

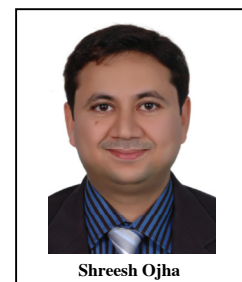
REVIEW ARTICLE

Pharmacological Properties and Therapeutic Potential of Naringenin: A Citrus Flavonoid of Pharmaceutical Promise

Neha Rani^a, Saurabh Bharti^a, Bhaskar Krishnamurthy^a, Jagriti Bhatia^a, Charu Sharma^b, Mohammad Amjad Kamal^{c,d}, Shreesh Ojha^{e*} and Dharamvir Singh Arya^{*a}

^aDepartment of Pharmacology, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi-110029, India; ^bDepartment of Internal Medicine, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, United Arab Emirates University, Al Ain, UAE; ^cKing Fahd Medical Research Center, King Abdulaziz University, P.O. Box 80216, Jeddah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia; ^dEnzymoics and Novel Global Community Educational Foundation, 7 Peterlee Place, Hebersham, NSW 2770, Australia; ^eDepartment of Pharmacology and Therapeutics, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, United Arab Emirates University, Al Ain, UAE

Abstract: Naringenin chemically known as 5,7-dihydroxy-2-(4-hydroxyphenyl)chroman-4-one is a common dietary polyphenolic constituent of the citrus fruits. It has received considerable attention for pharmaceutical and nutritional development due to potent pharmacological activities and therapeutic potential. Accumulating evidence from both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have unraveled numerous biological targets along with complex underlying mechanisms suggesting possible therapeutic applications of naringenin in various neurological, cardiovascular, gastrointestinal, rheumatological, metabolic and malignant disorders. Functionally, this ameliorative effect of naringenin is primarily attributed to its anti-inflammatory (via inhibiting recruitment of cytokines and inflammatory transcription factors) and anti-oxidant (via scavenging of free radicals, bolstering of endogenous antioxidant defense system and metal ion chelation) effects. The present article provides a comprehensive review of the various studies that have evaluated the therapeutic potential of naringenin and its actions at the molecular level. It also summarizes the pharmacokinetic data and issues and challenges involved in pharmaceutical development and suggest that it may be a potential agent for further exploration as well as may be useful as a dietary adjunct in treatment of various human ailments.



Shreesh Ojha

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1. INTRODUCTION

Extensive scientific research over the past few decades has indicated that an inverse relationship may exist between flavonoid intake by humans and disease occurrence; and that flavonoids can be considered safer than the allopathic medications. This has sparked a research interest in the identification and evaluation of various flavonoids obtained from human diet, such as naringenin.

Naringenin (5,7-dihydroxy-2-(4-hydroxyphenyl)chroman-4-one) is a major natural flavonoid found in oranges, grapefruit and tomato skin. Naringenin is an aglycone, obtained by hydrolysis of naringenin-7-neohesperidoside (naringin) and naringenin-7-rutinoside (narinrutin). It has a bitter taste and is soluble in alcohol and dimethyl sulfoxide and relatively insoluble in water [1]. The chemical structure and physicochemical properties of naringenin are represented in Fig. 1. Owing to its anti-oxidant and anti-inflammatory properties, it has shown to exert therapeutic potential against various disorders such as neurodegenerative, cardiovascular, diabetes and malignancies.

This review focuses on pharmacokinetics and preclinical data emphasizing the multifaceted activities of naringenin and its potential therapeutic implication in human disorders.

Database searches using Medline/PubMed, EMBASE, Google Scholar, and Science Direct were conducted to include all the available published literature in the present review article. The search was limited to English language papers, however if the abstract was available in English, its included in present article. For literature search, the following MeSH words were used in the database search engines mentioned: naringenin AND allergies / Parkinson's disease/Alzheimer's disease/neuronal diseases/ cardiovascular diseases/respiratory diseases/gastrointestinal diseases/cancer/cough/dentistry/ hyperlipidemia/ hypertension/colitis/infection/ hyperglycemia / cough/ atherosclerosis/inflammation/oxidative stress/nitrosative stress/apoptosis/malignancies/tumor/carcinoma/pain/ diabetes/blood pressure/radiation/stroke/epilepsy/metabolic syndrome/arrhythmias/anxiety/antimicrobial/antifungal/antiviral/antiacneer/antiparasiticide/antimalarial/immunomodulator/infections/depression /schizophrenia/ arthritis/ musculoskeletal diseases / immune diseases/psychotic diseases/neuroprotection/nephroprotection/ cardioprotection/hepatoprotection/radioprotection, naringenin AND brain / heart / lung / kidney / skin / bone / liver / cholesterol / blood / insulin / hormones, naringenin AND anti-inflammatory / antioxidant, naringenin AND bioavailability / chromatography/ transporters / analysis / pharmacokinetics / safety / toxicity/ adverse effects / side effects / pregnancy / pharmacology/ pharmaceuticals / dosage forms / pharmaceuticals / uses/ indications, naringenin AND *in vitro* / *in vivo* and articles all together on 'naringenin'. In almost all cases, the original articles were obtained and the relevant data was extracted. The further paragraphs briefly describe the pharmacological properties and therapeutic potential of naringenin in human diseases.

*Address correspondence to these authors at the ^aDepartment of Pharmacology and Therapeutics, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, United Arab Emirates University, Al Ain, UAE, Tel/Fax: +971 50 3125748; Fax: +971 3 7602033; E-mail: shreeshojha@uaeu.ac.ae and Department of Pharmacology, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi-110029, India; E-mail: dsarya16@hotmail.com

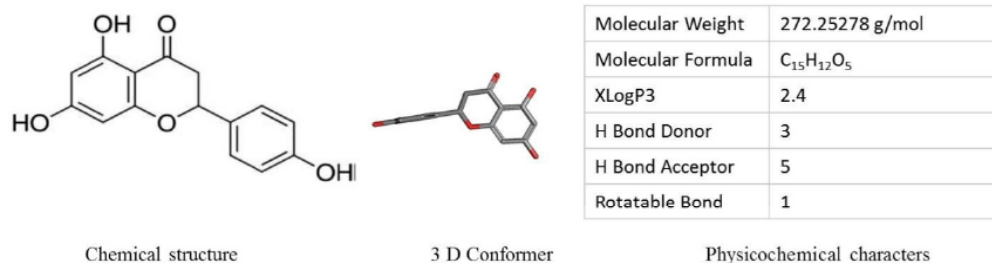


Fig. (1). Chemical structure and physicochemical properties of naringenin.

1.1. PHARMACOKINETICS OF NARINGENIN

1.1.1. Absorption

Naringenin has been absorbed through both active transport and passive diffusion. A study by Xu and group demonstrated that amount of naringenin absorbed was higher in colon (68%) followed by duodenum (47%), terminal ileum (42%) and jejunum (39%) [2]. Oral administration of naringenin (135mg/kg) to healthy volunteers resulted in C_{max} of 2009.51ng/ml, T_{max} of 3.67hours, AUC_{0-9} of 9424.52ng/ml, elimination half-life of 2.31hour and oral bioavailability of 5.81% [3].

1.1.2. Distribution

Naringenin is circulated as glucuronide and sulfated conjugated metabolites in the blood stream. Naringenin-o- β -D-glucuronides constituted 98% of plasma metabolites and naringenin aglycone retained in the tissues following 2hour and 18hour respectively post gavage treatment with 50mg/kg naringenin [4]. Recent study on tissue distribution of naringenin revealed that naringenin glucuronides were predominantly found in serum, while naringenin sulfates were detected in higher concentration in liver, spleen, heart and brain tissue [5]. Upon topical administration of 1% naringenin eye drops to rabbits, naringenin concentration was shown to be highest in cornea (67945.30–4109.34ng/g), followed by aqueous humor (1325.69–239.34ng/mL), retina (1927.08–660.77ng/g) and vitreous body (160.52–38.78ng/mL) [6].

1.1.3. Metabolism

Glucuronidation is the key metabolic step post-absorption mainly occurs at the 7- and 4'-hydroxyl groups of naringenin via UDP-glucuronyl-transferase enzyme and subsequent O-sulphation occur at 7-, 4'- or 5-hydroxyl groups of naringenin via sulfotransferases enzyme [7-9]. Naringenin is hydrolyzed in the small intestine by beta-glucosidases and then absorbed in the caecum [7, 10]. Furthermore, naringenin was also shown to be metabolized by intestinal microflora into p-coumaric acid (p-CA), p-hydroxybenzoic acid (p-HBA) and p-hydroxyphenylpropionic acid (p-HPPA), mainly identified in the urine and plasma [4].

