Abstract

In recent scenario, fluorosis is now going to be a severe problem throughout the globe due to toxic effects of fluoride (F) on both plants and animals. F presents in the halogenated group of the periodic table and has the characteristics of electronegativity. Natural geological sources and increased industrialization have contributed greatly to the increasing incidence of fluoride-induced human and animal health issues. In animals and human beings, it exerts adverse effects mainly through the attenuation of antioxidant defense mechanism and chelation of enzymatic cofactors. Thereafter, it causes metabolic disorders through interacting with various cellular processes such as gene expression, cell cycle, metabolism, ion transport, hormonal secretion, endocytosis, apoptosis, necrosis, and oxidative stress. These effects lead to dental mottling, skeletal dysfunctions including crippling deformities, osteoporosis, and other vital organs dysfunction. It was found that, water is the main source of fluoride intake to plants and animals, which further may go into food chain of human beings through consumption of high fluoride content plant and animal origin food. Several preventive and control measures have been developed to ameliorate the fluoride toxicity, like application of synthetic chemicals, plants bioactive molecules, and plant products like fruit pulp, seed mixture, and plant buckle products. Therefore, this article presents up-to-date information on the fluoride sources, toxicity and different amelioration measures to reduce fluoride level directly from water as well as application of different natural/synthetic products/molecules to ameliorate the toxic effects of fluoride in in-vivo models.

Introduction

In the halides group of the periodic table, fluoride (F) has great importance due to its smallest size and most electro negativity. Although the mechanisms of F in biological forms are remains unclear but it has the unique chemical and biochemical properties for the size and reactivity [1–3]. It is ubiquitously present in soil, water, plants and air. In the animal body, F makes its presence through water and food. But, some of the recent studies indicate that, most of the F comes from pharmaceutical drugs (20%) and through agrochemicals (30-40%) [4,5]. The variability and presence of fluoride depends upon the location. It was found that F is present in the soil within the range of 10–1000 parts per million (ppm). However, in water it ranges from 0.5 to 2000 ppm. This incident depends upon the sources of water [6,7]. According to World Health Organization (WHO), F exposure to animals above the 1.5 ppm, set at chronic fluoride toxicity. Through water exposure, this type of toxicity is going to endemic in most of the countries across the world [8]. In USA, the normal level of F in drinking water is 4 mg/L [9]. But, in the European country, it is 0.8 ppm [10]. In India, most of the states are showing the greater level of F in drinking water [11]. Fluoride exerts its effects on plants also [12]. It attenuates all the cells and tissues, impaired the stomatal conductance. Simultaneously, it acts as the metabolic and reproductive inhibitor, impaired photosynthesis and respiration pathways. Ultimately, F caused even to plants death [13–18]. In animals, fluoride intoxication causing skeletal impairment, called as skeletal fluorosis. Recently, high fluoride intake has been associated with dental cancer and tumors of other organs. First clinical symptoms appeared like reduced food intake and loss of body weight gain. After attenuating the antioxidant defence mechanism, F also affect to the gastrointestinal tract, brain, muscle etc.. [19–22]. To ameliorate these effects, several types of synthetic chemicals, herbal drugs, plant bioactive molecule, and plant natural products have been incorporated in the medicinal documentary. For example, melatonin, pineal proteins (epiphyseal proteins), quercetin, curcumin, ascorbic acid, lipoic acid, flavonoids, polyphenols have been found great role against the F toxicity [23–26]. The present review critically discusses on the fluoride sources, worldwide levels and its toxic effects on plants and animals. Furthermore, the article discusses the recent ameliorative steps developed through synthetic chemicals, plant bioactive molecules, and plant natural products.
Biochemistry of fluoride

