

Nature's own pharmacy: the diabetes perspective

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Since time immemorial man has looked to plants and their products as a source of innovative medicines. It is estimated that 66–80 % of medicines used in developing countries are based on plants (Farnsworth, 1983) and 80 % of the world's population relies on traditional medicines (Weragoda, 1980; Farnsworth, 1983). Within developed countries about 25 % of medicines contain active principles derived from plants, and the majority of drugs in current use were developed following studies of traditional plant treatments (Day & Bailey, 1988a). The present review considers the historical background and potential of plant remedies in the treatment of diabetes mellitus.

TRADITIONAL PLANT TREATMENTS FOR DIABETES

Before the discovery of insulin in the early 1920s by Banting, Best, McCleod and Collip, and the later development of oral hypoglycaemic agents, the major form of treatment of diabetes mellitus involved dietary manipulation and the use of plant therapies. The recommended use of plants dates back to the Eber's papyrus of about 1550 BC. More than 400 plants worldwide have been documented for the treatment of diabetes and the majority await proper scientific and medical evaluation (Day & Bailey, 1988b; Swanston-Flatt *et al.* 1991). Most of these traditional medicines are prepared from herbs, spices and plants which do not form part of the normal diet (Day & Bailey, 1988a; Bailey & Day, 1989). Some examples of these traditional plant treatments for diabetes are given in Table 1. However, several common components of the diet are traditionally recommended for regular consumption, and some are additionally taken as infusions, decoctions or alcoholic extracts. The World Health Organization has recommended accordingly that traditional plant treatments for diabetes warrant further evaluation (World Health Organization, 1980).

THE DIABETOLOGIST'S PHARMACY NEEDS

Approaches to the control of blood glucose and prevention of hyperglycaemia are central to the treatment of diabetes mellitus (Fig. 1). At present, none of these therapies either alone or in combination can reinstate normal blood glucose homeostasis, and many limitations exist in the use of anti-diabetic drugs. In insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) a more physiological means of insulin delivery is required. Despite attempts to develop new hypoglycaemic agents for non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM), only the α -glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.20) inhibitor acarbose (Bay g5241; Bayer) has been added to the clinician's current choices of diet, sulphonylureas, metformin or insulin (Rachman & Turner, 1995). New therapies are needed which reinstate a normal metabolic environment and prevent long-term complications. The development of new anti-diabetic drugs, which

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Table 1. *Examples of traditional plant treatments for diabetes mellitus*

