

# Berberine HCl and Gallic Acid: A Multi-Targeted Approach for Diabetic Nephropathy Management

Gottimukkala Rakshitha<sup>1</sup>, P. Roshan Ali<sup>1</sup>, V. V. Rajesham<sup>1</sup>, Kavirayani Naga Lakshmi Shivani<sup>2</sup>, S Sravanthi<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Pharmacology, CMR College of Pharmacy, Kandlakoya(V), Medchal Road, Hyderabad, Telangana, 501401, India

<sup>2</sup> Northeastern University, 360 Huntington Ave., Boston, MA 02115-9959

<sup>3</sup> Department of Biotechnology, Osmania University, University College of Science, Saifabad, Hyderabad - 500 007, Telangana, India.

## Abstract

Diabetes-associated nephropathy (DN), an advancing consequence of diabetes, is the primary trigger for end-stage renal disease (ESRD) globally. Despite advances in traditional medicines like ACE-inhibiting drugs & ARBs, their limited effectiveness highlights the need for novel therapeutic techniques. This study investigates the combined effect of a combination that is berberine HCl and gallic acid, 2 natural substances with complimentary modes of action, in slowing DN development. By activating AMPK and inhibiting NF- $\kappa$ B, the isoquinoline alkaloid berberine HCl decreases oxidative stress, increases insulin sensitivity, and lowers inflammation. Gallic acid is a polyphenolic molecule that scavenges free radicals, modulates inflammatory mediators, and regulates epigenetics to provide strong antioxidant and anti-inflammatory actions. Berberine HCl and gallic acid work in concert to improve nephroprotection by simultaneously addressing inflammation, oxidative stress, and fibrosis brought on by hyperglycemia, according to preclinical research. This study examines the pharmacological characteristics, molecular processes, and therapeutic effectiveness of both drugs, with an emphasis on the combined effects in diabetes animals. We also review current clinical studies, translational hurdles, and future research goals for optimizing this co-treatment strategy. This study demonstrates the potential of gallic acid and berberine HCl as a new, multi-targeted strategy for DN management by combining pre-clinical data and clinical observations. We conclude with clinical practice suggestions, emphasizing the need for more study to establish the synergistic therapy's safety, effectiveness, and long-term advantages.

**Keywords:** Diabetic Nephropathy, Berberine HCl, Gallic Acid, Synergistic Effect, Oxidative Stress, Renal Protection, Natural Compounds.

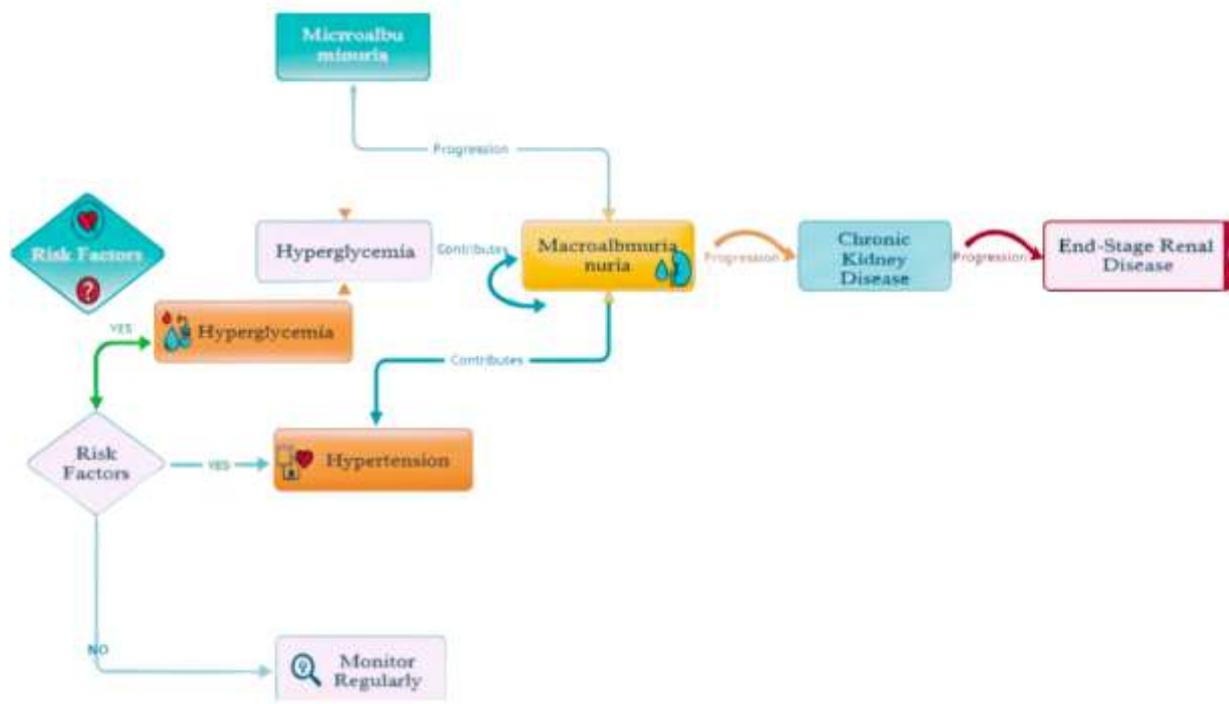
## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Overview of Diabetic Nephropathy

Microalbuminuria is usually the first sign of diabetic nephropathy, which progresses to increasingly severe types of albuminuria and ultimately kidney failure. According to epidemiology, between 30 and 40 percent of people with diabetes will eventually develop diabetic nephropathy, which frequently appears after years of hyperglycemia and related metabolic abnormalities. Regular screening is necessary, particularly in high-risk individuals, as the development from normal albuminuria to nephropathy corresponds with the length of diabetes[1]. Diabetic nephropathy has a complicated and multifaceted pathogenesis that includes inflammatory processes, metabolic abnormalities linked to hyperglycemia, and hemodynamic alterations. Developing successful therapeutic strategies to halt the progression of the disease requires an understanding of these fundamental mechanisms[2]. The clinical illness known as diabetic nephropathy is typified by a progressive decrease in glomerular filtration rate (GFR), a rise in blood pressure, and chronic albuminuria. In particular, when urine albumin surpasses 300 mg daily and is verified at least twice in a span of three to six months, persistent albuminuria is diagnosed [3]. The condition is known as a renal complication, and it frequently results in notable histological alterations to the kidney's structure, including enlargement of the basement membrane of the kidney, mesangial enlargement, and glomerulosclerosis, which is a marker of advanced nephropathy. Clinically, diabetic nephropathy can cause a variety of symptoms, but when renal function deteriorates, it frequently leads to edema, hypertension, and exhaustion [4]. A serious consequence of uncontrolled diabetes is diabetic nephropathy, which calls for careful screening, prompt diagnosis, and all-encompassing care to enhance patient outcomes and avoid end-stage renal disease. It is impossible to

overestimate the significance of comprehending diabetic nephropathy, which explains why studies and instruction in this field remain crucial given the rising prevalence of diabetes worldwide [5].

**Figure 1: Overview of Diabetic Nephropathy**



### 1.1.1 Causes and risk factors for developing DN

Many people having both type 1 as well as type 2 diabetes suffer with diabetic nephropathy (DN), a serious consequence of diabetes mellitus. Effective prevention and therapy of DN depend on an understanding of the risk factors and causes of the condition's development. The numerous risk factors that worsen the onset and progression of diabetic nephropathy are highlighted in this essay along with the complex etiology of the condition [6].

### 1.1.2 Pathophysiological Causes of Diabetic Nephropathy

Chronic hyperglycemia, which results from poorly managed blood sugar levels over time, is the main cause of diabetic nephropathy. High blood sugar causes a number of metabolic problems that damage the tissues and vasculature of the kidneys. Hyperfiltration is one of the main processes; initially, the kidneys increase the rate at which they filter fluid (GFR) to make up for high glucose levels, which can cause damage to the kidneys from too much pressure [7]. Kidney function may be impacted by structural alterations brought on by this extended high-pressure condition, such as a condition called and mesangial cell proliferation.

Diabetic nephropathy is caused by a number of physiological variables in addition to hyperglycemia. For instance, hypertension is a contributing factor to diabetic kidney damage (Kidney Disease) as well as one of its effects [8]. Diabetes and hypertension combine to form a vicious cycle that speeds up kidney deterioration, and high blood pressure can worsen kidney disease by putting more strain on the filtering units. Additionally, by encouraging atherosclerosis, which destroys renal blood vessels, dyslipidemia and changes in lipid metabolism which are frequently observed in diabetic patients can increase the risk developing nephropathy [9].

### 1.1.3 Genetic and Environmental Risk Factors

A person's vulnerability to diabetic nephropathy is greatly influenced by their genetic makeup. Higher incidence of DN are seen in several groups, including Native Americans, Mexican Americans, and African Americans, indicating that hereditary factors play a major role in risk. Furthermore, DN may be more likely to develop in families with a history of renal disease and diabetes, suggesting a genetic component that may include particular gene polymorphisms [10]. Diabetic nephropathy risk is also influenced by environmental variables. By impairing glycemic control and aggravating hypertension, lifestyle choices like smoking and inactivity have been demonstrated to increase the risk of nephropathy. Obesity, a common problem among diabetics, increases the risk even more because it frequently corresponds with insulin resistance and raises blood pressure and glucose levels [11].

### 1.1.4 Controlling Risk Factors

Effective preventative measures must concentrate on controlling the risk factors linked to diabetic nephropathy that have been identified. In order to halt or stop the evolution of diabetic nephropathy (Kidney disease), it is crucial to maintain ideal blood sugar levels through routine monitoring and the use of the right medication [12]. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that pharmaceutical treatments like ACE-inhibiting drugs or ARBs (angiotensin receptor blockers) in conjunction with lifestyle changes like diet and exercise can effectively lower blood pressure while preserving the renal system [13]. Early detection and treatment of diabetic nephropathy depend heavily on routine screening for kidney function and albuminuria, as well as patient education regarding the significance of lifestyle choices. Diabetes patients can greatly reduce their risk of kidney impairment by being encouraged to exercise, maintain a normal weight, and abstain from smoking [14].

## 1.2 Prevalence and Significance

Diabetic Nephropathy Epidemiology in Patients with Type 1 as well as Type 2 Diabetes Both types of diabetes have different rates of diabetic nephropathy. About 30 to 40 percent of people with type 1 diabetes get diabetes-related kidney damage within a decade or two of being diagnosed [15]. Within the first ten years of developing diabetes, early indicators such as microalbuminuria frequently manifest, and many individuals go on to develop more advanced stages, such as macroalbuminuria and ultimately end-stage renal failure (ESRD). Glycemic control, the presence of hypertension, and the length of diabetes all have a major impact on its progression [16]. On the other hand, type 2 diabetes poses a distinct situation. According to studies, diabetic nephropathy (also known as diabetic nephropathy (kidney disease)) may develop in between 30 and 50 percent of persons with type 2 diabetes [17]. Because many people with type 2 diabetes go undetected for years, resulting in extended durations of hyperglycemia before identification, the prevalence is usually higher at the moment of diagnosis than for type 1 diabetes. Additionally, the illness frequently occurs with other risk factors and metabolic syndromes, like overweight and hypertension, which might worsen renal degradation [18].

### 1.2.1 Epidemiology in Type 1 Diabetes

Renal problems and the length of the disease are clearly correlated, according to the etiology of diabetic kidney disease in type 1 diabetes. This condition is the earliest diagnostic sign, frequently manifesting five years after illness, according to widely accepted studies [19]. If hypertension is not properly controlled and glycemic control is not maintained, this condition may worsen and develop into overt nephropathy. Furthermore, the development of nephropathy in patients with type 1 diabetes is greatly accelerated by the presence of additional risk factors such obesity and smoking [20]. Furthermore, for people with type 1 diabetes, early detection through routine urine albumin level monitoring is stressed since prompt therapies may avoid or postpone the formation of nephropathy (Diabetic Nephropathy (Kidney Disease))[21]. Understanding epidemiological issues is further enhanced by the recognition of genetic vulnerability, since specific genetic variations have been associated with an increased incidence of nephritis in this population [22]. Globally, the number of cases of diabetic nephropathy is increasing in tandem with a growing prevalence of type 2 diabetes,

according to epidemiological trends in the disease. Because of the disease's sneaky character, nephropathy frequently manifests earlier in this group compared to type 1 diabetes. According to research, people with type 2 diabetes are much more likely to develop diabetic nephropathy if they have low blood sugar levels, hypertension, dyslipidemia, and other diabetes-related problems [23].

Furthermore, differences in healthcare access, the standard of diabetes care, and the frequency of related comorbidities are highlighted by the regional variations in prevalence. Because they have poorer access to medical and preventive resources, people in countries with low or intermediate incomes are known to have greater prevalence of diabetic nephropathy [24]. Beyond its direct effects on the kidneys, diabetic nephropathy is significant because it is linked to a significant rise in cardiac morbidity and death. The risk of cardiovascular illnesses is significantly higher among individuals with diabetic nephropathy than in those without renal problems. Furthermore, because dialysis or renal transplantation are frequently necessary in the later phases of the disease, requiring extensive healthcare consumption and related expenses, diabetic nephropathy significantly lowers quality of life [25]. By lowering the prevalence of ESRD and related comorbidities, preventing diabetic kidney disease not only enhances the results for individual patients but also lessens the strain on healthcare systems. Therefore, reducing the likelihood of renal failure in people with diabetes requires the implementation of efficient management techniques that focus on managing glucose levels, arterial pressure regulation, and modifications to lifestyles [26].

## **1.2.2 Impact on morbidity and mortality in diabetic patients**

### **1.2.2.1 Morbidity Associated with Diabetic Nephropathy**

Patients with diabetes have a markedly higher morbidity rate when diabetic nephropathy is present. A wide range of symptoms and consequences can significantly lower quality of life due to the progressive nature of DN. For example, recurrent albuminuria, a defining feature of diabetic nephropathy, is a sign of renal impairment and is linked to symptoms such as discomfort, lower extremities edema, and exhaustion. People may also develop comorbidities like hypertension as their nephropathy worsens, which can lead to cardiovascular events and more renal damage [27]. Furthermore, there are close connections between diabetic nephropathy and other comorbidities, such as cardiovascular disease (CVD). The prevalence of CVD is significantly higher in patients with DN than in those without nephropathy. Diabetes management is made more difficult by research showing that diabetic nephropathy might raise the risk to heart disease and other cardiovascular diseases because of common risk factors including dyslipidemia and hypertension. In addition to increasing the risk for cardiovascular morbidity, this interconnected link makes treatment plans more difficult and frequently calls for multiple disciplines for the best possible care [28].

### **1.2.2.2 Mortality Risk in Diabetic Patients**

Diabetic nephropathy has an effect on mortality as well; there is strong evidence that individuals with DN are at a markedly higher risk of passing away than people without kidney failure. According to studies, the all-cause mortality rate for those with diabetic nephropathy is around 20–40 times higher, with cardiovascular reasons accounting for the majority of these deaths. For example, one study found that the ten-year total mortality rate for individuals who had both diabetes as well as renal illness was over 31%, which is much higher than rates of mortality in healthy individuals [29]. Diabetic nephropathy has multiple pathophysiological pathways that contribute to increased mortality. Decreased renal function is a hallmark of chronic renal failure (CKD), which increases the risk of cardiovascular diseases, the main killers of this population. Chronic irritation, toxins from the urine, and dyslipidemia are some of the factors that worsen cardiovascular and renal illness, creating a vicious process that eventually results in higher mortality [30].

### **1.2.2.3 The Significance of Early Detection and Intervention**

Early detection and care are critically needed, as diabetic nephropathy has serious consequences for morbidity and mortality. Diabetic individuals can benefit from routine kidney function and urine albumin level tests, which can help identify DN early and enable timely treatment. Slowing the development of nephropathy and lowering the related hazards of morbidity and mortality require effective management strategies, such as rigorous glucose levels and hypertension management, lifestyle changes, and medication therapies like ACE inhibitors (angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors [31]). Additionally, patient and healthcare provider education programs can raise awareness of the importance of effective control of diabetes-related

complications and routine monitoring. These actions could drastically change how diabetic nephropathy develops, reducing its negative effects on longevity and patient well-being [32].

