行政院國家科學委員會專題研究計畫成



磷化氫在體內所引起氧化性毒害之探討 Phsophine-Induced Oxidative Damage In Vivo

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一、中文摘要

磷化氫是一種高毒性氣體。 它是一廣 泛使用之工業物品,其主要用途包括在半 導體製造上做為掺雜劑及農產品薰蒸劑 滅鼠劑 (可經由磷化鎂、磷化鎂或磷化 潮解而產生)。 由於鹵化碳氫化物類殺 劑及甲基溴的限用,再在加上半導體產品 的普及化,未來預期會提高磷化氫可 造成 量。 以往相關研究顯示磷化氫可 造成已 蟲、哺乳動物及哺乳動物細胞株之氧化性 傷害。

本研究探討磷化氫對大白鼠造成氧化性傷害及使用抗氧化劑保護之情形。Wistar 雄性大白鼠以腹腔注射 2 mg/kg 的磷化氫,30分鐘後,將大白鼠殺死取出腦、肝及肺,分析其麩胺基硫及脂質過氧化產物變化情形,並於腦及肝中觀察其8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OH-dGuo)之含量。結果發現磷化氫明顯下降麩胺基硫之濃度、0明顯增加脂質過氧化:腦部改變值為 36-42%,肺改變值為 32-38%,肝改變值為 19-25%;腦及肝中的 8-OH-dGuo 亦顯著增加:腦部增加 70%、肝則增加 39%。

另一組大白鼠則於注射磷化氫 30 分鐘前,先投予抗氧化劑:褪黑激素 10mg/kg、維生素 C 30mg/kg 及β-胡蘿蔔素 6mg/kg。結果發現磷化氫所引起氧化性傷害被褪黑激素明顯或完全抑制,維生素 C 及房-胡蘿蔔素則活性較弱甚至無作用。本研究證實磷化氫造成大白鼠的腦、肝及肺氧化傷害,褪黑激素對其具相當之保護功能,此外易反應之含氧物種在磷化氫之基因毒性上扮演了相當重要的角色。

關鍵詞:褪黑激素〉抗氧化劑、農藥、磷 化氫、自由基、麩胺基硫、脂質過氧化

Abstract

Phosphine (PH3), from hydrolysis of

aluminum, magnesium and zinc phosphide, is insecticide and rodenticide. Earlier observations PH₃-poisoned on insects, mammalian cell lines and humans led to the proposed involvement of oxidative damage in the toxic mechanism. This investigation focused on PH3-induced oxidative damage in rats and antioxidants as candidate protective agents. Male Wistar rats were treated ip with PH₃ at 2 mg/kg. Thirty min later the brain, liver, and lung were analyzed for glutathione (GSH) levels and lipid peroxidation (as malondialdehyde and 4-hydroxyalkenals) and brain and lung for 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OH-dG). PH₃ caused a significant decrease in GSH concentration and elevation in lipid peroxidation in brain (36-42%), (32-38%) and liver (19-25%) and significant increase in 8-OH-dG in brain (70%) and liver (39%). Antioxidants administered ip 30 min before PH3 were melatonin, vitamin C and β-carotene at 10, 30 and 6 mg/kg, respectively. The PH3-induced changes were significantly or completely blocked by melatonin while vitamin C and β-carotene were less effective or inactive. These findings establish that PH3 induces and melatonin protects against oxidative damage in the brain, lung and liver of rats and suggest the involvement of reactive oxygen species in the genotoxicity of PH₃.

Keywords: Melatonin, free radicals, pesticide, lipid peroxidation, 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine phosphine, glutathione, antioxidants

二、緣由與目的

Phosphine (PH₃) is a widely-used fumigant for the control of stored product insects. It is normally generated by the action of ambient water vapor on a solid formulation containing aluminium or magnesium phosphide mixed with other

ingredients designed to regulate the release of the gas. At present the major fumigants for controlling insect pests in stored products are PH₃ and methyl bromide. Since methyl bromide is being phased out because of adverse environmental effects, the role of PH₃ is becoming of even greater importance [1]. Additionally, zinc phosphide is a major rodenticide, liberating PH₃ when ingested [2]. PH₃ is also used in the synthesis of organophosphines and as a dopant in semiconductor production [3].

