# RESEARCH ARTICLE Sokoto Journal of Veterínary Sciences (P-ISSN 1595-093X: E-ISSN 2315-6201)

http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/sokjvs.v16i4.8

Ahur et al./Sokoto Journal of Veterinary Sciences, 16(4): 64 - 72.

# Age-sex dimorphisms in the estimation of median lethal dose (LD50) of lead diacetate in rabbits using up-and-down procedure (Arithmetic method)

VM Ahur<sup>1</sup>\*, SM Anika<sup>2</sup> & PA Onyeyili<sup>1</sup>

1. Department of Veterinary Physiology, Pharmacology and Biochemistry, College of Veterinary Medicine, Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Nigeria

2. Department of Veterinary Physiology and Pharmacology, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

\*Correspondence: Tel.: +2348065728084; E-mail: leodemase@yahoo.com

een eependender rem + E	
Copyright: © 2018 Ahur	Abstract
et al. This is an open-	Lead had been known to be toxic since pre-antiquity. It causes neurodevelopmental,
access article published	cardiovascular and renal pathologies. Other toxicological studies of lead (Pb) salts are
under the terms of the	studied in laboratory animals such as rat, mice, hamsters, rabbits and monkeys;
Creative Commons	however, there is paucity of information on the median lethal dose (LD <sub>50</sub> ) of Pb salts in
Attribution License which permits	rabbits especially when used as a model for molecular studies of Pb toxicity. In view of
unrestricted use,	this, oral $LD_{50}$ of lead (Pb) diacetate [Pb(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub> ] was determined in both young (6
distribution, and	weeks old, weighing 0.40 $\pm$ 0.03 kg) and adult (34 weeks old, weighing 1.63 $\pm$ 0.10 kg),
reproduction in any	male and female New Zealand White (NZW) rabbits (Oryctolagus cuniculus) using the
medium, provided the	revised arithmetic method of Up-and-Down Procedure (UDP). The estimated $LD_{50}$ of Pb
original author and	diacetate in young male and female NZW rabbits was 1214.20 $\pm$ 275.80 and 1214.20 $\pm$
source are credited.	275.80 mg/kg body weight respectively. Also, the LD <sub>50</sub> of the adult male and female
	rabbits was 1503.30 ± 342.90 and 1792.50 ± 354.40 mg/kg body weight respectively.
	Similarities in the estimated LD <sub>50</sub> of the young rabbits could be attributed to poorly
	developed xenobiotic metabolic processes. Sex-dimorphism in the toxicity of Pb
Publication History:	diacetate was observed in the adult animals, where the male animals were found to be
Received: 08-05-2018	more sensitive to the toxicant than the female. Hence, Pb diacetate is moderately toxic
Accepted: 22-09-2018	in NZW Rabbits according to "Gosselin, Smith and Hodge scale" of toxicity rating.

Keywords: Arithmetic mean, Dimorphism, Dose, Lead, Rabbits, Sex, Toxicity

#### Introduction

Toxicity studies of toxicants or pharmacological agents are conducted mostly in laboratory animals with the aim of determining acute, sub-chronic and chronic effects of an agent intended to be used either in humans or animals (NICEATM, 2000; Saganuwan, 2012). Acute toxicity test often refers to as lethal dose or *dosis letalis* (LD<sub>50</sub>), is a fundamental component in defining the toxicity of a test material for hazard classification and labelling (Svarc-gajiae,

2009). Trevan (1927) first defined  $LD_{50}$  as the dose of an agent which can kill 50 % of test subjects. The  $LD_{50}$  has been used as a benchmark for comparing the toxicity of chemicals in laboratory animals and relating the toxicity to human health (NICEATM, 2000). Acute toxicity in laboratory animals can serve as an indicator of toxicity potential of a chemical compound in humans (Mugford & Kedderis, 1998). Several methods are adopted in the estimation of LD<sub>50</sub> ranging from "moving average" to "up-anddown procedure" (Karber, 1931; Reed & Muench, 1938; Miller & Tainter, 1944; Litchfield & Wilcoxon, 1949; Lorke, 1983; Weil, 1983; Bruce, 1985; ASTM, 1987; Dixon, 1991; Schlede et al., 1994, Saganuwan, 2014). The up-and-down procedure (UDP) is the most currently adopted method of estimating LD<sub>50</sub> for chemicals and agents given as a single oral dose (OECD, 2001; NIH, 2001) to meet the principles of "3Rs"; Replacement, Reduction and Refinement in animal experiments (OECD, 2001; Burden et al., 2015). The UDP was first described by Bruce (1985) and adopted by OECD (OECD, 2000a; OECD, 2000b; OECD, 2001; NIH, 2001; Botham, 2004). It requires less number of animals (about 5-9), is faster and its findings are comparable to that of other acute toxicity methods (OECD, 2001).

