

Research Article

Effects of Early Endocrine Disruptor Exposures (Faulty Hormonal Imprinting) on Immunity

Csaba G*

Department of Genetics, Cell- and Immunobiology, Semmelweis University, Hungary

***Corresponding author:** G. Csaba, Department of Genetics, Cell- and Immunobiology, Semmelweis University, Budapest, Hungary**Received:** August 09, 2018; **Accepted:** September 17, 2018; **Published:** September 24, 2018**Abstract**

Endocrine disruptors are (mainly steroid-) hormone-like molecules, which binding to the hormone receptors disturb the endocrine functions, causing troubles (diseases) in human adults. Perinatally (in fetal, neonatal, and early postnatal period), the developing immune system is touched by them, causing faulty hormonal imprinting, consequently late and life-long failures of immunity. In addition to the perinatal period there are other critical periods, as weaning and adolescence, in which faulty immune-imprinting can be provoked and this are also taking place in continuously dividing and differentiating cells during the whole life however, the perinatal period has the determining role. The physiological hormonal imprinting is specific however, the faulty imprinting can be overlapping to not related hormones. Stressors can execute faulty imprinting-like effects by mobilizing stress hormones. The broad spectrum of faulty imprinting causing factors (endocrine disruptors) makes unavoidable the meeting with them. The alterations, caused by the endocrine disruptors are epigenetically inherited, so it can be supposed that the present state of human immunity had been formed by earlier (natural) endocrine disruptors as e.g. phytoestrogens, aromatic hydrocarbons, metals etc. "Endocrine disruptors" are a new category, but endocrine disruption has been present and influenced the development of the immune system since millions of years. However, the disruptors' number and amount enormously increasing, so the future changes in the immune system caused by man-made endocrine disruptors must be attended. At present these changes seem to be harmful however, the chance for positive changes (transformation of human endocrine system) could be -after long time- possible. It is also worth to study the faulty hormonal imprinting effect of endocrine disruptors, as they seem responsible for numerous immune alterations (consequently diseases) manifested in adult age.

Keywords: Immune system; Endocrine system; Perinatal exposure; Development; Functional errors; Ah-receptors**Introduction**

The Endocrine Disruptors (EDs) are such molecules of our environment, which are similar to hormones (first of all steroid hormones) or can influence the effect of these hormones, by binding to the hormone-specific receptors or disturbing the transmission process between the receptor-hormone complex and the response by the cell. EDs can act to the endocrine system at any time of life however, the consequences are different, depending on the developmental period. From this point of view, the early stages of development seem to be rather critical, as in this periods (late prenatal, early postnatal, named perinatal) the further fate of the endocrine system (consequently the organs and systems regulated by it) is determined by hormonal imprinting.

The perinatal hormonal imprinting

In the womb the fetus is in a very closed connection with the mother, whose endocrine system mainly regulates the functions of it. However, before birth the mother's regulation must be conveyed to the to be newborn and this process is continued after birth. During the perinatal period the developing receptors must recognize the structure of the target hormones produced by its own glands, and

react according to the messages contained by them. This is the process of hormonal imprinting, which is needed for the later normal function of receptor-hormone complex, which is the basis of the normal (physiological) endocrine regulation [1-3]. During the period of hormonal imprinting (perinatally) the developmental window for hormones (imprinters) is open and this gives the possibility for the action of other (non-physiological) hormone-like molecules to disturb the genetically determined physiological imprinting, causing faulty imprinting with life-long consequences. These consequences are the alteration of hormone binding capacity of the receptors, as well, as the hormone production of the given cell, changes in sexual behavior [310], differences in neurotransmitter production and pain sensitivity [4-6] etc.

Development of the immune system

The immune system of mammals develops in two steps: at first the innate immune system, after that the adaptive one. About 1600 genes are responsible for the the functions and production of components of the human immune response [7,8], which shows that the immune system can be offended in numerous points. However, the cells of both immune systems are developing from pluripotential hemopoietic stem cells [9] in the thymus and bone

marrow which are providing microenvironment and factors needed for the development of functionally immunocompetent cells. In this period the developing immune system is very sensitive to internal effects [10] and is touched by the microbiota [11,12], which modify the immune system. However, in this period the immune system is not immunologically naive [13]. It is perinatally imprinted by the physiological hormones and can be imprinted by related strange molecules (faulty imprinting) [3,14,15]. It is not known whether the imprinting takes place in the thymus or bone marrow or other places to where the cells are migrating (lymph nodes, spleen, mucosa). Both types (physiological and faulty) of imprinting is valid for life and their effects are transmitted to the progeny generations of the imprinted cells as well, as to progenies of the imprinted individuum. The change provoked by the imprinting is epigenetic and it is also epigenetically inherited [16].

Although there are some other periods during life in which imprinting can be provoked by outer and perhaps inner imprinters, the perinatal period is outstandingly important. In this period children and especially newborns are more sensitive to environmental factors than adults and more sensitive than at weaning or adolescence [17,18], in which periods imprinting can be also provoked. However, the imprinting in the mentioned periods can modify the effect of early (perinatal) imprinting [19]. The broad possibility of imprinting can be clearly demonstrated in the immune system, as its cells are continuously dividing and maturing during the long periods of life [16].

As it was mentioned, faulty imprinting can cause different alterations in different systems (immune system included) and initiates diseases later, in adult age or helps the manifestation of them. May be this suggested the DOHaD (Developmental Origin of Health and Diseases) hypothesis [20,21] which supposes the close correlation between the adulthood diseases and perinatal exposures [22]. This hypothesis uses the elements of hormonal imprinting (which was described earlier, in which the epigenetic factors are playing the main role, as it does happen in both cases. The epigenetic programming of the immune system is disturbed by faulty hormonal imprinting as well, as in case of DOHaD, and the changed epigenom is inherited to the cell lines of the individual as well, as to the progeny generations. The transformation of the epigenetic program (maladaptive alterations of organs and cells) transforms also the response ability of the immune system, causing weaker effectiveness in the struggle against infectious diseases as well, as stronger effectiveness of faulty response manifested in allergic or autoimmune diseases [7,23-26].

