

# Investigating the Beneficial Effects of $\alpha$ -Amyrin Nanocapsules Supplementation on Antioxidant Status, Body Weight, and Liver Function in Rats Model of Type 2 Diabetes

Haidar K.A.Alsaedi<sup>1,2</sup>, Nawras A. Alwan<sup>1</sup>, Eman Aboud Al-Masoudi<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>*Department of Physiology, Pharmacology and Biochemistry. College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Basrah, Basrah, Iraq.*

<sup>2</sup>*Department of Basic Science, Faculty of Dentistry, Al-Qadisyah University, Iraq*  
E-mail: haider.alsaedi@qu.edu.iq

This study aims to evaluate the anti-hyperglycemic, liver function, body weight and antioxidant effects of alpha-amirin capsules. Alpha Amerin capsule prepared with nanomaterials by encapsulation technology.(STZ-) induced type 2 diabetic mice. In addition, Characteristics of Alpha Amerin Nano-emulsion and results show .He indicated nanomaterials with an amount of 7NM. There was also a clear shape and size with an amplification of 15KX and a wavelength of 15.6. To reach the study's goal, diabetic mice that had been given NA/STZ-induced T2DM were given Alpha Amerin by mouth for four weeks at a dose of 80 mg/kg body weight. Compared to the positive control group, there was a significant difference in how well the treatments improved glucose tolerance, HOMA-IR, and blood AST and ALT levels. The treatments also made a significant difference in how well the treatments improved glucose tolerance. A drop in high liver lipid peroxidation and a rise in low glutathione levels and GPx and GST activities show that the antioxidant defence system is working. In addition. In conclusion, Alpha Amerin has strong effects that may help people with diabetes. These effects may be caused by its insulinotropic effects and insulin sensitivity actions. in Also, the fact that the extract, hesperidin, and naringin may help the antioxidant defence system may play a big part.Action to improve liver and kidney functions and increase anti-diabetic effects in rats that were given a high-fat diet and sugar.

**Keywords:** Antioxidant;  $\alpha$ -amyrin; nanocapsule; Antihyperglycemic.

## 1. Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM), which is one of the most common diseases in the world, happens when insulin secretion and/or activity are impaired, which changes the way carbohydrates, fats, and proteins are used in the body [1][2]. Diabetes is broken down by the American Diabetes Association (ADA) into type 1 diabetes (T1DM), type 2 diabetes (T2DM),

gestational diabetes (GDM), and many other types[3] . People with DM are much more likely to have T2DM than T1DM, which accounts for 90% of cases [4][5]. Having T2DM is mostly caused by insulin resistance and decreased tissue insulin sensitivity, which is linked to pancreatic beta-cell dysfunction [6][7][8]. Researchers in several publications used a lot of different animal models of T2DM to test new treatments and figure out how the drugs they tested worked at the molecular level [9][10]. The most popular way to study T2DM in rats is to use rats that have been given nicotineamide (NA) and streptozotocin (STZ). STZ is an antibiotic made by *Streptomyces achromogenes* that hurts the  $\beta$ -cells in the islets of Langerhans [11][12][13]. A lot of studies have shown that STZ hurts the  $\beta$ -cells in the pancreatic islets by increasing oxidative stress and decreasing the body's ability to fight it [14][15][16]. Along with this, the biotransformation of STZ inside cells leads to the creation of nitric oxide (NO), which speeds up the breaking of DNA strands and kills  $\beta$ -cells [17]. Another thing that happens is that when you give NA before STZ in this DM-induced model, it partly stops STZ from hurting the  $\beta$ -cells. This stops the early phase of glucose stimulation of insulin release that is a feature of T2DM [18][19][20]. Several studies have also shown that in people with NA/STZ-induced DM, insulin secretion and insulin resistance are both slowed down, which is a sign of T2DM [21][22][23]. People looking for natural antihyperglycemic drugs have mostly focused on plants that are used in traditional medicine, in part because they have fewer side effects than the drugs that are currently used [24]. Recently, there has been more interest in the health benefits of alpha amyryn because taking supplements seems to lower the risk of getting some serious illnesses. Because of a big rise in these diseases over the last few decades, many studies are being done all over the world to try to find ways to stop and treat insulin resistance.

AVL Da Silva. et al. (2019), investigated the effects of the mixture of triterpenes alpha, beta-Amyrin (AMI) on insulin resistance (IR) induced by sodium palmitate in skeletal muscle cells (C2C12). They showed that AMI is able to improve insulin resistance in a hypercaloric diet obesity model[25]. These preliminary results suggest that AMI improves glucose uptake in physiological and insulin resistance models in myotubes. These data corroborate with in vivo findings where AMI is able to improve insulin resistance in a hyper caloric diet obesity model[25]. Due to a considerable increase of these diseases in the last decades, several studies are being carried out worldwide aiming to find solutions to prevent and to treat insulin resistance. Previously, Ahmed et.al., revealed that AMY can help fight obesity in mice that were fed a high-fat diet (HFD), and more recently, it has been shown to help fight adipogenesis by changing the metabolism of fats and carbohydrates in 3T3-L1 cells[26]. It was thought that AMY might stop NAFLD by controlling the liver's faulty lipid metabolism based on these studies. High-fat diet (HFD)-fed animals have obesity, insulin resistance (IR), and cholesterol, all of which are linked to the development of NAFLD[11].When someone has NAFLD, their liver fats (like diacylglycerols and triglycerides) keep going up. This makes the liver less sensitive to insulin, which can lead to heart problems and type 2 diabetes. as high as 40–80 mg/kg of body weight (kg b.w.) was shown to help control diabetes in animal models [27]. A drop in blood sugar could be caused by the body absorbing less glucose from the gut, stopping the production of glucose in liver tissue, or muscle and fat tissue taking it in more. The OGTT results add to these findings in Wistar rats that were given HFD/STZ to cause DM and help explain how they work[28].

## **2. Materials and Methods**

### **2.1. Experimental Animals**

Animals Used for Research. The rats used in this study were adult male Wistar rats that weighed between 150 and 200 grammes and were 10 to 12 weeks old. What the animals were came from the Histogen Laboratory's animal house in Al-Qadisiyah, Iraq. For about 10 days before the experiment began, they were kept under close observation to rule out any possible infections that might have been spreading.

