

<https://doi.org/10.48047/AFJBS.6.Si4.2024.6472-6494>



African Journal of Biological Sciences



Hepato Renal (Hepatorenal) Toxicity Induced ByMercuric Chloride In Male Wistar Albino Rat, *Rattus Norvegicus*(*norvegicus*)

M.PSampada¹, MuniswamyDavid^{2*}

¹Zoology, Karnataka University, Dharwad, Karnataka, India, 580003, 0009-0008-5994-7502.

²Zoology, Karnataka University, Dharwad, Karnataka, India, 580003, 0000-0002-7425-1350.

*Correspondingauthor:MuniswamyDavid

*Email:-davidkcd@gmail.comOrcidid:0000-0002-7425-1350

Volume 6, Issue Si4, Sep 2024

Received: 15 July 2024

Accepted: 25 Aug 2024

Published: 05 Sep 2024

doi:10.48047/AFJBS.6.Si4.2024.6472-6494

Abstract

This study investigated the effects of oral mercuric chloride (HgCl_2) treatment on sexually mature albino rats. Different doses of HgCl_2 (i.e., 1/4th and 1/8th of LD_{50} , or 5.25 mg/kg and 10.5 mg/kg respectively) were administered to the rats for 30 and 60 days. The results demonstrated a significant dose and duration dependant increase in serum Alanine transferase (ALT), Alkaline phosphatase (ALP), Aspartate transferase (AST), serum bilirubin, urea, uric acid, creatinine, and Blood Urea Nitrogen (BUN) concomitant with a decrease in serum protein levels. Histopathological examination revealed pronounced liver damage, characterized by sinusoidal dilation, necrosis, and fibrosis, as well as marked kidney injury, evidenced by glomerular and tubular damage. The animals also showed a significant rise in lipid peroxidation levels (MDA levels) with a decrease in reduced glutathione (GSH), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), catalase (CAT), and superoxide dismutase (SOD). Immunohistochemical analysis revealed a decrease in B Cell lymphoma (Bcl-2) expression in the liver indicating apoptotic activity and an increase in Epidermal growth factor regulator (EGFR) expression in the kidney suggesting a compensatory mechanism for tissue repair and regeneration. The study underscores the need for strict regulatory measures to minimize mercury exposure and protect public health.

Keywords: Mercury toxicity; Liver and kidney function; oxidative stress; Bcl-2, EGFR

Introduction

Global environmental contamination has been primarily caused by extensive human activities involving chemicals¹. The occurrence of persistent chemicals, such as pesticides and heavy metals, in soil and water is directly associated with the declining health of non-target species, like fishes and mammals^{3,4}. The global concern regarding the negative

impacts of heavy metals has risen due to therapid growth of the world's population, the expansion of industrial activities, and urban development ⁵. Human exposure to heavy metals leads to the development of severe health issues that deteriorate overtime, impacting major organs like the liver, heart, brain, and kidneys. Due to their non-biodegradablenature, they are present in the environment for prolonged periods, posing long-term health risks⁶. The pathophysiology of hepatorenal mercury toxicity involves an overproduction of free radicals and an imbalance in the antioxidant defense system. As a consequence, oxidative damage occurs in both hepatic and renal cells⁷. These ROS can lead to various types of injuries, including damage to the liver, kidney, cardiovascular system, and inflammation-related diseases. Antioxidants can counteract or suppress the detrimental impacts of reactive oxygen species (ROS), thus effectively managing the associated hazards. Occasionally, the toxic effects caused by heavy metals can also interfere with this mechanism⁶.

Mercury, a highly toxic heavy metal, is considered a major contributor to environmental pollution ⁸. It was previously employed in insecticides, metallurgy, and as a photographic fixative. Human activities, such as mining, smelting, extensive industrial and agricultural practices, burning of fossil fuels, and other industrial activities, resulted in the release of mercury into the environment ⁹. The research conducted by Emanuelli et al. (1996)¹³ revealed that inorganic mercury primarily builds up in the liver and kidney, resulting in acute hepatorenal toxicity in organisms, as demonstrated by Tanaka-Kagawa et al. (1998) ¹⁴. The toxicity associated with mercury is mainly a consequence of its high affinity for sulfhydryl (SH) groups. Although mercury compounds exhibit specificity toward sulfhydryl groups, their targets are non-specific due to the ubiquitous distribution of this group, as discussed by (Valko et al., 2005)¹⁵. The accumulation of mercury in a body within a region contaminated by this toxic element can lead to various detrimental consequences. One such effect is the excessive generation of ROS and an elevation in lipid peroxidation levels within the cells¹⁶. Free radicals and peroxidation intermediate products can impair the integrity and function of biomembranes, thereby playing a role in the development of multiple pathological processes ¹⁷. The presence of specific antioxidant enzymes, such as SOD, CAT, and GPx, is vital in preventing the generation of harmful free radicals and protecting cell membranes from oxidative damage ¹⁸. An imbalance between oxidant and antioxidant levels, mainly due to enhanced levels of reactive oxygen species in the body, is regarded a crucial indicator of chemical stress ¹⁹.

Mercuric chloride is recognized as one of the most hazardous forms of mercury, with a primary metabolic pathway in the liver and accumulation in the kidneys. As a result, the liver and kidneys are identified as the principal organs targeted by mercury-induced damage ²⁰. It is associated with a range of detrimental effects on the hematological system ²¹, liver function ²², neurological health ⁷, as well as gastrointestinal and cardiovascular disorders ²⁰.

With due consideration to the importance of the vital organs mentioned earlier, this study was done to understand and comprehend the influence of mercury on the overall functioning of both the liver and kidney biochemically, histologically and immunohistochemically.

Materials and methods

Experimental animals

The current investigation employed male Wistar rats (*Rattus norvegicus*) (90 days old, with an average weight of 160–170 grams). The animals were housed in propylene cages. Their bed was prepared using paddy husk. The subjects were given commercial feed (VRK Nutritional Solutions, Sangli Maharashtra) and unlimited access to tapwater at an animal care facility, Department of Zoology, Karnatak University, Dharwad. They were maintained in a laboratory environment at $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and followed a 12–

hourdark/lightcycle. Before starting our experiment, these subjects went through a week of acclimatization and were handled as per standard guidelines laid down by the Committee for Purpose of Control and Supervision of Experiments on Animals (CPCSEA) in New Delhi. These guidelines regulate the treatment and utilization of laboratory animals. The Institutional Animal Ethics Committee (IAEC) of Karnatak University in Dharwad also approved these procedures.

Following the acclimation period, animals were assigned randomly into five groups; each group consisted of six animals. These groups were named Control, Group 1, Group 2, Group 3, Group 4, and Group 5. The animals were then subjected to two different concentrations of HgCl₂ (HgCl₂), specifically ¼ of the LD₅₀ (LD₅₀) (10.5 mg/kg) and 1/8 of the LD₅₀ (LD₅₀) (5.25 mg/kg), for two different treatment durations of 30 and 60 days.

- Group 1: As a control, the animals in this group received a saline solution.
- Group 2 was administered a dose of 5.25 mg/kg of HgCl₂ (HgCl₂), which is equivalent to 1/8 of the LD₅₀, for 30 days.
- Group 3 was administered a dose of 5.25 milligrams per kilogram of body weight of HgCl₂ (HgCl₂), which is equivalent to one-eighth of the LD₅₀ (the lethal dose for 50% of the population), for 60 days.
- Group 4 was administered a dosage of 10.5 milligrams per kilogram of body weight of HgCl₂ (HgCl₂), which is equivalent to one-fourth of the LD₅₀, for 30 days.
- Group 5 was administered a dosage of 10.5 milligrams per kilogram of body weight of HgCl₂ (HgCl₂), which is equivalent to one-fourth of the LD₅₀ (the lethal dose for 50% of the population), for 60 days.

The treatment was administered orally to non-fasted rats for 30 days and 60 days, with a dose volume of 1 mL per 100 grams of body weight, during the morning hours from 9.00 am to 10.00 am. Every day, the animals were observed for any signs of toxicity, both before and after receiving the dose. Measurements of body mass increase and consumption of food were documented. Animals were weighed and euthanized 24 hours after the final dose using cervical dislocation while under anesthesia. All through the experiments' duration, animals were observed at least once per day for any clinical signs indicating toxicity. An autopsy was conducted after the experiment, specifically at 30 and 60 days. Blood samples were obtained and subjected to centrifugation at 4000×g for 10 minutes to extract serum. Testicular tissues were collected by separating them from surrounding tissues and weighed on an electronic balance to the nearest milligram. The tissues were then preserved in formalin, a fixative.

Collection and Preparation of serum samples for liver and kidney function tests

Animals were fasted for 10–14 hours before blood samples were collected by cardiac puncture. Blood samples were put into plain tubes and allowed to clot, then the serum was isolated through centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes. The collected supernatant (serum) was analyzed for liver and kidney enzyme levels.

Biochemical assays

Assessment of Liver functions

The aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels in these separated serum were determined according to Bergmeyer and Walefield (1978)³⁴ method.

The levels of serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP) were measured using the MacComb and Bowers (1966)³⁵ method.

Total protein was estimated by the protocol as outlined by Lowry et al (1951)³⁶.

The spectrophotometric measurement of serum albumin and serum globulin was estimated using the protocol previously described by Doumas et al (1997)³⁷ and Busher (1990)³⁵ respectively.

The estimation of Direct bilirubin concentration in serum was carried out using the method developed by Malloy and Evelyn (1937)³⁹ which is based on the Van Den Bergh reaction. Estimation of

Indirect bilirubin was carried out by a reaction in which the presence of methyl alcohol serves to dissolve water-

insoluble or unconjugated bilirubin. Consequently, this method also allows for the determination of total bilirubin levels, which includes both conjugated and unconjugated forms.

Assessment of renal functions

The plasma creatinine levels were determined utilizing a diagnostic kit based on Jaffe's (1886)⁴⁰ method. The method for BUN measurement as described by Richard et al., (1984)⁴¹ was followed in this study. Using a diagnostic kit, the amount of urea in plasma was estimated using the protocol developed by Fawcett and Scott (1960)⁴². A diagnostic kit based on the enzymatic approach outlined by Caraway (1955)⁴³ was used to estimate the amount of uric acid present in the plasma.

