

# Heavy metals obtained from waterways induced neurodegeneration in the prefrontal cortex of Wistar rats

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## SUMMARY

The level of heavy metals in Nigeria waterways is grossly influenced by the irrepressible disposal and recycling of electronic waste. The impact of heavy metals obtained from waterways on the prefrontal cortex of experimental rats was investigated in this study. Thirty (30) adult male Wistar rats weighing about 150-180 g were used in this study. Ten rats apiece were assigned randomly into three groups. Pooled sampled water and water containing the highest average concentration of combined heavy metals recorded in the waterways was given to the Wistar rats within the treatment groups *ad libitum* for 65 days. Blood sera were obtained for analysis of oxidative stress markers. The prefrontal cortex was processed for paraffin embedding, and sections stained for histological, histochemical and immunochemical evaluations.  $P < 0.05$  was regarded as significant for data using one-way analysis of variance. Oxidative damage was observed in animals from the treatment groups when compared to the control. The analysed levels of oxidative stress markers showed statistically significant differences, except between groups given pooled sampled water and combined metals. Neuro-

degeneration was attested from the histological and histochemical evaluations, and the immuno-histochemical evaluation revealed marked astrogliosis with induced oxidative stress while comparing the experimental groups.

Keywords: Electronic-waste – Heavy metals – Neurodegeneration – Waterways

## INTRODUCTION

About one billion individuals are figured to suffer from some forms of disability in the world while neurological impairments account for one-fourth of the twenty top causes of disabilities globally (WHO, 2011). Exposure to environment-derived heavy metals is principally implicated in causing cognitive and neurological deficits (Neal and Guilarte, 2012). Heavy metals are known as environmental pollutants with the attendant toxicity of increasing concern (Nagajyoti et al., 2010; Karri et al., 2016). It was reported that developing countries including Nigeria have high levels of heavy metals contamination (Huang et al., 2014; Izah et al., 2016). Poor disposal and recycling of electronic waste (e-waste) is a significant source of heavy metals contamination in developing countries, mainly Asian and African nations (Azuka, 2009, Shamim et al., 2015). Most rivers were reported to have well above the recommended permissible levels for heavy metals due to these irrepressible

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practices (Huang et al. 2014; Izah et al. 2016). In 2013, United Nations University projected the global e-waste generation by 2017 to reach about 65.4 million metric tons from the previous 20-50 million metric tons with the annual growth rate of 33% (UNU, 2013; Shamim et al., 2015). Unfortunately, about 75 % to 80 % was reported to be dumped as second-hand devices for recycling and disposal in developing countries, particularly Western Africa (Shamim et al., 2015; Ibrahim, 2017).

Perhaps, the primary concern now is the public health hazard heavy metals generated from e-waste to man. In spite of dearth research findings, the public health significance of heavy metal contact from the disposal and recycling of e-waste has been heightening (Shamim et al., 2015). The usual hazardous, toxic and nonbiodegradable e-waste generated heavy metals include cadmium, arsenic, lead, nickel, chromium, copper, manganese, zinc, mercury, iron and aluminium (Jinhui et al., 2011; Shamim et al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2016). Of particular interest, neurotoxicants are lead, mercury, cadmium and chromium, reported by Chen et al. (2011) to induce neurodegeneration. These metals adversely impact the waterways and agricultural practices due to their uptake in edible crops; thus human beings are contaminated by food chain (Puschenreiter et al., 2005). They are subsequently transformed into toxic compounds resulting in various health risks straddling from mild eye injury to severe cellular alteration (Akinseye, 2013). The toxicity of these heavy metals remains to be determined, despite the fact that several of them are suspected to have neurotoxicity in vulnerable populations (Chen et al. 2011).

Wright and Baccarelli (2007) established from their findings that oxidative stress is stimulated by heavy metals. Oxidative stress was observed as a rise in reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, with depleting of the set aside antioxidant (Wright and Baccarelli, 2007; Valko et al. 2016). Heavy metal ion metabolic balance breakdown forms ROS, which results in oxidative damage in macromolecules (Valko et al., 2016). Neurons are incapacitated to detoxicate ROS, and are thereby endangered by oxidative stress (Chen et al., 2011). Vulnerability to lead was reported to increase astrocyte filaments, damage cellular organelles and increase oxidative stress activities in the central nervous system (CNS) (Struzyńska et al., 2001; Chiurchiù et al. 2016). Lead may interact with membrane lipids and proteins, whereby the integrity of the cell membrane is compromised (Sanders et al., 2009). Cadmium was reported to prompt oxidative damage in humans and animals (Joseph, 2009). It also suppresses gene expression, and inhibits DNA damage repair and apoptosis (Bishak et al., 2015). Johansson et al. (2007) and Petroni et al. (2012) reported that mercury results in ROS upregulation, which adversely impairs the function of the mitochondria electron transport system. Oxidative stress was also evident in rats' cerebra exposed to chromium (Nudler et al., 2009).

This study, therefore, proposed to investigate

neurodegeneration induced by heavy metals from waterways in Kwara State, Nigeria using Wistar rats. This study has been carried out in Kwara State, Nigeria in 2017.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### *Procurement of animals*

Thirty (30) first filial (F1) generation inbred adult male Wistar rats weighing about 150-180 g were procured from the animal facility of the Institute for Advance Medical Research and Training (IAMRAT), College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, and employed in this study. They were acclimatised for 14 days and were fed pelletized rat feed and water *ad libitum* throughout acclimatisation before use. The rats were housed in plastic cages and kept in standard laboratory conditions under natural light-dark cycle at room temperature.

### *Chemicals Procurement*

Analytical chemicals procured from Sigma-Aldrich, USA for this study include: Mercury thiocyanate ( $\text{Hg}(\text{SCN})_2$ ), Cadmium acetate dihydrate ( $\text{Cd}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), Chromium oxide ( $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$ ), and Lead (II) acetate trihydrate ( $\text{Pb}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ).

