Advances in Bioresearch Adv. Biores., Vol 16 (3) May 2025: 163-178 ©2025 Society of Education, India Print ISSN 0976-4585; Online ISSN 2277-1573 Journal's URL:http://www.soeagra.com/abr.html CODEN: ABRDC3 DOI: 10.15515/abr.0976-4585.16.3.163178

### **REVIEW ARTICLE**

### Advancing Diabetes Treatment: Neuroprotective Roles of Medicinal Plant Extracts

Shweta Chandel<sup>1</sup>, Bablu Malhotra<sup>2</sup> and Indu Sharma<sup>2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Zoology, NIMS Institute of Allied Medical Science and Technology (NIAMST), NIMS University, Jaipur- 303121, Rajasthan, India

Department of Biotechnology NIMS Institute of Allied Medical Science and Technology (NIAMST), NIMS

University, Jaipur- 303121, Rajasthan, India

\*Corresponding author's Email: indu.sharma@nimsuniversity.org

#### ABSTRACT

T2DM is a chronic metabolic disorder characterized by resistance to insulin and high blood sugar, which presents with a broad range of complications, extending to impaired cognitive performance. Cognitive decline in patients with T2DM is multifactorial, entailing insulin resistance in the brain, oxidative stress, neuroinflammation, and vascular damage. Current pharmacological interventions aim at glycaemic control, and a minimal likelihood exists of affecting cognitive outcomes while managing T2DM-related cognitive dysfunction remains a huge challenge. To assess the effects of different strategies for managing Type 2 diabetes mellitus on cognitive function and the incidence of dementia. Since monotherapy frequently doesn't work after a while, several medications are required for good glycaemic control. Recent studies have pointed out that combination therapies, a mixture of traditional antidiabetic drugs with medicinal plants, could be a better holistic approach to the management of glycemic levels and cognitive decline. Medicinal plants like curcumin, Ashwagandha, Amla, Jamun, and berberine enhance conventional antidiabetic treatments by providing neuroprotection and improving insulin sensitivity, potentially mitigating cognitive dysfunction in T2DM patients through multiple pathways. This review explores combining conventional antidiabetic drugs with medicinal plants for managing T2DM and cognitive impairment. Key considerations include drug-herb interactions, extract standardization and personalized treatments. It highlights the need for clinical trials to assess such integrative therapy's safety, efficacy, and long-term benefits.

**Keywords:** Type 2 diabetes mellitus, cognitive impairment, Combination therapy, Medicinal Plants, Neuroprotection, Insulin resistance.

Received 20.03.2025

Revised 12.05.2025

Accepted 29.05.2025

#### How to cite this article:

Shweta C, Bablu M and Indu S Advancing Diabetes Treatment: Neuroprotective Roles of Medicinal Plant Extracts. Adv. Biores., Vol 16 (3) May 2025: 163-178.

#### INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus is the most diverting disease that can affect multiple organs in human beings. Diabetes is the most causative end-stage renal disease in the United States and is also a common cause of vision loss, neuropathy, and cardiovascular disease [1]. It is a group of chronic diseases characterized by high blood sugar levels due to the body's inability to produce or effectively use insulin. There are two main types: Type 1 Diabetes: an autoimmune condition where the pancreas produces little to no insulin. It often develops in childhood or adolescence [2]. Type 2 diabetes is more prevalent and often strikes adults. It is linked to obesity, inactivity, and hereditary factors and involves insulin resistance. It has been shown that patients with both type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus have cognitive impairments that are related to their condition. Diabetes can have various effects on cognitive abilities. i.e. Blood sugar levels: Variations in blood sugar levels, whether high (hyperglycemia) or low (hypoglycemia), can affect cognitive function and cause issues with memory, focus, and decision-making. ii. Chronic inflammation: The inflammatory processes that impact cognitive performance and brain health are linked to neurodegeneration. iii. Oxidative stress: This condition can be brought on by high glucose levels, which harm neurons and impair cognition [3]. Diabetes has the potential to damage blood vessels, which raises

the risk of stroke and lowers blood supply to the brain, both of which can enhance cognitive loss. Hormonal imbalances brought on by it disturb the balance of hormones that affect cognition, including insulin, which is critical for proper brain function. Dementia and cognitive impairment are more likely to occur in older persons with diabetes, especially in those whose illness has been present longer. The cognitive impairment may also be exacerbated by conditions like obesity and hypertension, which are frequently linked to diabetes. Even with extensive study, the pathogenesis of this problem remains unclear, and the best ways to identify, manage, and prevent cognitive impairment in diabetes need to be discovered [4]. Furthermore, the area of diabetes-related cognitive impairment is still in its infancy. Remember that the processes underlying the relationship between diabetes and cognitive impairment are currently being investigated, despite the fact that there have been several important contributions on the subject and numerous theories based on it [5].

#### **DIABETES AND COGNITIVE FUNCTION**

Type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) have both been linked to aberrant brain MRI structural and functional features as well as decreased performance on several cognitive function domains [6]. Even in the very early stages of diabetes, cognitive abnormalities can arise, and the metabolic syndrome makes them worse. The kind and severity of cognitive impairment may vary depending on the length of diabetes and glycaemic management, but we are still unable to identify who is most at risk of cognitive impairment. Although a failure in any of the interconnected pathways eventually results in discordance in metabolic signalling, the pathophysiology of cognitive impairment is multifaceted. Because type 2 diabetes is becoming more common and people are living longer, diabetesrelated cognitive impairment may pose a significant threat to the need for future health resources. Understanding the disease's pathogenesis and identifying the molecular targets and pathways that might eventually result in more effective treatment. Two of the biggest public health issues facing our aging population are dementia and type 2 diabetes, or diabetes for short. Globally, 374 million people have prediabetes and 463 million adults have diabetes [6]. 50 million individuals have dementia at the same time. Diabetes is linked to vascular damage, which can exacerbate Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia. Due to its effects on brain blood flow and neurodegeneration, type 2 diabetes has been linked to an increased risk of dementia, according to research. It is estimated that 20% of individuals 65 years of age or older have cognitive impairment, which is frequently a prodromal stage of dementia. Type 2 diabetes is characterized by insulin resistance, which has been linked to dementia and cognitive impairment. Chronic hyperglycemia causes oxidative stress and neuroinflammation, which impede cognitive function. Because of these instances, around one-third will proceed to dementia within five years. Alzheimer's disease is characterized by amyloid-beta buildup and tau phosphorylation, two brain pathologies that diabetes exacerbates. A well-known risk factor for dementia that almost doubles the risk is diabetes (Fig. 1) [7].

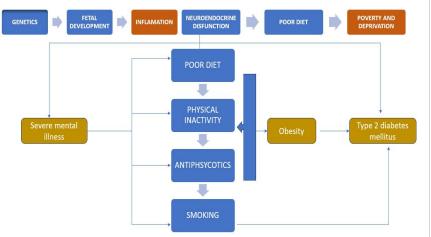
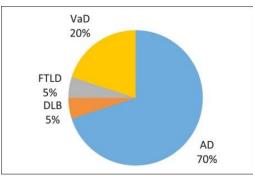


Figure 1: Severe mental illness and Type 2 Diabetes mellitus: Pathology.

#### **DEMENTIA AND ALZIEMERS**

When memory, logic, or other cognitive abilities deteriorate, a set of symptoms known as dementia occurs. Dementia can be of several forms and be brought on by a wide range of illnesses. When many

dementia types manifest simultaneously in the brain, it is referred to as mixed dementia. Alzheimer's disease is the most common cause of dementia, accounting for 60-80% of dementia cases. Alzheimer's is a degenerative brain disease that is caused by complex brain changes following cell damage. It leads to dementia symptoms that gradually worsen over time. The most prevalent sign is difficulty recalling new knowledge since the brain region linked to learning is usually affected first by the condition. Intracellular neurofibrillary tangles of hyperphosphorylated tau protein and extracellular depositions of  $\beta$ -amyloid, which constitute the majority of senile plaque, are the neuropathological hallmarks of Alzheimer's disease (AD) [8]. A new research framework focussing on diagnosing AD using three biomarkers was recently revealed by the National Institute on Aging and Alzheimer's Association (NIA-AA) [9]. The biomarkers were categorized into tau and  $\beta$ -amyloid. The disparity between the severity of brain dysfunction and its clinical symptoms is the source of cognitive reserve (CR). Individual vulnerability to age-related brain alterations or AD-related brain neuropathology is taken into consideration by the reserve concept. CR is measured using surrogate lifestyle markers, although they have several innate shortcomings. As we have shown before, the model that represents the entire neuropathology of AD (A-T-N) may also represent the neurodegeneration (A/T/N) and the characteristics of CR in a cross-sectional study protein. Numerous underlying pathophysiological processes may be the cause of the clinical condition of dementia, which is marked by new functional dependency based on gradual cognitive deterioration. The most prevalent of them are frontotemporal lobar dementia (FTLD; 5%), dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB; 5%), vascular dementia (VaD; 20%), and Alzheimer's disease (AD; 50–75%) (Fig. 2) [10]. Their relative rates are best estimates due to the substantial clinical and pathological overlap between these processes 1, 6. Huntingdon's illness, Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, HIV/AIDS, and multiple sclerosis are less frequent causes (3%) than the others.