Lead (Pb) is a heavy metal that has an old history of toxicity (Wedeen, 1984) and remains a significant health problem of both developed and developing nations (Struzynska, 2000; Rosner, 2016). Lead poisoning (plumbism) is re-emerging; in 2010, about 400 deaths were reported in Zamfara State (UNEP/OCHA, 2010) and in May of 2015, 28 deaths were reported in Rafi Local Government Area of Niger State (Faul, 2015) all in Nigeria, because of acute exposures to Pb from artisanal mining of gold in lead-rich ores. In May 2016, Pb poisoning was reported in Flint, Michigan, USA (Rosner, 2016). Acute signs of Pb toxicity range from severe abdominal pain, constipation, nausea, vomiting and anorexia especially among children, whilst, chronic manifestations are encephalopathy, seizures, attention deficit hyperactivity disorders (ADHD), decreased peripheral nerve impulse conduction, memory and other motor function losses (US ASTDR, 2010). Due to differences in species, age and existence of sexual dimorphism in xenobiotic metabolism (Mugford & Kedderis, 1998), there is need to investigate acute toxicity of Pb and its compound in laboratory animals, especially to guide researchers in biomedical experiments involving lead. Rabbits are laboratory animals used for biomedical research (Morton et al., 2003) and contribute a lot to livestock production sector (Mailafia et al., 2010), providing animal protein (about 20.8% crude protein levels) in most developing countries like Nigeria, where protein demand is crucial and paramount (Ajala & Balogun, 2004). Most biomedical researches on Pb toxicity are reported in mice, rats and non-human primates (Rice, 1990; Altmann et al., 1993; Mameli et al., 2001; Eneh & Akah, 2012), but, there is dearth of knowledge on the acute oral toxicity ( $LD_{50}$ ) of Pb salts in NZW rabbits (Bersenyi, 2003; Raafat *et al.*, 2009; Elgohary *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the objective of the study was to estimate the  $LD_{50}$  of Pb diacetate in young and adult, male and female NZW rabbits using the revised Arithmetic method of Up-and-Down Procedure (Saganuwan, 2014).

# **Materials and Methods**

# Laboratory animals

Twenty-four (24) New Zealand White (NZW) rabbits comprising 12 weaned, 6 weeks old and 12 adults, 34 weeks old respectively, procured from the Animal House of the National Veterinary Research Institute (NVRI), Vom Nigeria were used for the experiment. Ethical approval was given by Ethical Committee of College of Veterinary Medicine, Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Nigeria with permit number (No. CVM/VPP/12/2014). Age selection was done based on the report of Masoud *et al.* (1986).

The weaned rabbits weighing  $0.40 \pm 0.03$  kg (mean  $\pm$  SD) were divided into 2 groups of 6 animals each, group 1 comprised 6 females and group 2, 6 males respectively. The adult rabbits weighting  $1.63 \pm 0.10$  kg (mean  $\pm$  SD) were also divided into 2 groups of 6 animals each. Group 3 comprised 6 adult female rabbits and Group 4 comprised 6 adult male rabbits respectively. The animals were kept in stainless steel cages and acclimatized for 2 weeks at ambient temperature 28  $\pm$  5 °C, cyclical diurnal changes and relative humidity (70  $\pm$  10 %). Standard commercial rat pellets (Vital Feed<sup>\*</sup>) prepared by Grand Cereal and Oil Company Limited (GCOL), Jos, Nigeria and water were provided *ad-libitum*.

#### Treatment

The toxicity test was conducted using the arithmetic method of UDP revised by Saganuwan (2014). A default dose of 1000 mg/kg body weight of Pb diacetate was adopted (Lorgue *et al.*, 1996) and administered to the 1<sup>st</sup> animal and the outcome of either death (X) or survival (O) was observed in 48 hours. Subsequent animals were dosed using a dose progression factor of 3.2 until 2 or 3 reversals were achieved (Table 1). Moribund animals were euthanized using pentobarbital sodium and considered dead (The Humane Society of United States, 2013). All the surviving animals were further observed for 12 days for signs of toxicity.

#### Statistical analysis

Data generated were expressed as arithmetic mean using SPSS version 17 statistic package (IBM $\degree$ , NY

US). Student's t-test was used to differentiate between the means at 5 % level of significance (Kestenbaum, 2009).