Histopathological analysis

The histopathological examinations were carried out by the methodology described by Humason⁵⁰. The isolated liver and kidney tissues were fixed in Bouin's fluid. Following fixation, the tissues were dehydrated using a series of alcohol gradients and then embedded in paraffin wax. The organs that had been embedded in paraffin were sliced into ribbons that were 5 micrometers thick using a semi-automated microtome (Leica RM 2255). For light microscopic evaluation, these sections were stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin which was captured using an Olympus phase contrast microscope (Olympus BS51, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a photography system (ProgRes C3, Jenoptik-Germany). The observations were noted, and the final images were carefully reviewed to look for any inconsistencies.

Immunohistochemistry

Sections with a thickness of micrometers (μm) were acquired from the liver and kidney using a microtome. Following this, the sections underwent a standard histological staining technique known as eosin and hematoxylin stain (Sigma Aldrich). To eliminate paraffin, these sections were treated with xylene, and then dehydrated using progressively higher concentrations of ethanol. The intrinsic peroxidase activity was suppressed by gradually increasing concentrations of ethanol, ranging from 3% to higher levels. Additionally, the peroxidase enzyme's activity in the sample was naturally suppressed by exposing it to a 3% hydrogen peroxide solution for a duration of 15 minutes. Subsequently, these sections were heated in a microwave pressure cooker for 20 minutes using a 0.01 mol/l citrate buffer and then allowed to cool down to room temperature. Following this, the sections of the tissues were subjected to specific primary antibodies for a period of 30 minutes. The primary antibody used for sections of the liver was B Cell lymphoma 2 (Bcl2; Clone: EP36 Rabbit monoclonal antibody, Pathnsitu, Biotecnologies) at a concentration of 1:1000 for each antibody. For the kidney, the primary antibody used was EGFR (EGFR; Clone: EP22 Rabbit monoclonal antibody, Pathnsitu Biotechnologies). These sections were then stained with the avidin-biotin complex (ABC kit) from Lab Vision Corporation, which is based in Fremont, California, in the United States of America, using

the immunoperoxidase method. The ABC chromogen was then employed to identify the binding locations. Phosphate-buffered saline was used for rinsing between each phase. Later, all of these sections were examined under a Magnus phase contrast microscope (Magnus MLXi plus, India) after being stained with eosin and hematoxylin stain. The captured images were later analyzed for any inconsistencies, and the findings were documented.

Antioxidant enzyme assays

The liver and kidney were cut into small pieces, and then 10% homogenates were made with a nice-cold potassium phosphate buffer (0.05M) with a pH of 7.4. The homogenates were centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C. The activities of glutathione peroxidase (GPx), catalase (CAT), and superoxide dismutase (SOD), lipid peroxidation (LPO) were assessed using supernatant. The method as given by Buege and Aust (1978)⁴⁸ was used to measure LPO and was expressed as nmol MDA formed/mg protein. Using the protocol outlined by Luck (1965)⁴⁴ the activity of CAT was determined and was expressed as μ moles of H₂O₂ degraded/min/mg protein. The activity of SOD and GPx was estimated by the method described by Kakkar et al (1984)⁴⁵ and Paglia and Valentine (1967)⁴⁶ and expressed as U/mg protein.

Statistical analysis

All acquired data were displayed as mean values with the standard deviation for quantitative measurements. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done to ascertain statistical disparities among distinct groups. In the following step, a post hoc Tukey's test was carried out. The significance level was set at $P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$, and $P < 0.0001$. GraphPad Prism 9 was utilized to carry out the appropriate statistical analyses.

Results

Effect of HgCl₂ on liver function parameters

The levels of liver enzymes, namely AST, ALP, ALT, and Bilirubin, exhibited a significant increase when compared to the control group ($P < 0.05$). However, there was no significant difference ($P > 0.05$) in bilirubin levels between Group 1 and Group 2, Group 3 and Group 4, as well as Group 2 and Group 4. Conversely, the levels of total protein were significantly decreased in comparison to the control group ($P < 0.05$).

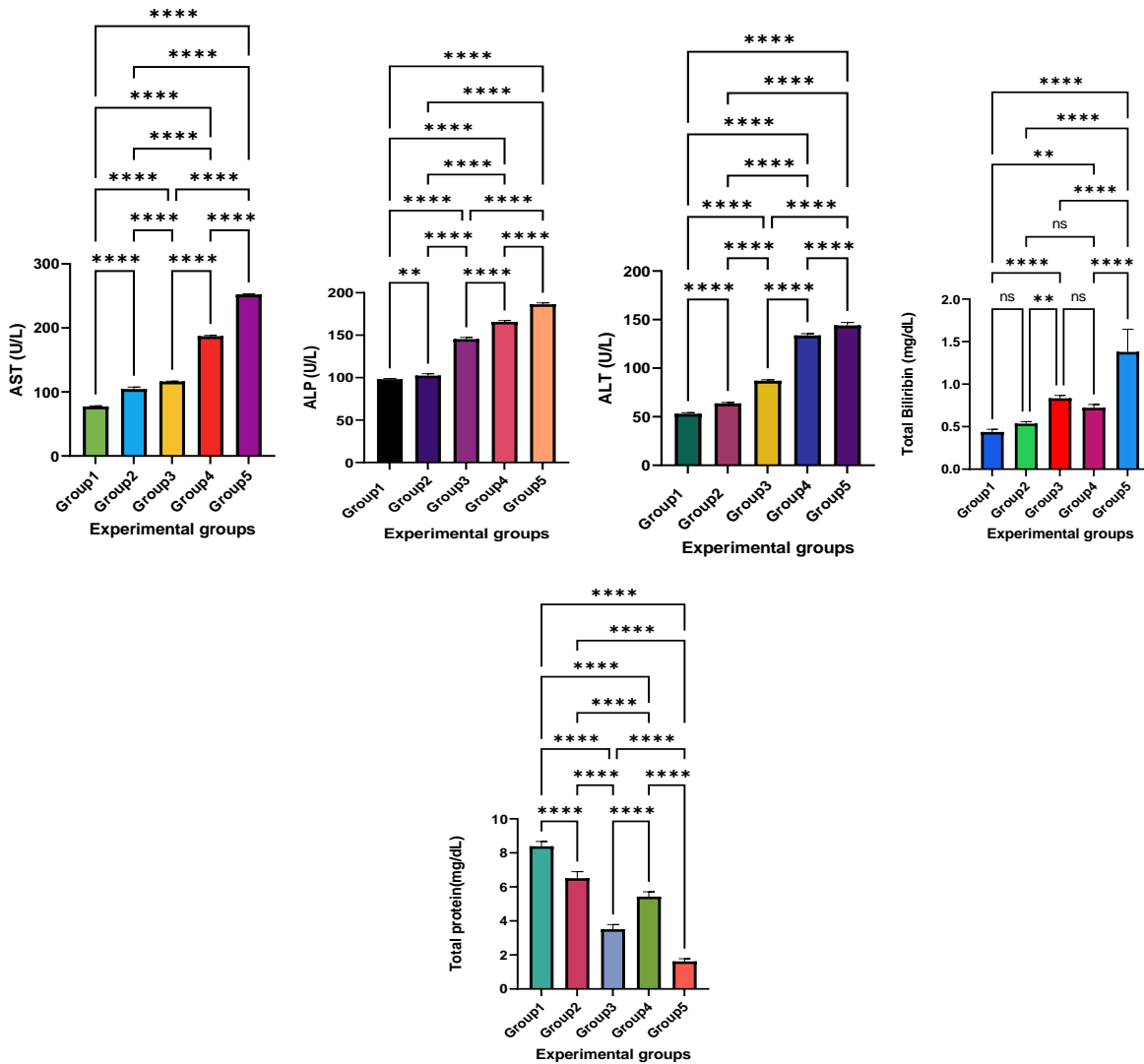


Fig 1: Effect of HgCl₂ on liver enzymes

The values are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 6). Asterisk (****) signifies substantial variation at P<0.0001, Asterisk (***) signifies substantial variation at P<0.001, Asterisk (**) signifies substantial variation at P<0.01, and Asterisk (*) signifies substantial variation at P<0.05 compared betweenvarious experimental groups.

Effect of HgCl₂ on kidney function parameters

Significantlyelevatedlevelsof kidneyenzymes, includingcreatinine, urea, anduricacid, wereobserved(P< 0.05)incomparisontothecontrolgroup. Conversely, therewasnostatisticallysignificantdistinction(P>0. 05)inBUNlevelsbetweenGroup1 andGroup2, Group2andGroup3, orGroup1 andGroup3.

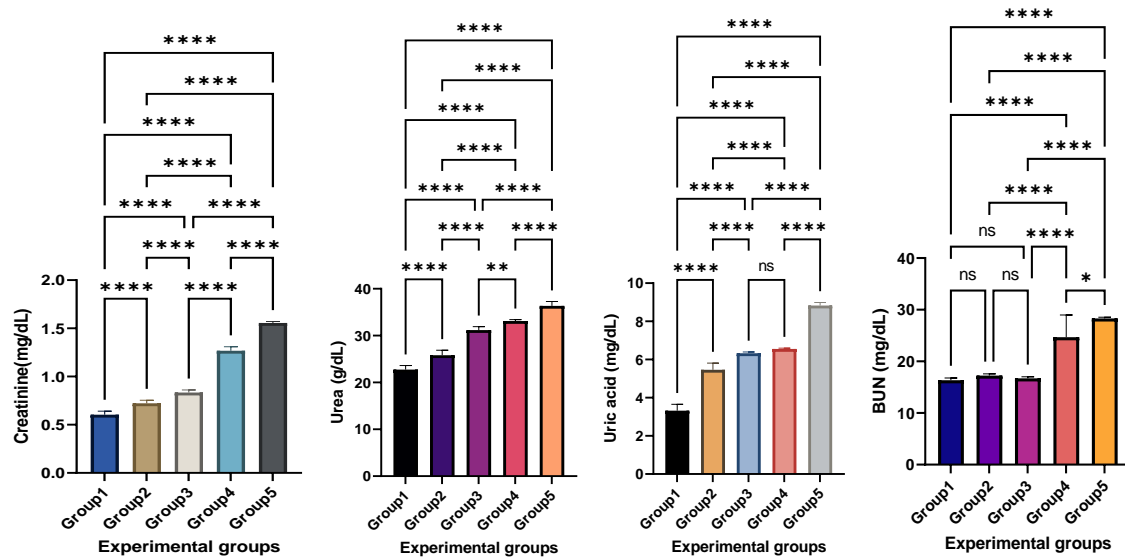


Fig2:EffectofHgCl₂onkidney enzymes

The values are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 6). Asterisk (****) signifies substantial variation at P<0.0001, Asterisk (***) signifies substantial variation at P<0.001, Asterisk (**) signifies substantial variation at P<0.01, and Asterisk (*) signifies substantial variation at P<0.05 compared betweenvarious experimental groups.

