

Effects of Quercetin on Tubular Cell Apoptosis and Kidney Damage in Rats Induced by Titanium Dioxide Nanoparticles

Submitted: 23 Aug 2017
Accepted: 6 Feb 2018
Online: 27 Apr 2018

Hadis ALIDADI^{1,3}, Layasadat KHORSANDI², Maryam SHIRANI³

¹ Student Research committee, Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences, Ahvaz, Iran

² Cell & Molecular Research Center, Faculty of Medicine, Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences, Ahvaz, Iran

³ Department of Toxicology, Faculty of Pharmacy, Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences, Ahvaz, Iran

To cite this article: Alidadi H, Khorsandi L, Shirani M. Effects of quercetin on tubular cell apoptosis and kidney damage in rats induced by titanium dioxide nanoparticles. *Malays J Med Sci.* 2018;**25(2)**:72–81. <https://doi.org/10.21315/mjms2018.25.2.8>

To link to this article: <https://doi.org/10.21315/mjms2018.25.2.8>

Abstract

Background: Recent studies have demonstrated that many nanoparticles have an adverse or toxic effect on the kidney.

Objective: To investigate the nephroprotective effect of quercetin (QT) against renal injury induced by titanium dioxide nanoparticles (NTiO₂) in rats.

Methods: NTiO₂-intoxicated rats received 50 mg/kg of NTiO₂ for seven days. The QT + NTiO₂ group was pretreated with QT for seven days before being administered NTiO₂. Uric acid, creatinine, and blood urea nitrogen were considered to be biomarkers of nephrotoxicity. Catalase (CAT) and superoxide dismutase (SOD) activities and renal levels of malondialdehyde (MDA) were measured to assess the oxidative stress caused by NTiO₂.

Results: NTiO₂ significantly increased the plasma level of the biomarkers. It also significantly decreased the activities of CAT ($P = 0.008$) and SOD ($P = 0.004$), and significantly increased the MDA levels ($P = 0.007$). NTiO₂ caused proximal tubule damage, the accumulation of red blood cells, the infiltration of inflammatory cells, and reduced the glomerular diameters, as well as induced apoptosis in the proximal tubules. Pre-treatment with QT attenuated the histological changes, normalised the plasma biomarkers, suppressed oxidative stress, ameliorated the activities of CAT ($P = 0.007$) and SOD ($P = 0.006$), and reduced apoptosis ($P < 0.001$).

Conclusion: QT was found to have a potent protective effect against nephrotoxicity induced by NTiO₂ in rats. It also reduced apoptosis caused by NTiO₂.

Keywords: nanoparticles, quercetin, nephrotoxicity, oxidative stress, anti-oxidants, rats

Introduction

The kidney is one of the most sensitive organs to toxic substances in the body because of its high blood flow and its ability to concentrate waste (1). Previous studies demonstrated that the administration of nanoparticles (NPs) to rodents resulted in the particles accumulating in various tissues, including the liver, brain, kidney, and spleen (2). An NP is a microscopic particle that

has at least one dimension that is less than 100 nm. Toxicological studies have confirmed that NPs are potentially harmful because of their high surface area to volume ratio and unique physicochemical properties (3). Among the various metal nanomaterials, titanium dioxide nanoparticles (NTiO₂) are used in a variety of consumer products, including sunscreens, cosmetics, clothing, electronics, paints, and surface coatings (4). NTiO₂ is also widely used

in toothpaste, food colourants, and nutritional supplements. However, NTiO₂ can accumulate in the renal tissue and induce renal injuries (5).

In recent years, herbal medicines, such as flavonoids, have been shown to have protective effects against chemically induced toxicities (6). For example, quercetin (QT) is a powerful flavonoid that has a wide range of health benefits because of its anti-hypertensive, anti-diabetic, anti-inflammatory, anti-oxidant, anti-cancer, neuroprotective, and anti-viral activities (7). QT is found in lettuce, onion, tomato, red grapes, olive oil, apple skin, tea, coffee, bracken fern, and citrus fruits (8). QT also has a protective effect against some toxic materials, such as arsenic, bisphenol A, and lead, in kidney tissue (9–11). QT has anti-apoptotic effects against some drugs and chemicals, such as doxorubicin, cyclophosphamide, and lead (11, 12). In the present work, the effect of QT on NTiO₂-induced nephrotoxicity and apoptosis in rats was investigated.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Thirty-two healthy adult female Wistar rats, 8–10 weeks old and 180 g–200 g, were used in this work. The estrous cycle was not synchronised in the rats. The rats were purchased from the Experimental Research Center of Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences. The rats were maintained in individual cages and kept under a light–dark cycle of 12:12 at a temperature of 22 °C ± 3 °C and a humidity of 50% ± 5%. They were also given free access to commercial food (pellets) and water.

