

FLUORIDE

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Fluoride-Induced Oxidative Stress in Non-Skeletal Tissues: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

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*Corresponding author: Dr. Linet Angwa Department of Clinical Medicine Kabarak University Nakuru – Eldama Ravine road 20100, Nakuru, Kenya E-mail: lynangwa@gmail.com Accepted: 2023 Oct 30 Epub as e255L 2023 Nov 24	ABSTRACT Purpose: Several studies have investigated the oxidative stress parameters in non-skeletal tissues of animals exposed to fluoride, however, the findings from these studies are inconsistent. We conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to evaluate the levels of oxidative stress biomarkers in experimental animals treated with fluoride compared with the control group. Methods: The PubMed, Cochrane Library, EBSCO, and JSTOR databases were searched for studies reporting oxidative stress biomarkers in non-skeletal tissues of animals exposed to fluoride. A random effects model with the standardized mean difference (SMD) was used for meta-analyses. The heterogeneity of the studies was evaluated using Higgin's I2 statistics. The risk of bias was assessed using the SYRCL's risk of bias tool and publication bias using Egger's test Results: Compared to the control, the levels of ROS, LPO, and NO were significantly elevated and the levels of SOD, CAT, GSH-Px, and GSH significantly reduced in the studied tissues. The level of GST however showed no significant difference. The test for subgroup differences suggested that different animal species and tissues have varying susceptibilities and tolerance to fluoride. Furthermore, the extent of fluoride-induced oxidative stress damage can be modified by the intervention period. Meta-regression analysis indicated that the studies' effect size for LPO was influenced by animal species. Conclusions: This meta-analysis's findings demonstrated the presence of oxidative stress and depletion of antioxidants in the non-skeletal tissues of experimental animals exposed to fluoride. More studies in humans are recommended to strengthen the current evidence. Key-words: Fluorosis; Oxidative stress; Non-skeletal tissue; Systematic review; Meta-analysis

INTRODUCTION

It is well established that fluorosis is a worldwide health concern and is endemic in some areas where fluoride content is high in drinking water.^{1,2} The global prevalence of dental and skeletal fluorosis is not clear. However, it is estimated that excessive fluoride

concentration in drinking water has caused tens of millions of dental and skeletal fluorosis cases worldwide over a range of years.³ After absorption from the gastrointestinal tract, 99% of the retained fluoride is deposited in mineralized tissues with 1% being found in soft tissues.^{4,5} A steady state of distribution between the

extracellular and intracellular compartments is established in these tissues where intracellular fluoride concentrations change simultaneously and in proportion to changes in plasma fluoride levels.⁴ The remaining proportion is excreted by the kidneys. Generally, the tissue-to-plasma concentration ratios fall between 1.0 and 4.0 except for the brain (<0.1) and the kidney (>4.0). The low value in the brain is attributed to the relative impermeability of the blood-brain barrier to fluoride. The kidney has the highest fluoride concentration compared to all other soft tissues due to its high concentration in the tubular fluid.^{4,6} Excessive fluoride ingestion over a prolonged period can adversely influence several organs and tissues characterized by a vast array of symptoms and pathological changes. Apart from dental and skeletal fluorosis, Fluoride is now known to cause renal toxicity,⁷ hepatotoxicity,⁸ neurotoxicity,⁹ cardiovascular system toxicity,^{10,11} reproductive toxicity,^{12,13} thyroid toxicity,¹⁴ and Haematotoxicity.¹⁵ Despite this, the molecular mechanisms of fluorosis are still unclear.

In recent decades, extensive research has reported a key role of oxidative stress in causing fluorosis in non-skeletal tissues.¹⁶ This is further strengthened by evidence of consistent protection of cells from the lipid peroxidation (LPO) caused by fluoride exposure by antioxidant treatment.¹⁷ Excessive accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) or reactive nitrogen species (RNS), as a result of either increased ROS/RNS generation or impaired ROS/RNS clearance, leads to oxidative stress. To counteract the

effects of ROS/RNS, living organisms possess a large number of enzymatic antioxidants such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px/GPx), glutathione S-transferase (GST) and catalase (CAT), and non-enzymatic antioxidants such as vitamins A, E, and C, GSH, and β -Carotene.^{18–20} Enzymatic antioxidants act by converting oxidative products to hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) and then to water in the presence of cofactors like copper, manganese, and iron while non-enzymatic antioxidants act by intercepting and interrupting free radical chain reactions.²¹ Fluoride is thought to decrease the levels of these antioxidants and increase oxidative stress.^{22–24} However, previous studies addressing the oxidative stress status or detecting the biomarkers of oxidative stress in tissues of experimental animals with fluorosis yielded controversial results.^{25–28}

In this study, we systematically reviewed the literature on oxidative stress induced by fluoride in the blood, liver, kidney, heart, and brain of experimental animals and conducted a meta-analysis on relevant studies. The primary objective was to quantitatively evaluate the levels of oxidative stress biomarkers (SOD, CAT, GSH-Px, GSH, GST, ROS, lipid peroxidation (LPO), and nitric oxide (NO)) in the aforementioned non-skeletal tissues of experimental animals exposed to fluoride compared to the controls. We hypothesized that there will be an increase in oxidative biomarkers and a decrease in antioxidative biomarkers in experimental animals with induced fluoride toxicity.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Inclusion criteria

Studies were included in our analyses if they met the following criteria: 1) experimental studies measuring oxidative stress biomarkers in blood, brain, kidney, heart, and liver of experimental animals; 2) studies published in English; 3) studies that provided animal numbers, means, and standard deviations. Through our search strategy, we decided to focus on some enzymatic antioxidants (SOD, CAT, GSH-Px, and GST), non-enzymatic antioxidants (GSH), reactive oxygen species (ROS), free radicals (NO), and oxidative damage products (malondialdehyde (MDA)/thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARs): LPO), but not other oxidative stress biomarkers because of limited studies.

Exclusion criteria

Studies were excluded from our analyses if they met the following criteria: 1) conference abstracts, reviews, editorials, and letters; 2) human, *in vitro*, or

other unrelated studies; 3) full-text not available in English; 4) studies with unavailable data/ unextractable data; 5) combined exposure with no fluoride only group; 6) studies not done in tissues of interest; 7) multigenerational studies; 8) studies on amelioration of fluoride toxicity; 9) studies that did not measure oxidative stress; 10) studies with incomplete or unclear results.

Literature search

We conducted searches in PubMed, Cochrane Library, EBSCO, and JSTOR to identify eligible articles on July 22nd, 2022, with the following keywords and Boolean operators: (“Fluoride OR Fluorosis”) AND (“Oxidative stress OR Oxidative damage”) AND (“Reactive oxygen species OR Reactive nitrogen species OR Lipid peroxidation OR Malondialdehyde OR Thiobarbituric acid reactive substance OR Nitric oxide OR Lipid hydroperoxide OR Superoxide dismutase OR Catalase OR Glutathione OR Vitamin C”) and articles were exported to Mendeley. An additional manual search of references and cited/related articles was done. Search terms were validated by ensuring the

search retrieved a selection of articles, representative of relevant works. Searches were restricted to the English language and Animals with no restriction on the date of publication. Abstracts were screened independently by two reviewers (LA and DM). Full-text screens were conducted to confirm eligibility. Differences between the two reviewers were resolved through discussion and consensus.

Data extraction and quality assessment

Two reviewers (LA and DM) extracted eligible studies independently through the review of titles, abstracts, and full texts. In case of disagreement, a final decision was made by consensus. Information was extracted in a systematic way as follows: 1) author; 2) year of publication; 3) animal species/strain; 4) sex; 5) age; 6) weight; 7) tissue/organ studied; 8) the number of animals in experimental and control groups; 9) study period; and 10) oxidative stress biomarkers (Table 1). In studies with multiple intervention groups, only one pair was selected and others were excluded from the meta-analysis: only the high-dose group was included in studies with multiple fluoride groups, the fluoride-only group was included in co-exposure studies, and in studies with different duration of treatment, the longest duration was selected for the study. In some studies, multiple datasets were extracted if reported and the mean of means and standard deviations (SD) were used for the meta-analysis. WebPlotDigitizer was used to facilitate graphical data extraction. The SD for studies that reported standard error (SE) of mean was obtained by multiplying by the square root of the sample size ($SD = SE \times \sqrt{n}$).

The quality of included studies was assessed independently by two reviewers (LA and DM) by using

the SYRCLE's risk of bias tool and disagreements were resolved through consensus-oriented discussion. The SYRCLE's risk of bias tool contains 10 entries related to 6 types of bias: selection bias, performance bias, detection bias, attrition bias, reporting bias, and other biases. Signaling questions are used to assign a judgment of low, high or unclear risk of bias to each item mentioned in the tool.²⁹

Statistical Analysis

All statistical analysis was performed using the R project software version 4.2.2 (R package meta). We used Hedge's g standardized mean difference (SMD) as a measure of effect size because the measures used are not the same in all studies and corresponding 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) were presented. Pooled effect sizes (ES) were calculated according to DerSimonian and Laird for the random effects model because of the diversity of methods, species, and intervention protocols. The statistical heterogeneity was determined by the value of the I^2 index. A value of the I^2 index of around 25%, 50%, and 75% was considered as low-, moderate-, and high-heterogeneity, respectively.⁸⁷ For rigor, Publication bias was estimated by inspecting the funnel plot asymmetry and Egger's regression test. The leave-one-out sensitivity analysis was performed by excluding the studies identified as having a high risk of bias using the SYRCLE's risk of bias tool. For additional insight, subgroup analyses were performed based on the intervention period (<30, 30–90, >90 days); species of animals (mice, rats, others), and sample source (liver, kidney, brain, heart, blood) to determine the factors associated with differences among study results in the outcome indicators. Statistical significance was defined at $p < 0.05$.

Table 1. Characteristics of included studies

Author	Year	Species/ strain	Animal sex	Age	Weight	Sample Source	Animal Number: Control/ Intervention	Fluoride exposure period	Oxidative Stress Biomarkers
Afolabi, et al. ³⁰	2013	Rats	Male	9 - 10 weeks	Average 120g	Blood, Liver	8/8	30-90 days	MDA
Bhatnagar, et al. ²⁴	2006	Mice	Female	1 month	25 ± 5g	Brain, Liver,	10/15	30 days	SOD, CAT, MDA
Chouhan & Flora ²⁸	2008	Rats	Male	Adult	100– 120g	Blood, Liver, Kidney, Brain	6/6	30-90 days	ROS, GSH
Chouhan, et al. ²²	2010	Rats	Male	Adult	100– 120g	Blood, liver, kidney, brain	6/6	30-90 days	GSH, ROS
Deng, et al. ³¹	2014	Avian Broiler Chickens	N/A	1 day old	N/A	Blood	5/5	30-90 days	SOD, MDA, GSH-Px, GSH, CAT*
Dubey, et al. ³²	2013	Rats	Male/female	Adult	150– 200g	Liver	6/6	< 30 days	SOD, GSH, CAT, MDA
Flora, et al. ³³	2009	Mice	Male	Adult	25± 5 g	Brain	5/5	30-90 days	ROS, GPx, CAT, SOD, TBARS, GST
Flora, et al. ³⁴	2012	Mice	Male	Adult	Appx 30g	Blood, Brain, Liver	5/5	> 90 days	ROS, GSH, SOD GPx, CAT, TBARS
Guo, et al. ³⁵	2003	Rats	Male/ Female	4 weeks old	90–100 g	Liver	8/8	>90 days	MDA, SOD, GSH-Px
He & Chen ³⁶	2006	Rats	Male	N/A	80–120 g	Liver	5/5	< 30 days	ROS, MDA, GSH
Inkielewicz & Czarnowski ³⁷	2008	Rats	Male	Adult	189 ± 6.9 g	Blood, Brain, Kidney, Liver	6/6	30- 90 days	GSH, GPx, TBARS, CAT
Manivannan, et al. ³⁸	2013	Mice	Male	Adult (8-12 weeks old)	25–30 g	Liver	6/6	30 days	MDA, GST, GSH, CAT
Khan, et al. ³⁹	2018	Rats	Male/Female	N/A	150–200 g	Brain	6/6	< 30 days	GST, CAT, SOD, MDA
Kinawy ⁴⁰	2019	Rats	Male	Pups	N/A	Brain	8/8	30-90 days	MDA, GSH, NO
Liu, et al. ⁴¹	1999	Rats	N/A	N/A	140–160 g	Liver, Kidney	14/14	> 90 days	MDA, SOD, GSH-Px,
Lopes, et al. ⁴²	2020	Mice	Male	21 days old	10 g ± 5 g	Brain	10/10	30-90 days	MDA, NO
Mittal & Flora ⁴³	2006	Mice	Male	Adult	Appx 30 g	Blood, Liver, Kidney	5/5	30-90 days	GSH, TBARS, ROS, GPx, SOD, CAT
Narayanaswam y & Piler ⁴⁴	2010	Rats	N/A	Pups	N/A	Brain	6/6	30-90 days	MDA, CAT, SOD, GSH-Px
Oyagbemi, et al. ⁴⁵	2017	Rats	Male	Adult	125–175 g	Kidney, heart	10/10	< 30 days	MDA, SOD, CAT, GSH, GPx, NO, GST
Panneerselvam , et al. ⁴⁶	2015	Rats	Male	3 months,	130–150 g	Heart	6/6	< 30 days	ROS, LPO, NO, GSH,

				2 weeks old					GPx, SOD, CAT, GST
Qin, et al. ⁴⁷	2015	Rats	Male/Female	N/A	90–120g	Kidney	10/10	>90 days	MDA
Quadri, et al. ⁴⁸	2018	Rats	Male	75 days old	N/A	Heart	6/6	30-90 days	TBARS, SOD, CAT
Ranjan, et al. ⁴⁹	2009	New Zealand white Rabbits	Male	4-6 weeks old	600–800 g	Liver, Kidney, Blood	6/6	90 days	LPO, SOD, CAT
Reddy, et al. ⁵⁰	2014	Rats	Male	4 months	150–200g	Brain, Blood	6/6	90 days	MDA, CAT, SOD, GPx
Shanthakumari, et al. ⁵¹	2004	Rats	Male	N/A	120–160 g	Liver, Kidney	6/6	>90 days	TBARS, SOD, CAT, GSH, GPx,
Shivarajashankara, et al. ⁵²	2002	Rats	N/A	Pups	N/A	Brain	15/9	30-90 days	MDA, GSH, GST, GSH-Px,
Zhan, et al. ⁵³	2005	Pigs	Male (barrows)	50-day-old	Appx 17 kg	Liver, Kidney, Blood	8/8	30-90 days	MDA, NO, SOD, CAT, GSH-Px
Zhang, et al. ⁵⁴	2013	Rats	Male	8-week-old	195–210 g	Kidney, Liver	6/6	30-90 days	MDA. SOD
Banala & Karnati ²⁶	2015	Rats	N/A	Pups	N/A	Brain, Blood	5/5	30-90 days	SOD, LPO
Bartos, et al. ⁵⁵	2018	Rats	Female	Pups	N/A	Brain	5/5	>90 days	MDA, CAT, GPx
Bo, et al. ⁵⁶	2018	Bufo gargarizans	N/A	larvae	N/A	Liver	3/3	< 30 days	SOD, GPx
Bouaziz, et al. ⁵⁷	2007	Mice	Female	Adult	N/A	Kidney, liver, blood	6/6	<30 days	SOD, GSH-Px, TBARS
Campos-Pereira, et al. ⁵⁸	2017	Rats	Male	Adult	180–200g	Liver	10/10	30-90 days	CAT, MDA, SOD, GST,
Cao, et al. ⁵⁹	2013	Cyprinus carpio	N/A	Juveniles	15.8 ± 0.24 g	Liver	18/18	90 days	MDA, SOD, GSH
Chen, et al. ⁶⁰	2015	Cyprinus carpio	N/A	Juveniles	15.8 ± 0.24 g	Kidney	18/18	90 days	MDA, SOD, GSH
Dec, et al. ⁶¹	2020	Rats	N/A	Pups	N/A	Brain	6/6	>90 days	CAT, SOD, GSH, GPx,
Gao, et al. ⁶²	2009	Rats	Male/Female	Young adult	90–120 g	Brain	8/8	>90 days	MDA
Inkielewicz-StępniaK & Knap ⁶³	2012	Rats	Male/Female	6 weeks old	Appx 220 g (M) & Appx 170 g (F)	Liver, Kidney	12/12	30-90 days	TBARS, NO, GSH
Kaur, et al. ⁶⁴	2009	Rats	Female	Adult	175–200g	Brain	8/8	30-90 days	MDA, SOD
Lu, et al. ⁶⁵	2017	Mice	N/A	4-week-old	N/A	Liver	8/8	30-90 days	GST, GSH-Px, CAT, SOD, ROS
Luo, et al. ⁶⁶	2017	Mice	N/A	4-week-old	N/A	Kidney	8/8	30-90 days	ROS, MDA, CAT, SOD, GSH, CAT, GSH-Px
Miranda, et al. ¹⁹	2018	Mice	Male	21 days	30±10 g	Blood	10/10	30-90 days	TBARS, NO, SOD, CAT, GSH

