

1 **Toxicokinetics of bisphenol S in rats for predicting human bisphenol S clearance from**
2 **allometric scaling**

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Abbreviations:

AUC_{last}: Area under the plasma concentration-time curve from dosing time to the last sampling time,
AUMC_{last}: Area under the first moment plasma concentration-time curve from dosing time to the last
sampling time, BPA: Bisphenol A, BPAG: Bisphenol A glucuronide, BPS: Bisphenol S, BPSG:
Bisphenol S glucuronide, BW: Body Weight, Cl: Clearance, Cl_F: Apparent clearance, C_{max} :
Maximal concentration, IV: Intravenous, LOQ: Limit of Quantification, MRT: Mean Residence Time,
T_{max}: Time to maximal concentration, TK: Toxicokinetic, V_{ss}: Steady state volume of distribution

26 **Abstract**

27 Previous data obtained in piglets suggested that despite structural analogy with Bisphenol A
28 (BPA), Bisphenol S (BPS) elimination may proceed more slowly, resulting in a much higher
29 systemic exposure to unconjugated BPS than to BPA. Interspecies allometric scaling was
30 applied to predict the toxicokinetic (TK) parameters of BPS, namely plasma clearance in
31 humans from values obtained in animals, and thus contribute to assessment of the human
32 internal exposure to BPS.

33 Allometric scaling was performed using mean BPS plasma clearance values measured in rats
34 after intravenous administration of 5 mg BPS /kg body weight (BW) and those previously
35 obtained in piglets and sheep using identical IV BPS dosing and analytical procedures.

36 The BPS plasma clearance, evaluated at 0.92 L/kg.h in rats, was proportional to species body
37 weight, enabling the prediction of human BPS plasma clearance by extrapolating to a BW of
38 70 kg. The estimated BPS plasma clearance in humans was thus 0.92 L/min (0.79 L/kg.h), i.e.
39 about two times lower than the previously estimated BPA clearance (1.79 L/min).

40 By increasing systemic exposure to the active moiety of an environmental estrogenic chemical,
41 this less efficient clearance of BPS in humans, as compared with BPA, might worsen the
42 harmful consequences of replacing BPA by BPS.

43

44 **Keywords:** Toxicokinetics; bisphenol S; allometric scaling, clearance

45 **Introduction**

46 Owing to great concern regarding the adverse effects of bisphenol A (BPA) on human health,
47 restrictive measures have been applied that have led to its gradual replacement by structural
48 analogues. Bisphenol S (BPS) is one of the main alternatives to BPA as a color developer in
49 thermal papers and in the manufacture of plastics and epoxy resins (Wu et al. 2018).

50 The widespread and increasing use of BPS in consumer products is reflected by the high
51 prevalence of BPS in urine from a cohort of US populations (Lehmler et al. 2018) and Asian
52 countries (Liao et al. 2012). Despite insufficient data to assess the origin of such wide internal
53 exposure, relevant pathways of human exposure to BPS could be the ingestion of BPS-
54 contaminated food or dust and direct contact of BPS-contaminated hands with the mouth
55 resulting from hand-to-mouth activity. A review of the literature suggests that substituting BPA
56 with BPS may not lower the risk of endocrine disruption since BPS has been shown to display
57 estrogen-like effects at concentrations similar to BPA (Pelch et al. 2019). Both BPS and BPA
58 are largely conjugated to glucuronides (Le Fol et al. 2015; Skledar et al. 2016; Zhou et al. 2014),
59 which are considered inactive due to their lack of estrogenicity (Matthews et al. 2001; Skledar
60 et al. 2016). So, by increasing the internal exposure to the active form of BPA, a lower *in vivo*
61 BPS plasma glucuronidation rate, as shown in piglets (Gayrard et al. 2019), may still aggravate
62 the harmful consequences of BPA substitution by BPS. Indeed in piglets, the 3.5 times lower
63 plasma clearance (Cl) of BPS as compared with BPA, combined with its 100 times lower first-
64 pass glucuronidation following oral dosing, accounted for the 250 times higher systemic
65 exposure to active unconjugated BPS (Gayrard et al. 2019). The relevance of this result for
66 humans is supported by the higher serum concentrations of BPS, compared with BPA, that have
67 been predicted for peroral exposure from a physiologically based toxicokinetic (TK) model
68 (Karrer et al. 2018). However, the impossibility of directly measuring basic TK parameters in
69 humans, such as plasma clearance, volume of distribution and mean residence time, limits our