Hormesis seems to be very important in the program alterations of the immune system [27-29]. Such molecules, which negatively influence immune defense in adult age (given in a higher dose) can affect the immune program in a minimal dose, perinatally. This could be right also in case of phytoestrogens [30,31] which are present in the infant formulas, consumed by infants or in early childhood.

In the case of the immune system it is not known that the developmental (critical) window is open for hormonal imprinting (the setting of the immune system to the effects of neurohormonal system) or for the setting to the microbiota, which is also very important for the future of the immune program [32-34]. However it seems to be sure, that endocrine disruptors favorize this period of life,

causing late manifesting diseases.

Due to the development of the immune system in the perinatal period it is not sure, that certain immune cells are directly targeted by some imprinter (hormones or endocrine disruptors) however stem cells are present and can be influenced [35], the effect of which will be manifested later, in adult age, together (after) provocation by inner or first of all outer factors or without them. It is also possible that the effect is not specific, however it provokes a general reaction (9), by which another function (hormone) will be touched. It seems to be likely, that there is a hormonal network inside the immune system, which is working in adult age [36-38] and this is already present in the more sensitive perinatal period [39]. This could be manifested in case of early-gestational alcohol consumption, demonstrated by the reduced insulin binding by peritoneal, blood and thymic lymphocytes and monocytes [40], and in the immune suppressive effect of early exposure to arsenic [41] and other toxic metals [39]. This general effect is similar to the basic observations of Selye (68[]) named stress by him [42,43]. In the case of faulty imprinting a non-specific change of developmental program can be imagined, caused by the alteration of methylation pattern of DNA and the epigenetic transformation is observed in later periods of life. This is characteristic to the very early (perinatal) period of life [44], which is exceptional, however - as it was mentioned- almost repeated in some later periods (weaning [45], adolescence [19] and during the whole life in continuously differentiating and dividing cells.

The role of aromatic hydrocarbons

It is generally believed that bisphenol A is the most dangerous endocrine disruptor considering its produced amount and broad spectrum of utility in plastic industry. It influences the methylation status of DNA and by it alters the gene expression from the touched individual to its progenies, epigenetically inherited to them [46]. Its effect is broadly manifested in the organism in different systems, immune system included. Bisphenol A has been detected in about 90% of analyzed human urine samples [47]. However, it seems to be likely that aromatic hydrocarbons and especially Benzopyrene and Dioxin (TCDD) are similarly important environmental pollutants [48,49], which cause faulty perinatal imprinting of steroid hormone receptors. These endocrine disruptors are present in the air, resulted by volcanic eruptions as well, as by the results of urban traffic and cigarette smoking, and by agrotechnical use, they are present in food packaging, combustion products, plant health treatments, detergents and in production of the chemical industry in general (medicaments included) [50]. They are harmful for human health introduced into the organism in adult age however, they are dangerous causing faulty imprinting of steroid hormone receptors perinatally and by this, chronic diseases later in life [51-53]. Immune cells have steroid hormone receptors however, these substances are also bound by the Aryl Hydrocarbon Receptors (AhR) which are ligand activated transcription factors. They are also present in the immune cells and important modulators of the development and function of the innate and adaptive immune system [54-59]. There is a cross-talk between nuclear (steroid) receptors and Ah receptors (xenosensors) and this enhances endocrine disruption [60-62].

Thymic Glucocorticoid Receptors' number is decreased at 6 weeks of age after benzopyrene exposure at the 19th day of pregnancy

(in rats) [63] with some differences dependent on gender. Benzpyrene exposure during lactation also caused similar effects, without touching receptor affinity in both cases [64]. In contrast to these results neonatal combined treatment with benzpyrene, allylestrenol, vitamin A and vitamin D3 increased the later studied receptor number [65]. However, not only steroid receptors' number was influenced by neonatal benzpyrene imprinting, but certain hormone productions by the immune cells, as serotonin content of blood lymphocytes, monocytes, granulocytes, peritoneal fluid lymphocytes, mast cells and granulocytes, thymic lymphocytes [66]. Similarly, endorphin content of blood cells and peritoneal immune cells were influenced (elevated in this case) two months after single benzpyrene treatment however, while in the blood cells of females the elevation was typical, in males the hormone production decreased [67]. Neonatal faulty imprinting with dioxin (TCDD) decreased the number of thymic glucocorticoid receptors in both genders [68]. Neonatal benzpyrene imprinting decreased dexamethasone binding capacity (receptor number) in Walker ascitic tumor bearing rats [69]. If neonatal allylestrenol treatment was executed before benzpyrene treatment in adult animals, the increase of glucocorticoid receptor number in rats was observed in contrast to neonatally not treated animals [20]. The benzpyrene imprinting influenced the later benzpyrene input by other model cells [70].

