

## A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF ALUMINIUM PHOSPHIDE POISONING

Omid MEHRPOUR<sup>1,2</sup>, Mostafa JAFARZADEH<sup>3</sup>, and Mohammad ABDOLLAHI<sup>4</sup>

*Department of Clinical Toxicology<sup>1</sup>, Medical Toxicology and Drug Abuse Research Center<sup>2</sup>, Birjand University of Medical Sciences (BUMS), Birjand, Department of Forensic Medicine and Toxicology, Faculty of Medicine<sup>3</sup>, Faculty of Pharmacy, and Pharmaceutical Sciences Research Center<sup>4</sup>, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran*

Received in December 2011

CrossChecked in December 2011

Accepted in February 2012

Every year, about 300,000 people die because of pesticide poisoning worldwide. The most common pesticide agents are organophosphates and phosphides, aluminium phosphide (AIP) in particular. AIP is known as a suicide poison that can easily be bought and has no effective antidote. Its toxicity results from the release of phosphine gas as the tablet gets into contact with moisture. Phosphine gas primarily affects the heart, lungs, gastrointestinal tract, and kidneys. Poisoning signs and symptoms include nausea, vomiting, restlessness, abdominal pain, palpitation, refractory shock, cardiac arrhythmias, pulmonary oedema, dyspnoea, cyanosis, and sensory alterations. Diagnosis is based on clinical suspicion, positive silver nitrate paper test to phosphine, and gastric aspirate and viscera biochemistry. Treatment includes early gastric lavage with potassium permanganate or a combination with coconut oil and sodium bicarbonate, administration of charcoal, and palliative care. Specific therapy includes intravenous magnesium sulphate and oral coconut oil. Moreover, acidosis can be treated with early intravenous administration of sodium bicarbonate, cardiogenic shock with fluid, vasopressor, and refractory cardiogenic shock with intra-aortic balloon pump or digoxin. Trimetazidine may also have a useful role in the treatment, because it can stop ventricular ectopic beats and bigeminy and preserve oxidative metabolism. This article reviews the epidemiological, toxicological, and clinical/pathological aspects of AIP poisoning and its management.

**KEY WORDS:** *human poisoning, mechanism of toxicity, phosphine, phosphides, pesticides*

Aluminium phosphide (AIP) is a well known, highly effective outdoor and indoor insecticide and rodenticide. It is readily available in Asian markets such as India. Although its use has been banned in Iran, it is still used to protect rice (hence the local name "rice tablet") and stored grains from rodents and other household pests.

Moisture in the air mixes with phosphide grains and sets off phosphine (hydrogen phosphide, phosphorus trihydride,  $\text{PH}_3$ ), which is the active form of the pesticide. Tablets, pellets, or compressed discs contain phosphide and other substances such as ammonium carbonate. If it comes into contact with an acid,

phosphine is released even more vigorously. Two kinds of acute poisoning have been reported: indirect inhalation of phosphine released during approved use or direct ingestion of metal phosphides (1, 2).

In an autopsy study of unnatural deaths in Northwest India (1), AIP was found to be the most common suicidal poison, causing 68.4 % of total deaths due to poisoning between 1992 and 2002. This epidemic of suicidal AIP poisoning has also been confirmed by Gupta and Ahlawat (2). Between 1977 and 1987, barbiturates (33.3 %), organophosphates (23.8 %), and copper sulphate (14.3 %) were the most common causes of death by poisoning and between 1987 and

1997 they were replaced by organophosphates (45 %) and AIP (26.5 %). Since 1992, AIP has taken over the lead (80 %). The incidence of suicidal deaths increased from 10.9 % in 1987 to 1992 to 15.7 % between 1997 and 2002, with a peak incidence of 18.2% in 1992 to 1997, when AIP became available on the free market. Of all fatal poisonings, suicidal and accidental between 1987 and 1997, AIP accounted for 26.5 %. The rate of AIP poisonings in Iran is also high; of 471 cases reported between 2000 and 2007, 146 (31 %) were fatal (3), which is even more serious considering that AIP has been banned for marketing in Iran. In the European countries such as UK, however, AIP is available in the form of tablets, but supply is restricted under the 1998 Pesticides Act to qualified users (4). In the European countries suicides by AIP ingestion are rare and have been reported in Denmark (5), Germany (6), France (7), and the UK (4).