#### Results

Treatments and treatment outcomes are presented in Tables 1 and 2. The estimated  $LD_{50}$  of Pb diacetate in young male and female NZW rabbits was 1214.2 mg/kg bwt, with standard deviation (SD) and standard error of mean (SEM) of 675.6 and 275.8, respectively. But default dose (Dd) progression factor and confidence interval (Ci) of 2.8 mg/kg bwt and 22.7 % respectively were deduced as described by Saganuwan (2014) (Table 1). The estimated  $LD_{50}$ of Pb diacetate of adult female NZW rabbits was 1792.5 mg/kg bwt with SD of 868.1 mg/kg bwt and SEM of 354.4 translating to a deduced Dd and Ci of 2.9 and 19.8 % respectively (Table 2). Similarly, the estimated  $LD_{50}$  of Pb diacetate of adult male NZW rabbits was found to be 1503.3 mg/kg bwt and 342.9 mg/kg bwt with a deduced Dd and Ci of 2.9 and 22.8 % respectively (Table 2). The  $LD_{50}$  values for adult female (1503.3 ± 342.9 mg/kg bwt) and adult male (1792.5 ± 354.4 mg/kg bwt) rabbits were higher, though not statistically (p>0.05) as compared to the values reported for the young rabbits (Table 1). The

**Table 1:** Treatment outcome and estimated  $LD_{50}$  of  $Pb(CH_3COO)_2$  of weaned NZW rabbits using the arithmetic method of UDP

	Weaned females (Group 1)			Weaned males (Group 2)			
No.	Weight	Dose	Survival	Weight	Dose	Survival	
	(kg)	(mg/kg)	status	(kg)	(mg/kg)	status	
1 <sup>st</sup>	0.42	1000	Х*	0.38	1000	0	
2 <sup>nd</sup>	0.38	850	0	0.41	2585	Х*	
3 <sup>rd</sup>	0.43	1000	0	0.35	1000	Х*	
4 <sup>th</sup>	0.40	2585	X*	0.45	850	0	
5 <sup>th</sup>	0.38	1000	Х*	0.42	1000	Х*	
6 <sup>th</sup>	0.41	850	0	0.39	850	0	
Am (50% LD <sub>50</sub> )		1214.2		1214.2			
SD (Dd)		675.6 (2.8)		675.6 (2.8)			
SEM (Ci)		275.8 (22.7 %)		275.8 (22.7 %)			
LD <sub>50</sub> (Am ± SEM)		1214.2 ± 275.8		1214.2 ± 275.8			

Values with different alphabet superscript are significant at p<0.05, X = Death, O = Survival, AM=Arithmetic mean, GM = Geometric mean, SD = Standard deviation, SEM = Standard error of mean, Dd = Default dose, Ci = Confidence interval, \* = signs of toxicity observed (epistaxis, arched back, tremor, huddling at corners, paresis, coma and death)

**Table 2:** Treatment outcome and estimated  $LD_{50}$  of Pb(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub> of adult NZW rabbits using the arithmetic method of UDP

	Adult females (	Adult males (Group 4)					
No.	Weight	Dose	Survival	Weight	Dose	Survival	
	(kg)	(mg/kg)	status	(kg)	(mg/kg)	status	
1 <sup>st</sup>	1.52	1000	0	1.78	1000	0	
2 <sup>nd</sup>	1.48	2585	X*	1.59	2585	X*	
3 <sup>rd</sup>	1.70	1000	0	1.61	1000	X*	
4 <sup>th</sup>	1.67	2585	X*	1.72	850	0	
5 <sup>th</sup>	1.50	1000	0	1.59	1000	0	
6 <sup>th</sup>	1.66	2585	X*	1.75	2585	X*	
Am (50% LD <sub>50</sub> )		1792.5		1503.3			
SD (Dd)		868.1 (2.9)		839.9 (2.9)			
SEM (Ci)		354.4 (19.8 %)		342.9 (22.8 %)			
$LD_{50}$ (Am ± SEM)		1792.5±354.4		1503.3±342.9			

Values with different alphabet superscript are significant at p<0.05, X = Death, O = Survival, AM=Arithmetic mean, GM=Geometric mean, SD=Standard deviation, SEM=Standard error of mean, Dd=Default dose, Ci=Confidence interval, \* = signs of toxicity observed (epistaxis, arched back, tremor, huddling at corners, paresis, coma and death)

estimated LD<sub>50</sub> of the adult female rabbits (1792.5 ± 354.4 mg/kg bwt.) was higher (p>0.05) compared with the adult male (1503.30 ± 342.9 mg/kg bwt.) respectively; however, the means were not statistically different (Table 2). The estimated LD<sub>50</sub> ranges (mean ± SEM) obtained for the young, adult male and female rabbits were 938.4 – 1490.0, 1160.4 – 1846.2 and 1438.1 – 2146.9 mg/kg between, respectively.

