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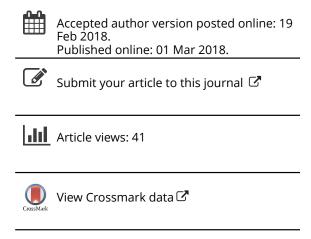
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RESEARCH ARTICLE



Comparative study of nano and bulk Fe₃O₄ induced oxidative stress in Wistar rats

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ABSTRACT

Context: Magnetic nanomaterials (Fe₃O₄ NMs) have become novel tools with multiple biological and medical applications because of their biocompatibility. However, adverse health effects of these NMs are of great interest to learn.

Objective: This study was designed to assess the size and dose-dependent effects of Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk on oxidative stress biomarkers after post–subacute treatment in female Wistar rats.

Methods: Rats were daily administered with 30, 300 and 1000 mg/kg b.w. doses for 28 d of Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk for biodistribution and histopathological studies.

Results: Fe_3O_4 NMs treatment caused significant increase in lipid peroxidation levels of treated rats. It was also observed that the NM treatment elicited significant changes in enzyme activities of superoxide dismutase, catalase, glutathione peroxidase, glutathione reductase and glutathione-S-transferase in treated rat organs with major reduction in glutathione content. Metal content analysis revealed that tissue deposition of NM in the organs was higher when compared to bulk and caused histological changes in liver.

Conclusion: This study demonstrated that for same dose, NM showed higher bioaccumulation, oxidative stress and tissue damage than its bulk. The difference in toxic effect of Fe₃O₄ nano and bulk could be related to their altered physicochemical properties.

ARTICLE HISTORY

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KEYWORDS

Fe₃O₄ nanomaterials; rat; oxidative stress; antioxidant enzymes; biodistribution; histopathology

Introduction

Nanotechnology, one of the leading and most promising technology of the twenty-first century, involves design, production and use of materials sized between 1 and 100 nm (Foth et al. 2012). Their controllable tiny size gives nanomaterials (NMs) unique chemical, mechanical, optical and biological properties, which provide greater potential for industrial, agricultural and medical applications (Zhu et al. 2008). With the rapid development and advantages of nanotechnology, NMs are rapidly replacing their larger counterparts, currently over 1600 consumer products in the market (www.nanotechproject.org). A new generation of Fe₃O₄ NMs has multifunctional applications in the field of diagnostic and therapeutic functions (Li et al. 2017). The transverse relaxation property of Fe₃O₄ NMs is extensively utilized in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and drug delivery systems (Cha et al. 2017). For example, Feridex, Resovist and Endorem are Fe₃O₄ NMs-based MRI contrast agents approved for clinical use by US Food and Drug Administration (Novotna et al. 2012). Moreover, surface functionalization of Fe₃O₄ NMs for magnetic hyperthermia gives additional properties for combinatorial therapy of cancer with a new type of biocompatible, cationic peptide dendrimers (Nigam et al. 2017). Zhao et al. (2014) used Fe₃O₄ NMs-labeled bone marrow

mesenchymal stem cells (BMSCs) to trace liver healing after hepatoectomy. They are also used in early detection of cancer and thrombosis, photothermal tumor ablation, liposomes, targeted drug delivery and biosensing applications (Bekaroğlu *et al.* 2017, Gogoi *et al.* 2017, Kurbanoglu *et al.* 2017, Liu *et al.* 2017, Shen *et al.* 2017). Fe₃O₄ NMs are extensively used in nanoremediation process in treating contaminated water and soil (Hjorth *et al.* 2017). Moreover, the electrostatic adsorption properties of Fe₃O₄ NMs were well explored to purify heavy metal contaminants like Chromium (VI) and Arsenic (III and V) (Lu *et al.* 2017, Siddiqui and Chaudhry 2017).

The extensive production and consumer exposure to a variety of nanotechnology inventions has stimulated attention regarding the health concerns of human exposure to NMs, environmental contamination and ecosystem disturbance has become another apprehension. NMs possess an increased surface to volume ratio, which brings much higher reactivity and uptake compared to their bulk materials and hence they behave differently in biological system, even at the same dose (Haase *et al.* 2012).

