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## Chapter 10

# The Disaster of Water Pollution by Heavy Metals: A New Perspective on the Risks, Unique and Sustainable Remedial Techniques

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## Abstract

**Introduction:** Water pollution is one of the major concerns faced by society in the twenty-first century, intending to improve water quality and reduce human and environmental impacts. Water contaminants are produced as a result of industrialization, climate change, and urbanization. The main source of the increased levels of heavy metals in

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aquatic ecosystems has been recognized as a result of anthropogenic activity. The chapter is a comprehensive review of the contamination of water bodies by heavy metals leading to disastrous consequences.

*Methods:* This review is the result of a collaborative effort to inform readers and pass on knowledge about a serious issue facing humanity today by detailing its origins, effects on the environment and human health, and possible solutions. Google Scholar, Scopus, PubMed, and PubMed Central are used to conduct a comprehensive literature search on the internet. Work was done to organize the data so that it was most relevant to the topic of the search. Most recent data was compiled and obsolete sources were removed.

*Results:* In this article, the most current and significant results related to heavy metal leakage, as well as the potential consequences to human health and the environment have been discussed. Some of the health risks associated with prolonged exposure to heavy metal residues, such as lead, cadmium, mercury, and arsenic, are discussed. This article also highlights the possible sustainable ways to reduce the menace of heavy metals, with a major focus on bioremediation techniques. The mechanisms at the cellular level, involved in the process of bioremediation, have also been taken into consideration.

**Keywords:** phytoremediation, pollution, phytoextraction, sustainable, toxicity

## Introduction

For the survival of humans, easy access to potable water is crucial. World Water Development Report published by UNESCO in 2021 states that freshwater consumption has increased by around 1% per year since the 1980s (a six-fold rise during the past century) (Vanham et al., et al., 2021). The primary issues resulting from increased water consumption are its quality and quantity. The effects of industry, agricultural productivity, and urbanization have caused environmental deterioration and pollution. Water pollution is one of the deadly consequences of these anthropogenic activities, which in turn is harming human health and long-term social development (Lin et al., 2022). The amount of industrial and community sewage deposited into the atmosphere without any preliminary treatment is estimated to exceed 80% worldwide (The world bank, 2020), which harms ecosystems and human

health. Due to a lack of wastewater treatment infrastructure and sanitation, this percentage is significantly greater in the poorest countries. (Lin et al., 2022). Industrialization (Rajput et al., 2017), agricultural practices (Kumar et al., 2021), inadequate water supply, and inefficient sewage treatment facilities (Bekturganov et al., 2021) are the chief reasons for water contamination. Primarily, the industry is the major contributor to water pollutants (Ilyas et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021), including tannery (Asaduzzaman et al., 2016), pulp and paper (Singh and Chandra, 2019), textile (Kumar et al., 2021), iron and steel (Tong et al., 2018), nuclear (Miao et al., 2013), and distillery industries (Mikucka & Zielińska, 2020). In the process of industrial manufacture, a variety of dangerous chemicals are released. These waste products consequently cause water pollution, if introduced into aquatic habitats untreated (Chowdhary et al., 2020). Heavy metals (HMs) like arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), lead (Pb), and chromium (Cr) that are discharged into the water come from industries, which adds meaningfully to water contamination (Ngoc et al., 2020; Du et al., 2020). Industrial wastewater generation has gradually increased as a result of accelerated urbanization (Wu et al., 2020). Human health, aquatic life, and agriculture are seriously threatened by several harmful pollutants present in wastewater produced by many industrial sectors. Heavy metals namely Cr, zinc (Zn), Pb, copper (Cu), iron (Fe), Cd, nickel (Ni), As, and mercury (Hg) are examples of such contaminants. The manufacturing of paint and dyes, textiles, pharmaceuticals, paper, and fine chemicals are the industries that release the majority of these HMs (Ahmed et al., 2021). Consuming contaminated water is the major reason for heavy metal (HM) exposure to humans. As a result, people experience kidney and cardiovascular problems, neurological damage, and an increased risk of cancer and diabetes. Reactive oxygen species production is recognized as the primary mechanism underlying HM-induced toxicity, which results in oxidative damage and adverse health effects. Thus, the use of HM-contaminated water contributes to high rates of sickness and mortality all around the world (Rehman et al., 2018) and has taken the form of a disaster. With the lack of treatment facilities, this disaster seems to aggravate with time. A summary of the disastrous effects of HM pollution on humans is provided in this chapter. Efforts have been made to illustrate possible ways to remediate HMs using microbes and plants.

## Methodology

### Sources of Heavy Metal Contamination in Water

Natural metallic elements with high density and atomic weight are known as heavy metals. (Li et al., 2019). They are pervasive throughout the environment and have a plethora of applications including industrial, domestic, agricultural, medical as well as technological (Edelstein & Ben-Hur, 2018). However, the major concern is their potential adverse effects on human health. Their toxicity can be attributed to several factors. These factors include the dose, the route of exposure, the chemical nature of the species, the age, the gender, the nutritional status, or any other genetic predisposition (Liu et al., 2018).

The HMs of main concern are As, Cd, Pb, and Hg (Bi et al., 2020). These are the HMs having a great impact on public health. They are considered systemic toxicants, capable of causing damage including multiple organ failures even at very small doses of exposure (Zeng et al., 2020). This is the case with metalloid As, which is recognized to be hazardous even at very low exposure levels or doses (Zeng et al., 2020).

The routes of exposure to HMs include ingestion (involving the oral route), inhalation, dermal or skin contact, and the parenteral route (Zwolak et al., 2019). Heavy metals are also referred to as chemical carcinogens for their potential of causing cancer in human beings (Jin et al., 2019). The public health concern related to these HMs has been exacerbated in recent years (Wu et al., 2018). Due to the increasing rise in the usage of HMs in industry, agricultural, residential, and technological applications, humans are becoming more susceptible to such HM exposure (Men et al., 2018).

#### *Natural Source*

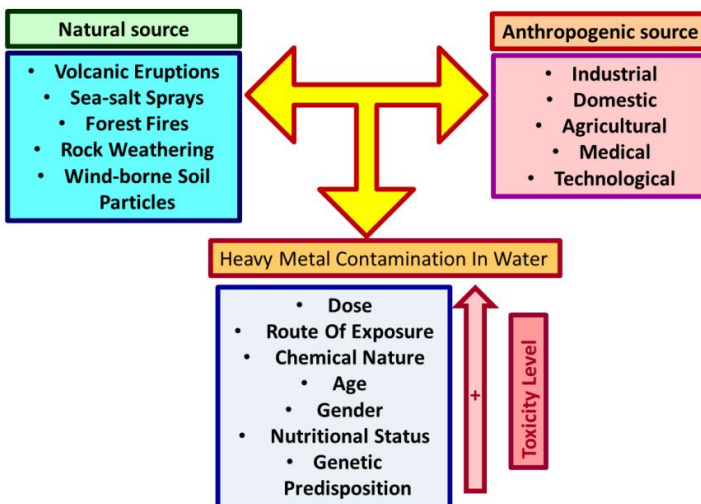
The main sources of HM contamination in water are natural and manmade. Numerous studies have examined different natural processes that might lead to the contamination of soil with HMs. These include volcanic eruptions (Bazzi et al., 2020), sea-salt sprays (Gaur et al., 2021), forest fires (Srivastava et al., 2017), rock weathering (Chheang et al., 2021), and wind-borne-soil particles (Liang et al., 2017; Shirani et al., 2020). They are typically liberated from their endemic spheres by natural weathering processes. Additionally, organic compounds, hydroxides, oxides, sulfides, sulfates, phosphates, silicates, and HMs can also be detected (Sharma et al., 2021).

### ***Anthropogenic Source***

When it comes to the serious effects of HM contamination in water, anthropogenic sources play a crucial role. It includes mining operations (Piñeiro et al., 2021), indoor dust from leather industries (Junaid et al., 2017), fertilizer manufacture (Alengebawy et al., 2021), coal combustion (Jaishankar et al., 2014), pharmaceutical industry (Nessa et al., 2016), and electronic waste recycling activities (Houessionon et al., 2021). The anthropogenic sources often lead to disastrous consequences in society. Heavy metal contamination is primarily caused by the discharge of wastewater, with no appropriate treatment, into groundwater and surface waters (Astatkie et al., 2021; Shimod et al., 2022). Most HMs and their compounds are discovered in streams as sediments. Because they are non-biodegradable, HMs are harmful to the environment and people's health (Kapahi and Sachdeva, 2019). An alarming rate of growth in the amount of HM contamination in groundwater has been observed, mainly from anthropogenic sources including coal-fired power stations (Verma et al., 2016), smelting (Camacho et al., 2011), and other industrial performances (Karthikeyan et al., 2021). Cadmium contamination in the water is exacerbated by the effluents from manufacturing sectors such as batteries (Ni-Cd) (Idrees et al., 2018), paints (Apanpa-Qasim et al., 2016), plastic, and electroplating (Kobyas et al., 2010). On the other hand, agricultural sources like phosphate fertilizers with Cd are also contributing to the Cd poisoning of water resources (Bandara et al., 2011). Today, Pb contamination of groundwater is a burdensome and intimidating issue for society. Lead pollution in groundwater is a consequence of battery manufacturing facilities (Van der Kuijp et al., 2013). Lead pollution in water is directly being added by old, used pipes that contain Pb (Jarvis et al., 2018). Lead pollution in water is also caused by industrial sources and auto emissions (Karrari et al., 2012; Wani et al., 2015). The extensive use of Cr in the chemical sector, the fabrication of dyes, the storage of wood, the tanning of leather, the chrome plating of metals, the development of various alloys, etc. causes environmental pollution in a variety of ways (Zhitkovich, 2011).

Industrialization and technological development have caused a significant amount of hazardous waste, HMs, and organic toxins to be released into the environment, which has caused significant harm to the ecosystem (Mahey et al., 2020). Due to its toxicity, HMs in water bodies have an impact on the biota. They can also bioaccumulate, which has an impact farther up the food chain. Biomagnification is the process by which a contaminant, such as a metal, gradually increases in concentration as it moves up the food chain (Mahey et al., 2020).

Waters become contaminated with heavy metals due to human and natural activities, particularly those related to industrialization. Heavy metal contamination of wastewater results in severe environmental pollution that endangers both human health and the ecosystem. The treatment of wastewater, particularly that coming from the metal sector, has been one of the biggest issues in recent years, according to (Lellis et al., 2019). Heavy metal concentrations are high in these types of effluents. Zn, Pb, Cr, Ni, Cu, Mn, Co, Al, and other metals are examples of those that can be found in these effluents and are mostly produced by various businesses (Lellis et al., 2019). Due to drip irrigation, sludge applications, solid waste management, automotive emissions, and commercial disposal of wastes, HM pollution has posed a major risk to the ecosystem. Multiple studies have shown that industrial wastewater contains HMs in amounts that are higher than those allowed for drinking water or surface/irrigation water (Arregui, et al., 2019). In certain regions of India, farms are irrigated with wastewater that contains excessive quantities of HMs (Arora, 2018). Heavy metals have bioaccumulated in crops and related food chains as a result of the application of HM-contaminated water in agricultural areas. Rainwater and contaminated surface or groundwater cause indirect HM pollution. One of the most crucial sources of fresh water is rivers, which are significantly impacted by sources of pollution (Arora, 2018). Figure 1 schematically illustrates the different sources of HM pollution in the atmosphere.



**Figure 1.** Various sources of heavy metals.

## Result

### Toxicological Effects of Heavy Metals

There have been numerous toxicological reactions linked to heavy metal exposure in both humans and animals. With the onset of the “itai-itai” disease in Toyama Prefecture, Japan, following World War II (1950), the first case of Cd poisoning ever recorded, the general public became more aware of cadmium’s disastrous consequences. Consuming runoff water carrying Cd from adjacent mountain mining operations caused the Itai-Itai, or “ouch-ouch,” sickness. The disease’s moniker comes from the painful cries brought on by excruciating pain in the spine and joints. Bioassays carried out in the middle of the 1960s, utilizing the injection method of exposure, were the first investigations demonstrating Cd to be a carcinogen (Huff et al., 2012). The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC, 2012) has classed Cd as carcinogenic (Group 1) because of its demonstrated positive relationships with kidney and lung malignancies, as well as potential relationships with prostate and breast cancers (Filippini et al., 2022). An international problem, Cd pollution of water and soil significantly affects food and drinking water supplies in Asia and Africa. To reduce anthropogenic Cd output, additional efforts should be prioritized to clean up wastewater, prevent the leaching of contaminated material, such as in landfills and mines, and cut back on the usage of phosphate fertilizers polluted with Cd (Kubier et al., 2019). The risk of various chronic ailments, particularly kidney disease, has also been linked to high levels of Cd (Madrigal et al., 2019), bone (Li et al., 2021), and cardiovascular problems (Borné et al., 2015). Atherosclerosis (Barregard et al., 2021), hypertension (Lee et al., 2016), and metabolic syndrome (Ayoub et al., 2021), which cause cardiovascular disorders, have also been linked to even modest levels of Cd exposure (Jeong et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2021). Apart from humans, there are several reports of adverse effects of Cd in animals. The selected studies about the effects of Cd on various organs of rats and mice have been illustrated in Table 1 while Figure 2 illustrates the harmful effects of HMs in humans and animals,

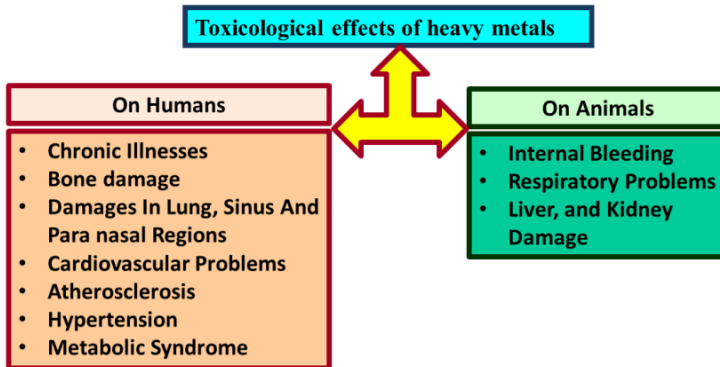
Chromium is a potentially harmful metal that can be encountered in surface and groundwater due to anthropogenic and natural activities. Chromium’s oxidation state has a significant impact on its biological effects.



**Table 1. Effects of cadmium in rats and mice**

S. No.	Affected animal	Organ affected	Adverse effects	Reference
1.	Rats	Kidney	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Swelling of glomeruli, severe damage of renal tubules, rupture of the capillary network, necrosis of the epithelial cells, gathering of cells in the lumen, serious renal interstitial congestion, and seeping of inflammatory cells into the interstitium.</li> <li>Abnormalities in the mitochondrial ridge, vacuoles, and swelling and distortion of the mitochondria.</li> </ol>	Liu et al., 2019
2.	Male Sprague-Dawley rats	Kidney	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Swelling of glomeruli and narrowing of capsular space.</li> <li>Cytoplasmic degeneration of epithelial cells of renal tubules in the cortex.</li> <li>Occurrence of pyknotic nuclei with condensed chromatin in the epithelial cells of proximal convoluted tubules and collecting ducts.</li> <li>Increase in malondialdehyde (MDA) content in the kidney.</li> <li>Reduced renal glutathione (GSH) levels and antioxidant enzyme activity, including catalase (CAT) and superoxide dismutase (SOD).</li> </ol>	Fang et al., 2021
3.	Male Wistar rats	Kidney	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Diffuse disintegration of renal tubules and glomerulus.</li> <li>Severe renal cortex congestion, glomerulus collapse, and necrosis.</li> </ol>	Abarikwu et al., 2017
4.	Sprague Dawley (SD) rats	Testes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Various magnitudes of spermatogenic epithelial anomalies namely shedding of cells, abnormal nuclear division, pyknosis of the nucleus, and occurrence of vacuoles.</li> <li>Spermatogenic epithelium separation from the basal membrane.</li> <li>Atrophy of tubules characterized by necrosis.</li> <li>Reduced spermatogenesis and deformation of spermatogenic epithelium.</li> <li>Increased level of MDA and reduced actions of GSH, CAT, and SOD.</li> </ol>	Chen et al., 2022
5.	Sprague Dawley (SD) rats	Testes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reduction in weight of testes.</li> <li>Reduction in sperm count, sperm motility, and sperm viability.</li> <li>Shrinkage of spermatogenic cells in seminiferous tubules of testes.</li> <li>Reduction in the density of spermatozoa and number of interstitial cells in the center of seminiferous tubules.</li> <li>Reduction in GSH content.</li> <li>Increase in MDA and hydrogen peroxide content.</li> </ol>	Wang et al., 2021
6.	Male Wistar Rats	Liver	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Slight hydropic degeneration of hepatocytes.</li> </ol>	Abarikwu et al., 2017

S. No.	Affected animal	Organ affected	Adverse effects	Reference
7.	Male albino Wistar rats	Liver	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Microvesicular steatosis hepatocytes with ballooning of hepatocytes and pericellular fibrosis.</li> <li>2. An increase in the enzyme levels for alanine, aspartate, alkaline phosphatase, and lactate dehydrogenase.</li> <li>3. Decrease in activities of antioxidant enzymes namely SOD, GPx, and CAT.</li> </ol>	Al-Baqami and Hamza, 2021
8.	Male Swiss albino mice	Brain	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Vacuolation, crowding, hyperemia, lymphocytic permeation, and edema in the brain.</li> <li>2. Significant decrease in acetylcholine esterase activity.</li> <li>3. Significant decline in the content of glycogen.</li> </ol>	Vijaya et al., 2020
9.	Male Wistar rats	Pancreas	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Significant pancreatic degeneration, scattered islets of Langerhans, hyalinized interstitial connective tissue (HICT), and lymphocyte (L) replacing the islet cells</li> </ol>	Aja et al., 2020
10.	Female Wistar rats	Ovary	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Severe corrosion of ovarian follicles and poor vascularization.</li> <li>2. Reduction in red blood cells.</li> <li>3. Reduction in FSH and LH in serum.</li> </ol>	Oyewopo et al., 2020
11.	Female Wistar rats	Uterus and Ovaries	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Significantly thickened endometrium.</li> <li>2. Degeneration of corpora luteum and damage of oocytes.</li> </ol>	Nasiadek et al., 2018



**Figure 2.** Toxicological effects of heavy metals

Nutritionally, the important trace element Cr (III) is nontoxic and poorly absorbed. The most toxic form of Cr is Cr(VI) which causes internal bleeding, respiratory problems, liver, and kidney damage. It has been categorized by the International Agency for Research on Cancer as Group I human carcinogen (Tumolo et al., 2020) and has disastrous consequences on human health. When breathed, hexavalent chromium [Cr(VI)] is known to cause cancer. However, only a tiny part of the population is affected by inhalational exposure to Cr(VI), primarily due to industrial exposures. However, oral exposure to Cr(VI) is frequent and has a significant worldwide impact (Sun et al., 2015). Additionally, sufficient evidence connects Cr(VI) to lung, sinus, and paranasal regions cancers. (Deng et al., 2019). According to research, serum Cr levels and lung cancer incidence are connected (Baszuk et al., 2021). Another study confirmed the association of exposure to Cr with the occurrence of sinonasal epithelial cancers (d'Errico et al., 2020). Hexavalent Cr is testified to induce extrinsic apoptosis in human renal epithelial cells. In a study, it was reported that after 24 and 48 hours of incubation, exposure to Cr(VI) dramatically reduced the viability of HK2 cells and increased intracellular ROS production. In HK2 cells treated with  $K_2Cr_2O_7$ , the expression of apoptotic pathway indicators such as cleaved caspase 3 and poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase rose significantly. HK2 cells treated with  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  also showed the activation of intrinsic and extrinsic apoptotic markers (Wu et al., 2019). In numerous investigations, the toxicity of Cr to animals has been documented. A recent report states the alteration of the diversity of gut microbiota in chickens. It was shown that Cr exposure reduced the variety of bacteria in the stomach and caused dysbiosis (Li et al., 2021). The hepatotoxic effects of Cr(VI) of *Ctenopharyngodon idellus* were also evaluated in a recent study. According to

the study's findings, hexavalent Cr exposure caused intercellular vacuolation, sinusoidal dilation, hemorrhage, peripheral nuclei, cytoplasmic vacuolation, nuclear pleomorphism, lymphocyte infiltration, hyperplasia, pyknotic nuclei, karyolysis, nuclear vacuolation, and necrosis in the liver tissues of fish. In addition, there was an increased MDA content and increased activity of antioxidant enzymes (Handa and Zindal, 2021). Another study found that *Channa asiatica* exposed to hexavalent Cr had impaired digestion and immunity, increased oxidative stress, and increased levels of genes related to apoptosis and inflammation (Yu et al., 2021). In *Chana punctatus*, exposure to hexavalent Cr resulted in a significant increase in the activities of antioxidant enzymes such as SOD and CAT. *In vivo* studies indicated a significant upsurge in the generation of micronuclei along with transcriptional responses of target genes linked to antioxidant enzymes, DNA damage, and apoptosis (Awasthi et al., 2018). In Zebrafish, hexavalent Cr induces DNA damage through the apoptotic pathway. It was observed that there was a transcriptional up-regulation of p53, Bax, Caspase 9, and Caspase 3 and down-regulation of the Bcl2 gene, thereby, affirming the onset of apoptosis (Shaw et al., 2022). In *Sousa chinensis* lowered the viability of fibroblasts of skin cells through induction of apoptotic pathway accompanied by onset of oxidative stress. Moreover, there was an upsurge in the percentage of cells arrested in the G2/M transition along with the upregulation of p53 and increased expression of caspase 3. Alteration of mitochondrial membrane potential and altered expression of Bcl-2/Bax was also noted upon exposure to Cr (Yu et al., 2018).

Numerous incidences of Hg poisoning have also been documented throughout the world, and each year, many people pass away as a result. Three major Hg poisoning cases were documented in the 20th century. The first was the Minamata disease, which occurred in Kyushu, Japan, and poisoned 2200 individuals when they consumed Hg-tainted fish and shellfish. Secondly, there were 700 victims of Hg poisoning documented in Niigata (the main island of Honshu, Japan) between the 1950s and 1960s (Maruyama et al., 2012; Rafati-Rahimzadeh et al., 2014; Yorifuji et al., 2020). The third pandemic of Hg poisoning occurred in Iraq between the 15th of September and the first week of December 1971. In that period, 73000 tons of wheat and 22000 tons of barley, treated with organomercury compounds were distributed for planting purpose but was somehow consumed which resulted in a toxic response, attracting investigation at international levels (Skerfving and Copplestone, 1976). In Bolivia, Hg pollution has also caused a significant issue. Northwest of *La Paz*, Bolivia, in the Apolobamba gold mining region, high Hg levels

were discovered. According to reports, the sediments from the *Sunchull-Viscachani* Lake and river have Hg concentrations of 102, 12.3, and 11.7 mg per kg, respectively (Acosta et al., 2011). Additionally, residents around the lower Beni River, where gold mining was most prevalent, were reported to have greater Hg levels in their hair than the unexposed population (Barbieri et al., 2009). Additionally, it was asserted that Titicaca's mercury levels were 3–10 times lower than those in Uru Uru Lake (Guédron et al., 2017). Another occurrence connected to Hg pollution is the catastrophe at the Schweizerhalle. In Switzerland, Schweizerhalle is an industrial area close to Basel. Environmental contamination occurred as a result of a fire at the Sandoz Limited warehouse on November 1st, 1986. According to estimates, the fire destroyed over 1250 tonnes of chemicals kept in the building. The majority of these chemicals were then released into the nearby Rhine River after being driven off into the environment by firefighter water. Highly dangerous Hg compounds were contained in the stored materials and were identified by the luminous red dye rhodamine B, which upon contamination caused the Rhine River to become red. The catastrophe caused changes to the rhine river's aquatic flora and wildlife (Giger, 2009). According to a recent analysis, Hg as a pollutant is found in the sediments and water of Lake Baikal and the nearby Selenga delta (Roberts et al., 2020). Since inorganic Hg can be changed into the hazardous form of methyl Hg in aquatic ecosystems and elemental Hg is reemitted globally into freshwater settings, aquatic ecosystems are a crucial part of the biogeochemical cycle of Hg (rivers and lakes) (Kocman et al., 2017). Potential environmental changes were found to have a significant impact on the Mississippi River deltaic freshwater marsh soil's capacity to absorb Hg, indicating that these aspects should be taken into account when mitigating the impact linked with Hg in freshwater wetlands to be ready for potential future climate change scenarios (Park et al., 2018). Mercury has negatively affected all biotic components of the ecosystem. Table 2 illustrates the effect of Hg on selected organisms.

Owing to its physiochemical properties, Pb is a HM that has been extensively used in a variety of industrial and home settings. Depending on the degree and length of exposure, Pb exposure in humans can have various biological impacts, including detrimental impacts on the hematological, cardiovascular, neurological, and reproductive domains (Fenga et al., 2017).

**Table 2. Toxic effects of mercury on selected organisms and humans**

S. No.	Study System	Target Tissue/ Parameter	Study Location	Source	Toxic Effect	Reference
1.	<i>Acanthopagrus latus</i>	Hematological parameters	Creeks of Malashar Region, Iran	Hg in creek water	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Significant increase in values of differential neutrophils and monocytes than the control.</li> <li>2. Significant decrease in hemoglobin, hematocrit, leukocyte count, and differential eosinophil, lymphocyte, and mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration than the control.</li> <li>3. Significant depletion in total protein concentration while increase in glucose concentration.</li> </ol>	Hedayati et al., 2012
2.	Harbour seals	Hematological and molecular parameters	Seal Station, Friedrichskoog, Germany	Hg of marine water/ Exposed to methyl Hg	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. A significant drop in the proportion of lymphocyte proliferation when exposed to methyl Hg.</li> <li>2. A decrease in DNA, RNA, and protein synthesis.</li> <li>3. Reduced cytokine indexes</li> </ol>	Das et al., 2008
3.	<i>Pseudosciaena crocea</i>	Larva & Embryo	Laboratory experiment	Methyl Hg	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Increase in mortality of larva and embryo.</li> <li>2. Decrease in hatching rate.</li> <li>3. Significant decrease in yolk absorption.</li> <li>4. Deformity in the spine, tail curl, degeneration of the tail, pericardial edema, and erosion of the fin of the larva.</li> </ol>	Yu et al., 2019

**Table 2. Toxic effects of mercury on selected organisms and humans**

S. No.	Study System	Target Tissue/ Parameter	Study Location	Source	Toxic Effect	Reference
4.	<i>Betta splendens</i>	Fish	Laboratory experiment using neurological parameters of fish	Mercuric chloride	1. Decrease in motor activity. 2. Impairment of partner selection, territoriality, reproductive behavior, avoidance of predators, and eating behavior.	Mansur et al., 2012
5.	<i>Heteropneustes fossilis</i>	Fish	Laboratory experiments using hematological and behavioral parameters	Mercuric chloride	1. Increase in lymphocytes and basophils. 2. Decrease in counts of Eosinophil, Neutrophil, and Monocytes. 3. Behavioral changes namely restlessness, abnormal swimming, jerks, loss of balance, and secretion of mucus observed.	Das et al., 2020
6.	Human	Children	An epidemiologic cohort study in an Italian coastal area	Methyl Hg	1. Relationship between maternal fish diet and methyl Hg exposure during pregnancy and children's development of fine motor abilities	Barbone et al., 2020

Additionally, the International Agency for Research on Cancer has recognized inorganic compounds as possible human carcinogens (category 2A) (Rousseau et al., 2005). In a variety of human groups, Pb exposure has been linked to an amplified possibility of the bladder (Golabek et al., 2009), gastrointestinal (Sohrabi et al., 2019), and lung cancer (Wynant et al., 2013). Major macromolecules, as well as the liver (hepatotoxicity), nervous system (neurotoxicity), kidneys (nephrotoxicity), and DNA (genotoxicity), are the main targets of Pb toxicity. Lead cytotoxicity is largely related to the activation of the c-Jun NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal kinase, phosphoinositide 3-kinase, or Akt and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase signaling pathways. Lead greatly reduces cell differentiation and maturation and increases apoptosis via a signaling cascade and related components. Lead also has a significant impact on metabolic processes including heme production, which causes anemia in Pb-exposed individuals (Singh et al., 2018). Pb exposure resulted in 900 000 deaths and 21.7 million years of lost healthy life, or DALYs, globally in 2019, as per the estimations from the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation. The burden was greatest in low- and middle-income nations. According to IHME's estimates, Pb exposure was also responsible for 6.25 percent of the world's burden of developmental intellectual disability with an unknown cause, 8.2 percent of the world's burden of hypertension, 7.20 percent of the world's load of ischaemic heart disease, and 5.65 percent of stroke in 2019 (World health organization, a). Although Pb levels in source water are typically low, components of water distribution systems that contain Pb, such as Pb service lines and Pb pipes, solders, and faucets, can leak Pb into the water. The presence of Pb in the distribution or plumbing system, the age of the plumbing system, the water chemistry, and water consumption modes are some of the elements that affect Pb release. Lead components may also be found in water coolers and fountains (Levallois et al., 2018). In Benin, a study reported high blood Pb levels in mothers due to the consumption of piped water (Bodeau-Livinec et al., 2016). In another investigation on children, it was reported that the developmental quotients of adaptive behavior, fine motor skills, language improvement, and individual social conduct were all significantly negatively correlated with blood Pb levels. More children with Pb poisoning exhibited deviant behaviors than children who were healthy, particularly social isolation, despair, odd body motions, anger, and destruction (Hou et al., 2013). Lead toxicity also has an impact on animals. Studies have been undertaken to ascertain the effects of Pb on the animal system. One of the studies on *Heteropneustes fossilis* indicated a decrease in levels of plasma calcium and phosphate upon exposure to inorganic Pb (Srivastav et al., 2013).