Stress, endocrine disruptors and perinatally established immune influence

There are correlations between the neuroendocrine and immune system [71]. The Hypothalamic Pituitary Adrenal (HPA) system has a deep impact on the development and function of the immune system, consequently stress effects can influence the activity of it [71,72]. These effects are stronger during the development of the immune system causing not only immediate changes but prolonged alterations which are manifested later, in adult age [73]. The state of methylation of DNA cytosins (CpGs) determines the functionality of certain brain structures and social as well, as chemical stressors, e.g. bisphenol A offend DNA methyl transferase [74]. In addition to the HPA axis, microglia which are innate immune effector, also has a role [75]). Hippocampus has a high expression level of glucocorticoid receptors [76] and this means that highly sensitive to endocrine disruptors and these, as stressors indirectly influence the later activity of the immune system. This can explain why childhood maltreatment -as psychological stressor- is associated with chronic inflammatory state in adults [77]. The high sensitivity of neuro-immune system in early life to stressors can cause the nutrition-provoked immune disorders [78,79], considering that nutriment could contain endocrine disruptors. At the same time, vitamin A, which has receptors in the nuclear receptor superfamily and really it is an endocrine disruptor, increases the number of immune cells as a consequence of early life exposures. Meanwhile, perinatal strong stress negatively influences immunity [80], moderate stress can do this positively [81], possibly by hormetic effects. Inflammation as stressor also can influence the program. Endocrine disruptors can touch the fetus passing across the placenta, or the infant, presenting in mother's milk. The stress-effect on the neuro-immune system is dependent on the stage of pregnancy and also on the gender of the fetus or infant [82,83]. The late stages of ontogenetic early development are more vulnerable [17,84] however faulty imprinting in later critical periods, or on cells which are

continuously dividing (as e.g. immune cells) in the whole life [85] are also sensitive.

The effect of stressors is transmitted to the progeny generations [86], similar to the case of faulty hormonal imprinting, by chemical factors.

Impact of perinatal hormonal effects on the hormone production of immune cells

The cells of the immune system can produce hormones, characteristic to the endocrine system [87,88]. The presence of hormones which had been justified are the POMC-hormones, endorphin and ACTH, the thyroid system hormones, TRH, TSH, T3, the growth hormone, prolactin, melatonin, histamine, serotonin, catecholamines, GnRH, LHRH, hCG, renin, VIP, ANG II, which shows that immune cells are producing and containing all of the hormones, which had been searched at all [89]. This hormones can be transported by the immune cells to different sites of the body, where their effects are needed [90]. This is demonstrated by the packed transport theory [90,91]. This hormone production is seriously influenced by perinatal hormone treatments and endocrine disruptor exposures [90,91]. Total deprivation of food and water for 48h just before or after delivery caused ACTH level elevation in adult males and less, but significant elevation in female rats [92]. After vitamin A neonatal treatment, T3 content in immune cells was decreased in adult age, while vitamin D treatment did not cause change in hormone levels [93]. Treatment at weaning with endorphin decreased the endorphin and serotonin levels of immune cells when adults [94]. Single treatment at weaning with benzpyrene and chlorpheniramine (a H1 receptor blocker antihistamine) strongly influenced the hormone contents of immune cells, measured after 3 weeks [95]. In a similar situation deprenyl, and its derivative without MAO-B inhibitory activity strongly however, differently influenced the serotonin content of peritoneal immune cells [96]. The effect of different treatments (imprinting) was transgenerational, the alteration was observed up to the F2 generation [97-100]

Not only the hormone production is touched by the perinatal hormonal effects, but similarly, the hormone binding. The combined phytoestrogen genistein+ benzpyrene imprinting neonatally significantly and strongly decreased the binding capacity of glucocorticoid receptors of the thymus in adult age. In this model a nutritional factor (genistein) and an environmental (air) pollutant has been combined, which can happen in any time [101].

Perinatally the human milk contains such components, as microbes, hormones etc which challenges the developing immune system and by this, forms its reactivity for later life [102,103]. This seems to be absolutely needed for the normal development of the immune system. It is possible, that among the components EDs are also listed in our modern world, and these components could be useful by this interaction. The meeting with new bacteria could cause stress effect as well, as a meeting with an endocrine disruptor, which can be bound by natural hormone receptors however, they are strange.

In the faulty hormonal imprinting of the immune system some hormones can overlap with another without closed chemical relations. In adult mice, in *in vitro* experiments insulin strongly

influenced the ACTH, triiodothyronine, histamine and serotonin production, which has been reduced by treatment of female animals, but does not touch males [104]. The overlap is not immune system specific, it can be observed also in other cases [105-108].

Conclusion

In the last 50 years about 5 million man-made chemicals appeared in the environment [109], and about 1000 of them had been reported with endocrine disruptor effects at 2013 [110]. However their number is enormously and continuously growing.

There are many data on the -mainly harmful- effects of endocrine disruptors on adult human organism, and a lot of these effects are manifested in the immune system, as EDs influence cytokine and immunoglobulin productions and activation as well, as survival of immune cells [111]. Nevertheless, very modest is the inventory of observations on the perinatal effects. However, on the basis of animal experiments and human observations it can be concluded that there is a thorough difference between the effects in these two life periods [112]. Perinatally the immune system is undifferentiated and its structure as well, as its functionality is developing, which means that while in adult age a functioning complete immune system is offended by the endocrine disruptors, causing acute or chronic diseases, in the developmental period, when the setting of the immune system is taking place in physiological conditions, the consequences are such alterations, which change the program [17]. The impact of alterations are manifested later, in any period of life, adolescent, adult or senescent periods included.

The perinatal effect of endocrine disruptors, which are hormone-like molecules, provokes faulty hormonal imprinting, with life-long consequences. The physiological hormonal imprinting is needed for the normal setting of receptor-hormone recognition, which is a basic requirement of normal endocrine regulation. For ensuring this aim, the developmental window for imprinting is open perinatally and not only the specific physiological hormones can be bound by the developing receptors, but related physiological hormones as well as artificial synthetic molecules entering into the organism. This makes possible the faulty hormonal imprinting with consequences for life. As the developing immune cells have hormone receptors (as estrogen receptors, thyroid hormone receptors, aryl hydrocarbon receptors etc) which can transmit important messages into the cells, the faulty imprinting is taking place by them. Although there are other (later) critical periods of life (weaning, adolescence and in continuously dividing and differentiating cells in the whole life), when faulty imprinting can be provoked, the basic period is the perinatal, which determines the function of receptors for life. So, the response ability of immune cells is determined perinatally.