Song, et al. ⁶⁷	2013	Rats	Male/Female	21 days	120±5 g	Kidney	12/12	30-90 days	CAT, SOD, ROS
Wang, et al. ⁶⁸	2019	Bufo gargarizans	N/A	Gosner stage (Gs) 26 Larvae	N/A	Liver	3/3	30-90 days	SOD, GPx
Zhan, et al. ⁶⁹	2006	Pigs	Male (barrows)		Appx 17 kgs	Liver	8/8	30-90 days	MDA
Zhong, et al. ⁷⁰	2021	Rats	Male	3-weeks-old	N/A	Blood	10/10	>90 days	MDA
Vani & Reddy ⁷¹	2000	Mice	Female	Adult	30 ± 2 g	Brain	6/6	< 30 days	CAT, SOD, GST
Akinrinade, et al. ⁷²	2015	Rats	Male	Adult	180–250 g	Brain, Blood	5/5	< 30 days	SOD, MDA
Samir ⁷³	2017	Rats	Female	Adults	180–230 g	Liver	4/4	30-90 days	MDA, GSH, GST
Flora, et al. ⁷⁴	2011	Rats	Male	Adults	180–200 g	Blood	5/5	N/A	ROS, GSH
Chattopadhyay, et al. ⁷⁵	2011	Mice	Male	8-week-old	25–30 g	Liver, Kidney	5/5	90 days	MDA, GST, GSH
Mukhopadhyay, et al ⁷⁶	2015	Zebrafish	Female	Adult	0.7 ± 0.01 g	Liver	30/30	90 days	ROS, GSH, MDA, CAT, SOD, GST
Bartos, et al ⁷⁷	2019	Rats	Male	Pups	N/A	Brain	5/5	30-90 days	CAT, GPx, MDA
Baba, et al ⁷⁸	2016	Rats	N/A	N/A	175 ± 25 g	Kidney	6/6	< 30 days	CAT, SOD, GSH-Px, MDA
Mondal, et al ⁷⁹	2021	Zebrafish	Female	N/A	0.25–0.30 g	Brain	30/30	30-90 days	CAT, GSH, MDA
Zhou, et al. ⁸⁰	2015	Mice	Female	3-weeks old	N/A	Blood/Liver	36/36	30-90 days	ROS, SOD, GSH-Px, MDA, CAT
Inkielewicz & Czarnowski. ⁸¹	2010	Rats	Male	6-weeks old	Appx 180 g	Blood, Brain, Kidney, Liver	6/6	< 30 days	TBARS
Khan, et al. ⁸²	2022	Rats	Female	3-month-old	140±20 g	Liver	5/5	90 days	NO, LPO, GSH
Sharma, et al. ⁸³	2022	Rats	Male	12–14 weeks	175–200 g	Blood, Brain	6/6	>90 days	GSH, SOD, CAT, GPx
Dong, et al. ⁸⁴	2020	Rats	Male	Pups	200–250 g	Liver	6/6	>90 days	MDA, CAT, GST
Tian, et al. ⁸⁵	2019	Rats	Male	Pups	200–250 g	Kidney	6/6	>90 days	GSH, GSH-Px, CAT, SOD, MDA
Morales-González, et al. ⁸⁶	2010	Rats	Male	N/A	240 ± 7 g	Blood	5/5	30-90 days	MDA, SOD, GSH-Px, CAT

SOD:superoxide dismutase; GPx/GSH-Px: glutathione peroxidase; CAT: catalase; GST: glutathione-s-transferase; GSH: glutathione ROS: reactive oxygen species; LPO: lipid peroxidation; MDA: malondialdehyde; TBARS: thiobarbituric acid reactive substances; NO: nitric oxide.

N.B: Total number of study animals was used in studies that did not report number of animals for each experiment.

RESULTS

Study Identification and Selection

We systematically identified a total of 619 articles using electronic databases (PubMed = 451, Cochrane Library = 2, EBSCO = 91, and JSTOR = 75) of which 614 were retrieved after deduplication. An additional 8 articles were identified through a manual

search. Title and abstract screening excluded 531 articles. A full-text evaluation was conducted for the remaining 91 articles, and 29 articles were excluded for not fulfilling the inclusion criteria. Thus, 62 eligible studies were selected (Figure 1). The studies presented a high prevalence of rodents as laboratory animals, (52 out of 62). The characteristics of the animals and study design differed substantially among the studies.

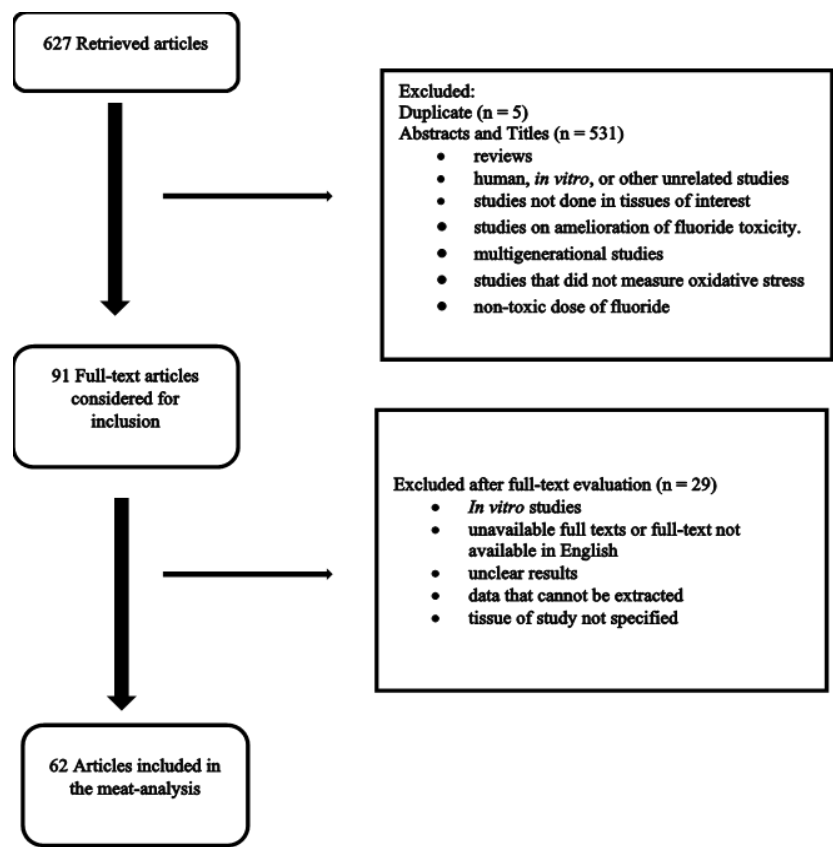


Figure 1. Flow chart of the literature search.

Risk of bias and quality of included studies

The risk of bias is categorized as high, low, or unclear. The majority of the studies presented a high number of unclear scores, indicating incomplete information related to the study design, resulting in difficulty accessing the actual risk of bias and not fully reproducible experimental protocols. The general result of the risk of bias assessment of this systematic review is presented in Figure 2. Concerning selection bias, 74.2% of the included studies reported randomization of the experimental units but the information provided

was insufficient to assess whether the allocation sequence was adequately generated or adequately concealed. In 90.3% of the studies, the groups were similar at baseline with 9.7% presenting insufficient information. Additionally, 95.1%, and 100%, of the included studies registered unclear risk of bias regarding performance bias items “random housing” and “blinding” with 85.5% and 100% categorized as having unclear risk of bias regarding detection bias “random outcome assessment” and “blinding” respectively. Regarding the attrition bias, 75.8% had all the animals included in the study while 24.2% had insufficient information. All studies were free of reporting bias and 25.8% registered a low risk of bias from other sources.

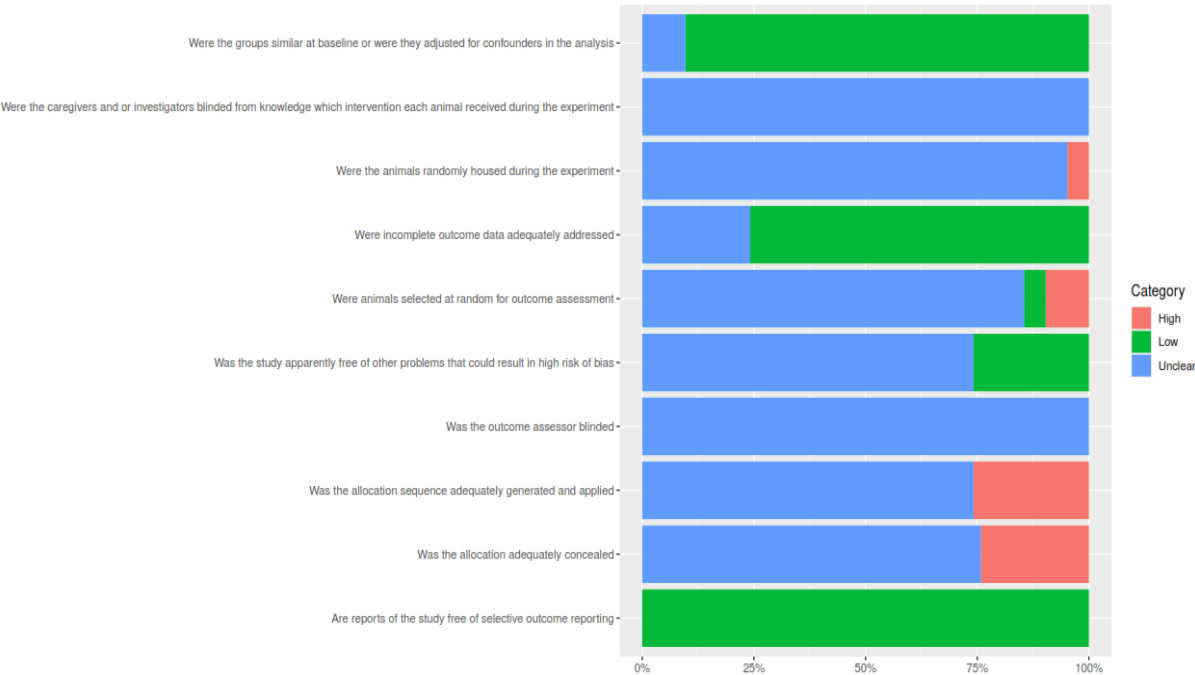


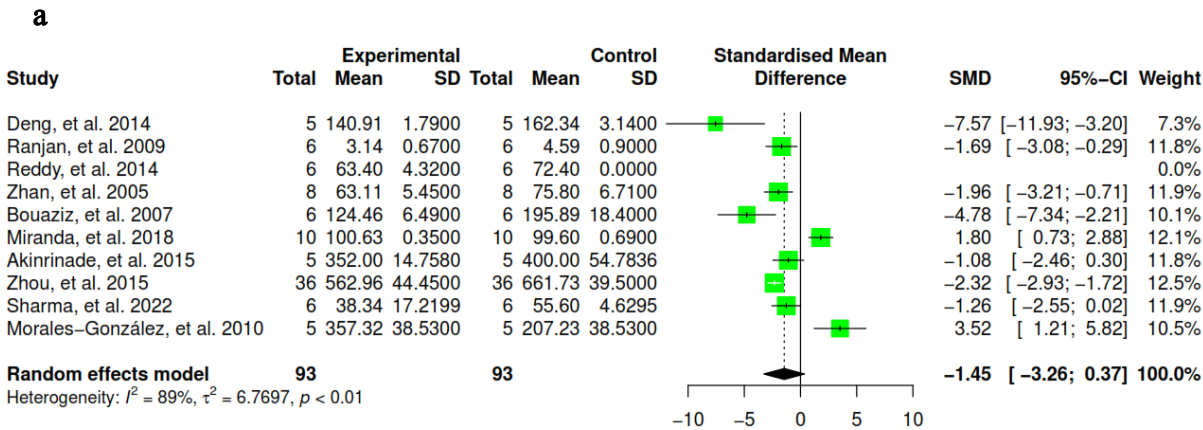
Figure 2. Risk of bias, average per item.

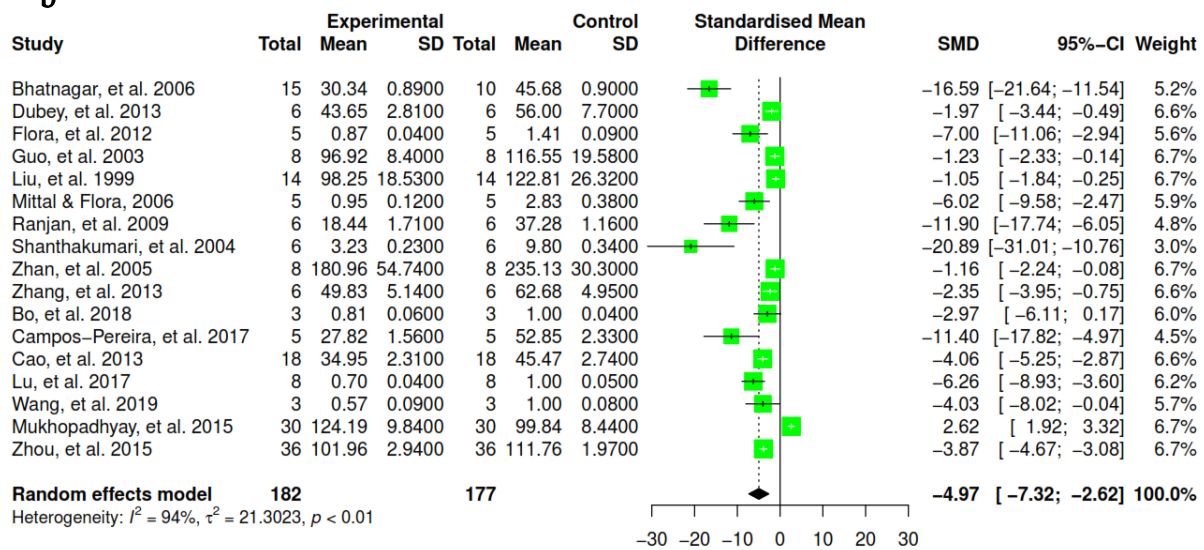
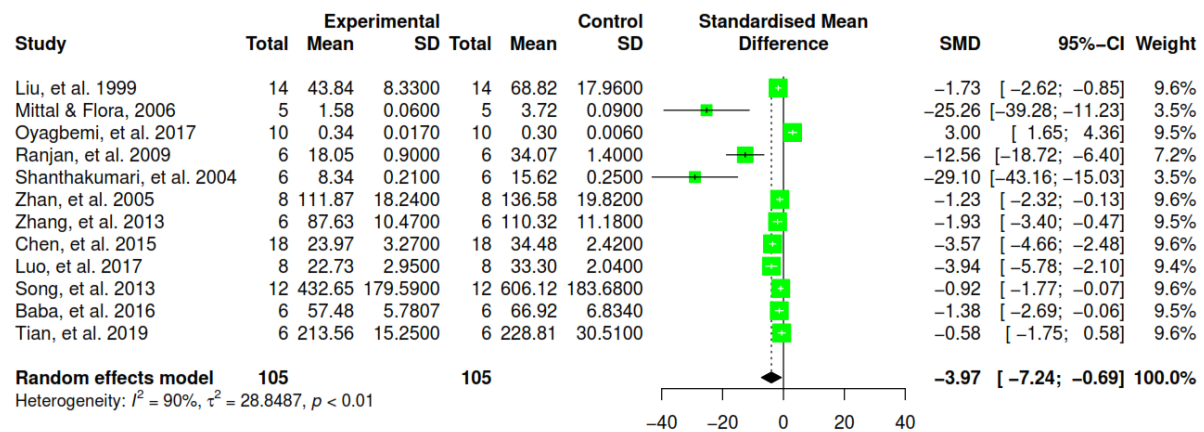
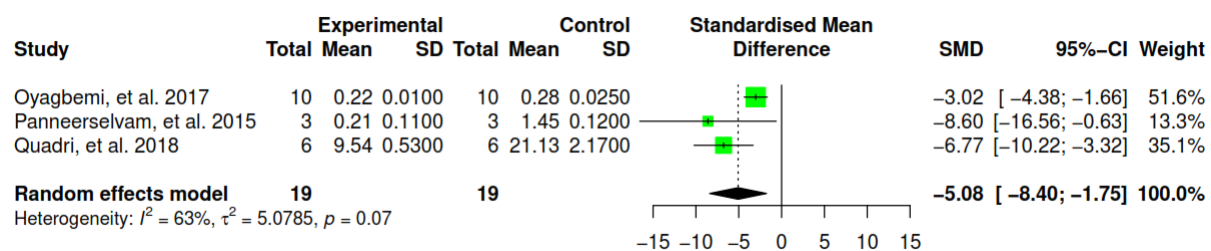
Meta-analysis of oxidative stress biomarkers