1.1.4. Excretion

After single dose of naringenin (135mg/kg), maximum excretion rate occurs at 4.5hours with a urinary excretion of $66.2 \pm 3.1 \mu\text{mol}/24\text{hours}$ [3]. Naringenin 7-glucuronide, naringenin 7-sulfate 4'-glucuronide and naringenin 7-glucuronide 4'-sulfate are excreted in the bile whereas naringenin 4'-glucuronide, naringenin 7-glucuronide and naringenin 7,4'-disulfate are excreted in the urine [11]. The metabolite conjugates which are excreted in bile further undergo enterohepatic circulation showed double peak phenomenon in plasma concentration–time curve; thus resulting in longer elimination half-life [12]. Naringenin exist into two chiral forms such as R-enantiomer and S-enantiomer and their lowest limits of quantitation in plasma is $0.05 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ [13]. In comparison to S-(-) enantiomer, R-(-) enantiomer has 40% higher cumulative urinary excretion [14].

2. PHARMACOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF NARINGENIN

2.1. ANTIOXIDANT EFFECTS

The antioxidant potential of naringenin has been well studied in various cell lines and animal models. One of the best-studied effects of naringenin includes scavenging of free radicals, inhibiting the activities of pro-oxidant enzymes such as nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) oxidase, cyclooxygenase, lipoxygenase and xanthine oxidase and metal ion chelation. Apart from that, naringenin amplifies several antioxidant enzymes levels viz. catalase, glutathione peroxidase and superoxide dismutase; suppresses protein nitration and peroxy-nitrite-induced protein oxidation [15]. A comparative study revealed that naringenin exhibited superior chelation of metallic ions, antioxidant capacity, hydroxyl and superoxide radical scavenger activity and protection against oxidative damage to lipids than its glycosidic form, naringin [16]. The various supportive evidences for the antioxidant activity of naringenin are as follows:

2.1.1. In Vitro

Naringenin (0.02mM) inhibited nitrite-induced oxidation of hemoglobin to methemoglobin via its ability to scavenge free radicals [17]. In mouse neuroblastoma cells, naringenin (100 μM) prevented carbaryl induced neurotoxicity through its antioxidant and anti-apoptotic potential [18]. Naringenin (50mg/kg) has been shown to upregulate antioxidant enzyme activities and alleviate oxidative stress against iron-induced neurotoxicity in cerebral cortex [19]. Mechanistically, its property to activate nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) signaling pathway may be an imperative rationale in preventing oxidative stress in human bronchial epithelial BEAS-2B cells at concentration of 100 μM [20] and in H9c2 cardiomyoblast cells at 50 μM [21].

2.1.2. In Vivo

Owing to its strong anti-oxidant potential, naringenin (50mg/kg) demonstrated protective effect in various models viz. arsenic [22], cadmium [23, 24] and lead-induced hepatic and renal dysfunction in rats [25], ethanol-induced hepatotoxicity in rats [26] and oxytetracycline-mediated liver damage in rats [27]. Naringenin (50mg/kg) attenuated carbon tetrachloride-induced hepatotoxicity and nephrotoxicity in mice [28, 29]. Moreover, naringenin (200mg/kg) ameliorated N-nitrosodiethylamine-induced hepatocarcinogenesis in rats via both free radical scavenging and augmenting antioxidant enzyme activities [30]. Naringenin (100mg/kg) has been shown to exhibit hypouricemic action in mice [31] and therefore could be developed for therapeutic use in the treatment of gout mediated by xanthine-oxidase inhibition [32].

2.2. ANTI-INFLAMMATORY EFFECTS

Similar to its antioxidant potential, various *in vitro* studies have demonstrated anti-inflammatory activity of naringenin. In macrophages exposed to lipopolysaccharide (LPS), naringenin (100 μM) significantly inhibited Nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κB) activation, inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) expression and nitric oxide

(NO) production [33]. In another study using the same model, naringenin (0-50µg/mL) suppressed pro-inflammatory cytokine response in whole blood as well as macrophages and markedly reduced phosphorylation of activator protein-1 (AP-1) [34]. In various studies on LPS-stimulated mouse macrophage cell line J774.1, naringenin (0.5-50µM) significantly impeded tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) production [35], iNOS and cyclo-oxygenase-2 (COX-2) expression and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) release [36]. Similar effects were also observed in glial cells at concentrations of 0.01-0.3µmol/l [37] and 30-200µM [38]; which were attributed to modulation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (p38MAPK) phosphorylation and signal transducer and activator of transcription-1 (STAT-1) activity [37]. Furthermore, naringenin (0-70µM) has been shown to attenuate cytokine secretion in mouse primary splenocytes treated with LPS [39]. In another study, naringenin (200 and 400µM) significantly reduced LPS/interleukin-1β (IL-1β)-induced inflammatory and contractile pathways in human placenta, foetal membranes and myometrium [40].

Thus, the aforementioned examples outline the antioxidant and anti-inflammatory potential of naringenin which theoretically believed to be beneficial in various human disorders plagued by oxidative stress and inflammation as underlying pathophysiological events are depicted in Fig. 2. Hence, researchers have evaluated naringenin in such human disorders, employing appropriate *in vitro* techniques and animal models. A brief list of such diseases and the possible role of naringenin in them is discussed in the next section of the present review.

3. THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF NARINGENIN IN MODELS OF CNS DISEASES

As depicted in Table 1, naringenin exhibited diverse neuropharmacological properties including neuroprotective, memory enhancer, antidepressant and analgesic. We discuss below the relevant studies in different areas of CNS research with regard to naringenin.

3.1. Alzheimer’s Disease (AD)

One of the most frequently and magnificently elucidated CNS disorders involving oxidative stress and inflammation is AD; which is characterized by deposition of Amyloid beta (Aβ) proteins in CNS; culminating in the formation of amyloid plaques and neurofi-

brillary tangles. *In vitro*, naringenin (25-100µM) significantly attenuated Aβ-induced free radical-mediated neurotoxicity in PC12 cells [41]. In the same study, naringenin (4.5mg/kg) also augmented latency and retention time in male ICR mice. In intracerebroventricular streptozotocin-induced model of AD, naringenin (50mg/kg) significantly improved cognitive deficits and neuronal injury in rats; through modulation of oxidative stress [42, 43] and insulin signaling pathway [44]. At a dose of 4.5mg/kg, it significantly ameliorated scopolamine-induced amnesia in mice [45]. It also ameliorated type-2 diabetes-induced memory dysfunction at a dose of 50mg/kg in rats via inhibition of cholinesterase activity and improvement in anti-oxidant activity [46]. Therefore, naringenin could serve as a preventive/therapeutic agent in AD.

3.2. Parkinson’s Disease (PD)

Another of the neurodegenerative disorders, PD is characterized by degeneration of the dopaminergic neurons in the nigrostriatal pathway. In primary rat mesencephalic cultures, naringenin (40µM) significantly protected dopaminergic neurons from N-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridinium hydrochloride (MPP+) induced oxidative stress [47]. Moreover, naringenin (50 mg/kg) augmented the number of tyrosine hydroxylase-positive cells in the substantia nigra and dopamine levels in the striatum [48]; as well as activated Nrf2/antioxidant response element (Nrf2/ARE) signaling pathway at a dose of 70mg/kg [49] in the 6-hydroxydopamine model of PD in mice. Thus naringenin may ameliorate the degeneration of dopaminergic neurons, thus, potentially proving of its preventive/ therapeutic benefit in PD.

3.3. Mood Disorders

Naringenin has been shown to exhibit antidepressant-like effect in various mouse behavioral models of depression, through mechanisms involving monoaminergic system [50], inhibition of monoamine oxidase (MAO-A and MAO-B) [51], regulation of hippocampal glucocorticoid receptor and serum corticosterone levels [52] and activation of brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) signaling [53]; suggesting a potential therapeutic role in depressive disorders. A study by Amer and colleagues demonstrated that naringenin (10nM-10µM) also exerts a strong estrogenic activity in a stably transduced rat serotonergic cell line; thus modulating serotonergic mood regulation [54].