The rats lived in clean plastic cages that held ten rats each. Each cage had a standard stainless steel frame that let air flow through it and wood mulch at the bottom. The rats were kept in an environment with a normal temperature range of 25°C to 5°C, a normal humidity range of 55°C to 5:6, and a normal light/dark cycle of 12 hours a day. They also had unlimited access to water and were given a normal pelleted chow diet every day. There were no problems with following the rules and suggestions made by the Experimental Animal. All orders were followed, and all safety measures were thought of to keep the damage to a minimum.

### **2.2. Chemicals**

STZ (2-deoxy-2-(3-methyl-3-nitrosoureido)-D-glycopyranoside) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Company, Germany. STZ was stored at -20°C. They were fed either a regular diet consisting (as a percentage of total calories) consisting of 12% fat, 60% carbohydrates, and 28% protein (Purina Rat Chow, #5053; PMI Feeds, Richmond, IN) or a high-fat diet consisting of 40% Fat, 41% carbohydrates, 18% protein (Harlan Teklad modified fat Diet, PD #96132; Harlan Teklad, Madison, Wisconsin). The groups classified with HFD were fed for two weeks before being injected with STZ to activate type 2 diabetes. They demonstrated an effective increase of 100-150 grams of body weight.

### **Getting experimental diabetes**

Before rats were given experimental diabetes, their weights were recorded. A glucometer measured the amount of glucose in blood samples from animals' tail veins. The rat was given a single intravenous dose of streptozotocin that had been diluted in 0.2 mL of citrate buffer (0.1 mol/L, pH = 4.5) to make it diabetic [29]. There was a twofold rise in blood sugar three days after the shot, according to another test. Animals were proven to have been given diabetes.

### **Designing an experiment**

The rats involved in the experiment were separated into seven groups, with each group consisting of ten rats, as follows:

Group A: Control (Normal)

Group B :Diabetes (DM-Control)

Group C: DM +  $\alpha$ -amyrin extract (50 mg/rat)

Group D: DM +  $\alpha$ -amyrin extract (100 mg/rat)

Group E :DM +  $\alpha$ -amyrin nano-emulsion (40 mg/rat),

Group F :DM +  $\alpha$ -amyrin nano-emulsion (80 mg/rat)

Group I :DM + Insulin ( 4 IU/rat, subcutaneously).

Each rat was administered either  $\alpha$ -amyrin extract or  $\alpha$ -amyrin nano-emulsion orally once a day for a duration of one month.

Getting the nanocapsule

Sigma Aldrich in Germany provided the  $\alpha$ -amyrin. The  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsule was formed by moving the liquid and depositing interfacial polymers [30]. A magnetic mixer at 400 rpm mixed monolauryl sorbitan ester (Span 20) and isopropyl palmitate in acetone (Fisatom, Brazil). The organic phase. Following dissolution in 5 mL of 96% ethanol, the polymer was added and stirred for 20 minutes. Watery polyoxyethylene orbitan monooleate (Tween 80) with water. The organic phase was added to the water phase at 1 mL per minute with a burette and agitated for 15 minutes. Ultra-turrax® from IKA in Switzerland was then used to combine the ingredients for 5 minutes at 10 krpm. A vacuum rotating evaporator (IKA, Switzerland) at 50 °C removed solvent to produce ANC. Five Poly- $\epsilon$ -caprolactone, Eudragit® E100, and Kollicoat® Mae 100 P mixes were tested to determine the optimal nanocapsule polymer .

Characteristics of droplet size and shape

PCS measured particle size and polydispersity index. The Zetasizer Nano (Malvern, UK) was utilised at 633 nm, 173° scatter angle, and 25°C. The nanocapsule solution was cleaned using a 0.45 mm Millipore® membrane filter before testing. Measurements were taken three times and recorded as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. Nanoparticle shape was examined by SEM (TESCAN, Czech Republic). We tested a scattering electron detector with 15 kV voltage, 8.0 mm sample distance, and 15.6 Kx magnification. The Czech BAL TEC machine adds a thin gold layer to samples[31].

HOMA-IR measurement:

We used HOMA-IR to find a measure by multiplying the concentrations of IRI ( $\mu$ U/ml) and PG (mg/dl) at rest by 405 by [32].

GSH measurement method

Extract the tissue and rinse it multiple times with cold isotonic saline (150 mM) or PBS. Prior to adding cold 5% (w/v) Deproteination Reagent, measure the weight of the tissue. Dispense 1 millilitre of ice-cold Add 5% (w/v) Deproteination Reagent for every 50mg of tissue and homogenise the mixture on ice. Apply centrifugal force to the homogenate at a speed of 12,000-14,000 times the force of gravity for a duration of 10-15 minutes at a temperature of 4°C. Transfer the liquid portion to a fresh container and keep it chilled on ice for immediate Glutathione analysis or store it at -80°C for future analysis [33].

GPX measurement method:

The samples needed for GPX testing were stored at a temperature of -20 degrees Celsius until the study was completed. The tissue lysis procedure involved adding approximately 100 mg of tissue to a volume of 1 ml of PBS. The samples were homogenised in a cold environment and subjected to centrifugation at a speed of 4000 revolutions per minute for approximately 20 minutes. Initially, the necessary solutions were prepared by employing chemical and

*Nanotechnology Perceptions* Vol. 20 No.S3 (2024)

enzymatic compounds of exceptional purity in the subsequent manner: To begin, a 1 mM NADPH standard solution was created by dissolving a NADPH tablet in a diluent buffer. The diluent buffer consisted of a 50 mM phosphate buffer with a pH of 7.2, and it also contained 5 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid. Subsequently, volumes of 0, 0.78, 1.56, 3.12, 6.25, 12.5, 25, 50, and 100  $\mu$ l were added to the microplate wells using the stroke solution. The wells were then filled to a total volume of 100  $\mu$ l using the diluent solution. Consequently, a set of standard solutions with concentrations ranging from 0 to 100 mM were created in the wells. The absorbance data at 412 nm are used as the basis for plotting the standard curve [34].

#### (ALP) measurement method

An enzymatic assay using an AMP buffer is used by the LX system to measure the amount of alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity in blood or plasma. It is the ALP enzyme that helps break down p-Nitrophenylphosphate, a neutral organic phosphate ester substrate, into p-Nitrophenol and phosphate, which are different colours. The pH of the environment where this process takes place is 10.3. During a set amount of time, the machine keeps track of how fast the absorbance changes at a wavelength of 410 nm. The amount of ALP in the blood is directly linked to the rate at which absorbance changes. Readings of alkaline phosphatase are used to find and treat problems with the liver, bones, and parathyroids [35].

