

METABOLISM OF [^{14}C]CARBON TETRACHLORIDE TO EXHALED, EXCRETED AND BOUND METABOLITES

DOSE-RESPONSE, TIME-COURSE AND PHARMACOKINETICS

EDWARD S. REYNOLDS, RICHARD J. TREINEN, HERBERT H. FARRISH and
MARY TREINEN MOSLEN*

Chemical Pathology Laboratory, Department of Pathology, University of Texas Medical Branch,
Galveston, TX 77550, U.S.A.

(Received 28 July 1983; accepted 10 February 1984)

Abstract—Fasted male rats were given six doses of $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ ranging from non-hepatotoxic (0.1 mmole/kg) to severely hepatotoxic (26 mmole/kg). Time-course and pharmacokinetics of CCl_4 , $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and CHCl_3 elimination by exhalation were monitored by measuring amounts recovered in breath during discrete 15-min intervals for 8–12 hr. Amounts of ^{14}C -labeled metabolite recovered bound to liver macromolecules at 24 hr and excreted in urine or feces for 24 hr were also determined. Comparison pharmacokinetic studies were done with $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$ and $\text{Na}_2^{14}\text{CO}_3$. After all doses of $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$, the major metabolite was CO_2 , twenty to thirty times less metabolite was recovered bound to liver macromolecules, and intermediate amounts of metabolite were excreted in urine and feces. CHCl_3 was the least abundant metabolite at low CCl_4 doses, but the second most abundant at high doses. Stronger associations were found between the magnitude of liver injury at 24 hr (quantitated as serum glutamate-pyruvate transaminase activity) and the extent or rate of CCl_4 metabolism by pathways leading to CO_2 and CHCl_3 than by pathways leading to ^{14}C -metabolites bound in liver or excreted in urine. Time-course and pharmacokinetic data indicated that a major pathway of CCl_4 metabolism leading to CO_2 became impaired within 2 hr after administration of hepatotoxic doses of CCl_4 .

Over the past 30 years many investigators have attempted to clarify the mechanism of CCl_4 hepatotoxicity by examining its biologic fate. *In vivo* studies demonstrated that CCl_4 is converted to multiple metabolites including CO_2 , CHCl_3 , CCl_3CCl_3 , soluble compounds excreted in urine, feces and bile and metabolites covalently bound to cell macromolecules of liver and other tissues [1–6]. Most *in vivo* studies of CCl_4 metabolism monitored only one or two of these metabolites at a limited number of time points. Therefore, information is lacking on the relative amounts of the various metabolites produced and on their relative rates of formation.

In vitro studies have provided convincing evidence that CCl_4 is metabolized to several kinds of reactive, potentially injurious intermediates—a trichloromethyl free radical intermediate ($\cdot\text{CCl}_3$), phosgene ($\text{O}=\text{CCl}_2$), and an electrophilic chlorine species [7–10]. Chemical studies indicate that a reactive trichloromethyl peroxy radical ($\cdot\text{OOCCL}_3$) could be formed by the direct reaction of either $\cdot\text{CCl}_3$ with O_2 or CCl_4 with superoxide anion (O_2^-) [11, 12]. In addition, the potential formation of a carbene ($\cdot\text{CCl}_2$) intermediate at low O_2 concentrations has been proposed [13, 14]. What remains uncertain are the contributions of these multiple intermediates to the *in vivo* pathways and products of CCl_4 metabolism and to its hepatotoxicity.

In vivo studies of the relationship between the hepatotoxicity of CCl_4 and its metabolism to specific

types of products have not been concordant. Qualitative relationships between the extent of CCl_4 metabolized to $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and the magnitude of liver injury were found by some investigators [15–17] but not by others [18–20]. When the relationship between the extent of CCl_4 metabolized to CHCl_3 and liver injury was examined, qualitative relationships were found under certain conditions which modulate injury [21–24] but not under others [22, 25]. Some have noted qualitative relationships between the extent of metabolite bound to liver macromolecules and liver injury [17, 25, 26], while others have not [27–29]. Relationships between urinary, fecal and biliary metabolites and liver injury have not been examined. The lack of concordance between studies could be due to variations in CCl_4 dose, conditions used to produce multiple degrees of liver injury, nutritional state of the animal, and times at which metabolite amounts were evaluated. Little is known about either the dose-response or time-course of CCl_4 metabolism.

The objective of this *in vivo* study was to obtain some of the missing information on the relationship between the biologic fate and hepatotoxicity of CCl_4 . Exhalation of CCl_4 and CHCl_3 by fasted male rats was monitored by a sensitive electron capture detector which allowed direct analysis of expired air samples without the trapping systems used by others [22, 24, 30]. This sensitive detection system allowed use of a broad range of CCl_4 doses including the frequently used, severely hepatotoxic 26 mmole/kg dose (2.5 ml/kg) and a small, non-injurious 0.1 mmole/kg dose, one-tenth that used in prior stud-

* Author to whom all correspondence should be addressed.

ies of exhaled CCl_4 metabolites [22, 24, 30]. Other types of exhaled, bound and excreted metabolites were monitored in the same animals by tracing ^{14}C -label derived from $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$.

Extent of CCl_4 metabolism was determined by measuring the amounts of unchanged CCl_4 , $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ metabolite, and CHCl_3 metabolite exhaled for 8–12 hr, of ^{14}C -metabolite excreted in urine and feces for 24 hr, and of ^{14}C -metabolite bound to liver macromolecules at 24 hr. The time-course of CCl_4 metabolism by pathways leading to CO_2 and CHCl_3 was examined by monitoring the exhalation of CCl_4 , $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and CHCl_3 during multiple discrete intervals between 0 and 12 hr and by analyzing the pharmacokinetics of the exhalation of these compounds. Since analysis of the pharmacokinetics of metabolites which are produced by parallel and crossover pathways is complex [31], comparison time-course studies were done on the exhalation of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ after $\text{Na}_2^{14}\text{CO}_3$, and of CHCl_3 and $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ metabolite after $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$. The degree of liver injury produced by the graduated doses of CCl_4 was quantitated by measuring serum activities of liver-derived enzymes. Relationships between the biologic fate and hepatotoxicity of CCl_4 were evaluated by comparing the relative strengths of the associations between the magnitude of liver injury in individual animals and the amounts or rates of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ or CHCl_3 exhaled, ^{14}C -metabolite excreted in urine, and ^{14}C -metabolite bound in liver.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals. CCl_4 , CHCl_3 , and CH_2Cl_2 of the highest available purity (99+ Mol% grade) were purchased from the Fisher Scientific Co., Pittsburgh, PA. CH_3Cl of 99+ % purity was obtained from Matheson Gas, Pasadena, TX. $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$, $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$ and $\text{Na}_2^{14}\text{CO}_3$ of a minimum 99% purity were purchased from the New England Nuclear Corp., Boston, MA. Fluids for radioactivity measurement were obtained from New England Nuclear (Oxysorb CO_2 absorber, Hyamine, Aquafluor, Aquasol), Fisher (Scintiverse) and Packard, Downers Grove, IL (Carbosorb, Permafluor V).

Animals. Male Sprague-Dawley derived Charles River C.-D. rats were obtained from Charles River Laboratories, Wilmington, MA. The rats were housed in wire bottom plastic cages suspended over absorbent paper, provided with Purina Rat Chow (Ralston Purina, Columbus, OH) and tap water *ad lib.*, and acclimated in an automatically regulated 12 hr light–12 hr dark cycle animal room for at least 1 week prior to use.

Volatile sample collection and analysis. Expired air of animals was collected in sealed 1 liter all glass and metal metabolism chambers during multiple discrete intervals (usually 15 min). Samples (1 ml) of the metabolism chamber atmosphere of glass were automatically analyzed with a specially designed system consisting of a microprocessor-sequenced gas sampling and valving system (Valco, Houston, TX), a stainless steel and Teflon circulating pump (Air Dimension, Inc., Kulpville, PA) with a pumping rate of 0.8 to 1.0 l/min, and a 1.0-ml sampling loop. Total volume of the sampling system exclusive of the

metabolism chamber was 124 ml. Prior to sample collection, the animal metabolism chamber atmosphere was circulated through the valving system and the sampling loop for 2 min to ensure adequate mixing. The coefficient of variation of replicate analyses of chamber atmosphere after a 2-min circulation was less than 2%.

The sampling system automatically injected a 1-ml air sample into a Perkin Elmer 910 gas chromatograph interfaced with a Hewlett Packard 3352-C minicomputer for data reduction. A 2.5 m \times 0.32 cm stainless steel column packed with 80–100 mesh Poropak-P (Analabs, Inc., North Haven, CT) was used isothermally at 130° with nitrogen at 30 ml/min as carrier gas.

