

Potential Effectiveness of Flesh-Red Dragon Fruit Juice in The Improvement of Consequence Injury from Lead Acetate-Induced Neurotoxicity in Rats

Aml F. Elgazar¹, Mostafa A. Shalaby², Eman S. Ibrahim³

1. Department of Nutrition and Food Sciences, Faculty of Home Economics, Helwan University, Egypt.

2. Pharmacology Department, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Cairo University, Egypt

3. Food and Feed Regional Center, Agricultural Research Center, Giza, Egypt

Email: dr_aml_fawzy@yahoo.com

DOI: 10.47750/pnr.2023.14.03.116

Abstract

Fifty-adult male rats were indiscriminately divided into five groups, of similar number: negative control group (group 1), and the groups from 2 to 5 received orally 100 mg/kg b.wt of Pb once a day for 14 days. Then, group 2 was maintained as an untreated positive control group, while the groups 3, 4 and 5 received daily orally Red Dragon Fruit Juice (RDFJ) at a dose of 10, 20 and 30%, respectively. The results exhibited that the fleshy-fruit was higher in its content of phenolics, followed by flavonoids and anthocyanins. As a comparison to untreated positive control group, treated rats with oral administration of RDFJ have a significant ($P < 0.05$) decrease in serum activity of AST, ALT and ALP enzymes, and the levels of urea nitrogen, uric acid, creatinine and MDA. In addition to the increase in serum activity of catalase (CAT) and GSH-Px enzymes and levels of total antioxidant norepinephrine, dopamine and 5-hydroxytryptamine. Several degradations in cerebral tissue of untreated rats with the brain toxicity were detectable, while an august amendment in the rats treated with the RDFJ, especially with the higher level (30%). Lastly, routine consumption of RDFJ may be profitable to prevent the consequence injury from lead toxicity due to it's a wide range content of flavonoids, phenolic and anthocyanins as bioactive compounds.

Keywords: Neurotoxicity, Pitaya, Oxidative Stress, Lead Poisoning, Neurotransmitters-Rats

INTRODUCTION

Lead (Pb) is a highly poisonous heavy metal that is a widespread environmental pollutant and is used in many industries and products as gasoline industries, paint and pigment materials, acid battery, etc. (Wang *et al.*, 2016). It can directly or indirectly contaminate foods and also enter the human body out of different channels as the respiratory and/or digestive tracts, skin, and mucous membranes (Teerasarntipan *et al.*, 2020).

Oxidative stress, which increases cellular material damage, existence the most likely action mechanism of lead toxicity (Mitra and Sharma 2019). Furthermore, chronic exposure to Pb may be related to various diseases such as reproductive troubling, birth defects, lower attention and autism spectrum disorder in children, brain and neural disturbance, high blood pressure, and liver and/or kidney impairment (Jaishankar *et al.*, 2014). The nervous system is the most virtually responsive organ to Pb, where, it most affects the peripheral nervous system of adults and the central nervous system of children, especially in the growing stages (Elrasoul *et al.*, 2020). The conventional treatment manner of lead toxicity depends on the incorporation of intercalating agents with several vitamins. Even so, the use of these agents for a long duration or at large doses once at a time can cause damage to liver and kidney cells (Li *et al.*, 2020).

Dragon fruit is an orbital fruit that has an oval-shaped fruit with different skin and pulp colors as pink skin with red or white pulp, yellow skin with white pulp and red skin with red pulp (Muniz *et al.*, 2019). It is a fruit of different tropical cactus species plants of the genus *Hylocereus*, family *Cactaceae*, known as red pitaya or pitahaya, and cultivated worldwide due to its commercial and health benefits (Mercado-Silva 2018). Dragon fruit pulp and peels have higher contents of water and fibers and several nutrients including vitamins, minerals, and antioxidants (Perween *et al.*, 2018). Further, the Dragon fruit edible pulp and peels are rich in phytochemical compounds and thus have the possibility to

use as herbal medicine or natural colors (Mahdi *et al.*, 2018). As much, as flesh and seeds of the fruit have an impressive content of fatty acids such as linoleic, oleic, and palmitic acid (Jerônimo *et al.*, 2015).

Many Asian countries are well-known for using dragon fruit in folk medicine in the prevention or treatment of several diseases (Sofowora *et al.*, 2013). Additionally, previous researchers reported that Dragon fruit has antidiabetic (Poolsup *et al.*, 2017), antimicrobial and antiviral (Afandi *et al.*, 2017), anti-obesity and hypolipidaemic activity (Suastuti *et al.*, 2018), and anti-inflammatory (Eldeen *et al.*, 2020). The potential health effects of dragon fruit may be related to its content of powerful antioxidants such as polyphenol, steroids, anthocyanin, betalains, and triterpenoids (Guimarães *et al.*, 2017).

To ameliorate the quality of the patient's life with lead poisoning and minimize the possibility hazard to peoples at high risk for lead exposure, it is insistent to discover new methods for the prevention and/or treatment of lead poisoning depending on natural treatment. Accordingly, the existing study was directed to explore the utilization of Red Dragon Fruit Juice as natural antioxidants source to prevent the **consequence** effect for toxicity of lead acetate (Pb) in the experimental rats

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Dragon Fruit and Preparation of Juice Extract Fresh and healthy Dragon fruit (red skin with red pulp as displayed in Picture 1) was purchased from a local fruit shop in Cairo, Egypt.

The concentrate juice extract was prepared as outlined by Dhumal *et al.*, (2015). In brief steps, fresh Dragon fruit (DF) was carefully scrubbed with flowing water to get free of any dirt or external bodies and peeled to separate the outside skin from the fruit flesh. The separate whole pulp was cut into small pieces and beaten up in a squeezer to get a homogeneous juice. The homogeneous juice (1-L) was concentrated at 40°C in a digital rotary evaporator (model: KA 8031901 RV 10). After that, the concentrated juice extract was taken for the preparation of three different concentrations (10, 20, and 30%), then embarked in separate receptacles and retained in the refrigerator at 5 °C for use.



Picture (1) Whole dragon fruit

Ingredients and Formulation of Purified Basal Diet (AIN-93M) For the preparation of a purified basal diet, the basic ingredients (casein, fiber, vitamins and mineral mixtures, choline chloride, L-cysteine and Tert-butylhydroquinone) were bought off from El-Gomhoriya Co., for Trad., Drugs and Chem. Egypt. Pure soybean oil was obtained from the Agriculture Research Center, Giza, Egypt. Cornstarch and dextrinized corn starch were obtained from the Egyptian Manufacturing of Starch and Glucose, Co., SAE, Cairo, Egypt. Sucrose (table sugar) was obtained from a local market.

Lead acetate and Kits White crystalline lead acetate powder, diethyl ether alcohol and the other used chemicals were bought from Sigma Chem., Co., Cairo branch, Egypt. While, kits for biochemical tests were bought off from the Gamma Trade Co., for Pharmac., and Chem., Dokki, Cairo - Egypt.

The Valuation of Total Flavonoids, Phenolics, and Anthocyanins Contents in The Red-Flesh Dragon Fruit The total flavonoids content was estimated using colorimetric methods as outlined by Zhishen *et al.*, (1999). Catechin was employed as a standard for the standardization curve and the total flavonoids content of the extract was expressed as mg Catechin equivalents per 100 grams of sample.

The total phenolics content in flesh Dragon fruits was evaluated as mentioned by Chun *et al.*, (2003) using Gallic acid as a standard for the standardization curve. The total phenolics content was expressed as mg Gallic acid equivalents/100 grams of sample.

The total anthocyanin content in the Dragon fruit sample was quantified by the pH differential method as mentioned by **Lee et al., (2005)**.

Thereafter, all components were mixed together to fulfill the desirable adequate dietary intake for keeping the health state of rats as confirmed by **Reeves et al., (1993)**. Concisely, each 1 kg diet consists of 140g casein (85% protein), 465.70 g cornstarch, 155 g dextrinized cornstarch, 40g soybean oil, 100g sucrose, 50g fiber, 10g vitamin mixture, 35g mineral mixture, 2.5g choline chloride, 1.8 g L-cysteine and 0.008g Tert-butylhydroquinone.

