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The Protective Role of *Nigella sativa* Against the Testicular Damage Induced by Aluminum Chloride in Adult Male Rabbits

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to investigate the protective effect of *Nigella Sativa* (*N. sativa*) seeds against the toxicity of reproductive markers in adult male rabbit treated with aluminum chloride ($AlCl_3$). Sixteen rabbits were randomly and equally divided into four groups, the first group taken as control (T), the second group (NS) was treated with 200 mg/kg/day of *Nigella Sativa* seeds extract; the third group (AL) was treated with 25 mg/kg/day of $AlCl_3$, and The last group (NS-AL) received the combined treatment of $AlCl_3$ and *N. sativa* extract at the same doses. The administration of $AlCl_3$ and seed extract was carried out orally for four weeks.

The results show that the Al-treated group (AL) had reduced testicular weight, plasma levels of testosterone, LH, FSH, sperm speed, motility, and concentration compared to the control group (T). Furthermore, a microscopic examination revealed many histological alterations in the interstitial tissue and seminiferous tubules. The reproductive toxicity of $AlCl_3$ resulted in testicular degeneration in the majority of seminiferous tubules, accompanied by a decrease in the number of germinal cell layers in the seminiferous tubules, and the accumulation of multinucleated giant cells in the tubular lumen. In contrast, the groups treated with *N. sativa* alone (NS) or combined with aluminum (AL-NS) showed that the histopathological alterations were significantly attenuated by the administration of *N. sativa* extract. Based on the results of this work, it seems that the supplementation of *N. sativa* extract may protect the reproductive system from damage induced by $AlCl_3$.

Keywords: Aluminum chloride, toxicity, *Nigella sativa*, antioxidant, fertility, testis.

1. Introduction

Aluminum (Al) is one of the most common metals in the environment, it makes up about 8.8% of the earth's crust (Domingo, 1994), it can be found in a variety of forms, including oxide, hydroxide, chloride, and phosphate. Al is extensively available and used in the production of toothpaste, food additives, cookware, tools, and cosmetics. In soil, rocks, clays, and jewels, Al can also be found in mixtures with oxygen, silicon, fluorine, and other elements (Farina et al., 2002). Al is an extremely toxic trace element that can be harmful to humans as well as animals (Yousef, 2004). It has several different ways that Al can be absorbed, but the three primary ones are ingestion, skin contact, and inhalation. In fact, adults can consume between 5 and 40 mg of aluminum orally each day since the metal can be found in food, drink water, air, various preparations, and medicinally in large quantities, as buffered aspirin and antacids (Gomesa et al., 2019). However, the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA) notes that 2 mg/kg/week is the acceptable limit for Al consumption (Epstein, 1990). Al doesn't seem to play any known physiological role in the body. However, excessive exposure results in negative physiological effects (Ganrot, 1986). Several human pathologies, including neurological disorders, anemia, liver damage, and renal dysfunction, have been related to the accumulation of Al in the body (Bacteria, 2002; Vittori et al., 2002; Martak et al., 2010 and Rayan et al., 2011). The reproductive function can also be affected by aluminum toxicity, including ovarian damage, testicular dysfunction, and inhibition of ovulation (Ali mahrane et al., 2011 and Fu et al., 2014). Experimental studies on aluminum intoxication in animals support human studies, they reveal that exposure to Al causes low sperm quality, infertility, hormonal imbalance, and alterations in the tissue structure of reproductive organs (Lobet et al., 1995 and Pandey and Jain, 2017). Moreover, oxidative stress and the excessive production of free radicals (ROS) are the main causes of aluminum's harmful effects (Yuan et al., 2012). According to clinical research, oxidative damage can affect the blood-testes barrier, change or block enzyme activity, disrupt cell signaling, modify membrane function, and oxidize DNA (Sargazi et al., 2006 and Pandey, 2013).

Since ancient times, herbal remedies have been an important source of substances used for curing human diseases. According to estimates from the World Health Organization (WHO), up to 80% of people continue to obtain their medical care from herbal remedies (Hadi Kamil, 2013). Black *Nigella Sativa* seeds are widely utilized since they have a variety of therapeutic uses (Tukruri and Dameh, 1998). They are annual herbaceous plants that belong to the Ranunculaceae family (Babayyan et al., 1978). *Nigella Sativa* is primarily grown in North Africa, southern Europe, and Southwest Asia, even though it is also grown in Algeria's arid