In the halides group of the periodic tables (group VII), among all other molecules, fluoride has the great importance due to its smallest size and most electro negativity. Although, the mechanisms of F in biological forms are remains unclear but it has the unique chemical and biochemical properties for the size and reactivity [1–3]. It is 13th most abundant element and distributed widely throughout the earth in soil, water, and food. F, a pale yellow colored gas, has atomic number 9 and atomic weight of 18.9984 at standard temperature and pressure [27]. The brief about the F, have been mentioned in the Figure 1 [28]. It has the tendency to exist in the Free State as diatomic molecules. Due to electromotivity characteristics, these can react with less electromotive elements or chemical groups. Fluoride compounds are formed when the element fluoride combines with other chemical elements. It does not occur in a free state in nature [28]. Fluoride however has many unique chemical properties. These properties had a great impact on the special biochemical physiological effects. For these reason, F can affect the metabolism and mechanisms of action within the living system [29]. In addition to the chemical properties and isotopic nature of fluorine has had an important impact on our understanding of the metabolism, toxicity, and therapeutic effects of fluoride. 19-F is one of the isotopes of F and occurs naturally. This isotope has the extremely short half-life.

Sources of fluoride

Natural and anthropogenic sources are the two main ways through which F entered in the environment [30].

Natural sources

Soil: The normal total fluoride content of soil ranges from 150–400 mg/kg. F level in the clay soil is 1000 mg/kg [31]. F contamination to soil is because of the utilization of phosphorus fertilizers which have total 1–1.5% fluorine [32]. Contaminated soil with F, show its toxicity after the inhalation of soil contaminants which have vapourized or through the contaminated ground water after the F leaching from the soil [33–35].

Water: Water containing the F concentration up to 1.0 mg/L is safe. Whereas, the F levels in between 1.1 and 2.5 mg/L are marginally contaminated. However, above 2.6 mg/L F level is determined as the highly contaminated [31]. It was found that the level of F in ground water is higher than the surface water as the F percolates from the soil to ground water through leaching process. There are several factors which are responsible for the presence of F in natural ground water from the soil. Among them, geological factors, consistency of the soil, nature of rocks, pH and temperature of the soil, chelating action of other elements, depth of wells, leakage of shallow groundwater, and chemical and physical characteristics of water [36]. Water is an important source of F exposure to human beings and animals.

Forage, grasses and grains: At the vicinity of industrialized area, it was found that forages and grasses contain the higher level of F than the other area. Some studies also found that, grasses and forages has the higher level of F than the industrialized area. It is due to the fluoride rich dust, ash, raining factors for which plants could be affected far from the industry. Plants contamination depends upon several factors like the amount of F released in to the atmosphere, distance between the F source and contaminated area, type of vegetation, height of plants, atmospheric condition, and seasons etc. [37–39]. It has been established the relationship between the F level in soil and plants of F will be increased by 3 ppm for each 100 ppm increase in soil F up to the 2200 ppm [39].

Volcanic activities: Due to volcanic eruption, animals and plants kingdom have been affected throughout the globe (Table 1). Volcanic ash contains high level of F and contaminations of F to the geochemical cycle are frequent. From the volcanic eruption, F has been released in the form of hydrogen fluoride. Erupted F may covered several places and stay for many years. After decaying and leaching, F caused severe casualty to domestic and wild animals [6,40,41].

Anthropogenic sources

Anthropogenic fluoride contamination happens by human activities like industrialization, motorization, fluoride

| Sl. No. | Country               | Casualty                                      | References     |
|--------|-----------------------|----------------------------------------------|----------------|
| 01     | Hekla volcano, Iceland | F concentration was 350–4300 μg/g.          | [42]           |
| 02     | Lonquimay volcano, Chile | Affected more than 10,000 farm animals. Death occurred of more than 4000 livestock animals. | [43]           |
| 03     | Ruapehu volcano, Mexico | Livestock and wild animals dead.           | [44]           |
| 04     | Puyehue–Cordon Caulle volcano, Argentina | Severe fluorotic dental lesions were observed in died wild red deer. | [45]           |
| 05     | Hekla volcano, Iceland | Livestock and wild animals died.          | [44]           |