AIP as a solid fumigant may be synthesised as dark gray or dark yellow crystals and can take the form of tablets, pellets, granules, or dust. It is marketed as dark grey 3 g tablets consisting of AIP (56 %) and carbamate (44 %), under the brand names such as Celphos, Alphos, Quickphos, Phosfume, Phostoxin, Talunex, Degesch, Synfume, Chemfume, Phostek, and Delicia (8). Phosphine gas has a foul odour resembling decaying fish or garlic because of substituted phosphines and diphosphines.

Ready availability of this fumigant insecticide in Asian countries makes it an important public health concern, especially because no specific treatment or antidote is available. The survival rate is low, but updating knowledge of health professionals and general public may help reduce the risk of poisoning (9).

## RESEARCH

We looked up the terms aluminium, aluminium phosphide, and phosphine in bibliographical databases such as the TUMS digital library, Pubmed, Scopus, and Google Scholar. This review includes relevant articles published between 1990 and 2011.

### *Epidemiology*

Every year, about 300,000 deaths due to pesticide poisoning are reported worldwide (10). Most reports of acute pesticide poisoning are based on hospital admission records and reflect only a fraction of the real incidence. Most reports of AIP poisoning refer to

the young adult population from rural Asian areas (4). In Asia, about 25 million agricultural workers report an episode of poisoning every year (11). In a study conducted in Tehran, Shadnia et al. (3) found that of 77,958 poisonings, 471 people were poisoned with AIP, of whom 146 (31 %) died. This makes AIP a major concern in the Iranian population (3, 12).

Of 188 cases of phosphine poisoning reported in Germany between 1983 and 2003, 28 % were intentional, mostly by ingestion, which ended in two fatalities, whereas 65 % were accidental, mostly by inhalation, due to inappropriate self-protection from the released gas, which resulted in only transient gastrointestinal (GI) and respiratory symptoms (13). In the UK, the majority of 93 AIP poisonings reported to the National Poisons Information Service between 1997 and 2003 were accidental and concerned limited exposure to phosphine gas in agricultural locations (4). Only one fatal outcome was reported in this case series.