Botanical name	Common name	Part of plant used	Reference
Fruits			
<i>Citrus limonium</i>	Lemon	Fruit	Law (1970)
<i>Humulus lupulus</i>	Hop	Leaf	Peters (1957)
<i>Juniperus communis</i>	Juniper	Berry	Palaiseul (1983)
<i>Optunia ficus-indica</i>	Barbary fig	Leaf	Lewis (1949)
<i>Momordica charanita</i>	Cerasee (wild)	Aerial parts	Ajgaonkar (1979)
<i>Momordica charanita</i>	Karela (cultivated)	Fruit	Bailey <i>et al.</i> (1985)
<i>Psidium guajava</i>	Guava	Fruit	Perry (1980)
<i>Pyrus communis</i>	Pear	Leaf	Perry (1980)
<i>Pyrus malus</i>	Apple	Fruit	Grieve (1976)
<i>Rubus fruticosus</i>	Blackberry	Leaf	Farnsworth & Segelman (1971)
<i>Rubus idoeus</i>	Raspberry	Fruit	Messegue (1981)
<i>Sambucus nigra</i>	Elder	Flower	Lust (1986)
<i>Syzgium jambos</i>	Java plum	Fruit and seed	Mukerje (1953)
<i>Tilia europa</i>	Lime	Fruit	Palaiseul (1983)
<i>Vaccinium mytillus</i>	Bilberry	Leaf	Grieve (1976)
Vegetables			
<i>Allium cepa</i>	Onion	Bulb	Bever & Zahnd (1979)
<i>Allium sativum</i>	Garlic	Bulb	Lewis (1949)
<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	Cabbage	Leaf	Farnsworth & Segelman (1971)
<i>Brassica rapa</i>	Turnip	Root	Farnsworth & Segelman (1971)
<i>Letuca sativa</i>	Lettuce	Leaf	Lewis (1949)
<i>Medicago sativa</i>	Lucerne	Leaf	Lust (1986)
<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	Haricot bean	Pod	Lewis (1949)
<i>Pisum sativum</i>	Pea	Seed	Lewis (1949)
<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	Potato	Tuber	Palaiseul (1983)
Herbs and spices			
<i>Agrimony eupatoria</i>	Agrimony	Leaf	Lewis (1949)
<i>Arctium lappa</i>	Burdock	Leaf	Lewis (1949)
<i>Artemisia dracunculus</i>	Tarragon	Leaf	Duke (1985)
<i>Capsicum frutescens</i>	Chile pepper	Seed	Farnsworth & Segelman (1971)
<i>Coriandrum sativum</i>	Coriander	Seed	Farnsworth & Segelman (1971)
<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i>	Eucalyptus	Leaf	Lewis (1949)
<i>Galega officinalis</i>	Goat's rue	Leaf	Bunney (1984)
<i>Glycyrrhiza glabra</i>	Liquorice	Root	Grieve (1976)
<i>Panax ginseng</i>	Ginseng	Root	Lewis (1949)
<i>Salvia officinale</i>	Sage	Leaf	Atkinson (1979)
<i>Taraxacum officinale</i>	Dandelion	Root and leaf	Peters (1957)
<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	Thyme	Leaf	Duke (1985)
<i>Trigonella foenum-graecum</i>	Fenugreek	Seed	Ajgaonkar (1979)
<i>Urtica dioica</i>	Nettle	Aerial parts	Lewis (1949)
<i>Viscum album</i>	Mistletoe	Leaf and stem	Peters (1957)
<i>Zingiber officinale</i>	Ginger	Root	Farnsworth & Segelman (1971)
Mushrooms and Fungi			
<i>Agaricus bisporus</i>	Edible button mushroom	Fruiting body	Ahmad <i>et al.</i> (1984)
<i>Agaricus campestris</i>	Edible field mushroom	Fruiting body	Ewart <i>et al.</i> (1975)
<i>Amanita phalloides</i>	Fool's mushroom	Fruiting body	Lewis (1949)
<i>Amanita verna</i>	Destroying angel	Fruiting body	Potron (1956)
<i>Amanita virosa</i>	Death cap	Fruiting body	Potron (1956)
<i>Coprinus comatus</i>	Ink cap	Fruiting body	Kronberger (1964)
Yeast			
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	Brewer's yeast	Cell extract	Collip (1923)