**Figure 2:** Prevalence of major dementia subtypes. Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common form of dementia (70%), followed by vascular dementia (VaD; 20%), dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB; 5%), and frontotemporal lobar dementia (FTLD; 5%). These conditions are associated with various underlying pathophysiological mechanisms, contributing to progressive cognitive decline and functional impairment.

The less common causes (3%) include Huntingdon's disease, Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, HIV/AIDS, and multiple sclerosis [11]. The clinical characteristics of these illnesses will be discussed first, followed by their pathological aspects. Memory, executive function, language, visuospatial ability, personality, and behavior are the five primary categories into which cognitive deficits important to the diagnosis of dementia can be divided. Any type of dementia will eventually deepen and spread its cognitive deficits, affecting additional domains and increasing functional impairment [11]. Identifying dementias with distinct aetiologies might therefore prove challenging as they progress (Table 1). In the initial phases, nonetheless, the arrangement of noticeable symptoms can aid in determining the most probable underlying pathophysiological mechanism. It is important to look for neuropsychiatric signs. Cognitive deficits can result from depression or be caused by it, and symptoms like delusions and hallucinations are frequently not reported until certain questions are asked [12].

#### INSULIN RESISTANCE AND DYSREGULATION

Insulin resistance and dysregulation are strongly linked to cognitive impairment in individuals with diabetes. Insulin's cognitive effects depend on brain areas that house insulin receptors (IRs), notably the frontal cortex and the hippocampus [18]. Because IRs are found all across the brain, insulin and insulin-like growth factor 1 can function biologically. Diabetes is characterised by insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia, which have a deleterious effect on amyloid formation and processing. This results in tau hyperphosphorylation, decreased  $\beta$ -amyloid clearance, and increased intraneuronal  $\beta$ -amyloid

accumulation. Insulin resistance affects blood-brain barrier integrity and cognitive performance at the same time [19]. Moreover, chronic low-grade inflammation, or "meta-inflammation," frequently coexists with insulin resistance. Neuroinflammation may result from an inflammatory illness, which can also affect the brain. There are several cognitive problems linked to chronic neuroinflammation [20].

	cognitive inpan ment (Type 5 trabetes).				
Stage	Description	Examples of Factors	References		
Upstream Risk Factors	Early risk factors contributing to metabolic dysregulation and cognitive	- Genetics (e.g., family history of diabetes)	[13]		
	impairment risk	- Age - Lifestyle (e.g., poor diet, lack of exercise)			
Metabolic Precursors	Metabolic dysfunctions that precede the development of T2D and cognitive decline	- Insulin resistance - Obesity - Dyslipidemia - Chronic inflammation	[14]		
Pathways	Biological mechanisms linking metabolic precursors to cognitive impairment and T2D	<ul> <li>Impaired glucose metabolism</li> <li>Increased oxidative stress</li> <li>Reduced insulin signaling in the brain</li> </ul>	[15]		
Subclinical Pathology	Early pathological changes observed before the onset of full disease	<ul> <li>Mild cognitive impairment (MCI)</li> <li>Brain atrophy</li> <li>Microvascular damage (e.g., cerebral vasculature)</li> </ul>	[16]		
Disease Outcome	The manifestation of clinical symptoms of T2D and Type 3 diabetes (cognitive impairment)	- Type 2 diabetes - Alzheimer's disease-like cognitive impairment (Type 3 diabetes) - Dementia	[17]		

Table 1: The model table for the potential association between Type 2 diabetes (T2D) andcognitive impairment (Type 3 diabetes):

This table outlines the potential pathway linking Type 2 diabetes with cognitive impairment, often described as Type 3 diabetes, in terms of upstream risks, metabolic precursors, and outcomes.

#### CASE STUDY

Acute and temporary cognitive disturbances linked to hyperglycemia are frequently reported by diabetic patients. Such impacts could have an impact on daily functioning and quality of life. They could also reveal indicators that help patients recognize hyperglycemia earlier [21]. A hospital clamp trial observed a significant slowing of visual reaction time at a blood glucose level of 16.7 mmol/L; however, this effect was not reproducible when using an auditory reaction-time task. Additionally, cognitive performance deficits, including a 9.5% reduction in IQ, were associated with blood glucose levels in the 20–30 mmol/L range among children with type 1 diabetes. At a blood glucose level of 16.7 mmol/L, a hospital clamp study found a substantial shortening of visual reaction time; however, this effect was not replicable when employing an auditory reaction-time test. Furthermore, in children with type 1 diabetes, blood glucose levels in the 20–30 mmol/L range were linked to cognitive performance abnormalities, including a 9.5% decrease in IQ. In 67% of the kids surveyed, performance IQ declined. tested cognitive performance in persons with type 2 diabetes using a hyperinsulinic glucose clamp at 14.5 and 16 mmol/l. Tests of cognitive ability, such the four-choice reaction time, showed notable abnormalities with hyperglycemia. On certain neuropsychological tests, other researchers, however, were unable to observe a decline in cognitive-motor performance under hyperglycemia [22].

#### HYPERGLYCEMIA AND COGNITIVE IMPAIRMENT

The lack of a well-defined physiological mechanism explaining how hyperglycemia impairs brain function is a major obstacle to research on the impact of hyperglycemia on cognitive-motor performance, including hypoglycemia and its related neuroglycopenia [23]. Nonetheless, studies point to a number of potential processes. Short-term hyperglycemia can lead to microvascular disruption in the blood-brain barrier. Some theories include variations in insulin availability to the brain or changed synthesis or reuptake of monoamine neurotransmitters as a result of altered precursor availability to the brain. Uncontrolled diabetic may have complex impacts on peptide neurotransmitters [24]. Each of these mechanisms might not be enough on its own, and some of them might work better together than others. Currently, no precise mechanism or mechanisms that may be responsible for potential short-term cognitive impairment can be concluded. Verifying hyperglycemia's disruptive effects on cognitive-motor functioning is necessary before delving into potential physiological explanations [25].

This study specifically tests three hypotheses: i) hyperglycemia is linked to cognitive-motor dysfunctions; ii) hyperglycemia impairs cognitive-motor functioning in adults with type 1 or type 2 diabetes; and, iii) hyperglycemia-related disruptions to cognitive-motor functioning are specific to each individual. The last hypothesis is based on our earlier discoveries that the glycaemic threshold for incidence and individual vulnerability of symptoms and cognitive motor disturbances linked to hypoglycemia vary (12–14) [26].

#### **COGNITIVE IMPAIRMENT**

Diabetic brain damage is mostly impacted by its effects on the microvascular and macrovascular systems [27]. Microvascular problems such as diabetic retinopathy, neuropathy, and nephropathy are caused by hyperglycemia. Cardiovascular and cerebrovascular disorders are examples of macrovascular problems. Diabetes impairs the integrity of the neurovascular units that control cerebral blood flow. The transport of nutrients to nerve tissue is impacted by structural alterations in the microvasculature, such as capillary reduction and arteriovenous shortcuts [26]. This increases the brain's vulnerability to oxygen deficiency, which may result in cognitive decline. Chronic hyperglycemia is a hallmark of the metabolic illness diabetes mellitus (DM). The eyes, kidneys, heart, and brain are just a few of the organs that might be negatively impacted by DM's secondary consequences [28]. Cognitive impairment is the most frequent consequence of hyperglycemia on the brain. According to estimates, 20–70% of DM patients experience cognitive impairments. Cognitive impairment is the most frequent consequence of hyperglycemia on the brain. According to estimates, 20–70% of DM patients experience cognitive impairments. Important brain regions that are involved in memory, learning, and spatial navigation are impacted by high blood sugar, and the brain's anatomical complexity predisposes it to several pathological conditions, including type 2 diabetes. According to studies, diabetics may experience cognitive deterioration that goes unnoticed for vears at a time. Additionally, extensive impacts on several brain regions are shown by studies on brain imaging in T2D patients. Whether hyperglycemia or a co-occurring T2D issue is the cause of diabetesassociated cognitive deterioration is yet unknown. The precise processes that cause diabetes-related cognitive impairment are not well understood, although aberrant insulin action and poor glucose metabolism are likely major contributors. The impact of hyperglycemia on the structure and functioning of the brain, as well as the possible mechanisms driving T2DM-associated cognitive deterioration, have all been attempted to be summarised in this study [28].

