

Effects of an Aqueous Extract of *Vernonia Amygdalina* Del. (Asteraceae) Leaves on Blood Glucose Levels in Rats

Begbin Kouassi Emile^{1*}, Oumar Koné², Kouakou Koffi Roger¹, Kouakou Koffi³

¹Laboratory of Animal Biological Sciences, Faculty of Sciences and Technologies, Alassane OUATTARA University, BP V18 Bouake 01, Côte d'Ivoire

²Department of Science and Technology, Higher Teacher Training College of Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire

³Laboratory of Biology and Health, Faculty of Biosciences, Félix HOUPHOUËT-BOIGNY University, BP V34 Abidjan 01, Côte d'Ivoire

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.36347/sajb.2026.v14i08.003>

| Received: 19.06.2026 | Accepted: 22.08.2026 | Published: 24.08.2026

*Corresponding author: Begbin Kouassi Emile

Laboratory of Animal Biological Sciences, Faculty of Sciences and Technologies, Alassane OUATTARA University, BP V18 Bouake 01, Côte d'Ivoire

Abstract

Original Research Article

Diabetes mellitus is a major public health problem, which has spurred research into plant-derived substances that may help control blood glucose levels. This study aimed to evaluate the hypoglycemic and antihyperglycemic activities of an aqueous extract of *Vernonia amygdalina* leaves in *Rattus norvegicus* rats. The leaves, harvested in Djébonoua (Côte d'Ivoire), were dried, ground, and then extracted with distilled water. A phytochemical screening was performed to identify the different groups of secondary metabolites. An acute toxicity study was conducted in female rats in accordance with OECD Test Guideline 423, using a single dose of 2,000 mg/kg body weight. Hypoglycemic and antihyperglycemic activities were evaluated in male rats, under normoglycemic conditions and after an oral glucose load, respectively, using glibenclamide as a reference drug. The aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves contained sterols, polyterpenes, polyphenols, flavonoids, alkaloids, and saponins, with polyphenols, flavonoids, and alkaloids being particularly abundant. At a dose of 2,000 mg/kg, no deaths, no clinical signs of toxicity, and no significant changes in body weight were observed after 14 days. Under normoglycemic conditions, the extract did not cause any significant reduction in blood glucose levels at doses ranging from 100 to 1,000 mg/kg. However, following a glucose overload, doses of 100, 200, and 500 mg/kg significantly reduced the induced hyperglycemia, with the maximum effect observed at 200 mg/kg. These results demonstrate the antihyperglycemic activity of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves, associated with good acute tolerance.

Keywords: *Vernonia amygdalina*, blood glucose, hypoglycemic activity, antihyperglycemic activity, diabetes.

Copyright © 2026 The Author(s): This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY-NC 4.0) which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium for non-commercial use provided the original author and source are credited.

1. INTRODUCTION

The overall goals of diabetes treatment are to restore blood glucose balance in order to prevent diabetes-related complications [1]. Indeed, in the absence of adequate insulin secretion and action, sugar remains in the blood, causing chronic hyperglycemia. This can lead to microvascular and macrovascular complications, some of which can be life-threatening if left untreated [2,3]. It is therefore in the patient's best interest to lower blood glucose levels in people with diabetes, regardless of the treatment used.

Currently, worldwide, drug therapy for diabetes mellitus consists primarily of insulin injections and/or oral antidiabetic and hypoglycemic agents [4,5]. Insulin therapy remains the cornerstone of blood glucose control

in people with type 1 diabetes [6,7]. Oral antidiabetic and hypoglycemic agents form the basis of treatment for type 2 diabetes [8,9]. However, these various treatments must be tailored to the individual, taking into account treatment goals, lifestyle, age, overall health status, and the duration and severity of hyperglycemia. Consequently, the range of oral antidiabetic and hypoglycemic agents available on the market is constantly expanding [10,11]. Clinicians must make their choice by considering a number of factors, the most relevant of which are the adverse effects of these medications. The adverse effects and contraindications associated with the treatment of type 2 diabetes depend on the class of oral antidiabetic agents [12]. Data from the DCCT (Diabetes Control and Complications Trial) studies on type 1 diabetes have shown that hyperglycemia

is the most common adverse effect of insulin therapy in patients with this type of diabetes [13,14]. These adverse effects significantly compromise the pharmacotherapy of diabetes mellitus.

