

adrenal gland or colon were also found in offspring. Decreased serum levels of creatinine, triglycerides, and magnesium in female offspring and of thyroxine in male offspring were found at 2.5 mg/kg. Decreased weight of the spleen in male offspring and the thymus in female offspring were observed at 0.25 mg/kg. Significant effects on growth profiles in male and female offspring, and decreased liver weights in female offspring were noted even at 0.025 mg/kg (Cooke et al. 2004). Immunotoxic effects of TBTCI were determined in these rat offspring (Tryphonas et al. 2004). Thymus atrophy, an increase in the number of natural killer cells and immunoglobulin M (IgM) levels, a decrease in the IgG2a levels at 2.5 mg/kg, and an increase in the mean percentage immature T lymphocytes and IgG levels at 0.25 mg/kg and higher were observed in offspring. Significant effects were found more frequently at 0.25 mg/kg and higher, and minor effects were observed at 0.025 mg/kg. Tryphonas et al. (2004) concluded that the low levels of TBTCI affected humoral and cell-mediated immunity, and the number and function of cells involved in the host's immunosurveillance mechanisms against tumors and vital infections in rat offspring.

Postnatal behavioral changes in pups of SD rats that received TBTCI prenatally on days 6 to 20 of pregnancy, at doses not toxic to the mother, were also reported (Gårdlund et al. 1991). An increase in spontaneous activity, such as locomotion, rearing, and total activity, retarded acquisition in radial arm maze performance, and potentiation of d-amphetamine-induced hyperactivity were observed at 1 and 5 mg/kg.

The adverse effects of DBT, a major metabolite of TBT, on embryonic/fetal development were assessed after maternal administration during organogenesis. Pregnant Wistar rats were given DBTA by gavage at 1.7, 5, or 15 mg/kg during the whole period, on days 0 to 19, of pregnancy (Noda et al. 1988). At 15 mg/kg, a decrease in body weight gain and thymus weight in dams, and a low body weight and increased number of fetal malformations occurred. Administration of DBTA by gavage during the organogenetic period, on days 7 to 17, of pregnancy at 10 mg/kg and higher also caused increased fetal malformations, such as cleft mandible, cleft lower lip, ankyloglossia, schistoglossia, exencephaly, anury, vestigial tail, and deformity of the ribs and vertebrae (Noda et al. 1992a). Decreases in thymus weight and fetal weight at 10 mg/kg and higher, and decreases in maternal weight gain at 15 mg/kg were observed following administration of DBTA on days 7 to 17 of pregnancy. The most susceptible gestational day to teratogenicity of DBTA in rats was day 8 of pregnancy (Noda et al. 1992b). Occurrences of similar types of fetal malformations after administration of DBTA on day 8 of pregnancy were also reported in other papers (Node et al. 1993, 1994, 2001). Teratogenic effects of DBTCI were also studied in Wistar rats. Female rats were given DBTCI by gavage at 2.5, 5.0, or 7.5 mg/kg on days 7 to 15 of pregnancy (Ema et al. 1991). The incidence of fetal malformations was increased and roughly proportional to the dose of DBTCI administered at 5.0 mg/kg and higher. Cleft jaw, ankyloglossia, omphalocele, anomaly of

the tail, defect of the mandible, deformity of the vertebral column and ribs, and microphthalmia were frequently observed. In this study, decreases in maternal weight gain and food consumption was observed at 7.5 mg/kg and higher. These results indicate that DBTCl produce teratogenic effects in the absence of overt maternal toxicity. However, the thymus weight was not determined. The susceptible gestational days to teratogenicity of DBTCl was determined after administration of relatively high doses of TBTCI on days 7 to 9, on days 10 to 12, or on days 13 to 15 of pregnancy (Ema et al. 1992). An increase in fetal malformations and postimplantation loss was detected after administration of DBTCl at 20 mg/kg on days 7 to 9, but neither was detected on days 10 to 12 nor on days 13 to 15. The data of the study in which pregnant rats were given a single dose of DBTCl by gavage showed that developing offspring were not susceptible to teratogenicity of DBTCl on day 6, and that day 7 was the earliest susceptible period, day 8 was the most susceptible period, and day 9 was no longer a susceptible period with respect to the teratogenicity of DBTCl (Ema et al. 1992). Occurrences of similar types of fetal malformations after administration of DBTCl on day 8 or on days 7 to 8 of pregnancy were also reported in rats (Noda et al. 1993, Ema et al. 1995b). Farr et al. (2001) also reported the developmental toxicity of DBTCl in rats. Wistar rats were administered DBTCl by gavage at 1, 2.5, 5, or 10 mg/kg on days 6 to 15 of pregnancy. Decreases in maternal weight gain, food consumption, and thymus weight, but not developmental indicators, were observed at the highest dose tested, 10 mg/kg. At this dose, four fetuses out of 262 fetuses had malformations, including ankyloglossia, mandible defects, tail anomaly, and deformity of the vertebrae, which were similar types of malformations to those previously reported after administration of DBTA (Noda et al. 1988, 1992a, b, 1993, 1994, 2001) and DBTCl (Ema et al. 1991, 1992, 1995b, Noda et al. 1993). They concluded that a slightly increased, but not statistically significant, number of malformations was associated with the onset of maternal toxicity, and that no increase in developmental defects was induced at dose levels that did not result in maternal toxicity.