#### **TYPE 2 DIABETES AND COGNITIVE DECLINE**

For every cell in the body, glucose serves as its principal energy source. The brain uses around 20% of daily energy intake, even though it only makes up 2% of the body weight [29]. Neurons need twice as much energy as other body cells because they must be constantly active to govern vital processes necessary for the body to survive. Beyond their essential roles, neurons are also active during sleep to regulate the sleep-wake cycle [28]. Thus, normal brain metabolism, brain viability, cerebral signal conduction, cognitive function, neurotransmission, and synaptic plasticity all depend on an uninterrupted supply of glucose [30]. Even though the brain depends heavily on glucose, chronic and severe hyperglycemia can be dangerous. Numerous studies have demonstrated the detrimental effects of diabetes on the hippocampal tissue and the promotion of neuronal death through a variety of pathways [31]. The limbic system's hippocampus, which is involved in memory as well as emotional, reproductive, and adaptive processes, is especially susceptible to high blood sugar. It also aids in the creation of new memories and the recollection of feelings and senses, such as sound and scent. The hippocampus functions as a marker for memory, guiding memories to the appropriate area of the brain for retrieval and long-term storage [32]. The hippocampus is susceptible to numerous clinical conditions, including type 2 diabetes, due to its intricate anatomical structure [33]. Because of its intricate structural makeup, the hippocampal region is vulnerable to several pathological conditions, including type 2 diabetes. Type 2 diabetes contributes to cognitive decline through mechanisms such as insulin resistance, chronic inflammation, and vascular dysfunction, leading to neurodegeneration (Fig. 3). All during life, the dentate gyrus's (DG) granular layer multiplies. Anything that throws off the balance between neuronal death and proliferation in the DG region might lead to memory and learning issues. Additionally, in the CA3 area and the DG, hyperglycemia causes neuronal death (necrosis/apoptosis) and inhibits the proliferation of granular cells [28].

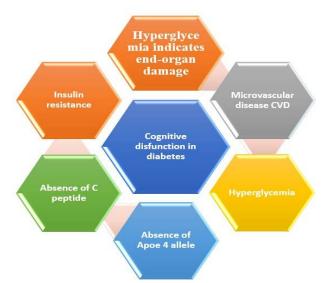


Figure 3. Pathophysiology of cognitive dysfunction in diabetes.

#### MECHANISMS UNDERLYING HYPERGLYCEMIA-INDUCED COGNITIVE IMPAIRMENT

In the hippocampal environment of diabetic mice, multiple preclinical investigations have reported a significant increase in apoptotic markers such as Bcl-2, Bcl-xl, Bax, and caspase 3 [34]. The most essential member of the caspases family, caspase-3, was found to have significantly increased activity in the hippocampus of STZ-induced diabetic rats [35]. Mitochondria may be responsible for the hyperglycemia-induced apoptosis in the diabetic rats' hippocampal tissues because of the considerable reduction in Bcl xL and Bcl 2 expression in these diabetic rats [35]. Multiple *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have revealed that diabetic mice experience hippocampal cell death, which may play a crucial role in memory and learning issues [36].

## HYPERGLYCEMIA ALTERS MOOD STATE AND IMPAIRS COGNITIVE PERFORMANCE IN PEOPLE WITH TYPE 2 DIABETES

Those with type 2 diabetes showed worsening mood and decreased cognitive performance after acute hyperglycemia. Because type 2 diabetics frequently experience intermittent or chronic hyperglycemia, which can negatively impact mood and cognitive function and interfere with numerous everyday tasks, these findings are practically significant [37]. Glucose levels in people with diabetes fluctuate quickly. Hypoglycemia is a common side effect of insulin administration and other antidiabetic drugs, while hyperglycemia is a common consequence of the relative or absolute insulin deficit that is inherent to diabetes [38]. Variations in blood glucose content have an immediate impact on cerebral function since the brain uses glucose continuously as its primary energy source. Acute hypoglycemia is known to have negative effects on mood and cognitive performance. Less is known, though, regarding how acute hyperglycemia affects brain function. Anecdotal accounts from diabetic patients indicate that mood swings (including heightened irritation and a sense of impaired well-being) and difficulties with fast thought occur when blood glucose levels are elevated [39].

Evidence from two research shows that during hyperglycemia as opposed to euglycemia, there are deficits in verbal abilities and IQ. According to other research, acute hyperglycemia has little influence on mood or cognitive performance. Because the study groups had chronically poor metabolic control, cerebral adaptation to the high blood glucose concentrations that were prevalent may have occurred. However, the study only employed two tests to assess cognitive function. Subsequent research revealed that in non-diabetic patients, short-term hyperglycemia (blood glucose concentration 17.1 mmol/l) with physiological hyperinsulinemia was linked to decreased motor latency and higher sensory nerve conduction velocity [40].

Prior research has only included individuals with type 1 diabetes. There is mounting evidence that individuals with type 2 diabetes have an increased risk of cognitive impairment (Table 2). This is most likely the result of the interaction between the structural and functional changes that the aging process causes to the central nervous system, and the metabolic disturbances linked to diabetes. Short-term variations in blood glucose levels may put people with type 2 diabetes at risk for cognitive impairment.

This study looked at how acute hyperglycemia affected several critical cognitive functions and essential emotional states in a group of type 2 diabetics [41]. Several mechanisms explain the link between type 2 diabetes and cognitive impairment, including insulin resistance, vascular damage, and Inflammation (Table 2).

Table 2: Mechanisms Linking Type 2 Diabetes and Cognitive Impairment.					
Mechanism	Link Between Type 2 Diabetes & Cognitive Impairment	References			
Insulin Resistance	Insulin resistance in the brain impairs glucose metabolism, reducing energy supply to neurons, which leads to cognitive decline and dementia, especially Alzheimer's disease.	[42]			
Hyperglycemia	Chronic high blood sugar can damage blood vessels and neurons in the brain, contributing to neurodegeneration, cognitive decline, and vascular dementia.	[43]			
Oxidative Stress	High glucose levels increase oxidative stress, leading to neuronal damage and inflammation, which accelerates cognitive decline and neurodegenerative diseases.	[44]			
Inflammation	T2DM induces chronic inflammation, which can affect brain structures like the hippocampus and increase the risk of dementia and cognitive decline.	[45]			
Vascular Damage	Diabetes damages small and large blood vessels, reducing cerebral blood flow, causing ischemia and increasing the risk of vascular dementia and stroke-related cognitive decline.	[46]			
Amyloid β Deposition	Insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia may promote amyloid $\beta$ deposition in the brain, a hallmark of Alzheimer's disease, linking T2DM with cognitive impairment.	[47]			
Advanced Glycation End-Products (AGEs)	AGEs accumulate in diabetic patients, contributing to oxidative stress and inflammation, which leads to cognitive decline and brain aging.	[48]			
Cerebral Atrophy	Chronic hyperglycemia and insulin resistance are associated with brain atrophy, particularly in regions involved in memory and cognition, such as the hippocampus.	[49]			
Mitochondrial Dysfunction	Impaired insulin signaling affects mitochondrial function, leading to reduced energy production, neurodegeneration, and cognitive impairment in T2DM patients.	[50]			
Hypoglycemia Episodes	Frequent episodes of hypoglycemia in diabetes patients may cause neuronal damage and cognitive deficits, particularly in older adults.	[51]			

#### Table 2: Mechanisms Linking Type 2 Diabetes and Cognitive Impairment.

#### **COGNITIVE FUNCTION TESTS**

Validated tests of information processing, tests of memory, and tests of attention were administered during each study condition.

#### Test of Information Processing

Trail-Building B. This handheld computer-based test evaluates motor skills in addition to complicated visual scanning [52].

#### Digit-Symbol Examination

This code was written quickly for testing purposes.

#### **Reaction Time Evaluation**

This is an information processing and psychomotor speed test. Together with the coefficient of variation, the SDs of the Simple and Four-Choice Reaction Times were computed to provide an indication of intraindividual variability [53].

