

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 DMTCl during organogenesis at a severely maternal toxic dose. A mixture of DOTG 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 TMTCI or THTCI 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 DMTCI during organogenesis at severely maternal toxic dose.

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Reproductive and developmental toxicity screening test of basic rubber accelerator, 1,3-di-*o*-tolylguanidine, in rats

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Abstract

Twelve male and female rats per group were exposed to the rubber accelerator 1,3-di-*o*-tolylguanidine (DTG) by gavage at 0, 8, 20 or 50 mg/kg bw/day. Males were dosed for a total of 49 days beginning 14 days before mating. Females were dosed for a total of 40–49 days beginning 14 days before mating to day 3 of lactation throughout the mating and gestation period. At 50 mg/kg bw/day, deaths were observed in two males and three females. Lowered body weight gain and food consumption were noted in males at 50 mg/kg bw/day and females at 20 and 50 mg/kg bw/day. Mydriasis, decreased locomotor activity, bradypnea, prone position, tremor and/or salivation were observed in males and females at 20 and 50 mg/kg bw/day. No effects of DTG were found on the estrous cyclicity, precoital interval, copulation, fertility and gestational indices, numbers of corpora lutea and implantations, or gestation length. A significant decrease in the number, body weight and viability of offspring and increase in the incidence of fetuses with external malformations were found at 50 mg/kg bw/day. Oligodactyly, anal atresia and tail anomalies were observed. These data suggest that DTG may be teratogenic. The NOAELs of DTG for general and developmental toxicity in rats are 8 and 20 mg/kg bw/day, respectively.

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1. Introduction

The basic rubber accelerator 1,3-di-*o*-tolylguanidine (CAS No. 97-39-2; DTG) is produced in the million pound range annually in the United States [1,2]. DTG is known as a selective sigma ligand [3]. In this context, many pharmacological studies of DTG were performed [3–12]. Ligands that interact with sigma sites have been shown to produce hypothermia [4–6]. Hypothermia induced by DTG was detected following subcutaneous or intracerebroventricle injection in rats [5,6] and intraperitoneal injection in mice [4]. The intraperitoneal injection of DTG potentially reduced the pain behavior in the acute but increased pain behavior in the tonic phase in the formalin test in mice [7]. Intraperitoneal injection of DTG produced significant but short-lived increases in the withdrawal latencies in

mice [4]. Bastianetto et al. [8] showed that unilateral intranigral injection caused circulating behavior in rats and suggested that sigma sites play a role in movement and posture through their association with brainstem and forebrain motor control circuits. Decreased locomotor activity induced by intraperitoneal injection [9,10], increased bladder capacity induced by intravenous injection in the anaesthetized condition [11] and no change in immobility time in open field after intraperitoneal injection [12] were also reported in rats given DTG. Toxicological studies on DTG have given little information on acute animal toxicity [13]: intraperitoneal LD50 was 25 mg/kg bw in mice; oral LD50 was 500 mg/kg bw in rats; lowest published lethal dose of oral administration was 80 mg/kg bw in rabbits; and the lowest published lethal dose was 120 mg/kg bw after oral administration in mammals, species unspecified. At the present time, no information is available for the reproductive and developmental toxicity of DTG. It is generally assumed that the results of animal test on chemical toxicity are relevant to human health [14]. As such, the testing for reproductive and developmental toxicity

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in animal models is an important part of the overall toxicology. The present study was conducted to obtain information on the effects of DTG on reproductive and developmental parameters in rats.

2. Materials and methods

This study was performed in compliance with OECD guideline 421 Reproduction/Developmental Toxicity Screening Test [15] and in accordance with the principles for Good Laboratory Practice [16,17] and “Guidance for Animal Care and Use” of Panapharm Laboratories Co., Ltd.