The teratogenic effects of five DBTs with different anions, such as DBTA, DBTCl, dibutyltin maleate (DBTM), dibutyltin oxide (DBTO), and dibutyltin dilaurate (DBTL), were determined in Wistar rats given by gavage at 80  $\mu$ mol/kg on the most susceptible day for teratogenicity of DBTA and DBTCl (Noda et al. 1993). Although the incidences of fetuses with malformations were different among DBTs, the types of malformations induced by these DBTs are similar to those in the previous studies with DBTA. Noda et al. (1993) suggest the importance of the dibutyl group rather than the anionic group in the production of fetal malformations. They also noted that butyl(3-hydroxybutyl)tin dilaurate (3-OHDBL), one of the main metabolites of DBTCl (Ishizaka et al. 1989), was not responsible for the teratogenicity of DBTCl because of weak potential for production of fetal malformations.

TeBT is metabolized to tri-, di-, and monobutyltin derivatives (Kimmel et al. 1977). The TBT compound is metabolized to di- and monobutyltin

derivatives, and DBT was metabolized to MBT in rats (Iwai et al. 1981). TeBT, TBTCI, DBTCI, and MBTCI were compared for their developmental toxicity to evaluate these butyltin compounds as potential toxicants in teratogenicity following administration of relatively high doses of butyltins to pregnant rats during the susceptible period to teratogenesis of TBTCI or during the susceptible period to teratogenesis of DBTCI. Pregnant rats were given TeBT, TBTCI, or DBTCI during the period of susceptibility to the teratogenesis of TBTCI, on days 13 to 15 of pregnancy (Ema et al. 1996a). TeBT caused an increased incidence of cleft palate at 1832 mg (5280 $\mu$ mol)/kg. TBTCI induced a markedly increased incidence of fetuses with cleft palate at 54 mg (165  $\mu$ mol)/kg and higher, and decreased fetal weight at 108 mg (330  $\mu$ mol)/kg. Following administration of DBTCI on days 13 to 15 of pregnancy, fetal weight was reduced at 54 mg (165  $\mu$ mol)/kg and higher, but neither increase in postimplantation loss nor fetuses with malformations was found even at 100 mg (330  $\mu$ mol)mg/kg. These results indicate that there are differences in the manifestation and degree of developmental toxicity among TeBT, TBT, and DBT. Pregnant rats received TBTCI, DBTCI, or MBTCI during the period of susceptibility to teratogenesis of DBTC, on days 7 to 8 of pregnancy (Ema et al. 1995b). TBTCI at 40 and 80 mg/kg caused an increase in postimplantation embryoletality, but no increase in fetal malformations. DBTCI caused a markedly high incidence of fetal malformations, lower fetal weight, and higher postimplantation embryonic loss at 10 mg/kg and higher. No increase in the incidences of postimplantation loss or malformed fetuses was observed after administration of MBTCI even at 1500 mg/kg. These results indicate that the developmental toxicity of DBTCI is different from that of TBTCI and MBTCI in the level of susceptibility and spectrum of toxicity. A lack of developmental toxicity of MBTCI was also reported by Noda et al. (1992a). MBTCI on days 7 to 17 of pregnancy did not affect maternal body weight and thymus weight, or fetal survival, growth, and morphological development, even at 400 mg/kg in Wistar rats. Their observations support the theory that MBTCI does not participate in the induction of the developmental toxicity of butyltins.

