MATERNAL AND FETAL TOXICITY-INDUCED BY NICKEL OXIDE NANOPARTICLES ADMINISTRATION IN ALBINO RATS DURING GESTATION

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ABSTRACT

Objective: Despite the widespread of nickel oxide nanoparticles (NiO NPs) and their benefits in all fields, they have many negative effects on human life, especially expectant mothers and their fetus. The purpose of this study was to investigate the possible maternal and developmental toxicity-induced by NiO NPs administration during gestation.

Methods: Three groups of pregnant rats were administered orally during days 5–19 of gestation, the pregnant rats were haphazardly designed into three groups (six rat/group), as follows: Control group and NiO NPs administered groups, low (4 mg/kg), and high (8 mg/kg) doses.

Results: NiO NPs administration resulted in severe maternal and developmental toxicity which included reduction in uterine weight, mother weight gain, the average weight of placenta, the number corpora lutea, implantation sites, and the number of live fetuses. Furthermore, high pre/postimplantation, fetal growth retardation, and morphological and skeletal anomalies, an elevation in liver and brain DNA damage in both mother and fetus, and histopathological alterations in different tissues (placenta, liver, kidney, and brain) of pregnant rats and fetuses. Lipid peroxidation showed a significant elevation in maternal, fetal liver, and brain tissues of NiO NPs-administered rats. Furthermore, glutathione content and catalase activity were decreased in both tissues of NiO NPs-administered rats.

Conclusion: Finally, the detrimental impacts of NiO NPs in dams and fetuses probably through its potential generation of reactive oxygen species.

Keywords: Nickel oxide nanoparticles, Oxidative stress, DNA damage, Gestation, Teratogenicity.

INTRODUCTION

The most widely used types of nanomaterials are the metallic nanoparticles including metallic nickel nanoparticles (Ni NPs). Ni NPs are used in many fields, including magnetic resonance imaging [1], magnetic fluids [2], catalysts [3,4], magnetic recording media [5], solar cells, lithium-ion batteries, diodes, and biosensors [6], as well as in urea and glucose fluids [2], catalysts [3,4], magnetic recording media [5], and other biomedical applications [11]. Furthermore, Nickel oxide nanoparticles (NiO NPs) have diesel-fuel additive and pigment properties [12].

Several studies revealed the detrimental health impacts of Ni NPs both in human and experimental animals such as skin allergies, lung fibrosis, lung cancer, cardiovascular diseases, hepatotoxicity [13-17], reproductive toxicity [18], and zebrafish fetal toxicity [19]. Many previous studies reported that NiO NPs when ingested through oral exposure, induced genotoxicity [20,21], multi-organ toxicity [22] in male rats. Increasing uses of NiO NPs make it widely distributed in our environment, especially in the wastewater. Hence, the potential impacts of Ni NPs on the health of humans and the environment have great concerns [23,24].

The excessive utilization of NiO NPs may increase the chances of exposure through dermal contact, inhalation, and oral route. The average daily intake of Ni from the food in the USA was estimated at 150–168 μg, typical dietary intake of Ni from drinking water was 2 μg and 0.1–1 μg from air [25].

The toxicological impacts of NiO NPs on pregnant women and developing embryos/fetuses have limited information. Therefore, it is important to investigate the possible maternal and developmental toxicity-induced by NiO NPs administration during gestation period.

METHODS

Experimental animals

Adult female and male Swiss white albino rat (Rattus norvegicus) (7–9 weeks old, 180 g–200 g b.w) were purchased from the animal house of the King Fahd Center for Medical Research, King Abdul-Aziz University in Jeddah and were maintained on a standard lab diet in artificial illuminated and a temperature-controlled room free from any other source of chemical contamination in the Animal House Laboratory, Faculty of Science, Taif University, Saudi Arabia. The handling of the animals was carried out in strict accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals 8th Edition 2011.

Materials

NiO-NPs (Cat. No. 637130) were purchased from sigma chemical company (St. Louis, MO, USA). According to the manufacturing data sheet, the particle size of the nano-sized NiO (black, 99.8% pure) was <50 nm.

