Institut national de recherche et de sécurité  
pour la prévention des accidents du travail et des maladies professionnelles

# Introduction (1)

- Generally, an essential part of the evidence in establishing causality between a risk factor and a disease -> case-control or cohort studies
- All human observational studies have limitations
- But, studies of EDs have specific complications compared to studies
- Objective: to present some key issues about EDs which should be considered to design epidemiological studies

# Introduction (2)

## Causal epidemiological concepts : Risk – Cause - effect



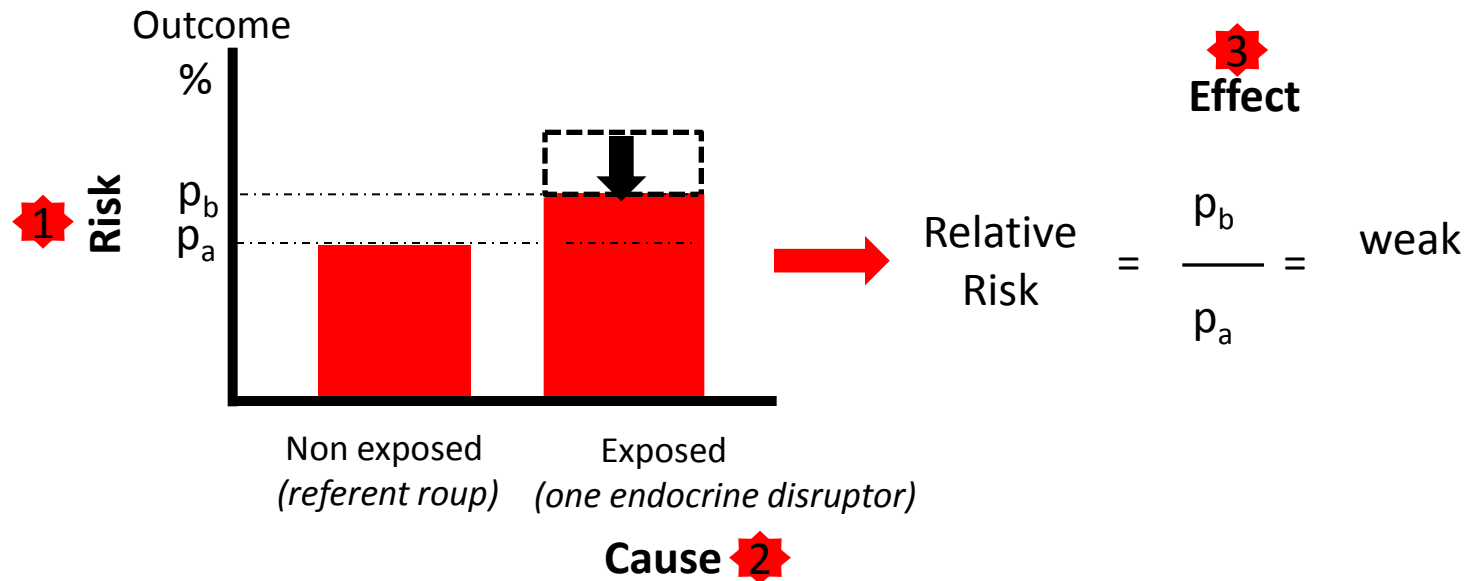
The demonstration of the effect of a cause by comparing groups is a key principle of the causal epidemiology.

# Hormones are active at extremely low doses

- Physiological levels of the endogenous hormones are extremely low : 10-900 pg/ml for oestradiol; 300-10,000 pg/ml for testosterone; 8-24 pg/ml for T4 <sup>[Vandenberg 2012]</sup>
- Hormones have a strong affinity for their receptor
- A near-maximum biological response can be observed at low concentration without a high rate of receptor occupancy (0.1-10% of total receptors)
- Physiologically, all contribute to what natural hormones are active at extremely low doses

# Expected weak effects

- **Difficulty** : EDs using physiological mechanism, effect sizes are expected to be weak to moderate in observational studies



- When RR is weak (from 1 to 1,5) → difficulty to argue a causality relationship (sampling fluctuation, problems of biases, ... )
- Epidemiologist can : - ↑ size of studies (statistical power); multicenter studies  
ex: case-control study → RR=1,5 and exposition 10% => n=900 x 2  
exposition 5% => n=1700 x 2