Today, the issue is no longer limited to diabetes mellitus alone, but encompasses all conditions that hyperglycemia can cause. In 2021, diabetes was directly responsible for approximately 1.6 million deaths worldwide, in addition to approximately 530,000 deaths due to diabetic nephropathy. Furthermore, hyperglycemia is estimated to account for approximately 11% of cardiovascular deaths worldwide [15]. This demonstrates that hyperglycemia is responsible for a significant burden of mortality beyond the deaths directly attributable to diabetes mellitus.

Concerns about the morbidity caused by chronic hyperglycemia are a major issue for certain countries, such as Côte d'Ivoire, which is already struggling to cope with other diseases with high morbidity rates (malaria, AIDS, tuberculosis).

Independent national surveys in Africa indicate that 90% of Ethiopians and Burundians, 85% of South Africans, 75% of Malians, and 70% of Rwandans, Beninese, and Ghanaians use medicinal plants [16]. In Nigeria, approximately 80% of the population consults traditional healers for their health needs [17]. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, 79.4% of the population of Lubumbashi has used traditional medicine, motivated by its perceived effectiveness, rapid healing, and low cost [18]. It would therefore be more appropriate and beneficial to direct scientific research on these plants in this direction in order to promote them and optimize their use.

This research study falls within this same framework. The objective was to evaluate the hypoglycemic and antihyperglycemic activities of the aqueous extract of *Vernonia amygdalina* leaves in *Rattus norvegicus* rats.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Biological Material

The plant material consists primarily of leaves of *V. amygdalina* (Asteraceae). These leaves were collected fresh in the Djébonoua subprefecture, located 18 km south of Bouaké (Gbêkê region, Côte d'Ivoire). The plant was identified at the National Center for Floristics at Félix HOUPHOUËT-BOIGNY University (Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire).

Female Wistar strain white rats, *Rattus norvegicus* (Muridae), aged 9 weeks and weighing between 148 and 153 g, were used for the toxicity test. The selection of females is in accordance with the recommendations of OECD Guideline 423, which generally recommends the use of females for acute oral toxicity tests, as they may exhibit slightly greater

sensitivity than males [19]. These female rats are nulliparous and not pregnant. For the pharmacological study, male rats of the same species as those used in the toxicological study were used. Their age ranged from 9 to 10 weeks, and their body weight ranged from 150 to 166 g. Selecting males can help avoid metabolic changes caused by pregnancy or lactation. Sex hormones can significantly influence insulin sensitivity and how the body processes glucose. [20]. These animals, raised in the vivarium at the École Normale Supérieure d'Abidjan, were housed in a room maintained at a temperature of $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ with a photoperiod of 12 hours of natural light and 12 hours of darkness. Humidity ranged from 50 to 55%, and the animals had free access to water and food (56.9% carbohydrates, 16.6% protein, 3.9% fat, 13.2% fiber, and 9.4% minerals) provided by the Ivorian Compound Feed Manufacturing Company.

2.2. Extraction Method

The leaves of *V. amygdalina*, dried away from direct sunlight, were ground using a Moulinex-type electric grinder, and the resulting powder was used to prepare the total aqueous extract.

The aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves (AEVa) was prepared following the method described by Yapó *et al.*, [21]. 50 g of leaf powder were mixed with 1 liter of distilled water in a blender. After a series of three blending cycles, each lasting three minutes at room temperature, the resulting homogenate was filtered twice through a square of white cloth (poplin), then five times through cotton gauze. The resulting filtrate was evaporated in an oven at 50°C for 3 days until a dry extract was obtained.

2.3. Phytochemical Screening Study

The phytochemical analyses were conducted at the pharmacognosy laboratory of the Faculty of Pharmaceutical and Biological Sciences at Félix HOUPHOUËT-BOIGNY University. The various chemical groups in EAVA were characterized using the techniques described in the works of Wagner & Bladt [22], Békro *et al.*, [23], and Adiukwu *et al.*, [24].

Sterols and polyterpenes were detected using the Liebermann reaction. The ferric chloride (FeCl_3) reaction was used to characterize polyphenols. Flavonoids were detected using the so-called "cyanidin" reaction. Catechin tannins were identified using Stiasny's reagent, while gallic tannins were detected using FeCl_3 . Borntraegen's reagent was used to detect free and bound quinone substances. Alkaloids were characterized using Dragendorff's reagent (potassium iodobismuthate) and Bouchardat's reagent (iodo-iodide). To test for saponosides, 15 mL of AEVa was poured into a test tube 15 cm long and 15 mm in diameter, then the tube was shaken vigorously for 10 seconds and allowed to stand for 10 minutes. If the foam remains at a height of more than 3 cm, then saponins are present.