In general, it is believed that that endocrine disruptors are always new synthetic molecules however, a lot of them is natural. Even they are incorporated in the human organism. Phytoestrogens are also endocrine disruptors [31], and they are used in old and modern kitchens, and likely they participated in the formation of human immunity. Vitamins A and D are also endocrine disruptors and they are unavoidable components of our physiology [113]. Endocrine disruptors could be physiological hormones in case of overdose or arriving to the developing receptors in inadequate time or associated with another hormone-like material. Endocrine disruption also can

be provoked by non-hormone materials, as e.g. gestational alcohol consumption [114] which can disturb the endocrine system in this very sensitive and vulnerable critical period. Though "endocrine disruptor" is a new notion of our modern age, endocrine disruption was always present, perinatally influencing the hormone reception of different cell types and from this aspect, immune system was not an exception. It can be supposed that the present state of human immunity had been deeply formed by natural endocrine disruptors (e.g. phytoestrogens, aromatic hydrocarbons, metals) [115], which acted and acts continuously.

Gender seems to be a basic determining factor in case of perinatal faulty imprinting [116,117]. However, the gender differences can be observed also in other cases, the enhanced immune activity of females compared to males is known [118] and perinatally the males' inclination to diseases is more expressed. It can be supposed that the reason of it can be deduced to the double X-chromosomes, however the immune activity promoting influence of estrogen hormones also can be responsible [119]. The gender difference is obvious also in case of adolescent imprinting [120]. It is very important to know, that, the impact of endocrine disruptors is transgenerational [121-124] and this is manifested also in the case of immune system. This is an epigenetic (not mutational) inheritance, caused by the changes of the methylation pattern of DNA. Although there are not data enough on the number of generations to which the epigenetic inheritance is valid, considering the enormously growing number of endocrine disruptors and their quantity, the future seems to be worrying. It is not known at present that the changes in the different systems will be positive or negative as a consequence of endocrine disruptors, it seems likely that the functionality of immune (and other) systems will be other, than it is presently. The other important problem is the possibility of mixed imprinting, when e.g. a chemical and psychical (stress) imprinting are present at the same time perinatally and together influence the developing immune system.

Afterwords

In the earliest (embryonic) period of development noxious substances used to be teratogenic, which means that morphological alterations are dominating. The immune system is less suitable for studying them, so it is not surprising that there are no data on this type of effect caused by endocrine disruptors. Though in the fetal period also there is a possibility for teratogenesis (as cryptorchidism, hypospadias, micropenis) this period is dominating by lifelong lasting functional alterations [125-130], which are manifested in any later period of life from adolescence to senescence. The immune system is very sensitive, as its basic development is executed in the fetal period and this is prolonged to the perinatal, neonatal and early juvenile periods. Considering the early origin and late manifestation of alterations, the impact of outer factors are basically different from the adult age, when acute effects are executed with mainly acute consequences, as immune suppression (paralysis), autoimmunity and allergy. This means that the perinatal ED effects must be handled separately with outstanding attention, as some diseases of the immune system can be deduced to perinatal exposure (faulty hormonal imprinting).