Grouping of Rats and Induction of Brain Toxicity Fifty healthy adults' male Sprague Dawley rats weighing (200 ± 6 g) were obtained from experimental animal's house at Food and Feed Regional Center, Agriculture Research Center, Giza, Egypt and housed at the same lab. Rats were separated into five groups of equal number ($n=10$ rats). All groups were fed on basal diet for a week as adaptation period. After the acclimatizing period, the first group represented the health control animals and received 2ml of distilled water orally for 2 weeks. The second, third, fourth and fifth groups were given lead acetate at a dose of 30 mg/kg of b. wt oral using gastric tube for two weeks to induce brain toxicity according to the methods of **Sujatha et al., (2011)**. Then, the groups were named in line with the type of treatment as follows:

Group (1) Negative control group was retained as normal rats and given 2ml of distilled water during the experimental period.

Group (2) Positive control group was maintained as untreated rats with lead toxicity and given 2ml of distilled water.

Group (3) The treated lead toxicity group by giving orally the red-flesh Dragon fruit juice (RDFJ) at a dose of 10% of concentrated juice.

Group (4) The treated lead toxicity group by giving orally the RDFJ at a dose of 20% concentrated juice.

Group (5) The treated lead toxicity group by giving orally the RDFJ at a dose of 30% concentrated juice.

Computation the Body Weight Gain, Relative Body Weight Gain and Feed Consumed The alteration in body weight was calculated by weighing the rats at the initial of the experimental period (IBW) and at the end of the experimental period (FBW) (6 weeks). Then, subtracting FBW from IBW, and the result was expressed as the body weight gain (BWG) ($BWG = FBW - IBW$). Relative body weight gain (RBWG%) was calculated as dividing the weight gained by the weight at the beginning of the experiment multiplied by 100 ($RBWG\% = BWG/IBW \times 100$). The overall amount of food consumed (FC) per day for each rat was recorded depending on the daily amount consumed for each group.

Blood Collection and Serum Separation After the sixth week of starting the experiment, rats were prohibited from the diet, except water for about 12 hours. Thereafter, rats were anesthetic with diethyl ether, and by using a 5 cm syringe, the heart was punctured and the blood samples drawn and relocated into a centrifuge tube and left at room temperature until complete coagulation. To get the serum, the coagulated blood samples were centrifuged for 15 mins. at 3000 rpm. Then, the separated pure serum specimens were taken by an automatic pipette, drawn into the clean covered Eppendorf pipe, and kept at -20°C in a deep freeze until used for biochemical inspection.

Biochemical Tests

Serum AST, ALT and ALP enzymes were evaluated using Sandwich-Ab-ELISA-Elabscience Kits (E-EL-R0076, E-EL-R4325 and E-EL-R1109, respectively, in line with the mentioned instructions by **Young (2000)** for AST and ALT assay and **Friedman and Young, (1997)** for ALP assay.

Colorimetric Sandwich ELISA (EIABUN, A22181 and EIACUN) Kits were used for the measurement and identification of urea nitrogen (BUN), uric acid (UA) and creatinine (Cr) in the rat serum samples as described by **Mitrovic et al., (2012)**, **Tietz et al., (2005)** and **Needleman et al., (1992)**, respectively.

The serum concentrations of lipid peroxidation as expressed by Malondialdehyde (MDA) were assayed colorimetrically using guidance of **Rio et al., (2005)**.

The serum activities of CAT and GSH-Px enzymes were identified colorimetrically using commercial Invitrogen™ kits (EIACATC and EIAGSHC, respectively) at 560 and 412 nm, respectively, in line with the instruction kits by **Glorieux and Calderon (2017)** and **Chu et al., (1993)**. OxiSelect™ (STA-360) kit was used to measure total antioxidant capacity (TAC) based on a reduction of copper II (Cu^{+2}) to copper I (Cu^{+}) by antioxidants like uric acid at 490 nm as described by **Trachootham et al., (2008)**.

The serum concentrations of Norepinephrine (NE), Dopamine (DA) and 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) were colorimetrically tested using commercial ELISA Kit (KA1877, E-EL-0046 and MBS725497, respectively) instruction manual at 450nm as referred by **Bada et al., (2012)**, **Liu et al., (2019)** and **Berger et al., (2009)**, respectively.

2.9. Cerebrum Histopathological Screening The histopathological screening process for the cerebrums of all rats was carried out as referred procedures by **Kier (1990)**. Briefly, cerebrum samples were carefully washed in an isotonic solution, dried on a filter paper and immersed in buffered formalin (10%). Afterwards, the fixed cerebrum specimens

were dehydrated in a graded ethyl alcohol from 50 to 100%. Subsequently, specimens were cleared by Xylol, immersed in paraffin bulk, sliced to 6 µm thickness and colored with Hematoxylin (HX) and eosin (E) for the inspection.

2.10. Statistical analysis of Data All data on chemicals and biochemical inspection were statistically analyzed using the SPSS computerized Statistics program for Windows, version 22.0. Descriptive data was compared using a one-way variance (ANOVA) test. Comparison of differences between groups was expressed as Mean ± Standard Division (SD) at $p < 0.05$ (Snedecor and Cochran (1980)).

RESULTS

Table (1) presents the discovery of the total content of flavonoids, phenolics and anthocyanins in the red-flesh Dragon fruit. Information proved that red-flesh Dragon fruit possess a higher content of phenolics (390.25 ± 0.55), followed by flavonoids (215.52 ± 0.85), and anthocyanins (90.17 ± 0.75).

Table (1) Total content of flavonoids, phenolics and anthocyanins in the red-flesh Dragon fruit

Types	Concentrations as Mean ± SD
Total flavonoids (mg CE/100g)	215.52±0.85
Total phenolics (mg GE/100g)	390.25±0.55
Total anthocyanins (mg/100g)	90.17±0.75

The results of the effect of the oral administration of the different levels (10, 20 and 30%) of red-flesh Dragon fruit juice (RDFJ) on FC, FBW, BWG and RBWG (%) in the normal control rats and those treated with Lead acetate (Pb) to induce brain toxicity are recorded in Table 2. The results found that the treated rats with Pb alone (positive control group) had a significant ($p < 0.05$) decrease in FBW, BWG, RBWG (%) and no significant change in FC, compared to the normal control group. While, treating rats with the brain toxicity by oral administration of 10, 20 and 30% of RDFJ results in a significant increment in FBW, BWG and RBWG (%), and no considerable change in FC, compared to the non-treated rats with brain toxicity. It was also noted that the improvement rates in FC and body weight augmented with rising the taken RDFJ concentration.

Table (2) The effectiveness of RDFJ on FI, FBW, BWG and RBWG% in negative group and Pb-toxicity groups.

Groups Parameters	NCG	PCG	Treated rats with the RDFJ		
			LDG (10%)	MDG (20%)	HDG (30%)
FC (g)	21.43±0.29	20.96±0.19	21.59±0.71	21.75±0.66	21.95±0.52
IBW (g)	206.43±0.39	206.00± 0.42	205.57± 0.58	205.57± 0.41	206.57± 0.56
FBW(g)	296.86±0.07 ^a	275.00±0.29 ^c	282.43±0.40 ^b	295.82±0.39 ^a	295.86±0.19 ^a
BWG (g)	90.43±1.16 ^a	69.00± 1.27 ^d	76.86±0.79 ^b	90.25±1.26 ^a	90.29±1.16 ^a
RBWG (%)	43.90±0.38 ^a	33.50±0.43 ^c	37.39±0.13 ^b	43.60±0.22 ^a	43.71±0.42 ^a

NCG: Negative control group; **PCG:** Positive control group; **RDFJ:** Red-flesh Dragon fruit juice; **LDG:** Low dose group; **MDG:** Medium dose group; **HDG:** High dose group; **FC:** Food Consumed; **IBW:** Initial Body Weight; **FBW:** Final Body Weight; **BWG:** Body Weight Gain; **RBWG:** Relative Body Weight Gain; Data are expressed as the mean ± SD; Mean values with different superscript letters at the same row are significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

The obtained results in Table 3 illustrate the effect of giving RDFJ orally on the serum activity of liver enzymes (AST, ALT, ALP) as a measurable of liver function in normal control rats and those treated with Pb alone. Tabulated results established that Pb resulted in liver detriment as detected by the significant ($P < 0.05$) increase in serum activities of AST, ALT and ALP enzymes, comparable to normal control rats. In comparison, treating rats with brain toxicity by oral administration of the three different levels of RDFJ caused a significant ($p < 0.05$) lowering in the serum activity of AST, ALT and ALP enzymes, compared with the positive control group.

There was also a notable difference in the level of enzyme activity between treated groups with RDFJ, as the improvement rate increased with increasing juice concentration taken.

Table (3) The effectiveness of RDFJ on serum activity of liver enzymes in negative group and Pb-toxicity groups.

