Cadmium acts as a silent killer of liver by inducing oxidative stress and hepatocellular injury and a possible amelioration by vitamin B_{12} and folic acid in rat model

Banerjee A. A-F, Nandi P. B,E, Bhattacharya C. D-E, Kabir Z. D-E, Mukherjee S. A,E, Maji BK. A,C,D,E,F*

Department of Physiology (UG & PG), Serampore College, 9 William Carey Road, Serampore, West Bengal, India.

A- Conception and study design; **B** - Collection of data; **C** - Data analysis; **D** - Writing the paper;

 $E ext{-}$ Review article; $F ext{-}$ Approval of the final version of the article; $G ext{-}$ Other (please specify)

ABSTRACT

Purpose: To investigate the involvement of oxidative stress in Cadmium (Cd) induced alteration in the functional status of the liver. And to assess the efficacy of folic acid and vitamin B_{12} in preventing Cd-induced damage in the same.

Materials and methods: The experiment was carried out for four weeks. For the experiment, 25 healthy male adult Wistar albino rats were randomly selected and were divided into five equal groups and treated as control, treated with Cd, supplemented with vitamin B_{12} and folic acid and in the combination of these two. After 28 days the liver function enzymes and oxidative stress parameters were measured.

Results: Cd is the silent killer of the hepatic system through the induction of oxidative stress in male rats. From this investigation, it is evident that the folic acid+vitamin B_{12} possess significant hepatoprotective and antioxidant activity against Cd-induced

hepatotoxicity in the rat model. In addition, results revealed that the folic acid alone and or in combination with vitamin B_{12} blunted the hepatotoxic effect significantly.

Conclusions: Based on results obtained, it can be concluded that folic acid and vitamin B_{12} offer a protective effect in Cd-induced oxidative stress associated with hepatocellular injury. Folic acid and vitamin B_{12} can be considered as a potent natural antioxidant which has the capacity to provide protection against Cd-induced oxidative stress in the liver in rats. However, to elucidate the exact mechanism of this modulatory effect and to examine its potential therapeutic effects further studies are essential.

Keywords: Cadmium, liver, hepatocellular injury, oxidative stress.

DOI

*Corresponding author:

Dr Bithin Kumar Maji Associate Professor

Department of Physiology (UG & PG), Serampore College, 9 William Carey Road, Serampore,

Hooghly-712201, West Bengal, India

Tel.: +91- 9433509890;e-mail id: bm_scp@yahoo.in;

Received: 16.03.2019 Accepted: 15.04.2019 Progress in Health Sciences Vol. 9(1) 2019 pp 105-117

© Medical University of Białystok, Poland

INTRODUCTION

Cadmium (Cd) is one of the environmental pollutants arising from electroplating, fertilizers, pigments and plastic accumulation [1]. Therefore, it can easily contaminate the soil, plant, water, air, and water. Cd is absorbed and accumulates in various tissues. Cd is considered as toxic metal that induces oxidative damage by disturbing the prooxidantantioxidant balance in the tissues. Cd poisoning can also cause bone damage and kidney failure. Cd was released into rivers by mining companies. Cd exposure has increased during the last century. Cd exposure mainly occurs by two main routes, inhalation, and ingestion. Cadmium intoxication arose in Japan, as a result, Itai-itai disease was epidemic. The major symptoms were bone and renal damage which was caused by rice which was polluted by cd. Itai-itai disease is one of the four big diseases in Japan. Excess Cd exposure may affect several organisms by their toxic action. Nowadays, we all aware of the fact that occupational and environmental cadmium exposure can result in hepatotoxicity. The liver is the main target organ of cadmium toxicity which follows both acute and chronic exposure. The mechanism by which cadmium is absorbed, transported and taken up by cells is still not fully understood. Cd is a non-essential metal because of its extensive use in industry and agriculture presents it a worldwide health hazard. Cd can be released into the atmosphere by smelting or other processes and travel long distances. Once deposited onto the ground it is taken up into the food chain by cereals and root crops. Cd is taken up more rapidly by plants than other metals such as lead and mercury. Cd can also enter the food chain via [1] environmental contamination arises from industrial emissions, soil, and contaminated food as well as smoking [2].

Cd retention is generally higher in women than men, and the severe Cd-induced Itai-itai disease is mainly a women's disease. Cigarette smoking is the most significant source of human Cd exposure. Blood and kidney Cd levels are consistently higher in smokers than non-smokers. Inhalation due to industrial exposure can be significant in occupational settings, for example, welding or soldering and can produce severe chemical pneumonitis. Different route of exposure of Cd are as follows (Table 1).

Table 1. Exposure of Cd through different routes

tract. The absorption efficiency is a function of specific Cd compound (soluble compounds are absorbed rapidly), its exposure concentration and route [3].

1. Inhalation:

Inhalation and oral ingestion are the most common routes of entry of Cd into the body. Once absorbed, Cd binds to plasma proteins, primarily albumin and two macroglobulin [4].

2. Absorption:

Absorption of Cd via inhalation is dependent on solubility and the particle size and hence the site of deposition in the respiratory tract (Risk Assessment Information System, 1991).