CO_2 which emerged from the column at 0.6 min was collected by diverting the column effluent from the detector during min 1 of chromatography and trapping the eluted CO_2 in Oxysorb CO_2 absorber; trapping efficiency was >99%. $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ was measured by scintillation counting. CCl_4 , CHCl_3 , CH_2Cl_2 and CH_3Cl emerged from the column between 4 and 10 min and were measured by a ^{63}Ni electron capture detector set at 225°.

The electron capture detector was calibrated by injecting air samples containing known concentrations of chlorocarbons. Stability of the calibration was verified daily and, when indicated, the detector was recalibrated. Detection limits were 0.3 pmole/l air for CH_2Cl_2 , 0.08 pmole/l air for CHCl_3 and 0.03 pmole/l air for CCl_4 . The amounts of CHCl_3 and CH_2Cl_2 present in the CCl_4 and $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ administered to rats were below detection limits under the conditions used for volatile metabolite analysis.

Detection limits for $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ depended upon the specific activity of the compound administered, but were sufficient to quantitatively determine chloromethane derived $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ in effluent air for at least 8 hr after each dose of $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$, and for 6–8 hr after each dose of $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$.

Measured amounts of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and chlorocarbons recovered at each time point were multiplied by the metabolism chamber volume in order to determine the total amount of each compound exhaled during the collection periods. These amounts were corrected by body weight and time, and then uniformly expressed as moles compound per hr per kg rat and plotted. Total exhalation per 24 hr was determined by connecting all points on the time curve and measuring the area under the curve with a Digitizing Electronic Planimeter (Numonics Corp., North Wales, PA). The measured amounts of exhaled compounds underestimate the actual amounts exhaled by the rats during the collection periods since the rats re-inhale and retain some fraction of the compounds exhaled into the closed system. No attempt was made to correct for this underestimation.

Non-volatile label analysis. Livers were homogenized in 0.25 M sucrose and extracted twice with 0.3 M perchloric acid. The precipitated lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids—termed the “macromolecular” fraction—were solubilized in 0.3 N KOH at 80°. For counting, liver homogenate was solubilized in Hyamine at 50° and suspended in Aquafluor; the acid soluble fraction was suspended in Aquafluor; the solubilized macromolecular frac-

tion was suspended in Scintiverse; and samples of urine were suspended in Aquasol. Radioactivity in these fractions was determined by liquid scintillation counting with quench correction. Weighed samples of thoroughly mixed feces were burned in a Packard Sample Oxidizer. The liberated $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ was trapped in Carbosorb and counted after the addition of Permafluor V.

Experimental protocol for $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ experiments. Twenty-four rats weighing 200–250 g were fasted for 17–18 hr beginning at 5:00 p.m. The next morning CCl_4 (containing 10–80 μCi $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ /rat) was administered between 9:00 and 10:00 a.m. by gavage in 2.5 ml mineral oil/kg at doses of 0.1, 0.3, 2, 4, 10 and 26 mmoles CCl_4 /kg. Each dose of $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ was given to four animals. Four additional control rats were given only the mineral oil vehicle.

Immediately after $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ administration, each rat was placed in a glass and metal metabolism chamber. The chamber was sealed and a sample of chamber air was withdrawn after 15 min for analysis of CCl_4 , CHCl_3 , CH_2Cl_2 , CH_3Cl and $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ contents. The chamber was then promptly opened and the animal removed and placed in a plastic metabolism cage. Urine and feces, which accumulated in the glass metabolism chamber, were collected, and the chamber was rinsed with distilled water and dried with a jet of hot air.

Thirty minutes after $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ administration, the rat was replaced in the glass metabolism chamber for a second 15-min period, and a sample of chamber air was analyzed for chlorocarbons and $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ exhaled during that time. The entire process of measuring compounds exhaled during a 15-min period was repeated at half-hour intervals for the first 8 hr after CCl_4 administration and at 9, 12 and 24 hr thereafter. Reddrop *et al.* [30] found a similar schedule useful for monitoring CHCl_3 exhalation by rats given CCl_4 . Samples of ambient air were routinely taken before and at 2-hr intervals throughout the day of each experiment in order to verify that ambient chlorocarbon concentrations would not interfere with the analyses.

Animals were kept in plastic metabolism cages at all times when not in glass metabolism chambers. Water was provided to animals in the plastic cages at all times, and food was provided at 5:00 p.m. on the day of the experiment. Urine and feces were collected for 24 hr.

At 24 hr the animals were killed by decapitation. Blood samples were collected from the trunk. The liver was removed and weighed, and a cross section was fixed in 4% neutral buffered formaldehyde, embedded in paraffin, sectioned, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin by standard histologic techniques. The remainder of the liver and the urine and feces which had been collected for 24 hr after $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ administration were stored at -20° until analyzed for ^{14}C -content.

Hepatic injury was assessed by observation of the tissue sections and by measurement of serum glutamate-oxalacetate (SGOT) and glutamate-pyruvate transaminase (SGPT) activities with reagent kits from Worthington Diagnostics, Freehold, NJ.

Experimental protocol for comparison of $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$ and $\text{Na}_2^{14}\text{CO}_3$ experiments. Eleven animals weighing

200–250 g were fasted for 17–18 hr beginning at 5:00 p.m. CHCl_3 (containing 10–20 μCi $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$ /rat) was given in 2.5 ml mineral oil/kg at doses of 0.1 and 0.3 mmole/kg. $\text{Na}_2^{14}\text{CO}_3$ (containing 10 μCi $^{14}\text{CO}_2$) was given in 2.5 ml of 0.02 N NaOH/kg at a dose of 0.005 mmole/kg. Each dose of CHCl_3 was given to four rats. $\text{Na}_2^{14}\text{CO}_3$ was given to three rats.

Subsequent procedures were similar to those in CCl_4 experiments except that the times of sampling chamber air in the glass metabolism cages differed slightly (see Results).

Pharmacokinetic analysis. Appropriate pharmacokinetic models describing the time-course exhalation-rates of CCl_4 , CO_2 and CHCl_3 were constructed as sets of integrated equations utilizing as constants the amounts of the compounds ultimately exhaled and utilizing as parameters the absorption and elimination rate constants. Exhalation-rate time-profiles for each compound were evaluated with a one- and, when possible, a two-compartment model for orally administered compounds [32]. For the two-compartment model, additional parameters were the intercompartment transfer rate constants and the distribution rate constant. The absorption, distribution and elimination-rate constants were estimated using the nonlinear least squares program (NONLIN) [33] assuming elimination from the central compartment. Initial estimates were obtained by graphical exponential curve stripping.

Due to variations between individual rats given the same dose level, and occasionally within individual rats, the rate constants were derived as single values using the combined data from each group of rats rather than as the mean \pm S.E. from the individual animals.

Statistical analysis. The relationships between parameters of injury and metabolism were examined by single and multiple linear regression analysis.

RESULTS

Effects of CCl_4 dose on the extent of CCl_4 metabolism to exhaled, soluble and bound metabolites. After $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ administration, the only exhaled metabolites detected were $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and CHCl_3 . As anticipated from the studies of Butler [2] and Paul and Rubinstein [34], neither CH_2Cl_2 nor CH_3Cl was detected in any animal given CCl_4 . Considerable amounts of ^{14}C -label were recovered in feces and urine as reported by McCollister *et al.* [1]. Repeated extraction and drying of minced feces with unlabeled CCl_4 did not decrease the recovery of ^{14}C . McCollister *et al.* [1] previously reported that most of the ^{14}C -label excreted in urine of animals given $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ consisted of unknown metabolites with only a small percentage recovered as urea. Repeated extraction and drying of homogenized liver with unlabeled CCl_4 did not decrease the recovery of ^{14}C . The acid precipitable "macromolecular fraction" of liver contained 64–95% of the ^{14}C -labeled metabolite recovered in that organ at 24 hr. Therefore, the ^{14}C -label recovered in feces, urine and liver at 24 hr was attributed to metabolite, and not to unchanged $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$.