### *Preparation of solutions*

The solutions were prepared in line with the empirical findings from heavy metals obtained in the waterways carried out in same study area by Adeniyi et al. (2017) 0.009 g of  $\text{Pb}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 0.001 g of  $\text{Hg}(\text{SCN})_2$ , 0.045 g of  $\text{Cd}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 0.318 g of  $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$  were weighed using Meltzer sensitive weighing balance. It was then dissolved in 1 liter of distilled water to form the final concentration of 0.009 mg of  $\text{Pb}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 0.001 mg of  $\text{Hg}(\text{SCN})_2$ , 0.045 mg of  $\text{Cd}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 0.318 mg of  $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$  per milliliters solutions.

### *Experimental design and treatment of animals*

The thirty (30) rats were separated into three groups of ten animals each selected by simple randomisation (Table 1). The duration of treatment lasted 65 days, standard long-term treatment for rats (Adeyemi et al., 2007).

The procedures used in this experimental study were approved by the Health Research and Ethics Committee of the University of Nigeria Teaching Hospital, Enugu State. The approval is in line with the National Institute of Health (NIH) in the "Guide to the Care and Use of Animals in Research and Teaching" (NAS, 2011). The approval is with protocol number 025/02/2017.

### *Biochemical assays*

The animals were sacrificed by cervical dislocation. Their blood samples were obtained by cardiac puncture, transferred into separate plain bottles under aseptic conditions and centrifuged with a bench centrifuge at 4000 revolutions per minute for 5 minutes to get the sera. The sera were pipetted

into serum vials and preserved at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until when the biochemical analysis was carried out. The preserved sera were assayed for Superoxide dismutase (SOD), Glutathione peroxidase (GPx), Hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) and Malondialdehyde (MDA) employing the method of Mistral and Fridovich (1972); Paglia and Valentine (1967); Wolff (1994) and Deiana et al. (1999) and Stocks and Domandy (1971) respectively.

#### Tissue preparation and neurohistological evaluations

Their skull was opened with the aid of bone forceps leaving the brain tissue intact (Van Zutphen et al. 1993). The prefrontal cortex was excised from the anterior cerebral cortex. The brain tissues were fixed in 10% buffered formal saline, grossed and processed for paraffin tissue embedding (Drury and Wellington, 1980). The prepared sections were stained for histological evaluation, histochemical assessment and immunohistochemical evaluation utilising the method of Bancroft and Gamble (2008), Marsland et al. (1954), Hoehn et al. (2003) and Delcambre et al. (2016) respectively.

#### Statistical analysis

Data obtained were analysed using a GraphPad Prism statistical package soft version 6 (California, USA). Values of biochemical parameters within groups of experimental animals were compared by one-way ANOVA, followed by Uncorrected Fisher's LSD test for multiple comparisons. Data taking

at P value less than 0.05 was significant at 95% confident interval.

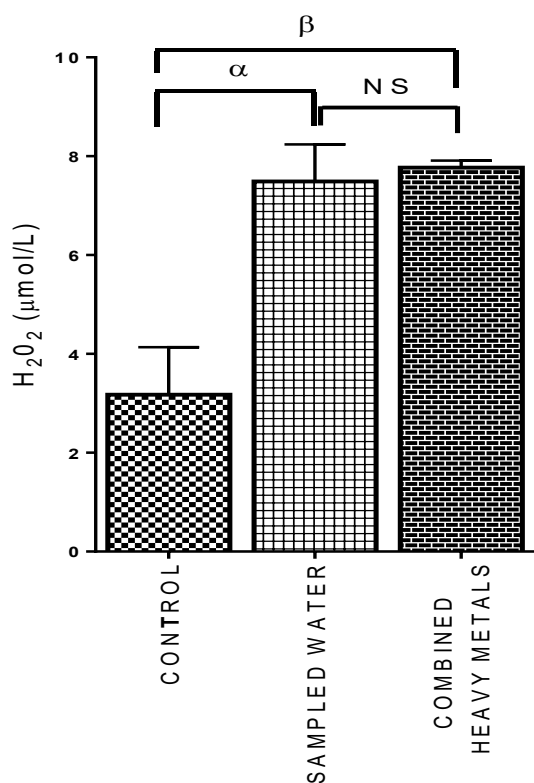
#### Photomicrographs

The stained sections were viewed, and photomicrographed with an Olympus U-D03 microscope captured with Olympus DP21 camera. The obtained Photomicrographs were analysed and reported.