2.4. Toxicological Study

Toxicology studies the harmful effects of chemical substances on living organisms [25]. That said, any biologically active substance is capable of producing adverse or even harmful effects at high or low doses and with prolonged administration [26].

This study was conducted in accordance with OECD Chemical Testing Guideline 423 [19]. The limit test using a dose of 2000 mg/kg body weight was conducted. Six nulliparous, non-pregnant female rats were divided into two groups of three animals each: one group treated with the extract and one control group. They were individually marked, fasted overnight (12 hours), and weighed immediately before the experiment. Subsequently, a single dose of 2,000 mg/kg was administered orally to each rat in the treated group using an esophageal tube. After treatment, the female rats were again deprived of food for 4 hours. They were observed individually during the first 30 minutes and once daily for 14 days. The observation of the animals consisted of noting symptoms of disease or behavioral changes.

2.5. Pharmacological Study

In this study, the rats were fasted for 12 hours prior to the experiments. The substances were administered orally.

2.5.1. Hypoglycemic Activities

For this study, 25 rats were used. They were divided into five groups of five rats each. Group 1 (control) received distilled water. Group 2 received 10 mg/kg of glibenclamide. Groups 3, 4, 5, and 6 were treated with AEVa at doses of 100, 200, 500, and 1,000 mg/kg, respectively. Baseline blood glucose levels were first determined immediately before treatment. Blood glucose levels were then measured every 30 minutes for

150 minutes, and the percentage reduction in blood glucose was calculated.

2.5.2. Antihyperglycemic Effects

Hyperglycemia is induced in animals by oral administration of 4 g/kg of glucose. Blood glucose levels in rats from each group are measured immediately before glucose administration and 30 minutes later, just before the rats are treated with different doses of AEVa or glibenclamide. Blood glucose levels are then measured at 30-minute intervals for 150 minutes. In this test, 30 rats divided into six groups of five rats are used. Group 1 receives 4 g/kg of glucose, followed by distilled water 30 minutes later. This is the control group. Group 2 receives 4 g/kg of glucose, followed by 10 mg/kg of glibenclamide 30 minutes later. Groups 3, 4, 5, and 6 receive 4 g/kg of glucose, followed by 100, 200, 500, and 1000 mg/kg of AEVa, respectively, 30 minutes later.

2.6. Statistical Analysis of the Results

Statistical analysis of the results was performed using GraphPad Uninst Prism 7 software. The results are presented as the mean followed by the standard error of the mean (mean $\pm$ SEM). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the obtained means. This software was also used to generate the graphs.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Phytochemical Screening

Phytochemical analysis of AEVa revealed the presence of sterols and polyterpenes, polyphenols, flavonoids, alkaloids, and saponosides (Table 1). However, polyphenols, flavonoids, and alkaloids were found to be the most abundant compounds in the extract. In contrast, AEVa does not contain tannins or quinone compounds.

Table 1: Chemical composition of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves

Chemical Groups	Observations
Sterols and Polyterpenes	+
Polyphenols	++
Flavonoids	++
Tannins	-
Quinones	-
Alkaloids	++
Saponins	+

(++): high levels; (+): low levels; (-): absent

3.2. Acute Toxicity Study

A dose of 2,000 mg/kg of AEVa did not result in death 14 days after administration in rats. No clinical signs of toxicity were observed. The body weight of the treated animals (174 g) was statistically identical ($p > 0.05$) to that of the control animals (176 g).

3.3. Hypoglycemic Effects

Blood glucose levels in the control rats remained statistically constant ($p > 0.05$) throughout the

duration of the test. It remained at 0.77 ± 0.03 g/L. Doses of 100, 200, 500, and 1,000 mg/kg of AEVa did not cause a decrease in blood glucose levels in the rats ($p > 0.05$) during the 150-minute test. In contrast, glibenclamide caused a decrease in blood glucose levels in the rats. This decrease was significant ($p < 0.01$), and the percentage reduction in blood glucose was $23 \pm 0.85\%$ at the end of the test (Figure 1).