Figure 1 shows the effects of the six $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ doses on the total amounts of unchanged CCl_4 exhaled

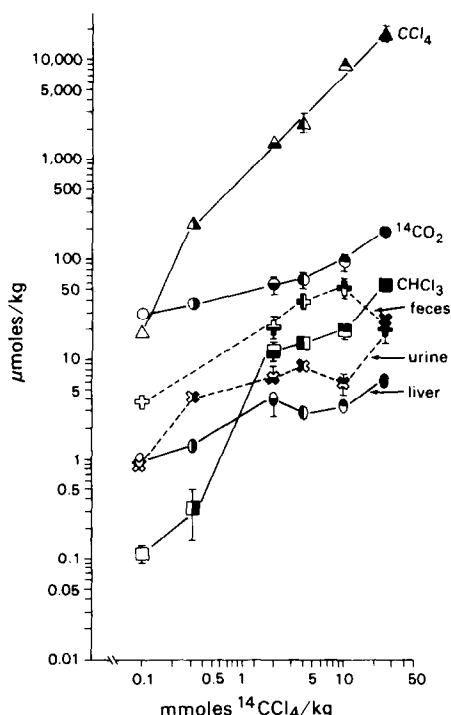


Fig. 1. Effect of CCl₄ dose on the total amounts of unchanged CCl₄ exhaled, ¹⁴CO₂ metabolite exhaled, CHCl₃ metabolite exhaled, ¹⁴C-label excreted in feces or in urine, and ¹⁴C-label in liver cell macromolecules. Fasted male rats were given ¹⁴CCl₄ by gavage. Amounts of CCl₄ metabolites recovered in exhaled breath, urine or feces during the first 24 hr and in liver at 24 hr were monitored as described in Materials and Methods. Values are the mean of four animals per group. Where error bars are not shown, the S.E. lies within the symbol.

during the first 24 hr and on the total amounts of metabolites exhaled, bound and excreted by the twenty-four animals in this study. ¹⁴CO₂ was the major metabolite at all dose levels. Approximately twenty to thirty times less ¹⁴C-label was recovered bound to liver macromolecules at 24 hr. Intermediate amounts of ¹⁴C-label were recovered in 24 hr urine and feces. CHCl₃ was the least abundant metabolite

at the lowest doses but the second most abundant metabolite at the highest CCl₄ dose.

Over the 260-fold increase in CCl₄ dose from 0.1 to 26 mmoles/kg, the amounts of unchanged CCl₄ recovered increased approximately 1000-fold and CHCl₃ metabolite increased by a factor of 500. In contrast, the amounts of ¹⁴CO₂ increased only by a factor of 6.8, and amounts of ¹⁴C-bound to liver macromolecules by 6.5. ¹⁴C-Metabolites in urine and in feces increased more erratically by factors of 28 and 14 respectively. Two abrupt increases in recovery occurred, a 12-fold increase in unchanged CCl₄ between the 0.1 and 0.3 mmole CCl₄ doses and a 38-fold increase in CHCl₃ metabolite between the 0.3 and 2 mmole CCl₄ doses.

As the dose of CCl₄ increased, the fraction of the CCl₄ dose recovered as metabolite decreased. For example, recoveries of ¹⁴C-metabolite in urine and liver decreased from 1% of the given dose at the lowest CCl₄ dose to 0.1% at the highest CCl₄ dose. Therefore, the effects of CCl₄ dose on the relative proportions of the various metabolites were analyzed by determining the proportions of each metabolite relative to the total amount of metabolite recovered (Table 1). The most striking change in relative proportions was the more than 10-fold increase in CHCl₃ recovered between the 0.3 and 2 mmole doses of CCl₄ which was accompanied by a corresponding decrease in the relative proportion of total metabolite recovered as ¹⁴CO₂. The proportions of CCl₄ metabolite recovered in liver, urine, and feces were not consistently altered by increases in CCl₄ dose. In fact, the proportions of CCl₄ metabolite recovered bound in liver and excreted in urine were similar, although erratic, across the entire CCl₄ dose range. Surprisingly, at all doses except the highest, the proportion of metabolite excreted in feces was second only to that recovered as ¹⁴CO₂. Part of the variability in ¹⁴C-excretion in feces may be due to slow clearance of metabolite by this route [1].

Comparison recovery studies with Na₂¹⁴CO₃ and ¹⁴CHCl₃. Table 2 compares the recoveries of parent compounds and metabolites in exhaled breath after Na₂¹⁴CO₃, ¹⁴CHCl₃ and ¹⁴CCl₄. More than 95% of the given Na₂¹⁴CO₃ was recovered as exhaled ¹⁴CO₂ within 4 hr. This high recovery demonstrates the efficiency of our system for monitoring exhaled

Table 1. Effect of CCl₄ dose on relative proportions of exhaled, bound and excreted metabolites recovered 0–24 hr after ¹⁴CCl₄ administration*

¹⁴ CCl ₄ dose (mmoles/kg)	Percentage of total metabolite recovered as				
	¹⁴ CO ₂	CHCl ₃	¹⁴ C-Liver	¹⁴ C-Urine	¹⁴ C-Feces
0.1	83	0.3	2.9	2.7	11
0.3	(86)	(0.8)	(3.2)	(9.7)	
2	55	13	4.3	5.5	22
4	50	11	2.3	5.7	30
10	54	11	1.9	3.2	30
26	63	19	2.1	8.7	7

* Fasted male rats were given ¹⁴CCl₄ by gavage. Amounts of ¹⁴CCl₄ metabolites recovered in exhaled breath, urine and feces for 0–24 hr and in liver at 24 hr were monitored as described in Materials and Methods. Values in parentheses were calculated without data on label in feces and are the percentages of total exhaled, liver and urinary metabolites. Values are the mean of four animals.

Table 2. Comparison of the recoveries of exhaled parent compounds and exhaled metabolites from animals given Na₂¹⁴CO₃, ¹⁴CHCl₃ or ¹⁴CCl₄*

Parent compound	Dose (mmoles/kg)	Percentage of dose exhaled as		
		CO ₂	CHCl ₃	CCl ₄
Na ₂ ¹⁴ CO ₃	0.005	95		
¹⁴ CHCl ₃	0.1	67	5.0	
¹⁴ CHCl ₃	0.3	68	12	
¹⁴ CCl ₄	0.1	28	0.11	19
¹⁴ CCl ₄	0.3	12	0.11	77
¹⁴ CCl ₄	2	2.7	0.65	74
¹⁴ CCl ₄	4	1.6	0.38	76
¹⁴ CCl ₄	10	1.0	0.20	89
¹⁴ CCl ₄	26	0.7	0.22	71

* Fasted male rats were given Na₂¹⁴CO₃, ¹⁴CHCl₃ or ¹⁴CCl₄ by gavage. Amounts of parent compounds and metabolites recovered in exhaled breath during discrete intervals between 0 and 24 hr were monitored as described in Materials and Methods. Values are the mean of three animals given Na₂¹⁴CO₃ and four animals given ¹⁴CHCl₃ or ¹⁴CCl₄.

metabolites. The bulk of both the 0.1 and 0.3 mmole doses of ¹⁴CHCl₃ was also quickly recovered in breath with two-thirds recovered as exhaled ¹⁴CO₂ metabolite and less than one-eighth as unchanged parent CHCl₃. Less than half of the lowest ¹⁴CCl₄ dose was recovered in the breath, one-quarter as CO₂ and one-fifth as CCl₄. In contrast, 70–90% of the five larger ¹⁴CCl₄ doses were recovered as unmetabolized CCl₄.

Considerably more ¹⁴CO₂ metabolite was recovered after both the 0.1 and 0.3 mmole CHCl₃ doses (67 and 203 μ moles ¹⁴CO₂/kg respectively) than after the equimolar 0.1 and 0.3 mmole CCl₄ doses (28 and 37 μ moles ¹⁴CO₂/kg respectively). In fact, the amount of ¹⁴CO₂ metabolite recovered after the 0.3 mmole ¹⁴CHCl₃ dose was similar to that recovered after the largest 26 mmole CCl₄ dose given (Fig. 1). The amounts of ¹⁴C-metabolite recovered

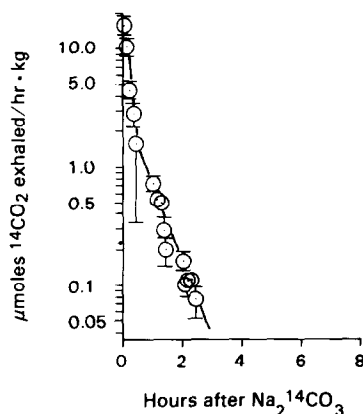


Fig. 2. Time-course of ¹⁴CO₂ exhalation. Fasted male rats were given 0.005 mmole Na₂¹⁴CO₃/kg by gavage. Values are the mean \pm S.E. of three animals. Where S.E. bars are not shown, the S.E. lies within the symbol.