70 understanding of the TK mechanisms underlying the different fates of bisphenol analogues,
71 thus requiring assumptions when predicting BPS plasma kinetic profiles for external
72 environmentally-relevant exposures. Clearance represents the most important TK parameter
73 because it is the only parameter controlling the internal exposure following intravenous (IV)
74 administration, as measured by the Area Under the plasma concentration vs time Curve (AUC).
75 For an oral route of exposure, AUC is entirely controlled by both Cl and bioavailability (noted
76 F). The steady-state volume of distribution (noted Vss) not only reflects the extent of
77 distribution of a substance in the body but, in conjunction with Cl, also controls its persistence
78 as measured by the Mean Residence Time (MRT). MRT is defined as the average time that a
79 single molecule of the substance of interest remains in the body. Direct calculations of Cl, Vss
80 and MRT require an IV injection that is impossible to carry out in man and an alternative
81 approach consists of estimating these TK parameters by applying an indirect approach such as
82 allometry. So-called simple allometric scaling consists of relating body size to a parameter of
83 interest using a power equation (Chappell and Mordenti 1991). This has proved to be a useful
84 tool for predicting human clearance of BPA from animal data (Collet et al. 2015). In the present
85 study, this approach was used to estimate the Cl, Vss and MRT of BPS in humans from plasma
86 BPS kinetic profiles obtained in rats following IV BPS dosing and TK data previously obtained
87 using identical IV BPS dosing and analytical procedures in piglets (Gayrard et al. 2019) and in
88 pregnant and non-pregnant ewes (Grandin et al. 2017, 2018).

89

90 Materials and methods

91 *Animal handling procedures and sample collection*

92 The experiment was declared to the regional Ethical Committee “Toxcomethique” (C2EA
93 n°86) and to the French Ministry of Research. It was authorized by the French Ministry of
94 Research under the number #5215_2016042815224143). The experiment was carried out with

95 15 female Wistar rats (Envigo, Gannat, France) weighing 266 ± 26 g. They were fed *ad libitum*
96 a commercial rat chow (2016 Teklad global 16% protein rodent diets, Envigo) and were housed
97 individually in metabolism cages during the sampling periods.
98 The rats, briefly anesthetized using volatile anesthesia (2 % isoflurane, AErrane[®], Baxter SA,
99 Maurepas, France, in 0.7 L/min of O₂), were administered BPS into the lateral tail vein at a
100 dose of 5 mg/kg. Serial blood samples (0.25 ml) were collected in propylene tubes before and
101 at each of the designated time points post-administration: 10 min (n=8), 20 min (n=6), 30 min
102 (n=8), 40 min (n=6), 60 min (n=8), 1.5h (n=6), 2h (n=8), 4h (n=5), 8h (n=8), 12h (n=6), 24h
103 (n=8) and 36h (n=4), through a catheter surgically inserted in the left femoral vein under volatile
104 anesthesia at least two days before BPS administration. After each blood sampling,
105 physiological saline was administered at a volume equivalent to the withdrawn blood volume.
106 The catheter was then filled with 200 μ L of heparinized saline (50 IU/mL). Total urine was
107 collected in propylene tubes at 3, 6, 9, 12, and 24 h after BPS administration in 9 rats. The
108 volume of each urine sample and the sampling time were recorded. Blood and urine samples
109 were immediately chilled on ice and centrifuged for 10 min at 3000 g at 4°C and the supernatant
110 was stored in propylene tubes at -20°C until assayed.

111 *Test material and treatments*

112 All materials for the preparation of solutions, including the materials used for sampling,
113 processing and analysis, were made of glass or polypropylene. BPS (purity >99%) was
114 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint-Quentin Fallavier, France). BPS dosing solutions were
115 extemporaneously prepared by dissolving BPS in ethanol-saline (1:4, vol:vol) at 5 mg/ml.

116 *BPS assay*

117 Analytes were quantified by Acquity ultra performance liquid chromatography coupled to a
118 Xevo triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Waters, Milford, MA, USA). BPS and BPSG in

119 plasma and urine samples were measured simultaneously, without resorting to a hydrolysis step,
120 using the method described previously (Grandin et al. 2017).