Meta-analysis of Superoxide Dismutase (SOD)

The overall effect size of SOD in the non-skeletal tissues was -4.2117 (95% CI: -5.4626; -2.9607, Z= -6.60, *p* < 0.0001) showing that the level of SOD was significantly lower in the treatment group compared to the controls. The statistical heterogeneity was notable (*I*² = 92%, *p* < 0.0001). More specifically, the effect sizes for SOD in blood, liver, kidney, heart, and brain were -1.4491(95% CI: -3.2640; 0.3657, Z= -1.56, *P*= 0.1176; *I*²= 89%, *P*< 0.0001) -4.9682 (95% CI: -7.3196; -2.6169, Z =-

4.14, *P* < 0.0001; *I*²= 94%, *P*< 0.0001), -3.9651 (95% CI: -7.2393; -0.6909, Z -2.37, *P*= 0.0176; *I*²= 90%, *P*< 0.0001), -5.0754 (95% CI: -8.3959; -1.7549, Z= -3, *P*= 0.0027; *I*²= 63%, *P*= 0.0655), and -5.9072 (95% CI: -8.8593; -2.9551, Z= -3.92, *P* < 0.0001; *I*²= 88%, *P*< 0.0001) respectively (Figure 3a-e). A visual inspection of the funnel plot showed asymmetry (Figure 3f). Egger's regression analysis displayed evidence of publication bias for this marker (Intercept -3.2373, *t* = -4.67, *p*-value < 0.0001). The exclusion of studies with a high risk of bias in any of the entries^{24,26,35,40,41,49–51,56,58,64,80,83} yielded similar results and publication bias (SMD= -2.7346, 95%CI: -3.8546; -1.6146, Z = -4.79, *P*< 0.0001; *I*²= 91%, *p* < 0.0001; Egger's regression intercept -3.5527, *t* = -3.50, *p*-value = 0.0014).



b**c****d**

e

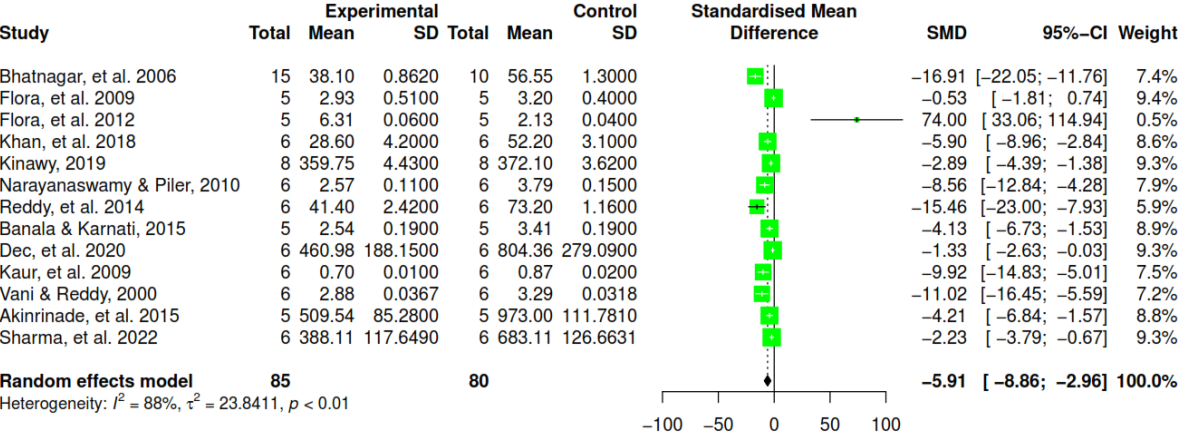


Figure 3. Forest plots for SOD meta-analysis: (a) Blood; (b) Liver; (c) Kidney; (d) Heart; (e) Brain.

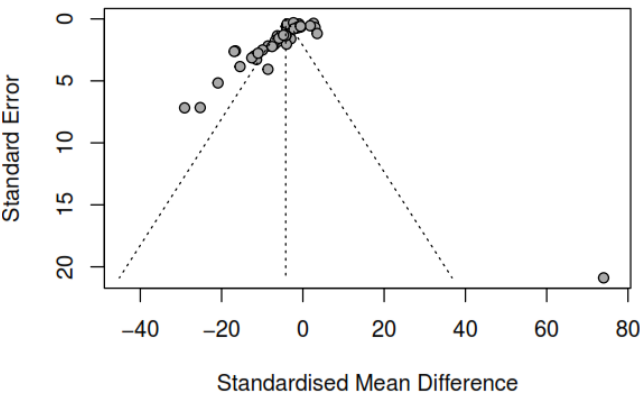
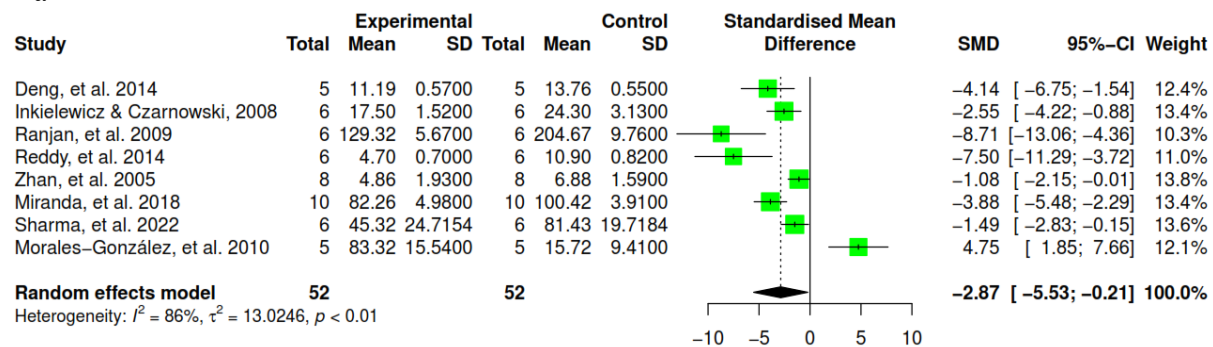
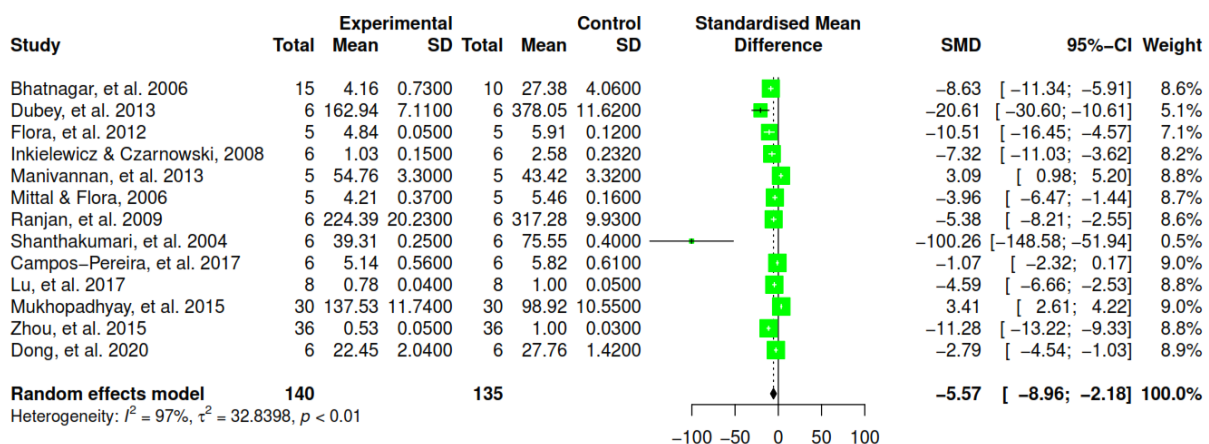
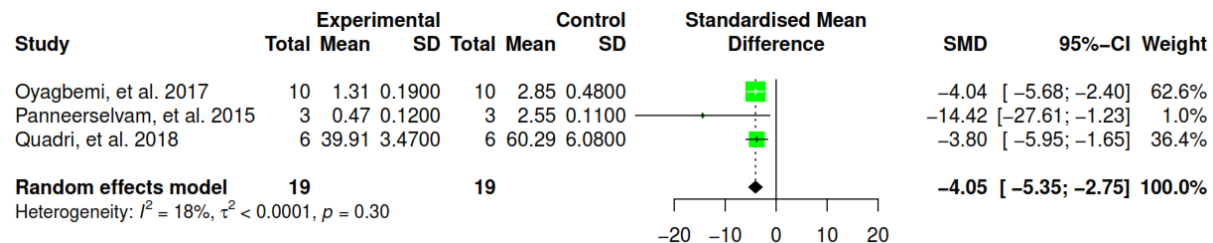
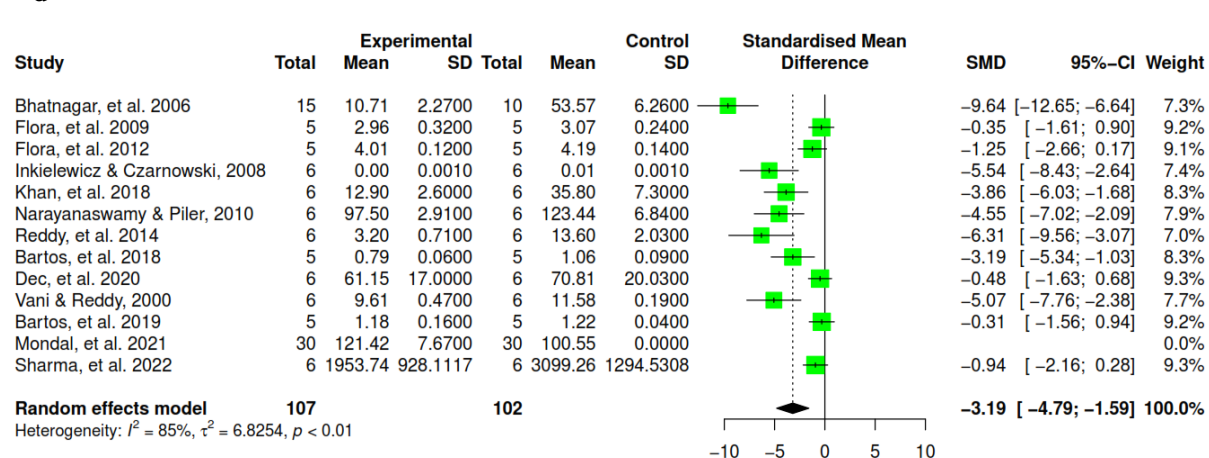


Figure 3f. SOD Funnel plot.

Meta- Meta-analysis of catalase (CAT)

The levels of CAT in non-skeletal tissues of experimental animals were remarkably lower than in the controls (SMD = -3.5470, 95% CI: -4.7155; -2.3786, $Z = -5.95$, $p < 0.000$). The statistical heterogeneity was high ($I^2 = 92\%$, $P < 0.0001$). The effect sizes of CAT in blood (SMD = -2.8730, 95% CI: -5.5312; -0.2148, $Z = -2.12$, $p = 0.034$; $I^2 = 86\%$, $p < 0.0001$), liver (SMD = -5.5689, 95% CI: -8.9565; -2.1813, $Z = -3.22$, $p = 0.0013$; $I^2 = 97\%$, $p < 0.0001$), heart (SMD = -4.0529, 95% CI: -5.3520; -2.7539, $Z = -6.11$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 18\%$, $p = 0.2972$) and brain (SMD = -3.1932, 95% CI: -4.7950; -1.5915, $Z = -3.91$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 85\%$, $p < 0.0001$) were also statistically significant (Figure 4a-d). The pooled

effect size for kidney CAT (SMD = -2.1930, 95% CI: -4.4329; 0.0469, $Z = -1.92$, $p = 0.0550$; $I^2 = 90\%$, $p < 0.0001$) was however not significant (Figure 4e). The funnel plot was asymmetrical (Figure 4f) and an Egger's test was performed to detect publication bias and the results indicated the presence of publication bias (Egger's regression intercept -5.3276, $t = -5.77$, p -value < 0.0001). A sensitivity analysis with a random effect model was performed to calculate the pooled estimate of the effect after the exclusion of the studies with a high risk of bias^{24,37,38,49-51,58,77,80,83,85,86}, which showed no substantial variation of the results (SMD = -2.8297, 95% CI: -4.0840; -1.5754, $Z = -4.42$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 92\%$, $p < 0.0001$; Egger's regression intercept -5.8654, $t = -4.66$, p -value = 0.0001).

a**b****c****d**

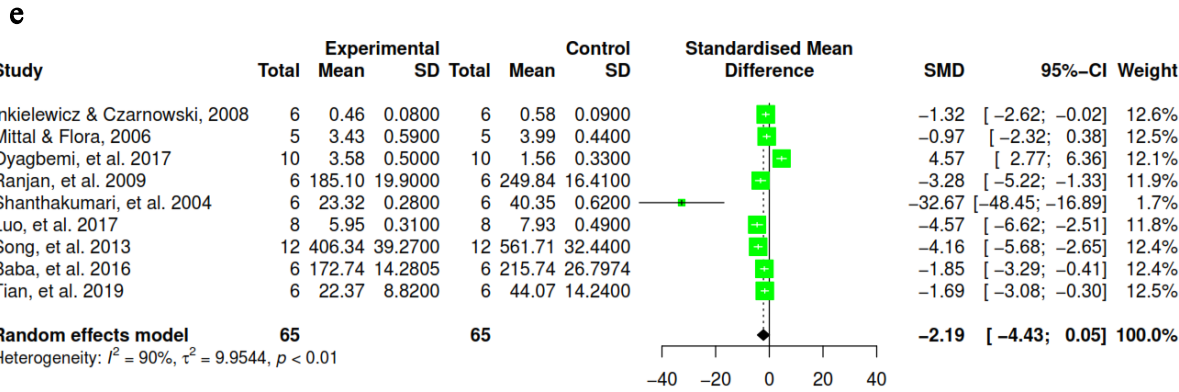


Figure 4. Forest plots for CAT meta-analysis: (a) Blood; (b) Liver; (c) Heart; (d) Brain; (e) Kidney

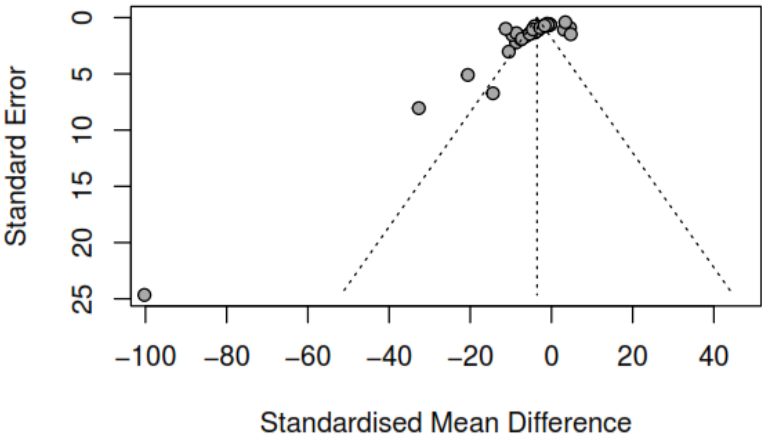


Figure 4f. CAT Funnel plot.

