

the case subjects reported initiating smoking prior to age 18. These women appeared to be early initiators with higher prevalence of characteristics associated with smoking; the effect of their inclusion would be to inflate the calculated odds ratios.

In summary, it appears that many factors influencing young adult women to begin smoking are similar to those that influence adolescents. Peers, particularly significant others, appear to be an especially important influence. Prevention efforts should target women of lower educational attainment, using approaches that reduce the acceptability of smoking in the social environment. Further research is needed to develop salient messages for young women at risk of becoming regular smokers. □

References

1. Johnston LD, O'Malley PM, Bachman JG. *Drug Use among American High School Students, College Students and Other Young Adults: National Trends through 1985*. Rockville, Md: National Institute on Drug Abuse; 1986. DHHS publication ADM 86-1450.
2. Fiore MC, Novotny TE, Pierce JP, Hatziaudreu EJ, Patel KM, Davis RM. Trends in cigarette smoking in the United States: the changing influence of gender and race. *JAMA*. 1989;261:49-55.
3. Novotny TE, Fiore MC, Hatziaudreu EJ, Giovino GA, Mills SL, Pierce JP. Trends in smoking by age and sex, United States, 1974-87: the implications for disease impact. *Prev Med*. 1990;19:552-561.
4. *The Minnesota Tobacco-Use Prevention Initiative 1989-90: A Report to the 1991 Legislature*. Minneapolis, Minn: Minnesota Department of Health; 1991.
5. Flay BR, d'Avernas JR, Best JA, Kersell MW, Ryan KB. Smoking: why young people do it and ways of preventing it. In: Firestone P, McGrath P, eds. *Pediatric and Adolescent Behavioral Medicine*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag; 1983:132-183.
6. Collins LM, Sussman S, Rauch JM, et al. Psychosocial predictors of young adolescent cigarette smoking: a sixteen-month, three-wave longitudinal study. *J Appl Soc Psychol*. 1987;17:554-573.
7. Semmer NK, Cleary PD, Dwyer PD, Fuchs R, Lippert P. Psychosocial predictors of adolescent smoking in two German cities: the Berlin-Bremen study. *MMWR*. 1987;36(suppl 4S):3S-10S.
8. Bandura A, Walters R. *Social learning and personality development*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston; 1963.
9. Jessor R. Problem-behavior theory, psychosocial development, and adolescent problem drinking. *Br J Addict*. 1987;82:331-342.
10. Jessor R, Jessor SL. *Problem Behavior and Psychosocial Development: A Longitudinal Study of Youth*. New York, NY: Academic Press; 1977.
11. Perry CL, Jessor R. The concept of health promotion and the prevention of adolescent drug abuse. *Health Educ Q*. 1985;12:169-184.
12. National Cancer Institute. *Cigarette Smoking among Teenagers and Young Women*. Bethesda, Md: National Institutes of Health; 1976. DHEW publication NIH 77-1203.
13. Chassin L, Presson CC, Sherman SJ, Carty E, Olsharsky RW. Predicting the onset of cigarette smoking in adolescents: a longitudinal study. *J Appl Soc Psychol*. 1984;14:224-243.
14. Murray DM, Jacobs DR, Perry CL, et al. A statewide approach to adolescent tobacco-use prevention: The Minnesota-Wisconsin Adolescent Tobacco-Use Project. *Prev Med*. 1988;17:461-474.
15. Glass DC. *Behavioral Patterns, Stress, and Coronary Disease*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates; 1977:132.
16. Schlesselman JJ. *Case-control studies: design, conduct, analysis*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 1982:171-226.
17. *SAS/STAT User's Guide: Release 6.03 Edition*. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc; 1988.
18. Kramer MS, Feinstein AR. The biostatistics of concordance. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 1981;29:111-123.
19. Ary DV, Biglan A. Longitudinal change in adolescent cigarette smoking behavior: onset and cessation. *J Behav Med*. 1988;11:361-382.
20. Coppotelli HC, Orleans CT. Partner support and other determinants of smoking cessation maintenance among women. *J Consult Clin Psychol*. 1985;53:455-460.
21. McBride C, Pirie PL. Postpartum smoking relapse. *Addict Behav*. 1990;15:165-168.
22. Luepker RV, Pallonen UE, Murray DM, Pirie PL. Validity of telephone surveys in assessing cigarette smoking in young adults. *Am J Public Health*. 1989;79:202-204.