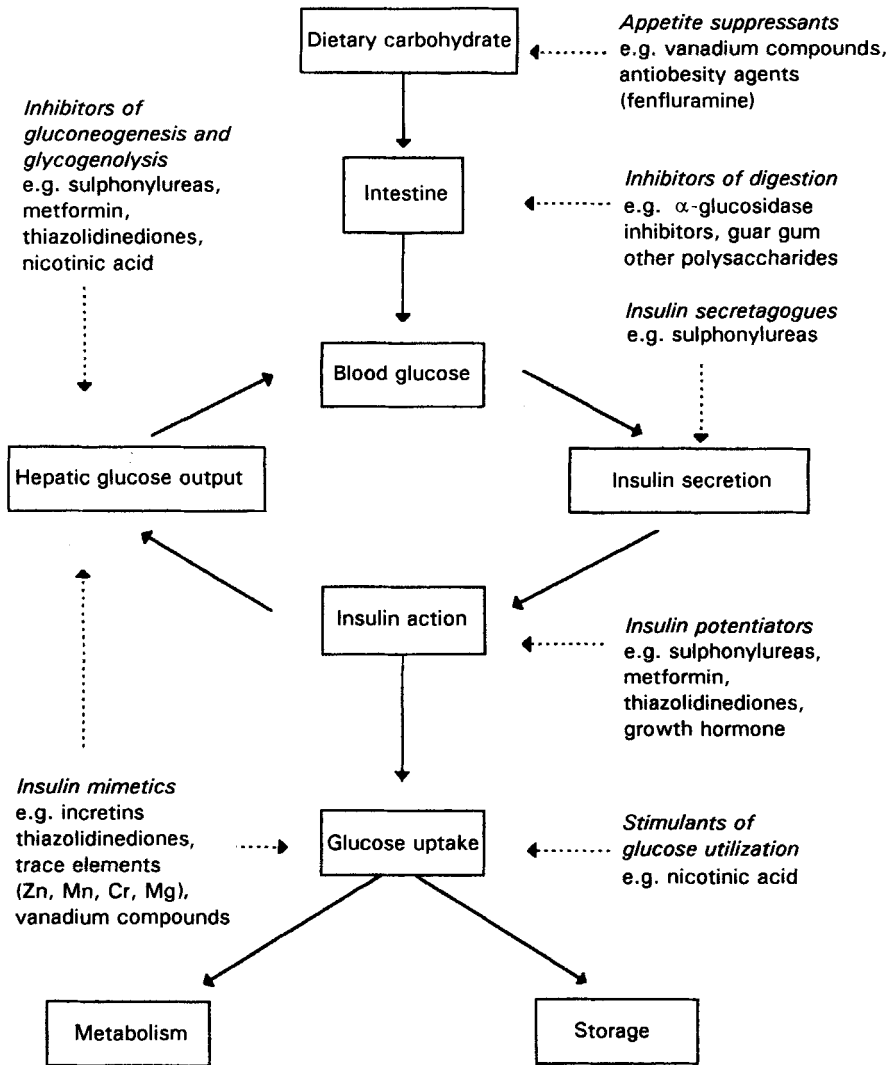


Fig. 1. Approaches to the control of hyperglycaemia. α -Glucosidase, EC 3.2.1.20. (Adapted from Bailey & Flatt, 1995).

address the underlying metabolic lesions in NIDDM, ideally requires new pharmacological treatments which stimulate both the secretion and the action of insulin (Bailey & Flatt, 1995).

HYPOGLYCAEMIC AGENTS FROM PLANTS

With few exceptions, traditional plant treatments for diabetes have not claimed to be alternatives to insulin therapy in IDDM. Isolated reports have described plant-derived materials that exert an insulin-like effect in IDDM (Chandola & Tripathi, 1981; Khanna *et al.* 1981). However, these reports have not been independently evaluated, and there is no evidence that they could provide a long-term botanical substitute for insulin. A small

Table 2. *Purported hypoglycaemic chemicals from plant sources*
(Compiled from Bever & Zahnd, 1979; Duke, 1985; Ling-Hua & Pei-Gen, 1993)

Aconitan A-D (glycans)	Ganoderan A & B (glycans)	Nicotinamide
Allican (diallyl disulphide oxide)	Ginsenin	Obaculactone
Allylpropyl disulphide (APDS)	Ginsenoside Rb ₂	Oxypeucedanin
Amellin	Guanidine	Panacem
Ammeran A-D (glycans)	Gymnemic acid	Panaquellin
Antimellin	Hypoglycin A	Panax acid
Atractan A-C (glycans)	(α -amino-2-cyclo-propylpropionic acid)	Panaxan A-E (peptidoglycans)
B-sitosterol-D-glucoside	Hypoglycin B	Phallacin
Bassic acid	(γ -glutamyl-hypoglycin A)	Phallacidin
Bengalenside	Inulin	Phalloidin
Berberine	Kampferol	Phaseolan
Catharathine	Khellin	2-Propenyl-disulphide
Charantin (momordicin)	Lepidin	Puerarin
Clauseanacoumarin	Leurosine	Quercitin
Coixol	Lithosperman A-C (glycans)	Rutin
Coumarin	Lochnerine	Saccharan A-F (glycans)
Diallyl trisulphide	Lupanine	Scopoletin
Dioscoran A-F (glycans)	Matrine	Tecomine
Diphenylamine	Momordicin (charantin)	Tecostamine
Emeriamine (R-3-acetylamine-4-trimethylaminobutyric acid)	Myricetin	Tecostamine-B-sitosterol
Eritadenine	Mytillin	Tetrahydroalstonine
Ephedran A-E (glycans)	N-methylnicotinic acid	Trigonelliine
Epicatechin	Neomyrtillin	Urticin
Foetidin	(7-methyl-delphinidin)	Vegulin
Forskolin	Nicotinic acid	Vindoline
Galegine		Vindolinine

number of review articles exist which document hypoglycaemic agents derived from plant treatments for diabetes (e.g. Bever & Zahnd, 1979; Duke, 1985; Day, 1990; Ling-Hua & Pei-Gen, 1993). Several anti-diabetic plants have shown sufficient hypoglycaemic activity to warrant at least partial characterization of the active principle (Table 2). Many traditional plant treatments owe their folklore reputation, at least in part, to the presence of polysaccharides, which achieve beneficial effects through reduction of gastrointestinal processing and postprandial hyperglycaemia. Plants which have yielded anti-diabetic polysaccharides are shown in Table 3. However, for the majority of traditional plant treatments the active principles present together with their mode of action have yet to be characterized (Ajgaonkar, 1979; Day & Bailey, 1988a). Hypoglycaemic compounds from plants that help directly combat insulin resistance and/or promote endogenous insulin release are realistic possibilities.