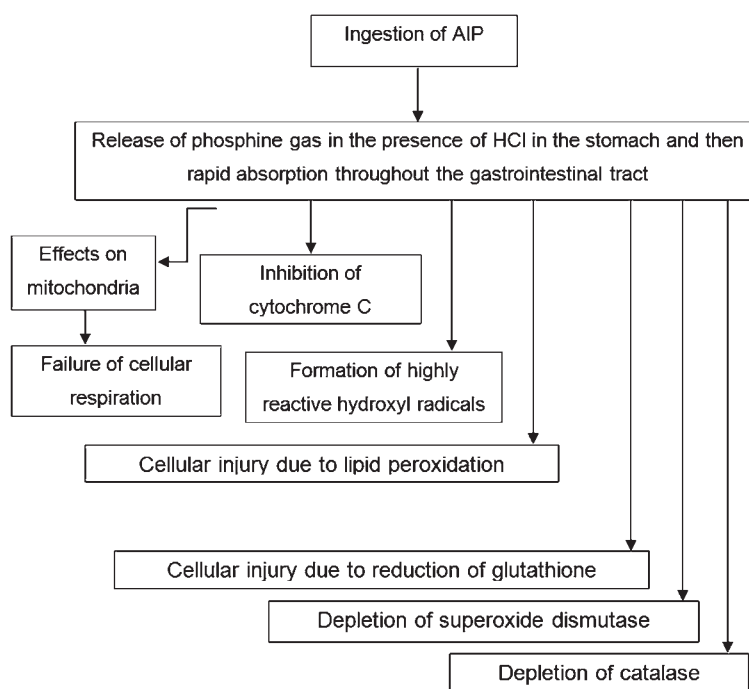
### *Mechanism of action*

The exact mechanism of action of AIP is still unknown. However some initial studies on different animals showed that phosphine mainly binds cytochrome oxidase and changes the valences of the haem component of haemoglobin (14). It also induces oxidative stress and boosts extra-mitochondrial release of free oxygen radicals (15) that results in lipid peroxidation and protein denaturation of the cell membrane (16, 17) in various organs. Abdollahi et al. (18) believe that oxidative stress is one of the main mechanisms of action of AIP toxicity that is somehow similar to that of organophosphate (OP) compounds. Furthermore, AIP reduces glutathione, which is one of the main antioxidant defences. In fact, AIP and OP alike cause a toxic stress that is accompanied by changes in glucose metabolism (19, 20). Al-Azzawi et al. (21) showed that *in vitro* exposure to phosphine leads to reduction of human serum cholinesterase activity, depending on the duration and phosphine concentration. On the other hand, some studies found no change in erythrocyte cholinesterase activity in accidental phosphine inhalation cases (22).

Figure 1 shows a plausible mechanism of AIP toxicity.

### *Toxicokinetics*

Judging by the rapid systemic toxicity, phosphine is quickly absorbed after oral ingestion. Phosphine is



**Figure 1** The mechanisms of AIP toxicity.

released as soon as AIP or other phosphide salts get in contact with hydrochloric acid of the stomach (23).

*In vitro* studies (24-27) suggest that phosphides are absorbed as microscopic particles of unhydrolysed salt that permanently interact with free haemoglobin and haemoglobin in intact erythrocytes (rat and human) to produce a haemichrome (a methaemoglobin derivative resulting from distorted protein conformation). In addition, Potter et al. (26) report that Heinz bodies (denatured haemoglobin aggregates) are formed when phosphide concentration *in vitro* exceeds  $1.25 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ .

Reports of *in vivo* phosphide poisoning showed intravascular complications such as haemolysis and methaemoglobinaemia, which support the involvement of erythrocytes in the biotransformation of phosphine in humans (24). Phosphine is excreted in the urine as hypophosphite and is also exhaled in the unchanged form (8).

#### Organ toxicity

The lethal dose of AIP is around 0.5 g. Those who survived had either taken a very small amount, the tablet expired or phosphine gas evaporated because the tablet had been exposed to air. AIP poisoning

affects most of the organs. Early symptoms include nausea, vomiting, retrosternal and epigastric pain, dyspnoea, anxiety, agitation, and garlic breath (28-30). The early signs of fatal toxicity (90 % to 100 %) are shock and peripheral circulatory failure (31). Histopathological changes such as central venous congestion, degeneration of hepatocytes, and mononuclear infiltration are usually seen in the liver of poisoned patients. Furthermore, Mehrpour et al. (23) report alveolar thickening and dilated capillaries in the lung, degeneration of Nissl granule in the brain cytoplasm, degenerated eccentric nucleus in the cortex, and congestion within glomerulus and intraparenchymal part of the kidney.

#### Gastrointestinal toxicity

The early gastrointestinal symptoms of AIP ingestion include haematemesis, vomiting and epigastric pain. Endoscopy reveals corrosive lesions of the oesophagus and stomach, severe gastric erosions, duodenal erosions, and oesophageal strictures or fistula. Dysphagia is a common late complication (32-36). In our previous study, we described a family (a 35-year-old woman with her 18-year-old daughter and a 6-year-old son) who were accidentally poisoned with phosphine gas. They all

had intensive abdominal pain, hyperglycaemia, hypotension, and severe thirst, and the boy died because of cardiopulmonary arrest before admission to the hospital (37).

A case of benign oesophagobronchial fistula secondary to AIP poisoning in a 17-year-old boy was reported recently. The patient presented with acute dysphagia and severe cough following every swallow of either a liquid or solid five to six days after AIP tablet ingestion (38).

In another report (39), dysphagia was observed in 38.87 % of survivors after a mean interval of 38.6 days from the day of AIP poisoning. Oesophageal strictures were seen in 32.2 % of the survivors. Two patients reported a tracheo-oesophageal fistula 20 cm to 22 cm from the incisors (39).