This work was performed according to the guidelines of the Animal Ethics Committee of Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences (approval number: IR.AJUMS.REC.1395.650).

Experimental Design

The study was based on the block randomisation method. Before the experiment, the 32 rats were divided into four groups. Based on the power calculation and estimation of attrition from our pilot study and previous studies (6, 13), the sample size was determined to be eight rats per group. The control group was given saline for three weeks. The QT group received 75 mg/kg QT for three weeks (14). The NTiO₂-intoxicated group received 50 mg/kg

NTiO₂ on day 7 after a daily administration of saline and was followed for two weeks. The QT + NTiO₂ group received 75 mg/kg QT for one week followed by the concomitant administration of 50 mg/kg NTiO₂ for two weeks. All treatments were given by gavage. The doses of NTiO₂ and QT were determined based on our pilot study and previous studies (13, 14). The stock solution of NTiO₂ (Sigma-Aldrich) was prepared in Milli-Q water as previously described (6). The particle size and morphology of the prepared NTiO₂ was determined using an atomic force microscope (AFM). The NPs had a spherical morphology, homogeneous particle size distribution, and a mean size less than 100 nm.

Twenty-four hours after the last administration, blood samples were collected, the rats were euthanised, and the renal tissues were removed and weighed. The left kidneys were maintained in a freezer at –80 °C to assess the superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT) activities and malondialdehyde (MDA) levels. The right kidneys were fixed in 10% formalin for the histological assessments.

Biochemical Tests

Blood samples from the tail vein of the rats were collected and centrifuged. The plasma concentrations of uric acid, creatinine (Cr), and blood urea nitrogen (BUN) were determined spectrophotometrically using suitable kits.

Lipid Peroxidation

Lipid peroxidation was measured as previously described (15). Briefly, kidney tissue homogenates were prepared and 500 µL of supernatant from each sample was added to 1.5 mL 10% trichloroacetic acid and centrifuged for 15 min at 5000× g. Then, 1.5 mL of the supernatant was mixed with 2 mL 0.67% Thiobarbituric acid (TBA) and boiled for 0.5 h. After cooling, 2 mL n-butanol was added to each sample and centrifuged at 5000× g for 20 min. The absorbance was read at 535 nm using a spectrophotometer.

Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) Activity

The SOD activity was determined using a Ransod kit (Randox Laboratories Ltd., UK) as previously described (15). This method produces a water-soluble formazan dye upon reduction with the superoxide anion. The rate of the reduction is linearly related to the xanthine oxidase (XO) activity, which is inhibited by SOD.

The inhibition activity of SOD can be measured using a spectrophotometer at 505 nm.

CAT Activity

CAT activity was measured as described (16) in a previous study. Briefly, the CAT present in the sample reacts with hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) to generate H_2O and O_2 . The unconverted H_2O_2 can be determined colorimetrically at the optical density (OD) of 570 nm.

Histological Changes

In this study, six sections per rat were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H & E) and assessed for the following histological criteria: nuclear pyknosis, infiltration of inflammatory cells, brush border loss, and accumulation of red blood cells (RBC). The average percentage of each feature was determined. The infiltration of inflammatory cells and the accumulation of RBCs were divided into four categories and the averages were considered. The categories were normal (0), weak (1), moderate (2), and intense (3). Two researchers, who were blinded to the control and experimental groups, analysed the slides independently (17).

TUNEL Staining

The in situ Cell Death Detection kit (POD, Roche) was used for TUNEL (terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labeling) staining. The paraffin sections were dewaxed and incubated with proteinase K for 0.5 h at 24 °C. The sections were exposed to the TUNEL reaction mixture in a humidity chamber at 37 °C for 1 h. The sections were first incubated with Anti-Fluorescein-AP for 0.5 h at 37 °C, rinsed in deionised water, and incubated with DAB substrate (Sigma-Aldrich) for 5 min. Cells

with a homogeneous dark brown nucleus were considered to be TUNEL-positive cells (18).

Statistical Analysis

To make comparisons between the four groups, a statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by a post hoc least significant difference (LSD) or Tukey's test for multiple pairwise comparisons. Data were expressed as the mean and standard deviation (SD). A *P*-value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Body and Renal Weights

The body weights in the control and experimental groups were similar and there were no significant differences between them. The body and renal weights in the $NTiO_2$ -intoxicated group significantly decreased ($P = 0.009$ and $P = 0.006$, respectively). The QT-pretreated group had significantly higher body and renal weights compared with the $NTiO_2$ -intoxicated group ($P = 0.042$ and $P = 0.036$, respectively). The results are shown in Table 1.