#### ALAT(GPT) measurement method

The ALAT (GPT) enzyme was quantified using the Pars test kit. Pyridoxal-5-phosphate is not included in the IFCC method [36].

#### ASAT(GOT) measurement method

The ASAT (GOT) was measured using the Pars test kit. The IFCC method is used without the addition of Pyridoxal-5-phosphate [37].

#### ELISA technique:

Prior to use, ensure that all reagents and the necessary quantity of strips have reached the ambient temperature. As per the document authored by [38]

#### Statistical analysis

Summaries data with descriptive statistics. Calculate mean, standard deviation, percentile distribution, and confidence interval for all variables. We will compare osteoclast number and surface area using Wilcoxon signed rank tests. To compare A and B and A and C, an independent t-test will be utilised. ANOVA will compare all groups. P-value < 0.05 is considered statistically significant. SPSS version 26 will perform statistical analyses [39].

### **3. RESULTS**

#### 3.1. Body weight:

The daily body weight (g) results shown in figure (1) showed significant differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) between the insulin group (I), the normal control group (A), and the diabetic groups (B, C, D, E, and F). These differences started on the third day and continued for the rest of the experiment. A statistical comparison between the five diabetic groups, on the other hand,

showed that the subjects' total body weight did not change significantly ( $P \geq 0.05$ ) during the experiment.

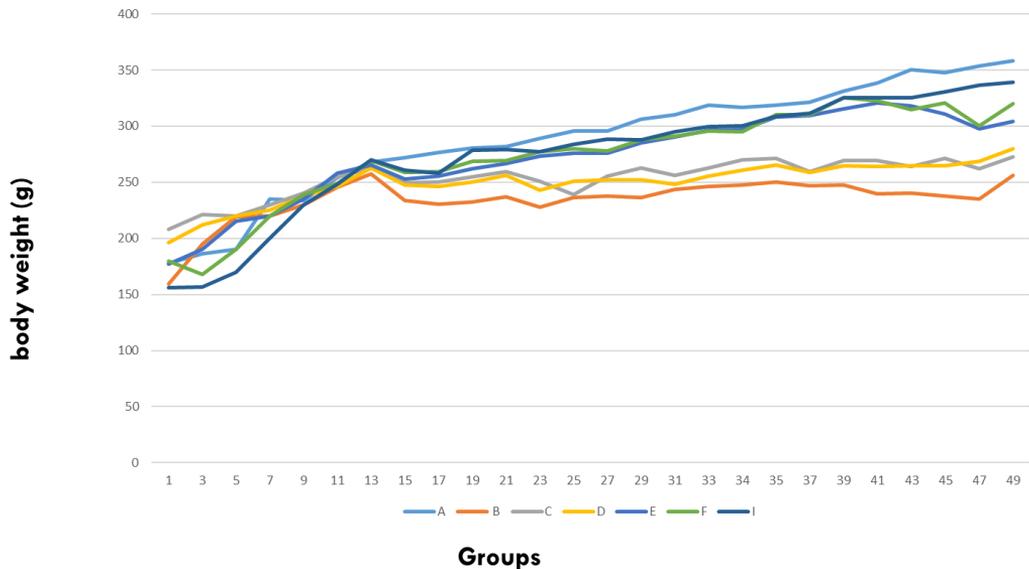


Figure 1 . The  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsule affected the daily body weight (g) of adult male rats that were made diabetic with streptozotocin. Means that start with different letters are very different at  $p < 0.05$ .

### 3.2. Insulin resistance (Homa):

The blood sugar level of animals at rest is normal, and it is much lower than the blood sugar level of diabetic people (Figure 2). After an hour, the blood glucose level is at its best. After taking in 3 g of glucose per kg of body weight, and started to go down.

It gets to at least two hours of oral glucose loading in the next 60 minutes. However, the highest amount of glucose in the blood was also reached in HFD/STZ diabetic control mice after they were given glucose by mouth for 60 minutes. Since then, this number has begun to go down, though it is doing so more slowly than usual. It is still higher than usual. Also, at all Insulin resistance points, diabetic Control mice had significantly higher blood glucose levels ( $P$ ) compared to the usual range. After 4 weeks of drugs.  $\alpha$ -amyrin nano-emulsion (80 mg/rat) It produced a significant reduction in blood sugar ( $p < 0.05$ ). Effect on fasting blood sugar level for diabetics Treated mice compared to the untreated diabetic group. The present data also revealed that  $\alpha$ -amyrin extract was the most Effective in lowering high blood glucose levels HFD/STZ-induced diabetic rats are in fasting state, while  $\alpha$ -amyrin nano-emulsion (80 mg/rat) is most effective. Since one-way ANOVA test was applied to the normalized Insulin resistance, Diabetes control, diabetes-treated mice, effect Between groups on the Insulin resistance was highly significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).

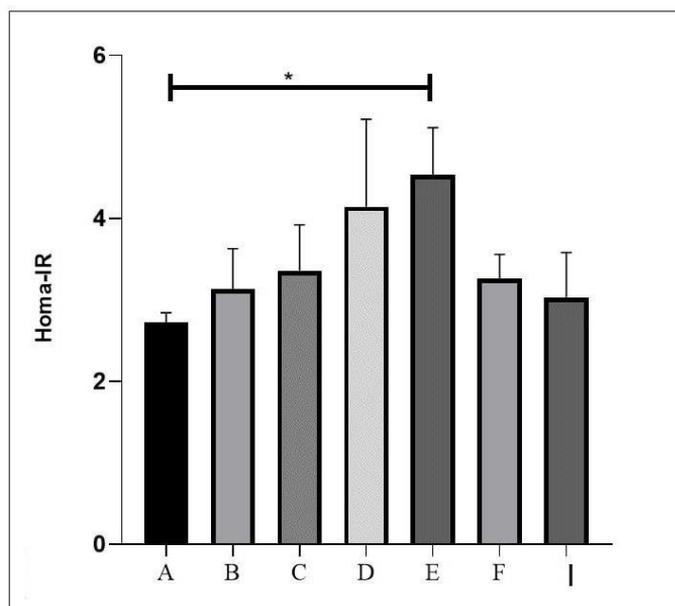


Figure 2 . Effect of  $\alpha$ -amyirin-nanocapsule on blood glucose level (Homa-IR) in streptozotocin- induced diabetic mature male rats. Means that start with different letters are very different at  $p < 0.05$ .