#### *Hepatic toxicity*

Jaundice as a clinical and laboratory indicator of liver damage is sometimes observed, but reports are controversial (31). Jaundice can even be a manifestation of another disturbances such as intravascular haemolysis (29). A more common finding is transient elevation of serum aspartate and alanine aminotransferase (40-43). The main histopathological findings in the liver at autopsy of fatal phosphine poisoning include cytoplasmic vacuolisation of hepatocytes and sinusoidal congestion. Nuclear fragmentation and sinusoidal clusters of polymorphonuclear leukocytes in the liver were also reported (44).

#### *Respiratory toxicity*

Tachypnoea, dyspnoea, crepitations and rhonchi are common signs of respiratory toxicity. Respiratory distress syndrome and other types of pulmonary oedema are common in adults, accompanied by protein-rich or haemorrhagic pleural effusions (2, 31, 45-47).

#### *Cardiac toxicity*

Post-mortem reports of cardiac toxicity include heart failure (6), profound and refractory hypotension (42), heart congestion, subendocardial infarction or pericarditis, separation of myocardial fibres by oedema, fragmentation of the fibres, non-specific vacuolation of myocytes, focal necrosis, and neutrophil and eosinophil infiltration (41, 48, 49). Other signs and symptoms include, increased left ventricle, hypokinesia of the left ventricle and septum, akinesia,

lower ejection fraction, severe hypotension, raised systemic venous pressure, normal pulmonary artery wedge pressure, inadequate systemic vasoconstriction, and electrocardiographic (ECG) abnormalities (2, 50-52) such as dysrhythmia, ST-T wave changes and conduction defects. Sinus tachycardia dominates in the first three to six hours of poisoning, followed by ST-T changes and conduction disturbances between hour 6 and twelve, and then by arrhythmias (49). Siwach et al. (53) found ventricular tachycardia in 40 %, ventricular fibrillation in 23.3 %, supraventricular tachycardia in 46.7 %, and atrial flutter/fibrillation in 20 % of AIP-poisoned patients.

#### *Electrolyte and metabolic abnormalities*

Hypokalaemia (primary or secondary to vomiting), metabolic acidosis or mixed metabolic acidosis, respiratory alkalosis, and acute renal failure have often been reported (24). Hyperkalaemia, hypo- and hypernatraemia have also been observed in AIP poisoning, and these changes were associated with a higher mortality rate (54).

In experimental models, AIP may alter glucose homeostasis; it significantly decreases plasma glucose in AIP-treated rats (55) and horses (56). Hypoglycaemia has also been reported in other studies (40, 57-59). Some studies have reported a hyperglycaemic effect of AIP (9, 37, 60) and some suggested that hyperglycaemia may be an important prognostic factor in AIP poisoning (61, 62), although not specific for AIP alone (20). In our earlier study, blood glucose was significantly higher in people who died of AIP poisoning than in those who survived (61). Controversial findings of blood sugar may reflect a wide variety of changes in magnesium, calcium, phosphate, citrate, and cortisol levels (60). Some studies reported increased blood magnesium in AIP poisoning (31, 52, 63) and other reported hypomagnesaemia (64-67). Moreover, some studies (68, 69) found no change in blood magnesium. These differences between reports may also point to differences between analytical methods used.

Mehrpour et al. (23) have also reported that arrested oxidative phosphorylation and poor tissue perfusion may lead to lactic acidosis.

#### *Other effects*

Hepatitis, pancreatitis, acute adrenocortical insufficiency, acute tubular necrosis, and disseminated intravascular coagulation are less common findings



in AIP poisoning (24). Refractory shock may result in cerebral anoxia that usually presents itself as drowsiness, delirium, and coma. Another uncommon sign is methaemoglobinaemia (27, 70).

There are interesting reports about spontaneous ignition and burns that occurred after oral poisoning with AIP (71-73). Phosphine gas is inflammable, depending on temperature and pressure. The absolute limit of flammability for phosphine in air is 1.8 % (17.9 mg mm<sup>-3</sup>). When this limit is exceeded, phosphine can explode. Diphosphine, which is a product of the reaction between AIP and acid or moisture, burns spontaneously, reacting instantly with oxygen in the air, and this is one of the causes of explosions occurring during fumigation of storage grains (73). To prevent self-ignition AIP is mixed in the tablets with aluminium carbonate in the ratio 56:44, respectively (72).