*Sl. No.-serial number.
containing pesticides, fluoridation of drinking water supplies, dental products, refrigerants, and fire extinguishers. F contamination due to airborne sources also occurred. The mean F concentration in normal areas (unpolluted/non-industrialized) is generally less than 0.1 μg/m³. The levels may be slightly higher in the vicinity of industries, but should not exceed 2–3 μg/m³. In many countries, coal burning for household purposes was documented as the main source of F causing endemic fluorosis. Industrial release fluoride-rich fumes and effluents into the environment also caused casualty in livestock sector like cattle, buffaloes, sheep, goats, camels etc. There are several reports documenting mineral mixture supplements as a major source of fluoride toxicity in livestock. Moreover, incorporation of modern creation and utilization of chemicals in different sectors like hydrogen fluoride (HF), calcium fluoride (CaF), sodium fluoride (NaF), fluorosilicic corrosive (H SiF), sodium hexafluorosilicate (Na SiF), sulfur hexafluoride (SF), and phosphate manures are the main sources of fluoride.

Global scenario of fluoride levels

Around the globe, twenty three nations are belongs to the critical region regarding the fluoride level. Among them India is also present. Billions of people are affected due to fluoride exposure. In India, twenty million people are severely affected by fluorosis and 40 million people are exposed to risk of endemic fluorosis. Level of fluoride in drinking water throughout the globe has been tabulated in the Table 2.

Fluoride toxicity

In Animals: Chronic exposure to F induces an array of deleterious impacts in livestock animals, experimental animals, as well as humans also. First symptoms of chronic F toxicity in animals are reduced feed intake and body weight gain (BWG) loss. Prolonged exposure to F causes fluorosis, leading to a progressive degenerative disease, dental mottling and several types of skeletal dysfunctions. Main mechanism of these deformities, after exposure of F is mainly the generation of different types of ROS production (Table 3). Experimental evidence indicates that exposure to fluoride results in oxidative stress both in vitro and in vivo in soft tissues such as liver, kidney, brain, lungs etc. Fluoride inhibits the activities of antioxidant enzymes like superoxide dismutase, glutathione peroxidase and catalase and etc. Fluoride inhibits the activities of antioxidant enzymes like superoxide dismutase, glutathione peroxidase, and catalase and the generation of different types of ROS production (Table 3).

Amelioration of fluoride toxicity

Table 2: Fluoride level in drinking water sources throughout the globe.

| Sl. No. | Country Name | Fluoride level | References |
|---------|--------------|----------------|------------|
| 01      | Pilanesberg and Western Bushveld, South Africa | 30 mg/L | [20] |
| 02      | Sanddrif, Kuboes and Leeu Gamka, South Africa | 30 mg/L | [58,59] |
| 03      | Ivory coast, Africa | Above permissible limit | [60] |
| 04      | Bongo, Ghanav | 0.11-4.6 mg/L | [61] |
| 05      | Lakes Elementahta and Nukuru, Kenya | 2–20 mg/L | [62-64] |
| 06      | Tibiri, Nigeria | 4.7–6.6 mg/L | [65] |
| 07      | Senegal | 4.6-7.4 mg/L | [66] |
| 08      | Tanzania | 8.0-12.7 mg/L | [67] |
| 09      | Rift Valley, Uganda | 0.5-2.5 mg/L | [68] |
| 10      | Abu Deleig and Jebel Gaili, Sudan | 0.65–3.2 mg/L | [69,70] |
| 11      | Hail, Saudi Arabia | 2.8 mg/L | [71] |
| 12      | Mecca, Saudi Arabia | 2.5 mg/L | [72] |
| 13      | Middle and eastern part of Turkey | 13.7 mg/L | [73] |
| 14      | Alberta, Canada | 4.3 mg/L | [46,74,73] |
| 15      | Saskatchewan, Canada | 2.3 mg/L | [73] |
| 16      | Quebec, Canada | 2.5 mg/L | [73] |
| 17      | Rigolet, Canada | 0.1–3.8 mg/L | [73] |
| 18      | Coronel Dorrego, Argentina | 0.9–18.2 mg/L | [74] |
| 19      | Olho D’Água, Brazil | 2–3 mg/L | [75] |
| 20      | Wonji-Shoa sugar estates, Ethiopia | 1.5–177 mg/L | [77,78] |
| 21      | Hermosillo and Abasolo, Mexico | 1.5 to 2.8 mg/L | [79] |
| 22      | Illinois, USA | 1.06-4.07 mg/L | [80] |
| 23      | Texas, USA | 0.3-4.3 mg/L | [81] |
| 24      | Czech republic | >3 mg/L | [82] |
| 25      | Munster, Germany | 8.8 mg/L | [83] |
| 26      | Pohang and Gyeongju, Korea | >5 mg/L | [84] |
| 27      | Hordaland, Norway | 0.02–9.48 mg/L | [85] |
| 28      | Northern and Central Poland | >3 mg/L | [86] |
| 29      | Tenerife, Spain | 2.50-4.59 mg/L | [87] |
| 30      | Kuitan, China | 21.5 mg/L | [7,88] |
| 31      | Finland | >3 mg/L | [7,88] |
| 32      | Japan | 1.4 mg/L | [7,88] |
| 33      | Indonesia | 0.1–4.2 mg/L | [7] |
| 34      | Thailand | >0.9 ppm | [91] |
| 35      | North Central Province, Sri Lanka | 10 mg/L | [92] |
| 36      | India | 0.5-69.7 mg/L | [7,93-95] |
| 37      | Pakistan | 8–13.52 mg/L | [96] |

