

Zinc mediates normalization of hepatic drug metabolizing enzymes in chlorpyrifos-induced toxicity

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Abstract

The present study investigated the protective effects of zinc in attenuating the altered activities of drug metabolizing enzymes in the livers of rats intoxicated with chlorpyrifos. Male Sprague–Dawley rats received oral chlorpyrifos treatment (at a dose level of 13.5 mg/kg body weight in corn oil every alternate day), zinc supplementation alone (at a dose level of 227 mg/l in drinking water), or combined chlorpyrifos plus zinc treatments for a total duration of 8 weeks. The effects of different treatments were studied on the specific activities of various drug metabolizing enzymes including cytochrome P₄₅₀, cytochrome b₅, NADPH cytochrome-c-reductase, NADH cytochrome-c-reductase, aminopyrene-N-demethylase (APD) and aromatic hydrocarbon hydroxylase (AHH). Additionally, serum zinc levels were also determined in each of the treatment groups at the end of the study. Chlorpyrifos treatment resulted in a significant decrease in the serum zinc concentrations. Analogous to these changes, we observed significant depression in the activities of majority of the drug metabolizing enzymes investigated in the present study, except for AHH, where the decrease in enzyme activity was not statistically significant. However, zinc treatment to chlorpyrifos treated animals effectively restored the depressed serum zinc levels to within normal limits. Similarly, co-administration of zinc to chlorpyrifos intoxicated animals normalized the enzymatic activities of cytochrome P₄₅₀, NADPH cytochrome-c-reductase and NADH cytochrome-c-reductase within normal range. Collectively, these findings suggest that zinc plays an important role in regulating the hepatic activities of drug metabolizing enzymes in chlorpyrifos intoxicated animals, although it remains to be determined whether such protective effects of zinc are regulated directly, or through some indirect mechanism.

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1. Introduction

Organophosphorus insecticides (OPs) are used widely for a variety of agricultural and public health applications (Pope, 1999; Maroni et al., 2000). OPs produce a wide range of toxicity in mammals by inhibiting acetylcholinesterase (AChE), and the consequent accumulation of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine (ACh) in synaptic junctions leads to excessive stimulation of postsynaptic cells leading to cholinergic toxicity (Pope et al., 2005). Chlorpyrifos (*O,O'*-diethyl-3,5,6-trichloro-

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2-pyridinyl-phosphorothioate) belongs to the phosphorothioate class of organophosphorus insecticides, and gets metabolically activated to its corresponding oxygen analog, oxon, in the liver (Sultatos and Murphy, 1983; Chambers and Chambers, 1989; Kousba et al., 2004). Chlorpyrifos-oxon potently binds to and inhibits AChE to elicit cholinergic toxicity. Bulk of the activation of chlorpyrifos occurs in liver and its detoxification takes place in liver and plasma. This biotransformation of organophosphorus insecticides is catalyzed by cytochrome P₄₅₀ and associated enzymes, which are present in microsomal membranes of liver (Jokanovic, 2001). Additionally, the activation of organophosphorus compounds to corresponding oxons occurs through oxidative desulphuration, which is also mediated by the cytochrome P₄₅₀ (Jokanovic, 2001). It has been shown that repeated doses of chlorpyrifos were able to cause significant hepatic atrophy (Miyazaki and Hodgson, 1972).

Previous reports from our laboratory have also demonstrated the hepatotoxic actions of chlorpyrifos, wherein, the profile of liver marker enzymes, antioxidant enzymes and essential trace elements were found to be adversely affected (Goel et al., 2000, 2005, 2006; Goel and Dhawan, 2001). In view of the vital role of hepatic biotransformation of chlorpyrifos in modulating its acute mammalian toxicity, a better understanding of the enzymatic-regulators will allow designing appropriate preventative regimens to mitigate the mammalian toxicity of this class of insecticides. However, not much effort has been made in this direction, and there is a potential need for identification of new preventive compounds targeted against occupational insecticide exposures, that may offer significant protection but least toxicity of their own.