#### *In Vitro Dymorphogenic Effects of Butyltin Compounds*

Krowke et al. (1986) evaluated the effects of TBTO on limb differentiation. In the organ culture system using mouse limb buds, TBTO interfered with morphogenetic differentiation at a concentration of 0.03  $\mu$ g/mL. TBTO affected the differentiation of the paw skeleton and the development of the scapula. They concluded that the effects of TBTO on mouse limb differentiation should be interpreted as a cytotoxic effect rather than a specific dymorphogenic action. Yonemoto et al. (1993) determined the relative teratogenic potencies of TBTO, TBTCI, (3-OH) hydroxybutyl dibutyltin chloride (3-OHHDBTCI), DBTCI, and MBTCI by comparing developmental hazard estimates using rat embryo limb bud cell cultures. The organotin compounds tested, except for MBTCI, were very strong inhibitors of cell differentiation

and cell proliferation. Fifty percent inhibition concentration for cell proliferation (IP50) and for cell differentiation (ID50), and the ratio of the former to the later (P/D ratio) of each compound was determined. Among TBTO, TBTCI, and its metabolites (i.e., 3-OHHDBTCI, DBTCI, and MBTCI), DBTCI showed the lowest ID50 and the highest P/D ratio, therefore the teratogenic potential of DBTCI was considered to be the highest. They noted that the proximate toxicant of DBT teratogenicity is DBT itself, TBT is rather embryolethal than teratogenic. These findings support the results of *in vivo* developmental toxicity studies on butyltins. The embryotoxicity and dysmorphogenic potential of DBTCI were determined for gestation day 8.5 rat embryos, which are highly susceptible to the teratogenic effects of DBTCI when administered to pregnant rats. Markedly decreased incidences in embryos with well-developed vascularization in the body and yolk sac, yolk sac diameter, crown-rump length, and number of somite pairs were found at 30 ng/mL (Ema et al. 1995c). A concentration-dependent decrease in the morphological score and increase in incidence of embryos with anomalies were noted, and the differences were significant for embryos exposed to DBTCI at concentrations of 10 and 30 ng/mL. Open anterior neuropore and craniofacial abnormalities were predominantly observed. These results indicate that DBTCI exerts dysmorphogenic effects on postimplantation embryos *in vitro*. Noda et al. (1994) reported that DBT was detected in rat maternal blood at 100 ng/g, and in embryos at 720 ng/g, at 24 hours after gavage administration of DBTA at 22 mg/kg, teratogenic dose, on day 8 of pregnancy. Their results show that DBT is transferred to embryos, and embryonic levels of DBT exceed those in maternal blood, suggesting that embryos may be able to accumulate DBT. The dysmorphogenic concentrations of DBTCI in embryos cultured from gestation day 8.5 were well within the range of levels detected in maternal blood after the administration of a teratogenic dose of DBT. These findings indicate that teratogenic effects of DBTCI may be due to a direct interference with embryos. The toxic effects of DTBCI were examined in rat embryos during three different stages of organogenesis (i.e., the primitive streak, neural fold, and early forelimb bud stages), using the rat whole embryo culture system (Ema et al. 1996b). Rat embryos were explanted on gestation day 8.5, 9.5, or 11.5 and cultured. Dysmorphogenesis in embryos cultured from gestation day 8.5, 9.5, or 11.5 was observed at concentrations of 10 ng/mL and higher, 50 ng/mL and higher, and 300 ng/mL, respectively. Incomplete turning and craniofacial defects in embryos cultured from gestation day 8.5 and day 9.5, and defects of the forelimb buds and tail in embryos cultured from gestation day 11.5, were frequently observed. These results show that *in vitro* exposure to DBTCI interferes with normal development of embryos during three different stages of organogenesis and that the susceptibility to the embryotoxicity, including dysmorphogenic potential, of DBTCI varies with developmental stage. These findings suggest that the phase specificity for the *in vivo* teratogenesis of DBTCI given to pregnant rats may be attributable to a decline in the susceptibility of embryos to the dysmorphogenesis of DBTCI with advancing development.

### Summary of Developmental Toxicity of Butyltin Compounds

Maternal exposure during pregnancy to TBTs, such as TBTO, TBTA, and TBTCI, caused embryonic/fetal deaths and suppression of fetal growth at maternal toxic doses. At severely maternal toxic doses of TBTs, cleft palate was produced in fetuses. Behavioral changes were also reported in postnatal offspring of rats that received TBTs during pregnancy at doses that did not cause overt maternal toxicity. Significant effects on growth profiles in male and female offspring, and decreased liver weights in female offspring were noted after administration of TBTCI by gavage from day 8 of pregnancy until adulthood even at 0.025 mg/kg. Many reports showed that DBT is teratogenic when administered during organogenesis. DBT may increase the incidence of fetal malformations at marginal doses that induced maternal toxicity. Developing embryos were not susceptible to teratogenicity of DBTCI on day 6; day 7 was the earliest susceptible period, day 8 was the most susceptible period, and day 9 was no longer a period of susceptibility to the teratogenicity of DBTCI. There were differences in the manifestation and degree of developmental toxicity among TeBT, TBT, DBT, and MBT. The developmental toxicity studies on butyltins suggest that the teratogenicity of DBT is different from those of TeBT, TBT, and MBT in its mode of action, because the susceptible period for teratogenicity and types of malformations induced by DBT are different from those induced by tetra-, tri-, and mono-substituted organotins. DBTCI exerts dysmorphogenic effects on postimplantation embryos *in vitro*. The dysmorphogenic concentrations of DBTCI in embryos cultured were well within the range of levels detected in maternal blood after the administration of a teratogenic dose of DBT. The phase specificity for the *in vivo* teratogenesis of DBTCI may be attributable to a decline in the susceptibility of embryos to the dysmorphogenesis of DBTCI with advancing development. The findings of *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies suggest that DBT itself is a causative agent in DBT teratogenesis.