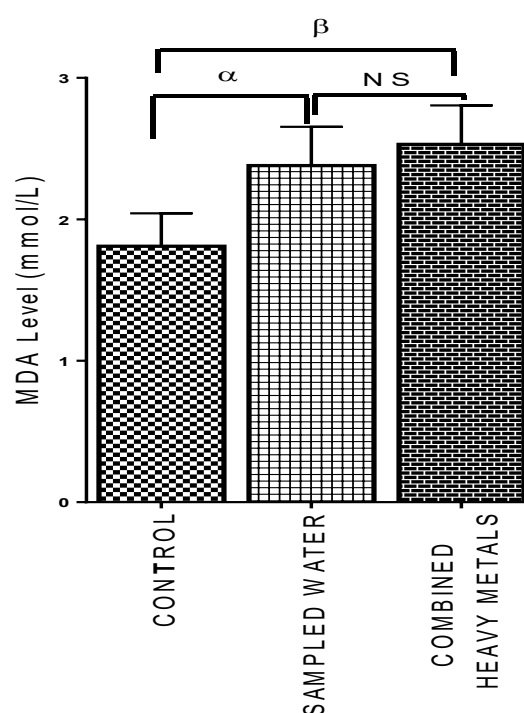
## RESULTS

#### Level of serum oxidative stress markers

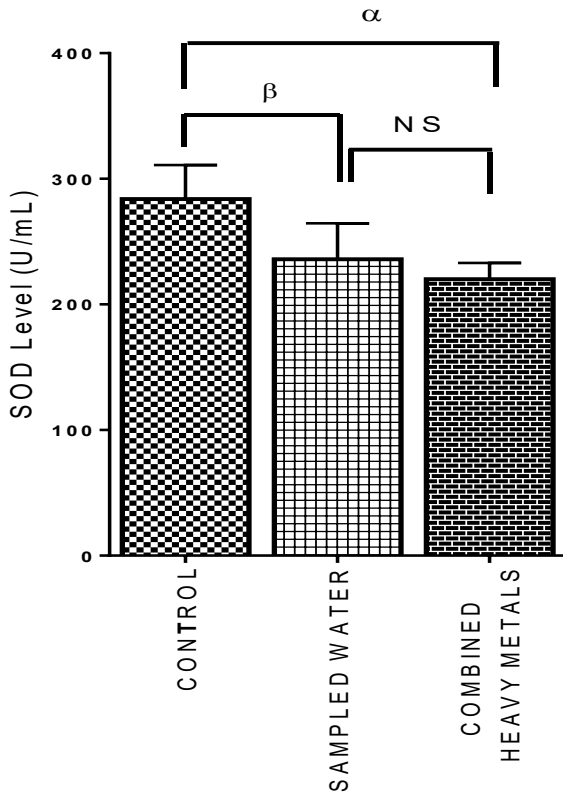
There was no account of death recorded in the three groups throughout the 65 days of administration. The reactive oxygen species, lipid peroxidation and antioxidant activity, were determined in the serum of experimental animals. Significant differences were observed in the level of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  in group 2 ( $7.49 \pm 0.24$ ) and group 3 ( $7.77 \pm 0.04$ ) compared to the control group ( $3.18 \pm 0.30$ ) respectively. The level of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  between group 2 and group 3 showed no statistical significance (Fig. 1). The level of serum MDA of group 1 ( $1.8 \pm 0.07$ ) was significantly lower compared to the other groups. Group 2 ( $2.4 \pm 0.09$ ) and group 3 ( $2.5 \pm 0.09$ ) were seen to be significant when compared to the control group respectively. However, there was no significant difference in the level of MDA between group 2 and group 3 (Fig. 2). There were significant differences in the levels of SOD in group 2 ( $236 \pm 9.03$ ) and group 3 ( $220 \pm 4.08$ ) compared to the control group ( $283 \pm 8.58$ ) respectively. No significant difference was observed



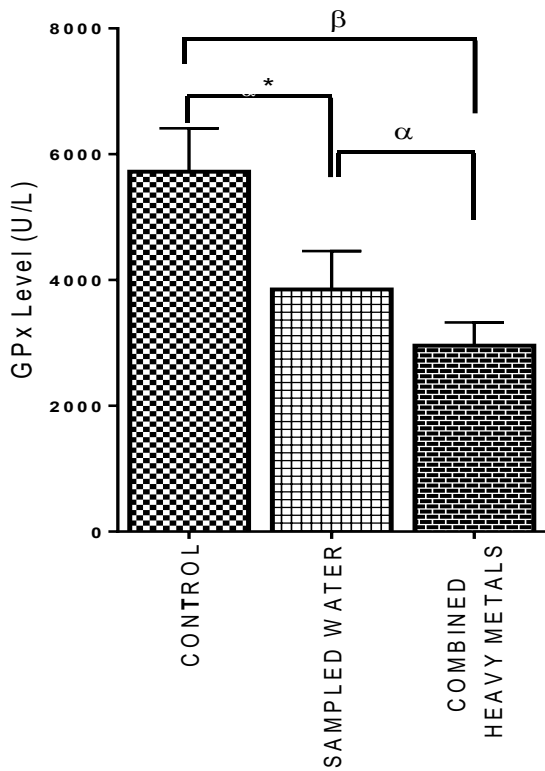
**Fig 1.** Level of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  in experimental groups following 65 days heavy metals exposure  $^{\alpha}p < 0.0001$ ;  $^{\beta}p < 0.0001$ ; NS: No significant.



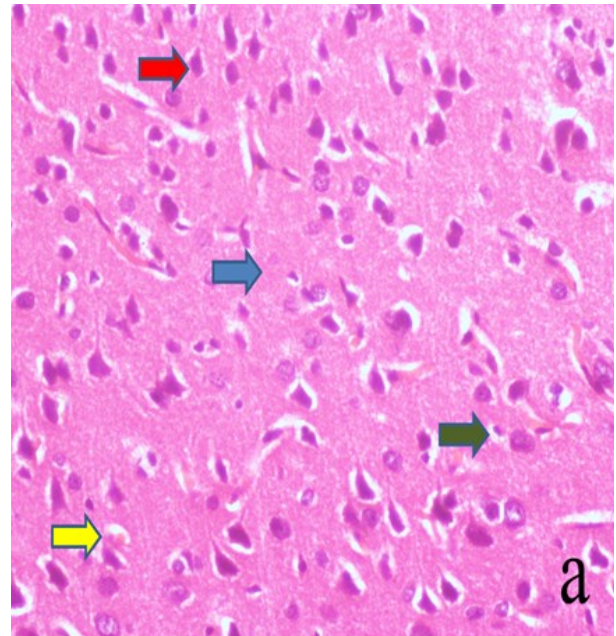
**Fig 2.** MDA level in the experimental groups following 65 days exposure to heavy metals.  $^{\alpha}p < 0.0004$ ;  $^{\beta}p < 0.0002$ ; NS: No significant