References

1. Csaba G. Phylogeny and ontogeny of hormone receptors: the selection

- theory of receptor formation and hormonal imprinting. *Biol Rev Camb Philos Soc.* 1980; 55: 47-63.
2. Csaba G. Hormonal imprinting in the unicellulata Tetrahymena: a protomodel of epigenetics. *Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung.* 2012; 59: 291-310.
 3. Csaba G. The biological basis and clinical significance of hormonal imprinting, an epigenetic process. *Clin Epigenetics.* 2011; 2: 187-196.
 4. Csaba G. Is the brain hormonally imprintable? *Brain Dev.* 2005; 7: 465-471.
 5. Tekes K, Hantos M, Csaba G. Single neonatal treatment with beta-endorphin (hormonal imprinting) extremely enhances nocistatin level of cerebrospinal fluid in adult rats. *Life Sci.* 2004; 74: 1993-1997.
 6. Tekes K, Tóthfalusi L, Hantos M, Csaba G. Effect of neonatal benzpyrene imprinting on the brain serotonin content and nocistatin level in adult male rats. *Acta Physiol Hung.* 2007; 94: 183-189.
 7. Simon AK, Hollander GA, McMichael A. Evolution of the immune system in humans from infancy to the old age. *Proc Biol Sci.* 2015; 282: 1821.
 8. Abbas AR, Baldwin D, Ma Y, Ouyang W, Gurney A, Martin F, et al. *Genes Immun.* 2005; 6: 319-331.
 9. Landreth KS. Critical windows in development of the rodent immune system. *Hum Exp Toxicol.* 2002; 41: 493-498.
 10. Seemann F, Knigge T, Duflot A, Marie S, Olivier S, Minier C, Monsinjon T. Sensitive periods for 17 beta-estradiol exposure during immune system development in sea bass head kidney. *J Appl Toxicol.* 2016; 36: 815-826.
 11. McCullough KC, Summerfield A. Basic concepts of immune response and defense development. *ILAR J.* 2005; 46: 230-240.
 12. Nash MJ, Frank DN, Friedman JE. Early microbes modify immune system development and metabolic homeostasis – the „restaurant” hypothesis revisited. *Front Endocrinol.* 2017; 00349.
 13. Holt PG, Jones CA. The development of the immune system during pregnancy and early life. *Allergy.* 2000; 55: 688-697.
 14. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Prolonged effect of an H1-receptor blocker antihistamine on the histamine content of white blood cells and mast cells. *Cell Biochem Funct.* 2004; 22: 201-204.
 15. Csaba G. Immunoendocrinology: faulty hormonal imprinting in the immune system. *Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung.* 2014; 61: 89-106.
 16. Csaba G. The biological basis and clinical significance of hormonal imprinting, an epigenetic process. *Clin Epigenetics.* 2011; 2: 187-196.
 17. Ünüvar T, Büyükgöze A. Fetal and neonatal endocrine disruptors. *J Clin Res Pediatr Endocrinol.* 2012; 4: 51-60.
 18. Perera F, Herbstman J. Prenatal environmental exposures, epigenetics, and disease. *Repr Toxicol.* 2011; 31: 363-373.
 19. Csaba G. The non-perinatal faulty hormonal imprinting. *J Ped Child Health Under publication.* 2018.
 20. MacGillivray DM, Kollmann TR. The role of environmental factors in modulating immune responses in early life. *Front Immunol.* 2014; 5: 434.
 21. Haugen AC, Schug TT, Colman G, Heindel JJ. Evolution of DOHaD: the impact of environmental health sciences. *J Dev Orig Health Dis.* 2015; 6: 55-64.
 22. Junjun Cao MS, Xu X, Hilkema MN, Zeng EY, Sly PD, Suk WA, et al. Early-life exposure to widespread environmental toxicants and health-risk: a focus on the immune and respiratory system. *Ann Global Health.* 2016; 82: 119-131.
 23. Kuo CH, Yang SN, Kuo PL, Hung CH. Immunomodulatory effects of environmental endocrine disruptor chemicals. *Kaohsiung J Med Sci.* 2012; 28: S37-42.
 24. Lodge CJ, Dharmage SC. Breastfeeding and perinatal exposure, and the risk of asthma and allergies. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2016; 16: 231-236.
 25. McLachlan JA, Burow M, Chiang TC, Li S Fin. Gene imprinting in developmental toxicology: a possible interface between physiology and pathology. *Toxicol Lett.* 2001; 120: 161-164.
 26. Holladay SD. Prenatal immunotoxicant exposure and postnatal autoimmune disease. *Environ Health Perspect.* 1999; 5: 687-691.
 27. Csaba G. Hormesis and immunity: a review. *Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung.* 2018; 17: 1-14.
 28. Dietert RR, Piepenbrink MS. The managed immune system: protecting the womb to delay the tomb. *Hum Exp Toxicol.* 2008; 27: 219-134.
 29. Calabrese EJ. Hormesis: a fundamental concept in biology. *Microb Cell.* 2014; 23: 145-149.
 30. Klein SL, Wisniewski AB, Marson AL, Glass GE, Gearhart JP. Early exposure to genistein exerts long-lasting effects on the endocrine and immune systems in rats. *Mol Med.* 2002; 8: 742-749.
 31. Csaba G. Effect of endocrine disruptor phytoestrogens on the immune system: Present and future. *Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung.* 2018; 65: 1-14.
 32. Gensollen T, Blumberg RS. Correlation between early-life regulation of the immune system by microbiota and allergy development. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2017; 139: 1084-1091.
 33. Indrio F, Martini S, Fracavilla R, Corvaglia R, Cristofori F, Mastroioli SA, et al. Epigenetic matters: The link between early nutrition, microbiome, and long-term health development. *Front Pediatr.* 2017; 178.
 34. Markovic L. Interaction involving the thymus and the hypothalamus-pituitary axis, immunomodulation by hormones. *Srp Arh Celok Lek.* 2004; 132: 187-193.
 35. Koprás E, Potluri V, Bermudez ML, Williams K, Belcher S, Kasper S. Actions of endocrine disrupting chemicals on stem/progenitor cells during development and disease. *Endocr Relat Cancer.* 2014; 21: T1-12.
 36. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. *In vitro* effect of biogenic amines on the hormone content of immune cells of the peritoneal fluid and thymus. Is there a hormonal network inside the immune system? *Cell Biol Int.* 2007; 31: 224-228.
 37. Csaba G, Pállinger É. *In vitro* effect of hormones on the hormone content of rat peritoneal and thymic cells. Is there an endocrine network inside the immune system? *Inflamm Res.* 2007; 56: 447-451.
 38. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Influence of *in vitro* and *in vivo* insulin treatment on the hormone (histamine, serotonin, endorphin and triiodothyronine) content of thymus and spleen cells. *Life Sci.* 2006; 78: 1034-1037.
 39. Csaba G. Hormones in the immune system and their possible role: a critical review. *Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung.* 2014; 61: 241-260.
 40. Pállinger É, Csaba G. Effect of a single early-gestational alcohol consumption on the insulin binding by immune cells of adult rats. *Inflamm Res.* 2005; 54: 483-484.
 41. Vahter M. Health effects of early life exposure to arsenic. *Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol.* 2008; 102: 204-211.
 42. Selye H. A syndrome produced by diverse noxious agents. *Nature.* 1936; 138: 3479.
 43. Szabo S, Tache Y, Somogyi A. The legacy of Hans Selye and the origins of stress research: A retrospective 75 years after his landmark brief „Letter” to the Editor” of *Nature.* *Stress.* 2012; 15: 472-478.
 44. Felter SP, Daston GP, Euling SY, Piersma AH, Tassinari MS. Assessment of health risk resulting from early-life exposures: Are current chemical toxicity testing protocols and risk assessment methods adequate? *Crit Rev Toxicol.* 2015; 45: 219-244.
 45. Csaba G, Inczeffi-Gonda Á. Molecules acting on receptor level at weaning, durably influence liver glucocorticoid receptors. *Acta Physiol Hung.* 2005; 92: 33-38.
 46. Kundakovic M, Champagne FA. Epigenetic perspective on the developmental effects of bisphenol A. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2011; 25: 1084-1093.
 47. Bodin J, Bolling AK, Becher R, Kuper F, Lovik M, Nygaard UC. Transmaternal bisphenol A exposure accelerates diabetes type 1 development in NOD