### Developmental Toxicity of Miscellaneous Organotin Compounds

Table 3.5 presents the developmental toxicity studies on miscellaneous organotin compounds. Behavioral effects were determined in offspring of female SD rats given trimethyltin chloride (TMTCl) in drinking water at a concentration of 0.2, 0.8, or 1.7 mg/L, or monomethyltin trichloride (MMTCl) in drinking water at a concentration of 24.3, 80.9, or 243 mg/L from 12 days before mating, to day 21 of lactation, throughout the mating and pregnancy period (Noland et al. 1982). Only male pups were tested. Learning deficiency was detected in organotin-treated pups. Pups from dams exposed to TMTCl at 1.7 mg/L or MMTCl at 243 mg/L displayed an increased acquisition time in a runway learning test on PND 11. A higher escape time in a swim escape test on PND 21 was also observed in male pups exposed to prenatal MMTCl at 24 and 243 mg/L. In this study, there was no difference between the weights of control and experimental animals in suckling pups and their

Table 3.5 Developmental Toxicity of Miscellaneous Organotin Compounds

Compounds	Animals	Dose	Days of Administration	Route	Reproductive and Developmental Effects	Author(s)
TMTCI	SD rat	1.7 mg/L	14 days before mating to lactation day 21	Drinking water	Learning deficiency in male pups	Noland et al. (1982)
MMTCI	SD rat	243 mg/L	As above	As above	As above	
TMTCI	SD rat	5-9 mg/kg	Day 7, 12, or 17 of pregnancy	ip	Decreased postnatal wt. gain, decreased no. of pups, degenerative changes in hippocampus	Paule et al. (1986)
TMTCI	THA rat	5-7 mg/kg	Day 12 of pregnancy	ip	Disruption of learning acquisition	Miyake et al. (1989)
THTCI	SD rat	5 mg/kg	Day 6-20 of pregnancy	Gavage	Increased spontaneous activity, increased d-amphetamine-stimulate rearing	Gårdlund et al. (1991)
DMTCI	Wistar rat	15-20 mg/kg	Days 7-17 of pregnancy	Gavage	Decreased fetal wt., cleft palate	Noda (2001)
		40 mg/kg	Days 7-9 or 13-15 of pregnancy	Gavage	Skeletal variations	
Octyltin stabilizer ZK 30.434 (80% DOTTG and 20% MOTTG)						
	Han:NMRI mouse	20-100 mg/kg	Days 5-16 of pregnancy	Gavage	Postimplantation loss, decreased fetal wt., bent forelimb, cleft palate, exencephaly, skeletal malformations and variations	Faqi et al. (2001)

dams. Postnatal growth and neuronal alterations were evaluated in pups of SD rats intraperitoneally injected on either day 7, 12, or 17 of pregnancy with a single dose of TMTCl at 5, 7, or 9 mg/kg (Paule et al. 1986). Maternal body weight at term of pregnancy was lower in the TMTCl-treated groups. Prenatal TMTCl decreased pup weight at 7 mg/kg and higher. A decreased number of surviving pups was found only in the group treated TMTCl at 9 mg/kg on day 17 of pregnancy. Generative changes in the hippocampus were more frequently noted in pups exposed to TMTCl on day 12 or 17 than on day 7. Paule et al. (1986) concluded that prenatal exposure to TMTCl causes toxic effects in postnatal offspring, but only in the presence of maternal toxicity. Disruption of learning acquisition was reported in offspring of THA rats intraperitoneally injected with TMTCl at 5 or 7 mg/kg on day 12 of pregnancy (Miyake et al. 1989). No maternal toxicity was found at 5 mg/kg. No effects of TMTCl on body weight, survival, or physical and functional development of pups were detected. In the Sidman avoidance test, the avoidance rate of the TMTCl-treated offspring rats was lower when compared to that of the controls.

