

Nano-Enabled Phytotherapy in Diabetes Management: Targeted Delivery Systems for Plant-Derived Antidiabetic Compounds

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ABSTRACT

Diabetes mellitus (DM) remains a global metabolic disorder characterized by chronic hyperglycemia and progressive microvascular and macrovascular complications. Although plant-derived bioactive compounds have demonstrated promising antidiabetic properties including insulin sensitization, β -cell protection, α -glucosidase inhibition, antioxidant activity, and anti-inflammatory effects, their clinical translation is often limited by poor solubility, low bioavailability, rapid metabolism, and lack of tissue specificity. Nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems offer innovative solutions to these limitations by enhancing stability, controlled release, targeted delivery, and therapeutic efficacy. Nano-enabled phytotherapy integrates phytochemicals with nanoscale carriers such as polymeric nanoparticles, liposomes, solid lipid nanoparticles, nanoemulsions, dendrimers, and metal-based nanocarriers to improve pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic profiles. These systems enable organ-specific targeting, particularly pancreatic β -cells, hepatic tissue, adipose tissue, and skeletal muscle, thereby improving glycemic control and reducing systemic toxicity. Additionally, nanoformulations may facilitate synergistic multi-compound delivery and overcome biological barriers, including gastrointestinal degradation and first-pass metabolism. This review explores the mechanistic basis of plant-derived antidiabetic compounds, the design of nanocarrier systems for targeted delivery, preclinical and emerging clinical evidence, safety considerations, regulatory challenges, and future translational perspectives. Nano-enabled phytotherapy represents a promising frontier in precision diabetes management.

Keywords: nanotechnology, phytotherapy, diabetes mellitus, targeted drug delivery, plant-derived bioactives

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is one of the most pressing global health challenges of the 21st century. Characterized by chronic hyperglycemia resulting from impaired insulin secretion, insulin resistance, or both, DM leads to severe complications including nephropathy, neuropathy, retinopathy, cardiovascular disease, and metabolic syndrome[1–3]. The prevalence of both type 1 diabetes (T1DM) and type 2 diabetes (T2DM) continues to rise, driven by urbanization, sedentary lifestyles, dietary transitions, obesity, and genetic predisposition. Despite advances in pharmacotherapy such as insulin analogs, metformin, sulfonylureas, SGLT2 inhibitors, and GLP-1 receptor agonists, long-term glycemic control remains suboptimal for many patients, and adverse effects limit therapeutic adherence[4, 5].

Phytotherapy, the use of plant-derived compounds for therapeutic purposes, has historically played a significant role in diabetes management. Traditional medicinal systems, including Ayurveda, Traditional Chinese Medicine, and African ethnomedicine, have long employed botanicals such as *Momordica charantia*, *Gymnema sylvestre*, *Trigonella foenum-graecum*, *Curcuma longa*, and *Berberis* species for glycemic regulation[6, 7]. Modern pharmacological research has identified bioactive constituents such as flavonoids, alkaloids, terpenoids, phenolic acids, saponins, and polysaccharides that exert antidiabetic effects through diverse mechanisms[6]. These include stimulation of insulin secretion, enhancement of insulin receptor signaling, inhibition of carbohydrate-digesting enzymes (α -amylase and α -glucosidase), modulation of glucose transporters (GLUT4), activation of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), attenuation of oxidative stress, and suppression of inflammatory pathways such as NF- κ B.

However, despite promising *in vitro* and *in vivo* findings, many phytochemicals suffer from pharmacokinetic limitations that hinder clinical translation. Poor aqueous solubility, low membrane permeability, rapid gastrointestinal degradation, extensive first-pass hepatic metabolism, and short systemic half-life significantly reduce bioavailability[8]. Additionally, non-specific distribution may result in insufficient tissue concentrations at target organs such as pancreatic islets, liver, or skeletal muscle. These challenges necessitate innovative delivery strategies capable of enhancing stability, absorption, and targeted therapeutic action[8].