Experiment design

After an acclimatization period of 1 week, females were housed with males overnight in suitable cages; successful mating was determined by the presence of sperm in the vaginal smears and was designated as day zero of pregnancy. The pregnant rats were haphazardly designed into three groups (six rat/group), different doses of NiO-NPs were suspended in 1 ml distilled water (aqueous suspension). The low dose according to Saquib et al. [22], while the high dose is doubled the low dose. The suspensions were ultrasonicated before they were administered once daily through gastric tube from 5th until 19th day of gestation. Group 1: Control group untreated rats. Group 2: Low-dose group, rats were administered with 4 mg/kg b.w. Group 3: High-dose group (doubled dose), rats were administered with 8 mg/kg b.w. of NiO-NPs.
These dams were sacrificed by cervical dislocation on day 19 of gestation; the two uterine horns were removed, weight and total implantation sites, fetal mortality rate (resorbed or still birth), and living fetuses were recorded. The placentas were examined and their weights were recorded. Live fetuses were removed from the uterus and fetal body weight, body length, and tail length were recorded and examined for gross malformations [26].

**Skeletal examination**
Fetuses were fixed in 95% ethyl alcohol and were stained with double staining of fetal skeletons for cartilage (Acian blue) and bone (Alizarin red) according to the method described by Young et al. [27].

**Comet assay**
The alkaline comet assay was performed according to the method described by Nandakumar et al., El-Shorbagy and Hamdi [28,29] to detect DNA damage in liver and brain tissues of pregnant rats and fetuses of all different groups.

**Estimation of the markers of oxidative stress and antioxidants**

*Tissue homogenate preparation*
Liver and brain tissues of both mother and fetus of all groups were removed, washed in 0.9% saline, and then dried on filter paper. 1.00 mg tissue was homogenized in 1 ml of 1× phosphate-buffered saline PBS and stored at −20°C overnight. The homogenates were centrifuged at 3000 r.p.m for 15 min. Supernatants were used to evaluate malondialdehyde (MDA), glutathione (GSH), and catalase (CAT).

Estimation of level of MDA according to Ohkawa et al. [30], GSH concentrations were estimated according to Beutler et al. [31], and the method of Aebi [32] was used to determine the CAT activity in liver and brain tissues homogenates of both mother and fetus of all groups.

**Histopathological preparation**
Parts of maternal and fetal tissues (liver, kidney, brain, and placenta) of different groups were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin then stored in 70% alcohol for a general histological preparation. Maternal and fetal tissues were dehydrated in ascending grades of ethyl alcohol, cleared in terpineol and embedded in paraffin wax. Serial transverse sections five microns thick of different tissues were cut, mounted and stained with hematoxylin and eosin for general histological studies [33]. Histological changes were investigated under light microscope at magnification 400×.

**Statistical analysis**
Data were represented as mean ± standard error (SE). Statistical analysis of data was performed using GraphPad Prism 5. Data were analyzed for statistical significance by the one-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test. The data at *p<0.05* were considered statistically significant.

**RESULTS**

**Teratological examinations**

Pregnancy outcome in the different groups was summarized in Table 1. Pregnant rats administered with NiO-NPs revealed a significant decrease in uterine weight, body weight gain, the average weight of placenta, the number corpora lutea, implantation sites, and the number of live fetuses when compared to the control group. Furthermore, there was a high pre/postimplantation loss/litter in NiO-NPs administered rats compared to the control. On the other hand, non-significant decrease was observed in postimplantation loss/litter and number of live fetuses of low dose of NiO-NPs when compared to the control (p<0.05).

The uterus of control pregnant rats on day 19 of gestation showed normal distribution of the implanted fetuses in the two horns (Fig. 1a). The uterus of pregnant rats received different doses of NiO-NPs, revealed asymmetrical distribution of fetuses in the two uterine horns, and early resorbed fetuses in one uterine horn (Fig. 1b and c).