- mice, *Toxicol Sci.* 2014; 137: 311-323.
48. Birnbaum LS. Developmental effects of dioxins and related endocrine disrupting chemicals. *Toxicol Lett.* 1995; 82-83: 743-780.
49. Frawley R, White K, Brown R, Musgrove D, Walker N, Germolec D. Gene expression alterations in immune system pathways in the thymus after exposure to immunosuppressive chemicals. *Environ Health Perspect.* 2011; 119: 371-376.
50. Cravedi JP, Zalko D, Savouret JF, Menuet A, Jégou B. The concept of endocrine disruption and human health. *Med Sci (Paris).* 2007; 23: 198-204.
51. Holladay SD. Prenatal immunotoxicant exposure and postnatal autoimmune disease. *Environ Health Perspect.* 1999; 107: 687-691.
52. Doherty SP, Grabowski J, Hoffman C, Ng SP, Zelikoff JT. Early life insult from cigarette smoke may be predictive of chronic diseases later in life. *Biomarkers.* 2009; 14: 97-101.
53. Kolesnikov SI, Michurina SV, Arkhipov SA. Changes in peripheral blood monocytes and liver macrophages in male rats after benzo(a)pyrene injection. *Bull Exp Biol Med.* 2015; 158: 735-738.
54. Forawi HA, Tchounwou PB, McMurray RW. Xenoestrogen modulation of the immune system: effects of dichlorodihydroxy trichloroethane (DDT) and 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD). *Rev Environ Health.* 2004; 19: 1-13.
55. Gargaro M, Pirro M, Romani R, Zelante T, Fallarino F. Aryl hydrocarbon receptor-dependent pathways in immune regulation. *Am J Transplant.* 2016; 16: 2270-2276.
56. Quintana FJ, Sherr DH. Aryl hydrocarbon receptor control of adaptive immunity. *Pharmacol Res.* 2013; 65: 1148-1161.
57. Rogers JA, Metz L, Yong VW. Review: endocrine disrupting chemicals and immune responses, a focus on bisphenol-A and its potential mechanisms. *Mol Immunol.* 2013; 53: 421-430.
58. Hertz-Picciotto I, Park HY, Dostal M, Kocan A, Trnovec T, Sram R. Prenatal exposures to persistent and non-persistent organic compounds and effects on immune system development. *Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol.* 2008; 102: 146-154.
59. Hogaboam JP, Moore AJ, Lawrence BP. The aryl hydrocarbon receptor affects distinct tissue compartments during ontogeny of the immune system. *Toxicol Sci.* 2008; 102: 160-170.
60. Hanieh H. Toward understanding the role of aryl hydrocarbon receptor in the immune system: current progress and future trends. *Biomed Res Int.* 2014; 2014: 520763.
61. Svedenborg E, Rüegg J, Makela S, Pongratz I. Endocrine disruptive chemicals: mechanisms of action and involvement in metabolic disorders. *J Mol Endocrinol.* 2009; 43: 1-10.
62. Rüegg J, Penttinen-Damdimopoulou P, Makela S, Pongratz I, Gustafsson JA. Receptors mediating toxicity and their involvement in endocrine disruption. *Mol Cell Environ Toxicol pp.* 2009; 99: 289-323.
63. Csaba G, Inczeffi-Gonda Á, Szeberényi S. Lasting impact of a single benzpyrene treatment in pre-natal and growing age on the thymic glucocorticoid receptors of rat. *Gen Pharmacol.* 1991; 22: 815-818.
64. Csaba G, Inczeffi-Gonda Á. Breastmilk can mediate chemical imprinting. Benzpyrene exposure during lactation reduces the thymic glucocorticoid receptor density of the offspring. *Gen Pharmacol.* 1994; 25: 603-606.
65. Csaba G, Inczeffi-Gonda Á. Effect of combined neonatal imprinting by vitamin A, vitamin D3, benzpyrene and allylestrenol on adult rat thymus glucocorticoid and uterine estrogen receptors. *Gen Pharmacol.* 1997; 29: 779-781.
66. Csaba G, Pállinger É. Effect of single neonatal or repeated benzpyrene exposure on the serotonin content of immune cells in young male rats. *Acta Physiol Hung.* 2004; 91: 205-210.
67. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Endorphin content of white blood cells and peritoneal cells in neonatally benzpyrene treated adult rats. *Acta Physiol Hung.* 2003; 90: 207-215.