Meta-analysis of glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px)

The overall effect size for GSH-Px in non-skeletal tissues was -2.5319 (95% CI: -3.9412; -1.1226, $Z = -3.52$, $p = 0.0004$) indicating that the levels of GSH-Px were significantly lower in the treatment groups compared to the controls. High heterogeneity of the studies was observed ($I^2 = 86\%$, $p < 0.0001$). Statistically significant results were also seen in the meta-analysis of the articles reporting GSH-Px levels in the blood (SMD = -3.3938, 95% CI: -6.5339; -0.2538, $Z = -2.12$, $p = 0.0341$; $I^2 = 88\%$, $p < 0.0001$), liver (SMD = -2.6349, 95% CI: -3.9062; -1.3636, $Z = 4.06$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 76\%$, $p < 0.0001$), kidney (SMD = -1.7080, 95% CI: -2.6243; -0.7917, $Z = -3.65$, $p = 0.0003$; $I^2 = 75\%$, $p = 0.0003$), and heart (SMD = -5.6537, 95% CI: -10.7131; -0.5942, $Z = -2.19$, $p = 0.0285$; $I^2 = 89\%$, $p = 0.0001$). No significant change in GSH-Px was seen in the brain (SMD = -0.0574, 95% CI: -5.3120; 5.1972, $Z = -0.02$, $p = 0.9829$; $I^2 = 91\%$, $p < 0.0001$) (Figure 5a-e). The Egger's test for asymmetry

of the funnel plot showed evidence of publication bias (Egger's regression intercept -1.2193, $t = -1.42$, $p = 0.1634$). The funnel plot is presented in Figure 5f. The effect size was -2.9586 (95% CI: -4.6038; -1.3135, $Z = -3.52$, $p = 0.0004$; $I^2 = 85\%$, $p < 0.0001$), and Egger's regression (intercept -3.6063, $t = -3.56$, $p = 0.0022$) after excluding articles with a high risk of bias.^{35,37,41,50-52,56,77,80,83,85,86}

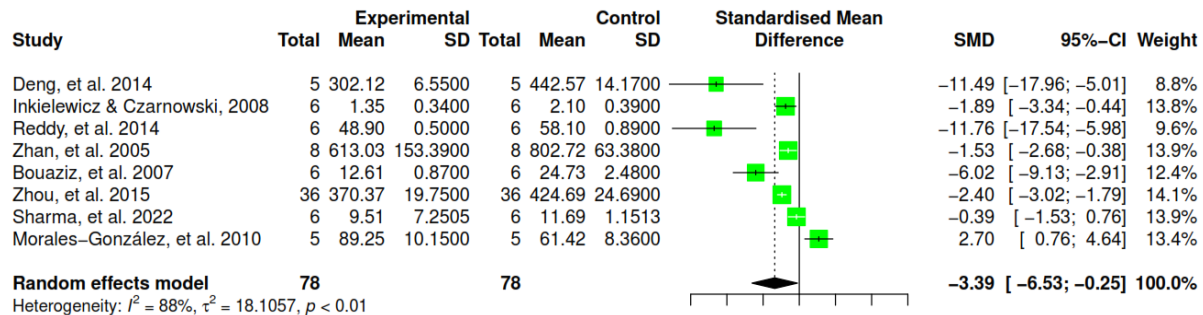
Meta-analysis of Glutathione (GSH)

The level of GSH was significantly lower in non-skeletal tissues of animals treated with fluoride compared to the controls (SMD = -3.2790, 95% CI: -3.9433; -2.6147, $Z = -9.67$, $p < 0.0001$). The heterogeneity was found to be high ($I^2 = 76\%$, $p < 0.0001$). The level of GSH in blood (SMD = -4.6776, 95% CI: -6.3518; -3.0034, $Z = -5.48$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 73\%$, $p = 0.0003$), liver (SMD = -2.61, 95% CI: -3.7148; -1.5052, $Z = -4.63$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 80\%$, $p < 0.0001$), kidney (SMD = -3.4747, 95% CI: -4.7208; -2.2285, $Z = -5.46$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 79\%$, $p < 0.0001$), heart (SMD = -3.9344, 95% CI: -7.6808; -0.1881, $Z = -2.06$, $p = 0.0396$; $I^2 = 80\%$, $p = 0.0253$), and brain (SMD = -1.6222, 95% CI: -2.7999; -

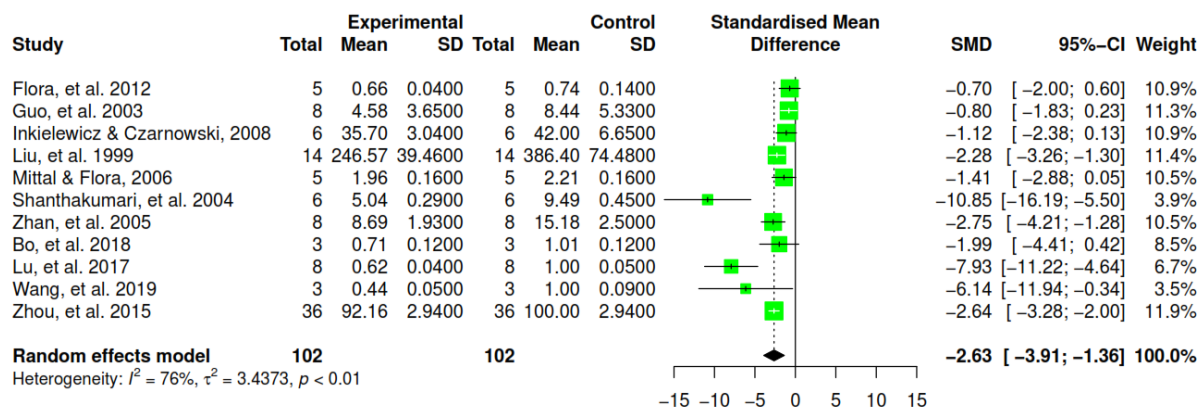
0.4445, $Z = -2.70$, $p = 0.0069$; $I^2 = 71\%$, $p = 0.0156$) of animals treated with fluoride compared to the control was found to be significantly lower (Figure 6a-e). The Egger's test for asymmetry of the funnel plot showed evidence of publication bias (Egger's regression intercept -3.0807 , $t = -4.52$, $p < 0.0001$).

The funnel plot is presented in Figure 6f. A sensitivity analysis was performed by the exclusion of studies with a high risk of bias^{36-38,40,51,52,63,73,79,83,85} which showed similar results (SMD = -3.6340 , 95% CI: -4.6631 ; -2.6050 , $Z = -6.92$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 82\%$, $p < 0.0001$; Egger's regression intercept -2.9614 , $t = -2.89$, $p = 0.0101$).

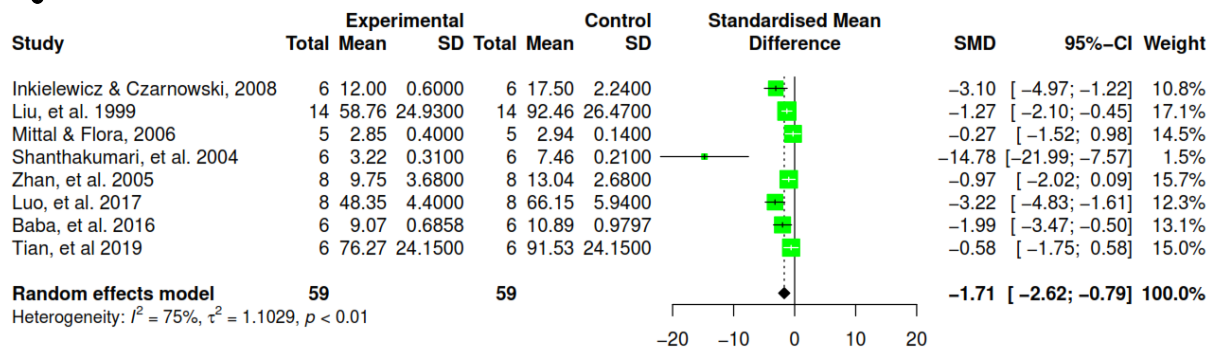
a



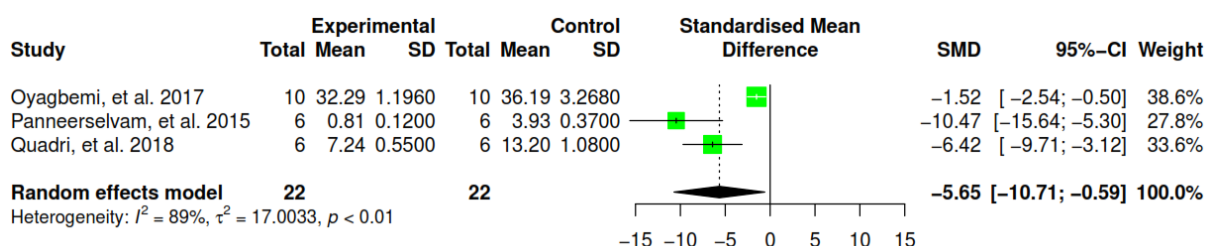
b



c



d



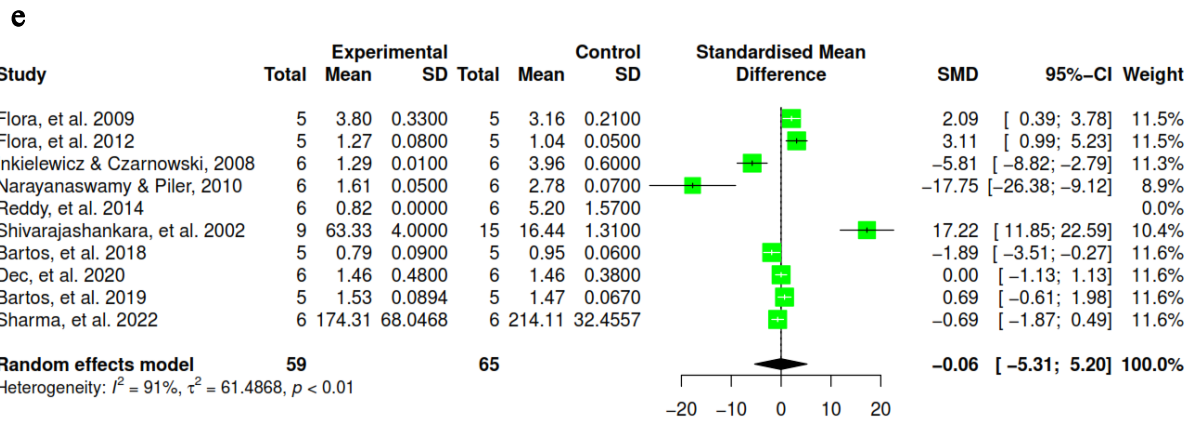


Figure 5. Forest plots for GSH-Px meta-analysis: (a) Blood; (b) Liver; (c) Kidney; (d) Heart; (e) Brain.

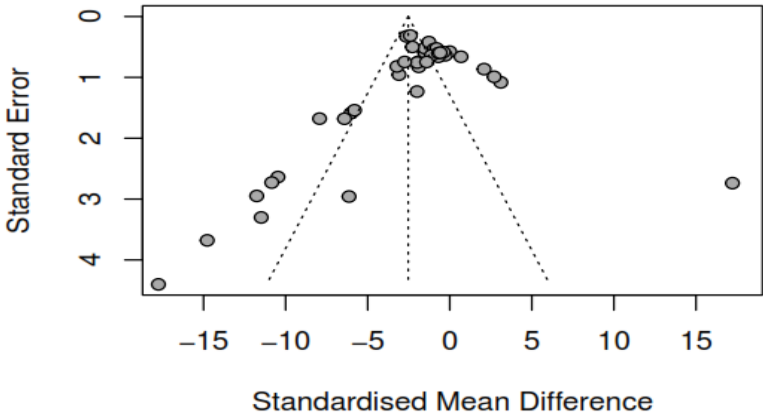
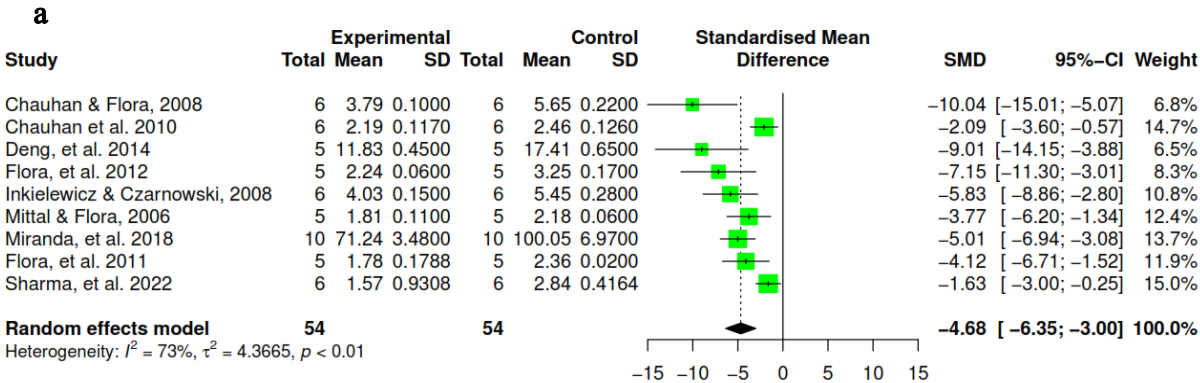
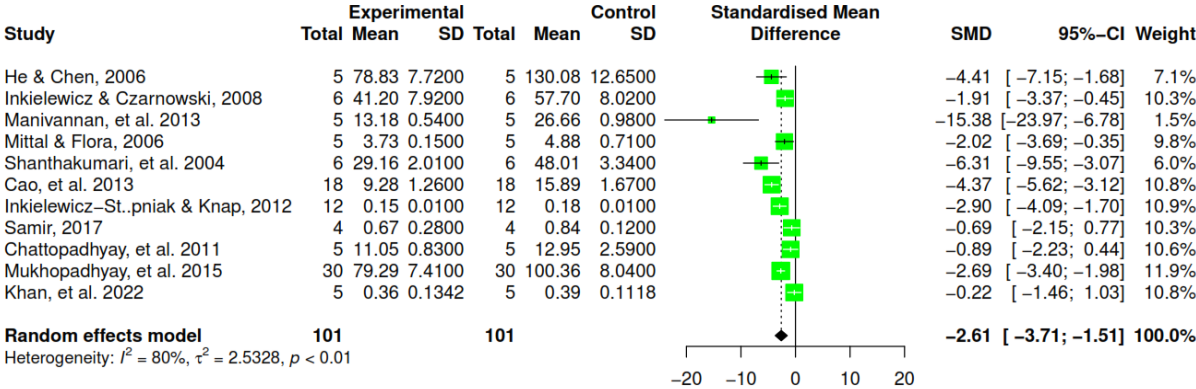


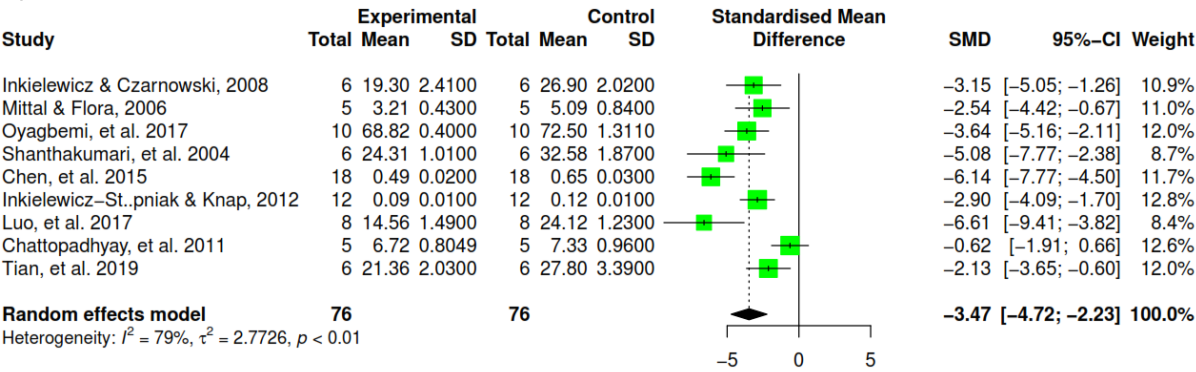
Figure 5f. GSH-Px Funnel plot.