#### *Sequelae in survivors?*

Only a few articles have described long-term disabilities due to AIP poisoning. Brautbar and Howard (74) described two patients, one with a long-term peripheral neuropathy, weakness and loss of sensation in the left-side extremities, severe headaches, fatigue, and dizziness and the other with the obstructive airway disease and headache (74). Kurzbauer and Kiesler (75) described a case of AIP poisoning with neurological abnormalities, such as Romberg, Rossolimo reflex on the left side, and bilateral Babinski. The neurological symptoms continued for 1.5 years post AIP exposure. Jain et al. (39) reported dysphagia, oesophageal strictures, and tracheo-oesophageal fistula in survivors a month after AIP exposure.

#### *Diagnosis of poisoning*

Although the diagnosis of AIP poisoning is often based on clinical suspicion or reports, a range of chemical and analytical tests are there to confirm it. One simple and sensitive spot test for the detection of phosphine gas in gastric fluid or breath is the silver nitrate test (76). Another test that can be performed on the gastric content is the ammonium molybdate test, which is both qualitative and quantitative (77). Gas chromatography is the most specific and sensitive method for detecting the presence of phosphine in blood/air and can detect even minute amounts of phosphine in the air (78).

Other salts of phosphide such as zinc phosphide (ZnP) are also available in some countries that have the same mechanism of toxicity as AIP, but lower human mortality (79). Analytical tests help us to distinguish between AIP and ZnP poisoning and make a more accurate prognosis of the outcome. Hydrochloric acid is added to the sample (gastric contents or tissue), the mixture is heated, ammonium chloride and ammonium hydroxide added to the filtrate, and if the resulting gelatinous precipitate is white, it indicates the presence of Al (4).

#### *Management of poisoning*

Without a specific antidote, the management of AIP poisoning is very limited, mostly supportive. It is important to diagnose it as early as possible (see above). Before starting the treatment, medical staff should protect themselves with a full-face mask and rubber gloves. In cases of inhalation poisoning, the patient should be transferred to a well-ventilated space or fresh air. Contaminated clothes should be removed, and skin and eyes washed with tap water immediately. Gastric lavage with potassium permanganate, activated charcoal+sorbitol solution, and coconut oil can be performed in the first emergency step (80). Potassium permanganate (1:10 000 solution) oxidises phosphine gas in the stomach to phosphate, and reduces the amount of lethal phosphine gas (9, 80). Although charcoal is generally used for reducing phosphine absorption in the gastrointestinal system, no study has proved its efficacy in humans.

Bajwa et al. (81) recommended extensive gastric lavage with a mixture of sodium bicarbonate solution and coconut oil. The acidic environment of the stomach stimulates the conversion of AIP to phosphine gas, and lavage with sodium bicarbonate can be helpful.

Cardiac monitoring should include blood pressure and ECG to prevent arrhythmias and maintain tissue perfusion and oxygenation. One of the most common results of AIP toxicity is myocardial injury and haemodynamic instability (82).

Another necessary step in the management of AIP poisoning is early resuscitation with fluid and vasoactive agents to control central venous pressure (CVP) or pulmonary artery wedge pressure (PAWP). Norepinephrine or phenylephrine, dopamine, and dobutamine can be used to treat hypotension and refractory shock, while anti-arrhythmic agents, DC cardioversion, and temporary pacemaker should address the arrhythmia. Intra-aortic balloon pump

(IABP) is a good way to mechanically support the heart, especially in toxic myocarditis with refractory shock (84). Trimetazidine has also proven itself effective recently in stopping ventricular ectopic beats and preserving oxidative metabolism (67). In addition, digoxin can be used to stabilise the left ventricular heart failure (82).

Early diagnosis of organ damage is another important aspect in the management, as AIP poisoning affects virtually all organs in the body. Acute lung injury may need endotracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation. Cyanosis not responding to oxygen therapy may be a sign of methaemoglobinaemia that requires therapy with intravenous methylene blue (1 % solution) in the dose of 2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of body weight over five minutes. For metabolic acidosis, intravenous sodium bicarbonate should be considered, whereas severe acidosis, volume overload or renal failure may require haemodialysis. However, haemodialysis is probably not very effective in removing phosphine (8). These new therapeutic approaches have been summarised in Table 1.