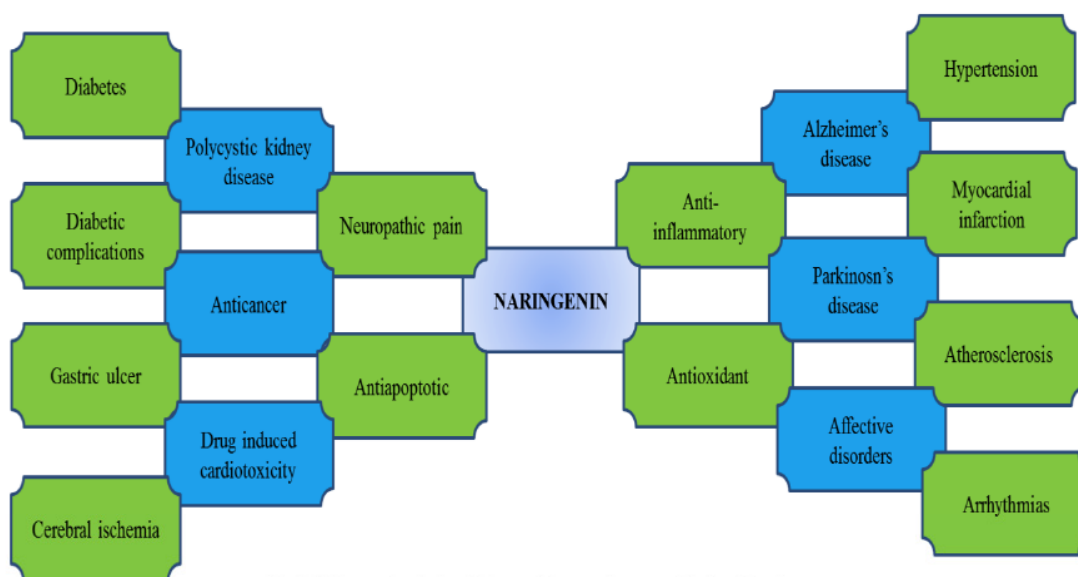


Fig. (2). Pharmacological activities and therapeutic potential of naringenin.

Table 1. Effect of naringenin on neurological diseases.

| Dose | Model | Target/End points | | Reference |
|---|---|--|--|-----------|
| | | Increase | Decrease | |
| Alzheimer's disease (AD) | | | | |
| 70-210 µg/ml | PC12 cells | – | Acetylcholinesterase activity | [41] |
| 50 mg/kg | Male albino Wistar rats | GSH level; GPx, GR, GST, SOD and Na ⁺ /K ⁺ -ATPase activity; ChAT protein expression | 4-HNE, TBARS, H ₂ O ₂ and PC level | [42] |
| 25, 50 and 100 mg/kg | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | PPAR-γ, insulin, insulin receptor and IDE mRNA expression; IDE protein expression | Phospho-Tau and Aβ42 level; GSK-3β activity | [44] |
| 25, 50 and 100 µM and 1.5, 3.0 and 4.5 mg/kg | PC12 cells and male ICR mice | – | ROS level; LDH activity | [45] |
| 25 and 50 mg/kg | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | GSH level | MDA and NO level; ChE activity | [46] |
| Parkinson's Disease | | | | |
| 40 µM | Primary rat mesencephalic cultures | – | TH-positive neurons and TUNEL positive neurons | [47] |
| 50 mg/kg | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | DOPAC and HVA level | – | [48] |
| 20, 40 and 80 µM and 70 mg/kg | Human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells and male C57BL/6 mice | GSH, DA, DOPAC and HVA level; Nrf2, GCLC, GCLM and HO-1 protein expression | ROS and LDH level; p-JNK, p-p38 and caspase-3 protein expression | [49] |
| Depression | | | | |
| IC ₅₀ = 342±33 µM, 955±129 µM and 288±18 µM respectively | Rat liver mitochondrial fraction | – | MAO, MAO-A and MAO-B activity | [51] |
| 5, 10 and 20 mg/kg | Male ICR mice | 5-HT and NE level; glucocorticoid receptor mRNA and protein level | Serum corticosterone level | [52] |
| 5, 10 and 20 mg/kg | Male ICR mice | BDNF mRNA and protein expression | – | [53] |
| Stroke | | | | |
| 10, 25 and 50 mg/kg | Male Wistar rats | GSH level; SOD activity and protein expression | TBARS, NO, TNF-α, IL-1β level; NF-κB and MPO activity; GFAP, Iba-1, NF-κB, iNOS and Cox-2 expression | [55] |
| 50 and 100 mg/kg | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | Claudin-5 mRNA and protein expression | NOD2, NF-κB and MMP-9 mRNA and protein expression; RIP2 protein expression | [56] |
| Neuropathic pain | | | | |
| IC ₅₀ = 0.5±0.07µM | HEK293 cells and C57BL6/N mice DRG neurones and Wistar rat DRG neurones | – | TRPM3 channel | [57] |
| 50, 100 and 200 mg/kg | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | – | TNF-α, IL-1β and MCP-1 level; GFAP and Mac-1 mRNA expression | [58] |
| 25 and 50 mg/kg | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | GSH level | MDA and NO level | [59] |

3.4. Stroke

Naringenin (50mg/kg) ameliorated cerebral ischemia-reperfusion injury in rats due to its anti-inflammatory effect [55]. It also decreased cerebral edema and infarct volume and improved neurological deficit at 100mg/kg following middle cerebral artery occlusion in rats [56].

3.5. Neuropathic Pain

Naringenin ($IC_{50}=0.5\pm 0.07\mu M$) was shown to block melastatin-related transient receptor potential (TRPM3), a calcium-permeable cation channel involved in nociception [57]. In rat models of neuropathic pain, naringenin (200mg/kg) mitigated mechanical allodynia and thermal hyperalgesia following L₅ spinal nerve ligation [58] and chronic constriction injury at 50mg/kg [59]; thereby representing a potential analgesic action.

3.6. Other Neurodegenerative Disorders

Naringenin (0-100 μM) suppressed polyglutamine protein aggregates via inducing glucose-regulated proteins 78 (GRP78), thereby conferring its potential in diseases caused by endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress such as polyglutamine diseases, huntington disease, spinobulbar muscular atrophy, dentatorubral-pallidolusian atrophy and several spinocerebellar ataxias [60]. In hypoxia-induced murine model, naringenin (10mg/kg) ameliorated behavioral impairment and neuronal damage [61]. Naringenin (100mg/kg) has been shown to decrease motor movements by pathway other than modulation of the gamma-aminobutyric acid A (GABA_A) receptor [62]. An *in vitro* (0-20 μM) and *in vivo* (10 and 20mg/kg) study demonstrated that naringenin mitigates microglial-related neuroinflammation through inhibiting iNOS and COX-2 mediated by upregulation of suppressor of cytokine signaling 3 (SOCS-3) expression and AMP-activated protein kinase α /Protein kinase C δ (AMPK α /PKC δ) activation [63].

4. THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF NARINGENIN IN MODELS OF CARDIOMETABOLIC DISORDERS

Naringenin has been reported to be protective in atherosclerosis, hyperlipidemia and several other cardiovascular related disorders (Table 2). The evidences available from different experimental studies in cardiometabolic disorders are represented below:

4.1 Myocardial Infarction

Naringenin (100mg/kg) was shown to significantly reduce the rat heart infarct size in Langendorff-perfused model of myocardial ischemia reperfusion injury through activation of mitochondrial BK potassium channels [64, 65].

4.2. Hypertension

In vascular smooth muscles, naringenin (1-100 μM) was shown to activate large conductance BK_{Ca} channel and therefore exhibited vasorelaxant effect on endothelium-denuded vessels [66]. This effect is also mediated via inhibition of phosphodiesterase type 1, 4 and 5 (PDE1, PDE4 and PDE5) at concentration of 0.1mM [67]. Naringenin (30 μM and 100 μM) significantly induced vascular relaxation in porcine coronary artery [68]. Furthermore, naringenin (50mg/kg) prevented monocrotaline-induced pulmonary hypertension through inhibition of oxidative stress and inflammation [69]. In comparison to clonidine, naringenin (2×10^{-6} - $1\times 10^{-7}M$) was shown to be a better α_2 agonist in experiments on rat vas deferens, therefore can be used as an experimental drug to identify novel α -agonistic molecules [70]. Naringenin (10^{-9} to $3\times 10^{-4}M$ with $IC_{50}=2.72\times 10^{-7}M$) was shown to inhibit rat vas deferens contractions, thereby indicating its role as an investigational tool in hypertensive models [71].

4.3. Arrhythmias

Naringenin (100 μM , $IC_{50}=173.3\pm 3.1\mu M$) was shown to block human ether-a-go-go-related gene (hERG) current and exhibited synergistic effect when co-administered with other I(Kr)-blocking anti-arrhythmic drugs (azimilide, amiodarone, dofetilide and quinidine) [72]. Furthermore, naringenin (1mmol/l, with $IC_{50}=102.3\mu mol/L$) blocked hERG potassium channels in *Xenopus oocytes* thereby acting as either a pro-arrhythmic and anti-arrhythmic agent [73, 74].

4.4. Drug Induced Cardiotoxicity

Naringenin (10^{-4} - $10^{-6}mol/l$) significantly ameliorated daunorubicin-induced toxicity in cultured adult rat cardiomyocytes [75] and in H9c2 cardiomyoblasts [76]. Naringenin (15mg/kg) was found to attenuate doxorubicin-induced cardiotoxicity in rats [77]. In a similar model, naringenin (25mg/kg) modulated oxidative and NO milieu to exert cardioprotection [78].

