**Amaranthus spinosus** L. (Amaranthaceae) leaf extract attenuates streptozotocin–nicotinamide induced diabetes and oxidative stress in albino rats: A histopathological analysis

Shanti Bhushan Mishra1*, Amita Verma2, Alok Mukerjee1, Madhavan Vijayakumar3

1 Department of Pharmacognosy, United Institute of Pharmacy, UCER, Allahabad, India
2 Department of Pharmaceutical Science, Faculty of Health, Medical Sciences, Indigenous & Alternative Systems of Medicine, SHIATS, Allahabad, India
3 Ethnopharmacology Division, National Botanical Research Institute, Lucknow, India

**1. Introduction**

Hyperglycemia evoked oxidative stress plays a crucial role in the development of diabetic complications, including nephropathy, neuropathy, retinopathy and hepatopathy, which is considered to result from augmented reactive oxygen species generation and decreased antioxidant defenses [1]. NIDDM is often associated with the most commonly occurring metabolic and physiologic problems, including elevated blood pressure, cardiovascular diseases, dyslipidemia and high cholesterol levels. Together with visceral obesity, this clustering of risk factors is known as the metabolic syndrome [2–3]. Plants are recognized as a wonderful source for medicines. It is estimated that 1200 species of plants are used as folk medicines for diabetes. *Amaranthus spinosus* (Amaranthaceae) is widely distributed throughout the tropics and warm temperate regions of Asia from Japan to Indonesia to India, the Pacific islands and Australia as a weed in cultivated as well as fallow lands. In Indian traditional system of medicine (Ayurveda) the plant is used as digestible, laxative, diuretic, stomachic, antipyretic, improves the appetite, biliousness, blood diseases, burning sensation, leprosy, bronchitis, piles and leucorrhoea.[4] Previous reports of this plant showed that its extract was used for its anti-inflammatory properties,[5] effect on hematology,[6] immunomodulatory activity,[7] anthelmintic properties,[8] antidiabetic, antihyperlipidemic and spermatogenic [9–10]. Chemically, it contains 7-p-coumaroyl apigenin 4-O-beta-D-glucopyranoside, a new coumaroyl flavone glycoside called spinoside, xylofuranosyl uracil, beta-D-ribofuranosyl adenine,
The leaves of *A. spinosus* were collected from their natural habitat in and around Lucknow and authenticated by Taxonomist Dr. A. K. S. Rawat. The voucher specimen CIF–RB–2–126–1 was deposited in the departmental herbarium of National Botanical Research Institute Lucknow, India for future reference.

The freshly collected leaves (3 kg) were first air–dried and then dried in tray drier under control conditions and powdered. The powdered leaves (1200 g) were macerated with petroleum ether to remove fatty substances; the marc was further exhaustively extracted with of 50% ethanol for 3 days (3 X 3L) by cold percolation method and centrifugation at 10,000 rev/min. The extract was separated by filtration and concentrated on rotavapour (Buchi, USA) and then dried in lyophilizer (Labconco, USA) under reduced pressure and thus 125.0 g of solid residue (yield 12.5 % w/w) was obtained.

### 2.2. Preliminary phytochemical screening

The extract was subjected to preliminary phytochemical screening for the identification of various active constituents by using standard procedure [13].

### 2.3. Drugs and chemicals

Streptozotocin (STZ) was purchased from Calbiochem USA. Nicotinamide was obtained from Ranbaxy Chemicals Ltd, India. All other chemicals and reagents used were of analytical grade.

### 2.4. Experimental animals

Healthy adult Wistar albino rats of both sex, aged between 2 and 3 months of age, weighing 200–250 g were used for the pharmacological studies. The animals were housed in polypropylene cages, maintained under standard conditions (12/12 h light and dark) at 25±3 °C and 35–60% humidity. They were fed with standard rat pellet diet (Amrut, India) and water ad libitum. The Institutional Animal Ethical Committee, United Institute of Pharmacy, Allahabad, India (No. 1451/PO/a/11/CPCSEA) has approved the study.