3. Oral:

Orally ingested Cd is absorbed from the intestine because of its suitable pH (pH-

Route of exposure and inhalation Cd is more efficiently absorbed from the lung than from gastrointestinal

6). Only 5% of the Cd is absorbed [5]. High fiber diet, lack of iron, higher intake of calcium, zinc can increase the Cd uptake, whereas low intake of calcium, zinc, vitamin D can cause lower resorption of Cd [6].
 4. Dermal: In 1991 experimented on their sorption from Cd-contaminated soil and water solutions by human cadaver skin in a diffusion cell-model. The skin showed hyperkeratosis and acanthosis with occasional ulcerative change, and an increase of the mitotic index of the skin cells. Also Cd concentration in blood, liver and kidney increased, thus indicating percutaneous absorption [7].
 5. Distribution: Cd is transported throughout the body, usually bound to a sulfhydryl group

Cd is transported throughout the body, usually bound to a sulfhydryl group containing protein like metallothionein. About 30% deposits in the liver and 30% in the kidneys, with the rest distributed throughout the body, with a clearance half-life of twenty-five years. The half life of Cd in the blood has been estimated at 75 to 128 days, but this half life primarily represents deposition in organs, not clearance from the body [8].

| Route of Excretion | | |
|------------------------|---|--|
| 1. Urinary Excretion: | Little Cd is normally excreted in the urine. The rate of excretion increases slowly | |
| | with increasing body burden, but, as renal dysfunction develops, it increases | |
| 2. Faecal Excretion: | sharply and the hepatic and renal Cd concentrations fall [9]. | |
| 2. Faecal Excretion: | The mechanism of faecal excretion may involve both sloughed mucosal cells and excretion in the bile. After an initial rapid phase, biliary excretion represents 0.02– | |
| | 0.04% of the body burden, and most is associated with a fraction of low relative | |
| | molecular mass [10]. | |
| 3. Biliary Excretion: | Biliary excretion is a complex process involving uptake into liver cells, | |
| | intracellular sequestration and/or biotransformation, and transport into bile. | |
| | Enterohepatic circulation interferes with the biliary elimination of from the body [11]. | |
| Effect of Cd on human | | |
| 1. Acute effect of Cd: | Inhalation of Cd fumes and dust may result in a wide range of effects including a | |
| | metallic taste, headache, dyspnoea, chest pain, cough pain with foamy or bloody | |
| | sputum and muscular weakness [12]. The respiratory system is affected severely | |
| | by the inhalation of Cd-contaminated air: Shortness of breath, lung edema and | |
| | destruction of mucous membranes as part of Cd-induced pneumonitis [13]. Cd exposure through oral route may cause nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, weakness etc. | |
| | [14]. | |
| Chronic effect of Cd | | |
| 1. Cardio vascular | Cd decreases excitability of cardiac conduction system, myocardial contractile | |
| system: | activity, thus decreases heart rate and impairs energy metabolism. It causes | |
| | blocking of calcium ion channels leading to congested heart failure [15]. Lowering of pulse rate velocity and pressure throughout the arterial system has also been | |
| | reported chronic ed atherosclerosis [16]. | |
| 2. Respiratory system: | The major source of inhalative Cd intoxication is cigarette smoke. The human lung | |
| | resorbs 40-60% of the Cd in tobacco smoke. Workers exposed to Cd-containing | |
| | fumes have been reported to develop acute respiratory distress syndromes [17]. | |
| 3. Excretory system: | Cd is accumulated in the proximal convoluted tubule (PCT) of kidney bound to | |
| | metallothionein and act as nephrotoxicant. It decreases PCT cell membrane fluidity and alters transport process by inhibiting Na+K+ATPase and carbonic anhydrous | |
| | resulting in glycosuria [18]. | |
| 4. Reproductive | Cd appears to interfere with the ovarian steroidogenic pathway in rats. Piasek et al. | |
| system: | evaluated the direct effects of in vitro Cd exposure on steroidogenesis in rat | |
| | ovaries. The most affected were productions of progesterone and testosterone [19]. | |
| | Low dosages of Cd are reported to stimulate ovarian progesterone biosynthesis, while high dosages inhibit it [20]. | |
| 5. Immune system: | The immune system suffers from Cd-induced impairment at several levels. | |
| v | Prenatal Cd exposure may impair postnatal T cell production and response to | |
| | immunization [21] as well as dysregulates thymocyte development [22]. Cd | |
| | induces increased rates of autoimmunity, increased production of nonspecific | |
| | antibodies, and decreased production of antigen-specific antibodies [23]. Lymphocyte proliferation and natural killer cell activity are also suppressed by Cd | |
| | [24]. Metallothionein protects against Cd immune toxicity. | |
| 6. Nervous system: | Cd plays a critical role in neurobiology; a growing number of clinical | |
| | investigations have pointed to Cd intoxication as a possible etiological factor of | |
| | neurodegenerative diseases, including Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's disease, | |
| 7. Effects on skin: | and Huntington's disease [25]. The skin showed hyperkeratosis and acanthosis with occasional ulcerative change, | |
| /. Effects off Skill. | and an increase of the mitotic index of the skin cells. Only a very high | |
| | concentration of Cd can affect the skin [7]. | |
| | | |
| | | |

| 8. Apoptosis: | Apoptosis is a genetically regulated form of cell death, which plays an important role in the development and maintenance of tissue homeostasis in multicellular organism Cell death resulting from Cd intoxication has been confirmed to occur through apoptosis by morphological and biochemical studies [26]. |
|--------------------------|--|
| 9. Haematopoetic effect: | Hematopoeisis is adversely affected, most notably in itai-itai disease where severe anaemia is observed, in association with marked suppression of erythropoietin production. Hemolysis may also be a factor in producing Cd-associated anaemia [27]. |
| 10. Oxidative stress: | Cd has been observed to cause oxidative stress and histologically visible membrane disturbances in the central nervous system [28]. |
| 11. Carcinogenicity: | The United States Environmental Protection Agency considers Cd to be a Class B1 carcinogen. There is contradictory evidence linking Cd exposure to breast cancer [29] and denying that link [30]. |