ABSTRACT

Cotinine levels in the semen, urine, and blood of 88 male smokers and nonsmokers, aged 18 to 35, were analyzed via radioimmunoassay. Detectable cotinine levels were found in all three body fluids, and cotinine levels in all three fluids were highly correlated. Cotinine levels in semen and blood were of similar magnitude; cotinine levels in urine were an order of magnitude or more higher. In all three fluids, cotinine levels increased with an increase in cigarette smoke exposure. (*Am J Public Health*. 1993; 83:1335-1338)

Cotinine Concentrations in Semen, Urine, and Blood of Smokers and Nonsmokers

Marilyn F. Vine, PhD, Barbara S. Hulka, MD, MPH, Barry H. Margolin, PhD, Young K. Truong, PhD, Ping-chuan Hu, PhD, Margaret M. Schramm, MS, MPH, Jack D. Griffith, PhD, Margaret McCann, PhD, and Richard B. Everson, MD, MPH

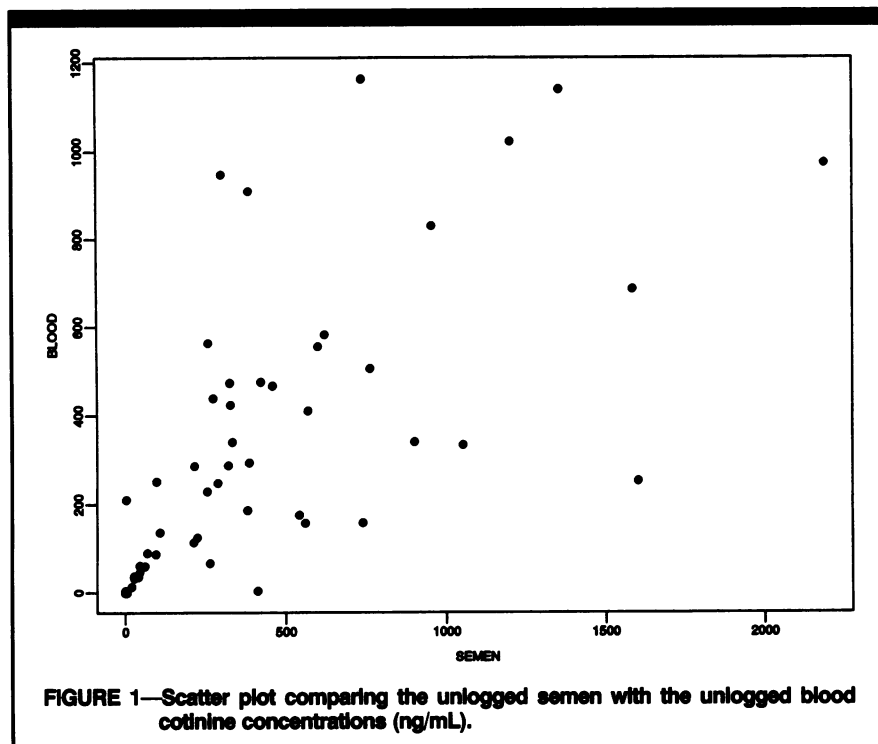
Introduction

Cigarette smoking has been associated with various documented and suspected adverse reproductive outcomes, including reduced sperm density and motility and increased abnormal morphology.¹ The role of cigarette smoking with respect to these effects is unclear. The purpose of this study is (1) to document the presence of cotinine, a metabolite of nicotine and a marker of tobacco smoke exposure, in the semen of male smokers; (2) to correlate the amount of cigarette smoke exposure, as determined by questionnaire, with cotinine concentrations in

Marilyn F. Vine, Barbara S. Hulka, Margaret McCann, Barry H. Margolin, and Young K. Truong are with the School of Public Health, and Ping-chuan Hu is with the School of Medicine at the University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill. Margaret M. Schramm is with SRA Technologies, Inc, and Jack D. Griffith and Richard B. Everson are with the Environmental Protection Agency's Health Effects Research Laboratory, Research Triangle Park, NC.

Requests for reprints should be sent to Marilyn F. Vine, PhD, Department of Epidemiology, School of Public Health CB #7400, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 27599-7400.