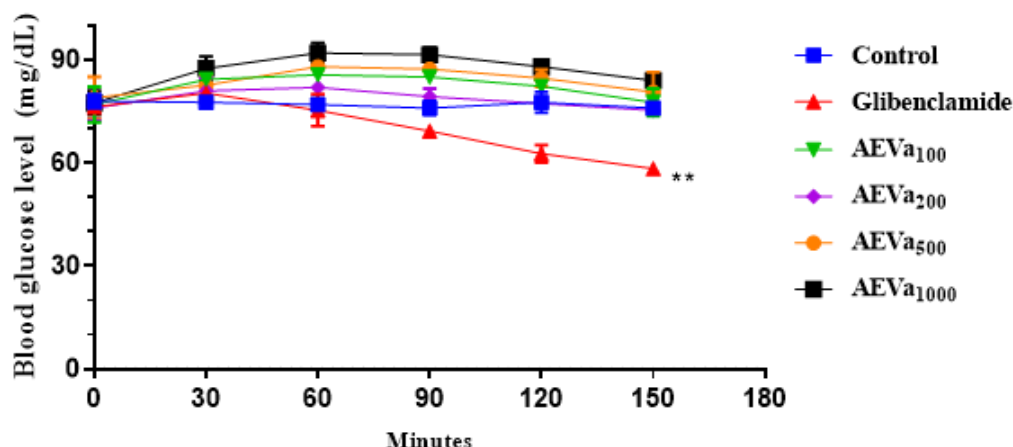


Figure 1: Changes in blood glucose levels in rats during the hypoglycemic test

Values are expressed as mean $\pm$ standard error of the mean (n=5) (*) $P < 0.05$; (**) $P < 0.01$; (***) $P < 0.001$.

AEVa₁₀₀: 100 mg/kg of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves;

AEVa₂₀₀: 200 mg/kg of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves;

AEVa₅₀₀: 500 mg/kg of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves;

AEVa₁₀₀₀: 1000 mg/kg of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves.

3.2. Antihyperglycemic Effects

Administration of glucose at the start of the test causes a highly significant increase ($p < 0.001$) in blood glucose levels in rats. The mean blood glucose level for all rats rises from 79 ± 8 mg/dL to 153 ± 7 mg/dL, representing a glucose load of 73 ± 8 mg/dL. Oral administration of EAVA, glibenclamide, or distilled water 30 minutes after glucose administration resulted in a relative reduction in the induced hyperglycemia in the animals. At the end of the test, blood glucose levels in the control group rats were reduced by $41 \pm 10\%$.

However, blood glucose levels in the groups treated with glibenclamide ($p < 0.001$), 100 mg/kg of AEVa ($p < 0.05$), 200 mg/kg of EAVA ($p < 0.01$), and 500 mg/kg of AEVa ($p < 0.05$) showed a significantly greater reduction of $141 \pm 16\%$, $71 \pm 13\%$, $97 \pm 15\%$, and $67 \pm 10\%$, respectively, compared to the control group. No significant difference ($p > 0.05$) was observed between the rate of blood glucose reduction in the group treated with 1,000 mg/kg of AEVa ($48 \pm 10\%$) and that of the control group ($41 \pm 10\%$) (Table 2).

Table 2: Blood glucose levels in rats in the antihyperglycemic test

	Blood glucose level (mg/dL)		
Minutes	0	30	180
Control	$78 \pm 6,1$	$153 \pm 9,2$	$108 \pm 3,2$
Glibenclamide	$83 \pm 4,3$	$154 \pm 2,5$	$64 \pm 5,2$ ***
AEVa ₁₀₀	$83 \pm 8,3$	$148 \pm 2,8$	$87 \pm 4,9$ *
AEVa ₂₀₀	$78 \pm 7,5$	$153 \pm 2,8$	$78 \pm 6,7$ **
AEVa ₅₀₀	$75 \pm 8,9$	$157 \pm 2,5$	$92 \pm 3,5$ *
AEVa ₁₀₀₀	$84 \pm 4,2$	$154 \pm 4,9$	$103 \pm 2,1$

Values are expressed as mean $\pm$ standard error of the mean (n=5) (*) $P < 0.05$; (**) $P < 0.01$; (***) $P < 0.001$.