### 1.3 Importance of Alternative Treatments

#### 1.3.1 Limitations of current standard treatments (e.g., ACE inhibitors, ARBs)

Because they can lower blood sugar levels and reduce proteinuria, two factors that are essential for maintaining kidney function, ACE inhibitors in addition to ARBs are some of the first-line pharmacological therapies for diabetic nephropathy. Nevertheless, these drugs have significant drawbacks in spite of their extensive use [33]. First off, although ACE inhibitors and ARBs can effectively slow the advancement of diabetic nephropathy, not all patients will have renal disease prevention. Research has shown that these medications do not reduce mortality in several patient groups [34]. ACE inhibitors and ARBs, for example, have been shown to have renoprotective effects, although they may have little to no effect on overall mortality when compared to a placebo. Also, even while receiving these medications, many diabetes patients develop gradual renal impairment, which may result in unfavorable clinical outcomes [35]. Second, these medications' adverse effects may restrict their use. Hyperkalemia is a disorder marked by elevated levels of potassium in the blood that can cause major cardiac problems. It is linked to both the use of ACE inhibitors and ARBs. Potassium levels must be monitored in patients taking these drugs, and elderly individuals or those with coexisting kidney disease are more vulnerable. Additionally, some people who take ACE inhibitors may develop coughing or angioedema, which can cause them to stop their treatment and reduce the number of options they have for controlling their hypertension [36]. Furthermore, there is a process called "angiotensin breakthrough," in which the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system's (RAAS) compensatory mechanisms cause the efficiency of these drugs to gradually decline. Due to this novel phenomenon, renal protection may deteriorate even with continued treatment, underscoring the need for alternate approaches that may provide further protective benefits [37].

#### 1.3.2 The Role of Alternative Treatments

Examining other therapies becomes essential in the management of diabetic nephropathy due to the drawbacks of ACE inhibitors and ARBs. Integrative therapies and natural products have attracted attention as possible supplements or substitutes for conventional pharmaceutical treatments. For instance, a number of studies suggest that substances with nephroprotective qualities may be found in sources found in nature, such as herbal remedies and certain metabolites. Drugs such as pentoxifylline and melatonin have demonstrated promise in enhancing renal function and reducing diabetic nephropathy symptoms [36,37]. Furthermore, dietary adjustments, physical activity, and stress-reduction methods like yoga and meditation can all greatly enhance the management of diabetic nephropathy. In addition to complementing traditional therapies, these integrative methods may also aid in the management of comorbidities that accelerate the course of renal disease [36, 38]. The investigation of new biomarkers and medicinal targets discovered by current developments in medical research offers an additional option for alternative therapies. Targeting particular pathways linked to the development of nephropathy through personalized medicine approaches may open up new avenues for successful treatment [39].

#### 1.3.3 Rising interest in natural compounds for managing diabetic nephropathy

In recent years, the therapy of diabetic kidney disease (DN) has drawn a lot of attention, which is consistent with a growing understanding of the drawbacks of traditional treatments. Research into alternative medicines, especially natural chemicals, has been sparked by the rising incidence of insulin resistance and its complications, especially kidney-related problems. These compounds are being researched for their possible nephroprotective effects and capacity to slow the onset of diabetic nephropathy. They are produced from botanicals and natural sources. With an emphasis on their methods, therapeutic potential, and future applications as adjunct therapies, this essay examines the reasons for the growing interest in natural chemicals for the management of diabetic nephropathy [40].

### 1.3.4 The Need for Alternative Therapies

Millions of people worldwide suffer from diabetic nephropathy, which is still one of the main causes of advanced renal disease (ESRD). Even though they are helpful, traditional pharmacological treatments like ACE inhibitors and ARBs have drawbacks such side effects and insufficient long-term efficacy. Because of these restrictions, it is necessary to look for extra or different therapies that can offer more advantages or lessen the problems that come with conventional therapy [41]. Furthermore, an increasing interest towards alternative therapies is a result of diabetic patients' frequent search for holistic methods to treat their illness. The anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and anti-fibrotic qualities of natural compounds such as flavonoids, polyphenols, and other bioactive substances have demonstrated promise in studies and are essential in addressing the pathophysiology that underlies diabetic nephropathy. The expanding body of research demonstrating the effectiveness of these natural chemicals in clinical settings, in addition to the patients' preferences, is the reason for this increased interest [42].

#### 1.3.4.1 Mechanisms of Action

Through a variety of methods that target several pathways linked to kidney damage, natural substances demonstrate their protective benefits against diabetic nephropathy. First, oxidative stress is a major factor in the development of diabetes problems, and many natural substances have potent antioxidant qualities that help reduce it. Flavonoids like resveratrol and quercetin, for instance, have the ability to eliminate reactive oxygen substances (ROS), avoiding renal cell damage and lowering the total oxidative burden [43]. Some natural substances have shown anti-inflammatory qualities along with to their antioxidant benefits. The pathogenesis of diabetic nephropathy is significantly influenced by chronic inflammation, which frequently exacerbates kidney damage. It has been discovered that natural compounds like curcumin and berberine reduce kidney inflammation and prevent fibrosis by modulating inflammatory pathways and inhibiting pro-inflammatory cytokines. Additionally, by enhancing lipid metabolism and decreasing renal fibrosis processes essential to maintaining renal integrity in diabetes patients natural substances can improve renal function [44].

#### 1.3.4.2 Clinical and Experimental Evidence

Numerous experimental and clinical investigations are showing the potential benefits of natural substances in the treatment of diabetic nephropathy. For example, studies have shown that dietary polyphenols, which are found in large quantities in fruits and vegetables, might considerably reduce the incidence of complications from diabetes, such as nephropathy. A larger intake of these chemicals is associated with a lower incidence of DN, according to epidemiological studies, suggesting that they may have a preventative role [45]. Additionally, experimental research shows that certain herbal extracts, such those found in traditional Chinese medicine, have renoprotective properties. In diabetic animals, for instance, substances such as *Dioscorea bulbifera* and the rhizoma *Anemarrhenae* have been demonstrated to enhance renal function and lower proteinuria. These results open the door for larger clinical trials to assess the safety and effectiveness of natural substances in human subjects, in addition to reaffirming their potential therapeutic benefits [46].

#### 1.3.4.3 Integrative Approaches in Diabetes Management

A paradigm change acknowledging the need for comprehensive care approaches is represented by the use of natural substances into diabetes management protocols. In addition to traditional pharmaceutical treatments, natural substances can be used as adjunct therapy. Healthcare professionals can improve patient outcomes and general quality of life by implementing dietary adjustments, lifestyle changes, and natural supplements. For example, promoting the consumption of particular foods high in polyphenols, including green tea, berries, and nuts, can help patients manage diabetes and its consequences holistically [47].

## 2. PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF DIABETIC NEPHROPATHY

### 2.1 Definition and Stages of Diabetic Nephropathy

#### 2.1.1 Progression from Microalbuminuria to Macroalbuminuria

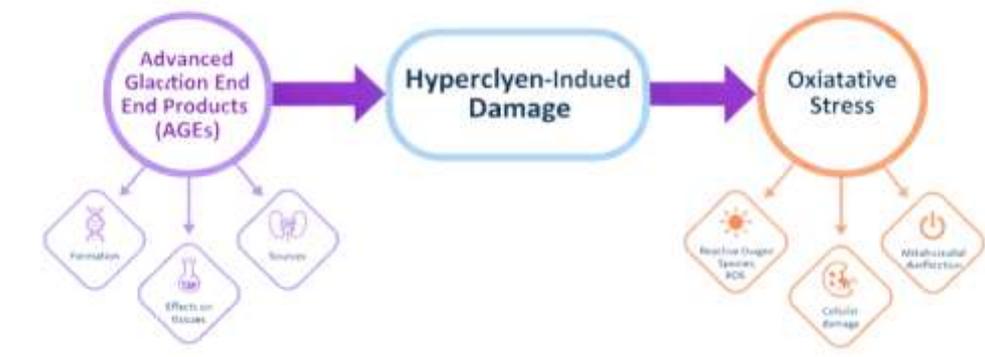
Recognizing the Mechanisms and Consequences

An early sign of kidney deterioration in diabetics is microalbuminuria, which is characterized as an amount of 30 to 300 milligrams of albumin in urination daily. When it develops into macroalbuminuria, which is defined as an albumin excretion rate of more than 300 mg per day, it indicates more severe renal impairment and dramatically increases the risk of cardiovascular problems and end-stage renal disease (ESRD). Effective leadership and intervention methods depend on an understanding of the mechanisms underlying this progression [48].

##### 2.1.1.1 Pathophysiological Mechanisms of Progression

A number of interconnected pathophysiological processes mostly mediate the change from microalbuminuria to macroalbuminuria. Enhanced renal glomerular permeability is one of the main causes, which is brought on by a number of structural and functional alterations in glomerular endothelium and mesangial cells. A decline in renal function is indicated by the increased permeability that permits more albumin to leak into urine [49]. This mechanism is significantly influenced by hyperglycemia. Advanced glycation end-products, or AGEs, are produced as a result of persistently elevated blood glucose levels and directly cause glomerular damage. AGEs exacerbate renal disease by promoting inflammation and oxidative stress, which damages cells. Further encouraging glomerular hypertension and ultimately exacerbating proteinuria, hyperglycemia also activates the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS). According to research, 2.8 percent of patients suffering microalbuminuria will develop macroalbuminuria annually, underscoring the need for prompt monitoring and treatment plans [50]. The role of hypertension is another important factor in the progression; high blood pressure is often seen in diabetics and plays a major role in the decline of kidney function. Microalbuminuria and hypertension interact in a vicious cycle, with hypertension aggravating protein leakage and persistent microalbuminuria raising blood pressure by activating RAAS [51].

**Figure 2: Molecular Mechanisms of Diabetic Nephropathy**



##### 2.1.1.2 Risk Factors for Progression

Poor glycemic control is a significant risk factor for continuing from a condition called micro to macroalbuminuria in diabetic patients. Certain genetic variants have been linked to renal disease progression, while modifiable lifestyle factors like being overweight, lack of regular exercise, and dietary habits can also have a significant impact on renal health (52). Poor glycemic management is one of the strongest indicators of progression. Keeping hemoglobin that has been glycated (A1c) values below 7% is crucial for lowering the risk of renal dysfunction. Despite those suggestions, many diabetes patients do not attain optimal glycemic control, which increases the risk of development to macroalbuminuria [53]. Furthermore, ethnic and gender disparities support the hazards associated with progressing from the condition to macroalbuminuria. According to studies, certain ethnic groups, such as African Americans, Native Americans, and Hispanics, have greater incidences of renal disease than non-Hispanic whites. Gender variations in vulnerability to

diabetes-related kidney disease development have also been identified, with evidence indicating that males may advance faster[54].

### 2.1.1.3 Clinical Implications of Progression

The clinical ramifications of moving from a condition called micro to macroalbuminuria are significant. Patients who progress to macroalbuminuria are considerably more likely to develop ESRD and cardiovascular disease. The prevalence of macroalbuminuria is related with significant increases in morbidity and death, emphasizing the importance of early screening and intervention[55]. Implementing thorough management techniques is critical for mitigating the dangers associated with this advancement. Standard guidelines include stringent blood pressure management (targets below 130/80 mm Hg) and glycemic control optimization via dietary changes, lifestyle alterations, and drugs such as ACE inhibitors and ARBs. Additionally, screening for additional diseases such as hyperlipidemia and hypertension is required in people with microalbuminuria to promote early interventions[56].

## 2.1.2 End-Stage Renal Disease (ESRD) and Its Implications

### 2.1.2.1 Physical Implications of ESRD

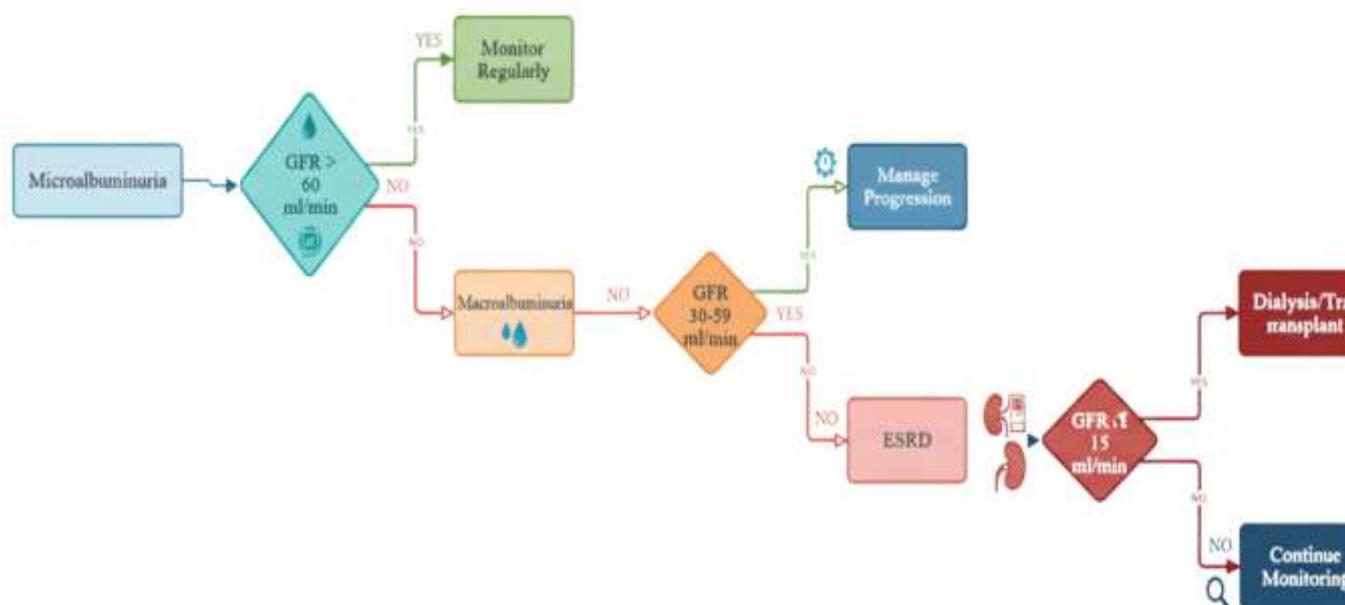
Physically, ESRD causes several issues that significantly lower an individual's quality of life. Patients report a variety of signs, including weakness, vomiting, loss of hunger, and fluid retention that causes swelling in their limbs. As kidney function deteriorates, so does the body's capacity to eliminate waste products and balance electrolytes, resulting in hazardous fluid accumulations, potassium (high potassium levels), and metabolic waste. Individuals with ESRD may have additional issues, such as anemia due to decreased production of erythropoietin, metabolic bone disease caused by phosphate and calcium imbalances, and an increased vulnerability to cardiovascular disease, based on the National Kidney Federation. Furthermore, studies show that the rate of death associated with ESRD is much greater compared to that of the overall population, with up to half of patients dying within two or three years without effective renal replacement therapy. The primary causes of mortality are heart attacks and complications associated with kidney failure, which include significant hyperkalemia as well as metabolic abnormalities.[57]

### 2.1.2.2 Psychological Impact

The ESRD diagnosis has significant psychosocial consequences. Many patients suffer from feelings of sadness, anxiety, and disturbed self-perception as a result of their decreasing health. The essential shifts connected with treatment methods, like as adjusting to life on dialysis treatment or awaiting a transplant, frequently elicit emotions of inadequacy and distress. Frequent trips to healthcare institutions, continuing self-administration necessities, and lifestyle and dietary adaptations can all worsen psychological loads, resulting in a lower quality of life[58]. Depression is very common in ESRD patients, with estimates indicating about 20-30% of this group of people experiences substantial depressive symptoms, comparing to the overall demographic's lifetime prevalence of around 16%. The importance of psychological assistance and social acceptance is clear, as these elements have a significant impact on both medication adherence and general well-being[59].

### 2.1.2.3 Socioeconomic Implications

Beyond the personal health repercussions, ESRD imposes significant socioeconomic costs. Long-term dialysis or a kidney transplant can be extremely expensive, costing thousands of dollars per patient each year. Patients must frequently traverse complex medical systems, insurance discussions, and financial preparation to cover the expensive nature of their treatments, which include drugs, regular lab testing, and hospitalizations. The increasing frequency of ESRD has significant cost ramifications for healthcare systems. There are increasing pressure on healthcare resources as the total amount of patients in need of renal replacement therapy rises to over 500,000 in the US alone. This leads to higher healthcare costs, which may be problematic for both government healthcare systems and commercial insurers[58,59]. Workforce involvement may also be hampered for numerous patients, particularly those having dialysis treatments, which take up a significant amount of time each week. Reduced job capacity can result in severe loss of income for individuals and their families, compromising their financial security and ability to fund critical healthcare[59].

**Figure 3: Stages of Diabetic Nephropathy**

## 2.2 Risk Factors for Diabetic Nephropathy

In order to manage and prevent diabetic nephropathy (DN), a serious outcome of diabetes that is a major cause of advanced renal disease (ESRD) and chronic kidney disease (CKD), it is critical to comprehend the different risk factors linked to the development and progression of DN[60].

### 2.2.1 Diabetes Type 1 vs. Type 2: Differences in Onset and Progression

The differences between both types of diabetes have a substantial impact on the beginning and development of diabetic nephropathy. Diabetes type 1 is largely an autoimmune condition that usually appears during infancy or adolescence. In this version, the immune system targets insulin-producing beta cells, resulting in a lack of insulin and chronic hyperglycemia. While patients with type-1 diabetes may not develop albuminuria for approximately fifteen to twenty years after disease onset, findings reveal that diabetes-related kidney disease develops gradually in these people[61]. Type 2 diabetes, on the other hand, usually appears later in life and is frequently linked to obese and insulin resistance. One of the distinguishing features of diabetes with type 2 is that many patients show with the presence of albumin at the moment of diagnosis. Type 2 diabetes patients possess a significantly greater risk of kidney damage compared to those in Type 1 diabetes (P 0.0001 or higher), indicating that metabolic disturbances contribute to a faster progression closer to damage to the renal. Thus, whereas both kinds of diabetes increase the risk of diabetic nephropathy, the causes and timescales differ significantly [62].