This paper was accepted January 13, 1993. *Note.* The views expressed here are the authors' and do not necessarily reflect those of the US Environmental Protection Agency.



per advertisements between March and October 1989. Participants provided semen, urine, and blood specimens (45 mL) and completed a self-administered questionnaire describing their smoking habits and demographic characteristics. Nonsmokers had not smoked 100 cigarettes in their lifetime. Light smokers currently averaged between 1 and 19 cigarettes per day; heavy smokers, 20 or more cigarettes per day. All smokers had smoked cigarettes for at least 1 year. Light smokers and nonsmokers were selected based on the age distribution of the heavy smokers (18 to 21, 22 to 25, 26 to 29, 30+ years).

Specimen Collection and Storage

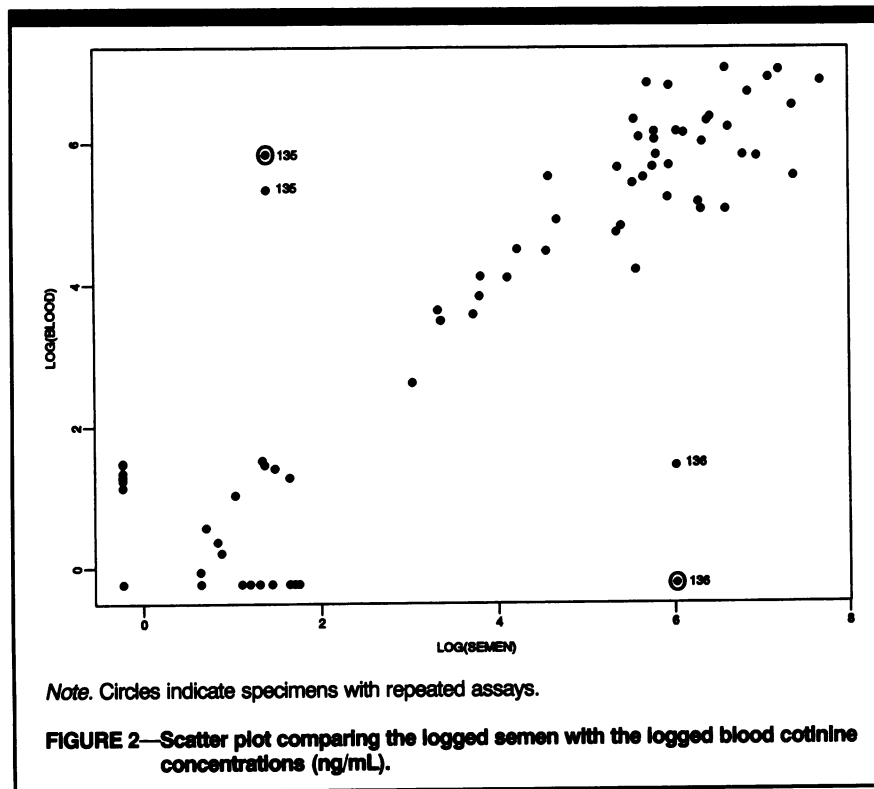
Urine and semen specimens were collected into separate polypropylene containers at the Reproductive Endocrinology/Fertility Laboratory at the University of North Carolina School of Medicine. Semen specimens were collected via masturbation after an abstinence period of 3 to 5 days. Trained laboratory personnel drew blood specimens into clean, heparinized tubes via venipuncture. Blood, urine, and semen supernatants were stored at -70°C for future analyses.

Cotinine Analyses

One-milliliter samples of blood, urine, and semen supernatant for each participant were analyzed for cotinine via radioimmunoassay.^{3,4} The level of cross-reactivity of the cotinine antibody used in the assay with other nicotine metabolites, such as 3-hydroxycotinine, is believed to be essentially 0% in blood and about 2% in urine (H. Van Vunakis, personal communication, December 1992). There are no data with respect to seminal fluid. Misclassification that might result from cross-reactivity is likely to be more significant at lower concentrations of cotinine than at higher ones. The limit of detection of the radioimmunoassay for cotinine concentration was 0.8 ng/mL of fluid. For some samples, this includes a dilution factor. The laboratory technician performing the cotinine analyses was blind to smoking status and fluid type. Semen specimens from two participants were not available for analysis, one because of a laboratory accident (a nonsmoker) and one because the participant did not produce enough specimen (a light smoker). One-milliliter samples of urine from each participant were also analyzed for creatinine concentration.