EffectofHgCl₂onlevelsofantioxidantenzymesandlipid peroxidationin A)liverB)Kidney The findingsrevealedanotable decrease (P<0.0001)intheactivityofantioxidantenzymes,suchasCatalase, SOD, and Gpx, in the low-dose treated groups (Group 2 and Group 3). Conversely, in the high-dosetreatedgroups(Group4and5),therewasasignificantincrease(P<0.0001)intheactivityofantioxidant enzymes compared to the low-dose groups, although it was still lower than that of the controlgroup(Group1).Ontheotherhand,theactivityofMDAwas significantlyelevated(P<0.0001)inthelow-dosegroups(Group3&4),whileinthehigh-dosetreatedgroups(Group4&5),MDAactivitywasnotablyreduced(P<0.0001)comparedtothelowdose groups,butstillsignificantlylower(P<0.0001)thanthecontrol group (Group 1).

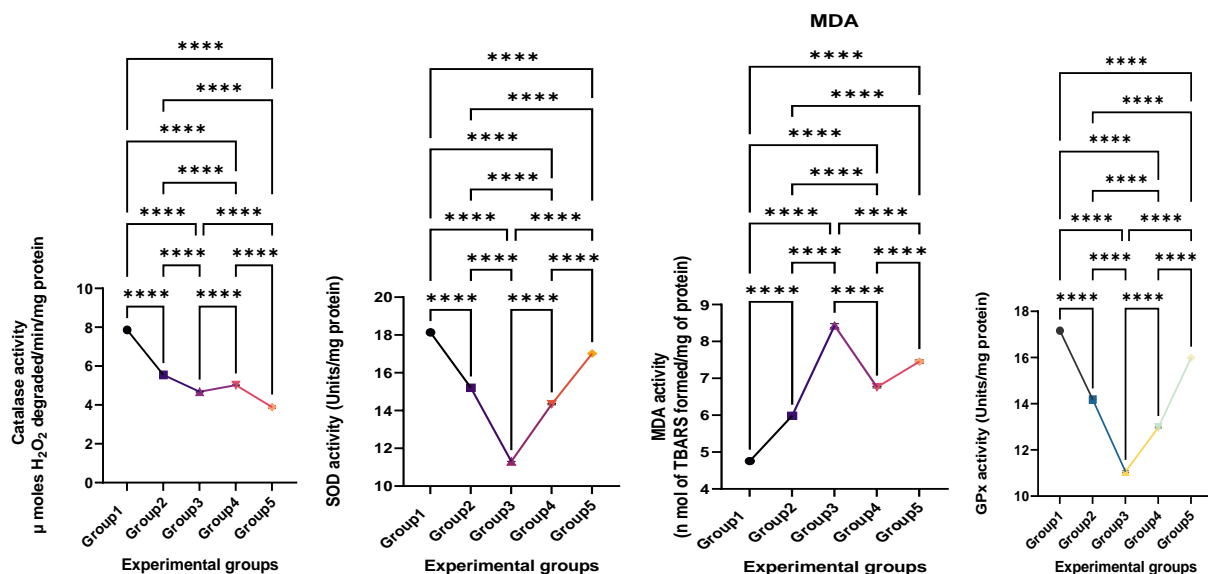


Fig 3A: Effect of HgCl₂ on antioxidant status of liver

The values are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 6). Asterisk (****) signifies substantial variation at P<0.0001, Asterisk (***) signifies substantial variation at P<0.001, Asterisk (**) signifies substantial variation at P<0.01, and Asterisk (*) signifies substantial variation at P<0.05 compared betweenvarious experimental groups.

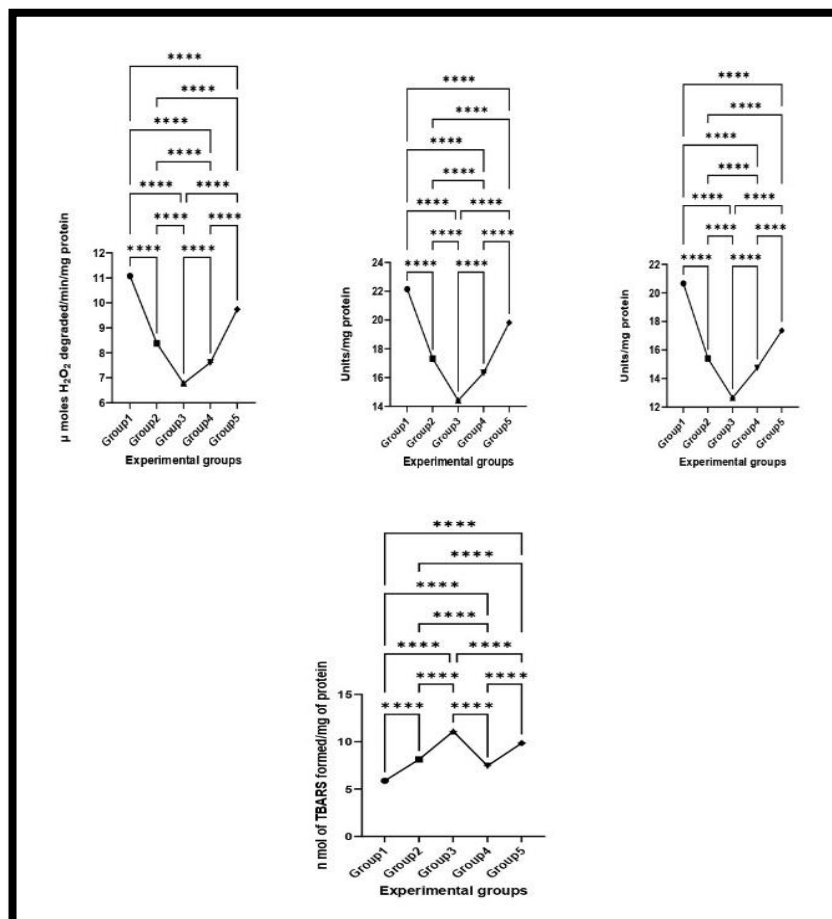


Fig 3B: Effect of HgCl₂ on antioxidant status of liver

The values are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 6). Asterisk (****) signifies substantial variation at P<0.0001, Asterisk (***) signifies substantial variation at P<0.001, Asterisk (**) signifies substantial variation at P<0.01, and Asterisk (*) signifies substantial variation at P<0.05 compared betweenvarious experimental groups.

Histopathology of liver: (Fig 3A– F) H & E sections of liver exhibits the histological sections of control (Fig 3A & B) and changes after different treatment periods (Fig 3B – F). Liver of control rats showed normal hepatic cells (H) (Fig 3A); Central vein (CV) with normal radiating pattern of hepatic cords (HC) (Fig 3B); Hepatic artery (HA), Portal vein (PV), Bile duct (BD) together constitutes portal traid (PT) (Fig 3A); Sinusoids (S) (Fig 3B); Group 2(Fig 3C) shows dilated sinusoids (dS), Mild vacuolations (MV); Group 3 (Fig 3D) shows clogging of Bile duct (BDC), clogging of portal vein (PVC) and damaged hepatic artery (DHA), focal necrosis (FN); Group 4 (Fig 3E) shows dilation of central vein (DCV), pyknotic nucleus in hepatocytes (PN), vacuolations (V), disorganization of normal radiating pattern of hepatic cell plates (*); Group 5 (Fig 3F) shows hypertrophy of hepatocytes (HH), loss of hepatic cord arrangement (*), foamy appearance (F).

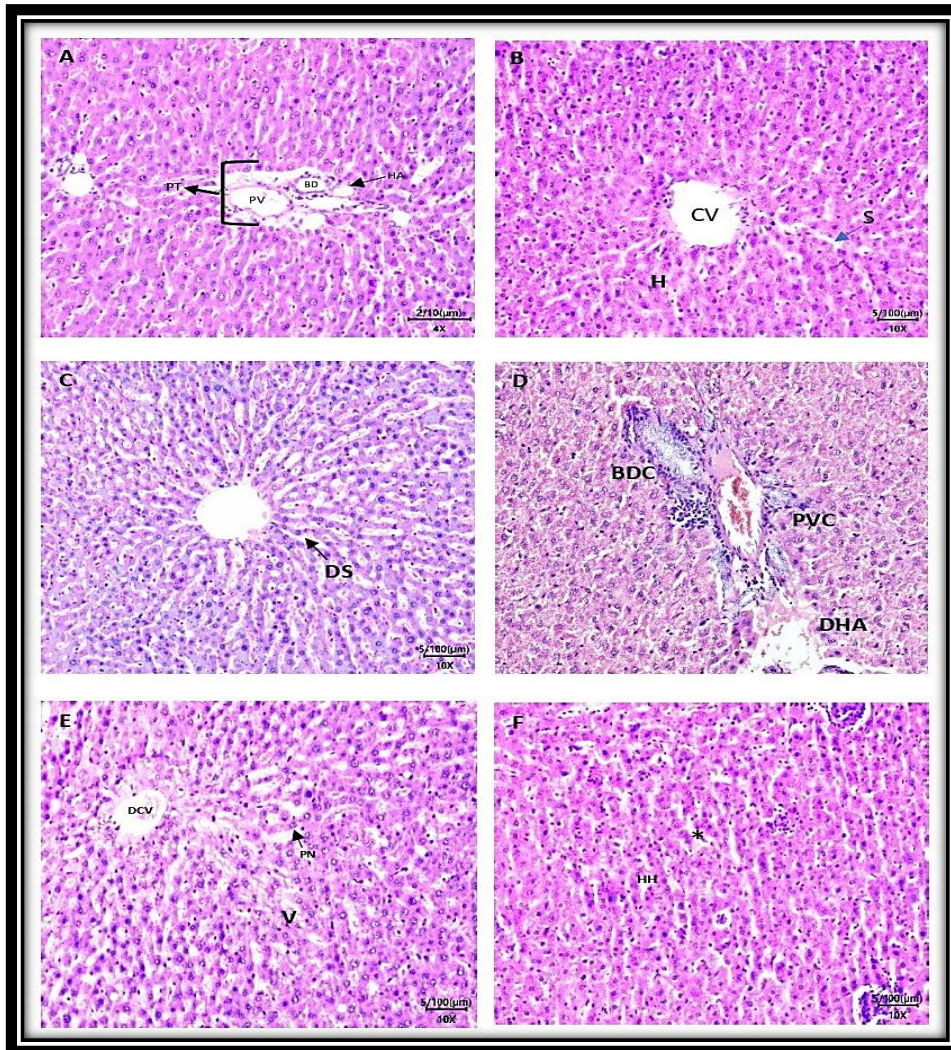


Fig 3: H & E sections of liver show histological sections of control (Fig 3A & B) and changes after different treatment periods (Fig 3B – F). Group 1 (Fig 3A & B) shows normal hepatic cells (H), central vein (CV) with normal radiating pattern of hepatic cords (HC), hepatic artery (HA), portal vein (PV), bile duct (BD) together constitutes portal triad (PT), sinusoids (S); Group 2 (Fig 3C) shows dilated sinusoids (dS), mild vacuolations (MV); Group 3 (Fig 3D) shows clogging of bile duct (BDC), clogging of portal vein (PVC) and damaged hepatic artery (DHA), focal necrosis (FN); Group 4 (Fig 3E) shows dilation of central vein (DCV), pyknotic nuclei in hepatocytes (PN), vacuolations (V), disorganization of normal radiating pattern of hepatic cell plates (*), Group 5 (Fig 3F) shows hypertrophy of hepatocytes (HH), loss of hepatic cord arrangement (*), foamy appearance (F).

