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Screening of Cytotoxic Activity of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) Nanoparticles from *Butea monosperma* on MCF-7 Cells

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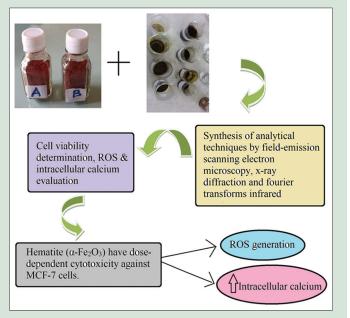
ABSTRACT

Background: Hematite $(\alpha - Fe_2O_2)$ has been used as antimicrobial and disinfectant agent. Nevertheless, there are limited data about antitumor potential. This study was focused on investigating cytotoxic effects of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) from Butea monosperma flower extract on MCF -7 breast cancer cells and its mechanism of action. Materials and Methods: Thus, a green method was created for the synthesis of Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) using an aqueous extract of *B. monosperma* flower. Synthesis of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) was described by different analytical techniques including ultraviolet-visible spectrophotometer, field-emission scanning electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction, and Fourier transforms infrared spectroscopy. Cell viability was determined by the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide assay. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) formation was measured using probe 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate and intracellular calcium (Cai²⁺) was evaluated with probe flu3-AM. Cells were treated with different concentrations of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) (1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 25, 50, and 100 $\mu g/mL$). **Results:** The results showed that Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) hindered cell growth in a dose-dependent manner. Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) appeared to have dose-dependent cytotoxicity against MCF-7 cells through activation of the ROS generation and an increase in the intracellular Cai²⁺ (half-maximal inhibitory concentration 52 ± 3.14). Conclusion: In conclusion, the results of this preliminary study demonstrated that Hematite (α -Fe $_2$ O $_3$) from B. monosperma flower extract may be a potential therapeutic potential medicament for human breast cancer treatment.

Key words: Butea monosperma, cytotoxicity, Hematite (α -Fe $_2$ O $_3$), MCF-7 cell line, nanoparticle

SUMMARY

• The synthesized nanoparticles from aqueous flower extract (EXT) of *Butea monosperma* have a valuable quality based on physicochemical indexes such as field-emission scanning electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction, and Fourier transforms infrared spectroscopy had high-quality physicochemical. The nanoparticles prepared from the plant EXT, in dose-dependent form, reduced the cell viability in breast cancer cells. The possible mechanism for cell death effects is to increase the production of reactive oxygen species and increase the amount of intracellular calcium in breast cancer cells.



Abbreviations Used: DMEM: Dulbecco's modified eagle's medium, FESEM: Field-emission scanning electron microscopy, XRD: X-ray diffraction, FTIR: Fourier transform-infrared spectroscopy, $IC_{\rm en}$: Half-maximal

inhibitory concentration, ROS: Reactive oxygen species, SPR: Surface plasmon resonance, SEM: Scanning electron microscopy.

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INTRODUCTION

Breast cancer is the most widely recognized reason for tumor-related death in women worldwide, and its frequency has expanded in the most recent decades. [1] It is, therefore, important to introduce new potential strategies for improving the efficacy of current cancer treatments. [2,3] Hence, introducing a biocompatible and affordable technique for the treatment of cancer is imperative. Nanomedicine formulations are nanometer-sized carrier materials designed to enhance the bioavailability of the drug tissue and thus improve the treatment of chemotherapeutic drugs that are used systematically. Nanomedicine is a new approach to deliver pharmaceuticals with safer and more effective treatments compared to conventional approaches across the different route of administration. [4] Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) has been among the most commonly used nanomaterials in our health-care system for hundreds

of years. Recently, Hematite $(\alpha - \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3)$ has become of intense interest in biomedical applications because of their antibacterial, antifungal,