and desert regions. *Nigella sativa* seeds are rich in bioactive compounds, the most important of which have been reported by earlier studies. Indeed, the seeds contain 13.5-22 % protein, 38-40 % fat, 3,7 % moisture, 3,7 % ash, and 17-32 % carbohydrates (Al-Jassir, 1992; Abdelaal and Atia, 1993; Sharma et al., 2009 and Ahmed et al., 2013). They consist of many antioxidant compounds, including 4-terpineol, carvacrol, t-anethole, and thymoquinone (TQ) (Sharieatzadeh et al., 2011). This last which is considered the major element of essential oil, has been involved in biological activities (Hanafy and Hatem, 1991) due to its powerful antioxidant quality, TQ inhibits lipid peroxidation and subsequently decreases the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Burits and Bucar, 2000 and Al-Majed et al., 2006). In contrast, a range of pharmacological studies has been carried out on *N. sativa* seeds in recent years, which have revealed a large spectrum of activities, including anti-microbial activity, anti-oxidant, anti cancer, anti inflammatory, anti-hyperlipidemic, and anti-diabetic, hepato-protective, nephro-protective, neuro-protective, cardiovascular, immune-protective activity, ameliorative effect on the reproductive system (Kooti et al., 2016). Several previous studies have demonstrated the overall positive effect of *N. sativa* oil on the reproductive system in male rats, in particular the spermatogenic process. According to Cho Ping et al. (2014) *N. sativa* can affect the fertility potential by influencing sperm count, testis and epididymis weights, plasma testosterone and LH levels, and other pituitary-testicular pathway hormones, as well as the fertility index. In addition, *N. sativa* seeds can enhance sperm motility and sperm count in the seminiferous tubules and epididymal duct, spermatogenesis in spermatocytes I and II, and the reproductive organs' weight. In female rats, *N. sativa* improves the fertility potential by increasing the number of pregnancies (Mukhallad et al., 2009; Al-Sa'aidi et al., 2009 and Kolahdooz et al., 2014).

This study investigated the potential protective impact of *Nigella sativa* seed extract on male adult rabbits *Oryctolagus cuniculus*, as well as the toxic effect of aluminum chloride on certain reproductive markers.

2. Material and methods

Ethanol extract of *Nigella Sativa*

N. Sativa seeds were purchased at a nearby market in Beskra, south Algeria, the seeds were powdered using an electric grinder, 20 g of the powder was macerated with aqueous ethanol 80 ml (v/v = 80/20) by using white filter paper, the mixture was filtered after the maceration process, which lasted for 24 hours at room temperature with periodic shaking. The filtrate was

evaporated by using Rotavapor at a temperature of 60°C, and finally dried in a dark airy place for 15 days.

Chemicals

Aluminum Chloride Anhydrous (AlCl_3), 98%, was purchased from (Sigma Aldrich, MO USA) by Oum El-Bouaghi University. The Al doses for each day were diluted in distilled water and administered orally.

Animals

Sixteen adult male rabbits (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*), ages 24 to 26 weeks, weighing 2.5–3.5 kg, were obtained from a rearing center. Animals were provided a commercial diet and water *ad libitum*. Rabbits were kept in individual cages for adaptation for a period of 15 days in the animal house of the Life Sciences and Nature Department, Oum El Bouaghi University.

Experiment design

After the adaptation period, animals were randomly divided into four groups. Group 1 (T): served as control. Group 2 (NS): received 200 mg/kg bw of *N.Sativa* extract. Group 3 (AL) received 25 mg/kg bw of AlCl_3 , and group 4 (AL-NS) received 200 mg/kg bw of *N.Sativa* extract and 25 mg/kg bw of AlCl_3 . *N.Sativa* extract was dissolved in water and given orally in a single daily dose, for 4 weeks.

The biological study of semen

The sperm analysis was carried out according to the WHO (1990) method. The epididymis' seminal content was extracted by cutting off the head of the organ, and 0.1 ml of sperm was collected and diluted in 1 ml of physiological solution (NaCl 0.9%). Diluted sperm was then used to estimate the sperm speed, concentration, motility, and vitality.

Hormone analysis

After the sacrifice, the blood was removed and collected immediately in tubes containing heparin, it was separated by centrifuge at 4000 rpm/15 min, the samples of plasma were used to estimate the testosterone, LH, and FSH levels.

Histological study

To obtain thin and clear histological sections that can be observed under a light microscope, the testes were sampled, and preserved in a dilute solution of formalin (10%). They were then subjected to a deshydration process, by using increasing concentrations of alcohol. After immersion of samples in paraffin, they were sectioned by a microtome into 4 μm sections, followed by staining with eosin and hematoxylin, the mounting and the drying were carried out, and the histological sections were finally ready for microscopic observation (Bancroft and Gamble, 2002).