# Expected weak effects



weak RR in large population exposed at risk  
→ numerous cases

**Example:** estimation of number of cases (low birth weight) according to the frequency of exposition at least one ED in pregnant women at work

RR	% Exposition	Number of Birth in working population 2010 (France)	Number of birth (<2500 g) (6,4 %)	Number of cases* due to exposure
1,25 <sup>5</sup>	11 <sup>5</sup>			1000
1,25	30	600 000	40 000	2800
1,25	50			4500
1,25	70			6000

<sup>5</sup> From Birks L et al, occupational exposure to endocrine-disrupting chemicals and birth weight and length of gestation: a European meta-analysis. EHP 2016

\* calculated with attributable fractions from Levin's method

# Low-dose hypothesis

- **Low dose -> operational definition** [Vandenberg 2012] :
  - doses that are in the range of human exposure
  - or/and doses below those traditionally tested in toxicological studies  
(NOAEL / LOAEL)
- **From this definition :**
  - for PEs -> from micro- to milligram/kg
  - for some PEs ->in the nanogram /kg (e.g. dioxin-like)
  - traditional approaches rather > at milligram/kg
- **From animal studies:** e.g. Vom Saal and Welshons et al, 2006
  - examined the low-dose BPA literature
  - ≈ 100 studies -> significant effects < 50 mg/kg/d (LOAEL)
  - ≈ 40 studies -> adverse effects < 50µg/kg/day

# Low-dose hypothesis

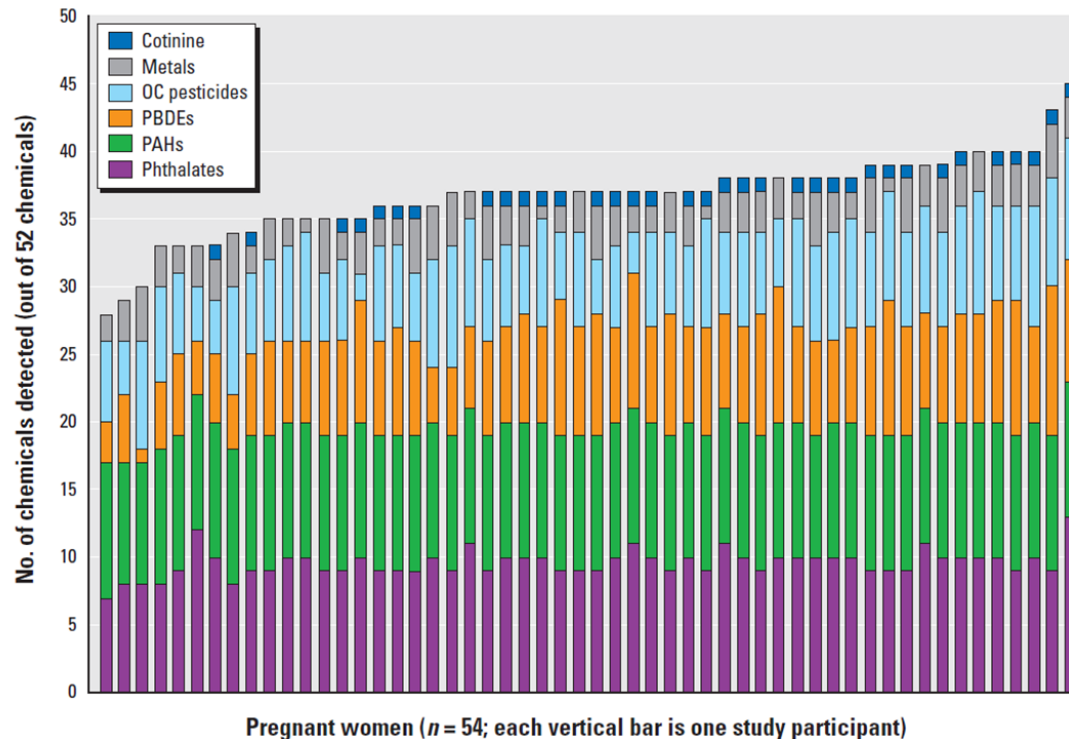
## ■ Therefore : → need of accurate exposure assessment

- To limit misclassification errors : non differential → ↓ RR  
(questionnaire, self-reported, job exposure matrix...)
- Rather quantitative approach of exposure
- Often several routes (skin, inhaled, ingested) → internal dose
- Dosage biologique ED or metabolites in biological matrice like blood, urine, other tissue ...
  - . when half-life is long (POPs) may provide a reasonable exposure marker
  - . But **difficulty with short half-life +++** (like BPA, phtalate, alkylphenol, UV filter ...)
    - variability the day and across days / low reproducibility
    - difficult to estimate an internal dose that reflcts interest exposure for given period and/or long term exposure
    - often need several samples



# Environmental background noise

- Exposure occurs through the diet, personal care products (cosmetic, perfumes, lotions, and shampoos), detergents, PVC products, medicine...