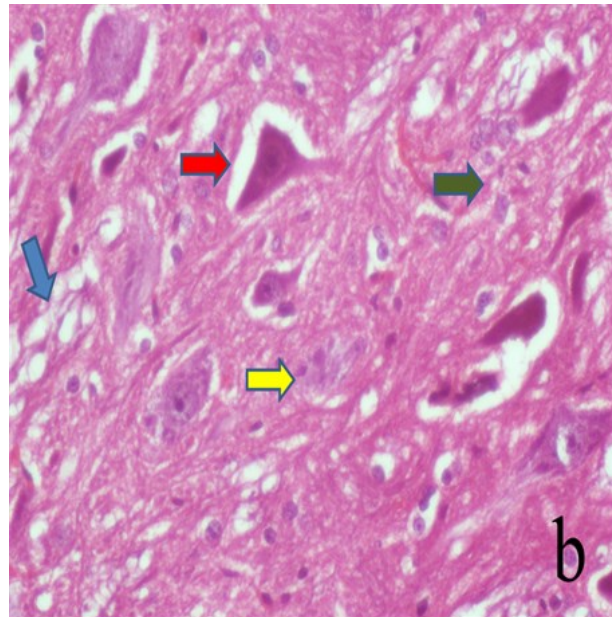
**Fig 3.** Effects of exposure to heavy metals for 65 days on SOD level in the experimental groups. <sup>α</sup>p < 0.0001; <sup>β</sup>p < 0.0064; NS: No significant.



**Fig 4.** Effects of exposure to heavy metals for 65 days on GPx level in the experimental groups. \*p < 0.003; <sup>α</sup>p < 0.0018; <sup>β</sup>p < 0.0001



**Fig 5.** (a) Section from the control group appears normal with normal and intact neurons (red arrow), normal blood vessel (yellow arrow) in the normal neuropil (blue arrow) stained slightly eosinophilic and normal glial cells interspersed within the neuropil (green arrow).



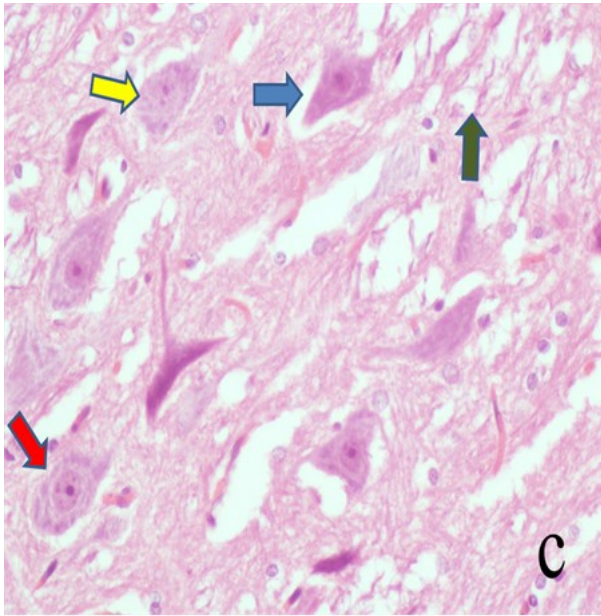
**Fig 5.** (b) The section from rats following pooled water administration shows features of neurodegeneration: swollen or ballooned neurons some with karyorrhexis (yellow arrow), neurofibrillary tangle (red arrow), neuropil vacuolation (blue arrow) and reactive astrocytic gliosis (green arrow).

in SOD level between group 2 and group 3 (Fig. 3). The level of GPx in the serum of group 2 (3849 ± 217.50) and group 3 (2955 ± 117.24) was significantly lower when compared to the control group (5724 ± 217.50) (Fig. 4).

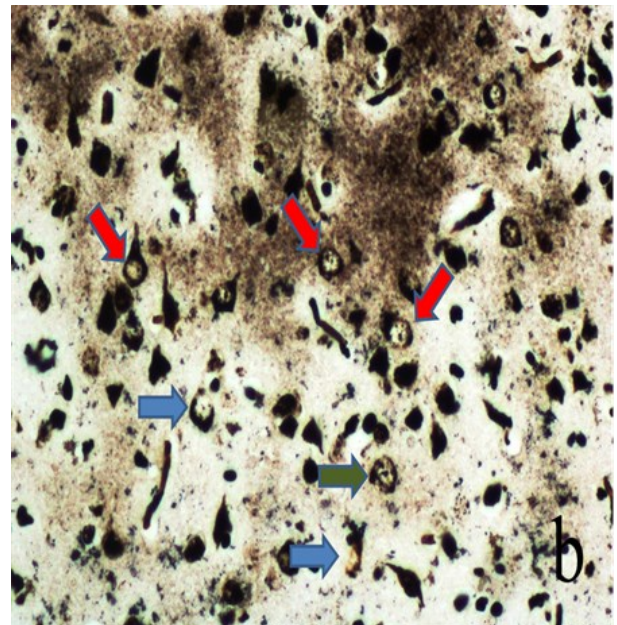
**Neuronal morphology**

The general neuronal morphology was demonstrated using haematoxylin and eosin stain (Fig.