Data analysis

Student t-tests were performed for statistical analysis to compare between two groups, and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze data for all groups. At the p-value was less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$), the statistical data was defined as significant. a: test ANOVA. b, c, and d: test t-student. b: T vs NS. c: T vs AL. d: T vs AL-NS.

3. Results

Sperm parameters

The obtained results show a highly significant increase in the speed of spermatozoa in the group treated by *N. sativa*, and a non significant reduction in the speed of spermatozoa in the aluminum-treated group. Furthermore, a non significant improvement was recorded in the rabbits treated with both $AlCl_3$ and *N. Sativa* extract (Fig 1).

A highly significant decrease is observed in the motility of spermatozoa in rabbit treated with $AlCl_3$ alone, the *N. Sativa* extract treatment reveals non significant differences compared with the control. However, an improvement in the motility of spermatozoa is recorded in the combined group AL-NS (Fig 2).

The concentration of spermatozoa reveals a very high significant decrease in the aluminum-treated group compared to the control. However, a highly significant reduction was recorded in *N. Sativa* treated group and aluminum-treated group compared to the control (Fig 3).

The vitality of spermatozoa reveals a very high significant reduction in the aluminum-treated group compared to the control. However, treatment with *N. sativa* seeds extract improves slightly the vitality of spermatozoa. A very high significant improvement is recorded in the combined group AL-NS (Fig 4).

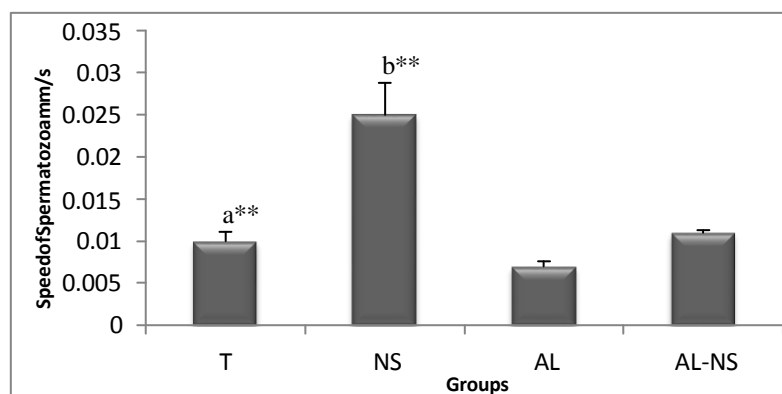


Figure 1: Effect of *N. Sativa* extract and $AlCl_3$ on sperm speed in male rabbits

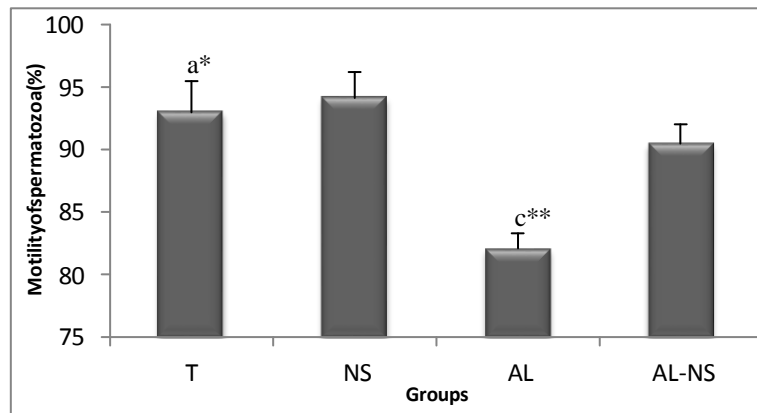


Figure2: Effect of *N. Sativa* extract and $AlCl_3$ on sperm motility in male rabbits

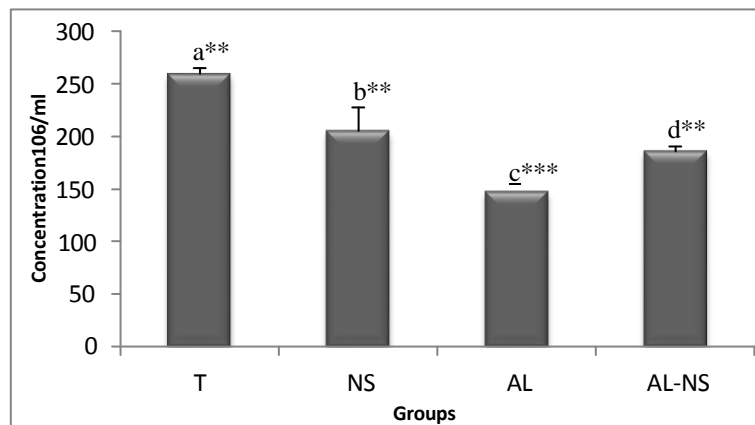


Figure3: Effect of *N. Sativa* extract and $AlCl_3$ on sperm concentration in male rabbits