2.1. Animals

International Genetic Standard (Crj: CD (SD) IGS) rats were used throughout this study. This strain was chosen because it is most commonly used in toxic studies, including reproductive and developmental toxicity studies, and historical control data are available. Males and females at 8 weeks of age were purchased from Atsugi Breeding Center, Charles River Japan, Inc. (Yokohama, Japan). The rats were acclimated to the laboratory for 13 days prior to the start of the experiment. Male and female rats found to be in good health were selected for use. Vaginal smears of each female were recorded and only females showing a 4-day estrous cycle were used in the experiment. Male and female rats were distributed on a random basis into four groups of 12 males and 12 females each. Rats were housed individually, except during the acclimation, mating and nursing periods. From day 0 of pregnancy to the day of sacrifice, individual dams and litters were reared using wooden chips as bedding (White Flake; Charles River Japan, Inc.).

Animals were reared on a sterilized basal diet (CRF-1; Oriental Yeast Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and sterilized water ad libitum and maintained in an air-conditioned room at $24 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$, with a relative humidity of $55 \pm 10\%$, a 12-h light/12-h dark cycle and ventilation with 13–15 air changes per hour.

2.2. Chemicals and dosing

DTG was obtained from Sumitomo Chemical Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). DTG, a white powder, is slightly soluble in hot water and alcohol, soluble in chloroform and very soluble in ether, and its melting point is 179°C , specific gravity is 1.10 and molecular weight is 239.3 [2]. The DTG (Lot No. 30J08) used in this study was 99.6% pure, and it was kept in a dark place at room temperature. The purity and stability of the chemical were verified by analysis before the study. Rats were dosed once daily by gastric intubation with DTG at a dose of 0 (control), 8, 20 or 50 mg/kg bw. The dosage levels were determined based on the results of our previous dose-finding study, the 14-day repeated dose toxicity study in rats given DTG by gavage at 0, 10, 20, 40 or 80 mg/kg bw/day, in which deaths were found at 80 mg/kg bw/day, decreased locomotor activity, mydriasis, tremor and salivation were observed at 40 and 80 mg/kg bw/day, and no adverse effects were detected at 10 and 20 mg/kg bw/day (data not shown). DTG was suspended in 0.5% (w/v) carboxymethylcellulose-Na solution with 0.1% (w/v) Tween 80. Males (12 rats/group) were dosed for a total of 49 days beginning 14 days before mating. Females (12 rats/group) were dosed for a total of 40–49 days beginning 14 days before mating to day 3 of lactation throughout the mating and gestation period. The volume of each dose was adjusted to 10 ml/kg body weight based on the latest body weight during the re-mating and mating period in males and females or the body weight on day 0 of pregnancy in females after copulation. Control rats were given 0.5% (w/v) carboxymethylcellulose-Na solution with 0.1% (w/v) Tween 80. The stability of formulations has been confirmed for up to 8 days. During use, the formulations were maintained under such conditions for less than 7 days, and the target concentration was 96.5 to 101.4%.

2.3. Observations

All rats were observed daily for clinical signs of toxicity. The body weight was recorded twice a week in males, and twice a week during the pre-mating and mating periods, on days 0, 7, 14 and 21 of pregnancy and on days 0 and 4 of

lactation in females. Food consumption was recorded twice weekly during the pre-mating period in males, and twice weekly during the pre-mating period, on days 1, 7, 14 and 21 of pregnancy and on days 1 and 4 of lactation in females. The rats were euthanized by exsanguination under anesthesia on the next day of the last administration in males and on day 4 of lactation in females. The external surfaces of the rats were examined. The abdomen and thoracic cavity were opened, and gross internal examination was performed. In males, the testes and epididymides were weighed. In females, the numbers of corpora lutea and implantation sites and weight of the ovaries were recorded. The testes and epididymides were fixed with Bouin's solution and preserved in 10% neutral buffered formalin, and the ovaries were stored in 10% neutral buffered formalin. Histopathological evaluations were performed on hematoxylin–eosin-stained tissue sections of these organs.