#### *Magnesium supplementation*

It is difficult to decide whether to give supplemental magnesium or not. Treatment with magnesium sulphate has been reported to reduce mortality by up to 50 % (2, 49, 65, 66). Magnesium stabilises the cell membrane and acts as an anti-oxidant. A study published in 1994 (69) compared treatments of AIP-poisoned patients and concluded that the survival rate of those who received supplemental magnesium was not significantly better than of those who did not (42 % vs. 40 %, respectively). In contrast, in another case control study (65), magnesium improved survival of patients who ingested high doses of AIP. Moreover, a recent study (84) on a rat model showed that <sup>25</sup>Mg<sup>2+</sup>-carrying nanoparticle (<sup>25</sup>MgPMC16) significantly increased blood pressure and heart rate of rats poisoned with AIP. This study also demonstrated that <sup>25</sup>MgPMC16 increased intracardiac magnesium levels, reduced lipid peroxidation, and improved mitochondrial function.

#### *Hyperinsulinaemia-euglycaemia and hyperventilation oxygenation*

Some authors propose that a combination of hyperinsulinaemia-euglycaemia and hyperventilation oxygenation is worthy of more extensive evaluation as a therapy for AIP poisoning (85).

#### *N-acetylcysteine*

Different studies in rats (86, 87) and humans (66) have revealed that *N*-acetylcysteine can help as it replenishes cellular glutathione and magnesium, in addition to its antioxidant properties. In rats exposed to AIP, *N*-acetylcysteine increased survival time and reduced myocardial oxidative injury (4).

#### *Coconut and almond oil*

There are reports of the positive clinical effects of coconut oil against AIP poisoning in humans (9, 86). Its mechanism of action is unclear, but it may form a protective layer around the gastric mucosa and prevent the absorption of phosphine gas. In addition, coconut oil may dilute HCl in the stomach and reduce the breakdown of phosphide.

Saidi and Shoajaie (88) reported that intragastric lavage with sweet almond oil considerably reduced the mortality of rats poisoned with AIP. It also significantly lowered plasma cholinesterase levels. The authors suggested that sweet almond oil should be given orally immediately after AIP ingestion, but this has yet to be confirmed in humans.

#### *Hyperbaric oxygenation*

Saidi et al. (89) found that hyperbaric oxygenation improved the survival time in rats poisoned with AIP. However, its efficacy in humans has not been investigated.

#### *Digoxin*

It has been hypothesised that treatment with digoxin (rapid digitalisation) would increase myocardial contractility and blood pressure (90), countering thus the direct effects of AIP on cardiac myocytes which lead to refractory cardiogenic shock. Mehrpour et al. (82) have recently reported about successful treatment of an 18-year-old girl who had ingested a 3 g AIP tablet. On hospital admission her blood pressure was undetectable and she had a severe left ventricular systolic dysfunction. She received dopamine (10 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>) and digoxin (0.5 mg) every six hours during the first day and continued with 0.25 mg per day on the following days. The ECG parameters became normal on day three, and she was discharged on day 10 fully recovered.

#### *Hydroxyethyl starch*

Another option for the management of AIP poisoning is hydroxyethyl starch (91). Leakage of