PH₃ is highly toxic to many animals [3]. AlP, with a rat oral LD₅₀ of 14 mg/kg [4], is responsible for many human poisonings in India [5,6]. Furnigators exposed to PH₃ may have an increased frequency of chromosomal abberations in their peripheral blood lymphocytes [7-9]. PH₃ is weakly genotoxic in mice, i.e., exposure of Balb-c mice (4.5 ppm, 13 weeks) results in significant increases in micronucleus frequency in bone marrow and spleen lymphocytes [10].

PH₃ is a respiratory inhibitor and induces oxidative damage in animals [11]. It inhibits the activities of cytochrome c oxidase [12-14], catalase [15-18] peroxidase [16], stimulates the production of hydrogen peroxide and reactive oxygen species (ROS) [14,19] and elevates superoxide dismutase (SOD) [16,17]. The malondialdehyde (MDA) level is elevated in cardiac tissue of AIP-poisoned rats [20]. Consistent with these observations. AlP-poisoned humans show significantly higher SOD and MDA levels and lower catalase levels in serum compared to unexposed patients Intravenous [5]. magnesium reduces oxidative stress and mortality in humans with acute AlP poisoning [6].

Melatonin, a major secretory product of the pineal gland, scavenges hydroxyl radical [21], peroxynitrite [22], singlet oxygen [23], and possibly peroxyl radical [24] which is generated during the oxidation of unsaturated lipids and leads to the propagation of lipid peroxidation. The effectiveness of melatonin is facilitated by its combined lipophilic [25] and hydrophilic [26] character, allowing transport across the blood-brain-barrier and distribution throughout the cell [27,28]. Melatonin may reduce oxidative stress also by stimulating some important antioxidative enzymes, i.e., SOD [29], GSH reductase [30], glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase [31], and glutathione (GSH) peroxidase, perhaps the most important antioxidant enzyme in brain [32].

PH₃ causes oxidative toxicity in insects, mammalian cells, rats and humans. However, there are no reports on the effect of antioxidants on PH3-induced oxidative stress in mammals. The first aim of the present study is to examine possible PH3-induced oxidative damage in rats using as criteria the levels of GSH, glutathione disulfide (GSSG), lipid peroxidation products (MDA plus 4-hydroxyalkenals (4-HDA)), and 8-hydrodeoxyguanosine (8-OH-dGuo) in DNA. The second goal is to compare melatonin with vitamin C and β-carotene as candidate antioxidants to protect against oxidative damage induced by PH₃.

三、研究報告(結果與討論)

PH₃ adminstered ip at 2 mg/kg induced lipid peroxidation (measured as MDA plus 4-HDA) in brain within 15 min, i.e., $123 \pm 13\%$ (n=6) relative to control values. The level increased further at 30 min ($142 \pm 9\%$) and remained unchanged at 90 min ($148 \pm 10\%$). These observations led to a more detailed study of PH₃-induced oxidative damage and standardization of the conditions with sacrifice 30 min after treatment with PH₃.

PH₃ significantly decreased GSH and increased GSSG levels in all test tissues (Table 1). The antioxidants in themselves did not affect the GSH and GSSG levels. Melatonin pretreatment completely abolished PH₃-induced changes in GSH and GSSG concentrations in brain and liver and ameliorated the effect in lung; in each case the reversal was statistically significant. Vitamin C reduced the PH₃-induced GSH and GSSG changes, though not to a

significant degree when compared to the PH₃-treated animals. β-Carotene had little or no effect on PH₃-induced changes.

PH₃ significantly increased lipid peroxidation in brain, lung, and liver above the levels in control animals (Table 1). Lipid peroxidation was not affected by the antioxidants alone. The PH₃-induced increase was significantly or completely blocked by melatonin pretreatment in all assayed tissues. In contrast, vitamin C and β-carotene did not significantly attenuate the PH₃-induced increase in brain, lung, and liver.

PH₃-induced DNA damage was evident in brain and liver by the higher 8-OH-dGuo/dGuo ratio than found in control animals (Table 1). Melatonin significantly reversed the PH₃-induced changes in brain and liver. Vitamin C marginally but not significantly diminished the elevated ratios. β -Carotene was the least effective in protecting against DNA damage.