Table 3: Summary of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species [Source: 28]

| Reactive Oxygen Species | Reactive Nitrogen Species |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Free Radicals | Other Substances | Free Radicals | Other Substances |
| Superoxide anion radical | O₂⁻ | Hydrogen peroxide | H₂O₂ | Nitric oxide radical | NO | Peroxy nitrite | ONOO⁻ |
| Hydroxyl radical | HO | Hypochlorous acid | HOCl | Nitric dioxide radical | NO₂ | Nitrates | NO₂⁻ |
| Alkoxyl radical | RO⁻ | Ozone | O₃ | | | | |
| Peroxyl radical | ROO⁻ | Singlet oxygen | ¹O₂ | Nitrates | NO₂⁻ | Nitrosyl | NO⁺ |

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### Table 4: Modulation of different oxidative biomarkers during hepatic oxidative damages occurs on high exposure of fluoride.

| Type of the study | Model & Dosage | End point* | References |
|-------------------|----------------|------------|------------|
| **In-vitro (Animal cells)** | Mouse pancreatic beta-cells (ßTC-6) at 1.35 and 2.5mM for 12 h | ↑Generation of \( \cdot O_2^- \), ↓activity of SOD, ↓∆ψm | [102] |
| | Primary rat hippocampal neurons at 20, 40, and 80 mg/l, equivalent to 1.05, 2.1 and 4.2mM for 24 h | ↑Generation of ROS, ↓level of GSH, ↓activities of GSH-Px, and SOD, ↑lipid peroxidation | [103] |
| | Murine hepatocytes at 100mM for 1 h | ↑Generation of ROS, ↓level of GSH, ↓GSH:GSSG ratio, ↓activities of SOD, and catalase, ↑lipid peroxidation, and oxidation of proteins | [104] |
| **In-vitro (Human Cells)** | Hepatocellular carcinoma (HepG2) cells at 3mM for 6 and 24 h | ↑GSH/GSSG ratio, ↑gene expression of Mn-SOD | [105] |
| | Neuroblastoma (SH-SYSY) cells exposed at 0.05–5mM for 24 h | ↑Lipid peroxidation, and ↑protein oxidation | [106] |
| **In vivo (Animals)** | Male albino guinea pigs exposed at 250mg NaF/kg subcutaneously and sacrificed 8 h later | ↑Generation of NO in blood | [107] |
| | Male Wistar rats exposed at 5mg/kg body mass/day, orally for 8 weeks | ↑Generation \( \cdot O_2^- \), ↓activity of SOD, ↓∆ψm, ↑lipid peroxidation in spermatozoa | [108] |
| | Male Swiss mice exposed at 50 mg/L in drinking water for 10 weeks | ↑Level of ascorbic acid, ↓level of uric acid in plasma, ↑Lipid peroxidation, ↑level of GSH, ↑activity of GSH–Px, ↓activity of SOD in erythrocytes, ↑activity of GSH–Px, and GST, ↑ratio GSH:GSSG in brain | [109] |
| | Albino rats exposed at 100 mg/L in drinking water for 4 months | ↑Level of antioxidant capacity, ↓level of GSH in liver | [109] |
| | Male albino Wistar rats exposed at 1, 10, 50, and 100 mg/L in drinking water for 12 weeks | ↑Generation ROS, changes in levels of GSH in blood, ↑generation ROS in liver, kidney, and brain | [110] |