68. Csaba G, Mag O, Inczeffi-Gonda Á, Szeberényi S. Persistent influence of neonatal 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD) treatment on glucocorticoid receptors and on the microsomal enzyme system. *J Dev Physiol.* 1991; 15: 337-340.
69. Csaba G, Mag O, Holub M. Impact of neonatal benzpyrene imprinting on thymocytic dexamethasone binding in ascitic tumor bearing rats. *Gen Pharmacol.* 1991; 22: 695-697.
70. Fülöp AK, Csaba G. Impact of neonatal benzpyrene pretreatment (imprinting) on the hepatic 3H-benzpyrene pretreatment (imprinting) on the hepatic 3H-benzpyrene intake and output in adult rat liver. Investigation into the hepatic localization of benzpyrene in adult rats. *Acta Microbiol Hung.* 1991; 39: 279-285.
71. Shanks N, Lightman SL. The maternal-neonatal neuro-immune interface: Are there long-term implications for inflammatory or stress-related disease? *J Clin Invest.* 2001; 108: 1567-1573.
72. Avitsur R, Levy S, Goren N, Grinshpahet R. Early adversity, immunity and infectious disease. *Stress.* 2015; 18: 289-296.
73. Parker VJ, Douglas AJ. Stress in early pregnancy: maternal neuro-endocrine-immune responses and effects. *J Reprod Immunol.* 2010; 85: 86-92.
74. Wright EC, Johnson SA, Hao R, Kowalczyk AS, Greenberg GD, Ordonez Sanchez E, et al. Exposure to extrinsic stressors, social defeat or bisphenol A, eliminates sex differences in DNA methyltransferase expression in the amygdala. *J Neuroendocrinol.* 2017; 29.
75. Garden GA. Epigenetics and the modulation of neuroinflammation. *Neurotherapeutics.* 2013; 10.
76. Hoeijmakers L, Lucassen PJ, Korosi A. The interplay of early-life stress, nutrition, and immune activation programs adult hippocampal structure and function. *Front Mol Neurosci.* 2014.
77. Coelho R, Viola TW, Walls-Bass C, Brietzke E, Grassi-Oliveira R. Childhood maltreatment and inflammatory markers: a systematic review. *Acta Psychiatr Scand.* 2014; 129: 180-192.
78. Marques AH. The influence of maternal, prenatal and early childhood nutrition and maternal prenatal stress on offspring immune system development and neurodevelopmental disorders. *Front Neurosci.* 2013; 31.
79. McMillen IC, MacLaughlin SM, Muhlhausler RS, Gentili S, Duffield JL, Morrison JL. Developmental origins of adult health and disease: the role of periconceptional and foetal nutrition. *Basic Cell Pharmacol Toxicol.* 2008; 102: 82-89.
80. Koike E, Yanagisawa R, Win-Shwe TT, Takano H. Exposure to low-dose bisphenol A during the juvenile period of development disrupts the immune system and aggravates allergic airway inflammation in mice. *Int J Immunopathol Pharmacol.* 2018; 32.
81. Johnson KC. The effects of maternal stress and anxiety during pregnancy. <http://www.emory.edu/msacd>.
82. Panagiotidou E, Zerva S, Mitsiou DJ, Alexis MN, Kitraki E. Perinatal exposure to low-dose bisphenol A affects the neuroendocrine stress response in rats. *J Endocrinol.* 2014; 27: 207-218.
83. Chen F, Zhou L, Bai J, Zhou R, Chen L. Sex differences in the adult HPA axis and affective behaviors are altered by perinatal exposure to a low dose bisphenol A. *Brain Res.* 2014; 1571: 12-24.
84. Parigi SM, Eldh M, Larssen P, Gabrielsson S, Villablanca EJ. Breast milk and solid food shaping intestinal immunity. *Front Immunol.* 2015; 6: 415.
85. Csaba G, Kovács P, Tóthfalusi L, Pállinger É. Prolonged effect of stress (water and food deprivation) at weaning or in adult age on the triiodothyronine and histamine content of immune cells. *Horm Metab Res.* 2005; 37: 711-715.
86. Fukuoka H, Sata F. Molecular mechanism of developmental origins of health and disease (DOHaD). *Nihon Eiseigaku Zasshi.* 2016; 71: 185-187.
87. Pállinger É, Csaba G. Presence and distribution of biogenic amines (histamine, serotonin and epinephrine) in immunophenotyped human immune cells. *Inflamm Res.* 2008; 57: 530-534.