#### **Tests of Memory**

The study's memory and learning assessments were selected based on prior research demonstrating their susceptibility to metabolic disruptions like hypoglycemia [54].

#### Verbal Memory Tests

**i.** Auditory Verbal Learning Test, immediate and delayed. This is a test of immediate memory capacity, retrieval efficiency, and learning. The delayed component measures longer-term retention.

ii. Logical Memory Test, immediate and delayed. The Logical Memory test, a test of verbal learning, measures immediate and delayed recall following auditory presentation [55].

#### **Tests of Visual Memory**

Instant and delayed visual reproduction. After a nonverbal visual presentation, this exam assesses both immediate and delayed recall. Second, the Benton Visual Retention Test. This exam measures instantaneous visual recollection [56].

#### Working memory exercises

i. Digit Forward and Backward Span. Throughout the exam, the participant is given verbal presentations of a variety of items that get longer and longer.

ii. Number/Letter Sequencing. Voice presentations are made of many lists containing both numbers and letters [57].

#### **Tests of Attention**

The attention was assessed using the Test of Everyday Attention battery, which includes measures for divided, sustained, auditory, visual, and attention switching [58]. To reduce any learning impact between the two research conditions, parallel versions of the Auditory Verbal Learning Test, Logical Memory, Benton Visual Retention Test, and Test of Everyday Attention battery were employed in this investigation. The battery of tests was administered in a predetermined order over the duration of the trial [59].

#### HERBAL FORMULATIONS IN MEDICINE

Diabetes medication has long been administered with Momordica charantia Linn. [60]. The goal of the current study was to develop and assess transdermal patches containing Momordica charantia Linn. Using hydroxy propyl methyl cellulose as a polymer, transdermal films containing the herbal medicinal component separated from ethanolic extract of *M. charantia* fruits were created. The films were assessed for stability tests, biochemical investigations, acute and sub-acute antihyperglycemic activity in diabetic rats, folding endurance, thickness, weight change, drug contents, and in vitro diffusion studies [61]. Transdermal patches of *M. charantia* (2 cm<sup>2</sup>; 10 mg/patch) were reported to weigh 0.03 gm. It was discovered that the thickness of the *M. charantia* patches (2 cm<sup>2</sup>; 10 mg/patch) was adequate. After 6 hours, the percentage release of active ingredients from *M. charantia* transdermal patches (10 mg/patch; 2 cm<sup>2</sup>) was found to be 47.59% in 10% hydroalcoholic phosphate buffer pH 7.4.The transdermal approach caused very little skin discomfort, and the in vivo findings showed that the patches effectively lower blood glucose levels. It was determined that using contemporary pharmaceutical formulation processes, the well-known herbal remedy *M. charantia* Linn. was proven to be helpful for diabetes [61]. A list of herbal medications used in the treatment of diabetes as well as medicinal plants with demonstrated antidiabetic and related therapeutic effects is compiled. These include *Phyllanthus amarus, Pterocarpus* marsupium, Tinospora cordifolia, Eugenia jambolana, Momordica charantia, Ocimum sanctum, Withania somnifera, and Trigonella foenum graecum [62]. Free radical damage is one of the etiologic factors linked to the development of diabetes and its consequences, so an antidiabetic molecule with antioxidant characteristics would be more advantageous. In Indian traditional health care systems, there are several medicinal plants known as rasayana that have been utilised for over a millennium. The majority of medical professionals in Indian systems create and administer their own concoctions [63]. 21,000 plants are registered by the World Health Organisation (WHO) as being used medicinally worldwide. Of these 2500 species, 150 are used on a reasonably considerable scale in commercial settings in India. India is known as the world's botanical paradise and is the world's largest producer of medicinal plants. The current research focuses on plant preparations and herbal medication used to treat diabetes mellitus, a serious illness that cripples people worldwide and causes enormous financial losses (Table 3) [62]. Natural goods made from fruits and vegetables; nutraceuticals offer a number of health advantages. Over the past 20 years, natural substances like flavonoids that have antidiabetic properties have drawn scientific attention [64]. Flavonoids, which have antiviral, antiallergic, antibacterial, and antiinflammatory properties, are regarded as a class of physiologically active secondary metabolites of plants called pigment makers that give flowers their colour and scent. Additionally, they function as antioxidants, which prevent disease by counteracting the effects of nitrogen and oxygen species and reducing oxidative stress in the body. The modulation of glucose absorption, insulin signalling, insulin secretion, adipose deposition, and carbohydrate digestion is all supported by flavonoids' antidiabetic action [65]. They target many molecules involved in the regulation of several pathways, such as boosting insulin secretion, lowering apoptosis, improving  $\beta$ -cell proliferation, and alleviating hyperglycemia by controlling the liver's metabolism of glucose. The major liver, colon, and intestinal enzymes are hydrolysed and conjugated by flavonoids [66] flavonoids (from plant sources), which may help reduce brain inflammation.

		clinical evidences.		-
Herbal Medicine	Mechanism/Action	Experimental Evidence	Clinical Evidence	References
<i>Curcuma longa</i> (Turmeric)	Anti-inflammatory, improves insulin sensitivity	Curcumin improves insulin resistance and reduces oxidative stress in animal models of diabetes	Limited clinical trials show improvement in cognitive function and glucose control in diabetic patients	[67]
Ginkgo biloba	Antioxidant, neuroprotective, improves blood circulation	Ginkgo biloba has shown improvements in cognitive function in diabetic models with cognitive impairment	Some clinical trials report modest cognitive improvements in diabetic patients with mild cognitive impairment	[68]
Panax ginseng	Enhances insulin sensitivity, reduces oxidative stress	Animal models show improved glucose metabolism and reduced amyloid beta accumulation in brain	Clinical studies report improved glucose levels and cognitive function in diabetes patients	[69]
Bacopa monnieri (Brahmi)	Antioxidant, neuroprotective, improves memory	Improves memory and cognitive function in diabetic models with cognitive impairment	Limited clinical trials suggest improvements in cognitive function in diabetes patients	[70]
Cinnamomum verum (Cinnamon)	Improves insulin sensitivity, anti- inflammatory	Animal studies show reduced blood glucose levels and improved cognitive performance	Some human trials indicate better glucose control and possible cognitive benefits in diabetes patients	[71]
Gymnema sylvestre	Increases insulin production, regenerates beta cells	Improves insulin production and cognitive performance in diabetic animal models	Limited clinical evidence, but preliminary studies suggest better glucose control and memory retention	[72]
Withania somnifera (Ashwagandha)	Anti-inflammatory, anti- hyperglycemic, neuroprotective	Shows improvement in cognitive function and glucose levels in diabetic models	Early clinical trials show potential in improving cognitive function and blood sugar control in type 2 diabetes	[73]
<i>Momordica charantia</i> (Bitter melon)	Enhances insulin sensitivity, reduces glucose levels	Animal studies show improved glucose metabolism and potential cognitive benefits in diabetic models	Limited human trials suggest potential benefits in controlling blood sugar, with limited evidence on cognitive function	[74]
Salvia officinalis (Sage)	Enhances cognitive function, improves insulin sensitivity	Animal models show improved memory and glucose metabolism in diabetes	Early clinical trials suggest modest improvements in cognitive function and glucose levels	[75]
Aloe vera	Reduces blood glucose, improves cognitive function	Improves memory and reduces glucose levels in diabetic animal models	Some human trials show better glucose control and potential cognitive benefits in diabetes patients	[76]
Syzygium cumini (Jamun)	Antioxidant, anti- hyperglycemic, neuroprotective	Animal studies show reduced blood glucose, improved insulin sensitivity, and enhanced memory and cognitive function	Limited human trials; preliminary evidence suggests better blood sugar control and slight cognitive benefits	[77]
Allium cepa (Onion)	Anti-hyperglycemic, antioxidant, anti- inflammatory	Onion extract reduces blood glucose, improves insulin sensitivity, and enhances cognitive function in diabetic models	Early human studies suggest improvement in blood glucose levels, limited evidence on cognitive function	[78]

## Table 3: Mechanisms of herbal medicines for diabetes and cognitive impairment its experimental clinical evidences.

This Table 3 provides an overview of the potential mechanisms and effects of various herbal medicines on diabetes and cognitive impairment, based on available experimental and clinical evidence.

