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Method to assess component contribution to toxicity of complex mixtures: Assessment of puberty acquisition in rats exposed to disinfection byproducts

- _{24 03} Shahid Parvez¹, Glenn E. Rice^{2,*}, Linda K. Teuschler³, Jane Ellen Simmons⁴,
- Thomas F. Speth⁵, Susan D. Richardson⁶, Richard J. Miltner⁵, E. Sidney Hunter III ⁴,
- Jonathan G. Pressman⁵, Lillian F. Strader⁴, Gary R. Klinefelter⁴,
- Jerome M. Goldman⁴, Michael G. Narotsky⁴
- 8 1. Indiana University Richard M. Fairbanks School of Public Health, Department of Environmental Health Sciences, IUPUI Campus, Indianapolis,
- 9 IN 46202, USA
- National Center for Environmental Assessment, Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Cincinnati,
- 11 OH 45268, USA
- 12 3. Linda Teuschler and Associates, St. Petersburg, FL 33707, USA
- 4. National Health and Environmental Effects Research Laboratory, Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency,
- 14 Research Triangle Park, NC 27711, USA
- 15 S. National Risk Management Research Laboratory, Office of Research and Development, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Cincinnati,
- 16 OH 45268, USA
- 17 6. Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC 29208, USA

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ABSTRACT

A method based on regression-modeling was developed to discern the contribution of 27 component chemicals to the toxicity of highly complex, environmentally realistic mixtures of 28 disinfection byproducts (DBPs). Chemical disinfection of drinking water forms DBP mixtures. 29 Because of concerns about possible reproductive and developmental toxicity, a whole mixture 30 (WM) of DBPs produced by chlorination of a water concentrate was administered as drinking 31 water to Sprague-Dawley (S-D) rats in a multigenerational study. Age of puberty acquisition, 32 i.e., preputial separation (PPS) and vaginal opening (VO), was examined in male and female 33 offspring, respectively. When compared to controls, a slight, but statistically significant delay $\,34$ in puberty acquisition was observed in females but not in males. WM-induced differences in 35 the age at puberty acquisition were compared to those reported in S-D rats administered 36 either a defined mixture (DM) of nine regulated DBPs or individual DBPs. Regression models 37 were developed using individual animal data on age at PPS or VO from the DM study. Puberty 38 acquisition data reported in the WM and individual DBP studies were then compared with the 39 DM models. The delay in puberty acquisition observed in the WM-treated female rats could 40not be distinguished from delays predicted by the DM regression model, suggesting that the 41 nine regulated DBPs in the DM might account for much of the delay observed in the WM. This 42 method is applicable to mixtures of other types of chemicals and other endpoints. © 2017 The Research Center for Eco-Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences. 44

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^{*} Corresponding author. E-mail: rice.glenn@epa.gov (Glenn E. Rice).

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Introduction

Although chemical disinfection effectively produces potable drinking waters, such processes generally form low concentrations (\le mg/L) of numerous disinfection byproducts (DBPs) (Richardson et al., 2007, 2008). These DBP mixtures include hundreds of known compounds, as well as compounds that have not yet been identified chemically and comprise the unidentified fraction. Two chemical classes of DBPs, the trihalomethanes (THMs) and haloacetic acids (HAAs), together typically account for approximately 40% of the total mass of organic halogen (TOX) formed in disinfected drinking waters (Richardson et al., 2008; Krasner et al., 2006). The unidentified fraction, which can comprise more than 50% of the TOX measured in some treated drinking waters (Pressman et al., 2010; Weinberg et al., 2002; Krasner et al., 2006), likely includes highly polar and high molecular weight compounds (Richardson et al., 2002).

A number of epidemiologic studies have evaluated associations between exposure to chemically disinfected drinking water and adverse reproductive and developmental effects. Some report significant associations between DBP exposure and still birth (King et al., 2000; Dodds et al., 2004), low birth weight (Danileviciute et al., 2012; Gallagher et al., 1998; Wright et al., 2003), premature birth (Bove, 1996; Hinckley et al., 2005), and pregnancy loss (Waller et al., 1998, 2001; Savitz et al., 1995, 2006). Other studies report negative results (e.g., Nieuwenhuijsen et al., 2009; Hrudey, 2009). Using animal and in vitro bioassays, toxicologists have studied the reproductive and developmental effects of a small number of individual DBPs (Colman et al., 2011; U.S. EPA, 2000a; Hunter and Tugman, 1995; Hunter et al., 1996); there are even fewer in vivo developmental toxicity studies of complex DBP mixtures (Kavlock et al., 1979; Simmons et al., 2002; Teuschler and Simmons, 2003; Narotsky et al., 2008, 2013).