Histopathology of kidney: (Fig 4A– F) H & E sections of kidney exhibit the histological sections of control (Fig 4A) shows normal renal corpuscles (RC), glomerulus (G), Bowman's capsule (BC), proximal convoluted tubule (PCT), distal convoluted tubule (DCT), urinary space (US); Group 2 (Fig 4B) shows glomerular atrophy (GA), haemorrhage (H); Group 3 (Fig 4C) shows damaged renal tubule (DRT), dilated Bowman's capsule (*); Group 4 (Fig 4D) shows pyknotic nuclei (PN), damaged glomerulus (DG); Group 5 (Fig 4E & F) haemorrhage (H), damaged renal corpuscle (DRC), dilated Bowman's capsule (DBC), vacuolations (V)

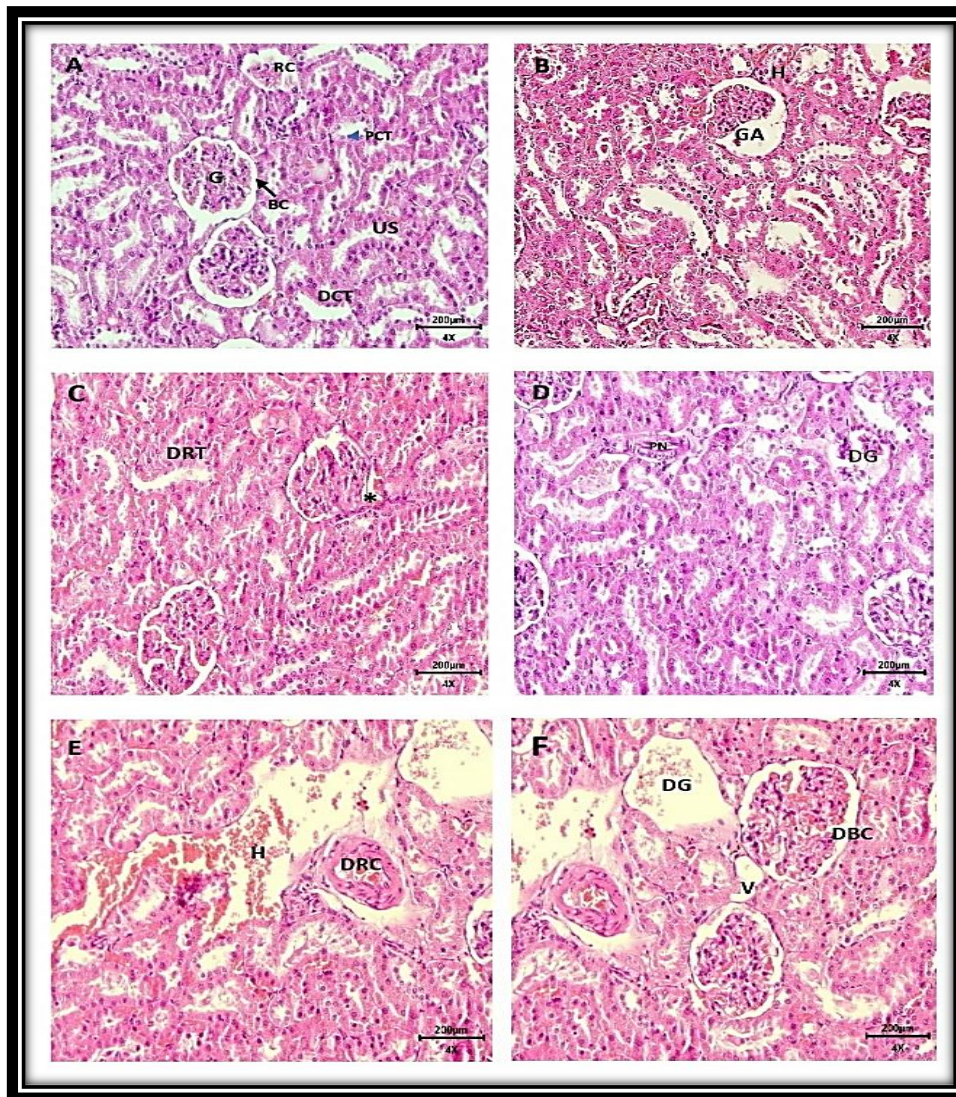


Fig 4: (A– F) H & E sections of Kidney exhibits the histological sections of control (Fig 4A) shows normal renal corpuscles (RC), glomerulus (G), Bowmans capsule (BC), proximal convoluted tubule (PCT), distal convoluted tubule (DCT), urinary space (US); Group 2 (Fig 4B) shows glomerular atrophy (GA), Haemorrhage (H); Group 3 (Fig 4C) shows damaged renal tubule (DRT), dilated bowmans capsule (*); Group 4 (Fig 4D) shows pyknotic nuclei (PN), damaged glomerulus (DG); Group 5 (Fig 4E & F) Haemorrhage (H), damaged renal corpuscle (DRC), dilated bowmans capsule (DBC), vacuolations (V).

Immunohistochemistry

Fig 5A shows the expression of Bcl-2 in the liver of distinct experimental groups of rats. The respective antigen-antibody reaction appears to be positive as it shows the presence of granules in the cytoplasm and emerges as brown. In Fig 5a the normal distribution of anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2 is shown, where as the expression of Bcl-2 is decreasing in dose and duration dependant manner as observed in 5b,c,d,e respectively.

Fig 5B shows the expression of EGFR protein in the kidney of distinct experimental groups of rats. The respective antigen-antibody reaction to be positive as it shows the presence of granules in the cytoplasm and emerges as brown. In Fig 6a the normal distribution of EGFR is shown, where as the expression of EGFR is increasing in dose and duration dependant manner as observed in 6b, c,d, e respectively.

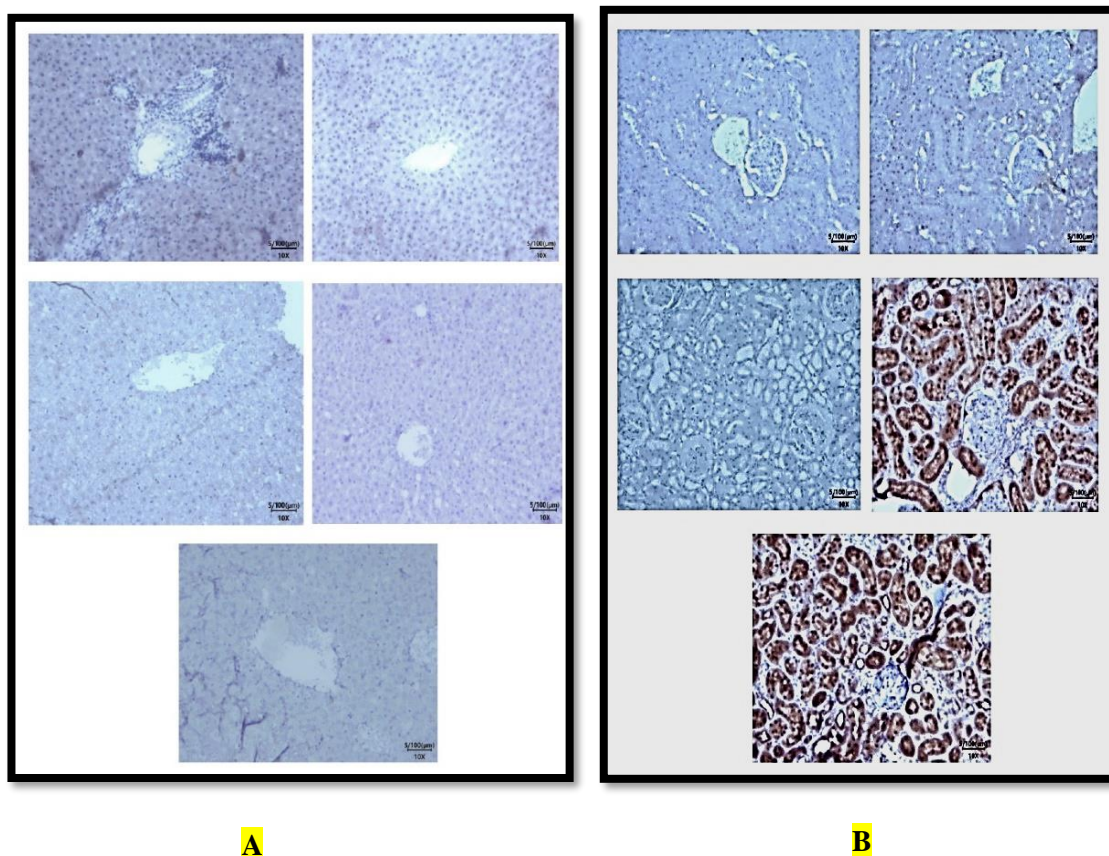


Fig 5: Immunohistochemical localization of Bcl-2 antigen in liver tissue(A) of rats; a) Group 1 shows good staining; b,c,d,e shows section of HgCl₂ rats shows less staining when compared to control. (B) Immunohistochemical localisation of EGFR antigen in kidney tissue (B) of rats; a) Group1 shows less staining; b,c,d,e shows section of HgCl₂ rats shows more staining when compared to control

Discussion

The current study aims to explore the hepatorenal toxicity caused by HgCl₂ through alteration in enzyme activities, oxidative damage, and imbalance in the antioxidant defense activity in rats, as assessed through biochemical, histopathological, and immunohistochemical analyses.