AEVa₁₀₀: 100 mg/kg of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves;

AEVa₂₀₀: 200 mg/kg of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves;

AEVa₅₀₀: 500 mg/kg of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves;

AEVa₁₀₀₀: 1000 mg/kg of the aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* leaves.

4. DISCUSSION

The objective of this study was to evaluate the hypoglycemic and antihyperglycemic activities of the aqueous leaf extract of *V. amygdalina* (AEVa) in *Rattus norvegicus* rats. Phytochemical analysis of EAVA revealed the presence of sterols and polyterpenes, polyphenols, flavonoids, alkaloids, and saponins, with polyphenols, flavonoids, and alkaloids being particularly abundant. In contrast, no tannins or quinone compounds

were detected. This profile confirms the richness of *V. amygdalina* in bioactive secondary metabolites. Previous studies using aqueous extracts of the leaves of this species have also reported the presence of alkaloids, flavonoids, phenolic compounds, saponins, and steroids, although differences were observed depending on the extraction method and experimental conditions [27,28]. The phytochemical composition can indeed vary depending on the extraction solvent, the origin of the

leaves, their stage of development, and the analytical methods used. In this regard, the potential role of polyphenols and flavonoids in the antidiabetic activity of *V. amygdalina* is of particular interest. Ong *et al.*, demonstrated, in particular, that a polyphenol-rich extract from this plant contained, among other compounds, derivatives of caffeoylquinic acid, chlorogenic acid, and luteolin-molecules that may contribute to the observed metabolic effects [29].

The acute toxicity study also provides favorable evidence regarding the tolerability of AEVa. Indeed, a single oral dose of 2,000 mg/kg resulted in no deaths or clinical signs of toxicity during the 14-day observation period. Furthermore, the average weight of the treated animals did not differ significantly from that of the controls. The absence of any significant weight changes suggests that this single administration did not significantly disrupt the animals' general condition during the observation period. These results are consistent with several previous studies on the toxicity of AEVa. In particular, acute toxicity studies conducted using an approach based on OECD guidelines revealed no cases of mortality or clinical signs of toxicity following administration of an aqueous extract, even at doses exceeding 2,000 mg/kg [30,31,32]. However, these results should be considered only as evidence of good acute tolerance, and not as evidence of absolute long-term safety.

In normoglycemic rats, administration of AEVa at doses of 100, 200, 500, and 1,000 mg/kg did not result in a significant decrease in blood glucose levels during the 150-minute follow-up period. In contrast, glibenclamide caused a significant decrease in blood glucose levels, reaching $23 \pm 0.85\%$ at the end of the experiment. The absence of an acute hypoglycemic effect of EAVa in normoglycemic rats suggests that, under the experimental conditions of our study, the extract does not induce a significant decrease in baseline blood glucose levels. This result is of pharmacological interest, as it indicates that the extract's activity may be more pronounced under hyperglycemic conditions than under normoglycemic conditions. This observation is consistent with the results of a study evaluating an aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* in normoglycemic rats: no significant decrease in blood glucose levels was observed at the doses studied, despite a slight maximum reduction reported at certain doses [28]. Similarly, a study combining an aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina* with metformin showed only a slight effect of the extract alone on blood glucose levels in non-diabetic rats, unlike in diabetic animals, in which the effect was much more pronounced [33]. Glucose administration, on the other hand, led to a highly significant increase in blood glucose levels. This increase confirms the actual onset of induced hyperglycemia and thus validates the experimental model used to evaluate antihyperglycemic activity. In the control animals, however, blood glucose levels decreased spontaneously by $41 \pm 10\%$ at the end of the

test. This decrease is attributable to the normal physiological response to a glucose load, involving, in particular, insulin secretion and the gradual uptake of glucose by peripheral tissues.

In this context, administration of AEVa accentuated the reduction in induced hyperglycemia compared with the control group. The reductions observed were $71 \pm 13\%$ at the 100 mg/kg dose, $97 \pm 15\%$ at the 200 mg/kg dose, and $67 \pm 10\%$ at the 500 mg/kg dose, with these differences being statistically significant. In contrast, the 1,000 mg/kg dose did not result in a significantly different reduction compared to the control group, with $48 \pm 10\%$ versus $41 \pm 10\%$. These results therefore demonstrate the acute antihyperglycemic activity of AEVa, but without a strictly increasing dose-response relationship. The maximum activity observed at 200 mg/kg, followed by a decrease at 500 and 1,000 mg/kg, could indicate a nonlinear dose-response relationship. This response is not unusual with complex plant extracts, in which multiple constituents may act simultaneously, giving rise to synergistic effects, antagonism, saturation, or dose-dependent variations in bioavailability.