| | Second generation of Male Albino adult Wistar rats exposed at 10, 50, and 100 mg/L in drinking water for 180 days | ↑Lipid peroxidation, ↓activities of SOD, catalase, and GSH-Px in lung | [111] |
| | Chicks exposed by diet to 100, 250, or 400 mg F/kg for 50 days | ↑Generation of NO, ↑lipid peroxidation, ↓activities of SOD, catalase, and GSH-Px in serum | [112] |
| | Male albino rats exposed at 10.3 mg NaF/kg body weight/day, orally for 5 weeks | ↑Lipid peroxidation, ↑generation NO, ↓activities of SOD, and catalase, ↓Total antioxidant capacity, and ↓level of GSH in liver | [113] |
| | Pig exposed to food supplemented with 250 mg F/kg for 50 days | ↑Expression of gen Cu/Zn SOD in liver | [114] |
| | Male rats exposed at 20 mg/kg/day for 29 days by oral gavage | ↑Level of conjugated dienes in the testis, epididymis, and epididymal sperm pellet, ↓activities of GDH-Px, and catalase in the sperm | [115] |
| | Male Wistar rats exposed at 50 and 100 mg/L in drinking water during 4 months | ↓Activity of CuZn-SOD in pancreas | [116] |
| | Male and female Wistar rats exposed at 50, 100, and 150 mg/L in drinking water during 3 months | ↑Lipid peroxidation, ↓activities of SOD, and GSH-Px in liver | [116] |
| | Barrows exposed at 250 and 400 mg/kg (from NaF) in their diets for 50 days | ↑Generation of NO, ↑lipid peroxidation, ↓activities of GSH–Px and SOD in serum, ↑Lipid peroxidation, ↓activities of GSH–Px, and SOD in thyroid, liver, and kidney | [117] |
| | Male Swiss mice exposed at 5 mg/kg body mass/day, orally for 8 weeks | ↑ROS in erythrocytes, ↓level of GSH in blood, ↓activities of SOD, catalase, and GSH-Px, ↑lipid peroxidation, in kidney and liver | [118] |
| | Female rats exposed at 100 mg/L in drinking water for 60 days | ↑Lipid peroxidation, ↓activities of SOD, catalase, and GSH–Px in endometrium | [119] |
Table 5: Regulation of apoptotic and cytokines related gene expression by fluoride exposure [Source: 28].

| Type of the study | Model & Dosages | End point | References |
|-------------------|-----------------|-----------|------------|
| **In vitro (Human cells)** | Neuroblastoma (SH-SYSY) cells at 40, and 80 mg/L, equivalent to 2.1, and 4.2 mM for 24 h | |
| | | ↑Apoptosis molecules Fas, Fas-L, and caspasases 3 and 8. | [127] |
| **In vivo (Humans)** | Peripheral blood mononuclear cells from Mexican individuals drinking water with levels of 1.9–4.02 mgF/L | ↓Inflammatory Chemokines (CCL1, CCL18, CCL19), ↓cytokines (IL-11, IL-2), ↓pro- and anti-inflammatory molecules (LTA, TNF-a, TGF-a, TGF-b1, TGF-b3), ↓Apoptosis molecules (TNF-a, FasL, C3D0L, 4-IBBL, TANK, TRAIL, DR3, Casp-2, Casp6, CIDE-A and CIDE-B), ↑survivine | [128] |

Arrows refer to increases (↑) or decreases (↓) regulation [Source: 28].