Liver and Kidney are crucial organs that must be taken into account during the examination of pollutant effects, as they have a significant impact on the metabolism and detoxification of drugs. Moreover, the majority of substances absorbed in the intestine pass through the liver, where the accumulation of toxins and heavy metals may occur⁵¹. The toxic manifestations of metals are primarily attributed to oxidative stress⁵². The body's imbalance between antioxidants and oxidants is what defines oxidative stress, increasing the levels of ROS including hydroxyl, superoxide, and hydrogen peroxide. These ROS can cause detrimental effects on various organs⁵³.

The administration of HgCl₂ causes the body to produce substances that cause oxidative stress, such as ROS. The endogenous antioxidant enzymes, including Superoxide Dismutase (SOD), Catalase (CAT), and Glutathione Peroxidase (GPx), act as the primary defense against damage caused by free radicals⁵⁴. Superoxide anion is converted by SOD into hydrogen peroxide, which is subsequently transformed into water by CAT⁵⁵. CAT plays an important role in balancing the generation of hydrogen peroxide and superoxide radicals. In this study, the inhibition of SOD and CAT activities is attributed to the excessive production of ROS. GPx, an enzyme containing selenium, is found in both the cytosol and mitochondrial matrix⁵⁶. Its primary function is to reduce hydrogen peroxide. Mercuric chloride

may directly inhibit GPx by disrupting its functional groups. Additionally, the decrease in CAT and GPx activities may be a defensive response against the hydrogen peroxide produced by HgCl₂⁵⁷. Consequently, the lipid peroxidation level increases and antioxidant enzymes decrease. In the present study, we found that HgCl₂ significantly diminishes the antioxidant enzyme activities, SOD, CAT, and GPx in liver and kidney tissues. In this study, the antioxidant enzyme levels were substantially decreased ($P < 0.0001$) in the low-dose groups (Group 2 and Group 3) that were treated with 5.25 mg/kg of HgCl₂ for 30 & 60 days respectively. However, in high-dose groups (Group 4 & Group 5) that were treated with 10.5 mg/kg of HgCl₂ for 30 & 60 days respectively, the levels of all mentioned antioxidants were significantly increased ($P < 0.0001$) than low-dose groups where less than control (Fig 2). Additionally, the end product of lipid peroxidation malonaldehyde (MDA), the content was significantly increased ($P < 0.0001$) in low-dose treated groups (Group 2 & Group 3) that were treated with 5.25 mg/kg of HgCl₂ for 30 & 60 days respectively, whereas, in high dose groups (Group 4 & Group 5) that were treated with 10.5 mg/kg of HgCl₂ for 30 & 60 days respectively, the MDA levels were significantly decreased ($P < 0.0001$) than low dose groups, however, was more than Control (Fig 2). Mercury-induced oxidative stress in liver and kidney tissues is linked to the integrity of the mitochondrial membrane's structure, reduction in mitochondrial glutathione levels, and elevation in hydrogen peroxide production by the electron transport chain within mitochondria^{58,59,60}. Raised levels of MDA and NO may arise from the enhanced generation of free radicals caused by HgCl₂ toxicity. This causes enhanced concentrations of MDA and NO^{61,62}. Moreover, elevated concentrations of free radicals such as H₂O₂ may block the SOD, CAT, GPx, and GR enzymes, leading to the reported reductions in these enzymes^{63,64}. Furthermore, mercury inhibits GSH activity due to its affinity for the thiol groups found in GSH structure⁶⁵. Ramadan et al., 2023⁶⁶, showed similar results, indicating that mercury caused oxidative stress.

The following events within the cell may be the cause of the oxidative stress caused by metal salts as previously mentioned.

- a) A Fenton-type/Haber-Weiss reaction involving the oxidation of ferrous iron (2) by hydrogen peroxide to ferric iron (3), a hydroxyl radical, and a hydroxyl anion⁶⁷ may result in the generation of a free radical. Furthermore, according to the Fenton and Haber-Weiss types of processes, these metal salts, such as mercuric chloride, may be directly reacting with the molecules within the cell to produce ROS, or free radicals, which have the potential to damage polyunsaturated fatty acids found in biological membranes. Hydrogen peroxide is catalyzed by glutathione peroxidase and catalase, two selenium-containing enzymes that function only in the presence of reduced GSH.

b) These metal salts have no redox potential, which reduces antioxidant defenses, particularly those involving thiols like glutathione peroxidase, which is dependent on GSH. This could lead to GSH depletion, which would change the cell's redox balance (GSH/GSSG).

Free radical generation is caused by ⁵¹ Hg toxicity in various tissues, primarily the kidney and liver, according to Flora et al. (2008)⁵². They proposed that a key mechanism for the hepatorenal toxicity caused by mercury was reactive

oxygen metabolites. The animals in the current study that were intoxicated with mercury showed several signs of oxidative stress, including decreased antioxidant enzymes in the liver and kidney tissues and an increase in lipid peroxidation. As a result, oxidative stress may play a role in the organ dysfunction caused by mercury. Prior research has indicated elevated levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) following mercury exposure. ROS then targets every component of the cell, which also includes lipids in the membrane, and produces LPO⁶⁹.

Our findings were in agreement with Madhura et al. (2007)⁷⁰ and Kumar et al. (2002)⁷¹, who revealed that HgCl₂ (HgCl₂) caused oxidative damage to the cells by generating free radicals. This

increased production of free radicals may result in damage to the cell membrane, which would deactivate membrane Na⁺-K⁺ ATPase thus permitting calcium entry into the cell. A persistent rise in intracellular calcium generates free radicals, which further inhibit Na⁺-K⁺ ATPase, resulting in lipid peroxidation and a weakened state of antioxidant defense.

Phase I and Phase II reactions are involved in the hepatic biotransformation. Phase I includes oxidative, reductive, hydroxylation, and demethylation pathways, mostly through the endoplasmic reticulum's cytochrome P-

450 enzyme system, the liver's most significant family of metabolizing enzymes. Additionally, the NADPH-dependent mixed-function oxidase system and flavin-

containing monooxygenases found in the endoplasmic reticulum are responsible for the oxidation of sulfur compounds and amines. Certain intermediates produced by phase I reactions are converted to nontoxic forms by phase II reactions. Phase II reactions create more readily excretable, water-soluble metabolites by conjugating substances with hydrophilic moieties, such as amino acids, glucuronide, or sulfate. Another phase II reaction involves glutathione, in which glutathione-S-transferase⁷² can covalently bind to toxic intermediates. These reactions are therefore typically thought of as detoxification pathways. But this stage may also result in the creation of unstable precursor or reactive species, which can be harmful to the liver^{73,74}.

The intermediates of the citric acid cycle have been linked by AST and ALT, two significant classes of enzymes that link the metabolism of carbohydrates and amino acids. It is believed that the transaminase enzyme serves as an indicator of liver injury⁷⁵. Since alkaline phosphatase (ALP) is membrane-bound, changes to it may impact membrane permeability and result in disruptions to the body's metabolite transport process. In the present study the levels of AST, ALT, ALP, and bilirubin activity increased with mercury intoxication in a dose and duration-dependent manner (Fig 1A). These findings could be the consequence of membrane disruption or hepatocellular necrosis, which releases these enzymes into the bloodstream⁷⁶. Moreover, a notable decrease in hepatic cell protein synthesis (Fig 1A) may be the cause of the substantial decrease in serum albumin and globulin, reflecting the hepatic dysfunction brought on by mercury treatment⁷⁶. The histological alterations seen in the liver were disruption of the typical cell plate radiating patterns, hepatocyte enlargement, vacuolization, clogging of the bile duct and portal vein, and bile necrosis (Fig 3). Al-

Saleh et al. and Agarwal et al.⁷⁷,

⁷⁸ reported similar histopathological alterations in the liver following mercury exposure. Lipid peroxidation causes these reactive radicals to assault the cell membrane, causing it to become unstable and disintegrate⁷⁹. Mercuric chloride-induced enhanced lipid peroxidation that produces free radicals could be the cause of the histopathological alterations. These modifications also align with our biochemical analysis. Heavy metals have been linked to changes in kidney function^{80,81,82,55}, and particularly mercury has been linked to negative effects on renal parameters^{78,83,84}. Kidney function can be assessed using parameters such as BUN, Uric acid, and creatinine levels, which are important markers⁸⁵. In the present study, the levels of all the above-mentioned renal enzymes are increased in a dose- and duration-dependent manner (Fig 1B). Blood urea nitrogen is a significant metabolic product of protein metabolism and studies show that it causes glomerular damage⁸³. Groups treated with mercuric chloride had significantly higher levels of blood urea nitrogen, uric acid, and creatinine, increased synthesis of the arginase enzyme, which is involved in the manufacture of urea, and/or increased protein catabolism are connected to raised blood urea nitrogen levels⁸². The kidneys eliminate creatinine, which is an end metabolic result of muscle catabolism⁸³. The glomerular filtration mechanism is necessary for the excretion of creatinine. The increased level of creatinine indicates injury to the tubular and glomerular filtering systems^{86,87,88}. The primary metabolic product of purine nucleotides is uric acid⁸⁹. One renal prognostic factor is an elevated amount of uric acid. Nonetheless, elevated levels of serum uric acid could be a result of the body's metabolic reaction to increased endogenous oxygen species production⁹⁰. According to earlier research, heavy metals have been linked to elevated BUN, uric acid, and urea levels^{82,91, and 55}.

The immunohistochemistry findings showed that the amount and length of therapy both affected the expression of Bcl-2 (Fig. 5A). This finding, together with the earlier research by Yuan et al., 2014

⁹², demonstrates that damage to the mitochondria caused by elevated expression of apoptotic mitochondrial proteins, like those in the Bax family, may be linked to mercury-induced cell death. Apoptotic processes are initiated by the simultaneous activation of caspase-3 brought on by the change in Bax expression. This hinders the release of the anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2 from the mitochondrial membrane⁹³. The cell apoptotic pathway⁹⁴ can be regulated by the interaction between the pro-apoptotic protein Bax and the anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2. Furthermore, one of the most important apoptotic pathways is the mitochondrial (intrinsic) pathway, which is indicated by increased cytochrome c levels in the cytoplasm due to a disrupted Bax/Bcl-2 equilibrium⁹⁵. Enhanced cytochrome c levels trigger the activation of caspase-3, which promotes apoptosis⁹⁶. Apoptosis is triggered by caspase-3, which becomes more active due to an increase in intrinsic pathways. According to recent research, HgCl₂ (HgCl₂) decreased Bcl-2 levels and increased caspase-3 and Bax in the liver and kidney, hence having an apoptotic effect^{97,98}. Our results supported this, demonstrating that exposure to HgCl₂ (HgCl₂) led to the death of liver and kidney cells by overactivating caspase-3 and Bax while inhibiting the Bcl-2 protein.

The epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) is a plasma transmembrane glycoprotein that is expressed by various cells. EGFR initiates its intrinsic tyrosine activity upon ligand binding⁹⁹. Cell differentiation, migration, proliferation, angiogenesis, apoptosis, protein release, and/or oncogenesis were all regulated by the EGFR signaling pathway^{99,100}. It has also been documented to be involved in hepatocellular cancer, cirrhosis, and liver regeneration after both acute and chronic liver injury¹⁰¹. It is well established that activated EGFR

upregulates the expression of genes linked to inflammation, such as COX-2, via the EGFR-Ras-MAPKs-AP-1-COX-2 caspase¹⁰² pathway. It's interesting to note that mice lacking COX-2 had worse liver regeneration¹⁰³. On the other hand, the connection between HgCl₂ exposure and EGFR expression remains unknown. According to the current investigation, the HgCl₂-treated group exhibits greater immunopositivity for EGFR in a dose- and duration-dependent way as compared to the control group (Fig 5B)⁹⁷. Other researchers reported similar findings.

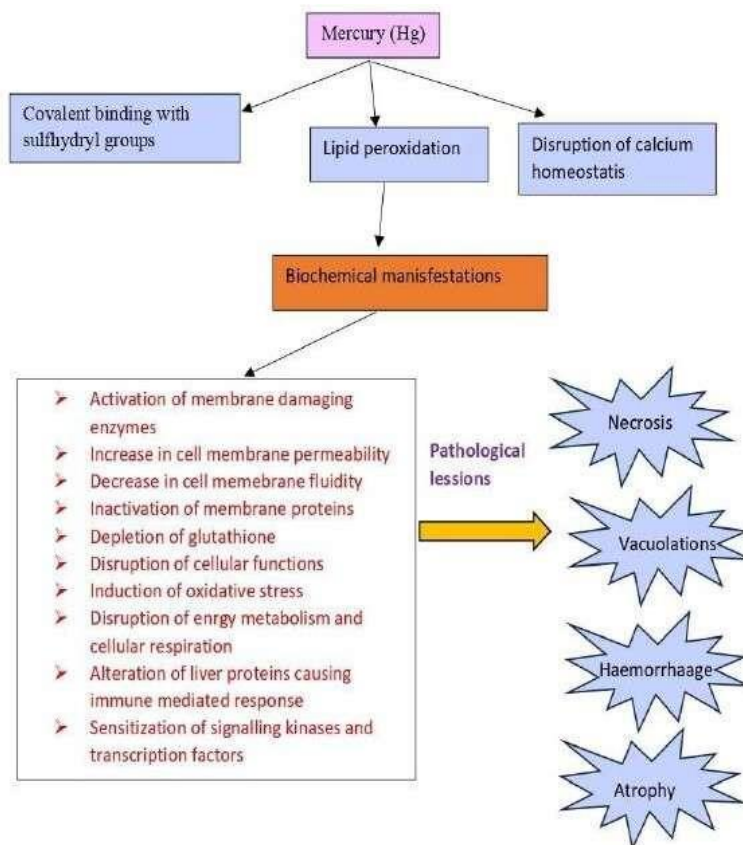


Fig6: Proposed mechanism of toxicity induced by HgCl₂ in liver and kidney

Conclusion

This study showed that long-term exposure to mercury at both low and high concentrations damaged liver and kidney tissue through oxidative stress. The results of this study underscore the harmful effects of mercury and the significance of putting policies in place to lessen the toxicity that it causes.

The development of detoxification methods to enhance general health will be aided by a deeper understanding of the molecular mechanisms behind the toxicokinetics of mercury toxicity in living beings.

Acknowledgment

The authors also extend their appreciation to the Department of Zoology, Karnatak University, Dharwad, Karnataka, India for facilitating the execution of this study. The authors also acknowledge the University Scientific Instrumentation Center (USIC) for providing infrastructural facilities.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no Conflict of Interest.

Funding source: The first author expresses gratitude to Karnatak University, Dharwad for

grantingtheUniversity ResearchFellowship (KU/Sch/URS/2022/366).
GuidelinesforEthical Approval

TheexperimentsconductedinthisstudyadheredtotheguidelinesetbytheInstitutionalAnimalEthicsCom
mittee (IAEC) (KUD/Zoo/007/IAEC/23). The study's experimental animals were treated
withmeticulouscarebytheguidelinesestablishedbytheCommitteeforControlandSupervisionofExperim
entson Animals (CPCSEA) in New Delhi,India.

References

1. Rhind SM, Evans NP, Bellingham M, Sharpe RM, Cotinot C, Mandon-Pepin B, Loup B, SinclairKD, Lea RG, Pocar P, Fischer B. Effects of environmental pollutants on the reproduction andwelfareofruminants.*Animal*. 2010Jul;4(7):1227-39.DOI:<https://doi.org/10.017/S1751731110000595>
2. KartheekRM,DavidM.AssessmentoffiproniltotoxicityonWistarrats:Ahepatotoxicperspective.*Toxico
logyreports*. 2018Jan1;5:448-56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.toxrep.2018.02.019>.
3. Vasconcelos AM, Daam MA, dos Santos LR, Sanches AL, Araújo CV, Espíndola EL. Acute andchronic sensitivity, avoidance behavior, and sensitive life stages of bullfrog tadpoles exposed tothebiopesticideabamectin.*Ecotoxicology*.2016Apr;25:500-9.DOI10.1007/s10646-015-1608-4
4. Kartheek RM, David M. ASSESSMENT OF RENAL TOXICITY IN RATS EXPOSED TOCOMMERCIAL FORMULATIONS OF FIPRONIL. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical,Chemical& Biological Sciences*. 2017 Jul 1;7(3).
5. Boujbiha MA, Hamden K, Guerhazi F, Bouslama A, Omezzine A, Kammoun A, El Feki A.Testiculartoxicityinmercuricchloridetreatedrats:associationwithoxidativestress.*Reproductivet
oxicology*.2009 Jul 1;28(1):81-9.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.reprotox.2009.03.011>
6. HamdySM,ShabanAM,AzizYS,MahmoudAM,MoemenLA,IbrahimWM,GadNS.AmeliorativeroleofJa
niaRubensalgaagainststoxicityofheavymetalpollutedwaterinmalerats.*Policy*.2018;2(2):38-46.
doi: 10.11648/j.stpp.20180202.13
7. RamadanSS,ElZaiatFA,HabashyEA,MontaserMM,HassanHE,TharwatSS,El-
KhadragyM,AbdelMoneimAE,ElshopakeyGE,AkabawyAM.CoenzymeQ10-
LoadedAlbuminNanoparticlesProtectagainstRedoxImbalanceandInflammatory,Apoptotic,andHi
stopathologicalAlterationsinMercuricChloride-
InducedHepatorenalToxicityinRats.*Biomedicine*.2023Nov 14;11(11):3054.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/biomedicine11113054>
8. Officioso A, Panzella L, Tortora F, Alfieri ML, Napolitano A, Manna C. Comparative Analysis ofthe Effects of Olive Oil Hydroxytyrosol and Its 5-S-Lipoyl Conjugate in Protecting HumanErythrocytes from Mercury Toxicity. *Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity*.2018;2018(1):9042192.<https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/9042192>
9. Akgül N, Altunkaynak BZ, Altunkaynak ME, Deniz ÖG, Ünal D, Akgül HM. Inhalation of mercuryvapor can cause toxic effects on rat kidneys. *Renal failure*. 2016 Mar 15;38(3):465-73.<https://doi.org/10.3109/0886022X.2016.1138832>
10. El-Shenawy SM, Hassan NS. Comparative evaluation of the protective effect of selenium andgarlic against liver and kidney damage induced by mercury chloride in the rats. *Pharmacologicalreports*.2008 Mar 1;60(2):199.
11. Nabil A, Elshemy MM, Asem M, Gomaa HF. Protective effect of DPPD on mercury chloride-
inducedhepatorenaltoxicityinrats.*JournalofToxicology*.2020;2020(1):4127284.<https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/4127284>

12. Ansar S, Iqbal M. Protective effect of diallyl sulfide against mercuric chloride-induced hepatic injury in rats. *Human & Experimental Toxicology*. 2016 Dec; 35(12):1305–11. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0960327116629723>
13. Emanuelli T, Rocha JB, Pereira ME, Porciuncula LO, Morsch VM, Martins AF, Souza DO. Effect of mercuric chloride intoxication and dimercaprol treatment on delta-aminolevulinic acid dehydratase from brain, liver, and kidney of adult mice. *Pharmacology & Toxicology*. 1996 Sep 1; 79(3):136–43. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0773.1996.tb00257.x>
14. Tanaka K, Kagawa T, Suzuki M, Naganuma A, Yamanaka N, Imura N. Strain difference in sensitivity of mice to renal toxicity of inorganic mercury. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*. 1998 Apr 1; 285(1):335–41.
15. Valko MM, Morris H, Cronin MT. Metals, toxicity, and oxidative stress. *Current Medicinal Chemistry*. 2005 May 1; 12(10):1161–208. <https://doi.org/10.2174/0929867053764635>
16. Lund BO, Miller DM, Woods JS. Studies on Hg(II)-induced H₂O₂ formation and oxidative stress in vivo and in vitro in rat kidney mitochondria. *Biochemical Pharmacology*. 1993 Apr 25; 45(10):2017–24. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-2952\(93\)90012-L](https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-2952(93)90012-L)
17. Gutteridge JM, Halliwell B. Invited review free radicals in disease processes: a compilation of cause and consequence. *Free Radical Research Communications*. 1993 Jan 1; 19(3):141–58. <https://doi.org/10.3109/10715769309111598>
18. Faix Š, Faixova Z, Michnova E, Varady J. Effect of per os administration of mercuric chloride on peroxidation processes in Japanese Quail. *Acta Veterinaria Brno*. 2003; 72(1):23–6.
19. David M, Kartheek RM. In vivo studies on hepato-renal impairments in freshwater fish *Cyprinus carpio* following exposure to sublethal concentrations of sodium cyanide. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*. 2016 Jan; 23:722–33.
20. Poljsak B, Šuput D, Milisav I. Achieving the balance between ROS and antioxidants: when to use the synthetic antioxidants. *Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity*. 2013; 2013(1):956792. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/956792>
21. Schieber M, Chandel NS. ROS function in redox signaling and oxidative stress. *Current Biology*. 2014 May 19; 24(10):R453–62.
22. Berlin M, Zalups RK, Fowler BA. Chapter 46– mercury. In: Nordberg GF, Fowler BA, Nordberg M (eds) *Handbook on the Toxicology of Metals*, 4th ed. Academic Press. 2015, 1013–1075.
23. Durak D, Kalender S, Uzun FG, Kalender Y. Mercury chloride-induced oxidative stress in human erythrocytes and the effect of vitamins C and E in vitro. *African Journal of Biotechnology*. 2010; 9(4).
24. Joshi D, Mittal DK, Shukla S, Srivastava AK, Srivastava SK. N-acetylcysteine and selenium protect mercuric chloride-induced oxidative stress and antioxidant defense system in liver and kidney of rats: a histopathological approach. *Journal of Trace Elements in Medicine and Biology*. 2014 Apr 1; 28(2):218–26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtemb.2013.12.006>
25. Othman MS, Safwat G, Aboulkhair M, Moneim AE. The potential effect of berberine in mercury-induced hepatorenal toxicity in albino rats. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*. 2014 Jul 1; 69:175–81. Moreassilva et al., 2013 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2014.04.012>
26. Lushchak VI, Matviishyn TM, Husak VV, Storey JM, Storey KB. Pesticide toxicity: a mechanistic approach. *EXCLI Journal*. 2018; 17:1101.
27. Barthelemy L, Woodley J, Houin G. Gastrointestinal absorption of drugs: methods and studies. *Fundamental*