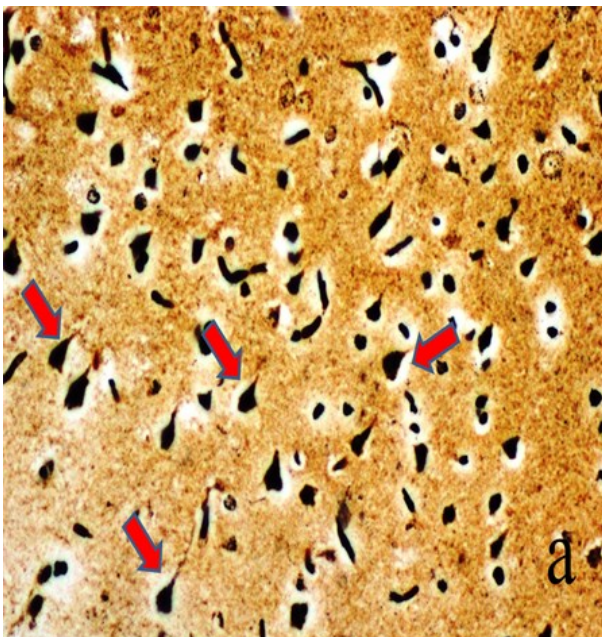




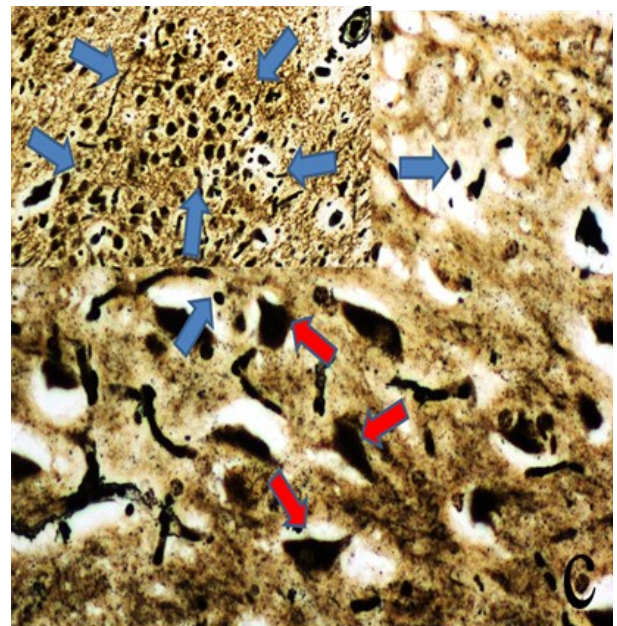
**Fig 5.** (c) The section from the combined heavy metals group shows features of neurodegeneration: swollen or ballooned neurons (red, yellow and blue arrows) some with karyorrhexis (yellow arrow), reactive astrocytic gliosis with neuropil vacuolation degeneration (green arrow) (x 400, haematoxylin and eosin stain).



**Fig 6.** (b) The section from rats administered with pooled sample water shows features of neurodegeneration in the cortex characterised by the presence of degenerate neurons with swollen nuclei (red arrows) and some with no nuclei (blue arrows) and cytoplasm (green arrow).



**Fig 6.** (a) Section from the control group appeared normal with normal and intact neurons (red arrows).

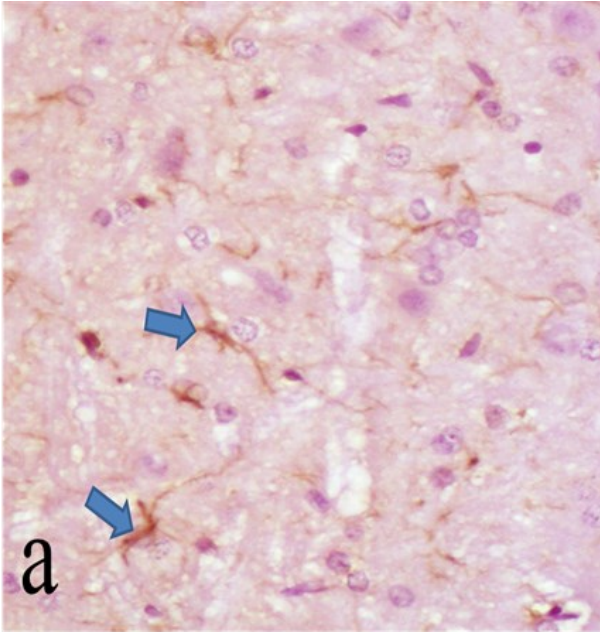


**Fig 6.** (c) Neurohistochemical evaluation from combined heavy metals is characterised with the presence of degenerate swollen neurons with pyknotic nuclei (red arrows) and marked astrocytic gliosis (blue arrows) (x 400, Bielschowsky's silver impregnation stain)

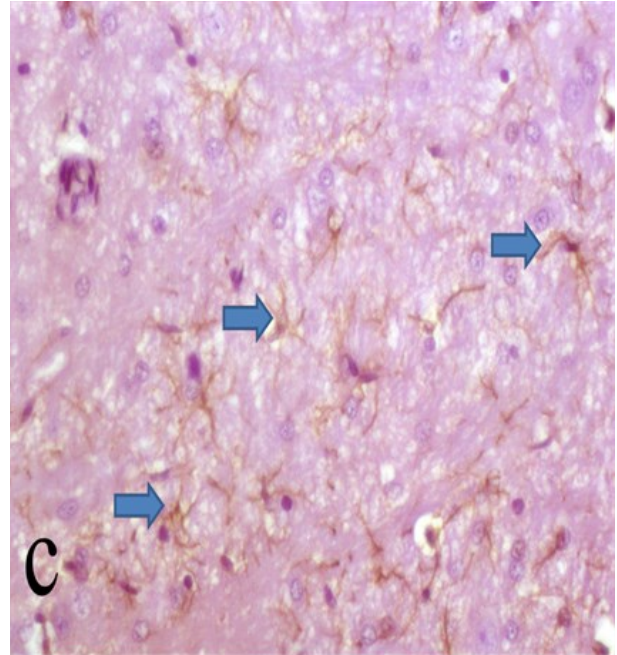
5). The section from the control group (Fig. 5a) depicts normal neuronal structures, whereas the neurohistological features from the treatment groups reveal neurons with distorted morphology, with different features of neurodegeneration as a result of neurotoxicity from the administered neurotoxicants (Figs. 5b and 5c). The neuronal membrane and presence of neurodegenerative features were further demonstrated using Bielschowsky's silver impregnation stain (Fig. 6). The section from the control group revealed normal neurons with a

well-outlined neuronal membrane (Fig. 6a). The treatment group shows neurons with different degenerative features (Figs. 6b and 6c). Reactive glial immunoreactivity was demonstrated using glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) immunostaining (Fig. 7). The treatment groups show strong astrocytic immunoreactivity (Figs. 7b and 7c) compared with the control group (Fig. 7a). The demonstration of oxidative stress was also carried out