Recent studies reported that Fe₃O₄ NMs treatment caused developmental toxicity in larval stages of *Artemia salina* (Zhu *et al.* 2017). Fe₃O₄ NMs used in denitrification process can affect the microorganism's community by attacking its cell

membrane through generating reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Ma et al. 2017). Moreover, Fe₃O₄ NMs can cause mitochondrial damage, Golgi and endoplasmic reticulum stress resulting in induction of autophagy in the kidney and spleen of mice (Zhang et al. 2016). Nagvi et al. (2010) and Ramesh et al. (2012) have demonstrated that Fe₃O₄ NMs significantly enhanced ROS generation which lead to cell injury and death in macrophage and lung epithelial cells, respectively. Furthermore, mice exposed to Fe₃O₄ NMs via intra-peritoneal route for 1 week significantly induced oxidative stress in liver and kidney (Ma et al. 2012). Moreover, Reddy et al. (2017) reported oxidative stress condition in major organs of rats after sub-acute treatment of Iron oxide nanoparticles (IONPs) (Fe₂O₃ NPs). Similarly, Srinivas et al. (2012) showed that rat lung tissue markedly suffered oxidative stress, inflammation and histomorphological alterations following acute inhalation exposure of Fe₃O₄ NMs.

We hypothesized that the difference in the physicochemical properties of Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk will have difference in inducing oxidative stress. Hence, we aimed to assess the size and dose-dependent biodistribution and resultant changes in oxidative stress biomarkers and histomorphology in rats after repeated oral treatment of Fe₃O₄ NM and bulk. However, the data regarding exposure levels of Fe₃O₄ NMs to humans in day-to-day life are unavailable. Hence for the present study, OECD guideline 407 was followed to draw the dose levels for assessing toxicity of both Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk. The doses considered according to this guideline may not necessarily represent the concentrations of Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk present in the environment, however, may provide useful information regarding possible health hazards after getting exposed to these materials.

Clinical significance

- Considering the ever increasing commercial application of Fe₃O₄ NMs in nanomedicine, these NMs should be used cautiously while studies are conducted to assess the risks they pose to human health.
- Assessment of oxidative stress biomarkers by Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk in female Wistar rats after repeated oral exposure emphasises size and dose-dependent effects of NMs and bulk on organs will help to advance the designing and manipulation of these NMs for further biomedical use.

Materials and methods

Materials

 Fe_3O_4 NMs (cat no. 637106, 97% purity), bulk Fe_3O_4 (cat. No. 310069, 95% purity) Iron standard (cat no. 43149) and all other chemicals used in this study were procured from Sigma Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, MO).

Characterization of nanoparticles

The Fe₃O₄ NMs size and morphology was characterized using on a Hitachi H-7600 tungsten-tip transmission electron microscope (TEM). Alcohol suspension of NMs was deposited on TEM grids covered with formvar. The mean size and standard deviation were calculated by measuring over 100 NMs in random fields of view. The hydrodynamic diameter and zeta potential of Fe₃O₄ NMs in water were measured by dynamic light scattering (DLS) and laser Doppler velocimetry (LDV) using Malvern Zetasizer Nano-ZS instrument. Fe₃O₄ NMs were suspended in MilliQ water and sonicated for 10 min using sonicator (Hielscher Ultrasonics, Teltow, Germany). The polydispersity index (PDI) given is a measure of the size ranges present in the solution. Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk were analyzed for purity using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry using standard protocol (ICP-OES, IRIS Intrepid II XDL, Thermo Jarrel Ash).

Animals and treatment

The 8-10-week-old female albino Wistar rats were bought from the National Institute of Nutrition, Hyderabad, India. Literature survey of conventional toxicological studies shows that usually there is little difference in sensitivity between the sexes, but in those cases where differences are observed, females are generally slightly more sensitive. Hence, female rats were used in our study. Standard environment of 22 °C (±2 °C) temperature, 50-60% relative humidity and 12 h light/ dark cycle was maintained in animal house. AIN-93 composition has been given as pellet diet and water were supplied ad libitum. The test animals were kept individually in polypropylene cages with steel cover lid and were acclimatized to laboratory conditions for 7 d. All the animal experiments were endorsed by (Ref. No. IICT/BIO/TOX/PG/31/05/2016) the Institutional Animal Ethics Committee of Indian Institute of Chemical Technology, Hyderabad, India.