Nanotechnology has emerged as a transformative approach in drug delivery science. Nanocarriers, typically ranging from 1 to 200 nm, possess unique physicochemical properties that improve drug solubility, protect labile molecules from degradation, and enable controlled or stimuli-responsive release[9]. Their small size facilitates cellular uptake via endocytosis and enhances permeability across biological barriers. Surface modification with targeting ligands such as antibodies, peptides, or polysaccharides further allows tissue-specific delivery[9].

Nano-enabled phytotherapy integrates plant-derived antidiabetic compounds with advanced nanocarrier systems to overcome intrinsic limitations and optimize therapeutic outcomes. By encapsulating or conjugating phytochemicals within nanoparticles, researchers can improve pharmacokinetics, enhance bioavailability, reduce required dosage, and minimize systemic toxicity[10, 11]. For example, curcumin-loaded nanoparticles have demonstrated improved stability and enhanced glycemic control compared with free curcumin in experimental models. Similarly, berberine nanoformulations have shown superior absorption and increased insulin-sensitizing effects.

Targeted delivery represents a particularly promising advancement[10]. Diabetes pathophysiology involves dysfunction in specific tissues like β -cell apoptosis in pancreatic islets, hepatic gluconeogenesis, adipose tissue inflammation, and skeletal muscle insulin resistance. Nanocarriers engineered to accumulate preferentially in these tissues can maximize therapeutic impact while reducing off-target effects. Additionally, glucose-responsive or pH-sensitive nanoparticles offer controlled release in hyperglycemic environments, introducing a level of precision not achievable with conventional phytotherapy[10].

Beyond monotherapy, nanotechnology facilitates co-delivery of multiple phytochemicals or phytochemical-drug combinations to achieve synergistic effects. This is especially relevant in T2DM, where multifactorial pathogenesis involves oxidative stress, inflammation, mitochondrial dysfunction, and metabolic dysregulation[12].

Nevertheless, nano-enabled phytotherapy faces challenges including scale-up production, reproducibility, long-term safety evaluation, immunogenicity concerns, and regulatory approval pathways. Comprehensive toxicological assessments are essential to ensure that nanoparticle accumulation does not induce unintended cytotoxic or inflammatory responses[12].

This review examines the convergence of phytotherapy and nanotechnology in diabetes management. It discusses the mechanistic basis of plant-derived antidiabetic agents, nanocarrier platforms, targeted delivery strategies, translational evidence, safety considerations, and future directions. By integrating natural bioactives with precision nanomedicine, nano-enabled phytotherapy may redefine therapeutic paradigms in diabetes care.

2. Plant-Derived Antidiabetic Compounds: Mechanisms of Action

Plant-derived bioactive compounds exhibit multifaceted mechanisms targeting core pathophysiological processes of diabetes. These compounds can be broadly classified into flavonoids, alkaloids, terpenoids, phenolics, and polysaccharides[13–15].

Flavonoids such as quercetin, kaempferol, and catechins enhance insulin secretion and improve insulin sensitivity by modulating PI3K/Akt signaling pathways. They upregulate GLUT4 translocation in skeletal muscle and adipocytes, promoting glucose uptake. Many flavonoids also activate AMPK, a central metabolic regulator that inhibits hepatic gluconeogenesis and enhances fatty acid oxidation.

Alkaloids such as berberine demonstrate potent antihyperglycemic activity. Berberine improves insulin receptor expression, modulates gut microbiota, and suppresses hepatic glucose production. It also activates AMPK and reduces lipid accumulation, addressing metabolic syndrome components[16].

Terpenoids and saponins, including ginsenosides and charantin, enhance β -cell function and promote insulin secretion. These compounds may protect pancreatic islets from oxidative damage and apoptosis. Phenolic acids such as chlorogenic acid inhibit glucose-6-phosphatase, reducing hepatic glucose output[17, 18]. Antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties are central to phytochemical efficacy. Chronic hyperglycemia induces reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and inflammatory cytokine release (TNF- α , IL-6), which impair insulin signaling. Many phytochemicals scavenge ROS and suppress NF- κ B-mediated inflammatory pathways[5, 19, 20]. Enzyme inhibition represents another mechanism. Inhibition of α -amylase and α -glucosidase delays carbohydrate digestion and glucose absorption, attenuating postprandial hyperglycemia. This mechanism parallels that of acarbose but may offer improved tolerability.