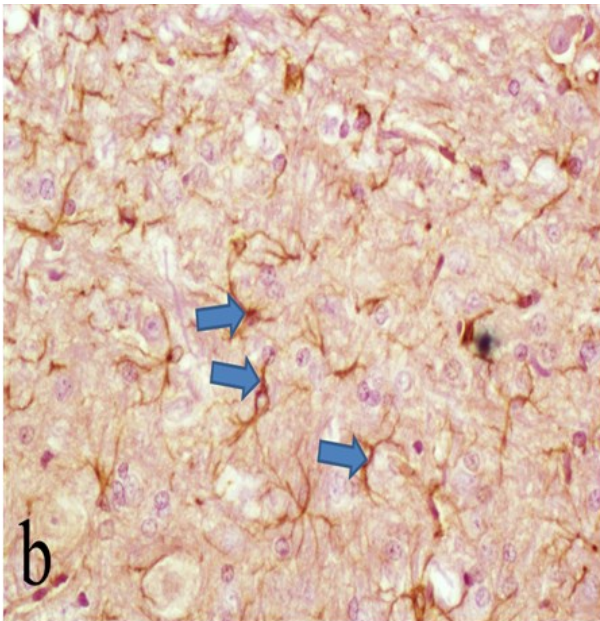




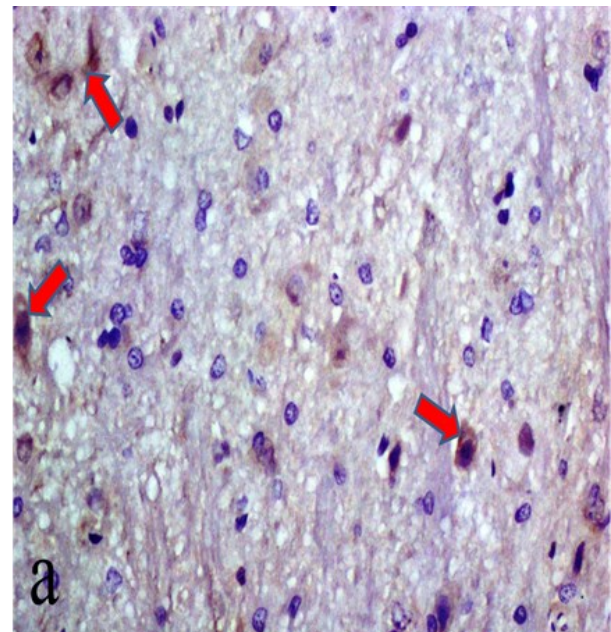
**Fig 7. (a)** Section from the control group shows mild astrocytic immunoreactivity with specific and uniform staining for glial fibrillary acidic protein (blue arrows)



**Fig 7. (c)** Immunohistochemical evaluation from combined heavy metals group shows strong immunoreactivity with intensely stained astrocytes (blue arrows) (x 400, Glial fibrillary acidic protein immunostain).



**Fig 7. (b)** The section from rats following pooled sampled water administration depicts strong immunoreactivity with numerous intensely stained astrocytes (blue arrows).



**Fig 8. (a)** Immunohistochemical evaluation from the control group shows low immunoreactivity with mild expression (red arrows).

using inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) immunostaining (Fig. 8). iNOS reactivity was intensely expressed in the treatment groups (Figs. 8b and 8c) when compared with the control group (Fig. 8a). This revealed heavy metals induced oxidative stress through inordinate nitric oxide synthesis.

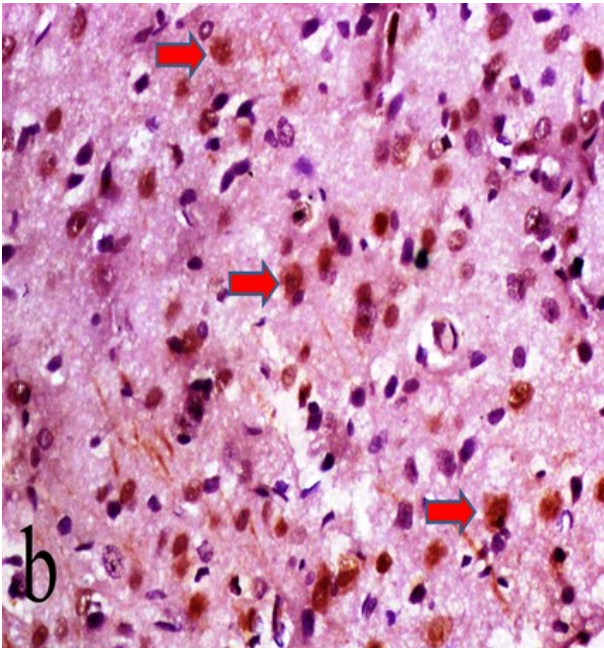
## DISCUSSION

### Heavy metals effect on ROS

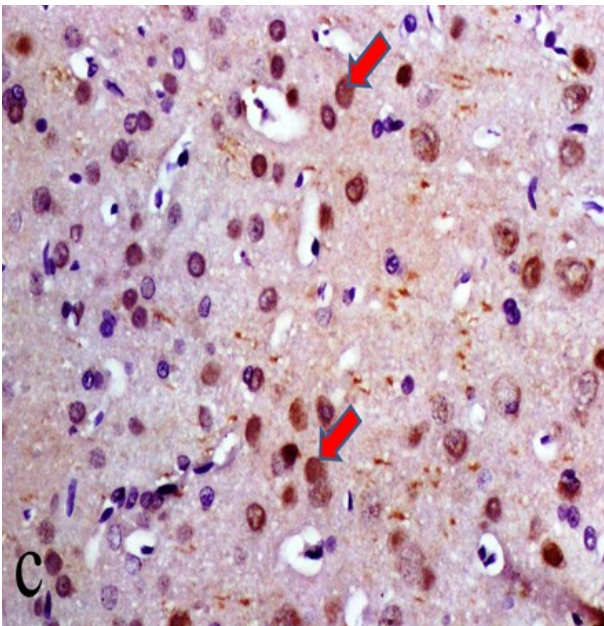
This study revealed an increase in hydrogen peroxide level in the treatment groups when com-

pared to the control group (Fig. 1). The significant increase observed in the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> level agrees with findings from previous works (Houston, 2011; Oyagbemi et al., 2015). Hydrogen peroxide can oxidise cellular components; thus, hydrogen peroxide inside the cells increases after the tissue damage (Foyer and Noctor, 2005). However, no significant difference in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> level from rats administered with pooled sample water (group 2) and combined heavy metals (group 3) was observed ( $P_{cal} = 0.2144$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ). The finding suggests hy-