The study design was based on OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) guideline 407 (2008). Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk were suspended in water and sonicated for 15 min using probe sonicator. Control group was treated with tap water. Experimental groups (5 rats/ group) were treated orally with Fe₃O₄ NMs and Fe₃O₄ bulk each at 30, 300 and 1000 mg/kg body weight (b.w) doses. The rats were treated once a day in a single dose to the animals, for 28 d using stomach tube. The volume did not exceed 1 ml/100 g body weight. The high dose was selected with the intention of bringing toxic effects but no death, medium dose was to establish dose response and lowest dose level to show no observed adverse effects (NOAEL). Rats were observed daily for toxic symptoms and behavioral changes. After 28 d, rats were sacrificed using carbon dioxide asphyxiation. Liver, kidney and brain were collected, perfused with cold potassium chloride buffer (1.15% KCl and 0.5 mM EDTA) and homogenized in potassium phosphate buffer (KPB 0.1 M, pH 7.4). The homogenate was centrifuged at 15,000 rpm for 30 min. The clear supernatant was collected and stored in aliquots in -85 °C. Protein estimation was done using Lowry et al. (1951) method with slight modifications.

Oxidative stress markers

Lipid peroxidation (LPO) was assessed in tissue homogenate following the method of Wills (1969). In total, 2 ml of 0.375% thiobarbituric acid (TBA) - 15% trichloro acetic acid (TCA) reagent and 0.5 ml of tissue homogenate were taken in a tube and boiled in water bath for 30 min. The tubes were cooled, 3 ml of butanol was added to extract pink-colored TBARS (thiobarbituric acid reactive substances) complex. The absorbance was measured at 532 nm using Spectramax spectrophotometer (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA).

The reduced glutathione (GSH) content was measured following the method of Jollow et al. (1974). Tissue homogenate and 4% sulfosalicylic acid were mixed in 1:1 ratio, kept in ice for 1 h and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min. A total of 1 ml supernatant, 0.4 ml 5,5-dithiobis-2-nitrobenzoic acid (DTNB) (4 mg/ml) and 1.6 ml KPB were taken in a tube. The yellow color developed was read at 412 nm.

Superoxide dismutase activity was estimated in tissue supernatant using the method of Marklund and Marklund (1974). A total of 45 μl of 10 mM pyrogallol and 100 μl tissue supernatant were taken in a tube and the volume was made up to 3 ml with 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.2) containing 1 mM DTPA (diethylene-triaminepenta acetic acid). The rate

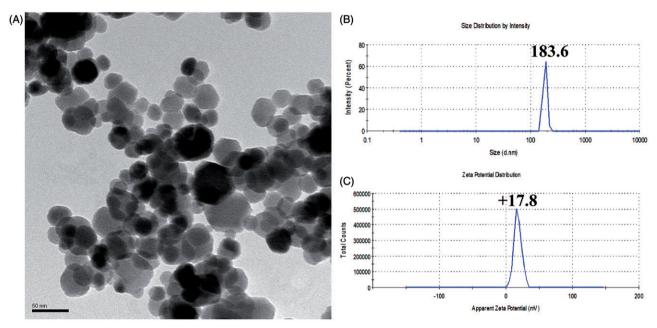


Figure 1. Characterization of Fe_3O_4 NMs by (A) TEM, (B) size distribution and (C) Zeta potential.

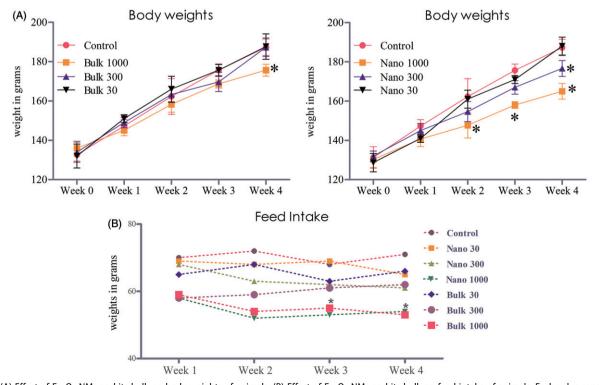


Figure 2. (A) Effect of Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk on body weights of animals. (B) Effect of Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk on feed intake of animals. Each value represents the mean \pm SD; n = 5 rats.

of inhibition of pyrogallol auto-oxidation was recorded at 420 nm. Unit enzyme activity was calculated as the amount of enzyme required to give 50% inhibition of pyrogallol auto oxidation.