### 2.5. Acute oral toxicity study

The lethal median dose (LD50) determination was done in mice by OECD guidelines 423 [14]. A single dose of the extracts (5 mg/kg, 50 mg/kg, 300 mg/kg and 2000 mg/kg) in appropriate quantity of water was given orally by gavage to different group of mice (three each). The animals were allowed free access to water and food. However, all the animals were deprived of food for 2 hr before and 4 hr after dosing. The animals were continuously monitored during first 4 hrs and every one–hour during the first 12 hrs for any adverse effects. Later they were monitored (daily twice) for any abnormal changes throughout the study period (14 days). The extract was devoid of any toxicity in animals when given in dose up to 2000mg/kg. Hence for further study 250 & 500 mg/kg doses of extract were selected.

### 2.6. Experimental induction of diabetes

Streptozotocin (STZ) was freshly dissolved in (0.1M, pH 4.5) citrate buffer and Nicotinamide was dissolved in normal physiological saline and maintained on ice prior to use. All animals were allowed to adapt to cages for 3 days, after which they were fasted overnight. Non–insulin–dependent diabetes mellitus was induced in overnight fasted rats by a single intraperitoneal injection of Streptozotocin (60 mg/kg b.w), 15 min after the intraperitoneal administration of nicotinamide (120 mg/kg b.w) all animals were given free access to food and water. Blood glucose levels were measured 2 days after STZ injection and used as parameters to obtain matching pairs of rats with diabetes of similar level of severity. Only rats with fasting blood glucose levels greater than 220 mg/dl were considered to be diabetic and were used in the experiment. The animals were randomly assigned to five different groups i.e. group I to V. Group I served as control containing 6 normal rats. All treatments started 3 days after STZ injection [15].

### 2.7. Experimental Design

Five groups of rats were used to study the effect of 50% ethanolic extract of *A. spinosus*. Each group consists of six rats.

- **Group I** – Control rats received vehicle normal saline solution
- **Group II** – Diabetic control rats received vehicle normal saline solution
- **Group III and IV** – Diabetic rats treated with extract 250 & 500 mg/kg body weight in respectively.
- **Group V** – Diabetic rats treated with standard drug Glibenclamide 600 νg/kg body weight

The vehicles and the drugs were administered orally using...
oral gavage tube daily for three weeks. Blood samples were collected for the measurement of blood glucose level from the tail vein on 0 day, 7th, 14th and 21st day. The blood glucose level was determined by glucometer (sugar scan). The values of sample treated were compared with that of the standard group which was treated with Glibenclamide. Then the animals were sacrificed by cervical dislocation. The liver, kidney and pancreas were exposed and perfused with cold saline phosphate buffer of pH 7.4 for histopathological examination. Blood free liver and kidney were taken out and homogenized in a glass Teflon homogenizer separately (10% w/v). Incubation was done at 37°C under controlled conditions for biochemical estimation. The collected blood samples were immediately centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 15 min. The serum separated was collected in fresh serum tubes and stored in refrigerator (2-4°C) after tightly capped. Effect of test extracts on serum glucose, antioxidant enzymes and lipid profile were assessed.

2.8. In-vivo antioxidant activity in diabetic rats

Measurement of Catalase (CAT), Superoxide dismutase (SOD), Glutathione –S-Transferase (GST), Reduced glutathione (GSH) and Glutathione peroxidase (GPx) were determined for ascertain its antioxidant activity by standard procedure of Pari [16].

2.9. Histopathology

At the end of the treatment period the control as well as treated rats were sacrificed by using cervical dislocation and the pancreas was dissected out and part of pancreatic tissue was immediately fixed in bouin’s fluid for 24 hr and washed in running tap water to remove colour of bouin’s fluid and dehydrated in alcohol in ascending and descending order, embedded in paraffin and cut at 5µm in a rotary microtome. These sections were then deparaffinized in xylene and stained with hematoxylin–eosin and mounted with canad al balsam. The histopathological slides were examined and photographs were captured with a digital stereomicroscope (Olympus, B061) [17].