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antiviral, and anti-inflammatory activity. Among the biological techniques (for example, use of enzymes, micro-organisms, and plant extracts), the synthesis of Hematite (α -Fe₂O₂) using plant extracts is the best option for accessible traditional chemical and physical techniques. [5,6] Synthesis of nanoparticles using plant extract supplies progression more than chemical and physical method as it is most helpful, environment safety, and simply scaled up for great range production. [7] Cytotoxic chemotherapy is a well-established treatment option for all subtypes of breast cancers, for example, doxorubicin, cisplatin, and also bleomycin. [8,9] Even though the use of doxorubicin, cisplatin, or bleomycin gives useful impact, the sufficiency and negative marks are unverifiable. [10] In this way, it is important to discover novel restorative administrators against malignancy, which are biocompatible and practical. Natural products have been used in traditional medicine as a source of remedies for thousands of years.[11] The Fabaceae is a family of flowering plants, which is widely distributed in both deciduous and coniferous forests of central Europe, central Asia, North America, and especially in the Mediterranean area and is represented by about 3000 species and 220 genera. [12] Some species of the family have been used since ancient times in traditional medicine to treat eczema, wounds, goiter, ulcers, cancer, and fistulae. In addition, Fabaceae species have been known to be rich in glycosides. [13] In another study, the components of this plant, including cinnamic acid, three flavonoids (quercetin, isorhamnetin-3-O-rutinoside and nepitrin), and one phenylpropanoid glycoside (acteoside 1) have been identified. [14] It has been indicated that both leaves and seeds of Butea monosperma contain both anticancer and cell growth enhancing agents. [15] However, the extract of this plant species, that is, B. monosperma has never been examined against MCF-7 cell line. Thus, this study intended to synthesize Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) using the natural framework and to assess potential cytotoxicity and its general mechanisms of action of biologically synthesized Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) from *B. monosperma* in human breast cancer cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of plant extract

The flowers of *B. monosperma* were collected from the Western Mountains in Ilam Province, Iran, during April and May 2015. A voucher specimen 24,998 was deposited at the Herbarium Department of the Medicinal Plants Research Center of Shiraz University. The flowers of *B. monosperma* were washed thoroughly with deionized water. About 10 g of the flowers were added to 100 mL of deionized water and boiled for 15 min in a water bath. The mixture was then filtered with Whatman filter paper grade 42. The filtered extract was stored in a refrigerator at 4°C. This extract was used as a reducing as well as a stabilizing agent. [15]

Preparation of nanoparticles synthesized from *Butea monosperma*

In a typical experiment, for biosynthesis of Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃), 60 mL of aqueous plant extract *B. monosperma* 10% (10 mL extract and 90 mL deionized water) was mixed with 40 mL Fe₂O₃NO₃ solution (0.01 M) in 250 mL Erlenmeyer flask. The flask was incubated for 24 h at 27°C at 120 rpm (Rota ma × 120, HeiDolph, Germany). A small aliquot of the solutions was used for the ultraviolet-visible (UV-Vis) spectroscopy. After 24 h incubation time, the reaction mixture was centrifuged at 14,000 rpm (Vision Scientific Co.,) for 15 min, and the pellet was resuspended in a small amount of deionized water and then, a small amount of suspension was sprayed on a glass slide. The resulting sediment was dried at room temperature and was used for further analyses by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). The formation of Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃)

from *B. monosperma* was confirmed by UV-Vis spectral analysis. The bioreduction of ${\rm Fe_2O_3}^+$ ions to Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) was monitored by UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Rayleigh, UV-2100, China), having a resolution of 1 nm. The UV-Vis spectra were recorded using a glass cell with deionized water as a reference. [16]

Field-emission scanning electron microscopy analysis

FESEM analysis was performed using a Hitachi S4160 instrument (Japan). Thin films of the samples were prepared on graphite adhesives. Then, the surface of the samples was coated with gold powder using a sputter hummer instrument. [17]

X-ray diffraction analysis

XRD analyses of the synthesized Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ from *B. monosperma* were conducted using a Bruker diffractometer (D8 Advance, Germany). The X-ray beam was Ni-filtered CuK α radiation from a sealed tube. [18]

Fourier transforms infrared spectroscopy analysis

The synthesized Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ from *B. monosperma* was also analyzed by FTIR spectroscopy (Bruker Optics Ft Tensor 27, Germany) using KBr discs. The spectra were recorded in the range of 4000-400/cm. [19]

Cell culture

The MCF-7 (human breast carcinoma) cell line was purchased from National Cell Bank of Iran (NCBI C135). Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified eagle's medium (DMEM) (GIBCO, USA) supplemented with 1.5 g/L sodium bicarbonate, 10% fetal bovine serum (GIBCO, USA), 100 U/mL of penicillin, and 100 μ g/mL of streptomycin (GIBCO, USA) in 25 cm² tissue culture flasks at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂. Cells were fed every 2–3 days and subcultured as soon as they reached a confluence of 70%–80%.