88. Pállinger É, Csaba G. A hormone map of human immune cells showing the presence of adrenocorticotrophic hormone, triiodothyronine and endorphin in immunophenotyped white blood cells. *Immunology*. 2008; 123: 584-589.
89. Csaba G. Mast cell, the peculiar member 62, the immune system: A homeostatic aspect. *Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung*. 2015; 62: 207-231.
90. Csaba G. Hormones in the immune system and their possible role. A critical review. *Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung*. 2014; 61: 241-260.
91. Csaba G. The immuno-endocrine system: hormone, receptors and endocrine function of immune cells. The packed-transport theory. *Adv Biol*. 2011; 1: 71-85.
92. Csaba G, Tekes K, Pállinger É. Influence of perinatal stress on the hormone content in immune cells of adult rats: dominance of ACTH. *Horm Metab Res*. 2009; 41: 617-20.
93. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Impact of neonatal imprinting with vitamin A or D on the hormone content of rat immune cells. *Cell Biochem Funct*. 2007; 25: 717-721.
94. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Effect of endorphin exposure at weaning on the endorphin and serotonin content of white blood cells and mast cells in adult rat. *Cell Biochem Funct*. 2004; 22: 197-200.
95. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Prolonged impact of five imprinters on the serotonin content of white blood cells and mast cells of weanling rats: outstanding effect of benzpyrene and chlorpheniramine. *Cell Biol Int*. 2004; 28: 217-222.
96. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Acute and delayed effect of (-) deprenyl and (-) 1-phenyl-2-propylaminopentane (PPAP) on the serotonin content of peritoneal cells (white blood cells and mast cells). *Cell Biochem Funct*. 2006; 24: 49-53.
97. Csaba G, Karabélyos C, Inczeffi-Gonda Á, Pállinger É. Three-generation investigation on serotonin content in rat immune cells long after beta-endorphin exposure in late pregnancy. *Horm Metab Res*. 2005; 37: 172-177.
98. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Transgenerational effect of neonatal vitamin A or D treatment (hormonal imprinting) on the hormone content of rat immune cells. *Horm Metab Res*. 2007; 39: 197-201.
99. Pállinger É, Tóthfalusi L, Csaba G. Prolonged effect of endorphin treatment during pregnancy in the rat immune cells of F1 and F2 offspring generations. *Cell Biochem Funct*. 2006; 24: 287-290.
100. Csaba G. Transgenerational effects of perinatal hormonal imprinting. in: *Transgenerational epigenetics*, ed. T. Tollefsbol. 2014; 19: 255-269.
101. Csaba G, Inczeffi Gonda Á. Effect of a single treatment (imprinting) with genistein or combined treatment with genistein +benzpyrene on the binding capacity of glucocorticoid and estrogen receptors of adult rats. *Hum Exp Toxicol*. 2002; 21: 231-234.
102. Cottrell EC, Seckl JR. Prenatal stress, glucocorticoids and the programming of adult disease. *Behav Neurosci*. 2009; 10: 3389.
103. Newburg DS, Walker WA. Protection of the neonate by the innate immune system of developing gut and human milk. *Pediatr Res*. 2007; 61: 2-8.
104. Pállinger É, Csaba G. *In vivo* effect of insulin on the hormone production of immune cells in mice – gender differences. *Acta Microbiol Immunol Hung*. 2014; 61: 417-423.
105. Navinés R, Martin-Sanros R, Gómez-Gil E, Maartinez de Osaba M, Gastó C. Interaction between 5HT1A receptors and beta-endorphins modulates antidepressant response. *Progr Neuro-Psychopharm Biol Psych*. 2008; 32: 1804-1809.
106. Bagdy G, Calogero AE, Szemerédi K, Gomez T, Murphy DL, Chrousos GP. Beta-endorphin response to different serotonin agonists: involvement of corticotropin-releasing hormone, vasopressin and direct pituitary action. *Brain Research*. 1990; 537: 227-232.
107. Hammes SR, Davis PJ. Overlapping nongenomic and genomic actions of thyroid hormone and steroids. *Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2015; 29: 581-593.
108. Johansson F, von Knorring L, Sadvall G, Terenius L. Changes in endorphins and 5-hydroxyindolacetic acid in cerebrospinal fluid as a result of treatment with serotonin reuptake inhibitor (zimelidine) in chronic pain patients. *Psychiatry Res*. 1980; 2: 167-172.
109. Benachour N, Clair E, Mesnage R, Seralini GE. Endocrine disruptors: New discoveries and possible progress of evaluation. *Adv Med Biol*. 2012; 29.
110. Schug TT, Johnson AFD, Birnbaum LS, Colborn T, Gullette LJ, Crews DP. Endocrine disruptors: Past lesson and future directions. *Mol Endocrinol*. 2016; 30: 833-847.
111. Kuo CH, Yang SN, Kuo PL, Hung CH. Immunomodulatory effects of environmental endocrine disrupting chemicals. *Kaohsiung J Med Sci*. 2012; 28: S37-S42.
112. Menard S, Guzylack-Piriou L, Leveque M, Braniste V, Lencina C, Naturel M. Food intolerance at adulthood after perinatal exposure to the endocrine disruptor bisphenol A. *FASEB J*. 2014; 28: 4893-4900.
113. Csaba G. Vitamin-caused faulty perinatal hormonal imprinting and its consequences in adult age. *Physiol Int*. 2017; 10: 1556-2080.
114. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Alcohol consumption during gestation reduces the histamine and triiodothyronine content of rat immune cells. *Inflamm Res*. 2005; 54: 479-482.
115. Guerrero Bosagna CM, Skinner MK. Environmental epigenetics and phytoestrogen/phytochemical exposures. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol*. 2014; 13: 270-276.
116. Csaba G, Kovács P, Pállinger É. Single treatment (hormonal imprinting) of newborn rats with serotonin increases the serotonin content of cells in adults. *Cell Biol Int*. 2002; 26: 663-668.
117. Csaba G. The present and future of human sexuality: Impact of faulty perinatal hormonal imprinting. *Sex Med Rev*. 2017; 5: 163-169.
118. Oertelt Prigione S. The influence of sex and gender on the immune response. *Autoimmune Rev*. 2012; 479-485.
119. Das RK, Banerjee S, Shapiro BH. Irreversible perinatal imprinting of adult expression of the principal sex-dependent drug-metabolizing enzyme CYP2C11. *FASEB J*. 2014.
120. Csaba G, Inczeffi Gonda Á. Anabolic steroid (nandrolone) treatment during adolescence decreases the number of glucocorticoid and estrogen receptors in adult female rats. *Horm Metab Res*. 1993; 25: 353-355.
121. Anway MD, Skinner MK. Epigenetic transgenerational actions of endocrine disruptors. *Endocrinology*. 2006; 147: S43-S49.
122. Csaba G, Inczeffi Gonda Á. Transgenerational effect of a single neonatal benzpyrene treatment on the glucocorticoid receptor of the rat thymus. *Hum Exp Toxicol*. 1998; 17: 88-92.
123. Crews D, McLachlan JA. Epigenetics, evolution, endocrine disruption, health, and disease. *Endocrinology* 2006; 147: S4-S10.
124. Crews D, Gillette R, Miller Crews I, Gore AC, Skinner MK. Nature, nurture and epigenetics. *Mol Cell Endocrinol*. 2014; 398: 42-52.
125. Csaba G. The faulty perinatal hormonal imprinting as functional teratogen. *Curr Pediatr Rev*. 2016; 12: 222-229.
126. Diert RR. Misregulated inflammation as an outcome of early-life exposure to endocrine-disrupting chemicals. *Rev Environ Health*. 2012; 27: 117-131.
127. Bommarito PA, Martin E, Fry RC. Effects of prenatal exposure to endocrine disruptors and toxic metals on the fetal epigenome. *Epigenetics*. 2017; 9: 333-350.
128. Roy A, Bauer SM, Lawrence BP. Developmental exposure to bisphenol A modulates innate but not adaptive immune responses to influenza A virus infection. *PLoS One*. 2012; 7: 1371.
129. Dhabhar FS. Enhancing versus suppressive effects of stress on immune function: implications for immunoprotection and immunopathology. *Neuroimmunomodulation*. 2009; 16: 300-317.
130. Zager A, Pinheiro ML, Ferraz de Paula, V Ribeiro A, Palermo Neto J. Increased cell-mediated immunity in male mice offspring exposed to maternal immune activation during late gestation. *Int Immunopharmacol*. 2013; 17: 633-637.