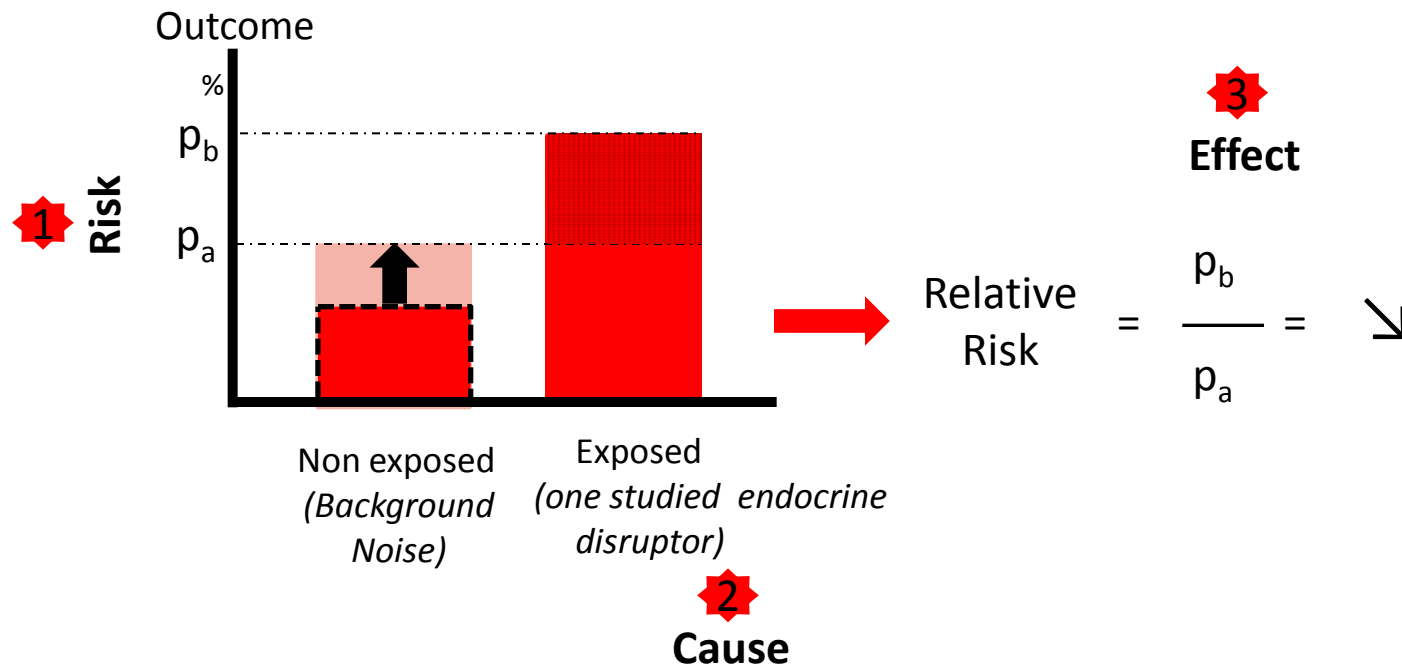


**Figure 3.** Number of chemicals detected by chemical class in U.S. pregnant women, NHANES subsample B [metals, cotinine, organochlorine (OC) pesticides, phthalates, brominated flame retardants (PBDEs), and PAHs], 2003–2004 ( $n = 54$ ). Each vertical bar represents one study participant. Other subsamples showed similar results.