### Discussion

Lead is a complex toxicant affecting several cells and organs, disrupting functional and structural mechanism of the biological systems like the nervous, cardiovascular, hematopoietic and renal systems (Khalil-Manseh *et al.*, 1993; Zawia *et al.*, 2000; Cory-Slechta, 2003; Vaziri, 2008). Mechanisms of toxicity are associated with disruption of  $Ca^{2+}$  fluxes and  $Ca^{2+}$ -regulated metabolisms (Sidhu and Nehru, 2003), induction of "ionic mimicry" and distortion of sulfhydryl (thiol) groups of important antioxidant enzymes and protein ligands (Lanphear *et al.*, 2005, Xu *et al.*, 2009).

Age-sex dimorphisms are reported to affect morphological, physiological, immunological and behavioural parameters, and hence, influence the outcome of experiments (Diedrich et al., 2007; Florez-Vargas et al., 2016). In the present study, the LD<sub>50</sub> value of the young rabbits showed no sex-based dimorphism in response to acute Pb diacetate poisoning as their  $LD_{50}$  values were same (p>0.05). This may be attributed, but not limited to, lack of differentiation of the xenobiotic metabolizing enzymes (i.e. phase I and II enzymes) and other organic ligands in membrane proteins of these young rabbits (Mugford & Kedderis, 1998; Grace et al., 2008). Our finding agrees with the report of Lindahl et al. (1999) that young animals are vulnerable to the effect of Pb toxicity due to immaturity of blood brain barrier and poorly differentiated astroglia (a Pb sink), irrespective of sex differences. The magnitudes of Pb toxicity are known to be strongly dependent on the differentiation and developmental periods in vivo in which the biological system is exposed (IARC, 2006). Our findings support the above assertion as the LD<sub>50</sub> values of adult male and female rabbits were found to be higher than the young rabbits suggesting an increased resistance to high dose of Pb diacetate administered acutely in the adult animals. The difference observed in adult rabbits may be attributed to a more complex metabolic process of the toxicant in adult rabbits (Trimbell, 1991; Mugford & Kedderis, 1998), a more matured blood brain barrier and differentiated cellular structures (Pueschel et al., 1996; Lindahl et al., 1999; Grandjean & Landrigan, 2006) and a decreased intestinal absorption capability for Pb ions (Skerfving & Bergdahl, 2007; Pokras & Kneeland, 2009). The difference may also be due to greater capacity to store Pb in an inactive form in the bones, while in the voung animals, the active bone absorption/resorption mechanism contributes to their relatively high vulnerability to Pb toxicity (Hu et al., 1998; Hu et al., 2007). Age is one of the factors known to interplay in the clinical manifestations of Pb poisoning (Braide & Anika, 2007). Garg (2007) also reported that age dimorphism accounts for the differences in the response to toxic doses of Pb salts; which is usually due to differences in biotransformation.

Our findings also revealed that a higher LD<sub>50</sub> value of the adult female rabbits is indicative of their lowsusceptibility to the toxic effects of the compound as compared to the adult male rabbits. Differences in our treatment outcomes were generally not significant (p>0.05) probably due to a single animal per dose protocol as a UDP guideline in obeying the principles of Replacement, Reduction and Refinement (3Rs) in the use of animals for research (OECD, 2001; Burden et al., 2015). Quarterman (1987) reported that male animals are more prone to toxicity of Pb salts than female animals. In contrast, Mugford & Kedderis (1998) reported that female animals are more prone to the toxic effects of most xenobiotics. Male animals are reported to have higher rate of xenobiotic metabolism than the females and hence metabolize and excrete most toxic agents faster and so are less susceptible (Sipes & Gandolfo, 1991). The most important xenobiotic metabolic enzymes in mammals are the microsomal cytochrome P450 (e.g. CYP2A & 2E) enzymes, which catalyze the oxidation and reduction of exogenous compounds. However, there exist sex-dependent differences in the expression of these microsomal CYP450 enzymes, and their different manifestations are developmentally regulated and thus, manifest more in adult animals (Waxman et al., 1985). This could also be a reason why there were no differences between the LD<sub>50s</sub> of the weaned rabbits. Furthermore, female animals are reported to have 10-30 % less total CYP450 enzymes compared to males (Mugford & Kedderis, 1998) which explains why females metabolize chemical compounds more

slowly and thereby more prone to toxic agents. However, the result of the present study showed male rabbits to be more prone to Pb toxicity than the females.