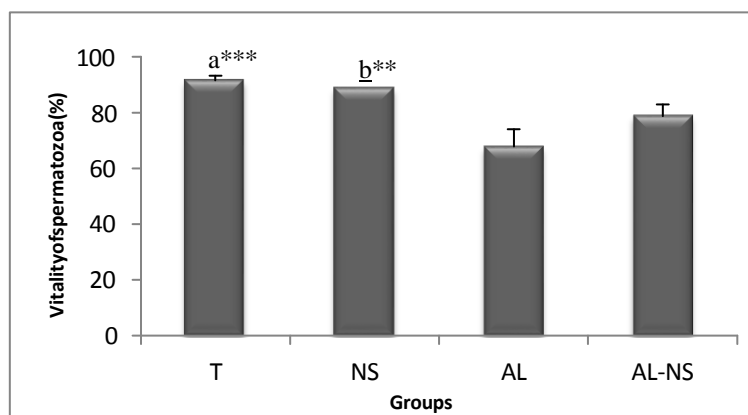


Figure4: Effect of *N. Sativa* extract and $AlCl_3$ on sperm vitality in male rabbits

Reproductive hormones

Results show a non significant decrease in plasma testosterone and FSH concentrations in the aluminum-treated group compared to the control (T). While oral treatment with *N. Sativa* extract induces a non significant increase compared to the control. In the combined treated group AL-NS, testosterone and FSH levels are also decreased, nevertheless, the effect is less important (Fig. 5 and 7).

The plasma LH level is significantly reduced in rabbits that received aluminum, the groups treated with *N.Sativa* extract alone or combined with aluminum show a non significant decrease compared to the control (Fig 6).

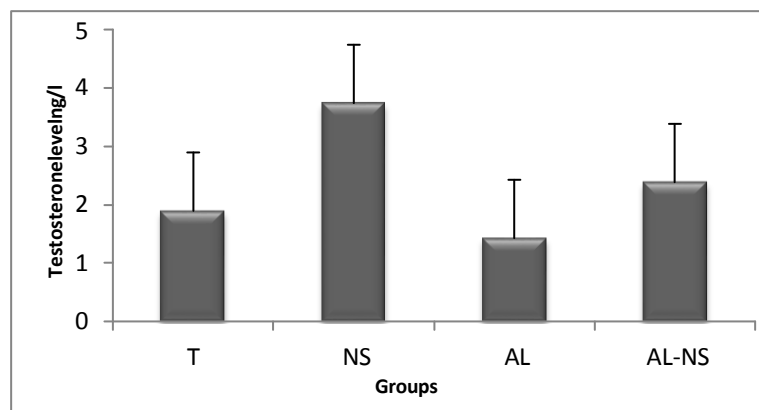


Figure 5: Effect of *N.Sativa* extract and $AlCl_3$ on plasma testosterone levels in male rabbits

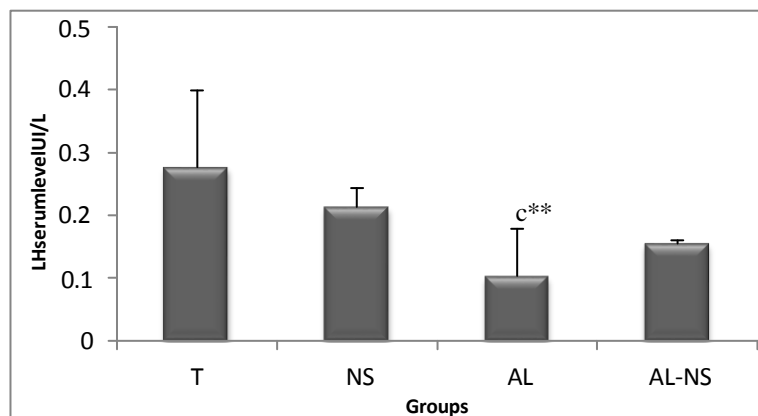


Figure 6: Effect of *N.Sativa* extract and $AlCl_3$ on plasma LH levels in male rabbits