| Parameter | Experimental groups | Control | Ni-oxide-NPs low (4 mg/kg) | Ni-oxide-NPs high (8 mg/kg) |
|-----------|---------------------|---------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| No. pregnant rats | | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Corpora Lutea number/liter | | 9±0.776±0.69 | 9±0.776±0.69 | 9±0.776±0.69 |
| Fetuses/litter | | 8.7±0.497±0.69 | 8.7±0.497±0.69 | 8.7±0.497±0.69 |
| Litter weight gain (g) | | 8.2±1.377±0.69 | 8.2±1.377±0.69 | 8.2±1.377±0.69 |
| Postimplantation loss sites/litter | | 2.52±0.280±0.69 | 2.52±0.280±0.69 | 2.52±0.280±0.69 |
| Preimplantation loss sites/litter | | 2.25±0.280±0.69 | 2.25±0.280±0.69 | 2.25±0.280±0.69 |
| Total length (cm) | | 19.7±1.377±0.69 | 19.7±1.377±0.69 | 19.7±1.377±0.69 |
| Tail length (cm) | | 9.2±0.497±0.69 | 9.2±0.497±0.69 | 9.2±0.497±0.69 |
| Fetal length (cm) | | 8.2±1.377±0.69 | 8.2±1.377±0.69 | 8.2±1.377±0.69 |
| Fetal weight (g) | | 5.80±0.143±0.69 | 5.80±0.143±0.69 | 5.80±0.143±0.69 |
| Placenta weight (g) | | 22.6±0.143±0.69 | 22.6±0.143±0.69 | 22.6±0.143±0.69 |
| Gravid uterus weight (g) | | 7±0.497±0.69 | 7±0.497±0.69 | 7±0.497±0.69 |
| Body weight (g) | | 24.25±0.320±0.69 | 24.25±0.320±0.69 | 24.25±0.320±0.69 |
| Tail length (cm) | | 9±0.407±0.49 | 9±0.407±0.49 | 9±0.407±0.49 |
| Placenta weight (g) | | 24.25±0.320±0.69 | 24.25±0.320±0.69 | 24.25±0.320±0.69 |
| Body weight gain (g) | | 7±0.407±0.49 | 7±0.407±0.49 | 7±0.407±0.49 |
| Tail length (cm) | | 9±0.407±0.49 | 9±0.407±0.49 | 9±0.407±0.49 |
| Placenta weight (g) | | 24.25±0.320±0.69 | 24.25±0.320±0.69 | 24.25±0.320±0.69 |

Data are represented as mean±SE (n=5). *p<0.05 refers to a significant change from the control rat, **p<0.01 refers to a significant change from the low dose at *p<0.05. SE: Standard error.
None of the animals in the groups which received NiO-NPs or control group gave dead fetuses. The morphological examination of the fetuses showed that NiO-NPs caused growth retardation represented by a decrease in fetal body weight, body length and tail length (Table 1). There was a significant \( p<0.05 \) reduction in fetal body weight, fetal body length in the two different groups received NiO-NPs when compared with the control group.

The fetus from control pregnant rats appeared with normal shape, correct weight, and length (Fig. 2a). The gross pathology of fetuses per dam was represented in (Fig. 2b and d). The most observed anomalies were microcephaly, short snout, shortness in forelimb, and club foot (Fig. 2b), umbilical hernia, protruding tongue, kinky tail, and two Fetuses with fused two placentas (Fig. 2c and d).

The skeletal examination of fetuses from control pregnant rats appeared with normal chondrification and ossification processes in all parts of the skeleton (Fig. 3a, c–e). Skeletal abnormality of fetuses from dams which received the two different doses of NiO-NPs included a lack in the ossification of dorsal bones of skull (Fig. 3a, c) and also completely absence of the ossification of all bones of skull (Fig. 3a). Unconnected sternal rib, last sterna is non-ossified (Fig. 3b, c), all sternbrae are non-ossified (Fig. 3b, c). Abnormal 13th ribs was observed (Fig. 3c, e). Non-ossified fibula, radius, metacarpals, and bones of the phalanges, Fused 9th and 10th caudal vertebra, absence of ulnare bone, and also curved ulnare bone were observed (Figs. 3d, 3e).

**Comet assay**
NiO-NPs low (4 mg/kg) and high (8 mg/kg) doses significantly increased the % DNA damage, tail length and tail moment.
(parameters of comet assay) in maternal and fetal liver, and brain tissues in comparison to control group, as shown in Table 2 and Fig. 4a–b. The high-dose administration shows a significant increase of DNA fragmentation % in comparison to the low dose NiO-NPs in the examined tissues.

Effect of NiO-NPs on oxidative stress in the liver and brain tissues
Pregnant rats administrated with NiO-NPs low (4 mg/kg) and high (8 mg/kg) doses revealed a perturbation in the redox status in the fetal, maternal liver, and brain homogenates as indicated by the marked elevation (p<0.05) of MDA. The increment of these oxidants was correlated with a decrease in GSH content and CAT activities, as compared to control rat. The high-dose administration shows a significant increase of MDA and decrease in GSH content and CAT activities in comparison to the low dose NiO-NPs in the examined tissues except GSH content in fetal brain as shown in Table 3.