The antihyperglycemic effect of AEVa is particularly noteworthy when compared to the available data on *V. amygdalina*. Experimental studies have shown that an extract of this plant can improve glucose tolerance in diabetic animals and reduce fasting blood glucose levels after repeated administration [29]. Furthermore, studies specifically using aqueous extracts have also reported a decrease in blood glucose levels in diabetic rats. Goje *et al.*, observed, after two weeks of treatment with an aqueous extract of *V. amygdalina*, a significant reduction in fasting blood glucose levels in alloxan-induced diabetic rats [34].

The magnitude of the reduction observed with glibenclamide also serves as a relevant positive control in this trial. Glibenclamide is a sulfonylurea known to stimulate insulin secretion by pancreatic β -cells. The fact that AEVa caused a greater decrease in glucose levels in the glucose overload model than the control group, but less than that achieved with glibenclamide, suggests that the extract possesses measurable pharmacological activity, although it did not match the efficacy of the reference drug under the experimental conditions. The effect observed specifically at the 200 mg/kg dose is nevertheless worth noting.

The mechanisms responsible for this activity cannot be definitively established based solely on the results of this study. However, the high content of polyphenols, flavonoids, and alkaloids in AEVa suggests several complementary mechanisms. The available experimental data on *V. amygdalina* suggest, in particular, improved glucose utilization by muscles, increased GLUT4 translocation, and a reduction in certain hepatic glucose production pathways [29].

Recent studies also continue to highlight the importance of the phenolic and flavonoid components of *V. amygdalina* in its metabolic effects [35].

6. CONCLUSION

Overall, our results indicate that EAVA does not exhibit significant acute hypoglycemic activity in normoglycemic rats, but that it exerts significant antihyperglycemic activity following a glucose load, particularly at doses of 100, 200, and 500 mg/kg. This distinction is important because it suggests that the extract may act more on the regulation of postprandial blood glucose elevation than on the reduction of basal blood glucose levels. These results are generally consistent with several previous studies demonstrating an antidiabetic effect of *V. amygdalina*, while revealing a complex, dose-dependent response that warrants further investigation. Further studies on long-term blood glucose levels, insulin levels, glucose tolerance, and the cellular and molecular mechanisms involved would be necessary to elucidate the extract's mechanism of action.