Folate, also known as folic acid, folacin, and vitamin B. The recommended daily intake of folate in the US is 400 micrograms from foods or dietary supplements. Folate in the form of folic acid is used as treatment of anaemia caused by folic acid deficiency. Folic acid is also used as a supplement by pregnant women to prevent neural tube defects (NTD) in the baby. Deficiency of folic acids in early pregnancy are believed to be the cause of more than half of babies born with neural tube defects. Long term intake may reduce the risk of stroke and cardiovascular disease. It may be taken by injection or by mouth. Cobalamin and Folic acid act as potentially very useful agent for inhibiting nitric oxide synthase and nitric oxide production i.e. ROS production, controlling nuclear factor-kappa β activation, elevation of GSH/GSSG ratio, and down regulation of active caspase-3 expression. Thus, vitamin B₁₂ and folic acid may be considered as antioxidant. Lack of either vitamin B 12 or folic acid or both can be the cause of megaloblastic anaemia. Nicotine users tend to have lower levels of the folic acid and vitamin B₁₂ and both of which affect homocysteine levels by acting as co-enzyme. Vitamin B₁₂ might help protect our body and organisms against chronic disease and neural tube defects, but more research, particularly in the area of nutritional genomics, is needed to determine how vitamin B₁₂ might augment the benefits of folic acid. Some consideration should be given to the potential value of fortifying foods with vitamin B₁₂ in addition to the current mandatory folic acid fortification of grains. Folate (vitamin B₉) is an essential nutrient that is required for DNA replication and as a substrate for a range of enzymatic reactions involved in amino acid synthesis and vitamin metabolism. Folic polyglutamate, the principal dietary form of folate, consists of folic acid bound to one to six glutamic acid residues in a gamma peptide linkage. Folic acid absorption is an active process that occurs primarily in the duodenum and jejunum. Following absorption, folic acid present in human and canine portal blood is not methylated,

although methylation may occur later in the liver following reduction [31]. Folic acid is distributed into milk [32]. Folate is excreted in the urine as folate cleavage products. Intact folate enters the glomerulus and is reabsorbed into the proximal renal tubule. Very little intact folate is excreted in the urine. Folate is excreted in the bile and much of it is reabsorbed via the enterohepatic circulation [33].

Folic acid is converted (in the presence of ascorbic acid) in the liver and plasma to its metabolically active form (tetrahydrofolic acid) by dihydrofolatereductase [34].

It has been proposed that folic acid has many beneficial effects on human body, such as anti-carcinogenic effect [35] cardio-protective effect [36], anti-depressive effect [37], reno-protective effect [38], free radical scavenging properties and antioxidant activity [39], neuro-protective effect [40], hepato-protective effect [41], etc. A folate-rich diet can reverse age-related changes in T-cell proliferation and cytokine production in rats [42].

Vitamin B_{12} is a water-soluble vitamin that is naturally present in some foods, added to others, and available as a dietary supplement and a prescription medication. Vitamin B_{12} exists in several forms and contains the mineral cobalt [43] so compounds with vitamin B_{12} activity are collectively called "cobalamins".

Methyl- B_{12} is absorbed by two processes. The first is an intestinal mechanism using intrinsic factor through which 1-2 micrograms can be absorbed every few hours. The second is a diffusion process by which approximately 1% of the remainder is absorbed. The human physiology of vitamin B_{12} is complex, and therefore is prone to mishaps leading to vitamin B_{12} deficiency [44]. Vitamin B_{12} is distributed into the liver, bone marrow, and other tissues, including the placenta. Vitamin B_{12} is secreted in bile and reabsorbed via the enterohepatic circulation by ileal receptors which require if the development of vitamin B_{12} deficiency is likely to be more rapid in patients

with pernicious anaemia. Vitamin B_{12} is excreted via the faeces. It is estimated that daily vitamin B_{12} loss are in proportion to body stores with approximately 0.1% excreted per day [45].

Vitamin B_{12} is believed to be converted to coenzyme form in the liver and is probably stored in tissues in this form [32].

It has been proposed that vitamin B_{12} has so many beneficial effects on human body, such as lung protective effect [46] cardio-protective effect, hepatoprotective effect [47], etc. Researchers have long been interested in the potential connection between vitamin B_{12} deficiency and dementia [48].

Vitamin B_{12} has various effects on biological processes in vivo. It is well known that megaloblastic anaemia and peripheral nerve disturbances are caused by lack of vitamin B_{12} in the immune system, an important role of vitamin B_{12} has been reported [49].

Folates and vitamin B_{12} have fundamental roles in the central nervous system (CNS) function at all ages. Folic acid and vitamin B_{12} may have roles in the prevention of disorders of CNS development, mood disorders, and dementias, including Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia in elderly people [40].

Oxidative stress is a feature of many chronic inflammatory diseases. Such diseases are associated with up regulation of a vitamin B_{12} blood transport protein and its membrane receptor, suggesting a link between cobalamin and the cellular response to inflammation. The ability of cobalamin to regulate inflammatory cytokines suggests that it may have antioxidative properties [50].

The aim of the present study is therefore to investigate the involvement of oxidative stress in Cd-induced alteration in the functional status of the liver and to assess the efficacy of folic acid and vitamin B_{12} in preventing Cd-induced damage in this organ.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental animals:

Eight weeks of old male albino rats (Wister strain) of body weight 120-140 g were used for the study.

The rats were acclimatized in the experimental animal house for 7 days before the commencement of experiment.

The animals housed in stainless steel cages under standard laboratory condition of temperature (25±2°C) and humidity (55±5%) and in 12 hours lightdark cycle schedule with free access to water supply.

Animals were fed with normal rat pellets. A standard diet containing approximately 130 mmol/kg sodium, 160 mmol/kg potassium, 23% protein and 5% fat. All the rats were allowed free access to food and water and ad libitium, throughout the experimental period.

Good hygiene was maintained by constant cleaning and removal of faeces and spilled feed from the cages daily.