[Source : Woodruff TJ et al, 2011]

# Environmental background noise

- **Difficulty** → detect a signal from the background noise for a study in the workplace :



- Problem +++ : often impossible to find unexposed control [Lee 2016]

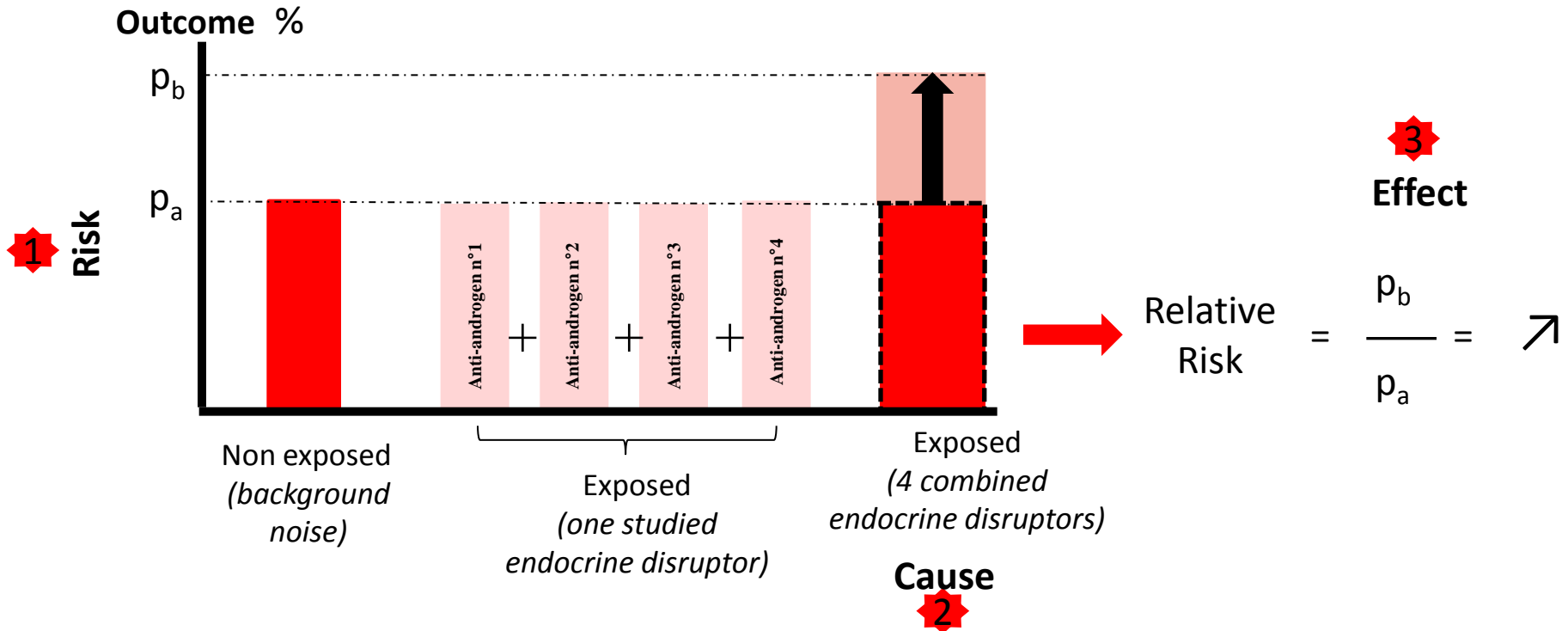
# Mixture effects

## ■ Issues of mixture → in exposed group

- In general, epidemiological studies has focused on individual chemicals
- But EDs -> combinaison effects (experimental evidence) -> Act through a common mechanism -> additive or synergic effects

[Kortenkamp 2008]