# ANTIDIABETIC ACTIVITY OF POLYHERBAL FORMULATION IN STREPTOZOTOCIN – NICOTINAMIDE INDUCED DIABETIC WISTAR RATS

Synthetic medications can effectively and specifically treat diabetes and cognitive impairments, but they frequently have negative side effects. Alternative or complementary approaches with possible advantages

are provided by herbal remedies and polyherbal mixtures (Table 4). Throughout India, Glycosmis pentaphylla, Tridax procumbens, and Mangifera indica are well-known herbs that are frequently used to cure a variety of ailments, including diabetes mellitus [79]. Though it's unknown what the combined effects will be, the separate plant parts' antidiabetic activity is well documented. Low doses of individual herbs combined with enhanced therapeutic effectiveness from polyherbal compositions lessen side effects. Create a polyherbal formulation and assessing its potential to prevent diabetes in animals is the current study's goal. The stem bark of G. pentaphylla, the entire plant of T. procumbens, and M. indica leaves were ethanol extracted and used to create the polyherbal mixture. G. pentaphylla, T. procumbens, and *M. indica* ethanol extracts are included in the polyherbal formulation in a 2:1:2:1 ratio. The World Health Organization's requirements for the quality control of herbal materials were followed in evaluating the final product's quality [79]. The polyherbal formulation's quality testing parameters were within permissible bounds. The polyherbal formulation's fingerprint analysis demonstrated effective separation at 366 nm and demonstrated that the active chemicals contained therein were identical to those found in all three extracts. In doses up to 2000 mg/kg over 14 days, the polyherbal formulation's acute toxicity trials revealed no adverse effects. The oral antidiabetic effect of the polyherbal formulation (250 and 500 mg/kg) was tested in rats with diabetes mellitus produced by streptozotocin (50 mg/kg; i.p.) + nicotinamide (120 mg/kg; i.p.) [79].

The polyherbal formulation's impact on blood glucose levels was monitored on a regular basis during the course of the investigational drug's 21-day administration. All of the animals' blood samples were taken for biochemical estimate at the conclusion of the study, and the animals were slaughtered so that the liver and pancreas tissues could be taken for histopathologic examination. Significant antidiabetic efficacy was demonstrated by the polyherbal formulation at 250 and 500 mg/kg, respectively, and this impact was similar to glibenclamide. Histopathologic and biochemical analyses corroborate the polyherbal formulation's antidiabetic efficacy [79].

Drug Class	Drug Name	Mechanism of Action	Effect on	Effect on Cognitive	References
D' 'I	<b>N</b> 10		Diabetes	Impairment	[45]
Biguanides	Metformin	Increases insulin sensitivity, reduces hepatic glucose production	Improves glycemic control, reduces insulin resistance	Shown to improve memory and reduce cognitive decline in animal studies	[45]
Thiazolidinediones	Pioglitazone	Activates PPAR-γ to increase insulin sensitivity	Improves insulin sensitivity, lowers blood glucose	Potential neuroprotective effects through reduced inflammation	[80]
GLP-1 Agonists	Liraglutide	Stimulates insulin secretion, inhibits glucagon, slows gastric emptying	Reduces blood glucose, supports weight loss	Shows potential in reducing cognitive decline in Alzheimer's models	[81]
DPP-4 Inhibitors	Sitagliptin	Inhibits DPP-4 enzyme, prolonging action of incretin hormones	Lowers postprandial blood glucose, enhances insulin secretion	May have protective effects on memory through incretin signaling	[82]
SGLT2 Inhibitors	Empagliflozin	Inhibits glucose reabsorption in kidneys, leading to increased glucose excretion	Lowers blood glucose, supports weight loss, reduces cardiovascular risk	Shown to reduce neuroinflammation in preclinical studies	[83]
Insulin Therapy	Insulin	Facilitates cellular glucose uptake	Lowers blood glucose, essential for type 1 and advanced type 2 diabetes	Some studies suggest improved cognitive function with insulin therapy	[84]
Cholinesterase Inhibitors	Donepezil	Inhibits acetylcholinesterase, increasing acetylcholine levels in the brain	No direct effect on diabetes	Improves cognitive function in Alzheimer's disease and cognitive impairment	[85]
Nootropic Agents	Piracetam	Enhances neurotransmission and neuroprotection	No direct effect on diabetes	Improves cognitive function and memory in mild cognitive impairment	[86]

Table 4: Drugs used for the treatment of diab	etes and cognitive impairment.
Tuble II brugs used for the creatment of alub	ceeb and cognicite impairment

This Table 4 presents commonly used drugs for treating diabetes and their potential effects on cognitive impairment.

Combination therapies utilizing polyherbal formulations offer a holistic approach to managing diabetes and its related cognitive impairments (Table 5). Streptozotocin (STZ) is commonly used to induce diabetes in experimental models, leading to increased blood glucose levels and cognitive decline. Polyherbal formulations consist of multiple medicinal plants known for their antidiabetic and neuroprotective properties, such as Ginkgo biloba and *Withania somnifera*, which target metabolic dysregulation and oxidative stress. Studies have shown that administering these formulations results in significant reductions in fasting blood glucose and glycosylated hemoglobin levels, indicating improved glycemic control. Moreover, cognitive function has been observed to improve, as evidenced by enhanced performance in behavioral tests like the Morris Water Maze and Y-Maze, which assess memory and spatial learning. The active compounds within these herbal blends exhibit antioxidant and antiinflammatory effects, addressing the oxidative stress and inflammation that contribute to both diabetes and neurodegeneration. By improving insulin sensitivity and supporting pancreatic function, these therapies address the underlying metabolic dysfunctions associated with diabetes, ultimately mitigating the risk of cognitive impairments. This underscores the potential of integrating polyherbal formulations into comprehensive diabetes management strategies.

Combination Therapy	Mechanism of Action Clinical Findings		
Metformin + Tulsi	Metformin: Increases insulin	The combination improved glycemic	References [93]
(Ocimum sanctum)	sensitivity, and reduces	control, reduced oxidative stress, and	[,0]
(oomun sunctun)	hepatic glucose production.	exhibited protective effects on brain	
	<b>Tulsi</b> : Antioxidant, improves	function in diabetes patients.	
	glucose metabolism and		
	reduces stress.		
Insulin Therapy +	Insulin: Regulates blood	Improved glycemic levels and	[94]
Ashwagandha	glucose.	enhanced cognitive performance in	Γ. ]
(Withania somnifera)	Ashwagandha: Adaptogen,	diabetic patients due to	
	reduces oxidative stress, and	Ashwagandha's neuroprotective	
	enhances neuroprotection.	effects.	
Sulfonylureas + Amla	Sulfonylureas: Stimulate	Clinical trials showed improved blood	[95]
(Emblica officinalis)	insulin secretion.	glucose control and reduced cognitive	
	Amla: Rich in vitamin C,	decline in diabetes patients.	
	reduces oxidative stress, and	_	
	improves glucose metabolism.		
Thiazolidinediones	Pioglitazone: Improves	Enhanced glycemic control and	[96]
(Pioglitazone)	insulin sensitivity.	reduced neuroinflammation observed	
+ Neem (Azadirachta	Neem: Anti-diabetic, reduces	in patients treated with this	
indica)	blood glucose levels, and has	combination.	
	neuroprotective properties.		
DPP-4 Inhibitors	Sitagliptin: Prolongs incretin	Significant improvement in glycemic	[97]
(Sitagliptin)	hormone activity.	control and reduction in	
+ Turmeric (Curcuma	Turmeric (Curcumin):	inflammation, along with cognitive	
longa)	Potent antioxidant and anti-	enhancement in diabetes patients.	
	inflammatory, prevents		
	neurodegeneration.		
Metformin + Jamun	Metformin: Increases insulin	Improved glycemic control, reduced	[98]
(Syzygium cumini)	sensitivity.	oxidative stress, and neuroprotective	
	Jamun: Anti-diabetic,	effects in diabetic patients.	
	regulates blood glucose levels,		
	and protects against oxidative		
Insulin Therapy	damage. Insulin: Regulates blood	Clinical studies showed better	[00]
+ Brahmi ( <i>Bacopa</i>	0		[99]
+ Branni (Bucopu monnieri)	glucose. <b>Brahmi</b> : Enhances cognitive	glycemic levels and significant improvement in memory and	
monnerij	function, reduces oxidative	cognitive functions in diabetes-related	
	stress, and improves neuronal	cognitive impairment.	
	health.	cogmuve impanment.	
Sulfonylureas +	Sulfonylureas: Stimulates	Clinical findings indicate improved	[100]
Fenugreek	insulin secretion.	blood sugar control and enhanced	[100]
(Trigonella foenum-	Fenugreek: Lowers blood	neuroprotection in diabetes patients	
graecum)	glucose levels and has	with mild cognitive impairment.	
graceumy	neuroprotective properties.	with mild cognitive impairment.	
	near oprotective properties.	l	

 Table 5: Indian Herbal Plants in Combination Therapy for Diabetes and Cognitive Impairment.

#### CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the best way to effectively achieve longer-term management of type 2 diabetes is to optimize combination treatment; nevertheless, at this time, a progressive approach is indicated, and combination therapy as an initial approach is not advised. Now, achieving objective standards in both glycemic control and the scope of the processes behind the early onset of macro and microvascular problems in type 2 diabetes is the true difficulty. In this regard, well-tested medications like metformin and sulfonylureas, as well as more recent ones like thiazolidinediones in combination with older and herbal formulations, show promise. The intriguing findings from current clinical research are displayed in Table No 5. The endpoints that have been highlighted, the boxes are meant to serve as thought-provoking places to start further study.

Here's a table summarizing some newer agents and traditional medicinal plants used in combination with conventional diabetes treatments (e.g., sulfonylureas, metformin) for diabetes and diabetes-related cognitive impairment, along with key findings from recent clinical studies.

This table highlights the effects of combining newer antidiabetic agents (e.g., thiazolidinediones) and traditional medicinal plants with conventional treatments like sulfonylureas and metformin. It includes promising clinical results and key references. The management of cognitive impairment in patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) presents a significant clinical challenge, necessitating a more integrated treatment approach. Traditional pharmacological strategies primarily aimed at glycemic control may fall short in addressing the multifaceted nature of cognitive decline associated with diabetes. This review highlights the potential benefits of optimizing combination therapies that incorporate both conventional antidiabetic medications and medicinal plants with neuroprotective properties. By targeting the underlying mechanisms contributing to cognitive dysfunction, such as insulin resistance, oxidative stress, and neuroinflammation, these integrative approaches may enhance patient outcomes and preserve cognitive function.

The combination of traditional Indian herbal plants with standard diabetes treatments appears to hold great promise for improving blood sugar control and reducing complications related to diabetes, such as cognitive decline. Herbs like Tulsi (*Holy basil*), Ashwagandha, Amla, Neem, and Turmeric possess a range of beneficial properties, including antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and neuroprotective effects, which work in harmony with conventional medications. Clinical studies indicate that these herbal combinations not only improve insulin sensitivity and glucose metabolism but also offer protection against oxidative stress and cognitive impairment. Although these findings are encouraging, more clinical trials and mechanistic research are necessary to confirm these combination therapies' safety, effectiveness, and long-term advantages across different groups of people. This holistic approach could potentially lead to the development of affordable and widely accessible treatments for diabetes and its related complications.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Heartfelt thanks to our NIMS University Rajasthan, Jaipur and guide, for their expert guidance, encouragement, and unwavering support throughout the course of this work.

#### **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper

#### REFERENCES

- 1. Thomas MC, Brownlee M, Susztak K, Sharma K, Jandeleit-Dahm KA, Zoungas S, Cooper ME (2015). Diabetic kidney disease. Nat Rev Dis Primers 1(1):1-20.
- 2. Fatkuriyah L, Nafista UF (2025). Barriers on diabetes management adherence in children with type 1 diabetes mellitus: A literature review. J Nurs Periodic 1(3).
- 3. Wondmkun YT (2020). Obesity, insulin resistance, and type 2 diabetes: associations and therapeutic implications. Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes 13:3611-3616.
- 4. Hardigan T, Ward R, Ergul A (2016). Cerebrovascular complications of diabetes: focus on cognitive dysfunction. Clin Sci 130(20):1807-1822.
- 5. Zilliox LA, Chadrasekaran K, Kwan JY, Russell JW (2016). Diabetes and cognitive impairment. Curr Diabetes Rep 16:1-11.
- 6. Livingston G, Huntley J, Sommerlad A, Ames D, Ballard C, Banerjee S, Brayne C, Burns A, Cohen-Mansfield J, Cooper C, Costafreda SG (2020). Dementia prevention, intervention, and care: 2020 report of the Lancet Commission. Lancet 396(10248):413-446.
- 7. Emmady PD, Schoo C, Tadi P (Year unknown). Major neurocognitive disorder (dementia).

- 8. Cunningham EL, McGuinness B, Herron B, Passmore AP (2015). Dementia. Ulster Med J 84(2):79-87.
- 9. Karantzoulis S, Galvin JE (2011). Distinguishing Alzheimer's disease from other major forms of dementia. Expert Rev Neurother 11(11):1579-1591.
- 10. Kahn SE, Cooper ME, Del Prato S (2014). Pathophysiology and treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus. Lancet 383(9911):1066-1078.
- 11. DeFronzo RA (2009). Insulin resistance, lipotoxicity, type 2 diabetes, and atherosclerosis: A scientific statement from the American Heart Association. Circulation 120(3):401-413.
- 12. Hoyer S (2004). The diabetic brain: A new challenge for diabetes research. Diabetes Metab Res Rev 20(5):414-419.
- 13. Stewart R, Liolitsa D (1999). Type 2 diabetes mellitus, cognitive impairment, and dementia. Diabet Med 16(2):93-112.
- 14. Whitmer RA, Gunderson EP, Barrett-Connor E, Quesenberry CP, Yaffe K (2005). Obesity in middle age and future risk of dementia: a 27-year longitudinal population-based study. BMJ 330(7504):1360.
- 15. Sędzikowska A, Szablewski L (2021). Insulin and insulin resistance in Alzheimer's disease. Int J Mol Sci 22(18):9987.
- 16. Tumminia A, Vinciguerra F, Parisi M, Frittitta L (2018). Type 2 diabetes mellitus and Alzheimer's disease: role of insulin signalling and therapeutic implications. Int J Mol Sci 19(11):3306.
- 17. Borovcanin MM, Vesic K, Petrovic I, Jovanovic IP, Mijailović NR (2023). Diabetes mellitus type 2 as an underlying, comorbid or consequent state of mental disorders. World J Diabetes 14(5):481.
- 18. Hardigan T, Ward R, Ergul A (2016). Cerebrovascular complications of diabetes: focus on cognitive dysfunction. Clin Sci 130(20):1807-1822.
- 19. Muhil M, Sembian U, Ethiya N, Muthuselvi K (2014). Study of auditory, visual reaction time and glycemic control (HBA1C) in chronic type II diabetes mellitus. J Clin Diagn Res 8(9):BC11.
- 20. McNay EC, Cotero VE (2010). Mini-review: impact of recurrent hypoglycemia on cognitive and brain function. Physiol Behav 100(3):234-238
- 21. Kumar N, Singh VB, Meena BL, Kumar D, Kumar H, Saini ML, Tiwari A (2018). Mild cognitive impairment in young type 1 diabetes mellitus patients and correlation with diabetes control, lipid profile, and high-sensitivity C-reactive protein. Indian J Endocrinol Metab 22(6):780-784.
- 22. Kodl CT, Seaquist ER (2008). Cognitive dysfunction and diabetes mellitus. Endocr Rev 29(4):494-511.
- 23. Cox DJ, Kovatchev BP, Gonder-Frederick LA, Summers KH, Mccall A, Grimm KJ, Clarke WL (2005). Relationships between hyperglycemia and cognitive performance among adults with type 1 and type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Care 28(1):71-77.
- 24. Cade WT (2008). Diabetes-related microvascular and macrovascular diseases in the physical therapy setting. Phys Ther 88(11):1322-1335.
- 25. Lenck-Santini PP, Scott RC (2015). Mechanisms responsible for cognitive impairment in epilepsy. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med 5(10):a022772.
- 26. Aderinto N, Olatunji G, Abdulbasit M, Ashinze P, Faturoti O, Ajagbe A, Aboderin G (2023). The impact of diabetes in cognitive impairment: A review of current evidence and prospects for future investigations. Medicine 102(43):e35557.
- 27. Gupta M, Pandey S, Rumman M, Singh B, Mahdi AA (2023). Molecular mechanisms underlying hyperglycemiaassociated cognitive decline. IBRO Neurosci Rep 14:57-63.
- 28. Mergenthaler P, Lindauer U, Dienel GA, Meisel A (2013). Sugar for the brain: the role of glucose in physiological and pathological brain function. Trends Neurosci 36(10):587-597.
- 29. Quintana-Pajaro L, Padilla-Zambrano HS, Ramos-Villegas Y, Lopez-Cepeda D, Andrade-Lopez A, Hoz S, Janjua T (2023). Cerebral traumatic injury and glucose metabolism: a scoping review. Egypt J Neurosurg 38(1):62.
- 30. Bree AJ, Puente EC, Daphna-Iken D, Fisher SJ (2009). Diabetes increases brain damage caused by severe hypoglycemia. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 297(1):E194-E201.
- 31. Anand KS, Dhikav V (2012). Hippocampus in health and disease: An overview. Ann Indian Acad Neurol 15(4):239-246.
- 32. Sadeghi A, Hami J, Razavi S, Esfandiary E, Hejazi Z (2016). The effect of diabetes mellitus on apoptosis in hippocampus: cellular and molecular aspects. Int J Prev Med 7.
- 33. He X, Sun J, Huang X (2018). Expression of caspase-3, Bax and Bcl-2 in hippocampus of rats with diabetes and subarachnoid hemorrhage. Exp Ther Med 15(1):873-877.
- 34. Jafari Anarkooli I, Sankian M, Ahmadpour S, Varasteh AR, Haghir H (2008). Evaluation of Bcl-2 expression and caspase-3 in STZ-induced diabetic rats. J Diabetes Res 2008(1):638467.
- 35. Sadikan MZ, Abdul Nasir NA, Lambuk L, Mohamud R, Reshidan NH, Low E, Agarwal R (2023). Diabetic retinopathy: a comprehensive update on in vivo, in vitro and ex vivo experimental models. BMC Ophthalmol 23(1):421.
- Sommerfield AJ, Deary IJ, Frier BM (2004). Acute hyperglycemia alters mood state and impairs cognitive performance in people with type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Care 27(10):2335-2340.
   Zammitt NN, Frier BM (2005). Hypoglycemia in type 2 diabetes: pathophysiology, frequency, and effects of
- 37. Zammitt NN, Frier BM (2005). Hypoglycemia in type 2 diabetes: pathophysiology, frequency, and effects of different treatment modalities. Diabetes Care 28(12):2948-2961.
- 38. Zhang S, Zhang Y, Wen Z, Yang Y, Bu T, Bu X, Ni Q (2023). Cognitive dysfunction in diabetes: abnormal glucose metabolic regulation in the brain. Front Endocrinol 14:1192602.