Biochemical Tests

In the QT group, the blood levels of uric acid, Cr, and BUN were slightly decreased. However, the blood concentrations of uric acid, Cr, and BUN were significantly elevated in the $NTiO_2$ group ($P < 0.001$). In the QT + $NTiO_2$ group, the levels of uric acid, Cr, and BUN were significantly reduced compared with the $NTiO_2$ -intoxicated group ($P = 0.006$, $P = 0.003$, and $P = 0.007$, respectively). The results are shown in Figure 1.

Table 1. Kidney and body weight for control and experimental groups

Groups	Body weight	Kidney weight
Control	235.2 (13.2)	1.03 (0.11)
QT	236.1 (14.2) <i>P</i> = 0.174	1.04 (0.13) <i>P</i> = 0.223
NTiO ₂	191.8 (15.4) ** <i>P</i> = 0.009	0.68 (0.06) ** <i>P</i> = 0.006
QT+ NTiO ₂	210.6 (11.5) <i>*P</i> = 0.034, <i>†P</i> = 0.042	0.82 (0.07) <i>*P</i> = 0.015, <i>†P</i> = 0.036

Values expressed as mean (SD) for eight rats. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, *†P* < 0.05; * and *†* symbols respectively indicate comparison to control and NTiO₂-intoxicated groups.

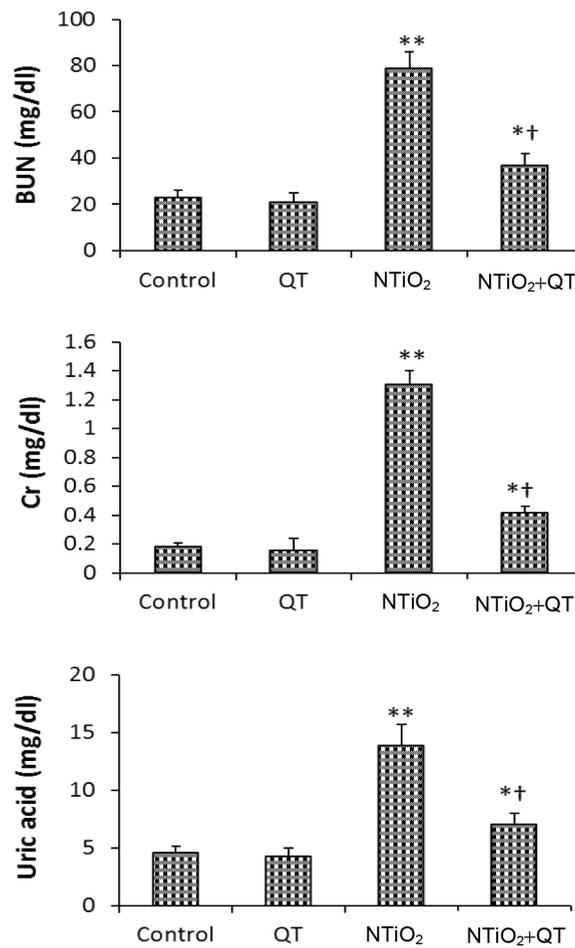


Figure 1. Biochemical tests of control and experimental groups. Values expressed as mean ± SD for eight rats. * *P* < 0.05, ** *P* < 0.001, *†P* < 0.01; * and *†* symbols respectively indicate comparison to control and NTiO₂-intoxicated groups

MDA Level, and SOD and CAT Activities

NTiO₂ significantly increased the renal level of MDA ($P = 0.007$). In the QT + NTiO₂ group, the renal level of MDA was significantly decreased compared with the NTiO₂-intoxicated group ($P = 0.08$). The CAT and SOD activities were significantly reduced in the NTiO₂ group ($P = 0.008$ and $P = 0.004$, respectively). The CAT and SOD activities were significantly elevated in the QT-pretreated group compared with the NTiO₂-intoxicated group ($P = 0.006$ and $P = 0.007$, respectively). The results are shown in Figure 2.

Histological Changes

The kidney sections in both the control and QT groups all had a normal appearance. The administration of NTiO₂ significantly increased the infiltration of inflammatory cells, accumulation of RBCs, brush border loss, and fat deposits in the proximal cells, while the diameter

of the glomerulus was significantly decreased. The administration of QT + NTiO₂ ameliorated the proximal tubule damage, infiltration of inflammatory cells, accumulation of RBCs, and the diameter of the glomerulus compared with the NTiO₂-intoxicated group (Figure 3 and Table 2).