Statistical Analyses

To assess the validity of the individual cotinine values, cotinine concentra-



semen, urine, and blood; and (3) to correlate cotinine concentrations among the three body fluids to determine whether cotinine levels in one fluid can serve as a surrogate for levels in another. Cotinine, with a half-life in various body fluids of 16 to 19 hours,² indicates cigarette smoke exposure during the previous 2 to 3 days.

Methods

Study Participants

Participants eligible for inclusion in the study were healthy White men aged 18 to 35. Eighty-eight men (40 nonsmokers, 23 light smokers, and 25 heavy smokers) were recruited into the study via newspa-

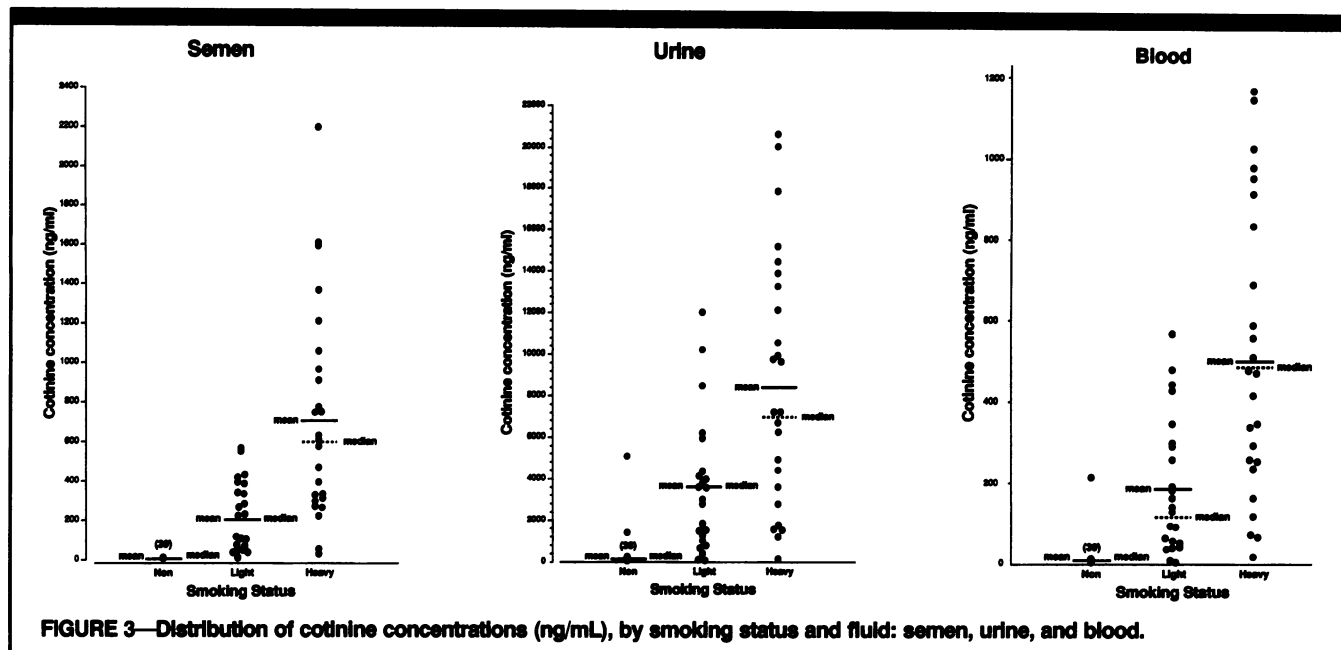


FIGURE 3—Distribution of cotinine concentrations (ng/mL), by smoking status and fluid: semen, urine, and blood.

tions for each fluid were plotted against cotinine concentrations for each of the other fluids. In Figure 1, this procedure is illustrated with the plot of semen versus blood cotinine concentrations. From the plots it can be seen that the response variance increased with an increase in mean cotinine concentration. Cotinine concentrations were then log transformed to produce a more nearly homogeneous variance. The fact that the distribution of cotinine concentrations among participants was skewed provided an additional reason to log the cotinine values.

When the logged cotinine concentrations for each fluid were plotted against the logged concentrations for each of the other fluids, a linear relationship was evident. The increase in homogeneity of variance for the comparisons of logged cotinine concentrations among the three fluids is illustrated in Figure 2 with the plot of semen versus blood. However, cotinine values for five individuals did not seem to fit this linear relationship. Laboratory assays on the specimens with the five seemingly aberrant values (three urine specimens and two blood specimens) were repeated, with the result that four of the five cotinine concentrations remained essentially the same. (Two of the aberrant data points appear in Figure 2.) Therefore, the original laboratory values for the cotinine concentrations for all individuals were retained in the analyses.