The catalase activity was assayed using spectrophotometric method of Aebi (1984). In total, 3 ml of 0.063% $\rm H_2O_2$ in KPB was mixed with 100 µl of tissue supernatant. The change in absorbance was recorded for 1 min at 240 nm. Unit enzyme activity was calculated as micromoles of $\rm H_2O_2$ decomposed per minute per milligram protein using a molar extinction coefficient of 43.6 $\rm M^{-1}\,cm^{-1}$.

The Glutathione peroxidase (GPx) activity was measured using the procedure of Paglia and Valentine (1967). Totally, 750 μ l KPB, 60 μ l 2.25 mM β -NADPH (β -Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate), 15 μ l glutathione reductase (GR; 7.1 μ l/ml) and 25 μ l GSH (11.52 mg/ml) were taken in a cuvette. The enzymatic reaction was initiated by adding 100 μ l supernatant and 100 μ l hydrogen peroxide (1.5 mM). The decrease in absorbance was recorded for 1 min at

340 nm. Unit enzyme activity was calculated as micromoles of β -NADPH oxidized per minute using extinction coefficient of $6.22 \times 10^3 \, \text{mM}^{-1} \, \text{cm}^{-1}$.

The GR activity was assayed using the method of Carlberg and Mannervik (1985). A total of 3 ml of reaction mixture contained KPB, 1.0 mM oxidized GSH, 0.15 mM β -NADPH, 0.01% bovine serum albumin and 100 μ l tissue supernatant were added. The change in the absorbance was recorded at 340 nm. Molar extinction coefficient of 6.22×10^3 mM $^{-1}$ cm $^{-1}$ was used to calculate GR activity.

The Glutathione-S-transferase (GST) activity was determined according to the method of Habig *et al.* (1974). A total of 2.7 ml KPB, $100\,\mu$ l 75 mM GSH, $100\,\mu$ l 30 mM CDNB (1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene) and $100\,\mu$ l supernatant were taken in a tube. The change in absorbance was recorded at 340 nm for 1 min. The unit enzyme activity was expressed as micromoles CDNB-conjugate per minute per millgram protein using a molar extinction coefficient of $9.6 \times 10^3\,\text{M}^{-1}\,\text{cm}^{-1}$.

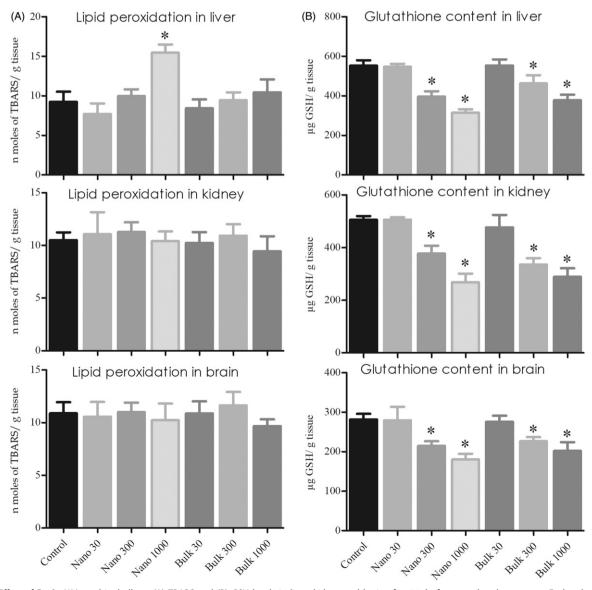


Figure 3. Effect of Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk on (A) TBARS and (B) GSH levels in liver, kidney and brain after 28 d of repeated oral treatment. Each value represents the mean \pm SD; n=5 rats. *p<0.05.