In this regard, the present study explored the possible protection afforded by zinc, which is known to possess catalytic and structural roles in over 300 metalloenzymes, as well as regulatory roles in diverse cellular processes such as signaling transduction and gene expression (Prasad, 1983). Zinc (Zn) is an essential trace element, is relatively nontoxic and is integral to several key functions in human metabolism (Fang et al., 2002; Daniel and Tom Dieck, 2004). Not only has Zn been identified as a component of key enzymes and regulatory proteins, it was recently suggested that the preventive effects of zinc may partly be mediated through increase in cytochrome P₄₅₀ enzymes in subjects with alcoholic liver disease (Zhou et al., 2005; Kang and Zhou, 2005). Although the precise biological explanation for zinc-mediated protective effects is not certain, nonetheless, there is sufficient evidence that zinc supplementation provides significant hepatoprotection

under different toxic conditions (Cagen and Klaassen, 1979; Cabre et al., 1999). In this regard, studies from our laboratory have also indicated the efficacy of zinc in regulating the liver functions in various animal models of increased oxidative stress (Goel et al., 2000, 2005, 2006; Sidhu et al., 2005). However, there is still a clear lack of understanding whether the toxic effects of chlorpyrifos are mediated through drug metabolizing enzymes, and further if zinc may have any preventive role in such toxic conditions.

Thus, in this study we sought to investigate the protective potential of zinc on drug metabolizing enzymes in the liver of animals, which were exposed to long-term toxicity with chlorpyrifos. Herein, we demonstrate that the liver activities of key drug metabolizing enzymes are markedly altered following chlorpyrifos intoxication. However, co-administration of zinc to these animals significantly normalized these enzyme activities indicating the protective role for zinc in chlorpyrifos-induced toxicity.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Grouping of animals

Male Sprague–Dawley rats weighing 145 ± 20 g were procured from the Central Animal House, Punjab University, Chandigarh, and were maintained on the standard laboratory feed and water ad libitum. Animals were segregated into four different groups (Goel et al., 2006). Briefly, Group 1 (G-1) animals served as normal controls and Group 2 (G-2) animals were given an oral chlorpyrifos treatment at a dose level of 13.5 mg/kg body weight (oral LD₅₀; 135/kg body weight) in corn oil every alternate day (Goel et al., 2005, 2006). Animals in Group 3 (G-3) served as normal zinc controls for the Group 4 (G-4) animals, and were supplemented with zinc in the form of ZnSO₄·7H₂O, at a dose level of 227 mg/l added to their drinking water (Dhawan and Goel, 1994; Goel et al., 2006). All the treatments continued for a period of 8 weeks.

2.2. Biochemical estimations

The livers were removed and homogenized in 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.5) containing 0.15 M KCl to obtain 10% homogenate, using a mechanically driven Teflon fitted Potter Elvehjem homogenizer. The tissue homogenates were further processed at predetermined centrifugation speeds and time intervals to obtain different sub-cellular fractions for the estimation of various biochemical parameters.

2.2.1. Protein

Protein assay was done by standard methods (Lowry et al., 1951). Briefly, the protein lysates were appropriately diluted

and the protein contents were determined by using Folin's reagent as detailed previously (Goel et al., 2006).

2.2.2. Drug metabolizing enzymes

The livers were removed and homogenized in 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.5) containing 0.15 M KCl to obtain 25% homogenate, using a mechanically driven Teflon fitted Potter Elvehjem homogenizer. The homogenates were centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 20 min. The $10,000 \times g$ supernatant was thereafter centrifuged again at $100,000 \times g$ for another 60 min. The microsomal pellet thus obtained was suspended in 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer containing 20% glycerol (v/v). Aliquots of microsomal fractions were stored at -20°C till further use.

2.2.2.1. Cytochrome P₄₅₀. Cytochrome P₄₅₀ was measured in the microsomal fractions as described previously (Omura and Sato, 1964a). Briefly, carbon monoxide was bubbled through diluted microsomes and the sample was transferred to the reference and sample cuvettes. Subsequently, a pinch of sodium dithionite was added only to the sample cuvette and mixed thoroughly. The carbon monoxide difference spectrum of dithionite reduced microsomes was recorded from 400 to 500 nm on a Shimadzu 160 A double beam spectrometer. Molar extinction coefficient of $91 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ was used to calculate the amount of cytochrome P₄₅₀, which is expressed as nmol/mg protein.