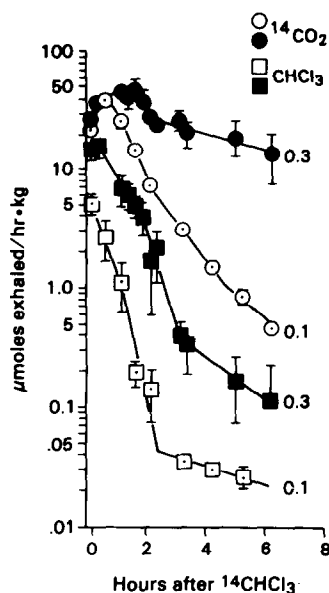


Fig. 3. Effect of ¹⁴CHCl₃ dose on the time-course of unchanged CHCl₃ exhalation (squares) and ¹⁴CO₂ metabolite exhalation (circles). Fasted male rats were given 0.1 (open symbols) or 0.3 (closed symbols) mmole ¹⁴CHCl₃/kg by gavage. Amounts of CHCl₃ and ¹⁴CO₂ exhaled were monitored. Values are the mean \pm S.E. of four animals. Where S.E. bars are not shown, the S.E. lies within the symbol.

bound to liver macromolecules at 24 hr from animals given 0.1 and 0.3 mmole CHCl₃ were almost the same (1.1 ± 0.1 and 0.9 ± 0.1 μ mole/kg respectively) and were very close to the amounts recovered bound to the livers of animals given equimolar doses of ¹⁴CCl₄ (Fig. 1).

Comparison exhalation time-course. Figures 2, 3 and 4 show the exhalation-rate time-profiles of parent compounds and metabolites after 0.005 mmole Na₂¹⁴CO₃/kg, after 0.1 and 0.3 mmole ¹⁴CHCl₃/kg, and after 0.1, 0.3, 4 and 26 mmoles ¹⁴CCl₄/kg. Exhalation patterns after the two other doses of CCl₄ examined (2 and 10 mmoles/kg) were intermediate and were excluded in order to simplify Fig. 4. Peak exhalation-rates and times of peak exhalation-rate for the parent compounds and metabolites are listed in Table 3 in order to facilitate comparisons between compounds and doses.

Inspection of the exhalation-rate time-profiles for the parent compounds in Figs 2, 3 and 4 shows that rates of ¹⁴CO₂ exhalation decreased more slowly for the chlorocarbons than for ¹⁴CO₂ from Na₂¹⁴CO₃. This is consistent with more prolonged retention and continuing metabolism of the lipid soluble halo-carbons. Animals exhaled CO₂ rapidly after administration of Na₂¹⁴CO₃ (Fig. 2) with the peak rate of exhalation occurring during the first 6 min. Animals given 0.1 or 0.3 mmole ¹⁴CHCl₃/kg exhaled the parent compound by roughly parallel profiles with the peak rates of exhalation occurring during the first half hour. At each time point, the rate of CHCl₃ exhalation after the larger dose was approximately triple that of the lower dose, and thus roughly proportional to the difference in the two CHCl₃ doses.

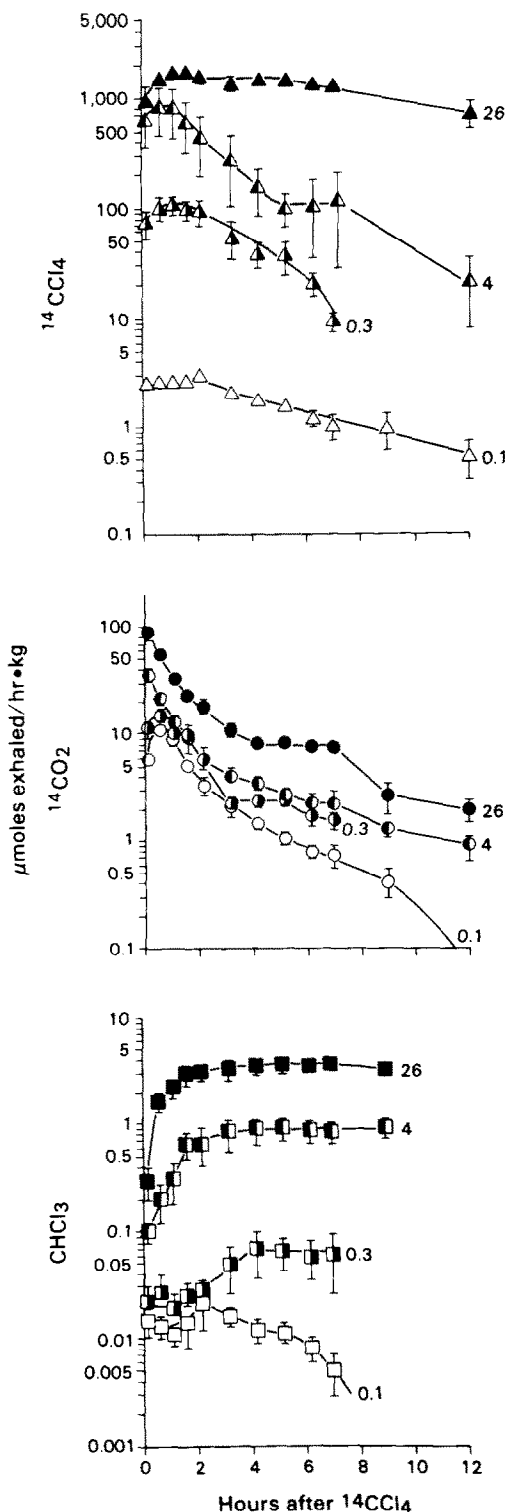


Fig. 4. Effect of $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ dose on the time-course of unchanged CCl_4 exhalation (top panel), of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ metabolite exhalation (center panel), and of CHCl_3 metabolite exhalation (bottom panel). CCl_4 dose in mmol/kg is indicated by numbers to the right of each curve. Fasted male rats were given 0.1 to 26 mmol $^{14}\text{CCl}_4/\text{kg}$ by gavage. Amounts of CCl_4 , CHCl_3 and $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ exhaled were monitored. Values are the mean \pm S.E. of four animals. Where S.E. bars are not shown, the S.E. lies within the symbol.

Dose-dependent increases in the rates of parent compound exhalation after CCl_4 are evident at each time point in Fig. 4 (top panel). The differences in CCl_4 exhalation-rates between the two lowest CCl_4 doses exceed that of the 3-fold difference in dose, and undoubtedly are due to the more extensive metabolism of the 0.1 mmol CCl_4 dose (see Table 1). The two largest CCl_4 doses were exhaled at nearly similar rates during the first 4 hr after CCl_4 . The magnitudes of the dose-dependent increases can readily be appreciated by comparison of the peak CCl_4 exhalation-rates after the six CCl_4 doses in Table 3. Animals given the lowest CCl_4 dose exhaled the parent compound at peak rate for almost 2 hr, the exhalation-rate thereafter gradually declining. Exhalation of the parent compound at peak rates persisted for 4 hr after the 10 mmol dose and for 6 hr after the 26 mmol dose. This protracted exhalation of CCl_4 at peak rate is consistent with its rapid accumulation in and slow release from body fat due to the high lipid:water partition coefficient of this compound [4].

Comparison of the metabolite exhalation-rate time-profiles after CHCl_3 (Fig. 3) and after CCl_4 (center and bottom panels of Fig. 4) indicates a general pattern of dose-dependent increases at each time point. The rates of CO_2 metabolite exhalation after CHCl_3 exceed the rates of the parent compound exhalation at every time point. However, only during the first 2 hr after the lowest CCl_4 dose did the exhalation-rates of its CO_2 metabolite exceed those of the parent.

Although the exhalation curves for parent compound after 0.1 and 0.3 mmol CHCl_3 were roughly parallel, exhalation curves for the CO_2 metabolite were not (Fig. 3). Animals given the larger $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$ dose exhaled $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ metabolite at a peak rate which occurred later and persisted longer, but was only 25% greater than that after the smaller $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$ dose.

The shapes of the CO_2 and CHCl_3 metabolite exhalation curves after CCl_4 were distinctively different (Fig. 4). CO_2 metabolite was exhaled at much greater rates than CHCl_3 . After all but the lowest CCl_4 doses, the rates of CHCl_3 exhalation increased during the first 2–4 hr after CCl_4 and then stabilized at a peak rate for 3–7 hr. As the dose of CCl_4 increased above 2 mmol, the time to attain peak CHCl_3 exhalation decreased and the duration of peak exhalation lengthened (Table 3). The parent dose-dependent increases in peak rates of CHCl_3 and CO_2 metabolite exhalation were proportional to, or less than, the increases in CCl_4 dose except for the 13-fold increase in peak CHCl_3 exhalation-rate which occurred between 0.3 and 2 mmol CCl_4 . Peak exhalation-rates of CO_2 metabolite after the lowest CCl_4 doses occurred after a 30-min lag, whereas after the four larger CCl_4 doses peak exhalation-rates of this metabolite occurred during the earliest time point sampled. CO_2 metabolite curves after the higher CCl_4 doses were roughly parallel with initial abrupt declines followed at times beyond 3 hr by several hours of exhalation at a nearly constant "stabilized" rate.