The results obtained using Saganuwan's revised method (Saganuwan, 2014) are comparable with the results obtained from other species using other methods of LD<sub>50</sub> determination. The ranges of estimated LD<sub>50s</sub> in the present work for the young, adult male and female rabbits are comparable to the ones estimated and reported by Lorgue et al. (1996) and JECFA (2000). Lorgue et al. (1996) reported LD<sub>50</sub> ranges of 600 - 800, 400 - 600, 800 - 1000, 800 -1000 and 200 - 600 mg/kg bwt for cattle, horses, pigs, dogs and poultry respectively, using methods like; traditional acute oral toxicity (TAOT or TG 401), fixed dose procedure (FDP or TG 420), acute toxic class method (ATCM or TG 423) and the conventional up-and-down procedure (UDP or TG 425) (Lipnick et al., 1995; Stitzel et al., 2002). JECFA (2000) also reported lethal dose range of 300 – 4000 mg/kg bwt of Pb salts in animals after multiple short term oral exposures. Although, Pb is known to cause chronic poisoning (EFSA, 2010), acute poisonings are still reported especially from contamination by Pb batteries, Pb-laden paints and Pb production industries (Frape & Pringle, 1984; O'Hara et al., 1995; UNEP, 2008). The outcome of the present studies revealed Pb diacetate to be moderately toxic in NZW rabbits according to the "Gosselin, Smith and Hodge scale" of toxicity rating (Svarc-gajiae, 2009).

In conclusion, the  $LD_{50}$  values reported in the adult rabbits were higher as compared to the young rabbits. The adult male rabbits were reported to be more prone to the toxic effects of Pb diacetate when compared to the adult females. This may be due to sexual dimorphism in the xenobiotic metabolic capability of the adult rabbits. Lead diacetate may be classified as moderately toxic in rabbits on the "Gosselin, Smith and Hodge scale" of toxicity rating (Svarc-gajiae, 2009).

#### Acknowledgement

Authors are grateful to Dr SA Saganuwan of the Department of Veterinary Physiology, Pharmacology and Biochemistry, College of Veterinary Medicine, Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi, for his valuable contributions and revision of up-and-down procedure (UDP).

#### References

- Ajala MK & Balogun, JK (2004). Economics of rabbit production in Zaria, Kaduna State. *Tropical Journal of Animal Science*, **7**(1): 1-10.
- Altmann L, Weinsberg F, Sveinsson K, Lilienthal H, Wiegand H & Winneke G (1993). Impairment of long-term potentiation and learning following chronic lead exposure. Toxicological Letters, **66**(1): 106-112.
- ASTM (1987). Standard test method for estimating acute oral toxicity in rats. American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia US. Pp 1-26.
- Bersenyi A (2003). Study of Toxic Metal (Cd, Pb, Hg and Ni) in Rabbits and Broiler Chickens.
  PhD. Dissertation, Department of Physiology and Biochemistry, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Szent Istvan University Hungary. Pp 1-101.
- Botham PA (2004). Acute systemic toxicity-prospect for tiered testing strategies. *Toxicology In vitro*, **18**(2): 227-230.
- Braide VB & Anika SM (2007). *Environmental Toxicology*. SNAAP Press Limited, Enugu, Nigeria. Pp 14-18.
- Bruce RD (1985). An up-and-down procedure for acute toxicity testing. *Fundamental of Applied Toxicology*, **5**(1): 151-157.
- Burden N, Chapman K, Sewell F & Robinson V (2015). Pioneering better science through 3Rs: an introduction to the national center for the replacement, refinement and reduction of animals in research (NC3Rs). Journal of American Association of Laboratory Animal Science, 54(2): 198-208.
- Cory-Slechta DA (2003). Lead-induced impairments in complex cognitive function: Offerings from experimental studies. *Child Neuropsychology*, **9**(1): 54-75.
- Diedrich M, Tadic J, Mao L, Wacher MA, Nebrich G, Hetzer R, Regitz-Zagrosek V & Klose J (2007). Heart protein expression related to age and sex in mice and humans. International Journal Molecular Medicine, **20**(6): 865-874.
- Dixon WJ (1991). Staircase Bioassay. The Up-and-Down Method. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Review*, **15**(1): 47-50.
- EFSA (2010). Scientific opinion on lead in food. (European Food Safety Association) Panel on Contaminants in Food Chain (CONTAM). European food Safety Association Journal. 8(4): 1570 (151 pp).