2.2.2.2. Cytochrome b₅. Cytochrome b₅ was measured by recording the difference spectrum of NADH reduced microsomes versus air saturated microsomes from 409 to 424 nm on a double beam spectrometer as described previously (Omura and Sato, 1964b). The molar extinction coefficient of the difference spectrum of cytochrome b₅ utilized was $185 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$. The amount of cytochrome b₅ was expressed as nmol cytochrome b₅/mg protein.

2.2.2.3. NADPH cytochrome-c-reductase. The assay was carried out by the method of Yasukochi and Masters (1976). The assay mixture contained 300 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.7), 0.1 mM NADPH, 0.1 mM EDTA, 36 μM cytochrome c (Type III) and the appropriate amount of microsomal enzyme. For each set of reference tube, a blank tube lacking NADPH was run simultaneously. The reduction of cytochrome c was monitored by recording the increase in absorbance at 550 nm, and the enzymatic activity was expressed as nmol cytochrome c reduced/min/mg protein.

2.2.2.4. NADH cytochrome-c-reductase. The assay was carried out by the methods published previously (Yasukochi and Masters, 1976). The reaction conditions were very similar to that of NADPH cytochrome-c-reductase assay. However, instead of using NADPH as a substrate, equivalent amounts of NADH were added to the reaction mixture and absorbance due to the reduction of cytochrome c by NADH was measured at 550 nm. The specific enzyme activity was expressed as nmol of cytochrome c reduced/min/mg protein.

2.2.2.5. Aminopyrene-N-demethylase (APD). For the determination of aminopyrene-N-demethylase activity, the assay mixture contained 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.5), 2.5 mM NADPH, 0.5 mM aminopyrene and appropriate amount of microsomes (Nash, 1953). The reaction was carried out in 25 ml Erlenmeyer flasks, which were shaken at 37°C for 15 min during the time of the incubation with the substrate. The blanks lacking NADPH were also run simultaneously. The reaction was stopped by the addition of zinc sulfate, saturated solutions of barium hydroxide and sodium borate. During this reaction, aminopyrene gets converted to formaldehyde by oxidative demethylation and the formaldehyde so formed was allowed to react with 2.0 ml of NASH reagent (solution of acetylacetone, acetic acid and ammonium salt) to form a yellow colored complex. The color developed was measured at 415 nm and the enzyme activity was expressed as nmol formaldehyde formed/min/mg protein.

2.2.2.6. Aromatic hydrocarbon hydroxylase (AHH). The activity of microsomal AHH was assayed according to the method of Nebert and Gelboin (1968) with few modifications done by Yang et al. (1978). This enzyme catalyzes the hydroxylation of substrate benzo(a)pyrene to hydroxy benzo(a)pyrene which was measured spectrofluorimetrically. In brief, the assay mixture contained 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.4), 0.5 μmol NADPH, 5.0 μmol MgCl₂ and 50 mg tissue equivalents of the enzyme source in a final reaction volume of 1.0 ml. The reaction mixture was pre-incubated at 37°C for 2 min and finally the reaction was initiated by the addition of 80 nmol of 3,4-benzo(a)pyrene in 25 μl acetone. The reaction was stopped after 10 min by addition of 4.0 ml of chilled acetone:hexane (1:3) mixture. The contents of the mixture were vortexed for 10 min. Following centrifugation at $3000 \times g$ for 10 min, 2.0 ml aliquot of the organic phase was extracted with 4.0 ml of 1 N NaOH. Contents of the phenolic metabolites were measured on a fluorimeter at an activation wavelength of 396 nm and an emission wavelength of 522 nm. The activity of AHH was expressed as units of fluorescence/min/mg protein.

2.3. Zinc estimation

2.3.1. Preparation of serum

The blood samples were allowed to clot at room temperature. The clotted blood samples were centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 10–15 min to separate the clot, and the estimation of various elements was carried out in the supernatant.

2.3.2. Determination of zinc levels

Determination of zinc was carried out by the method of Evenson and Anderson (1975) using atomic absorption spectrophotometer. The serum samples were diluted ten times with 10 mM nitric acid and the zinc-standards (procured from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, USA) were also run simultaneously.