### 2.2.2 Genetics and Family History: Hereditary Factors Influencing Susceptibility

Diabetic nephropathy susceptibility is heavily influenced by genetic predisposition. A person's family history might have a substantial impact on their risk, as proven by several studies revealing that hereditary variables affect the advancement of kidney disease in diabetes individuals. For example, research shows that if either of the parents have diabetes, approximately 46% percent their offspring would develop the condition, compared with only 23% if one parent has proteinuria, demonstrating a substantial familial genetic susceptibility[63]. Furthermore, among people with diabetes, certain genetic variants and mutations have been connected to an elevated risk of advanced renal disease. These genetic variables can influence kidney function, inflammation, and the body's general response to hyperglycemia, eventually influencing the pathophysiological steps that cause nephropathy. Therefore, a full study of genetic variables is crucial for evaluating patient risk and creating individualized prevention strategies[64].

### 2.2.3 Metabolic Syndrome Components: Role of Hypertension, Obesity, and Dyslipidemia

The metabolic syndrome components hypertension, obesity, and dyslipidemia are important indicators for diabetic nephropathy, hastening its progression. All of the elements work together to support the pathways of chronic renal disease. Hypertension is common among diabetics and both causes and contributes to kidney impairment. High blood pressure hastens the course of nephropathy, resulting in a cycle of deteriorating renal function and increasing albuminuria. According to studies, maintaining appropriate control of blood pressure can help to prevent the start and development of diabetic nephropathy[65]. Obesity is another significant risk factor for metabolic syndrome, which has a negative impact on renal function. Excess body weight is associated with insulin resistance, increasing the likelihood of diabetes and diabetic nephropathy. Furthermore, obesity promotes ongoing inflammation and cellular oxidative stress, either of which worsen kidney injury. According to research, those with greater body mass index (BMI) have a higher risk of developing renal disease quickly[66]. Finally, dyslipidemia characterized by elevated cholesterol levels is common in diabetic individuals and causes the progression of diabetic nephropathy. High triglyceride levels and low amounts of high-density lipoprotein, or HDL, cholesterol are especially problematic because they promote kidney impairment via processes such as antioxidant depletion and inflammation. The interaction of these metabolic factors generates an ideal circumstance for kidney damage among diabetics, emphasizing the importance of tailored interventions[67].

**Table 1: Risk Factors for Diabetic Nephropathy**

Risk Factor	Type 1 Diabetes	Type 2 Diabetes
Genetic Factors	Family history of Type 1 diabetes or autoimmune diseases	Family history of Type 2 diabetes and metabolic syndrome
Hyperglycemia	Poor glycemic control (high HbA1c)	Chronic high blood sugar due to insulin resistance
Hypertension	Develops secondary to kidney damage	Pre-existing hypertension worsens kidney function
Dyslipidemia	Less common, but LDL cholesterol may contribute	High triglycerides, LDL-C, and low HDL-C accelerate nephropathy
Obesity	Not a primary risk factor	Strongly associated with increased kidney damage
Insulin Resistance	Minimal or absent (autoimmune destruction of $\beta$ -cells)	Key feature of Type 2 diabetes, worsens kidney function
Inflammation & Oxidative Stress	Autoimmune-driven inflammation	Chronic low-grade inflammation in obesity and diabetes
Proteinuria (Early Marker)	Develops with prolonged hyperglycemia	More likely to be present at diagnosis
Smoking	Increases risk of kidney damage	Strongly linked to worsened nephropathy progression
Dietary Habits	High-protein diet may stress kidneys	High-calorie, high-fat diets worsen insulin resistance
Sedentary Lifestyle	May not be a major factor	Strongly linked to obesity, insulin resistance, and kidney damage

### 2.3 Molecular Mechanisms of Diabetic Nephropathy

Diabetes nephropathy (DN) can be a severe consequence of diabetes mellitus that can progress to chronic kidney disorder (CKD) and, eventually, end-stage kidney disease (ESRD). It is characterized by alterations in kidney structure and function, which are primarily caused by hyperglycemia. Identifying the molecular mechanisms underlying these alterations is crucial for developing effective treatment approaches. This paper investigates the roles of diabetes and advanced product of glycation (AGEs) in kidney failure, the effect of elevated glucose levels on the rate of filtration (GFR), the effects of oxidative stress and inflammation via pro-inflammatory mediators, and the fibrosis paths involved in DN[68].

### 2.3.1 Hyperglycemia and Kidney Damage

The main cause of diabetes complications, such as kidney damage, is chronic hyperglycemia. Prolonged exposure to high blood glucose levels causes an excess of ROS, or reactive oxygen species, and triggers a variety of pathogenic pathways that ultimately result in kidney damage. Hyperglycemia triggers a number of processes, including the overproduction of AGEs, possibly which cause structural changes in renal tissues, eventually leading to a reduction in kidney function[69].Hyperglycemia also has a negative impact on glomerular hemodynamics. Increased glucose levels are connected with hyperfiltration, which causes increased pressure within the glomeruli and contributes to glomerular capillary injury. As a result, the filtration barrier is impaired, allowing for increased protein permeability and the development of microalbuminuria, a precursor to overt nephropathy [70].

#### 2.3.1.1 Role of Advanced Glycation End-products (AGEs)

The Maillard reaction involving lowering sugars as well as proteins, fatty acids, or nucleic acids produces AGEs, which are more prevalent in hyperglycemic situations. Once generated, AGEs accumulate in the tissues of the kidneys and cause a variety of clinical reactions, increasing damage to the kidneys. Their aggregation is known to cause inflammation and oxidative stress, which promotes cellular death and fibrosis[71]. Numerous intracellular signaling pathways are triggered when AGEs connect to their receptor is THE RAGE (receptors for advanced glycation end-products), which increases oxidative stress and promotes the synthesis of inflammatory cytokines. Furthermore, AGEs accelerate the epithelial to mesenchymal switch (EMT) in tubular cells in the kidney, which is an important stage in renal fibrosis. This transition adds to the formation of ECM, or extracellular matrix, components, exacerbating the renal scarring caused by DN[72].

#### 2.3.1.2 Impact of Hyperglycemia on Glomerular Filtration Rate (GFR)

There is a complicated link between glomerular filtration rate and hyperglycemia. Initially, hyperglycemia improves GFR due to glomerular excessive filtration; but, over time, this might lead to a deterioration in kidney function. According to studies, patients with diabetes undergo a steady reduction in GFR over time, eventually leading to ESRD [73]. Furthermore, studies show that as hyperglycemia and related damage progress, glomerular blood vessels undergo structural changes such as hypertrophy of the basement membrane of the glomerular system and enlargement of the mesangial matrix. These pathological changes cause a decline in GFR over time when the kidney's structural integrity is compromised[74].

#### 2.3.1.3 Inflammation and Oxidative Stress

Inflammation is a major factor in the pathogenesis of diabetic nephropathy. Pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 contribute significantly to the inflammatory response in DN. The renal production of these kinds of cytokines is higher in diabetic individuals and corresponds with the progression of nephropathy. They encourage renal cell death, cause fibrosis, and exacerbate the inflammatory environment in the kidney[75]. The harm brought on by inflammation is made worse by oxidative stress, which is defined by an imbalance in reactive species and antioxidants. Oxidative stress during chronic hyperglycemia leads to increased generation of TNF-, or and IL-6, perpetuating inflammatory damage. This oxidative condition also promotes cellular death and is linked to the evolution of fibrosis[76].

#### 2.3.1.4 Pathways Involved in Fibrosis

Fibrosis is a significant cause of kidney damage in patients with diabetes. It involves multiple signaling pathways, including TGF- $\beta$  signaling. TGF- $\beta$  stimulates ECM protein synthesis and promotes fibrosis in the kidney through downstream effectors Smad2 and Smad3. This signaling cascade causes increased collagen deposition as well as abnormal transitions of renal cells that contribute to renal scarring [77]. Diabetic nephropathy is characterized by extracellular matrix remodeling. The buildup of elements of ECM such as collagen, a protein fibronectin, with proteoglycans thickens the glomerular and bronchial structures, causing substantial renal scarring and impairment. The difference in ECM formation and breakdown accelerates the progression to renal failure, highlighting the need for treatment options that target these fibrotic pathways[78].

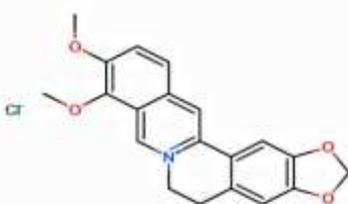
### 3. Pharmacological Profile of Berberine HCl

One naturally produced isoquinoline alkaloid that has attracted a lot of attention lately is berberine hcl (Berberine HCl), which has a wide range of pharmacological properties and possible applications. Its effectiveness and use in clinical settings can be fully understood by knowing its pharmacokinetics, natural sources, chemical structure, and excretion pathways. This essay will look at the chemical composition and sources of berberine, as well as its pharmacokinetics, which include intake, distribution, metabolism, and elimination, and the consequences for dosing[79].

#### 3.1 Chemical Structure and Source

A quaternary ammonium group and a dihydroisoquinoline ring define the complex chemical structure of berberine. Its chemical formula is  $C_{20}H_{18}ClNO_4$ , and its molecular weight is about 371.81 g/mol. This chemical makeup enables berberine to demonstrate a wide spectrum of pharmacological activity, making it an appealing option for therapeutic applications[80]. Berberine is naturally found in a variety of plant species, the majority of which are found in the *Berberis* genus, such as *Berberis vulgaris* (barberries), *Berberis plant aquifolium* (Oregon's grapes), and *Berberis aristata* (plant turmeric). Apart from these, berberine can be extracted from *Hydrastis canadensis*, *Coptis chinensis* as well as other plants in the *Berberidaceae* family. The therapeutic value of berberine is shown by the extensive history of traditional medicinal usage of these sources, especially in Ayurvedic as well as traditional Chinese medicine [81].

**Figure 4: Chemical Structure of Berberine HCl**



#### 3.2 Pharmacokinetics

##### 3.2.1 Absorption: Bioavailability and Contributing Factors

Berberine has low oral bioavailability, frequently stated to be less than 1%. Several variables contribute to its lack of bioavailability, particularly its hydrophilic character, which reduces gastrointestinal absorption. Furthermore, berberine goes through substantial metabolism in its first pass in the liver, resulting in fast removal through systemic circulation. Studies reveal that relative bioavailability ranges; one study found an amount of 0.36% – 0.68% following oral treatment in animal models[82]. To address the issue of limited bioavailability, several formulation options have been investigated to improve berberine intake, involving the invention of nanoparticle-based formulations and phytosomes. These techniques aim to improve berberine's solubility and permeability, perhaps leading to increased therapeutic efficacy[83].

##### 3.2.2 Distribution: Tissue Distribution Patterns

Berberine's tissue distribution pattern is fast after absorption. It is primarily found in the liver as well as the kidneys, lung capacity, the brain, the heart, and fat tissue. Berberine concentrations in these organs are generally higher than in peripheral blood, indicating a focused distribution that may benefit its pharmacological activities. For example, buildup in adipose tissue may enhance its anti-obesity benefits by regulating lipid absorption and energy expenditure[84].

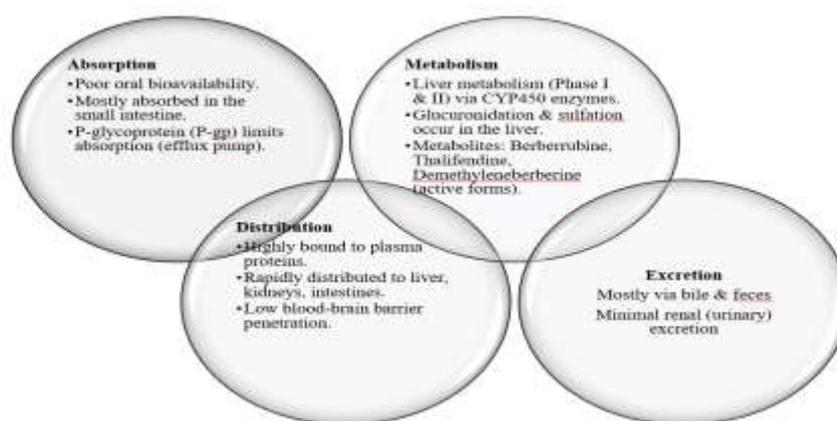
### 3.2.3 Metabolism: Metabolic Pathways and Enzymes Involved

Berberine undergoes extensive metabolic processes, mainly within the power source liver and the intestines. The fundamental metabolic processes routes involve the demethylation, reducing, hydroxylation, and after conjugation to form influential metabolites over time. Cytochrome P450 enzymes, especially CYP3A4, serves an essential role in the the metabolism of a substance called resulting in varying metabolic product descriptions in separate individuals and populations[85].

### 3.2.4 Excretion: Routes and Implications for Dosing

The renal and biliary systems are the primary routes of excretion for berberine and its metabolites. According to studies, berberine remains in both urine and stool following oral ingestion, indicating that the kidney is an important route. This needs careful consideration of dose regimens, as renal function can have a substantial impact on berberine's therapeutic efficacy. Because of its limited bioavailability, repeated dosage may be required to obtain adequate systemic concentrations, highlighting the importance of individualized dosing regimens depending on patient-specific factors[86].

**Figure 5: Pharmacokinetics of Berberine HCl**



## 3.3 Therapeutic Uses of Berberine HCl

The natural isoquinoline alkaloid berberine hcl (Berberine HCl) has become well-known in the field of medical therapy because of its wide range of pharmacological characteristics. This essay will look at the medicinal benefits of berberine, including its impact on blood sugar management, metabolism of lipids, and kidney conservation in diabetic models.

### 3.3.1 Blood Sugar Regulation

It has been discovered that berberine is especially useful in controlling blood sugar levels, affecting both postprandial and fasting glucose concentrations. Berberine has been shown in clinical trials to dramatically reduce fasting blood glucose, or FBG, and postprandial blood sugar (PPBG) levels among individuals who have type 2 diabetes mellitus. In one clinical research, subjects treated with berberine showed a mean drop in blood glucose levels between 10.6 mmol/L - 6.9 mmol/L over the course of three months, as well as reductions in PPBG between 19.8 mmol/L - 11.1 mmol/L. Berberine's hypoglycemic impact is due to its capacity to increase insulin sensitivity, promote glucose absorption by the peripheral tissues, and limit glucose synthesis in the liver. Berberine regulates glucose and lipid metabolism by activating adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase (AMPK) (2006). As a result, berberine has demonstrated potential as a treatment option for treating hyperglycemia in diabetics[87].

### 3.3.2 Lipid Metabolism

Berberine is well known because of its lipid-lowering properties, which have a significant impact on heart function. Berberine has been shown to aid in stabilize blood glucose levels, making it an important natural treatment for diabetes. According to research, it can lower overall cholesterol level, triglycerides (TG), low-density lipoprotein (LDL-C, commonly known as "negative" cholesterol), while potentially increasing high-density lipoprotein levels (HDL-C, or "good" cholesterol). A meta-analysis of over 2,100 participants indicated that berberine reduced total cholesterol by 0.47 mmol/liter and LDL cholesterol by 0.38 mmol/L, indicating its potential heart health advantages[88]. Berberine's lipid-lowering benefits are achieved by a variety of methods, including increased hepatic LDL receptor expression, which improves LDL clearance from the circulation. Berberine also decreases the development of PCSK9, a protein that destroys LDL receptors, which aids in LDL clearance. Collectively, these interventions reduce cardiovascular risk in those with lipid disorders and metabolic syndrome[89].

### 3.3.3 Kidney Protection

Berberine also shows promise nephroprotective qualities, especially in diabetes settings where kidney injury is common. Berberine has been found in studies to help treat kidney damage caused by diabetes (DN) by increasing renal function indicators such the amount of blood urea nitrogen and serum creatinine (SCR). Berberine therapy in DN experimental models was related with decreased renal injury and inflammation, suggesting its ability to protect prevent diabetic-induced renal damage[90]. Berberine works by suppressing inflammatory processes and oxidative stress, both of which contribute significantly to diabetic renal impairment. Berberine has been shown to reduce TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6, cytokines that contribute to nephropathy development. Furthermore, by inhibiting the epithelial to mesenchymal transformation (EMT) in cells of the renal tubules, berberine helps to avoid fibrosis, a major pathogenic characteristic of DN[91].

