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Intranasal administration of tetrabromobisphenol A bis(2-hydroxyethyl ether) induces neurobehavioral changes in neonatal Sprague Dawley rats

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50 Introduction

Tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA) are the most widely utilized brominated frame retardants (BFRs) worldwide, and accounts for about 60% of the total BFR market (A.F. Liu et al., 2016). Wherein, the manufacture of TBBPA derivatives has occupied approximate 18% of TBBPA production (Liu et al., 56 2015). The prevalent forms, including tetrabromobisphenol A 57 bis(2-hydroxyethyl ether) (TBBPA-BHEE), tetrabromobisphenol A 58 A bis(glycidyl ether) (TBBPA-BGE), tetrabromobisphenol A 59 bis(allylether) (TBBPA-BAE) and tetrabromobisphenol A 60 bis(dibromopropyl ether) (TBBPA-BDBPE), are commonly used 61

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ABSTRACT

Tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA) and its derivatives are now being highly concerned due to 18 their emerging environmental occurrence and deleterious effects on non-target organisms. 19 Considering the potential neurotoxicity of TBBPA derivatives which has been demonstrated 20 in vitro, what could happen in vivo is worthy of being studied. Tetrabromobisphenol A 21 bis(2-hydroxyethyl ether) (TBBPA-BHEE), a representative TBBPA derivative, was selected for a 22 21-day exposure experiment on neonatal Sprague Dawley (SD) rats through intranasal 23 administration. The neurobehavioral, histopathological changes, and differentially expressed 24 genes based on RNA microarray were investigated to evaluate the neurological effects of this 25 chemical. The results indicated that TBBPA-BHEE exposure significantly compromised the 26 motor co-ordination performance and the locomotor activities (p < 0.05). The neurobehavioral 27 phenotype could be attributed to the obvious histopathological changes in both cerebrum and 28 cerebellum, such as neural cell swelling, microglial activation and proliferation. A total of 911 29 genes were up-regulated, whereas 433 genes were down-regulated. Gene set enrichment 30 analysis showed multiple signaling pathways, including ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis and 31 wingless-int (Wnt) signaling pathway etc. were involved due to TBBPA-BHEE exposure. The 32 gene ontology enrichment analysis showed the basic cellular function and the neurological 33 processes like synaptic transmission were influenced. The toxicological effects of TBBPA-BHEE 34 observed in this study suggested the potential neuronal threaten from unintended exposure, 35 which would be of great value in the biosafety evaluation of TBBPA derivatives. 36 © 2017 The Research Center for Eco-Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences. 37

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in engineering polymers or as precursors for other TBBPA-based 62 polymers (Qu et al., 2013), and their annual demands have 63 been continually increased (Tian et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the 64 concomitant unintended release of the related compounds 65 during the production, application, and disposal, brings the 66 new environmental issues (Qu et al., 2013; A.F. Liu et al., 2016), 67 potentially causing deleterious influences on multiple non-68 69 target organisms like bacterial community (Zhang et al., 2015), 70 aquatic species (Liu et al., 2007), rodents (Szymanska et al., 2000), 71 and even human beings (Colnot et al., 2014).

TBBPA has been found to induce diverse toxicological 72 effects according to in vitro and in vivo studies (Nakajima et al., 73 2009; Reistad et al., 2007). As well as thyroidogenic, estrogenic, 74 and dioxin-like activity (Birnbaum and Staskal, 2004; Wang 75et al., 2017), neurotoxicity has been studied for TBBPA, and the 76 77 results indicated that this compound induce apoptosis and toxicity in mouse primary neuronal cells cultures (Wojtowicz 78 et al., 2013), inhibited plasma membrane uptake of the 79 neurotransmitters (Mariussen and Fonnum, 2003), impaired 80 habituation of motor activity and spatial learning in adult 81 rats (Hass and Wamberg, 2002). A single neonatal exposure to 82 TBBPA affected neurodevelopment and synaptic plasticity to a 83 small extent in mice (Hendriks et al., 2015). Increasing concerns 84 85 are being drawn on the potential deleterious impacts of TBBPA 86 derivatives, considering their structural similarity to TBBPA. 87 Nevertheless, the knowledge on the toxicological data of TBBPA 88 derivatives still remains sparse, and is highly required to cope 89 with the emerging exposure risks.