Histopathological studies

Placenta
Histologically, the placenta of control rats revealed the normal organization of different zones of the labyrinth zone, the basal zone, the decidua, and the metrial glands. Three types of differentiated cells: Spongiotrophoblasts, trophoblastic giant cells, and glycogen cells are the constituents of basal zone. The trophoblastic giant cell layer located below the spongiotrophoblasts. The multiple small cell masses of glycogen cells develop in between the spongiotrophoblast cells, and the two syncytiotrophoblast layers underneath the trophoblast layer. The normal appearance of blood vessels was observed. The mesometrial decidual cells are the constituents of the decidua layer (Fig. 5a–a). The placenta of rats administrated with NiO-NPs revealed cystic degeneration in glycogen cells. Numerous apoptotic spongiotrophoblast cells were scattered, hemorrhagic areas and cysts in between the spongiotrophoblast cells of the basal zone (Fig. 5b–b). In the labyrinth zone, degeneration and necrosis of the trophoblasts, disruption of the thickness of trophoblastic septa with a deposition of calcium and fibrin. Additionally, degeneration of the fetal blood vessels and dilation in maternal sinusoids were seen (Fig. 5b–c).

Liver
Liver of pregnant rats
The microscopic examination of control pregnant rats liver revealed the normal histological structure of hepatic lobules from central vein and concentrically arranged hepatic cords (Fig. 6a). In contrary, examination of livers of NiO-NPs administrated rats revealed marked tissue alterations, fatty degeneration, cytoplasmic vacuolization of hepatocytes, dilated, and congested central vein with detached epithelium and some hepatocytes are necrotic hepatocytes. The nuclei of these cells are either pyknotized or karyolysed. In addition, fetuses exposed to the higher dose of NiO-NPs-induced focal hepatic necrosis of these cells are either pyknotized or karyolysed. In addition, fetuses exposed to the higher dose of NiO-NPs-induced focal hepatic necrosis associated with lymphatic infiltration and congested sinusoids, dilated portal vein (Fig. 6c and d).

Liver of fetuses
The microscopic examination of control liver of fetus revealed normal histological features. It consisted of cords of polyhedral hepatocytes with acidophilic cytoplasm. The hepatocytes were seen radiating from the central vein to the periphery of the hepatic lobule and alternating with blood sinusoids. The liver was permeated by rare megakaryocytes and conserved sinusoid capillaries (Fig. 7a). Fetuses administrated with NiO-NPs showed dilated, congested central vein with detached epithelium, necrotic areas and numerous vacuoles including fatty degeneration (Fig. 7b). In addition, fetuses exposed to the higher dose of NiO-NPs induced hepatocytes necrotic changes in the form of pale vacuolated cytoplasm and small dense pyknotic nuclei.

**Table 2:** The percentage of DNA damage (%DNA), tail length (TL), and tail moment (TM), in the fetal and maternal liver and brain tissues of pregnant rats administrated Ni-oxide-NPs low and high (8 mg/kg) dose

| Experimental groups | Parameter/organ | %DNA | TL (μm) | TM (μm) |
|---------------------|----------------|-------|---------|---------|
| Control             | Fetal liver    | 26.78±0.1192 | 19.65±0.254 | 1.72±0.0164 |
| Ni-oxide-NPs low    | Fetal liver    | 23.11±0.2645 | 19.78±0.1192 | 0.10±0.0089 |
| Ni-oxide-NPs high   | Fetal liver    | 30.33±0.2686 | 20.45±0.1953 | 1.74±0.0047 |
| Control             | Maternal liver | 28.76±0.1192 | 25.52±0.2652 | 1.74±0.0047 |
| Ni-oxide-NPs low    | Maternal liver | 30.33±0.2686 | 25.52±0.2652 | 1.74±0.0047 |
| Ni-oxide-NPs high   | Maternal liver | 30.33±0.2686 | 25.52±0.2652 | 1.74±0.0047 |

Data are represented as mean±SE (n=5). *refers to a significant change from the control rat, whereas to a significant change from the low dose at *p<0.05. SE: Standard error.
Table 3: MDA level (nmol/g tissue), CAT (U/g), and GSH content (mg/g tissue) in maternal and fetal liver and brain tissues of pregnant rats administrated Ni-oxide-NPs low (4 mg/kg) and high (8 mg/kg) doses