**Table 3: Therapeutic Uses of Berberine HCl**

Therapeutic Effect	Mechanism of Action	Supporting Studies/References
Blood Sugar Regulation	Activates AMPK pathway, improves insulin sensitivity, reduces hepatic gluconeogenesis.	Ye et al., 2021 (PMID: 33981233)
Lipid Metabolism	Lowers LDL-C, TG, and total cholesterol, increases HDL; inhibits PCSK9 pathway.	Shrivastava et al., 2023 (DOI: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e21233)
Kidney Protection	Reduces oxidative stress, inflammation, and fibrosis in diabetic kidney disease (DKD).	Qin et al., 2020 (PMID: 31734944)
Anti-Inflammatory	Inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B, COX-2, and TNF- $\alpha$ pathways, reducing inflammatory cytokines.	Tsang et al., 2016 (PMID: 27104513)
Neuroprotection	Improves mitochondrial function, reduces oxidative stress in neurodegenerative diseases.	Various studies (meta-analysis)
Gut Microbiota Modulation	Increases beneficial bacteria (e.g., Akkermansia), reduces harmful gut microbes linked to metabolic disorders.	Various studies on gut microbiota

## 4. Mechanisms of Action of Berberine HCl

Berberine hydrochloride is known as an important therapeutic drug with strong pharmacological effects, notably in the treatment of metabolic diseases. It improves insulin sensitivity, inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B signaling for anti-inflammatory effects, has antioxidant properties, and modulates gut flora. This essay will go deeply into these pathways in order to better understand Berberine HCl's varied role[92].

## 4.1 Insulin Sensitivity Improvement

One of Berberine HCl's most notable benefits is its ability to enhance insulin sensitivity, which is an important aspect in the treatment of diabetes type 2 mellitus. The fundamental process is the stimulation of AMP-triggered protein kinase, an essential regulator of cellular energy balance. AMPK activation stimulates glucose absorption in peripheral tissue by increasing the mobility of the fourth glucose transporter (GLUT4) towards the cell membrane. In clinical investigations, Berberine administration resulted in a significant drop in fasting blood sugar and insulin resistance indices, indicating its function as an insulin sensitizer. Berberine activates AMPK, which has a number of downstream actions, including inhibiting the production of glucose in the liver, increasing lipid breakdown and oxidation of fatty acids in adipose tissue, and modulating lipid profiles. Berberine improves insulin sensitivity and lipid metabolism by activating AMPK pathways, with complementing impacts on levels of blood glucose [92,93].

## 4.2 Anti-inflammatory Effects

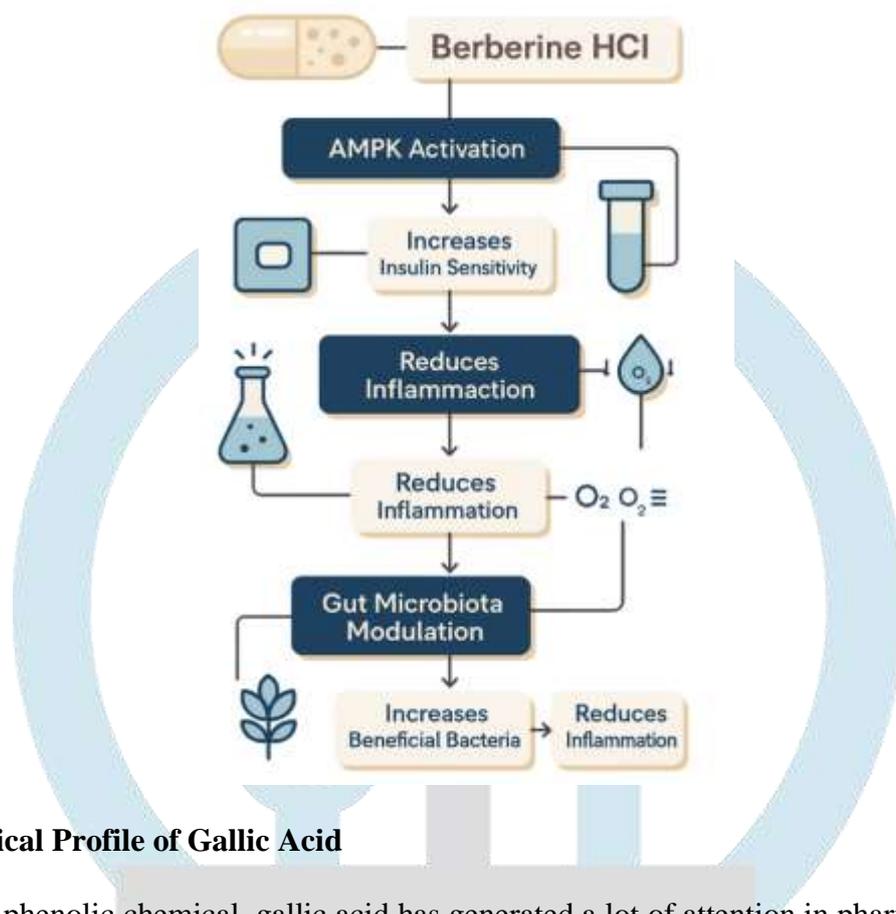
Berberine HCl effectively reduces inflammation by inhibiting the NF- $\kappa$ B signaling pathway. NF- $\kappa$ B plays a vital role in inflammatory reactions by regulating the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6. Berberine inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B activation, reducing inflammation linked to metabolic diseases including diabetes. Berberine has been shown to reduce activation of I $\kappa$ B kinases (IKK) & I $\kappa$ B protein, inhibiting NF- $\kappa$ B from translocating to the nucleus and activating transcription. This effect demonstrates Berberine's ability to operate not only as an anti-inflammatory drug, but also as a regulator of chronic inflammation, a frequent mechanism causing resistance to insulin and other metabolic diseases [93,94].

## 4.3 Antioxidant Properties

Along with its anti-inflammatory actions, Berberine has significant antioxidant activity, efficiently removing free radicals and decreasing oxidative stress in numerous tissues. This activity is crucial since oxidative damage has been linked to the development of several chronic illnesses, include heart disease, diabetes, and some forms of cancer. Berberine's antioxidant properties are mediated through a variety of routes. Berberine has been shown in studies to increase the production of anti-oxidant enzymes like superoxide dismutase, or SOD, and catalase, which neutralise oxygen species that are reactive (ROS). Furthermore, berberine activates its nuclear factor erythroid -2-related factor two pathways. This moves to the the nucleus itself where it stimulates the transcription of many genes encoding for antioxidant proteins, enhancing the cell's ability to battle oxidative stress[93,94,95].

## 4.4 Modulation of Gut Microbiota

Berberine's antioxidant properties are mediated through a variety of routes. Berberine has been shown in studies to increase the production of anti-oxidant enzymes like superoxide dismutase, or SOD, and catalase, which neutralise oxygen species that are reactive (ROS). Furthermore, berberine activates its nuclear factor erythroid -2-related factor two pathways. This moves to the the nucleus itself where it stimulates the transcription of many genes encoding for antioxidant proteins, enhancing the cell's ability to battle oxidative stress[93,94,95]. Berberine has been shown in recent research to play a substantial impact in altering gut microbiota, which is important for inflammatory processes and metabolic health. Berberine has been shown to modify the makeup of the microbiota in the gut in preference for beneficial bacteria, hence improving gut health and influencing systemic inflammation. One of Berberine's most significant impacts is its capacity to enhance the quantity in microorganisms that produces fatty acids. that are known to help maintain gut barrier integrity and have anti-inflammatory properties. The increased generation of SCFAs, such as butyrate, promotes a healthy intestinal environment and contributes in the lowering of pro-inflammatory cytokines, hence reducing overall inflammation. Berberine treatment has also been shown to reduce the amount of pathogenic bacteria associated with inflammatory reactions, resulting in a better gut microbiota composition. This modification can help treat dysbiosis-related disorders such as obesity and the metabolic syndrome by restoring gut microbial balance and enhancing metabolic parameters[96].

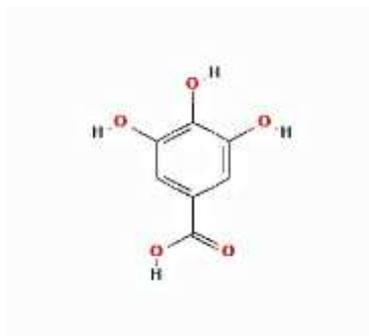
**Figure 6: Mechanisms of Berberine HCl in Diabetic Nephropathy**

## 5. Pharmacological Profile of Gallic Acid

A naturally found phenolic chemical, gallic acid has generated a lot of attention in pharmacology because of its many medicinal uses. Gallic acid, which is prevalent in a variety of vegetables, fruits, and plants, has significant health advantages due to its chemical structure and pharmacological profile. This paper investigates gallic acid's chemical composition and resources, pharmacokinetics, and therapeutic applications, with a focus on its antioxidative and anti-inflammatory effects, as well as its involvement in cancer prevention [97].

### 5.1 Chemical Structure and Source

Gallic acid, sometimes called 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoic acid, has three hydroxyl groups connected to a benzoic acid molecule. Its chemical formula is  $C_7H_6O_5$ , with a molecular mass of 170.12 g/mol. Gallic acid's unusual structure confers high electron-donating and antioxidant characteristics, making it a promising option for a variety of medicinal uses. Gallic acid may be found naturally in a variety of veggies, fruits, and plants, with particularly high quantities in blackberries, leaves of tea, grapes, and oak bark. It is produced mostly from gallnuts, that have long been utilized in traditional medicine. These foods not only add to dietary intake, but they have also been demonstrated to improve health outcomes because of their significant polyphenolic content, with gallic acid being a major component[97,98].

**Figure 7: Chemical Structure of Gallic Acid**

## 5.2 Pharmacokinetics

It is essential to comprehend gallic acid's pharmacokinetics in order to use it therapeutically. This include the processes of absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion.

### 5.2.1 Absorption: Factors That Influence Absorption Rates

Following oral consumption, gallic acid is absorbed mostly in the gastrointestinal system. However, the bioavailability is minimal, owing to poor solubility and quick metabolism. The availability of extra nutrients in the diet, the manner of how gallic acid is eaten (free form versus polyphenol-bound), and the gut pH all have an impact on its absorption rates. For example, the addition of agents that emulsify and dietary lipids might increase the solubility & absorption into the circulation [99,100].

### 5.2.2 Distribution: Role in Systemic Distribution Within the Body

Once ingested, gallic acid circulates throughout the body. According to studies, the molecule may reach a variety of organs, including the kidneys, liver, and brain, where it exerts antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects. Factors influencing its distribution include binding to plasma proteins and gallic acid's lipid solubility, both of which affect its transit across cell membranes[100,101].

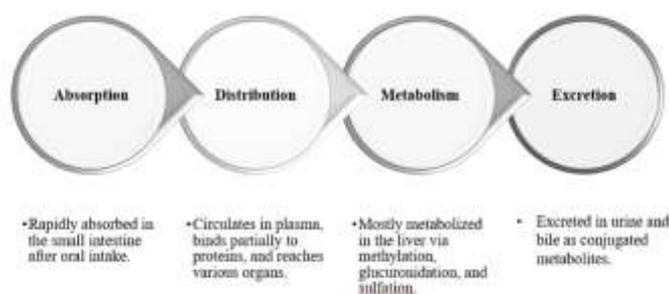
### 5.2.3 Metabolism: Biotransformation Pathways

Gallic acid is extensively metabolized, especially by the liver, wherein it gets conjugated to generate a variety of metabolites such as glucuronides and sulphates. This metabolic change is essential for its pharmacological action and affects treatment effectiveness. The major metabolic product, 4-O-methylgallic acid, is eliminated in the urine and is a reliable indication of dietary gallic acid consumption [100,101,102].

### 5.2.4 Excretion: Mechanisms of Clearance from the Body

Gallic acid as well as its byproducts are mostly eliminated from the body by renal excretion. Roughly 70% of gallic acid is eliminated by urinary system as methylated derivatives, according to studies, highlighting the significance of the renal system in the clearance process. Thus, renal health variables can impact gallic acid clearance from the body, which should be considered in clinical applications[100,101,012,103].

**Figure 8: Pharmacokinetics of Gallic Acid**



## 5.3 Therapeutic Uses

Gallic acid is widely recognized for its multiple medicinal applications, which are confirmed by a growing amount of scientific data.

### 5.3.1 Antioxidative Activities

One of gallic acid's most remarkable properties is its high antioxidative activity. According to research, gallic acid effectively removes oxygen species that are reactive (ROS), preventing cells from stress caused by oxidation and damage. Its antioxidative benefits are supported by processes such as free radical scavenging, increased activity of natural antioxidants like as superoxide dismutase , as well as upregulation of the pathway

mediated by Nrf2, which modulates antioxidative gene expression. These qualities make gallic acid a promising option for treating oxidative stress-related diseases[104].

### 5.3.2 Anti-inflammatory Properties

Gallic acid has shown great potential in eliciting anti-inflammatory responses, especially in models of inflammatory disorders. Gallic acid inhibits the NF- $\kappa$ B signaling pathway, which initiates inflammatory reactions, and hence reduces the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6. Its ability to lower inflammation implies that it may be useful in treating inflammatory bowel disorder and rheumatoid arthritis[105].

### 5.3.3 Role in Cancer Prevention

Gallic acid's involvement in avoiding cancer is becoming more recognized because of its ability to suppress cancer cell growth and cause apoptosis. This compound produces its anticancer effects via modulating the PI3K/Akt route, which is essential for cell survival as well as growth. Gallic acid, by inhibiting this mechanism, can increase apoptosis in malignant cells while preventing metastases. Furthermore, data shows that gallic acid's antioxidant capabilities contribute to its anticancer effect by lowering cellular stress and DNA damage, which supports its cancer-prevention role[106].

**Table 4: Therapeutic Uses of Gallic Acid**

Therapeutic Use	Mechanism of Action	Supporting Studies
Antioxidative Activity	Scavenges free radicals, reduces oxidative stress, and enhances cellular defense.	Tsao R. (2010), J Agric Food Chem.
Anti-inflammatory	Inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B signaling, reduces pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6).	Shi Y. et al. (2016), Mol Med Rep.
Anticancer	Induces apoptosis, inhibits angiogenesis, and modulates cell cycle.	Verma S. et al. (2013), Biomed Res Int
Cardioprotective	Reduces LDL oxidation, lowers cholesterol, and improves endothelial function.	Kaur M. et al. (2018), Int J Cardiol.
Neuroprotective	Protects against neurodegeneration by reducing oxidative stress and inflammation.	Zeng Y. et al. (2019), Front Pharmacol.
Hepatoprotective	Prevents liver damage by reducing lipid peroxidation and inflammation.	Kim DH et al. (2014), Food Chem Toxicol.
Antidiabetic	Enhances insulin sensitivity, reduces blood glucose, and protects pancreatic $\beta$ -cells.	Pandey KB et al. (2010), Oxid Med Cell Longev.

## 6. Mechanisms of Action of Gallic Acid

### 6.1 Free Radical Scavenging

One of the primary methods through which the compound gallic acid exerts its beneficial benefits is free radical scavenging. Gallic acid contains several hydroxyl groups, allowing it to effectively eliminate reactive oxygen species (ROS). Gallic acid's phenolic structure allows it to contribute atoms of hydrogen or electrons to generate free radicals, stabilizing them and minimizing cellular damage. Specific investigations have shown that gallic acid may actively scavenge free radicals such as hydroxyl radicals and superoxide ions, which contributes to its antioxidative properties. Gallic acid has also been demonstrated to increase the activity of natural antioxidant enzymes, such as glutathione peroxidase, catalase, and superoxide dismutase, all of which are essential for reducing oxidative stress. Gallic acid's dual effect as an immediate scavenger of free radicals

and an amplifier of the body's antioxidant defenses shows its potential for lowering the risk of oxidative stress-related diseases[107].

## 6.2 Regulation of Inflammatory Pathways

Gallic acid is critical for modulating inflammatory pathways, particularly by inhibiting mediators that promote inflammation and signaling cascades. Gallic acid inhibits the NF- $\kappa$ B signaling pathway, reducing the production of cytokines that cause inflammation such TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , and IL-6. NF- $\kappa$ B activates pro-inflammatory genes. Gallic acid inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B activity, which lowers inflammation. Furthermore, gallic acid has been demonstrated to inhibit the activation of MAPK (mitogen-activated protein kinase) channels such as ERK, JNK, and p38 MAPK, all of those participate in the movement of inflammatory signals. Gallic acid's suppression of these pathways offers a prospective therapeutic activity for the treatment of inflammatory disorders, making it an appealing option for future investigation and clinical application[108].