Comparison of the CO_2 metabolite curves after $^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$ with those after the equimolar $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ doses

Table 3. Comparison of the rates and times of peak exhalation of parent compounds and metabolites by animals given Na₂¹⁴CO₃, ¹⁴CHCl₃ or ¹⁴CCl₄*

Parent compound	Dose (mmoles/kg)	Peak exhalation rate (μmoles/hr·kg)			Time of peak exhalation rate (hr)		
		CO ₂	CHCl ₃	CCl ₄	CO ₂	CHCl ₃	CCl ₄
Na ₂ ¹⁴ CO ₃	0.005	16			0-0.05		
¹⁴ CHCl ₃	0.1	37	6.0		0.5-0.75	0-0.25	
¹⁴ CHCl ₃	0.3	46	15.2		1.0-1.75	0-0.5	
¹⁴ CCl ₄	0.1	11	0.02	2.6	0.5-0.75	2-2.25	0-2.25
¹⁴ CCl ₄	0.3	15	0.06	102	0.5-0.75	4-7	0.5-2.25
¹⁴ CCl ₄	2	18	0.78	545	0-0.75	4-9	0.5-2.25
¹⁴ CCl ₄	4	37	0.90	845	0-0.25	4-9	0.5-1.5
¹⁴ CCl ₄	10	62	1.32	1250	0-0.25	3-9	0.5-4
¹⁴ CCl ₄	26	88	3.40	1550	0-0.25	2-9	0.5-6

* Fasted male rats were given Na₂¹⁴CO₃, ¹⁴CHCl₃ or ¹⁴CCl₄ by gavage. Amounts of parent compounds and metabolites recovered in exhaled breath during discrete intervals between 0 and 24 hr were monitored as described in Materials and Methods. Values are the mean of three animals given Na₂¹⁴CO₃ and four animals given ¹⁴CHCl₃ or ¹⁴CCl₄.

reveals some similarities between the 0.1 mmole doses and marked differences between the 0.3 mmole doses. Times of peak CO₂ exhalation-rate were similar in onset and duration after the 0.1 mmole doses of both chlorocarbons; whereas after the 0.3 mmole doses, the time of peak exhalation of ¹⁴CO₂ after ¹⁴CCl₄ occurred sooner, was shorter in duration, and the exhalation profile declined more quickly than that following ¹⁴CHCl₃. Peak ¹⁴CO₂ exhalation-rates were 3-fold lower after the equimolar ¹⁴CCl₄ doses.

Assumptions of pharmacokinetics analysis. Processes assumed to occur prior to the exhalation of CCl₄, CHCl₃ and CO₂ as parents or metabolites are outlined in the schematization presented in Fig. 5. Pharmacokinetic analyses of the exhalation data for these compounds were based on the following six assumptions.

First, parent compounds were assumed to be completely absorbed from the gut into the blood, to be distributed quickly into the rapidly perfused tissues (RPT), and to be distributed more slowly into the poorly perfused tissues (PPT). After release from the rapidly perfused tissues and slower release from the poorly perfused tissues, the parents are eliminated from the blood by exhalation through the lungs. Absorption and elimination were assumed to be predominantly unidirectional.

Second, metabolism of CHCl₃ to CO₂, and of CCl₄ to CHCl₃ and CO₂, was assumed to occur by non-reversible processes in the rapidly perfused tissues, chiefly liver. Once formed these metabolites were assumed to be released from liver to blood, distributed to other tissues, and eliminated through lungs. CCl₄ conversion to CO₂ is shown in Fig. 5 to occur by two parallel pathways, one of which produces CHCl₃ as a relatively stable intermediate.

Third, amounts of compounds exhaled and recovered in the metabolism chamber atmosphere during discrete intervals after parent compound administration were assumed to be proportional to the amounts of the compounds in blood and other tissues during this interval. Experimental evidence

supports the soundness of this assumption. Whitelaw *et al.* [35] found that measurement of ¹⁴CO₂ entry rates into expired air provided an excellent estimate of total CO₂ production. Chiou [36] found a linear relationship between the rate of CHCl₃ exhalation and its concentration in blood. Reddrop *et al.* [30] concluded that regular sampling of expired air from animals given CCl₄ permitted reasonably accurate prediction of the blood CCl₄ concentrations as well as of blood concentrations of its CHCl₃ metabolite.

Fourth, distributional equilibria between blood and other tissues are assumed to make the relative concentrations in the different body spaces proportional. This has been demonstrated for CCl₄ and CHCl₃. Reddrop *et al.* [23] and Garner and McLean [15] consistently found that CCl₄ concentrations in liver were six times higher than CCl₄ concentrations in blood under a variety of conditions. CCl₄ concentrations in fat have been found eight to twelve times higher than in liver [4]. Thus, at equilibrium, ratios of the distribution in blood:liver:fat would approximate 1.6:60. An extensive and detailed study by Withey and Collins [37] of CHCl₃ distribution in tissues of rats given CHCl₃ showed that the rates of CHCl₃ elimination from all tissues, except the perirenal fat, were not very different from the rates of CHCl₃ elimination from blood. This finding indicates that most of the major organs together with the blood constitute a central pharmacokinetic compartment for CHCl₃. Because of such distributional equilibria, and the difficulties involved in detecting the distributive phase without many early time points [32], blood and rapidly perfused tissues were assumed to belong to a single central compartment.

Fifth, differences between the exhalation-rates of parent and metabolite or of different metabolites at any one time cannot be assumed to represent relative differences in the body burdens of the compounds at any one time. For example, higher rates of CO₂ metabolite exhalation than of CHCl₃ parent at early times after CHCl₃ administration do not necessarily mean that the amounts of metabolite in the body were greater than the amounts of parent at these

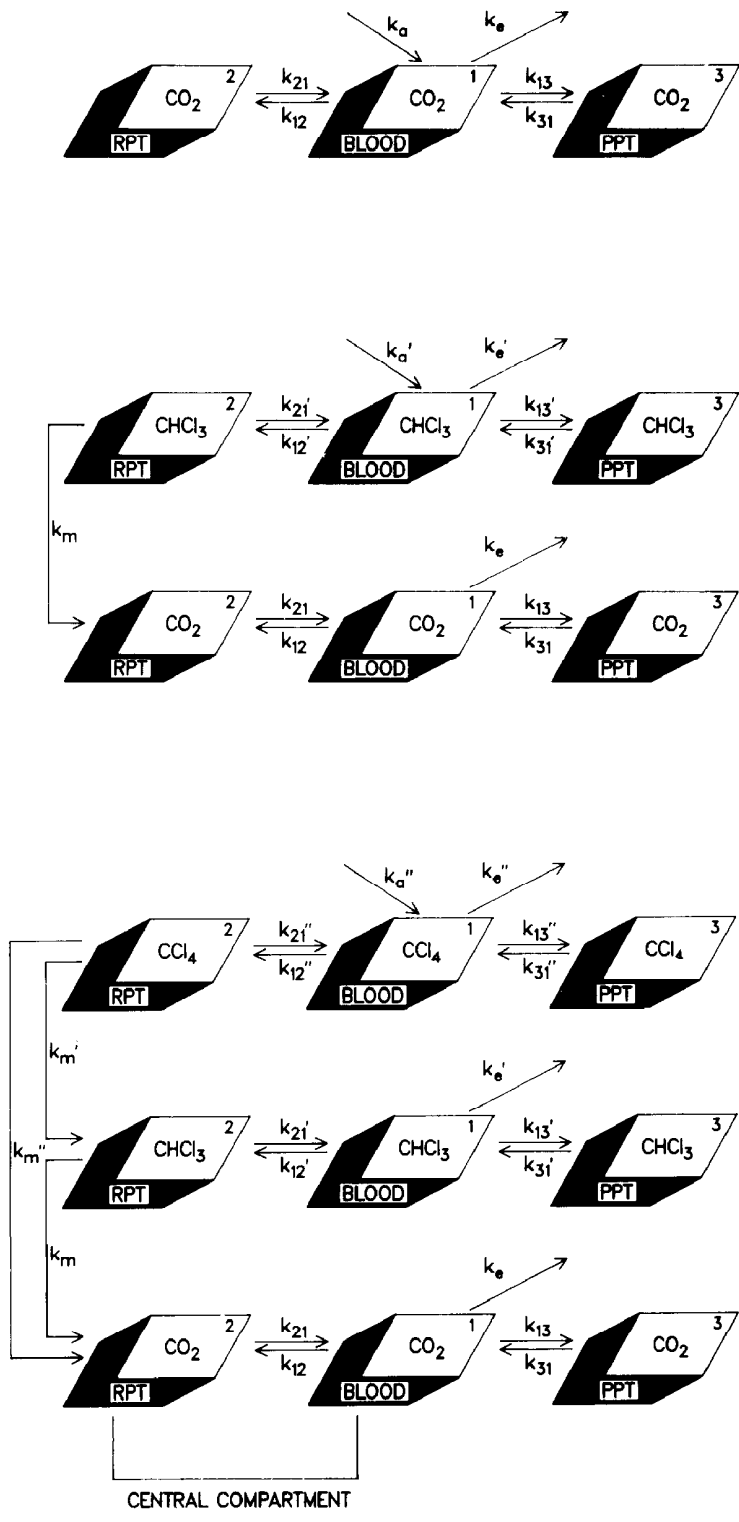


Fig. 5. Schematization of processes assumed to occur between the oral administration of the parent compounds CO_2 (after Na_2CO_3), CHCl_3 and CCl_4 and the exhalation of the parents and metabolites. Rate constants for compound absorption, distribution between the blood and rapidly perfused tissues (RPT), distribution between the blood and poorly perfused tissues (PPT), and elimination by exhalation are indicated, respectively, by k_a , k_{21} and k_{12} , k_{31} and k_{13} , and k_e . Single and double primes on these rate constants for absorption, distribution and elimination indicate processes involving CHCl_3 and CCl_4 respectively. Rate constants for the metabolism of CHCl_3 to CO_2 , CCl_4 to CHCl_3 , and CCl_4 to CO_2 are indicated by k_m , k_m' , and k_m'' respectively.