| Parameter/organ | Experimental groups | Control (mg/kg) | Ni-oxide-NPs low (4 mg/kg) | Ni-oxide-NPs high (8 mg/kg) |
|-----------------|---------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| MDA (nmol/g)    |                     |                 |                             |                             |
| Maternal liver  |                     | 9.42±0.1216     | 10.37±0.1385†               | 11.95±0.4627†               |
| Fetal liver     |                     | 12.98±0.2166    | 11.95±0.4627†               | 11.95±0.4627†               |
| Fetal brain     |                     | 13.93±0.04787   | 11.95±0.4627†               | 11.95±0.4627†               |
| CAT (U/g)       |                     |                 |                             |                             |
| Maternal liver  |                     | 40.1±0.3389     | 40.1±0.3389                 | 40.1±0.3389                 |
| Fetal liver     |                     | 40.1±0.3389     | 40.1±0.3389                 | 40.1±0.3389                 |
| Fetal brain     |                     | 40.1±0.3389     | 40.1±0.3389                 | 40.1±0.3389                 |
| GSH (mg/g)      |                     |                 |                             |                             |
| Maternal liver  |                     | 13.93±0.04787   | 13.93±0.04787               | 13.93±0.04787               |
| Fetal liver     |                     | 13.93±0.04787   | 13.93±0.04787               | 13.93±0.04787               |
| Fetal brain     |                     | 13.93±0.04787   | 13.93±0.04787               | 13.93±0.04787               |

Data are represented as mean±SE (n=5). †Statistically significant change from the control rat, ‡Refers to a significant change from the low dose at *p<0.05. MDA: Malondialdehyde, GSH: Glutathione, CAT: Catalase, SE: Standard error

**Kidney**

**Kidney of pregnant rats**

The renal cortex of the control mothers displayed showed normal histological structure (Fig. 9a). Microscopic examination of the kidney of NiO-NPs administrated rats revealed marked tissue alterations, Hemosiderin deposits appeared as brown pigments in the renal tubules, congested, vacuolated glomeruli, hemorrhage in between the tubules and dilated, congested renal blood vessels (Fig. 9b). In addition, fetuses exposed to the higher dose of NiO-NPs induced degenerative, vacuolation of glomeruli, and vascular degeneration and marked necrosis in tubules containing cytoplasmic vacuoles and pyknotic nuclei (Fig. 9c).

**Brain**

**Brain of pregnant rats**

Microscopic examination of the H&E stained sections of the cerebral cortex of the control group revealed normal organization (Fig. 10a). The gray matter was formed of six layers from outside inward. The common cells inside these layers are the neurons especially pyramidal and granule cells in addition to neuroglial cells. The background pink stained neuropil was a mat of neuronal and glial cell processes. Microscopic examination of the cerebral cortex of NiO-NPs administrated rats revealed marked tissue alterations, the pyramidal and granule cells lost their processes, irregular in shape, appeared as pyknotic neurons, their nuclei are deeply stained. In addition, vacuolization of the neuropil, dilated and congested blood vessels, and perineurial spaces surrounded pyramidal and granule cells were observed (Fig. 10b and c). The severity of these histological alterations was dose dependent.

Microscopic examination of the H&E stained sections of the cerebellar cortex of the control group revealed normal organization (Fig. 11a). The gray matter of the cerebellar cortex arranged regularly in three layers; outer molecular layer, middle Purkinje cell layer, and inner granular cell layer. Microscopic examination of the cerebellar cortex of NiO-NPs administrated rats revealed marked tissue alterations, the Purkinje cells had dark stained nuclei with eosinophilic cytoplasm and a lot of them are lost leaving empty spaces, vacuolated areas were seen in the molecular layer, granular layer revealed cell population reduction, shrunken cells (pyknotic nuclei), and vacuolated areas were seen in it (Fig. 11b and c). The severity of those histological alterations was dose dependent.

**Brain of fetuses**

The microscopic examination of cerebral cortex of control fetuses revealed the normal organization and distribution of the neurons in different zones of cerebral cortex: the corticomedullary (migratory) zone and the ventricular (proliferative) zone (Fig. 12a). Fetuses maternally administrated with NiO-NPs revealed the appearance of hyperchromatic, condensed nuclei of apoptotic neuronal or glial cells. In addition, reduction in cell population, vacuolization of the neuropil, and dilated and congested blood vessels were observed in different zones (Figs. 12b and c). The severity of those histological alterations was dose dependent.

**Figure 1**: The microscopic examination of the cerebral cortex of the control group revealed normal organization (Fig. 1a). The gray matter was formed of six layers from outside inward. The common cells inside these layers are the neurons especially pyramidal and granule cells in addition to neuroglial cells. The background pink stained neuropil was a mat of neuronal and glial cell processes. Microscopic examination of the cerebral cortex of NiO-NPs administrated rats revealed marked tissue alterations, the pyramidal and granule cells lost their processes, irregular in shape, appeared as pyknotic neurons, their nuclei are deeply stained. In addition, vacuolization of the neuropil, dilated and congested blood vessels, and perineurial spaces surrounded pyramidal and granule cells were observed (Fig. 1b and c). The severity of these histological alterations was dose dependent.