4.5. Atherosclerosis

In metabolic syndrome associated with atherogenic dyslipidemia and a pro-inflammatory and pro-thrombotic state, phytochemicals have been shown to be a promising candidate. The atherosclerosis retarding effects of naringenin have been widely evaluated in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models (Table 3) and are as follows:

4.5.1. In Vitro

Naringenin (20-160 μM) was shown to exhibit anti-atherogenic effects via modulating peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) and adiponectin expression [79]. In adipocytes, naringenin (0-50 $\mu g/mL$) dose-dependably suppressed adipogenesis and decreased adiponectin expression and insulin sensitivity [80]. Moreover, naringenin (10-200 μM) decreased the cholesterol esterification and availability of lipids for assembly of apolipoprotein B (apoB)-containing lipoproteins, which might explain its usefulness in hypercholesterolemia [81]. Naringenin (100 μM) also inhibited the secretion of apoB-100 in HepG2 cells by activation of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) and MAPK pathway in a manner similar to insulin but not involving the insulin receptor [82-84]. In another *in vitro* study, naringenin (10 μM , $IC_{50}=10\mu M$) was shown to inhibit the human serum paraoxonase 1 [major anti-atherosclerotic component of high-density lipoprotein (HDL)] [85]. In TNF- α -induced vascular smooth muscle cells, naringenin (10-25 μM) inhibited invasion and migration of smooth muscle cells, and Protein kinase B (AKT) phosphorylation via PI3K/AKT/mTOR/p70S6K pathway and could be of value in atherosclerotic disease [86]. Besides, naringenin (25-100 μM) was also shown to decrease the TNF- α induced vascular smooth muscle cell proliferation and migration via induction of hemeoxygenase-1 (HO-1) and thus, may improve the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis and restenosis [87]. A study by Xu and colleagues reported that naringenin reduces angiotensin II-stimulated migration and proliferation of vascular smooth muscle cells at concentration of 100 μM as well as neointimal hyperplasia following balloon injured rat carotid artery at 25mg/kg [88]. In vascular endothelial cells, naringenin (100 μM) has been shown to induce suppressor of cytokine signaling 3 (SOCS3) gene expression which led to inhibition of IL-6-activated STAT3 activation [89]. Not only naringenin but also its metabolites have been shown positive effects in *in vitro* model of atherosclerosis. For instance, naringenin-4'-glucuronide, a metabolite of naringenin, significantly inhibited the expression of genes involved in inflammation and cell adhesion via decreasing monocyte adhesion to TNF- α -activated endothelial cells at a concentration of 2 μM [90].

Table 2. Effect of naringenin in cardiovascular diseases.

| Dose | Model | Target/End points | | Reference |
|---|--|--|--|-----------|
| | | Increase | Decrease | |
| Myocardial Infarction | | | | |
| 1-100 μ M and 100 mg/kg | Isolated rat cardiac mitochondria and male Wistar rats | BK potassium channels activation | Mitochondrial calcium uptake | [65] |
| Hypertension | | | | |
| 1-100 μ M | Aortic ring preparations and tail artery myocytes | BK _{Ca} channels activation | – | [66] |
| 0.1mM | Rat aortic myocytes | cGMP and cAMP level | Calcium influx | [67] |
| 50 mg/kg | Male Wistar rats | Serum NO _x and GSH level; eNOS protein expression | NO _x , TBARS, TNF- α & TGF- β level; MPO & caspase-3 activity; iNOS expression | [69] |
| Arrhythmias | | | | |
| 100 μ M (IC ₅₀ = 173.3 \pm 3.1 μ M) | Xenopus oocytes | – | hERG current | [72] |
| 1mmol/L (IC ₅₀ = 102.3 μ mol/L and 36.5 μ mol/L) | Xenopus oocytes and HEK cells | – | hERG current | [73] |
| Drug induced cardiotoxicity | | | | |
| 10 ⁻⁴ –10 ⁻⁶ mol/L | Male Wistar rat cardiac myocytes | – | LDH activity | [75] |
| 10 ⁻⁴ –10 ⁻⁵ mol/L | H9c2 cardiomyoblasts | – | Apoptosis (Annexin V ⁺ cells) | [76] |
| 15 mg/kg | Swiss albino rats | GSH level; SOD and CAT activity | TBARS level | [77] |
| 25 mg/kg | Swiss albino rats | GSH level; SOD, GST and CAT activity | MDA and NO level; LDH and CPK activity | [78] |

4.5.2. In Vivo

Naringenin (3%w/w) significantly prevented cholesterol-induced metabolic dysregulation and atherosclerosis in low density lipoprotein receptor-null (Ldlr^{-/-}) mice via attenuating hepatic macrophage infiltration, formation of foam cells and expression of inflammatory markers in peritoneal macrophages [91]. In high-fat-fed Ldlr^{-/-} mice, naringenin (1% or 3%w/w) also decreased progression of atherosclerosis and metabolic syndrome by ameliorating dyslipidemia, apoB overproduction and hyperinsulinemia [92, 93]. Moreover, rats fed with naringenin (0.003, 0.006 and 0.012%w/w) were found to exhibit reduced plasma and hepatic triglyceride and cholesterol levels which may contribute to its hypolipidemic and anti-adiposity effects [94].

Naringenin (0.1%w/w) also reduced cholesterol concentrations in liver and plasma via inhibiting 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase and acyl-CoA: cholesterolacyl transferase activity (ACAT) in high-cholesterol diet fed-rats [95]. In a similar model, naringenin (0.02%wt/wt) has been shown to decrease hepatic cholesterol, plasma total-cholesterol, triglyceride, HMG-CoA, ACAT activity and atherogenic index, with concomitant increase in HDL-c [96]. Besides, naringenin (50mg/kg) was shown to mitigate high cholesterol diet-associated myocardial oxidative stress and necroptosis in rats [97]. In high cholesterol fed rabbits, naringenin (0.05%wt/wt) also decreased aortic fatty streak

formation thereby exhibiting anti-atherogenic effect [98]. Of note, naringenin (0.6%w/w) supplementation attenuated levels of hepatic neutral and polar lipids in rats fed a high coconut oil diet, but not in the corn starch-fed rats [99]. Naringenin (1%wt/wt) was shown to increase the gene expression of enzymes involved in hepatic fatty acid oxidation, peroxisomal β -oxidation and ω -oxidation of fatty acids and may be useful in lowering serum lipid level [100]. Recent research has demonstrated that naringenin (3%w/w) attenuates ovariectomy-associated metabolic disturbances in mice [101]. Naringenin (100mg/kg) also inhibited neointimal hyperplasia following vascular injury through downregulation of smooth muscle cell migration and proliferation in rats [102].

4.6. Diabetes

4.6.1. In Vitro

Naringenin administration inhibited intestinal and renal Na⁺-glucose cotransporter and reduced D-glucose uptake in different *in vitro* systems viz. rabbit intestinal BBMV (10-500 μ M with IC₅₀=205.9 μ mol/l), rat everted intestinal sleeves (0.1-100 μ M with IC₅₀=2.4 μ mol/l), normal rat renal BBMV (50-1000 μ M with IC₅₀=323.9 μ mol/l) and diabetic rat renal BBMV (50-1000 μ M with IC₅₀=166.1 μ mol/l) [103]. In L6 rat myotubes and skeletal muscle cells, naringenin (10-150 μ M) stimulated glucose uptake via AMPK activation [104]. Naringenin (6-100 μ M) suppressed hepatic glucose

Table 3. Effect of naringenin on metabolic disorders.