Histopathological examination

A small section of liver, kidney and brain were collected from treated and control rats, fixed in 10% buffered formalin overnight. The tissues were dehydrated in ascending concentrations of ethanol and cleared in benzene using Leica TP 1020 tissue processor, followed by embedding in paraffin blocks using Leica EG 1160 paraffin embedder. Using microm HM 360 microtome, paraffin blocks were cut into 5-µm thick sections and fixed on slides. These sections were deparaffinized using xylene, ethanol and stained with hemotoxylin and eosin (H&E) in Microm HMS-70 stainer. The slides were observed under optical microscope (Olympus BX51, Japan).

Tissue distribution

A total of 0.1-0.3 g of liver, kidney, brain and feces and 0.1 ml of urine from the treated and control rats were predigested in nitric acid overnight. Samples were then heated at 80 °C for 10 h followed by heating at 130–150 °C for 30 min. A total of 0.5 ml of 70% perchloric acid was added. The samples were reheated for 4h, and evaporated nearly to dryness. Subsequently, these solutions and urine (0.5 ml) samples were made up to 5 ml with deionized water and filtered (Reddy et al. 2015). Iron standard was diluted to 1, 10, 50, 100 ppm for standardization and validation of ICP-OES (IRIS

Intrepid II XDL, Thermo Jarrel Ash) and analyzed the metal content in samples.

Statistical analysis

The results are presented as the mean \pm (SD) of number of observations. Comparisons of means were carried out using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test to compare means between the different treatment groups using Graph Pad prism (Graph pad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Differences were considered significant at p < 0.05.

Results

Characterization

Detailed physicochemical characterizations of the Fe₃O₄ NM used in this study are summarized in Figure 1. TEM analysis revealed that Fe₃O₄ NM was monodisperse and spherical in shape having a mean diameter of 29.6 ± 12.2 nm. The mean hydrodynamic diameter of NM dispersed in water as measured by DLS was 183.6 nm which is six folds larger when compared to TEM size suggesting particles were agglomerated. Polydispersity index (PDI) value of 0.582 represents that the NMs were polydisperse. Zeta potential indicates electrical stability of NMs in colloidal dispersions; values less than ≤5 mV specify a lack of sufficient repulsion leading to

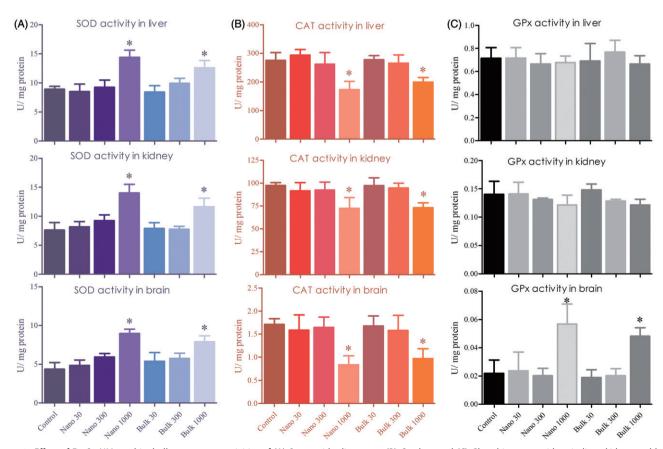


Figure 4. Effect of Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk on enzyme activities of (A) Superoxide dismutase, (B) Catalase and (C) Glutathione peroxidase in liver, kidney and brain of rats after 28 d of repeated oral treatment. Each value represents the mean \pm SD; n = 5 rats. *p < 0.05.

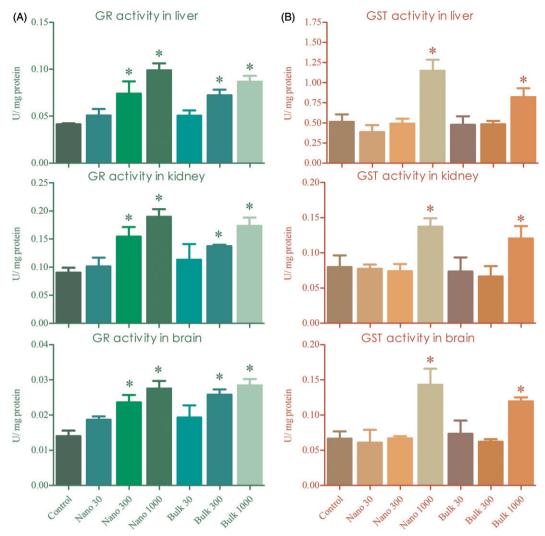


Figure 5. Effect of Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk on enzyme activities of (A) Glutathione reductase and (B) Glutathione-S-transferase in liver, kidney and brain of rats. Each value represents the mean \pm SD; n = 5 rats. *p < 0.05.