**Figure 2**: The microscopic examination of the cerebellar cortex of the control group revealed normal organization (Fig. 2a). The gray matter of the cerebellar cortex arranged regularly in three layers; outer molecular layer, middle Purkinje cell layer, and inner granular cell layer. Microscopic examination of the cerebellar cortex of NiO-NPs administrated rats revealed marked tissue alterations, the Purkinje cells had dark stained nuclei with eosinophilic cytoplasm and a lot of them are lost leaving empty spaces, vacuolated areas were seen in the molecular layer, granular layer revealed cell population reduction, shrunken cells (pyknotic nuclei), and vacuolated areas were seen in it (Fig. 2b and c). The severity of those histological alterations was dose dependent.

**Figure 3**: The microscopic examination of the cerebral cortex of control fetuses revealed the normal organization and distribution of the neurons in different zones of cerebral cortex: the corticomedullary (migratory) zone and the ventricular (proliferative) zone (Fig. 3a). Fetuses maternally administrated with NiO-NPs revealed the appearance of hyperchromatic, condensed nuclei of apoptotic neuronal or glial cells. In addition, reduction in cell population, vacuolization of the neuropil, and dilated and congested blood vessels were observed in different zones (Figs. 3b and c). The severity of those histological alterations was dose dependent.

**Figure 4**: The microscopic examination of the cerebellar cortex of the control group revealed normal organization (Fig. 4a). The gray matter of the cerebellar cortex arranged regularly in three layers; outer molecular layer, middle Purkinje cell layer, and inner granular cell layer. Microscopic examination of the cerebellar cortex of NiO-NPs administrated rats revealed marked tissue alterations, the Purkinje cells had dark stained nuclei with eosinophilic cytoplasm and a lot of them are lost leaving empty spaces, vacuolated areas were seen in the molecular layer, granular layer revealed cell population reduction, shrunken cells (pyknotic nuclei), and vacuolated areas were seen in it (Fig. 4b and c). The severity of those histological alterations was dose dependent.
Fig. 4: Photomicrographs of comet assay showing (a₁, a₂) typical nuclei of undamaged liver and brain cells of control group; (b₁, b₂) DNA damage observed as comets in Ni-oxide-NPs low (4 mg/kg) and high (8 mg/kg) groups.

Fig. 5: Photomicrographs of cross-sections passing through the placenta of pregnant rats. Control (a₁, a₂) showing normal organization of different zones of the basal zone (B) and the labyrinth zone (L). Low (4 mg/kg) dose Ni-oxide-NPs (b₁, b₂) showing giant cell (Ga), hemorrhagic cysts (Ha), trophoblast septa (T) and deposition of fibrin (asterisk), and pyknotic cell (arrows). High (8 mg/kg) dose Ni-oxide-NPs (c₁, c₂) showing cystic degeneration of glycogen cells (Gly c), degeneration and necrosis of spongiotrophoblast (St) and trophoblasts (arrows), irregular dilatation of maternal sinusoids (MS).
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DISCUSSION

Metallic NiNPs have extensive applications in nearly all manufacturing fields [34]. The workers occupationally exposed to the NiONPs through environmental and occupational settings. During manufacture, NPs may accidentally get ingested through hands [35,36]. After absorption through gastrointestinal tract, NiO NPs may penetrate the blood stream run across the liver followed by other visceral organs [37]. Despite the widespread of NiO NPs and their benefits in all fields, they have many negative effects on human life, especially expectant mothers and their fetus. To my knowledge, the present investigation is the first study confirmed the maternal and developmental toxicity in rats of NiO NPs administration during pregnancy.

The present study revealed that NiO NPs administration induced a significant reduction in uterine weight, mother weight gain, the average weight of placenta, the number corpora lutea, implantation sites, and the number of live fetuses. Furthermore, there was a high pre/postimplantation and a significant reduction in the growth parameters of fetuses; these findings are in agreement with the findings of some previous studies showed that potential fetal toxicity, such as premature birth, decreased birth weight, and small size for gestational age and fetal malformation due to NPs exposure [38-41]. The body weight and organ weight are the sensitive indicators of potentially toxic chemicals as reported in the general reproductive toxicity studies by Andersen et al., Bailey et al., Chung et al. [42-44].