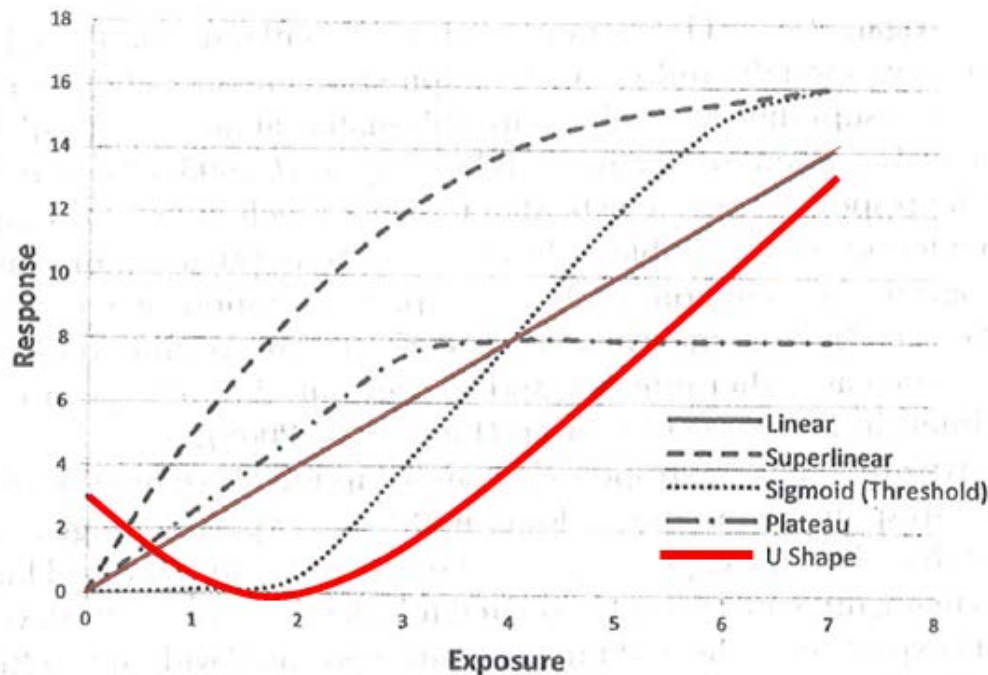
[Haas 2007, Silva 2002, Rajapakse 2002]



- For example -> sector of hairdressers and cosmetologists
- Developed better tools for the investigation of cumulative exposed

# Non monotonicity

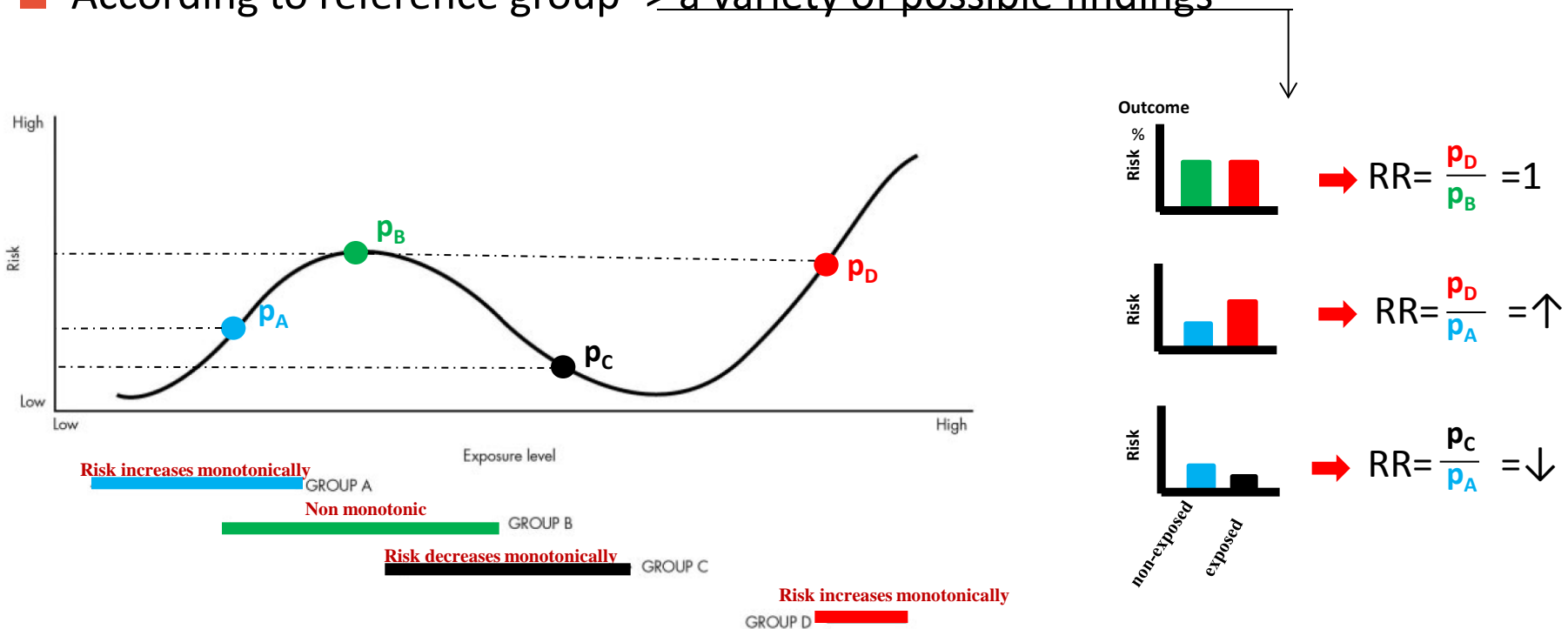
- A dose-response curve is nonmonotonic when the slope of the curve changes sign within the range of doses examined