### 3.3. Effect on Serum ALP, AST and ALT Activities

Changes in the levels of AST, ALP, and ALT in the blood. Things to do In rats that were given HFD/STZ to make them diabetic, serum AST and ALT levels went up significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) Clerk of the There was a 86.93 (U/L) and 116.4 (U/L) rise in the percentages of rats that were given and  $\alpha$ -amyirin nano-emulsion (40 to 80 mg/rat) to diabetes mice that were on a high-fat diet or STZ. The AST and Alternative tasks got significantly better ( $P < 0.05$ ). It was the  $\alpha$ -amyirin nano-emulsion (80 mg/rat) treatment that worked best to lower high AST activity 90.8 (U/L). Using one-way ANOVA, it was very clear that the healthy control group and the insulin-treated group had very different effects on the levels of AST and ALT in the blood ( $P < 0.05$ ) . There was also a clear significant difference in ALP at  $\alpha$ -amyirin nano-emulsion ( 80 mg/rat). (Table 1).

**Table 1. Blood tests showed that the levels of AST, ALP, and ALT were normal, in a diabetic control group, and in diabetics who were given  $\alpha$ -amyirin extract,  $\alpha$ -amyirin nanocapsules, and insulin.**

Groups	Dose	SGPT(U/L)	SGOT(U/L)	ALP (U/L)
Group A	---	60.38 $\pm$ 1.517a	51.8 $\pm$ 1.245 a	83.18 $\pm$ 2.607a
	---	132.6 $\pm$ 3.792 b	138.4 $\pm$ 9.888 b	242.6 $\pm$ 5.254b
Group B	(50 mg)	124.4 $\pm$ 2.665 b	132.1 $\pm$ 8.032 b	203.1 $\pm$ 6.663c

Group C	(100 mg)	116.8 ± 5.565 b	108.8 ± 4.704 bc	155 ± 6.539d
Group D	(40 mg)	115.3 ± 7.036 b	116.4 ± 4.242 bc	167.1 ± 11.27edf
Group E	(80 mg)	90.8 ± 4.295 c	86.93 ± 6.261 c	137.7 ± 5.913 fgd
Group F	4 IU	72.64 ± 3.24 ac	66.15 ± 4.672 ac	124.5 ± 5.791 gd

Each value represents the mean ± SD, n = 10 rats. a p < 0.05 compared with normal control. p < 0.05 compared with vehicle control. Group A: control group, standard fodder of one-month existing. Group B: D (DM-control): STZ-induced DM rats (ip STZ 50 mg/kgBW) + standard food) Group C: DM received treatment, STZ-DM rats + α-amyirin (50 mg/kg, p.o. daily) food of laboratory animals. Group D: DM received treatment, STZ-DM rats + α-amyirin (100 mg/kg, p.o. daily). Group E: DM received treatment: STZ-DM rats + α-amyirin-nanocapsule (40 mg/kg, p.o. daily) food of laboratory animals. Group F: DM received treatment: STZ-DM rats + α-amyirin-nanocapsule (80 mg/kg, p.o. daily) food of laboratory animals. Group I: DM received insulin – Insulin dose 4 IU, food of laboratory animals 30 days. The same signs show non significant difference between experimental groups and the different signs show a significant difference between experimental groups.

### 3.4. Effect on Liver Oxidative Stress and Antioxidant

Changes in reactive stress and antioxidant defence in the liver fence. There was a big rise in diabetic rat of less than in GSH and GPx (P < 0.05). The amount that was recorded was 126.10% more than the healthy group. The Using a lot of α-amyirin nanocapsules to treat diabetic rats Make high GSH better. forty to eighty mg of α-amyirin nanocapsules per rat, Treatments don't have big benefits when compared to each other, so their results were pretty much the same. in comparison to diabetes care (Table 2). The amounts of GSH and GPx in the liver went up a lot. In the diabetes control group, it went down (P < 0.05). The Diabetes-stricken rats that were given α-amyirin extract got a lot better. GSH content and GPx actions went down. The A treatment with α-amyirin nanoemulsion (80 mg/rat) increased GPx activity the most. A treatment with α-amyirin extract (50 mg/rat) increased GPx activity, but not as much. The amount of GSH wasn't important. When the three computers were put up against each other, last. When you use one-way ANOVA, the result is between The groups were very important because chance F It has a p value of less than 0.05 (Table 2).

**Table 2. In normal, diabetic control, and diabetic groups that were given α-amyirin extract, α-amyirin nanocapsules, and insulin, liver oxidative stress and antioxidant defence markers were looked at.**

Groups	Dose	GSH (mg/L)	GPX (IU/mL)
	---	82.37 ± 1.906 a	24.8 ± 1.26 a
Group A	---	9.21 ± 1.819 b	3.253 ± 1.239 b
Group B	(50 mg)	14 ± 2.841 bc	5.37 ± 1.694 b
Group C	(100 mg)	27.81 ± 4.011 c	12.65 ± 1.676 c
Group D			

Group E	(40 mg)	28.49 ± 3.389 c	11.56 ± 1.138 dc
Group F	(80 mg)	54.52 ± 4.404 d	15.3 ± 0.6875 edc
Group I	4 IU	63.24 ± 6.96 ad	18.12 ± 1.61 cef

Each value represents the mean ± SD, n = 10 rats. a p < 0.05 compared with normal control. p < 0.05 compared with vehicle control. Group A: control group, standard fodder of one-month existing. Group B: D (DM-control): STZ-induced DM rats (ip STZ 50 mg/kgBW) + standard food) Group C: DM received treatment, STZ-DM rats +  $\alpha$ -amyrin (50 mg/kg, p.o. daily) food of laboratory animals. Group D: DM received treatment, STZ-DM rats +  $\alpha$ -amyrin (100 mg/kg, p.o. daily). Group E: DM received treatment: STZ-DM rats +  $\alpha$ -amyrin-nanocapsule (40 mg/kg, p.o. daily) food of laboratory animals. Group F: DM received treatment: STZ-DM rats +  $\alpha$ -amyrin-nanocapsule (80 mg/kg, p.o. daily) food of laboratory animals. Group I: DM received insulin – Insulin dose 4 IU, food of laboratory animals 30 days. The same signs show a nonsignificant difference between experimental groups and the different signs show a significant difference between experimental groups.