All the experiments were performed according to the ethical guidelines suggested by the Institutional Animals Ethics Committee (IAEC)

Experimental design: The experiment was carried out for four weeks. For the experiment, 25 healthy male adult Wistar albino rats were randomly selected and were divided into five equal groups (n=5) and treated as follows (Table 2).

The animals of all groups were provided with a control diet composed of 71 % carbohydrate, 18% protein/ 7% fat and 4% salt mixture [51].

Table 2. Experimental design

| Group/s | Supplied material/s and concentration/s |
|-------------------|--|
| Group A (Control) | Received Normal saline 10 ml/kg body weight/day, orally. |
| Group B | Cd treated group (Cd) at 1 mg/ kg body wt. i.p. |
| Group C | Cd + Folic acid (36μg/kg body wt. orally) treated group. |
| Group D | Cd+Vitamin B_{12} (0.63 $\mu g/kg$ body wt. orally) treated group. |
| Group E | Cd + Folic acid + Vitamin B ₁₂ treated group. |

Preparation of Cd chloride solution: Cd was administered to rats in the form of Cd chloride (CdCl₂). Thus, 25 mg of anhydrous CdCl₂ was dissolved in 50 ml of distilled water (1 mg/kg body wt.) [52].

Preparation of Folic acid solution: 0.1 ml of stock folic acid solution (STOCK=0.5 mg in 0.1 ml) was mixed with 49.9 ml of distilled water (36µg/kg body wt.) [53].

Preparation of Vitamin B₁₂ **solution:** 0.1 ml of stock vitamin B₁₂ solution (STOCK=0.0125 mg in 0.1 ml) was mixed with 49.9 ml of distilled water (0.63 μ g/kg body wt.) [53].

Animal Treatment: After acclimatization to laboratory environment, the animals of the control group (A) received the vehicle (0.9% NaCl) only. The animals of the Cd treated groups were administered Cd chloride intraperitoneally (i.p.) at a dose of 1mg/kg body weight per day for a period of 28 days.

The animals of the Cd + folic acid treated group (Cd+F.A) were administered Cd chloride i.p. at a dose of 1mg/kg body weight and were administered folic acid orally at a dose of 36µg/kg body weight per day for a period of 28 days.

The animals of Cd + vitamin B_{12} treated group (Cd + Vit. B_{12}) were administered Cd chloride i.p. at a dose of 1mg/kg body weight and were administered vitamin B $_{12}$ orally at a dose of $0.63\mu g/kg$ body weight per day for a period of 28 days.

The animals of the Cd+ folic acid + Vitamin B_{12} treated group (Cd+F.A.+Vit.B $_{12}$) were administered Cd chloride i.p. at a dose of 1mg/kg body weight and were administered folic acid orally at a dose of 36µg/kg body weight and were administered Vitamin B_{12} orally at a dose of 0.63 µg/kg body weight per day for a period of 28 days.

Blood collection, serum preparation and tissue collection: After the experimental period is over (day-29), the animals of all groups were anaesthetized and sacrificed by cervical dislocation, which is one of the recommended physical methods of euthanasia by the IAEC.

Blood was drawn from heart and serum was separated for the biochemical assay; liver was collected for the analysis of enzymatic and nonenzymatic antioxidants and various biochemical parameters and histopathological study.

Preparation of Tissue extract: Liver was isolated from all animals for estimation of enzymatic and nonenzymatic antioxidant and oxidative stress biomarkers. 250 mg of each tissue was placed in ice cold phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) and homogenized immediately in a glass homogenizing tube equipped with a Teflon pestle [54].

Evaluation of Oxidative Stress parameters

Estimation of lipid peroxidation (**LPO**): LPO was detected by measuring thiobarbituric acid reactive substance (TBARS). Absorbance was measured at 530nm [55].

Results were expressed as mM/mg protein.

Estimation of antioxidant enzymes

Superoxide dismutase (SOD):

The nitrobluetetrazolium (NBT) method of Beauchamp and Fridovich, which is based on the inhibition of NBT reduction by SOD, was used for the determination of SOD activities [57]. Absorbance of blue formazan was recorded at 560 nm and 25 °C. Results were expressed as U/mg protein.

Catalase (CAT): Catalase activity was determined according to the of Beer's method [58]. Absorbance of blue formazan was recorded at 240 nm and 25 °C. Results were expressed as U/mg protein.

Estimation of Glutathione (GSH): GSH was estimated according to the method of Ellman (1959). Results were expressed as mM/mg protein [59].

Estimation of Protein: Protein in the homogenate of liver tissue was estimated by the method of Lowry [60] using bovine serum albumin (BSA) as standard.

Histopathological examinations: After the experimental period is over (day 29), liver from all groups of animals were selectively taken and were fixed in Formol reagents. Paraffin blocks were prepared and 5 μ m thin sections were cut by using rotary microtome and routine microscopic slides were prepared and stained with haematoxylin and eosin and finally mounted in DPX. Stained slides were light microscopically examined for changes if any and their photomicrographs were taken.

Statistical analysis: Data were expressed as Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric Mean SE. ANOVA test was performed to find whether or not scores of different groups differ significantly. To test inter-group significant difference, Mann-Whitney U multiple comparison test performed to find correlation between the study variables. Statdirect 3.0 was used for statistical analysis. Differences were considered significant if p < 0.05.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Cd has been linked with altered liver metabolism and liver damage. ALT (Alanine transaminase), AST (Aspartate transaminase) and ALP (Alkaline phosphatase) are considered among the most sensitive markers of hepatocellular injury.

Results of our study (Figure 1) indicate that folic acid and vitamin B_{12} administration could blunt

Cd induced increase in activities of different marker enzymes of hepatocellular injury, viz. ALT (p<0.01), AST (p<0.05) and ALP (p<0.01), suggesting that folic acid and vitamin B_{12} possibly has a protective influence against Cd induced hepatocellular injury and degenerative changes.