Daily vaginal lavage samples of each female were evaluated for estrous cyclicity throughout the pre-mating period. Each female rat was mated overnight with a single male rat of the same dosage group until copulation occurred or the mating period, 2 weeks, had elapsed. During the mating period, daily vaginal smears were examined for the presence of sperm. The presence of the sperm in the vaginal smear and/or a vaginal plug was considered evidence for successful mating. Once insemination was confirmed, the females were checked for signs of parturition before noon from day 20 of pregnancy. The females were allowed to deliver spontaneously and nurse their pups until postnatal day (PND) 4. The day on which parturition was completed by 12:00 was designated as PND 0. Litter size and numbers of live and dead pups were recorded. Gender was determined on live pups examined grossly and individually weighed on PNDs 0 and 4. On PND 4, the pups were euthanized by exsanguination under anesthesia and gross internal examinations were performed.

2.4. Data analysis

The statistical analysis of pups was carried out using the litter as the experimental unit. The body weight, body weight gain, food consumption, length of estrous cycles, pre-coital interval, gestation length, weight of the organs, relative organ weight, numbers of corpora lutea, implantations and live and dead pups, total number of pups and weight of live pups were analyzed with Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variance at the 5% level of significance. If homogeneous the data were analyzed using Dunnett's multiple comparison test to compare the mean of the control group with that of each dosage group. If not, the DTG-treated groups were compared with that of the control group with Steel's multiple comparison test. The implantation, delivery and viability indexes, and incidence of pups with anomalies and individual anomalies were analyzed with Wilcoxon's rank sum test. The mortality, copulation, fertility and gestation indexes, and sex ratio of pups were analyzed with Fisher's exact test. The 5% level of probability was used as the criterion for significant.

3. Results

Table 1 shows the findings in male rats given DTG. At 50 mg/kg bw/day, one male died after six administrations and one male died after seven administrations. These dead rats showed mydriasis, decreased locomotor activity, bradypnea, a prone position and tremor 10–20 min after the administration of DTG. In surviving males, mydriasis, decreased locomotor activity, bradypnea and prone position on days 1–9 of the administration period, tremor during the whole period of administration and salivation on days 22–49 of the administration period were also observed at 50 mg/kg bw/day. Salivation was noted on days 28–49 of the administration period at 20 mg/kg bw/day. A significant decrease in the body weight gain was found on days 1–8 (81% decrease) and days 15–22 (48% decrease) of the administration period at 50 mg/kg bw/day. At this dose, significantly lower food consumption on days 7–8 (20% decrease) and days 14–15 (7% decrease) of the administration period was also observed.

Table 1
Findings in male rats given DTG

	Dose (mg/kg bw/day)			
	0 (control)	8	20	50
No. of male rats	12	12	12	12
No. of deaths during pre-mating period	0	0	0	2
Initial body weight (g) ^a	381 ± 16	379 ± 16	378 ± 15	380 ± 16
Body weight gain (g) ^a				
Days 1–8	30 ± 7	33 ± 7	25 ± 7	6 ± 9**
Days 8–15	29 ± 5	32 ± 5	32 ± 7	24 ± 7
Days 15–22	23 ± 6	25 ± 8	23 ± 7	12 ± 11**
Days 22–29	19 ± 9	22 ± 7	25 ± 8	19 ± 5
Days 29–36	22 ± 6	22 ± 6	23 ± 7	18 ± 8
Days 36–43	15 ± 8	12 ± 9	13 ± 5	14 ± 7
Days 43–50	19 ± 8	19 ± 7	13 ± 4	13 ± 11
Food consumption (g/day/rat) ^a				
Days 7–8	25 ± 3	26 ± 3	26 ± 2	20 ± 3**
Days 14–15	29 ± 2	30 ± 2	29 ± 3	27 ± 3*
Days 29–30	27 ± 2	27 ± 3	28 ± 3	25 ± 2
Days 35–36	28 ± 2	29 ± 2	29 ± 2	27 ± 2
Days 42–43	26 ± 3	25 ± 3	27 ± 4	27 ± 3
Days 49–50	28 ± 4	29 ± 3	28 ± 2	28 ± 3

^a Values are given as the mean ± S.D.

* Significantly different from the control group ($p < 0.05$).