#### 4. Discussion

Having T2DM means you are resistant to insulin, which could be because of problems with insulin receptors and/or post-receptors. This The imbalance makes it hard for the liver to control carbohydrates, enzymes, and oxidation. Also, people with T2DM have more glucose being made by their livers and are more sensitive to insulin in their muscles and fat. A mix of the two, along with long-lasting inflammation, all of which slowly mess up glucose control Diabetes issues that are bad for you happen because of how much of it is in your blood [40]. DM is accompanied by long-term hyperglycemia that doesn't go away. Damage and failure of many organs over time [41]. The model of HFD/STZ-induced DM in mice was suggested as Experimental DM because it has some of the same traits as human diabetes and can be used for both short-term and long-term studies. Because of this, it is thought to be a good example for studying Hyperglycemia [42]. Many times, STZ is used to make animals have experimental DM. Extreme production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) is what makes STZ harmful to cells. ROS damage happens because of oxidative stress. To start apoptosis and stop insulin from working, Synthesis [43]. GLUT-2 lets STZ into the cell. Since it looks enough like glucose to be glucose, move it to the cell. It hasn't been found before, though. GLUTs of other types. "cells" Having a lot of GLUT-2 helps explain why relativity STZ is bad for cells [44]. Because of HFD/STZ Because of the following, a mouse T2DM model was used in this study: (a) Not too unstable Non-fasting hyperglycemia that doesn't need medicine from outside the body Insulin to stay alive. B) Loss of some cells in the islets Langerhans (-40%); c) A 60% drop in the amount of insulin in the islets; d) Problems with glucose tolerance; e) Problems with insulin production and response to sulfonylurea drugs; and g) eating too much and feeling thirsty [45]. In ancient medicine, these plants were used to treat diabetes. Other useful ways to deal with this sickness [46]. Plant-based drugs and functional foods are good for you. To stop diabetes, it is important to keep an eye on blood sugar levels, glucose uptake in peripheral organs, insulin release, and immune system health [47]. Antioxidants that come from plants help get rid of ROS and greatly lower the chances of How diabetes got started and what problems it can cause. Types of Vitamins that are good for you, some nutritional supplements, and natural food ingredients may help keep DM from getting hurt or worsening because of

reactive stress. Because of this, the plant life became a key area of focus. To look for new medicines and chemicals that work on living things [48]. The  $\alpha$ -amyrin extract and  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules used in this study came from Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Company in the United States. Compared to crude substance to see if it had any effects on lowering blood sugar and fighting free radicals. The OGTT is a well-known way to check blood sugar. How well any diabetic drugs work [49]. In this study, rats that were given HFD/STZ to make them diabetic had higher blood sugar levels at all OGTT points than regular mice. This information fits with what other studies [50] have found. The HFD/STZ-induced HFD was also significantly higher in diabetic mice. Serum glucose level is a good indicator of average blood glucose concentration over a number of days or weeks (2–3 weeks). Either a drop in insulin production. Like in the case of insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) or a problem with insulin in the tissues. High amounts of glucose and fructosamine in the blood can be caused by allergies, like in NIDDM [51]. Blood sugar levels rise and insulin production is stopped (1). Less glucose uptake could be a sign. Insulin, muscle, fat tissue, and peripheral tissue. It can cause both high blood sugar and dyslipidemia [52]; (2) Loss of energy and falling apart; Liver glycogen enzyme activation system [53]; and (3) A big drop in the activities of lipogenic and glycolytic enzymes, while the activities of glucose and glycolytic enzymes in the liver went up. This study showed that giving diabetic rats  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules for treatment led to possible benefits. What happens to OGT and fructosamine amounts in the blood, and this. This fits with what Jung et al. [53], Chakravarty et al. [53], Sharma et al. [53], Pandit et al. [54], and Kapoor and Kakar found: that different flavonoids had a similar effect of making DM better in different animal models. Important The present study found that  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules have the most powerful impact on improving OGT and lowering high blood glucose levels. Because they work together,  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules have stronger hypoglycemic effects than  $\alpha$ -amyrin extract. Many of these nanoparticles can get into mitochondria and change into flavonoids, like naringin, and polymethoxylated flavones, like nobiletin. A lot of experts [55] have said that it can help people with diabetes. Homeostasis model assessment (HOMA) is a way to figure out insulin resistance, insulin sensitivity, and beta cell job. It estimates glucose and insulin levels while the person is fasting. HOMA-IR was very important in this work. Higher in mice that were given HFD/STZ to make them diabetic, while HOMA-IS A big drop in HOMA- $\beta$  cell function was seen. These HOMA changes show that insulin resistance (insulin sensitivity) and poor beta cell function are present. The NA/STZ-induced diabetic rat model that is being used for this study.  $\alpha$ -amyrin-nanocapsule works well to treat diabetes rats Check the activity of HOMA-IS and HOMA- $\beta$  cells. HOMA-IR's high point went down and its low point went up. These changes are better All of that is what the HOMA signs tell us. The treatments that were tried worked as both hypoglycemic and anti-diabetic drugs by making tissue insulin sensitivity and  $\beta$ -cell function better. It is important to note that elevated amounts of both insulin and

After giving  $\alpha$ -amyrin-nanocapsule to diabetic rats, the study now backs up the proof that these treatments work to make. The role of beta cells and how insulin is released. After treating diabetes rats with an aqueous ethanolic extract  $\alpha$ -amyrin, their pancreatic islets changed their structure and integrity, and the number of  $\beta$  cells increased. This happened at the same time that their blood insulin levels went up. On the other hand, the rise in GLUT-4 and insulin receptor subunit levels in adipose tissue Improvements in  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsule treatments for diabetes rats How sensitive fat tissue (peripheral tissue) is to insulin. as well, as is  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsule It has been written about as an insulin sensitizer [56], and it may help lower