Table 4. Comparison of the apparent absorption, distribution and elimination by exhalation of parent compounds and exhaled metabolites of animals given Na₂¹⁴CO₃, ¹⁴CHCl₃ or ¹⁴CCl₄*

Parent compound	Dose (mmoles/kg)	Parent half-times (hr) of			CO ₂ metabolite half-times (hr) of elimination	CHCl ₃ metabolite half-times (hr) of elimination
		Absorption	Distribution	Elimination		
Na ₂ ¹⁴ CO ₃	0.005	0.04	0.15	0.43		
¹⁴ CHCl ₃	0.1	0.08	0.29	3.83	2.1	
¹⁴ CHCl ₃	0.3	0.13	0.41	2.27	5.6	
¹⁴ CCl ₄	0.1	0.08		3.28	1.4	1.8
¹⁴ CCl ₄	0.3	0.14		1.31	3.0	20.9
¹⁴ CCl ₄	2	0.08		1.72	2.5	a†
¹⁴ CCl ₄	4	0.09		1.80	3.9	a†
¹⁴ CCl ₄	10	0.10		3.49	2.1	27.5
¹⁴ CCl ₄	24	0.16		6.34	2.8	21.9

* Pharmacokinetic parameters were determined by computer fitting of exhalation data. Parent data from animals given Na₂¹⁴CO₃ and CHCl₃ were analyzed using a two-compartment model, while that from CCl₄ were analyzed using a one-compartment model as detailed in the text. Metabolite apparent half-times were obtained from the terminal three time points as detailed in the text.

† Ascending slope.

time points. ¹⁴CO₂ undoubtedly has a smaller volume of distribution and is more quickly eliminated than CHCl₃ which partitions into body fat [38].

Sixth, amounts of CO₂ and CHCl₃ metabolite exhaled during discrete intervals were assumed to be representative of their rates of formation. This is a tenuous assumption for CHCl₃, since this metabolite can be sequentially metabolized to a secondary metabolite without ever leaving the liver and is also efficiently partitioned into body fat.

Pharmacokinetic analysis. A two-compartment model was used to analyze parent compound data after Na₂¹⁴CO₃ and ¹⁴CHCl₃ while a one-compartment model was used to analyze parent compound data after ¹⁴CCl₄. The CO₂ exhalation-rate time-profile after Na₂¹⁴CO₃ (Fig. 2) has two linear segments and had an excellent fit with the two-compartment model. The CHCl₃ exhalation profiles after the two CHCl₃ doses both have at least two linear segments in the post absorptive phase (Fig. 3) and satisfactorily fit the two-compartment model. The CCl₄ exhalation curves after the six CCl₄ doses have a predominantly linear decline in the post absorptive phase (Fig. 4) and fit the one-compartment models better than more complex multicompartment models.

The compartment models used can be readily understood by reference to the schematizations in Fig. 5. One-compartment model analysis would represent a collapse of the RPT, blood, and PPT into a single compartment. Two-compartment analysis would maintain a distinction between a "peripheral" PPT compartment and a "central compartment" consisting of RPT plus blood. We realize that some parts of our exhalation-rate data are inadequate for a rigorous pharmacokinetic analysis. If there were more time points between 8 and 24 hr, the apparent half-times of elimination of parent and metabolite after the larger CCl₄ doses could have been determined with more accuracy. Therefore, this data must be evaluated cautiously.

Table 4 summarizes the apparent absorption, distribution and elimination half-times determined for the parent compounds after Na₂¹⁴CO₃, ¹⁴CHCl₃ and

¹⁴CCl₄. The relative lengths of the half-times for the three phases indicate that the compounds were more rapidly absorbed than distributed, and more rapidly distributed than eliminated. Apparent half-times for ¹⁴CO₂ parent absorption and elimination were markedly briefer than those for CHCl₃ and CCl₄. With the exception of the lowest CCl₄ dose, there was a consistent trend for increasing apparent half-time of CCl₄ parent elimination with increasing CCl₄ dose. The half-times for the absorption and elimination of CCl₄ are similar to those recently reported by Siegers *et al.* [39].

Also summarized in Table 4 are the apparent half-times of elimination for CO₂ metabolite after

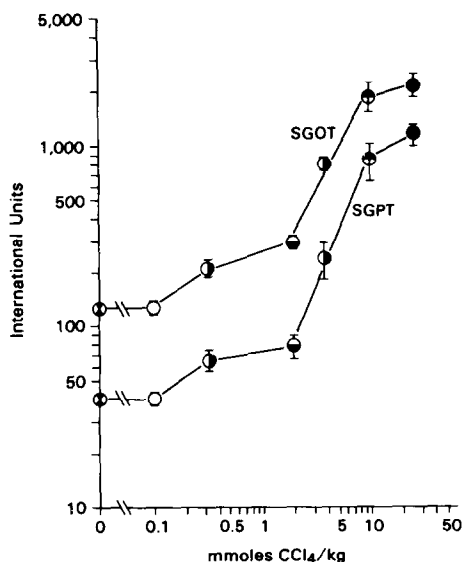


Fig. 6. Effect of CCl₄ dose on SGPT and SGOT activities at 24 hr. Fastéd male rats were given ¹⁴CCl₄ (0.1 to 26 mmoles/kg) in mineral oil by gavage or mineral oil only and killed at 24 hr. Values are means \pm S.E. of four rats per group. Where error bars are not shown, the S.E. lies within the symbol.

Table 5. Correlations between the magnitude of liver injury after $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ and parameters of the extent or rate of CCl_4 metabolism*

Metabolism parameter	$R^{2\dagger}$
Amount of exhaled $^{14}\text{CO}_2$	0.703
Amount of exhaled CHCl_3	0.655
Amount of ^{14}C bound in liver at 24 hr	0.546
Amount of ^{14}C excreted in 24-hr urine	0.475
Total amount of exhaled $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and CHCl_3 , ^{14}C bound in liver and ^{14}C excreted in urine	0.730
Rate of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ exhalation during first hour	0.880
Rate of CHCl_3 exhalation during first hour	0.593
Rate of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ exhalation during fourth to seventh hour	0.655
Rate of CHCl_3 exhalation during fourth to seventh hour	0.666
Rate of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ plus CHCl_3 exhalation during fourth to seventh hour	0.686

* Fasted male rats were given 0.1 to 26 mmol/kg $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ by gavage. Amounts and rates of CCl_4 metabolism between 0 and 24 hr were determined as described in Materials and Methods. Magnitude of liver injury was assessed by measurement of SGPT activities at 24 hr. Correlations were made using data on SGPT activities and amounts or rates of metabolite recovery from individual rats. $N = 24$.

† R^2 values represent proportion of variance in SGPT values associated with the indicated parameter of the extent or rate of CCl_4 metabolism.

$^{14}\text{CHCl}_3$ and $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$ and for CHCl_3 metabolite after $^{14}\text{CCl}_4$. After the larger CHCl_3 dose, the apparent half-time for CO_2 metabolite elimination was more than twice as long as that after the smaller CHCl_3 dose. Similarly, the apparent CO_2 metabolite half-time after the 0.3 and 0.1 mmol CCl_4 doses also shows a dose-dependent lengthening of the apparent half-time of CO_2 metabolite elimination. Further increases in CCl_4 dose above 0.3 mmol were not associated with consistent lengthening of the apparent CO_2 metabolite half-time. Apparent half-times for CHCl_3 metabolite elimination, after all except the lowest CCl_4 dose, were more than 20 hr and could not be assessed after two of the CCl_4 doses because the slopes of the terminal points were ascending.