**Table 1** New treatment strategies for ALP poisoning

Study	Type of study	New Treatment	Other therapeutic measures	Effects	Conclusion
Mehrpour et al., 2011 (82)	Case Report	<b>Digoxin</b> 0.5 mg initially followed by 0.5 mg at 6 h intervals	Gastric decontamination with KMnO <sub>4</sub> , activated charcoal and sodium bicarbonate; administration of <i>i.v.</i> Mg sulphate and Ca gluconate	Resolved cardiogenic shock due to left ventricle failure	Administration of digoxin as an adjustment therapy can improve the outcome
Saidi et al., 2011 (89)	Experimental (Rats)	<b>Hyperbaric oxygen</b>	-	Increasing survival time	Administration of hyperbaric oxygen may be also effective in humans
Baeri et al., 2011 (84)	Experimental (Rats)	<sup>25</sup> Mg <sup>2+</sup> - <b>carrying nanoparticle</b>	Na bicarbonate (4 mmol kg <sup>-1</sup> , <i>i.v.</i> )	Increased blood pressure and heart rate; increase in antioxidant power, Mg level in the plasma and the heart; reduction in lipid peroxidation and ADP/ATP ratio	<sup>25</sup> MgPMC16 at 0.025 LD <sub>50</sub> + Na bicarbonate was the most effective combination
Saidi and Shojaie., 2011 (88)	Experimental (Rats)	Intragastric irrigation with <b>sweet almond oil</b>	-	Protective role for plasma cholinesterase inhibition in ALP poisoning, decreased mortality rate	Significant reduction of mortality
Soltaninejad et al., 2011 (95)	Case Report	<b>Vitamin C</b> (1 g at 6 h intervals, <i>i.v.</i> ) + <b>methylene blue</b> (1 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> of 1 % solution)	Supportive care, Na bicarbonate, norepinephrine, Mg sulfate, Ca gluconate	Twelve hours after treatment with vitamin C, the methaemoglobin concentration decreased from 46 % to 33 %. High doses of methylene blue, the methaemoglobin concentration decreased to 23 %	Administration of vitamin C followed by methylene blue may have a role in successful treatment of methaemoglobinaemia and haemolysis following phosphine poisoning
Bajwa et al., 2010 (81)	Case Series (33 patients)	<b>Extensive gastric lavage</b> with aliquots of 50 mL of <b>coconut oil</b> and 50 mL of <b>sodium bicarbonate solution</b> with simultaneous aspiration	Strict monitoring + Supportive treatment	Survival rate 42 %	Recommendation to intensivists and physicians to use this particular regimen of gastric decontamination

Table 1 Continuation

Study	Type of study	New Treatment	Other therapeutic measures	Effects	Conclusion
Siddaiah et al., 2009 (83)	Case Report	<b>IABP*</b>	Supportive care, inotropes and mechanical ventilation	IABP was used for cardiovascular support until the effects of AIP resolved	IABP used for treatment of cardiogenic shock due to AIP poisoning can improve the outcome
Azad et al., 2011 (96)	Experimental (Rats)	<b>NAC**</b> (6.25 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> min <sup>-1</sup> , i. v. for 30 min)		Significantly increased survival time, stabilization of blood pressure and heart rate, decreased MDA ***level and increased GSH Px**** levels	NAC increased the survival time by reducing myocardial oxidative injury
Azad et al., 2011 (96)	Experimental (Rats)	<b>L-NAME*****</b> : (1 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> min <sup>-1</sup> , i. v. for 60 min)		Significant rise in blood pressure but precipitated ECG abnormalities. Pre- and post-treatment of L-NAME with AIP neither improved the survival time nor the biochemical parameters despite significant rise in blood pressure	L-NAME showed no protective effects in rats exposed to AIP
Mitra et al., 2001 (97)	Experimental (Rats)	<b>Atropine</b> (1 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> , intra peritoneal) + <b>pralidoxime</b> (5 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> , intra peritoneal) administered five minutes after AIP exposure	-	Increased survival time. Plasma cholinesterase levels were inhibited in rats poisoned with AIP as compared to controls	Atropine and pralidoxime can increase survival time
Dueñas et al., 1999 (67)	Case Report	Oral dose of 20 mg trimetazidine twice daily	Mg sulphate intravenously at 3 g over 30 min	Resolved dysrhythmia due to AIP poisoning after 48 h [ventricular premature complexes (>600 h <sup>-1</sup> ) with periods of bigeminy]	Ventricular dysrhythmias were treated solely with oral trimetazidine resulting in rapid disappearance of all electrocardiographic abnormalities

\***IABP**: Intra-aortic Balloon Pump\*\***NAC**: N-Acetylcysteine\*\*\***MDA**: Malonyldialdehyde\*\*\*\***GSH Px**: Glutathione peroxidase\*\*\*\*\***L-NAME**: N-omega-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester



fluids from intravascular to extravascular space that leads to a strong refractory hypotension is one of the post-mortem findings in AIP poisoning. Hydroxyethyl starch remains in the intravascular space as a colloid rather than as a crystalloid and thus reduces the extravascular leak of albumin and fluids (91). However, no experiment has yet investigated the use of starch in the management of AIP poisoning.