insulin levels in a big way. Treatment of diabetic mice with  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsule led to less resistance and better insulin sensitising action. The amount of glycogen in the liver can be used as a measure to test how well a drug works to control hyperglycemia in test animals . Musa et al. and Hayes et al. He told us this High blood sugar is one sign that the liver is damage or not working right.It changes how AST and ALT enzymes work in Serum. Enzymes like these are used to show molecular changes. Find out how badly the liver works when STZ diabetic mice are exposed to it. Because of this, the liver damage markers ALT and AST went up in people who weren't getting treatment. People with diabetes . This info runs at the same time. What Ahmed et al. and Menem et al. found. The  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsule extract protects the liver from damage.Caused by STZ-induced DM[57]; it has effects that are very identical. Alam et al. also found that liver function got better, which is similar to our work.In diabetic rats that were given  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules. Kobori et al. also said that things got better. Liver and pancreatic functions were improved by quercetin in diabetic mice that had been damaged by STZ[58]. We believe that the improvement of kidney function in HFD/STZ-induced diabetic rats that were given  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules to make their situations better, Reduce reactive stress and boost antioxidants to protect the body[59]. A lot of research has been done on the role of oxidation stress because it is generally thought to play a part in the progression and complications of diabetes . Oxidised Stress, which is a mismatch between making things and getting rid of them Molecules that are very reactive and can cause insulin resistance[60], beta cell dysfunction, poor glucose tolerance[61], and finally T2DM [62]. Because ROS cause lipid and protein changes during oxidative stress,As a result of high blood sugar, on the one hand, it is easy for DM to cause too many ROS to be made [62]. This study showed that these data were reliable.Mice that were given STZ developed diabetes had lower levels of antioxidant enzymes like GSH and GPx in their liver tissue [63]. treatment of diabetic rats that were given HFD/STZ in this study With  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules extract, liver levels of GSH and antioxidant enzymes, which show that it's going down, went up significantly. that cause oxidative stress by switching these enzymes' functions around There are antioxidants [40]. What  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules do The effect of the  $\alpha$ -amyrin extract on GPx function was much stronger.In contrast to Insuline. These results match what Rajadurai and Prince [63] said.It was found that ursane compounds stop changes in mitochondrial lipid peroxides and boost the activity of antioxidant enzymes (GPx, GSH) in rats. Based on our findings, we can say that the treatment with  $\alpha$ -amyrin nanocapsules improved the antioxidant defence system. It might play a big part in improving the function and structural integrity of the pancreatic islets. It may also help make the tissue more sensitive to insulin. The rate of diabetes in mice that were given a high-fat diet and STZ.

## **5. Conclusion**

In conclusion, treatment with  $\alpha$ -Amyrin nanoparticles lowers the effects of high blood sugar and liver damage. This seems to be due to increased insulin release.

How insulin and the antioxidant defence system work in mice that were fed a high-fat diet or STZ .Diabetes in mice. It has been shown that better insulin release

By increasing the amount of insulin in the blood and Plus calculated higher HOMA cell levels, the effect of insulin was shown to be better. By making HOMA-IS bigger and IN HOMA-IR

smaller.  $\alpha$ -Amyrin nanoparticles are strong materials that can improve the functioning of the liver and kidneys. These effects may be related to better blood sugar levels and an improved antioxidant defence system. Even with these positive benefits, More research is needed to find out how well  $\alpha$ -Amyrin nanoparticles work in type 2 diabetes patients, like the ones that were done on HFD/STZ-induced diabetic rats.

#### Conflict of interest

The authors have nothing to say about a conflict of interest.

#### Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflicts of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval Ethical approval for this research was obtained from the Al-Qadisiyah University Local Committee

#### References

1. F. A. Santos et al., "Antihyperglycemic and hypolipidemic effects of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ -amyrin, a triterpenoid mixture from *Protium heptaphyllum* in mice," *Lipids Health Dis.*, vol. 11, pp. 1–8, 2012.
2. S. A. Nair, B. Sabulal, J. Radhika, R. Arunkumar, and A. Subramoniam, "Promising anti-diabetes mellitus activity in rats of  $\beta$ -amyrin palmitate isolated from *Hemidesmus indicus* roots," *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*, vol. 734, pp. 77–82, 2014.
3. I. Huang, "Patofisiologi dan diagnosis penurunan kesadaran pada penderita diabetes mellitus," *Medicinus*, vol. 5, no. 2, 2018.
4. S. Wild, G. Roglic, A. Green, R. Sicree, and H. King, "Global prevalence of diabetes: estimates for the year 2000 and projections for 2030," *Diabetes Care*, vol. 27, no. 5, pp. 1047–1053, 2004.
5. D. Cheng, "Prevalence, predisposition and prevention of type II diabetes," *Nutr. Metab. (Lond.)*, vol. 2, pp. 1–12, 2005.
6. G. Chandramohan, S. Ignacimuthu, and K. V. Pugalendi, "A novel compound from *Casearia esculenta* (Roxb.) root and its effect on carbohydrate metabolism in streptozotocin-diabetic rats," *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*, vol. 590, no. 1–3, pp. 437–443, 2008.
7. G. Saravanan and P. Ponnuragan, "Beneficial effect of S-allylcysteine (SAC) on blood glucose and pancreatic antioxidant system in streptozotocin diabetic rats," *Plant Foods Hum. Nutr.*, vol. 65, pp. 374–378, 2010.
8. A. J. F. King, "The use of animal models in diabetes research," *Br. J. Pharmacol.*, vol. 166, no. 3, pp. 877–894, 2012.
9. J.-Y. Fang, C.-H. Lin, T.-H. Huang, and S.-Y. Chuang, "In vivo rodent models of type 2 diabetes and their usefulness for evaluating flavonoid bioactivity," *Nutrients*, vol. 11, no. 3, p. 530, 2019.
10. N. M. H. Elamin, I. M. T. Fadlalla, S. A. Omer, and H. A. M. Ibrahim, "Histopathological alteration in STZ-nicotinamide diabetic rats, a complication of diabetes or a toxicity of STZ," *Int J Diabetes Clin Res*, vol. 5, no. 3, pp. 1–8, 2018.
11. A. D. Bolzán and M. S. Bianchi, "Genotoxicity of streptozotocin," *Mutat. Res. Mutat. Res.*, vol. 512, no. 2–3, pp. 121–134, 2002.
12. C. Kim, K. M. Newton, and R. H. Knopp, "Gestational diabetes and the incidence of type 2 diabetes: a systematic review," *Diabetes Care*, vol. 25, no. 10, pp. 1862–1868, 2002.