TUNEL Staining

Apoptosis was observed only in the proximal cells. As shown in Figure 4, a few proximal cells in some of the tubules in the control and QT groups showed TUNEL-positive staining. In the NTiO₂-intoxicated group, TUNEL-positive cells were observed in most of the proximal tubules, while the percentage of apoptotic cells was significantly increased ($P < 0.001$). In the QT + NTiO₂ group, the percentage of TUNEL-positive cells was significantly less than in the NTiO₂ group ($P < 0.001$).

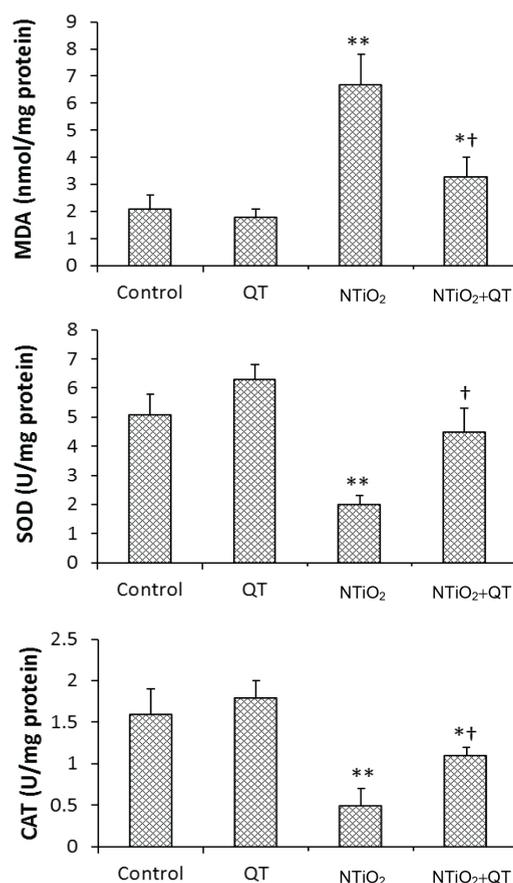


Figure 2. MDA level, SOD and CAT activities of control and experimental groups. Values are expressed as mean ± SD for eight rats. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, † $P < 0.01$; * and † symbols respectively indicate comparison to control and NTiO₂-intoxicated groups

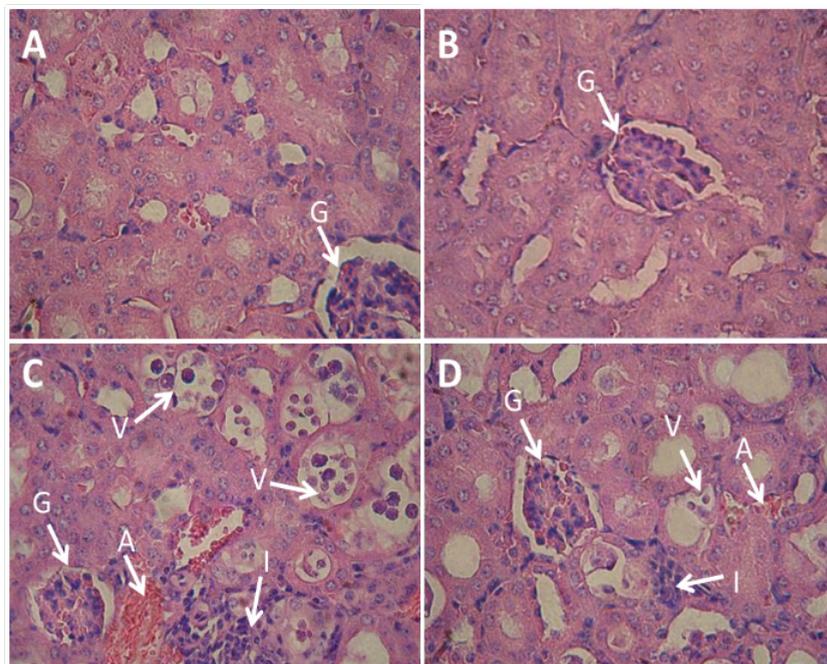


Figure 3. Light microscopy of cross sections of H & E stained testis from control and experimental groups. A: Control group; B: QT group; C: NTiO₂-intoxicated group; D: QT + NTiO₂ group. A: accumulation of RBCs, G: glomerulus, I: infiltration of inflammatory cells, V: vacuolisation in proximal tubules: Magnifications: $\times 400$