Table 1
Alterations in the body weights of the animals following zinc treatment to chlorpyrifos intoxicated rats

GROUPS	Body weight
G-1 Normal control	245.00 ± 16.43
G-2 Chlorpyrifos	221.25 ± 42.33 ^a
G-3 Zinc	253.24 ± 33.40
G-4 Chlorpyrifos + Zinc	232.88 ± 32.70

Values are expressed as mean ± S.D. Values are expressed as mean ± S.D. by Newman–Keuls test; the statistical significance between different treatment groups was calculated by Newman–Keuls test; a minimum of 8–10 animals were used for each independent analyses.

^a $P < 0.05$ in comparison to G-1.

2.4. Statistical analysis

The statistical significance of the data has been determined using a multiple post hoc test (Student–Newman–Keuls) with 5% differences considered significant. Prior to using Newman–Keuls test, the data were analyzed using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results are represented as mean ± S.D. A minimum of seven animals were included for statistical analysis in each group, and the significance is given as $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$.

3. Results

All the results of various treatment groups have been compared with their normal controls. However, results from zinc + chlorpyrifos treated group (Group 4) have also been compared with the results of the chlorpyrifos treated group (Group 2).

3.1. Body weights

The variations in the body weights of the animals subjected to different treatments are shown in Table 1. During the course of present investigations, it was observed that the body weights of the normal control animals and zinc treated controls increased progressively throughout the study, and at the end of the study net body weight gains of 67.8% and 69.79%, respectively, were recorded for these two groups of animals in comparison to their initial weights. However, the net body weight gain of the animals intoxicated with chlorpyrifos was markedly less and was of the order of 36.41% only, when compared to the untreated controls ($P < 0.05$). Zinc treatment to the chlorpyrifos intoxicated animals also resulted in significant net body weight gain (48.8%), but was less when compared to the normal controls.

3.2. Drug metabolizing enzymes

Hepatic microsomal cytochrome P₄₅₀ and cytochrome b₅ enzyme activities were found to be significantly inhibited ($P < 0.001$ for P₄₅₀; and $P < 0.05$ for b₅) in chlorpyrifos treated animals, in comparison to untreated normal controls (Table 2). No significant changes in the enzyme activities were observed for zinc control animals (G-3). However, zinc treatment to chlorpyrifos-treated animals reversed the decreased cytochrome P₄₅₀ activities significantly, although a relatively less significant decrease ($P < 0.05$) was still evident in this enzymatic activity in these animals. On the contrary, complete normalization of cytochrome b₅ activity was observed in zinc + chlorpyrifos treated group, when compared to normal controls.

Similarly, as shown in Table 2, chlorpyrifos treatment resulted in a significant decrease in microsomal NADPH cytochrome-*c*-reductase, NADH cytochrome-*c*-reductase and APD activities after 8 weeks of treatment. Furthermore, a marginal decrease was observed in the levels of AHH following chlorpyrifos treatment, but this was not statistically significant. Interestingly, zinc supplementation to chlorpyrifos treated animals brought back the already depressed levels of NADPH cytochrome-*c*-reductase and NADH cytochrome-*c*-reductase, to within normal limits. However, similar treatment with zinc to chlorpyrifos intoxicated animals did not affect the microsomal APD activity in these animals, when compared to the untreated controls.

3.3. Elemental estimation

Serum zinc levels were observed to be lowered to statistically significant limits ($P < 0.01$) after 8 weeks of chlorpyrifos treatment (Table 3). However, serum zinc concentrations were found to be within normal limits following zinc supplementation in the zinc treated animals (G-3), as well as the combined zinc + chlorpyrifos treatment group (G-4) when compared to the controls.

4. Discussion

The present study investigates the effects of chlorpyrifos intoxication, on the drug metabolizing enzymes, which play an important role in the bio-activation and metabolism of chlorpyrifos in the liver. An additional aim of this study was also to determine whether zinc may mitigate the toxicity of chlorpyrifos by altering the activities of some or all of these drug metabolizing enzymes, thus providing a rationale for the protective

Table 2
Effect of zinc on the hepatic drug metabolism enzymes in rats subjected to chlorpyrifos and zinc treatments