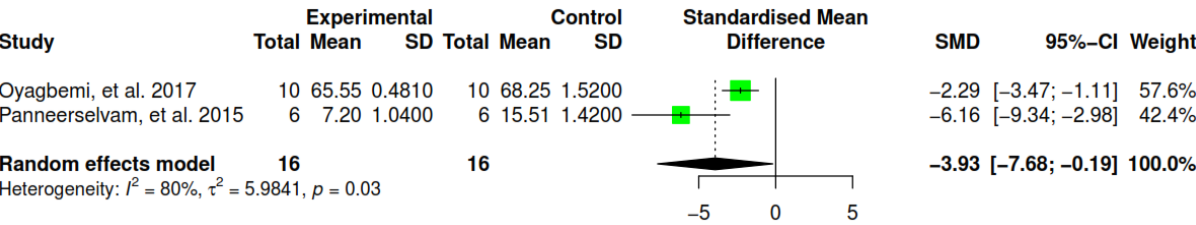
b



c



d



e

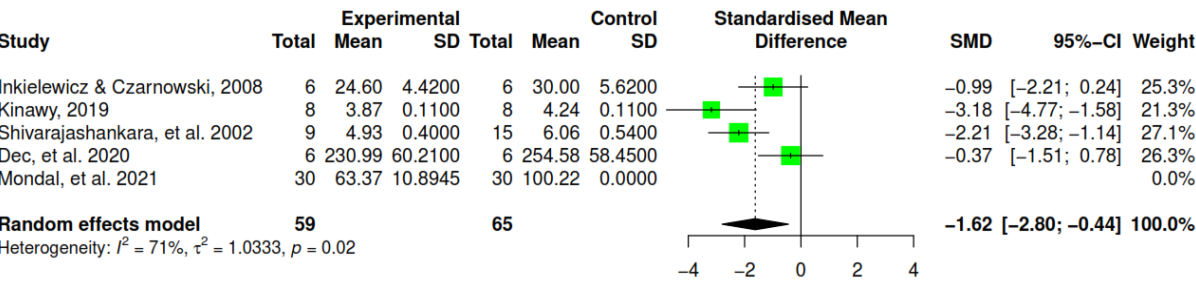


Figure 6. Forest plots for GSH meta-analysis: (a) Blood; (b) Liver; (c) Kidney; (d) Heart; (e) Brain.

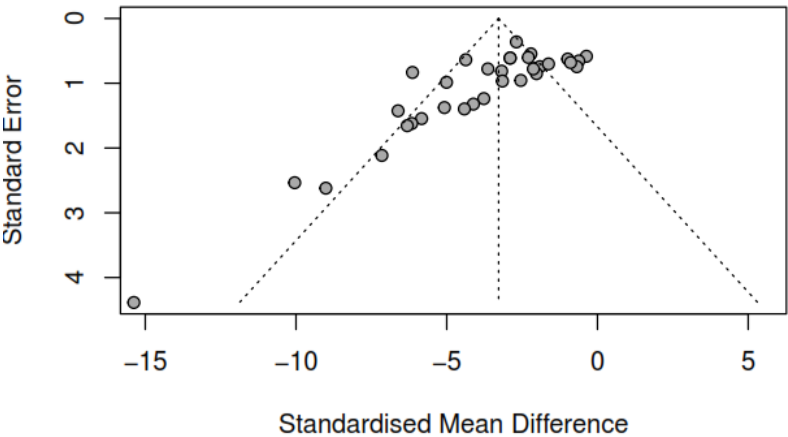


Figure 6f. GSH Funnel plot.

Meta-analysis of glutathione S-transferase (GST)

The difference in the levels of GST between the treatment groups and the controls was non-significant (SMD = -1.5579, 95% CI: -4.1415; 1.0257, $Z = -1.18$, $p = 0.2373$). Significant heterogeneity was found ($I^2 = 94\%$, $p < 0.0001$). Similarly, results from the analysis of the level of GST in individual tissues was found to be non-significant: liver (SMD = -2.8939, 95% CI: -7.0783; 1.2906, $Z = -1.36$, $p = 0.1753$; $I^2 = 95\%$, $p < 0.0001$), kidney (SMD = -1.7370, 95% CI: -4.3792; 0.9052, $Z = -1.29$, $p = 0.1976$; $I^2 = 88\%$, $p = 0.0047$) and brain (SMD = 0.6964, 95% CI: -3.8534; 5.2463, $Z = 0.30$, $p = 0.7642$; I^2

= 89%, $p < 0.0001$) (Figure 7a-c). No studies measured GST in blood and heart. A visual inspection of the funnel plot showed asymmetry (Figure 7d) with evidence of publication bias on Egger's regression test (Egger's regression intercept -5.2524, $t = -2.25$, $p = 0.0439$). The significance of the results did not change after a sensitivity analysis was done with the exclusion of the studies with a high risk of bias^{38,52,58,73} (SMD = -1.2318, 95% CI: -4.4643; 2.0008, $Z = -0.75$, $p = 0.4552$; $I^2 = 95.2\%$, $p < 0.0001$). However, Egger's regression test showed no evidence of publication bias (Egger's regression intercept -5.4283, $t = -1.52$, $p = 0.1665$).

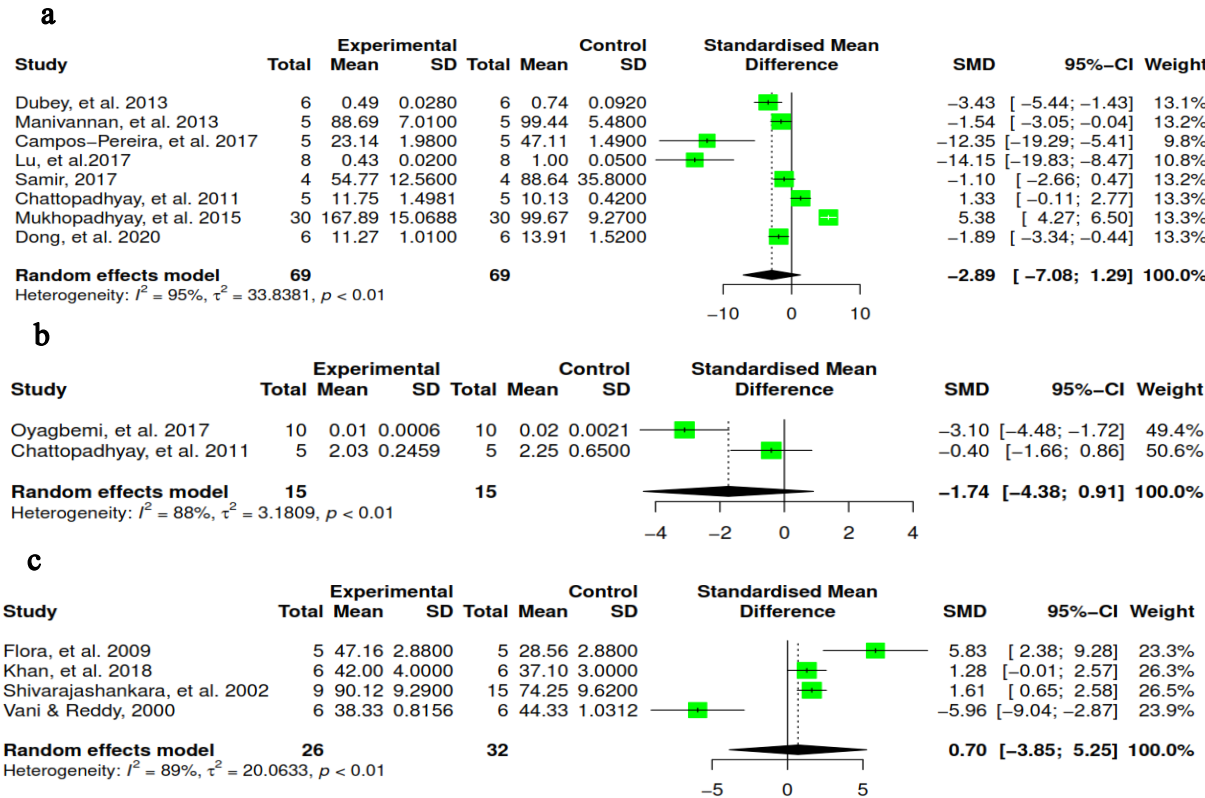


Figure 7. Forest plots for GST meta-analysis: (a) Liver; (b) Kidney; (c) Brain.

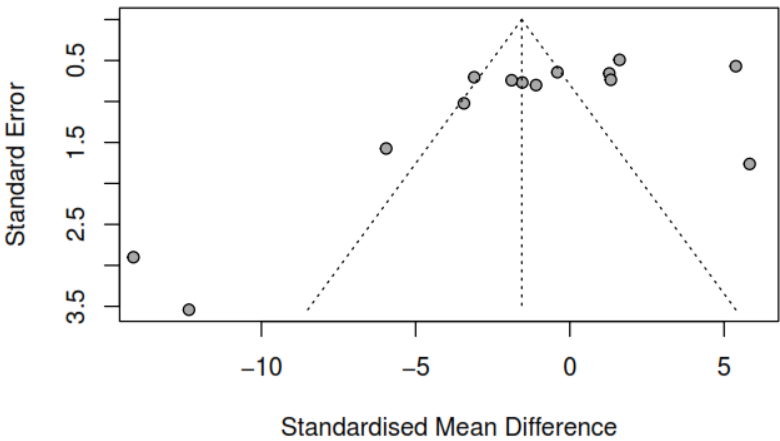


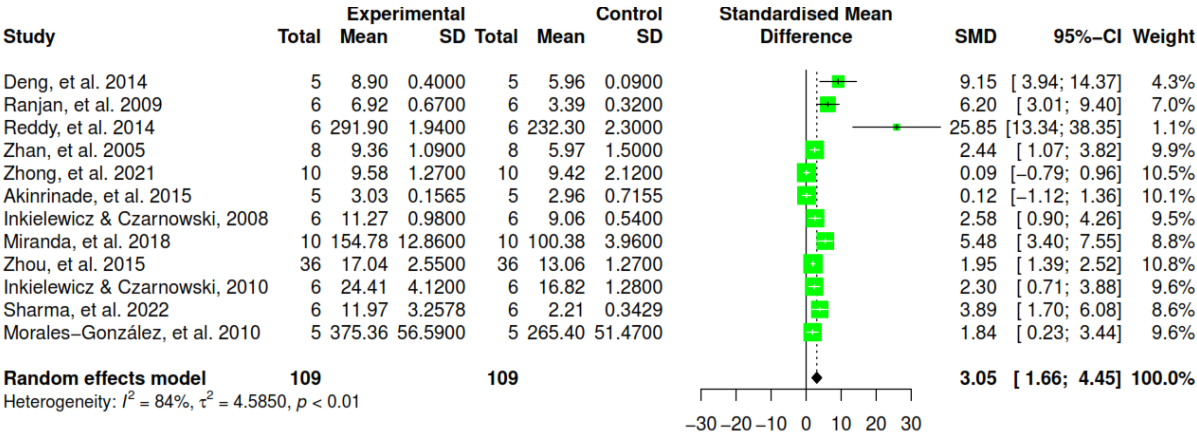
Figure 7d. GST Funnel plot.

Meta-analysis of Lipid peroxidation (LPO)

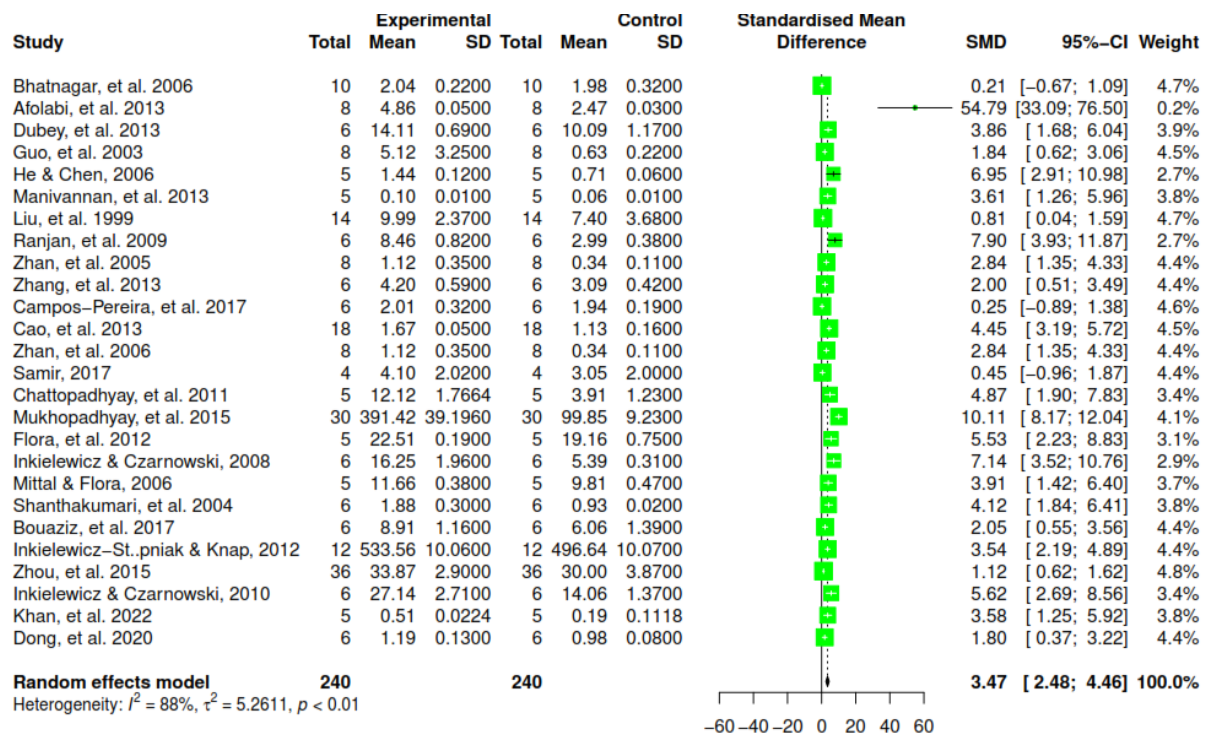
The LPO levels in non-skeletal tissues of experimental animals were significantly higher compared to the controls (SMD = 3.4165, 95% CI: 2.8569; 3.9761, $Z = 11.97$, $p < 0.0001$). High statistical heterogeneity was found ($I^2 = 85\%$, $p < 0.0001$). Meta-analysis of levels of LPO in individual tissues was also significant, blood (SMD = 3.0534, 95% CI: 1.6614; 4.4454, $Z = 4.30$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 84\%$, $p < 0.0001$), liver (SMD = 3.4668, 95% CI: 2.4776; 4.4560, $Z = 6.87$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 88\%$, $p < 0.0001$), kidney (SMD = 2.9527, 95% CI: 2.0353; 3.8700, $Z = 6.31$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 81\%$, $p <$

0.0001), heart (SMD = 4.8766, 95% CI: 1.3816; 8.3715, $Z = 2.73$, $p = 0.0062$; $I^2 = 87\%$, $p = 0.0006$), and brain (SMD = 4.0750, 95% CI: 2.5517; 5.5984, $Z = 5.24$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 84\%$, $p < 0.0001$) (Figure 8a-e). The funnel plot showed evidence of publication bias (Figure 8f) which was confirmed by Egger's regression analysis (Egger's regression intercept 3.9938, $t = 10.22$, $p < 0.0001$). The pooled estimate of the effect did not vary substantially with the exclusion of the studies with a high risk of bias^{24,26,35-38,40,41,49-52,58,63,64,73,77,79,80,83,85,86} (SMD = 3.5875, 95% CI: 2.8567; 4.3183, $Z = 9.62$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 89\%$, $p < 0.0001$; Egger's regression intercept 5.2682, $t = 7.77$, $p < 0.0001$).