121 *Toxicokinetic analyses*

122 The plasma mass concentrations were converted into molar concentrations before analysis. The
123 cumulated molar quantities of excreted BPS (BPSG) in urine were calculated by multiplying
124 the molar concentrations of BPS (BPSG) by the volume of urine at each sampling time.

125 Plasma concentration-time profiles of BPS were analyzed using Phoenix (version 8.0 Pharsight
126 Corporation) according to a non-compartmental approach (NCA) involving a sparse data
127 option. Sparse data methodology consists of calculating TK parameters based on the mean
128 profile of all the subjects in the dataset and is appropriate when no rich data series can be
129 obtained, as in the present experiment. The AUC and the Area under the first moment curve
130 from the time of dosing to the last measurable concentration, AUC_{last} and $AUMC_{last}$ were
131 calculated using the linear trapezoidal rule. The mean plasma concentration-time profile of
132 BPSG was used to derive the maximum concentration (C_{max}), the time to maximum
133 concentration (T_{max}), and the AUC_{last} and $AUMC_{last}$ values. The Cl of BPS and apparent
134 clearance of BPSG (Cl_F) were estimated after IV administration of BPS by dividing the dose
135 by the AUC_{last} calculated for each analyte as previously described. V_{ss} and MRT were computed
136 using the usual pharmacokinetic equations and the moment statistical approach (Gibaldi and
137 Perrier 1983).

138 *Allometric approach*

139 Allometric scaling was based on the mean clearance and body weight data obtained in rats and
140 those previously obtained using identical 5mg/kg IV BPS dosing and analytical procedures in
141 female piglets (Gayrard et al. 2019), and in pregnant and non-pregnant female sheep (Grandin
142 et al. 2017, 2018). The data used for allometric scaling are given in Table 1.

143 The mean clearance values (Cl) obtained in each animal species were plotted against the mean
144 animal BW using the following standard power equations:

$$145 \quad C_l = a \times BW^b \quad \text{Eq1}$$

146 where a and b are the allometric coefficient and the exponent of the allometric equation,
147 respectively.

148 The Cl and BW were transformed logarithmically and fitted to Equation 2 by linear regression
149 analysis using Systat^R (Version 11, Systat Software, Inc., San Jose California USA).

$$150 \quad \log C_l = \log a + b \times \log BW \quad \text{Eq2}$$

151 where $\log a$ is the y-intercept, and b is the slope.

152 Based on the animal data, the predicted value of Cl in humans was obtained by solving the
153 allometric equation for a standard BW of 70 kg. Vss and MRT were scaled using the same
154 approach as for Cl. Since the classical allometric relationship for Vss produced a very low and
155 unexpected computed exponent (0.526) and predicted an unrealistically low Vss (0.267L/kg,
156 see discussion), this approach was no longer considered to estimate Vss in man. The alternative
157 approach proposed by Bachmann et al. (1996), based exclusively on rat Vss, was implemented
158 to predict Vss in man using a power model with slope and intercept values of 0.91 and 0.705
159 respectively. MRT was deduced from Cl and Vss estimates according to Equation 3.

$$160 \quad MRT = V_{ss}/Cl \quad \text{Eq3}$$

161

162 **Results**

163 BPS was not detected in any of the control samples obtained before the administrations,
164 suggesting that little-to-no sample contamination had occurred during sample collection,
165 processing and assay. The time course of plasma concentrations of BPS and BPSG in rats after
166 IV administration is shown in Figure 1. Table 2 gives the values estimated by NCA for TK
167 parameters of BPS and BPSG after IV BPS administration. The plasma concentration-time

168 profile of BPS was characterized by a phase of rapid decay of concentrations during the first
169 four hours followed by a slow elimination phase. Plasma BPSG concentrations increased
170 rapidly after IV administration of BPS, and the maximum BPSG concentration (C_{max}) was
171 attained within the first 10 minutes. After a rapid decline, an increase of BPSG plasma
172 concentrations was observed about 4 h after BPS injection, after which the concentrations then
173 decreased slowly from 12 h post dosing. The BPS Cl and BPSG Cl_F values were 0.92 L/kg.h
174 and 0.18 L/kg.h, respectively. The respective values of BPS V_{ss} and MRT were 3.64 L/kg and
175 3.96 h. By 24h, the mean fraction of the BPS dose (\pm SD) recovered in urine was $37.5 \pm 12.3\%$
176 ($n=9$) mostly as BPSG ($93.5 \pm 7.1\%$), unconjugated BPS in urine representing $1.9 \pm 2.1 \%$ of
177 the BPS dose.