13. G. P. S. Kumar, P. Arulselvan, D. S. Kumar, and S. P. Subramanian, "Anti-diabetic activity of fruits of Terminalia chebula on streptozotocin induced diabetic rats," *J. Heal. Sci.*, vol. 52, no. 3, pp. 283–291, 2006.
14. J. Turk, J. A. Corbett, S. Ramanadham, A. Bohrer, and M. L. McDaniel, "Biochemical evidence for nitric oxide formation from streptozotocin in isolated pancreatic islets," *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, vol. 197, no. 3, pp. 1458–1464, 1993.
15. D. C. Damasceno et al., "Streptozotocin-induced diabetes models: pathophysiological mechanisms and fetal outcomes," *Biomed Res. Int.*, vol. 2014, 2014.
16. L. Pozzo et al., "Effect of HFD/STZ on expression of genes involved in lipid, cholesterol and glucose metabolism in rats," *Life Sci.*, vol. 166, pp. 149–156, 2016.
17. S. Skovsø, "Modeling type 2 diabetes in rats using high fat diet and streptozotocin," *J. Diabetes Investig.*, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 349–358, 2014.
18. T. Kobayashi, K. Taguchi, T. Yasuhiro, T. Matsumoto, and K. Kamata, "Impairment of PI3-K/Akt pathway underlies attenuated endothelial function in aorta of type 2 diabetic mouse model," *Hypertension*, vol. 44, no. 6, pp. 956–962, 2004.
19. A. Tahara, A. Matsuyama-Yokono, R. Nakano, Y. Someya, and M. Shibasaki, "Hypoglycaemic effects of antidiabetic drugs in streptozotocin-nicotinamide-induced mildly diabetic and streptozotocin-induced severely diabetic rats," *Basic Clin. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*, vol. 103, no. 6, pp. 560–568, 2008.
20. Y. Lv et al., "Antidiabetic effect of a flavonoid-rich extract from *Sophora alopecuroides* L. in HFD-and STZ-induced diabetic mice through PKC/GLUT4 pathway and regulating PPAR $\alpha$  and PPAR $\gamma$  expression," *J. Ethnopharmacol.*, vol. 268, p. 113654, 2021.
21. A. N. Tamfu et al., "Synthesis of benzoyl esters of  $\beta$ -amyrin and lupeol and evaluation of their antibiofilm and antidiabetic activities," *Results Chem.*, vol. 4, p. 100322, 2022.
22. O. S. Alsawad, Z. A. Al-Mayyahi, and N. A. K. L. H. Jawid, "Bioactivity Guided Isolation, Characterization & Pharmacological Evaluation of  $\alpha$ -amyrin from Chloroform Extract of *Morinda pubescens* in STZ induced Diabetic Rats," *Syst. Rev. Pharm.*, vol. 11, no. 11, 2020.
23. P. Prabhakar, K. H. Reeta, S. K. Maulik, A. K. Dinda, and Y. K. Gupta, " $\alpha$ -Amyrin attenuates high fructose diet-induced metabolic syndrome in rats," *Appl. Physiol. Nutr. Metab.*, vol. 42, no. 1, pp. 23–32, 2017.
24. H. G. ABDULSHAHEED and H. K. A. ALSAEDI, "ANTIOXIDANT AND ANTIHYPERGLYCEMIC EFFECTS OF *Nigella sativa* IN STZ-INDUCED DIABETIC MALE RATS," *PLANT CELL Biotechnol. Mol. Biol.*, vol. 22, no. 35–36, pp. 62–69, 2021.
25. T. Rathinavel, S. Ammashi, and S. T. and Gnanendra Shanmugam, "Identification of anti-diabetic phytochemicals from *Ficus racemosa* and its validation through in silico molecular modeling," *Int. J. Adv. Sci. Eng.*, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 1085–1098, 2019.
26. Y. Huo et al., "Scutellarin alleviates type 2 diabetes (HFD/low dose STZ)-induced cardiac injury through modulation of oxidative stress, inflammation, apoptosis and fibrosis in mice," *Hum. Exp. Toxicol.*, vol. 40, no. 12\_suppl, pp. S460–S474, 2021.
27. H. Ma et al., "A novel role of globular adiponectin in treatment with HFD/STZ induced T2DM combined with NAFLD rats," *Sci. World J.*, vol. 2014, 2014.
28. X. Feng et al., "The impact of a novel Chinese yam-derived polysaccharide on blood glucose control in HFD and STZ-induced diabetic C57BL/6 mice," *Food Funct.*, vol. 13, no. 5, pp. 2681–2692, 2022.
29. A. Ghasemi, S. Khalifi, and S. Jedi, "Streptozotocin-nicotinamide-induced rat model of type 2 diabetes," *Acta Physiol. Hung.*, vol. 101, no. 4, pp. 408–420, 2014.
30. H. Fessi, F. Puisieux, J. P. Devissaguet, N. Ammourey, and S. Benita, "Nanocapsule formation by interfacial polymer deposition following solvent displacement," *Int. J. Pharm.*, vol. 55, no. 1, pp. R1–R4, 1989.
31. S. J. Douglas, L. Illum, S. S. Davis, and J. Krueter, "Particle size and size distribution of poly