## 6.3 Influence on Enzyme Activities

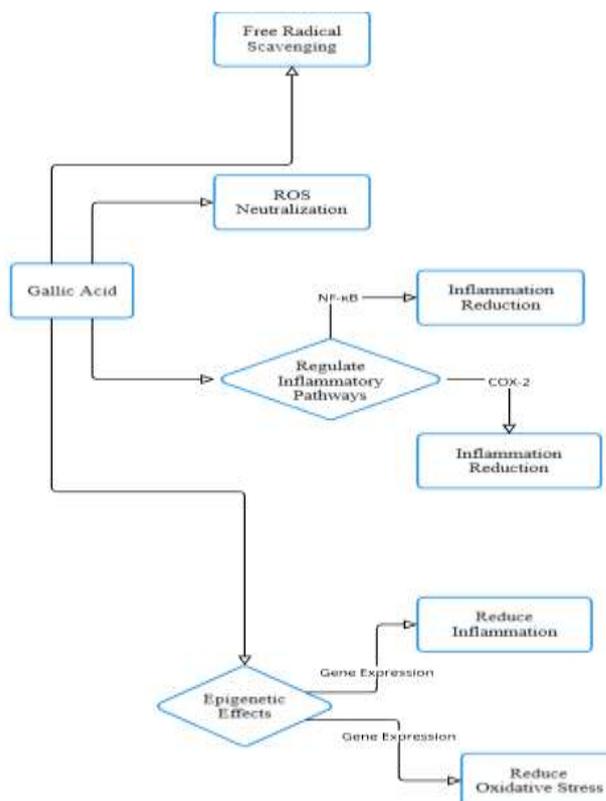
Another key mode of action for gallic acid was its ability to inhibit particular enzymes involved in inflammation and oxidative damage. Gallic acid has been shown to reduce the levels of COX (cyclooxygenase) and lipoxygenase (LOX), two important enzymes involved in the creation of pro-inflammatory chemicals such prostaglandins and leukotrienes. Gallic acid reduces the functioning of these enzymes, which helps to relieve inflammation and discomfort. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated to block inductive (iNOS)nitric oxide synthase, the enzyme that produces nitric oxide, which is a mediator of inflammation as well as oxidative damage. Gallic acid's impact on these enzymes demonstrates its promise as a natural anti-inflammatory drug that can help cure illnesses caused by high levels of inflammation and oxidation[109].

## 6.4 Potential Gene Regulation Effects

Recent research suggests that gallic acid may have epigenetic effects that impact gene expression associated with inflammation. According to studies, gallic acid can change gene expression via altering the acetylation of histone and DNA methylation, influencing the gene expression of inflammatory genes. This epigenetic modulation may increase gallic acid's anti-inflammatory properties, offering support for its potential as a treatment in chronic inflammatory disorders. Furthermore, gallic acid's capacity to stimulate the production of antioxidant-related genes via activating the nuclear factors erythroid Two-related factor 2 (Nrf2) pathway demonstrates its significance in gene regulation. Nrf2 activation causes the overexpression of many antioxidant enzymes, forming a protective barrier against cellular oxidative damage and inflammation[110].

## 7. Synergistic Effects of Co-Treatment with Berberine HCl and Gallic Acid

Because diabetic nephropathy is so common and a major consequence of diabetes, it is important to investigate novel treatment approaches that may successfully manage its complex pathophysiology. The combination of gallic acid and beberine hydrochloride has demonstrated encouraging outcomes among a variety of natural substances because of their complimentary modes of action and synergistic effects[111].

**Figure 9: Mechanisms of Gallic Acid in Diabetic Nephropathy**

## 7.1 Rationale for Combined Therapy

The justification for combining Berberine HCl with Gallic Acid treatment is based on their distinct pharmacological qualities as well as their ability to increase each other's effects. Berberine HCl, a form of isoquinoline alkaloid produced from many plants, has been extensively studied for its capacity to enhance glucose metabolism, decrease insulin resistance, and perform antioxidant properties. Similarly, gallic acid, as phenolic molecule present in many vegetables and fruit, has strong antioxidant and anti-inflammatory capabilities. When employed collectively, these drugs have the potential to target numerous disease pathways, resulting in better treatment results in diabetic nephropathy [112]. The combined actions can boost treatment efficacy while reducing negative effects. Berberine along with Gallic Acid have shown safety profiles in numerous investigations, indicating that their combination may give a safer option to traditional pharmaceutical therapies, which are frequently linked with side effects. Furthermore, their combined functions in improving metabolic characteristics and physiological protection makes this duo a promising candidate for further research[113].

### 7.1.1 Compounded Mechanisms of Action Against Diabetic Nephropathy

Berberine HCl & Gallic Acid's modes of action in diabetic nephropathy are diverse and significantly overlap, increasing their overall effectiveness.

#### ➤ Antioxidative Properties

Both chemicals have considerable antioxidative properties, which are important in reducing oxidative stress, which is linked to diabetic nephropathy. Berberine HCl has been demonstrated to promote the Nrf2 pathway's activity, which raises the production of antioxidative enzymes including glutathione peroxidase and superoxide dismutase. Gallic acid also increases the action of endogenous antioxidants as it immediately scavenges reactive oxygen species. The combined antioxidative actions can greatly minimize oxidative harm that causes renal tissues, sparing the kidneys from the functional decline caused by diabetes [114].

#### ➤ Anti-inflammatory Effects

Chronic inflammation contributes significantly to the onset and growth of diabetic nephropathy. Berberine HCl suppresses pro-inflammatory cytokine production and NF-κB pathway activation, whereas Gallic Acid

downregulates cytokines such as TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6. Combination treatment can result in a more significant decrease in inflammatory responses inside renal tissues, limiting additional damage[114,115].

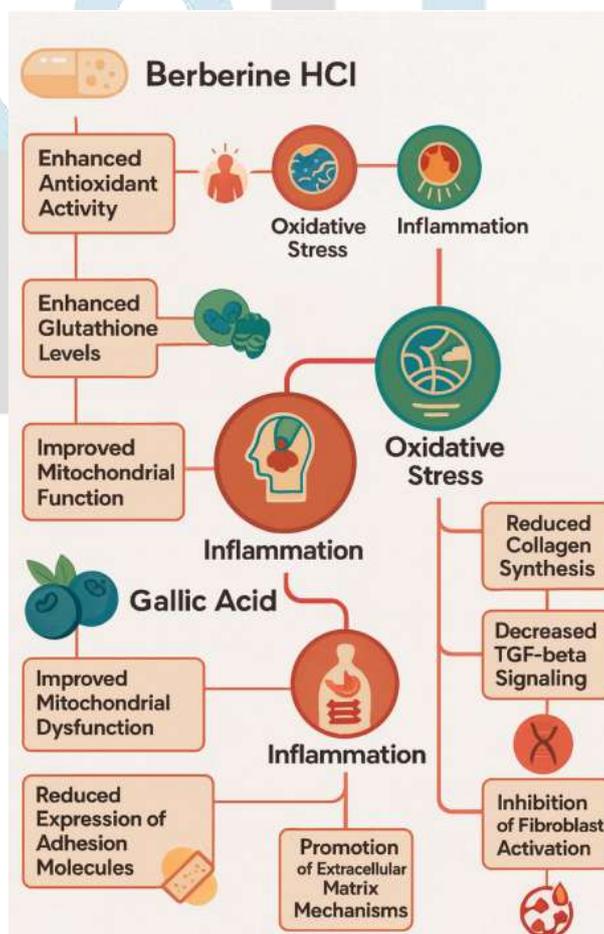
### ➤ Modulation of Glucose Metabolism

It is commonly recognized that berberine HCl can lower blood glucose levels and increase insulin sensitivity, both of which are essential for controlling diabetes problems. Gallic acid also improves glucose metabolism by influencing numerous metabolic pathways, such as insulin action and glucose absorption by cells. The synergistic action of these substances can lead to improved glycemic control, reducing renal stress[114,115,116].

### ➤ Protection Against Fibrosis

Diabetic nephropathy progresses through renal fibrosis, a disease that causes fibrosis and decreased kidney function. Berberine HCl reduces fibrosis by blocking TGF- $\beta$  pathways of signaling, which promote the formation of proteins from the extracellular matrix. Gallic Acid also reduces damage to the kidneys and fibrosis through its antioxidant activity and anti-inflammatory properties, which counteract the elements that contribute to fibrogenesis. Together, these strategies can effectively inhibit the fibrotic process while preserving renal architecture[117].

**Figure 10: Synergistic Mechanisms of Berberine HCl and Gallic Acid**



## 7.2 Evidence of Synergy in Pre-clinical Studies of Co-Treatment with Berberine HCl and Gallic Acid

The treatment of diabetic complications, notably diabetic nephropathy, is a significant challenge in the medical industry. Emerging data shows that the combination of natural substances, like Berberine HCl with Gallic Acid, may provide additional therapeutic advantages owing to their synergistic properties.[118].

## 7.2.1 Overview of Studies Assessing Co-Treatment Effects in Diabetic Models

Numerous preclinical investigations have examined how gallic acid and berberine HCl work together to manage diabetes and its consequences. When in comparison with either chemical used alone, a noteworthy investigation on diabetic rats showed that co-administration of gallic acid and berberine HCl significantly decreased blood glucose levels (2023). The study found that this combination improved insulin sensitivity and glycolytic pathways, as demonstrated by increased expression of the insulin receptor and translocation of glucose transporters type-4 (GLUT4) in muscle tissues. The synergistic impact of these substances can be related to their comparable mechanisms Berberine boosts metabolic rate via AMPK activation, whilst Gallic Acid promotes GLUT4 expression via separate signaling pathways[119]. In a different study on diabetic nephropathy, scientists assessed the long-term impacts of gallic acid and berberine HCl in rats with diabetes (streptozotocin-induced). The results showed that combination therapy resulted in considerably reduced amounts of creatinine in the urine & blood urea nitrogen, indicators of renal function, in comparison with control groups getting single therapies. Furthermore, histological investigations demonstrated decreased glomerular damage and tubular apoptosis, indicating significant protective impacts on renal architecture. The study indicated that combining both of these substances might effectively reduce both inflammation and oxidative stress, both of which are recognized contributions to damage to kidneys in diabetes [120]. Furthermore, a research looking into oxidative stress parameters discovered that the combo treatment considerably increased blood antioxidant levels, namely SOD along with glutathione peroxidase (GPx) activity. The improved antioxidative defense systems are significant since oxidative stress is a key factor in the pathophysiology of diabetes problems. Malondialdehyde (MDA) levels, an indication of lipid peroxidation, were observed to decrease additively when berberine and gallic acid were combined in the research. This suggests that the combined strategy might greatly reduce oxidative damage in diabetic tissues [121]. Pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6, were significantly reduced in a research assessing the anti-inflammatory properties of gallic acid and berberine HCl in diabetic animal models, providing more evidence of the effectiveness of co-treatment. This lowering is critical since chronic inflammation is a characteristic of diabetic nephropathy. The study found that co-treatment efficiently suppresses the pathway controlled by NF-B, which is critical for the transcription of pro-inflammatory mediators. This highlights the possibility of this combination of treatments for treating inflammatory responses linked to diabetes [122].

## 7.3 Potential Benefits of Combined Therapy with Berberine HCl and Gallic Acid for Diabetic Nephropathy

The continuous deterioration in renal function that eventually results in end-stage renal disease is the hallmark of diabetic nephropathy (DN), a serious consequence of diabetes. As the global prevalence of diabetes rises, there is an increasing demand for effective therapy solutions. Recent study suggests that combining Berberine HCl, a naturally occurring alkaloid, with Gallic Acid, a phenolic molecule, may give considerable improvements in the treatment of diabetic nephropathy[123].

### 7.3.1 Combined Impacts on Renal Function and Markers of Kidney Injury

The efficacy of gallic acid and berberine HCl in enhancing renal function and lowering indicators of kidney damage in diabetic mice has been shown in several preclinical investigations. Berberine HCl has been found to have renoprotective benefits via a variety of pathways, including improved glucose metabolism, reduced renal lipotoxicity, and decrease of oxidative stress. Particularly, research has shown that berberine can dramatically reduce blood urea nitrogen, also known as BUN and serum creatinine levels, which are important markers of renal function [124]. When accompanied by Gallic Acid, that has been demonstrated to have strong anti-inflammatory and antioxidant qualities, the therapeutic benefits are enhanced. Gallic acid efficiently decreases oxidative damage and inflammation, both among which contribute significantly to kidney damage in diabetes. Research demonstrating that combination therapy of diabetic rats with Berberine and Gallic Acid results in a significant decrease in urine albumin excretion a critical indication of diabetic kidney injury supports their combined efficacy[125].Furthermore, combination treatment has shown benefits in kidney shape. Histopathological investigations show that the co-treatment considerably reduces hyperfiltration of the glomerulus and fibrosis, which are both indicators of diabetic nephropathy. The combination protects against tubular interstitial and glomerulosclerosis, maintaining kidney structure and function [124,125].

## 7.4 Mechanisms Underlying Synergistic Action

Gallic acid and berberine HCl work together therapeutically because they interact with different molecular pathways linked to diabetes and its consequences. A key field of relationship is the control of oxidative damage and inflammation. By increasing the production and activity of crucial antioxidative enzymes like catalase and superoxide dismutase (SOD), both substances aid in preventing oxidative damage to renal tissues. The combination lowers the buildup of reactive oxygen compounds (ROS), which are crucial in causing kidney damage in diabetes conditions, by enhancing the cellular antioxidative ability [125,126]. Gallic acid and berberine HCl modify important inflammatory pathways, including the NF- $\kappa$ B signaling pathway, as well as their antioxidative qualities. Berberine HCl inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B activation, reducing pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6. Similarly, gallic acid reduces inflammation by acting on the same route. The simultaneous inhibition of responses to inflammation has important implications for avoiding the advancement of diabetic nephropathy. Furthermore, Berberine's metabolic advantages in lowering blood sugar levels and increasing insulin sensitivity work in tandem with Gallic Acid's actions to maintain improved glycemic control and lessen renal load. This is especially essential since hyperglycemia enhances inflammation and oxidative stress, resulting in a vicious process that worsens kidney injuries[127].

**Table 5: Pre-clinical Studies on Co-Treatment**

Study	Model Used	Key Findings	Mechanisms Involved	Reference
Study 1 (2023)	Diabetic rats	Significant reduction in blood glucose levels with co-treatment compared to single compounds	AMPK activation (Berberine) + GLUT4 translocation (Gallic Acid)	[119]
Study 2	Streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats	Lower serum creatinine and BUN levels, reduced renal damage	Antioxidative stress, inhibition of apoptosis, reduced inflammation	[120]
Study 3	Diabetic animal model	Increased SOD and GPx levels, decreased MDA (lipid peroxidation marker)	Enhanced antioxidative defense mechanisms	[121]
Study 4	Diabetic nephropathy model	Reduced TNF- $\alpha$ and IL-6, inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B signaling	Anti-inflammatory and nephroprotective effects	[122]
Study 5	Diabetic mice	Marked reduction in urine albumin excretion, improved renal morphology	Prevention of glomerular hyperfiltration and fibrosis	[124,125]
Study 6	Diabetic renal injury model	Increased insulin sensitivity, reduced renal oxidative stress	Synergistic regulation of oxidative stress, inflammation, and glucose metabolism	[126,127]

## 8. Clinical Implications and Future Directions for Berberine and Gallic Acid in the Management of Diabetic Nephropathy

The need for efficient treatment techniques is highlighted by the rising incidence of diabetic nephropathy (DN), a consequence of diabetes. There is a lot of interest in the medicinal potential of natural substances like gallic acid and berberine HCl because of new research that links them to better renal outcomes.