- Elgohary AA, Shafaa MW, Raafat BM, Rizk RA, Metwally FG & Saleh AM (2009). Prophylactic effect of *Angelica archangelica* against acute lead toxicity in albino rabbits. *Romanian Journal of Biophysics.*, **19**(4): 256-275.
- Eneh OC & Akah PA (2012). Acute toxicity assessment of crude lead-extract from electronic waste materials in Nigeria. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, **11**(88): 15430-15437.
- Faul M (2015). Nigeria: 28 kids killed by lead poisoning from gold mining. <u>http://medicalxpress.com/news/2015-05-</u> <u>nigeria-kids-poisoning-gold.html</u>, retrieved 28-06-2016
- Flórez-Vargas O, Brass A, Karystianis G, Bramhall M, Stevens R, Cruickshank S & Nenadic G (2016). Bias in the reporting of sex and age in biomedical research on mouse models. *eLife*, 10.7554/eLife.13615
- Frape DL & Pringle JD (1984). Toxic manifestations in a dairy herd consuming haylage contaminated by lead. *Veterinary Records*, **114**: 615-616.
- Garg SK (2007). *Veterinary Toxicology*. SK Jain CBS Publishers and Distributors, New Delhi, India. Pp 24-29.
- Grace D, Abraham S, Varghese A & Sathianarayanan S (2008). Absorption and metabolism of xenobiotics: An overview. *The International Journal of Nutrition and Wellness*, <u>http://ispub.com/IJNW/7/1/4746</u>, retrieved 02-02- 2017.
- Grandjean P & Landrigan PJ (2006). Developmental neurotoxicity in industrial chemicals. *Lancet*, **368**(9553): 2167-2178.
- Hu H, Rabinowitz M & Smith D (1998). Bone lead as a biological marker in epidemiologic studies of chronic toxicity: conceptual paradigms. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, **106**(1): 1-8.
- Hu H, Shih R, Rothenberg S & Schwartz BS (2007). The epidemiology of lead toxicity in adults: measuring dose and consideration of other methodological issues. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, **115**(3): 455-462.
- IARC (International Agency for Research in Cancer) (2006). Inorganic and organic lead compounds. IARC Monograph on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to human. 87: 519. Lyon France, https://monographs.iarc.fr/ENG/Monograp

<u>hs/vol87/mono87.pdf</u>, retrieved 02-05-2015.

JECFA (Joint FAO/WHO Expect Committee on Food Additives) (2000). Safety evaluations of certain food additives. JECFA Report. Geneva. <u>http://www.inchem.org/documents/jecfa/j</u>

ecmono/v60je01.pdf, retrieved 05-05-2015.

- Karber G (1931). Contribution to the collective treatment of pharmacological series experiments. Archives of Experimental Pathology and Pharmacology, **162**(4): 480-483.
- Kestenbaum B (2009). Epidemiology and Biostatistics: An introduction to clinical research. Springer Science Business Media, London UK. Pp 181-187.
- Khalil-Manesh F, Gonick HC, Cohen AH, Alinovi R, Bergamaschi E, Mutti A and Rosen VJ (1992). Experimental model of lead nephropathy. I. Continuous high-dose lead administration. *Kidney International*, **41**(5): 1192-1203.
- Lanphear BP, Hornung R, Khoury J, Yolton K, Baghurst P, Bellinger DC, Canfield RL, Dietrich KN, Bornschein R, Greene T, Rothenberg SJ, Needleman HL, Schnaas L, Wasserman G, Graziano J & Roberts R (2005). Low-level environmental lead exposure and children's intellectual function: An international pooled analysis. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, **113**(7): 894-899.
- Lindahl LS, Bird L, Legare ME, Mikeska G, Bratton GR & Tiffany-Caastiglioni E (1999). Differential ability of astroglia and neuronal cells to accumulate lead: Dependence on cell type and on degree of differentiation. *Toxicology Science*, **50**(2): 236-243.
- Lipnick RL, Cotruvo JA, Hill RN, Bruce RD, Stitzel KA, Walker AP, Chu I, Goddard M, Segal L, Springer JA & Myers RC (1995). Comparison of the up-and-down, conventional LD<sub>50</sub> and fixed dose acute toxicity procedures. *Food Chemical Toxicology*, **33**(3): 223-231.
- Litchfield JT & Wilcoxon FA (1949). A simplified method of evaluating dose-effects experiments. Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics, **96**(2): 99-113.
- Lorgue G, Lechenet J & Riviere A (1996). Lead. In: *Clinical Veterinary Toxicology (MJ Chapman, editor)*. Blackwell Science Ltd., London. Pp 123-125.