3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenylte trazolium bromide assay

cell viability test was measured using the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) color reduction test which was performed to determine the cytotoxic effect of the Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) synthesized from B. monosperma at different concentrations 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 25, 50, and 100 µg/mL. The exposure time of cells with different concentrations mentioned above was 48 h. After this treatment, the MTT protocol was implemented. This method is based on the ability to survive cells to metabolize yellow tetrazolium salt MTT to purple formazan crystals by mitochondrial dehydrogenases. About 10 µL of MTT reagent (5 mg/mL) was added to 100 μ L of the serum-free culture medium in each well of a 96 well plate and after 4-h incubation, the medium was removed and 15 µL dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was added to solubilize the formazan formed by the mitochondrial reductase activity in the viable cells. Absorbance was measured at 570 nm using a microplate reader (Biotek - Elx USA). The percentage of cell viability was calculated according to the following formula:

% cell viability = ([OD treated cell – OD blank]/[OD control cell – OD blank]) $\times 100.^{\tiny [20]}$

Measurement of reactive oxygen species

Intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels were detected by the fluorescent probe 2, 7'-dichlorofluorescein

diacetate (DCFH2-DA) (Sigma). In this way, 1 mL stock 10 μ M prepared in DMSO added to each plate and incubated for 30 min at 37°C. Then, samples measured with fluorescent plate reader (Biotek - FL × 800). DCF fluorescence was assessed at 485 nm excitation and 520 nm emissions. ROS production was determined from an H_2O_2 standard curve (10–200 nM).[21]

Intracellular calcium assay

Intracellular calcium (Cai²+) of MCF-7 was specified using Ca²+ fluorescent probe flu3-AM (Sigma). [22] Briefly, aliquots of 1-mL MCF-7 suspensions (1 \times 106 cells/mL) were washed with buffer A (Phenol red-free DMEM comprising 10-mM HEPES 4-(2-hydroxyethyl) piperazine-1-ethanesulfonic acid, pH 7.0) and resuspended in 200 μL of buffer A. Then, 0.4 μL of fluo 3-AM (1.0M in DMSO) was added. Cells were incubated at room temperature for 30 min and washed with buffer B (DMEM containing 10 mM HEPES, 5% fetal calf serum and pH 7.4) before assay. Flow cytometric analysis of MCF-7 Cai²+ was carried out using a FACscan Calibur flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson, California, USA).

Statistical analysis

Results are illustrated as mean \pm standard deviation. Measurable assessment of the data was performed with Student's t-test for simple comparison between two values when suitable. For multiple comparisons, data were analyzed by analysis of variance. P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Term half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC $_{50}$) refers to the toxicant concentration that induces a response halfway between the baseline and maximum after a given time of exposure.

RESULTS

Extracellular synthesis of nanoparticles synthesized from *Butea monosperma*

The reduction of silver ions into Hematite (α -Fe $_2$ O $_3$) during exposure to *B. monosperma* flower extracts could be monitored by the color change. The fresh extract of *B. monosperma* was yellow in color. However, after the addition of Fe $_2$ O $_3$ NO $_3$ and incubation for 24 h, the mixture turned dark brown, which indicated the formation of Hematite (α -Fe $_2$ O $_3$) [Figure 1]. The color changes in aqueous solutions are due to the surface plasmon resonance (SPR) phenomenon. [23] The chemical constituents present in the plant extract play as reducing agents for the bioreduction of Fe $_2$ O $_3$ ions as well as stabilizing agents.