Groups Parameters	NCG	PCG	Treated rats with the RDFJ		
			LDG (10%)	MDG (20%)	HDG (30%)
AST (µ/L)	39.64±0.95 ^e	117.51±1.22 ^a	85.87±2.81 ^b	62.90±1.07 ^c	45.40±1.35 ^d
ALT (µ/L)	46.93±1.40 ^e	146.64±2.22 ^a	116.82±1.31 ^b	94.34±0.77 ^c	48.76±0.94 ^d
ALP (µ/L)	60.43±1.51 ^e	118.83±2.01 ^a	98.90±1.58 ^b	81.40±1.74 ^c	68.54±1.21 ^d

NCG: Negative control group; **PCG:** Positive control group; **RDFJ:** Red-flesh Dragon fruit juice; **LDG:** Low dose group; **MDG:** Medium dose group; **HDG:** High dose group; **AST:** Aspartate transaminase; **ALT:** Alanine transaminase; **ALP:** Alkaline phosphatase; Data are expressed as the mean \pm SD; Mean values with different superscript letters at the same row are significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

As an appraisal of kidney function results in Table 4 demonstrated the effect of giving orally RDFJ on the serum levels of BUN, UA and Cr in normal rats and those with brain toxicity caused by Pb. In comparison to normal rats, oral administration by Pb induced kidney dysfunctions as found out by the significant increase in serum concentrations of BUN, UA and Cr. On the other hand, oral giving of Pb for 14 days and then giving RDFJ for four consecutive weeks resulted in a significant amelioration in the serum levels of BUN, UA and Cr, compared with those giving Pb alone. The better results in kidney function were observed in rats treated with the highest level (30%) of RDFJ, compared to the other two levels (10 and 20%), as well as the positive control group.

Table (4) The effectiveness of RDFJ on serum levels of BUN, UA and Cr in negative group and Pb-toxicity groups.

Groups Parameters	NCG	PCG	Treated rats with the RDFJ		
			LDG (10%)	MDG (20%)	HDG (30%)
BUN (mg/dl)	40.47 \pm 1.50 ^e	75.90 \pm 0.65 ^a	65.05 \pm 2.66 ^b	51.40 \pm 2.23 ^c	45.34 \pm 0.57 ^d
UA (mg/dl)	1.25 \pm 0.08 ^e	1.78 \pm 0.05 ^a	1.65 \pm 0.04 ^b	1.43 \pm 0.04 ^c	1.33 \pm 0.22 ^d
Cr (mg/dl)	0.39 \pm 0.02 ^e	1.00 \pm 0.02 ^a	0.79 \pm 0.01 ^b	0.70 \pm 0.01 ^c	0.63 \pm 0.02 ^d

NCG: Negative control group; **PCG:** Positive control group; **RDFJ:** Red-flesh Dragon fruit juice; **LDG:** Low dose group; **MDG:** Medium dose group; **HDG:** High dose group; **BUN:** Blood urea nitrogen; **UA:** Ureic acid; **Cr:** Creatinine; Data are expressed as the mean \pm SD; Mean values with different superscript letters at the same row are significantly different at $P < 0.05$

Table 5 constitutes the effect of RDFJ on serum levels of MDA and TAC, and the antioxidant enzymes activities (CAT and GPx) in the treatment of rats from brain toxicity caused by Pb. Our results proved that oral administration of Pb for two weeks of the experimental period gave rise to a significant ($p < 0.05$) rise in serum MDA level, and a decline in CAT and GPx activities and TAC levels, in comparison to normal rats. However, oral administration of Pb, followed by the three levels (10, 20 and 30%) of RDFJ for four weeks, significantly reduced serum levels of MDA and increased activity of the tested antioxidant enzymes and levels of TAC, compared to positive control rats.

The results also showed that the superior betterment of the tested parameters was increased with increasing the concentration of juice taken.

The concluded results in Table 6 summarized that non-treated rats with brain toxicity have a significant ($p < 0.05$) decrease in serum Norepinephrine (NE), Dopamine (DA) and 5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT), as compared to that of the normal rats. In contrast, oral administration with 10, 20 and 30% of RDFJ for the treatment of brain toxicity in rats yielded about a significant ($p < 0.05$) increase in the serum NE, DA and 5-HT levels, in comparison to treated rats with Pb alone. As shown, the get better improvement in the serum levels of the tested parameters was found in the treated group with the highest level (30%) of RDFJ, followed by those treated with 20 and 10%, compared to the positive rats.

Table (5) The effectiveness of RDFJ on serum levels of MDA, the activity of CAT and GP-x enzymes and TAC concentration in negative group and Pb-toxicity groups.

Groups Parameters	NCG	PCG	Treated rats with the RDFJ		
			LDG (10%)	MDG (20%)	HDG (30%)
MDA (nmol/ml)	9.70 \pm 0.75 ^e	32.60 \pm 0.95 ^a	20.74 \pm 0.48 ^b	16.89 \pm 0.45 ^c	10.80 \pm 0.64 ^d
CAT (μ /ml)	135.06 \pm 0.55 ^a	73.81 \pm 0.45 ^d	98.77 \pm 0.49 ^c	108.44 \pm 0.69 ^b	136.11 \pm 0.85 ^a
GPx (μ /ml)	63.34 \pm 1.03 ^b	25.29 \pm 0.93 ^e	43.44 \pm 0.99 ^d	51.54 \pm 0.96 ^c	65.73 \pm 0.67 ^a
TAC (nmol/ml)	1132.10 \pm 1.48 ^a	788.64 \pm 2.07 ^e	836.56 \pm 0.85 ^d	985.58 \pm 1.08 ^c	1106.40 \pm 1.67 ^b

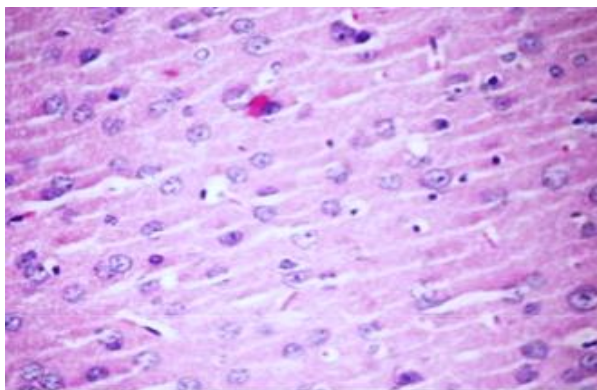
NCG: Negative group; **PCG:** Positive group; **LDG:** **RDFJ:** Red-flesh Dragon fruit juice; **LDG:** Low dose group; **MDG:** Medium dose group; **HDG:** High dose group; **MDA:** Malondialdehyde; **CAT:** Catalase; **GPx:** Glutathione Peroxidase; **TAC:** Total antioxidant capacity; Data are expressed as the mean \pm SD; Mean values with different superscript letters at the same row are significantly different at $P < 0.05$

Table (6) The effectiveness of RDFJ on serum levels of NE, DA and 5-HT in normal rats and those with brain toxicity

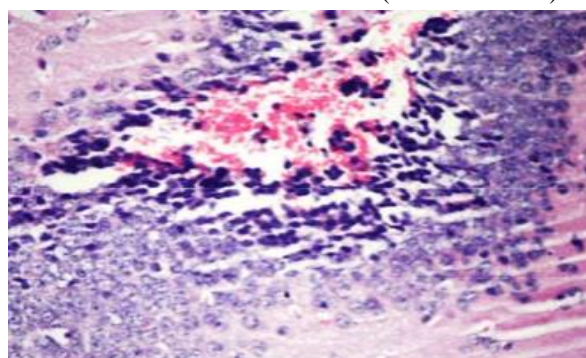
Groups Parameters	NCG	PCG	Treated rats with the RDFJ		
			LDG (10%)	MDG (20%)	HDG (30%)
NE (µg/ml)	343.86±0.90 ^a	165.00±1.73 ^e	177.14±1.77 ^d	295.14±1.95 ^e	330.86±1.77 ^b
DA (µg/ml)	147.00±2.94 ^a	76.00±2.38 ^e	97.14±2.34 ^d	117.77±1.51 ^e	140.54±1.30 ^b
5-HT (µg/ml)	197.71±2.63 ^a	92.57±3.05 ^e	106.43±1.62 ^d	156.86±1.77 ^e	194.29±1.11 ^b

NCG: Negative group; PCG: Positive group; RDFJ: Red-flesh Dragon fruit juice; LDG: Low dose group; MDG: Medium dose group; HDG: High dose group; NE: Norepinephrine; DA: Dopamine; 5-HT: 5-Hydroxytryptamine ; Data are expressed as the mean ± SD; Mean values with different superscript letters at the same row are significantly different at P < 0.05