** Significantly different from the control group ($p < 0.01$).

Table 2 presents the findings in female rats given DTG. At 50 mg/kg bw/day, two females died after the first administration and one female died after normal delivery of her pups on day 22 of pregnancy. Mydriasis, decreased locomotor activity, bradypnea, prone position, and tremor and salivation 10–20 min after the administration of DTG were observed in females died after the first administration. These clinical signs and salivation were

found during pregnancy and on day of parturition in a female which died after parturition. In surviving females, mydriasis, decreased locomotor activity, bradypnea and prone position on day 1 of the administration period to day 0 of lactation, tremor on day 1 of the administration period to day 5 of pregnancy and salivation on day 4 of pregnancy to day 3 of lactation were observed at 50 mg/kg bw/day. Mydriasis, decreased locomotor

Table 2
Findings in female rats given DTG

	Dose (mg/kg bw/day)			
	0 (control)	8	20	50
No. of female rats	12	12	12	12
No. of deaths during pre-mating period	0	0	0	2
No. of deaths during pregnancy	0	0	0	1
Initial body weight (g) ^a	381 ± 16	379 ± 16	378 ± 15	380 ± 16
Body weight gain (g) ^a				
Days 1–8	19 ± 8	17 ± 7	11 ± 6*	-1 ± 9**
Days 8–15	10 ± 7	15 ± 8	20 ± 5**	15 ± 10
Days 0–7 of pregnancy	34 ± 6	31 ± 6	33 ± 4	28 ± 8
Days 7–14 of pregnancy	34 ± 5	34 ± 4	36 ± 3	30 ± 10
Days 14–21 of pregnancy	85 ± 17	100 ± 14	105 ± 9*	42 ± 21**
Days 0–4 of lactation	20 ± 19	14 ± 16	22 ± 9	16 ± 13
Food consumption (g/day/rat) ^a				
Days 7–8	22 ± 3	21 ± 2	19 ± 2**	13 ± 3**
Days 14–15	20 ± 4	22 ± 3	22 ± 2	20 ± 2
Days 6–7 of pregnancy	22 ± 3	23 ± 2	23 ± 3	17 ± 3**
Days 13–14 of pregnancy	23 ± 2	24 ± 3	25 ± 2	22 ± 5
Days 20–21 of pregnancy	24 ± 4	26 ± 3	29 ± 3*	21 ± 5
Days 3–4 of lactation	41 ± 5	41 ± 3	46 ± 4*	32 ± 6**

^a Values are given as the mean ± S.D.

* Significantly different from the control group ($p < 0.05$).

** Significantly different from the control group ($p < 0.01$).

Table 3
Reproductive findings in rats given DTG

	Dose (mg/kg bw/day)			
	0 (control)	8	20	50
No. of pairs	12	12	12	10
Length of estrous cycles (day) ^a	4.0 ± 0.2	4.1 ± 0.3	4.1 ± 0.3	4.1 ± 0.2
Precoital interval (day) ^a	3.0 ± 1.0	2.7 ± 1.0	2.4 ± 1.1	2.2 ± 1.0
Copulation index (%) ^b				
Male	100	91.7	100	100
Female	100	91.7	100	100
Fertility index (%) ^c	100	100	91.7	100
Gestation index (%) ^d	100	100	100	90.0
Gestation length (day) ^a	22.6 ± 0.5	22.3 ± 0.5	22.5 ± 0.5	22.6 ± 0.5
Weight of testes (g) ^a	3.24 ± 0.34	3.34 ± 0.19	3.31 ± 0.28	3.30 ± 0.24
Relative weight of testes ^{a,c}	0.60 ± 0.05	0.62 ± 0.07	0.63 ± 0.07	0.68 ± 0.07*
Weight of epididymides (g) ^a	1.16 ± 0.10	1.21 ± 0.06	1.21 ± 0.12	1.23 ± 0.07
Relative weight of epididymides ^{a,c}	0.22 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.03	0.25 ± 0.02**
Weight of ovaries (mg) ^a	101 ± 8	106 ± 6	101 ± 11	102 ± 10
Relative weight of ovaries ^{a,c}	30 ± 2	31 ± 2	28 ± 3	32 ± 2

^a Values are given as the mean ± S.D.