| Dose | Model | Target/End points | | Reference |
|----------------------------|--|--|--|-----------|
| | | Increase | Decrease | |
| Atherosclerosis | | | | |
| 20-160 μ M | 3T3-L1 mouse preadipocytes and HU-2OS osteosarcoma cells | Adiponectin, PPAR- α and PPAR- γ mRNA expression | – | [79] |
| 0-50 μ g/mL | Murine 3T3-L1 preadipocytes | – | aP2, PPAR- γ , STAT5A and IRS-1 tyrosine ⁸⁹⁶ phosphorylation protein expression | [80] |
| 10-200 μ M | HepG2 cells | LDL receptor activity and mRNA expression | ACAT1, ACAT2 and MTP activity; ACAT2 and MTP mRNA expression | [81] |
| 10-25 μ M | VSMC | – | IL-6 and IL-8 level; NF- κ B and AP-1 activity; MMP-9, p-AKT, p- mTOR and p-p70S6K protein expression | [86] |
| 25-100 μ M | VSMC | HO-1 activity, mRNA and protein expression | ROS generation; OPN and PAI-1 mRNA expression; ERK1/2 and p-Akt protein expression | [87] |
| 100 μ M | VSMC | SOD activity; I κ B protein expression | ROS production; NADPH oxidase activity; p-ERK1/2 and p38MAPK and NF- κ Bp65 protein expression | [88] |
| 25mg/kg | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | | 8-iso-PGF2 α level; PCNA and NF- κ B protein | |
| 100 μ M | COS- 1 cells HUVECs cells | SOCS3 promoter activity SOCS3 mRNA and protein expression | pSTAT3 protein expression | [89] |
| Diet 1 or 3% w/w | Male C57BL/6J and Ldlr ^{-/-} mice | Mitochondrial DNA content; Pgc1 α , Cpt1 α and Aco mRNA expression | Srebp1c mRNA expression | [92] |
| 3% w/w | Male C57BL/6J Ldlr ^{-/-} mice | MOMA-2 protein expression | Collagen and SMC α -actin expression | [93] |
| In diet (0.003-0.012% w/w) | Male Long-Evans hooded rats | PPAR- α , CPT-1 and UCP2 protein expression | – | [94] |
| 0.1% w/w | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | – | Total neutral sterol, coprostanol and coprostanone excretion level | [95] |
| 0.02% w/w | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | SOD and GSH-Px activity | Total neutral sterol and TBARS level; CAT activity | [96] |
| 50mg/kg | Male Wistar rats | GSH level | TC, TG, HDL-C, LDL-C, MDA, LOOH, NO ₂ ⁻ and protein carbonyl level; MMP-2 & 9 activity; TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, iNOS, Emr1 and NF- κ B mRNA expression | [97] |
| 0.05% w/w | Male New Zealand white rabbits | – | Hepatic ACAT activity; VCAM-1 and MCP-1 mRNA expression | [98] |
| 1% w/w | Male ICR mice | Acyl-CoA oxidase, carnitine octanoyl transferase, peroxisomal bifunctional, peroxisomal 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase, Cyt P-450 IVA1 mRNA level | – | [100] |
| 3% w/w | Ovariectomized C57BL/6J mice | Srebf1, Cpt1 α , PGC1 α PEPCk and Fasn mRNA expression | TC, lipids and TG level; Leptin, MCP-1, IL-6, Scd1 & Acyl-CoA oxidase1 mRNA expression | [101] |
| 100 mg/kg | Male Sprague-Dawley rats | – | PDGF-BB and TNF- α level ; Ki-67 protein expression | [102] |

production and decreased cellular adenosine triphosphate (ATP) level without increasing cell cytotoxicity in Fao hepatoma cells and played a significant role in the attenuation of hyperglycemia [105]. Moreover, naringenin (50-300 μ M, with IC_{50} =85.5 μ M) impeded hepatic gluconeogenic pathway similar to metformin [106], thus indicating its role in type 2 DM. Importantly, naringenin (50 μ M) has also been shown to prevent pancreatic β -cell damage from cytokine-mediated apoptosis and enhanced cell survival via activation of PI3K pathway and recovering of mitochondria membrane potential [107].

Naringenin (100 μ M) has been shown to directly inhibit TNF- α -stimulated free fatty acid secretion in mouse adipocytes through NF- κ B and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) pathways and may be useful in improving free fatty acid-induced insulin resistance [108]. On the contrary, naringenin (6 μ M) significantly inhibited insulin-stimulated glucose uptake through inhibiting PI3K in 3T3-L1 adipocytes and may aggravate insulin resistance [109].

4.6.2. *In Vivo*

An *in silico*, *in vitro* (IC_{50} =384 μ M) and *in vivo* (25mg/kg) study, naringenin improves postprandial glycemic response via suppression of α -glucosidase activity [110]. Besides, this group further revealed the hypoglycemic and insulin sensitizing potential of naringenin (25mg/kg) through modulating glucose transporter-4 (GLUT4) and TNF- α expression [111]. In streptozotocin (STZ)-nicotinamide rat model of diabetes, intragastrically administered naringenin (50mg/kg) was found to reduce hyperglycemia and triglyceride levels not via inhibiting α -glucosidase activity but through repression of carbohydrate absorption from intestine [112]. In a similar model, naringenin (50mg/kg) exhibited anti-hyperglycemic and antioxidant effect which was similar to the standard anti-diabetic drug Gliclazide [113] and also decreased hyperglycemia-mediated inflammation [114].

In a high fructose diet-induced model of insulin resistance, naringenin (50mg/kg) improved insulin sensitivity and enhanced tyrosine phosphorylation [115] as well as reduced nitro-oxidative stress [116] and thereby indicating its beneficial role in insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome. Antithetically, low doses of naringenin acutely impaired glucose homeostasis in HT-22 neuronal cells at 25-100 μ M, Djungarian hamsters and female C57BL/6JRj-mice at 10mg/kg possibly through inhibition of hypothalamic insulin/PI3K signaling [117].

4.7. Diabetic complications

Naringenin (10mg/kg) was found to improve aortic reactivity to contractile stimuli (phenylephrine and potassium chloride) in STZ induced-diabetic rats via modulation of NO and oxidative stress [118]. Naringenin (0.5-2%w/w) has been shown to attenuate diabetic nephropathy in mice owing to its anti-inflammatory and anti-fibrotic activity [119]. Naringenin (50 and 100mg/kg) was shown to mitigate diabetic neuropathy in rats through NOS inhibition and PPAR- γ activation [120]. In an *in vitro* (5 μ g) and *in vivo* (50mg/kg) study, naringenin prevented high glucose-induced apoptosis through alteration of mitochondria-mediated apoptotic pathways and scavenging of reactive oxygen species (ROS), thereby implicating its favorable role in diabetes associated liver complications [121, 122].

5. THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF NARINGENIN IN MODELS OF LIVER DISEASES

5.1 *In vitro*

In the activated hepatic stellate cells, naringenin (0-50 μ M) exhibited anti-fibrogenic property through decreased expression of extracellular matrix and downregulated small mothers against decapentaplegic homolog 3 (smad3) protein expression induced by transforming growth factor beta 1 (TGF- β) [123]. Naringenin (0-400 μ M) has been reported to transcriptionally regulate human and

rat hepatic lipid metabolism via activating PPAR α and PPAR- γ and inhibiting liver X receptor alpha (LXR α) as well as reduced insulin dependence and regulate dyslipidemia. Therefore, it may be useful in hepatosteatosis and other metabolic conditions [124].

5.2. *In vivo*

In metallothionein-null mice, naringenin (400 and 800mg/kg) has shown to prevent acetaminophen-mediated hepatotoxicity [125]. Naringenin (50mg/kg) significantly attenuated ethanol induced liver injury in rats via modulating phase-1 and phase-2 metabolizing enzymes [126] and inhibiting pro-inflammatory cytokines [127] and was reportedly useful in alcoholic liver disease. Naringenin (20 and 50mg/kg) inhibited dimethylnitrosamine-mediated rat hepatic injury and could also be useful agent for hepatic fibrosis [128]. In another study, naringenin (50mg/kg) significantly attenuated carbon tetrachloride (CCl $_4$)-induced hepatic inflammation through activating Nrf2 and inhibiting TNF- α pathway [129].

6. THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF NARINGENIN IN MODELS OF LUNG DISEASES

6.1. *In vitro*

In human airway epithelial cells, naringenin (100 μ M) was shown to minimize mucous production via decreasing ROS production and inhibiting the NF- κ B activity via EGFR-PI3K-Akt/ERK MAPK signaling pathway [130]. Besides, naringenin (10-40 μ mol/L) reduced LPS-induced cytokine and chemokine secretion in normal human bronchial epithelial (NHBE) cells and thus, may have promising value in prevention and treatment of asthma [131].

6.2. *In Vivo*

Naringenin (100mg/kg) significantly attenuated the symptoms of lung injury and inflammation in a mouse model of *Staphylococcus aureus* pneumonia [132]. In both acute (25-100mg/kg) and chronic (50mg/kg) mice model of ovalbumin-induced asthma, naringenin alleviated airway inflammation and airway responsiveness via inhibiting inflammatory cytokines and NF- κ B activity [133, 134]. Naringenin was shown to possess expectorant activity via augmenting tracheal mucociliary velocity (90mg/kg), basal lysozyme secretion (100 μ M), secretion of phenol red from mouse tracheas (30-67mg/kg) and inhibiting LPS-induced mucin increase (10 μ mol/l). Findings reveal that naringenin can be used alone or as an adjuvant to the other expectorants available [135].

7. THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF NARINGENIN IN MODELS OF KIDNEY DISEASES

Naringenin has been shown to inhibit gentamicin (50mg/kg) [136], cisplatin (20mg/kg) [137] and oxytetracycline-induced (50mg/kg) [138] kidney damage in rats via bolstering anti-oxidant defense system. In addition, naringenin suppressed *Dictyostelium* cell growth (EC_{50} =50-100 μ M), MDCK C7 cell growth (EC_{50} =28.5 \pm 1 μ M) and cyst proliferation (EC_{50} =10 μ M) through TRPP2 (polycystin-2)-dependent mechanism, therefore might be of therapeutic value in autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease [139].

8. THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF NARINGENIN IN MODELS OF GASTROINTESTINAL DISEASES

8.1. Gastric Ulcers

Naringenin has been shown to exert vasorelaxant effect on rat colonic smooth muscle. It reduced colonic spontaneous contractions both *in vitro* (100 μ M) and *in vivo* (25 and 50mg/kg) through direct activation of BK $_{Ca}$ channels and decreased calcium influx, thus suggesting its beneficial role in treatment of GI motility disorders [140]. A study by Amira and colleagues reported that, naringenin (0.1-100 μ M) exhibits gastric relaxant activity in mouse isolated stomach at pEC_{50} =5.09 \pm 0.17 and E_{max} =72.84 \pm 6.2 [141]. In a rat

model of ethanol-induced gastric lesions, naringenin (200mg/kg) has also been reported to possess cytoprotective effect through a mechanism involving prostaglandins [142].

8.2. Colon

In a rat constipation model, naringenin (150mg/kg) significantly restored the levels of fecal output, water content and mucus secretion probably due to stimulation of Cl⁻ secretion in colonic epithelium via modulating cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP), protein kinase A (PKA) and basolateral K⁺ channels, thereby conferring its beneficial role in constipation [143]. Naringenin (100 μ M) inhibited chloride secretion in isolated rat and human colonic epithelia through a mechanism involving inhibition of basolateral Na⁺-K⁺-Cl⁻ co-transporter 1 [144]. Naringenin (10-300 μ mol/l) was shown to reduce guinea pig intestinal peristalsis through a decrease in distension sensitivity without changing in peristaltic performance [145]. In an experimental model of colitis, mice fed with naringenin (0.3%w/w) have been shown to ameliorate dextran sulfate sodium-induced severe colon damage [146]. In a similar model, naringenin (50mg/kg) also abrogated colitis through inhibiting toll-like receptor 4 (TLR-4)/NF- κ B signaling [147]. In acetic acid-induced ulcerative colitis model, naringenin (25-100mg/kg) augmented colonic mucus content via its antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effect and thus could be useful in inflammatory bowel disease [148]. Furthermore, naringenin (0.1-1.0mM) has been shown to induce cholecystokinin secretion via activation of transient receptor potential channels (TRP channels) in enteroendocrine STC-1 cells, thus could act as a potential candidate for appetite regulation and satiety [149].

9. THERAPEUTIC POTENTIAL OF NARINGENIN IN CANCER MODELS

Naringenin has been shown to exert suppressive effect on TGF- β ligand-receptor interaction, the initial step of TGF- β signaling, therefore could be of significance in condition such as cancer where TGF- β plays a direct role [150]. In addition, naringenin has inhibitory effect on tumor growth [151]. Naringenin exerted cytotoxicity in different cell lines of leukemia, pancreas, breast, stomach, liver, cervix and colon [152]. The specific effects in various cancer experiments are described in Table 4 and as follows:

9.1. Pancreatic Cancer

Naringenin (100 μ M) decreased invasiveness and metastasis in pancreatic cancer cells by inhibiting TGF- β -induced epithelial to mesenchymal transition and reversed resistance to gemcitabine [153].

9.2. Glioma

Naringenin (50mg/kg) has been shown to exert ameliorative effect against cerebrally implanted C6 glioma cells in rats via promoting apoptosis and inhibition of proliferation and PI3K [154-156].

9.3. Breast Cancer

In MCF-7 human breast cancer cells (1-1000nM) and female rat uterus (30mg/rat), naringenin was found to possess weak estrogen activity along with partial antiestrogenic activity [157]. It (IC₅₀=18.0 μ g/ml) also inhibited proliferation of estrogen receptor-positive MCF-7 human breast cancer cells [158]. Naringenin (10 μ M) mitigated insulin stimulated glucose uptake in MCF-7 breast cancer cells and has the potential to act as an anti-proliferative agent, thereby highlighting its therapeutic potential in the treatment of breast cancer [159]. Furthermore, naringenin has been shown to inhibit proliferation (250 μ M) and viability (<200 μ M) of MCF-7 breast cancer cells by localizing ER α to the cytoplasm and by suppressing both PI3K and MAPK pathways [160]. Contrary, naringenin (6.25-100 μ M) was found to promote

growth of MCF-7 cells via a pathway independent of NO and dependent on estrogen receptors (ER- α and ER- β) [161]. In another study, naringenin (1-10 μ M) has also been shown to exert cell proliferation (EC₅₀=287nM), inhibit aromatase activity (IC₅₀=2.2 μ M) and have anti-estrogenic effects in human primary mammary fibroblasts, MCF-7 breast tumor cells and their co-culture [162]. In T47D-KBluc breast cancer cells, naringenin (0.01 to 10 μ M) was shown to act as selective estrogen receptor modulator via activation of pS2 mRNA expression and inhibition of TGF β 3 expression [163]. Naringenin (1.0 \times 10⁻⁹ to 1.0 \times 10⁻⁴M) has been shown to exhibit chemopreventive effect in breast cancer cell lines in the presence and absence of bisphenol A owing to its proapoptotic effect [164]. Moreover, naringenin (100mg/kg) also reduced the number of metastatic breast cancer cells to the lung and extended the life span of tumor resected mice via stimulation of regulatory T cells [165]. Naringenin (3-100 μ M with IC₅₀=2.6 μ M) inhibited 20 α -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase, an enzyme which inactivates human progesterone and thus can be useful in breast and endometrium cancer [166]. Furthermore, naringenin (Ki=0.3 μ M) has been shown to inhibit human recombinant aromatase activity, thereby conferring its therapeutic potential in endometriosis [167].

9.4. Hepatocellular Carcinoma

9.4.1. In Vitro

In human hepatocellular carcinoma HepG2 cells, naringenin (100-200 μ M) has been reported to possess anti-proliferative and apoptosis-inducing effects and thus could be of interest in liver cancer [168]. In the same cell line, naringenin (25-100 μ M) decreased invasiveness and metastasis via downregulation of matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9), NF- κ B and AP-1 expressions [169].

9.4.2. In Vivo

In Ehrlich ascites carcinoma tumor model of mice, naringenin (50mg/kg) has been reported to exhibit anti-angiogenic and anti-proliferative effects with significantly reduced number of cells, accumulation of ascitic fluid, no noticeable neoplastic lesions and ameliorated hepatocellular architecture [170, 172]. Naringenin (200mg/kg) inhibited the N-nitrosodiethylamine induced hepatocarcinogenesis in rats via bolstering antioxidant status and inhibiting inflammatory pathway [30, 172].

9.5. Neuroblastoma

Naringenin augmented transamidation activity and cytotoxicity of suberoylanilidehydroxamic acid (SAHA), a histone deacetylase inhibitor, in neuroblastoma cell lines (240 μ M) and also reduced tumor progression through activating caspase-3, in N-Myc transgenic mice (100mg/kg) [173].

9.6. Melanoma

In murine B16-F10 melanoma cells, naringenin (3-50 μ M) enhanced melanogenesis through the activation of Wnt/ β -catenin signaling [174]; augmented melanin content, tyrosinase activity and the expression of melanogenic enzymes (100 μ M) [175]; and reduced cell proliferation and intracellular levels of polyamine, spermidine and spermine with an increase in transglutaminase activity (10 μ M) [176]. In mice inoculated with B16-F10 melanoma cells, naringenin (200nmol/kg) also significantly decreased the lung metastases of the malignant cells [177].