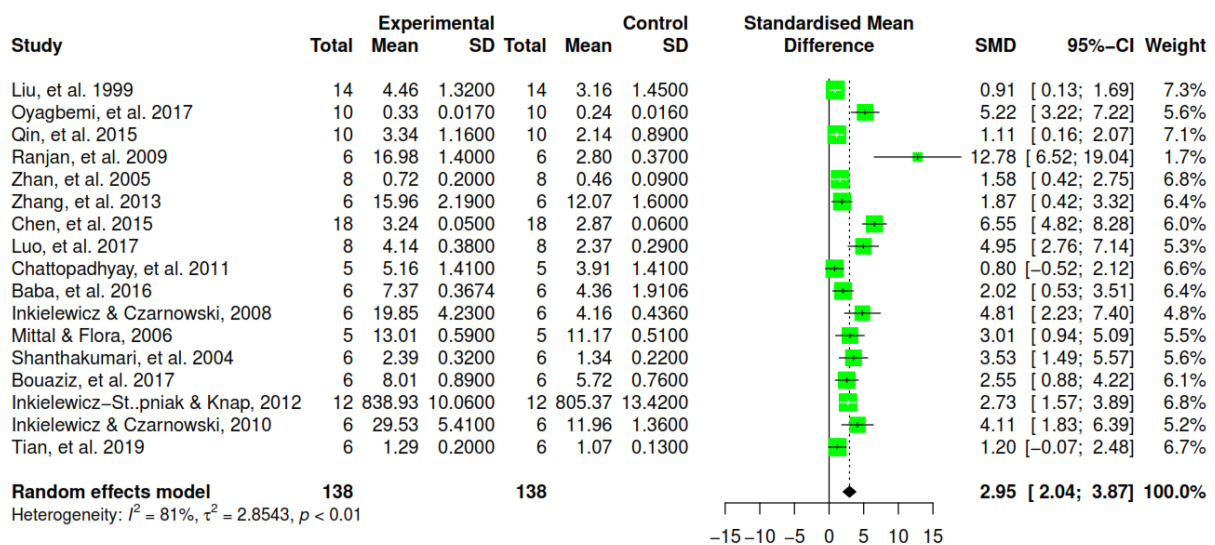
a



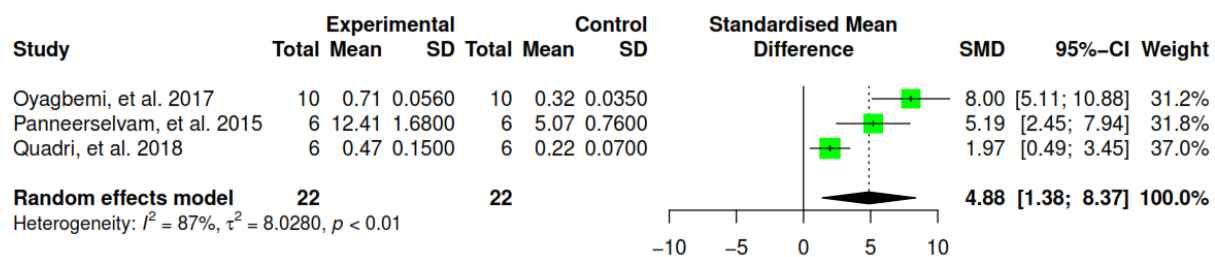
b



c



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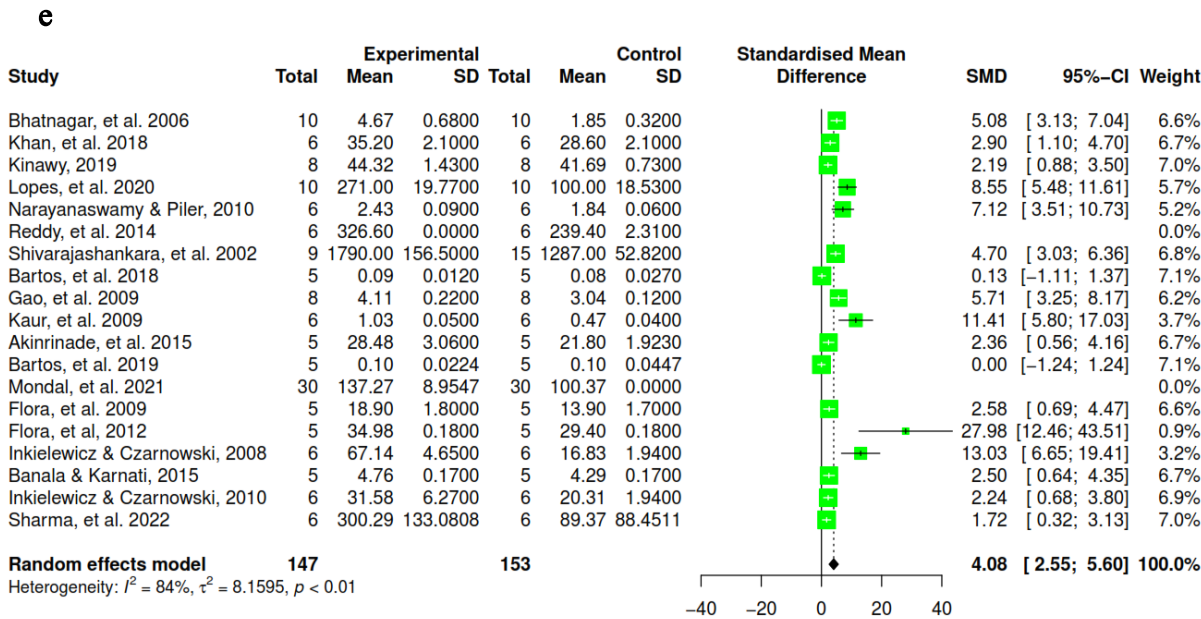


Figure 8. Forest plots for LPO meta-analysis: (a) Blood; (b) Liver; (c) Kidney; (d) Heart; (e) Brain.

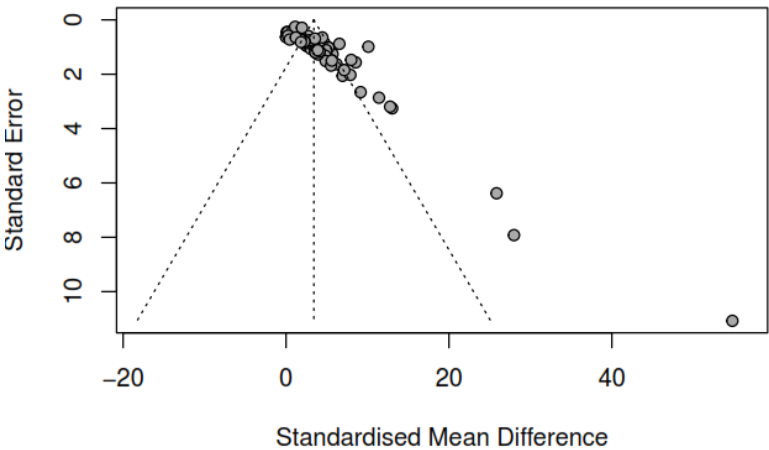


Figure 8f. LPO Funnel plot.

Meta-analysis of Lipid peroxidation (ROS)

The results on ROS indicate a statistically significant increase in the levels of ROS in the non-skeletal tissues of experimental animals as compared to the controls (SMD = 4.5185 (95% CI: 3.1926; 5.8444, Z = 6.68, $p < 0.0001$). The heterogeneity of the included studies was high ($I^2 = 86\%$, $p < 0.0001$). Only one study included in the meta-analysis reported the levels of ROS in the heart. A meta-analysis of the studies on ROS in the blood (SMD = 4.9560, 95% CI: 2.5505; 7.3616, Z = 4.04, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 78\%$, $p = 0.0004$), liver (SMD = 5.0346, 95% CI: 1.4152; 8.6540, Z = 2.73, $p = 0.0064$; $I^2 = 92\%$, $p < 0.0001$), kidney (SMD = 6.2111, 95% CI: 3.8443; 8.5780, Z = 5.14, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 60\%$, $p = 0.057$), and

brain (SMD = 2.3064, 95% CI: 0.04871; 4.1256, Z = 2.48, $p = 0.0130$; $I^2 = 79\%$, $p = 0.0028$) was statistically significant (Figure 9a-d). The funnel plot was asymmetrical (Figure 9e) and the publication bias evaluated through Egger's test showed statistically significant evidence of publication bias (Egger's regression intercept 2.9315, $t = 3.27$, $p = 0.004$). The results were unchanged after the exclusion of two studies with a high risk of bias^{36,80} (SMD = 4.6235, 95% CI: 3.1309; 6.1162, Z = 6.07, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 87\%$, $p < 0.0001$; Egger's regression intercept 4.0824, $t = 4.14$, $p = 0.0007$).

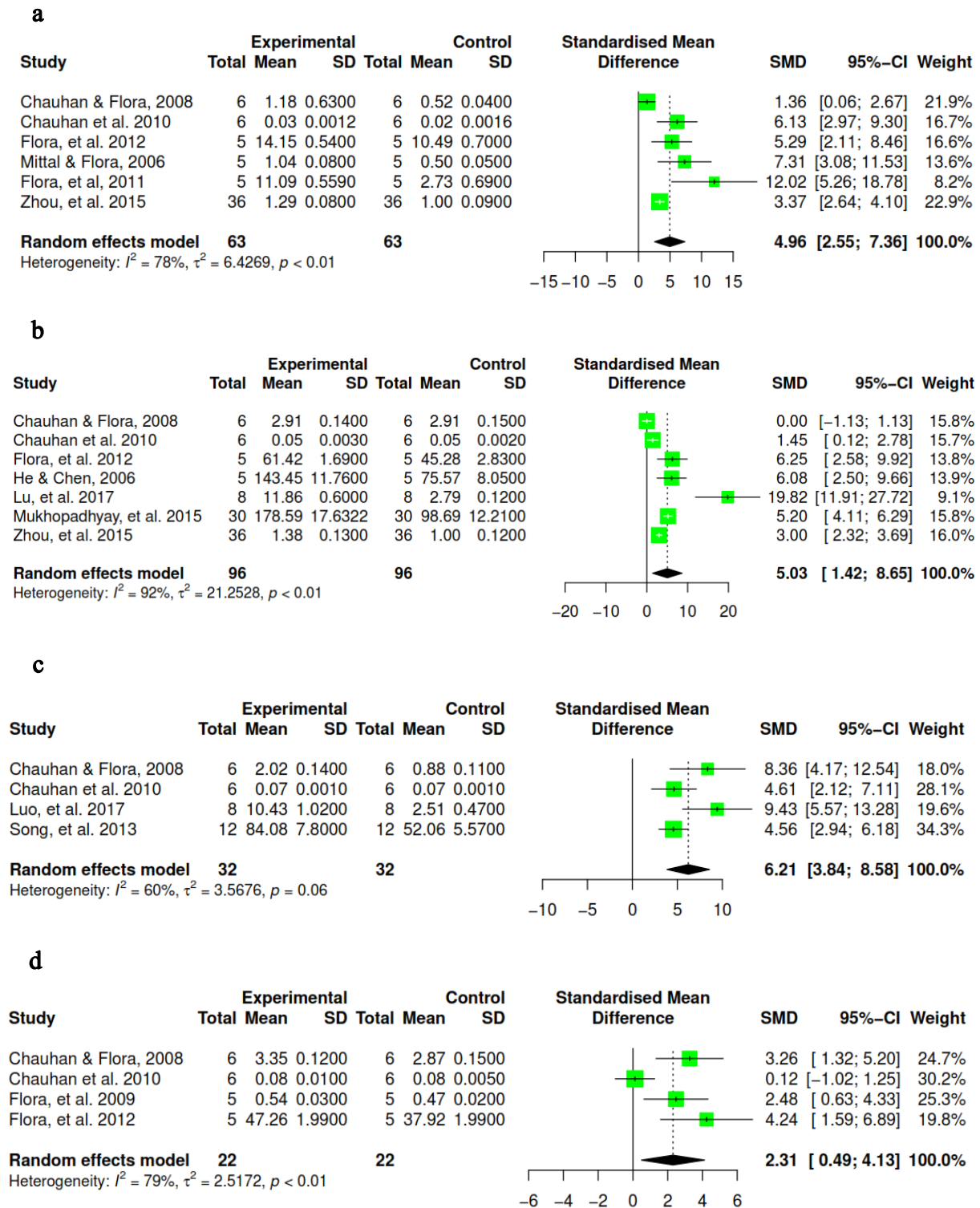


Figure 9. Forest plots for ROS meta-analysis: (a) Blood; (b) Liver; (c) Kidney; (d) Brain.

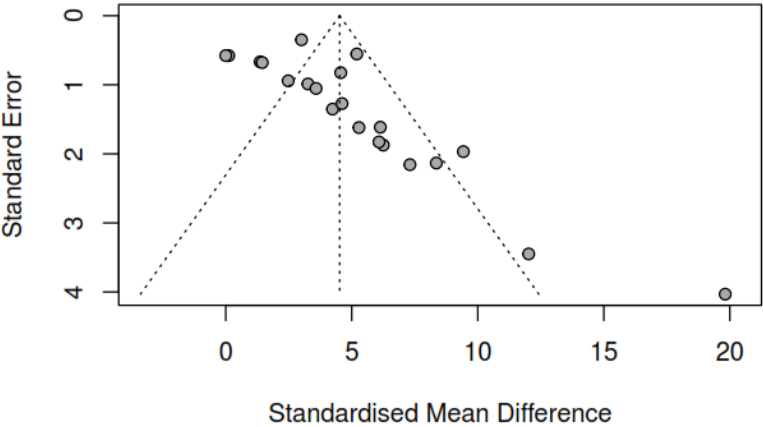
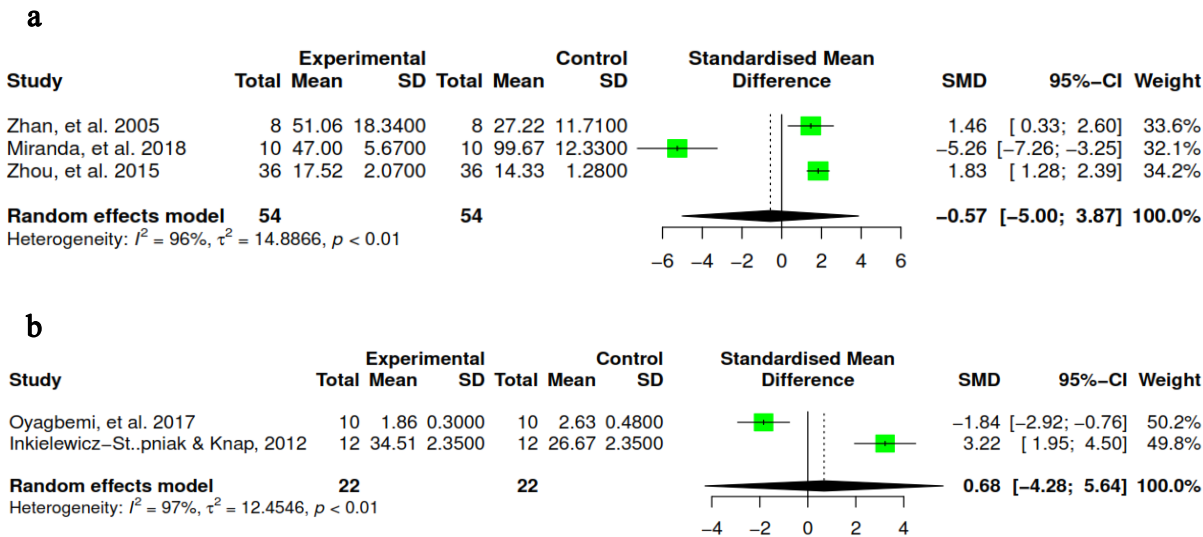


Figure 9e. ROS Funnel plot.

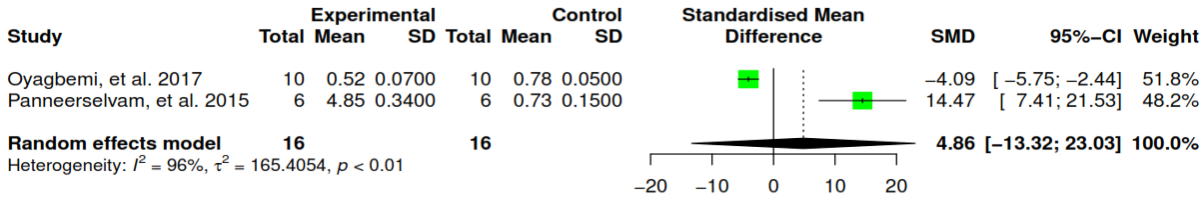
Meta-analysis of Nitric Oxide (NO)

NO level was found to be significantly higher in non-skeletal tissues of experimental animals treated with fluoride compared to the controls (SMD = 3.1115, 95% CI: 0.0142; 6.2087, $Z = 1.97$, $p = 0.049$). High heterogeneity was found among the studies measuring NO ($I^2 = 95\%$, $p < 0.0001$). The NO level in the blood (SMD = -0.5690, 95% CI: -5.0046; 3.8666, $Z = -0.25$, $p = 0.8015$; $I^2 = 96\%$, $p < 0.0001$), kidney (SMD = 0.6776, 95% CI: -4.2842; 5.6394, $Z = 0.27$, $p = 0.7890$; $I^2 = 97\%$, $p < 0.0001$), and heart (SMD = 4.8567, 95% CI: -13.3212; 23.0345, $Z = 0.52$, $p = 0.6005$; $I^2 = 96\%$, $p < 0.0001$) of experimental animals treated with fluoride was non-significant compared to the controls. The NO level was however, significantly higher in the brain (SMD = 8.6347,

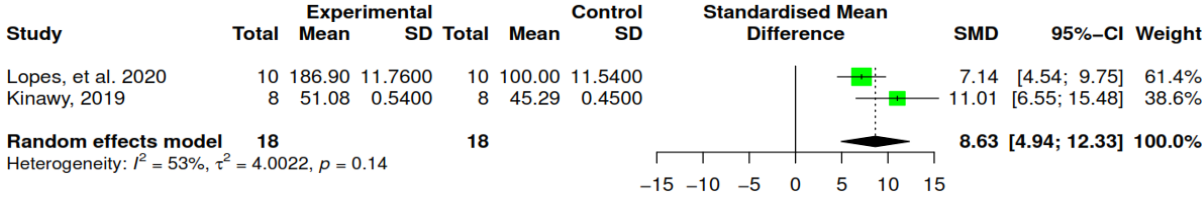
95% CI: 4.9441; 12.3253, $Z = 4.59$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 53\%$, $p = 0.1426$) and liver (SMD = 2.4717, 95% CI: 1.8812; 3.0622, $Z = 8.20$, $p < 0.0001$; $I^2 = 0\%$, $p = 0.5301$) of experimental animals treated with fluoride compared to the controls (10a-e). The funnel plot was asymmetrical (Figure 10b). However, aEgger's regression test showed no evidence of publication bias (Egger's regression intercept 1.1559, $t = 0.5$, $p = 0.6311$). Sensitivity analysis done by removing three studies^{40,63,80} was non-significant (SMD = 1.6737, 95% CI: -2.9603; 6.3078, $Z = 0.71$, $p = 0.4790$) but the heterogeneity remained unchanged ($I^2 = 95\%$, $p < 0.0001$). As bias examination using a funnel plot is not recommended for the analysis with less than 10 studies,⁸⁸ we did not examine the studies included in the sensitivity analysis for publication bias.



c



d



e

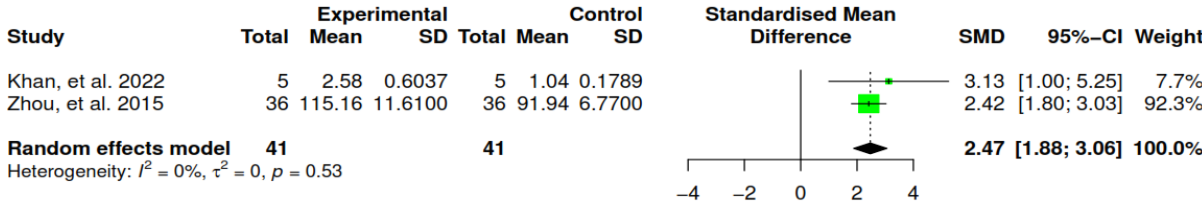


Figure 10. Forest plots for NO meta-analysis: (a) Blood; (b) Kidney; (c) Heart; (d) Brain; (e) Liver.