Effects of CHCl_3 and CCl_4 doses on hepatotoxicity. Effects of the six CCl_4 doses on the activities of liver derived transaminases in serum (SGOT and SGPT) at 24 hr are shown in Fig. 6. The lowest CCl_4 dose did not elevate the SGOT or SGPT activities above those of control fasted rats. The five larger CCl_4 doses caused elevations in SGPT and SGOT activities which increased at first gradually, then more steeply with increasing dose.

Histologic sections from livers of rats given 0.1 mmol CCl_4 /kg revealed no detectable cell necrosis at 24 hr. The magnitude of liver injury in the livers of animals given the five large doses of CCl_4 corresponded qualitatively to the increases in serum transaminase activities.

Neither 0.1 nor 0.3 mmol CHCl_3 /kg produced liver injury.

Correlations between injury and metabolism. Relationships between the metabolism and hepato-

toxicity of CCl_4 were evaluated by analyzing the strengths of the associations between the magnitude of liver injury in individual animals given CCl_4 and selected parameters of the extent or rate of CCl_4 metabolism to specific products by the individual animals. Strengths of the associations were determined by estimating the proportion of variance (R^2) in SGPT which could be attributed to its linear regression on the metabolite amounts or elimination rates. The rate correlations were done using data from the first hour and the fourth to seventh hour, since these time points usually incorporated either the peak rates or the prolonged "stabilized" rates (see Fig. 4 and Table 3).

A very strong correlation of 0.88 was found between SGPT and the rates of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ metabolite exhalation during the first hour (Table 5). Moderately strong correlations ($R^2 > 0.6$) with SGPT were also found for the total amounts of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ or CHCl_3 exhaled, and the rates of $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ or CHCl_3 exhalation during the fourth to seventh hour. Weaker correlations ($R^2 < 0.6$) were found for amounts of metabolite bound in liver at 24 hr and amounts of metabolite excreted in 24 hr urine.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates for the first time that the capacity of rats to metabolize CCl_4 to CO_2 is diminished within 2 hr after administration of hepatotoxic doses of CCl_4 . Pathways of CCl_4 metabolism leading to CO_2 and CHCl_3 metabolite formation appear to be more relevant to the hepatotoxicity of CCl_4 than the pathways leading to urinary or covalently bound metabolites based on the results of this study with six doses of CCl_4 and those of a related study [40] in which isopropanol pretreatment was used to enhance the degree of liver injury after CCl_4 . However, these findings concerning the total magnitude of covalent binding at 24 hr do not exclude the possibility that covalent binding of reactive metabolites of CCl_4 to specific hepatocyte macromolecules could be critical to the development of cell injury. Several studies [41–45] have demonstrated that the covalent binding of CCl_4 to lipids, proteins and nucleotides occurs in a non-random manner.

A major change in the overall extent of CCl_4 metabolism occurred as the dose was increased from 0.1 to 0.3 mmol/kg. The fraction of dose recovered as CCl_4 increased from 1/5 to 4/5 total dose (Table 2) and the peak exhalation-rate of CCl_4 increased 40-fold (Table 3). Efficient first pass removal of CCl_4 from the portal vein by the liver could appreciably diminish the amount of CCl_4 available for pulmonary clearance at the lowest dose and may account for part of the discrepancy between the peak rates of CCl_4 exhalation after the 0.1 and 0.3 mmol doses. An alternative explanation for this discrepancy is that the capacity of the liver to metabolize CCl_4 becomes impaired at an early time after absorption of the injurious 0.3 mmol dose, but not after the non-injurious 0.1 mmol dose.

Total amounts and rates of exhalation of both CO_2 and CHCl_3 metabolite increased as the dose of CCl_4 increased. However, exhalation-rate, time-profiles

of these two metabolites were dissimilar. Peak exhalation-rates of CO₂, the major metabolite of CCl₄, were far greater in magnitude, occurred at an earlier time, and were briefer in duration. Increases in the CCl₄ dose above 0.3 mmole/kg were associated with exhalation of CHCl₃ at peak rate after a shorter lag time and for a longer duration. Also the proportion of total metabolite recovered as CHCl₃ increased by more than 10-fold as the dose of CCl₄ increased from 0.3 to 2.0 mmoles/kg. This increase in proportion of metabolite recovered as CHCl₃ was associated with a decrease in the proportion recovered as ¹⁴CO₂. Substantial changes in the proportions of other bound or excreted metabolites were not observed.

The extent of ¹⁴CO₂ formation is rapidly reflected by changes in the rates of ¹⁴CO₂ exhalation since CO₂ is quickly cleared by exhalation. Thus, the slowly declining ¹⁴CO₂ metabolite profiles in the animals given the lowest dose of ¹⁴CCl₄ (Fig. 4) or the two doses of ¹⁴CHCl₃ (Fig. 3) are indicative of continued formation of ¹⁴CO₂ at rates that gradually diminish as body burdens of the parent compound decline. When there is continued formation of a metabolite at rates which gradually diminish, increases in the dose of parent compound result in increased apparent elimination half-times for the metabolite. For example, Rose *et al.* [46] reported that increases in the dose of prednisone were associated with longer apparent plasma elimination half-times of a metabolite or prednisone. Our pharmacokinetic analysis of CO₂ metabolite after 0.1 and 0.3 mmole CHCl₃ (see Table 4) shows that the larger CHCl₃ dose had a more than 2-fold longer apparent half-time of CO₂ metabolite elimination. In contrast, increases in the dose of CCl₄ from the non-injurious 0.1 mmole dose to injurious doses of 0.3 mmole and higher were associated with the following observations: (1) abrupt declines in CO₂ metabolite exhalation profiles within 2 hr after CCl₄ administration despite the continued exhalation of parent compound at peak rates during this time (Fig. 4 top and center); and (2) a lack of consistent increases in the elimination half-time of CO₂ metabolite after the higher CCl₄ doses (Table 4). These observations indicate that a major pathway of CCl₄ metabolism leading to CO₂ became impaired within 2 hr after administration of a hepatotoxic dose of CCl₄.

At times after 3 hr, animals given 0.3 mmole or larger injurious doses of CCl₄ exhaled CO₂ for a protracted period at nearly "stable" rates approximately ten times less than the peak rate (see Fig. 4). This "stable" part of the CO₂ metabolite exhalation profile was of greater magnitude and nearly parallel to the CHCl₃ metabolite exhalation profile. Since CHCl₃ is extensively metabolized to CO₂, a "source" for the CO₂ exhaled during this latter time could be the CHCl₃ metabolite formed. Based on the data from animals given ¹⁴CHCl₃ as parent (see Table 2), it is possible to estimate that less than 10% of the CHCl₃ metabolite actually formed from CCl₄ is exhaled unchanged, and that at least six times more is eliminated as CO₂. In fact, animals given 0.3 mmole CCl₄/kg exhaled CO₂ metabolite during the later relatively "stable" period (i.e. 4–7 hr after CCl₄) at an average rate more than thirty times that of CHCl₃ metabolite, whereas animals given 2 mmole or higher

doses of CCl₄ exhaled CO₂ metabolite during the latter "stable" period at average rates only two to five times higher than those of CHCl₃ metabolite. Thus, oxidation of an intermediate CHCl₃ metabolite could more than account for all the CO₂ formed from the larger CCl₄ doses at times after 3 hr.

CCl₄ is metabolized predominately in the liver [34, 47, 48] by an NADPH-cytochrome P-450-dependent process [49–51]. Decreases in the liver NADPH and cytochrome P-450 are, therefore, probable causes of the observed changes in CCl₄ metabolism. The decrease in liver NADPH following CCl₄ is rapid and dose dependent [52, 53]. The decrease in liver cytochrome P-450 is rapid and selective as indicated by non-uniform loss of cytochrome P-450-dependent activities and isozymes [54].

Selective losses of specific cytochrome P-450 isozymes which catalyze the metabolism of CCl₄ to CHCl₃ and to CO₂ by parallel pathways (k''_m , k'_m and k_m in Fig. 5) could explain the observed dose- and time-dependent changes in CCl₄ metabolism. The rapid decline in CO₂ metabolite formation could be due to preferential destruction of a cytochrome P-450 isozyme which catalyzes CCl₄ metabolism to CO₂ (i.e. k''_m). This would be consistent with the studies of Noguchi *et al.* [55, 56] which demonstrated selective early loss of a cytochrome P-450 isozyme specifically required for activation of CCl₄ to a free radical. The greater and sustained levels of CHCl₃ metabolite exhalation at later times may be due to several factors including: sparing of a cytochrome P-450 isozyme which readily releases [•]CCl₃ for [•]H abstraction and CHCl₃ formation (i.e. k'_m); liver hypoxia; and/or selective destruction of a cytochrome P-450 isozyme which catalyzes the metabolism of CHCl₃ to CO₂ (i.e. k_m). The last factor could explain the disproportionate increase in proportion of CHCl₃ metabolite versus CO₂ metabolite after CCl₄ doses of 2 mmoles and larger (see Table 2).