9.7. Lung Cancer

Naringenin (100 μ M) was shown to accelerate TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL)-induced apoptosis in human lung cancer A549 cells via up-regulation of death receptor 5 (DR-5) expression and hence, could be a safe strategy for treatment of resistant non-small cell lung cancers [178]. Naringenin (100mg/kg) when administered to C57BL/6 and BALB/c mice subjected to bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis and challenged using tumors; led to significantly suppressed pulmonary fibrosis, lung

Table 4. Effect of naringenin on different types of cancer.

| Dose | Model | Target/End points | | Reference |
|--|---|--|--|-----------|
| | | Increase | Decrease | |
| Pancreatic cancer | | | | |
| 0-100 μ M | Aspc-1 and Panc-1 cells | E-cadherin protein expression | Smad3, vimentin, N-cadherin, MMP2 and MMP9 mRNA and protein expression | [153] |
| 50 mg/kg | Cerebrally implanted C6 glioma cells in rats | Bax, caspase-3, caspase-9, Cx43 and Cytochrome c protein expression | Bcl-2 protein expression | [154] |
| 50 mg/kg | Cerebrally implanted C6 glioma cells in rats | GSH, vitamin E and vitamin C level; GPx and GR activity | LPO and AgNORs level; PKC, NF- κ B, cyclin D1, cyclin dependent kinase 4, PCNA and VEGF protein expression | [155] |
| 50 mg/kg | Cerebrally implanted C6 glioma cells in rats | – | PGE ₂ level; PI3K, Akt and Cox-2 mRNA and protein expression | [156] |
| Breast cancer | | | | |
| 100 μ M | Serum starved MCF-7 cells | – | p-Akt (Ser473) and p-p44/p42 MAPK protein expression | [159] |
| 200 μ M | MCF-7 cells | cleaved PARP protein expression | Caspase-7, ERK and Akt protein expression | [160] |
| 1.0x10 ⁻⁹ to 1.0x10 ⁻⁴ M | MCF-7 and T47D cells | caspase-3, PARP and p38-P protein expression | Bcl-2 and Akt-P protein expression | [164] |
| Hepatocellular carcinoma | | | | |
| 200 mg/kg | Male albino Wistar rats | GSH, Billirubin and AFP level; SOD, CAT, GPx, AST, ALT, ALP, LDH, GGT and GST activity | TBARS and LPO level; Cytochrome P450 activity | [30] |
| 100-200 μ M | Human hepatocellular carcinoma HepG2 cells | p53, Bax, cytochrome C and caspase-3 protein expression | Bcl-2 protein expression | [168] |
| 0-100 μ M | HepG2 cells | – | MMP-9, NF- κ B and AP-1 mRNA expression; MMP-9, EGFR, PI3k-p, AKT-p, I κ B-p, JNK-p, p38-p, ERK-p, PKC- α , PKC- β and PKC- γ protein expression | [169] |
| 50 mg/kg | Ehrlich ascites carcinoma tumor model of mice | – | VEGF, Hif1 α , HSP90 and p-Akt protein expression | [171] |
| 200 mg/kg | Male albino Wistar rats | Bax and capsase-3 protein expression | NF- κ Bp65, VEGF, MMP-2, Cox-2 and MMP-9 mRNA and protein expression; PCNA and Bcl-2 protein expression | [172] |
| Melanoma | | | | |
| 3-50 μ M | B16-F10 murine melanoma cells | Tyrosinase, MITF, β -catenin, p-GSK-3 β and Akt protein expression | – | [174] |
| 100 μ M | B16mouse melanoma cells | Tyrp1, Det and Mitf protein expression | – | [175] |

(Table 4) Contd....

| Dose | Model | Target/End points | | Reference |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|---|-----------|
| | | Increase | Decrease | |
| Lung cancer | | | | |
| 100mg/kg | C57BL/6 mice and BALB/c mice | IFN- γ and IL-2 level | TGF- β 1 and IL-4 level | [179] |
| Prostate cancer | | | | |
| 10-100 μ M | PC3-AP1 cells | p-JNK and p-ERK protein expression | – | [180] |
| 10–80 μ mol/L | LNCAp prostate cancer Cells | hOGG1, APE/Ref-1 and DNA poly β mRNA expression | 8-OH-dG to 10 ⁶ dG ratio | [181] |
| Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia | | | | |
| 6 μ g/ml | LNCAp prostate cancer Cells | ER α and ER β activity | AR activity | [183] |
| Gastric cancer | | | | |
| 200mg/kg | Male Wistar albino rats | GSH, vitamin C and vitamin E level; GPx, SOD and CAT activity | hydroxyl radical, superoxide radical and LPO level | [186] |
| Leukemia | | | | |
| 50–200 μ M | Human myeloid leukemia THP-1 cells | Bax protein expression; caspase-3, caspase-8 and caspase-9 activity | Bcl-2 and p-Akt protein expression | [187] |
| 0.1-1mM | Human promyeloleuke-mia HL-60 cells | caspase-3 and caspase-9 activity; cleaved caspase-3 protein expression | I κ B α protein expression | [188] |
| Oral Cancer | | | | |
| 50 mg/kg | Male golden Syrian hamsters | TBARS level; CAT and SOD activity | Vit E and GSH level; GPx activity; PCNA and p53 protein expression | [191] |
| 17β-estradiol dependent cancers | | | | |
| 1.0X 10 ⁻⁸ M to 1.0X 10 ⁻⁴ M | HeLa and HepG2 cells | p38-P, caspase-3 and PARP protein expression in both HeLa and HepG2 cells | PD1 promoter activity; ERK1/2-P and AKT-P protein expression only in HeLa cells | [196] |

metastases and increased survival via modulating CD4⁺CD25⁺Foxp3⁺ regulatory T cells, suggesting a potential immunomodulatory role in lung carcinoma [179].

9.8. Prostate Cancer

Naringenin (10-100 μ M) has been shown to exert chemopreventive effect in PC3 human prostate cancer cells through modulation of AP-1 and MAPK pathway [180]; as well as LNCAp human prostate cancer cells through activation of DNA repair at 10–80 μ mol/L [181]. Naringenin (15mg/kg) significantly decreased 17 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PDH) activity in male rats, thereby, could be a novel therapeutic approach in prostate cancer [182]. Naringenin (100 μ g/mL, IC₅₀=48.5 μ M) has also been shown to inhibit the prostate specific antigen secretion in LNCAp cells with no cytotoxicity and therefore could be used to treat benign prostatic hyperplasia [183].

9.9. Colon Cancer

Naringenin (0.02%w/w) was shown to suppress colon carcinogenesis in azoxymethane-treated rats through a pro-apoptotic effect [184] and cell proliferation at a dose range of 0.02 to 2.85mmol in HT29 colon cancer cells [185]. Thus, it can serve as a chemoprotective agent in colon cancer.

9.10. Gastric Cancer

In N-methyl-N'-nitro-N-nitrosoguanidine-induced gastric carcinogenesis in rats, naringenin (200mg/kg) significantly decreased tumor size and weight loss by modifying the redox status of the tumor cells [186].

9.11. Leukemia

In human leukemia THP-1 cell line, naringenin (0-200 μ M) was shown to induce apoptosis through activation of caspase-3 and

poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) cleavage as well as suppression of PI3K [187]. Naringenin (0.1-1mM) also induced apoptosis in human promyelocytic leukemia HL-60 cells via activation of NF- κ B, necrosis, intracellular ATP depletion and mitochondrial dysfunction, thus exerting a chemopreventive effect [188]. Naringenin has been shown to exert anti-cancer effect in K562 leukemia cells through apoptosis and regulating the expression of FAS, Fas ligand (FasL), caspase-3 and caspase-8 [189]. In addition, other mechanisms related to its (0-800 μ mol/L) anti-leukemic effect are cell cycle arrest and apoptosis via upregulation of p53-independent p21/WAF1 [190].

9.12. Oral Cancer

In 7,12-dimethylbenz(a)anthracene (DMBA)-mediated experimental model of oral squamous cell carcinoma, naringenin (50mg/kg) has been shown to possess chemopreventive efficacy in Syrian hamsters [191]. In the same model, Raman spectroscopic investigation further revealed that naringenin-loaded nanoparticles (50mg/kg) exhibit more potent antitumor effect than naringenin (50mg/kg) [192]. In hamster cheek pouch model of oral carcinogenesis, naringenin (2.5%) significantly attenuated the tumor cell number [193].

9.13. Adrenal cancer

In human adrenocortical carcinoma H295R cell line, naringenin (100 μ M with IC₅₀=85 \pm 12 μ M) significantly mitigated aromatase activity [194].

9.14. Soft Tissue Tumors

Naringenin (30-300mg/kg) was found to inhibit tumor growth in sarcoma S-180-implanted mice [152].

9.15. Other Tumors

Naringenin (10 μ M) has been shown to exhibit antiproliferative and antiestrogenic effects by activation of p38 kinase and regulation of estrogen receptor alpha-palmitoylation respectively [195]. Furthermore, naringenin (1.0X 10⁻⁸M to 1.0X 10⁻⁴M) suppressed 17 β -estradiol-induced human cancer cell growth and could be a valuable chemo-preventive agent in 17 β -estradiol dependent cancers such as breast, ovarian, colorectal, prostate and endometrial [196]. Naringenin (100-500 μ M) has been shown to induce apoptosis and anti-proliferative activity in human epidermoid carcinoma cells through ROS generation and cell cycle arrest [197]. In another study, naringenin (100 μ M) amplified antitumor effect of doxorubicin through modulating the function of multi-drug resistance proteins and could be a useful adjunct to other chemotherapeutic agents [198]. In Human bladder carcinoma TSGH-8301 cells, naringenin (25-300 μ M) mitigated cell migration via inhibiting AKT, NF- κ B and MMP-2 pathways [199].