- 39. Cox DJ, Kovatchev BP, Gonder-Frederick LA, Summers KH, Mccall A, Grimm KJ, Clarke WL (2005). Relationships between hyperglycemia and cognitive performance among adults with type 1 and type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Care 28(1):71-77.
- 40. Li Y, Liu Y, Liu S, Gao M, Wang W, Chen K, Liu Y (2023). Diabetic vascular diseases: molecular mechanisms and therapeutic strategies. Signal Transduct Target Ther 8(1):152.
- 41. Arnold SE, Arvanitakis Z, Macauley-Rambach SL, Koenig AM, Wang HY, Ahima RS, Nathan DM (2018). Brain insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes and Alzheimer disease: concepts and conundrums. Nat Rev Neurol 14(3):168-181.
- 42. Xu F, Shi J (2025). Insulin signaling and oxidative stress: Bridging the gap between type 2 diabetes mellitus and Alzheimer's disease. J Alzheimers Dis 13872877241307404.
- 43. Geijselaers SL, Sep SJ, Claessens D, Schram MT, Van Boxtel MP, Henry RM, Stehouwer CD (2017). The role of hyperglycemia, insulin resistance, and blood pressure in diabetes-associated differences in cognitive performance—the Maastricht Study. Diabetes Care 40(11):1537-1547.
- 44. Rojas-Gutierrez E, Muñoz-Arenas G, Treviño S, Espinosa B, Chavez R, Rojas K, Guevara J (2017). Alzheimer's disease and metabolic syndrome: A link from oxidative stress and inflammation to neurodegeneration. Synapse 71(10):e21990.
- 45. Anita NZ, Zebarth J, Chan B, Wu CY, Syed T, Shahrul D, Swardfager W (2022). Inflammatory markers in type 2 diabetes with vs. without cognitive impairment; a systematic review and meta-analysis. Brain Behav Immun 100:55-69.
- 46. Biessels GJ, Whitmer RA (2020). Cognitive dysfunction in diabetes: how to implement emerging guidelines. Diabetologia 63(1):3-9.
- 47. Janson J, Laedtke T, Parisi JE, O'Brien P, Petersen RC, Butler PC (2004). Increased risk of type 2 diabetes in Alzheimer disease. Diabetes 53(2):474-481.
- 48. Srikanth V, Maczurek A, Phan T, Steele M, Westcott B, Juskiw D, Münch G (2011). Advanced glycation endproducts and their receptor RAGE in Alzheimer's disease. Neurobiol Aging 32(5):763-777.
- 49. Moran C, Phan TG, Chen J, Blizzard L, Beare R, Venn A, Srikanth V (2013). Brain atrophy in type 2 diabetes: regional distribution and influence on cognition. Diabetes Care 36(12):4036-4042.
- 50. Castaño C, Novials A, Párrizas M (2019). Exosomes and diabetes. Diabetes Metab Res Rev 35(3):e3107.
- 51. Ebadi SA, Darvish P, Fard AJ, Lima BS, Ahangar OG (2018). Hypoglycemia and cognitive function in diabetic patients. Diabetes Metab Syndr 12(6):893–896.
- 52. Dundon NM, Bertini C, Làdavas E, Sabel BA, Gall C (2015). Visual rehabilitation: visual scanning, multisensory stimulation and vision restoration trainings. Front Behav Neurosci 9:192.
- 53. Woods DL, Wyma JM, Yund EW, Herron TJ, Reed B (2015). Factors influencing the latency of simple reaction time. Front Hum Neurosci 9:131.
- 54. Verhulst CE, Fabricius TW, Nefs G, Kessels RP, Pouwer F, Teerenstra S, de Galan BE (2022). Consistent effects of hypoglycemia on cognitive function in people with or without diabetes. Diabetes Care 45(9):2103-2110.
- 55. Zhao Q, Lv Y, Zhou Y, Hong Z, Guo Q (2012). Short-term delayed recall of auditory verbal learning test is equivalent to long-term delayed recall for identifying amnestic mild cognitive impairment. PLoS One 7(12):e51157.
- 56. Zammit AR, Ezzati A, Katz MJ, Zimmerman ME, Lipton ML, Sliwinski MJ, Lipton RB (2017). The association of visual memory with hippocampal volume. PLoS One 12(11):e0187851.
- 57. Woods DL, Kishiyama MM, Yund EW, Herron TJ, Edwards B, Poliva O, Reed B (2011). Improving digit span assessment of short-term verbal memory. J Clin Exp Neuropsychol 33(1):101-111.
- 58. van der Leeuw G, Leveille SG, Jones RN, Hausdorff JM, McLean R, Kiely DK, Milberg WP (2017). Measuring attention in very old adults using the Test of Everyday Attention. Aging Neuropsychol Cogn 24(5):543-554.
- 59. Fard EK, Keelor JL, Bagheban AA, Keith RW (2016). Comparison of the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test (RAVLT) and digit test among typically achieving and gifted students. Iran J Child Neurol 10(2):26.
- 60. Richter E, Geetha T, Burnett D, Broderick TL, Babu JR (2023). The effects of Momordica charantia on type 2 diabetes mellitus and Alzheimer's disease. Int J Mol Sci 24(5):4643.
- 61. Bhujbal SS, Hadawale SS, Kulkarni PA, Bidkar JS, Thatte VA, Providencia CA, Yeola RR (2011). A novel herbal formulation in the management of diabetes. Int J Pharm Investig 1(4):222.
- 62. Modak M, Dixit P, Londhe J, Ghaskadbi S, Devasagayam TPA (2007). Indian herbs and herbal drugs used for the treatment of diabetes. J Clin Biochem Nutr 40(3):163-173.
- 63. Salehi B, Ata A, Anil Kumar NV, Sharopov F, Ramírez-Alarcón K, Ruiz-Ortega A, Sharifi-Rad J (2019). Antidiabetic potential of medicinal plants and their active components. Biomolecules 9(10):551.
- 64. Al-Ishaq RK, Abotaleb M, Kubatka P, Kajo K, Büsselberg D (2019). Flavonoids and their anti-diabetic effects: Cellular mechanisms and effects to improve blood sugar levels. Biomolecules 9(9):430.
- 65. Roy A, Khan A, Ahmad I, Alghamdi S, Rajab BS, Babalghith AO, Islam MR (2022). Flavonoids a bioactive compound from medicinal plants and its therapeutic applications. Biomed Res Int 2022(1):5445291.
- 66. Alkhalidy H, Wang Y, Liu D (2018). Dietary flavonoids in the prevention of T2D: An overview. Nutrients 10(4):438.
- 67. Febriza A, Zahrah AA, Andini NS, Usman F, Idrus HH (2024). Potential effect of curcumin in lowering blood glucose level in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes 3305-3313.