Postnatal behavioral changes in pups were determined in rats prenatally administered trihexyltin chloride (THTCl) (Gårdlund et al. 1991). Pregnant SD rats were gavaged THTCl at 5 mg/kg on days 6 to 20 of pregnancy and allowed to litter. An increase in spontaneous activity, including locomotion and total activity, and a marginally increased d-amphetamine-stimulated rearing behavior were observed in postnatal pups at 5 mg/kg. This dose level did not induce maternal toxicity.

Dimethyltin chloride (DMTCl) was given to Wistar rats by gavage at 5, 10, 15, or 20 mg/kg on days 7 to 17 of pregnancy (Noda 2001). At 20 mg/kg, severe clinical signs of toxicity, including death and marked decreases in body weight gain and food consumption in pregnant rats, and incidence of cleft palate in fetuses were observed. Decreases in maternal thymus weight and fetal weight were found at 15 mg/kg and higher. No increase in incidence of fetal malformations was detected following administration of DMTCl on days 7 to 9, on days 10 to 12, on days 13 to 15, or on days 16 to 17 of pregnancy at 20 or 40 mg/kg. Noda (2001) concluded that DMTCl produced fetal malformations at a severely maternal toxic dose.

The octyltin stabilizer ZK 30.434, a mixture of 80% dioctyltin diisooctylthioglycolate and 20% monoctyltin triisooctylthioglycolate (DOTTG/MOTTG) was gavaged to Han:NMRI mice at 20, 30, 45, 67, or 100 mg/kg on days 5 to 16 of pregnancy (Faqi et al. 2001). One death at 100 mg/kg and a decreased thymus weight at 45 and 100 mg/kg were observed in dams. An increase in resorptions and low fetal weight were found at 67 mg/kg and higher. An increase in number of external and skeletal anomalies, such as forelimb bent, cleft palate, exencephaly, clavicle bent, femur bent, and fused ribs, were observed at the highest dose. Incidences of cervical and lumbar ribs were increased at 20 mg/kg and higher. These results indicate that DOTTG/MOTTG is developmentally toxic in mice.

### *Summary of Developmental Toxicity of Miscellaneous Organotin Compounds*

Prenatal and/or postnatal exposure to TMTCl possesses developmental neurotoxic effects in postnatal rat offspring, even at doses that induced no maternal toxicity. The learning deficiency induced by prenatal TMTCl may be due to hippocampal lesions. Prenatal treatment of maternal toxic doses of TMTCl adversely affected survival and growth of offspring. Prenatal treatment of THTCl is also reported to induce behavioral changes in postnatal offspring. An increased number of cleft palates were observed in fetuses of rats given DMTCI during organogenesis at a severely maternal toxic dose. A mixture of DOTTG and MOTTG is developmentally toxic and produces fetal malformations in mice.

### *Conclusions*

Many studies on toxic effects of phenyltins and butyltins in aquatic organisms have been conducted. TBT or TPT causes the imposition of male sex organs (termed *imposex*) on female mud snails above the concentration of about 1 ng/L (Sn) in seawater, but DBT or MPT does not induce imposex. The intensity is characterized by a classification system based on the VDS index, and in advanced phases of imposex and sterilization with gross morphological changes would be irreversible. The biochemical mechanism studies suggested that the induction of either neurotropic hormone or androgen titers would lead to imposex induction at extremely low doses of TBT. Also TBT or TPT exposure in early life stages of fish causes altered embryonic development, impaired morphological development, and delayed or inhibited hatching, and induces reduced fecundity and sperm counts as reproductive effects. Such reproductive and developmental defects were also found in other species. The impaired reproduction and subsequent population decline in a variety of aquatic organisms by organotins are important issues in the aquatic ecosystem.

Many reports on reproductive and developmental toxic effects of phenyltins and butyltins in experimental animals have been published. While TPTs caused decreases in male fertility due to degenerative changes in testicular tissue, the female reproductive failure induced by TPTs is more prominent and the harmful effects of TPTs on the ovaries were presented after five days of treatment. TPTCl during early pregnancy caused implantation failure. Implantation failure due to TPTCl might be mediated by the suppression of uterine decidualization and correlated with the reduction in serum progesterone levels. These findings were also shown in rats given DPT, a major metabolite of TPT. Maternal exposure to TPTs during organogenesis caused embryonic/fetal death and suppression of fetal growth at maternal toxic doses. TPTs did not induce an increased number of fetal malformations, even at doses that produced overt maternal toxicity. Behavioral changes were reported in postnatal offspring of maternal rats that