coagulation. The ζ potential of NMs was $+17.8\,\text{mV}$ at pH 7, which corresponds to the pH of natural water.

Body weights and feed intake

The effect of Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treatment for 28 d on body weights of the rats is presented in Figure 2(A). The results revealed that the Fe₃O₄ NMs treatment at high dose significantly decreased the body weight of the rats from week 2, week 3 and week 4. Further, Fe₃O₄ NMs medium dose group rats showed significant decrease in body weight in week 4. However, Fe₃O₄ bulk treatment brought significant decrease in body weight only in week 4 of high dose group rats. It was observed that the effect of Fe₃O₄ NMs was more significant in reducing body weight gain than the bulk. Moreover, the feed intake was significantly reduced in high-dose treated animals of bulk and nano group in week 2, 3 and 4, respectively.

Oxidative stress biomarkers

Fe₃O₄ NMs treatment showed significant increase in the amount of TBARS only in liver at 1000 mg/kg dose level.

However, bulk at high dose did not show any significant difference in TBARS levels of treated and control groups. Both Fe_3O_4 NMs and bulk at medium and low dose group rat tissues showed no change in the TBARS levels when compared to control. It was observed that the induction of LPO was more significant in NM-treated group than its bulk (Figure 3(A)).

In the present study, GSH levels of treated and control rats were measured and shown in Figure 3(B). Both Fe_3O_4 NMs and its bulk treatment at high and medium dose levels resulted in dose-dependent depletion of GSH levels in liver, kidney and brain. However, Fe_3O_4 NMs and bulk treatment at low dose did not alter GSH levels in the tissues. It was also witnessed that NM treatment brought more severe effect on GSH depletion than the bulk.

Figure 4(A) represents the activity of the superoxide dismutase (SOD) in various tissues of the experimental animals. Our study reveals that nano and bulk Fe_3O_4 administration repeatedly for 28 d brought significant increase in SOD activity in liver, kidney and brain at 1000 mg/kg dose. Low and medium groups of both nano and bulk Fe_3O_4 did not show any change in SOD activity.

The CAT activity was assayed in control and treated rats and the results are presented in Figure 4(B). Fe $_3$ O $_4$ NMs and

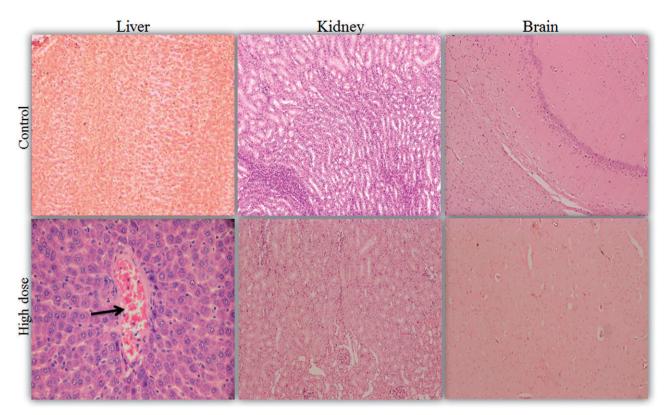


Figure 6. Normal architecture of liver, kidney and brain from control rats were shown in upper panel. Lower panel represents liver, kidney and brain from high dose group treated with Fe₃O₄ NMs showing pathological changes pointed by arrows. Observations were made at 40× magnification.

its bulk treatment at 1000 mg/kg dose resulted in significant decrease in the CAT activity in the liver, kidney and brain. However, 30 and 300 mg/kg dose levels did not cause any change in CAT activity. However, significant effect in inhibiting CAT activity was higher in Fe₃O₄ NMs-treated rats than the bulk.