Despite these benefits, clinical efficacy is constrained by poor bioavailability. Many polyphenols exhibit low systemic concentrations following oral administration, highlighting the need for advanced delivery systems.

3. Nanocarrier Platforms for Phytochemical Delivery words)

Multiple nanocarrier systems have been developed to enhance phytochemical delivery in diabetes management. Polymeric nanoparticles, often composed of biodegradable polymers such as PLGA or chitosan, offer controlled

release and protection from enzymatic degradation. Chitosan nanoparticles improve mucoadhesion and intestinal absorption of hydrophobic phytochemicals[21–23].

Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs) and nanostructured lipid carriers (NLCs) enhance solubility of lipophilic compounds like curcumin. These systems provide sustained release and improved stability[24].

Liposomes consist of phospholipid bilayers encapsulating hydrophilic or lipophilic agents. Their biocompatibility and structural similarity to biological membranes enhance cellular uptake. Nanoemulsions increase surface area and dissolution rate, facilitating rapid absorption[25]. They are particularly useful for oral delivery of poorly soluble plant extracts.

Dendrimers possess branched architectures enabling high drug-loading capacity and surface functionalization for targeted delivery[25]. Metal-based nanoparticles, including gold and silver nanoparticles synthesized via green methods using plant extracts, demonstrate enhanced bioactivity but require careful toxicity evaluation[25]. Each platform presents advantages and limitations in terms of stability, scalability, and safety. Selection depends on phytochemical properties and therapeutic goals.

4. Targeted Delivery Strategies in Diabetes

Targeted nanodelivery systems represent a transformative strategy for enhancing therapeutic precision by directing phytochemicals to specific tissues and cellular compartments directly implicated in the pathophysiology of diabetes[26]. Unlike conventional systemic delivery approaches, targeted nanocarriers enable localized drug accumulation, improved cellular uptake, and site-specific pharmacological activity, thereby maximizing therapeutic efficacy while minimizing off-target effects and systemic toxicity[26].

Pancreatic targeting is a central focus, particularly for the protection and functional restoration of insulin-producing β -cells. Nanoparticles engineered with surface ligands that recognize β -cell-specific markers such as glucose transporter proteins, sulfonylurea receptors, or other membrane-associated receptors can selectively accumulate in pancreatic islets[27]. This targeted approach enhances the local concentration of protective phytochemicals, promoting β -cell survival, reducing oxidative and inflammatory damage, and stimulating insulin secretion through improved intracellular delivery and signaling modulation[27].

Hepatic targeting strategies play a critical role in suppressing excessive gluconeogenesis and hepatic glucose output, which are key contributors to hyperglycemia in diabetes. Nanoparticles functionalized with galactose residues exploit the asialoglycoprotein receptors abundantly expressed on hepatocytes, enabling receptor-mediated uptake and selective liver accumulation[28]. This allows phytochemicals to directly modulate hepatic insulin signaling pathways, inhibit gluconeogenic enzymes, and improve glycogen synthesis with greater precision and reduced systemic exposure.

Adipose tissue targeted nanodelivery addresses chronic low-grade inflammation and insulin resistance, hallmarks of metabolic dysfunction in diabetes and obesity. By directing nanocarriers toward adipocytes and infiltrating immune cells within adipose depots, anti-inflammatory and antioxidant phytochemicals can be delivered directly to sites of cytokine production, macrophage activation, and adipokine dysregulation[29, 30]. This localized intervention improves insulin sensitivity, reduces inflammatory signaling, and restores adipose tissue metabolic homeostasis.

Skeletal muscle targeting further enhances glycemic control by promoting glucose uptake and utilization. Nanocarriers designed to interact with muscle-specific transporters and receptors facilitate the delivery of phytochemicals that stimulate GLUT4 translocation, enhance insulin receptor signaling, and improve mitochondrial oxidative metabolism, thereby increasing peripheral glucose disposal[31].

Beyond tissue targeting, the development of stimuli-responsive nanocarriers introduces an additional layer of therapeutic precision. Glucose-responsive nanoparticles enable drug release selectively under hyperglycemic conditions, while pH-sensitive systems allow controlled release in acidic inflammatory microenvironments[32]. These smart delivery platforms ensure on-demand drug availability aligned with pathological states, reducing unnecessary exposure during normoglycemia or physiological homeostasis.