^b Copulation index (%) = (no. of rats copulated/no. of pairs) × 100.

^c Fertility index (%) = (no. of females pregnant/no. of females copulated) × 100.

^d Gestation index (%) = (no. of females with parturition/no. of females copulated) × 100.

^a Relative weight = organ weight/100 g of body weight.

* Significantly different from the control group ($p < 0.05$).

** Significantly different from the control group ($p < 0.01$).

activity, bradypnea and prone position on days 2–3 of the administration period, and salivation on day 14 of pregnancy to day 3 of lactation were observed at 20 mg/kg bw/day. Body weight gain was significantly lowered on days 1–8 of the pre-mating period at 20 mg/kg bw/day (42% decrease) and on days 1–8 of the pre-mating period (105% decrease) and days 14–21 of pregnancy (49% decrease) at 50 mg/kg bw/day. At 20 mg/kg bw/day, a significantly higher body weight gain was observed on days 8–15 of the pre-mating period and days 14–21 of pregnancy. Food consumption was significantly reduced on days 7–8 of the pre-mating period at 20 mg/kg bw/day (14% decrease) and on days 7–8 of the pre-mating period (41% decrease) and days 3–4 of lactation (24% decrease) at 50 mg/kg bw/day. At 20 mg/kg bw/day, a significant increase in the food consumption was observed on days 20–21 of pregnancy and days 3–4 of lactation.

The reproductive findings in rats given DTG are presented in Table 3. No effects of DTG were observed on the length of estrous cycles, precoital interval and gestation length. One pair did not copulate at 8 mg/kg bw/day, one female did not become impregnated at 20 mg/kg bw/day and one female did not deliver any pups at 50 mg/kg bw/day; however, no significant differences were noted in the copulation, fertility or gestation index between the control and DTG-treated groups. The weights of the testes and epididymides, and absolute weight and relative weight of the ovaries in the DTG-treated groups did not differ from the control group. The relative weights of the testes (13% increase) and epididymides (14% increase) were significantly higher at 50 mg/kg bw/day.

The developmental findings in rats given DTG are shown in Table 4. There was no significant difference in the numbers of corpora lutea, implantations and stillborns, implantation index, sex ratio of live pups, viability index on day 0 of lactation and body weight of live pups on day 4 of lactation between the control and DTG-treated groups. The numbers of pups delivered (45% decrease) and live pups delivered (45% decrease) and delivery index (43% decrease) were significantly lowered at 50 mg/kg bw/day. At this dose, the viability index on day 4 of lactation (34% decrease) and body weight of live male (16% decrease) and female (19% decrease) pups on day 0 of lactation were also significantly decreased. Two dams with totally litter loss were observed. No poor maternal behavior or nursing was observed in dams at 50 mg/kg bw/day. No histopathological changes were found in the testes, epididymides and ovaries in the DTG-treated groups. External anomalies in pups of rats given DTG are also presented in Table 4. No fetuses with external malformations were observed in the control and groups given DTG at 8 and 20 mg/kg bw/day. At 50 mg/kg bw/day, fetuses with external malformations were found in 10 out of the 65 fetuses and in 3 out of the 9 litters. Oligodactyly was observed in four pups in two litters. A kinked tail was found in six pups in one litter and a short tail and anal atresia was observed in one pup in each litter. Although there was no significant difference in the incidence of fetuses with individual malformations between the control and 50 mg/kg bw/day groups, a significantly higher incidence of total number of fetuses with external malformations was noted at this dose.