In another study on the same species, it was found that exposure to Pb resulted in a decrease in the gonado-somatic index, the content of total protein, glucose, and nucleic acids. In addition, there was also an expression of metallothionein. At the histological level degeneration of spermatogonia was observed with the aggregation of spermatogonial cells and degeneration of interlobular tissue. Prolonged exposure to Pb resulted in dead sperms, vacant seminiferous tubules, and degeneration of spermatocytes (Choubey et al., 2015). The effect of Pb and Cd was studied on African Catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*). The result of the study indicated that individual exposure to Pb and Cd resulted in decreased activities of lactate dehydrogenase and SOD. In addition, Pb significantly increased the levels of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase and decreased the levels of the reduced GSH in the gills. Cadmium elevated the levels of CAT in the kidney and liver and also induced lipid peroxidation as evidenced by an upsurge in MDA levels (Elarabany and Bahnasawy, 2019). Exposure to sub-lethal concentrations of Pb in *Labao rohita* resulted in increased expression of cytochrome P450 1 A (CYP1A) and cytochrome P450 3 A (CYP3A). In addition, there was an upregulation of heat shock proteins (Hsp60 & Hsp70) and metallothionein. Both the number of red blood cells and the serum levels of the liver-marker enzymes alanine transaminase and aspartate transaminase decreased (Pandi Prabha et al., 2022).

In more than 50 countries, spanning several continents, As contact is one of the biggest disasters to community health. With the identification of more recent sites and a rising prevalence of affected individuals, the global situation regarding As pollution has been evolving (Sanyal et al., 2020). As contamination of drinking water is significant in several locations, and As groundwater contamination is pervasive. As levels over the WHO's interim recommendation limit of 10 g/L have been detected in at least 140 million people in 50 different countries. (World health organization, b). Around the world, 500 million people are thought to be affected by groundwater poisoning by As (Shaji et al., 2021). Continuous contact with high As water damages the liver (Yao et al., 2021), kidney (Zhao et al., 2021), heart (Al-Forkan et al., 2021), and lungs (Signes-Pastor et al., 2021) in addition to causing pigmentation, hyperkeratosis (Kaur and Budhwar, 2021), and skin cancer (Mayer and Goldman, 2016). The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has designated as a class I human carcinogen, indicating that there is sufficient evidence of its carcinogenicity to humans. (Martinez et al., 2011). It has been stated that the presence of As in drinking water is negatively associated with the occurrence of lymphoma and leukemia in both men and women (Lin et al., 2022). In a study done in the state of Bihar in India, it was

shown that the population residing in places with proximity to the Ganges has a greater risk of developing cancers. The study also states that compared to sarcomas, lymphomas, and leukemias, carcinomas have a higher prevalence of cancer disease burden, which is associated with As exposure. According to the study, people who live in the Gangetic basin continue to be exposed to hazardous levels of As, which can cause a variety of malignancies (Kumar et al., 2021a). In a related study conducted in the Bihar village of Chapar, it was shown that 52 percent of the entire groundwater samples had an As concentration that was higher than the WHO-permitted standard, which is 10 g/L. The health study of the locals reveals that exposure to As has caused serious health risks among the exposed population, including prominent skin expressions, appetite loss, anemia, constipation, diarrhea, generalized body weakness, higher blood pressure, breathing difficulty, diabetes, cognitive impairments, lumps, and a small number of cancer incidences. The hair of the locals had As which was higher than the permissible limit set by WHO. Arsenic was also detected in the urine samples of the locals (Kumar et al., 2022). In another study performed at the Shahpur block of Bhojpur district in the Indian state of Bihar, it was found that 21.1 percent of the tubewells had an As concentration above 10 and 50  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , respectively. Skin lesions were observed among the local population while hair, nails, and urine had As above normal levels. Arsenical neuropathy was also observed and the pregnancy of the women was adversely affected along with the development of skin lesions (Chakraborti et al., 2016). A study reported As content in the water of the handpump of Khap Tola, West Champaran in the Indian state of Bihar. It was also calculated that children in the age group of 5-10 years possess a high risk of developing cancer (Bhatia et al., 2014). In Sabalpur village of Saran district in Bihar, the groundwater was reported to contain As above the permissible limit of WHO. The hair samples of the people living in the region also had As above the permissible limit. The health survey study's findings revealed that the exposed population had a high illness burden with symptoms like asthma, anemia, hepatomegaly, diabetes, heart issues, fungal infections of the skin, shortness of breath, and mental impairment. A few cases of kidney, skin, breast, and cervix cancer were also discovered among this village's unprotected residents (Kumar et al., 2021b). In another study done at Simri village in Bihar, it was found that the drinking water contained As above the permissible limit. There was also a high concentration of As in the blood of the residents accompanied by symptoms like hyperkeratosis, hyperpigmentation, etc. (Rahman et al., 2019). According to estimates, 50 million people in Bangladesh could get As exposed by consuming water from

tainted tubewells. Arsenicosis is brought on by long-term exposure to As and may entail several organ diseases. In Bangladesh, many of the negative health impacts of chronic poisoning are visible (Ahmad et al., 2018). A study performed in the Araihaazar region of Bangladesh reported dyspnea among people exposed to As contamination in drinking water and this was found free of their smoking habit (Pesola et al., 2012).

The element manganese (Mn), which is extensively dispersed in terrestrial and coastal environments, is present in trace quantities in the organisms. Mn is a mineral that must be present in all living things at minute levels to maintain various biological processes and life (Li and Yang, 2018). Due to Mn's diverse physiological functions, which frequently hide the sense of its potential toxicity, studies on the severe toxic effects this element has on various environments like water, soil, and air are rare (Queiroz et al., 2021). Increased Mn levels in the drinking water in the Bangladesh region, according to studies among school children, are inversely correlated with students' math achievement scores (Khan et al., 2011). It has been discovered that children of school age in Canada who drink water with high levels of Mn are found to have much greater levels of Mn in their hair samples. There is a substantial correlation between elevated levels of Mn in the hair and elevated levels of hyperactive behaviors (Bouchard et al., 2007). A unique disorder associated with Mn toxicity is manganism. Manganism, also known as Mn poisoning, is a condition that develops as a consequence of prolonged exposure to Mn. James Couper made the initial discovery of it in the year 1837 (Rizvi et al., 2017; Blanc, 2018). Manganism is characterized by an excessive accumulation of Mn in the brain. Parkinson's disease and manganism share several symptoms. Patients with manganism display psychotic symptoms in the early stages of the illness. These symptoms are followed by persistent symptoms linked with changes in extrapyramidal circuits, such as akinetic stiffness, dystonia, and bradykinesia. Manganism is a neurodegenerative disorder that occurs due to exposure to Mn (Aschner et al., 2009).

### **Plant-Mediated Removal of Heavy Metals**

Heavy metals are substances that are nonbiodegradable i.e., not degraded by any biotic substances or even by any physical progression, and as a result are insistent in the soil for an extended period (Suman et al., 2018). But these HMs are also playing an important role in the biological system. Certain HMs are vital for the physiological and biochemical processes of biological organisms

including plants but up to a proper amount (Cempel and Nikel, 2006). If they are present in excess amounts, they may be converted into noxious. On the contrary, non-essential HMs are exceedingly lethal (Fasani et al., 2018). Thus, the removal of such elements is essential.

Phytoremediation is a process of remediation that encompasses the usage of flora to abstract and eradicate fundamental pollutants or reduce their accessibility in soil (Berti and Cunningham, 2000). A more affordable, non-intrusive, and widely accepted method of removing environmental toxins is to use floras to bioremediate polluted soil, water, and air (Singh et al., 2003). The process of phytoremediation can be classified into the following categories (Ralinda and Miller, 1996).

### ***Rhizofiltration***

It is the preoccupation, absorption, and condensation of HMs by the root systems of plants. Rhizofiltration is used chiefly for the clearance of contaminated superficial aquatic, sewage as well as excess water encompassing fewer quantities of HMs. The process comprises the adsorption as well as precipitation of the metal pollutants onto or by the roots. Before using the plants for the rhizofiltration process, plants are primarily elevated hydroponically and then relocated to the contaminated water source afterward. Generally, in this process, the plants that are used belong to terrestrial or aquatic habitats, though terrestrial plants are favored due to their fibrous and long roots (Rezania et al., 2016).

### ***Phytoextraction***

It is the withdrawal and accretion of impurities in the plant tissue systems consisting of roots as well as surface shoots. To be appropriate for phytoextraction resolves, plant species should follow the following conditions (Vangronsveld et al., 2009):

- It should be metallotolerant for the elements present in toxic levels,
- It should produce biomass at a rapid rate. and
- It should have the current gathering of HMs in easy-to-harvest parts.

### ***Phytotransformation***

It is the dilapidation of complex organic molecules into small molecules as well as the integration of these into plant tissues.

Phytoremediation is growing as an economical way of handling wastes, particularly surplus petroleum hydrocarbons, organic matter, etc. Applications are verified for cleansing up dirtied soil, water, and air.

### ***Phytostimulation***

It is plant-assisted bioremediation that stimulates the dilapidation of micro-mycobial dilapidation by the emancipation of exudates or enzymes into the rhizosphere.

### ***Phytostabilization***

It entails pollutant absorption and precipitation by plants, as well as lowering their mobility and inhibiting migration to groundwater, the atmosphere, or the food chain. To immobilize HMs beneath a field that restricts their accessibility, which prevents their migration within the network and lowers the likelihood that metallic elements will enter the food chain, phytostabilization is used (Marques et al., 2009).

In the event of excessive HM precipitation or decreased metal accessibility in the rhizosphere, phytostabilization may result in the capture and sequestration of metals within root tissues or adsorption on root cell walls (Gerhardt et al., 2017). The different types of phytoremediation processes are illustrated in Figure 3.

The assortment of apt plant species is decisively aimed at phytostabilization. On the way of achieving the necessity of exceedingly operative phytostabilization, plants should be lenient in HM conditions. To quickly create a vegetative cover in a particular place, plants should have compact roots organization, be able to produce a high quantity of biomass and grow quickly. Plant species that meet the aforementioned criteria have been identified and employed for phytostabilization (Burgess et al., 2018).

All the advantageous features overshadow the encounters confronted in utilizing phytoremediation as a key treatment technology. Though bearing in mind, the use of this technology at a particular polluted field or site, certain criteria should be taken under consideration to make the clean-up process more efficient and the least hazardous for the plants used.

Several plant species have been recorded, to date, which has great potential to remediate various HMs in water or soil. Different studies have

proposed and supported those plants, like *Brassica juncea* (Siddiqui et al., 2020), *Setaria italica* (Chiang et al., 2011), *Pistia stratiotes* (Das et al., 2014), *Salvinia molesta* (Nithya et al., 2021), *Salvinia minima* (Iha and Bianchini, 2015), *Typha latifolia* (Yang and Shen, 2019) and *Azolla filiculoides* (Naghypour et al., 2018) can efficiently lessen the amount of Cd in water and soil. The plant species reported for the effective remediation of Pb are *Brassica juncea* (Kaur et al., 2015), *Azolla filiculoides* (Naghypour et al., 2018), *Carex pendula* (Yadav et al., 2011), *Pistia stratiotes* (Zahari et al., 2021), *Salvinia minima* (Iha and Bianchini, 2015) and *Typha domingensis* (Mojiri et al., 2013). Similarly, other HMs like Aluminum (Al), Fe, Mn, Ni, and As, various plants have been mentioned in the literature. Table 3 enlists the important plants that have the potential for HM bioremediation.

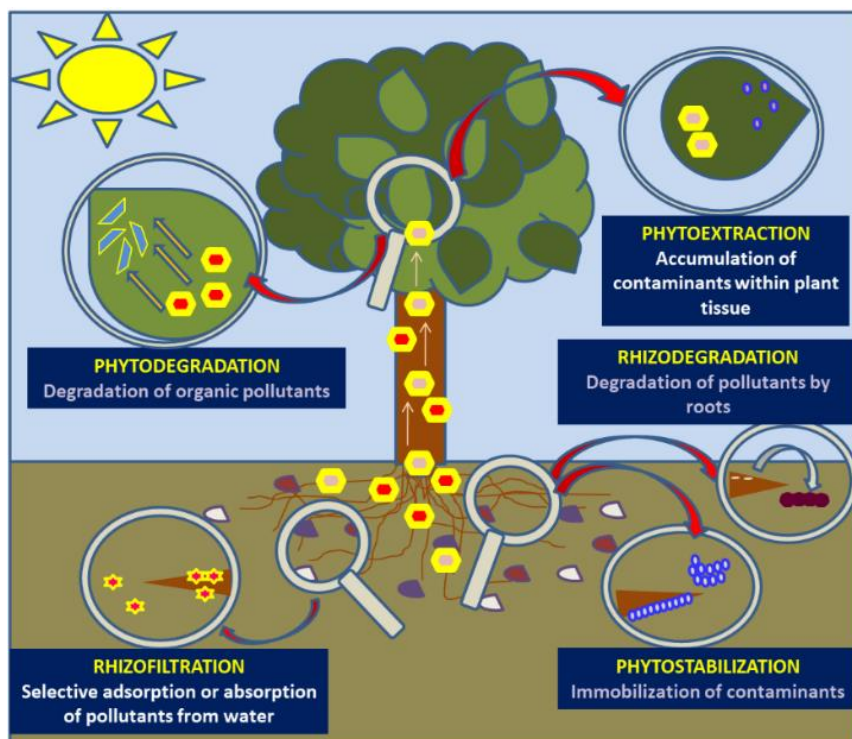


Figure 3. Types of phytoremediation.

**Table 3.** Plants used to remediate heavy metals

S. No.	Metals remediated/absorbed	Name of the plant	Family	References
1.	Cadmium	<i>Brassica juncea</i>	Brassicaceae	Siddiqui et al., 2020
		<i>Setaria italica</i>	Poaceae	Chiang et al., 2011
		<i>Pistia stratiotes</i>	Araceae	Das et al., 2014
		<i>Salvinia molesta</i>	Salviniaceae	Nithya et al., 2021
		<i>Salvinia minima</i>	Salviniaceae	Iha and Bianchini, 2015
		<i>Typha latifolia</i>	Typhaceae	Yang and Shen, 2019
		<i>Azolla filiculoides</i>	Salviniaceae	Naghpour et al., 2018
		<i>Cardaminopsis halleri</i>	Brassicaceae	Chandra et al., 2022
		<i>Cannabis sativa</i>	Cannabaceae	Ahmad et al. 2015
		<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	Brassicaceae	Yadav et al., 2017
		<i>Raphanus sativus</i>	Brassicaceae	Yadav et al., 2017
		<i>Azolla pinnata</i>	Salviniaceae	Rai, 2008
		<i>Cicer arietinum</i>	Fabaceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
		<i>Helianthus annuus</i>	Asteraceae	Alaboudi et al., 2018
		<i>Lepidium sativum</i>	Brassicaceae	Vakili & Aboutorab, 2013
2.	Lead	<i>Lactuca sativa</i>	Asteraceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
		<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Poaceae	Wang et al., 2013; Zhong and Chen, 2020
		<i>Brassica juncea</i>	Brassicaceae	Kaur et al., 2015
		<i>Oxycaryum cubense</i>	Cyperaceae	Alves et al., 2014
		<i>Azolla filiculoides</i>	Salviniaceae	Naghpour et al., 2018
		<i>Carex pendula</i>	Cyperaceae	Yadav et al., 2011
		<i>Pistia stratiotes</i>	Araceae	Zahari et al., 2021
		<i>Salvinia minima</i>	Salviniaceae	Iha and Bianchini, 2015

S. No.	Metals remediated/absorbed	Name of the plant	Family	References
2. (Cont'd)	Lead	<i>Typha domingensis</i>	Typhaceae	Mojiri et al., 2013
		<i>Azolla filiculoides</i>	Salviniales	Hassanzadeh et al., 2021
		<i>Cucumis sativus</i>	Cucurbitaceae	Kubota et al., 2006; Shehata et al., 2020
		<i>Cicer arietinum</i>	Fabaceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
		<i>Brassica napus</i>	Brassicaceae	Park et al., 2012; Kamran et al. 2019
		<i>Brassica nigra</i>	Brassicaceae	Koptsik 2014; Sahay et al., 2020
		<i>Betula occidentalis</i>	Betulaceae	Koptsik 2014; Kanwar et al., 2020
		<i>Cardaminopsis halleri</i>	Brassicaceae	Chandra et al., 2022
		<i>Euphorbia cheiradenia</i>	Euphorbiaceae	Chehregani et al., 2007; Mohsenzadeh & Mohammadzadeh, 2018
		<i>Helianthus annuus</i>	Asteraceae	Alaboudi et al., 2018
3.	Aluminum	<i>Lantana camara</i>	Verbenaceae	Alaribe & Agamuthu, 2015; Saimi et al. 2017
		<i>Pistia stratiotes</i>	Araceae	Vesely, et al.2012
4.	Iron	<i>Typha</i> sp.	Typhaceae	Bonanno and Cirelli, 2017
		<i>Pistia stratiotes</i>	Araceae	Kumar et al., 2019
5.	Manganese	<i>Typha domingensis</i>	Typhaceae	Hegazy, et al., 2011
		<i>Pistia stratiotes</i>	Araceae	Lu et al., 2011
		<i>Cnidocolus multilobus</i>	Euphorbiaceae	Juárez-Santillán, et al., 2010
		<i>Platanus mexicana</i>	Platanaceae	Juárez-Santillán, et al., 2010
		<i>Solanum diversifolium</i>	Solanaceae	Juárez-Santillán, et al., 2010
		<i>Asclepius curassavica</i>	Apocynaceae	Juárez-Santillán, et al., 2010
		<i>Pluchea sympitifolia</i>	Asteraceae	Juárez-Santillán, et al., 2010
		<i>Lactuca sativa</i>	Asteraceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
7.	Copper	<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i>	Pontederiaceae	Hammad 2011
		<i>Brassica juncea</i>	Brassicaceae	Sharma et al., 2018
		<i>Brassica napus</i>	Brassicaceae	Park et al., 2012; Kamran et al. 2019



**Table 3. (Continued)**

S. No.	Metals remediated/absorbed	Name of the plant	Family	References
7. (Cont'd)	Copper	<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	Brassicaceae	Yadav et al., 2017
		<i>Raphanus sativus</i>	Brassicaceae	Yadav et al., 2017
		<i>Cardaminopsis halleri</i>	Brassicaceae	Chandra et al., 2022
		<i>Cicer arietinum</i> L.	Fabaceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
		<i>Euphorbia cheiradenia</i>	Euphorbiaceae	Chehregani et al., 2007; Mohsenzadeh & Mohammadzadeh, 2018
		<i>Haumaniastrum katangense</i>	Lamiaceae	Sheoran et al., 2009; Mohsenzadeh & Mohammadzadeh, 2018
		<i>Lactuca sativa</i>	Asteraceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
8.	Nickel	<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Poaceae	Wang et al., 2013; Zhong and Chen, 2020
		<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i> (Mart.) Solms	Pontederiaceae	Hammad 2011
		<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	Brassicaceae	Yadav et al., 2017
		<i>Raphanus sativus</i>	Brassicaceae	Yadav et al., 2017
		<i>Alyssum murale</i>	Brassicaceae	Bani et al., 2010; Tognacchini et al. 2020
		<i>Euphorbia cheiradenia</i>	Euphorbiaceae	Chehregani et al., 2007; Mohsenzadeh & Mohammadzadeh, 2018
		<i>Lactuca sativa</i>	Asteraceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
9.	Zinc	<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i>	Pontederiaceae	Hegazy et al., 2011;
		<i>Typha domingensis</i>	Typhaceae	Hammad 2011
		<i>Arabidopsis halleri</i>	Brassicaceae	Zhao et al., 2001; Spielmann et al., 2020
		<i>Thalaspia caerulea</i>	Brassicaceae	Ibañez et al., 2018
		<i>Brassica juncea</i>	Brassicaceae	Sharma et al., 2018
		<i>Brassica napus</i> L.	Brassicaceae	Park et al., 2012; Kamran et al. 2019
		<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	Brassicaceae	Yadav et al., 2017

S. No.	Metals remediated/absorbed	Name of the plant	Family	References
9. (cont'd)	Zinc	<i>Raphanus sativus</i>	Brassicaceae	Yadav et al., 2017
		<i>Cardaminopsis halleri</i>	Brassicaceae	Chandra et al., 2022
		<i>Euphorbia cheiradenia</i>	Euphorbiaceae	Chehregani et al., 2007; Mohsenzadeh & Mohammadzadeh, 2018
10.	Arsenic	<i>Lactuca sativa L.</i>	Asteraceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
		<i>Cynara cardunculus</i>	Asteraceae	Llugany et al., 2012
		<i>Eleocharis acicularis</i>	Cyperaceae	Sakakibara et al., 2011; Awa & Hadibarata, 2020
11.	Mercury	<i>Achillea millefolium</i>	Asteraceae	Wang et al., 2012; Verma et al., 2021
12.	Synthetic dye	<i>Arundo donax</i>	Poaceae	El-Aassar et al., 2018
13.	Chromium	<i>Cicer arietinum</i>	Fabaceae	Sumiahadi & Acar, 2018
		<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i>	Pontederiaceae	Mishra et al., 2009; Ibezim-Ezeani et al., 2020

## **Algae and Microbe Remediated Removal of Heavy Metals**

Bacteria are widespread in the environment. Bacteria come in a variety of morphologies, such as spiral, cocci, rods, and filamentous (Singhal et al., 2021). A simple and effective method for removing contaminants from wastewater, including non-biodegradable substances like HMs, is biosorption by bacteria. The recalcitrant nature of the toxic HMs imposes a significant threat to global health. The existing physiochemical techniques that are deployed in cleaning up the polluted environment are costly and often lead to the production of other hazardous byproducts (Etesami, 2018). For this purpose, some alternative cost-effective eco-friendly methods and sustainable technologies are necessitated to reduce the toxicity of these HMs. Microbe-mediated removal of these HMs is among these cost-effective techniques (Gupta, & Diwan, 2017). Several microbes are quite predominant in the soil rhizosphere that can be exploited for the removal of these toxic metals from the soil (Zeng et al., 2020). This is known as bioremediation, which has been termed a successful eco-friendly technology so far.

Bacteria comprise specific plasmid-mediated systems that encode a range of genes, responsible for the detoxification of HMs (Ojuederie & Babalola, 2017). Bacteria play an important part in the biogeochemical cycle of hazardous HMs and can thus be used in the bioremediation of these heavy metals (Tiwari & Lata, 2018). The bacteria are responsible for the biotransformation of these toxic HMs and are capable for regulation of their homeostasis in the environment. The genes that are responsible for the transformation or mobilization of HMs are usually located on the chromosomes or extrachromosomal genetic determinants more popularly known as plasmids (Igiri et al., 2018).

However, despite the similitude, there is a difference in the efflux properties and resistance properties. The chromosomal genes encode for the resistance properties invoicing essential HMs and such systems are considered more complex than the plasmid-encoded counterparts (Sarma et al., 2019). The plasmid-encoded genes on the contrary are responsible for toxin metal ion efflux or mediate the transfer of the resistance cassettes to other microbes (Jacob et al., 2018). Comparative genomics research has revealed that horizontal gene transfer involving plasmids has been responsible for the spread of HM resistance in the eubacteria groups.

Numerous investigations have also demonstrated the existence of a mechanism that actively contributes to the outflow of such HM ions into the environment. These include exclusion by permeability barrier and enzymatic

oxidation. Reduction processes, adsorption, and intracellular precipitation or complex formation (Devi et al., 2022).

Metal decontamination has been viewed by ecologists and agriculture scientists as a significant technical difficulty (Torimiro et al., 2021). There has been a massive upsurge in the contamination of the sediments and crop fields hence developing cost-effective bioremediation techniques is an absolute prerequisite for the decontamination of HMs (Sun et al., 2021). As suggested by research studies, microorganisms are instrumental in changing the chemical properties of HMs.

Bacteria have developed a variety of strategies to develop resistance to HM ions. Research has been performed on the bioremediation of HM ions by microorganisms (Coetzee et al., 2020). Metals including Cu, Zn, Pb, Cd, and Cr can be quickly removed using bacterial biomass (Yesilada et al., 2018). Heavy metal ions are quickly absorbed by the bacterial species due to their unique peptidoglycan cell wall (Znad et al., 2022). The microbial detoxification of HMs involves the following microbiological mechanisms. These include adsorption to the microbial cell surface, the intracellular uptake of heavy from the environment such as soil as well as chemical transformations (Verma et al., 2021). Metal ions are absorbed and sequestered through the process of adsorption when they adhere to the negatively charged surface of a microbial cell (Thakare et al., 2021). The interaction is electrostatic. With the assistance of certain membrane transporters, the metal ions are transported within the bacterial cell and bioaccumulated there (Mishra et al., 2022). The metal ions are then immobilized (Mishra et al., 2022). The main physical interface between metal ions and bacterial biomass is the cell wall of the bacterium. Anionic functional groupings' total negative charge (Zak et al., 2021). Bacteria may remove HMs from wastewater and lessen the quantity of chemical sludge created by exploiting functional groups such as the ketones, aldehydes, and carboxyl groups contained in their cell walls (Zak et al., 2021). For the uptake of metals, both gram-positive and gram-negative microorganisms are utilized.

There are two distinct types of absorption mechanisms that microbes have developed. The transport of metal ions across the bacterial cell membrane is carried out by two different systems, one of which needs cellular energy in the form of ATP and the other of which is a substrate-nonspecific fast system. Such processes instead involve a chemosmotic gradient (George et al., 2021).

Additionally employed as biosorbents are green, red, and brown algae (Jasmin et al., 2020). Bacteria include some functional components that can do ion exchange, including uronic acid, which contains carboxyl and sulfate

groups, xylans, galactans, and alginic acid (Jasmin et al., 2020). Algae are advantageous as biosorbents because, unlike other microbes like bacteria or fungi, they often do not create poisonous chemicals. By complexation, the anion carboxyl groups can bind Cd on the surface.

The amino groups have demonstrated effective chelation and electrostatic interaction elimination of Cr. Bioremediation has been carried out using organisms including *Pseudomonas*, *Desulfovibrio*, *Bacillus*, and *Geobacter* (Pratush et al., 2018). According to reports, *Aspergillus* sp. can remove Cr from tannery wastewater; it did so to the tune of 65 percent of the wastewater's Cr as opposed to 85 percent of the synthetic medium's Cr (Pratush et al., 2018).

In microbial cells, the toxic metal ions are reduced through dissimilatory reduction processes whereas in the case of anaerobic respiration, microbes are known to use metals as a terminal electron transport chain (Xu et al., 2022). An effective efflux system ought to be available to export the metal ions' reduced form to successfully reduce the harmful HM ions. (Xu et al., 2022). As mobilized forms are frequently more poisonous, metal solubilization can have unfavorable effects. Microbes can detoxify and move potentially harmful HMs via a variety of innate microbial defense mechanisms.

The metal-sensitive elements of the bacterium are protected by permeability barriers that exclude metal. For instance, in the case of *Escherichia coli*, the elimination of Cu is attained by the alternation of the porosity of the membrane-channeled porin protein (Ghosh et al., 2022). The resultant mutant has altered permeability to the HMs. Periplasmic sequestration also contributes to Cu resistance by employing periplasmic binding of some forms of Cu (Pal et al., 2022). These have been studied in *Pseudomonas* sp. which comprises a repository of genes cop A, B, C, and D that are located in inner and outer membranes contributing to Cu resistance (Deng et al., 2022). In *Staphylococcus aureus*, another penicillinase containing plasmids that have been associated with membrane permeability and Cu resistance are also observed.

There are several efflux systems or transporters present in microbes that have been identified to cause the exclusion of several HMs. The P type ATPase in an efflux protein is responsible for efflux of Cd in *S. aureus* + (Sreedevi et al., 2022). ABC transporter proteins are found to cause the efflux of Mn in *Streptococcus gordonii* and Ni in *E coli* + (Sreedevi et al., 2022). Resistance, nodulation, and cell division (RND) transporters have been found in several gram-negative bacteria + (Sreedevi et al., 2022). Such transporters along with membrane fusion proteins and outer membrane factors are

responsible for the formation of a Trans-envelope pore. This cumulatively forms the CzcCBA efflux pump and has been known to take part in the detoxification of metals like  $Zn^{2+}$ ,  $Co^{2+}$ , and  $Cd^{2+}$  (Sreedevi et al., 2022). The HoxN protein is associated with the uptake of  $Ni^{2+}$  with high affinity.