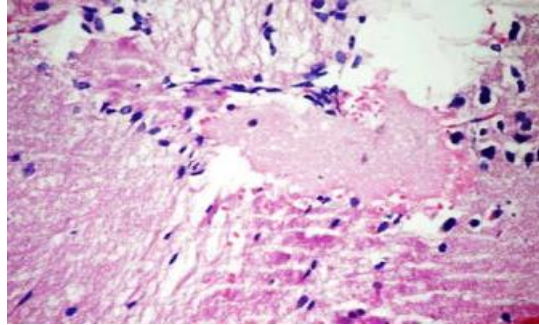
The histopathological inspections of cerebrum sections of the negative control group showed apparently normal anatomy with no histological malformation in cerebrum tissues (Picture 2). Even so, cerebrum sections of untreated intoxication rats (positive control group) implicate several noteworthy alterations distinguished by focal hemorrhages area with leukocyte cell infiltration (Picture 3) as well as focal proliferation of glia cells (gliosis) and atrophied neurons in the focal area (Picture 4). Further, as shown in Picture 5, cerebrum sections from intoxicated rats that were treated with 10% of red-flesh Dragon fruit juice (RDFJ) had degenerated glia cells. Additionally, microscopic inspection of cerebrum sections of intoxicated rats that were treated with 20% of RDFJ showed a large focal hemorrhagic area as shown in Picture 6. Whilst, cerebrum sections of intoxicated rats that were treated with 30% of RDFJ revealed no histopathological changes (Picture 7).



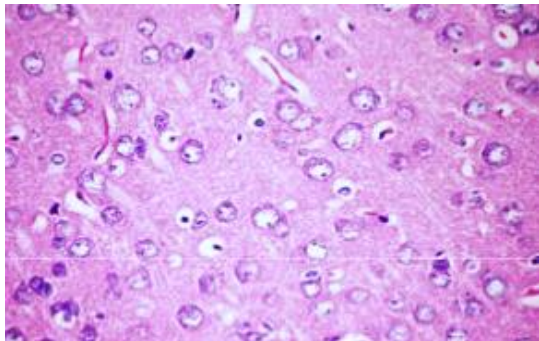
Picture (2) Photomicrograph of cerebrum samples from the negative rats showing no histological malformation in cerebrum tissues (H and E X 400).



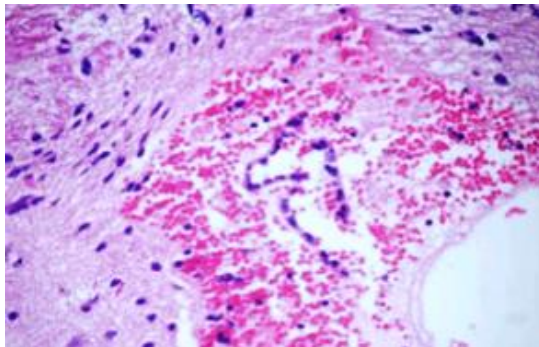
Picture (3) Photomicrograph of cerebrum sections of rats from the positive control group showing focal hemorrhages area with leukocyte cell infiltration (H and E X 400)



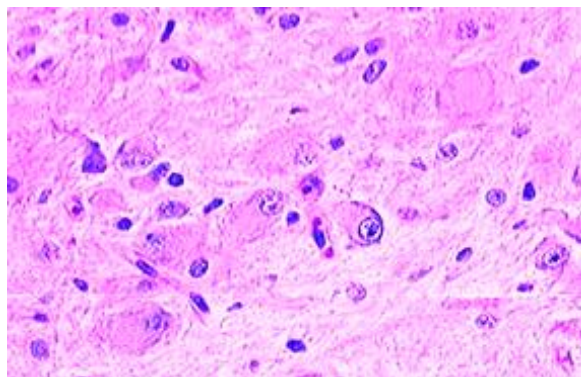
Picture (4) Photomicrograph of cerebrum sections of rats from the positive control group showing focal proliferation of glia cells (gliosis) and atrophied neurons in the focal area (H and E X 400).



Picture (5) Photomicrograph of cerebrum sections of intoxicated rats with Pb and treated with 10% of RDFJ showing degenerated glia cells (H and E X 400).



Picture (6) Photomicrograph of cerebrum sections of intoxicated rats with Pb and treated with 20% of RDFJ showing a large focal hemorrhagic area (H and E X 400).



Picture (7) Photomicrograph of cerebrum sections of intoxicated rats with Pb and treated with 30% of RDFJ showing apparently normal histological tissues (H and E X 400).

DISCUSSIONS

Lead (Pb) is a mightily venomous heavy metal that persists in the environment and human and animal bodies. Pb poisoning induces an assortment of disruption in neurological and vital organ systems (liver, kidney, brain and lungs), and other biological body functions (**Bauchi et al., 2016**). Previous studies showed that when exposed to lead poisoning, a tiny amount of Pb is secreted in urine and the remnant amount accumulates in various tissues of the body, which results in structural alteration that can remain yet after lowering its level in the blood (**Flora et al., 2012** and **Ibrahim et al., 2012**). The existing study was directed to explore the potential effectiveness of red-flesh Dragon fruit juice (RDFJ) in the improvement of consequence injury from lead acetate (Pb) -induced brain toxicity in rats. Additionally, the total contents of flavonoids, phenolics and anthocyanins were detected in flesh fruit.

The total content analysis of red-flesh Dragon fruit (RDF) proved that it possesses a higher content of phenolics, followed by flavonoids and anthocyanins. Despite the fact that the content and average amounts of possibility change according to the situation, harvesting and market conditions, and maturity stage. The result was almost consistent with the results of **Dembitsky et al., (2011)** and **Pasko et al., (2021a)**.

Regarding the effect of Pb ingestion on body weight (BW). The acquired results demonstrate that receiving rats Pb orally at a dose of 30 mg/kg of b. wt. undergo a considerable decline in BWG and RBWG (%), compared to normal rats. The obtained effect in BW was in alignment with **Xia et al., (2010)** who proved that exposing rats to Pb induced a notable lower in their body weight. **Ibrahim et al., (2012)** stated that the final body weight of intoxicated rats with Pb was lowered significantly. **Ramah et al., (2015)** also, confirmed that daily oral administration of Pb reduced BWG. Additionally, **Rezq et al., (2018)** mentioned that Intraperitoneal injected rats with Pb resulted in a significant reduction in BWG and RBWG (%). The adverse effect of Pb on the body weight of rats may be related to its effect on the gastrointestinal tract, and consequently results in malabsorption of the nutritional elements, as mentioned by **Nabil et al., (2012)**. In addition, **Hwang and Wang (2001)** disclosed that the reduction in body weight is caused potentially by the effect of Pb toxicity on zinc status by diminishing it in zinc-dependent enzymes that are required for many metabolic operations.

With respect to the effect of Pb on some biochemical analyses as indicative of hepatic and renal functions. The results evidence that receiving Pb rats orally caused a considerable increase in serum levels of AST, ALT and ALP enzymes, as well as MDA, BUN, UA and Cr, when compared to normal rates. These results agreed with **Asiwe et al., (2022)** who mentioned that the oral administration of Pb (25 mg/kg of b.wt.) for two weeks caused a significant increase in serum ALT, AST, ALP, BUN, UA and Cr levels as indices of the defective in hepat-renal functions of rats. Likewise, the earlier studies by **Samuel et al., (2017)** and **Rezq et al., (2018)** informed that the serum levels of AST, ALP, ALT, globulins, bilirubin, UN and Cr were substantially increased in Pb-treated male Wistar rats.

Increasing serum levels of AST, ALT and ALP enzymes in the Pb-treated rats indicate damage to the structural integrity of liver function. As demonstrated by **Gaskill et al., (2005)** and **Abdel-Kader et al., (2011)**, this effect may be due to the escape of these enzymes from the liver cytosol into the bloodstream as evidence of the occurrence of necrosis in hepatocellular. Additionally, the elevation in AST, ALT and ALP activities is usually caused by rising free radical obstetrics, alteration in the liver tissue and microsomal membrane fluidity (**Ibrahim et al., 2012**). Also, **Abdel-Moneim et al., (2015)** indicated that Pb disrupts the cytoskeleton, causing membrane split and lysis and consequent in a rise in the level of AST, ALT and ALP in the blood.