CELLULAR MECHANISMS OF ACTION

A few comprehensive studies of traditional anti-diabetic plants have been carried out (Swanston-Flatt *et al.* 1989a,b, 1990a). The anti-hyperglycaemic actions of thirty-seven European plants traditionally used as adjuncts to the treatment of diabetes were investigated using streptozotocin-treated mice and *db/db* mice (Swanston-Flatt *et al.* 1990b). A number of plants tested were found to have variable beneficial effects (Swanston-Flatt *et al.* 1990b). The mechanism of action of aqueous extracts of a number of

Table 3. *Plants purported to obtain hypoglycaemic activity from polysaccharides*
(Adapted from Bailey & Day, 1989)

Botanical name	Common name	Part of plant used	Proposed activity	Activity shown	Reference
<i>Aconitum carmichaeli</i>	Monkshood	Root	Aconitan A-D	Diabetic mice	Konno <i>et al.</i> (1985c)
<i>Amorphophallus konjac</i>	Lily	Tuber	Konjac mannan	NIDDM, IDDM patients	Doi <i>et al.</i> (1979)
<i>Anemarrhena asphodeloides</i>	Chinese zhi mu	Rhizome	Ammeran A-D	Diabetic mice	Takahashi <i>et al.</i> (1985a)
<i>Atractylodes japonica</i>	Byaku jutsu	Rhizome	Atractan A-C	Diabetic mice	Konno <i>et al.</i> (1985d)
<i>Cyamopsis tetragonolobus</i>	Guar	Seed and pod	Galactomannan	NIDDM, IDDM patients	Pillai <i>et al.</i> (1980)
<i>Dioscorea japonica</i>	Mexican yam	Rhizophor	Dioscoran A-F	Diabetic mice	Hikino <i>et al.</i> (1986a)
<i>Eleutherococcus senticosus</i>	Siberian ginseng	Root	Eleutherans A-G	Diabetic mice	Hikino <i>et al.</i> (1986c)
<i>Ephedra distachya</i>	Joint fir	Aerial	Ephedran A-E	Diabetic mice	Konno <i>et al.</i> (1985b)
<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i>	Bracket fungus	Fruit body	Ganoderan A, B	Diabetic mice	Hikino <i>et al.</i> (1985)
<i>Lithospermum erythrorhizon</i>	Red gromwell	Root	Lithosperman A-C	Diabetic mice	Konno <i>et al.</i> (1985a)
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Rice	Root	Oryzaran A-D	Diabetic mice	Hikino <i>et al.</i> (1986b)
<i>Panax ginseng</i>	Ginseng	Root	Panaxans	Diabetic mice	Day (1986)
<i>Panax quinquefolium</i>	American ginseng	Root	Quinquefolan A-C	Diabetic mice	Oshima <i>et al.</i> (1987)
<i>Saccharum officinarum</i>	Sugar cane	Stalk	Saccharan A-F	Diabetic mice	Takahashi <i>et al.</i> (1985b)

NIDDM, non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus; IDDM, insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus.

Table 4. *Mechanism of action of traditional plant treatments for diabetes*

Common name	Botanical name	Part used	Extra-pancreatic effect	Pancreatic effect
Agrimony	<i>Agrimony eupatoria</i>	Leaf	/	/
Coriander	<i>Coriandrum sativum</i>	Seed	/	/
Elder	<i>Sambucus nigra</i>	Flower	-	/
Eucalyptus	<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i>	Leaf	/	/
Juniper	<i>Juniperus communis</i>	Dried berry	-	?
Lucerne	<i>Medicago sativa</i>	Leaf	/	/
Mistletoe	<i>Viscum album</i>	Leaf and stem	-	/
Mushroom	<i>Agaricus campestris</i>	Fruiting body	/	/

/, beneficial (enhancing) effect; -, not investigated; ?, effect queried.