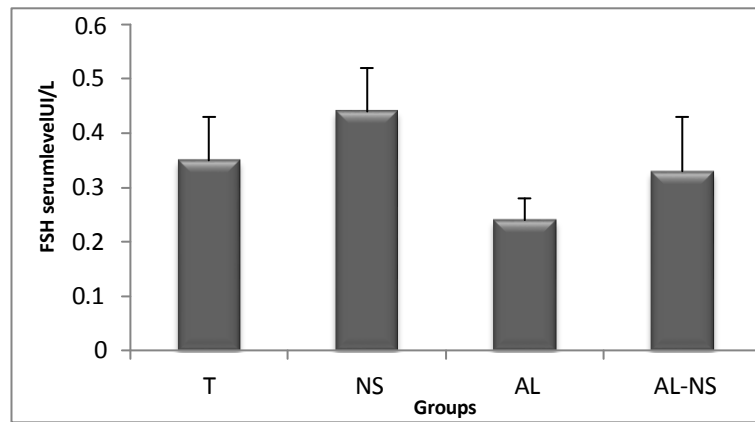


Figure 7: Effect of *N. Sativa* extract and $AlCl_3$ on plasma FSH levels in male rabbits

Weight of testes

The results show a non-significant decrease in the weight of testes in the AL group compared to the control. The treatment with *N. Sativa* extract reveals a non-significant decrease in the testicular weight. Whereas, the combined treatment (AL-NS) improves slightly the testes' weights (Fig. 8).

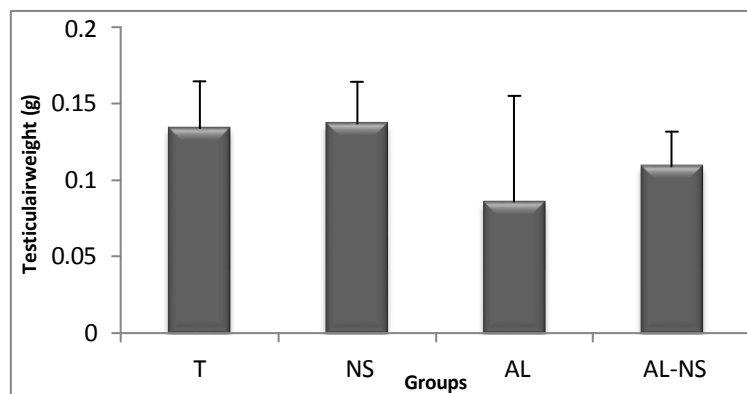


Figure 8: Effect of *N. Sativa* extract and $AlCl_3$ on testes weight of male rabbits

Histological examination of testis

The microscopic study of the testes in the control and *N. sativa*-treated groups shows that the seminiferous tubule walls are thicker and contain all the layers of cell differentiations from spermatogonia to mature spermatozoa. This indicates a normal arrangement of the seminiferous tubules, spermatogenic cells in tubules, Leydig cells, and interstitial connective tissue (Fig 9 A, B, C, and D).

The morphology of the testis in the Al-treated group reveals severe damage, a reduction in the seminiferous tubule thickness from 16.65 μm in the control group to 14.20 μm in the Al-treated group, and an increase in the lumen of the seminiferous tubule due to the reduction of spermatogenic cells number and the absence or presence of mature spermatogenic cells (Fig 9. E and F). Although the germinal cells layer is significantly reduced in the histological sections of rabbit testis treated with aluminum and *N.sativa* seed extract (AL-NS) the tubule walls are thicker and include all the layers of cell differentiation. It was noted that Leydig cells have a normal histological structure. However, the tubular structure appears to be affected in certain parts of the histological section (Fig. 9. G and H).