- Lorke D (1983). A new approach to practical acute toxicity testing. *Archives Toxicology*, **54**(4): 275-287.
- Mailafia S, Onakpa MM & Owoleke OE (2010). Problems and prospects of rabbit production in Nigeria-A review. *Bayero Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences*, **3**(2): 20-25
- Mameli O, Caria MA, Melis F, Solinas A, Tavera C, Ibba A, Tocco M, Flore C & Sanna Randaccio F (2001). Neurotoxic effects of lead at low concentration. *Brain Research Bulletin*, **55**(2): 269-275.
- Masoud I, Shapiro F, Kent R & Moses A (1986). Longitudinal study of the growth of the New Zealand White rabbits: cumulative and biweekly incremental growth rates for body length, femoral length and tibial length. *Journal of Orthopedic Research*, (4)2: 221-231.
- Miller LC & Tainter ML (1944). Estimation of  $LD_{50}$  and  $ED_{50}$  values and their errors using logarithmic probit paper. *Proceedings of the Society of Experimental Biology and Medicine*, **57**(2): 261-264.
- Morton DB, Jennings M, Butchelor GR, Bell D, Birke L, Davies K, Eveliegh JR, Gunn D, Heath M, Howard B, Koder P, Phillips J, Poole T, Sainsbury AW, Sales GD, Smith DJA, Stauffacher M & Turner RJ (2003). Refinements in rabbit husbandry. Second report of the BVAAWF/FRAME/RSPCA Joint Working Group on Refinement. *Laboratory Animals*, **27**(4): 301–329.
- Mugford CA & Kedderis GL (1998). Sex-dependent metabolism of xenobiotics. Drug Metabolism Review, **30**(3): 441-498.
- NICEATM (National Toxicology Program Center for the Evaluation of Alternative Toxicological Methods) (2000). *NICEATM Up-and Down Procedure Background Review Document*. Pp C435-450.
- NIH (National Institute of Health) (2001). The revised Up-and-Down Procedure: A test method for determining the acute oral toxicity of chemicals. Results of an independent peer review evaluation organized by the Interagency Coordinating Committee on the Validation of Alternative Methods (ICCVAM) and the National Toxicology Programme (NTP), Interagency Center for the Evaluation of Alternative Toxicological Methods (NICEATM) volumes 1 and 2. Publication

No: 02-4501. Research Triangle Park, NC, USA: US National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences.

http://iccvam.niehs.nih.gov/docs/acutetox docs/udpProc/udpfinal.htm, retrieved 20-10-2016.

- O'Hara TM, Bennett L, McCoy PC, Jack SW & Fleming S (1995). Lead poisoning and toxicokinetics in a heifer and fetus treated with CaNa<sub>2</sub> EDTA and Thiamine. *Journal of Veterinary Diagnosis and Investigation*, **7**(4): 531-537.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) (2000a). OECD Series on testing and assessment No. 24. Guidance document on acute oral toxicity testing, Paris France. <u>https://ntp.niehs.nih.gov/iccvam/suppdocs/</u> <u>feddocs/oecd/oecd-gd24.pdf</u>, retrieved 12-06-2016.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) (2000b). OECD Series on testing and assessment No. 19. Guidance document on the recognition assessment and use of clinical signs as human endpoints for experimental animals used in safety evaluation, Paris France. <u>http://www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/pu</u> <u>blicdisplaydocumentpdf/?cote=ENV/JM/M</u> <u>ONO(2000)7&doclanguage=en</u>, retrieved 12-06-2016.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) (2001). *OECD Guidelines for the testing of chemicals, No. 425.* Acute Oral Toxicity – Modified Up and Down Procedure (UDP), Paris France. <u>http://www.oecd.org/chemicalsafety/risk-</u> <u>assessment/1948378.pdf</u>, retrieved 12-06-2016.
- Pokras MA & Kneeland MR (2009). Understanding lead uptake and effects across species lines: A conservation medicine-based approach. In: Ingestion of Lead from spent Ammunition: Implications for Wildlife and Humans, (RT Watson, M Fuller, M Pokras and WG Hunt, editors). The Peregrine Funds, Boise, Idaho, USA. DOI 10.4080/ilsa.2009.0101, retrieved 13-08-2016.
- Pueschel SM, Linakis JG & Anderson AC (1996). *Lead Poisoning in Childhood*. Paul Brooks Publishing Co. Inc., Baltimore. Pp 75-96.
- Quarterman J (1987). Lead. In: Trace Element in Human and Animal Nutrition (W Mertz,

editior). Academic Press, Inc., San Diego, California US. Pp 281-326.