Table 2. Histology assessments in control and experimental groups

Histological criteria	Control	QT	NTiO ₂	QT+ NTiO ₂
Normal (%)	97.7 (3.2)	98.4 (4.7) <i>P</i> = 0.123	74.4 (8.2) ^{**} <i>P</i> = 0.009	90.3 (11.5) [†] <i>P</i> = 0.007
Tubular vacuolisation (%)	0.00 (0.00)	0.0 (0.00) <i>P</i> = 0.63	15.2 (2.2) ^{***} <i>P</i> = 0.000	6.1 (2.6) ^{***} <i>P</i> = 0.000, [†] <i>P</i> = 0.004
Brush border loss (%)	0.4 (0.06)	0.6 (0.3) <i>P</i> = 0.231	4.8 (2.8) ^{**} <i>P</i> = 0.002	1.7 (1.5) [*] <i>P</i> = 0.034, [†] <i>P</i> = 0.005
Infiltration of leukocytes	0.02 (0.004)	0.02 (0.007) <i>P</i> = 0.093	2.6 (0.07) ^{***} <i>P</i> = 0.000	0.3 (0.04) ^{**} <i>P</i> = 0.004, [†] <i>P</i> = 0.005
Congestion of RBCs	0.14 (0.03)	0.11 (0.04) <i>P</i> = 0.081	2.4 (0.04) ^{**} <i>P</i> = 0.004	0.2 (0.04) [*] <i>P</i> = 0.0647, [†] <i>P</i> = 0.006
Glomerular diameters (μm)	224 (9.3)	231.7 (7.6) <i>P</i> = 0.137	151.9 (6.1) ^{**} <i>P</i> = 0.003	197.6 (8.2) [*] <i>P</i> = 0.059, [†] <i>P</i> = 0.002

Values expressed as mean \pm SD for eight rats. ^{*}*P* < 0.05, ^{**}*P* < 0.01, ^{***}*P* < 0.001, [†]*P* < 0.01; ^{*} and [†] symbols respectively indicate comparison to control and NTiO₂-intoxicated groups.

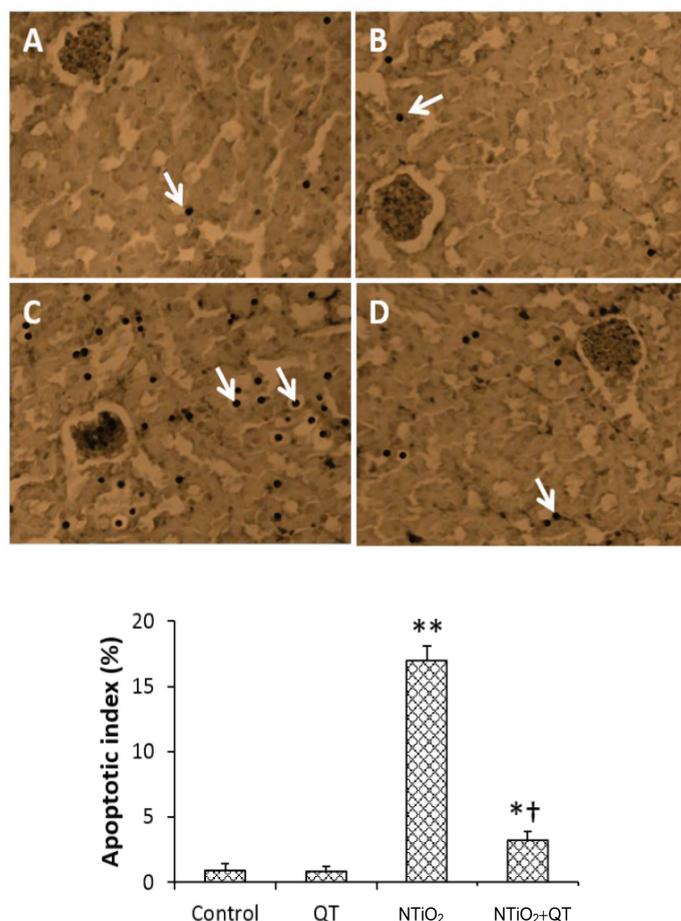


Figure 4. TUNEL staining in the kidney cross sections (Magnifications: $\times 250$) and apoptotic index. A: Control group; B: QT group; C: NTiO₂-intoxicated group; D: QT + NTiO₂ group. Arrows indicate apoptosis (TUNEL positive cells) in the proximal cells. Values expressed as mean \pm SD for 8 rats. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.001$, † $P < 0.001$; * and † symbols respectively indicate comparison to control and NTiO₂-intoxicated groups

Discussion

The results of our study demonstrated that QT protected against kidney damage induced by NTiO₂. The results showed that the weight of the kidneys decreased in the NTiO₂ group. This change may have been the result of damage to the proximal tubule and the glomerulus. However, the body weight of the NTiO₂-intoxicated group also decreased. This suggested that NTiO₂ has a toxic effect on the kidney and may induce apoptosis in other tissues. Hong and Zhang showed that NTiO₂ induced liver damage and enhanced the apoptotic index of hepatocytes in rats (19). Another study found that NTiO₂ can damage mouse testicular tissue and induce germ cell apoptosis (14). Zhao et al. showed that NTiO₂ induced follicular atresia in female mice (20).