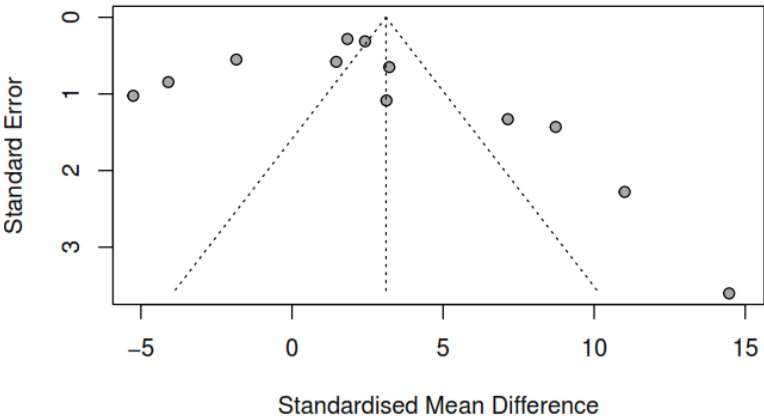


Figure 10f. NO Funnel plot

Subgroup Analysis

A Subgroup analysis assessing the intervention period (<30, 30–90, >90 days), species of animals (mice, rats, others), and sample source (liver, kidney, brain, other tissue) was conducted. The test for subgroup differences suggests that there is a statistically

significant subgroup effect (intervention period for SOD ($p = 0.0003$), CAT ($p = 0.03$) and LPO ($p = 0.007$) (Figure 11); animal species for LPO ($p = 0.04$; Figure 12); and sample source for SOD ($p = 0.04$), GSH ($p = 0.04$), ROS ($p = 0.048$), and NO ($p = 0.02$) (Figure 13)). No statistical difference was detected for other indicators.

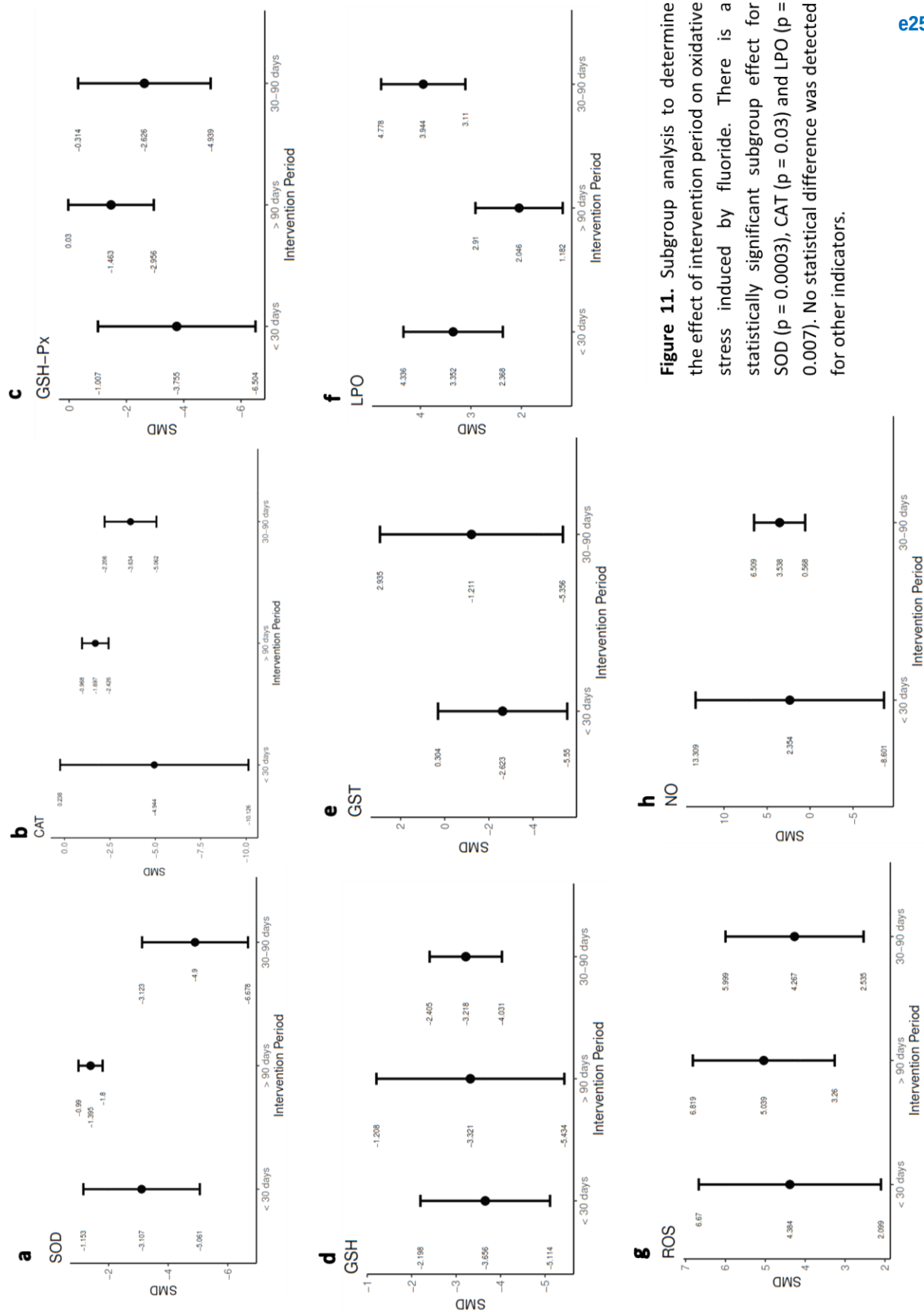


Figure 11. Subgroup analysis to determine the effect of intervention period on oxidative stress induced by fluoride. There is a statistically significant subgroup effect for SOD ($p = 0.0003$), CAT ($p = 0.03$) and LPO ($p = 0.007$). No statistical difference was detected for other indicators.

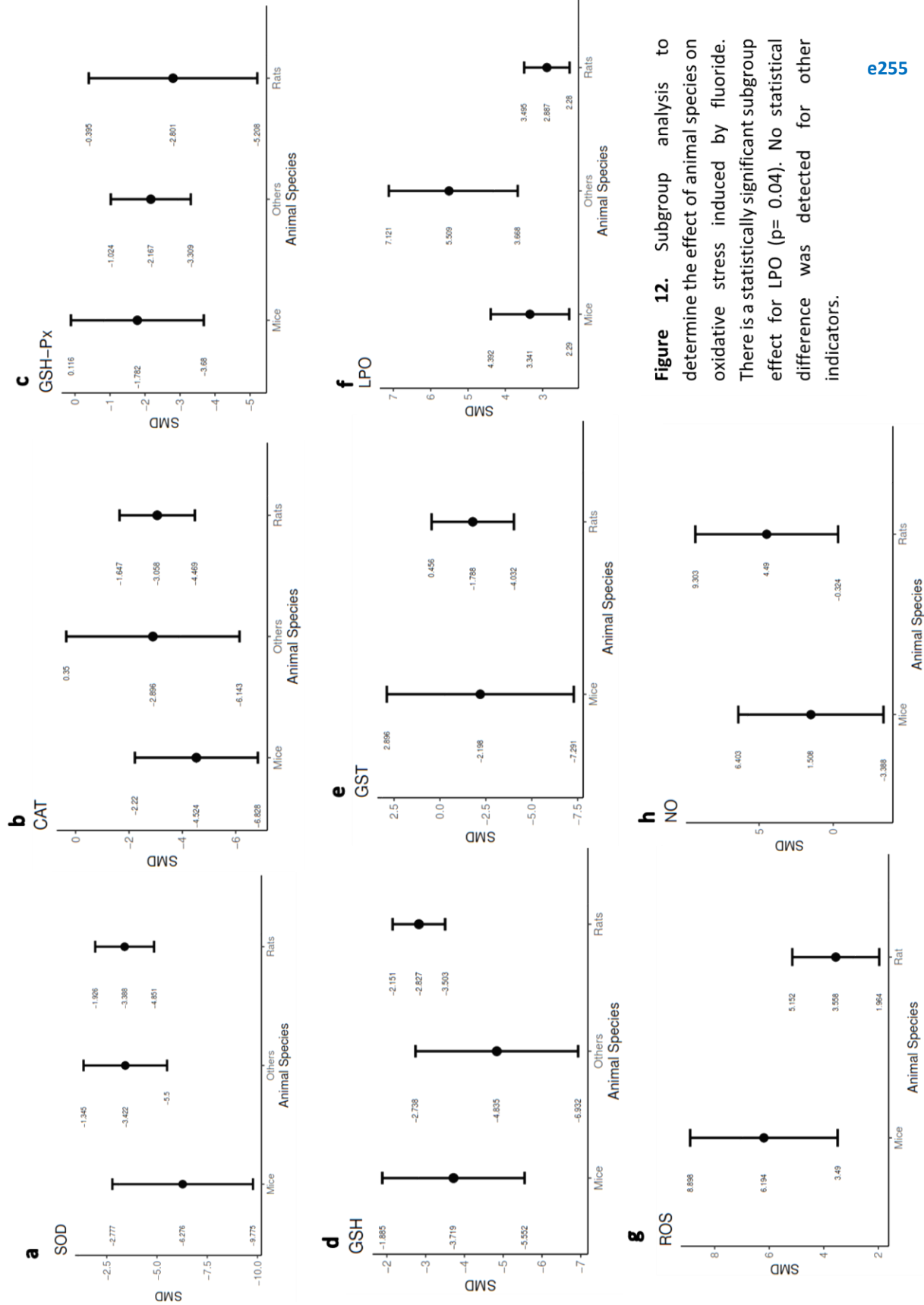


Figure 12. Subgroup analysis to determine the effect of animal species on oxidative stress induced by fluoride. There is a statistically significant subgroup effect for LPO ($p=0.04$). No statistical difference was detected for other indicators.

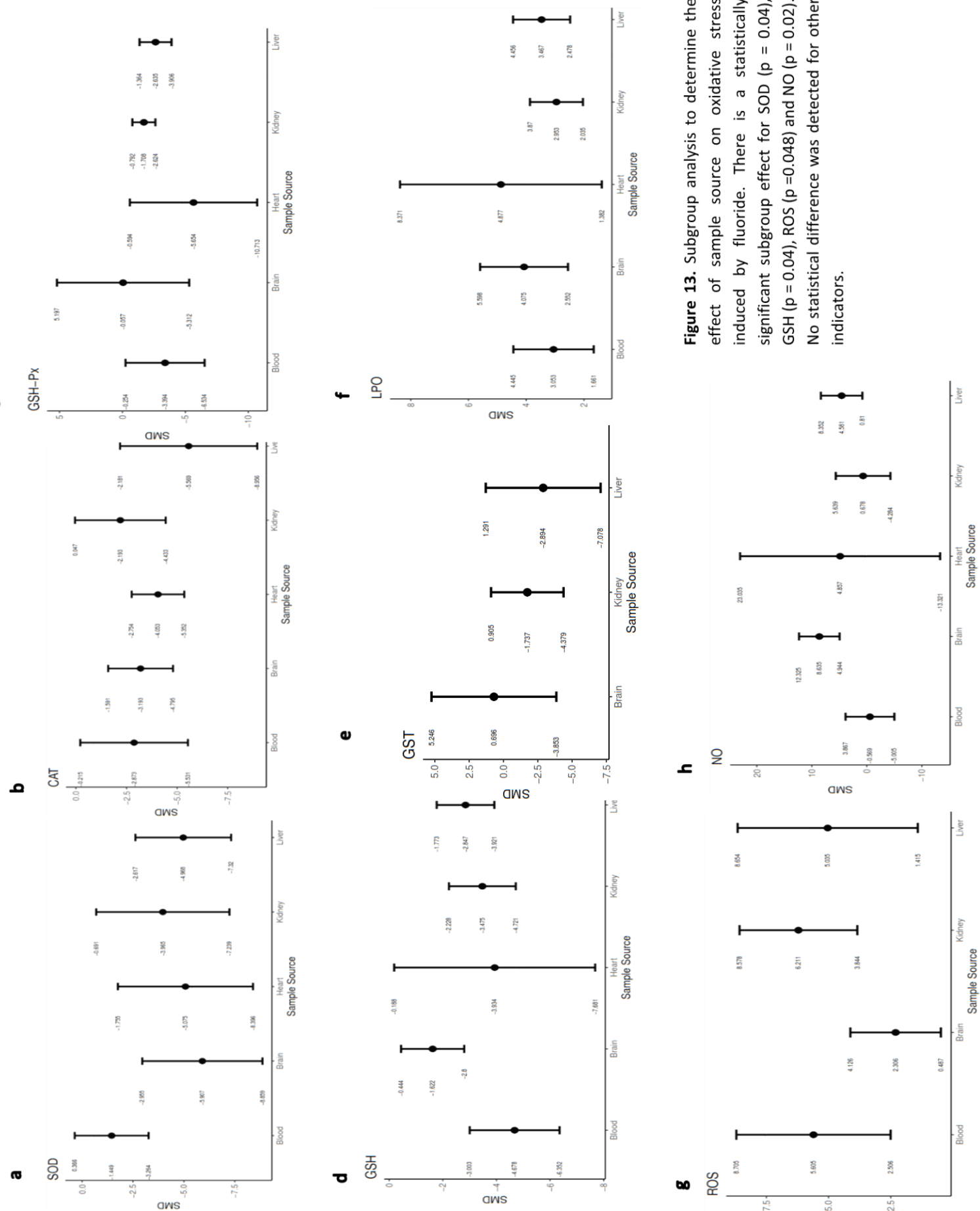


Figure 13. Subgroup analysis to determine the effect of sample source on oxidative stress induced by fluoride. There is a statistically significant subgroup effect for SOD ($p = 0.04$), GSH ($p = 0.04$), ROS ($p = 0.048$) and NO ($p = 0.02$). No statistical difference was detected for other indicators.

Meta-regression

A meta-regression analysis was performed with each indicator of oxidative stress as the outcome and with the intervention period (<30, 30–90, >90 days); animal species (rats, mice, others); and source of samples (kidney, liver, brain, heart, blood) as factors. There was a significant influence of animal species ($p =$

0.02) for LPO. All the other moderators had no influence on the studies' effect size (Table 2). The source of heterogeneity was found to be from all factors (intervention: LPO (4.1%); animal species: SOD (2.7%), GSH (3.7%), LPO (11%), and ROS (8.2%); sample source: SOD (6%), GSH-Px (3.5%), GSH (3.3%), ROS (3.8%) and NO (2.2%).