**Table 4.** Microbes used to remediate heavy metals

S. No.	Heavy Metal	Species	Type of Microbe	References
1.	Cadmium	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i>	Algae	Romera et al, 2007
		<i>Fucus vesiculosus</i>	Algae	Mata et al., 2008
		<i>Burkholderia</i> species	Bacteria	Jiang et al., 2008
		<i>Pseudomonas veronii</i>	Bacteria	Vullo et al., 2008
		<i>Agaricus bisporus</i>	Fungi	Nagy et al., 2014
2.	Lead	<i>Cladophora fascicularis</i>	Algae	Deng et al., 2007
		<i>Burkholderia</i> species	Bacteria	Jiang et al., 2008
		<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	Fungi	Kumar Ramasamy et al., 2011
3.	Copper	<i>Kocuria flava</i>	Bacteria	Achal et al., 2011
		<i>Aspergillus versicolor</i>	Fungi	Tastan et al., 2010
4.	Zinc	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i>	Algae	Romera et al, 2007
		<i>Spirogyra</i> spp.	Algae	Mane & Bhosle, 2012
		<i>Pseudomonas veronii</i>	Bacteria	Vullo et al., 2008
5.	Nickel	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i>	Algae	Holan & Volesky, 1994

The CHR family of proteins is also involved in the detoxification of sulfate and chromate + (Sreedevi et al., 2022). Apart from this, the other well-known transporters are CDF and ars transporters that are involved in the transport of As or the reduction of toxic arsenate to its nontoxic counterpart arsenite (Arora & Chauhan, 2021). The environment, as well as agriculture, has faced major issues over the last decade owing to human activities. Overexposure to HMs leads to the formation of metal conjugates that leads to random exploitation of valuable environmental sources. In conclusion, as supported by the aforementioned arguments, the concept of bioremediation including bacteria is crucial to address such a situation. Modern genetic

technology and optimization methods point to a bright future for these technologies. Microorganisms that have undergone genetic modification may be more capable of bio-remediating a variety of pollutants. Agricultural and industrial waste, are currently being evaluated for their potential as bioremediations on a lab and commercial scale (Ummalyma et al., 2018). It is now quite simple to create genetically modified or engineered microorganisms (GEMs) by rearranging the genes, promoters, etc. and this can improve their performance *in situ* thanks to recent advancements in genetic engineering. Several GEMs have been successfully developed and experimentally tested for efficient bioremediation under controlled laboratory conditions (Ummalyma et al., 2018). Through the identification of genes linked to degradation and the creation of suitable bioremediation agents, recombinant DNA techniques can be utilized to improve an organism's capacity to metabolize a xenobiotic (Ummalyma et al., 2018). Site-directed mutagenesis, antisense RNA technology, and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) are some of the various methods investigated by recombinant DNA technology. Table 4 enlists selected algae and microbes used to remediate HMs.

### **Mechanism of Bioremediation**

In this world of environmental pollution-related disasters, water pollution is creating a disastrous effect on human health, agriculture, and the biological and physiological processes of different flora and fauna. The water gets mainly contaminated by industrial wastes and petroleum spills in the oceans. This contains recalcitrant and persistent compounds that put the ecological system and human health at high risk (Hazaimah and Ahmed, 2021). Bioremediation is the use of microbial processes for remediation, and it has proven to be a successful implementation because of its environmental friendliness, low cost, and highly efficient method with few negative effects. Bioremediation can be *in-situ* as well as *ex-situ* types which depend on various factors like unlimited cost, characteristics of the sites, pollutant type, and concentration. *Ex-situ* type is more costly as compared to *in-situ* type. The installation of technology on polluted sites and the inability to properly view and regulate the subsurface of contaminated areas are the main on-site challenges (Kapahi and Sachdeva, 2019). The two main bioremediation strategies are biostimulation and bioaugmentation, both of which are supported by favorable environmental elements. With numerous variety and complexity in the pollutants, the bioremediation process is not restricted to one for alleviating the pollutants

from the sites. Indigenous microorganisms take charge to solve this problem which initiates the process of biodegradation (Azubuike et al., 2016). Heavy metals are ubiquitous in the environment due to the heavy load of industrial pollution. They not only pollute the water but also the agricultural soil (Tegene and Tenkegna, 2020). The productivity of the soil gradually decreases with an increase in the contamination rate. Few of the HMs like Cd, copper (Cu), argon (Ar), silver (Ag), Cr, Zn, Pb, uranium (Ur), radium (Ra), Ni, etc. are considered to be toxic to the plants by inhibiting their natural processes thereby affecting the yield of the crops (Wang et al., 2015). These HM's persistence in the soil over time tends to exhibit mutagenic and carcinogenic qualities that reach the food chain and have a risky impact on humans (Ali et al., 2013; Ahemad and Kibret, 2013). The sewage sludge is treated with anaerobic bacteria. The main aim of the bacteria is to produce methane gas from the treated sludge. The presence of microorganisms in this environment acts as a boon to solve this problem. Microbes like *Proteobacteria* sp., *Bacteroidetes* sp., *Acidobacteria* sp., and *Chloroflexi* sp. are the dominant species used for wastewater management (Nascimento et al., 2018). *Vibrio harveyi* exhibits the capacity for bioaccumulation of HMs like Cd up to 23.3 mg Cd<sup>2+</sup>/g of dehydrated cells, whereas, a consortium of marine bacteria removes Hg in a bioreactor. Bacteria of Enterobacteriaceae class inherit the potential of HM chelation, by exopolysaccharide secretion and remove them from the polluted environment (Von Canstein et al., 2002; Jalil et al., 2013).

Species like *Rhodobium marinum* and *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*, can also effectively remove HMs like Cu, Zn, Cd, and Pb from polluted locations through biosorption or biotransformation. *Bacillus* spp. and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* have been utilized to lessen Zn and Cu HMs (Kumar, 2011). Some symbiotic associations of bacteria with plants help them to withstand the toxicity of the HMs of the contaminated environment (Throne-Holst et al., 2007). This mechanism includes biotransformation, extrusion, use of enzymes, generation of exo-polysaccharide (EPS), production of metallothioneins, electrostatic communication, ion exchange, precipitation, redox process, and surface complexion (Javed et al., 2007; Tegene and Tenkegna, 2020). The chief mechanism deals with the oxidation of metals, methylation, decrease in certain enzymes, formation of metal-organic complexion, degradation of metal ligands, metal flux pumps, demethylation, sequestration of intra and extracellular metals permeability barrier exclusion, metal chelator production (Soloman et al., 2009; Kumar et al., 2016). The mechanism of detoxification in fungi is different, which involves, chelating, precipitating, and binding cell walls. In several intercellular activities,



substances are transported into intracellular compartments and bound to sulfur compounds, organic acids, peptides, and polyphosphates (Bellion et al., 2006). The absorption of metal cations by the negatively charged bacterial cell wall is called biosorption. It can be metabolism dependent and independent. Sequestration, redox reaction, and species transformation are components of metabolism-dependent bioaccumulation (World health organization c, 2006). This biosorption can be executed by dead or living biomass (Fomina and Gadd, 2014). The microbes uptake the HMs and change their oxidation state to another thereby making the end product harmless (Kamaludeen et al., 2003). To generate energy, they utilize metals and metalloids as electron donors or acceptors. The oxidized metals act as a terminal acceptor of an electron during anaerobic respiration (Barkay et al., 2003; Van et al., 2006). In direct enzymatic reduction, metals are reduced while organic molecules are oxidized. Indirect enzymatic reduction involves the reduction of metal ions during the oxidation of Fe and sulfur. In active transport, the resistance system of microorganisms for HMs is the mechanism that is followed. They export metal ions from the cell. Genetic determinants are localized on chromosomes (Levin et al., 2004; Green-Ruiz, 2006; Yan et al., 2007) and plasmids (Gupta and Mohapatra, 2003; Ortega et al., 2011). Some metal ions like chromate get transported by the sulfate transport system inside the cell (Tegene and Tenkegna, 2020). The cell uptakes Cd, Zn, cobalt (Co), Ni, and Mn through a magnesium transport system e.g., *Ralstonia metallidurans* (*Alcaligenes eutrophus*). The electrochemical gradient allows the exportation of metals from cell to cell. The efflux system consists of proteins of three families' viz. RND (resistance, nodulation, cell division, CDF (cation diffusion facilitator), and P-type ATPases (Niu et al., 2009).

## Conclusion

The introduction of pollutants into the aquatic ecosystem is a long-old habit of humans which did not change till today despite compensating for their health. Water pollution stems from several inceptions. Though the river and streams have a self-healing capacity from this effect the ponds, lakes, oceans, and sluggish rivers have almost no capacity to withstand this atrocity of anthropogenic activities. Continuous industrial effluents and sewage release are creating serious threats not only to humans but also to flora and fauna by eutrophication. This eutrophication is a severe disaster to the ecosystem and

needs to be immediately addressed. To retard the aggressiveness of water pollution following measures should be followed:

- Strict government laws should be enforced which will create a sense of fear among the public creating awareness. Several amendments and policies related to maintaining water quality came into enforcement in 1886. The River and Harbor Act of 1886 was recodified in the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899. Federal Water Pollution Control Act (1948), for maintaining the integrity of the nation's water. The Water Quality Act of 1965 provided maintaining of water quality standards within as well as interstate. In 1966, the Clean water restoration act came into confidence which levied a fine of 100\$ per day on the polluters who were unable to submit the requisite report. In 1970, Water Quality Improvement Act was brought to expand the certification of water quality. Federal Water Pollution Control Act Amendments of 1972 came into confidence due to the growing concern of water pollution among the people which subsequently became the Clean Water Act (CWA), 1977. Water Pollution Control in India (1993), provided a demonstration to small-scale industries to reduce waste projects where audits were conducted on pulp and paper industries, textiles and dyeing industries, and pesticide industries.
- The main contribution of water pollution can be checked by prohibiting some anthropogenic activities like properly disposing of toxic chemicals (household solvents, bleaching powders, cleaners, paint, etc.), not using fat and grease down the drain, using phosphate-free detergents, eating more organic food, cut down meat eating, avoid plastic containers, and avoid vehicles from leaking and by hugging the strategy of recycling the products. Communities should have hazardous waste collectors who can collect the waste from all the houses of the community and properly dispose of it in government/municipality-allotted areas.
- Installation of the drip-irrigation water system for valuable plants. Plantation of drought-tolerant grasses and plants for landscaping and watering them only in the evening to avoid evaporation shall be practiced.
- Installation of a new generation of biodegradable, efficient, metal-free, non-ion-relating coating and filler for medical devices, i.e.,

antimicrobial inorganic bioglass to provide biocompatible with no cytotoxicity drinking water.

- Installation of smart water purifiers can alleviate the deteriorating water quality and its rising cost.
- The sewage from all over the cities should be treated by microorganisms before their disposal in the water bodies. If the secondary treatment is done, then this wastewater can be reused in sanitary and agricultural systems.
- Some chemical methods of precipitation, ion exchange, reverse osmosis, and coagulation can be practiced.
- Water hyacinth-like water plants can be installed in different places which have the potential of absorbing Cd and Hg and thereby can be potent enough to absorb the pollutants-prone regions which can subsequently reduce the adverse effect to a larger extent.
- Several traditional rituals like cremating dead bodies of humans along with other religious practices, which cause the dumping of waste products into the river should be strictly prohibited.
- Organic fertilizers and pesticides should be used in agricultural practices.
- Lastly, water consumption should be made like an astute citizen and the practice of recycling should be followed whenever possible.

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# ADVANCES IN PHARMACOGNOSY AND PHYTOCHEMISTRY OF DIABETES



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# **Advances in Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry of Diabetes**

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## Chapter 6

# Alkaloids of Natural Origin with Promising Anti-Diabetic Properties

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### Abstract

“Diabetes” doubled in prevalence worldwide in past two decades. The prevalence of type 2 diabetes in children, adolescents, and young adults is one of the most concerning trends in this rapid increase. In spite of the desperate efforts of public health care organisations to control if not eradicate the disease, the diabetes cases are keeping on increasing at an alarming rate. Diabetes is defined by a state of hyperglycemia that can be treated with several synthetic medications in addition to insulin therapy but these alternatives are expensive and have a greater risk. Alkaloids are a family of simple nitrogen containing organic compounds that are found in nature. Alkaloids have been found to have a wide variety of therapeutic benefits in the biological realm, including anti-diabetic characteristics. To that regard, we set out to compile a comprehensive literature review on the beneficial effects of plants, and their extracted alkaloid components for the treatment and control of diabetes along with their mode of action. In this comprehensive analysis, we have shown how alkaloids are effective in lowering blood sugar levels in biological system. This chapter sheds insight on the function of alkaloids derived from various widely available plant products as anti-diabetes and illustrates the mechanism by which they function in this regard. According to this comprehensive review, alkaloids are a potent candidate to prevent and control diabetes and help identify new anti-hyperglycemic drugs.

**Keywords:** Alkaloids, Diabetes, Glucose, Hyperglycemia, Insulin, Glucagon

### 6.1 Introduction

Diabetes is a disease characterized by hyperglycemia due to imperfections in insulin release and activity. These defects can occur in one or both of the pancreas and the liver. Diabetes is linked to persistent hyperglycemia, which can cause long-term damage as well as failure in a variety of organs (1). The development of diabetes is influenced by a number of different pathological processes. These comprise the autoimmune obliteration of the pancreatic  $\beta$  cells (2) resulting in insulin deficit, to anomalies that lead to resistance to the action of insulin (Freeman and Pennings, 2022)(3). The insufficient influence of insulin on tissues is at the root of the abnormalities in glucose, lipid, and protein metabolism that characterize diabetes (American diabetes association) (4)(5)(6). According to projections made by the International Diabetes Federation, the people who have the ailment would more than double from its current prevalence of 425 million in 2017 to 629 million in 2045 (7). This ailment can be categorized



into four primary categories: type 1, 2, gestational, and secondary or other specialised types (8). Type 2 diabetes (T2D) impacted 437.9 million people worldwide in 2019, having an age-standardized point occurrence of 5282.9 cases per million people, a 49% rise since past 30 years. In 2019, there were 1472.9 thousand fatalities from T2D, with an age-standardized fatality rate of 18.5 per million people, up 10.8% from 1990. Type 2 variant caused 66.3 million DALYs in the globe in 2019, having an age-standardized rate of 801.5 DALYs per million, a rise of 27.6% since past 30 years (9). Diabetes type 2 and the co-morbidities that come along with it are responsible for 1 million fatalities globally and consume a large amount of medical resources. Developed areas, such as Europe, exhibit significantly higher prevalence rates, which continue to climb despite the implementation of various public health measures (10). The diabetes-related complications are the single most important factor in determining a patient's overall quality of life (11). It is common for patients to have both impaired insulin production and impaired insulin action, and it is frequently difficult to determine which anomaly is the main contributor to hyperglycemia (12). A societal definition of diabetes incorporates the economic burden the condition places on society due to both the expensive nature of its treatment and the related early morbidity and mortality (13). This chapter will give a brief overview about diabetes and how can this be managed by alkaloids of plant origin. In the next section, an illustration of the types of diabetes would be given.

### **6.2 Types of Diabetes**

The overwhelming bulk of diabetes are of two etiopathogenetic groups. The T1D, has an utter absence of insulin discharge as its aetiology. The more popular T2D is triggered by resistance to and inadequate compensating insulin discharge. However, a lot of subcategories each having specific patterns have also been demarcated in diabetes. This section will briefly discuss about selected major categories of the ailment.

#### **6.2.1 Type-I diabetes**

This variant is synonymous to juvenile-onset diabetes, is brought on as a consequence of an autoimmune procedure that degenerates pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells, impairing pancreas' ability to generate insulin. It is characterized by acute onset, partial insulin dependency, and ketoacidosis (14). It accounts for 5-10% of all known cases in the western world and is brought on by autoimmune, genetic, and/or environmental causes (15). Common symptoms usually include excess urination and sugar discharge with urine (polyuria and glycosuria), increased hunger, weight loss, vision changes also fatigue (16).

#### **6.2.2 Type-II diabetes**

Over 90% of so called diabetic cases which are recorded in the western world are Type-II variant, often described non-insulin-reliant diabetes mellitus (DM). In general, persons with type II diabetes either synthesize adequate insulin that is useless. The development of Type II occurs in the middle or later life and is substantially more common than other types (14). Type-II variant, have a comparatively slow onset. Typically, the condition's primary symptom is insulin resistance, which is initially partially offset by increased insulin production by pancreatic beta-cells (also referred to as hyperinsulinemia). A result of exhaustion, combined effects of insulin resistance and reduced discharge reduce the amount of glucose that is taken up and used by skeletal muscle through the act of insulin and the ability of insulin to synchronize the generation of hepatic glucose (17). Because of upsurge in older population, the prevalence of obesity, moreover, the rise in sedentary behavior, type II diabetes is quickly approaching epidemic levels (18). In addition to Type II diabetes, individuals with other metabolic disorders like hypertension, obesity, and polycystic ovarian syndrome, might possess insulin resistance (19)

#### **6.2.3 Gestation diabetes**

Except for women who likely have overt pre-gestational diabetes, gestation diabetes is also widely known to possess carbohydrate aversion that manifests or is discovered for the first time during pregnant (20). It is a typical medical problem during pregnancy and is linked to a higher rate of unfavorable consequences (neurological and cognitive adversities might be observed) (21)(Langer et al.,2005). Even though the problem usually doesn't linger post delivery, affected women should keep a check against postpartum diabetes if it persists, they generally have a greater danger of suffering from T2D(19).

#### **6.2.4 Other forms of Diabetes**

This category includes maturity-onset diabetes of young caused owing to inheritance of a defective gene set which is responsible for insulin production from the pancreas (22), an autosomal dominant family form of diabetes characterized by mutagenic changes brought about in certain b-cell or liver's hepatic genes (such as HNF homeobox A (HNF-1a) and glucokinase). Surplus or superabundance of certain hormones like corticosteroids or certain drug abundance i.e. immune check point inhibitors in the treatment of cancer, protease inhibitors in HIV virus infection etc stimulates other well-characterized forms of diabetes. Hemochromatosis-related diabetes is another kind of diabetes which is associated with pancreatic disease (19).

#### **6.3 Global Scenario of Diabetes**

Over last 20 years, the dominance of diabetes has nearly twiced globally. The incidence of T2D in kids and lower age people is one of the concerning trends in this speedy increase.. Even though classic risk factors for T2D still exist, recent research has focused on understanding how epigenetic processes and the intrauterine milieu contribute to the disease. (such as genetic, new lifestyle exposure, and behavioral risks) have received attention (23). Organizations like International Diabetes Federation and World Health Organisation are known to keep a regular update of people affected worldwide (24). Since 1994, there has been a significant rise in the number of diabetic population. (25) . In 2006, Resolution 61/225,14 adopted by the UN General Assembly, called for diabetes to be recognized as a global public wellbeing issue(26). The UN General Assembly declaration in 2011 on deterrence and governing of certain non-communicable ailments (27) was trailed by declaration by The World Health Organization to bring down the death rate of such ailments by about 25% by the year 2025 (28). Since then the government has taken initiatives to control the disease. Reports of the International Diabetes Federation predicts approximately 600 million individuals living with the ailment worldwide by the year 2035, up from the previously predicted estimate of 382 million (which was a previously expected value for 2030) in the year 2013(23). The countries known to have a greater number of diabetes cases were: Egypt, Japan, Turkey, Indonesia, Russia, Brazil, Mexico, USA, China, and India. According to recent reports in terms of the prevalence of DM, India comes in second place after China. This disease is more of a burden and a great challenge for developing nations than developed nations due to a comparatively lower income to support expensive medications(29). In so called developed nations, the abundance of this disease is usually higher among the immigrants from underdeveloped nations. Occurrence of diabetes is also higher among the indigenous people of developing nations like Australia and Canada (30) .

Diabetes is a significant contributor to deadly and fatal COVID-19 results. 3,799 papers and 91 research were evaluated and analyzed to better understand the connection between diabetes and COVID-19. Significant findings were that T1D patients were more likely to experience COVID-19-related excess fatalities and critical illnesses than type-2 variant patients, and that meager glycaemic management was a risk factor for severe COVID-19 outcomes (31).Future challenges are huge. Economic growth and increased availability of care will boost treatment and lead to an untenable rise in diabetes-related health costs. Both wealthy and emerging nations are and also will be affected by this global economiccatastrophe (32)(33) Cost-effective inventions with minimum side effects might be a way out.

#### **6.4 Present-day treatment of Type 2 diabetes or sugar diabetes**

Diabetes treatment depends on what type of diabetes a patient is having. Certain tests prescribed to patients who are likely to have Type I or Type II diabetes or are pre-diabetes are: Glycated hemoglobin investigation, Fasting and random blood sugar examination and oral glucose tolerance examination (34). A more or less normal body weight, regular exercise, good food habit, and a proper diet are the most essential for the management of diabetes(35). HaemoglobinA1C testing provides a more comprehensive picture of the effectiveness of your diabetes treatment regimen than repeated daily blood sugar checks. A higher A1C level could indicate that you need to adjust your oral medication, insulin regimen, or diet.

Type 1 diabetes treatment includes insulin injections or pumps, carbohydrate tracking, and blood sugar monitoring. Type 1 diabetics may consider islet cell or pancreas transplants (36). Diet adjustments, sugar levels testing, consumable diabetic medicines, insulin, or a mixture of these are used to treat T2D(37).

Insulinshotsis very essential to patients surviving with type-1 diabetes. Often insulin injections are also prescribed to individuals surviving with type-2 diabetes or gestation diabetes. Since stomach enzymes interfere with insulin's ability to work, it is impossible to take insulin doses orally to lower blood sugar (38). A huge ink pen-like instrument well known as an insulin pen or a very fine needle and syringes are mostly used to inject insulin (39). Specific insulin dosages can be programmed into an insulin pump. In accordance with meals, level of exercise, or blood sugar level, it can be modified to release more or less insulin (40).

Drugs that are administered orally or intravenously. Diabetes medicines increase insulin production. Some reduce insulin needs by preventing the liver from producing and releasing glucose(41). Sulfonylurea insulin secretagogues includes: Glyburide, Glipizide, Chlorpropamide, and Glimepiride. Repaglinide and nateglinide are two examples of short-acting nonsulfonylurea insulin secretagogues(42). Biguanides (Metformin) one of the well-known drugs against type II diabetes acts by preventing hepatic gluconeogenesis and lowering hepatic glucose synthesis, it largely improves insulin sensitivity in liver (43).Both acarbose, voglibose, and miglitol act as inhibitors of alpha-glucosidase. By delaying carbohydrate absorption, these medications can lower postprandial hyperglycemia by up to 50 mg/dL(44). Orlistat is an intestinal lipase inhibitor, while saxagliptin and sitagliptin are dipeptidyl peptidase-IV inhibitors. Insulin sensitizers such as rosiglitazone and pioglitazone are among some of the anti-hyperglycemic agents known to be consumed orally (45). Combination therapy or using multiple oral medications with various modes of action increases the effectiveness of lowering hemoglobin A1c levels (46). Some of the approved combination therapy includes sulfonylureas and metformin, metformin and thiazolidinediones, sulfonylureas and thiazolidinediones, etc (47). Figure 6.1 displays the various treatment strategies to control type-2 diabetes. SGLT2 inhibitors are another option. They hinder kidneys from reabsorbing blood-filtered sugar (48). Pancreatic transplant is another available option for T1D patients (49).

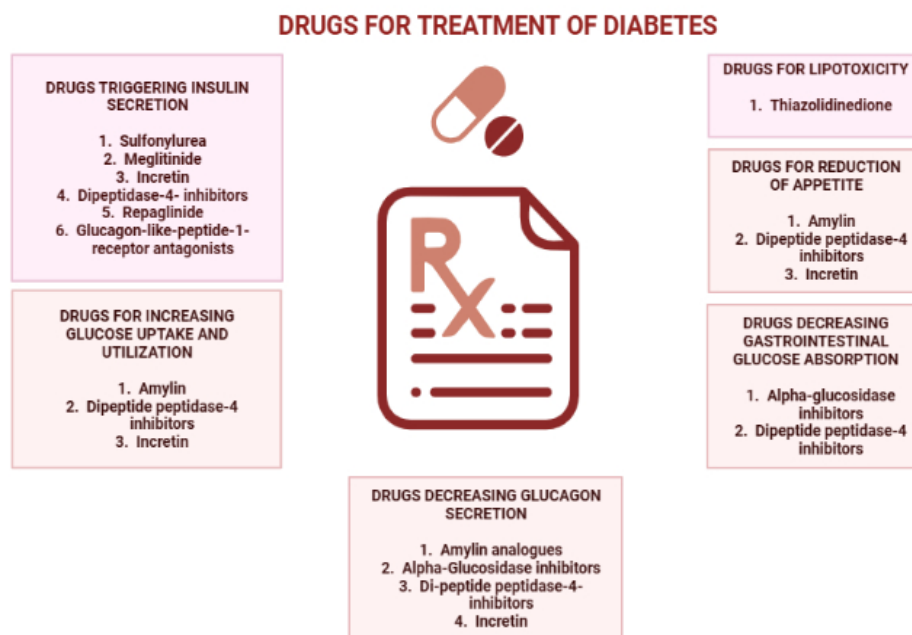


Figure 6.1: Present-day management, possible and relevant treatments of sugar diabetes.

Figure 6.1 shows the different forms of complications due to type-2 diabetes and their respective prescribed drugs as prescribed by health physicians.

### 6.5 Why focus on herbal medications?

Herbal alternatives to chemical alternatives offer various advantages. The first is the complete absence of any negative side effects that could endanger your health or even your life, or the least severe side effects ever(50). According to reports, around 1.5 million people in the US are admitted to various hospitals each year as result of adverse drug reactions (51). Synthetic drugs have several drawbacks, including the development of the body's resistance to various medications after prolonged or improper use (52). As a result, doctors recommend new

and more potent drugs to cure and relieve the sickness, which decreases the drugs' efficacy and harms the body.

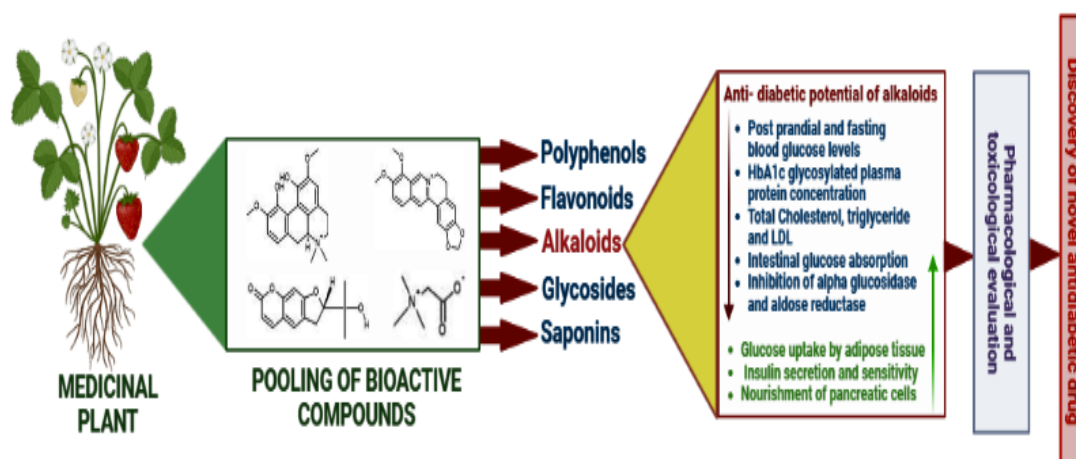
For the first time, Ayurveda under the category of Prameha and Madumeha discussed the importance of diet in the deterrence, causation, and management of diabetes. The Ayurvedic classics CarakaSamhita, SusrutaSamhita, and others provide accurate descriptions of the impact that diet, customs, and lifestyle have in Prameha and Madhumeha, that are parallel to diabetes (53). Nearly 67% of the population, who are diagnosed with DM, are treated using about 700 different recipes., more than 400 plants have been included(54). Numerous in vivo tests on animals to verify the claimed activity have shown the hypoglycemic property of several plants, which has already been described in numerous kinds of literature (55).

It has been reported that even certain mostly prescribed diabetic drugs are known to be responsible for undesirable effects. For example- Stomach ache and diarrhea is a common side-effects of alpha-glucosidase inhibitors (56). Therapies with biguanides and thiazolidinediones might cause kidney damage, weight gain or heart failure, and anemia respectively (57). Regardless of the numerous benefits of incretin-based medications in the remediation of type-2 variant, significant gastrointestinal issues like vomiting, indigestion, a sour stomach,, nausea, and diarrhea continue to be present (58). The clinical trial of the SGLT 2 inhibitors was unsuccessful because of safety issues (59). Moreover, certain drugs for the remediation of diabetic neuropathy are known to have detrimental effects i.e. tricyclic anti-depressants like desipramine, and amitriptyline known to induce relief from pain in diabetic neuropathy, overdosage might lead to death (60) ; Carbamazepine an anti- convulsant known to regulate neuropathic pain also leads to bone marrow suppression and osteoporosis (61).

Although there are many treatments and medications on the market to treat diabetics, their drawbacks, including high cost, poor pharmacokinetics, and drug resistance, makes it imperative to switch from these so called chemical medications to natural, traditional medicines in the form of a herbal remedy. Clinical research has shown that several herbs, including *Ficus racemosa* bark, *Portulacaoleracea* L. seeds, *Cinnamomum cassia*, *Scopariadulcis*, and *Curcumin longa*, have anti-diabetic properties (62). Hence, to ensure a safe future there should be a gradual shift to herbal therapy. The next section will discuss about alkaloids and its antidiabetic potentials.

## 6.6 Introduction to alkaloids

Carl F. W. Meissner, a German chemist, first used the term "alkaloid" in 1819. It was based on the Arabic term al-qali, which is related to soda's original phyto-source (63). Alkaloids are low-molecular-weight substances that account for one-fifth of plants' secondary metabolites (64). Alkaloids are substances found in nature that typically consist of oxygen, carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen. They are largely present in plants, particularly in some blooming plants (65). A plant's secondary metabolism produces alkaloids from terpenes, purines, amino acids, or pyrimidines.(66). Their heterocyclic ring might contain one or more nitrogen atoms. Additionally, this group contains some related neutral and even slightly acidic chemicals (67). There are three major types of alkaloids, and they are called real alkaloids, proto-alkaloids, and pseudo-alkaloids, respectively. While pseudo-alkaloids cannot be synthesised from amino acids, genuine alkaloids and protoalkaloids may (63). True alkaloids possess a N-containing a heterocyclic ring and originate from amino acids, having efficient bioactivity (68). They produce water miscible salts with amino acids (63) . Although they likewise originate from amino acids, proto-alkaloids lack a nitrogen moiety in a heterocyclic structure (68). The carbon backbone of pseudo-alkaloids is simple and not generated from an amino acid (69). An important significant ecological role of alkaloids is their usage by plants as a means of self-defense against the aggression of other creatures. Alkaloids are known to be produced throughout the plant world and are primarily found in higher plants, including those in the Ranunculaceae, Papaveraceae, Menispermaceae, Leguminosae, and Loganiaceae, etc families (70). They are just one of the many phytochemicals found in plants that are observed to be protective in function by lowering the risk of many illnesses and disorders. They are also among the earliest natural products still being used by people today for pharmaceuticals that are essential as medicinal agents (71). Figure 6.2 is a pictorial representation showing the anti-diabetic potentials of plant derived bio-active compounds (mainly alkaloids) and their channeization into development of novel anti-diabetic drugs based on their mode of action.