In this study, QT reversed the renal weight loss induced by NTiO₂. Sangai et al. showed that QT mitigated the effects of bisphenol A on the body and organ weights of mice (10).

One study showed that zinc oxide NP (ZNP) significantly elevated the levels of BUN, Cr, and uric acid biomarkers. When the kidney is damaged, these biomarkers, which are inside the proximal cells of the nephrons, are released into the bloodstream. Hence, elevated concentrations of the biomarkers indicate damage to the proximal cells (21). QT caused the levels of the biomarkers to decrease, which indicates that this flavonoid has beneficial effects on the proximal cells.

This study showed that NTiO₂ has necrotic effects on the kidney as evidenced by the destruction of tubular structure, vacuolation (fat

deposit), nuclear pyknosis of the proximal cells, and the accumulation of RBCs and inflammatory cells. In a study by Fartkhooni et al., the administration of NTiO₂ induced damage to the proximal tubules and glomerulus (22). In this study, histological changes that were caused by NTiO₂ were significantly attenuated by QT. The improvement of renal tissue was accompanied by a significant reduction in the plasma levels of the biomarkers and a significant increase in renal weight.

Thus, due to the anti-inflammatory and anti-oxidant properties of QT, it may inhibit NTiO₂-induced renal damage in rats. Liu et al. showed that QT also suppressed the inflammatory response induced by lead in the kidneys of rats (23).

In this study, the MDA concentration in kidney tissue was significantly increased by NTiO₂. MDA is an indicator of the peroxidation process. Fat deposits in the proximal cells indicate abnormal fat metabolism. Previous studies demonstrated that NTiO₂ induced lipid peroxidation (fat deposit) and oxidative stress in the kidney of rodents (24). Another study found that NTiO₂ generates apoptosis and oxidative stress in human nephrons (25). Zhao et al. suggested that NTiO₂ causes the accumulation of reactive oxygen species, suppresses the anti-oxidative systems, and triggers nephritis in the kidney (26).

As discussed in the results, QT attenuated the fat deposits in proximal cells induced by NTiO₂. Another study found that QT improved the fat deposits in the proximal tubules of doxorubicin-intoxicated rats (27).

In this study, the significantly reduced activities of SOD and CAT indicated that NTiO₂ induced oxidative stress in renal tissue. However, pre-treatment with QT significantly reversed the activities of CAT and SOD, which indicated the anti-oxidant property of QT.

In this study, both apoptosis and necrosis were observed at the same time in the NTiO₂ group. Wilhelmi et al. demonstrated that ZNP induced both apoptosis and necrosis in macrophages (28). Liu et al. showed that QT inhibited apoptosis and DNA damage induced by lead in the kidney of rats (11). We also observed that NTiO₂ increased apoptosis in the proximal cells. Pre-treatment with QT effectively decreased the apoptotic index in kidney tissue. Özyurt et al. showed that QT prevented apoptosis in the kidney tissue induced by radiation (29). It has also been reported that QT protects the

kidney of mice against oxidative stress induced by arsenic (9).

The beneficial effects of QT on nephrotoxicity have also been reported by other researchers. For example, Faddah et al. showed that QT reduced nephrotoxicity induced by ZNP in rats (30). QT also reduced cisplatin-induced nephrotoxicity in rats (31), and was found to attenuate the damage to kidneys caused by pesticides (32).

Conclusion

This study showed that QT prevents NTiO₂-induced apoptosis and nephrotoxicity in female rats. QT protected kidney cells due to its antioxidant and anti-apoptotic effects. Future research should be done to confirm the anti-apoptotic effects of QT against NPs in animals.

Acknowledgements

This paper was supported by a Grant (95S86) from the student research committee council of the Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences in 2017.