Recently, various studies have been conducted in various fields like development of different techniques to reduce the fluoride level from the water sources directly, use plant metabolites on the experimental animals, and use of different chemical/molecule (melatonin, pineal protein, quercetin etc.). In case of different techniques, several natural and chemical adsorbents such as red soil, charcoal, brick, Waste tea ash, fly-ash, serpentine, alum, Activated carbon, Al–Fe (hydr) oxides, sulfate-doped Fe3O4/Al2O3 nanoparticles, aluminum salts etc have been used (Table 6). On the other hand, use of leaves, seeds, fruit pulps, plant juices of Azadirachta indica, Ficus religiosa, Acacia catechu, Peltiphyllum peltatum and tamarind seeds etc. are also using to reduce the toxic effects of fluoride and summarized in the Table 7. Additionally, some synthetic chemical molecules like melatonin, pineal protein, lycopene, and quercetin, etc. also have the great role to reduce the fluoride induced toxicity. All are summarized in the Table 8.

**Conclusions**

Through this review, it is summarized that having the electronegativity, fluoride is ubiquitously present in the environments. In some countries it is within the range, whereas most of the countries which have been reviewed showed more than the permissible level as per guideline recommended by WHO. Among different sources, water is the important source of fluoride exposure. Hence, water purification techniques should be developed for safe and economic method for portable water. High fluoride exposure affects human beings and animals health through oxidative stress, immune suppression, apoptosis, and affecting nutrient utilization. Hence, ameliorative measures are important to prevent their endemicity and disease progress. Meanwhile, plant bioactive molecules, several synthetic molecules, and pineal gland secretions have shown protective effect against fluoride toxicity. However, more extensive studies are required for wide application of these molecules as therapeutics agents.
### Table 6: Available technologies for removal of fluoride in water.

| Sl. No. | Technique for water de-fluoridation | Component Used | References |
|---------|------------------------------------|----------------|------------|
| 01      | Adsorption                         | Al-Fe (hydr)oxides | [129] |
| 02      | Adsorption                         | Sulfate-doped Fe₃O₄/Al₂O₃ nanoparticles | [130] |
| 03      | Adsorption                         | Waste tea ash | [131] |
| 04      | Adsorption                         | Neem charcoal | [132] |
| 05      | Adsorption                         | Calcined bauxite, gypsum, magnesite and their composite filter | [133] |
| 06      | Adsorption                         | Activated alumina | [134-136] |
| 07      | Adsorption                         | Bone char | [67,137] |
| 08      | Adsorption                         | Activated carbon | [138,139] |
| 09      | Adsorption                         | Palm kernel shell-based adsorbent | [140] |
| 10      | Adsorption                         | Rice husk and activated charcoal | [141] |
| 11      | Adsorption                         | Leaf biomass | [142] |
| 12      | Electrochemical method             | - | [143] |
| 13      | Coagulation                        | Aluminum salts | [144] |
| 14      | Electrolysis                       | - | [145] |
| 15      | Reverse osmosis                    | - | [146] |
| 16      | Nanofiltration                     | - | [147] |
| 17      | Membrane processes                 | - | [148] |