178 The allometric relationship between BW and Cl is shown in Figure 2. Data were fitted using
179 equation 1 and the resulting allometric equation 4 was used to predict Cl according to BW.

$$180 \quad Cl = 0.0151 \times BW^{0.968} \quad \text{Eq4}$$

181 with Cl in L/min, and BW in kg

182 The 95 % confidence interval for the slope of the allometric relationship between BW and Cl
183 (b value) was 0.8437 to 1.100 meaning that the slope was not significantly different from 1 with
184 $P > 0.05$. On applying Equation 4, the estimated BPS Cl for a 70-kg human was 0.92 L/min
185 (0.79 L/kg.h). Using the empirical model proposed by Bachmann et al. (1996), the estimated
186 BPS V_{ss} was 2.26 L/kg in man, based on the rat V_{ss} value of 3.6L/kg, and the deduced value
187 of MRT was 2.86 h.

188

189 **Discussion**

190 Our estimates of BPS Cl, V_{ss} and MRT in humans, based on scaling from animal data, provide
191 some additional TK data for BPS. While the TK properties of BPA have been the subject of a
192 large number of studies, to our knowledge this is the first study to describe the TK parameters

193 of BPS and BPSG after BPS IV dosing in rats, a species commonly used in toxicological
194 studies.

195 The BPS clearance in rats (0.92 L/kg.h) was shown to be equivalent to that previously estimated
196 in larger species such as sheep (Grandin et al. 2017, 2018) and piglets (Gayrard et al. 2019)
197 while the persistency of BPS as reflected by the MRT was 5 to 13 times higher (4 h) due to its
198 5 to 21 times higher V_{ss} (3.6 L/kg). The rebound in BPSG plasma concentrations, that peaked
199 12 h post BPS IV dosing, may reflect the BPS enterohepatic recirculation previously suggested
200 by the rather high fecal excretion of BPS and its metabolites following IV administration in rats
201 (32.5% of the dose, Waidyanatha et al. 2018). In the present experiment, the mean fraction of
202 BPS dose recovered in urine over the 0-24 h post-dosing period was 37.5%, mostly in the form
203 of BPSG, indicating that the renal clearance of unconjugated BPS was minimal. This result is
204 consistent with those of other authors who reported that 42% of the radioactivity was eliminated
205 in urine following injection of radiolabeled BPS in rats (Waidyanatha et al. 2018). This suggests
206 that the clearance of BPS is driven by its biotransformation to more hydrophilic secondary
207 metabolites (mainly BPSG) with subsequent elimination either in urine or bile. Enterohepatic
208 recycling of BPA has been shown to occur in rats (Kurebayashi et al. 2003). An enterohepatic
209 recirculation pathway has also been incorporated in the PBTK model of BPS for peroral
210 exposure (Karrer et al. 2018) to improve the fitting of model predictions for BPS data
211 biomonitoring (Oh et al. 2018) and to account for the longer persistence of BPS compared with
212 BPA. The relevance of this modality of BPS elimination in humans is however questionable
213 since BPSG has been shown to be cleared mostly by renal clearance in humans (Oh et al. 2018).
214 The main result of our study is that BPS Cl can be estimated in man, with a good degree of
215 confidence, by applying a simple allometric approach and selecting three species with BWs
216 spanning a large range (from 0.2 to 77Kg BW). We were thus able to estimate Cl by
217 interpolation and thereby reduce the uncertainties associated with extrapolation. In addition, the