## 8.1 Current Clinical Trials and Research

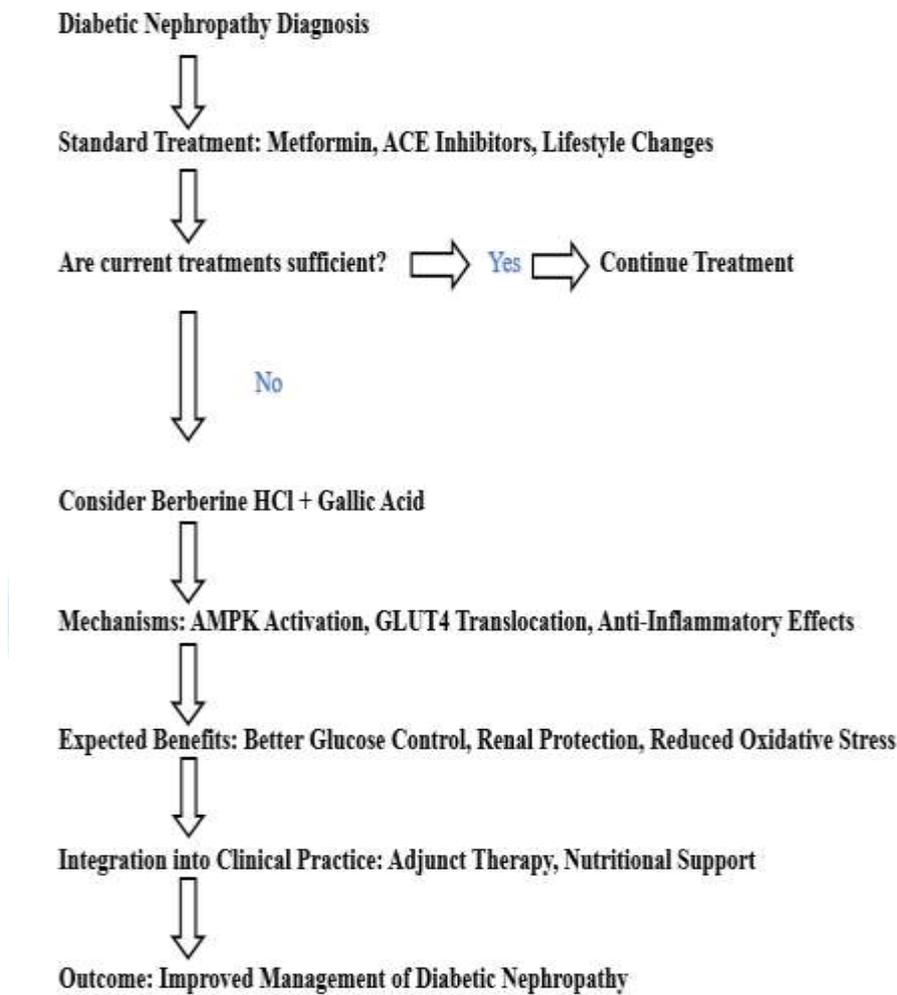
A number of current and completed clinical trials have been the outcome of recent studies on the effects of gallic acid and berberine on diabetic nephropathy. Particularly, a meta-analysis of multiple clinical studies found that Berberine supplementation successfully lowers the creatinine level and blood nitrogen urea levels in individuals with diabetes type 2, and renal failure. This conclusion is critical since these indicators are predictive of the renal system and health[128]. As a therapy for diabetic nephropathy, a number of ongoing trials are evaluating the long-term benefits of gallic acid and berberine both alone and in combination. Endpoints including glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c), proteinuria, inflammatory markers, and changes in kidney function are being investigated in trials. These investigations are especially crucial for understanding the dependent on time effects of these substances, as preliminary results suggest potential advantages beyond glycemic control. Furthermore, several trials are aimed at determining the safety features of these drugs in diabetic populations in order to assure their safe incorporation into routine therapy[129].

## 8.2 Practical Applications in Diabetic Nephropathy Management

Berberine and Gallic Acid have practical applications in the treatment of diabetic nephropathy due to their synergistic medicinal effects that decrease oxidative stress and inflammation. Bringing together these alternative therapies into traditional medical practices would necessitate careful evaluation of both efficacy and safety. The data from preclinical research indicates that these drugs have the potential to improve overall kidney protection. Their combined usage might result in considerable changes in urine indicators linked with kidney injury, altering clinical treatment strategies. Furthermore, practitioners may offer Gallic Acid and Berberine for adjuvant therapy for diabetic nephropathy patients, especially those who do not respond well to standard medications[130]. Nonetheless, actual utilization in clinical settings necessitates a careful evaluation of doses, possible medication interactions, and patient compliance. Maximizing the therapeutic benefits of gallic acid and berberine will require the establishment of standardized guidelines for their integration into the management of diabetic nephropathy [129,130,131].

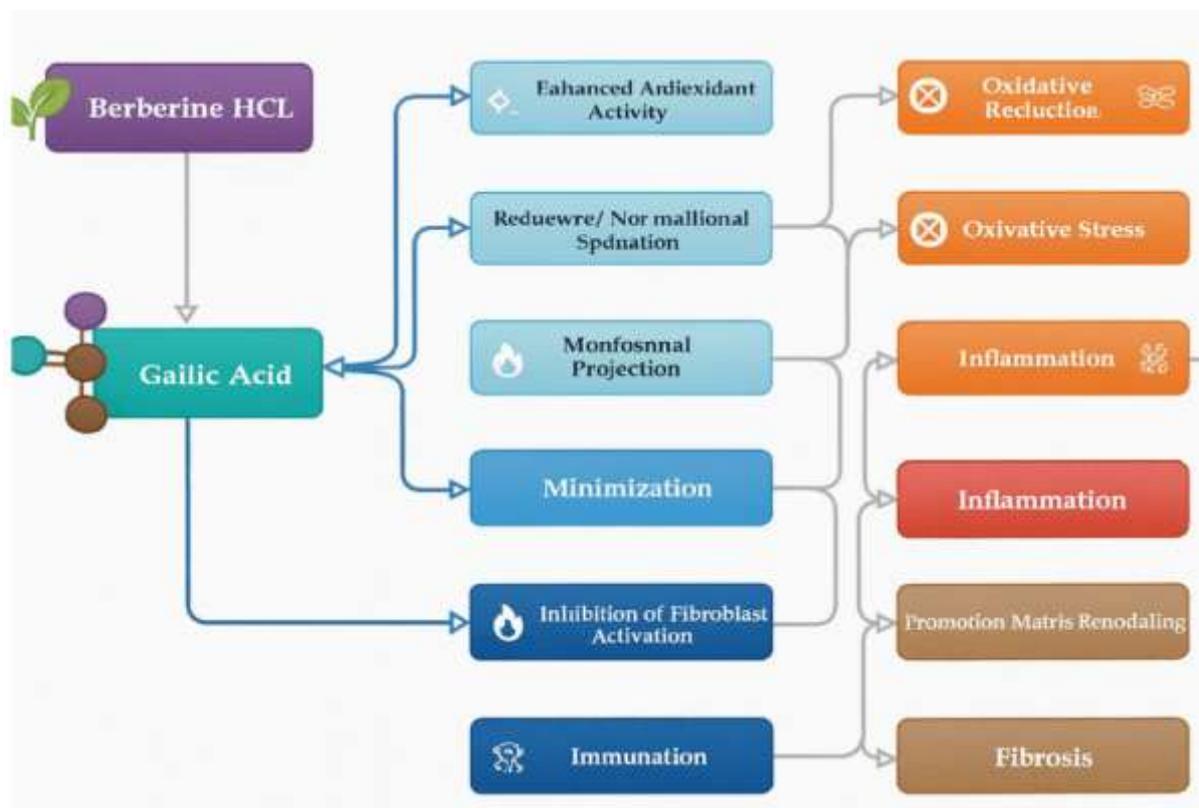
## 8.3 Limitations of Existing Studies

Although berberine and gallic acid have shown encouraging results, there are a number of limitations of current research that need to be recognized. One significant research gap is the absence of massive, randomly assigned controlled tests (RCTs) that definitively set up the efficiency and safety identities of these compounds in a variety of populations. The majority of studies to date have been constrained by smaller study dimensions, single-center concepts and short follow-up durations, which make it difficult to generalize results and establish conclusive clinical recommendations. Furthermore, the long-term benefits and safety profile of gallic acid and berberine are still little understood, despite preliminary research showing beneficial effects on metabolic indices and renal function. Individual responses to various therapies vary depending on genetic, nutritional, and lifestyle variables, complicating the translation of these results into wider clinical practice[131,132].

**Figure 12: Clinical Applications of Berberine HCl and Gallic Acid**

#### 8.4 Future Research Areas and Questions

Future studies must focus on a number of important topics regarding gallic acid and berberine in the treatment of diabetic nephropathy in order to expand on the body of current knowledge. Longitudinal studies examining the long-term impacts of these substances will be necessary to determine their protective profiles and effectiveness over lengthy durations. Furthermore, comparative research comparing Gallic Acid and Berberine HCl to traditional pharmaceutical therapy like ACE-lowering medications and SGLT2 inhibitors might provide the best efficient therapy strategies for diabetic nephropathy. Furthermore, studies should look at the molecular mechanisms of action for these substances. Knowing how gallic acid and berberine interact with the biochemical mechanisms that cause kidney injury, such as apoptosis, fibrosis, and mitochondrial dysfunction, may help determine how they might be used therapeutically. To sum up, although gallic acid and berberine show great potential in the treatment of diabetic nephropathy, further study is necessary to maximize their therapeutic uses. Comprehensive clinical studies evaluating their long-term efficacy and safety will be critical in deciding their place in routine therapy for diabetic patients at risk of renal complications[129,130,131,132,133].

**Figure 14: Summary of Key Findings**

## 9. Conclusion

In conclusion, the use of gallic acid and berberine hydrochloride in combination therapy has shown promise in the treatment of diabetic nephropathy. This essay has described the crucial functions that these chemicals play in restoring renal function and preventing kidney damage via many pathways. Berberine HCl is renowned for its potential to increase glucose metabolism and insulin sensitivity, whilst Gallic Acid provides potent antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects that are critical for kidney preservation. Together, these drugs target the metabolic processes implicated in the evolution of diabetic nephropathy, providing a synergistic advantage that may lead to better patient outcomes[134]. It is impossible to overestimate the significance of include gallic acid and berberine HCl in diabetic nephropathy therapy plans. Since chronic kidney disease is still one of the most serious side effects of diabetes, the possibility that these natural substances might change the course of kidney damage and improve metabolic profiles represents a critical improvement in patient management. Improved blood glucose control, decreased indicators of kidney damage, and maintenance of renal function highlight the importance of these substances in clinical practice[135].

It is advised that medical professionals take into account the combination of gallic acid and berberine HCl as supplemental treatments for patients with diabetic nephropathy, based on the results of many research. To ensure the safe and efficient use of these substances, guidelines that specify the right doses, monitoring criteria, and possible interactions with traditional diabetes treatments must be established. In addition, it is critical to educate patients about the possible advantages and hazards of using them in combination with traditional treatment regimens[136]. Nonetheless, more study is necessary to fully use the potential of gallic acid and berberine HCl in the management of diabetic nephropathy. Large-scale, randomized controlled studies are desperately needed to clarify the long-term impacts and safety profiles of these substances in diabetic patients. Such study will help to better understand their therapeutic functions and may lead to the creation of new treatment regimens that favour integrative approaches[137]. In conclusion, gallic acid and berberine HCl not only offer promise for better diabetic nephropathy management techniques, but they also highlight the need for ongoing study to deepen our knowledge and maximize treatment effectiveness in clinical settings [136,137].

## References

1. Chang, S. S. (2008, August). Albuminuria and diabetic nephropathy. *Pediatric Endocrinology Reviews*, 5(Suppl 4), 974–979. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18806713>
2. National Center for Biotechnology Information. (2021). *Physiology, Glomerular Filtration Rate*. StatPearls. StatPearls Publishing. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK571720/>
3. Thomas, S., & Karalliedde, J. (2019). Complications of diabetes: Diabetic nephropathy. *Medicine*, 47(2), 86–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mpmed.2018.11.010>
4. Pourghasem, M., Shafi, H., & Babazadeh, Z. (2015). Histological changes of kidney in diabetic nephropathy. *Caspian Journal of Internal Medicine*, 6(3), 120–127. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26644877>
5. Kowalski, A., Krikorian, A., & Lerma, E. V. (2014). Diabetic nephropathy for the primary care provider: New understandings on early detection and treatment. *Ochsner Journal*, 14(3), 369–379. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25249803>
6. Ruggenti, P., & Remuzzi, G. (2000). Nephropathy of type 1 and type 2 diabetes: Diverse pathophysiology, same treatment? *Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation*, 15(12), 1900–1902. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ndt/15.12.1900>
7. Wu, T., Ding, L., Andoh, V., Zhang, J., & Chen, L. (2023). The mechanism of hyperglycemia-induced renal cell injury in diabetic nephropathy disease: An update. *Life (Basel)*, 13(2), 539. <https://doi.org/10.3390/life13020539>
8. Qian, Y., Feldman, E., Pennathur, S., Kretzler, M., & Brosius, F. C. III. (2008). From fibrosis to sclerosis: Mechanisms of glomerulosclerosis in diabetic nephropathy. *Diabetes*, 57(6), 1439–1445. <https://doi.org/10.2337/db08-0061>
9. Wang, Z., do Carmo, J. M., Aberdein, N., Zhou, X., Williams, J. M., da Silva, A. A., & Hall, J. E. (2017). Synergistic interaction of hypertension and diabetes in promoting kidney injury and the role of endoplasmic reticulum stress. *Hypertension*, 69(5). <https://doi.org/10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.116.08560>
10. Carulli, L., Rondinella, S., Lombardini, S., Canedi, I., Loria, P., & Carulli, N. (2005). Review article: Diabetes, genetics and ethnicity. *Alimentary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 22(Suppl 2), 16–19. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2036.2005.02588.x>
11. Chakkarwar, V. A. (2012). Smoking in diabetic nephropathy: Sparks in the fuel tank? *World Journal of Diabetes*, 3(12), 186–195. <https://doi.org/10.4239/wjd.v3.i12.186>
12. Elendu, C., John Okah, M., Fiemotongha, K. D. J., Adeyemo, B. I., Bassey, B. N., Omeludike, E. K., & Obidigbo, B. (2023). Comprehensive advancements in the prevention and treatment of diabetic nephropathy: A narrative review. *Medicine (Baltimore)*, 102(40), e35397. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MD.00000000000035397>
13. Zhang, Y., He, D., Zhang, W., Xing, Y., Guo, Y., Wang, F., Jia, J., Yan, T., Liu, Y., & Lin, S. (2020). ACE inhibitor benefit to kidney and cardiovascular outcomes for patients with non-dialysis chronic kidney disease stages 3-5: A network meta-analysis of randomised clinical trials. *Drugs*, 80(8), 797–811. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40265-020-01290-3>
14. Kam, S., Angaramo, S., Antoun, J., Bhatta, M. R., Bonds, P. D., Cadar, A. G., Chukwuma, V. U., Donegan, P. J., Feldman, Z., Grusky, A. Z., Gupta, V. K., Hatcher, J. B., Lee, J., Morales, N. G., Vrana, E. N., Wessinger, B. C., Zhang, M. Z., Fowler, M. J., & Hendrickson, C. D. (2022). Improving annual albuminuria testing for individuals with diabetes. *BMJ Open Quality*, 11(1), e001591. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2021-001591>
15. Costacou, T., & Orchard, T. J. (2018). Cumulative kidney complication risk by 50 years of type 1 diabetes: The effects of sex, age, and calendar year at onset. *Diabetes Care*, 41(3), 426–433. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc17-1118>
16. Weir, M. R. (2004). Microalbuminuria in type 2 diabetics: An important, overlooked cardiovascular risk factor. *Journal of Clinical Hypertension (Greenwich)*, 6(3), 134–141; quiz 142–143. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1524-6175.2004.02524.x>
17. Wu, Y., Wang, Y., Zhang, J., Zhang, R., Zhao, L., Ren, H., Zou, Y., Wang, T., Wang, J., Zhao, Y., Qin, C., Xu, H., Li, L., Chai, Z., Cooper, M. E., Tong, N., & Liu, F. (2021). Early-onset of type 2 diabetes mellitus is a risk factor for diabetic nephropathy progression: A biopsy-based study. *Aging (Albany NY)*, 13(6), 8146–8154. <https://doi.org/10.18632/aging.202624>