### Table 7: Experimental studies on plant based natural products in amelioration of fluoride toxicity.

| Sl. No. | Species of experimental animals | Fluoride dose and route of administration | Duration of study | Dose and route of plants | Effect on studied parameters | References |
|---------|---------------------------------|------------------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|------------|
| 01      | Adult male Wistar albino rats   | 10.3 mg/kg bw/day, Oral                 | 35 days           | Black berry juice, 1.6 g/kg bw administered perorally | ↑Glutathione level, total anti-oxidant capacity and superoxide dismutase activity | [149] |
| 02      | Adult albino mice               | 600 ppm NaF, Oral                       | 45 days           | Ginseng Extract, 50, 150, and 250 mg/kg bodyweight/day, administered perorally | ↑ of TCA enzymes (ICDH, SDH, and aconitase) were noted in brain regions | [150] |
| 03      | Adult albino mice               | 600 ppm NaF, Oral                       | 45 days           | Banaba Extract, 50, 150, and 250 mg/kg bodyweight/day, administered perorally | ↑ of TCA enzymes (ICDH, Succinate dehydrogenase (SDH), and aconitase) were noted in brain regions | [151] |
| 04      | Adult female albino mice        | 1030.675 mg m³; Oral                    | 14 days           | Gallic acid of *Peltiphyllum peltatum*, 10-20 mg/kg bw/day, i.p. | ↑ Succinate dehydrogenase (SDH), Catalase and superoxide dismutase enzyme activities and glutathione levels | [152] |
| 06      | Male Swiss albino mice          | NaF at a dose of 600 ppm; Oral          | 14 days           | Ethanol extract of the bark of *Terminalia arjuna*, 50 mg/kg of body weight, administered perorally | ↑ Heart SOD, ↑GPx, ↑ GR, ↑ GSH, ↑ CAT ↓ SGOT, ↓ ALP | [153] |
| 07      | Colony-bred male albino rats    | NaF at a dose of 100 ppm; administered perorally | 30 days           | *Tamarindus indica* leaf powder, 2.5 to 10 g% of feed administered through diet | ↑ Plasma glucose, ↓ Lipid levels, ↑ Lipid peroxidation, ↑ Hepatic glycogen content, ↑ Hexokinase activity, ↑ Cholesterol excretion, improvement in antioxidant profiles of both hepatic and renal tissues | [154] |

### Table 8: Experimental studies supporting protective effect of melatonin, epiphyseal (pineal) proteins, quercetin, and lycopene in amelioration of fluoride toxicity.

| Sr. No. | Species of experimental animals | Melatonin dose and route of administration | Duration of study | Dose and route of fluoride exposure | Effect on studied parameters | References |
|---------|---------------------------------|------------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|------------|
| 01      | Adult female albino mice        | 10 mg/kg bw/day, i.p.                    | 30 days           | 10 mg/kg bw/day, administered perorally | ↑ Liver ALP, ACP, SDH, SGOT, SGPT, liver weight, body weight, Liver protein content | [155] |
| 02      | Adult male Wistar rats          | 10 mg/kg bw/day; administered perorally | 60 days           | NaF 4 mg/kg bw/day, administered perorally | ↓ TBARS and ROS in brain tissues, ↑ GSH and GPx brain tissue, attenuation of NaF induced rise in brain levels of TNF-α | [156] |
| 03      | Adult female Wistar rats        | 10 mg/kg bw/day, i.p.                    | 28 days           | 150 ppm in drinking water, administered perorally | ↓ MDA (LPO) levels in cardiac, hepatic, and renal tissues, ↑ CAT, ↑ TSD, ↑ TGx, ↑ TGR activities and ↑ TGSH | [157] |

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04. Adult female Wistar rats 10 mg/kg, bw/day; i.p. 28 days 150 ppm in drinking water, administered perorally ↓ [Na⁺], [K⁺], and ALP levels, ↑ plasma glucose. [158]

05. Adult female albino mice 10 mg/kg bw/day; i.p. 30 day 10 mg NaF/kg bw/day, administered perorally ↑ Succinate dehydrogenase (SDH), ↑ protein and creatinine levels, ↑ Acid phosphatase (ACP) and ↑ alkaline phosphatase (ALP), ↓ Lipid peroxidation (LPO) and Glutathione (GSH) [159]

06. Adult female Wistar rats 10 mg/kg bw/day; i.p. 28 days 150 ppm in drinking water, administered perorally ↑ plasma glucose, ↑ Plasma creatinine, ↓ urea, ↓ BUN, ↓ cholesterol, ↓ Na⁺, ↓ SGPT, ↓ SGOT, ↓ ALP plasma Na⁺, ↑ ALP, and ↓ cholesterol. [160]