Authors' Contributions

Conception and design: HA
 Analysis and interpretation of the data: LK
 Drafting of the article: MS
 Critical revision of the article for important intellectual content: MS
 Final approval of the article: LK
 Provision of study materials: HA
 Statistical expertise: LK
 Obtaining of funding: HA
 Administrative, technical, or logistic support: MS
 Collection and assembly of data: LK

Correspondence

Dr Layasadat Khorsandi
 Associate Professor
 PhD (Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences, Iran)
 Cell & Molecular Research Center, Faculty of Medicine,
 Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences,
 Ahvaz, Iran.
 Tel: +98 916 5979852
 Fax: +98 611 332036
 E-mail: khorsandi_cmrc@yahoo.com

References

1. L'Azou B, Henge-Napoli MH, Minaro L, Mirto H, Barrouillet MP, Cambar J. Effects of cadmium and uranium on some in vitro renal targets. *Cell Biol Toxicol*. 2002;**18**(5):329–340.
2. Amara S, Slama IB, Mrad I, Rihane N, Khemissi W, El Mir L, et al. Effects of zinc oxide nanoparticles and/or zinc chloride on biochemical parameters and mineral levels in rat liver and kidney. *Hum Exp Toxicol*. 2014;**33**(11):1150–1157. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0960327113510327>
3. Suttiponparnit K, Jiang J, Sahu M, Suvachittanont S, Charinpanitkul T, Biswas P. Role of surface area, primary particle size, and crystal phase on titanium dioxide nanoparticle dispersion properties. *Nanoscale Res Lett*. 2011;**6**(1):27. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11671-010-9772-1>
4. Hong F, Hong J, Wang L, Zhou Y, Liu D, Xu B, et al. Chronic exposure to nanoparticulate TiO₂ causes renal fibrosis involving activation of the Wnt pathway in mouse kidney. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2015;**63**(5):1639–1647. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf5034834>
5. Gui S, Li B, Zhao X, Sheng L, Hong J, Yu X, et al. Renal injury and Nrf2 modulation in mouse kidney following chronic exposure to TiO₂ nanoparticles. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2013;**61**(37):8959–8968. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf402387e>
6. Orazizadeh M, Khorsandi L, Absalan F, Hashemitabar M, Daneshi E. Effect of beta-carotene on titanium oxide nanoparticles-induced testicular toxicity in mice. *J Assist Reprod Genet*. 2014;**31**(5):561–568. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10815-014-0184-5>
7. Tinay I, Sener TE, Cevik O, Cadirci S, Toklu H, Cetinel S, et al. Antioxidant agent Quercetin prevents impairment of bladder tissue contractility and apoptosis in a rat model of ischemia/reperfusion injury. *Low Urin Tract Symptoms*. 2017;**9**(2):117–123. <https://doi.org/10.1111/luts.12125>
8. Chen TJ, Jeng JY, Lin CW, Wu CY, Chen YC. Quercetin inhibition of ROS-dependent and -independent apoptosis in rat glioma C6 cells. *Toxicology*. 2006;**223**(1–2):113–126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tox.2006.03.007>
9. Mishra D, Flora SJ. Quercetin administration during chelation therapy protects arsenic-induced oxidative stress in mice. *Biol Trace Elem Res*. 2008;**122**(2):137–147. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12011-007-8064-9>
10. Sangai NP, Verma RJ, Trivedi MH. Testing the efficacy of quercetin in mitigating bisphenolA toxicity in liver and kidney of mice. *Toxicol Ind Health*. 2014;**30**(7):581–597. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0748233712457438>
11. Liu CM, Ma JQ, Sun YZ. Quercetin protects the rat kidney against oxidative stress-mediated DNA damage and apoptosis induced by lead. *Environ Toxicol Pharmacol*. 2010;**30**(3):264–271. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.etap.2010.07.002>
12. Kocahan S, Dogan Z, Erdemli E, Taskin E. Protective effect of Quercetin against oxidative stress-induced toxicity associated with Doxorubicin and Cyclophosphamide in rat kidney and liver tissue. *Iranian Journal of Kidney Diseases*. 2017;**11**(2):124–131.
13. Khorsandi L, Orazizadeh M, Moradi-Gharibvand N, Hemadi M, Mansouri E. Beneficial effects of quercetin on titanium dioxide nanoparticles induced spermatogenesis defects in mice. *Environ Sci Pollut Res*. 2017;**24**(6):5595–5606. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jbt.21449>
14. Xu J, Shi H, Ruth M, Yu H, Lazar L, Zou B, et al. Acute toxicity of intravenously administered titanium dioxide nanoparticles in mice. *PLoS One*. 2013;**8**(8):e70618. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0070618>
15. Mansouri E, Khorsandi L, ZareMoaiedi M. Grape seed proanthocyanidin extract improved some of biochemical parameters and antioxidant disturbances of red blood cells in diabetic rats. *Iran J Pharm Res*. 2015;**14**(1):329–334.
16. Mansouri E, Khorsandi L, Abedi HA. Antioxidant effects of proanthocyanidin from grape seed on hepatic tissue injury in diabetic rats. *Iran J Basic Med Sci*. 2014;**17**(6):460–464.
17. Khorsandi L, Orazizadeh M. Protective effect of Curcuma longa extract on acetaminophen induced nephrotoxicity in mice. *DARU*. 2008;**16**(3):155–159.