REFERENCES

1. Nishida, Y., & Watada, H. (2024). The up-to-date treatment for diabetes and prevention of its complications. *Juntendo Medical Journal*, 70(6), 400–407. <https://doi.org/10.14789/ejnmj.JMJ24-0030-R>
2. Kocher, T., König, J., Borgnakke, W. S., Pink, C., & Meisel, P. (2018). Periodontal complications of hyperglycemia/diabetes mellitus: Epidemiologic complexity and clinical challenge. *Periodontology* 2000, 78(1), 59–97. [<https://doi.org/10.1111/prd.12235>]
3. American Diabetes Association. (2023). Standards of Care in Diabetes-2023: Abridged for primary care providers. *Clinical Diabetes*, 41(1), 4–31. <https://doi.org/10.2337/cd23-as01>
4. Kesavadev, J., Basanth, A., Shankar, A., Saboo, B., Mohan, A. R., Joshi, S., Ghosh, S., Krishnan, G., Jothydev, K., & Ashik, A. (2025). An overview of currently available injectable therapies in diabetes: A guide to practitioners. *Advances in Therapy*, 42(8), 3634–3656. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12325-025-03250-3>
5. American Diabetes Association Professional Practice Committee. (2026). 9. Pharmacologic approaches to glycemic treatment: Standards of Care in Diabetes—2026. *Diabetes Care*, 49(Supplement 1), S183–S215. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc26-S009>
6. Tsai, Y.-Y., Gu, Y.-S., & Jiang, Y.-D. (2024). An update of contemporary insulin therapy. *Journal of Diabetes Investigation*, 15, 1000–1002. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jdi.14212>
7. von Scholten, B. J., Kreiner, F. F., Gough, S. C. L., & von Herrath, M. (2021). Current and future therapies for type 1 diabetes. *Diabetologia*, 64(5), 1037–1048. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-021-05398-3>
8. Devajit, M., & Mohajan, H. K. (2024). Oral hypoglycaemic agents: Non-insulin medications for type 2 diabetes. *Paradigm Academic Press Innovation in Science and Technology*, 3(1), 23–31. <https://doi.org/10.56397/IST.2024.01.004>
9. American Diabetes Association Professional Practice Committee. (2025). Pharmacologic approaches to glycemic treatment: Standards of Care in Diabetes—2025. *Diabetes Care*, 48(Supplement 1), S181–S206. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc25-S009>
10. Lipscombe, L., Booth, G., Butalia, S., Dasgupta, K., Eurich, D. T., Goldenberg, R., Khan, N., MacCallum, L., Shah, B. R., & Simpson, S. (2018). Pharmacologic glycemic management of type 2 diabetes in adults. *Canadian Journal of Diabetes*, 42(Supplement 1), S88–S103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cjcd.2017.10.034>
11. Davies, M. J., Aroda, V. R., Collins, B. S., Gabbay, R. A., Green, J., Maruthur, N. M., Rosas, S. E., Del Prato, S., Mathieu, C., Mingrone, G., Rossing, P., Tankova, T., Tsapas, A., & Buse, J. B. (2022). Management of hyperglycemia in type 2 diabetes, 2022: A consensus report by the American Diabetes Association (ADA) and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). *Diabetes Care*, 45(11), 2753–2786. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dci22-0034>
12. Harrigan, R. A., Nathan, M. S., & Beattie, P. (2001). Oral agents for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus: Pharmacology, toxicity, and treatment. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*, 38(1), 68–78. <https://doi.org/10.1067/mem.2001.114314>
13. The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial Research Group. (1993). The effect of intensive treatment of diabetes on the development and progression of long-term complications in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 329(14), 977–986. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJM199309303291401>
14. Nathan, D. M. (2021). Realising the long-term promise of insulin therapy: The DCCT/EDIC study. *Diabetologia*, 64(5), 1049–1058. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-021-05397-4>
15. World Health Organization. (2024). Diabetes. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/diabetes>
16. Gyasi, R. M., Abass, K., Adu-Gyamfi, S., Accam, B. T., & Nyamadi, V. M. (2018). The capabilities of nurses for complementary and traditional medicine integration in Africa. *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine: Paradigm, Practice, and Policy Advancing Integrative Health*, 24(3), 282–290. <https://doi.org/10.1089/acm.2017.0133>
17. Aina, O., Gautam, L., Simkhada, P., & Hall, S. (2020). Prevalence, determinants and knowledge about herbal medicine and non-hospital utilisation in southwest Nigeria: A cross-sectional study. *BMJ Open*, 10(9), e040769. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2020-040769>