Groups	Cytochrome P ₄₅₀ (nmol/mg protein)	Cytochrome b ₅ (nmol/mg protein)	NADPH cytochrome- c-reductase	NADH cytochrome-c- reductase	Aminopyrine-N- demethylase	Arylhydrocarbon hydroxylase
G-1 Normal control	0.136 ± 0.010	0.182 ± 0.027	69.58 ± 10.12	757.42 ± 134.96	2.81 ± 0.37	11.54 ± 2.10
G-2 Chlorpyrifos	0.063 ± 0.023 ^c	0.142 ± 0.031 ^a	48.55 ± 8.54 ^e	606.26 ± 140.53 ^a	2.04 ± 0.23 ^c	10.76 ± 1.96
G-3 Zinc	0.119 ± 0.031	0.199 ± 0.028	60.70 ± 14.13	698.26 ± 176.71	2.83 ± 0.481	10.95 ± 2.221
G-4 Chlorpyrifos + Zinc	0.116 ± 0.025 ^{a,z}	0.162 ± 0.028	59.98 ± 11.07 ^x	785.75 ± 109.33 ^y	2.07 ± 0.40 ^b	10.83 ± 2.38

The activities of the various enzymes are expressed as follows; NADPH cytochrome-c-reductase and NADH cytochrome-c-reductase (nmol cyt-c reduced/min/mg protein); aminopyrine-N-demethylase (nmol formaldehyde formed/min/mg protein); arylhydrocarbon hydroxylase (fluorescent units/min/mg protein). Values are expressed as mean ± S.D.; the statistical significance between different treatment groups was calculated by Newman–Keuls test; at least six to eight animals were used for each independent analyses.

^a $P < 0.05$ in comparison to G-1.

^b $P < 0.01$ in comparison to G-1.

^c $P < 0.001$ in comparison to G-1.

^x $P < 0.05$ in comparison between G-2 and G-4.

^y $P < 0.01$ in comparison between G-2 and G-4.

^z $P < 0.001$ in comparison between G-2 and G-4.

Table 3

Effect of zinc on serum zinc levels in rats subjected to chlorpyrifos treatment

GROUPS	Zinc (µg/ml of serum)
G-1 Normal control	4.88 ± 0.72
G-2 Chlorpyrifos	3.91 ± 0.63 ^a
G-3 Zinc	4.94 ± 0.79
G-4 Chlorpyrifos + Zinc	4.29 ± 0.47

Values are expressed as mean ± S.D. by Newman–Keuls test; the statistical significance between different treatment groups was calculated by Newman–Keuls test; a minimum of eight animals were used for each independent analyses.

^a $P < 0.01$ in comparison to G-1.

efficacy of this metal ion. Here, we report that the hepatic microsomal activities of most of the drug metabolizing enzymes were significantly depressed following chlorpyrifos intoxication, however, simultaneous zinc co-administration to these animals was able to restore these enzyme activities to within normal limits, suggesting its protective potential.

In this study, we observed that the net body weight gain of the animals intoxicated with chlorpyrifos was markedly less as compared to the normal controls, which is consistent with the existing literature (Abou-Donia, 1981; Rahman et al., 1990). Additionally, in our study, we did not observe any appreciable change in the diet consumption of chlorpyrifos intoxicated rats, suggesting an overall increased degeneration of lipids and proteins as a result of the direct effects of the organophosphate. Zinc treatment to chlorpyrifos intoxicated animals helped in a better net body weight gain, which was attributed to its ability to reduce collagen accumulation in liver in such stress conditions (Dhawan and Goel, 1994).

Cytochrome P₄₅₀ enzyme system plays an important role in the bio-activation of chlorpyrifos, and is central to the toxic manifestation of OP insecticides. We observed an overall significant inhibition in the activity of the microsomal cytochrome P₄₅₀ and cytochrome b₅ following chlorpyrifos intoxication, which is in line with the observations made with chlorpyrifos and other organophosphorus insecticides (Sultatos, 1991; Barron et al., 1991; Ma and Chambers, 1994). We also observed significant depression in the activity of both NADPH cytochrome-c-reductase and NADH cytochrome-c-reductase following 8 weeks of chlorpyrifos intoxication. NADPH cytochrome-c-reductase, a flavoprotein present in endoplasmic reticulum is thought to be involved in the oxidation of various drugs, steroids and other chemicals (Masters, 2005). Analogous results for depressed NADPH cytochrome-