**Fig 8. (b)** The section from the group administered with pooled sample water depicts strong immunoreactivity with intense expression (red arrows).



**Fig 8. (c)** The section from the combined heavy metal group indicates strong immunoreactivity which is intensely expressed (red arrows) (x 400 magnification, inducible nitric oxide synthase immunostain).

drogen peroxide expression is similar in the two groups (Fig. 1).

Acute or chronic heavy metal toxicity is mediated primarily through the injurious tissue ROS production (Faix et al., 2005). Cell membrane components and DNA are particularly reactive to ROS damage, which can result in neurodegeneration (Schulz et al., 2000; Ibrahim et al., 2012; Padurariu et al., 2013). Padurariu et al. (2013) reported that the resultant effects of such damage, especially to fatty acids of the biological membrane, are

formed from lipid peroxidation reactions.

#### **Heavy metals effect on lipid peroxidation**

MDA finding in this study shows greatly enhanced lipid peroxidation in treated rats compared to the control (Fig. 2). No significant was however observed while comparing the MDA level between groups administered with pooled sampled water (group 2) and combined heavy metals (group 3) ( $P_{cal} = 0.0811$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Figure 2). This suggests that MDA expression is equal in the two groups. The significant increase observed in this result agrees with previous reports (Soudani et al., 2012; Apaydin et al., 2014; Oyagbemi et al., 2015; Reckziegel et al., 2016).

Lipid peroxidation is indicated by an increase in the MDA level (Demir et al., 2011). MDA peroxidised polyunsaturated lipids molecules which is diagnostic for oxidative damage (Ferreiro et al., 2012; Bas and Kalender, 2016). Increase in lipid peroxidation level ensues in pathological damage of organs like brain, kidney, and liver (Soudani et al., 2012; Oyagbemi et al., 2015; Reckziegel et al., 2016).

#### **Heavy metals effect on antioxidant enzyme activities**

SOD and GPx activities are frequently used as oxidative stress markers in tissue and blood (Pathak and Khandelwal, 2006). They are endogenous antioxidant enzymes that protect the body against oxidative damage (Gilgun-Sherki et al., 2001; Padurariu et al., 2013). This role is achieved as they speed up the reduction of ROS reaction through different mechanism thereby decreasing their power to cause oxidative damage (Gilgun-Sherki et al., 2001; Padurariu et al., 2013).

#### **SOD level following exposure**

The substantial reduction in SOD level observed following heavy metal exposure agrees with previous works (Pardeep and Bimla, 2004; Flora, 2009; Reckziegel et al., 2016). However, there was no significant observable difference while comparing SOD activity between the group administered with pooled sample water (group 2) and combined heavy metals (group 3) ( $P_{cal} = 0.1889$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Fig. 3). This suggests SOD activity is equal in the two groups.

SOD catalyses the conversion of superoxide anions to  $H_2O_2$  and oxygen (Kalender et al., 2015). It is known to be the number one defence against ROS and decreases in its expression indicates oxidative damage (Antonio-García and Massó-Gonzalez, 2008; Jambunathan, 2010). In the studies of superoxide anions and their role in neuronal degeneration, SOD is a significant defence of the neuronal cells against increased ROS and oxygen radical level (Jambunathan, 2010).

#### **GPx level following exposure**

The considerable decrease recorded in the activity of GPx (Fig. 4) agrees with the work of Pardeep and Bimla (2004), Oyagbemi et al. (2015) and Reckziegel et al. (2016). GPx catalyses the reduc-

**Table 1.** Grouping and Treatment of animals.

Group	Treatment
Group 1	Control group had access to food and distilled water <i>ad libitum</i>
Group 2	Treatment group 1, had access to food and pooled sampled water from the study area <i>ad libitum</i>
Group 3	Treatment group 2, had access to food and dissolved the mixture of 0.009/L mg of Pb (CH <sub>3</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·3H <sub>2</sub> O, 0.001 mg/L of Hg(SCN) <sub>2</sub> , 0.045 mg/L of Cd(CH <sub>3</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O and 0.318 mg/L of Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> water <i>ad libitum</i>

ing of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>O and oxygen thereby protecting the cell from oxidative damage induced by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Messarah et al., 2012; Bas et al., 2014). It influences the donation of reducing equivalent by GSH/GSSH system to ROS while making ROS stable. It also detoxifies mitochondrial and cytosolic peroxides (Schulz et al., 2000).

### **Effect of heavy metals on prefrontal cortex of experimental animals**

#### *Histological and histochemical findings*

Several parameters were employed in this study to observe the morphology of the neurons following the effects of treatment in the prefrontal cortex of rats. Based on the higher functions associated with prefrontal cortex of the brain coupled with regional variation in neuronal plasticity, the morphology of the neurons were investigated to reflect the difference in their response to the effect of treatment on the prefrontal cortex following exposure.

This study employed one histological stain, Haematoxylin and Eosin, and one histochemical stain, Bielschowsky's silver impregnation. These two complementary and independent methods demonstrated different features of neurodegeneration (Figs. 5 and 6). The degeneration pattern of the neurons was necrotic. Necrosis in this context is seen as neuronal swelling, with a gradual decline of plasma membrane integrity and nuclear swelling similar to that described by Barrett et al. (2001).