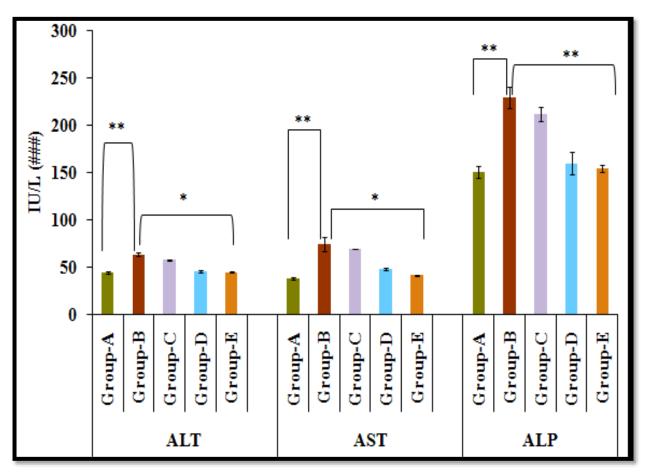


Figure 1: Effect of folic acid (36µg/kg body weight/day for a period of 28 days, orally) and vitamin B_{12} (0.63 µg/kg body weight/ day for a period of 28 days, i.p.) induced changes in liver functional enzymes on male rat model. Error bar represent mean \pm S.E (n=5). Significance level based on Kruskal Wallis test [###p <0.001]. Significance based on Mann-Whitney U multiple comparison test: Group A vs Group B:**p<0.01, Group B vs Group C/D/E: **p<0.05

LPO is a major indicator of oxidative damage initiated by ROS (reactive oxygen species) and causes impairment of membrane function.

The increase in LPO observed in this study may be attributed to a direct effect of increased generation of ROS resulting from Cd treatment.

In our study, Cd significantly (p<0.001) induce LPO and NO and also significantly (P<0.001)

reduce the level of GSH, SOD and CAT in the liver of the experimental animals (Figure 2).

Administration of folic acid and vitamin B_{12} alone and both in combination increase the activity of SOD, CAT, GSH and reduce the LPO and NO activity significantly (p<0.01) suggests that the folic acid and vitamin B_{12} have an efficient protective activity in response to ROS. These finding also indicate that folic acid and vitamin B_{12} may be associated with decreased

oxidative stress and free radical mediated tissue damage and to prevent the accumulation of excessive free radicals and protect liver from Cd induced damage.

Histological findings are also discussed in the following diagram (Figure 3).

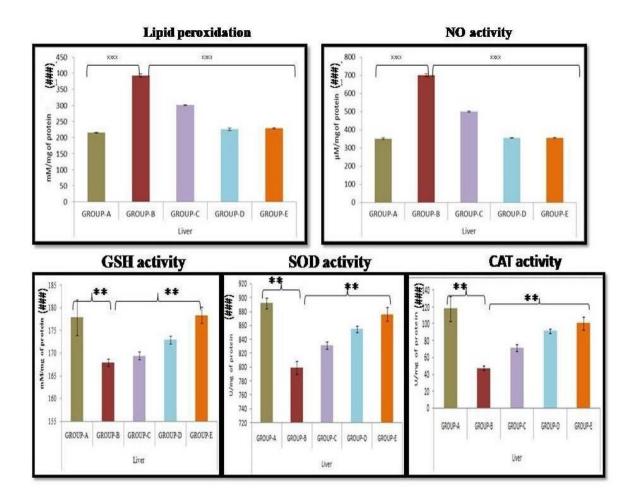


Figure 2: Effect of folic acid $(36\mu g/kg)$ body weight/day for a period of 28 days, orally) and vitamin B_{12} (0.63 $\mu g/kg$ body weight/ day for a period of 28 days, orally) on cadmium (1mg/kg body weight/day for a period of 28 days, i.p.) induced changes in oxidative stress parameters on male rat model. Error bar represent mean \pm S.E (n=5). Significance level based on Kruskal Wallis test [###p <0.001]. Significance based on Mann-Whiteny U multiple comparison test: Group A vs Group B:**p<0.01, Group B vs Group C/D/E: ***p<0.01.

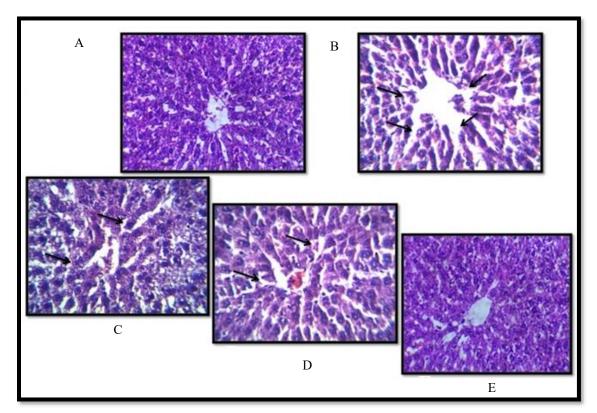


Figure 3: Effect of Cd on histopathological changes in rat liver

- **A.** Representative section from control rat, normal architecture of the liver was observed.
- **B.** Representative section from rat treated with Cd typical characteristics of injury are seen disorganization of normal radiating pattern of cell plates around central vein, showing disruption (marked by the arrow) of cords and sinusoidal network with degenerative changes in the form of atrophy of cells and disintegration of nuclei, ruptured endothelial lining which was invaded by lymphocytic infiltration and few inflammatory cells, hemorrhage increased vacuolation.
- **C.** Representative section from rat treated with Cd+folic acid: gradually improve the pattern of the central vein and radiating pattern of cell plates.
- **D.** Representative section from rat treated with Cd+ vitamin B₁₂: Normal pattern of the central vein and radiating pattern of cell plates.
- **E.** Representative section from rat treated with Cd+folic acid+ vitamin B₁₂: Gradual improvement of normal architecture of the liver was observed.