18. Bjornstad, P., Snell-Bergeon, J. K., Rewers, M., Jalal, D., Chonchol, M. B., Johnson, R. J., & Maahs, D. M. (2013). Early diabetic nephropathy: A complication of reduced insulin sensitivity in type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 36(11), 3678–3683. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc13-0631>
19. Alleyn, C. R., Volkening, L. K., Wolfson, J., Rodriguez-Ventura, A., Wood, J. R., & Laffel, L. M. (2010). Occurrence of microalbuminuria in young people with Type 1 diabetes: Importance of age and diabetes duration. *Diabetic Medicine*, 27(5), 532–537. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2010.02983.x>
20. Selby, N. M., & Taal, M. W. (2020). An updated overview of diabetic nephropathy: Diagnosis, prognosis, treatment goals, and latest guidelines. *Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism*, 22(S1), e14007. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dom.14007>
21. Varghese, R. T., & Jialal, I. (2023). *Diabetic nephropathy*. In *StatPearls*. StatPearls Publishing. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/>
22. Hoogeveen, E. K. (2022). The epidemiology of diabetic kidney disease. *Kidney Dial*, 2(3), 433–442. <https://doi.org/10.3390/kidneydial2030038>
23. Siddiqui, K., George, T. P., Joy, S. S., & Alfadda, A. A. (2022). Risk factors of chronic kidney disease among type 2 diabetic patients with longer duration of diabetes. *Frontiers in Endocrinology (Lausanne)*, 13, 1079725. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fendo.2022.1079725>
24. Varghese, R. T., & Jialal, I. (2023, July 24). *Diabetic nephropathy*. StatPearls. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK459252/>
25. Pálsson, R., & Patel, U. D. (2014). Cardiovascular complications of diabetic kidney disease. *Advances in Chronic Kidney Disease*, 21(3), 273–280. <https://doi.org/10.1053/j.ackd.2014.03.003>
26. Park, T. S. (2012). How much glycemic control is needed to prevent progression of diabetic nephropathy? *Journal of Diabetes Investigation*, 3(5), 411–412. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2040-1124.2012.00225.x>
27. Persson, F., & Rossing, P. (2018). Diagnosis of diabetic kidney disease: State of the art and future perspective. *Kidney International Supplements*, 8(1), 2–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.kisu.2017.10.003>
28. Chao, C. T., Lee, S. Y., Wang, J., et al. (2021). The risk trajectory of different cardiovascular morbidities associated with chronic kidney disease among patients with newly diagnosed diabetes mellitus: A propensity score-matched cohort analysis. *Cardiovascular Diabetology*, 20, 86. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12933-021-01279-6>
29. Raghavan, S., Vassy, J. L., Ho, Y. L., Song, R. J., Gagnon, D. R., Cho, K., Wilson, P. W. F., & Phillips, L. S. (2019). Diabetes mellitus-related all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in a national cohort of adults. *Journal of the American Heart Association*, 8(4). <https://doi.org/10.1161/JAHA.118.011295>
30. Reidy, K., Kang, H. M., Hostetter, T., & Susztak, K. (2014). Molecular mechanisms of diabetic kidney disease. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 124(6), 2333–2340. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI72271>
31. Thipsawat, S. (2021). Early detection of diabetic nephropathy in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: A review of the literature. *Diabetes & Vascular Disease Research*, 18(6), 14791641211058856. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14791641211058856>
32. Sugandh, F., Chandio, M., Raveena, F., Kumar, L., Karishma, F., Khuwaja, S., Memon, U. A., Bai, K., Kashif, M., Varrassi, G., Khatri, M., & Kumar, S. (2023). Advances in the management of diabetes mellitus: A focus on personalized medicine. *Cureus*, 15(8), e43697. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.43697>
33. American Diabetes Association Professional Practice Committee. (2022). Chronic kidney disease and risk management: Standards of medical care in diabetes—2022. *Diabetes Care*, 45(Supplement\_1), S175–S184. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc22-S011>
34. Molnar, M. Z., Kalantar-Zadeh, K., Lott, E. H., Lu, J. L., Malakauskas, S. M., Ma, J. Z., Quarles, D. L., & Kovesdy, C. P. (2014). Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor, angiotensin receptor blocker use, and mortality in patients with chronic kidney disease. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 63(7), 650–658. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2013.10.050>
35. Pathak, J. V., & Dass, E. E. (2015). A retrospective study of the effects of angiotensin receptor blockers and angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors in diabetic nephropathy. *Indian Journal of Pharmacology*, 47(2), 148–152. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0253-7613.153420>
36. Raebel, M. A. (2012). Hyperkalemia associated with use of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors and angiotensin receptor blockers. *Cardiovascular Therapeutics*, 30(3), e156–e166. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-5922.2010.00258.x>
37. Frimodt-Møller, M., Persson, F., & Rossing, P. (2020). Mitigating risk of aldosterone in diabetic kidney disease. *Current Opinion in Nephrology and Hypertension*, 29(1), 145–151. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MNH.0000000000000557>

38. Onyenwenyi, C., & Ricardo, A. C. (2015). Impact of lifestyle modification on diabetic kidney disease. *Current Diabetes Reports*, 15(9), 60. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11892-015-0632-3>
39. Jung, C. Y., & Yoo, T. H. (2022). Novel biomarkers for diabetic kidney disease. *Kidney Research and Clinical Practice*, 41(Suppl 2), S46–S62. <https://doi.org/10.23876/j.krcp.22.084>
40. Ghaderian, S. B., Hayati, F., Shayanpour, S., & Beladi Mousavi, S. S. (2015). Diabetes and end-stage renal disease: A review article on new concepts. *Journal of Renal Injury Prevention*, 4(2), 28–33. <https://doi.org/10.12861/jrip.2015.07>
41. McBenedict, B., Orfao, A. L., Goh, K. S., Yau, R. C. C., Alphonse, B., Machado Lima, J., Ahmed, H. A., Ienaco, G. P., Cristina de Souza, E., Lima Pessôa, B., Hauwanga, W. N., Valentim, G., de Souza Chagas, M., & Abrahão, A. (2024). The role of alternative medicine in managing type 2 diabetes: A comprehensive review. *Cureus*, 16(6), e61965. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.61965>
42. Yang, D. K., & Kang, H. S. (2018). Anti-diabetic effect of cotreatment with quercetin and resveratrol in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Biomolecules & Therapeutics (Seoul)*, 26(2), 130–138. <https://doi.org/10.4062/biomolther.2017.254>
43. Yang, D. K., & Kang, H. S. (2018). Anti-diabetic effect of cotreatment with quercetin and resveratrol in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Biomolecules & Therapeutics (Seoul)*, 26(2), 130–138. <https://doi.org/10.4062/biomolther.2017.254>
44. Macena, M. L., Nunes, L. F. D. S., da Silva, A. F., Pureza, I. R. O. M., Praxedes, D. R. S., Santos, J. C. F., & Bueno, N. B. (2022). Effects of dietary polyphenols in the glycemic, renal, inflammatory, and oxidative stress biomarkers in diabetic nephropathy: A systematic review with meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Nutrition Reviews*, 80(12), 2237–2259. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nutrit/nuac035>
45. Han, J., Yang, N., Zhang, F., Zhang, C., Liang, F., Xie, W., & Chen, W. (2015). Rhizoma Anemarrhenae extract ameliorates hyperglycemia and insulin resistance via activation of AMP-activated protein kinase in diabetic rodents. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 172, 368–376. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2015.05.016>
46. Nurkolis, F., Wiyarta, E., Taslim, N. A., Kurniawan, R., Thibault, R., Fernandez, M. L., Yang, Y., Han, J., Tsopmo, A., Mayulu, N., Tjandrawinata, R. R., Tallei, T. E., & Hardinsyah, H. (2024). Unraveling diabetes complexity through natural products, miRNAs modulation, and future paradigms in precision medicine and global health. *Clinical Nutrition ESPEN*, 63, 283–293. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnesp.2024.06.043>
47. Krolewski, A. S., Niewczas, M. A., Skupien, J., Gohda, T., Smiles, A., Eckfeldt, J. H., Doria, A., & Warram, J. H. (2014). Early progressive renal decline precedes the onset of microalbuminuria and its progression to macroalbuminuria. *Diabetes Care*, 37(1), 226–234. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc13-1294>
48. Singh, A., & Satchell, S. C. (2011). Microalbuminuria: Causes and implications. *Pediatric Nephrology*, 26(11), 1957–1965. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00467-011-1777-1>
49. Amin, R., Widmer, B., Prevost, A. T., Schwarze, P., Cooper, J., Edge, J., Marcovecchio, L., Neil, A., Dalton, R. N., & Dunger, D. B. (2008). Risk of microalbuminuria and progression to macroalbuminuria in a cohort with childhood onset type 1 diabetes: Prospective observational study. *BMJ*, 336(7646), 697–701. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.39478.378241.BE>
50. Hsu, C. N., & Tain, Y. L. (2021). Targeting the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system to prevent hypertension and kidney disease of developmental origins. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 22(5), 2298. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms22052298>
51. Amin, R., Widmer, B., Prevost, A. T., Schwarze, P., Cooper, J., Edge, J., Marcovecchio, L., Neil, A., Dalton, R. N., & Dunger, D. B. (2008). Risk of microalbuminuria and progression to macroalbuminuria in a cohort with childhood-onset type 1 diabetes: Prospective observational study. *BMJ*, 336(7646), 697–701. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.39478.378241.BE>
52. Abdelwahid, H. A., Dahlan, H. M., Mojemamy, G. M., & Darraj, G. H. (2022). Predictors of microalbuminuria and its relationship with glycemic control among Type 2 diabetic patients of Jazan Armed Forces Hospital, southwestern Saudi Arabia. *BMC Endocrine Disorders*, 22(1), 307. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12902-022-01232-y>
53. Jolly, S. E., Burrows, N. R., Chen, S. C., Li, S., Jurkowitz, C. T., Narva, A. S., Norris, K. C., & Shlipak, M. G. (2010). Racial and ethnic differences in albuminuria in individuals with estimated GFR greater than 60 mL/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup>: Results from the Kidney Early Evaluation Program (KEEP). *American Journal of Kidney Diseases*, 55(3 Suppl 2), S15–S22. <https://doi.org/10.1053/j.ajkd.2009.09.034>
54. Toto, R. D. (2004). Microalbuminuria: Definition, detection, and clinical significance. *Journal of Clinical Hypertension (Greenwich)*, 6(11 Suppl 3), 2–7. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1524-6175.2004.4064.x>

55. Tobe, S. W., McFarlane, P. A., & Naimark, D. M. (2002). Microalbuminuria in diabetes mellitus. *CMAJ*, 167(5), 499–503. <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC121969/>
56. Hashmi, M. F., Aeddula, N. R., Shaikh, H., & Rout, P. (2024). Anemia of chronic kidney disease. *StatPearls*. Retrieved July 23, 2024, from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK499944/>
57. Allegretti, A. S., Steele, D. J., David-Kasdan, J. A., Bajwa, E., Niles, J. L., & Bhan, I. (2013). Continuous renal replacement therapy outcomes in acute kidney injury and end-stage renal disease: A cohort study. *Critical Care*, 17(3), R109. <https://doi.org/10.1186/cc12780>
58. Hashmi, M. F., Benjamin, O., & Lappin, S. L. (2023). *End-stage renal disease*. In **StatPearls**. StatPearls Publishing. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK499861/>
59. Fotaraki, Z. M., Gerogianni, G., Vasilopoulos, G., Polikandrioti, M., Giannakopoulou, N., & Alikari, V. (2022). Depression, adherence, and functionality in patients undergoing hemodialysis. *Cureus*, 14(2), e21872. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.21872>
60. Tziomalos, K., & Athyros, V. G. (2015). Diabetic nephropathy: New risk factors and improvements in diagnosis. *The Review of Diabetic Studies*, 12(1-2), 110-118. <https://doi.org/10.1900/RDS.2015.12.110>
61. Varghese, R. T., & Jialal, I. (2023). *Diabetic nephropathy*. In StatPearls. StatPearls Publishing. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK545233/>
62. Yokoyama, H., Okudaira, M., Otani, T., Uchigata, Y., Ohashi, Y., & Iwamoto, Y. (2000). Higher incidence of diabetic nephropathy in type 2 than in type 1 diabetes in early-onset diabetes in Japan. *Kidney International*, 58(1), 302-311. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1523-1755.2000.00173.x>
63. McGrath, K., & Edi, R. (2019). Diabetic kidney disease: Diagnosis, treatment, and prevention. *American Family Physician*, 99(12), 751-759. Retrieved from <https://www.aafp.org/afp/2019/0615/p751.html>
64. **Rizvi, S., Raza, S. T., & Mahdi, F. (2014)**. Association of genetic variants with diabetic nephropathy. *World Journal of Diabetes*, 5(6), 809–816. <https://doi.org/10.4239/wjd.v5.i6.809>
65. **Bakris, G. L., Weir, M. R., Shanifar, S., Zhang, Z., Douglas, J., van Dijk, D. J., & Brenner, B. M.; RENAAL Study Group. (2003)**. Effects of blood pressure level on progression of diabetic nephropathy: Results from the RENAAL study. *Archives of Internal Medicine*, 163(13), 1555–1565. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archinte.163.13.1555>
66. **Huang, J., Peng, X., Dong, K., Tao, J., & Yang, Y. (2021)**. The association between insulin resistance, leptin, and resistin and diabetic nephropathy in type 2 diabetes mellitus patients with different body mass indexes. *Diabetes, Metabolic Syndrome and Obesity: Targets and Therapy*, 14, 2357–2365. <https://doi.org/10.2147/DMSO.S305054>
67. **Tangvarasittichai, S. (2015)**. Oxidative stress, insulin resistance, dyslipidemia, and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *World Journal of Diabetes*, 6(3), 456–480. <https://doi.org/10.4239/wjd.v6.i3.456>
68. **Zoja, C., Xinaris, C., & Macconi, D. (2020)**. Diabetic nephropathy: Novel molecular mechanisms and therapeutic targets. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 11, 586892. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2020.586892>
69. **Volpe, C. M. O., Villar-Delfino, P. H., Ferreira dos Anjos, P. M., & Nogueira-Machado, J. A. (2018)**. Cellular death, reactive oxygen species (ROS), and diabetic complications. *Cell Death & Disease*, 9, 119. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41419-017-0135-3>
70. **Chagnac, A., Zingerman, B., Rozen-Zvi, B., & Herman-Edelstein, M. (2019)**. Consequences of glomerular hyperfiltration: The role of physical forces in the pathogenesis of chronic kidney disease in diabetes and obesity. *Nephron*, 143(1), 38–42. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000499486>
71. **Peng, H., Gao, Y., Zeng, C., Hua, R., Guo, Y., Wang, Y., & Wang, Z. (2024)**. Effects of Maillard reaction and its product AGEs on aging and age-related diseases. *Food Science and Human Wellness*, 13(3), 1118-1134. <https://doi.org/10.26599/FSHW.2022.9250094>
72. **Guo, Y., Yuan, Z., Hu, Z., Gao, Y., Guo, H., Zhu, H., Hong, K., Cen, K., Mai, Y., Bai, Y., & Yang, X. (2023)**. Diagnostic model constructed by five EMT-related genes for renal fibrosis and reflecting the condition of immune-related cells. *Frontiers in Immunology*, 14, 1161436. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2023.1161436>
73. **Skupien, J., Warram, J. H., Smiles, A. M., Stanton, R. C., & Krolewski, A. S. (2016)**. Patterns of estimated glomerular filtration rate decline leading to end-stage renal disease in type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 39(12), 2262–2269. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc16-0950>
74. **Fukami, K., Yamagishi, S., Ueda, S., & Okuda, S. (2008)**. Role of AGEs in diabetic nephropathy. *Current Pharmaceutical Design*, 14(10), 946–952. <https://doi.org/10.2174/138161208784139710>
75. **Donate-Correa, J., Ferri, C. M., Sánchez-Quintana, F., Pérez-Castro, A., González-Luis, A., Martín-Núñez, E., Mora-Fernández, C., & Navarro-González, J. F. (2021)**. Inflammatory

- cytokines in diabetic kidney disease: Pathophysiologic and therapeutic implications. *Frontiers in Medicine (Lausanne)*, 7, 628289. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2020.628289>
76. **Su, H., Lei, C. T., & Zhang, C. (2017).** Interleukin-6 signaling pathway and its role in kidney disease: An update. *Frontiers in Immunology*, 8, 405. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2017.00405>
77. **Meng, X. M., Tang, P. M., Li, J., & Lan, H. Y. (2015).** TGF- $\beta$ /Smad signaling in renal fibrosis. *Frontiers in Physiology*, 6, 82. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2015.00082>
78. **Bülow, R. D., & Boor, P. (2019).** Extracellular matrix in kidney fibrosis: More than just a scaffold. *Journal of Histochemistry & Cytochemistry*, 67(9), 643–661. <https://doi.org/10.1369/0022155419849388>
79. **Fan, J., Zhang, K., Jin, Y., Li, B., Gao, S., Zhu, J., & Cui, R. (2019).** Pharmacological effects of berberine on mood disorders. *Journal of Cellular and Molecular Medicine*, 23(1), 21–28. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcmm.13930>
80. **Ai, X., Yu, P., Peng, L., Luo, L., Liu, J., Li, S., Lai, X., Luan, F., & Meng, X. (2021).** Berberine: A review of its pharmacokinetics properties and therapeutic potentials in diverse vascular diseases. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 12, 762654. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2021.762654>
81. **Salehi, B., Selamoglu, Z., Sener, B., Kilic, M., Kumar Jugran, A., de Tommasi, N., Sinisgalli, C., Milella, L., Rajkovic, J., Morais-Braga, F. B., Bezerra, C. F., Rocha, J. E., Coutinho, H. D. M., Ademiluyi, A. O., Shinwari, Z. K., Jan, S. A., Erol, E., Ali, Z., Ostrander, E. A., ... Cho, W. C. (2019).** Berberis plants—Drifting from farm to food applications, phytotherapy, and phytopharmacology. *Foods*, 8(10), 522. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods8100522>
82. **Liu, Y. T., Hao, H. P., Xie, H. G., Lai, L., Wang, Q., Liu, C. X., & Wang, G. J. (2010).** Extensive intestinal first-pass elimination and predominant hepatic distribution of berberine explain its low plasma levels in rats. *Drug Metabolism and Disposition*, 38(10), 1779–1784. <https://doi.org/10.1124/dmd.110.033936>
83. **Sahibzada, M. U. K., Sadiq, A., Faidah, H. S., Khurram, M., Amin, M. U., Haseeb, A., & Kakar, M. (2018).** Berberine nanoparticles with enhanced in vitro bioavailability: Characterization and antimicrobial activity. *Drug Design, Development and Therapy*, 12, 303–312. <https://doi.org/10.2147/DDDT.S156123>
84. **Sun, R., Yang, N., Kong, B., Guo, G. L., Aa, J., & Wang, G. (2017).** Orally administered berberine modulates hepatic lipid metabolism by altering microbial bile acid metabolism and the intestinal FXR signaling pathway. *Molecular Pharmacology*, 91(2), 110–122. [https://molpharm.aspetjournals.org/article/S0026-895X\(24\)00582-0/abstract](https://molpharm.aspetjournals.org/article/S0026-895X(24)00582-0/abstract)
85. **Guo, Y., Chen, Y., Tan, Z. R., Klaassen, C. D., & Zhou, H. H. (2012).** Repeated administration of berberine inhibits cytochromes P450 in humans. *European Journal of Clinical Pharmacology*, 68(2), 213–217. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00228-011-1108-2>
86. **Pan, L., Yu, H., Fu, J., Hu, J., Xu, H., Zhang, Z., Bu, M., Yang, X., Zhang, H., Lu, J., Jiang, J., & Wang, Y. (2023).** Berberine ameliorates chronic kidney disease through inhibiting the production of gut-derived uremic toxins in the gut microbiota. *Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica B*, 13(4), 1537–1553. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsb.2022.10.005>
87. **Yin, J., Xing, H., & Ye, J. (2008).** Efficacy of berberine in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Metabolism*, 57(5), 712–717. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.metabol.2008.01.013>
88. **Zhao, J. V., Yeung, W. F., Chan, Y. H., Vackova, D., Leung, J. Y. Y., Ip, D. K. M., Zhao, J., Ho, W. K., Tse, H. F., & Schooling, C. M. (2021).** Effect of berberine on cardiovascular disease risk factors: A mechanistic randomized controlled trial. *Nutrients*, 13(8), 2550. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu13082550>
89. **Adorni, M. P., Zimetti, F., Lupo, M. G., Ruscica, M., & Ferri, N. (2020).** Naturally occurring PCSK9 inhibitors. *Nutrients*, 12(5), 1440. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12051440>
90. **Ni, W.-J., Zhou, H., Ding, H.-H., & Tang, L.-Q. (2019).** Berberine ameliorates renal impairment and inhibits podocyte dysfunction by targeting the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase–protein kinase B pathway in diabetic rats. *Journal of Diabetes Investigation*, 10(6), 13119. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jdi.13119>
91. **Guo, J., Chen, H., Zhang, X., Lou, W., Zhang, P., Qiu, Y., Zhang, C., Wang, Y., & Liu, W. J. (2021).** The effect of berberine on metabolic profiles in type 2 diabetic patients: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity*, 2021, 2074610. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/2074610>
92. **Feng, X., Sureda, A., Jafari, S., Memariani, Z., Tewari, D., Annunziata, G., Barrea, L., Hassan, S. T. S., Šmejkal, K., Malaník, M., Sychrová, A., Barreca, D., Ziberna, L., Mahomoodally, M. F., Zengin, G., Xu, S., Nabavi, S. M., & Shen, A. Z. (2019).** Berberine in cardiovascular and