Fig. 5b and 5c which is representative of prefrontal cortex from the pooled sampled water and the combined group respectively, share similar morphologic appearance. These characteristic appearances eventually result in neuronal death. Neuronal death is fundamental in the neuropathology of various degenerative disorders of the CNS (Cordeiro et al., 2010). The present finding is in line with previous works in which different neurotoxicants investigated resulted in neuronal damage and death (Pardeep and Bimla, 2004; Soudani et al., 2012; Ranjan et al., 2015; Makanjuola et al., 2016; Mahmoud et al., 2017).

It has also been shown that, in neurons, heavy metals produce an increase in ROS with resultant membrane damage, defective synaptic connection, and increased neuronal death (Antonio et al., 2003). This correlated with the ROS findings (Fig. 1). The brain has some characters that make it susceptible to these ROS mediated injuries. The

brain lipids possess a significant amount of polyunsaturated fatty acids, which increases the susceptibility of the neuronal membrane to lipid peroxidation. This is also correlated with the MDA findings (Fig. 2) and the histological appearance in this study. The histological appearance is as shown in the structures of the membrane observed in the treatment groups (Figs. 5b, 5c, 6b, 6c) when compared with the control groups (Figs. 5a, 6a). Singer and Nicolson (1972) described membrane as seabed of the bilipid layer with floating icebergs of protein. Lipid peroxidation accounts for the reduced membrane integrity observed (Valko et al., 2016). Astrocytic increment was obvious in the treatment groups (Figs. 6b, 6c). Structural support and strength to the surrounding neurons in the central nervous system are provided by astrocytes, especially during neuronal assault (Mccall et al., 1996; Eng et al., 2000). The striking reactive gliosis observed in the treatment groups in figure 6 is worth noting since astrocyte is one of the major effector of neuroinflammation (Florianne et al., 2006).

### **Immunohistochemical findings**

#### *Glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) immunostaining expression*

GFAP is the marker for mature astrocytes. The prefrontal cortex of treated rats showed strong astrocytic immunoreactivity for GFAP immunostain, resulting in intensely stained astrocytes (Fig. 7). In this study, GFAP immunoreactions establish astrocyte immunological response to the studied neurotoxicants. This expression is observed as dark-brown multi-processed star-shaped cells called astrocytes. Astrocytes are one of the supportive cells of the CNS. They are activated during oxidative damage in response to excitotoxicity (Lui et al., 2011; Adekomi et al., 2017). Reactive astrogliosis, an abnormal astrocyte proliferation, primarily indicates induced neuronal damage (Buffo et al., 2008; Zuchero et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2010; Olajide et al., 2016; Adekomi et al., 2017). Triolo et al. (2006) reported astrogliosis as a major feature seen in most neurodegeneration disorders as a result of oxidative damage. This agrees with the previous study, where increased expression of GFAP following exposure to heavy metal was acknowledged (Adekomi et al., 2017). This buttresses the histological and histochemical findings in this study, as marked reactive astrocytic gliosis was observed in the prefrontal cortex of experimental rats (Figure 5 and 6). Therefore, it is inferred that the reactive observed astrocytic gliosis in this study is as a result of heavy metals induced oxidative damage.

#### **Induced nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) immunostain expression**

The result from this study demonstrates that treatment enhances astrocytic gliosis, which expresses iNOS immunoreactivity (Fig. 8). This as well buttresses the histological, histochemical and GFAP immunostain findings in this study, where marked reactive astrocytic gliosis was observed in



the treatment group. iNOS is seen as a nuclear-cytoplasmic stain from this result. Neuroglia, especially microglia, and astrocyte are activated by inflammatory factors to express iNOS (Saha and Pahan, 2006). These triggered neuroglia produce nitric oxide and superoxide, which results in the formation of peroxynitrite (Pacher et al., 2007; Brown, 2010). Peroxynitrite was reported by Brown (2010) as a potent oxidant causing cell death. Increased iNOS reactivity reveals induced oxidative damage through the synthesis of nitric oxide, which agrees with the work of Olajide et al. (2016). The synthesised nitric oxide produced by iNOS is a defence mechanism seen in neural toxicity while nitric oxide produced by glia mainly by iNOS induction (Bal-Price and Brown, 2001).

Judging by findings in this study, the treatment groups revealed similar results. The heavy-metals-treated water group (group 3) contain mixture of metals with similar relative concentration to that pooled from the waterways in the study area (group 2). Therefore, group 3 was directly designed to mimic the contaminated pooled water sources (group 2) and serve as our positive control. The similarity displayed is made possible by likely interactions between these essential and toxic metals which could be vital metal toxicity modifiers (Barbier et al., 2005; Jadhav et al., 2007). Result from this study is consistent with the findings of Rai et al. (2010; 2013) which indicated that exposures to heavy metals are connected with neurotoxicity.

## CONCLUSION

Biochemical, histological, histochemical, and immunochemical evaluations disclosed the vulnerability to four different neurotoxicants found in different waterways in three geographical zones of Kwara State, which affected the functional and structural integrity of the prefrontal cortex of the Wistar rats. It was discovered from findings in this study that the treatment groups displayed similar neurodegenerative defects. Prolonged exposure to a relatively higher contamination may trigger severe neurological damage. This work further stresses the need for intense monitoring and protection from these pollutants in developing countries.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ROS – Reactive oxygen species  
 CNS – Central nervous system  
 SOD – Superoxide dismutase  
 GPx – Glutathione peroxidase  
 MDA – Malondialdehyde  
 GFAP – Glial fibrillary acidic protein  
 iNOS – Inducible nitric oxide synthase  
 DNA – Deoxyribonucleic acid  
 GSH/GSSH - reduced glutathione/ oxidized glutathione

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