ALT, AST and ALP are considered as the most sensitive markers for detecting hepatocellular injury. Formation of ROS, oxidative stress and hepatocellular injury has been implicated to liver disease. It has been documented that hepatocyte is the major source of generating ROS during regular Cd exposure; this is primed and activated for enhanced production of pro-inflammatory factors. Moreover, Cd induced liver injury has been associated with increased amount of LPO. Thus, in the present study it may be possible that, an elevated level of marker enzymes AST, ALT and ALP are accompanied with disruption of membrane structure and integrity by LPO. The result seemingly agrees with the earlier reports which

was monosodium glutamate induced toxicity [61] that the activity of serum ALT increased in male rats were fed Cd probably due to the Cd induced oxidative stress in the liver.

LPO is a major indicator of oxidative damage initiated by ROS and causes impairment of membrane function. The increase in LPO observed in this study may be attributed to a direct effect of increased generation of ROS resulting from Cd treatment. All human cells protect themselves against free radical damage by enzymes like superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT). CAT is a major antioxidant enzyme that primarily catalyses the degradation of H₂O₂ to H₂O and O₂ [62]. In our study, Cd significantly

induces LPO and the level of NO and significantly (p<0.001) reduces the level of GSH and activities of SOD, CAT in the liver of the experimental animals (p<0.001). The decrease in the activity of these enzymes could result from their inactivation by ROS or by their glycation. Protein glycation is caused by the products of glucose auto-oxidation. Reduction in the activity of these enzymes might have contributed to the increased level of LPO and decreased concentration of GSH. As these enzymes become inactivated, more GSH would be utilized in neutralizing acyl radicals and other ROS.

Increased LPO level resulted in decreased level of GSH. GSH acts as an antioxidant in many ways. It can function as a direct radical scavenger and stabilize membrane structure through the removal of acyl peroxides formed during LPO reaction. Glutathione depletion is a positive indicator of tissue degeneration and the magnitude of depletion parallels the severity of the damage.

Besides, results obtained from the histopathological images showed typical disorganization of normal radiating pattern of cell plates around central vein, showing disruption of cords and sinusoidal network with degenerative changes in the form of atrophy of cells and disintegration of nuclei, ruptured endothelial lining which was invaded by lymphocytic infiltration and few inflammatory cells, haemorrhage increased vacuolation in Cd treated animals and gradual improvement was notified by supplementation with folic acid and or in combination with vitamin B₁₂.

In our study, we found that folic acid and vitamin B_{12} were potent enough in protecting Cd induced liver damage. Considering the relationship between Cd exposure and oxidative stress, it is reasonable that administration of some antioxidant should be an important therapeutic study on metal–induced oxidative stress is an emerging area of research. Antioxidants property of the ameliorative substances (vitamin B_{12} and folic acid) protect against oxidative stress and thus prevent organs from getting damaged.

CONCLUSION

Antioxidant therapeutic approaches by folic acid and vitamin B_{12} may be directly or indirectly protecting cell from adverse effect of Cd induced oxidative damages in liver cells. Based on results obtained, it can be concluded that folic acid and vitamin B_{12} offers protective effect in Cd induced oxidative stress associated with hepatocellular injury. folic acid and vitamin B_{12} can be considered as a potent natural antioxidant which has the capacity to provide

protection against Cd induced oxidative stress in liver tissue in experimental rats.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declared no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgement

Authors are grateful to Prof. Dhrubajyoti Chattopadhyay, Vice Chancellor of Amity University, Kolkata, for his continuous encouragement and valuable suggestions. We are indebted to Dr. Vansanglura, Principal of Serampore College for his active administrative support and encouragement during the experiment. We are thankful to Mr. Rajarshi Paul, Department of Physiology (UG & PG), Serampore College for his technical help during this study.

REFERENCES

- 1. Price RG. Cadmium Nephropathy and Smoking. Clinical Medicine Insights: Urology 2017 Aug 24:10:1-8.
- Staessen JA, Roels HA, Emelianov D, Kuznetsova T, Thijs L, Vangronsveld J. Environmental exposure to cadmium, forearm bone density, and risk of fractures: prospective population study. Public Health and Environmental Exposure to Cadmium (PheeCad) Study Group. Lancet 1999 Apr;353 (9159):1140-4.
- 3. Frery N, Nessman C, Girard F, Lafond J, Morcau T, Blot P, Lellouch J, Huel G. Environmental exposure to cadmium and human birth weight. Toxicology 1993 Apr;79(2):109-18
- 4. Chang LW, Tjalkens RB. Comprehensive Toxicology 2 nd Edition. 2010; 483-97.
- 5. Testsuya E, Osamu K, Hiroshi S, Masakutsu S. Secretory transport of cadmium through intestinal brush border membrane via H* transporter. Toxicology 2000 Sep;150(1-3): 129-36.
- 6. Park JD, Cherrington NJ, Klaassen CD. Intestinal absorption of cadmium is associated with divalent metal transporter I (DMT-1) in rats. Toxicol Sci 2002 Aug;68(2):288-94.
- 7. Lansdown AB, Sampson B. Dermal toxicity and percutaneous absorption of cadmium in rats and mice. Lab Anim Sci 1996 Oct;46(5):549-54.
- 8. Jarup L, Rogenfelt A, Elinder CG, Nogawa K, Kjellstrom T. Biological half-time of cadmium in the blood of workers after cessation of exposure. Scand J Work Environ Health 1983 Aug;9(4):327-31.