Examples of different exposure-response curves [Christensen 2015]

# Low-dose and nonmonotonicity

- In observational epidemiology -> exposure distribution are given
- In different populations -> will have different ranges of exposure
- According to reference group -> a variety of possible findings



Source: Kortenkamp A *et al*, 2008

Importance of study size +++ -> the ability to detect NMDRCs, particularly in the low-dose range

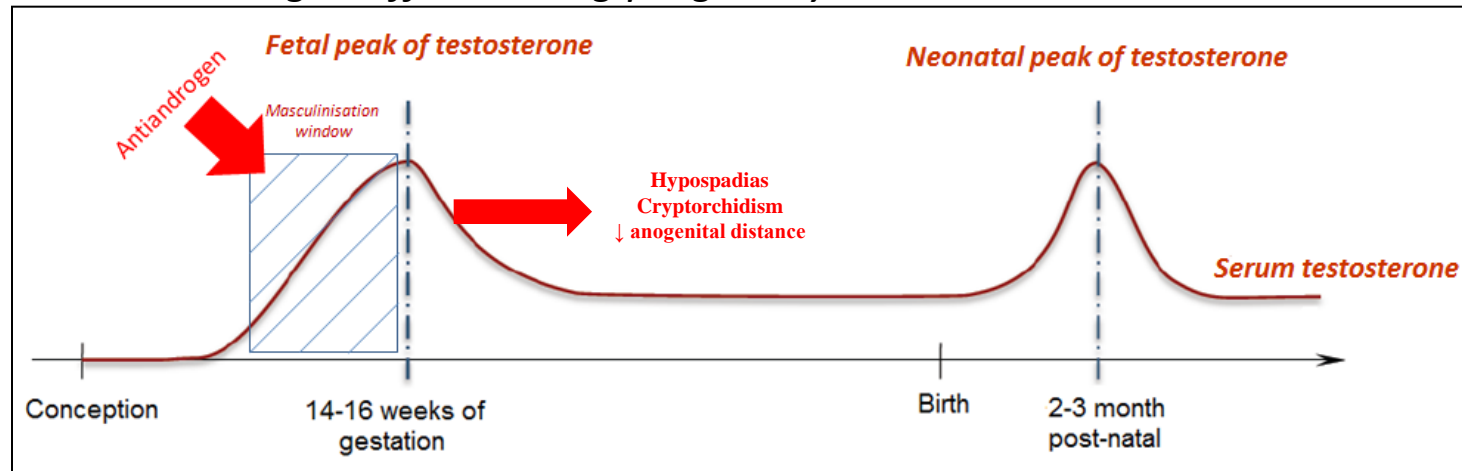
## ■ Timing of exposure

- EDs can act at all times during life (fetus, infancy, puberty, adulthood, old age ...)
- But the timing of ED action often determines the strength of their impact
- At least two perspectives :
  - 1- developmental effects
  - 2- disturbance of homeostasis

# Windows of susceptibility

- **1 - Developing organisms** are extremely sensitive to EDs -> occur at concentrations of the chemical that are far below levels that in the adult
  - During this period → possible direct effects (but as well as impacts much later in life)

ex: *anti-androgen effect during pregnancy*



*Variation in serum testosterone levels during fetal and neonatal period* [O'Shaughnessy PJ et al 2011]

- Difficulties → to have accurate assessment of exposure during critical period (from example above -> during first trimester)  
→ need cohorte starting from pregnancy

- **2 - Disturbance of homeostasis »**

- The endocrine system plays an important role in the physiological response to environmental changes
- **Disturbance of homeostasis** is not necessarily harmful → may or may not result in « adverse effects » → adaptative responses
- But the response last as long as the PE is present
- The concern is the impact of chronic exposure → change over the long term into adverse effects ?
- Need for studies: → **first** : to confirm impact on intermediate biomarker,  
→ **second** : long term follow-up with health outcomes is necessary