Table 4
Developmental findings in rats given DTG

	Dose (mg/kg bw/day)			
	0 (control)	8	20	50
No. of litters	12	11	11	9
No. of implantations ^a	14.3 ± 2.6	16.2 ± 1.9	15.9 ± 1.4	14.2 ± 3.6
Implantation index (%) ^b	92.2	94.7	97.6	90.9
No. of pups delivered ^a	13.0 ± 2.4	15.2 ± 2.0	14.7 ± 1.4	7.2 ± 4.1**
No. of live pups delivered ^a	13.0 ± 2.4	15.1 ± 1.9	14.7 ± 1.4	7.2 ± 4.1**
No. of stillborns	0	0.1 ± 0.3	0	0
Delivery index (%) ^c	91.0	93.3	92.2	51.7**
Sex ratio of live pups (males/females)	71/85	84/82	80/82	31/34
Viability index (%) ^{d,e}				
Day 0 of lactation	100	99.5	100	100
Day 4 of lactation	99.4	99.4	100	65.4**
Body weight of male pups during lactation (g) ^a				
Day 0	7.4 ± 0.7	6.9 ± 0.6	7.3 ± 0.6	6.2 ± 1.0**
Day 4	11.9 ± 1.3	11.1 ± 1.0	11.7 ± 1.0	11.0 ± 2.3
Body weight of female pups during lactation (g) ^a				
Day 0	7.0 ± 0.7	6.6 ± 0.6	6.8 ± 0.7	5.7 ± 0.8**
Day 4	11.4 ± 1.3	10.5 ± 1.0	11.0 ± 0.9	10.5 ± 2.0
External examination of pups				
No. of pups (litters) with malformations	0	0	0	10 (3)*
Oligodactyly	0	0	0	4 (2)
Kinky tail	0	0	0	6 (1)
Short tail	0	0	0	1
Anal atresia	0	0	0	1

^a Values are given as the mean ± S.D.

^b Implantation index (%) = (no. of implantations/no. of corpora lutea) × 100.

^c Delivery index (%) = (no. of live pups delivered/no. of implantations) × 100.

^d Viability index on day 0 of lactation (%) = (no. of live pups delivered/total no. of pups delivered) × 100.

^e Viability index on day 4 of lactation (%) = (no. of live pups on day 4 of lactation/no. of live pups delivered) × 100.

* Significantly different from the control group ($p < 0.05$).

** Significantly different from the control group ($p < 0.01$).

4. Discussion

The present study was conducted to obtain initial information on the possible effects of DTG on reproduction and development in rats. The data show that DTG exerts developmental toxicity and suggest that DTG possesses teratogenic potential.

DTG was given to males during the pre-mating and mating periods and to females during the pre-mating, mating, pregnancy and shortly after parturition. The dosage used in the present study was sufficiently high such that it should be expected to induce general toxic and neurobehavioral effects. As expected, general toxicity, such as decreases in body weight gain and food consumption, was found at 50 mg/kg bw/day in males and at 20 and 50 mg/kg bw/day in females. Decreases in the body weight gain and food consumption during the early administration period, and thereafter, significant increases in body weight gain and food consumption were observed in females at 20 mg/kg bw/day. One possible explanation for increased body weight gain during late pregnancy at 20 mg/kg bw/day may be higher number of pups and higher net weight gain during pregnancy at this dose compared with the controls. Such recovery did not occur at the highest dose. Neurobehavioral effects, such as mydriasis, decreased locomotor activity, bradypnea, prone position, tremor and sali-

vation, were also observed at 20 and 50 mg/kg bw/day. DTG is a specific sigma receptor ligand [3] and sigma receptor ligands can modulate neurotransmissions, including the noradrenergic, glutamatergic and dopaminergic system [10,18,19]. It was reported that systemic injection of DTG caused neurobehavioral changes in rats [5,6,9,10]. The present study shows that the oral administration of DTG also induces neurobehavioral changes, and it is neurobehaviorally toxic at 20 and 50 mg/kg bw/day in rats.

Higher relative weights, but not the absolute weight, of the testes and epididymides were observed at 50 mg/kg bw/day. Body weights of male rats on the day of scheduled sacrifice were 537 and 485 g in the control and 50 mg/kg bw/day groups, respectively. It seems likely that the higher relative weights of the testes and epididymides at the highest dose were due to secondarily lowered body weight but not due to the direct effects of DTG on the male reproductive organs. Other male reproductive parameters were not significantly changed, even at the highest dose. These findings suggest that DTG is not reproductively toxic to male rats. It seems unlikely that DTG exerts reproductive toxicity to female rats when administered during the pre-mating, mating, pregnancy and early lactation period, because no adverse effects on the maternal reproductive parameters, including estrous cyclicity, pre-coital interval, copulation

index, fertility index, gestation index, gestation length and ovarian weight, were caused by the administration of DTG in females.