Fig. 6: Photomicrographs of cross-sections passing through the liver of pregnant rats. Control (a) showing normal architecture of maternal liver, low (4 mg/kg) dose Ni-oxide-NPs (b) showing hepatocytes (HC) exhibit fatty degeneration (asterisk), congested central vein (CV), Pyknotic hepatocyte, (arrows) and high (8 mg/kg) dose Ni-oxide-NPs (c) showing focal hepatic necrosis associated with lymphatic infiltration (Linf), blood sinusoids (Si) (asterisk) and dilated portal vein (PV)

Fig. 7: Photomicrographs of cross-sections passing through the liver of rat fetuses. Control (a) showing normal architecture of fetal liver, low (4 mg/kg) dose Ni-oxide-NPs (b) showing megakaryocytes (asterisk), congested central vein (CV) with detached epithelium. High (8 mg/kg) dose Ni-oxide-NPs (c) showing pyknotic nuclei (arrows), hepatocytes necrotic changes in the form of pale vacuolated cytoplasm (headarrows)

Fig. 8: Photomicrographs of cross-sections passing through the kidney of pregnant rats. Control (a) showing normal organization of maternal kidney, low (4 mg/kg) dose Ni-oxide-NPs (b) showing hemosiderin deposits (arrows) were demonstrated as brown pigments in the renal tubules, dilated, congested renal blood vessels (small asterisk), and high (8 mg/kg) dose Ni-oxide-NPs (c) showing degenerative (big asterisk) and vacuolation of glomeruli (VG), vacuolar degeneration and marked necrosis in tubules containing cytoplasmic vacuoles and pyknotic nuclei (arrows). The renal glomeruli (G), the glomerular capsule (BC), the proximal (P), and distal (D) convoluted tubules
The transplacental transfer of silica (Si) (70 nm) and TiO2 NPs (35 nm) and attachment of the particles to the placental trophoblasts following an intravenous injection, and they revealed that the uterine weight reduction, high fetal resorption rate, and smaller fetuses due to the placental dysfunction [38].

Different external and skeletal malformations such as short or absent tails, fusion of the ribs, or vertebral bodies in all of the multi-wall carbon nanotube (MWCNT) intraperitoneally injected groups [45].

The most observed that external and skeletal anomalies in the NiO NPs administrated groups were microcephaly, short snout, shortness in forelimb and club foot, umbilical hernia, protruding tongue, kinky tail, two fetuses with fused two placentas, a lack and completely absence in the ossification of dorsal bones of skull, unconnected sternal rib, last or all sternbrae are non-ossified, abnormal 13th ribs 9th and 10th caudal vertebra are fused, fibula, radius, metacarpals, and bones of the phalanges, were non-ossified, absence of ulnare bone and also curved ulnare bone. These findings are in agreement with the findings of [26,45].
Due to the tiny particle size, increased surface area and reactivity of NIO NPs, it could probably release more Ni ions in the liquid milieu for intracellular uptake and mobilization, thus exerting stronger biodistribution [46].

In vitro study revealed that osteoblasts exposed to Ni²⁺ showed significant decreases in alkaline phosphatase activity [47]. Osteoblasts cultured with NiCl₂-induced severe osteoblast apoptosis [48] and dysfunction [49]. Administration of Ni²⁺ in rats induced a decreased number of primary and secondary osteons [50].

In conformity with former work [47-50], the absence or reduction of ossification in different bones of skeleton may be attributed to alteration in calcium metabolism or decrease in calcium and magnesium ion levels as well as alteration in calcitonin level in the growing fetus, thereby causing retardation in bone development.

Many studies reported that several nanoparticles can readily pass through the placental barrier [38,51-55].

The NPs can be transported to organs related to pregnancy and fetal development and may be taken up by placental cells and interfere indirectly with fetal development by inducing oxidative stress and inflammation at that site [56].

The oxidized MWCNTs can cross the placenta and induce placental dysfunction, causing a delay in fetal growth, and accumulating in the liver, lungs, and heart of fetus leading to fetal resorption [41].

The fetus may either be affected directly through transplacental transfer or indirectly through placental dysfunction [38] and by inflammation through the activated cytokines or other secondary messengers and/or oxidative stress in maternal organs [57].

The Ag-NPs exposure induced fetal cell dysfunction by ROS generation in the mother’s body which penetrated the fetal blood circulation and activated ROS-mediated oxidative stress responses [58].