四、計畫成果自評

This study establishes that PH₃ induces oxidative damage in brain, lung, and liver of rats with partial to complete protection by melatonin and less attenuation by vitamin C and β-carotene (Table 2). More specifically, significantly decreases GSH increases GSSG concentrations in brain, lung and liver (36-44%, 34-38%, and 18-19%, respectively); these changes are attenuated or negated by melatonin, with much less effect of vitamin C or β-carotene. These findings on PH₃ and antioxidant effects are closely paralleled by the elevation in lipid peroxidation by 42%, 32% and 25% in brain, lung, and liver, respectively, in each case largely or completely abolished by melatonin and partially by vitamin C and β-carotene. The 8-OH-dGuo/dGuo ratios are also markedly elevated by PH₃ in brain and lung (70% and 39%, respectively) with significant protection by melatonin but not by vitamin C and β-carotene. On an overall basis, the antioxidants reduce PH3-induced oxidative damage with an effectiveness order of

melatonin > vitamin $C \ge \beta$ -carotene.

The action of PH₃ in rats reported here correlates well with our previous findings of increased H_2O_2 production. peroxidation and oxidized DNA in Hepa 1c1c7 cells [19]. Decreased GSH in rat tissues with a concurrent rise in GSSG strongly suggests the involvement of ROS in PH₃ toxicity. Depletion of GSH favors lipid peroxidation and predisposes cells to oxidant damage [33]. The failure to observe PH₃-induced changes in GSH levels in cultured cells [19] and insects [14,16] may relate to GSH resynthesis with the long experimental periods involved. The toxicity of PH3 is dependent on the presence of oxygen [15]. PH₃ induces a higher degree of oxidative toxicity in brain and lung than in liver possibly associated with the higher oxygen exchange and unsaturated lipid content with the first two tissues [34].

Melatonin, the most effective antioxidant under the test conditions, limits GSH depletion, GSSG formation, lipid peroxidation, and 8-OH-dGuo formation in tissues of PH₃-treated rats. These findings are consistent with previous studies where melatonin protects against oxidative damage of other ROS-generating agents, e.g. paraquat, cyanide, and kainic acid, and is a potent scavenger of hydroxyl and peroxyl radical both *in vivo* and *in vitro* [21,24,35-37].

In conclusion, the overall findings establish that PH₃ induces and melatonin protects against oxidative damage in the brain, lung and liver of rats and suggest the involvement of ROS in the genotoxicity of PH₃.

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Table 1. Effects of PH₃ and antioxidants on levels of GSH, GSSG, lipid peroxidation products and 8-OH-dGuo/dGuo ratio in ip-treated rats

Tissue	Antioxidant Pretreatment			
Toxicant	None	Melatonin	Vitamin C	β-Carotene
GSH level (and GS	SSG level in parenth	nesis), µmol/g tissue	e —	
Brain	•			
Control	1.45 ± 0.11 (0.018 ± 0.001)	1.53 ± 0.11 (0.017 ± 0.002)	1.48 ± 0.07 (0.018 \pm 0.001)	1.52 ± 0.13 (0. 018 ± 0.001)
PH₃	0.93 ± 0.11^{a} (0.026 ± 0.002 ^a)	1.53 ± 0.09^{b} (0.017 ± 0.001^{b})	1.13 ± 0.10^{a} (0.022 ± 0.001^{a})	0.98 ± 0.10^{a} (0.023 ± 0.002 ^a)
Lung				
Control	1.30 ± 0.20 (0.038 \pm 0.002)	1.33 ± 0.16 (0.036 \pm 0.002)	1.30 ± 0.10 (0.037 \pm 0.002)	1.33 ± 0.11 (0.037 \pm 0.001)
PH₃	0.80 ± 0.09^{a} (0.051 ± 0.003 ^a)	1.20 ± 0.07^{b} (0.036 ± 0.002 ^b)	1.08 ± 0.09 (0.043 ± 0.002)	1.00 ± 0.10 (0.045 ± 0.003^{a})
Liver				
Control	4.40 ± 0.18 (0.110 ± 0.004)	4.38 ± 0.22 (0.108 ± 0.003)	4.42 ± 0.11 (0.112 ± 0.003)	4.38 ± 0.12 (0.109 ± 0.005)
PH₃	3.58 ± 0.20^{a} (0.130 ± 0.003^{a})	4.40 ± 0.09^{b} (0.114 ± 0.006 ^b)	4.00 ± 0.18 (0.119 ± 0.004)	3.93 ± 0.12^{a} (0.122 ± 0.004)
MDA + 4-HDA lev	el, nmol/mg protein	_		
Brain		_		
Control	3.00 ± 0.07	2.80 ± 0.04^{c}	2.99 ± 0.10	3.03 ± 0.11
PH₃	4.27 ± 0.10^{a}	3.10 ± 0.09 ^{ab}	4.01 ± 0.20^a	4.12 ± 0.13 ^a
Lung				
Control	2.58 ± 0.09	2.57 ± 0.17	2.58 ± 0.14	2.68 ± 0.14
PH_3	3.40 ± 0.20^{a}	2.58 ± 0.09^{b}	3.01 ± 0.18	3.21 ± 0.17^{a}