As for the developmental indexes, decreases in the numbers of total pups and live pups delivered, delivery index, viability on PND 4 and body weight of live pups on PND 0 were detected at 50 mg/kg bw/day. These findings indicate that DTG is toxic to the survival and growth of offspring and exerts developmental toxicity at 50 mg/kg bw/day in rats.

In the present study, the teratogenic effect of DTG is strongly suggested by the external examinations of pups. At 50 mg/kg bw/day, a significant increase in the total number of fetuses with external malformations was noted; however, incidences of fetuses with individual types of external malformations at this dose were not significantly different from those in the control group. The external malformations observed in the present study are of the types that occur spontaneously among control rat fetuses reported in the literature [20–23]. In the present study, only external examination in the newborn rats was performed, and no internal or skeletal examinations were performed. Even animals not ordinarily carnivorous, including nonhuman primates, are likely to eat dead and moribund offspring, as well as those with malformations that involve skin lesions allowing the loss of body fluids or the exposure of viscera [24]. To accurately evaluate the prenatal developmental toxicity including teratogenicity, it is necessary to interrupt pregnancy 12–24 h before the expected term either by hysterectomy or the necropsy of maternal animals [24,25]. The present study was performed in compliance with OECD guideline 421 Reproduction/Developmental Toxicity Screening Test [15], and this screening test guideline does not provide complete information on all aspects of reproduction and development due to the relatively small numbers of animals in the dose groups and selectivity of the endpoints. In order to further evaluate the developmental toxicity, including teratogenicity, of DTG in rats, a prenatal developmental toxicity study is currently in progress.

In conclusion, DTG caused decreased body weight gain and food consumption at 50 mg/kg bw/day in males and at 20 and 50 mg/kg bw/day in females, neurobehavioral changes at 20 and 50 mg/kg bw/day in both sexes, and changes in developmental parameters at 50 mg/kg bw/day. DTG is suggested to be teratogenic. The NOAELs of DTG for general and developmental toxicity were 8 and 20 mg/kg bw/day, respectively, in rats.

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Unexpected nephrotoxicity induced by tetrabromobisphenol A in newborn rats

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Abstract

The repeated dose toxicity of tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA), a flame retardant, was examined in male and female newborn rats given TBBPA orally at 0, 40, 200, or 600 mg/kg per day for 18 days from 4 days of age until weaning at 21 days of age. Half the rats in each dose group were sacrificed for a full gross necropsy and a histopathology on the organs and the tissues at 22 days of age and the remaining rats were reared without any treatment from post-weaning until 84 days of age to examine the recovery and the delayed occurrence of toxic effects. Treatment with 200 or 600 mg/kg TBBPA-induced nephrotoxicity characterized by the formation of polycystic lesions, and some deaths occurred in the 600 mg/kg group. There was no gender difference of nephrotoxicity and there were no other critical toxicities. At 85 days of age, nephrotoxic lesions were still present in the 200 and 600 mg/kg groups, but no abnormalities indicating delayed occurrence of toxic effects were found in the treated groups. In order to investigate the specificity of the nephrotoxicity induced by TBBPA in newborn rats, TBBPA was given to male and female young rats (5 weeks old) by oral administration at 0, 2000, or 6000 mg/kg per day for 18 days. The kidneys showed no histopathological changes even at the high dose. These results clearly indicate that the nephrotoxicity of TBBPA is specific for newborn rats although the toxic dose level was relatively high. To gain insight into the possible effects on human infants, the mechanism of this unexpected nephrotoxicity of TBBPA in newborn rats should be examined.