Ultraviolet-visible analysis

The formation and stability of Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ in colloidal solutions were confirmed using UV-Vis spectral analysis. The UV-Vis spectrum of biosynthesized Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ of optimized conditions (10% extract concentration, 1:1.5 concentration ratios of the reactants and time of 24 h) is shown in Figure 2. According to Figure 2, the peak at 440 nm is corresponding to the SPR band of Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$. The above-mentioned optimal conditions are derived from previous experience.

Field-emission scanning electron microscopy analysis

The FESEM of the biosynthesized Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3)$ from *B. monosperma* in optimized conditions (10% extract concentration, 1:1.5 concentration ratios of the reactants and time of 24 h) is shown in Figure 3. According to the FESEM Fe $_2\text{O}_3$, the particle shape of plant-mediated Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3)$ was mostly spherical. The checking



Figure 1: The color change of *Butea monosperma* flower extracts before and after synthesis of nanoparticles. (A) The flower extract of *Butea monosperma* (yellow) and (B) Fe₂O₃-*Butea monosperma* emulsion after 24 h (reddish brown)

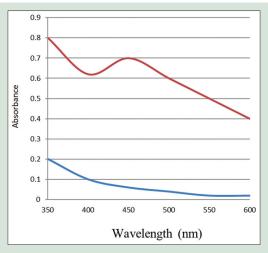


Figure 2: The ultraviolet-visible spectrum of biosynthesized nanoparticles in optimized conditions (10% extract concentration, 1:1.5 concentration ratios of the reactants and time of 24 h)

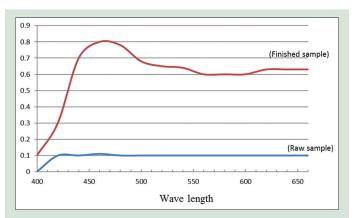


Figure 3: The field emission scanning electron microscopy Fe_2O_3 of the green synthesized nanoparticles by reduction of aqueous Fe_2O_3 ions using *Butea monosperma* flower extract under the optimized conditions

of FESEM Fe_2O_3 shows the faint thin layer of other material on the surface of Hematite $(\alpha - Fe_2O_3)$ because the extract could be played as capping Fe_2O_3 as well as a reducing agent. Particle size measurement using FESEM is very difficult and all particle sizes reported in this study are taken from XRD results. Therefore, since it was very difficult to measure the particle size using FESEM, all the reported particle sizes in this article are derived from the XRD results. The purpose of the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) method was to obtain the geometric shape of the nanoparticles. Since our synthesis is a biological synthesis, the shape of the particle should be spherical as shown in SEM [Figure 3]. If our synthesis was a chemical type, their shape should be triangular.

X-ray diffraction analysis

The crystalline structure of Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ was characterized using XRD analysis. Figure 4 shows the XRD patterns of the biosynthesized Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ from *B. monosperma*. The diffraction peak values at 20 of 38.12°, 44.35°, 64.56°, and 77.48° correspond to lattice planes at (111), (200), (220), and (311), respectively. The XRD pattern also indicates the face-centered cubic structure of metallic Fe $_2O_3$. The particle size of Fe $_2O_3$ could be calculated by the Scherrer Equation (1): D = 0.94 λ /(β cos0); where D is the average crystallite size, 0 is the diffraction angle, β is the

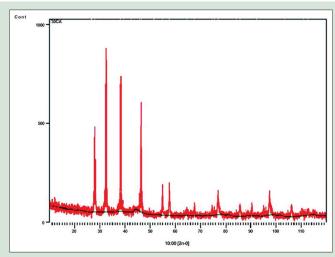


Figure 4: The X-ray diffraction pattern of biosynthesized nanoparticles from *Butea monosperma* flower extract

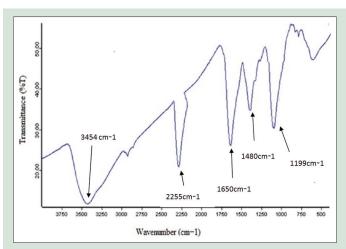


Figure 6: The Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy spectrum of biosynthesized nanoparticles from *Butea monosperma* flower extract

full width at half maximum, and λ is the X-ray wavelength. The average crystallite size of Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) was calculated by Equation (1) and was found to be in the range of 8–12 nm [Figure 5].