- 9. Nordberg GF. Cadmium and health in the 21st century-historical remarks and trends for the future. Biometals. 2004 Oct;17(5):485-89.
- 10. Elinder CG and Pannone M. Biliary excretion of cadmium. Environ Health Perspect. 1979 Feb; 28:123-26.
- 11. Klaassen CD, Waalkes MP, Cantilena LJJr. Alteration of tissue disposition of cadmium by chelating agents. Environ Health Perspect. 1984 Mar;54:233-42.
- 12. Nordberg, G, Piscator M. Influence of long term cadmium exposure on urinary excretion of protein and cadmium in mice. Environ Physiol Biochem. 1972;2:37-49.
- 13. Seidal K, Jorgensen N, Elinder CG, Sjogren B, Vahter M. Fatal cadmium induced pneumonitis. Scand J Work Environ Health. 1993 Dec; 19 (6):429-31.
- 14. Godt J, Scheidig F, EscheV, Bradenberg P. The toxicity of cadmium and resulting hazards for human health. J Occup Med Toxicol. 2006 Sep; 1(1):22.
- 15. Kopp SJ, Perry HM, Perry EF, Erlanger M. Cardiac physiologic and tissue metabolic changes following chronic low-level cadmium and cadmium plus lead ingestion in the rat. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol. 1983 Jun;69(1):149-60.
- Houston MC. The role of cadmium and mercury heavy metals in vascular disease, hypertension, coronary heart disease and myocardial in fraction. Altern Ther Health Med. 2007 Mar-Apr;13(2):S128-33.
- 17. Barbee JYJ, Prince TS. Acute respiratory distress syndrome in a welder exposed to metal fumes. South Med J. 1999 May;92(5):510-12.
- 18. Halim E, Hussin MA, Jamil K, Rao M, Hypoglycaemic, hypolipidemic and antioxidant properties of tulsi (Ocimum sanctum linn) on streptozotocin induced diabetes in rats Indian J Chem Biochem. 2001;16(2):190-4.
- 19. Piasek M, Laskey JW. Effects of *in vitro* cadmium exposure on ovarian steroidogeneses in rats. J Appl Toxicol. 1999 May-Jun;19(3): 211-17.
- Henson MC, Chedrese PJ. Endocrine disruption by cadmium, a common environmental toxicant with paradoxical effects on reproduction. Exp Biol Med (Maywood). 2004 May;229(5):383-92.
- 21. Hanson ML, Holaskova I, Elliott M. Prenatal cadmium exposure alters postnatal cell development and function. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol. 2012 Jun;261(2):196-203.
- 22. Hanson ML, Brundage KM, Schafer R, Tou JC, Barnett JB. Prenatal cadmium exposure dys-

- regulates sonic hedgehog and Wnt/beta-catenin signaling in the thymus resulting in altered thymocyte development. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol. 2010 Jan;242(2):136-45.
- 23. Ohsawa M. Heavy metal-induced immune-toxicity and its mechanisms. Yakugaku Zasshi. 2009 Mar;129(3):305-19.
- 24. Fortier M, Omara F, Bernier J, Brousseau P, Fournier M. Effects of physiological concentrations of heavy metals both individu-ally and in mixtures on the viability and function of peripheral blood human leukocytes *in vitro*. J Toxicol Environ Health A. 2008;71(19):1327-37
- 25. Okuda B, Iwamoto Y, Tachibana H, Sugita M. Parkinsonism after acute cadmium poisoning. Clin Neurol Neurosurg. 1997 Dec;99(4):263-5.
- 26. Lasfer M, Vadrot N, Aoudjehane L, Conti F, Bringuier AF, Feldmann G, Reyl-Desmars F. Cadmium induces mitochondria-dependent apoptosis of normal human hepatocytes. Cell Biol Toxicol. 2008 Jan;24(1):55-62.
- 27. Horiguchi H, Oguma E, Kayama F. "Cadmium induces anemia through interdependent progress of hemolysis, body iron accumulation, and insufficient erythropoietin production in rats," Toxicological Sciences. 2011 Jul;122(1):198–210.
- 28. Shagirtha K, Muthumani M, Prabu SM. Melatonin abrogates cadmium induced oxidative stress related neurotoxicity in rats. Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci. 2011 Sep;15(9):1039-50
- 29. Aquino NB, Sevigny MB, Sabangan J, Louie MC. The role of cadmium and nickel in estrogen receptor signaling and breast cancer: metalloestrogens or not?. J Environ Sci Health C. Environ Carcinog Ecotoxicol Rev. 2012; 30(3):189-224.
- 30. Adams SV, Passarelli MN, Newcomb PA. Cadmium exposure and cancer mortality in the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey cohort. Occup Environ Med. 2012 Feb;69(2):153-56.
- 31. Bernstein HL, Gutstein S, Weiner S, Efron G. The absorption and malabsorption of folic acid and its polyglutamates. Am J Med. 1970; 48:570-79.
- 32. McEvoy GK. American Hospital Formulary Service-Drug Information. Bethesda, MD: American Society of Health System Pharmacists. 2005;3521-22.
- 33. Medical Economics Co. Physicians Desk Reference for Nutritional Suppliments 1st ed. 2001;161.