Considering the extensive environmental exposure risk (Esch, 90 1995) due to the expanding annual sale volumes, TBBPA-BHEE 91has been registered by the Danish Environmental Protection 92Agency inventory list (Andersson et al., 2006). Previous in-vitro 93 study reported that TBBPA-BHEE exhibited relatively higher 9495cellular toxicity than the parent compound, TBBPA and the other three derivatives TBBPA derivatives, and its stimulation 96 caused neurotransmitter dysfunction and ROS-mediated cas-97 pase activation in rat pheochromocytoma cell (PC12), resulting 98 in the eventual neurotoxicity (Q. Liu et al., 2016). The question 07 whether TBBPA-BHEE could induce in-vivo neurotoxicological 100 effects, would be of great importance in explaining its potential 101 neural hazards. 102

103 Since neonatal Sprague Dawley (SD) rats were sensitive to exogenous stress and drug delivery through intranasal 104 instillation was brain-targeted (Wen et al., 2016; Win-Shwe 105et al., 2014), we investigated the neurological effects of 106 TBBPA-BHEE on rotarod performance and open-field activity 107 after 21-day treatment in neonatal SD rats through intranasal 108 instillation in this study. The histopathological changes 109and differentially expressed gene profile were evaluated to 110 elucidate the hazardous effects of TBBPA-BHEE on the brain at 111 cellular and molecular levels. 112

113 1. Materials and methods

115 **1.1. Chemicals and reagents**

116 TBBPA-BHEE (CAS 4162–45-2, 98%) was obtained from Sigma-

Aldrich (USA). The stock solution was made by dissolvingTBBPA-BHEE in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). The series of

working solutions were diluted with sterile water and the final 119 DMSO concentration was less than 1%. All other chemicals or 120 reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA), unless 121 stated otherwise. 122

1.2. Animals

The pregnant SD rats (around 18 days after conception, n = 4) 124 were purchased from Vital River Laboratory Animal Technology 125 Co. Ltd. (China), and kept in Peking University Health Science 126 Center for the neonate delivery and the following rearing. 127 After approximate 1-week acclimatization, total 63neonatal 128 rats (34 male, and 29 female) were obtained and raised with 129 their mother for the normal breast milking until day 21. Only 130 male neonatal rats were used for the experiment to avoid the 131 possible gender interference. Sterile water and SPF feed (Vital 132 River Laboratories, China) were provided ad libitum. The animal 133 room was maintained at 25 °C,ca.60% of relative humidity, and 134 12 hr/12 hr light/dark cycle. All animals were kept according to 135 the principles of care and use of laboratory animals approved by 136 the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Peking 137 University. 138

1.3. Exposure protocols

The exposure was initiated for the male neonatal rats on the 140 2nd day after birth, and the animals from 4 broods with the 141 average body weight of around 6 g, were randomly divided 142 into 4 groups (n = 8), including distilled water, 1% DMSO 143 (vehicle control group), 0.086 mg/kg of TBBPA-BHEE(low-dose 144 exposure group) and 0.86 mg/kg of TBBPA-BHEE (high-dose 145 exposure group). The exposure doses were 200 and 2000 folds 146 lower than theLD₅₀ (180 mg/kg) of TBBPA-BHEE in rats through 147 intraperitoneal injection (Esch, 1995) to study the potential 148 nonlethal effect. The exposure through intranasal instillation 149 was performed once a day at the dose of 1 μ L/g, and lasted 150 continuously for 21 days. The physiological changes including 151 body weight, water drinking, food uptake, animal behavior and 152 death were daily observed during the experiment. On the 3rd 153 week of exposure, the rats from each group were submitted 154 to the neurobehavioral tests, including rotarod and open field 155 experiments. After the tests, all the animals were sacrificed by 156 CO₂inhalation, and the cerebellum and cerebrum samples were 157 harvested after intracardiac perfusion by 30 mL of ice-cold PBS. 158 For the histopathological studies, the samples were collected 159 from the animals (n = 3 from each group) with the subsequent 160 perfusion of 30 mL of PBS containing 10% formaldehyde. In 161 regard of RNA microarray analysis, the samples were obtained 162 from the animals (n = 3 from vehicle control and high-dose 163exposure groups) with the following perfusion of 30 mL of 164 ice-cold 10% RNA later (Thermo, USA).Due to the limitations in 165 sensitivity and matrix effects of currently available analytical 166 methods for TBBPA-BHEE (Wang et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2015), 167 the exposure concentrations were used for the evaluation of 168 this chemical's neurotoxicity in this study. 169

1.4. Rotarod test

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The rotarod test was performed during the 3rd week. The rats 171 from each group were pre-trained for 3 trials in sequence to 172

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