Collectively, these advanced targeting and responsive delivery strategies minimize systemic exposure, reduce adverse effects, and optimize therapeutic outcomes, positioning targeted nanodelivery as a cornerstone of next-generation precision phytotherapy for diabetes management.

5. Preclinical and Emerging Clinical Evidence

A growing body of preclinical evidence robustly demonstrates the superior therapeutic efficacy of nanoformulated phytochemicals compared to their conventional free-form counterparts, highlighting the transformative potential of nanotechnology in natural product-based therapeutics[33]. Nanostructured delivery systems enhance solubility, stability, cellular uptake, and targeted tissue distribution of bioactive plant compounds, thereby overcoming fundamental limitations such as poor bioavailability, rapid metabolism, and low systemic retention that typically constrain phytotherapeutic effectiveness[33].

Among the most extensively studied examples, curcumin-loaded nanoparticles have consistently shown marked improvements in metabolic and redox outcomes in diabetic rodent models[34, 35]. Compared to free curcumin, nano-curcumin formulations significantly reduce fasting blood glucose levels, attenuate insulin resistance, and suppress oxidative stress biomarkers, including lipid peroxidation products and inflammatory mediators. These effects are largely attributed to enhanced intestinal absorption, prolonged circulation time, and improved

intracellular delivery, enabling curcumin to more effectively modulate insulin signaling pathways, inflammatory cascades, and mitochondrial function[36, 37].

Similarly, berberine-loaded nanocarriers demonstrate substantially improved oral bioavailability and pharmacokinetic stability, translating into enhanced insulin sensitivity, improved glucose tolerance, and better glycemic control in experimental models of diabetes[16, 38]. Nanoformulation strategies protect berberine from rapid degradation and efflux transport mechanisms, allowing for sustained therapeutic concentrations and amplified metabolic effects. These findings highlight the capacity of nanotechnology to convert pharmacologically promising but clinically limited natural compounds into viable therapeutic agents.

In parallel, quercetin nanoemulsions and nanoparticle systems exhibit superior antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and antihyperglycemic effects compared to free quercetin. Enhanced cellular uptake and controlled release profiles enable more effective scavenging of reactive oxygen species, protection of pancreatic β -cells, and modulation of glucose transport and insulin signaling pathways, reinforcing the therapeutic relevance of nano-enabled flavonoid delivery systems[39].

At the clinical level, early-phase human studies and limited clinical trials suggest improved pharmacokinetic profiles for nano-curcumin and other nanoformulated phytochemicals, including enhanced absorption, prolonged plasma half-life, and increased systemic exposure. However, despite these promising signals, large-scale, randomized, controlled clinical trials remain scarce, and robust clinical efficacy data are still insufficient to support widespread therapeutic adoption[40].

Overall, while preclinical evidence strongly supports nano-enabled phytotherapy as a powerful strategy for enhancing the therapeutic potential of natural products, significant translational gaps persist. Addressing challenges related to clinical validation, regulatory approval, manufacturing scalability, safety standardization, and interdisciplinary integration will be essential to transform preclinical success into clinically impactful, evidence-based therapeutic solutions.

6. Safety, Toxicity, and Regulatory Considerations

Safety evaluation represents a foundational pillar for the successful development and clinical translation of nano-enabled therapies, particularly those involving bioactive natural products and phytochemical formulations[41]. Unlike conventional small-molecule drugs, nanoparticles possess unique physicochemical properties that profoundly influence their biological interactions, biodistribution, and long-term behavior within the body. A major concern is their tendency to accumulate in reticuloendothelial organs such as the liver, spleen, and lymphatic tissues, where prolonged retention may induce cytotoxicity, oxidative stress, inflammatory responses, and cellular dysfunction[41]. Such accumulation risks necessitate detailed long-term safety profiling rather than short-term toxicity assessments alone.