received TPTs during pregnancy at doses that did not cause overt maternal toxicity. In a rat two-generation reproductive toxicity study, TBTCI at relatively low doses affected male and female reproductive systems, including decreased weights of the male reproductive organs, decreased counts of spermatids and sperms, decrease in serum estradiol levels, delayed vaginal opening, impaired estrous cyclicity, and increased female AGD. TBTCI and DBTCI during early pregnancy caused implantation failure in rats. Implantation failure due to TBTCI and DBTCI, at lower doses than TBTCI, may be mediated via the suppression of uterine decidualization and correlated with the reduction in serum progesterone levels. Administration of MBTCI during early pregnancy did not cause pre- or postimplantation loss. Maternal exposure during pregnancy to TBTs caused embryonic/fetal deaths, suppression of fetal growth, and cleft palate at maternal toxic doses. Significant effects on growth profiles and decreased liver weights were reported in offspring of rats given TBTCI by gavage, even at 0.025 mg/kg from day 8 of pregnancy until adulthood. Behavioral changes were also shown in postnatal offspring of rats that received TBTs during pregnancy at doses that did not cause overt maternal toxicity. Many reports demonstrated that DBT derivatives with different anions, such as dichloride, diacetate, maleate, dilaurate, and oxide, are teratogenic when administered during organogenesis in rats. Rat embryos are the most susceptible to teratogenic effects of DBT on day 8 of pregnancy after maternal exposure. The developmental toxicity studies on butyltins suggest that the teratogenic effects of DBT are different from those of TeBT, TBT, and MBT in its mode of action. DBTCI exerts dysmorphogenic effects on postimplantation embryos *in vitro*. The phase specificity for the *in vivo* teratogenic effects of DBTCI may be attributable to a decline in the susceptibility of embryos to the dysmorphogenesis of DBTCI with advancing development. The findings of *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies suggest that DBT itself is a causative agent in DBT teratogenesis. Because the teratogenicity of DTB has been reported in a single species, studies in additional species would be of great value in evaluating developmental toxicity of DBT. As for miscellaneous organotin compounds, several reports on developmental toxicity are published. Prenatal and/or postnatal exposure to TMTCl or THTCl caused behavioral changes in postnatal rat offspring. Behavioral changes in postnatal pups of rats given organotin prenatally and/or postnatally may be a sensitive parameter for reproductive and developmental toxicity. A mixture of DOTTG and MOTTG is developmentally toxic and produces fetal malformations in mice. An increased number of cleft palates was reported in fetuses of rats given DMTCl during organogenesis at severely maternal toxic dose.

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## ORIGINAL ARTICLE

## Elevated susceptibility of newborn as compared with young rats to 2-*tert*-butylphenol and 2,4-di-*tert*-butylphenol toxicity

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**ABSTRACT** In order to determine the susceptibility of newborn rats to 2-*tert*-butylphenol (2TBP) and 2,4-di-*tert*-butylphenol (DTBP) toxicity, studies were conducted with oral administration from postnatal days (PND) 4 to 21 and the findings were compared with results for young rats exposed from 5 or 6 weeks of age for 28 days. In the newborn rats, specific effects on physical and sexual development and reflex ontogeny were not observed. While there were no clear differences in toxicological profiles between newborn and young rats, the no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAELs) differed markedly. For 2TBP, clinical signs such as ataxic gait, decrease in locomotor activity and effects on liver, such as increase in organ weight, were observed and the NOAELs were concluded to be 20 and 100 mg/kg/day in newborn and young rats, respectively. Based on hepatic and renal toxicity (histopathological changes and increase in organ weight with blood biochemical changes), the respective NOAELs for DTBP were concluded to be 5 and 20 mg/kg/day. Therefore, the susceptibility of newborn rats to 2TBP and DTBP was found to be 4–5 times higher than that of young rats.

**Key Words:** 2, 4-di-*tert*-butylphenol, 2-*tert*-butylphenol, susceptibility of newborn rats

### INTRODUCTION

Protection of humans against disease and injury caused by chemicals in the environment is the ultimate goal of risk assessment and risk management (Landrigan *et al.* 2004). However, the focus has long been solely on adult exposure and toxicity and the fetus via maternal transfer, with little consideration given to early childhood. In the past decade, stimulated especially by the 1993 US National Research Council (NRC) report *Pesticides in the Diets of Infants and Children* (NAS 1993), recognition that special consideration is required for children in risk assessment has grown. The NRC report noted that 'children are not little adults', because of their unique patterns of exposures to environmental hazards and their particular vulnerability.