metabolic diseases: From mechanisms to therapeutics. *Theranostics*, 9(7), 1923–1951. <https://doi.org/10.7150/thno.30787>

93. Xia, X., Yan, J., Shen, Y., Tang, K., Yin, J., Zhang, Y., Yang, D., Liang, H., Ye, J., & Weng, J. (2011). Berberine improves glucose metabolism in diabetic rats by inhibition of hepatic gluconeogenesis. *PLoS One*, 6(2), e16556. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0016556>
94. Och, A., Och, M., Nowak, R., Podgórska, D., & Podgórski, R. (2022). Berberine, a herbal metabolite in the metabolic syndrome: The risk factors, course, and consequences of the disease. *Molecules*, 27(4), 1351. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules27041351>
95. Yuan, H., Wang, B., Ye, Z., & Li, S. (2023). Berberine alleviates the damage, oxidative stress, and mitochondrial dysfunction of PC12 cells induced by high glucose by activating the KEAP1/Nrf2/ARE pathway. *Molecular Biotechnology*, 65(10), 1632–1643. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12033-022-00651-5>
96. Yan, S., Chang, J., Hao, X., Liu, J., Tan, X., Geng, Z., & Wang, Z. (2022). Berberine regulates short-chain fatty acid metabolism and alleviates the colitis-associated colorectal tumorigenesis through remodeling intestinal flora. *Phytomedicine*, 102, 154217. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phymed.2022.154217>
97. Zhao, X.-L., Cao, Z.-J., Li, K.-D., Tang, F., Xu, L.-Y., Zhang, J.-N., Liu, D., Peng, C., & Ao, H. (2025). Gallic acid: A dietary metabolite's therapeutic potential in the management of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 15. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2024.1515172>
98. Bai, J., Zhang, Y., Tang, C., Hou, Y., Ai, X., Chen, X., Zhang, Y., Wang, X., & Meng, X. (2021). Gallic acid: Pharmacological activities and molecular mechanisms involved in inflammation-related diseases. *Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy*, 133, 110985. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopha.2020.110985>
99. Jumba-ngern, P., Plengsuriyakarn, T., & Na-Bangchang, K. (2021). Pharmacokinetics of gallic acid following oral administration of Triphala formulation in rats. *African Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, 15(8), 132-137. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJPP2021.5260>
100. Xiang, Z., Guan, H., Zhao, X., Xie, Q., Xie, Z., Cai, F., Dang, R., Li, M., & Wang, C. (2024). Dietary gallic acid as an antioxidant: A review of its food industry applications, health benefits, bioavailability, nano-delivery systems, and drug interactions. *Food Research International*, 180, 114068. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2024.114068>
101. Bhuia, M. S., Rahaman, M. M., Islam, T., Bappi, M. H., Sikder, M. I., Hossain, K. N., Akter, F., Al Shamsh Prottay, A., Rokonzuzman, M., Güreş, E. S., Calina, D., Islam, T. M., & Sharifi-Rad, J. (2023). Neurobiological effects of gallic acid: Current perspectives. *Chinese Medicine*, 18(1), 27. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13020-023-00735-7>
102. Yasuda, T., Inaba, A., Ohmori, M., Endo, T., Kubo, S., & Ohsawa, K. (2000). Urinary metabolites of gallic acid in rats and their radical-scavenging effects on 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl radical. *Journal of Natural Products*, 63(10), 1444–1446. <https://doi.org/10.1021/np000149q>
103. Ma, F. W., Deng, Q. F., Zhou, X., Gong, X. J., Zhao, Y., Chen, H. G., & Zhao, C. (2016). The tissue distribution and urinary excretion study of gallic acid and protocatechuic acid after oral administration of *Polygonum capitatum* extract in rats. *Molecules*, 21(4), 399. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules21040399>
104. Feng, R. B., Wang, Y., He, C., Yang, Y., & Wan, J. B. (2018). Gallic acid, a natural polyphenol, protects against tert-butyl hydroperoxide-induced hepatotoxicity by activating ERK-Nrf2-Keap1-mediated antioxidative response. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 119, 479–488. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2017.10.033>
105. Zhu, L., Gu, P., & Shen, H. (2019). Gallic acid improved inflammation via NF-κB pathway in TNBS-induced ulcerative colitis. *International Immunopharmacology*, 67, 129–137. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intimp.2018.11.049>
106. Ko, E. B., Jang, Y. G., Kim, C. W., Go, R. E., Lee, H. K., & Choi, K. C. (2022). Gallic acid hindered lung cancer progression by inducing cell cycle arrest and apoptosis in A549 lung cancer cells via PI3K/Akt pathway. *Biomolecules & Therapeutics (Seoul)*, 30(2), 151–161. <https://doi.org/10.4062/biomolther.2021.074>
107. Marino, T., Galano, A., & Russo, N. (2014). Radical scavenging ability of gallic acid toward OH and OOH radicals: Reaction mechanism and rate constants from the density functional theory. *Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 118(35), 10380–10389. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp505589b>
108. Chen, C. Y., Chen, K. C., Yang, T. Y., Liu, H. C., & Hsu, S. L. (2013). Gallic acid induces a reactive oxygen species-provoked c-Jun NH2-terminal kinase-dependent apoptosis in lung fibroblasts. *Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 2013, 613950. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/613950>

109. **Cheng, Y., Li, X., Tse, H. F., & Rong, J.** (2018). Gallic acid-L-leucine conjugate protects mice against LPS-induced inflammation and sepsis via correcting proinflammatory lipid mediator profiles and oxidative stress. *Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity*, 2018, 1081287. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/1081287>
110. **Khan, M. M., Kim, Y. K., Bilkis, T., Suh, J. W., Lee, D. Y., & Yoo, J. C.** (2020). Reduction of oxidative stress through activating the Nrf2-mediated HO-1 antioxidant efficacy signaling pathway by MS15, an antimicrobial peptide from *Bacillus velezensis*. *Antioxidants (Basel)*, 9(10), 934. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox9100934>
111. **Adefegha, S. A., Dada, F. A., Oyeleye, S. I., & Oboh, G.** (2022). Effect of oral berberine administration on the renal profiles of adenosine deaminase, arginase, and nitric oxide in streptozotocin-induced diabetic nephropathy of rats. *Comparative Clinical Pathology*, 31, 255–263. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00580-022-03329-1>
112. **Ai, X., Yu, P., Peng, L., Luo, L., Liu, J., Li, S., Lai, X., Luan, F., & Meng, X.** (2021). Berberine: A review of its pharmacokinetics properties and therapeutic potentials in diverse vascular diseases. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 12, 762654. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2021.762654>
113. **Patil, S., Khushwah, P., Gudasi, S., Patil, M., Kunchanur, M., & Koli, R.** (2024). Simultaneous determination of gallic acid, berberine, and trigonelline in polyherbal Churna by HPTLC method. *Journal of Young Pharmacists*, 16(2). <https://jyoungpharm.org/7844/>
114. **Wang, W., Yu, R., Wu, C., Li, Q., Chen, J., Xiao, Y., Chen, H., Song, J., Ji, M., & Zuo, Z.** (2024). Berberine alleviates contrast-induced nephropathy by activating Akt/Foxo3a/Nrf2 signalling pathway. *Journal of Cellular and Molecular Medicine*, 28(1), e18016. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcmm.18016>
115. **Ma, Z., Zhu, L., Wang, S., Guo, X., Sun, B., Wang, Q., & Chen, L.** (2022). Berberine protects diabetic nephropathy by suppressing epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition involving the inactivation of the NLRP3 inflammasome. *Renal Failure*, 44(1), 923-932. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0886022X.2022.2079525>
116. **Yin, J., Gao, Z., Liu, D., Liu, Z., & Ye, J.** (2008). Berberine improves glucose metabolism through induction of glycolysis. *American Journal of Physiology-Endocrinology and Metabolism*, 294(1), E148-E156. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpendo.00211.2007>
117. Li Z, Zhang W. Protective effect of berberine on renal fibrosis caused by diabetic nephropathy. *Mol Med Rep.* 2017 Aug;16(2):1055-1062. doi: 10.3892/mmr.2017.6707. Epub 2017 Jun 7. PMID: 29067464; PMCID: PMC5562073.
118. Natesan, V., & Kim, S. J. (2025). Natural compounds in kidney disease: Therapeutic potential and drug development. *Biomolecules & Therapeutics*, 33(1), 39–53. <https://doi.org/10.4062/biomolther.2024.142>
119. Utami, A. R., Maksum, I. P., & Deawati, Y. (2023). Berberine and its study as an antidiabetic compound. *Biology (Basel)*, 12(7), 973. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biology12070973>
120. Adefegha, S. A., Dada, F. A., Oyeleye, S. I., & Oboh, G. (2022). Effect of oral berberine administration on the renal profiles of adenosine deaminase, arginase, and nitric oxide in streptozotocin-induced diabetic nephropathy of rats. *Comparative Clinical Pathology*, 31, 255–263. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00580-022-03329-1>
121. Dworzański, J., Strycharz-Dudziak, M., Kliszczewska, E., Kielczykowska, M., Dworzańska, A., Drop, B., & Polz-Dacewicz, M. (2020). Glutathione peroxidase (GPx) and superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity in patients with diabetes mellitus type 2 infected with Epstein-Barr virus. *PLoS ONE*, 15(3), e0230374. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0230374>
122. Tsang, M. S., Jiao, D., Chan, B. C., Hon, K. L., Leung, P. C., Lau, C. B., Wong, E. C., Cheng, L., Chan, C. K., Lam, C. W., & Wong, C. K. (2016). Anti-inflammatory activities of Pentaherbs formula, berberine, gallic acid, and chlorogenic acid in atopic dermatitis-like skin inflammation. *Molecules*, 21(4), 519. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules21040519>
123. Kitada, M., Kanasaki, K., & Koya, D. (2014). Clinical therapeutic strategies for early stage of diabetic kidney disease. *World Journal of Diabetes*, 5(3), 342–356. <https://doi.org/10.4239/wjd.v5.i3.342>
124. Putra, I. M. W. A., Fakhruddin, N., Nurrochmad, A., & Wahyuono, S. (2023). A review of medicinal plants with renoprotective activity in diabetic nephropathy animal models. *Life*, 13(2), 560. <https://doi.org/10.3390/life13020560>
125. Hong, Y., Wang, J., Sun, W., Zhang, L., Xu, X., & Zhang, K. (2023). Gallic acid improves the metformin effects on diabetic kidney disease in mice. *Renal Failure*, 45(1), 2183726. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0886022X.2023.2183726>

126. Infante-Garcia, C., & Garcia-Alloza, M. (2019). Review of the effect of natural compounds and extracts on neurodegeneration in animal models of diabetes mellitus. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 20(10), 2533. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20102533>
127. Zhang, B., Zhang, X., Sun, X., & others. (2021). Berberine improves the protective effects of metformin on diabetic nephropathy in *db/db* mice through Trib1-dependent inhibition of inflammation. *Pharmaceutical Research*, 38, Article 3104. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11095-021-03104-x>
128. Lai, X., Tong, D., Ai, X., Wu, J., Luo, Y., Zuo, F., Wei, Z., Li, Y., Huang, W., Wang, W., Jiang, Q., Meng, X., Zeng, Y., & Wang, P. (2018). Amelioration of diabetic nephropathy in *db/db* mice treated with Tibetan medicine formula Siwei Jianghuang Decoction Powder extract. *Scientific Reports*, 8, Article 16707. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-35233-6>
129. Kahkeshani, N., Farzaei, F., Fotouhi, M., Alavi, S. S., Bahramsoltani, R., Naseri, R., Momtaz, S., Abbasabadi, Z., Rahimi, R., Farzaei, M. H., & Bishayee, A. (2019). Pharmacological effects of gallic acid in health and diseases: A mechanistic review. *Iranian Journal of Basic Medical Sciences*, 22(3), 225–237. <https://doi.org/10.22038/ijbms.2019.32806.7897>
130. Caro-Ordieres, T., Marín-Royo, G., Opazo-Ríos, L., Jiménez-Castilla, L., Moreno, J. A., Gómez-Guerrero, C., & Egido, J. (2020). The coming age of flavonoids in the treatment of diabetic complications. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 9(2), 346. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm9020346>
131. Li, Z., Wang, Y., Xu, Q., Ma, J., Li, X., Yan, J., Tian, Y., Wen, Y., & Chen, T. (2023). Berberine and health outcomes: An umbrella review. *Phytotherapy Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ptr.7806>
132. Shrivastava, S., Sharma, A., Saxena, N., & Bhamra, R. (2023). Addressing the preventive and therapeutic perspective of berberine against diabetes. *Heliyon*, 9(11), e21233. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e21233>
133. Ye, Y., Liu, X., Wu, N., Han, Y., Wang, J., Yu, Y., & Chen, Q. (2021). Efficacy and safety of berberine alone for several metabolic disorders: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 12, 653887. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2021.653887>
134. Eslamifar, Z., Moridnia, A., Sabbagh, S., Ghaffaripour, R., Jafaripour, L., & Behzadifard, M. (2021). Ameliorative effects of gallic acid on cisplatin-induced nephrotoxicity in rat: Variations of biochemistry, histopathology, and gene expression. *Biomed Research International*, 2021, 2195238. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/2195238>
135. Qin, X., Jiang, M., Zhao, Y., Gong, J., Su, H., Yuan, F., Fang, K., Yuan, X., Yu, X., Dong, H., & Lu, F. (2020). Berberine protects against diabetic kidney disease via promoting PGC-1 $\alpha$ -regulated mitochondrial energy homeostasis. *British Journal of Pharmacology*, 177(16), 3646–3661. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bph.14935>
136. Jain, S., Tripathi, S., & Tripathi, P. K. (2022). Antiarthritic potential of berberine-loaded invasomal gel. *Phytomedicine Plus*, 2(4), 100373. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phyplu.2022.100373>
137. Tsang, M. S., Jiao, D., Chan, B. C., Hon, K. L., Leung, P. C., Lau, C. B., Wong, E. C., Cheng, L., Chan, C. K., Lam, C. W., & Wong, C. K. (2016). Anti-inflammatory activities of Pentaherbs Formula, berberine, gallic acid, and chlorogenic acid in atopic dermatitis-like skin inflammation. *Molecules*, 21(4), 519. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules21040519>