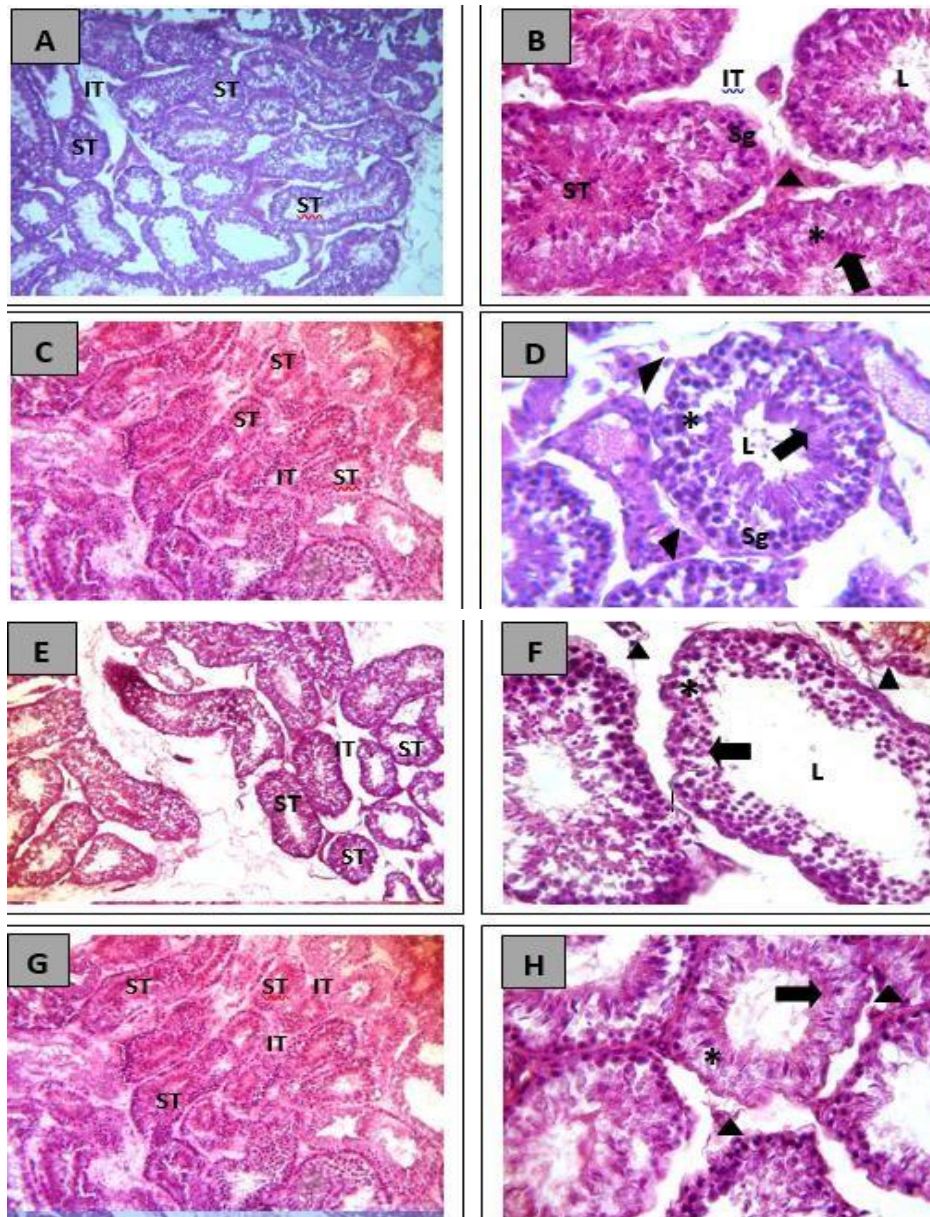


Figure 9: Histological sections of the testes. (A and B): the sections of the control (T). (C and D): sections of the *N.sativatreated* group (NS). (E and F): sections of the Al-treated group (AL). (G and H): sections of aluminum and *N.Sativatreated* group (AL-NS). A, C, E, and G were magnified x100. B, D, F and H were magnified x400. Lumen of seminiferous tubules (L), seminiferous tubule (ST), spermatogonial stem cell (Sg), intertubular spaces (IT), Lydig cells (arrowheads), mature spermatozoa (arrows), germinal epithelium (asterisk).

4. Discussion

The reproductive system is exposed to severe damage caused by oxidative stress, since it is one of the least resistant systems to oxidative reactions (Aitken, 1995), and also contains large quantities of polyunsaturated fatty acids, which are susceptible to oxidation. Natural products, due to their antioxidant components, can improve the reproductive system function, and its response to oxidative damage, by strengthening the endogenous antioxidant system.

On this basis, the results obtained in rabbits treated with *N. sativa* extract for four weeks showed an increase in certain reproductive parameters, an increase in sperm speed, and motility, plasma levels of FSH and testosterone, the weight of testis, was observed in rabbits treated with the plant's extract, compared to the control. Although these elevations are not all significant, they demonstrated the positive effect of the plant's components on sperm quality. These results are in agreement with several previous studies which have demonstrated that *N. sativa* extract has a positive effect on reproductive organs, Leydig cells and spermatozoa (Reza et al., 2005), it contributed to increased testicular weight and size (Al-Sa'aidi et al., 2009), and increased organ weight and sexual hormones FSH, LH (El Khasmi et al., 2011).