The kidney is apt to the effect of toxic agents that can cause renal damage and/or failure. **Staessen et al., (1990)** revealed that severe or continued exposure to high doses of lead induces impairment in the function of the kidney tubules, which manifests in hyperphosphaturia, amino-aciduria and glycosuria, and therefore toxic stress on the kidney which develops into chronic nephritis. In the same context, **Acharya et al., (2003)** reported that lead is deposited mostly in the kidney tubules and is considered to be the principal reason for its deleterious effects on the kidney cortex. As is obvious by **Jabeen et al., (2010)**, lead acetate exerts its toxic effects via the generation of reactive oxygen species on various organ systems. Additionally, **Jose and Novoa, (2002)** indicated that the kidney is extremely susceptible to damage resulting from reactive oxygen species, probably due to the abundance of polyunsaturated fatty acids in the composition of renal lipids. As well, reactive oxygen species are implicated in glomerulosclerosis and nephritic fibrosis. As confirmed by **Tohma et al., (2017)**, the hepatic and renal cells suffer from unrestrained lipid peroxidation due to the fact that they are the most affected organs that result from consumption and/or aspiration exposure of lead.

With regard to the effect of lead administration on oxidation processes and the level of activity of antioxidant enzymes. Our results evidence that receiving Pb rats orally caused considerable increase in serum MDA level, and decreases in serum activities of antioxidant enzymes (CAT and GPx) and TAC. Belonging to our results, we concur to an approximately extent with some earlier studies that commented that lead has been shown to drive oxidative damage to cell membrane lipids (**Flora et al., 2012**) and causes an enormous rise in lipid peroxidation as quantified by a notable increase in MDA concentrations (**Laamech et al., 2017**). The results are also in agreement with **Elgawish and Abdelrazek, (2014)** who exhibit that the injection of lead acetate caused a significant diminishing of serum SOD and

CAT levels, while increasing MDA levels. As well, **Samuel et al., (2017)** and **Rezq et al., (2018)** observed that the serum levels of GSH, SOD, GSH-PX and TAC were significantly reduced, while MDA increased in lead acetate-treated rats.

The discovered increment in serum levels of MDA, decline in the activities of antioxidant enzymes (CAT and GPx), and the level of TAC prove that the lead acetate generated oxidative stress and dominated the antioxidant system as a main mechanism of brought about lead toxicity. Oxidative stress stands for an unbalance in the midst of the free radical's production and the biological system's capacity to promptly detoxicate the passive intermediates or remedy the resulting damage of free radicals (**Flora, 2011**). The lead-induced oxidative stress mechanism involves an unbalance between the creation and expulsion of the reactive oxygen sorts in tissues and cellular parts, causing damage to membranes, proteins and DNA (**Patra et al., 2011**). According to the influence of lead, the beginning of oxidative stress appears on account of two diverse pathways operative at identical time. Firstly, the reactive oxygen portions generation such as hydroxyl radicals, hydrogen peroxide and superoxide radicals, as well as the production of lipid peroxides and nitric oxide (**El-Nekeety et al., 2009**). Secondly, the antioxidant reserves turn weakened with co-occurrence reduction in antioxidant enzyme activity (**Abdel-Moniem et al., 2010**). Additionally, lead targets the sulfhydryl groups, and can also substitute the zinc ions that serve as important cofactors for the antioxidant enzymes and deactivate them (**Flora et al., 2007**).

From the existing results in table (6) it is evidenced that administration of Pb induced a significant decrease in serum levels of NE, DA and 5-HT hormones, as an indication of a brain malfunction. It was also confirmed by pathological examination, which confirmed the presence of several noteworthy alterations distinguished by focal hemorrhage area with leukocyte cell infiltration and focal proliferation of glia cells (gliosis), and atrophied neurons in the focal area. Our results were somewhat in agreement with **Gill et al., (2003)** who discovered that lead exposure modifies the level of NE and DA. Furthermore, **Rezq et al., (2018)** noted that the administration of lead acetate caused a significant decrease in the level of NE, DA and 5-HT in the brain. **Rocha and Trujillo (2019)** also indicated that Pb brought about a significant decline in the DA and 5-HT concentration in the brain. In the same context **Highab et al., (2020)** discovered lead acetate-treated rats had markedly lower levels of NE and 5-HT in both serum and the brain. Previous studies have outlined that lead exerts its neurotoxic consequences through interference with Ca²⁺ calmoduline mediated neurotransmitter release, whichever is ultimately accountable for behavioral deterioration (**Bouton et al., 2001**). Also, **El-Masry et al., (2011)** reported that lead acetate intoxication encourages an oxidative stress circumstance in the rat brain that might be the key mechanism implicated in neurotoxicity.

With regard to the potential effectiveness of red-flesh Dragon fruit juice (RDFJ) in the improvement of consequent injury from intoxicated by lead acetate (LA) in rats. The obtained results showed that RDFJ exhibited enhanced BWG, and hepatic and renal functions as well as diminished oxidative stress as stated by the lowering level of MDA and rising activity of CAT and GPx. In addition, showed significant improvement in the serum concentration of NE, DA and 5-HT hormones and pathological improvement of brain cells. The get better improvement in the serum concentrations of the tested parameters was found in the treated group with the highest level (30%), followed by those treated with 20 and 10% of RDFJ, compared to the positive rats. There was an agreement between our results and the results of **Ramli et al., (2014)** who demonstrated that red Dragon juice treatment reduced serum ALP and ALT levels. The reduction of AST, ALT and ALP after an intervention is probably related to the decrease in the deposition of fat and the degree of liver cell necrosis as reported by **Wang et al., (2012)** and **Mihir et al., (2019)** also demonstrate that Dragon fruit possesses an antioxidant and hepatoprotective potential against Acetaminophen-induced liver injury. This was confirmed by **Caulan (2019)** who suggested that the hepatoprotective activity of Dragon fruit may be related to its abundant content of antioxidants such as flavonoids, alkaloids, triterpenes and glycosides. **Abdulshahed et al., (2020)** showed that the aqueous extract of Dragon fruit significantly protects from the sodium nitrate-induced kidney toxicity in albino rats by increment of GSH and CAT enzymes and decreases MDA. The effect of dragon fruit enhances antioxidant defense due to the effective phytochemical bioactive compounds in the red pulp of Dragon fruit like polyphenols and flavonoids, as well as vitamins A, C and E (**Armutcu et al., 2018**). **Swarup et al., (2010)** pointed out that the dragon fruit extract significantly increased serum levels of SOD and TAC and decreased MDA in diabetic rats.

The biological activity of dragon fruits might be due to their high antioxidant properties, tied to their betacyanins, phenolics and flavonoids substances (**Pasko et al., 2021b**). Therefore, the consumption of dragon fruits has favorable effects against inflammation and other oxidative stress-related disorders (**Verona-Ruiz et al., 2020**). The different identified types of polyphenols in dragon fruit like flavones, flavonols, flavanones, tannins and phenolic acids (**Al-Mekhlafi et al., 2021**) have been displayed to exhibit many health benefits due to their antioxidant properties and have significant effects on the first pass metabolic process (**López-Yerena et al., 2020**). Flavonoids possess very strong antioxidant ability and can discourage damage resulting in free radicals by direct clearance of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and activating antioxidant enzymes (**Nijveldt et al., 2001**). In addition, flavonoids act as metal-chelating activity (**Ferrali et al., 1997**), inhibit oxidative stress (**Heim et al., 2002**), and increase antioxidant activity (**Yeh et al., 2005**).

Youdim and Joseph (2001) reported that the consumption of flavonoid-rich fruits and vegetables or their extracts has performance- enhancing cerebral function either by protecting susceptible neurons, enhancing the extent of neuronal function, or encouraging neural regeneration. As well, the neuroprotective capability of flavonoids has been shown in oxidative stress studies.

Phenolic compounds also showed distinct bioactivities in neuroprotective (**Jayasena et al., 2013**), due to their effect as scavengers of hydroxyl radicals and superoxide radicals that generate neurotoxicity (**Dhanalakshmi et al., 2015**).

The red dragon fruit extract contains anthocyanin pigments which serve as antioxidants and suppressed free radical production (**Jaafar et al., 2009**). Consequently, anthocyanins can prevent the event of lipid peroxidation and suppress the production of MDA (**Rusip et al., 2022**). Additionally, anthocyanins can predicament metal ions to establish a stable anthocyanin-metal complex (**Harahap et al., 2019**).