**Figure 6.2:** Development of antidiabetic drugs based on plants

Current diabetes treatment is reliant on synthetic medications, many of which have negative effects of which it including immediate sugar lowering, lowering of lipid concentration and increase in obesity the most important (17). Because of this, there is a constant requirement to create brand-new, improved medications as alternatives for the control and remediation of the disease. There is consequently a pressing need to create novel therapeutic compounds with different targets and alternative mechanisms of action as the same prolonged, multidrug treatment regimen has been employed in the therapy of diabetes for half a century (17). Alkaloids like Berberine, palmatine, vindoline, nigelladines, vindolidine, vindolicine, vindolinine, coptisine, Vindogentianine, epiberberine, and jatrorrhizine are some among the reported alkaloids which are useful in diabetes cure or remediation (Singh et al., 2022). Numerous commercially available medications are alkaloidal in nature (70). In parallel, significant attempts are being made by researchers worldwide to transition additional alkaloids from the lab bench to the market (72).

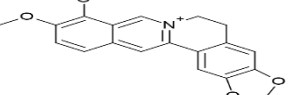
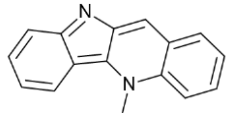
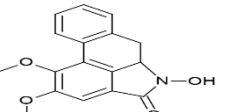
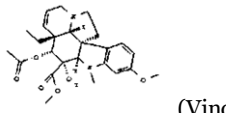
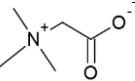
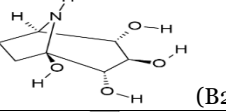
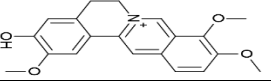
### 6.6.1 Phyto-alkaloids in the remediation of diabetes

A total of 12,000 alkaloids from plants with varying medicinal relevance have been evaluated (73). Alkaloids can exist as homo-oligomers or hetero-oligomers and are usually found as units of one to four. Heterocyclic/non-heterocyclic chemical structure and biological or natural origins are used to categorize them. Alkaloids are one of the many phytochemicals in plants that is protective by lowering the risk of many illnesses and disorders. To prevent formation of enzyme-substrate complex, which in turn lowers enzyme activity, alkaloids are known to attach to the active sites of enzymes which are associated in digestion (45). Regulatory frameworks which govern the research and utilization of botanical drugs have recently attracted the attention of the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and Europe Middle East and Africa, who have also evaluated them. This intense interest has given the natural products sector a considerable boost and significantly cut the entry barriers for botanicals and associated goods (74). Some of the widely available plant species with anti-diabetic forms which are or have the potentials of being suitable diabetic drugs are discussed in this section. Table 6.1 presents the anti-diabetic potential of a few well known alkaloids derived from some common plant sources along with its structure.

#### 6.6.1.3 *Adhatoda vasica*

This plant is also colloquially called as Basak. The leaf extracts derived from this plant is an important inclusion in several known ayurvedic medicinal formulations (79). Quinazoline alkaloids, including vasicinone, vasicine, vasicol, adhavasicinone, deoxyvasicinone, vasicinol, and some minor chemicals in the same series, are known to be produced by the plant species (80). Vasicine and vasicinol, two intestinal sucrase inhibitors, were isolated from the leaves of *A. vasica*. Hence, can be traced as potent alpha-glucosidase inhibitors (81) and can be used formulated in diabetes treatment.

**Table 6.1:** Selected Alkaloids having antidiabetic potential

Name	Plant	Plant Part	Chemical structure	Antidiabetic potential	Reference
Berberine	<i>Berberis aristata</i>	Roots, stem, rhizomes, bark, fruits		Inhibition of alpha glucosidase	(167)
				Reduction of glucose transportation in intestinal epithelium and GLUT 2 translocation	(168)
				Activation of AMPK	(169)
Cryptolepine	<i>Cryptolepissanguinolenta</i>	Root bark		Regeneration of beta cells of pancreas. Reversal of diabetes induced increase in levels of cholesterol, triglyceride, low density lipo-proteins and reduced high density lipoprotein	(131)
Piperumbellactum	<i>Piper umbellatum</i>	Branches		Inhibition of alpha glucosidase	(170)
Vindoline I	<i>Catharanthus roseus</i>	Leaf	 (Vindoline)	Inhibition of protein tyrosine phosphatase activity	(76)
Vindolidine II					
Vindolicine III					
Vindolinine IV					
Vindogentianine	<i>Catharanthus roseus</i>			Increased uptake of glucose by cells and inhibition of protein tyrosine phosphatase	(77)
Betaine	<i>Beta vulgaris</i>	Rhizome		Reduction of fasting blood sugar	(171)
				Reduction in levels of HbA1c, serum glucose and fats	(172)
calystegines	<i>Daturastramonium, Solanumtuberosum</i>	Whole plant	 (B2)	Inhibition of alpha galactosidase and beta xylosidase and beta glucosidase	(173)
Jatrorrhizine	<i>Tinosporacordifolia</i>	Stem		Decrease in levels of glucose in serum. Induction of insulin secretion.	(161)
Magnoflorine					

### 6.6.1.4 *Piper umbellatum*

This plant belongs to a shrubby habit that is found in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest, Savannah, and Amazon. It is very frequently used to treat gastrointestinal issues in folk medicine throughout many nations. *Piper umbellatum*'s alkaloid piperumbellactam A, B, and C exhibit a significant alpha-glucosidase inhibitory action (82). Another research examines the impact of methanolic leaf extracts of *P.umbellatum* and *Perseaamericana* on the inhibitory action of the enzymes associated in digestion of starch. The findings demonstrate that the examined extracts significantly reduced the activities of alpha-glucosidase, aldosereductase, maltase-glucoamylase, and aldehyde reductase. It is to be noted that no such reports on inhibition of the activity of beta-glucosidase were examined. Hence, have potentials to be used as anti-diabetics (83).

### 6.6.1.5 *Tinospora cordifolia*

This plant is widely known as Guduchi, giloy, gurjo or heart-leaved moon seed is an indigenous variety belonging to tropical regions of the Indian sub-continent. This plant has had a widespread contribution to ancient ayurvedic drugs and folk medicines since, prehistoric times. Due to the occurrence of several pharmaceutically significant chemicals from a variety of categories, including alkaloids, glycosides, steroids, diterpenoid lactones, sesquiterpenoids, etc all portions of the plant are quite helpful (84). Both *in-vitro* and *in-vivo* reports of the effects of extracts obtained from plant stems, particularly palmatine (a protoberberine alkaloid), is known as an insulin-mimicking hormone and also known to stimulate insulin release (85). It is evident that *Tinosporacordifolia* stem extract significantly reduces blood sugar levels in diabetic animals and outperforms insulin by 50% to 58% (86).

### 6.6.1.6 *Tribulus terrestris*

The plant is an annual herbaceous plant (known for forming mats) belonging to the Zygophyllaceae. It is known to have a long history of being valued as a valuable medicinal plant (87). *Tribulusterrestris* produces the imidazoline alkaloids harmane and nor-harmane, which increase insulin synthesis in the pancreatic membrane by triggering the imidazoline-I attaching sites. In isolated humans Langerhans islets, nor-harmane, pinoline (carbolines) and harmane, increase insulin discharge by more than twice. Harmane boosts insulin synthesis in a glucose-dependant way (88).

### 6.6.1.7 *Berberis aristata*

The plant is a spinous herb, also known as "Daruhaldi and Chitra," and is a native of the northern Himalayas. From the Himalayas to Sri Lanka, Bhutan, and mountainous portions of Nepal, the plant is extensively dispersed. It was discovered that the amount of berberine in *B. aristata*'s root and stem varied with altitude. It was discovered that plants growing at lower elevations have more berberine. Potassium and soil moisture levels have an impact on a plant's berberine content as well (89). Protoberberine and an alkaloid of the bisoquinoline class are found in *Berberisaristata*(90). The ability of berberine to block alpha-glucoside and lessen intestinal epithelial glucose transportation is assumed to be the cause of its antihyperglycemic effects. On gluconeogenesis and glucose usage in the Caco-2 cells, there was no discernible effect. Berberine is an AMP protein kinase activator (AMPK). Negative stimulation of mitochondrial function and triggering of AMPK is related to the inhibition of alpha-glucosidase(91).

### 6.6.1.8 *Lobelia chinensis*

The plant is used in conventional Chinese medicine. *Lobelia* is a small perennial herb. This plant is widely found in East Asia which includes Korea, China, and Japan (92). Two pyridinium alkaloids, radicamines A and B, have been identified and discovered in this family which is known to have anti-diabetic potentials. Radicamines A and B, the herb's two primary active ingredients, were examined for their ability to suppress the enzyme alpha-glucosidase. The biological activity of these two new, aromatic-ringed poly-hydroxy alkaloids is comparable to that of the alpha-glucosidase inhibitor one-deoxynojirimycin [93].

### 6.6.1.9 *Lepidium sativum*

The plant commonly known as garden cress is a rapidly growing herb that is edible as well as annual (94). Lepidine or semi-lepidine which is a variety of imidazole alkaloid can be extracted from this plant. These substances were found to have significant hypoglycemic effects. This effect might be produced by reducing oxidative stress and controlling enzymatic activity. Its ability to lower blood sugar levels may be mediated by escalation of the amount of pancreatic insulin synthesised by the remaining islet cells (83).

#### 6.6.1.10 *Tecoma stans*

It is a small shrub or a tree is known for its distribution in the western hemisphere tropics and subtropics and was known to produce three important alkaloids namely - boschniakine, 5-hydroxyskitanthine, and tecomine well known in Bignoniaceae. In normoglycemic rat adipocytes, it was discovered that tecomin significantly increased basal glucose absorption. It was traditionally used in Mexico to control diabetes (95).

Several other plant species are also reported as well such as *Stewartiachirayita* (swerchirin), *Talinumpaniculatum* (Javaberine A, B), *Penareschulzai* (schulzaines A,B,C), *Dysideaavara* (avarol), *Syzygiummalaccense*(Casuarine-6-o-a- glucoside), etc which are sources of alkaloids which are potent anti-diabetic agents and hence, can be widely used in drug formulations (83).

### 6.7 Selected phyto-alkaloids with anti-diabetic potentials

#### 6.7.1. Berberine

The Berberidaceae family includes approximately 500 species from the genus *Berberis*(96) and known to secrete an isoquinoline alkaloid, a type of alkaloids called protoberberine(97) called 'berberine'. Apart from the family Berberidaceae, berberine is also present among the members of the family Ranunculaceae and Papaveraceae. According to Ahrendt, 1961, genus *Berberis* are evergreen shrubs having spine angled/sulcated yellow-colored bark. Leaves are elliptic, obovate, or oblong-shaped with red oblong fruits and yellow flowers (98).

The phyto-molecule berberine is reported to be found in species native to Asia and America like barberry and goldenseal respectively. It is found in roots, stem, rhizomes, bark, fruits and rarely in leaves (99), mostly in barberry plant species but also found in celandine (*Chelidoniummajus*), amur cork (*Phellodendronamurense*), goldenseal (*Hydrastiscanadensis*, (100) and meadow rue (*Thalictrumrochebrunianum*). Berberine is mostly extracted from stem and *Berberis* roots (101). Roots of *B. aristatayields* around 5% and stem bark 4.2% of berberine.; while other species like *B. asiatica*, *B. aquifolium*, *B. petiolaris*, *B.thunbergii*, and *B.vulgaris* yield 0.43%(102). Yina et al., (2012)(103) confirmed 5.2-7.7% in *Rhizomacoptidis* (Huang Lian), 4-8% in *B. sargentiana*, *Phellodendronamurense*, *Coptischinensis* roots; 2-4% in barks of *P. amurense*(99), and roots/stems of *Tinosporacordifolia*(104).

Berberine is a naturally occurring chemical compound with basic nitrogen atoms and neutral or weakly acidic properties with molecular formula as  $C_{20}H_{19}NO_5$ (105). Phenylalanine or tyrosine is the known precursor for berberine biosynthesis (Singh and Sharma, 2018). Several pharmacological properties are associated with berberine - antibacterial, anti-asthma, anti-cancer (106), anti-inflammatory (107), antidiabetic, an anti-oxidant(108), and anti-toxicity (109). Berberine inhibits disaccharide activity in Caco-2 cells by impeding alpha-glucosidase and reducing the intestinal epithelium carries glucose, acting as an anti-hyperglycemic., therefore result as an anti-hyperglycemic agent (91).

#### 6.7.2. Cryptolepine

*Cryptolepis sanguinolenta*, is a flowering shrub with slender twining stems, a belongs to family apocynaceae, and a originated in West Africa and possess wide array of pharmacological potential including anti-hyperglycaemic, antithrombotic, antihypertensive, antibacterial, anticancer, anti-inflammatory, antipyretic, antifungal, antiprotozoal, antipyretic, renovascularvasodilatory effects, antiplasmodial(110)(111)(112)(113) and antimalarial (114)(115). Cryptolepine is the key pharmaco-active alkaloid present in *C. sanguinolenta* attributed to these pharmacological effects (116)(117)(118)(119)(120). The aqueous *C. sanguinolenta* extract roots, with no toxicity reported, is used as a daily tonic in Ghana (Africa) for controlling malaria (121).

In 1931, another alkaloid called indoloquinoline, the roots of *C. sanguinolenta* were used to isolate the drug cryptolepine.(122)(115), and to date, these are extensively been used in Ghana and Nigeria (123)(124)(125). Cryptolepine is a linearly bonded alkaloid that has the chemical structure of an indolo (3, 2-b) quinoline ring.(126), whereas isocryptolepine is an angularly bonded alkaloid having an indolo (3, 2-c) quinoline moiety. Two independent study groups(127)(128) testified the occurrence of related alkaloids-namely isocryptolepine(129) and cryptosanguinolentine respectively(127)(130). Cryptolepine is known to induce generation of beta cells of pancreas. Moreover, reversal of diabetes induce increase in levels of cholesterol, triglyceride, low density lipo-proteins and reduced high density lipoprotein(131).



Thus, *C. sanguinolenta* serves as a potential medicinal plant with medicinal properties in the healing of an array of diseases from antimalarial to cancer therapies (115).

### 6.7.3. *Piper umbellactam*

*Piper umbellactum*, is obtained from the plant *Piper umbellactum* Linn. The Indian, Indonesian, and Malaysian tropical rainforests, as well as other Asian and American tropic regions, are home to this plant (115). This adventitious shrub has broad, round branches with a height range of 1.5 to 4 meters. The branches of *P. umbellatum* yielded three alkaloids: piperumbellactam A, piperumbellactam B, and piperumbellactam C. All three of these derivatives demonstrated a moderate inhibition of alpha-glucosidase enzyme, with IC<sub>50</sub> values of 98.07 0.44, 43.80 0.56, and 29.64 0.46, respectively (116). Dietary polysaccharides were hydrolyzed by digestive enzymes, which raised blood glucose levels. Postprandial hyperglycemia is caused by the hydrolytic breakdown of oligosaccharides into bioavailable monosaccharides. The  $\alpha$ -Glucosidase enzyme, a member of the hydrolase family, is produced by intestinal brush border cells and is responsible for this phenomenon. Inhibiting the digestive enzymes with phytomolecules is extensively practiced methods for decreasing postprandial blood glucose levels (117). To prevent the creation of the enzyme-substrate complex and thus decrease enzyme activity, alkaloids like piperumbellactum may bind to the active locations of these digestive enzymes. Recent research demonstrated that seven secondary metabolites were produced as a result of multiple chromatographic steps performed on *P. umbellatum* branches using a concentration of n-BuOH fraction (118)

### 6.7.4. *Catharanthine, Vindoline and Vindolinine*

Apocynaceous plants, such as *Rauwolfiaserpentina* and others, have long piqued the curiosity of the scientific community since they may provide a wealth of potentially life-saving medications (132) catechin, a terpeneindole alkaloid, is derived from the medicinal herbs *Catharanthus roseus* and *Tabernaemontana divaricata*. There is a lack of understanding about the biochemical pathway that converts strictosidine to catharanthine. Vinblastine is synthesized from two separate compounds, one of which being catharanthine (133).

Vindoline is obtained from *C.roseus*, amongst the most investigated therapeutic plants. Clinically relevant anti-cancer drugs vinblastine and vincristine have vindoline as biosynthetic and synthetic precursors (134) (135). *Catharanthus roseus*, the most common and well-studied plant in Madagascar, is home to vindolinine, one of the most significant monomeric alkaloids (136). *Catharanthus roseus*, *R. serpentina*, *R. sellowii*, *Leuconotiseugenifolius*, *Tabernaemontanadivaricata*, and others in the Apocynaceae family are some of the most prevalent sources of the alkaloids. These medicinal alkaloids are indole alkaloids, with a tryptamine moiety obtained from tryptophan and a terpenoid constituent obtained from the secologanin. Deglucosylatedstrictosidine may be used to produce indole alkaloids like catharanthine and vindoline. Misra et al. (1996) (137) compiled the results of many studies showing this to be the case. The formation of indole alkaloids by plants is a multi-enzyme process(137). The enzymes responsible for producing the indole alkaloids in *C.roseus* have been intensively analyzed(137). Vinblastine, a dimericindole alkaloid, is produced when vindoline is reacted with catharanthine through horseradish peroxidase.

Because of its extensive record of usage in the cure of diabetes, *C. roseus* was included in Canadian research exploring insulin substitutes. While there has been no evidence of sensitivity from any plant extract, random blood observations have shown that extracts from specific leaves accumulate alkaloids, which might cause a decline in the quantity of wbc's (granulocytes in particular). Researchers in the 1960s discovered vinblastine as well as vincristine from the plant's indolic alkaloid chemical combination of more than 70 after this finding prompted in vitro tests with leukemia cells. Svodoba in Lilly discovered that these extracts were effective against P-1534 leukemia in animals. *C.roseus* is used conventionally to cure diabetes in Asia and Africa. However, only trials using crude extracts have proven the plant's antidiabetic activity(138)(139).

Tiong et al. (2013) observed that the dichloromethane leaf extract of *C. roseus* inhibited the development of diabetes by enhancing glucose uptake by pancreatic (-TC6) as well as myoblastic cells (C2C12) (76). Four alkaloids were obtained from a dichloromethane leaf extract of this plant that stimulated glucose assimilation in pancreatic -TC6 cells and myoblast C2C12 (140).

*Catharanthusroseus* alkaloids, such as catharanthine, vindoline, and vindolinine, were reported reduce blood sugar in both normal and streptozotocin stimulated diabetic rats. Normal and diabetic rabbits have decreased blood glucose levels when given leurosine, vindoline, vindolinine, or catharanthine (83). *Catharanthusroseus* contains the dimeric alkaloids vincristine and vinblastine, which have been successfully utilized to cure diabetes in many nations across the planet. According to studies (141) of Chattopadhyay, 1999, an alcoholic extract (ethanol) of *C. roseus* leaves have significant lipid lowering and antidiabetic effects in a separate study. Because adipose tissue reacts to insulin to

fulfill the body's sugar demands, free fatty acid levels increase when nutritional consumption exceeds the capability of fat cells to hold additional calories. This further reduces the already low oxygen levels in adipose tissue. The enhanced membrane localization of transporters like GLUT4 and the IRS-1/phosphatidylinositol kinase/AKT pathway all work together to facilitate glucose absorption. However, this process is inhibited by the presence of free fatty acids. In this way, high triglyceride levels influence glucose metabolism by fostering the growth of subclinical insulin resistance and cell dysfunction (142). While the addition of *C. roseus* ethanolic extract to atorvastatin did not alter the effectiveness of either drug against hyperlipidemia, adding it to sitagliptin significantly increased its effectiveness against diabetes (143).

#### **6.7.5. Betaine, achyranthine**

The Amaranthaceae family is one of several plant families that might legitimately claim the title of "world's most numerous and diverse plant family." Many plant species in the family Amaranthaceae have anti-diabetic effects. In the following paragraphs, we'll have a more in-depth look at some of these species. *Achyranthes aspera* (144), *Amaranthus caudates* (145), *Alternanthera halimifolia*, *Chenopodium ambrosioides* (144), and *Gossypium halimifolium* (145) etc. All three of these compounds—betaine and achyranthine may be found in plants belonging to the genus Amaranthaceae. These groups of alkaloids are all significant in their way. Three different compounds have been isolated from the *A. aspera* plant. The compounds in concern are achyranthine, and betaine. Each of these molecules has a role in the digestion and use of carbohydrates (146).

The effectiveness of an ethanolic extract of *A. aspera* seeds as an anti-diabetic medication was determined by administering the extract to rats with diabetes induced by streptozocin (STZ) (300-600 mg/kg). The seeds of *A. aspera* were extracted in ethanol and administered to the rats. To determine whether the extract worked as planned, we conducted this experiment. The patient's blood glucose level drops more than it would have with the standard drug glibenclamide after 28 days of treatment with the extract by oral administration (147). Administering the plant extract, which also reduces the overall amount of glucose in the blood, may treat diabetes in mice induced by exposure to alloxan. This, in turn, protects the animals from the potentially negative outcomes that may have resulted from the oxidative stress they endured. Triterpenoidoleanolic acid stimulates insulin secretion in rat islets as well as INS-1 832/13 cells. In contrast, it does not cause an increase in cAMP or intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> ion concentrations. As a matter of fact, it has the opposite effect. Glucose levels may be lowered by boosting the receptor's sensitivity to the hormone through the usage of oleanolic acid due to its capacity to block beta-glucosidase while concurrently activating TGR5 G-protein receptors. This is because oleanolic acid has these features (148).

Animals were given STZ, a medication that causes diabetes in animals, and an alcoholic extract of *A. aspera* was for the antidiabetic effects effect. Diabetes was triggered by the application of streptozotocin (STZ) to the rats. *A. aspera* aqueous extract drastically reduced the animal's blood glucose levels after administration, prompting researchers to conclude that the drug was responsible for the observed effect (144). Researchers conducted an electrophoretic examination on *A. aspera* plant seeds to prove without a shadow of a doubt that the proteinaceous amylase inhibitor was obtained from inside those seeds. It was discovered that the created beta-amylase inhibitor could withstand both heat and proteolysis (149). To test *A. aspera*'s anti-diabetic potential, alloxan-induced diabetic rats were given an ethanolic extract. At a dosage of 400 mg per kg, the ethanolic extract considerably decreased pancreatic BSL in the study individuals, demonstrating 95% anti-diabetic effectiveness. In this case, the drug did the trick. This objective was greatly helped by the fact that the extract could be consumed orally (150). To gauge the efficacy of the treatment for diabetes, the inhibitory action of amylase measured in vitro glucose absorption experiments. It was done so that the findings could be compared to those of the clinical studies. The goal was to evaluate the efficacy of the treatment. The methanolic extract showed -amylase inhibitory potential of 29.75% to 71.97% when tested at doses stretching from 5 to 25 mg per ml (151). After a week of treatment, the anti-diabetic effects of *A. aspera* tea are most noticeable at a fasting blood glucose reading of around 229.4 mg per dl. Testing the patients' blood sugar levels before and after they drank the tea allowed us to reach this conclusion (152).

#### **6.7.6. Aegeline, marmesin and marmelosin**

*Aegle marmelos* leaves contain several bioactive compounds, including aegelin, lupeol, rutin, marmesinin, b-sitosterol, marmelin etc. The active ingredients aegelin, beta- and delta-sitosterol, marmalolin, and marmesin are responsible for the drug's diabetic-lowering effects(153). Diabetic rats

showed substantial improvements in blood sugar levels after being orally fed an ethanolic extract of *A. marmelos* leaves. Reducing amylase and intestinal disaccharidase enzyme activity reflected a reduction in carbohydrate breakdown and absorption as a consequence of increased insulin action to absorb glucose in peripheral tissue (154). Upadhyaya et al. (2004) treated diabetic rats with an extract of *A. marmelos* leaf at a dosage of 500 milligrammes per kilogramme(155) to evaluate the hypoglycemic and antioxidant effects of this extract. Male albino rats were arbitrarily split into three groups in order to investigate the impact of *A. marmelos* extract on the onset and progression of diabetes (Group I, II and III). After four weeks, the mice in Group III exhibited lower blood sugar levels than the mice in Group II (155). Maqbool et al., 2019, suggest that the effects of *A. marmelos* on blood glucose and weight are comparable to those of insulin (156). The leaf juice of *A. marmelos* is useful in treating diabetic mellitus, as shown by recent studies, thanks to the bioactive components aegelin 2, scopoletin, and sitosterol(156).

### **6.7.7. Calystegine-B**

A class of alkaloids known as calystegines is obtained mostly from Solanaceae plants. The nortropane skeleton of this class of alkaloid has a number of hydroxy groups in various locations. The calystegine B-group is composed of the tetrahydroxycalystegines derivatives (157) Foods from the Solanaceae family, including potatoes, peppers and paprika were discovered to contain high concentrations of calystegines(158). A powerful regulator of glucosidases and R-galactosidases among them is calystegine B2. The inhibition of rice R-glucosidase is essential for this glucoside's efficacy. Calystegine B2's glycosidase inhibitory action was considerably decreased by the addition of two glucosyl or galactosyl substituent residues. R-glucosidase inhibitors, which suppress intestinal R-glucosidases, can be employed to manage DM by reducing the activity of the internal insulin-producing pancreas and the hyperglycemic effects of food (159). The  $\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitors, such cyalystegine B2, postpone but do not stop the process of ingested carbs absorption. Consequently, there is a decrease in peaks of insulin and glucose levels of postprandial.

### **6.7.8 Jatrorrhizine, Magnoflorine, Palmatine**

Jatrorrhizine, magnoflorine, and palmatine exhibit anti-diabetic effects through processes that release insulin or imitate insulin, hence reducing postprandial hyperglycemia (160). They are mostly present in *Tinospora* sp. By boosting insulin secretion, jatrorrhizine, and magnoflorine have an in vitro hypoglycemic impact on RINm5F cells at concentrations of 20  $\mu\text{g}$  per ml in each, and they can prevent hepatic gluconeogenesis in rat hepatocytes at a dose-dependent manner with the concentrations 5-80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  (161). These three alkaloids were found to increase insulin discharge and decrease hepatic gluconeogenesis *in vivo* glucose-laden rats at a concentration of 40 mg per kg (161). Inhibition of  $\alpha$ -glucosidase and aldose reductase demonstrated the potential of jatrorrhizine, palmatine, and magnoflorine as hypoglycemic agents.

Jatrorrhizine, palmatine, and magnoflorine with an  $\text{IC}_{50}$  of 3.23  $\mu\text{g}$  per ml, 3.45  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ , and 1.25  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  have an inhibitory effect against Lens Aldose reductase, which was pooled from Wistar rats (162). In another experiment, jatrorrhizine, palmatine, and magnoflorine inhibit  $\alpha$ -glucosidase with an in vitro  $\text{IC}_{50}$  of 36.25  $\mu\text{g}$  per ml, 23.46  $\mu\text{g}$  per ml, and 9.8  $\mu\text{g}$  per ml respectively (153). In HepG2 cells, jatrorrhizine and palmatine demonstrated in vitro anti-diabetic action through a dose-dependent glucose-lowering impact, with the effect beginning to manifest at a very low concentration (0.6  $\mu\text{M}$ ). Jatrorrhizine at a dose of 100 mg per kg led to a reduction in body weight, better glucose tolerance, and increased insulin sensitivity in a hyperlipidemia mouse model (163). By activating the Akt/AMPK/eNOS signaling pathway, lowering  $\text{IL-1}\beta$  and tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ), jatrorrhizine (at 50, 100 mg/kg dose) protected diabetic rats and recovered vascular endothelial dysfunction in the blood vessels (164). By enhancing the expression of insulin receptor substrate 2, phosphoinositide-3-kinase regulatory subunit 1, phosphorylated protein kinase B, phospho-AMP-activated protein kinase, and glucose transporter 4/1/2, jatrorrhizine controlled glucose absorption and utilization and decreased insulin resistance (Zhu et al., 2018)(165). Magnoflorine substantially reduced ONOO (-)-mediated tyrosine nitration in a dose-dependent way and showed remarkable inhibitory action against protein tyrosine phosphatase 1B, according to Lineweaver-Burk and Dixon's plots (166). Figure 6.3 illustrates selected antidiabetic activity of *Tinospora* alkaloids.