According to the $\mathrm{Fe_2O_3}$ of XRD, several couriers have been obtained that after transferring them to the formulas of the "Scherrer equation" numbers shown in the table. After the transfering of the obtained numbers, the nanoparticle size is obtained at about 10 nm.

Fourier transforms infrared spectroscopy analysis

The FTIR spectrum of biosynthesized Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ using *B. monosperma* flower extract is shown in Figure 6. The spectrum shows important bands at 3454, 2255, 1650, 1480, and 1199/cm. The strong peak at 1199/cm corresponds to the C–N stretching vibration of the amine. The peak at 1480/cm can be associated with the stretching vibration C–O [–C–OH]. Strong, intense peak at 1650/cm is attributed to the C=O stretching vibration. In addition, a broad peak at 3454/cm is assigned to an O–H stretching frequency, indicating the presence of hydroxyl groups. These couriers may show the ingredients in the plant extract. The FTIR analysis suggested the presence of hydroxyl, amine, and carbonyl groups in the plant extract, which may have been responsible for the reduction and/or capping and stabilization of Hematite (α -Fe,O₃).

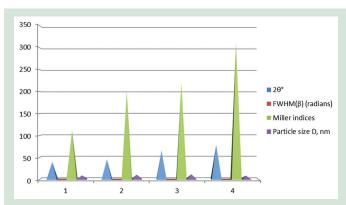


Figure 5: Calculation of the average particle size of biosynthesized nanoparticles from *Butea monosperma* by Scherrer equation

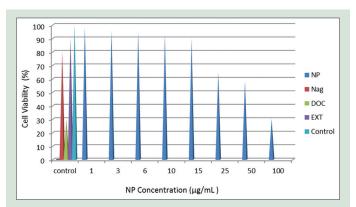


Figure 7: Effect of nanoparticles synthesized from *Butea monosperma* cell viability of MCF-7 cells. Cells were treated with nanoparticles at various concentrations for 48h and cytotoxicity was determined by the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide assay method. NP, Nag (0.01 M), DOC (120 nM) and EXT (100 μg/ml). Hematite $(\alpha \text{Fe}_2 \text{O}_3)$ at concentrations 25, 50 (P < 0.05 vs. control) and 100 μg/ml increased cell death (P < 0.001 vs. control). NP: Nanoparticles from *Butea monosperma* flower extract, Nag: Fe₂O₃NO₃, DOC: Docetaxel, EXT: Extract

The cytotoxic effects of nanoparticles synthesized from *Butea monosperma* on MCF-7 cells

The effect of Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ on the viability of MCF-7 cells was checked using the MTT assay. The Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ was able to reduce the viability of the MCF-7 cells in a concentration-dependent manner, as shown in Figure 7. The anticancer activity of concentrations at 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 25, 50, and 100 µg/mL of the synthesized Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ from B. monosperma were evaluated in vitro against MCF-7 breast cancer cell lines after 48 h. Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ at concentrations 25, 50 (P<0.05~vs.~control) and 100 µg/mL increased cell death (P<0.001~vs.~control). However, the plant extract did not. The effect of different concentrations of Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ was tested on MCF-7 cells. Incubation with Hematite $(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2O_3)$ synthesized from B. monosperma at high concentrations, that is, 25, 50, and 100 µg/mL, led to a reduction in cell viability with IC $_{50}$ value of 52 \pm 3.14 µg/mL.

Since the main objective of this study was to investigate the diversity of biological nanoparticles, extract "EXT," nanoparticles "NP", and docetaxel "DOC" were used as controls and the concentration variation in them was not important for this study.