c-reductase activity following parathion intoxication in a reconstituted *in vitro* mixed function oxidase system were also observed. It was suggested that the sulphur released during desulfuration of an organophosphorus insecticide may bind not only to the cytochrome P₄₅₀ but also to NADH cytochrome-*c*-reductase, culminating in the overall reduced activity of this monooxygenase (Kamatani and Neal, 1976). Alternatively, NADPH cytochrome-*c*-reductase is also involved in initiating the process of NADPH-dependent lipid peroxidation in the microsomal membranes, and increased lipid-peroxidation as a result of chlorpyrifos intoxication may also be the cause of depressed enzymatic activity (Sevanian et al., 1990). This explanation is particularly of interest since findings from our group have previously reported a marked elevation in NADPH-dependent lipid peroxidation in microsomes following chlorpyrifos treatment (Goel et al., 2005). The observed decrease in the cytochrome b₅ and subsequent concomitant decrease in NADH cytochrome-*c*-reductase with chlorpyrifos intoxication could also be explained on a similar basis, as cytochrome b₅ potentiates the catalytic desaturation of fatty acids (Hildebrandt and Estabrook, 1971).

A significant inhibition of microsomal APD activity was observed in chlorpyrifos intoxicated animals, although no change was discernible in the levels of AHH. The present study, therefore indicates that chlorpyrifos is a phenobarbitone (PB) type of inducer rather than a mixed type. These findings seem logical as it is not surprising to observe a considerable inconsistency in the relative effectiveness of cytochrome P₄₅₀ isoenzymes to activate different pesticides (Levi and Hodgson, 1985). Although to the best of our knowledge ours is the first study to report such effects with chlorpyrifos, similar inhibition in APD activity has been observed with sub-acute intoxications with parathion, malathion and phosalone (Bulusu and Chakravarty, 1988).

Interestingly, we observed that co-administration of zinc to chlorpyrifos intoxicated animals reverted most of these altered enzyme levels to within normal limits. The most simplistic explanation for these observed effects is that zinc regulates the hepatic microsomal drug metabolism, as well as the related oxidation of NADPH in the setting of chlorpyrifos intoxication. Zinc activates microsomal pyrophosphatase II, a zinc containing enzyme that is capable of metabolizing both NADPH and NADH (Zyryanov et al., 2004). Zinc is known to complex with NADPH, and it is suggested that regulation of drug metabolism by zinc might be due to this complex formation (Ludwig et al., 1980). It has also been hypothesized that zinc by binding to reductase, changes its oxidation-reduction potential, thus impacting the regula-

tion of the cytochrome P₄₅₀ levels (Ludwig et al., 1980; Zhou et al., 2005). Additionally, it is known that majority of zinc in liver exists bound to zinc-metallothionein (MT) and this trace metal may be readily available to the hepatic cytochromes (Bremner and Davies, 1975; Eaton et al., 1980). Alternatively, it can be hypothesized that the increase in Zn turnover in concert with the synthesis of metallothionein might be pivotal behind these effects; however, further studies are still required in this context. It has been shown that liver microsomes from zinc deficient rats generate more NADPH and aminopyrene-dependent H₂O₂ due to simultaneously inhibited APD activity in these animals (Hammermueller et al., 1987). Although MT synthesis is known to be induced in response to various pathological and physiological agents, however, we have previously reported decrease in MT content following chlorpyrifos intoxication, and ascribed it to the zinc deficient state in the livers of these animals (Goel et al., 2000, 2006). Abnormalities in the zinc metabolism leading to its deficiency are generally attributed to factors such as malabsorption, malnutrition, decreased intestinal zinc binding factors or the increased excretion of the zinc via the gastrointestinal tract or via urine (McClain and Su, 1983). In biochemical systems, the antioxidant properties of zinc have been clearly demonstrated and, for the most part, appear to be independent of zinc metalloenzyme activity. Therefore, our observed decreased serum zinc can also be attributed to its excessive utilization as an antioxidant.

In conclusion, these data suggest that zinc supplementation is protective in the animals subjected to chlorpyrifos intoxication, as it markedly helps regulating the activities of key drug metabolizing enzymes in conditions of chlorpyrifos toxicity. Although zinc-induced metallothionein levels and its antioxidant effects may be central to its biological protective role, further studies are warranted to ascertain the precise mechanisms of its action.

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