these plants has recently been investigated. At the cellular level, plants could elicit beneficial anti-hyperglycaemic effects via extra-pancreatic and/or pancreatic actions. Aqueous plant extracts, prepared by methods similar to those used in previous animal studies, were investigated for possible extra-pancreatic and/or pancreatic effects. Glucose uptake and metabolism by abdominal muscle isolated from weanling mice was used to evaluate the extra-pancreatic potential of plant extracts. Insulin-secreting BRIN-BD11 cells (McClenaghan *et al.* 1996) were used to investigate the possible pancreatic actions of plant extracts. Aqueous extracts of agrimony (*Agrimony eupatoria*), lucerne (*Medicago sativa*), coriander (*Coriandrum sativum*) and edible mushroom (*Agaricus campestris*) enhanced insulin secretion and mimicked the effect of insulin on glucose metabolism *in vitro* (Gray *et al.* 1994; Gray & Flatt, 1994, 1996, 1997). Such dual pancreatic and extra-pancreatic actions would prove to be an important advance on existing therapies used to treat and control diabetes, such as oral hypoglycaemic drugs (which act either by enhancing insulin secretion or by improving the action of insulin). Findings for these and additional plant extracts are outlined in Table 4.

INHERENT DIFFICULTIES WITH STUDIES

Discrepancies do arise between findings reported in the literature. Juniper (*Juniperus communis*) berries have in the past been documented as a traditional remedy for diabetes (Palaiseul, 1983) and serve as an illustration of the inherent difficulties encountered when examining data to hand. Juniper reduced loss of body weight, decreased polydipsia and countered the early hyperglycaemia of streptozotocin-treated mice (Swanston-Flatt *et al.* 1990a). A significant dose-dependent hypoglycaemic effect has been reported in normoglycaemic rats, and weight gain in chronic treatment of streptozotocin-diabetic rats administered a decoction of juniper berries (DeMedina *et al.* 1994). However, more recent studies in streptozotocin-treated mice failed to show an anti-hyperglycaemic effect and, if anything, polydipsia and glycaemia worsened with juniper treatment (Fig. 2). A confounding factor in all these studies is the difficulty in making direct comparisons between them. Sensitivity to streptozotocin varies with species, strain, sex, age and nutritional state (Bailey & Flatt, 1991). In general terms, animals in the studies of DeMedina *et al.* (1994) received approximately a 10-fold greater amount of juniper when compared with results of our studies (Fig. 2) or those of Swanston-Flatt *et al.* (1990a). Juniper berries vary in their content of volatile oil (2–34 g/kg) depending on the geographical location, altitude, degree of ripeness and other factors (Duke, 1985). Anti-

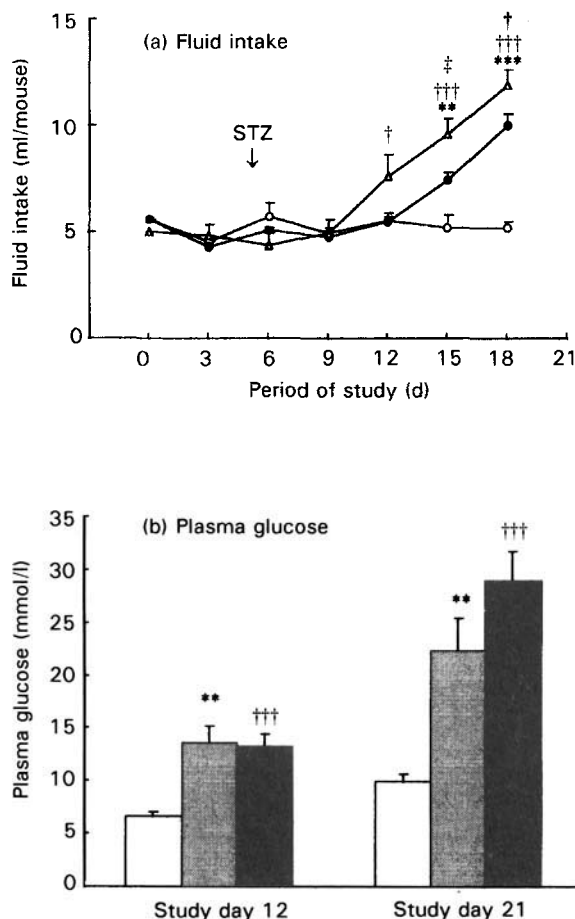


Fig. 2. Effect of juniper (*Juniperus communis*) on streptozotocin (STZ)-treated mice on (a) fluid intake and (b) non-fasting plasma glucose concentrations. Juniper was administered for 21 d (62.5 g/kg feed, 1 g/400 ml in place of drinking water) *ad libitum*. STZ was administered to non-fasting animals on study day 5 (200 mg/kg intraperitoneally). Treatment groups were: normal mice receiving normal diet (—○—, □), STZ mice receiving normal diet (—●—, ■), STZ mice receiving juniper (—△—, ▣). Values are means with their standard errors represented by vertical bars for groups of five to eight adult male mice. Mean values for STZ mice were significantly different from those for normal mice at the same time point. ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$; mean values for STZ mice receiving juniper were significantly different from those for normal mice at the same time point: † $P < 0.05$, ††† $P < 0.001$; mean values for STZ mice receiving juniper were significantly different from those for STZ mice at the same time point: ‡ $P < 0.05$.