Effect of nanoparticles synthesized from *Butea* monosperma reactive oxygen species generation

Our experiments provided evidence for a molecular mechanism of the Fe₂O₂NP-inducing generation of ROS and it could be one of the factors for apoptosis. To know the effect of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) in oxidative stress, measured ROS generation using the H2 DCF-DA assay. Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃)-induced intracellular ROS generation was evaluated using intracellular peroxide-dependent oxidation of DCFH2-DA to form fluorescent DCF. DCF fluorescence was detected in cells treated with Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) for 48 h. As shown in Figure 8, the ROS levels generated in response to Hematite (\alpha-Fe₂O₃) were significantly higher in Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃)-treated cells than control. Taken together, all these results indicate that cell death is mediated by ROS production, which might alter the cellular redox status and it is a potential reason for cell death. The Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) at concentration 25, 50 (P < 0.05 vs. control) and 100 µg/mL (P < 0.001 vs. control) significantly induced the intracellular ROS production in MCF-7 cells. Treatment with N-acetyl-L-cysteine (5 mM) prevented the enhancement of DCF fluorescence intensity.

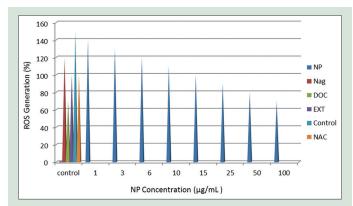


Figure 8: Reactive oxygen species generation in nanoparticles synthesized from *Butea monosperma* treated MCF-7 cells. Relatively fluorescence of 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate was measured at 485 nm excitation and 520 nm emissions. NAC (5mM), Nag (0.01 M), DOC (120 nM) and EXT (100 μg/ml). Hematite (αFe₂O₃) at concentrations 25, 50 (P < 0.05 vs. control) and 100 μg/mL increased cell death (P < 0.001 vs. control). NAC: N-acetyl-L-cysteine, Nag: Fe₂O₃NO₃, DOC: Docetaxel, EXT: Extract

Effect of nanoparticles synthesized from *Butea* monosperma Cai²⁺

The effect of different concentrations of Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) was tested on MCF-7 cells [Figure 9]. Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) synthesized from *B. monosperma* increased intracellular of Cai²⁺ at concentrations 25, 50 (P < 0.05 vs. control) and 100 µg/mL (P < 0.001 vs. control); however, plant extract did not. Silver nitrate (Fe₂O₃NO₃) (0.01 M) increased intracellular of Cai²⁺ (P < 0.05 vs. control).

DISCUSSION

Overall, our results showed that the biologically synthesized Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) has antiproliferative activity through induction of cell death in MCF-7 breast cancer cell line, proposing that biologically synthesized Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) might be a potential option specialist for human breast cancer therapy. Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) are metallic nanostructures with useful surface properties and have been used for various purposes, such as the production of wound dressings and cosmetics and in the medical industry as device-coating agents. [24,25] However, many studies showed that Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) may induce genotoxicity and cytotoxicity in cancer and normal cell lines. [24] Physical and chemical properties of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂), including surface chemistry, weight, size distribution, shape, particle morphology, particle composition, coating/capping, agglomeration, dissolution rate, solution particle reactivity, efficiency of ion release, type of cell and finally type of reducing agents used for synthesis, are essential elements in determining cytotoxicity. [25] In the present study, the phytochemicals present in the extract of B. monosperma flower are, namely glycosides and flavonoids, which act as reducing as well as a capping agent and helping in stabilizing the nanoparticles. Since the plant components are flavonoids, some of the effects observed in this study are likely to be reflected in this component. It has already been observed that quercetin in the plant has been effective on MCF-7 cells by increasing cell death, reducing cell proliferation and effecting free radicals. [26] When silver salt is treated with an extract of B. monosperma flower, the silver salt is reduced to Hematite (α -Fe₂O₂). The synthesized nanoparticles, which are capped with B. monosperma extract also, exhibit enhanced anticancer activity. In the present study, the UV-Vis results showed a peak at 440 nm corresponding to the SPR in the optimized conditions (10% extract concentration, 1:1.5 concentration ratios of the reactants and time of 24 h). To obtain the optimized conditions for synthesis of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂), the effect of