218 coefficient of determination (R^2) associated with the linear regression was very high (0.99)
219 meaning that 99 % of the variability in BPS Cl between species was captured by the interspecies
220 variation of BW. For the three species investigated, the allometric model predicted that the
221 plasma Cl of BPS was directly related to BW and that the allometric exponent was not
222 significantly different from 1. It has been argued that if the exponent of a simple allometric
223 equation lies between 0.71 and 1, the product of Maximum Life-span potential (MLP) and
224 clearance will predict Cl better than simple allometry (Mahmood and Balian 1996). We
225 explored this so-called exponent rule to estimate the Cl in humans but did not find that such a
226 correction was justified. The plasma Cl in man was thus estimated at a typical value of
227 0.92 L/min for a BW of 70 kg (0.79 L/kg.h). Assuming that the plasma and blood BPS
228 concentrations are equal, as observed in sheep (unpublished observations), it can be concluded
229 that the blood BPS Cl in humans is equal to 18% of the cardiac output (about 5 L/min) and 60%
230 of the hepatic blood flow rate (1.24 L/kg.h, i.e. 1.45L/min for a 70-kg BW, Davies and Morris
231 1993). The mechanism of BPS Cl in man is unknown but assuming that all BPS is solely cleared
232 by the liver (better case scenario for an oral exposure to an endocrine disruptor), the estimated
233 hepatic extraction ratio (ERh) would therefore be 60%. The resulting fraction of BPS
234 administered by oral route that escapes a hepatic first-pass effect can be as high as 40% (i.e. 1-
235 ERh). This percentage will be even higher if a significant fraction of BPS is actually
236 metabolized by some extra-hepatic mechanism such as renal clearance. This result is consistent
237 with the bioavailability of BPS (57.4 %) that we directly measured in pigs (Gayrard et al. 2019).
238 From our allometric estimate of BPS Cl in humans, it can therefore be tentatively concluded
239 that if the liver is the only clearing organ of BPS in man (i.e. only an hepatic first-pass effect
240 and no intestinal first-pass effect as we recently predicted in pigs, Gayrard et al. 2019), the oral
241 bioavailability of BPS in man could be 50% or more. The relevance of a high BPS oral
242 bioavailability in humans is strengthened by the similar values obtained for human BPS plasma

243 clearance estimated by allometry (0.79 L/kg.h) and the apparent clearance values computed
244 from observed time courses in volunteers reported by Oh et al. (2018), using the area under the
245 curve of unconjugated BPS (61 L/h *i.e.* 0.88L/kg.h). The predicted BPS oral bioavailability in
246 man is much higher than the systemic oral BPA bioavailability that has been evaluated at less
247 than 1% in adult monkeys (Doerge et al. 2010). It should be understood that when the hepatic
248 clearance approaches a value close to the hepatic blood flow (1.5 L/min in man), the resulting
249 increased hepatic first-pass effect leads to a much higher than proportional decrease of the oral
250 bioavailability. This is likely the main explanation for the much higher BPS oral bioavailability
251 compared with BPA, as shown in piglets (57.4% vs 0.50%, Gayrard et al. 2019). Indeed, the
252 clearance of BPA in man (1.5 L/kg.h, Collet et al. 2015), mainly hepatic (Trdan Lušin et al.
253 2012) is close to the human hepatic blood flow (1.24 L/kg.h, Davies and Morris 1993) thereby
254 allowing a near total first-pass effect. On the other hand, BPS clearance (0.79L/kg.h), although
255 only two times lower than that of BPA, is not enough to ensure a near total hepatic first-pass
256 effect, and results in a much higher than proportional increase of BPS bioavailability compared
257 with BPA. In humans, the lower estimated BPS clearance compared with that of BPA (0.79 vs
258 1.5 L/kg.h, Collet et al. 2015) is consistent with the lower intrinsic hepatic clearance (0.4 vs 4.2
259 L/kg/h) predicted from the BPS and BPA glucuronidation kinetic parameters in human liver
260 microsomes (Karrer et al. 2018).

261 The classical allometric relationship for V_{ss} led to an unexpectedly low computed exponent of
262 0.526 whereas for most drugs this exponent is around 1 (Mahmood 2010), and therefore
263 predicted an unrealistically low V_{ss} in man. This is why we implemented the approach
264 proposed by Bachmann et al. (1996) who showed that the human volume of distribution for 100
265 xenobiotics could be well predicted solely from the rat V_{ss} . Using this empirical model, the
266 BPS V_{ss} estimated from the rat V_{ss} value (3.6 L/kg) was 2.26 L/kg in man. This prediction is

267 close to the reported human V_{ss}/F that can be approximated at 5.15 L/kg by computing V_{ss}/F
268 from the human oral TK data published by Oh et al. (2018) and using equation 5.

$$269 \quad V_{SS} = Cl \times MRT \quad \text{Eq 5}$$

270 where Cl represents the apparent clearance of BPS (0.88 L/kg.h) and MRT is equal to 5.85 h