2.10. Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis of all the pharmacological analysis was carried out using GraphPad Prim version 3.03 for windows. The values are represented as mean ± S. D. for six rats data were analyzed by Student t test and ANOVA with post–hoc difference was analysed using Newman–keuls method.

3. Results

3.1. Preliminary phytochemical screening

Preliminary phytochemical screening revealed the presence of carbohydrate, phenolic compounds, phytosterols, alkaloids and flavonoids in 50% ethanolic extract of leaves.

3.2. Antihyperglycemic activity

Table 1 shows the effect or oral administration of 250 mg/kg & 500 mg/kg of ASEt on serum glucose level in 21days, at the end of the treatment, reduction in serum glucose level in treated rats with dose 500 mg/kg was 57.93% and 250mg/kg was 50.49%. The difference in percentage reduction of serum glucose level of different groups are significantly (p<0.001).

Table 2 shows that ASEt (500 mg/kg) again had potential effect on the lipid profile of the diabetic rats by significant decreasing the total lipid (90.83 –4.21 mg/dl as compared to diabetic control 148.83 –4.29 mg/dl) (P<0.001), cholesterol.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Treatment/Dose</th>
<th>0 day (mg/dl)</th>
<th>After 7 days (mg/dl)</th>
<th>After 14 days (mg/dl)</th>
<th>After 21 days (mg/dl)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Normal control</td>
<td>78.3±11.97</td>
<td>77.13±11.32</td>
<td>76.03±11.27</td>
<td>74.93±10.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Diabetic control</td>
<td>236.35±29.05 z</td>
<td>231.33±29.61 z</td>
<td>227.81±31.59 z</td>
<td>222.35±22.92 z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>ASEt (250 mg/kg)</td>
<td>219.88±13.36</td>
<td>191.18±15.32</td>
<td>164.66±19.65a</td>
<td>117.01±19.37c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>ASEt (500 mg/kg)</td>
<td>235.5±18.26</td>
<td>191.06±17.02</td>
<td>131.56±18.88b</td>
<td>99.41±10.66c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Glibenclamide (600 µg/kg)</td>
<td>233.56±13.40</td>
<td>186.06±12.76</td>
<td>134.51±8.21b</td>
<td>94.68±5.37c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value represents the means ± S.D. for 6 rats per group. aP<0.05, bP<0.01 and cP<0.001 compared to diabetic control group. zP<0.001 as compared to normal group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Treatment/Dose</th>
<th>Triglyceride (mg/dl)</th>
<th>Total cholesterol (mg/dl)</th>
<th>Total lipids (mg/dl)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Normal control</td>
<td>70.16 ± 4.81</td>
<td>72.83 ± 4.74</td>
<td>84.83±5.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Diabetic control</td>
<td>115.66±3.94z</td>
<td>153.66±5.24 z</td>
<td>148,83±4.29 z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>ASEt (250 mg/kg)</td>
<td>72.33±4.74 c</td>
<td>77.33±6.34 c</td>
<td>113.3±3.98c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>ASEt (500 mg/kg)</td>
<td>67.83±3.67 c</td>
<td>72.16±2.96 c</td>
<td>90.83±4.21 c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Glibenclamide (600 µg/kg)</td>
<td>75.66±4.92 c</td>
<td>81.83±7.77 c</td>
<td>93.33±5.73 c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value represents the means ± S.D. for 6 rats per group. cP<0.001 compared to diabetic control group. zP<0.001 as compared to normal group.
S1650

Table 3. Effect of A. spinosus extract on antioxidant enzyme activities in STZ–nicotinamide diabetic rats