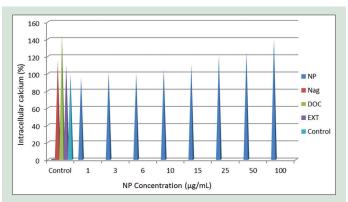


Figure 9: Effect of nanoparticles synthesized from *Butea monosperma* on intracellular of calcium (Ca²⁺). Increases in Ca²⁺ levels and cytotoxicity after 48hr were often linked. Nag (0.01 M), DOC (120 nM) and EXT (100 μg/ml). Hematite (αFe₂O₃) at concentrations 25, 50 (P < 0.05 vs. control) and 100 μg/mL increased cell death (P < 0.001 vs. control). Nag: Fe₂O₃NO₃, DOC: Docetaxel, EXT: Extract

process variables such as extract concentration, the concentration ratio of the reactants and time was studied using UV-Vis spectroscopy. In this assessment, the reduction of silver ions into Hematite (α -Fe₂O₂) during exposure to B. monosperma flower extracts could be monitored by the color change. The fresh extract of B. monosperma was yellow in color. However, after addition of Fe₂O₂NO₂ and incubation for 24 h, the mixture turned dark brown, which indicated the formation of Hematite (α -Fe₂O₂). It seems that the color changes in aqueous solutions are due to the SPR phenomenon. [27] The chemical constituents present in B. monosperma flower extract play as reducing agents for the bioreduction of $\mathrm{Fe_2O_3}$ ions as well as stabilizing agents. [28] The UV-Vis spectrum of Hematite (α -Fe₂O₂) in aqueous solution shows an absorbance peak around 450 nm due to SPR.[29] Our results showed that the SEM Fe₂O₃ of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) were spherical. In another study, the SEM Fe₂O₃ showed relatively spherical-shaped particles in the range of 30-50 nm. [30] XRD pattern also clearly showed that the Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) formed by the reduction of Fe₂O₂ ions by the B. monosperma flower extract are crystalline in nature. [31] The FTIR spectrum showed the presence of various functional groups such as hydroxyl groups, amine groups, and carbonyl groups. Indeed, FTIR spectroscopy measurements are carried out to identify the biomolecules that bound specifically on the silver surface and the local molecular environment of capping agent on the nanoparticles. The FTIR spectroscopic study confirmed that the guava extract has the ability to perform both reduction and capping functions on the Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃).^[32] In another study, the FTIR peak at 1637/cm for Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) synthesized using Andrographis paniculata extracts can be attributed to the carbonyl stretch of amides and could be associated to proteins that potentially cap Hematite $(\alpha$ -Fe₂O₃).^[33]

The cell viability assay is an important method for cytotoxicity analysis that describes the cellular response to toxic materials and it can provide information on cell death, survival and metabolic activities.[34] In our experiment, results suggest that Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) were able to reduce the cell viability of MCF-7 cells in a dose-dependent manner in MCF-7 cells for 48 h. Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) synthesized from B. monosperma at high concentration concentrations (25, 50, and 100 $\mu g/mL$) increased cell death with an IC₅₀ value of 52 \pm 3.14 $\mu g/mL$. Nevertheless, plant extract at 2 mg/mL did not exhibit any cell death. It has been reported that the IC₅₀ value against A549 cells was 40 µg/mL for Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) synthesized by extracts of Gossypium hirsutum. [34] Our results suggest that the highest concentration of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) synthesized from B. monosperma significantly inhibits the growth of cells. It has been reported that Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) and Fe₂O₃NO₃ have cytotoxicity in a dose-dependent manner in human liver cells, among these materials Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) showed higher cytotoxicity compared to Fe₂O₃NO₃. [35] Moreover, Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃)-treated cells showed the decreased metabolic activity, which depends on nature of cell types and size of nanoparticles.[35] The cytotoxic activity of the synthesized Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) and Podophyllum hexandrum (Jaft) extract containing Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) has been investigated against human breast cancer cell (MCF-7) and the IC₅₀ were found to be $50 \pm 0.04 \,\mu\text{g/mL}$ at 24 h. Although the synthesized nanoparticles from the B. monosperma in this study have reduced cell viability in MCF-7 human breast cancer cell line, it may also affect the normal cells in the body. In the present study, the potentiality of Hematite (α-Fe₂O3) synthesized from B. monosperma to induce oxidative stress was assessed by measuring the intracellular ROS level. MCF-7 cells exposed to Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) for 48 h showed increased ROS formation as evidenced by the increased DCF fluorescence intensity. The Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) from. B. monosperma significantly induced intracellular ROS production in MCF-7 cells at the concentrations 25, 50, and 100 µg/mL. Elevated levels of ROS due to Fe₂O₂ NPs exposure may lead to the failure of cellular antioxidant defense