Median cotinine values were calculated by amount of smoke exposure. The median was selected as the summary statistic because it is less susceptible to the

effects of outliers. Ninety-five percent confidence intervals for the median values were calculated according to Dixon and Massey.⁵ Chi-square approximation tests were performed to determine whether differences in median cotinine concentrations by amount of smoke exposure were statistically significant. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the correlation of cotinine concentrations among the three fluids. The value 0.8 was used in calculations for men whose cotinine concentrations were below the limits of detection of the assay. Analyses involving urine cotinine measurements were performed both with and without corrections for creatinine concentration to control for the effects of differential urine flow among participants.

Results

Non-, light, and heavy smokers were similar in age, with heavy smokers (mean age: 26.3 ± 4.8 years) being slightly older, on average, than light (23.2 ± 3.7 years) and nonsmokers (24.3 ± 4.6 years). Heavy smokers averaged 26.8 ± 8.0 cigarettes per day while light smokers averaged 10.8 ± 4.9 cigarettes per day.

Results of the cotinine analyses showed that, among the 48 smokers, detectable levels of cotinine were found in 100% of urine and semen specimens and in 98% of blood specimens. Cotinine levels were highest in the urine. For each individual, blood and semen cotinine levels were of similar magnitude; urine cotinine levels were an order of magnitude or more higher.

Figures 3a to c show the distribution of cotinine concentrations by the amount of smoke exposure in the three fluids. Despite the seemingly aberrant values, median cotinine concentrations in blood, urine, and semen increased with an increase in the amount of smoke exposure ($P < .0001$) (Table 1). Removal of the five aberrant values did not significantly affect median cotinine values.

The correlation of cotinine concentrations among the three body fluids for smokers was relatively high, ranging from .63 to .66 unlogged and from .67 to .78 logged (Table 2). Among nonsmokers, correlation coefficients comparing cotinine concentrations among the three fluids were not statistically significant. The correlation of cotinine concentrations with the number of cigarettes smoked per day among smokers was modest, with correlation coefficients approximately equal to .5 (Table 2).

The correlation coefficient for the log of the urine cotinine concentration compared with the log of the urine cotinine concentration divided by the creatinine concentration was .98. Because the correlation coefficient was so high, it was felt that analyses involving urine cotinine need not be corrected for creatinine concentration.

Discussion

Detectable levels of cotinine, a metabolite of nicotine, were found in the semen of healthy male smokers of reproductive age. Cotinine concentrations in semen were of similar magnitude to cotinine con-

TABLE 1—Median Cotinine Concentrations (ng/mL), by Fluid and Number of Cigarettes Smoked per Day

Fluid/Cigarettes Smoked per Day	No. Subjects	Median Cotinine Concentrations (ng/mL)	95% CI	P
Semen				
0 cigarettes	39 ^a	0.8	0.8, 2.8	.0001
1–19 cigarettes	22 ^b	220.7	61.6, 381.6	
20+ cigarettes	25	602.3	322.4, 901.6	
Urine				
0 cigarettes	40	17.0	13.8, 21.9	.0001
1–19 cigarettes	23	3516.1	1438.6, 4308.1	
20+ cigarettes	25	7179.1	4369.6, 12073.6	
Blood				
0 cigarettes	40	0.8	0.8, 1.8	.0001
1–19 cigarettes	23	137.0	52.6, 287.1	
20+ cigarettes	25	467.6	253.5, 686.6	

Note. Nondetectable values were set at 0.8 ng/mL.
^aSpecimen missing owing to laboratory accident.
^bSpecimen missing owing to insufficient specimen produced.