To address potential health concerns that cannot be answered by toxicological research on individual DBPs or defined mixtures, the U.S. EPA's Four Lab Study investigated the toxicity of environmentally realistic complex DBP mixtures. An important objective of this study was a thorough assessment of rodent reproductive and developmental endpoints, integrating these bioassay results with extensive quantitative and qualitative analyses of the chemicals present in the complex DBP mixture(s) (Simmons et al., 2002, 2004, 2008). To meet this objective, a multi-generational reproductive and developmental bioassay was conducted with a chlorinated concentrate in Sprague–Dawley (S–D) rats. The water concentrate was water produced using a procedure that concentrated a natural source water by reverse osmosis procedures; aliquots of this water concentrate were chlorinated as needed for the bioassay (Pressman et al., 2010). In the bioassay, this whole, complex DBP mixture (whole mixture, WM) was administered to the treatment group as the sole source of drinking water. When compared with controls, the WM-treated female offspring (F1 generation) experienced a slight, but significant delay in puberty acquisition, which was measured as their age at vaginal opening (VO) (p < 0.05); the WM-treated F1 males did not exhibit a significant delay in puberty acquisition, which was measured as their age at preputial separation (PPS) (Narotsky et al., 2013).

In a companion multi-generational bioassay, a defined 117 mixture (DM) that contained the four regulated THMs and the 118 five regulated HAAs was administered to S-D rats as the sole 119 source of drinking water. Significant, dose-dependent delays in 120 puberty acquisition were observed in both F1 males and females 121 (Table 1) (Narotsky et al., 2015). This DM contained chloroform 122 (CHCl₃), bromodichloromethane (BDCM), dibromochloromethane 123 (DBCM), bromoform (CHBr₃), chloroacetic acid (CAA), dichloroacetic 124 acid (DCAA), trichloroacetic acid (TCAA), bromoacetic acid 125 (BAA), and dibromoacetic acid (DBAA). U.S. EPA regulations 126 limit the sum of the four THMs to 80 μ g/L and the sum of the five 127 HAAs to 60 μg/L in U.S. drinking waters (U.S. EPA, 2006). Some 128 bioassays of individual DBPs (i.e., DBAA, bromochloroacetic acid 129 [BCAA], and BDCM), administered as single chemicals in 130 drinking water of S-D rats, also report significant delays in 131 puberty acquisition (Table 1) (Klinefelter et al., 2004; Sloan et al., 132 2005; Christian et al., 2002).

Here, we present a method developed to assess the contribution of constituent chemicals and subset mixtures to the toxicity 135 of highly complex environmental mixtures. We use assessment 136 of puberty acquisition in rats exposed to DBP mixtures to 137 illustrate methodology that allows comparison of the health 138 effects from constituent chemicals and subset mixtures 139 contained within more complex mixtures to the health effects 140 associated with highly complex environmental mixtures. We 141 specifically compare differences in the age of puberty acquisition 142 in rats and evaluate whether any of the tested individual DBPs or 143 the DM can account for the observed difference in the age at 144 puberty acquisition associated with the WM. The method relies 145 on component-based and whole-mixture approaches for determining if some of the delay in puberty acquisition is potentially 147 due to the unknown fraction in the WM (Rice et al., 2008) and 148 assumes that the relative proportions of the chemicals common 149 to both the whole mixture and the defined mixture are similar. 150

1. Materials and methods

Fig. 1 depicts our method for comparing differences (relative to 153 concurrent controls) in the age at puberty acquisition associat- 154 ed with the DM to those differences associated the WM and 155 with individual DBPs. After completing the WM and DM 156 bioassays, we undertook a literature search targeting studies 157 that administered DBPs via the drinking water and reported age 158 at puberty acquisition. Because differences among species and 159 strains/stocks could influence the age of puberty acquisition, 160 we targeted studies reporting the same endpoints (i.e., age at VO 161 or PPS) in the same test species/stock (S-D rats).

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1.1. DBP bioassays reporting the age at puberty acquisition in 163 S-D rats

Table 1 details the five studies, three studies of individual DBPs 165 and two studies of DBP mixtures, meeting the search criteria. 166 Four of the five studies (the exception being Klinefelter et al., 167 2004) met or exceeded the 20 litters/treatment recommended by 168 toxicity testing guidelines (US EPA, US Environmental Protection Q5 Agency, 1998; OECD, Organization for Economic Co-operation 170 and Development, 2012) and all met or exceeded the recommended number of offspring/sex/litter for VO or PPS evaluation. 172

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