- (butyl-2-cyanoacrylate) nanoparticles: I. Influence of physicochemical factors,” *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, vol. 101, no. 1, pp. 149–158, 1984.
32. D. R. Matthews, J. P. Hosker, A. S. Rudenski, B. A. Naylor, D. F. Treacher, and R. C. Turner, “Homeostasis model assessment: insulin resistance and  $\beta$ -cell function from fasting plasma glucose and insulin concentrations in man,” *Diabetologia*, vol. 28, pp. 412–419, 1985.
33. E. Bernt and H. U. Bergmeyer, “Glutathione,” in *Methods of enzymatic analysis*, Elsevier, 1974, pp. 1643–1647.
34. A. Roveri, M. Maiorino, and F. Ursini, “[20] Enzymatic and immunological measurements of soluble and membrane-bound phospholipid-hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase,” in *Methods in enzymology*, vol. 233, Elsevier, 1994, pp. 202–212.
35. S. B. Rosalki et al., “Multicenter evaluation of Iso-ALP test kit for measurement of bone alkaline phosphatase activity in serum and plasma,” *Clin. Chem.*, vol. 39, no. 4, pp. 648–652, 1993.
36. J.-P. Desager, Y. Horsmans, C. Vandenplas, and C. Harvengt, “Pharmacodynamic activity of lipoprotein lipase and hepatic lipase, and pharmacokinetic parameters measured in normolipidaemic subjects receiving ciprofibrate (100 or 200 mg/day) or micronised fenofibrate (200 mg/day) therapy for 23 days,” *Atherosclerosis*, vol. 124, pp. S65–S73, 1996.
37. A. Leino, O. Impivaara, K. Irjala, J. Mäki, O. Peltola, and J. Järvisalo, “Health-based reference intervals for ALAT, ASAT and GT in serum, measured according to the recommendations of the European Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (ECCLS),” *Scand. J. Clin. Lab. Invest.*, vol. 55, no. 3, pp. 243–250, 1995.
38. J. S. Flier, C. R. Kahn, and J. Roth, “Receptors, antireceptor antibodies and mechanisms of insulin resistance,” *N. Engl. J. Med.*, vol. 300, no. 8, pp. 413–419, 1979.
39. E. R. Girden, ANOVA: Repeated measures, no. 84. sage, 1992.
40. R. A. DeFronzo et al., “Type 2 diabetes mellitus,” *Nat. Rev. Dis. Prim.*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 1–22, 2015.
41. B. Giri, S. Dey, T. Das, M. Sarkar, J. Banerjee, and S. K. Dash, “Chronic hyperglycemia mediated physiological alteration and metabolic distortion leads to organ dysfunction, infection, cancer progression and other pathophysiological consequences: an update on glucose toxicity,” *Biomed. Pharmacother.*, vol. 107, pp. 306–328, 2018.
42. P. Palsamy and S. Subramanian, “Resveratrol, a natural phytoalexin, normalizes hyperglycemia in streptozotocin-nicotinamide induced experimental diabetic rats,” *Biomed. Pharmacother.*, vol. 62, no. 9, pp. 598–605, 2008.
43. N. Ziamajidi, A. Nasiri, R. Abbasalipourkabir, and S. Sadeghi Moheb, “Effects of garlic extract on TNF- $\alpha$  expression and oxidative stress status in the kidneys of rats with STZ+ nicotinamide-induced diabetes,” *Pharm. Biol.*, vol. 55, no. 1, pp. 526–531, 2017.
44. T. Szkudelski, “The mechanism of alloxan and streptozotocin action in B cells of the rat pancreas,” *Physiol. Res.*, vol. 50, no. 6, pp. 537–546, 2001.
45. M.-J. Kim et al., “Protective effects of epicatechin against the toxic effects of streptozotocin on rat pancreatic islets: in vivo and in vitro,” *Pancreas*, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 292–299, 2003.
46. L. Zhang et al., “Antidiabetic and antioxidant effects of extracts from *Potentilla discolor* Bunge on diabetic rats induced by high fat diet and streptozotocin,” *J. Ethnopharmacol.*, vol. 132, no. 2, pp. 518–524, 2010.
47. L. Pari and S. Suman, “Antihyperglycemic and antilipidperoxidative effects of flavanoid naringin in streptozotocin-nicotinamide induced diabetic rats,” *Int J Biol Med Res*, vol. 1, no. 4, pp. 206–210, 2010.
48. R. Vinayagam and B. Xu, “Antidiabetic properties of dietary flavonoids: a cellular mechanism review,” *Nutr. Metab. (Lond.)*, vol. 12, pp. 1–20, 2015.
49. P. V. Patel Vijay and S. V. Sharma Vimukta, “The role of natural antioxidants in oxidative stress induced diabetes mellitus,” 2014.

50. A. Mohammed, "Antioxidative and antidiabetic effects of some African medicinal plants." 2016.
51. M. Vessal, M. Hemmati, and M. Vasei, "Antidiabetic effects of quercetin in streptozocin-induced diabetic rats," *Comp. Biochem. Physiol. Part C Toxicol. Pharmacol.*, vol. 135, no. 3, pp. 357–364, 2003.
52. M. Schaalan, H. S. El-Abhar, M. Barakat, and E. S. El-Denshary, "Westernized-like-diet-fed rats: effect on glucose homeostasis, lipid profile, and adipocyte hormones and their modulation by rosiglitazone and glimepiride," *J. Diabetes Complications*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 199–208, 2009.
53. N. M. Kamal, "Role of hormone receptor in the etiology of insulin dependent and non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus," Master Clin. Chem. Pathol. Thesis, Fac. Med. Cairo Univ., 1991.
54. H. Beck-Nielsen, "Insulin resistance: organ manifestations and cellular mechanisms," *Ugeskr. Laeger*, vol. 164, no. 16, pp. 2130–2135, 2002.
55. A. H. Gold, "The effect of diabetes and insulin on liver glycogen synthetase activation," *J. Biol. Chem.*, vol. 245, no. 4, pp. 903–905, 1970.
56. B. Wittenstein, M. Klein, B. Finckh, K. Ullrich, and A. Kohlschütter, "Plasma antioxidants in pediatric patients with glycogen storage disease, diabetes mellitus, and hypercholesterolemia," *Free Radic. Biol. Med.*, vol. 33, no. 1, pp. 103–110, 2002.
57. P. S. Mohammed, A. N. Abdullah, and S. H. Ibrahim, "Comparative Study Between Quercus Infectoria Galls Extract and Glimepiride On Pancreas and Some Blood Parameters in Diabetic Rats," *Basrah J. Vet. Res.*, vol. 21, no. 2, pp. 39–60, 2022.
58. J. A. A. Al-Sa'aidi, H. M. A. Kareem, and W. T. M. Al-Tameemi, "Antihyperglycemic effects of thymoquinone in diabetic rats," *Bas J Vet Res*, vol. 13, no. 2, pp. 180–192, 2014.
59. A. J. H. AL-Khamas, "Effect of cinnamon zeylanicum bark water extract on male diabetic albino rats fertility," *Basrah J Vet Res*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 123–135, 2018.
60. M. A. Abed and O. H. Azeez, "The effect of cumin on induced diabetes in rats," *Basra J Vet Res*, vol. 12, pp. 69–80, 2013.
61. S. S. AL-Anni, Z. R. Zghair, M. D. Al-jaboore, and E. K. Khalel, "Histopathological study of nitrate ion effect on pancreas experimentally in laboratory mice.," *Basrah J. Vet. Res.*, vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 179–184, 2016.
62. S. Sivakumar, P. Palsamy, and S. P. Subramanian, "Impact of D-pinitol on the attenuation of proinflammatory cytokines, hyperglycemia-mediated oxidative stress and protection of kidney tissue ultrastructure in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats," *Chem. Biol. Interact.*, vol. 188, no. 1, pp. 237–245, 2010.
63. G. I. Shulman, "Cellular mechanisms of insulin resistance," *J. Clin. Invest.*, vol. 106, no. 2, pp. 171–176, 2000.