TABLE 2—Correlation Coefficients for Logged and Unlogged Cotinine Concentrations, by Body Fluid and Number of Cigarettes Smoked per Day (Smokers Only)^a

	Semen Cotinine		Urine Cotinine		Blood Cotinine	
	Unlogged	Logged	Unlogged	Logged	Unlogged	Logged
Semen, ng/mL	1	1				
Urine, ng/mL	.66 (.0001)	.67 (.0001)	1	1		
Blood, ng/mL	.63 (.0001)	.78 (.0001)	.65 (.0001)	.72 (.0001)	1	1
No. cigarettes per day	.53 (.0001)	.53 (.0001)	.53 (.0001)	.40 (.0044)	.57 (.0001)	.47 (.0008)

Note. Row values are logged or unlogged as the column indicates; P values are indicated in parentheses.
^aSmokers only (n = 48).

centrations in blood. Concentrations in urine were an order of magnitude or more higher than those in semen or blood. A statistically significant increase in median cotinine concentrations with an increase in amount of smoke exposure was noted in all three body fluids. The correlation of cotinine concentrations among the three fluids was high, with logged cotinine values showing greater predictive value than unlogged values. Cotinine concentrations increased with an increase in the number of cigarettes smoked per day, although the correlation between logged cotinine concentrations in the three fluids and the number of cigarettes smoked per day among smokers was modest ($r = .40$ to $.53$).

We are not aware of other documentation of the presence of cotinine in the semen of men exposed to tobacco smoke. Earlier studies have reported elevated cotinine concentrations in urine as compared with blood.^{6,7}

When cotinine concentrations among the three fluids were compared for each individual, five seemingly aberrant values (three urine specimens and two blood specimens) were noted. Repeated analyses confirmed the cotinine concentrations in these specimens. The reason for the aberrant values is unknown, and conclusions reached in this manuscript are not altered by their presence or absence.

Logged cotinine concentrations were used in these analyses to produce a measure of concentration that was less skewed and had a more nearly homogeneous variance. There is some precedent in the literature for using such values. Thompson et al.⁸ recommended using logged cotinine concentrations in their study correlating blood and urine cotinine concentrations in order to make the distributions of cotinine concentrations in the two fluids more symmetrical.

Cotinine in this investigation serves as a marker of tobacco smoke exposure.

The high concordance in cotinine concentrations across the three body fluids supports the use of any of these fluids as a surrogate for cigarette smoke exposure in the other fluids.

Smoking has been associated with decreased sperm density and motility and increased abnormal sperm morphology.¹ How cigarette smoke affects semen quality is unclear. Although cotinine is not known to be mutagenic, further research is needed to determine whether potentially harmful substances in tobacco smoke reach the semen and have adverse effects on sperm. □

Acknowledgments

This work was supported through Cooperative Agreement #R813485-01 between the Health Effects Research Laboratory, US Environmental Protection Agency, and the University of North Carolina, Department of Epidemiology and a contract (68D80017) with SRA Technologies, Inc.

The authors gratefully acknowledge the laboratory and technical expertise of the following people in helping to conduct this study: Christine Cabot, Christina Musser, Annette Ingle, Stuart Pullen, Solange Andreoni, Habib Moalem, Jack Baston, Eileen Gregory, and David Shore. The authors would also like to thank Michael Brame and John Cole for helping with data collection, and Carol Morton and Kathy Sutton for preparation of this manuscript.

References

- Rosenberg MJ. Does smoking affect sperm? In: Rosenberg MJ, ed. *Smoking and Reproductive Health*. Littleton, Mass: PSG Publishing Company, Inc; 1987:54–62.
- Jarvis MJ, Russell MAH, Benowitz NL, Feyerabend C. Elimination of cotinine from body fluids: implications for noninvasive measurement of tobacco smoke exposure. *Am J Public Health*. 1988;78(6):696–698.
- Langone JJ, Gjika HB, Van Vunakis H. Nicotine and its metabolites: radioimmunoassays for nicotine and cotinine. *Biochem*. 1973;12:5025–5030.
- Van Vunakis H, Gjika HB, Langone JJ. Method 16—radioimmunoassay for nicotine and cotinine. *IARC Sci Publ*. 1987;81:317–330.
- Dixon WJ, Massey FJ Jr. *Introduction to Statistical Analysis*. 3rd ed. New York, NY: McGraw Hill; 1969:562.
- Wall MA, Johnson J, Jacob P, Benowitz NL. Cotinine in the serum, saliva, and urine of nonsmokers, passive smokers, and active smokers. *Am J Public Health*. 1988;78(6):699–701.
- Jarvis MJ, Tunstall-Pedoe H, Feyerabend C, Vesey C, Saloojee Y. Comparison of tests used to distinguish smokers from nonsmokers. *Am J Public Health*. 1987;77(11):1435–1438.
- Thompson SG, Barlow RD, Wald NJ, Van Vunakis HV. How should urinary cotinine concentrations be adjusted for urinary creatinine concentration? *Clin Chim Acta*. 1990;187:289–296.