- Thomson. Micromedex. Drug Information for the Health Care Professional. 24th ed. Content Reviewed by the United States Pharcopeial Convention, Inc. Greenword Village. 2004; 1422.
- 35. Bailey LB, Gregory JF., 3rd. Folate. In: Bowman BA, Russell RM, editors. Present Knowledge in Nutrition. 9th ed. Washington, DC. USA: ILSI press; 2006;278–301.
- 36. Clarke R, Halsey J, Lewington S, Lonn E, Armitage J, Manson JE, Bønaa KH, Spence JD, Nygård O, Jamison R, Gaziano JM, Guarino P, Bennett D, Mir F, Peto R, Collins R; B-Vitamin Treatment Trialists' Collaboration. Effects of lowering homocysteine levels with B vitamins on cardiovascular disease, cancer, and cause-specific mortality: Meta-analysis of 8 randomized trials involving 37 485 individuals. Arch Intern Med. 2010 Oct;170(18):1622-31.
- 37. Coppen A, Bolander-Gouaille C. Treatment of depression: time to consider folic acid and vitamin B₁₂. J Psychopharmacol. 2005 Jan; 19(1):59-65.
- 38. Ivanosvski N, Stojceva-Taneva O, Grozdanovski R, Boskovska M, Drueke TB, Massy ZA. Short-term effect of folic acid supplementation in renal transplant recipients and chronic kidney disease patients with comparable renal function impairment. Nephrologie. 2004;25(7):301-3.
- Joshi R, Adhikari S, Patro BS, Chattopadhyay S, Mukherjee T. Free radical scavanging behaviour of folic acid: evidence for possible antioxidant activity. Free Radic Biol Med. 2001 Jun;30 (12):1390-99.
- 40. Reynolds E, Lancet Neurol. Vitamin B₁₂, Folic acid and the nervous system. Lancet Neurol. 2006 Nov;5(11):949-60.
- Ojeda ML, Rua RM, Nogales F, Diaz-castro J, Murillo ML, Carreras O. The Benefits of Administering Folic Acid in Order to Combat the Oxidative Damage Caused by Binge Drinking in Adolescent Rats. Alcohol. 2016 May;51(3):235-41.
- 42. Field CJ, Van Aerde A, Drager KL, Goruk S, Basu T. Dietary folate improves age-related decreases in lymphocyte function. J Nutr Biochem. 2006 Jan;17(1):37-44.
- Herbert V. Vitamin B₁₂ in Present Knowledge in Nutrition. 17th ed. Washington, DC: International Life Sciences Institute Press. 1996.
- Marks AD. Basic Medical Biochemistry. A clinical approach (3rded.). Lipincott, Williams & Wilkins. 2009; 757.
- 45. Heyssel RM, Bozian RC, Darby WJ, Bell MC. Vitamin B₁₂ turnover in man. The assimilation

- of vitamin B12 from natural foodstuff by man and estimates of minimal daily requirements. Am J Clin Nutr. 1966 Mar;18(3):176-84.
- 46. Nicola R. The New Encyclopedia of Vitamins, Minerals, Supplements & Herbs. New York; M.Evans and Company Inc. 1988.
- 47. Isoda K, Kagaya N, Akamatsu S, Hayashi S, Tamesada M, Watanabe A, Kobayashi M, Tagaya Y, Konodh M, Kawase M, Yagi K. Hepatoprotective effect of vitamin B ₁₂ ondimethylnitrosamine induced liver injury . Biol Pharm Bull. 2008 Feb;31(2):309-11.
- 48. Schulz RJ. Homocysteine as a biomarker for cognitive dysfunction in the elderly. Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care. 2007 Nov;10(6):718-23.
- 49. Tamura T, Stokstad EL. Availability of food folate in Man. Br J Haematol 1973 Oct;25(4):513-32.
- Birch CS, Brasch NE, McCaddon A, Williams JH (2009). A novel role for Vitamin B12. Cobalamins are intracellular antioxidants in vitro. Free Radic Biol Med. 2009 Jul; 47(2):184-8.
- 51. Canda S, Islam MN, Pramanik P, Mitra C. High lipid diet is a possible predisposing factor in the development Of hypogonodial osteoporosis. Jpn J Physiol. 1996 Oct;46(5):383-8.
- 52. Bandopadhayay D, Chatterjee AK, Dutta AG. Effect of cadmium treatment on hepatic flavin metabolism. J Nutr Biochem. 1993 Sep;4(9): 510-14.
- 53. Fenech M. The role of folic acid and vitamin B₁₂ in genomic stability of human cells. Mutat Res. 2001 May;475(1-2):57-67.
- 54. Bhattacharjee A, Prasad Sk, Paul S, Maji BK, Banerjee A, Das D, Bose A, Chatterjee N, Mukherjee S. Possible involvement of iNOS and TNF-α in nutritional intervention against nicotine-induced pancreatic islet cell damage. Biomed Pharmacother. 2016 Dec;84:1727-38.
- 55. Wills ED. Evaluation of lipid peroxidation in lipids and biological membranes in Biochemical Toxicology. A practical approach (ed's Snell, K and Muilock B), IRL, Press Oxford' 1987;138.
- 56. Raso GM, Meli R, Gualillo O, Pacilio M, Di Carlo R. Prolactin induction of nitric oxide synthase in rat c6 gliorna cells. J Neurochem. 1999 Dec;73(6):2272-7.
- 57. Beauchamp C, Fridovich I. Superoxide dismutase: improved assays and an assay applicable to acrylamide gels. Ann Biochem. 1971 Nov;44(1):276-87.
- 58. Beers RF, Sizer IW. A spectophotimetric method for measuring the breakdown of hydrogen peroxide by catalase. J Biol Chem. 1952 Mar;195(1):133-40.

- 59. Ellman G.L. (1959). Tissue sulfhydryl groups. Arch Biochem 1959 May;82(1):70-7.
- 60. Lowry OH, Rosenbrough NJ, Farr AL, Randall RJ. Protein measurement with the folin phenol reagent. J Biol Chem 1951 May;193:265-75.
- 61. Farombi EO, Onyema OO. Monosodium Glutamate Induced Oxidative Damage and Genotoxicity in Rat: Modulatory Role of
- Vitamin C, Vitamin E and Quercetin. Hum Exp Toxicol. 2006 May;25(5):251-9.
- 62. Padmanabhan P, Jangle SN. Evaluation of DPPH radical scavenging activity and reducing power of four selected medicinal plants and their combinations. Int J Pharm Sci Drug Res 2012 Apr-Jun;4(2):143-46.