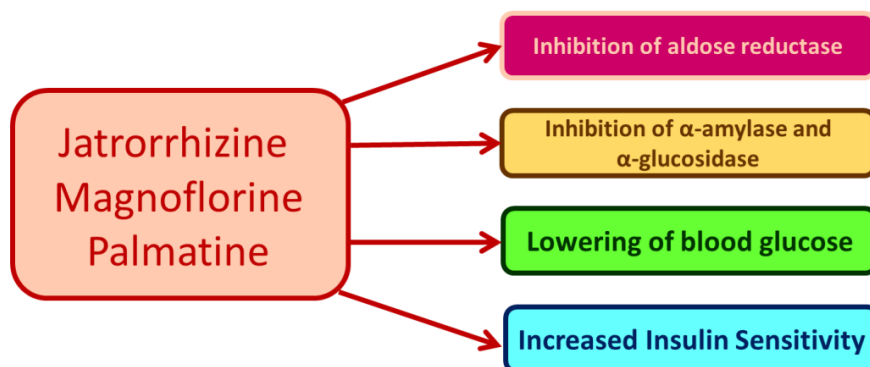


Figure 6.3: Selected *Tinospora* alkaloids and their mode of antidiabetic action

## 6.8 Mode of action of alkaloidal phytoconstituents

### 6.8.1 Inhibition of Advanced Glycation End Products

Advanced Glycation End Products (AGEs) are a hazardous class of chemicals that are produced by nonenzymatic interactions between the amino moiety in biomolecules, and nucleic acids and the carbonyl moiety in reducing sugars. (174). These compounds can be formed endogenously within the tissues or exogenously by dietary sources under normal or pathological conditions through direct breakdown of the Schiff base, modification by dicarbonyl compounds, and interactions between AGE precursor molecules and Amadori products (175). There is direct nexus found between AGEs and different human diseases related to hyperglycemia, cardiovascular diseases, liver and gastrointestinal disorders, neurodegenerative diseases, development of aging-related conditions, and even cancer. This is actually owing to the capacity of AGEs to produce reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, which leads to altered protein functions, cellular dysfunction, apoptosis, and consequently multi-tissue or organ failure (176).

Several phytochemicals have shown prospective results in the inhibition of the formation of AGEs. These have been shown to be relatively safe for human intake, unlike their synthetic counterparts. Alkaloids from *Ocotea parapiacabensis* leaves inhibit AGEs formation. These are benzylisoquinoline alkaloids, viz 7-hydroxy-1-(4'-hydroxy benzyl)-6-methoxy-2,2-N, 6,7-dihydroxy-1-(4'-hydroxy benzyl)-2, 2-N, N-dimethyl-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroisoquinoline, N-methylhigenamine, and magnocurarine, which have shown the potential to inhibit the AGEs formation (177). Ethanolic fractions of *Melissa officinalis*, have shown strongly inhibit AGE generation in the later stages of the process of glycation (178). Consumption of green tea and coffee significantly reduces the accumulation of AGEs, formation of dicarbonyl compounds and inhibits protein glycation. (179). Other plant-based alkaloids include Leonurin from *Herbaleonuri* (180), and Berberine from *Rhizomacoptidis* (181) also possess properties to inhibit AGEs formation. So, various mechanisms are associated in the process of inhibition of AGEs by these phytochemicals such as shielding amino moieties, reduction or removal of active carbonyl moieties, scavenging free radicals, etc.

### 6.8.2. Inhibition of digestive enzymes like amylase and glucosidase

Inhibition of digestive enzymes by different phytoconstituents is a very effective way for the treatment of T2D. The primary enzymes like  $\alpha$ -amylase and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase catalyze the hydrolysis of various dietary polysaccharides, thereby increasing blood glucose level. (45). There are several plant alkaloids extracted which showed efficiency in binding with the competitive or non-competitive sites of these digestive enzymes which subsequently reduces the hydrolysis of polysaccharides into glucose.

The extracts of *Combretum dolichopetalum* root have proved promising results for treatment of diabetes. The constituents include two alkaloids, phenolic acids and terpenoids showed significant antidiabetic potential compared to glibenclamide (standard drug) when tested in diabetic mice models (182).

Quinazoline alkaloids, vasicinol, and vasicine from leaf extracts of *Adhatodavasica* competitively inhibit  $\alpha$ -glucosidase,  $K_i$  (183 and 82  $\mu$ M) with  $IC_{50}$  (250 and 125  $\mu$ M), respectively (81). Palmatine, an isoquinoline alkaloid hinders  $\alpha$ -amylase and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase actions (183). Oriciacridone C, Oriciacridone F, and 1,3,5-trihydroxy-4-(c,c-dimethylallyl)-acridone extracted from the bark of

*Veprisglaberrima* exhibited an inhibitory effect of  $\alpha$ -glucosidase (56, 34.05, and 17 mM respectively) (184).

Also, Carbazole alkaloids extracted from *Murrayakoenigii* viz., O-methyl mahanine, O-methyl mukonal, mahanine, bisgerayafoline D, bismahanimbinol, and bispyrayafoline, show inhibition of  $\alpha$ -glucosidase activity ( $IC_{50}$  = 46.1, 77.5, 21.4, 38.7, 51.3, and 29.1  $\mu$ M resp.) (185). Another alkaloid from the same plant, mahanimbine exhibited  $\alpha$ -amylase and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase attenuating activities (186).

Piperumbellactam extracted from the branches of *P.umbellatum* viz. show the  $\alpha$ -glucosidase inhibitory properties (170). The steroidal alkaloids from *Sarcococcaligna*, viz. holaphylline and sarcovagine D exhibited a noticeable lessening of blood glucose levels in diabetic rats induced by streptozotocin (187). Koenidine and O-methylmurrayamine A minimized the level of blood glucose by roughly 22.5% and 24.6%, respectively, during 0–5 hours in the streptozotocin-triggered diabetic rat compared to metformin (25.9%) (188). Another indole alkaloid, Vindogentianine from *C.roseus* also displays the attenuation of  $\alpha$ -amylase and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase enzymes inferring its healing capacity against DM (77)

### 6.8.3. Improvement of glucose uptake

Enhancement of glucose uptake is another reliable and promising strategy for the reatment of DM by the translocation of glucose transporter 4 (189). Several phyto-alkaloids have enhanced glucose absorption. Carbazole-based alkaloids like 8,8"-biskoeningine, koenimbine, O-methylmurrayamine A, koenidine, mahanimbine, and murrayazoline, extracted from *Murrayakoenigii*, when administered to L6-GLUT4myc rat myoblast cell line and reported the ability of glucose uptake by 1.41, 1.34, 1.42, and 1.26 fold, respectively (188).

Tecomine extracted from *Tecomastans* was reported to induce the rate of glucose absorption in rat adipocytes with an  $EC_{50}$  of  $6.79 \times 10^{-9}$  M (95). Vindolicine III isolated from *C.roseus* showed the ability to increase both glucose and carotenoid absorption in  $\beta$ -TC6 and C2C12 cells, thus proving advantageous in the management of high blood sugar (76). Vindogentianine also induces a noteworthy rise in glucose absorption in the TC6 pancreas and C2C12 muscle cells (77).

Alkaloids trigger the translocation of the GLUT4 transporter by triggering AMP-activated protein kinase through allosteric modulation. Since it controls the glucose transporter and serves as the cell's fuel sensor, AMP-activated protein kinase is a vital enzyme. It induces glucose absorption and regulates insulin secretion. The detailed investigation suggested that alkaloids trigger the GLUT4 translocation through the the AKT (Ser473)-dependent signaling path (190). Isoquinoline alkaloids like protoberberines also showed increased glucose absorption by articulating more insulin receptors and inhibiting AMPK, PTP1B, and DPP-IV. Trigonelline is also reported to increase the GK, G6Pase quotient in the liver. Aegeline, enhance GLUT-4 translocation and boost intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  signaling (83). Piperidine alkaloids also showed significant potential in the management of diabetes by increasing basal glucose absorption, decreasing blood glucose levels, enhancing insulin synthesis, and triggering AMPK and PPAR- $\gamma$ , thus regulating T2D (142).

### 6.8.4. Increase in insulin secretion

Glucagon and insulin are secreted by the pancreatic cells and deploy antagonistic impacts on peripheral organs to regulate blood sugar. By increasing muscle glucose uptake, reducing hepatic glucose synthesis, and decreasing lipolysis, insulin reduces blood sugar levels. Glucagon raises blood sugar levels by increasing the rate of gluconeogenesis and lipolysis (191). In a normal scenario, glucose-dependent insulin tropic polypeptide (GIP) and glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) stimulate the secretion of insulin in response to consumed meals (192). GLP-1 is synthesized by the proglucagon gene in the L-cells of the upper gastrointestinal tract. GLP-1 stimulates the synthesis and secretion of insulin, decreases glucagon levels, diminishes appetite, and improves islet-cell differentiation in pancreas in response to ingested meals. GIP is another glycoprotein, synthesized by the gip gene in the K cells, found in the upper gastrointestinal tract that aids glucose metabolism by enhancing the rate of insulin release. GIP is also associated in the metabolism of fat cells, regulation of fatty acid production, boosts lipid-protein activity, and promotes  $\beta$ -cell proliferation thus increasing cellular growth (193). Due to DPP-4 activity, GIP and GLP-1 have very short half-lives ranging from 4 mins and 1-2 mins respectively. Thus, suppression of DPP-4 can restore the equilibrium between insulin and glucagon (194).

Numerous studies have already shown that inhibiting DPP-4 increases  $\beta$ -cell mass, capacity, and shape through the generation of incretin, which influences the ongoing absorption of insulin after meals to lessen blood sugar levels. (195). The quinolizidine alkaloids, viz. lupanine, 13-hydroxy-lupanine, and 17-oxo-lupanine, isolated from *Lupinus* sp., can stimulate the release of insulin in a glucose-dependent way (196). Lupanine boosts the activation of insulin-releasing genes and inhibits ATP-sensitive potassium channels to promote insulin production (197). Palmatine and berberine also reported antidiabetic efficiency by inhibiting DPP-4 with  $IC_{50}$  of 8.7, and 13.3  $\mu$ M, respectively (183).

### 6.8.5. Inhibition of aldose reductase and protein tyrosine phosphatase -1B

Aldose reductase (AR), is an enzyme in the sorbitol-aldose reductase pathway (polyol pathway), catalyzes the reduction of glucose to sorbitol, resulting in towering accretion of intracellular reactive oxygen species in variety of tissues affected by DM including eyes, heart, kidneys, and neurons.. Sorbitol poorly penetrates through the cell membrane and also metabolized slowly, thus increasing intracellular accumulation of sorbitol and fructose (its metabolite), leading to osmotic swelling and finally hyperglycemia. In normal glycemia, it helps in the detoxification of lethal aldehyde molecules in extrahepatic tissue, osmoregulation in the kidney, reduction of catecholamines and steroids, and production of fructose for the maturation of sperm. But during hyperglycemia, cataractogenesis occurs due to exorbitant sorbitol levels and osmotic stress. In addition, it can also trigger glycativ stress and increase the production of ROS by binding with the receptors. AR inhibitors are used to delay the onset of such complications (198)(83).

In the last few years, many anti-diabetic molecules with antioxidant and AR inhibitory functions have been reported. Alkaloids like berberine sulfate, berberine chloride, berberine iodide, palmatine iodide, and palmatine sulfate, which are extracted from the roots of *Coptis japonica* demonstrated anti-AR activity with an  $IC_{50}$  ranging from 13.45 to 51.78 nM (199). Isoquinoline alkaloids like magnoflorine, palmatine, and jatrorrhizine, isolated from the stem of *Tinosporacordifolia* also inhibited the male Wistar rats lens AR with an  $IC_{50}$  of 1.25, 3.45, and 3.23  $\mu$ g per mL, respectively (162). Epiberberine, coptisine, and groenlandicine, extracted from *Coptischinensis* rhizome, also reported anti-AR activity with an  $IC_{50}$  of 168.10, 187.27, and 154.19  $\mu$ M respectively. Detailed investigations reported that the dioxymethylene group and its oxidized form in the A and D rings of protoberberine alkaloids are accountable for the anti-AR activity (198).

Protein tyrosine phosphatase 1B (PTP-1B) is another enzyme that is ubiquitously expressed in several tissues like the liver, adipose tissue, skeletal muscle, brain, etc., and localized at the ER. PTP-1B is associated with several signal transduction pathways for its tyrosine phosphatase activity (200). PTP-1B is a negative regulator of the insulin and leptin signaling pathways, as it dephosphorylates the tyrosine residue of the insulin receptor and suppresses the insulin signaling pathway. PTP1B may thus represent a potential therapeutic target for Type II diabetes. In vivo, PTP-1B interacts with the insulin receptor PTK as well as the insulin receptor and insulin receptor substrate 1 (IRS1). Thus, inhibition of PTP-1B lead towards the escalation of insulin receptor and insulin receptor substrates 1 and 2 phosphorylation, thus triggering an enhancement in glucose uptake (201). Many phyto-alkaloids already showed their ability to inhibit PTP-1B. Protoberberine alkaloids extracted from *Coptischinensis* Franch also showed a significant anti-PTP-1B activity. Magnoflorine and coptisine showed a non-competitive type of inhibition while berberine and epiberberine showed a mixed type of inhibition against PTP-1B (166). Using p-nitrophenyl phosphate as the substrate, canthinone alkaloids such as 3,4-dimethyl-canthin-5,6-dione, 4-ethyl-3-methyl-canthin-5,6-dione, eurycomine E, 5-methoxy-canthin-6-one, picrasidine L, and 5-acethoxy-canthin-6-one also showed inhibitory action against PTP-1B with an  $IC_{50}$  of 24.72, 27.83, 19.18, 20.30, 19.80 and 28.89  $\mu$ M, respectively (202). Picrasidine L repressed PTP-1B in a competitive mode, but the others did not (202). Vindogentianine isolated from *C.roseus* also showed anti-PTP-1B activity having an  $IC_{50}$  of 15.28  $\mu$ g per mL (77).

## 6.9 Conclusion

Diabetes, mainly T2D is one of the largest global health emergencies of this century and leading causes of mortality, followed by cardiovascular diseases, respiratory diseases, and cancer. A chronic, systemic metabolic disorder like T2D or DM can never be cured, it can only be managed or controlled by applying proper medications. To manage the ever-increasing epidemicity of this disease, researches are being conducted throughout the world to explore new anti-diabetic agents.

The present therapies for the management of DM are commonly confined to the use of man-made or allopathic anti-diabetic medicines. Though these medications serve the purpose well, but they exhibit numerous long-term side effects including, hepatitis, obesity, cardiovascular risk, gastrointestinal disorders, severe hypoglycemia, etc. Due to these adverse effects of synthetic drugs, scientists have inclined more toward evaluating new plant-based products that have anti-diabetic properties. Although phyto-constituents are easily obtainable and inexpensive, yet they need to be properly isolated, purified, evaluated and finally put to clinical trials before marketing them as drugs.

Different plant-based metabolites, especially alkaloids that work effectively against infections and support healthcare solutions with minimal side effects. The phytoconstituents having active agents in

controlling DM should be further studied, investigated, and put through adequate clinical trials to maximize their potential as an antidiabetic drug so that these can be transformed from theoretical to practical use replacing synthetic medications.

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## Chapter 6: Alkaloids of Natural Origin with Promising Anti-Diabetic Properties

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# Advances in Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry of Diabetes

This book entitled 'Advances in Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry of Diabetes' uncovers the longstanding tradition of using medicinal plants to treat diabetes, showcasing their growing popularity due to effective results and fewer side effects compared to conventional therapies. As the global prevalence of diabetes continues to rise, the book addresses the increasing inclination towards natural remedies for managing this condition. The content covers the use of plants in diabetes treatment, the therapeutic potential of phytochemicals, and how these natural compounds target various human metabolic pathways. With a focus on simplicity, the book provides insights into the diverse classes of phytochemicals, such as terpenoids, flavonoids, alkaloids, and glycosides, shedding light on their roles in controlling blood sugar levels and managing associated complications. Written for a broad audience, including industries, educational institutions, and health experts, this book serves as a practical guide for those seeking natural alternatives in diabetes care. It demystifies the science behind phytochemicals, offering valuable knowledge for navigating the world of diabetes treatment with a focus on plant-based solutions.

**Edited by Prof. Uchenna Estella Odoh, Dr. Habibu Tijjani & Dr. Chukwuebuka Egbuna**

# ADVANCES IN PHARMACOGNOSY AND PHYTOCHEMISTRY OF DIABETES



**EDITED BY**  
**UCHENNA ESTELLA ODOH**  
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# **Advances in Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry of Diabetes**

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# Advances in Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry of Diabetes

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## Chapter 7

# Glycosides from Natural Sources in Treatment of Diabetes Mellitus

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### Abstract

One of the most common causes of mortality in developing nations is diabetes. The treatment of diabetes involves the use of numerous synthetic substances. But these medications shows many adverse health issues. Therefore, there is a critical requirement need for novel therapeutics that can aid in the improved management of diabetes. Herbal medicines have been used for their therapeutic benefits in a variety of illness situations since ancient times. One of the finest solutions for treating a variety of disorders, including diabetes, is a natural medicine made from medicinal plants. Numerous secondary metabolites such as phenolics, terpenoids, sterols, glycosides, and alkaloids, etc. are produced by plants. Non-sugar moiety (which is called aglycone) is connected to a sugar portion (glycone) by a glycosidic bond to form glycosides. Numerous plants contain glycosides, which an enzyme can then hydrolyze to create glycone and aglycone. Numerous biological functions have been attributed to various glycosides and aglycones. Significantly effective anti-diabetic activity has been documented for various types of glycosides such as coumarin, cardiac, anthraquinone, rutin, puerarin, cyanogenic, gymnemic acid I, thioglycosides, and stevioside. Aglycones with antidiabetic properties include strictinin, christinin-A, and securigenin. Their antidiabetic effect is influenced through the insulin secretion is induced and is inhibited of enzymes. The glycemic control of enzymes  $\alpha$ -amylase,  $\alpha$ -glucosidase, and tyrosine phosphatase 1B. This book chapter review aims to outline current advances in the synthesis of prospective antidiabetic O, N and C glycosides and their mode of action.

**Keywords:** O-glycosides, N-glycosides, C-glycosyl, Glycogen, phosphorylase inhibitor, diabetes

### 7.1 Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a protracted class of ailment caused due to metabolic issues that is spread worldwide and have almost doubled in the last two decades (1) characterized by hyperglycemia. It is caused by the erratic metabolism of proteins and fats, resulting in increasing levels of blood glucose (2). Poor synthesis of insulin by the pancreas or inappropriate use utilization of insulin by cells results in rise of glucose in the blood as a cell cannot metabolize. Diabetes is mainly of three types:

a) Type 1 (T1DM): Insulin not produced by the pancreas.

b) Type 2 (T2DM): Insulin produced is not utilized by resistant body cells.

c) Type 3(T3DM): Pregnancy and childbirth-induced complications resulting in diabetes due to gestational reasons and increases the risk of diabetes (Type 2) in both mother and to the next generation.

Apart from these three types, two more categories of glucose intolerance are listed; which are an intermediary between normal and diabetic glucose levels in the blood - IFG (impaired fasting glucose) and IGT (impaired fasting glycemia) although the conversion is not mandatory, such people have a higher risk of cardiovascular disorders (CVD) than compared to normal people. Uncontrolled diabetes leads to several health issues, like- as loss of vision, kidney malfunction, cardiovascular diseases (CVD), lower limb amputations, strokes, reduced life, erectile dysfunction, and disability. Symptoms of DM include weight loss, enhanced appetite, excessive thirst, and polyuria (3).

In developed and developing countries, diabetes has become a major challenge in the 21st century as it is the major reason for death. The treatment of diabetes is done with synthetic drugs, however, due to the adverse effects of these therapeutic drugs, so it is an immediate call to develop alternate new therapies, especially with herbal formulations for its management and treatment. Ayurveda and herbal drugs are well accepted over the ages for their medicinal properties and ability to heal and cure various diseases; therefore natural products can be one of the best alternatives to manage and treat DM. Secondary metabolites or bioactive molecules with therapeutic properties like saponins, alkaloids, glycosides, anthraquinones, sterols, terpenoids, flavonoids, and tannins, are synthesized by the plants. Glycosides are glycone (sugar unit) connected to aglycone (non-sugar) through glycosidic linkage. These are synthesized by plants under biotic or abiotic stress conditions and via the enzyme, hydrolysis produces glycone and aglycone, which are known to have many pharmacological activities. Glycosides depending upon the linkage caused by the glycosidic bond are categorized into four, namely- O-Glycosides (plants have abundantly), C- Glycosides (hydrolysis resilient), S- Glycosides (thioglycosides), and N- Glycosides (found in nucleosides).

A few examples of glycosides reported to have important hyperglycemic activities are puerarin, stevioside, rutin, gymnemic acid I, christinin-A, securigenin, and strictinin (4). These glycosides actively participate in the pro-activation of insulin secretion, and enzyme inhibited ( $\alpha$ -amylase, PTP1B, and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase) responsible for glycemic control (3); and they may be linked to declining in the absorption of glucose and enhanced secretion of insulin and glucose uptake. Therefore, a holistic and systematic approach including preclinical and clinical data is required to develop new drugs from glycosides.

### 7.2 Present-day management of diabetes

Prediabetes and diabetes can be cured with the support of comprehensive diabetic care, which involves modifying one's lifestyle, taking medications, and monitoring blood glucose levels. With the appropriate lifestyle adjustments, the risk of diabetes can be decreased by 58% over three years. (5). *Dietary control is crucial for those with diabetes; a 7% weight loss is thought to improve cholesterol, glucose levels, and blood pressure. The American Diabetic Association (ADA) advises patients with weakened glucose forbearance, fasting plasma glucose, and hemoglobin A1C (HbA1C) values between 5.7 and 6.4% to follow a strict diet along with proper exercise regimen (5).* Although a low-calorie diet helps people lose weight, low-carbohydrate diets can cause hypoglycemia, headaches, and constipation. Complex fiber and whole grains may regulate glucose, (6), while exercise can reduce HbA1C by 0.66 without reducing weight (7). A total of eight pathophysiological pathways induce hyperglycemia in DM namely increased lipolysis, enhanced reabsorption of renal glucose, decreased incretin effect in the small intestine, brain, declined insulin secretion, elevated secretion of glucagon, increased glucose production in the liver, impaired glucose tolerance, and neurotransmitter dysfunction along with resistance of insulin (8).

Glycemic control is crucial for those with DM since it eventually aids in the prevention of the disease. The effectiveness, cost, side effects, weight gain, comorbidities, and hypoglycemia of drug use must be carefully considered. If after 2-3 months of lifestyle adjustments, there is still no favorable glycemic shift or an HbA1C level of 6.5%, pharmaceutical treatment must be administered right away.

By promoting medication and delaying therapy, microvascular damage can be minimized (9). It was shown that lifestyle monotherapy produced better outcomes than lifestyle therapy when compared with the method of administering the only drug to cure diabetes, and lifestyle monotherapy is a therapy incorporating a similar sort of lifestyle alterations (10).

Thiazolidinedione, Biguanides, meglitinide, sulfonylureas, DPP-4 inhibitors,  $\alpha$ -glucosidase inhibitors, and SGLT2 inhibitors are examples of oral diabetes medications. Combine two oral drugs or

insulin if HbA<sub>1c</sub> increases to 7.5% while taking medication or 9% at first (11). **Table 7.1** provides a succinct summary of drug classes, their regulatory pathway, and associated side effects.

**Table 7.1:** Mechanisms of various classes of anti-diabetic drugs and their related side effects.

Class of antidiabetic drug	Regulation pathway	Adverse effects	Citation
Biguanide	AMP kinase activation (12)	Vitamin B12 deficiency,	(13)
		anemia and neuropathy	(14)
Dipeptidyl peptidase 4	Incretin associated pathways (15)	cardiovascular disease risk	(16)
		Pancreatitis	(17)
		Upper RTI infection	(18)
Sodium-glucose cotransporter inhibitor (SGLT2)	Rapamycin, sirtuin 1, and hypoxia-inducible factor paths. (19)	Genital mycosis	(20)
		Bone fractures	(21)
		Ketoacidosis	(22)
Human recombinant Insulin	Receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) pathway (23)	Allergy to injection components	(24)
GLP-1 agonists	Indorses $\beta$ -cell glucose metabolism via mTOR-dependent HIF-1 $\alpha$ activation (25)	Nausea	(26)
		Thyroid cancer	(27)
Sulfonylurea	Inhibit the ATP-sensitive potassium channels (28)	Cardiovascular disease risk	(29)
Thiazolidinedione	Targets Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (30)	Cardiovascular risks	(31)
		Bladder cancer	(32)
		Fractures	(33)

### 7.3 Advantages of Herbal medicines

As stated earlier, conventional medicines for the management of diabetes have side effects which once again opens a new arena of treatment for the associated ailments. This not only increases the agony of the patients but also increases the overall expenditure. This has led scientists to search for alternative approaches for the treatment of not only diabetes but also a several other diseases. Over the past years, there is significant growth in the usage of herbal medicines and supplements, with at least 80% of individuals using them for some aspect of primary healthcare (34). Traditional medicine is used by 80% of the world's inhabitants. 170 of the 194 WHO Member States have conveyed using traditional medicine based on herbs or herbal formulations, and respective authorities have asked for WHO's support in assembling solid proof and data for the same (35). People with diabetes were more likely than other patient groups to use complementary and alternative medicine (CAM). Fear of adverse effects, discontent with medical professionals, and the higher expense of contemporary medicine were the main justifications for utilizing CAM for the treatment of diabetes. Higher levels of medication adherence and improved comprehension of the necessity of lifestyle adjustments for diabetes management throughout CAM treatment and simple access to CAM without a prescription from a physician were other factors that provided an edge in this regard (36). Keeping all the scenarios in mind, in this chapter, an effort has been made to comprehensively highlight the importance of glycosides as an antidiabetic agent. Detailed information about the source of antidiabetic glycosides along with their sources and mechanism of action has also been illustrated.

### 7.4 Classification of Glycosides

A typical glycoside comprises two structural moieties one is the monosaccharide (sugar part) known as term "glycone" and the other one is called "aglycone". Both moieties are bonded with each other via means of a glycosidic bond (37). Figure 7.1 depicts the typical structure of glycosides. Based on the basic structural framework, glycosides can be categorized based on the following groups:

#### A. Glycone

The carbohydrate group refers to a glycone inside the structure of a glycoside. The most frequent glycone is glucose and hence the name glucosides (37). Apart from glucose, fructose, glucuronic acid, and arabinose can be found as glycone. The presence of these sugary groups makes glycosides hydrophilic (38).

### B. Aglycone

The non-carbohydrate entity of glucosides which is accountable for most of the pharmacological properties of the glycosides is known as aglycone also termed genin (39).

### C. Glycoside Linkage

A glycoside bond is a bridge between the glycone and the aglycone parts of a typical glycoside (Figure 1). The nature of the glycosidic bond varies depending on the functional groups present on the aglycone part(37). Generally, glycoside linkage is resistant to water hydrolysis and only breaks either by the action of an acid or alkali.

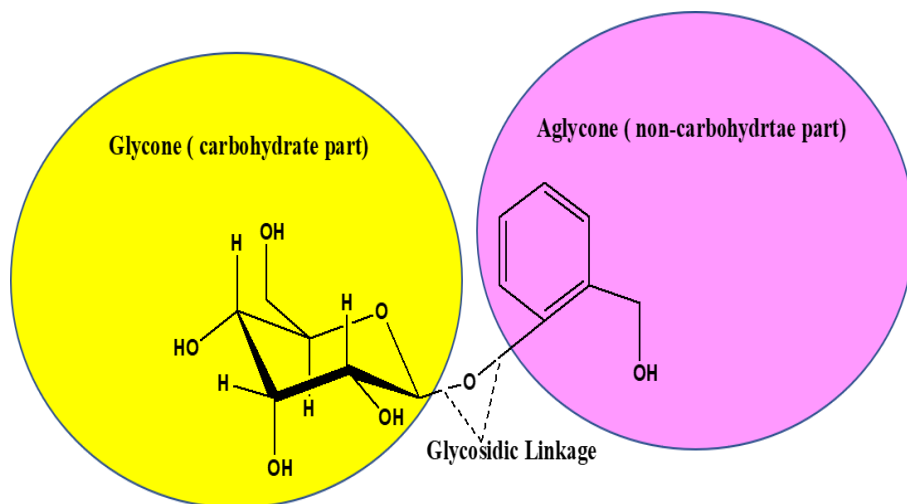


Figure 7.1: Molecular structure of a glycoside

#### 7.4.1 Classification based on glycone

Depending upon the structure of the sugar moiety present in the glucoside, the glycone can be categorized as given in table 7.2.

##### 7.4.1.1 Classification on basis of glycosidic linkage

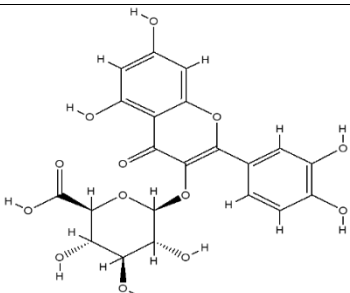
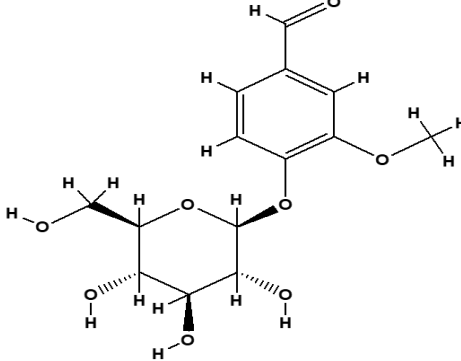
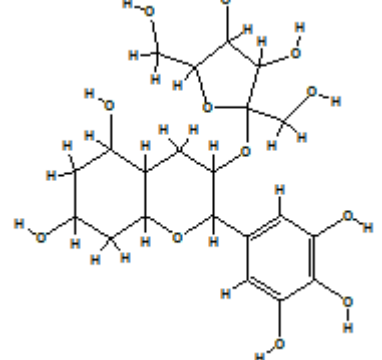
**O-glycosides:** When the glycone part of the glucoside is made to bond with aglycone via condensation through an oxygen atom, such glycosides are called **o-glycosides** (42). Examples of O-glycosides involve amygdalin, arbutin, cardiac glycosides, salicin and anthraquinone glycosides like sennosides etc.