diabetic components in this plant may be variable from one batch to the next and may explain previous favourable findings for this plant. Recent studies examined the possible pancreatic action of juniper (Table 4). The insulin-releasing potential of an aqueous extract of juniper was evaluated using insulin-secreting BRIN-BD11 cells (Fig. 3). The increase at 10 mg/ml appears to be an artefact of this experimental situation, since at this concentration the extract is toxic to the cells. DeMedina *et al.* (1994) reported an increase in glucose uptake by rat diaphragm at doses equivalent to 0.1 mg/ml, but this has yet to be independently evaluated.

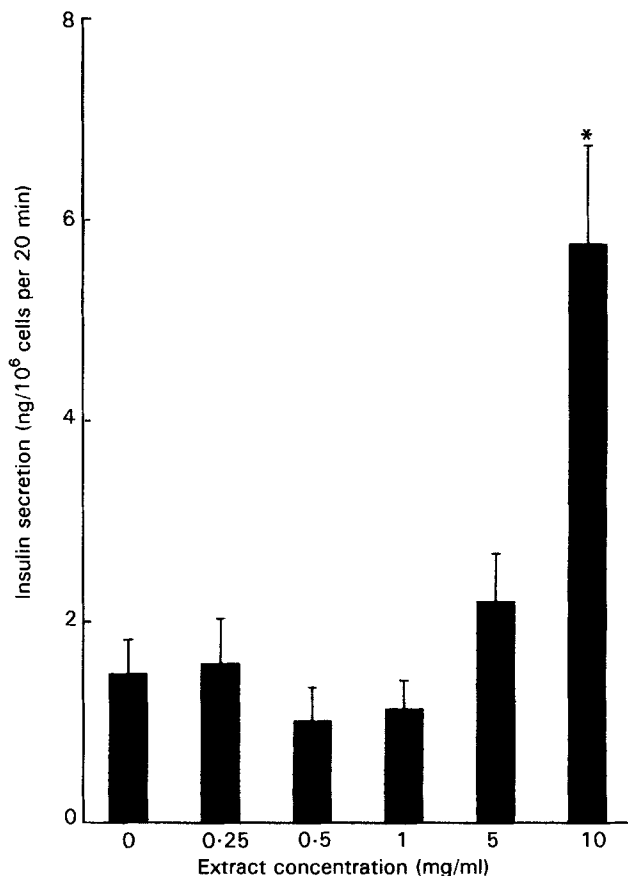


Fig. 3. Effect of aqueous extract of juniper (*Juniperus communis*) berries on insulin secretion by BRIN-BD11 cells. Extract was produced by 15 min hot infusion (ground plant material placed in boiling water, covered, removed from heat and allowed to stand for 15 min before being filtered). Values are means with their standard errors represented by vertical bars for four to six independent observations. Mean values were significantly different from those for control incubations performed without extract: * $P < 0.001$.

FROM PLANT TO PHARMACY

Besides providing active raw materials, plants can offer molecules that serve as templates for the development of new drugs. Goat's rue (*Galega officinalis*), used in Europe as a treatment for diabetes since medieval times, yields a hypoglycaemic principle rich in guanidine (Bailey, 1985). Further derivatives of this principle have given rise to biguanides and the present anti-diabetic agent, metformin (Sterne, 1969). A balanced approach to traditional plant treatments for diabetes is required which allows for proper scientific and medical evaluation together with cautious optimism in the face of sometimes conflicting scientific evidence.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

The rapidly increasing prevalence of diabetes mellitus in many parts of the world, coupled with increasing life expectancy and related demographic changes, will continue to

challenge the resourcefulness of scientists and clinicians in refining existing therapies and developing new approaches to counter diabetes mellitus (Bailey & Flatt, 1995). Given the large number of plants and plant extracts reputed to possess anti-diabetic properties (Day, 1990), few have received equitable scientific and medical scrutiny, and only a small number of purportedly-active compounds have been wholly or partially characterized. The scope for the discovery and development of new anti-diabetic therapies from nature's pharmacy is vast and merits corresponding consideration.

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