Gillette *et al.* [57] suggested that the destruction of cytochrome P-450 by CCl₄ could "self-limit" the toxic effects of the compound. This is an intriguing suggestion especially since the rate of CO₂ exhalation during the first hour after CCl₄ administration was the parameter of CCl₄ metabolism which correlated most strongly ($R^2 = 0.88$) with the magnitude of liver injury in this study. If the major pathway of CO₂ formation during this early time involves the reactive intermediate [•]OCCl₃, then this strong correlation is compatible with the proposal of Packer *et al.* [11] that [•]OCCl₃ could be the major toxic intermediate of CCl₄.

Acknowledgements—This study was supported by NIH Grants AM 19814 and AM 27135. We thank Dr. David Bee for guidance in the statistical analysis, Diane Pugh and Avis Morgan for preparation of the manuscript, and Ava Chatmon for assistance with the figures.

REFERENCES

1. D. D. McCollister, W. H. Beamer, G. J. Atchison and H. C. Spencer, *J. Pharmac. exp. Ther.* **102**, 112 (1951).
2. T. C. Butler, *J. Pharmac. exp. Ther.* **134**, 311 (1961).
3. E. S. Reynolds, *J. Pharmac. exp. Ther.* **155**, 117 (1967).
4. J. S. L. Fowler, *Br. J. Pharmac.* **37**, 733 (1969).
5. J. A. Castro, M. I. Díaz Gómez, E. C. de Ferreyra, C.

- R. de Castro, N. D'Acosta and O. M. de Fenos, *Biochem. biophys. Res. Commun.* **47**, 315 (1972).
6. L. R. Pohl, R. V. Branchflower, R. J. Highet, J. L. Martin, D. S. Nunn, T. J. Monks, J. W. George and J. A. Hinson, *Drug Metab. Dispos.* **9**, 334 (1981).
7. J. L. Poyer, R. A. Floyd, P. B. McCay, E. G. Janzen and E. R. Davis, *Biochim. biophys. Acta* **539**, 402 (1978).
8. H. Shah, S. P. Hartman and S. Weinhouse, *Cancer Res.* **39**, 3942 (1979).
9. V. L. Kubie and M. W. Anders, *Life Sci.* **26**, 2151 (1980).
10. B. A. Mico, R. V. Branchflower, L. R. Pohl, A. T. Pudzianowski and G. H. Lowe, *Life Sci.* **30**, 131 (1982).
11. J. E. Packer, T. F. Slater and R. L. Willson, *Life Sci.* **23**, 2617 (1979).
12. J. L. Roberts, Jr. and D. T. Sawyer, *J. Am. chem. Soc.* **103**, 712 (1981).
13. C. R. Wolf, D. Mansuy, W. Nastainczyk, G. Deutschmann and V. Ullrich, *Molec. Pharmac.* **13**, 698 (1977).
14. H. J. Ahr, L. J. King, W. Nastainczyk and V. Ullrich, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **29**, 2855 (1980).
15. R. C. Garner and A. E. M. McLean, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **18**, 645 (1969).
16. G. Ugazio, R. R. Koch and R. O. Recknagel, *Expl. molec. Path.* **16**, 281 (1972).
17. A. A. Seawright, I. W. Wilkie, P. Costigan, J. Hrdicka and D. P. Steele, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **29**, 1007 (1980).
18. M. U. Dianzani and G. Ugazio, *Chem. Biol. Interact.* **6**, 67 (1973).
19. M. W. Torrielli and G. Ugazio, *Toxic. appl. Pharmac.* **34**, 151 (1975).
20. M. A. Cawthorne, E. D. Palmer and J. Green, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **22**, 783 (1973).
21. H. M. Maling, F. M. Eichelbaum, W. Saul, I. G. Sipes, E. A. B. Brown and J. R. Gillette, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **23**, 1479 (1974).
22. D. L. Gee, M. M. Bechtold and A. L. Tappel, *Toxic. Lett.* **8**, 299 (1981).
23. C. J. Reddrop, W. Riess and T. F. Slater, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **30**, 1443 (1981).
24. M. M. Bechtold, D. L. Gee, U. Bruenner and A. L. Tappel, *Toxic. Lett.* **11**, 165 (1982).
25. H. M. Maling, B. Stripp, I. G. Sipes, H. Highman, W. Saul and M. A. Williams, *Toxic. appl. Pharmac.* **33**, 291 (1975).
26. J. A. Castro, E. C. de Ferreyra, C. R. de Castro, M. I. Díaz Gómez, N. D'Acosta and O. M. de Fenos, *Toxic appl. Pharmac.* **24**, 1 (1973).
27. E. S. Reynolds and H. J. Ree, *Lab. Invest.* **25**, 269 (1971).
28. H. Orrego, F. J. Carmichael, M. J. Phillips, H. Kalant, J. Khanna and Y. Israel, *Gastroenterology* **71**, 821 (1976).
29. O. Strubelt, E. Dost-Kempf, C-P. Siegers, M. Younes, M. Volpel, U. Preuss and J. G. Dreckmann, *Toxic. appl. Pharmac.* **60**, 66 (1981).
30. C. J. Reddrop, W. Riess and T. F. Slater, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **30**, 1449 (1981).
31. J. B. Houston, *Pharmac. Ther.* **15**, 521 (1982).
32. M. Gibaldi and D. Perrier, *Pharmacokinetics*, 2nd Edn, pp. 1-111. Marcel Dekker, New York (1982).
33. C. M. Metzler, G. L. Elfring and A. J. McEwen, *Biometrics* **30**, 562 (1974).
34. B. P. Paul and D. Rubinstein, *J. Pharmac. exp. Ther.* **141**, 141 (1963).
35. F. G. Whitelaw, J. M. Brockway and R. S. Reid, *Q. Jl exp. Physiol.* **57**, 37 (1972).
36. W. L. Chiou, *J. Pharmacokinetics Biopharm.* **3**, 193 (1975).
37. J. R. Withey and B. T. Collins, *J. environ. Path. Toxic.* **3**, 313 (1980).
38. E. N. Cohen and N. Hood, *Anesthesiology* **3**, 306 (1969).
39. C-P. Siegers, O. Strubelt and E. Dost-Kempf, *Toxic. Lett.* **10**, 423 (1982).
40. E. S. Reynolds, M. T. Moslen and R. J. Treinen, *Life Sci.* **31**, 661 (1982).
41. E. S. Reynolds and M. T. Moslen, *Biochem. biophys. Res. Commun.* **57**, 747 (1974).
42. Z. Benedetti, A. F. Casini, M. Ferrali and M. Camporiti, *Chem. Biol. Interact.* **17**, 167 (1977).
43. S. Z. Cagen and C. D. Klaassen, *Toxic. appl. Pharmac.* **51**, 107 (1979).
44. H. Frank, H. J. Haussmann and A. Remmer, *Chem. Biol. Interact.* **40**, 193 (1982).
45. D. Kitta, M. Schwarz, H. A. Tennekes, H. Uehleke and W. Kunz, *Adv. exp. Med. Biol.* **136A**, 769 (1982).
46. J. Q. Rose, A. M. Yurchak and W. J. Jusko, *J. Pharmacokinetics Biopharm.* **9**, 389 (1981).
47. M. C. Villarruel, E. G. D. de Toranzo and J. A. Castro, *Toxic. appl. Pharmac.* **41**, 337 (1977).
48. C. Benedetto, M. U. Dianzani, M. Ahmed, K. Cheeseman, C. Connelly and T. F. Slater, *Biochim. biophys. Acta* **677**, 363 (1981).
49. A. A. Seawright and A. E. M. McLean, *Biochem. J.* **105**, 1055 (1967).
50. H. Uehleke, K. H. Hellmer and S. Tabarelli, *Xenobiotica* **3**, 1 (1973).
51. I. G. Sipes, G. Krishna and J. R. Gillette, *Life Sci.* **20**, 1541 (1977).
52. T. F. Slater, U. D. Strauli and B. C. Sawyer, *Biochem. J.* **93**, 260 (1964).
53. T. F. Slater and B. C. Sawyer, *Chem. Biol. Interact.* **16**, 359 (1977).
54. B. Head, D. E. Moody, C. H. Woo and E. A. Smuckler, *Toxic. appl. Pharmac.* **61**, 286 (1981).
55. T. Noguchi, K-L. Fong, E. K. Lai, L. Olson and P. B. McCay, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **31**, 609 (1982).
56. T. Noguchi, K-L. Fong, E. K. Lai, S. S. Alexander, M. M. King, L. Olson, J. L. Poyer and P. B. McCay, *Biochem. Pharmac.* **31**, 615 (1982).
57. J. R. Gillette, J. R. Mitchell and B. B. Brodie, *Rev. Pharmac.* **14**, 271 (1974).