271 An additional step for understanding the BPS disposition consists of considering the minimal
272 model for V_{ss} , as given by equation 6:

$$273 \quad V_{SS} = V_P + \frac{f_u}{f_{uT}} \times V_T \quad \text{Eq 6}$$

274 where V_P is the plasma volume, V_T is the tissue volume, and f_u and f_{uT} are the fraction of
275 unbound drug in plasma and tissue respectively. The unbound fraction of BPS in plasma has
276 been shown to be slightly different in rats (0.15) and pregnant women (0.10, Gayrard,
277 unpublished observation). Solving equation 6 with f_u values for humans and rats and
278 physiological values for human and rat tissues and plasma volumes (De Buck et al. 2007)
279 predicts that f_{uT} (a measure of BPS tissue affinity) would be very similar in rats (0.038) and
280 man (0.053); this means that the difference in V_{ss} between men and rats may simply reflect
281 differences in the extent of BPS binding to plasma proteins. The lower V_{ss} of BPS in humans
282 compared with rats resulted in a lower MRT (2.86 h).

283 Conclusion

284 Based on our allometric approach, we conclude that BPS is less efficiently metabolized than
285 BPA in humans, as reflected by its at least two-times lower plasma clearance. Since BPA
286 substitution by BPS should lead to equivalent external exposures in terms of doses and routes,
287 this lower BPS plasma clearance might lead to much higher oral serum concentrations of
288 unconjugated BPS, as compared with BPA, due to the direct effect of a lower plasma clearance
289 of BPS and indirectly by a much lower hepatic first-pass effect. Considering that BPA and BPS
290 have comparable estrogen-like effects, our results suggest that oral BPS exposure might be
291 associated with higher risks for human health than BPA.

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- 385

386 Table 1: Mean species body weight and toxicokinetic parameters used for allometric scaling

387

Species	n	Body weight (kg)	Clearance (L/kg.h)	V _{ss} (L/kg)	MRT (h)	Reference
Female rats	15	0.27 ± 26.2	0.92	3.64	3.96	Present study
Female piglets	16	11.2 ± 1.42	0.95 ± 0.24	0.75 ± 0.38	0.75 ± 0.53	(Gayrard et al. 2019)
Female sheep (not pregnant)	4	59.6 ± 13.5	0.57 ± 0.13	0.17 ± 0.04	0.30 ± 0.04	(Grandin et al. 2017)
Sheep (pregnant)	6	77.4 ± 12.3	0.99	0.38	0.38	(Grandin et al. 2018)

388 V_{ss}: Steady state volume of distribution

389 MRT: Mean Residence Time

390

391 Table 2: Toxicokinetic parameters of BPS and BPSG estimated by NCA analysis after BPS

392 intravenous dosing.

393

Toxicokinetic parameters	BPS	BPSG
C _{max} (μM)	27.3	17.0
T _{max} (h)	NA	0.17
AUC _{last} (μM.h)	21.8	106.1
Cl (L/kg.h)	0.92	NA
Cl _F (L/kg.h)	NA	0.18
V _{ss} (L/kg)	3.64	NA
MRT (h)	3.96	14.2

394 The toxicokinetic parameters of BPS and BPSG were estimated after IV administration of BPS
395 at 20 μmoles/kg (5mg/kg).

396 AUC_{last}: Area under the plasma concentration-time curve from dosing time to the time of the
397 last measurable plasma concentration

398 BPS: Bisphenol S

399 BPSG: Bisphenol S glucuronide

400 Cl: Clearance

401 Cl_F: Apparent clearance

402 V_{ss}: Steady state volume of distribution

403 MRT: Mean Residence Time

404 NA: not applicable

405 **Figure captions**

406

407 Figure 1: Semi-logarithmic plots of the plasma concentrations (μM) of BPS and BPSG versus
408 time (h) in rats (n=15) following IV administration of BPS at 5 mg/kg.

409

410 Figure 2: Allometric scaling plot for BPS plasma clearance (Cl). Data were obtained in rats
411 (open circle), piglets (closed circle), non-pregnant sheep (open triangle), and pregnant sheep
412 (closed triangle). The continuous line represents linear regression analysis of all the data points.
413 The allometric equation is provided and the open square indicates where a 70-kg BW adult
414 human falls with the corresponding equation.