**N-glycoside:** N-glycosides are generated when the N of the amino group (-NH) of the aglycon is attached to the glycone and established a C-N-S linkage (43). Examples of N-glycosides are nucleosides, RNA, cofactors, DNA and a diversity of antiviral and anti-neoplastic medications, etc(43).

**S-glycosides:** Those glycosides which involved C-S-C linkage between the glycon and genin moiety come under the S- glycosides. For example, Sinigrin, and Glucosinolates.

**C-glycosides:** Among all, C-glycosides attracted much more attention comparatively due to their enormous therapeutic properties (43). When both the carbohydrate and non- carbohydrates part of the glycosides are attached via C-C bond such types of glycosides are known as C-glycosides. For example Aloin, barbaloin, cascaroside, and flavan glycosides, among others, are anthraquinone glycosides that directly connect a sugar molecule to the C atom of the aglycon (38).

**Table 7.2:** Categorization of glucosides on the basis of glycone

Glycoside name	Glycone part	Structure	Plant source	Reference
Glucuronide	Glucuronic acid		<i>Theobroma grandiflorum</i> , <i>Eucalyptus cypellocarpa</i> ,	(40)
Glucoside	Glucose		Vanilla plant	(41)
Fructoside	Fructose		<i>Viola</i> and <i>Delphinium</i>	(38)

### 7.4.2 Classification on basis of aglycone

#### 7.4.2.1 Anthracene glycoside

As the name indicates anthracene glycoside, contains anthracene as an aglycone group (37) and is found in the majority of vegetable cathartics such as Rhubarb, Ser, Aloe, and Cascara (44). These chemical compounds are recognized for their medicinal therapeutics characteristics for centuries like antimicrobial potential (45), anti-inflammatory, and laxative agents (46). Recently, they used in the treatment of cancer, multiple sclerosis, arthritis and constipation (47). A few examples of anthracene glycosides along with their respective sources are mentioned in table 7.3 while Figure 7.2 depicts their chemical structure.

#### 7.4.2.2 Cardiac or Sterol glycosides

Cardiac (sterol) glycosides are those classes of glycosides that contain a sterol nucleus framework and a lactone ring which are further connected to the glycone moiety via condensation reaction (48). Examples of sterol or cardiac glycosides along with their respective sources are mentioned below in table 7.3 while figure 7.3 depicts their chemical forms. These sterol glycosides increase the contractions rate to enhance the heart's output by working on a sodium-potassium pump (49) and hence employed in the handling of heart problems and cardiac rhythm. Nowadays, this category of glycosides is also used for the treatment of cancer cells as studies indicate, cardiac glycosides do not interfere with the proliferation of normal cells and kill only cancerous cells (50).

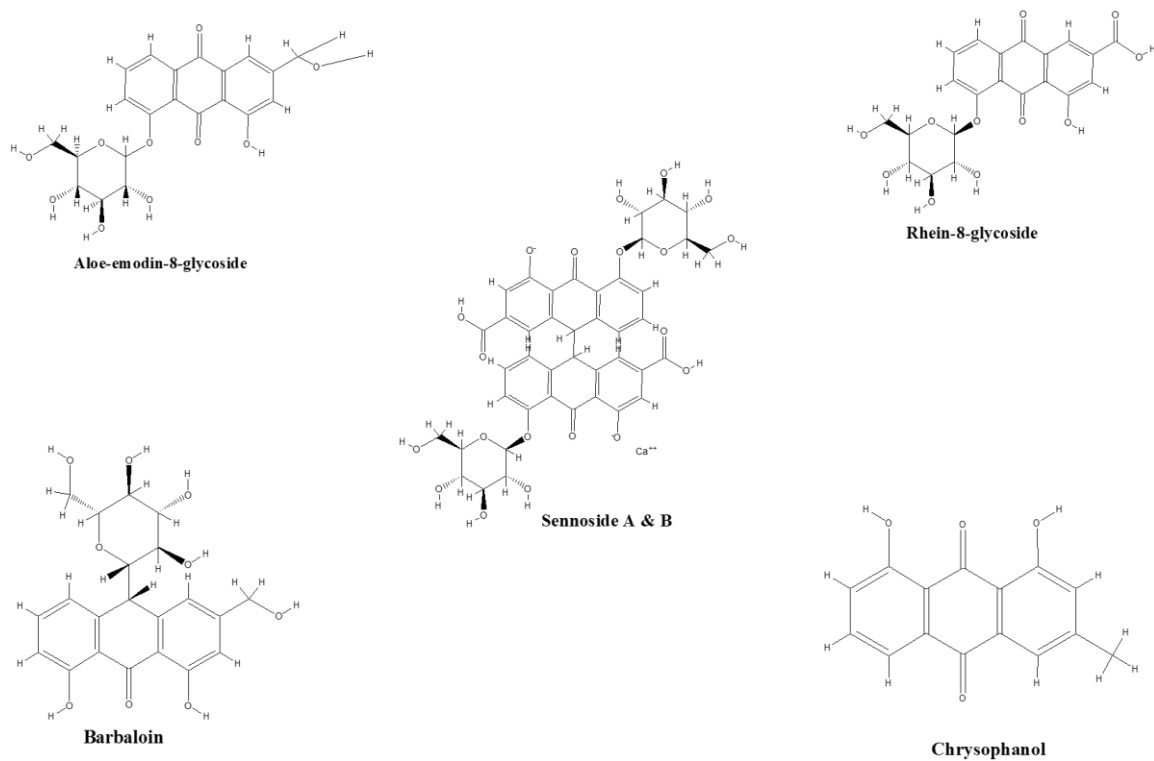
Table 7.3: Various types of glycosides and their plant sources

Sl No.	Type of Glycoside	Examples	Plant Sources	Family	Reference
1.	Anthraquinone Glycoside	Aloe-emodin-8-glycoside	<i>Aloe barbadensis</i>	Liliaceae	(65)
		Rhein-8-glycoside	<i>Rheum palmatum</i>	Polygonaceae	(65)
		Barbaloin	<i>Aloe barbadensis</i>	Liliaceae	(65)
		Sennoside A & B	<i>Cassia angustifolia</i>	Leguminosae	(65)
		Chrysophanol	<i>Kniphofia sp.</i>	Asphodelaceae	(66)
2.	Sterol or Cardiac glycosides	Digitoxigenin	<i>Digitalis purpurea</i>	Scrophulariaceae	(67)
		Digoxigenin	<i>Digitalis lanata</i>	Scrophulariaceae	(67)
		Ouabagenin	<i>Strophanthus gratus</i>	Apocyanaceae	(68)
		Strophanthidin	<i>Strophanthus kombe</i>	Apocyanaceae	(65)
3.	Saponin glycosides	Steroidal glycosides Eg. Diosgenin	<i>Dioscorea deltoidea</i>	Dioscoreaceae	(69)
		Triterpene glycosides Eg. Ginsenoside Rb1 & panaxosides	<i>Panax ginseng</i>	Araliaceae	(70) (71)
4.	Cyanogenetic	Amygdalin	<i>Prunus dulcis</i>	Rosaceae	(72)
		Prunasin	<i>Prunus serotina</i>	Rosaceae	(73)
5.	Isothiocyanate glycosides (glucosinolates)	Sinigrin(glucosinolate)	<i>Brassica nigra</i>	Cruciferae	(65)
6.	Flavone glycosides	Gingkolide A, B, C	<i>Gingko biloba</i>	Gingkoaceae	(74)
		Rutene	<i>Fagopyrum esculentum</i>	Polygonaceae	(75)
		Silybin, Silychrystin	<i>Silybus marianum</i>	Asteraceae	(76)
		Hesperedin	<i>Citrus aurantium</i>	Rutaceae	(77)
7.	Aldehyde glycosides	Iso- vanillin	<i>Hemidesmis indicus</i>	Asclepiadaceae	(78)
		Gluco- vanillin	<i>Vanilla planifolia</i>	Orchidaceae	(79)
8.	Phenol glycosides	Arbutin	<i>Arctostaphylos uva-ursi</i>	Ericaceae	(80)
		Salicin		<i>Salix achmophylla</i>	(81)
		Chalcone		<i>Maclura(Chlorophora) tinctoria</i>	(82)
		Flavanone		<i>Maclura(Chlorophora) tinctoria</i>	(82)

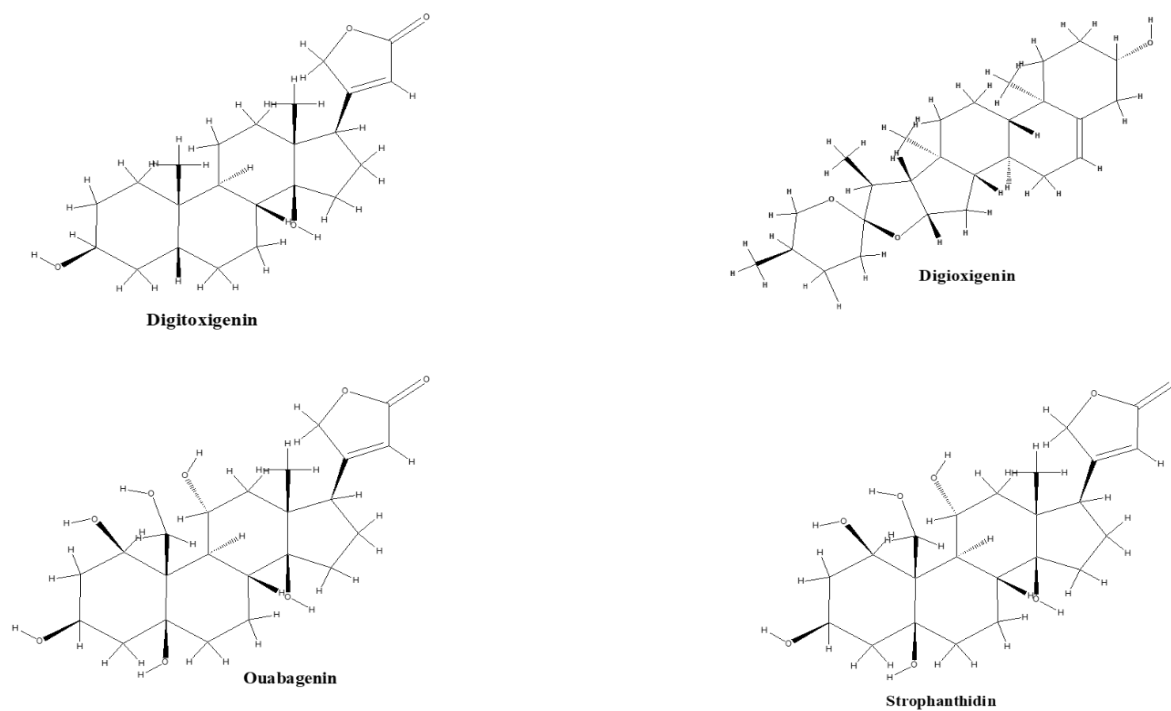
#### 7.4.2.3 Saponin Glycosides

The term saponin refers to soap-like compounds which capable of producing foams and they are quite abundant as natural plant products (51). In the case of saponin glycosides, triterpene, as well as steroid backbones are aglycone moieties (51). Examples of saponin glycosides and respective sources are discussed below in table 7.3 while figure 7.4 depicts their structure. Anti-inflammatory (52), anti-herbivore activity, antimicrobial, (53), anti-parasitic, anti-cancer (54), and antiviral potential (55) are also reported for saponin glycosides.

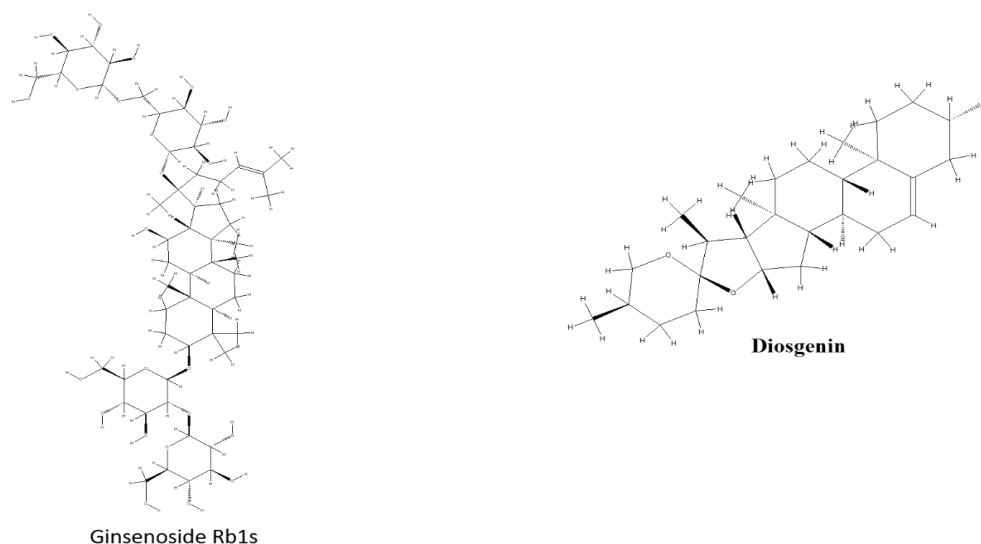




**Figure 7.2:** Chemical structures of selected anthracene glycosides



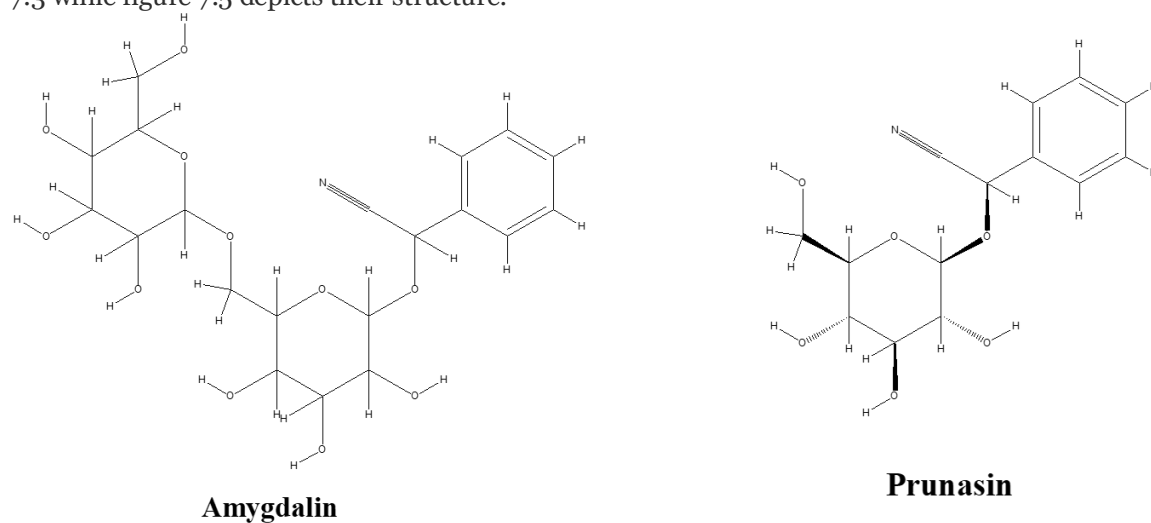
**Figure 7.3:** Molecular structures of few sterol glycosides



**Figure 7.4:** Molecular structures of two Saponin Glycosides

#### 7.4.2.4 Cyanogenetic glycosides

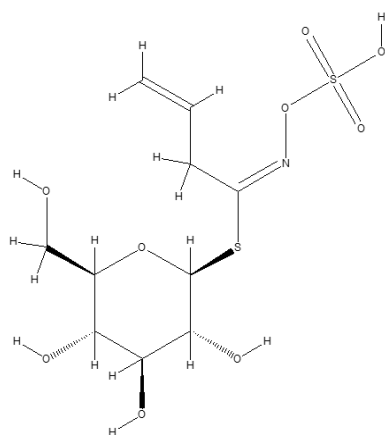
The cyanogenetic glycosides are those aglycone which contains CN group in their corresponding structures along with heteroatom nitrogen (56). As glycosides, they belong to typical *O*- $\beta$ -glycoside and are found in plant tissues (57). The presence of these glycosides, made the plants protect themselves against the distinct animals as they release the cyanide which can act as poison for the attackers (57). A few examples of cyanogenic glycosides along with their respective sources are mentioned below in table 7.3 while figure 7.5 depicts their structure.



**Figure 7.5:** Molecular structures of cyanogenetic glycosides.

#### 7.4.2.5 Isothiocyanate glycosides

Sulfur is present in the structure of the aglycone part of the isothiocyanate glycosides and established a (-NCS) bonding with the carbohydrate moiety of the glycoside. The studies show that isothiocyanate glycosides are recognized for their anti-inflammatory and antioxidant potential(58). Examples of isothiocyanate glycosides along with their respective sources are mentioned below in table 7.3 while figure 7.6 elucidates the molecular structure of one of the representatives.



**Sinigrin**

Figure 7.6: Molecular structure of Sinigrin

• **Flavone Glycosides**

Flavone glycosides contain flavonoid structures as an aglycone portion which is responsible for the physiochemical properties (59). On exposure to extreme heat and solar rays, flavone glycosides are released by the plants to protect them (60). Furthermore, flavonoid glycosides also exhibited properties like anti-cancer, ant-atherosclerosis, and anti-inflammatory in humans (61). Examples of flavone glycosides along with their respective sources are mentioned below in table 7.3 while figure 7.7 elucidates its structure.

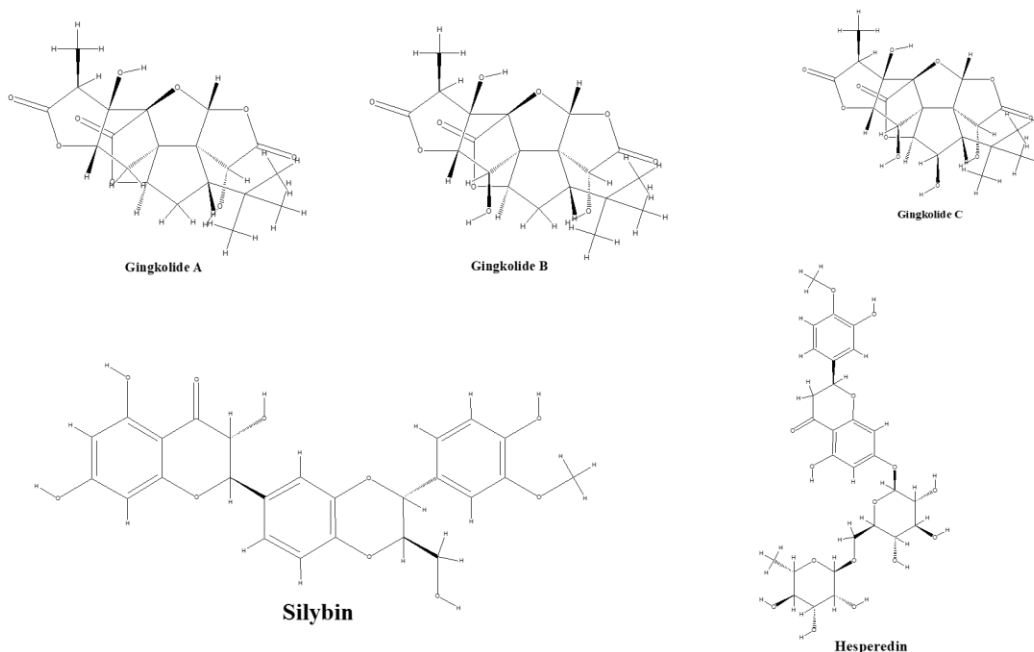
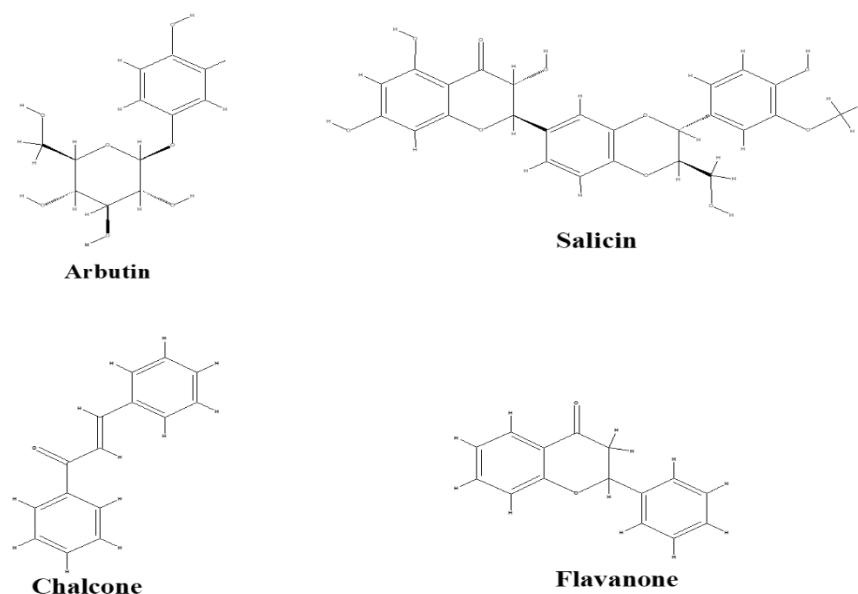


Figure 7.7: Molecular of different flavone glycosides

• **Phenyl glycosides**

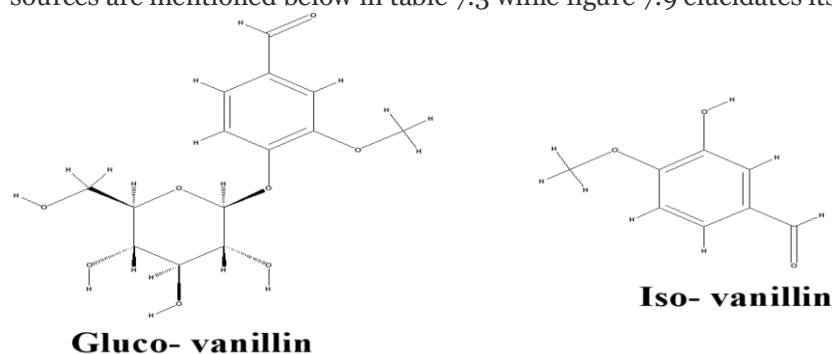
In phenyl glycosides, phenol and its derivatives are acting as aglycone groups. A few examples of phenyl glycosides along with their respective sources are mentioned below in table 7.3 while figure 7.8 elucidates its structure. Like cyanogenetic glycosides, phenol glycosides are also responsible for herbivore defenses in plants (62). Phenolic glycosides are generally optically active and established C-O-C linkage to the glycone group which can be hydrolyzed in the presence of acid and alkali (63). Few derivatives of phenyl glycosides are examined for antivirus evaluation (64).



**Figure 7.8:** Shows the structure of different phenyl glycosides

- **Aldehyde glycosides**

Structurally, aldehyde glycosides are similar to phenolic glycosides only with the difference in aldehydic group (CHO group) (38). Aldehyde glycosides are famous in the food industries as they are used as a sweetener and flavoring agent (38). A few examples of aldehyde glycosides along with their respective sources are mentioned below in table 7.3 while figure 7.9 elucidates its structure.



**Figure 7.9:** Molecular structures of aldehyde glycosides

### 7.5 Role of Glycosides in the regulation of Diabetes

The secondary metabolites, which after glycosylation result in a variety of glycosides. Numerous benefits of glycosylation include better dispersion, solubility, amphiphilicity, metabolism, etc. Different types of glycosides, such as glycosylated flavanoids (flavonols, isoflavonoids, flavanones, flavanols, anthocyanidins, cardiac glycosides, etc.), glycosylated lipids (diacylglycerols, sphingolipids, etc.), and glycosylated phytosterols, can be extracted from plants and have shown significant health benefits (83). Glycosides are utilized for the control of diabetes and some of the main targets are tumor necrosis factor (TNF), transforming growth factor (TGF), nuclear factor-kB (NF-kB), poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP), cytokines, etc. Pathways like hexosamine pathway, and polyol pathway are used by glycosides as their mode of action (84).

Researchers have been studying the role of glycosides in diabetes for millennia, and their research is still ongoing, they covered O-glycosides, N-glycosides, and even C-glycosides, from which most of the approved anti-diabetic drugs like dapagliflozin, canagliflozin, ipragliflozin, etc., were prepared. C-glycosides are comparatively more stable and have an increased oral bioavailability as compared to the others and hence were adapted for use. Phlorizin, an O-glycoside natural product, improves insulin

resistance and decreases plasma glucose levels by enhancing glucose excretion (85). The metabolic pathways and certain molecules like AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3), acetyl-Co-A carboxylase (ACC), etc., involved in insulin generation, glycogen synthesis, glycolysis, pancreatic cell secretions, etc. are altered to generate hypoglycemic effects and raise insulin sensitivity. These phytochemicals target numerous metabolic pathways to produce the necessary anti-diabetic effects. Additionally, they have a role in the translocation of glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4) and the activation of phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) (86)(87).

The majority of plant-based glycosides have anti-inflammatory and anti-oxidant capabilities, which gives them a distinct advantage in the management of metabolic inflammation associated with diabetes. The usage of these natural glycosides and other phytochemicals also addresses other issues and difficulties, such as the lowering of insulin levels and glycemic index (88). Table 7.4 illustrates selected anti-diabetic phyto-glycosides and briefly states their respective effects in the remediation of diabetes.

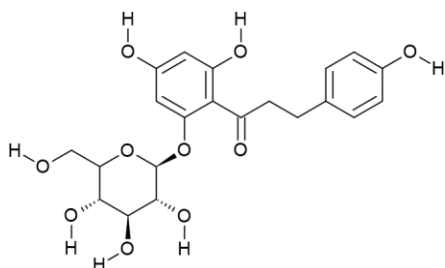
## 7.6 Mode of action of glycosides

### 7.6.1 O-Glycosides as anti-diabetic sources and their mode of action

The most prevalent type of glycosides in plants are o-glycosides and are formed when a glycoside bond is formed when a sugar moiety called glycone (monosaccharide) is abridged with either aromatic or aliphatic alcohol (aglycone or genin) or another sugar molecule through an oxygen molecule (37). In plants, enzyme glycosyltransferases modulate the secondary metabolites and result in the biosynthesis of glycosides, which further require surplus reactions like acylation, degradation, and oxidation (37)(38)(158). C-glycosyl and O-glycosides, molecules are known to exhibit antidiabetic activities (85). According to Brito-Arias, 2007, there are several chemical reactions methodologies responsible for the coupling and formation of O-glycosides, namely the Armed-disarmed approach, Fischer reaction, Fusion method, various types of reactions-like Glycal, Helferich, Michael, Imidate, Koenigs-Knorr, groups exiting in various ways, using the solid-phase method, and Sulfur reaction(43). The prime pathway for O-glycosylation comprises a dehydration reaction between the moiety potassium phenoxide and [(2*R*,3*R*,4*S*,5*R*,6*R*)-3,4,5-triacetyloxy-6-bromooxan-2-yl]methyl to produce an acetylated derivative followed by the hydrolysis in the presence of base to synthesize the final product i.e., phenyl-β-D-glucopyranoside. However, the inception of the novel method, some modulations have been incorporated particularly for aromatic glycosides. In living organisms, the polymer glycogen is the main energy source which consists of α-1, 4- and α-1, 6- glucose units (159)(160). The two enzymes linked and responsible for polysaccharide formation.

A natural plant metabolite called phlorizin (Figure 7.10) is a type of O-glycoside (161) extracted from the apple (*Malus pumila*) and bark part of the pear in which position 2' of a -D-glucopyranosyl residue is linked to an aryl -D-glucoside (phloretin) by a glycosidic bond. It is known to lower blood glucose levels by enhanced excretion of renal glucose due to developed insulin resistance (149); but this compound is not much used as an antidiabetic drug it has certain side effects on enzyme glucosidases resulting in hydrolysis sensitivity, random.

Ethanollic extracts of guava leaves have reported antidiabetic activities, especially for T2DM (144). The flavonol-glycoside components (162) found in guava are guaijaverin, isoquercitrin (figure 7.11), hyperoside, and Peltoside responsible for the hyperglycaemic activities.