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Keywords: Tetrabromobisphenol A; 4,4'-Isopropylidene bis(2,6-dibromophenol); Unexpected nephrotoxicity; Polycystic kidney; Newborn rats

1. Introduction

Recently, there is growing concern about the effects of environmental chemicals on children,

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particularly infants, who may be more sensitive on a body weight basis than adults to a given toxicant exposure (Scheuplein et al., 2002). To address this issue, we have conducted repeated toxicity studies of 18 chemicals in newborn rats as a Japanese National Project. So far, comparative evaluation of the toxicity in newborn and young rats has been conducted for four chemicals, 4-nitrophenol, 2,4-dinitrophenol, 3-aminophenol, and 3-methylphenol (Koizumi et al., 2001, 2002, 2003). The results showed that the susceptibility of newborn rats to these chemicals was approximately two to four times higher than that of young rats, although the toxicological profiles were almost the same at both ages.

Tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA), the fifth chemical subjected to the comparative analysis, has been widely used as a flame retardant. Its toxicity was previously investigated using young or young adult animals as follows: in 28- and 90-day feeding studies using rats, no toxic effects were observed up to 50 and 100 mg/kg per day, respectively (Goldenthal and Geil, 1972; Quast et al., 1975). In mice given TBBPA in their food for 90 days, all animals at 7100 mg/kg per day died while suffering from malnutrition and anemia (Tobe et al., 1986). Inhibition of body weight gain and anemia, but not death, were observed at 2200 mg/kg per day, and the non-toxic level was 700 mg/kg per day. There were no signs of maternal or developmental toxicity when rats were given this chemical during pregnancy up to 3000 mg/kg per day (Goldenthal et al., 1978; Noda et al., 1985). Recently, a 28-day repeated dose toxicity study of this chemical was conducted in rats using the Japanese test guidelines (equivalent to OECD guideline for testing of chemicals for repeated dose 28-day toxicity study in rodents (407)) under the Principles of Good Laboratory Practice, and showed no chemical-related effects up to 1000 mg/kg per day (MHLW, 2001).

In the present study, we performed a 18-day repeated dose oral toxicity study using newborn rats from 4 days of age under the same experimental conditions reported previously (Koizumi et al., 2001), and unexpectedly found severe nephrotoxicity. Therefore, a young rat study was also conducted at a dose up to 6000 mg/kg per day to confirm the specificity of the nephrotoxicity in newborn rats.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Tetrabromobisphenol A: TBBPA (4,4'-isopropylidene bis(2,6-dibromophenol), molecular weight 543.88, CAS No.79-94-7, 99.5% purity) was obtained from Toso Co. Ltd. (Yamaguchi, Japan) and suspended in 0.5% (w/v) carboxymethylcellulose-Na (Kanto Chemicals Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) solution with 0.1% (w/v) Tween 80 (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Michigan, USA). The suspension was prepared at least once a week and stored hermetically in a cool and dark place (4 °C) until dosing. The stability of TBBPA under these conditions was confirmed to be at least 8 days by an analysis of dosing suspensions.

2.2. Animals

Sprague-Dawley SPF rats (Crj:CD(SD)IGS) were purchased from Charles River Japan Inc. (Atsugi, Japan) and maintained in an environmentally controlled room at 22 ± 3 °C with a relative humidity of $55 \pm 10\%$, an air exchange rate of more than 10 times per hour, and a 12:12 h light/dark cycle. All animals were allowed free access to commercial solid diet (Labo MR Stock, Nihon Nosan Kogyo Co. Ltd., Yokohama, Japan) and tap water. The animals used in the present study were reared, treated, and sacrificed in accordance with "The Provisions for Animal Welfare" of the Research Institute for Animal Science in Biochemistry and Toxicology, which follow the guidelines for animal experimentation issued by Japanese Association for Laboratory Animal Science.

2.3. Newborn rat study

For the study of newborn rats, 20 pregnant rats (gestation day 15) were purchased and were allowed to deliver spontaneously. Among all newborns separated from each dam at the age of 3 days, 48 males and 48 females were randomly selected and assigned to four dose groups, including controls. Twelve foster mothers suckled four males and four females assigned to each group up to weaning on day 21 after birth. After weaning, the animals of the recovery-maintenance group were individually maintained for 9 weeks.