The toxicological profile of nanoparticles is strongly governed by their intrinsic characteristics, including particle size, surface charge, morphology, chemical composition, and surface functionalization. Smaller particles often exhibit higher cellular uptake and deeper tissue penetration but may also display increased cytotoxic potential[42]. Positively charged nanoparticles tend to interact strongly with cell membranes, enhancing delivery efficiency while simultaneously increasing membrane disruption risks. Likewise, surface coatings, ligand conjugation, and stabilizing agents can significantly modify immune recognition, clearance rates, and systemic toxicity profiles, underscoring the need for rational nanomaterial design guided by safety considerations from the earliest development stages[42].

The use of biodegradable polymeric nanocarriers, such as poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA), chitosan, and lipid-based nanoparticles, offers a safer alternative by enabling controlled degradation into biocompatible metabolites, thereby reducing long-term accumulation and chronic toxicity risks[43, 44]. In contrast, metal and inorganic nanoparticles (e.g., silver, gold, iron oxide, and quantum dots), while offering valuable diagnostic and therapeutic functionalities, demand particularly rigorous and extended safety evaluations due to their persistence, bioaccumulation potential, and possible long-term biological effects[45].

From a translational perspective, regulatory frameworks for nanomedicine remain in an evolving phase, with limited global harmonization in safety guidelines, classification standards, and approval pathways[46]. This regulatory uncertainty highlights the importance of standardized manufacturing processes, reproducibility of nanoformulations, and strict quality control measures to ensure batch-to-batch consistency, safety, and therapeutic reliability.

Ultimately, the responsible clinical advancement of nanomedicine requires comprehensive preclinical and clinical safety pipelines, encompassing detailed toxicological profiling, pharmacokinetic and biodistribution studies, immunogenicity assessments, genotoxicity screening, and long-term exposure evaluations[46]. Only through rigorous, standardized, and transparent safety validation frameworks can nano-enabled therapies achieve widespread clinical acceptance and safe integration into routine medical practice[47].

7. Future Perspectives and Translational Challenges

Future research in this field should move beyond proof-of-concept studies toward scalable, clinically translatable solutions that can meaningfully impact patient care. A critical priority is the development of cost-effective, scalable production platforms for phytochemical-based nanomedicines, including green synthesis routes, standardized extraction protocols, and reproducible nanoformulation technologies. Without industrial scalability and quality control frameworks, even the most promising nano-natural product systems will remain

confined to laboratory settings. In parallel, emphasis should be placed on precision targeting strategies, such as ligand-functionalized nanoparticles, receptor-mediated uptake systems, and tissue-specific delivery platforms, to improve therapeutic efficacy while minimizing off-target toxicity and systemic side effects.

The integration of nanotechnology with nutrigenomics and metabolomics represents a transformative direction for personalized medicine. By combining individual genetic profiles, metabolic signatures, and dietary responsiveness with nano-enabled delivery systems, it may become possible to design individualized phytotherapeutic interventions tailored to a patient's metabolic phenotype, inflammatory status, and disease progression stage. Such convergence would enable predictive, preventive, and precision-based therapeutic models, shifting treatment paradigms from generalized protocols to patient-specific strategies.

However, the successful translation of these advances from bench to bedside will depend on robust clinical trials, clearly defined regulatory frameworks, standardized safety evaluation protocols, and interdisciplinary collaboration among nanotechnologists, pharmacologists, clinicians, regulatory scientists, and industry partners. Only through coordinated translational efforts can preclinical successes evolve into safe, effective, and accessible nanotherapeutic interventions for real-world clinical application.

CONCLUSION

Nano-enabled phytotherapy represents a transformative strategy in diabetes management, addressing longstanding limitations of plant-derived antidiabetic compounds. By enhancing bioavailability, stability, and targeted delivery, nanocarrier systems improve therapeutic precision and efficacy while potentially reducing adverse effects. Preclinical evidence strongly supports the superiority of nanoformulated phytochemicals over conventional preparations, particularly in improving glycemic control, reducing oxidative stress, and preserving β -cell function. However, challenges related to safety, large-scale manufacturing, regulatory approval, and long-term toxicity must be carefully addressed. Continued interdisciplinary research integrating nanotechnology, pharmacology, and clinical medicine is essential to translate promising experimental findings into practical therapeutic solutions. As precision medicine advances, nano-enabled phytotherapy may become an integral component of next-generation diabetes care.

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