The positive effect of *N. sativa* on the reproductive system and sperm quality is attributed to its wealth of effective bioactive components, such as antioxidants; vitamins A, B and C, minerals such as zinc, copper, and magnesium (Ahlobom et al., 2001; Kanter et al., 2005), anethol, carvacrol, thymol, thymoquinone, 4-terpineol, and thymoquinone (TQ). These components can influence spermatogenesis, sex hormone production and the hypothalamus-hypophyse-testicular pathway. Thymoquinone (TQ) is one of the most important components of *N. sativa*, it is a powerful antioxidant that scavenges and neutralizes free radicals generated by oxidative stress, reducing their damage in the body. TQ may limit the generation of free radicals by transferring electrons to oxidizing agents (Burits and Bucar, 2000 and Adedara et al., 2014). Previous research has demonstrated that the antioxidant effect of *N. sativa* may reduce the production of free radicals caused by oxidative stress (Chen et al., 2006; Elbetieha et al., 2011 and Parveen and Shadabig, 2011). Other studies have shown that *N. sativa* oil contributes to the inhibition of membrane lipid peroxidation (Kanter, 2011), the promotion of antioxidant defense systems such as GSH and antioxidant enzymes (Mohamadinet al., 2010), reproductive parameters and the immune system (Mosbah et al., 2016), leading to the enhancement of fertility parameters (Reza et al., 2015). The plant can also increase the activity of 17-KSR (17-ketosteroid reductase), accelerate the steroidogenesis process and increase testosterone production, leading to improvement in sperm proliferation (Mosbah et al., 2016). The enhancement of certain fertility parameters can be explained by the effect of *N.*

N. sativa components on the hypothalamus-pituitary-testicular pathway, which positively affects the mechanism of steroidogenesis and spermatogenesis (El Khasmi et al., 2011). Histological sections performed on the testes of rabbits treated with *N. sativa* extract demonstrated a beneficial effect of the plant components on reproduction. This is clearly observed in the morphology of testicular tissue, which appears healthy and similar to the histological structure of the control. The observations are in agreement with those obtained by Al-Sa'aidi et al. (2009) who revealed that administration of *N. sativa* extract led to an increase in Leydig cell clusters, which are responsible for testosterone synthesis, an increase in spermatogenesis, in the thickness of the seminiferous tubule wall, and the number of mature spermatozoa in the lumen of the seminiferous tubule and epididymis, demonstrating the role of *N. sativa* in improving reproductive performance.

Exposure of rabbits to AlCl₃ showed a decrease in reproductive parameters; sperm speed, concentration, motility, and vitality, in rabbits treated with 25 mg/kg bw for 4 weeks, compared to the control. These results are in agreement with several previous studies, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, which suggested that exposure to aluminum resulted in a significant decrease in sperm motility and vitality, a reduction in the number of live sperm compared to dead sperm, a reduction in sperm count in the ejaculate, and ejaculate volume, changes in sperm morphology, as well as an increase in the abnormal sperm percentage (Khattab, 2007; Yousef et al., 2007; Abdul-Rasoul et al., 2009 and Martinez et al., 2017). The disturbances in reproductive parameters are due to the accumulation of aluminum in the reproductive organ tissues, leading to oxidative damage, inflammation, and abnormal development of the reproductive organs. As a result, the spermatogenesis process, sperm count, and sperm quality decreased (Miska-Schramm et al., 2017). Dawson et al. (1998) demonstrated that high concentrations of aluminum in reproductive organs and testicular fluids, such as semen, are closely associated with a decrease in sperm efficiency and performance, such as motility and viability. Furthermore, Yousef et al. (2005) evaluated the impact of AlCl₃ on the concentration of fructose in semen and the motility of spermatozoa. They found a reduction in seminal fructose and an elevation in pH, those findings may be related to the sperm's lack of energetic metabolism. The reduction in the motility of sperm could therefore be associated partly with the reduction in semen fructose. In addition, aluminum may affect sperm mitochondrial enzymes, disrupting mitochondrial function and the mechanism of energy production used by sperm for motility (Yousef et al., 2007). Aluminum can also affect the midpiece of spermatozoa, by stimulating the production and secretion of TRAP, a compound

that can cause deformations of the sperm midpiece, resulting in reduced sperm motility and sperm fusion with the egg (Kim and Parthasarathy, 1998).