Table 2. Results of the meta-regression analysis

	Coefficient	SE	Z value	P value	95% CI
SOD					
▪ Intervention period (Reference < 30 days)					
✓ 30-90 days	-1.4080	1.6379	-0.8596	0.3900	-4.6182 – 1.8023
✓ > 90 days	-0.0020	2.0681	-0.0010	0.9992	-4.0554 – 4.0515
▪ Animal species (Reference mice)					
✓ Rats	2.3968	1.5563	1.5400	0.1236	-0.6536 – 5.4472
✓ Others	2.3896	1.8342	1.3028	0.1926	-1.2054 – 5.9846
▪ Sample source (Reference blood)					
✓ Kidney	-1.8243	1.9534	-0.9339	0.3503	-5.6529 – 2.0042
✓ Liver	-3.2729	1.8067	-1.8115	0.0701	-6.8140 – 0.2682
✓ Heart	-4.0347	3.0881	-1.3065	0.1914	-10.0873 – 2.0178
✓ Brain	-4.2570	1.9466	-2.1869	0.0288	-8.0724 – -0.4417
CAT					
▪ Intervention period (Reference < 30 days)					
✓ 30-90 days	0.1844	1.8160	0.1015	0.9191	-3.3750 – 3.7437
✓ > 90 days	0.6915	2.1564	0.3207	0.7484	-3.5349 – 4.9180
▪ Animal species (Reference mice)					
✓ Rats	1.2902	1.3501	0.9556	0.3393	-1.3560 – 3.9364
✓ Others	1.6203	1.9266	0.8410	0.4003	-2.1557 – 5.3963
▪ Sample source (Reference blood)					
✓ Kidney	0.5064	1.9800	0.2558	0.7981	-3.3743 – 4.3871
✓ Liver	-2.0595	1.8681	-1.1025	0.2703	-5.7209 – 1.6019
✓ Heart	-2.2404	2.9927	-0.7486	0.4541	-8.1060 – 3.6251
✓ Brain	-0.4309	1.8362	-0.2347	0.8145	-4.0299 – 3.1680
GSH-Px					
▪ Intervention period (Reference < 30 days)					
✓ 30-90 days	1.5329	2.2885	0.6698	0.5030	-2.9524 – 6.0182
✓ > 90 days	2.0769	2.4460	0.8491	0.3958	-2.7172 – 6.8709
▪ Animal species (Reference mice)					
✓ Rats	-0.7676	1.7390	-0.4414	0.6589	-4.1759 – 2.6407
✓ Others	-1.7164	2.4167	-0.7102	0.4776	-6.4532 – 3.0203
▪ Sample source (Reference blood)					
✓ Kidney	0.7536	2.2008	0.3424	0.7320	-3.5598 – 5.0670
✓ Liver	0.1932	2.0550	0.0940	0.9251	-3.8344 – 4.2209
✓ Heart	-2.2892	3.0477	-0.7511	0.4526	-8.2625 – 3.6842
✓ Brain	3.5809	2.1682	1.6515	0.0986	-0.6687 – 7.8305
GSH					
▪ Intervention period (Reference < 30 days)					
✓ 30-90 days	0.6217	1.1237	0.5533	0.5801	-1.5807 – 2.8241
✓ > 90 days	0.7466	1.3525	0.5520	0.5810	-1.9043 – 3.3974
▪ Animal species (Reference mice)					
✓ Rats	0.4242	0.8028	0.5285	0.5972	-1.1492 – 1.9976

✓ Others	-1.3756	1.1805	-1.1652	0.2439	-3.6893 – 0.9382
▪ Sample source (Reference blood)					
✓ Kidney	1.0041	0.9583	1.0477	0.2948	-0.8743 – 2.8824
✓ Liver	1.5602	0.9473	1.6471	0.0995	-0.2964 – 3.4168
✓ Heart	0.7720	1.5684	0.4922	0.6226	-2.3020 – 3.8459
✓ Brain	2.8213	1.1399	2.4750	0.0133	0.5871 – 5.0556
GST					
▪ Intervention period (Reference < 30 days)					
✓ 30-90 days	1.6799	3.2129	0.5229	0.6011	-4.6172 - 7.977
▪ Animal species (Reference mice)					
✓ Rats	-0.1534	2.7282	-0.0562	0.9552	-5.5007 - 5.1938
▪ Sample source (Reference brain)					
✓ Kidney	-2.4449	4.4802	-0.5457	0.5853	-11.2258 - 6.3361
✓ Liver	-3.4545	3.2290	-1.0698	0.2847	-9.7832 - 2.8742
LPO					
▪ Intervention period (Reference < 30 days)					
✓ 30-90 days	0.3420	0.7189	0.4757	0.6343	-1.0670 - 1.7510
✓ > 90 days	-1.1967	0.8694	-1.3764	0.1687	-2.9007 - 0.5074
▪ Animal species (Reference mice)					
✓ Rats	-0.4183	0.6657	-0.6283	0.5298	-1.7230 - 0.8865
✓ Others	1.8370	0.9271	1.9815	0.0475	0.0200 - 3.6540
▪ Sample source (Reference blood)					
✓ Kidney	-0.0259	0.9489	-0.0273	0.9782	-1.8857 - 1.8339
✓ Liver	0.3575	0.8908	0.4013	0.6882	-1.3886 - 2.1035
✓ Heart	1.6936	1.6510	1.0257	0.3050	-1.5424 - 4.9295
✓ Brain	0.7313	0.9755	0.7496	0.4535	-1.1807 - 2.6432
ROS					
▪ Intervention period (Reference < 30 days)					
✓ 30-90 days	-0.5565	2.3193	-0.2399	0.8104	-5.1021 - 3.9892
✓ > 90 days	0.5144	2.8494	0.1805	0.8567	-5.0703 - 6.0992
▪ Animal species (Reference mice)					
✓ Rats	-2.2948	1.4507	-1.5819	0.1137	-5.1381 - 0.5485
▪ Sample source (Reference blood)					
✓ Kidney	0.8882	2.2144	0.4011	0.6883	-3.4520 - 5.2284
✓ Liver	-1.1578	1.9302	-0.5998	0.5486	-4.9409 - 2.6254
✓ Brain	-3.1068	2.1300	-1.4586	0.1447	-7.2816 - 1.0679
NO					
▪ Intervention period (Reference < 30 days)					
✓ 30-90 days	2.0093	3.8155	0.5266	0.5985	-5.4689 - 9.4874
▪ Animal species (Reference mice)					
✓ Rats	2.9135	3.7208	0.7830	0.4336	-4.3790 - 10.2061
▪ Sample source (Reference blood)					
✓ Kidney	1.2903	4.8220	0.2676	0.7890	-8.1606 - 10.7411
✓ Liver	5.2942	4.3416	1.2194	0.2227	-3.2153 - 13.8036
✓ Heart	4.1357	5.0938	0.8119	0.4168	-5.8479 - 14.1193
✓ Brain	9.5767	4.9762	1.9245	0.0543	-0.1765 - 19.3299

DISCUSSION

In this study, we have undertaken the first meta-analysis to investigate the alterations of oxidative stress biomarkers in non-skeletal tissues of experimental animals exposed to fluoride compared with the controls. We included 62 studies measuring 8 oxidative stress biomarkers. Overall, in comparison to the controls, animals treated with fluoride showed a

significant increase in the levels of ROS, LPO, and NO and a significant decrease in the antioxidant levels of SOD, CAT, GSH-Px, and GSH. The results on the levels of GST were, however, not significant. All biomarkers showed high levels of heterogeneity. Significant publication bias was found in all biomarkers except for NO. The sensitivity analysis showed significant differences in the oxidative stress biomarkers between animals treated with fluoride and the controls were not

influenced by any single study, suggesting the robustness of the outcome of the meta-analysis. However, the effect size for studies measuring NO was not significant and there was no publication bias for studies measuring GST after a sensitivity analysis.

We demonstrated an increase in oxidative stress and a decrease in antioxidants in blood, liver, kidney, heart, and brain in line with the available evidence suggesting fluoride-induced oxidative stress as a mechanism involved in fluoride toxicity.^{16,89} The liver, being a site of active metabolism and detoxification of foreign substances⁹⁰ is susceptible to fluoride toxicity. Evidence suggests that oxidative stress contributes to the development of many liver diseases.^{91–93} The cellular structures that are primarily affected by ROS/RNS include the hepatocytic proteins, lipids, and DNA. This results in structural and functional abnormalities in the liver.⁹¹ Our study found that the levels of ROS, LPO, and NO, were elevated in the liver of experimental animals compared to the controls. A significant decrease in SOD, CAT, GSH-Px, and GSH was also observed.

Studies done on the renal system have focused largely on the kidney. Several studies have shown that excess fluoride causes direct adverse effects on the kidneys.^{28,60,94–98} The kidney is exposed to higher concentrations of fluoride than all other soft tissues except for the pineal gland, a major site of fluoride accumulation in humans.⁹⁹ About half of the daily intake of fluoride is cleared by the kidneys in healthy, young, or middle-aged adults.¹⁰⁰ This exposure to a high concentration of fluoride makes the kidney a target organ for the adverse effects of fluoride. Available data suggests that oxidative stress is a major factor in the deterioration of renal function.^{101,102} We found a significant increase in the level of ROS and LPO and a decrease in SOD, GSH-Px, and GSH in the kidney. However, there was no significant change in the level of NO and CAT.

Oxidative stress is an important cause of brain damage.¹⁰³ Fluoride is a known neurotoxin associated with cretinism, low Intelligence (IQ), headache, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, delirium, insomnia, increased pain sensation, tremors, seizures, paralysis, decreased learning ability, decreased long-term memory, anxiety, and depression.¹⁰⁴ Fluoride crosses the blood-brain barrier and accumulates in the brain causing metabolic, structural, and functional damage to the nervous system.^{9,105–107} Fluoride is also capable of crossing the placental barrier and accumulating in the brain tissue before birth.^{108,109} Our meta-analysis found an increase in the level of ROS, LPO, and NO, and a decrease in the level of SOD, CAT, and GSH in the brain of animals treated with fluoride as compared to the controls. There was no significant change in the level of GSH-Px.

Fluoride has been shown to concentrate in the cardiovascular system¹¹⁰ leading to vascular calcification, coronary artery disease,¹¹⁰ atherosclerosis,^{111,112} hypertension,¹¹³ and myocardial damage.^{10,114} In addition to classic cardiovascular risk factors, oxidative stress is considered to be one of the potential aetiologies in various CVDs.¹¹⁵ Oxidative stress has been reported to contribute to atherosclerosis and vascular stiffness.^{115–117} One of the known molecular mechanisms through which fluoride induces cardiovascular damage is through oxidative stress.^{10,45,111,114} However, fluoride can indirectly increase the risk of cardiovascular disease by causing or exacerbating diabetes^{118–120} and thyroid dysfunction.^{121,122} An increase in the level of ROS and LPO, and a decrease in SOD, CAT, GSH-Px, and GSH was observed in the heart and blood. No significant difference was observed in the level of NO in these tissues.

NO is one of the reactive nitrogen species (RNS) produced by the catalytic action of nitric oxide synthase (NOS) during the generation of L-citrulline from L-arginine and oxygen.¹²³ Fluoride can either induce¹²⁴ or suppress the synthesis of NO.¹²⁵ RNS initiates lipid peroxidation, reacts with thiols including glutathione (GSH), creating S-nitrosothiols which can inactivate proteins, leading to increased impaired cellular respiration, oxidative stress, or necrotic cell death. Further, excess NO combines with superoxide, producing peroxynitrite (ONOO-) that is responsible for much of the cytotoxicity.¹²³ Evidence suggests that oxidative stress also inhibits NO production by impairing endothelial NOS expression and activity. Excessive or deficient NO increases ROS/RNS production while lowering antioxidant levels.¹²⁶ Of the 12 studies included in the meta-analysis, 2 recorded lower levels of NO in blood, heart, and kidney.^{19,45} The results of this meta-analysis should be interpreted with caution since only 2 or 3 studies were included in the analysis of each organ.

SOD forms the first line of defense against superoxide radicals by conversion to hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂). H₂O₂ is either detoxified to H₂O and O₂ by GSH-Px or diffuses into the cytosol and is detoxified by catalase (CAT) in peroxisomes. GSH protects against oxygen radicals and toxic compounds and acts as a coenzyme for enzymes.¹²⁷ The role of GSH-Px is dependent upon the availability of GSH.¹²⁸ A decrease in these antioxidants suggests an impaired ability of the antioxidant defense mechanism to inactivate ROS and scavenge free radicals. GST through their Se-independent glutathione peroxidase activity can reduce lipid hydroperoxides and detoxify lipid peroxidation end products such as 4-hydroxynonenal.¹²⁹ No significant change was found in the level of GST in non-skeletal

tissues of experimental animals compared with the control.

We observed a statistically significant subgroup effect suggesting that different animal species and tissues have varying susceptibility and tolerance to fluoride, and the intervention period can determine the level of oxidative damage in experimental animals. However, since there was substantial heterogeneity between the studies within each of these groups, the validity of the treatment effect estimate for each subgroup is uncertain. The absolute SMD for SOD and LPO was higher in the 30-90 days subgroup while that of CAT was higher in the < 30 days subgroup. The severity of fluorosis is dependent on the dose and duration of fluoride exposure. In an *in vivo* study on the effect of sodium fluoride on sperm motility, sodium fluoride decreased sperm motility in a dose and time-dependent manner. The sperm abnormality was significantly increased at 10 and 100mg/ml of NaF at the 30-minute time interval.¹³⁰ In another study, the alterations found in the liver of rats at 60 days were less evident than those observed at 20 days, in both groups treated with 15mg/l and 50mg/l.¹³¹ Mukhopadhyay, et al.⁷⁶ however, found that the effect of fluoride was different for the measured parameters e.g., Cytochrome P450 1 A (Cyp1A) mRNA expression increased in a dose-dependent manner up to 30 mg NaF for 30 days treatment group but decreased in the 90 days treatment group while the downregulation of Kelch-like ECH- associated protein 1 (keap 1) was most prominent after 15 mg NaF treatment for 90 days. The differences observed in these studies are likely to be a result of different study designs, dosage, animal species, and duration of treatment. The significant animal species subgroup effect seen in LPO confirms the variation in genetic susceptibility found in different strains of animals.^{132–134} This difference is likely to be greater in animals from different species. There was also a significant sample source subgroup effect in SOD, GSH, ROS, and NO with the absolute SMD for SOD being lower in samples from the brain and GSH in samples from blood. The SMD for ROS was higher in samples from the kidney and NO in samples from the brain. The available evidence suggests that the fluoride levels in the brain are generally low due to the relative impermeability of the blood-brain barrier. Conversely, the kidneys are exposed to high levels of fluoride and tend to have the highest fluoride concentration compared to all non-skeletal tissues.^{4,135,136} These results should, however, be interpreted with caution since the number of studies contributing data to different subgroups was unequal thus the analysis may not be able to detect subgroup differences.

LIMITATIONS

Our study had some limitations. First, the heterogeneity between the included studies was high. The dissimilarity seen in the studies analysed could be as a result of differences in ages of experimental animals, animal species, kind of tissue examined, dose and mode of fluoride exposure, time of exposure, and methods for biochemical assay. Second, due to the limited number of studies, some comparisons had to contain only two or three studies per item. Thirdly, a subgroup analysis based on fluoride dose could not be done since it was not possible to generate different dose ranges. Further meta-analysis with more studies included would be necessary to verify the results of this study.

CONCLUSIONS

Our meta-analysis findings demonstrated the presence of oxidative stress evidenced by elevated ROS, LPO, and NO and depletion of antioxidants SOD, CAT, GSH-Px, and GSH in non-skeletal tissues of experimental animals exposed to fluoride. However, there was no significant change in the level of GST. Subgroup analysis suggested that different animal species and tissues have varying susceptibilities and tolerance to fluoride. The meta-regression revealed that the extent of fluoride-induced oxidative stress damage can be modified by the intervention period. These findings strengthen the evidence that fluoride toxicity is accompanied by increased oxidative stress response not only in skeletal tissues but also in non-skeletal tissues. Our results also suggested that different animal species and tissues have varying susceptibilities and tolerance to fluoride. Manipulation of oxidative stress marker concentrations should be investigated for potential therapeutic strategies for the disease. Further, studies in humans are recommended to strengthen the current evidence. This will contribute to providing evidence-based guidance for mitigating the toxic effects of fluoride.

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CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no conflict of interest

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