**Figure 7.10:** Molecular structure of Phloretin.

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**Table 7.4:** Glycosides and effects

Family	Plant Species	Glycoside Name	Effects	References
Acanthaceae	<i>Clinacanthus nutans</i>	4,6,8-Megastigmatrien-3-One, 1',2'-Bis(Acetyloxy)-3',4'-Didehydro-2'-Hydro-B, $\Psi$ -Carotene, N-Isobutyl-2-Nonen-6,8-Diynamide	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, hypoglycemic	(89)
Amaranthaceae	<i>Amaranthus caudatus</i>	Squalene, Quercetin, Betacarotene, Catechins	$\alpha$ -Amylase inhibitor, controls hyperglycemia, $\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(90)
Apiaceae	<i>Eryngium foetidum</i>	Quercetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic	(91)
Apiaceae	<i>Ligusticum porteri</i>	3-(Z)-Butylidenephthalide, Myristicin and Ferulic Acid	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic	(92)
Lamiaceae	<i>Melissa officinalis</i>	Ferulic Acid, Rosmarinic Acid, Luteolin, Chlorogenic Acid, Luteolin-Glucoside, Apigenin-, Isochlorogenic Acid, Esculin	$\alpha$ -Amylase inhibitor, antidiabetic, improves insulin resistance	(93)
Araliaceae	<i>Panax ginseng</i>	Ginsenoside Rb1	lower insulin resistance and blood glucose	(94)(95)
Araliaceae	<i>Panax quinquefolium</i>	Vin $\alpha$ -ginsenoside R3	Improves insulin secretion	(96)
Asclepiadaceae	<i>Gymnemasylvestre</i>	Gymnemic Acids, Gurmarin, gymnemosides	Improved blood sugar homeostasis, hypoglycemic action, anti-hyperglycemic, regeneration of pancreatic $\beta$ cells	(97)
Asteraceae	<i>Artemisia vulgaris</i>	Caffeoylquinic Acid	$\alpha$ -Amylase inhibitor, $\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antidiabetic	(98)
Asteraceae	<i>Brickellia cavanillesii</i>	Sesquiterpenes, Curcumene, Spathulenol, Caryophyllene Oxide	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(99)
Asteraceae	<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	Taraxacin	Alters glycogen synthesis pathway, hypoglycemic	(100)
Amaranthaceae	<i>Beta vulgaris</i>	Vitexin, Acacetin	Antidiabetic effects	(101)
Bignoniaceae	<i>Oroxylum indicum</i>	Baicalein, Catechin, Luteolin, Quercetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(102)
Brassicaceae	<i>Nasturtium officinale</i>	Glucosinolates	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(103)
Celastraceae	<i>Salacia oblonga</i>	Quercetin, Kaempferol	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor increases insulin sensitivity	(104)
Celastraceae	<i>Salacia reticulata</i>	Salacinol, Kotalanol, And De-O-Sulfonated Kotalanol.	Antidiabetic, hypoglycemic	(105)

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Celastraceae	<i>Salacia reticulata</i>	Kotalanol, salacinol	Alters glycogen synthesis and insulin secretion pathway, hypoglycemic	(106)
Cleomaceae	<i>Cleome droserifolia</i>	Quercetin, Isorhamnetin, Kaempferol	Inhibit $\alpha$ -amylase and $\alpha$ -glucosidase	(107)
Clusiaceae	<i>Garcinia mangostana</i>	Geraniin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic, $\alpha$ -Amylase inhibitor	(108)
Convolvulaceae	<i>Ipomoeabatatas</i>	Glycoprotein, Anthocyanins, Alkaloids, And Flavonoids	Inhibits intestinal $\alpha$ -glucosidase	(109)
Convolvulaceae	<i>Ipomoea aquatica</i>	Caffeoylquinic Acid, Quercetin, Caffeolyquinic Acid	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(110)
Cucurbitaceae	<i>Citrullus colocynthis</i>	Citrullol, colocynthin, elaterin, elatericin B, colosynthetin	Alters glycogen synthesis pathway, antihyperglycemic, anti-inflammatory	(111)
Cucurbitaceae	<i>Luffa cylindrica</i>	Momordin-a, luffin-a	Alters glycogen synthesis and insulin secretion pathway, hypoglycemic	(112)
Cucurbitaceae	<i>Momordica charantia</i>	Momordin, momordicine, charantin, Momorcharaside A and B, momorcharin A and B	Increases insulin sensitivity, hypoglycemic	(113)
Cyperaceae	<i>Kyllinga monocephala</i>	Quercetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor lowers blood glucose levels	(114)
Davalliaceae	<i>Davallia formosana</i>	Epicatechin-3-O-B-D-Allopyranoside	Antidiabetic, hypoglycemic	(115)(116)
Dryopteridaceae	<i>Dryopteris cycadina</i>	B-Sitosterol, Quercetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic	(117)
Ericaceae	<i>Arbutus andrachne</i>	Benzothiazole	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(118)
Ericaceae	<i>Vaccinium oxycoccos</i>	Benzothiazole	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(119)
Ericaceae	<i>Vaccinium arctostaphylus</i>	Benzothiazole	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(120)
Euphorbiaceae	<i>Euphorbia thymifolia</i>	Quercetin, Quercitrin, Cosmosiin, Kaempferol, Amyrine, B-Sitosterol, Campesterol, Caryophyllene, Limonene, Phytol, Piperitenone, Safranal, Stigmasterol, Taraxerol, Euphorbol, 24 Methylene	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic	(121)
Fabaceae	<i>Astragalus mongolicus</i>	Astragalosides, Isoastragalosides,, Cycloartanes, Agroastragalosides I And II, Oleananes	Antidiabetic, hypoglycemic	(38)
Fabaceae	<i>Galega officinalis</i>	Galegine	Antidiabetic, controls high blood sugar levels	(122)
Fabaceae	<i>Peltophorum pterocarpum</i>	Myricetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, increased insulin sensitivity	(123)
Fabaceae	<i>Sophora japonica</i>	Quinoline, Catechin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(124)

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Fabaceae	<i>Trigonella foenum graecum</i>	C-glycosides	Helps in glucose transportation, metabolizes carbohydrates, improves insulin sensitivity	(125)
Geraniaceae	<i>Geranium collinum</i>	Kaempferol	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antidiabetic	(126)
Hypericaceae	<i>Hypericum triquetrifolium</i>	Catechin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antidiabetic	(127)
Juglandaceae	<i>Juglans regia</i>	Chlorogenic Acid, Kaempferol, Quercetin	Decreases blood glucose levels and improves insulin sensitivity.	(128)
Lamiaceae	<i>Perilla frutescens</i>	Luteolin, Rosmarinic Acid, Caffeic Acid, Apigenin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic	(129)
Lamiaceae	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>	Luteolin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(130)
Lamiaceae	<i>Salvia miltiorrhiza</i>	Steviol Glycosides, Stevioside, Rebaudioside A	GLUT4 translocation, and phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) activation	(131)
Lamiaceae	<i>Scutellaria baicalensis</i>	Aglycones, Baicalein, Wogonin, Oroxylin A	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(132)
Lamiaceae	<i>Zataria multiflora</i>	Carvacrol	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic, improves insulin sensitivity	(133)
Lecythidaceae	<i>Careya arborea</i>	Kaempferol 3-O-glucopyranoside, Quercetin 3-O-(6-O-Glucopyranosyl)-Glucopyranoside, Quercetin 3-O-Glucopyranoside	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antidiabetic	(134)
Meliaceae	<i>Azadirachta indica</i>	Xanthones	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(135)
Menispermaceae	<i>Tinospora cordifolia</i>	Tinosporine, cordifolide, tinosporide, cordifole, columbin	Alters glycolysis pathways, hypoglycemic	(136)
Moraceae	<i>Artocarpus champeden</i>	Myricetin, Europetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic	(137)
Moraceae	<i>Ficus bengalensis</i>	Leucocyanidin, pelarogonidin	Alters glycogen synthesis and insulin secretion pathway, hypoglycemic	(138)
Moraceae	<i>Ficus racemosa</i>	Kuwanon L, Mulberrofuran G, Sanggenon C, Moracenin D, Mortatarin C, Sanggenon G, Sanggenon O, Sanggenol A, Sanggenon W, Nigrasin F, Sanggenol G, Mortatarin B	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(139)
Moraceae	<i>Morus alba</i>	Kuwanon L, Mulberrofuran G, Sanggenon C, Moracenin D, Mortatarin C, Sanggenon G, Sanggenon O, Sanggenol A, Sanggenon W, Nigrasin F, Sanggenol G, Mortatarin B, Astragalin, scopolin, skimmmin, roscoside II	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, improves insulin sensitivity, Pancreatic $\beta$ cells regeneration	(140)



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Myristicaceae	<i>Horsfieldia amygdalina</i>	Quinoline, Catechin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, hypoglycemic	(124)
Myrtaceae	<i>Cleistocalyx operculatus</i>	Catechin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(141)
Myrtaceae	<i>Eucalyptus urophylla</i>	Kuwanon L, Mulberrofuran G, Sanggenon C, Moracenin D, Mortatarin C, Sanggenon G, Sanggenon O, Sanggenol A, Sanggenon W, Nigrasin F	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(142)
Myrtaceae	<i>Psidium guajava</i>	Quercetin	Antihyperglycemic and antioxidative potential	(143) (144)
Myrtaceae	<i>Syzygium cumini</i>	Myricetin, Europetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, antihyperglycemic	(137)
Orobanchaceae	<i>Cistanche tubulosa</i>	Acteoside, Echinacoside, isoacteoside	Hypoglycemic	(145)
Oxalidaceae	<i>Averrhoa bilimbi</i>	Triacontanol, Dotriacontanyl Docosanoate, Oleanolic Acid, Ursolic Acid	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, hypoglycemic, antidiabetic	(146)
Piperaceae	<i>Piper lolot</i>	Quinoline, Catechin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(124)
Polygonaceae	<i>Polygonum multiflorum</i>	Cis-THSG (Cis-2,3,5,4'-Tetrahydroxystilbene 2-O-B-Glucopyranoside)	Anti-diabetic and Antioxidant potential	(147)
Portulaca Oleracea	<i>Portulaca oleracea</i>	Oleuropein	Modulate insulin secretion, antioxidative effect	(148)
Ericaceae	<i>Calluna vulgaris</i>	Arbutin	Anti-inflammatory, Anti-diabetic, Diuretic	(38)
Rosaceae	<i>Pyrus communis</i>	Arbutin	Anti-inflammatory, Anti-diabetic, diuretic	(38)
Rosaceae	<i>Pyrus communis</i>	Phlorizin	Decreases plasma glucose, improved insulin sensitivity, increased glucose excretion	(149)
Rosaceae	<i>Rosa damascene</i>	Myrcene, Kaempferol And Quercetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, hypoglycemic	(150)
Rubiaceae	<i>Cinchona succirubra</i>	Quinoline	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(117)
Rubiaceae	<i>Hintonia latiflora</i>	Quinoline, Coutareagenin, Phenylcoumarin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(151)
Rubiaceae	<i>Mitragyna innermis</i>	Quinoline	$\alpha$ -Amylase inhibitor	(152)
Rubiaceae	<i>Paederia lanuginosa</i>	Quinoline, Catechin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, decreases blood glucose levels	(124)
Salvadoraceae	<i>Salvadora persica</i>	Salvadorine, Quercetin	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor, hypoglycemic	(153)
Santalaceae	<i>Osyris alba</i>	Quercitrin, Phloroglucinol	$\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(154)
Saxifragaceae	<i>Bergenia crassifolia</i>	Arbutin, Hydroquinone, Glycoside, Pyrogallol, Acetylsalicylic Acid, Caffeoyl Quinic, Fumaric, Furan carboxylic, Gallic acid, Malic acid, Protocatechuic Quinic Acid, Ellagic Acid	Anti-inflammatory, Anti-diabetic, Diuretic	(38)
Solanaceae	<i>Lycium barbarum</i>	Kaempferol, quercetin, Caffeic acid, chlorogenic acid, Rutin, Neochlorogenic acid, Luteolin	Hypoglycemic	(155)

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Malvaceae	<i>Helicteres isora</i>	Cucurbitacin B, isocucurbitacin B	Alters glycogen synthesis pathway, hypoglycemic	(112)
Theaceae	<i>Camellia sinensis</i>	Ferulic Acid, Rosmarinic Acid, Luteolin, Luteolin-7-Glucoside, Apigenin-7-Glucoside, Isochlorogenic Acid, Esculin, Chlorogenic Acid	$\alpha$ -Amylase inhibitor, hypoglycemic	(93)
Theaceae	<i>Camellia sinensis</i>	Catechins	$\alpha$ -Amylase inhibitor, controls hyperglycemia, $\alpha$ -Glucosidase inhibitor	(90)
Tiliaceae	<i>Tilia cordata</i>	Rutoside, Hyperoside, Quercitrin, Isoquercitrin, Astragalin, Tyliroside	Anti-diabetic, hypoglycemic	(38)
Tiliaceae	<i>Tilia vulgaris</i>	Hyperoside, Rutoside, Tyliroside, Quercitrin, Isoquercitrin, Astragalin	Diuretic, Anti-diabetic, increases insulin release	(38)
Tiliaceae	<i>Tilia.platyphyllos</i>	Astragalin, Tyliroside, Rutoside, Hyperoside, Quercitrin, Isoquercitrin	Anti-diabetic, anti-inflammatory	(38)
Ericaceae	<i>Arctostaphylos uvaursi</i>	Arbutin, eriolin	Alters glycogen synthesis pathway, antihyperglycemic, anti-inflammatory	(156)
Vitaceae	<i>Leea indica</i>	Quercetin, Gallic Acid, Lupeol, B-Sitosterol, Ursolic Acid, Mollic Acid Arabinoside, And Mollic Acid Xyloside	Anti-diabetic increases insulin sensitivity	(157)

*Polygonum multiflorum* root reported the presence of a significant bioactive O-glycoside called trans-2,3,5,4'-tetrahydroxystilbene 2-O- $\beta$ -glucopyranoside known to exhibit antioxidant and antidiabetic activity; however since the roots have a low concentration of the bioactive molecule, Tang et al., (2017) synthesized cis- 2,3,5,4'-tetrahydroxystilbene 2-O- $\beta$ -glucopyranoside by mimicking the original process of *P. multiflorum*(147). Both the forms- trans- and cis-THSG are assessed for the treatment of T2DM; where the latter was found to be more effective than the former one. Functional foods can also be used for the treatment of diabetics either alone or coupled with the existing therapies.

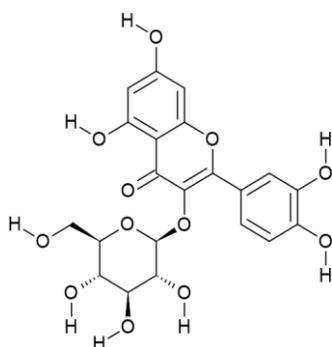
The biosynthesis and evaluation of O-glycoside are achieved by discriminatory inhibitor consisting of azobenzene moiety coupled to anomeric carbon of glucose molecule by glycosidic bond (163). They showed that selective photo control may regulate the catalytic activities of prime enzymes associated with the metabolism of glycogen, thus opening an avenue toward the treatment and management of glycogen metabolism-related disorders.

Many scientists have worked on various plant species to isolate natural sources of O-glycoside like glycosides extracted from *Stevia rebaudiana*, called steviol glycosides are used widely as calorie-free sweeteners and are useful for patients with various metabolic syndrome, T2DM, and obesity (164). Stevioside and steviol most likely stimulate the glucocorticoid receptor (GR)and hence, have negative effects on metabolism, while the glycosides (steviol and steviol glycosides) employ glucocorticoid receptor-arbitrated effect the cancer Jurkat cells (164).

*Ipomoea purpurea*, commonly known as morning glory ofconvulvaceae family is the main reservoir of bioactive therapeutic compounds (resin glycosides), with anti-diabetic activities for non-insulin-dependent T2DM prevention and treatment (165). Due to  $\alpha$ -glucosidases' inhibitory action, resin-type glycosides administer postprandial levels of glucose and thus are important as anti-hyperglycaemic.

In Vietnam, a traditional herb named *Gynostemma longipes* is used to treat T2DM by tribal communities as this compound shows special effective stimulatory effects (166). Several bioactive molecules, especially O-Glycosides isolated from various species of *Ficus* is known to exhibit anti-diabetic pharmacological activities as it causes increased secretion of insulin and reduced glucose level in the blood (167). Mollic acid arabinoside, a natural O-glycoside isolated from hydroalcoholic and alcoholic extracts from leaves of *Leea indica* demonstrated hypoglycemic activity by reducing the glucose levels in the blood significantly (168). It is reported that the daily consumption of green tea, moderates homeostasis of blood glucose, regulates postprandial hyperglycemia, and thus prevents causing of T2DM (169). The O-glycoside kaempferol isolated from *C. sinensis* reported inhibitory action Kaempferol diglycoside revealed  $\alpha$ -glucosidase inhibition with an  $IC_{50}$  of 40.02 4.61 M, whilst -amylase inhibition was observed with an  $IC_{50}$  of 0.09 0.02 M (170).

Natural O-glycosides flavonols- quercetin and quercetin glycosides isolated from solid waste onion (*Allium cepa* ) demonstrated substantial anti-hyperglycaemic properties and were tested for antioxidant activities, enzyme inhibitory, and cytotoxicity (171). Similarly, isoquercetin (Figure 7.11) demonstrated the effects of anti-diabetes as it reduces the blood glucose level, insulin, and modulated enzyme genes responsible for mRNA expression of insulin and carbohydrate-metabolizing (172). These results are in synchronization with glibenclamide, the standard drug for DM. Therefore, such findings indicate the possibility of isoquercetin as a therapeutic drug in the future for treating DM. However, the hydrolytic instability of O-glycosides often results in the formation of various analogs of carbohydrates like N- or C-glycosides used as medicinal agents, which are discussed in the next section.



**Figure 7. 11:** Molecular structure of isoquercetin.

### 7.6.2 N-Glycosides as anti-diabetic sources and their mode of action

In N-glycosides, a glycoside bond is formed when a sugar moiety (monosaccharide) is abridged with either aromatic or aliphatic alcohol or another sugar molecule through the nitrogen of NH. As discussed in section 6.1, GP inhibition is one of the most researched approaches to deal with T1DM (85), therefore

N-glycosides like N-( $\beta$ -d-glucopyranosyl) amides (173), and derivatives of N-(d-glucopyranosyl)-N'-acyl urea (174), are known to exhibit anti-diabetic activities as they function as the most effective GP inhibitor of glucose analogs.

Earlier the amide-based inhibitor, [N-( $\beta$ -d-glucopyranosyl) acetamide] was known to be an efficient inhibitor of GP, urea derivatives namely [N-( $\beta$ -d-glucopyranosyl)-N'-acyl] with correctly positioned and rightly sized. While N-(d-glucopyranosyl)-N'-acyl is the most potent analog of glucose inhibitor, the linked hydrophobic group to the amide part produced a more effective GP inhibitor (174)(175). The urea derivative is known to be a better inhibitor of GP than N-( $\beta$ -d-glucopyranosyl) 3-(2-naphthyl)-propenoic amide (175).

Staudinger protocol was applied to study the conversion of 2, 3, 4, 6-tetra-O-acetyl-d-glucopyranosyl and 2-acetamido-3, 4, 6-tri-O-acetyl-2-deoxy-d-glucopyranosyl azides into the corresponding per-O-acetylated N-(d-glucopyranosyl) amides is described (175); followed by Zemplén deacetylation method to remove the protecting groups. Czifrák et al., 2006 reported that 3-(N- $\beta$ -d-glucopyranosyl-carbamoyl) propanoic acid was the best inhibitor (176).

Similarly, with the use of glucopyranosylammonium carbamate, the efficacy of GP inhibitor N-( $\beta$ -d-glucopyranosyl)-N'-substituted ureas can be magnificently enhanced (177). For the synthesis and assessment, several O-peracetylated N-(d-glucopyranosyl)-carboxamides with isoxazole or 1,2,3-triazole rings were considered, and a new derivative of GP inhibitor was reported (178). In 2014, screening of silicon in N-acyl- $\beta$ -d-glucopyranosylamines Zinc database was reported as probable Glycogen Phosphorylase (GP) inhibitors (179).

Triazoles are another class of N-Glycosides, therapeutically important for their mechanism of bioisomerism with the peptide bonds due to dynamic involvement in H<sub>2</sub> bonding, and strong dipole moments making the triazoles oxidative/ reductive and hydrolysis stable (85). By using copper as a catalyst in the azide-alkyne cycloaddition (CuAAC), 1, 2, and 3-1 H-triazolyl glycohybrids, a triazole containing twin sugar moieties, were successfully synthesized (180).

The inhibitors were formed as a result of 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition reactions of glycosyl azides to give 2, 3-unsaturated alkynyl glycosides along with few glycol-hybrids which showed significant activities against target enzyme like glucose-6-phosphatase, GP and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase and (180). Chu et al. (2016) studied the consequence of the C6-substitution on the inhibition of SGLT2 by N-indolylglycosides and reported that the sugar moiety position at C6 is very crucial for the suppression of SGLT2 (181). However, in rats, the compound (R=acetyl) induced excretion of glucose (182).

Understanding the characterization of interfaces resulting in their binding to the enzymes is crucial for designing efficient drugs. A derivative of acridone which made from glucose (GLAC) and inhibitor of GLAC compound is considered as a superior inhibitor of glucose-6-phosphatase; where all compounds are glucose derivatives, and cyclopropane rings crucial for GP and enables for the investigation of minor interactions in the catalytic region. It is included in the structure of two of the active inhibitors (183).

Among the N-glycosides series, the most efficient inhibitors of SGLT and GP are N-uracil glycoside; 1, 2, 3-triazolyl N-glycosides and N-indolylglycosides (85). Canagliflozin, empagliflozin, luseogliflozin and tofogliflozin are a few of the approved marketed medications based on glycoside (85).

### 7.6.3 C-Glycosides as anti-diabetic sources and their mode of action

In C-glycosides, a glycoside bond is formed when a sugar moiety (monosaccharide) is bridged with either aromatic or aliphatic alcohol or another sugar molecule through a carbon molecule. Aglycone is coupled with C1 carbon (an anomeric carbon) of the compound glycone, which present in two diastereoisomers i.e  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  forms, while the enzymes like  $\beta$ -glucosidases are responsible for the degradation of the glycosidic linkages as these are unstable and vulnerable to hydrolysis. The plants' active glycosides are usually  $\beta$ -linked (37)(38)(158). C-glycoside molecules are hydrolysis resistant in nature.

C-Glycosides without being converted to the prodrug, are metabolically more stable than O-glycosides with enhanced plasma exposure and bioavailability (184). Under the category of C-glycosyl derivatives, mainly there are two types-aromatic and heteroaromatic. C-glycosylarenes are an aromatic type of C-glycosides that have gained much importance in recent times. Researchers have observed that the inhibitors can provide the active catalytic site and lessen the transition state conformation of 280s at the same position as d-glucose loop by enabling various attachments to Asn284 and Asp283 of this loop (185). Yet another new drug, recently, known as protein tyrosine phosphatase 1B (PTP1B) has been discovered to treat T2DM (186), and subsequently  $\beta$ -C-glycosyl and  $\beta$ -C glycosiduronic acid quinones molecules were invented as sugar-based PTP1B inhibitors (187).

Dapagliflozin was discovered in 2008 as the T2DM treatment using a selective renal sodium-dependent glucose cotransporter 2 (SGLT2) inhibitor(188); where it is assumed that the selective SGLT2 does not undergo O-glucosidase degradation and helps in the decline of glucose level in blood. In rats, Dapagliflozin is a better stimulator than SGLT2 inhibitors for glucosuria.

Puerarin and several derivatives, an isoflavone C-glucoside are used to treat diabetics (189). It was observed that the isoflavone moiety was responsible for the uptake of glucose and C-glucose and may be accountable for increasing the water solubility of puerarin.

The C-glucosides with a heterocyclic ring are metabolically better and stable SGLT2 inhibitors as compared to O-glucoside (190). Canagliflozin, a thiophene derivative is considered to be an SGLT2 inhibitor that is significantly potent and selective, and known to exhibit anti-diabetic properties; first SGLT2 inhibitor to receive US approval and undergoing regulatory review in the European Union is Canagliflozin(191)(192).

An array was produced and tested for hSGLT1 and hSGLT2 C-aryl glucosides with different substituents at the distal aryl ring's 4' location human inhibitors(193). Zhang et al., (2011) reported the hyperglycaemic activity of bexagliflozin has IC<sub>50</sub> values are 5.6 μM for SGLT1 and 2 nM for SGLT2 against humans(194). Among the novel derivatives of benzothiophene discovered, the efficacy of ipragliflozin was very high and functioned as a selective SGLT2 inhibitor (195).

D-gluco- and d-xylopyranosylidene-spirohydantoin and thiohydantoin are synthesized from extremely regio-, chemo- and stereospecific methods using six steps from the equivalent free sugar (196). The function of particular H<sub>2</sub> bridges in binding to enzyme inhibitors was reported in the studies on d-gluco and d-xylo spiro-hydantoin, as well as N- (d-glucopyranosyl) amides (196). C-(β-d-glucopyranosyl) heterocycles were prepared with acidic, neutral, and basic characteristics in the heterocyclic moieties (197); where benzimidazole was regarded as the most effective inhibitor (197).

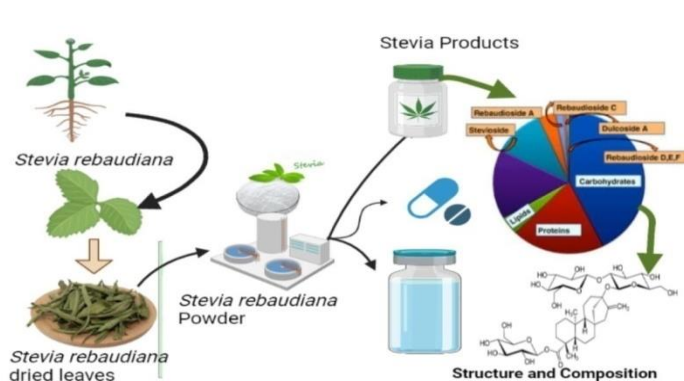
Three β-d-glucopyranose analogs were studied to check the increased affinity of GP, which in turn will help in the treatment of DM (198). These molecules were 2-(β-d-glucopyranosyl)-benzothiazole, 2-(β-d-glucopyranosyl)-5-methyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole, and 2-(β-d-glucopyranosyl)-Benzimidazole; and they showed that the inhibitors may be fitted in the active catalytic site of Transition-state GP (198). The researchers were able to compare the inhibitory efficacy of various C-glucopyranosyl indoles, pyrroles, and modified C-glucopyranosyl imidazoles against glycogen phosphatase(199). Sim et al., (2010), suggested a methodology to check the glucose levels in the blood, particularly for T2DM-i.e. to target the intestinal glucosidases and α-amylases that use α-glucosidase inhibitors miglitol and acarbose(105). One such target is maltase-glucoamylase (mGAM)'s N-terminal catalytic domain, which is one of the four intestinal enzyme activities of glycoside hydrolase 31 causing hydrolysis of end starch products into glucose.

Extensive research was carried out by Kyriakis et al., (2018) on recent hyperglycaemic molecules, their molecular targets, and their mode of action(200). Kerru and his co-workers revealed the usage of heterocyclic scaffolds for their biological evaluation as inhibitors against the corresponding molecular targets(201). The study listed a varied target range that includes- G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR), α-glucosidase, aldose reductase glucagon receptor (GCGR), peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ (PPAR-γ), PTP1B, fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase (FBPase), sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 (SGLT2) phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (PEPCK) and GP.

### 7.7 Stevioside: The natural sweetener

The leaves of the Paraguayan and Brazilian natural plant *Stevia rebaudiana*, a genus of the sunflower family, contain the steviol glycoside known as stevioside. In 1931, two French chemists, M. Bridel and R. Lavielle, discovered stevioside and named it after the plant genus from which it originated (202). In 1980, Tomoya Ogawa and his colleagues at what is now known as the Institute of Physical and Chemical Research in Wak, Japan (also known as Riken) reported that they had successfully completed the entire synthesis of stevioside(203).

For hundreds of years, South Americans have relied on a sweetener prepared from the dried leaves of the *S. rebaudiana* plant (204). Figure 7.12 reflects on Stevioside extraction from *S. rebaudiana* (leaf source) and its drug formulation. Recently, stevioside and its glycoside relative rebaudioside have been "discovered" in various regions of the world as a non-nutritive substitute for table sugar (205). The two active ingredients in *Stevia* are called stevioside and rebaudioside (sucrose). One gram of stevioside is said to be able to replace 300 grams of sucrose (206). People's interest in adding sweets to their cuisine has skyrocketed during the past few decades. The universal market for high-intensity sweeteners is anticipated to be worth \$1.146 billion in 2010, according to market research (207).



**Figure 7.12:** Schematic representation of Stevioside extraction from *Stevia rebaudiana* leaves and its drug formulation.

### 7.7.1 Sources of Stevioside

Flowers, leaves, and stems the plant contain sweet-tasting glycosides, but the roots do not while the leaves contain 5–20% stevioside and rebaudioside A (208). According to Srivastava & Chaturvedi, 2022, the blooms contain 0.9–1% by weight of them(209). Steviol glycosides are vital to the world economy, hence synthetic methods have been developed to synthesize them. Steviol glycosides also convert into rebaudioside A and stevioside (210). The percentages of rebaudioside A and stevioside in leaves range from 5% to 20% (211). Flowers typically have less than 1% (weight/weight) of these compounds (212). Synthetic methods have been developed to synthesize steviol glycosides because of their importance to the global economy (213). Steviol glycosides serve as a precursor for the production of rebaudioside A and stevioside (214). Glycoside extraction in Brazil produces 60 %stevioside and zero steviol or isosteviol, making it suitable for usage in food, beverages, pharmaceuticals, and soft drinks. Brazil produces for domestic distribution (215). Canada, the Czech Republic, India, and Russia process stevioside in large quantities (216)(217).

### 7.7.2 Antihyperglycemic activity of stevioside

Herbal supplements and acupuncture are just two examples of the complementary and alternative medicine treatments that today's patients are using to keep their diabetes under control. In South American countries, *S. rebaudiana* extract has been used to treat diabetes for decades (218). Its primary component, stevioside, is extremely sweet but has zero calories, and just a trace quantity is required for sweetening purposes (219). Stevioside has been extensively investigated for its antidiabetic potential. Table 7.5 illustrates a few studies related to antihyperglycemic activity of Stevioside.