Effect of Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk on GPx activity after oral treatment for 28 d in various tissues is presented in Figure 4(C). Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treatment did not result in any significant change in GPx activity in liver, kidney and brain of rats from all the dose levels.

The GR activity was assayed in control and Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treated rats and are presented in Figure 5(A). Repeated oral treatment of rats with Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk for 28 d had significantly increased the GR activity at medium and high dose groups in a dose-dependent manner. However, low dose group rats did not show any change in the GR activity.

The GST activity was assayed in various tissues of control and treated rats and are presented in Figure 5(B). The study revealed that both Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treatment at 1000 mg/ kg significantly induced GST activity in liver, kidney and brain. However medium and low dose group rats showed no significant change in GST activity in all the tissues.

Histopathology

Histopathological changes in liver, kidney and brain tissues of Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treated rats after 28 d repeated oral treatment is presented in Figure 6. Only liver from Fe₃O₄ NMs at 1000 mg/kg dose group rats showed histopathological changes such as central venous congestion. However, medium and low dose group rats of Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk did not show any changes in the histomorphology.

Tissue distribution

The tissue distribution of Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk in various tissues of rats and their elimination through urine and feces after 28 d repeated oral treatment is presented in Figure 7. The study revealed that both the compounds passed through gastro intestinal tract, reached blood stream and distributed well in liver, kidney and brain of treated rats in a dosedependent manner. The tissue distribution of Fe was more in high dose rat tissues followed by medium and low dose groups. The accumulation pattern was size dependent, i.e. nano-sized Fe₃O₄ accumulated more significantly than its bulk in all the tissues. The accumulation of both the compounds was found to be more in liver followed by kidney and brain. It was also observed that because of the large size Fe₃O₄ bulk eliminated more through feces than the nanosized Fe₃O₄. Fe₃O₄ NMs after absorbing through the gut was mostly eliminated through urine than its bulk.

Discussion

In the present study, TEM analysis revealed average diameter of Fe₃O₄ NMs was $29.6 \pm 12.2 \, \text{nm}$ when dispersed in water, NMs agglomerated resulting in increase in size by six folds, i.e. 183.6 nm. The agglomeration of nanoparticles was due to van der Waal's force between individual particles and also the low ionic charge on particles surface was insufficient to stabilize the particles via repulsive force, resulting in

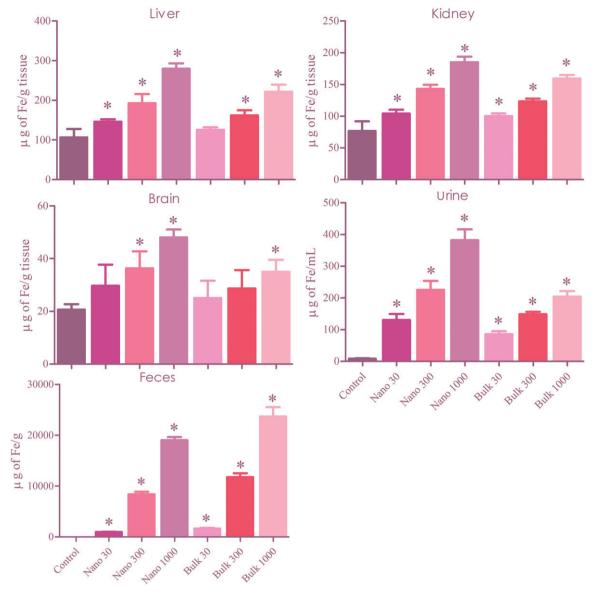


Figure 7. Metal content analysis in liver, kidney, brain, urine and feces of rats after 28 d of repeated oral treatment with Fe₃O₄ NMs and its bulk. * p < 0.05.

agglomeration. The aggregates were not much influenced by Brownian movement, resulting in precipitation. Hence, the suspension was sonicated for making stable solution before treatment.