18. Orazizadeh M, Hashemitabar M, Khorsandi L. Protective effect of minocycline on dexamethasone induced testicular germ cell apoptosis in mice. *Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci*. 2009;**13**(1):1–5.
19. Hong J, Zhang YQ. Murine liver damage caused by exposure to nano-titanium dioxide. *Nanotechnology*. 2016;**27**(11):112001. <https://doi.org/10.1088/0957-4484/27/11/112001>
20. Zhao X, Ze Y, Gao G, Sang X, Li B, Gui S, et al. Nanosized TiO₂-induced reproductive system dysfunction and its mechanism in female mice. *PLoS One*. 2013;**8**(4):e59378. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0059378>
21. Zhu HC, Cao RI. The relationship between serum levels of uric acid and prognosis of infection in critically ill patients. *World J Emerg Med*. 2012;**3**(3):186–190. <https://doi.org/10.5847/wjem.j.issn.1920-8642.2012.03.005>
22. Fartkhoni FM, Noori A, Mohammadi A. Effects of titanium dioxide nanoparticles toxicity on the kidney of male rats. *International Journal of Life Sciences*. 2016;**10**(1):65–69. <https://doi.org/10.3126/ijls.v10i1.14513>
23. Liu CM, Sun JM, Ma JQ, Cheng C. Protective role of quercetin against lead-induced inflammatory response in rat kidney through the ROS-mediated MAPKs and NF-κB pathway. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)*. 2012;**1820**(10):1693–1703. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbagen.2012.06.011>
24. Shi H, Magaye R, Castranova V, Zhao J. Titanium dioxide nanoparticles: a review of current toxicological data. *Particle and fiber toxicology*. 2013;**10**:15. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1743-8977-10-15>
25. Meena R, Paulraj R. Oxidative stress mediated cytotoxicity of TiO₂ nanoanatase in liver and kidney of Wistar rat. *Toxicological & Environmental Chemistry*. 2012;**94**(1):146–163. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02772248.2011.638441>
26. Zhao J, Li N, Wang S, Zhao X, Wang J, Yan J, et al. The mechanism of oxidative damage in the nephrotoxicity of mice caused by nano-anatase TiO₂. *Journal of Experimental Nanoscience*. 2010;**5**(5):447–462. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17458081003628931>
27. Yagmurca M, Yasar Z, Bas O. Effects of quercetin on kidney injury induced by doxorubicin. *Bratisl Med J*. 2015;**116**(8):486–489.
28. Wilhelmi V, Fischer U, Weighardt H, Schulze-Osthoff K, Nickel C, Stahlmecke B, et al. Zinc oxide nanoparticles induce necrosis and apoptosis in macrophages in a p47phox- and Nrf2-independent manner. *PLoS One*. 2013;**8**:e65704. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0065704>
29. Özyurt H, Çevik Ö, Özgen Z, Özden AS, Çadırcı S, Elmas MA, et al. Quercetin protects radiation-induced DNA damage and apoptosis in kidney and bladder tissues of rats. *Free Radic Res*. 2014;**48**(10):1247–1255. <https://doi.org/10.3109/10715762.2014.945925>
30. Faddah LM, Abdel Baky NA, Al-Rasheed NM, Al-Rasheed NM, Fatani AJ, Atteya M. Role of quercetin and arginine in ameliorating nano zinc oxide-induced nephrotoxicity in rats. *BMC Complement Altern Med*. 2016;**16**(1):323.
31. González-Esquivel AE, Charles-Niño CL, Pacheco-Moisés EP, Ortiz GG, Jaramillo-Juárez F, Rincón-Sánchez AR. Beneficial effects of quercetin on oxidative stress in liver and kidney induced by titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanoparticles in rats. *Toxicology Mechanisms and Methods*. 2015;**25**(3):166–175. <https://doi.org/10.3109/15376516.2015.1006491>
32. Li S, Cao C, Shi H, Yang S, Qi L, Zhao X, et al. Effect of quercetin against mixture of four organophosphate pesticides induced nephrotoxicity in rats. *Xenobiotica*. 2016;**46**(3):225–233. <https://doi.org/10.3109/00498254.2015>