The normal function and structure of the placenta are the basis for the normal development of the fetus. Previous studies reported that placental dysfunction can restrict fetal growth and miscarriage [59]. In the present results, NIO NPs exposure revealed placental structure alterations, numerous apoptotic spongiosiphoblast cells were scattered, hemorrhagic areas, and cysts in between the spongiosiphoblast cells of the basal zone. This indicated that exposure to the NiO NPs may have damaged the normal structure of the placenta which may have affected the placental function in accordance with [38,41].

The nano-NiO-induced liver toxicity may be associated with oxidative stress in rats [59]. The current work revealed that NIO NPs administration induces oxidative stress in liver and brain tissues of fetuses and pregnant rats. MDA levels were significantly increased while GSH level was significantly decreased in NIO NPs administered groups. The depletion of GSH and CAT in NIO NPs exposed rats combined with the increased level of MDA suggests that oxidative stress is the primary mechanism for toxicity of NiO NPs in maternal and fetal tissues as reported by Dumala et al., Saquib et al., Kannan et al., Wills et al., Yu et al. [20,22,57,58,60].

Particles which are <100 nm are capable of entering cells and attach to macromolecules such as DNA and proteins leading to DNA damage [61].

Exposure to NiO NPs leads to bio-distribution of Ni in many organs of the body which is causing significant DNA damage in rats. This indicates that the accumulated Ni leads to potential genotoxicological impacts [20].

Some studies revealed that potential genotoxic impacts and severe DNA damage such as DNA deletions, DNA strand breaks, mutations, and oxidative DNA adducts due to the maternal exposure to NPs during gestation [62-64].

In conformity with former work [20,22,62-64], the comet data of the current work revealed significant DNA damage in NIO NPs administered groups in both fetal and maternal liver and brain tissues.

Our results are consistent with previous studies suggesting that genotoxicity of NIO NPs is attribute to the oxidative stress induced by excess ROS [60,65-67]. Nanoparticle-induced oxidative stress leads to DNA damage and apoptosis [69].

Some transfer of NIO NPs and penetration of nickel into the brain from the nasal mucous membrane along the olfactory pathway, causing damage to the corresponding structures of the brain after NIO NPs inhalation [69].

Previous animal studies highlight the potential vulnerability of the fetal brain to the toxicity of a variety of different types of NPs, in advance of the formation of a robust blood-brain barrier [70-72]. Brain of fetuses is affected easily by nano-sized materials than brain of adults due to the incomplete development of the blood–brain barrier of fetal brain.
The entry of TiO2 NPs (<300 nm) into the brain of the offspring of the subcutaneous injected pregnant mice, causing blood vessel stenosis in their hippocampus and cerebral cortex [52]. The NPs may cause neurotoxicity in the fetus by damaging the central nervous system after the maternal exposure to NPs [74-78].

The histological examination confirmed the prominent pathology in different tissues (placenta, liver, kidney, and brain) of pregnant rats and fetuses. These findings are in line with some recent in vivo studies revealed alterations in brain, liver, and kidney tissues [65], and in liver tissues [22]. We suggested that these findings might be attributed to the distribution of NiO NPs and Ni content in all the body organs, NiO NPs could be translocated to other body sites through systemic circulation following oral exposure as reported by Saqib et al., Qi et al., Dumala et al., Yokota et al., Sugamata et al., Jackson et al. [22,41,65,70-72].

The solubilization of Ni2+ from NiO-NPs plays an essential role in inducing toxicity in animal, invertebrate, cell line, and plant documented by many previous studies [79-82]. We suggested that these findings attributed to the dissolution of Ni2+ from NiO-NPs under acidic condition of stomach as reported by Saqib et al. [22]. Ni2+ is involved in ROS generation and attributed for inducing high level of damage through direct oxidative damage by the production of H2O2 [83]. Hence, the toxicity and damage in the present study could attribute also to oxidative action of Ni2+-reduced from NiO-NPs.

Ni NPs had reproductive toxicity by affecting hormone levels in female rats [18]. Consistent with the present results, it has been suggested that NiO NPs and Ni2+ content exerts their actions directly on the developing embryo/fetus (crossing the placenta), as well as indirectly by altering the maternal hormonal balance as reported by Kong et al., Cempel and Janicka, Saini et al. [18,84,85].

CONCLUSION
According to the current data, it could be concluded that the detrimental impacts of Nickel oxide nanoparticles (NiO NPs) in dams and fetuses probably through its potential genotoxicity of reactive oxygen species. Further research is needed to elucidate mechanism of actions of NIO NP toxicity.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS
The author did all the work, read, and approved the final manuscript.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST
No potential conflicts of interest were reported by the author.

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