system in MCF-7 cells and thereby severe oxidative attack. Oxidative stress is one of the key mechanisms of toxicity related to nanoparticle exposure. [36] ROS generation has been shown to play an important role in apoptosis induced by treatment with Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) [20 nm]. [37-39] In an experimental study, the toxicity of starch-coated Hematite (α -Fe₂O₂) was tested using standard/normal human lung fibroblast cells (IMR-90) and human glioblastoma cells (U251). The toxicity was evaluated using changes in cell morphology, cell viability, metabolic activity and oxidative stress. [40] In another study, smaller particles of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) with a size 15 nm hydrocarbon-coated are reported to produce more toxicity in macrophasesFe₂O₂ than the size 55 nm by increasing the ROS generation. [41] Interestingly, Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) themselves can produce ROS and oxidative stress as well as the process to release Fe₂O₃⁺. [42] Nevertheless, it has been concluded that increased levels of oxidative stress markers and decreased levels of antioxidants in carcinoma or the tongue suggest that oxidative stress markers play a significant role in pathophysiology of this cancer. [43] The effect of ROS on cancer cells is controversial. The extent of ROS-induced damage can be exacerbated by decreased efficiency of antioxidant defense mechanisms. Antioxidants have been shown to inhibit initiation and promotion in carcinogenesis and counteract cell immortalization and transformation. [44] It has been observed that diets rich in fruits and vegetables can decrease both oxidative DNA damage and cancer incidence. By contrast, agents increasing oxidative DNA damage usually increase the risk of developing cancer. [45] Understanding the role of ROS at the molecular level is very important for designing a suitable protective strategy for cancer treatment, which has attracted the attention of researchers.

Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂) synthesized from B. monosperma increased Cai²⁺ at concentrations 25, 50, and 100 µg/mL in a dose-dependent manner in MCF-7 cells although plant extract (only one concentration was used) did not. Cai²⁺ is believed to play a crucial role in mediating cell death. An increased amount of Cai²⁺ causes more mitochondrial Ca²⁺ uptake. Ca²⁺ accumulation in mitochondria is one of the primary causes of mitochondrial permeability transition (PT), through the opening of the PT-pore and this is an important key factor in the apoptotic pathway. [46] It has been reported that TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, ZnONPs and quantum dots increase intracellular calcium by releasing calcium from intracellular stores and facilitating the entry of calcium into the cell.^[47] Changes in Cai²⁺ levels mediate a variety of cellular processes. High Cai²⁺ levels mediate plasma membrane repair but may also induce cell death.^[48] Although there was no clear link between increased Cai2+ levels and lysosomal dame or ROS generation in MCF-7 cells, they both were increased cell death in a dose-dependent manner.

CONCLUSION

Hematites (α-Fe₂O₂) have emerged as an important class of nanomaterials for a wide range of industrial and medical applications. Developing biocompatible molecule, using nanotechnology, as an anticancer agent is one of the novel approaches in the field of cancer therapy. We have successfully synthesized and prepared stable Hematite $(\alpha - \text{Fe}_{2}\text{O}_{2})$ (8–12 nm) using an aqueous extract of B. monosperma flower, which is green, environmentally friendly, cost-effective, and rapid method for synthesis of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₂). Hence, this study focused on the cytotoxicity assay of Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) from *B. monosperma* on MCF-7 breast cancer cells and its mechanism of cell death. We observed that Hematite (α -Fe₂O₂) from B. monosperma hindered the growth of MCF-7 breast cancer cells in a dose-dependent manner using the MTT test. It appeared to exert cytotoxic activity through activation of the ROS generation and Cai2+ increase. The present results demonstrated that Hematite (α-Fe₂O₃) from *B. monosperma* may be a potential therapeutic medicament for human breast cancer treatment.

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Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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