18. Mutombo, C. S., Bakari, S. A., Ntabaza, V. N., Nachtergaeel, A., Lumbu, J.-B. S., Duez, P. & Kahumba, J. B. (2022). Perceptions and use of traditional African medicine in Lubumbashi, Haut-Katanga province (DR Congo): A cross-sectional study. *PLoS ONE*, 17(10), e0276325. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0276325>
19. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2001). Test No. 423: Acute oral toxicity—Acute toxic class method. OECD Publishing.
20. Blesson, C. S., Schutt, A. K., Vipin, V. A., Tanchico, D. T., Mathew, P. R., Balakrishnan, M., Betancourt, A., & Yallampalli, C. (2020). In utero low-protein-diet-programmed type 2 diabetes in adult offspring is mediated by sex hormones in rats. *Biology of Reproduction*, 103(5), 1110–1120. <https://doi.org/10.1093/biolre/iaaa133>
21. Yapo, C. V. Y., Konkon, D. G., Coulibaly, K., Camara, D., & Zirihi, G. N. (2016). Étude botanique, évaluation de l'activité antifongique sur la croissance in vitro de *Candida albicans* et de la toxicité sur des cellules HFF de feuilles de *Mallotus oppositifolius* (Geiseler) Müller.Arg (Euphorbiaceae). *Journal of Animal & Plant Sciences*, 28(1), 4330–4339.
22. Wagner, H., & Bladt, S. (2001). *Plant drug analysis: A thin layer chromatography atlas* (2nd ed.). Springer.
23. Békro, Y. A., Békro, J. A. M., Boua, B. B., Tra, B. F. H., & Ehilé, E. E. (2007). Étude ethnobotanique et screening phytochimique de *Caesalpinia benthamiana* (Baill.) Herend. et Zarucchi (Caesalpiniaceae). [Ethnobotanical study and phytochemical screening of *Caesalpinia benthamiana* (Baill.) Herend. and Zarucchi (Caesalpiniaceae)]. *Sciences & Nature*, 4, 217–225.
24. Adiukwu, P. C., Bonsu, M., Okon-Ben, I., Peprah, P., Mensah-Kane, P., Jato, J., & Nambatya, G. (2017). Ultraviolet spectroscopic evaluation of bioactive saponin fraction from the aqueous extract of *Vernonia amygdalina* [Esteraceae] leaf. *International Journal of Biological and Chemical Sciences*, 11(4), 1893–1902. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ijbcs.v11i4.38>
25. National Library of Medicine. (2019). Collection development guidelines of the National Library of Medicine: Toxicology. Updated June 23, 2020. National Library of Medicine. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK518837/>
26. National Research Council (US) Committee on Risk Assessment of Hazardous Air Pollutants. (1994). *Science and judgment in risk assessment: Assessment of toxicity*. National Academies Press. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK208246/>
27. Clement, E., Erharuyi, O., Vincent, I., Joy, A., Christopher, A., *et al.*, (2014). Significance of bitter leaf (*Vernonia amygdalina*) in tropical diseases and beyond: A review. *Malar Chemoth Cont*, 3, 120. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2090-2778.1000120>
28. Momoh, M. A., Oluseun, A., Mora, A. T. & Agboke, A. A. (2014). Antidiabetic activity and acute toxicity evaluation of aqueous leaf extract of *Vernonia amygdalina*. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 13(50), 4586–4593. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJB2014.13995>
29. Ong, K. W., Hsu, A., Song, L., Huang, D., & Tan, B. K. (2011). Polyphenols-rich *Vernonia amygdalina* shows anti-diabetic effects in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 133(2), 598–607. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2010.10.046>
30. Njan, A.A., Adzu, B., Agaba, A.G., Byarugaba, D., Díaz-Llera, S., & Bangsberg, D.R. (2008). The Analgesic and Antiplasmodial Activities and Toxicology of *Vernonia amygdalina*. *Journal of Medicinal Food*, 11(3), 574–581. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jmf.2007.0511>
31. Oguwike, F.N., Offor, C.C., Onubeze, D.P.M. & Nwadioha, A.N., (2013). Evaluation of Activities of Bitter leaf (*Vernonia Amygdalina*) Extract on Haemostatic and Biochemical Profile of Induced Male Diabetic Albino Rats. *Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences*, 11 (2), 60–64.
32. Yusmazura, Z., Nurhazirah, Z. A., Fakhuruddin N. Hassan N., & Hussin M. (2016). Phytochemicals and acute oral toxicity studies of the aqueous extract of *Vernonia amygdalina* from state of Malaysia. *Journal of Medicinal Plants Studies*, 4 (3), 1–5.
33. Michael, U. A., David, B. U., Theophine, C. O., Philip, F. U., Ogochukwu, A. M., & Benson, V. A. (2010). Antidiabetic effect of combined aqueous leaf extract of *Vernonia amygdalina* and metformin in rats. *Journal of Basic and Clinical Pharmacy*, 1(3), 197–202.
34. Goje, L. J., Maisamari, C.A, Maigari, F.U., Ghamba, P.E., Goji, A.D.T & Mshelia, P.P. (2014). The Hypoglycemic and Hypolipidemic Effects of the Aqueous Extract of *Vernonia Amygdalina* Leaves on Alloxan Induced Diabetic Albino Rats," *International Journal of Sciences, Office ijSciences*, 3(09), 5-11,
35. Ajuwon, O.R., Oladejo, D.R., Adeoye, A.O., Falode, J.A., Ajiboye, B.O., Osunsanmi, F.O., Oyinloye, B.E. (2026). Crude Extract and Phenol-Rich Fractions from *Vernonia amygdalina* Leaves Ameliorates Streptozotocin-Induced Type 1 Diabetes in Rats by Mitigating Hepatic Injury, Dyslipidemia, and Production of Oxidative-Inflammatory Markers. *Journal of Xenobiotics*, 16(2):53. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jox16020053>.