For the susceptibility of children to environmental chemicals, the early postnatal period (the suckling period) is of particular note. During this period, the infant could be exposed to various chemicals not only through mothers' milk, but also directly, by having

chemical-contaminated baby food, mouthing toys or household materials, and so on; however, current risk assessment gives no consideration to toxic effects resulting from direct exposure to chemicals. An approach that adequately takes into account the susceptibility of infancy is urgently required. However, because there is no standard testing protocol intended for direct exposure of preweaning animals (newborn animals) to chemicals, and toxicity studies using newborn animals are complicated by practical difficulties regarding grouping, direct dosing, and general and functional observation, there is only limited information on susceptibility of the newborn at the present.

We therefore have established a new protocol for repeated dose toxicity studies using newborn rats (newborn rat studies) (Koizumi *et al.* 2001) for systematic application. Results have been compared with those of 28-day repeated dose toxicity studies using young rats (young rat studies) to provide a basis of analyzing susceptibility. Since young rat studies are routinely conducted as one of a battery of minimum toxicity tests and data are stored for many chemicals, comparative analyzes should provide important information for considering effects of direct exposure to chemicals during the suckling period.

We have already reported analytical results for eight chemicals (4-nitrophenol, 2,4-dinitrophenol, 3-aminophenol, 3-methylphenol, 1,3-dibromopropane, 1,1,2,2-tetrabromoethane, 2,4,6-trinitrophenol, and tetrabromobisphenol A) (Koizumi *et al.* 2001, 2002, 2003; Fukuda *et al.* 2004; Takahashi *et al.* 2004; Hirata-Koizumi *et al.* 2005). The susceptibility of newborn rats to the toxicity of the first four agents was four times higher than that of their young counterparts at a maximum. For 1,3-dibromopropane and 1,1,2,2-tetrabromoethane, while the doses causing clear toxicity were lower in newborn rats, doses at which toxic signs began to appear were paradoxically higher in the newborn case. These six chemicals had no impact on development in the newborn period and showed similar toxicity profiles in both age groups. For the other two chemicals, there were marked differences in toxicity profile between the newborn and young rats. Especially, in the case of tetrabromobisphenol A, a specific rather than enhanced renal toxicity was observed in newborn case.

In the present investigation, two *tert*-butylphenols, 2-*tert*-butylphenol (2TBP), and 2,4-di-*tert*-butylphenol (DTBP), were chosen for comparative toxicity analysis. 2TBP has been used in the production of agricultural chemicals, aroma chemicals, and resins (New Chemical Index 2001), and DTBP in the production of antioxidants and ultraviolet absorbers (Chemical Products' Handbook 2004). For either chemical, there is no available toxicity information on human. Regarding toxicity to experimental animals, results from young rat studies of both chemicals are available in

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Received June 17, 2005; revised and accepted September 2, 2005.

Toxicity Testing Reports of Environmental Chemicals of the Japanese government (MHLW 2001a, 2001b), but no other data have been reported regarding repeated dose toxicity. Since the young rats were only evaluated for toxicity profiles and no-observed-effect levels, we re-evaluated the results for a more practical evaluation index, the no-observed-adverse-effect level (NOAEL), which could serve as the basis for determining tolerable daily intake (TDI) or acceptable daily intake (ADI) for risk assessment, and conducted comparative analyzes with newborn rats.

## MATERIALS

2-*tert*-Butylphenol (2TBP, CAS no. 88-18-6, purity: 99.97%) and 2,4-di-*tert*-butylphenol (DTBP, CAS no. 96-76-4, purity: 99.67%), obtained from Dainippon Ink and Chemicals, Incorporated (Tokyo, Japan), were dissolved in olive oil and corn oil, respectively. The test solutions were prepared once a week as stability for eight days had been confirmed. All other reagents used in this study were specific purity grade.

## METHODS

All studies were performed under Good Laboratory Practice conditions and in accordance with 'Guidance for Animal Care and Use' of Panapharm Laboratories Co., Ltd, Research Institute for Animal Science in Biochemistry and Toxicology, or Mitsubishi Chemical Safety Institute Ltd.

### Animals

In the newborn rat studies of 2TBP and DTBP, pregnant SPF Sprague-Dawley rats [Crj:CD(SD)IGS] were purchased at gestation days 13–15 from Charles River Japan Inc. (Yokohama, Japan), and allowed to deliver spontaneously. All newborn were separated from dams at postnatal day (PND) 3 (the date of birth was defined as PND 0), and pooled according to sex. At the same time, 12 foster mothers were selected among dams, based on the nursing condition. Each foster mother suckled four male and four female newborn, assigned to each of the four dose groups, including the controls, up to weaning on PND 21 (termination of dosing). After weaning, the animals of the recovery-maintenance group (see Study Design) were individually maintained for nine weeks.