#### *Prognosis of AIP poisoning*

The mortality in adults who have ingested 500 mg of AIP or over is between 30 % and 100 %. The higher the blood phosphine, the higher the mortality. Patients having blood phosphine levels equal to or less than  $1.067 \pm 0.16$  mg survived, and this dose seems to be the lethal threshold of phosphine toxicity (92). Survival may increase if a very small amount of AIP is ingested or the tablet has expired or was exposed to air (12). Vomiting and early supportive care also increase the survival rate (8).

Poor prognosis is indicated by hyperglycaemia, high simplified acute physiology score (SAPS II), hypotension, acidosis, leukocytosis, hyperuraemia, ECG abnormalities, high acute physiology and chronic health evaluation score (APACHE II), low Glasgow coma scale, acute renal failure, low prothrombin rate, hyperleukocytosis, methaemoglobinaemia, use of vasoactive drugs, lack of vomiting after ingestion, and use of mechanical ventilation (4, 61, 70, 93, 94).

To conclude, acute AIP poisoning is a worldwide problem. The understanding of its mechanisms of toxicity and clinical effects has improved in the recent years. An antidote proper for phosphine poisoning is still unavailable. A number of possibilities for treatment have been tried out or experimented with, but they all need further validation (see Table 1). Meanwhile, preventive measures might help to control the risk of poisoning in humans such as limited access to phosphide compounds, regulations to ban its use as a pesticide, and keeping health professionals abreast with the latest knowledge about early management of phosphide poisoning.

#### *Acknowledgment*

This review has been written upon an invitation to Professor Mohammad Abdollahi by the *Archives of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology*. The paper is the outcome of an in-house, financially unsupported study.

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### **Sažetak**

#### **SUSTAVNI PREGLED OTROVANJA ALUMINIJEVIM FOSFIDOM**

Svake godine u svijetu oko 300.000 ljudi umre od trovanja pesticidima. Najčešći pesticidni spojevi su organofosfati i fosfidi, ponajviše aluminijev fosfid. On je poznat kao otrov samoubojica, jer ga je lako nabaviti, a nema djelotvornoga protuotrova. Toksičnost duguje otpuštanju fosfinskoga plina u trenutku kada tableta dođe u dodir s vlažnim okruženjem. Fosfinski plin ponajviše djeluje na srce, pluća, probavni sustav i bubrege. Znakovi i simptomi trovanja obuhvaćaju mučninu, povraćanje, uznemirenost, bol u trbuhu, lupanje srca, refraktorni šok, srčane aritmije, plućni edem, dispneju, cijanozu i osjetilne promjene. Dijagnoza se zasniva na kliničkom opažanju, pozitivnom nalazu testa na fosfin sa srebrnim nitratom, aspiratu iz želuca te biokemiji crijeva. Otkrije li se rano, liječenje obuhvaća ispiranje želuca kalijevim permanganatom, odnosno kombinacijom kokosova ulja i natrijeva bikarbonata, aktivni ugljen te palijativnu skrb. Usmjerenije liječenje obuhvaća intravensku primjenu magnezijeva sulfata i kokosova ulja. Korisnim se može pokazati liječenje acidoze ranom intravenskom primjenom natrijeva bikarbonata i liječenje srčanoga šoka odgovarajućom tekućinom i vazopresorom te refraktornog šoka, intraaortalnim balonom odnosno digoksinom.

Korisnim se može pokazati i trimetazidin, budući da sprječava ventrikularne ekstrasistole i bigeminiju te čuva oksidativni metabolizam. Ovaj članak donosi pregled različitih vidova trovanja aluminijevim fosfidom, uključujući njegovu epidemiologiju, toksičnost, kliničke znakove i simptome te medicinsku obradu.

**KLJUČNE RIJEČI:** *fosfin, pesticidi, toksičnost, trovanje*

#### **CORRESPONDING AUTHOR:**

Mohammad Abdollahi  
Faculty of Pharmacy, and Pharmaceutical Sciences  
Research Center  
Tehran University of Medical Sciences (TUMS),  
Tehran 1417614411, Iran  
E-mail: [Mohammad.abdollahi@utoronto.ca](mailto:Mohammad.abdollahi@utoronto.ca)