The results related to reproductive hormones showed a decrease in FSH, LH and testosterone concentrations in the aluminum-treated group. The results are in agreement with those obtained by El-Ashmawy et al. (2007); Khattab (2007); Nuhair (2015) and Yakubu et al. (2017). Exposure to aluminum induces to disruption of reproductive hormone levels in the body. It can directly affect Leydig cells, the most important site of testicular androgen production (Reza and Palan, 2006), or indirectly, through an increase in nitric oxide (NO) levels, which in turn inactivates nitric oxide synthase. The latter inhibits testosterone production by inhibiting Leydig cell function (Dobashi et al., 2001 and Guo et al., 2005a). indeed, aluminum ingestion reduces the activity of coenzyme A, involved in the conversion of androstenedione to testosterone, and decreases 3',5 cyclic monophosphate (cAMP) in the testis (Guo et al., 2005a), leading to a reduction in plasma testosterone concentration (Yousef et al., 2005). Aluminium also disrupts the function of the hypothalamus-pituitary-testicular pathway by changing the function of calcium ion channels. Shahraki et al. (2004) suggested that aluminum blocks calcium channels in the hypothalamus, particularly as calcium is involved in gonadotrophin-releasing hormone (GnRH) secretion. The inhibition of calcium channels leads to a depletion of GnRH secretion and, therefore, a reduction in LH and FSH production (Shahraki et al., 2004). Aluminum can affect testicular androgen receptors by decreasing or interfering with LH receptors ((Reza and Palan, 2006), the direct action of Al on LH receptors causes a reduction in reproductive hormone synthesis (Sun et al., 2011), leading to oligospermia and exfoliation of the seminiferous tubules (Al-Eisa and Al-Nahari, 2017). In addition, aluminum accumulates in reproductive organs, causing disruptions in their structure and function. Our study showed that $AlCl_3$ caused the enlargement of the seminiferous tubule lumen and the absence of mature spermatozoa in it, as well as a decrease in the tubule wall thickness, which represents the different stages of spermatogenesis. Aluminum also caused the development of giant multinuclear cells in the lumen of some seminiferous tubules, and the degeneration of tubular cells. These observations are similar to those found by Guo et al. (2005b) who observed histopathological modifications in the morphological structure of the testis, resulting in a clear spermatogenic failure, and necrosis, which occurs mainly in the final stages of the spermatogenesis (spermatids and spermatozoa). Other studies have shown that aluminum causes hypertrophy of certain germ cells, and degeneration of others (Chinoy et al., 2005), absence of germ cells and necrosis of seminiferous tubules, edema of interstitial tissue (Hala et al., 2010), severe degeneration in different stages of spermatogenesis,

congestion of blood vessels, abnormal structure of Leydig cells, and the complete absence of mature spermatozoa in the epididymal duct (Abdul-Rasoul et al., 2009). The degenerative and necrotic action of aluminum on the testes led to a decrease in testicular weight in the aluminum-treated group compared to the control. These results are in agreement with the findings of Bataineh et al. (1998); El-Ashmawy et al. (2007) and Khattab (2007) who reported that aluminum exposure caused a decrease in the relative and absolute weight of reproductive organs, such as testes and seminal vesicles. Pandey et al. (2014) demonstrated that the adverse effect of aluminum on reproductive organs was attributed to its close relation to oxidative stress, which leads to the generation of large quantities of free radicals, resulting in oxidative damage in testicular tissues and cells. A similar correlation has been described by previous studies in animals exposed to metals as mercury (Moumen et al., 2011 and Kalender et al., 2013), lead (Dorostghoal et al., 2013), cadmium (Predes et al., 2011 and Moumen et al., 2020), arsenic (Morakinyo et al., 2010), and molybdenum (Pandey and Jain, 2015). Whereas, Ige and Akhigbe (2012) demonstrated that the accumulation of Al in testicular tissue following its passage across the blood testis barrier leads to membrane damage of spermatogenic cells. In addition, aluminum affects Sertoli cells directly, by breaking the intercellular bridges, which can lead to germ cell exfoliation. Kim et al. (2001) reported that down-regulation of a cell adhesion protein, such as Sertoli cell cadherin, enhanced the sloughing of seminiferous epithelial cells, resulting in atrophy of the tubules. While Moselhy et al. (2012) demonstrated that $AlCl_3$ causes the cytoplasmic membrane to lose its barrier function, leading to the release of substances and enzymes stored in the cells.

Conclusion

This study indicates that exposure to $AlCl_3$ can result in adverse effects on reproductive and sperm parameters (speed, concentration, motility, and vitality of spermatozoa, plasma LH, FSH, and testosterone levels), as well as, on the histological architecture of the testis. However, the administration of *N. sativa* seed extract has revealed an improvement in all reproductive parameters, indicating that the antioxidant components present in *N. sativa* seeds could have protective effects against $AlCl_3$ toxicity. Whereas the combined treatment of AL- NS showed an attenuated role of *N. sativa* against aluminum-induced toxicity.

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