In humans and animals, anthocyanins are absorbed as glycosides (**Paul et al., 2002**), subsequently, traverse the blood-brain barrier, centralize and extended in brain areas, in particular, the cerebellum, cortex, hippocampus and the stratum (**Milbury and Kalt 2010**). Previous studies revealed that the consumption of anthocyanins was related to the decline of brain disturbance hazards (**Simone et al., 2018**).

The established process by which anthocyanins possess neuroprotective effects is their capacity to suppress inflammation and oxidative stress induced in the brain by several risk factors (**Min et al., 2011**). On the other hand, anthocyanins can prohibit neuronal degeneration by suppressing oxidative stress production and/or pro-inflammatory cytokines (Ali et al., 2018). This action occurs through the activation of brain-acquired neurotrophic factor, protein kinase B, cAMP-response component tying protein and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (**Williams et al., 2008**).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the existing study was showed the effective effect of dragon fruit juice is exhibited by decreasing the toxic effect of lead acetate on the functions of both the liver and kidneys; and reducing oxidation rates by increasing the activity of antioxidant enzymes. It also showed substantial improvement in the Norepinephrine, dopamine and 5-Hydroxytryptamine levels. Therefore, the study suggested that the ordinary consumption of Red Dragon fruit or embedding it into diets may be profitable in preventing or protecting against lead toxicity due to its content of flavonoids, phenolics, and anthocyanins as bioactive compounds.

REFERENCES

1. Abdel-Kader M M., Abeer A.A. and Hegazy A.M. (2011): Roles of N-acetylcysteine, Methionine, vitamin C and vitamin E as antioxidants against Lead Toxicity in Rats. Australian J. Basic and Appl. Scien., 5(5): 1178-1183.
2. Abdel-Moneim A., El-Toweissy M. and Ali A. (2015): Curcumin ameliorates lead induced hemato-biochemical alterations and renal oxidative damage in a rat model. Biol Trace Elem Res., 168:206–220.
3. Abdel-Moniem A.E., Dkhil M.A. and Al-Quraishy S. (2010) Protective role of flaxseed oil against lead acetate induced oxidative stress in testes of adult rats. Afr. J. Biotechnol., 9(4): 7216-7223.
4. Abdulshahed R., Obeid A., and AL-Latif H. (2020): Assessment of red dragon fruit (*Hylocereus Polyrhizus*) extract effect on the adverse effects of Sodium Nitrate-induced kidney injury. EurAsian Journal of BioSciences, 14(2): 5227-5233.
5. Acharya U.R., Acharya S. and Mishra M. (2003): Lead acetate induced cytotoxicity in male germinal cells of swiss mice. Industrial Health. 41: 291–294.
6. Afandi A., Lazim A.M., Azwanid, N.N., Bakar MA., Airianah O.B. and Fazry S. (2017): Antibacterial Properties of Crude Aqueous *Hylocereus polyrhizus* Peel Extacts in Lipstick Formulation against Gram-Positive and Negative Bacteria. Malays. Appl. Biol., 46(2): 29–34.
7. Ali T., Kim T., Rehman S.U., Khan M.S., Amin F.U., Khan M., Ikram M. and Kim M.O. (2018): Natural dietary supplementation of anthocyanins via PI3K/Akt/Nrf2/HO-1 pathways mitigate oxidative stress, neurodegeneration, and memory impairment in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. Mol. Neurobiol. 55, 6076–6093.
8. Al-Mekhlafi N.A., Mediani A., Ismail N.H., Abas F., Dymerski T., Lubinska-Szczygeł M., Verasilp S. and Gorinstein S. (2021): Metabolomic and antioxidant properties of different varieties and origins of Dragon fruit. Microchem. J., 160, 105687.
9. Armutcu F., Akyol S. and Akyol O. (2018): The interaction of glutathione and thymoquinone and their antioxidant properties. Electronic Journal of General Medicine, 15(4):59.
10. Asiwe J., Daubry T., Okon I., Akpotu A., Adagbada E., Eruotor H., Agbugba, L. and Buduburisi B. (2022): Ginkgo biloba Supplement Reverses Lead (II) Acetate-Induced Haematological Imbalances, Hepatic and Renal Dysfunctions in Male Wistar Rat. Biological trace element research, 200(12):5134–5144.
11. Bada A.A., Svendsen J.H., Secher N. H., Saltin B. and Mortensen S.P. (2012): Peripheral vasodilatation determines cardiac output in exercising humans: insight from atrial pacing. The Journal of Physiology, 590(8):2051-2060.
12. Bauchi Z.M., Kizito D., Alhassan A.W., Akpulu S.P. and Timbuak J.A. (2016): Effect of Aqueous Seed Extract of *Nigella Sativa* on Lead-Induced Cerebral Cortex Toxicity in Long Evans Rats Bayero. J of Pure and Applied Sciences, 9(1): 48 – 52.
13. Berger M., Gray J.A. and Roth B.L. (2009): The expanded biology of serotonin. Annu Rev Med., 60:355-66.
14. Bouton C., Frelin L., Forde C., Godwin H. and Pevsner J. (2001): Synaptotagmin I is a molecular target for lead. J. Neurochemistry, 76(6): 1724-1735.
15. Cauilan P. L. (2019): Hepatoprotective potential of *Hylocereus polyrhizus* (dragon fruit) on carbon tetrachloride induced hepatic damages