# Confounding factors

- Uncontrolled confounding is a major threat to validity in ED research

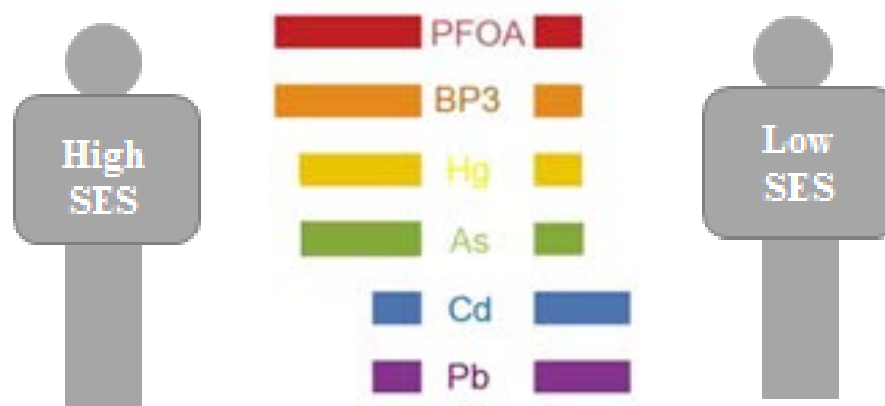


- To fully explain an association between E and D, the confounders must be moderately to strongly correlated with E or D) [Christensen 2015]
- But also, the distribution of the confounder must be very different between the exposed group and unexposed group to substantially change the effect estimate
- These conditions are rarely found : [Christensen 2015]
  - e.g. for studies of occupational exposures and lung cancer risks the adjustment for tobacco => impact on the RRs was rather moderate →  $\approx \downarrow 0,3$
  - **researchers concluded : if  $RR > 1,5$  or higher then RR unlikely to be entirely explained by uncontrolled confounding**

# Confounding factors

## ■ Concerns about compared groups (*exposed, unexposed*)

- Exposure to EDs vary according to age, sexe, ethnic group, socioeconomicstatus, lifestyle ...
- e.g. study from USA to investigate the association between 179 toxicants and the poverty income ratio (PIR) → PIR was associated with 18 chemicals [Tyrrell 2013]



- Important to account for potential differences in these factors between groups to compare (exposed, unexposed)

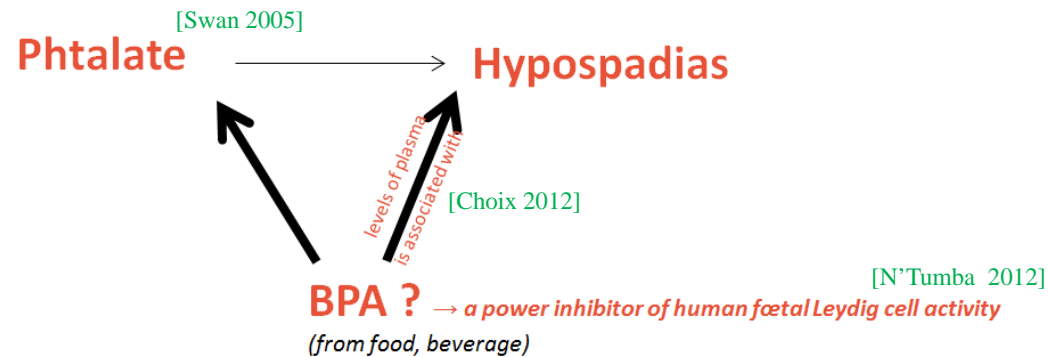
## ■ Concerns about co-exposures :

- co-exposures with moderate correlation → as potential confounders

- can be isolated statistically  
(*multi-variable regression, factor analysis ...*)

- If highly correlated ( $\rho > 0,8$ ) may be difficult to analytically disentangle individual exposure effects

- In this situation, confounding may be difficult to address with statistical analysis for a given study



# Conclusion

- Given this complexity, the evidence among epidemiology studies in humans is often inconsistent
  
- But there are :
  - many uncertainties surrounding the effects of EDs on human health
  - many limitations of extrapolation from in-vitro and in-vivo experimental findings to the human situation
  
- Despite methodological challenges, the conduct of epidemiological studies remains an essential component of the evaluation of possible human effects of EDs
  
- Key methodological issues must be known to develop new studies and raise the level of scientific evidence (new concepts ? new tools ? ...)



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