07. Adult female Swiss-strain albino mice 10 mg/kg bw/day; i.p. 30 days 10 mg/kg bw/day, administered perorally Lowered the level of lipid peroxides and enhanced the antioxidant status. [161]

08. Adult female Wistar rats 10 mg/kg bw/day; i.p. 28 days 150 mg/L administered perorally ↑ Brain MDA, ↑ TSOD, ↑ GPx, ↑ GR and ↑ CAT [101]

09. Mature male Wistar rats 10 mg/kg bw/day; i.p. 60 days 5 and 10 mg NaF/kg bw, administered perorally ↑ Lipid peroxidation (LPO), ↑ glutathione peroxidase (GPx), ↑ glutathione (GSH), ↑total ascorbic acid (TAA), ↑ glutathione-S-transferase (GST), ↑ glutathione reductase (GR), ↑ superoxide dismutase (SOD), and ↑ catalase (CAT) in the testicular cells [162]

10. Human red blood cells (Male) 5 μg/mL and 10 μg/mL 4 hr at 37°C 50–500 μg NaF/mL in a final normal saline volume of 4.0 mL Significant reduction in F-induced hemolysis with maximum amelioration occurring at 10 μg/mL. [163]

| Epiphyseal (pinéal) proteins |
|-------------------------------|
| 01. Adult female Wistar rats 100 μg/kg bw/day; i.p. 28 days 150 ppm administered perorally ↓ MDA (LPO) levels in cardiac, hepatic, and renal tissues, ↑ CAT, ↑ TSOD, ↑ GPx, ↑ GR and ↑ GSH [156] |
| 02. Adult female Wistar rats 100 μg/kg bw/day; i.p. 28 days 150 ppm, administered perorally Plasma reduction of [Na⁺], [K⁺], and ALP levels, increases in the plasma glucose [157] |
| 03. Adult female Wistar rats 100 μg/kg bw/day; i.p. 28 days 150 ppm administered perorally ↑ Plasma glucose, ↑ Plasma creatinine, ↓ urea, ↓ BUN, ↓ cholesterol, ↓ K⁺, and ↓ Na⁺, ↓ SGPT, ↓ SGOT, ↓ ALP, ↑ Plasma Na⁺, ↑ ALP, and ↑ cholesterol [159] |
| 04. Adult female Wistar rats 100 μg/kg bw/day; i.p. 28 days 150 mg/L administered perorally ↑ Brain MDA, ↑ TSOD, ↑ GPx, ↑ GR, ↑ GSH, ↑ CAT [101] |
| 05. Adult female Wistar rats 100 μg/kg bw/day; i.p. 14 days 150 ppm, administered perorally ↑ AChE activity in plasma, RBCs, heart, and brain. [164] |
| 06. Adult female Wistar rats 50, 100, and 200 μg/kg bw/day; i.p. 21 days 150 ppm, administered perorally ↓ Plasma F, lipid peroxidation (LPO), ↓ alkaline phosphatase (ALP), ↓ plasma and RBCs acetyl cholinesterase (AChE) activity, ↓ Plasma and RBCs LPO Red blood cells (RBCs). ↑ RBCs GSH, CAT, GR, and GPx level. [165] |

| Quercetin |
|----------|
| 01. Male Wistar rats NaF at a dose of 600 ppm; administered perorally 14 days Quercetin 10 to 20 mg/kg; i.p. ↓ Kidney Glutathione (GSH), ↓ LPO, ↓ Superoxide dismutase (SOD), ↓ catalase activity [4] |

| Lycopene |
|----------|
| 01. Adult male albino rats NaF 10.3 mg/kg body weight/day, administered perorally 35 days Lycopene (10 mg/kg body weight/day), administered perorally ↑ Glutathione level, total anti-oxidant capacity and superoxide dismutase activity [166] |

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