- & clinical pharmacology. 1999 Mar 4;13(2):154–68.
28. Lautt WW. Hepatic circulation: physiology and pathophysiology.
 29. Ahn BE, Baker TA. Oxidation without substrate unfolding triggers proteolysis of the peroxide-sensor, PerR. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2016 Jan 5;113(1):E23–31. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1522687112>
 30. Trapani L, Segatto M, Pallottini V. Regulation and deregulation of cholesterol homeostasis: The liver as a metabolic “power station”. *World journal of hepatology*. 2012 Jun 6;4(6):184. [10.4254/wjh.v4.i6.184](https://doi.org/10.4254/wjh.v4.i6.184)
 31. Mello T, Zanieri F, Ceni E, Galli A. Oxidative stress in the healthy and wounded hepatocyte: a cellular organelles perspective. *Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity*. 2016;2016(1):8327410. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/8327410>
 32. Giannini EG, Testa R, Savarino V. Liver enzyme alteration: a guide for clinicians. *Cmaj*. 2005 Feb 1;172(3):367–79. <https://doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.1040752>
 33. Schomaker S, Warner R, Bock J, Johnson K, Potter D, Van Winkle J, Aubrecht J. Assessment of emerging biomarkers of liver injury in human subjects. *Toxicological Sciences*. 2013 Apr 1;132(2):276–83. <https://doi.org/10.1093/toxsci/kft009>
 34. Bergmeyer HU, Scheibe P, Wahlefeld AW. Optimization of methods for aspartate aminotransferase and alanine aminotransferase. *Clinical Chemistry*. 1978 Jan 1;24(1):58–73. <https://doi.org/10.1093/clinchem/24.1.58>
 35. Bowers Jr GN, McComb RB. A continuous spectrophotometric method for measuring the activity of serum alkaline phosphatase. *Clinical Chemistry*. 1966 Feb 1;12(2):70–89. <https://doi.org/10.1093/clinchem/12.2.70>
 36. Reagent FP. Protein measurement with the J. *Biol. Chem.* 1951;193:265–75.
 37. Dumas BT, Watson WA, Biggs HG. Albumin standards and the measurement of serum albumin with bromocresol green. *Clinica Chimica Acta*. 1971 Jan 1;31(1):87–96. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0009-8981\(71\)90365-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0009-8981(71)90365-2)
 38. Busher JT. Serum albumin and globulin. *Clinical methods: The history, physical, and laboratory examinations*. 1990;3:497–9.
 39. MACDONALD RP, HENRY RJ, JACOBS S, IBBOTT FA, MATHER A. Bilirubin (Modified Malloy and Evelyn)—Provisional Standard Methods of Clinical Chemistry 1965 Jan 1 (Vol. 5, pp. 65–74). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-4831-9686-2.50013-4>
 40. Jaffe, M. (1886). On the precipitate produced by picric acid in normal urine and on a new reaction of creatinine
 41. Richards JF, Smith RV, Wilcox RE. Comparison of two spectrophotometric assays for blood urea nitrogen: influence of apomorphine. *Microchemical Journal*. 1984 Feb 1;29(1):49–55. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0026-265X\(84\)90086-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/0026-265X(84)90086-9)
 42. Fawcett J, Scott J. A rapid and precise method for the determination of urea. *Journal of Clinical Pathology*. 1960 Mar 1;13(2):156–9. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jcp.13.2.156>
 43. Caraway WT. Determination of uric acid in serum by a carbonate method. *American Journal of Clinical Pathology*. 1955 Jul 1;25(7-ts):840–5. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcp/25.7-ts.0840>
 44. Lück H. Catalase. In *Methods of enzymatic analysis* 1965 Jan 1 (pp. 885–894). Academic press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-395630-9.50158-4>
 45. Kakkar P, Das B, Viswanathan PN. A modified spectrophotometric assay of superoxide dismutase.
 46. Paglia DE, Valentine WN. Studies on the quantitative and qualitative characterization of erythrocyte glutathione peroxidase. *The Journal of Laboratory and Clinical Medicine*. 1967 Jul 1;70(1):158–69.

47. HabigWH, PabstMJ, JakobyWB. GlutathioneS-transferases: the first enzymatic step in mercapturic acid formation. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*. 1974 Nov 25; 249(22):7130–9. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0021-9258\(19\)42083-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0021-9258(19)42083-8)
48. Buege JA, Aust SD. [30] Microsomal lipid peroxidation. In *Methods in enzymology* 1978 Jan 1 (Vol.52, pp.302–310). Academic press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0076-6879\(78\)52032-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0076-6879(78)52032-6)
49. HumasonGL, *Animal tissue techniques*, 3rd Edn. Freeman, San Francisco (1972).
50. SaïdiSA, AzazaMS, WindmoldersP, vanPeltJ, El-FekiA. Cytotoxicity evaluation and antioxidant enzyme expression related to heavy metals found in tunaby-products meal: an invitro study in human and rat liver cell lines. *Experimental and toxicologic pathology*. 2013 Nov 1; 65(7–8):1025–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.etp.2013.03.001>
51. Flora SJ, Mittal M, Mehta A. Heavy metal induced oxidative stress & its possible reversal by chelation therapy. *Indian Journal of Medical Research*. 2008 Oct 1; 128(4):501–23.
52. Ercal N, Gurer-Orhan H, Aykin-Burns N. Toxic metals and oxidative stress part I: mechanisms involved in metal-induced oxidative damage. *Current topics in medicinal chemistry*. 2001 Dec 1; 1(6):529–39.
53. Sumathi T, Shobana C, Christina J, Anusha C. Protective effect of *Bacopa monniera* on methylmercury-induced oxidative stress in the cerebellum of rats. *Cellular and Molecular Neurobiology*. 2012 Aug; 32:979–87.
54. Bharathi E, Jagadeesan G, Vijayakumar M. Hepato-ameliorative effect of hesperidin and ellagic acid on mercuric chloride intoxicated rats. *Biomedicine & Aging Pathology*. 2014 Jan 1; 4(1):17–21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biomag.2013.10.002>
55. VijayaprakashS, LangeswaranK, KumarSG, RevathyR, BalasubramanianMP. Nephro-protective significance of kaempferol on mercuric chloride induced toxicity in Wistar albino rats. *Biomedicine & aging pathology*. 2013 Jul 1; 3(3):119–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biomag.2013.05.004>
56. Hussain S, Rodgers DA, Duhart HM, Ali SF. Mercuric chloride-induced reactive oxygen species and its effect on antioxidant enzymes in different regions of rat brain. *Journal of Environmental Science & Health Part B*. 1997 May 1; 32(3):395–409.
57. BharathiE, JagadeesanG, ManivasagamT. Influence of S-allylcysteine against mercuric chloride-induced nephrotoxicity in albino rats. *J Chem Pharm Res*. 2012; 4(3):1470–4.
58. ElblehiSS, HafezMH, El-SayedYS. L- α -Phosphatidylcholine attenuates mercury-induced hepato-renal damage by suppressing oxidative stress and inflammation. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*. 2019 Mar 1; 26(9):9333–42.
59. Mustafa HN, Hegazy GA, El Awdan SA, Abdelbaset M. Protective role of CoQ10 or L-carnitine on the integrity of the myocardium in doxorubicin-induced toxicity. *Tissue and Cell*. 2017 Jun 1; 49(3):410–26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tice.2017.03.007>
60. Caglayan C, Kandemir FM, Darendelioğlu E, Yıldırım S, Kucukler S, Dortbudak MB. Rutin ameliorates mercuric chloride-induced hepatotoxicity in rats by interfering with oxidative stress, inflammation, and apoptosis. *Journal of Trace Elements in Medicine and Biology*. 2019 Dec 1; 56:60–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtemb.2019.07.011>
61. Su L, Wang M, Yin ST, Wang HL, Chen L, Sun LG, Ruan DY. The interaction of selenium and mercury in the accumulations and oxidative stress of rat tissues. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*. 2008 Jul 1; 70(3):483–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2007.05.018>
62. AslanturkA, UzunhisarcikliM, KalenderS, DemirF. Sodium selenite and vitamin E in preventing mercuric chloride-induced renal toxicity in rats. *Food and chemical toxicology*. 2014 Aug 1; 70:185–90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2014.05.010>