- Raafat BM, Shafaa MW, Rizk RA, Elgohary AA & Saleh A (2009). Ameliorating effects of vitamin C against acute lead toxicity in albino rabbits. *Australian Journal of Basic Applied Sciences*, **3**(4): 3597-3608.
- Reed LJ & Muench H (1938). A simple method of estimating fifty percent endpoints. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, **27**(3): 493-497.
- Rice DC (1990). Lead-induced behavioral impairment on a spatial discrimination reversal task in monkeys exposed during different periods of development. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, **106**(2): 327-333.
- Rosner D (2016). A lead poisoning crisis enters its second century. *Health Affairs*, **35**(5): 756-759.
- Saganuwan AS (2012). Principles of Pharmacological Calculations. Ahmadu Bello University Press Limited. Zaria, Nigeria. Pp 294.
- Saganuwan SA (2014). Arithmetic method of rough estimation of median lethal dose (LD<sub>50</sub>) using Up-and-Down Procedure. *Toxicology Letters*, 10.1016/j.toxlet.2014.06.454
- Schlede EU, Mischke U, Diener W & Kayser D (1994). OECD expert meeting: Acute toxic class method. January 26-28, OECD Berlin, Germany. Pp 23-29.
- Sidhu MK & Nehru B (2003). Relationship between lead-induced biochemical and behavioral changes with trace elements concentration in rat brain. *Biology and Trace Elemen Research*, **92**(3): 245-256.
- Sipes IG & Gandolfo AJ (1991). Biotransformation of Toxicants. In: *Casarett and Doull's Toxicology (MO Amdur, J Doull and CD Klasses, editors), second edition*. Pergamon Press, New York. Pp 88-126.
- Skerfving S & Bergdahl IA (2007). Lead. In: Handbook on the Toxicology of Metals, third Edition. GF Nordberg, BA Fowler, M Nordberg and LT Friberg, editors. Elsevier, London. Pp 599-643.
- Stitzel KA, Spielmann H & Griffin G (2002). The international symposium on regulatory testing and animal welfare: recommendations on best scientific practices for acute systemic toxicity testing. Institute for Laboratory Animal Research Journal, **43**(Suppl): S108-111.

- Struzynska L (2000). The protective role of astroglia in the early period of experimental lead toxicity in the rat. *Acta of Neurobiology Experiment*, **60**(2): 167-173.
- Svarc-gajiae, J. (2009). General Toxicology. Nova Science Publishers Inc., New York. Pp 7-8. http//www.agrifs.ir/sites/default/files/L.pdf , retrieved 12-12-2017.
- The Humane Society of the United States (2013). *Euthanasia Reference Manual*, second edition. Pp 76.
- Trevan JW (1927). The error of determination of toxicity. *Proceedings of Royal Society of (London) Britain, Series B,* **101**(712). 483-514.
- Trimbell JA (1991). *Principles of Biochemical Toxicology,* second edition. Taylor and Francis, London. Pp 144-147.
- UNEP (United Nations Environmental Programme) (2008). Interim review of scientific information on lead. http://drustage.unep.org/chemicalsandwas te/sites/unep.org.chemicalsandwaste/files/ publications/GAELP\_PUB\_Final\_UNEP\_Lead \_review\_Nov\_2008.pdf, retrieved 02-07-2016.
- UNEP/OCHA (United Nation Environmental Program/Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs) (2010). Lead Pollution and Poisoning Crisis: Environmental Emergency Response Mission, Zamfara State, Nigeria. Pp 1-50. UNEP, Geneva. https://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files /Lead%20Pollution%20and%20Poisoning%2 0Crisis%20Environmental%20Emergency%2 0Response%20Mission%20Zamfara%20Stat e%20Nigeria%202010.pdf, retrieved 12-01-2015.
- US ATSDR (US Agency for Toxic Substances and Diseases Registry) (2010). Case Studies in Environmental Medicine (CSEM): Lead Toxicity. [pdf] Atlanta: US Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Services.

https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/csem/exphistor y/docs/exposure\_history.pdf. Retrieved 12-01- 2017.

- Vaziri ND (2008). Mechanism of lead-induced hypertension and cardiovascular disease. *American Journal of Heart and Circulatory Physiology*, **295**(2): 454-465.
- Waxman DJ, Dannan GA & Guengerich FP (1985). Regulation of rat hepatic cytochrome P450:

age-dependent expression, hormonal imprinting and xenobiotic inducibility of sex-specific iso-enzymes. *Biochemistry*, **24**(16): 4409-4417.

- Wedeen R (1984). *Poison in the pot: the legacy of lead*. Carbondale, III, Southern Illinois University Press. Pp 274.
- Weil CS (1983). Economical LD<sub>50</sub> and slope determinations. Drug Chemistry and Toxicology, 6(6): 595-603.
- Xu J, Yan C, Yang B, Tong S, Zou X & Tian Y (2009).
   Effects of lead exposure on hippocampal metabotropic glutamate receptor subtype 3 and 7 in developmental rats. *Journal of Negative Result in Biomedicines*, 8(5): 1-8.
- Zawia NH, Crumpton T, Brydie M, Reddy GR & Razmiafshari M (2000). Disruption of the zinc finger domain: a common target that underlies many of the effects of lead. *Neurotoxicology*, **21**(6): 1069-1080.