In this study, both Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk at high dose induced significant lipid peroxidation which suggests that both the compounds fortified ROS generation leading to membrane damage in treated rat tissues. On the other hand, Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treatment caused significant dose-dependent decrease of GSH content in treated rat organs. Moreover, rabbits treated with Fe₃O₄ NMs for 14 d resulted in significant depletion in GSH levels with a concomitant increase in LPO in brain cortex (Chahinez *et al.* 2016). This might be due to the reason that GSH directly reacts and nullifies ROS, which also gets utilized in various antioxidant/detoxification processes. Enhanced LPO and decreased GSH in the cell represent oxidative stress condition. It was observed that Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treatment brought increase in SOD activity and decrease in CAT activity

significantly. Increased SOD activity can be attributed to the cell's response towards increased superoxide radical (O₂⁻). However, it may be understood that the increase in the activity of SOD is not sufficient to detoxify the excess of superoxide anion. This is evidenced by the decrease in CAT activity because increased O₂ may directly inhibit CAT activity (Reddy et al. 2015). A higher activity of GR was observed in Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treated rat organs in response to excess ROS for the restoration of cellular GSH content. Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treatment significantly increased GPx activity in all the tissues, which could be due to defensive response towards increased lipid peroxides. Moreover, the observed increase in GPx activity in the present work correlates well with the significant enhancement in LPO as well as the GSH depletion. On the other hand, GST metabolizes a variety of xenobiotics by conjugating them to GSH. In Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk treated rats, GST activity was elevated in liver, kidney and brain. This increased activity of GST is also another reason for depleted GSH content as GST utilizes GSH in

conjugation process. On the whole, the oxidative stress biomarkers revealed that the nano-sized Fe₃O₄ induced more significant oxidative stress when compared with its bulk at high dose.

Biodistribution study revealed that along with the increase in doses the accumulation of both Fe₃O₄ NMs and bulk in treated rat organs was increased. Deposition of both the compounds was found high in liver followed by kidney and brain. It was also observed that even though both the compounds were administered at same concentration, there was difference in tissue distribution. In addition, iron overload was well tolerated by both the groups. However, similar results were obtained by Reddy et al. (2017) after 28-day repeated oral exposure of IONPs. Stabilized NMs were accumulated more in liver of zebra fish in comparison to bare Fe₃O₄ NMs suggesting stabilized NMs are easily transportable than naked NMs. Moreover, the tissue burden of Fe₃O₄ NMs in zebra fish after 7 d exposure did not induce any mortality, as the stress mechanisms were actively involved in nullifying the effect of NMs (Zheng et al. 2017). Histomorphological changes were only observed in high-dose NMs treated group causing central vein congestion in liver. The absorptivity of the particles was dependent upon the size, i.e. Fe₃O₄ NMs deposition was higher when compared with the bulk in all the tissues. The same was reflected in excretion study where the large sized bulk was excreted more in feces without getting absorbed through gastro intestinal tract membrane when compared to the NM.

Similar results were observed in previous research articles as well with different biological models and routes of exposure. Rats following continuous 4h inhalation exposure to Fe₃O₄ NMs at a dose of 640 mg/m³ showed significant increase in lipid peroxidation, significant decrease in SOD, CAT, GPx activities and GSH content along with histopathological changes in lung tissue (Srinivas et al. 2012). Fourteen days of treatment of Fe₃O₄ NMs in rabbits brought significant reduction in enzyme kinetics of SOD, CAT, GPx and GST (Chahinez et al. 2016). On contrary, Singh et al. (2012) reported that human lymphoblastoid cells treated with uncoated Fe₃O₄ NMs did not induce any oxidative DNA damage and genotoxicity. However, similar difference between nano and bulk in exerting oxidative stress was reported by Prabhakar et al. (2012), where acute oral treatment of Al₂O₃ NMs brought more significant oxidative stress and histopathological changes than its bulk. Biodistribution and histopathological changes were observed in treated rat organs after sub-acute oral treatment of IONPs and bulk materials (Reddy et al. 2017).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the results indicated that the difference in physicochemical properties between Fe₃O₄ NM and bulk are significantly reflected in their potential in inducing oxidative stress, bioaccumulation and histological changes in treated rat organs. However, to understand the complete underlying mechanism, further studies are required. The present results suggest that we should be cautious towards the potential risk of intentional or unintentional large-scale exposure to Fe₃O₄ NMs.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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