63. Kalender S, Uzun FG, Demir F, Uzunhisarcıklı M, Aslanturk A. Mercuric chloride-induced testicular toxicity in rats and the protective role of sodium selenite and vitamin E. *Food and chemical toxicology*. 2013 May 1; 55:456–62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2013.01.024>
64. Rao MV, Chhunchha B. Protective role of melatonin against the mercury-induced oxidative stress in the rat thyroid. *Food and chemical toxicology*. 2010 Jan 1; 48(1):7–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2009.06.038>
65. Hosseini A, Rajabian A, Fanoudi S, Farzadnia M, Boroushaki MT. Protective effect of Rheum turkestanicum root against mercuric chloride-induced hepatorenal toxicity in rats. *Avicenna journal of phytomedicine*. 2018 Nov; 8(6):488.
66. Ramadan SS, El Zaiat FA, Habashy EA, Montaser MM, Hassan HE, Tharwat SS, El-Khadragy M, Abdel Moneim AE, Elshopakey GE, Akabawy AM. Coenzyme Q10-Loaded Albumin Nanoparticles Protect against Redox Imbalance and Inflammatory, Apoptotic, and Histopathological Alterations in Mercuric Chloride-Induced Hepatorenal Toxicity in Rats. *Biomedicine*. 2023 Nov 14; 11(11):3054.
67. Valko MM, Morris H, Cronin MT. Metals, toxicity, and oxidative stress. *Current medicinal chemistry*. 2005 May 1; 12(10):1161–208. <https://doi.org/10.2174/0929867053764635>
68. Stohs SJ, Bagchi D. Oxidative mechanisms in the toxicity of metal ions. *Free radical biology and medicine*. 1995 Feb 1; 18(2):321–36. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0891-5849\(94\)00159-H](https://doi.org/10.1016/0891-5849(94)00159-H)
69. Tang LQ, Wei W, Chen LM, Liu S. Effects of berberine on diabetes induced by alloxan and a high-fat/high-cholesterol diet in rats. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*. 2006 Nov 3; 108(1):109–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2006.04.019>
70. Madureira P, Cunha EM, Aguas AP. Acute depletion and recovery of peritoneal B-1 lymphocytes in BALB/c mice after a single injection of mercury chloride. *Immunopharmacology and Immunotoxicology*. 2007 Jan 1; 29(2):311–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08923970701513518>
71. Kumar SV, Maitra S, Bhattacharya S. In vitro binding of inorganic mercury to the plasma membrane of rat platelets affects Na^+/K^+ -ATPase activity and platelet aggregation. *BioMetals*. 2002 Mar; 15:51–7.
72. Lee E, Park HK, Kim HJ. Adjustment of urinary mercury in health risk assessment of mercury. *Journal of Korean Medical Science*. 1996 Aug 1; 11(4):319–25. <https://doi.org/10.3346/jkms.1996.11.4.319>
73. Zimniak P. Detoxification reactions: relevance to aging. *Aging research reviews*. 2008 Dec 1; 7(4):281–300.
74. Mates JM. Effects of antioxidant enzymes in the molecular control of reactive oxygen species toxicology. *Toxicology*. 2000 Nov 16; 153(1–3):83–104.
75. Hutchinson DR. *Biochemical parameters of liver function*. University of Surrey (United Kingdom); 1980.
76. Hsu TL, Chiang Y, Wang WK, Chao PT, Bao JG, Wang YY. Pulse analysis as a possible real-time biomarker complementary to SGPT and SGOT for monitoring acute hepatotoxicity. *Toxicology Mechanisms and Methods*. 2003 Jan 1; 13(3):181–6. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15376510309829>
77. Al-Saleh I, El-Doush I, Shinwari N, Al-Baradei R, Khogali F, Al-Amodi M. Does low mercury-containing skin-lightening cream (fair & lovely) affect the kidney, liver, and brain of female mice? *Cutaneous and Ocular Toxicology*. 2005 Jan 1; 24(1):11–29. <https://doi.org/10.1081/CUS-200046179>
78. Agarwal R, Goel SK, Chandra R, Behari JR. Role of vitamin E in preventing acute mercury toxicity in rat. *Envi*

- ronmental Toxicology and Pharmacology. 2010 Jan 1; 29(1):70–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.etap.2009.10.003>
79. Štajn A, Žikić RV, Ognjanović B, Saičić ZS, Pavlović SZ, Kostić MM, Petrović VM. Effect of cadmium and selenium on the antioxidant defense system in rat kidneys. *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part C: Pharmacology, Toxicology and Endocrinology*. 1997 Jun 1; 117(2):167–72. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-8413\(97\)00063-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-8413(97)00063-7) Get rights and content
80. El-Demerdash FM. Antioxidant effect of vitamin E and selenium on lipid peroxidation, enzyme activities, and biochemical parameters in rats exposed to aluminum. *Journal of Trace Elements in Medicine and Biology*. 2004 Sep 14; 18(1):113–21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtemb.2004.04.001>
81. Şener G, Şehirli Ö, Tozan A, Velioğlu-Övünç A, Gedik N, Omurtag GZ. Ginkgo biloba extract protects against mercury (II)-induced oxidative tissue damage in rats. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*. 2007 Apr 1; 45(4):543–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2006.07.024>

82. Renugadevij, Prabu SM. Quercetin protects against oxidative stress-related renal dysfunction by cadmium in rats. *Experimental and Toxicologic Pathology*. 2010 Sep 1;62(5):471–81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.etp.2009.06.006>
83. Hai Bo YA, Zhao Fa XU, Wei LI, Yu DE, Bin XU. The protective role of procyanidins and lycopenes against mercuric chloride renal damage in rats. *Biomedical and Environmental Sciences*. 2011 Oct 1;24(5):550–9. <https://doi.org/10.3967/0895-3988.2011.05.015>
84. Pal M, Ghosh M. Studies on the comparative efficacy of α -linolenic acid and α -eleostearic acid on the prevention of organic mercury-induced oxidative stress in the kidney and liver of the rat. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*. 2012 Mar 1;50(3–4):1066–72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2011.12.042>
85. Al-Attar AM, Al-Taisan WA. Preventive effects of black seed (*Nigella sativa*) extract on Sprague Dawley rats exposed to diazinon. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*. 2010 Dec 8;4(5):957–68.
86. Mohssen M. Biochemical and histopathological changes in serum creatinine and kidney induced by inhalation of Thimet (Phorate) in male Swiss albino mouse, *Mus musculus*. *Environmental Research*. 2001 Sep 1;87(1):31–6. <https://doi.org/10.1006/enrs.2001.4285>
87. de Oliveira Mora L, Antunes LM, Francescato HD, Bianchi MD. The effects of oral glutamine on cisplatin-induced nephrotoxicity in rats. *Pharmacological Research*. 2003 Jun 1;47(6):517–22. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1043-6618\(03\)00040-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1043-6618(03)00040-9)
88. Soudani N, Sefi M, Amara IB, Boudawara T, Zeghal N. Protective effects of selenium (Se) on chromium (VI) induced nephrotoxicity in adult rats. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*. 2010 May 1;73(4):671–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2009.10.002>
89. Davies D.M, 1991. *Textbook of Adverse Drug Reactions*, fourth ed. Oxford medical publications
90. Hooper DC, Spitsin S, Kean RB, Champion JM, Dickson GM, Chaudhry I, Koprowski H. Uric acid, a natural scavenger of peroxynitrite, in experimental allergic encephalomyelitis and multiple sclerosis. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 1998 Jan 20;95(2):675–80. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.95.2.675>
91. Al-Attar AM. Antioxidant effect of vitamin E treatment on some heavy metals-induced renal and testicular injuries in male mice. *Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences*. 2011 Jan 1;18(1):63–72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sjbs.2010.10.004>
92. Yuan G, Dai S, Yin Z, Lu H, Jia R, Xu J, Song X, Li L, Shu Y, Zhao X, Chen Z. Sub-chronic lead and cadmium co-induce apoptosis protein expression in liver and kidney of rats. *International Journal of Clinical and Experimental Pathology*. 2014;7(6):2905.
93. Alian NS, Khodarahmi P, Naseh V. The effect of cadmium on apoptotic genes mRNA expression of Bax and Bcl-2 in the small intestine of rats. *Iranian Journal of Pathology*. 2018;13(4):408.
94. Abdel Moneim AE. *Indigofera oblongifolia* prevents lead acetate-induced hepatotoxicity, oxidative stress, fibrosis, and apoptosis in rats. *PLoS One*. 2016 Jul 8;11(7):e0158965. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0158965>
95. Izuta H, Shimazawa M, Tazawa S, Araki Y, Mishima S, Hara H. Protective effects of Chinese propolis and its component, chrysin, against neuronal cell death via inhibition of mitochondrial apoptosis pathway in SH-SY5Y cells. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*. 2008 Oct 8;56(19):8944–53.
96. Darendelioglu E, Aykutoglu G, Tartik M, Baydas G. Turkish propolis protects human endothelial cells in vitro from homocysteine-induced apoptosis. *Acta Histochemica*. 2016 May 1;118(4):369–76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.acthis.2016.03.007>
97. Caglayan C, Kandemir FM, Darendelioglu E, Yildirim S, Kucukler S, Dortbudak MB.

- Rutinamelioratesmercuricchloride–inducedhepatotoxicityinratsbyinterfering withoxidativestress,inflammation, and apoptosis. *Journal of Trace Elements in Medicine and Biology*. 2019 Dec1;56:60–8.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtemb.2019.07.011>
98. Yang D, Tan X, Lv Z, Liu B, Baiyun R, Lu J, Zhang Z. Regulation of Sirt1/Nrf2/TNF- α signalingpathway by luteolin is critical to attenuate acute mercuric chloride exposure induced hepatotoxicity.*ScientificReports*. 2016 Nov 17;6(1):37157.
99. Randi AS, Sanchez MS, Alvarez L, Cardozo J, Pontillo C, de Pisarev DL. Hexachlorobenzenetriggers AhR translocation to the nucleus, c-Src activation, and EGFR transactivation in rat liver.*Toxicologyletters*.2008Mar 15;177(2):116–22.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.toxlet.2008.01.003>
100. Yang J, Williams RS, Kelly DP. Bcl3 interacts cooperatively with peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR γ) coactivator 1 α to coactivate nuclear receptors estrogen-relatedreceptor α andPPAR α .*Molecularandcellularbiology*. 2009 Aug1;29(15):4091–102.
- 101.** KomposchK,SibiliaM.EGFRsignalinginliverdiseases.*Internationaljournalofmolecularsciences*.2015 Dec29;17(1):30.<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms17010030>
102. Choi S, Lim TG, Hwang MK, Kim YA, Kim J, Kang NJ, Jang TS, Park JS, Yeom MH, LeeKW. Rutin inhibits B[a]PDE-induced cyclooxygenase-2 expression by targeting EGFR kinaseactivity. *Biochemical Pharmacology*. 2013 Nov 15;86(10):1468–75.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcp.2013.08.066>
103. Casado M, A. Callejas N, Rodrigo J, Zhao X, Dey SK, Boscá L, Martín-Sanz P. Contributionof cyclooxygenase-2 to liver regeneration after partial hepatectomy. *The FASEB Journal*. 2001Sep;15(11):2016–8.