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Normal control</th>
<th>Diabetic control</th>
<th>ASEt treated (250mg/kg)</th>
<th>Glibenclamide treated (600μg/kg)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>Kidney</td>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>Kidney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSH (nM of DTNB conjugated / mg protein)</td>
<td>132.12 ± 2.24</td>
<td>120.54 ± 3.18</td>
<td>112.45 ± 3.87a</td>
<td>129.42 ± 2.36c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GST (μ mol of CDNB–GSH conjugate formed / min / mg protein)</td>
<td>6.89 ± 0.84</td>
<td>6.75 ± 0.34</td>
<td>5.54 ± 0.84b</td>
<td>6.42 ± 0.48c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPx (μ g glutathione consumed / min / mg protein)</td>
<td>8.98 ± 0.57</td>
<td>7.54 ± 0.48</td>
<td>6.08 ± 0.54b</td>
<td>8.72 ± 0.65c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAT (μ mol of H2O2 consumed / min / mg protein)</td>
<td>72.36 ± 1.87</td>
<td>39.56 ± 1.35</td>
<td>62.56 ± 3.12b</td>
<td>71.22 ± 2.15c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOD (U min / mg / Hb) Erythrocytes</td>
<td>6.52 ± 0.24</td>
<td>3.32 ± 0.62y</td>
<td>5.25 ± 0.84b</td>
<td>6.36 ± 0.43c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>Kidney</td>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>Kidney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSH (nM of DTNB conjugated / mg protein)</td>
<td>120.54 ± 3.18</td>
<td>112.45 ± 3.87a</td>
<td>102.84 ± 2.54</td>
<td>124.78 ± 2.42c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GST (μ mol of CDNB–GSH conjugate formed / min / mg protein)</td>
<td>6.75 ± 0.34</td>
<td>5.54 ± 0.84b</td>
<td>6.02 ± 0.38b</td>
<td>5.28 ± 0.56b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPx (μ g glutathione consumed / min / mg protein)</td>
<td>7.54 ± 0.48</td>
<td>6.08 ± 0.54b</td>
<td>7.32 ± 0.58c</td>
<td>7.10 ± 0.21b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAT (μ mol of H2O2 consumed / min / mg protein)</td>
<td>39.56 ± 1.35</td>
<td>62.56 ± 3.12b</td>
<td>37.20 ± 1.52c</td>
<td>64.24 ± 2.45c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOD (U min / mg / Hb) Erythrocytes</td>
<td>3.32 ± 0.62y</td>
<td>5.25 ± 0.84b</td>
<td>6.36 ± 0.43c</td>
<td>4.28 ± 0.24b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The values represent the means ± S. D. for six rats per group. \( P < 0.05 \), \( P < 0.01 \) and \( P < 0.001 \) compared to diabetic control group, \( P < 0.01 \), \( P < 0.001 \) as compared to normal; SOD: superoxide dismutase; GSH: glutathione; GPx: glutathione peroxidase; GST: glutathione–S-transferase; CAT: Catalase.

Figure 1. Histopathology of pancreas

(72.16 – 2.96 mg/ dl as compared to diabetic control 153.66 – 5.24 mg/ dl) \( P < 0.001 \) and triglycerides level (67.83 – 3.67 mg/ dl as compared to diabetic control 115.66 – 3.94) \( P < 0.001 \).

3.3 In vivo antioxidant activity

The activities of GPx and GST were observed to decrease significantly in diabetic rats. The activities of enzymatic and levels of non–enzymatic antioxidant were significantly decreased in diabetic rats. After 21 days treatment with 500mg/kg of ASEt significantly increased GPx level (8.72 – 0.65 in liver \( P < 0.001 \) and 7.32 – 0.58 in kidney \( P < 0.01 \)) than diabetic control (5.32 – 0.14 in liver and 5.12 – 1.25 in kidney). After oral administration of ASEt significantly increase the level of SOD in erythrocytes, CAT & GSH in both liver and kidney at higher doses 500 mg/kg \( P < 0.001 \) as compared to diabetic control rats. (Table 3).