- 68. Song H, Xu L, Zhang R, Cao Z, Zhang H, Yang L, Yu J (2016). Rosemary extract improves cognitive deficits in a rat model of repetitive mild traumatic brain injury associated with reduction of astrocytosis and neuronal degeneration in hippocampus. Neurosci Lett 622:95-101.
- 69. Reay JL, Kennedy DO, Scholey AB (2005). Single doses of *Panax ginseng* (G115) reduce blood glucose levels and improve cognitive performance during sustained mental activity. J Psychopharmacol 19(4):357-365.
- 70. Morgan A, Stevens J (2010). Does *Bacopa monnieri* improve memory performance in older persons? Results of a randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind trial. J Altern Complement Med 16(7):753-759.
- 71. Sebastian MJ, Khan SK, Pappachan JM, Jeeyavudeen MS (2023). Diabetes and cognitive function: An evidencebased current perspective. World J Diabetes 14(2):92.
- 72. Shanmugasundaram ERB, Rajeswari G, Baskaran K, Kumar BR, Shanmugasundaram KR, Ahmath BK (1990). Use of *Gymnema sylvestre* leaf extract in the control of blood glucose in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. J Ethnopharmacol 30(3):281-294.
- 73. Pandiyan CK, Manivannan AG, Jaishankar N, Vellapandian C, Narayanan J, Chitra V (2024). From glucose to neuroprotection: Exploring antidiabetic medications as a novel approach to Alzheimer's disease treatment. Cureus 16(10).
- 74. Gao Y, Li X, Huang Y, Chen J, Qiu M (2021). Bitter melon and diabetes mellitus. Food Rev Int 39(1):618–638.
- 75. Lopresti AL (2017). *Salvia* (Sage): A review of its potential cognitive-enhancing and protective effects. Drugs R D 17(1):53-64.
- 76. Sahu PK, Giri DD, Singh R, Pandey P, Gupta S, Shrivastava AK, Pandey KD (2013). Therapeutic and medicinal uses of *Aloe vera*: A review. Pharmacol Pharm 4(08):599.
- 77. Ayyanar M, Subash-Babu P, Ignacimuthu S (2013). *Syzygium cumini* (L.) Skeels., a novel therapeutic agent for diabetes: Folk medicinal and pharmacological evidences. Complement Ther Med 21(3):232-243.
- 78. Jain RC, Vyas CR (1974). Hypoglycemic action of onion on rabbits. BMJ 2(5921):730.
- 79. Petchi RR, Vijaya C, Parasuraman S (2014). Antidiabetic activity of polyherbal formulation in streptozotocinnicotinamide induced diabetic Wistar rats. J Tradit Complement Med 4(2):108-117.
- 80. Saunders AM, Burns DK, Gottschalk WK (2021). Reassessment of pioglitazone for Alzheimer's disease. Front Neurosci 15:666958.
- 81. Gejl M, Gjedde A, Egefjord L, Møller A, Hansen SB, Vang K, Rungby J (2016). In Alzheimer's disease, 6-month treatment with GLP-1 analog prevents decline of brain glucose metabolism: randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind clinical trial. Front Aging Neurosci 8:198350.
- 82. Kosaraju J, Murthy V, Khatwal RB, Dubala A, Chinni S, Muthureddy Nataraj SK, Basavan D (2013). Vildagliptin: an anti-diabetes agent ameliorates cognitive deficits and pathology observed in streptozotocin-induced Alzheimer's disease. J Pharm Pharmacol 65(12):1773-1784.
- 83. Takao T, Takahashi K, Yoshida Y, Kushiyama A, Onishi Y, Tahara T, Kasuga M (2020). Effect of postprandial hyperglycemia at clinic visits on the incidence of retinopathy in patients with type 2 diabetes: An analysis using real-world long-term follow-up data. J Diabetes Investig 11(4):930-937.
- 84. Craft S, Baker LD, Montine TJ, Minoshima S, Watson GS, Claxton A, Gerton B (2012). Intranasal insulin therapy for Alzheimer disease and amnestic mild cognitive impairment: a pilot clinical trial. Arch Neurol 69(1):29-38.
- 85. Birks JS, Cochrane Dementia and Cognitive Improvement Group (1996). Cholinesterase inhibitors for Alzheimer's disease. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2016(3).
- 86. Wojszel ZB (2021). Nootropics (piracetam, pyritinol, co-dergocrine, meclophenoxat, pentoxifylline, nimodipine). In NeuroPsychopharmacotherapy (pp. 1-45). Cham: Springer Int Publ.
- 87. Kemnitz JW, Elson DF, Roecker EB, Baum ST, Bergman RN, Meglasson MD (1994). Pioglitazone increases insulin sensitivity, reduces blood glucose, insulin, and lipid levels, and lowers blood pressure, in obese, insulin-resistant rhesus monkeys. Diabetes 43(2):204-211.
- 88. Proks P, Reimann F, Green N, Gribble F, Ashcroft F (2002). Sulfonylurea stimulation of insulin secretion. Diabetes 51(Suppl\_3):S368-S376.
- 89. Miyazaki Y, Matsuda M, DeFronzo RA (2002). Dose-response effect of pioglitazone on insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion in type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Care 25(3):517-523.
- 90. Ansari G, Mojtahedzadeh M, Kajbaf F, Najafi A, Khajavi MR, Khalili H, Abdollahi M (2008). How does blood glucose control with metformin influence intensive insulin protocols? Evidence for involvement of oxidative stress and inflammatory cytokines. Adv Ther 25:681-702.
- 91. Makdissi A, Ghanim H, Vora M, Green K, Abuaysheh S, Chaudhuri A, Dandona P (2012). Sitagliptin exerts an antiinflammatory action. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 97(9):3333-3341.
- 92. Valotto Neto LJ, Reverete de Araujo M, Moretti Junior RC, Mendes Machado N, Joshi RK, dos Santos Buglio D, Barbalho SM (2024). Investigating the neuroprotective and cognitive-enhancing effects of *Bacopa monnieri*: A systematic review focused on inflammation, oxidative stress, mitochondrial dysfunction, and apoptosis. Antioxidants 13(4):393.
- 93. Harikrishnan R, Balasundaram C (2020). Potential of herbal extracts and bioactive compounds for human healthcare. In *The Role of Phytoconstitutents in Health Care* (pp. 3-158). Apple Acad Press.
- 94. Udayakumar R, Kasthurirengan S, Vasudevan A, Mariashibu TS, Rayan JJS, Choi CW, Kim SC (2010). Antioxidant effect of dietary supplement *Withania somnifera* L. reduces blood glucose levels in alloxan-induced diabetic rats. Plant Foods Hum Nutr 65:91-98.

- 95. Kumar GP, Sudheesh S, Vijayalakshmi NR (1993). Hypoglycaemic effect of *Coccinia indica*: Mechanism of action. Planta Med 59(4):330–332.
- 96. Chattopadhyay RR (1999). Possible mechanism of antihyperglycemic effect of *Azadirachta indica* leaf extract: Part V. J Ethnopharmacol 67(3):373-376.
- 97. Aggarwal BB, Harikumar KB (2009). Potential therapeutic effects of curcumin, the anti-inflammatory agent, against neurodegenerative, cardiovascular, pulmonary, metabolic, autoimmune, and neoplastic diseases. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 41(1):40-59.
- 98. Prince PSM, Menon VP, Pari L (1998). Hypoglycaemic activity of *Syzygium cumini* seeds: Effect on lipid peroxidation in alloxan diabetic rats. J Ethnopharmacol 61(1):1-7.
- 99. Anand T, Naika M, Rakavi R, Balu M (2011). Neuroprotective effects of *Bacopa monnieri* in diabetes-induced cognitive dysfunction. Phytomedicine 18(8):744-751.
- 100.Madar Z, Abel R, Samish S, Arad J (1988). Glucose-lowering effect of fenugreek in non-insulin dependent diabetics. Eur J Clin Nutr 42(1):51-54.

**Copyright:** © **2025 Author**. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.