In the young rat studies, 4–5 week-old males and females of the same strain were obtained from the same supplier as for the newborn rat studies, and used at ages of 5–6 weeks after acclimation.

All animals were maintained in an environmentally controlled room at 20–26°C with a relative humidity of 40–70%, a ventilation rate of more than ten times per hour, and a 12:12 h light/dark cycle. They were allowed free access to a basal diet (MF: Oriental Yeast Co. Ltd, Tokyo, Japan, or LABO MR Stock: Nihon Nosan Kogyo Inc., Yokohama, Japan) and water (sterile tap water or well water treated with sodium hypochlorite) throughout.

### Study design

#### 1. 18-day repeated dose toxicity study in newborn rats (newborn rat study)

Newborn rats (12/sex/dose) were administered the test substances by gastric intubation on PNDs 4–21. On PND 22, six males and six females in each treated group were sacrificed for autopsy (the scheduled-sacrifice group). The remaining animals in all groups (6 rats/sex/dose) were maintained for nine weeks without chemical treatment and then sacrificed at 12 weeks of age (the recovery-maintenance group).

Based on the results of dose-finding studies conducted prior to the main study, the dose, which would show clear toxicity, was selected as the top dose, that without potentially toxic effects as the lowest dose, and the medium dose was set between them. In the dose-finding study for 2TBP (oral administration from PNDs 4–21), some clinical signs and suppressed body weight gain were observed at 200 mg/kg and an increase in relative liver weight at 60 mg/kg and more. For DBTP (oral administration from PNDs 4–17), all of the four males and four females died at 500 mg/kg, and the death of one of the four males, an increase in serum total cholesterol and phospholipid, and increase in relative liver weight were noted in the 100 mg/kg group. Therefore, the doses were set at 0, 20, 60, or 200 mg/kg/day for 2TBP and at 0, 5, 40, or 300 mg/kg/day for DTBP.

During the study, the rats' general condition was observed at least once a day (details of clinical signs noted in this study are described in 'Glossary of terms for toxicity testing' [NIHS 1994]). Body weight and food consumption (only the recovery-maintenance period) was examined once or more a week. As developmental parameters, fur appearance, incisor eruption, pinna detachment and eye opening were assessed for physical development, and testes descent or preputial separation and vaginal opening for sexual development (OECD 2004). In addition, reflex ontogeny, such as visual placing reflex, and surface and mid-air righting reflexes, were also examined (Adams 1986; Jensch & Brent 1988). Urinalysis (color, occult blood, pH, protein, glucose, ketone bodies, bilirubin, urobilinogen, sediment, specific gravity, and volume of the urine) was conducted in the last week of the recovery-maintenance period.

At PNDs 22 and 85, blood was collected from the abdominal aorta under ether anesthesia (for 2TBP) or from the postcaval vein under pentobarbital sodium anesthesia (for DTBP) after overnight starvation for the scheduled-sacrifice and recovery-maintenance groups, respectively. One portion was treated with EDTA-2K and examined for hematological parameters, such as the red blood cell count, hemoglobin, hematocrit, mean corpuscular volume, mean corpuscular hemoglobin, mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration, white blood cell count, platelet count, reticulocyte count and differential leukocyte count. In the recovery-maintenance group, part of the blood was treated with 3.8% sodium citrate, and blood clotting parameters such as prothrombin time (PT) and activated partial thromboplastin time (APTT) were examined. Serum from the remaining portions of blood for both the scheduled-sacrifice and recovery-maintenance groups were analyzed for blood biochemistry (total protein, albumin, albumin-globulin ratio [A/G ratio], glucose, total cholesterol, triglycerides, phospholipid, total bilirubin, urea nitrogen [BUN], creatinine, glutamate oxaloacetate transaminase, glutamate pyruvate transaminase, alkaline phosphatase,  $\gamma$ -glutamyl transpeptidase [ $\gamma$ -GTP], calcium, inorganic phosphorus, sodium, potassium, and chlorine). Following collection of blood, all animals were sacrificed by exsanguination, and all organs and tissues were macroscopically examined. Then, the brain, pituitary gland, thymus, thyroids, heart, lungs, liver, spleen, kidneys, adrenals, testes, epididymides, and ovaries were removed and weighed. Histopathological examination was conducted for the control and the highest dose groups. The above-listed organs were fixed in 10% buffered formalin-phosphate (following Bouin's fixation for testes and epididymides), and paraffin sections were routinely prepared and stained with Hematoxylin-Eosin for microscopy. For other groups, organs with macroscopically abnormal findings or in which chemical-related effects were evident on microscopic examination for the highest dose group, were similarly investigated.