L	iver
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Control	0.81 ± 0.02	0.78 ± 0.06	0.80 ± 0.03	0.90 ± 0.04
PH₃	1.01 ± 0.05 ^a	0.80 ± 0.03^{b}	0.80 ± 0.10	0.89 ± 0.14
(Table 1 continued)				

8-OH-dGuo/10	⁵ dGuo ratio			
Brain				
Control	3.18 ± 0.25	2.72 ± 0.21	3.20 ± 0.28	3.10 ± 0.36
PH ₃	$5.40\pm0.47^{\text{a}}$	3.02 ± 0.37^{ab}	4.48 ± 0.40^{a}	5.02 ± 0.32^a
Liver				
Control	$\textbf{4.30} \pm \textbf{0.37}$	3.53 ± 0.39	4.25 ± 0.40	4.12 ± 0.44
PH ₃	5.98 ± 0.63^{a}	4.00 ± 0.32^{b}	4.67 ± 0.50	5.50 ± 0.46

Rats were treated ip with PH₃ and tissues analyzed 30 min later. Antioxidant pretreatment was 30 min before PH₃. For conditions see Materials and Methods. The tabulated results in the left column are for pretreatments with saline but the findings with 3% ethanol or corn oil are not significantly different and in fact are practically identical (data not given). Data are mean ∀ SEM, n=6.

^a PH₃ significantly different from corresponding control without PH₃ (p < 0.05).

^b Melatonin with PH₃ significantly different from no antioxidant with PH₃ (p < 0.05).

^c Melatonin significantly lower than the corresponding control without antioxidant (*p* < 0.05).

Table 2. Percentage effects of PH₃ alone and with antioxidants on GSH, GSSG, lipid peroxidation products and 8-OH-dGuo/dGuo ratio in ip-treated rats (PH₃/corresponding control x 100)

nalyte	Antioxidant Pretreatment				
Tissue	None	Melatonin	Vitamin C	β-Carotene	
SH					
Brain	64% ^a	100% ^b	76%³	64% ^a	
Lung	62% ^a	92% ^b	83%	75%	
Liver	81%ª	100% ^b	90%	90%ª	
SSG					
Brain	144% ^a	100%⁵	122% ^a	128%ª	
Lung	134% ^a	100%⁵	116%	122%ª	
Liver	118%ª	106% ^b	106%	112%	
DA + 4-HAD					
Brain	142% ^a	bc	134% ^a	136%ª	
Lung	132%ª	100% ^b	117%	120%ª	
Liver	125%ª	103% ^b	100%	99%	
OH-dGuo/dGuo					
Brain	170% ^a	bc	140% ^a	162%ª	
Liver	139%ª	113% ^b	110%	133%	

Data from Table 1

1.05). The significant protective effect of melatonin to near control levels is partially obscured by its direct inhibitory action (see Table 1).

^a PH₃ significantly different from corresponding control without PH₃ (p < 0.05).

³ Melatonin with PH₃ significantly different from no antioxidant with PH₃ (p < 0.05).

² Melatonin significantly lower than the corresponding control without antioxidant (p <