3.4. Histopathological studies

Microscopically examined pancreas section of control group (Figure 1A) showed Islets are normal. The architecture is preserved. The acini are lined by round to oval cells with moderate cytoplasm and small round to oval nuclei where as in diabetic control group (Figure 1B) Islets shows depletion of cells. The architecture is preserved. The acini are lined
by round to oval cells with moderate cytoplasm and small round to oval nuclei. In case of extract 250 mg/kg treated group (Figure 1C) the architecture is partially effaced. The islets are normal. The acinar cells are normal. There is a mild and diffuse infiltrate of lymphocytes within the stroma. 50% ethanolic extract 500 mg/kg treated group (Figure 1D), the architecture is normal. The islets show depletion of the acinar cell. The acinar cells show moderate cytoplasm and round to oval nuclei. There is no evidence of inflammation while in standard treated group (Figure 1E), there is mild infiltrate of lymphocytes at some foci. The acini are lined by round to oval cells with moderate cytoplasm and small round to oval nuclei.

4. Discussion

Type II diabetes is characterized by a progressive loss of β−cell function and oxidative stress that results in deterioration of glucose control, which increases the incidence of diabetes related complications. More than 60% of the world’s population with diabetes will come from Asia, because it remains the world’s most populous region [18]. The oxidative stress, a key factor in the progression and development of diabetes and its late−complications, is mediated through the diabetogenic action of streptozotocin as well as chronic hyperglycemia. Administration of the diabetogenic dose of STZ to rats causes a decrease in body weight; however, this is attenuated by pretreatment of animals with nicotinamide [19−20]. Numerous studies have also demonstrated that the STZ−induced increase in blood glucose is significantly blunted when nicotinamide is administered prior to STZ. The advantageous effect of NA on blood glucose is due to the protection of B−cells against STZ−induced injury and is accompanied by increased blood insulin [21−22]. Secondary metabolites like alkaloid, flavonoid and saponins suppressed the glucose level, reduced plasma cholesterol and triglycerides significantly and increased their hepatic glucokinase activity probably by enhancing the insulin release from pancreatic islets [23]. The 50% ethanolic extracts have been chosen because of its expected flavonoid, alkaloid contents that were reported to have antidiabetic activity. In the present study, STZ treatment caused a significant depletion of both non−enzymatic and enzymatic antioxidants of liver and kidney tissues [24]. SOD is an enzymatic antioxidant which reduces superoxide radical to hydrogen peroxide, CAT in turn involved in the reduction of hydrogen peroxide. A decrease in the activities of these antioxidant enzymes in tissues can lead to the formation of superoxide anion and hydrogen peroxide which can later form hydroxyl radical. GSH−metabolizing enzymes, GPx and GST work in concert with glutathione in the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide and other organic hydroperoxides to non−toxic products, respectively, at the expense of reduced glutathione. Reduced activities of GPx and GST observed were due to inactivation of these enzymes by reactive oxygen species. Treatment with A. spinosus showed increased activities of enzymatic antioxidants, which might be due to the presence of flavonoids. Flavonoids present in the leaf−extract scavenge the free radicals generated during diabetes, as they are well known for their antioxidant properties.[25] GSH, a major endogenous antioxidative agent, involve in the conjugation of several types of compounds, protect cells from toxic effects and maintain the cellular redox status. In the present study, the decrease in GSH level in tissues is due to increased utilization by tissues or due to decreased synthesis and increased degradation of GSH by oxidative stress. The observed decrease in the concentration of GSH in the diabetic liver and kidney is consistent with earlier report [26]. Oral administration of A. spinosus increased the GSH levels in diabetic rats, might be due to inhibition of lipid peroxidation process. The structure of diabetic pancreas showed considerable reduction in the islets langerhans and depleted islets. After the administration of extract, the pancreatic cells showed average appearance same as normal control group. All the above observations suggest that A. spinosus can be a promising antidiabetic and antioxidant drug.

As a conclusion, it could be cogitated that the observed antihyperglycemic activity of Amaranthus spinosus leaves might be related to the presence of flavonoids, sterols and alkaloids as active constituents. The current analysis has also opened a path for further research especially with reference to the development of potent herbal formulation for diabetes mellitus from Amaranthus spinosus leaves.

Conflict of interest statement

We declare that we have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgement

The authors sincerely thank United Institute of Pharmacy, Allahabad, for providing all the animal house facilities to carry out clinical studies and acknowledge funding support from the Department of Pharmacognosy UIP, 6103−11−P−003, UCER Fund Support.

References