- in albino wistar rats. *International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research (IJSBAR)*, 46: 49–61.
16. Chu F.F., Doroshov J.H. and Esworthy R.S. (1993): Expression, characterization, and tissue distribution of a new cellular selenium-dependent glutathione peroxidase, GSHPx-GI. *J Biol Chem.*, 268(4): 2571-2576.
 17. Chun O.K., Kim D.O. and Lee C.Y. (2003): Superoxide radical scavenging activity of the major polyphenols in fresh plums. *J Agric Food Chem.*, 51:8067–72.
 18. Dembitsky V.M., Poovarodom S., Leontowicz H., Leontowicz M., Vearasilp S., Trakhtenberg S. and Gorinstein S. (2011): The multiple nutrition properties of some exotic fruits: Biological activity and active metabolites. *Food Res. Int.*, 44, 1671–1701.
 19. Dhanalakshmi C., Manivasagam T., Nataraj J., Justin Thenmozhi A. and Essa M.M. (2015): Neurosupportive role of vanillin, a natural phenolic compound, on rotenone induced neurotoxicity in SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells. *Evid Based Complement Alternat Med.*, 2015:626028.
 20. Dhumal S.S., Karale A.R., More T.A., Nimbalkar C.A. (2015): Preparation of pomegranate juice concentrate by various heating methods and appraisal of its physicochemical characteristics. *Acta Horticulturae*. 42(5):25-30.
 21. Eldeen M.S., Foong S.Y., Ismail N. and Wong K.C. (2020): Regulation of proinflammatory enzymes by the dragon fruits from *Hylocereus undatus* (Haworth) and squalene – Its major volatile constituents. *Pharmacognosy Magazine*, 16: 81–86
 22. Elgawish R. and Abdelrazek H. (2014): Effects of lead acetate on testicular function and caspase-3 expression with respect to the protective effect of cinnamon in albino rats. *Toxicol Rep*; 1:795-801.
 23. El-Masry T., Emara A.M. and El-Shitany N.A. (2011): Possible protective effect of propolis against lead-induced neurotoxicity in animal model. *J. Evolutionary Biology Res.*, 3(1): 4-11.
 24. El-Nekeety A.A., El-Kady A.A., Soliman M.S., Hassan N.S. and Abdel-Wahhab M.A. (2009): Protective effect of *Aquilegia vulgaris* (L.) against lead acetate-induced oxidative stress in rats, *Food Chem. Toxicol.*, 47(9): 2209-2215.
 25. Elrasoul S.A., Mousa A.A., Orabi S.H., Mohamed G., Gad-Allah S.M., Almeer R., Abdel-Daim M.M., Khalifa S.A., El-Seedi H.R. and Abd Eldaim M.A. (2020): Antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and antiapoptotic effects of *Azolla pinnata* ethanolic extract against lead-induced hepatotoxicity in rats. *Antioxidants*. 9(10): 1-19.
 26. Ferrali M., Signorini C., Caciotti B., Sugherini L., Ciccoli L., Giachetti D. and Comporti M. (1997): Protection against oxidative damage of erythrocyte membranes by the flavonoid quercetin and its relation to iron chelating activity. *FEBS Lett*, 416,123-129.
 27. Flora S. J., Flora G., Saxena G. and Mishra M. (2007): Arsenic and lead induced free radical generation and their reversibility following chelation. *Cell Mol. Biol*. 53, 26–47.
 28. Flora G., Gupta D. and Tiwari A. (2012): Toxicity of lead: a review with recent updates. *Interdisciplinary Toxicology*, 5(2): 47–58.
 29. Flora J. S. (2011): Arsenic induced oxidative stress and its reversibility. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*. 51, 257–281.
 30. Friedman R.B. and Young D.S. (1997): *Effects of Disease on Clinical Laboratory Tests*, 3rd Edition, AACC Press, Washington, D.C.
 31. Gaskill C. L., Miller L. M. and Mattoon J. S. (2005): Liver histopathology and liver and serum alanine aminotransferase and alkaline phosphatase activities in epileptic dogs receiving phenobarbital. *Vet. Pathol.* 42, 147–160.
 32. Gill K., Gupta V. and Sandhair R. (2003): Ca²⁺ / 2+ calmodulin-mediated neurotransmitter release and neurobehavioural deficits following lead exposure. *Cell Biochemistry and Function*, 21(4): 345-353.
 33. Glorieux C. and Calderon P.B. (2017): Catalase, a remarkable enzyme: targeting the oldest antioxidant enzyme to find a new cancer treatment approach. *Biol Chem.*, 398(10):1095-1108.
 34. Guimarães A.B., De Castro S.B., Oliveira L.D., Nogueira E.M., Silva M.D. and Teodoro A.J. (2017): Pitaya extracts induce growth inhibition and proapoptotic effects on human cell lines of breast cancer via downregulation of estrogen receptor gene expression. *Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity*. 7865073, 1-17.
 35. Harahap N., Lelo A., Purba A., Sibuea A., Amelia R. and Zulaini Z. (2019): The effect of red-fleshed pitaya (*Hylocereus polyrhizus*) on heat shock protein 70 and cortisol expression in strenuous exercise induced rats. *F1000Res.*, 8:1–12.
 36. Heim K.E., Tagliaferro A.R. and Bobilya D.J. (2002): Flavonoid antioxidants: chemistry, metabolism and structure–activity relationships. *J Nutr Biochem.*, 13, 572-584.
 37. Highab S.M., Raji I. and Makarau L. (2020): Effect of Lead Acetate on Norepinephrine and Serotonin Concentration in Albino Wistar Rats Induced Depression. *Dutse Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences*. 6(1):98-107.
 38. Hwang D.F. and Wang L.C. (2001): Effect of taurine on toxicity of cadmium in rats. *Toxicology*, 167(3): 173-180.
 39. Ibrahim N. M., Eweis E. A., El-Beltagi H. S. and Abdel-Mobdy Y. E. (2012): Effect of lead acetate toxicity on experimental male albino rat. *Asian Pac. J. Trop. Biomed.* 2, 41–46.
 40. Jaafar R., Abdul Rahman A., Mahmud N. and Vasudevan R. (2009): Proximate analysis of dragon fruit (*Hylocereus polyrhizus*). *Am. J. Appl. Sci.* ;6(7):1341–1346.
 41. Jabeen R., Tahir M. and Waqas S. (2010): Teratogenic Effects of Lead Acetate on Kidney. *J Ayub Med Coll Abbottabad*. 22(1):76-79.
 42. Jaishankar, M., Tseten, T., Anbalagan, N., Mathew, B. B. and Beeregowda, K. N. (2014): Toxicity, mechanism and health effects of some heavy metals,” *Interdisciplinary Toxicology*, 7 (2): 60–72.
 43. Jayasena T., Poljak A., Smythe G., Braidly N., Munch G. and Sachdev P. (2013): The role of polyphenols in the modulation of sirtuins and other pathways involved in Alzheimer’s disease. *Ageing Res Rev* 12(4):867–883.
 44. Jerônimo M.C., Orsine V.C., Borges K.K. and Novaes C.G. (2015): Chemical and physical-chemical properties, antioxidant activity and fatty acids profile of red pitaya [*Hylocereus undatus* (Haw.) Britton and Rose] grown in Brazil. *Journal of Drug Metabolism and Toxicology*. 6 (4):1-6.
 45. Jose M. and Novoa L. (2002): Role of reactive oxygen species in renal function and diseases. *Antioxidants Redox Signaling*. 4(6):40–47.
 46. Kier A.B. (1990): Clinical neurology and brain histopathology in NZB/NZW F1 lupus mice. *Journal of Comparative Pathology.*, 102(2): 165-177.
 47. -Laamech J., El-Hilaly J., Fetoui H., Chtourou Y., Gouita H., Tahraoui A. and Lyoussi B. (2017): *Berberis vulgaris* L. effects on oxidative stress and liver injury in lead-intoxicated mice. *J. of Complementary and Integrative Medicine*. 14(1):1–14.
 48. Lee, J., Durst, R.W. and Wrolstad, R.E. (2005): Determination of total monomeric anthocyanin pigment content of fruit juices, beverages, natural colorants, and wines by the pH differential method: Collaborative study. *J. AOAC Int.*, 88, 1269–1278.
 49. Li Y., Lv H., Xue C., Dong N., Bi C. and Shan A. (2020): Plant polyphenols: potential antidotes for lead exposure. *Biol Trace Elem Res.*, 199:3960–3976.
 50. Liu C., Gomez F.A., Miao Y., Cui P. and Lee W. (2019): A colorimetric assay system for dopamine using microfluidic paper-based