**Table 7.5:** Selected reports depicting antidiabetic potential of stevioside

Experimental system	Dose of stevioside given	Outcome	Reference
Type 2 diabetic humans	1g	Reduction in glucagon and glucose level	(220)
Goto Kakizaki rat	0.025g per kg	Antihyperglycemic potential (incremental area of glucose response curve). Improved insulin response and suppression of glucagon concentration.	(221)
Wistar rats	500-2500mg per kg of body weight as supplement with high fat diet	Normalization of hyperlipidemia. Reduction of damage of tissue in diabetic animals	(222)
Wistar rats	2500mg per kg of body weight	Improvement of levels of blood glucose, insulin resistance indices and very low density lipoprotein.	(223)
3T3-L1 cells		Increase in glucose uptake by the cells	(224)

### 7.8 Patents of successfully marketed drugs obtained from phyto-glycoside sources (1994 onwards)

The invention is a process which offers novel ways of representation or finding technical solution to the existing problems. A patent is a unique right granted to an invention. In order to get a patent, the technical details of the inventions must be provided in public domain. Patents are useful, practical concepts that have real-world applications. They are not just abstract ideas. Patents support the development of breakthroughs and new technology in every field by rewarding ideas. The international legal foundation for patents is made up of the treaties that WIPO oversees as well as local, national, and international legislation.

Many plants store their chemicals primarily as inactive glycosides (225). Enzyme hydrolysis, which separates the chemical from the sugar component and renders it useful, can activate them (226). These plant glycosides are frequently used in medical practice.

Some of these phytochemicals obtained from different plants are listed in the table 7.6, as patent filed during the last few years.

### 7.9 Conclusion

The condition known as DM can develop when insulin does not function properly, leading to an increased level of glucose in the blood. Diabetes that is persistent and cannot be managed effectively can eventually lead to complications that include multiple factors. The care of diabetes in modern times involves the use of many medicines, each of which can expedite several adverse consequences that are potentially fatal, such as - cardiovascular diseases and cholesterol.

Within the scope of this review, the anti-diabetic benefits of a variety of glycosides derived from natural resources have been addressed. O-glycosides are the most prevalent form of glycoside that exhibits antidiabetic activity; they do this by lowering blood sugar levels (by decreased glucose absorption and increased insulin production) and by blocking  $\alpha$ -glucosidase (via increased insulin resistance). N-glycosides are useful in controlling the type 1 diabetes. Majority of the most powerful N-glycosides accomplish this by inhibiting SGLT as well as GP. The molecules known as C-glycosides are unaffected to metabolic breakdown and hydrolysis. In order to cure DM, C-glycosides are extremely effective against protein inhibitors such as PTP1B as well as SGLT2. Moreover, stevioside, a strong O-glycoside, is anti-hyperglycemic and hyperlipidemic. Recently, stevioside and its glycoside relative rebaudioside have been "discovered" in various regions of the world as a non-nutritive substitute for table sugar. Stevia effectively decreased glucose levels in the patients of type 2 diabetic disorder.

Many phyto-glycosides have been discovered and patented so far and seen to have an anti-diabetic effect as well but, their formulations into drugs and clinical research is much to be focused on. Complex chemical drug regime has successfully affected the incidence of drug adherence and efficacy. So, a gradual shift from regular chemical anti-diabetics to drugs with herbal formulations ensures fewer side effects and safety for future generations. Because of this, glycosides require an approach that is methodical and concentrated on experimental and clinical trials, which will assist in the creation of novel medications for diabetes with the combined efforts of researchers worldwide.

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## Chapter 7: Glycosides from Natural Sources in Treatment of Diabetes Mellitus

**Table 7.6:** Patents of glycosides derived from plantsources and their use in the remediation of diabetes.

Patent Title	Patent ID	Year	Inventor (s)	SPECIFIC FIELD OF INVENTION	References
Plant extract for prophylaxis and treatment of hyperglycemic disease.	EP2226076A1	2009	Henning Vollert	1. The subject of the invention is the extraction of a Brassica plant leaf extract for the treatment and/or prevention of a hyperglycemic illness which is known to be arich source of flavonoids or glycosides. Extracts are reported to contain active substances with higher SGLT-1 inhibitory activity.	(227)
Substituted fused heterocyclic c-glycosides	EP1679965A4	2004	Philip Rybczynski, Maud Urbanski, Xiaoyan Zhang	1. This invention relates to a novel technique for treating a patient suffering from diabetes Syndrome X, or problems related to those conditions. 2. The method of the invention involves combining one or more antidiabetic medications with one or more glucose reabsorption (SGLT) inhibitors to create a medication for treating a condition.	(228)
Anti-diabetic agent and use thereof	JP2010248130A	2009	Satoshi Kumazawa, Tsumoru Watanabe, Nobuyuki Kusano, Yoshiharu Ito, Atsuko Ezawa	1. This invention is related to 6-hydroxy kaempferol-3-o-rutinoside, antidiabeticflavonoid glycoside extracted from plants like Safflower ( <i>Carthamus tinctorius L.</i> ) 2. It shows $\alpha$ -glucosidase supressive activity.	(229)
<i>Bauhinia hupehara C.</i> and its extracts in the treatment of diabetes.	CN1919229B	2005	Zhao Yimin, Shan Junjie, Zhao Qizhi	1. The extract from the Chinese medicinal plant <i>Bauhinia hupeharais</i> used to lower blood sugar and reduce fat. 2. The extract contains polyphenol acid, saponin, and flavones (including flavone glycosides). 3. The extract shows weight loosing and blood sugar lowering properties in alloxan diabetic mouse.	(230)
Use of <i>Cyclocarya paliurus</i> glycoside compounds for preparing medicament for curing diabetes	CN101254200A	2007	Yu Qiang	1. Cyclocarya paliurus Ilijinskaja pharmaceutically acceptable salt or glycosidic compounds from leaves is characterized in this invention and is used for the treatment of diabetes. 2. It can dramatically reduce the symptoms of diabetes in alloxan-treated diabetic mice and stop the blood sugar from rising, which has a protective impact.	(231)
Substituted fused heterocyclic C-glycosides	US7482330B2	2004	Philip Rybczynski Maud Urbanski Xiaoyan Zhang	1. The compounds including substituted fused heterocyclic C-glycosides, as well as their applications for them, are thesubject of the invention. 2. A procedure for reducing mammal blood glucose that entails giving the animal being treated an effective dosage of a formula compound (IV).	(228)
C-Glycosides and preparation thereof as antidiabetic agents	GB2359554A	2001	Hiroshi Tomiyama Yoshinori Kobayashi Atsushi Noda Akira Tomiyama Tsuyoshi Tomiyama	1. A method of preparation of C- Glycosides of general formula (I), a salt containing acceptable pharmaceutical ingredients and use in Diabetes control.	(232)
Methods of treating diabetes mellitus and glycogen storage disease	US5817634A	1994	Elias Meezan , Stephen M. Manzella	1. Method of priming the incorporation of glucose into an oligosaccharide having alpha(1-4) glycosidic linkage.	(233)



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# Advances in Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry of Diabetes

This book entitled 'Advances in Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry of Diabetes' uncovers the longstanding tradition of using medicinal plants to treat diabetes, showcasing their growing popularity due to effective results and fewer side effects compared to conventional therapies. As the global prevalence of diabetes continues to rise, the book addresses the increasing inclination towards natural remedies for managing this condition. The content covers the use of plants in diabetes treatment, the therapeutic potential of phytochemicals, and how these natural compounds target various human metabolic pathways. With a focus on simplicity, the book provides insights into the diverse classes of phytochemicals, such as terpenoids, flavonoids, alkaloids, and glycosides, shedding light on their roles in controlling blood sugar levels and managing associated complications. Written for a broad audience, including industries, educational institutions, and health experts, this book serves as a practical guide for those seeking natural alternatives in diabetes care. It demystifies the science behind phytochemicals, offering valuable knowledge for navigating the world of diabetes treatment with a focus on plant-based solutions.

**Edited by Prof. Uchenna Estella Odoh, Dr. Habibu Tijjani & Dr. Chukwuebuka Egbuna**

# SUSTAINABLE WASTE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND THEIR PROFOUND IMPACT ON ENVIRONMENTAL CONSERVATION

## Abstract

Waste management is an important aspect of environmental conservation, and the adoption of sustainable practices which is the key to a healthier and cleaner planet. This comprehensive review paper examines their profound impact on environmental conservation and emphasizes into various sustainable waste management approaches. By exploring the current state of waste management, here we tried to promote recycling and reuse, gave emphasis to the significance of embracing eco-friendly strategies to minimize waste generation by implementing effective disposal methods. The present study focuses on the potential benefits and challenges which are associated with sustainable waste management practices by providing a comprehensive analysis of their predominant contribution to environmental conservation.

**Keywords:** sustainable, environmental conservation, waste management.

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## **I. INTRODUCTION**

Sustainable waste management practice plays an important role in environmental protection by controlling and minimizing the negative impact of waste on natural resources and ecosystems. These practices include the proper management of solid waste to ensure that it is converted into an opportunity for promoting sustainable development by providing cheap raw materials. Moreover, sustainable waste management practice aims to conserve natural resources and protect the environment by promoting efficient resource utilization and reducing pollution [1]. Inadequate waste management practices, such as dumping of solid waste and improper disposal play a significant negative impact on the environment. These practices contribute to environmental problems by polluting residential neighbourhoods, rice fields, water-ways, parks, oceans etc. Improper waste management can lead to various forms of pollution, including soil, air, water and soil pollution. This pollution can harm biodiversity and ecosystems, which ultimately disrupt natural processes and human health. Furthermore, inadequate waste management practices are responsible for drastic climate change by releasing greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. This continuous escalation in global waste production poses a pressing challenge to environmental conservation strategies. Unsustainable waste management practices have resulted in severe consequences such as resource depletion, habitat destruction, pollution etc. Thus, this review paper introduces the critical relevance of adopting sustainable waste management practices as a solution to achieve environmental conservation goals [2, 3].

## **II. SUSTAINABLE WASTE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES**

A multitude of sustainable waste management practices have been implemented successfully worldwide to address waste crisis. Recycling and source separation play an important role in converting recyclable materials from conserving resources, landfills and reducing waste materials etc. Organic waste management and composting offer a sustainable solution to divert organic waste from landfills. This process enhances soil fertility and reduces methane emissions by producing valuable compost. Various modern waste-to-energy technologies convert non-recyclable waste into renewable energy by reducing the reliance on fossil fuels and mitigating greenhouse gas emissions. Now-a-days various Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) programs encourage for various eco-design and responsible disposal by holding manufacturers which are accountable for the end-of-life management of their products. The principles of "Reduce, Reuse, and Refuse" promote waste prevention and encourage consumers to select more substitutes for sustainable development. Additionally, circular economy approaches highlight the closed-loop system, where products are designed for reparability, durability, recycling, reusing etc. [4,5,6].

## **III. ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT OF SUSTAINABLE WASTE MANAGEMENT**

Sustainable waste management practices yield a positive effect on environmental conservation. Greenhouse gas emissions can be curtailed by reducing landfilling and promoting recycling, which ultimately contribute to climate change mitigation. Recycling and composting also play an important role to conserve natural resources and energy, as these processes typically require less energy compared to raw material manufacturing and extraction process. Furthermore, converting organic waste from landfills reduces methane emissions, which is a potent greenhouse gas, which ultimately improve the quality air in the

environment. Sustainable waste management practices contribute to the preservation of ecosystem health and biodiversity by protecting natural habitats and minimizing pollution. Moreover, proper disposal and recycling of electronic waste material is necessary to prevent the release of hazardous materials into the environment and safe-guarding water resources and human health. These technological innovations in waste management have several profound impacts on environmental conservation [7,8,9,10,11]:

- 1. Reduced Landfilling:** By diverting waste from landfills through recycling, composting, and waste-to-energy processes, these technologies help minimize the environmental impact of landfills, including groundwater pollution, methane emissions, and habitat destruction.
- 2. Lower Greenhouse Gas Emissions:** Sustainable waste management practices, particularly waste-to-energy technologies and anaerobic digestion, contribute to reducing greenhouse gas emissions by capturing methane from organic waste and displacing fossil fuel-based energy sources.
- 3. Resource Conservation:** Recycling and advanced sorting technologies allow for the recovery of valuable resources from waste, reducing the need for raw materials extraction and conserving natural resources.
- 4. Pollution Mitigation:** Advanced waste management technologies help prevent environmental pollution caused by improper waste disposal, such as plastic litter in oceans and air pollution from open burning.
- 5. Circular Economy Promotion:** These innovations facilitate the transition towards a circular economy by promoting waste reduction, reusing materials, and recovering energy and resources from waste streams.

In brief, technological innovations have revolutionized waste management practices, enabling more sustainable approaches that profoundly impact environmental conservation. By adopting these technologies and integrating them into waste management strategies, communities and industries can significantly contribute to a greener and more sustainable future.

#### IV. CHALLENGES AND BARRIERS

Sustainable waste management practices have numerous benefits; on the other hand, the widespread adoption of sustainable waste management practices faces various challenges and barriers. Lack of infrastructure, economic constraints, social resistance etc. can hamper the transition to more sustainable waste management systems. Moreover, from various studies it has been noted that, the complexity of waste streams and the need for collaboration among stakeholders present considerable challenges. Various obstacles can significantly influence the sustainable waste management practices on the ability which have a profound impact on environmental conservation. Several studies highlight these challenges and barriers, shedding light on the limitations and complexities faced by different sustainable waste management initiatives.

- 1. Lack of Infrastructure:** A well-developed and efficient infrastructure is required for proper implementation of sustainable waste management practices such as composting plants, recycling facilities, waste-to-energy facilities etc. But unfortunately, in most of the cases it has been observed that the lack of such infrastructure is the main barrier [12,13] for proper implementation of sustainable waste management practices.
- 2. Economic constraints:** Numerous studies have revealed that, significant upfront investments require transitioning to sustainable waste management practices. This financial challenge is one of the barriers for the adoption of eco-friendly waste management technologies [14].
- 3. Social resistance and behavior change:** To change the mode of waste disposal habits, encouragement of individuals and different communities, embrace sustainable practices is another big challenge. Recent studies have given the emphasis on the importance of addressing behavioral barriers and promoting awareness to drive positive changes [15,16].
- 4. Complex Waste Streams:** Modern waste is increasingly diverse and complex, making it challenging to effectively separate and recycle various materials. This complexity has been recognized as a significant hurdle in achieving high recycling rates [17].
- 5. Lack of Proper Regulation and Enforcement:** Inadequate waste management regulations or lax enforcement can result in improper waste disposal and illegal dumping. Establishing and enforcing robust waste management policies have been identified as critical factors in promoting sustainable practices [18].
- 6. Limited Market Demand for Recycled Products:** The success of recycling heavily depends on the market demand for recycled materials. Studies have pointed out that boosting market demand and promoting the use of recycled products are crucial for sustainable waste management [19].
- 7. Technological Limitations:** Some regions may lack access to advanced waste management technologies or face technological limitations that prevent the adoption of more sustainable practices. Research emphasizes the need for technological innovations to overcome these limitations [20].
- 8. Stakeholder Collaboration:** Effective waste management requires collaboration among various stakeholders, including government bodies, businesses, communities, and waste management companies. Studies emphasize the significance of stakeholder engagement and cooperation in achieving sustainable waste management goals [21].
- 9. Misconceptions and Myths:** Misinformation or misconceptions about waste management practices can hinder progress. Educating the public about the environmental consequences of improper waste disposal and the benefits of sustainable alternatives is crucial for driving behavioral change [19].
- 10. Lack of Public Awareness and Education:** A lack of awareness and understanding about the importance of sustainable waste management practices can lead to apathy or

indifference. Research underscores the role of public awareness campaigns and educational initiatives in promoting sustainable waste practices [15,16].

Despite these challenges, proactive efforts from governments, businesses, communities, and individuals can overcome these obstacles and promote sustainable waste management practices. By addressing these challenges, society can significantly enhance the impact of waste management on environmental conservation and contribute to a more sustainable future.

## V. POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

Effective waste management policies and regulations are essential to drive the adoption of sustainable practices. Countries that have successfully implemented comprehensive waste management policies have witnessed significant reductions in waste generation and improved recycling rates. In this section, we discuss key policy instruments and legislative frameworks that can promote sustainable waste management practices. The policy and legislative framework for sustainable waste management practices play a crucial role in promoting environmental conservation [12,18]

Governments and international organizations have developed various policies and regulations to address waste management challenges and encourage the adoption of sustainable practices. Below are some key aspects of the policy and legislative framework for sustainable waste management, supported by relevant references:

1. **Waste Management Regulations:** Many countries have established comprehensive waste management regulations that govern the collection, transportation, treatment, and disposal of waste. These regulations often set standards for waste segregation, recycling targets, landfill restrictions, and waste-to-energy technologies [15].
2. **Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) Programs:** EPR is a policy approach that holds manufacturers responsible for the entire lifecycle of their products, including post-consumer waste management. EPR programs encourage producers to design products with recyclability in mind and take responsibility for their environmentally sound disposal. These programs are crucial in promoting a circular economy and reducing the environmental impact of products [19].
3. **Waste Minimization and Recycling Targets:** Several governments have set waste minimization and recycling targets to reduce the amount of waste sent to landfills and promote recycling. These targets provide incentives for municipalities, businesses, and individuals to adopt sustainable waste management practices [13].
4. **Incentive-based Policies:** Some countries have introduced incentive-based policies to encourage waste reduction and recycling. These may include financial incentives or tax breaks for businesses that implement sustainable waste management practices or achieve specific recycling goals [19].
5. **Bans on Single-Use Plastics:** To address the issue of plastic pollution, some regions have implemented bans on single-use plastics like plastic bags, straws, and styrofoam

containers. These bans aim to reduce plastic waste and encourage the use of more sustainable alternatives [16].

6. **Green Public Procurement:** Governments can play a leading role in promoting sustainable waste management by incorporating green public procurement policies. These policies prioritize the purchase of products with low environmental impact and high recyclability, influencing market demand for sustainable products [15].
7. **International Agreements:** International agreements and conventions, such as the Basel Convention, aim to regulate the transboundary movement of hazardous waste and promote environmentally sound waste management practices globally [21].
8. **Waste-to-Energy Regulations:** Waste-to-Energy technologies, such as incineration with energy recovery, can play a role in waste management. Regulations set emission standards and other environmental criteria to ensure the sustainable operation of these facilities [21].
9. **Circular Economy Strategies:** Some governments are developing circular economy strategies that focus on reducing waste generation, promoting recycling and reuse, and encouraging a more sustainable approach to resource management [17,22,23].
10. **Public Awareness and Education:** Policy frameworks often include provisions for public awareness and education campaigns to promote waste reduction and responsible waste disposal practices among citizens. Overall, a well-designed and effectively implemented policy and legislative framework is essential for driving sustainable waste management practices and maximizing their positive impact on environmental conservation. These policies, when properly enforced and supported by public and private stakeholders, can significantly contribute to creating a more sustainable and resilient waste management system.

## VI. TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS IN WASTE MANAGEMENT

Technological innovations have played a crucial role in advancing sustainable waste management practices and significantly impacting environmental conservation. Here are some key technological innovations in waste management and their profound impact on environmental conservation [24,25,26,27,28,29].

1. **Waste-to-Energy (WtE) Technologies:** Waste-to-Energy technologies involve converting non-recyclable and non-compostable waste materials into energy, such as electricity and heat. Advanced WtE facilities use processes like incineration, gasification, and pyrolysis to generate energy while minimizing harmful emissions. By diverting waste from landfills and producing renewable energy, WtE technologies help reduce greenhouse gas emissions, extend landfill lifespan, and contribute to a more sustainable energy mix.
2. **Anaerobic Digestion:** Anaerobic digestion is a biological process that breaks down organic waste, such as food scraps and agricultural residues, in the absence of oxygen. This process produces biogas, mainly composed of methane, which can be used as a



renewable energy source. Additionally, the byproduct of anaerobic digestion is nutrient-rich digestate, which can be utilized as organic fertilizer, promoting circular economy principles and reducing the need for chemical fertilizers.

- 3. Advanced Recycling Technologies:** Technological advancements have revolutionized recycling processes, making them more efficient and effective. Innovations such as optical sorting systems, sensor-based sorting, and artificial intelligence (AI)-enabled robotics have improved the accuracy and speed of waste sorting, leading to higher recycling rates and better-quality recovered materials.
- 4. Internet of Things (IoT) and Smart Bins:** IoT-enabled smart waste bins have sensors that monitor fill levels, allowing waste collection services to optimize routes and collection schedules. This reduces unnecessary collection trips and ensures bins are emptied only when needed, saving fuel and reducing emissions. Additionally, smart bins can encourage waste segregation by providing real-time feedback to users and facilitating better waste management practices.
- 5. Plasma Gasification:** Plasma gasification is an advanced thermal technology that uses high-temperature plasma to convert waste into synthetic gas (syngas) and vitrified slag. The syngas can be used as a clean energy source, while the vitrified slag is inert and safe for disposal. Plasma gasification offers a sustainable alternative to traditional incineration with lower emissions and minimal ash production.

## VII. COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT AND AWARENESS

Public participation and awareness are integral to the success of sustainable waste management practices. This section explores the importance of community engagement, education, and awareness campaigns in fostering responsible waste disposal habits and reducing waste generation. Community engagement and awareness play a crucial role in promoting sustainable waste management practices and their profound impact on environmental conservation. When communities actively participate in waste management initiatives and are educated about the importance of sustainable practices, significant positive outcomes can be achieved for the environment. Here's an overview of how community engagement and awareness contribute to environmental conservation through sustainable waste management [30,31,32,33,34]:

- 1. Waste Segregation and Reduction:** Through community engagement and awareness campaigns, residents can be encouraged to segregate their waste at the source, separating recyclables, organic waste, and non-recyclables. Waste segregation makes it easier to recycle materials, divert organic waste for composting, and minimize the volume of waste sent to landfills. As a result, the burden on landfills decreases, leading to reduced greenhouse gas emissions and preservation of valuable land resources.
- 2. Increased Recycling Rates:** Community awareness initiatives can educate people about the benefits of recycling and proper disposal of recyclable materials. When individuals understand the environmental significance of recycling, they are more likely to participate actively in recycling programs. This leads to increased recycling rates, which conserve

natural resources, reduce energy consumption, and lower greenhouse gas emissions associated with the production of new materials.

- 3. Adoption of Circular Economy Principles:** Community engagement helps promote the adoption of circular economy principles; wherein waste materials are treated as valuable resources. When communities participate in initiatives like upcycling, repair cafes, and exchange programs, they extend the life of products and materials, reducing the need for constant production and lessening the overall environmental impact.
- 4. Encouraging Responsible Consumption:** Awareness campaigns can highlight the importance of responsible consumption, encouraging communities to make eco-friendly choices and opt for products with minimal packaging and environmental footprints. By reducing unnecessary consumption and single-use items, communities contribute to less waste generation and better environmental conservation.
- 5. Behavior Change and Litter Prevention:** Community engagement initiatives can address littering issues and promote responsible waste disposal. Encouraging proper waste disposal practices, organizing cleanup drives, and installing strategically placed waste bins can prevent litter from entering water bodies and natural habitats, safeguarding ecosystems and wildlife.
- 6. Composting and Organic Waste Management:** Educating communities about composting and organic waste management empowers them to convert their food and garden waste into valuable compost. Composting reduces methane emissions from landfills and enriches soil fertility, supporting sustainable agriculture and ecosystem health.
- 7. Advocacy and Policy Support:** Engaged communities have the power to advocate for sustainable waste management policies and initiatives at the local, regional, and national levels. By voicing their concerns and supporting environmentally friendly policies, communities can drive systemic change and foster a culture of environmental conservation.

In conclusion, community engagement and awareness on sustainable waste management practices are essential for achieving profound impacts on environmental conservation. When individuals and communities actively participate in waste reduction, recycling, composting, and responsible consumption, they contribute to mitigating environmental pollution, conserving natural resources, and fostering a more sustainable future for generations to come. By working together, communities can play a significant role in creating positive and lasting change for the environment.

## VIII. FUTURE PROSPECTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering the evolving waste landscape, this section provides insights into the future of sustainable waste management practices. Recommendations are offered for policymakers, businesses, and individuals to further strengthen environmental conservation efforts through sustainable waste management initiatives. Future prospects and recommendations for sustainable waste management practices are essential to drive

continuous improvement and enhance their impact on environmental conservation. Here are some key considerations for the future of sustainable waste management, supported by relevant references:

1. **Technological Advancements:** Embrace and invest in cutting-edge waste management technologies that improve waste collection, sorting, recycling, and treatment processes. Innovations like advanced sorting techniques, artificial intelligence, and robotics can optimize waste handling and enhance resource recovery [21].
2. **Circular Economy Integration:** Strengthen the implementation of circular economy principles by promoting the design of products with recyclability and reusability in mind. Encourage businesses to adopt closed-loop approaches to reduce waste generation and improve resource efficiency [17].
3. **Decentralized Waste Management:** Explore decentralized waste management models, such as community-based composting and local waste-to-energy facilities. These decentralized systems can minimize transportation costs and reduce the environmental footprint associated with waste collection and transportation [19].
4. **Public-Private Partnerships:** Foster collaborations between governments, private sectors, and NGOs to develop comprehensive waste management solutions. Public-private partnerships can leverage the expertise and resources of both sectors to implement sustainable waste management practices effectively [12].
5. **Green Innovation and Startups:** Encourage the growth of green startups and innovation in the waste management sector. Support and fund initiatives that bring novel and sustainable waste management technologies to the market [13].
6. **Extended Producer Responsibility Expansion:** Strengthen and expand Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) programs to encompass a wider range of products and industries. Engaging more manufacturers in EPR initiatives will boost recycling rates and promote environmentally responsible product design [19].
7. **Education and Awareness:** Prioritize waste management education and awareness campaigns to inform the public about the importance of responsible waste disposal and the benefits of sustainable practices. Educated citizens are more likely to participate actively in waste reduction efforts [15,16].
8. **Policy Alignment:** Ensure that waste management policies are aligned with broader environmental and sustainability goals. Coherence between different policies can create synergies and maximize the positive impact on environmental conservation [18].
9. **Data-driven Decision Making:** Utilize data analytics and real-time monitoring to optimize waste management operations. Data-driven decision making can lead to better waste management strategies and resource allocation [20].
10. **Green Public Procurement:** Encourage governments and public institutions to lead by example through green public procurement. By purchasing products with minimal

environmental impact, governments can drive demand for sustainable products and encourage private sector engagement [19].

**11. International Collaboration:** Foster international collaboration and knowledge-sharing to address global waste management challenges. Countries can learn from each other's successes and failures and develop more effective waste management strategies collectively [13]. By adopting these future prospects and implementing the recommended measures, sustainable waste management practices can achieve even greater success in environmental conservation. Collaborative efforts between governments, industries, and communities are essential to creating a circular economy that minimizes waste generation, maximizes resource recovery, and safeguards our environment for future generations.

## IX. CONCLUSION

The implementation of sustainable waste management practices represents a significant opportunity to foster environmental conservation and create a more sustainable future. These practices are essential in addressing the escalating challenges posed by mounting waste generation and its detrimental effects on our ecosystems, climate, and human health.

By enacting comprehensive waste management regulations, adopting extended producer responsibility programs, and setting recycling targets, governments and stakeholders can take critical steps towards reducing waste generation and promoting resource recovery. The integration of advanced waste management technologies and decentralized approaches can optimize waste handling processes, minimizing environmental footprints and enhancing overall efficiency.

The adoption of a circular economy approach, which emphasizes designing products for recyclability and reusability, is pivotal in reducing waste and preserving finite resources. By embracing this circular approach, industries can significantly reduce waste generation, enhance resource efficiency, and encourage more sustainable consumption practices.

Public awareness campaigns and educational initiatives play a vital role in driving behavioral change and promoting responsible waste disposal practices among citizens. Empowered and informed individuals are more likely to actively participate in waste reduction efforts, recycling, and supporting eco-friendly product choices, thus amplifying the positive impact on the environment.

To drive future advancements, considerable progress has been made in sustainable waste management practices. Continuous innovation and collaboration among governments, communities, businesses, and academia are essential. To accelerate the global transition towards more sustainable waste management systems, international knowledge-sharing and embracing data-driven decision-making play an important role.

To conserve natural resources to combat environmental degradation and to mitigate climate change, sustainable waste management practices offer a fascinating solution. We can secure a healthier and more sustainable planet for present and future generations by

implementing the potential practices and fostering a collective commitment to environmental stewardship. The profound impact of sustainable waste management on environmental conservation lies in our ability to protect, conserve and cherish the earth, by building a legacy of sustainable living for our future generations to come.

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# EMPOWERMENT OF TRIBAL WOMEN IN INDIA

ISSUES AND PERSPECTIVES

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**Empowerment of  
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## Issues and Perspectives



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# EMPOWERMENT OF TRIBAL WOMEN IN INDIA

ISSUES AND PERSPECTIVES

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## IMPACT OF JAMATIA CUSTOMARY LAW AND STATUS OF WOMEN IN JAMATIA COMMUNITY OF TRIPURA: A CASE STUDY

SHARMISTHA CHAKRABORTY AND SENTIENLA

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### Introduction

Customary law is basically a socio-legal protocol that is omnipresent in almost every indigenous community. Hence, customary law is an intrinsic part of tribal identity as it is connected to the social and economic system of the tribal life. The customary law reflects some specific form of a social custom which is a kind of practice and is commonly adopted and approved as a force of law by an indigenous society (M. Chakraborty, 1993<sup>1</sup>). It is a well-structured framework of laws and regulations that the tribal people have abided within them since antiquity.

North-east India is also the abode of several ethnic communities having their own socio-political systems that lay down stringent regulatory norms and conventions for the prudent use of the most important resources vis-à-vis land, maintenance of their own identity and social order (Sharma, 2014<sup>2</sup>). Eventually, the impact of customary law among many tribal communities has been changing since last few decades. Northeast India, a well-known region for its scenic beauty and rich natural resources,