- analytical devices. *Talanta*, 1(194):171-176.
51. López-Yerena A., Perez M., Vallverdú-Queralt A. and Escribano-Ferrer E. (2020): Insights into the Binding of Dietary Phenolic Compounds to Human Serum Albumin and Food-Drug Interactions. *Pharmaceutics*. 12(11): 2-18.
 52. Mahdi M.A., Mohammed M.T., Jassim M.N. and Mohammed A.I. (2018): Phytochemical content and anti-oxidant activity of *Hylocereus undatus* and study of toxicity and the ability of wound treatment. *Plant Archives*, 18(2): 2672–2680.
 53. Mercado-Silva E. M. (2018): Pitaya - *Hylocereus undatus* (Haw). In: Rodrigues S., de Oliveira Silva E., de Brito E.S. (eds): *Exotic Fruits Reference Guide*. 1st Ed. Academic Press: 339–349.
 54. Mihir Y., Sachinkumar S., Tribhuvan S., Ishim S. and Nirali P. (2019): Antioxidant and Hepatoprotective Potential of Dragon Fruit Extract in 003 Opposition to Acetaminophen-Induce Liver Smash Up in Rats. *Advanced Research in Gastroenterology and Hepatology*. 12(5):88-94.
 55. Milbury P.E. and Kalt, W. (2010): Xenobiotic metabolism and berry flavonoid transport across the blood-brain barrier. *J. Agric. Food Chem*. 58, 3950–3956.
 56. Min J., Yu S.W., Baek S.H., Nair K.M., Bae O.N., Bhatt A., Kassab M., Nair M.G. and Majid, A., (2011): Neuroprotective effect of cyanidin-3-O-glucoside anthocyanin in mice with focal cerebral ischemia. *Neurosci. Lett*. 500, 157–161
 57. Mitra, P. and Sharma, P. (2019): Novel direction in mechanisms underlying lead toxicity: evidence and prospective. *Indian J. of Clinical Biochemistry*. 34(2): 121-122.
 58. Mitrovic D., de Long G.M., de Boer-van Gorp L., Duisenberg-van Essenberg M., van Hout L., ter Laak M.A. (2012): Stability of urine samples for drugs of abuse testing. *PW Wetenschappelijk Platform*. 6(2):20-24.
 59. Muniz D.O., Bomfim G.A., Corrêa D.M. and Freitas B.M. (2019): Floral biology, pollination requirements and behavior of floral visitors in two species of pitaya. *Revista Ciência Agronômica*, 50: 640–649.
 60. Nabil M.I., Esam A.E., Hossam S.E. and Yasmine A.M. (2012): Effect of lead acetate toxicity on experimental male albino's rat. *Asian Pacific J Tropical Biomedicine*. 2(1): 41-46.
 61. Needleman S.B., Porvaznik M. and Ander D. (1992): Creatinine Analysis in Single Collection Urine Specimens. *Journal of Forensic Sciences* 37, 1125–1133.
 62. Nijveldt R.J., van Nood E., van Hoorn E.C., Boelens P.G., van Norren K. and van Leeuwen A.M. (2001): Flavonoids: a review of probable mechanisms of action and potential applications. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 74(4):18-425.
 63. Pasko P., Galanty A., Zagrodzki P., Luksirikul P., Barasch D., Nemirovski A. and Shela Gorinstein. (2021a). Dragon Fruits as a Reservoir of Natural Polyphenolics with Chemopreventive Properties. *Molecules*. 26(8) 2-14.
 64. Pasko P., Galanty A., Zagrodzki P., Ku Y.G., Luksirikul P., Weisz M. and Gorinstein S. (2021b): Bioactivity and cytotoxicity of different species of pitaya fruits—A comparative study with advanced chemometric analysis. *Food Biosci*. 40, 100888.
 65. Patra R.C., Rautray A.K. and Swarup D. (2011): Oxidative stress in lead and cadmium toxicity and its amelioration. *Vet. Med. Inter.*, 20, 1-9.
 66. Paul E.M., Cao G., Prior R.L. and Blumberg J. (2002): Bioavailability of elderberry anthocyanins. *Mech. Ageing Dev*. 123, 997–1006.
 67. Perween T., Mandal K.K. and Hasan M.A. (2018): Dragon fruit: An exotic super future fruit of India. *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry*, 7(2): 1022–1026.
 68. Poolsup N., Suksomboon N. and Paw N.J. (2017): Effect of dragon fruit on glycemic control in prediabetes and type 2 diabetes: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS one*, 12(9): e0184577.
 69. Ramah A., EL-shwarby R.M, Nabila M.A. and El-shewey E.A. (2015): The effect of lead toxicity on male albino rats reproduction with ameliorate by vitamin E and pumpkin seeds oil. *Benha Veterinary Medical J.*, 28(1):43-52.
 70. Ramli, N., Brown, L., Ismail, P., and Rahmat, A. (2014): Effects of red pitaya juice supplementation on cardiovascular and hepatic changes in high-carbohydrate, high-fat diet-induced metabolic syndrome rats. *BMC complementary and alternative medicine*, 14:189.
 71. Reeves P.G., Nielsen F.H. and Fahey G.C. (1993): AIN-93 purified diets for laboratory rodents: final report of the American Institute of Nutrition ad hoc writing committee on the reformulation of the AIN-76A rodent diet," *The Journal of Nutrition*. 123(11): 1939–1951.
 72. Rezaq A.A., Baz M. S., Attar A.A., Aml F. E. and Basalamah. M.A. (2018): Protective Effect of Grape Seeds Powder Against Lead Acetate-induced Brain Toxicity in Male Rats. *World Applied Sciences Journal* 36 (2): 185-196.
 73. Rio D.D., Stewart A.J. and Pellegrini N. (2005): A review of recent studies on malondialdehyde as toxic molecule and biological marker of oxidative stress. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.*, 15(4):316-328.
 74. Rocha A. and Trujillo K. (2019): Neurotoxicity of Low-level Lead Exposure: History, Mechanisms of Action, and Behavioral Effects in Humans and Preclinical Models. *Neurotoxicology*, 73:58–80.
 75. Rusip G., Ilyas S., Lister N. E., Ginting C. N. and Mukti I. (2022): The effect of ingestion of red dragon fruit extract on levels of malondialdehyde and superoxide dismutase after strenuous exercise in rats (*Rattus norvegicus*). *F1000Research*, 10: 1061.
 76. Samuel J. O., Herbert O. C. and Orish E. O. (2017). Lead Induced Hepato-renal Damage in Male Albino Rats and Effects of Activated Charcoal. *Front. Pharmacol.*, 8(107):1-10.
 77. Simone M. P., Soares S.P., Gutierrez J.M., Gerzson F.B., Carvalho F.B., Azambuja J.H., Schetinger R.C., Stefanello F.M. and Spanevello R.M. (2018): Anthocyanins as a potential pharmacological agent to manage memory deficit, oxidative stress and alterations in ion pump activity induced by experimental sporadic dementia of Alzheimer's type. *J. Nutr. Biochem*. 56, 193–204.
 78. Sofowora A., Ogunbodede E. and Onayade A. (2013): The role and place of medicinal plants in the strategies for disease prevention. *African Journal of Traditional, Complementary and Alternative Medicines*, 10(5): 210–229.
 79. Snedecor G.W. and Cochran W. (1980): *Statistical methods*, 7th Ed., Iowa State University Press, Ames, USA. Page 90.
 80. Staessen J.A., Yeoman W.B. and Fletcher A.E. (1990): Blood lead concentration, renal function and blood pressure in London civil servants. *Br. J. Ind. Med*. 47: 442-447.
 81. Suastuti N.G.M.A.D.A., Bogoriani N.W. and Putra A.B. (2018): Activity of *Hylocereus costaricensis* extract as antiobesity and hypolipidemic of obese rats. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Research and Allied Sciences*. 7(1): 201–208.
 82. Sujatha K., Srilatha C., Anjaneyulu Y. and Amaravathi P. (2011): Lead acetate induced neurotoxicity in wistar albino rats: A pathological, immunological, and ultrastructural studies. *J of pharma and bioscience*. 2, 459-462.
 83. Swarup K.R., Sattar M.A., Abdullah N.A. Abdulla M.H., Salman I.M., Rathore H.A. and Johns E.J. (2010): Effect of dragon fruit extract on oxidative stress and aortic stiffness in streptozotocin-induced diabetes in rats. *Pharmacognosy Res.*, 2(1): 31-35.
 84. Teerasartipan T., Chaiteerakij R., Prueksapanich P. and Werawatganon D. (2020): Changes in inflammatory cytokines, antioxidants and liver stiffness after chelation therapy in individuals with chronic lead poisoning. *BMC Gastroenterol*. 20:1–9.

85. Tietz N.W., Burtis C.A., Ashwood E.R., Bruns, D.E. (2005): Tietz Textbook of Clinical Chemistry and Molecular Diagnosis (4th Ed.) Burtis, Ashwood & Bruns (Eds), Elsevier Saunders, 2301.
86. Tohma H., Gülçin İ., Bursal E., Gören A. C., Alwaseel S. H. and Köksal E. (2017): Antioxidant activity and phenolic compounds of ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Rosc.) determined by HPLC-MS/MS. *Journal of Food Measurement and Characterisation*, 11(2): 556–566.
87. Trachootham, D., Lu W., Ogasawara M.A., Nilsa V. and Huang P. (2008): Redox regulation of cell survival. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.* 10(8): 1343-1374.
88. Verona-Ruiz A., Urcia-Cerna J. and Paucar-Menacho L.M. (2020): Pitahaya (*Hylocereus* spp.): Culture, physicochemical characteristics, nutritional composition, and bioactive compounds. *Sci. Agropecu.* 11(3):439-453.
89. Wang L., Meng X. and Zhang F. (2012): Raspberry ketone protects rats fed high-fat diets against nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Journal of Medicinal Food.* 15(5):495–503.
90. Wang N., Chen C., Nie X., Han B., Li Q., Chen Y., Zhu, C., Chen Y., Xia F., Cang Z., Lu, M., Meng, Y., Zhai H., Lin D., Cui S., Jensen M.D. and Lu Y. (2016): Blood lead level and its association with body mass index and obesity in China – results from SPECT-China study,” *Scientific Reports.* 5 18299.
91. Williams C.M., El Mohsen M.A., Vauzour D., Rendeiro C., Butler L.T., Ellis J.A., Whiteman M. and Spencer J.P. (2008): Blueberry-induced changes in spatial workingmemory correlate with changes in hippocampal CREB phosphorylation and brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) levels. *Free Radic. Biol. Med.* 45(3): 295–305.
92. Xia D., Yu X., Liao S., Shao Q., Mou H. and Ma W. (2010): Protective effect of *Smilax glabra* extract against lead-induced oxidative stress in rats. *J. Ethnopharmacol.*, 130(2): 414-420.
93. Yeh S.L., Wang W.Y., Huang C.H. and Hu M.L. (2005): Pro-oxidative effect of β -carotene and the interaction with flavonoids on UVA-induced DNA strand breaks in mouse fibroblast C3H10T1/2 cells. *J Nutr Biochem*, 16: 729-735.
94. -Youdim K.A. and Joseph J.A. (2001): A possible emerging role of phytochemicals in improving age-related neurological dysfunctions: a multiplicity of effects. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine.* 30(6):583–594.
95. Young D.S. (2000): *Effects of Drugs on Clinical Laboratory Tests*, fifth edition 2000, AACC Press, Washington, D.C.
96. Zhishen J., Mengcheng T. and Jianming W. (1999): The determination of flavonoid contents in mulberry and their scavenging effects on superoxide radicals. *Food Chemistry.* 64:555–559.