10. NARINGENIN FOR DRUG DESIGN, DELIVERY AND DEVELOPMENT

To effectively utilize the therapeutic potential of naringenin, researchers are now focusing on the formulation of naringenin-based drugs for human ailments. Naringenin physiochemical and pharmacokinetic properties including, minimal water solubility, absorption, bioavailability, dissolution rate and faster elimination rate are the main hurdles in the drug design of naringenin. Several techniques such as structural modification [200, 201], β -cyclodextrins and phospholipid complexation [202], solid dispersion and nanoparticles formulation could be few areas which could be taken into consideration for the improvement of naringenin drug delivery system and they are mentioned as below:

10.1. Structural Modification

Structural alteration at C-7 and C-4 position of naringenin augmented anti-tumor efficacy against colon cancer; thus signifying the

role of naringenin derivative in the drug design of naringenin-based anti-cancer therapeutics [201]. For instance, naringenin-6-C-glucoside has shown increased bioavailability as compared to naringenin following oral administration of similar dose (5mg/kg) [200].

10.2. Complexation

In order to achieve the therapeutic plasma concentration of naringenin, naringenin phospholipid complex was synthesized and has longer half-life and enhanced antioxidant potential than naringenin [203]. Naringenin dissolution rate and water solubility was shown to increase following complex formation with β -cyclodextrin [202] and its derivative 2-hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin [204] respectively, which could be of importance in designing water soluble naringenin dosage form. Furthermore, naringenin β -cyclodextrin complex has shown preventive effect in experimental rat model of choroidal neovascularization [205].

10.3. Solid Dispersion

The dissolution rate and absorption of naringenin was reported to augment owing to the conversion of its crystalline form to amorphous via solid dispersion with soluplus [206]. Another study by Kanaze and group revealed that drug delivery of nanodispersions containing naringenin and polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) has been reported to increase the dissolution rate and gastric stability of naringenin [207].

10.4. Naringenin-Encapsulated Nanoparticles

In comparison to naringenin, its self nanoemulsifying formulation resulted in the fastest and complete release of drug and enhanced absorption rate and bioavailability [208]. Recently, more research is conducting on the formulation of naringenin-encapsulated nanoparticles in the field of cancer chemoprevention, liver failure and ulcerative colitis. In human cervical (HeLa) cancer cells, naringenin-loaded nanoparticles are designed to maximize the bioavailability, anticancer potential and also for the sustained release of naringenin to target site [209]. Furthermore, these nanoparticles containing naringenin has shown higher antitumor efficacy than naringenin in experimental model of oral carcinogenesis [191]. Beside cancer, naringenin-loaded nanoparticles have shown to enhance hepatoprotective effect via augmenting the solubility and release of naringenin in rats treated with carbon tetrachloride [210]. In a recent study, naringenin has been loaded into the polymeric nanoparticles (monomethoxy poly(ethylene glycol)-poly(3-caprolactone) to improve drug delivery options by developing buccal tablet. This process augmented encapsulation efficiency, anti-inflammatory effect and more than 80% of rapid release of naringenin to targeted disease site; thus indicative of a competent drug delivery progress in the treatment of oral inflammatory and ulcerative disease [211].

11. ISSUE AND PROSPECTS FOR PHARMACEUTICAL DEVELOPMENT

Considering pharmacokinetics data, enterohepatic circulation of naringenin is an important feature for determining its safety and efficacy [12]. Secondly, low bioavailability of naringenin is major constraint in lowering its therapeutic efficacy [3]. Thirdly, naringenin stereospecific nature demands more research in this area for evaluating the biological activity of individual enantiomers [13, 14]. In the serum, naringenin exist as glucuronides and sulfoconjugated metabolites, therefore further studies should be conducted to evaluate the biological activity of these conjugated metabolites rather than naringenin pure form [10]. A study by Lin and group have demonstrated that naringenin sulfate retained in the tissues including, liver, spleen, heart and brain as compared to naringenin glucuronide, therefore further research should be done for evaluation of biological activity of these sulfate metabolites in these tissues [5]. Being a substrate of drug efflux carriers such as drug resis-

tance-associated proteins (MRP1 and MRP2) and P-glycoprotein, naringenin play an important role in drug interaction [212].

CONCLUSION

The data published so far have suggested naringenin to be efficacious, safe, well tolerated, orally available and exerted multifaceted effect ranging from antioxidant to anti-carcinogenic and might meet few, if not all, of the aforementioned indications. Additionally naringenin being abundantly and ubiquitously present in dietary substances, the administration of naringenin can also be achieved in a simplified manner as a part of normal daily diet, thus offering another significant advantage. Moreover, many researches are still underway which might enlighten newer areas hitherto unexplored, where naringenin might emerge as an efficient therapeutic modality or alternative; as the submerged portion of the iceberg is yet to be unearthed. Thus, naringenin joins the list of curcumin and hesperidin in being one of the most widely explored and observed efficacious phytopharmaceutical compounds. Considering its efficacy and safety, naringenin might be regarded as the forebearer of the phytopharmaceutical revolution to, if not replace, then at least could use as an adjuvant with the allopathic medications. Perhaps clinical effectiveness of naringenin based therapies both alone or in combination with other drugs has been just initiated and could be area worth further research where it can benefit human health.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | | | | | |
|------------------|---|--|---------------------------------|---|--|
| ACAT | = | cholesterol acyl transferase | GFAP | = | Glial fibrillary acidic protein |
| Acyl CoA | = | Aco: Acyl-CoA oxidase | GPx | = | Glutathione peroxidase |
| AP-1 | = | Activator protein-1 | GR | = | Glutathione reductase |
| aP2 | = | Adipocyte protein 2 | GSH | = | Reduced glutathione |
| apoB | = | Apolipoprotein B | GSH-Px | = | Glutathione peroxidase |
| A β | = | Amyloid β peptide | GSK-3 β | = | Glycogen synthase kinase-3 β |
| BDNF | = | Brain-derived neurotrophic factor | GST | = | Glutathione S-transferase |
| BK _{Ca} | = | Large conductance calcium-activated potassium channels | 4-HNE | = | 4-Hydroxynonenal |
| cAMP | = | Cyclic adenosine monophosphate | 5-HT | = | 5-Hydroxytryptamine |
| CAT | = | Catalase | H ₂ O ₂ | = | Hydrogen peroxide |
| VCAM-1 | = | Vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 | HDL-C | = | High-density lipoprotein cholesterol |
| CcL2 | = | Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2; | hERG | = | Human ether-a-go-go-related gene |
| cGMP | = | Cyclic guanosine monophosphate | HO-1 | = | Hemeoxygenase-1 |
| ChAT | = | Choline acetyltransferase | HVA | = | Homovanilic acid |
| ChE | = | Cholinesterase | 8-iso-PGF ₂ α | = | 8-iso-ProstaglandinF ₂ α |
| COX-2 | = | Cyclooxygenase-2 | Iba-1 | = | Ionized calcium binding adaptor molecule-1 |
| CPK | = | Creatine phosphokinase | IDE | = | Insulin degrading enzyme |
| CPT-1 | = | Carnitine-palmitoyl transferase-1 | IL | = | Interleukin |
| CYP7A1 | = | Cholesterol 7 α -hydroxylase | iNOS | = | inducible Nitric oxide synthase |
| DA | = | Dopamine | IRS-1 | = | Insulin receptor substrate-1 |
| DOPAC | = | Dihydroxyphenylacetic acid | I κ B | = | Inhibitor of κ B |
| Emr1 (or F4/80) | = | EGF-like module-containing mucin-like hormone receptor-like1 | LDH | = | Lactate dehydrogenase |
| eNOS | = | Endothelial nitric oxide synthase | LDL | = | Low density lipoprotein |
| ERK1/2 | = | Extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1 and 2 | LDL-C | = | Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol |
| Fasn | = | Fatty acid synthase | LOOH | = | Lipid hydroperoxide |
| FGF21 | = | Fibroblast growth factor 21 | Mac-1 | = | Macrophage antigen-1 |
| GCLC | = | Glutathione cysteine ligase regulatory subunit | MAC-2 | = | Macrophage marker-2 |
| GCLM | = | Glutathione cysteine ligase modulatory subunit | MAO | = | Monoamine oxidase |
| | | | MAPK | = | Mitogen-activated protein kinases |
| | | | MCP-1 | = | Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 |
| | | | MDA | = | Malondialdehyde |
| | | | MMP-9 | = | Matrix metalloproteinase-9 |
| | | | MOMA-2 | = | Monocyte/macrophage antibody-2 |
| | | | MPO | = | Myeloperoxidase |
| | | | MTP | = | Microsomal triglyceride transfer protein |
| | | | NADPH | = | Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate |
| | | | NE | = | Norepinephrine |
| | | | NF- κ B | = | Nuclear factor kappa B |
| | | | NO | = | Nitric oxide |
| | | | NO ₂ ⁻ | = | Nitrite |
| | | | NOD2 | = | Nucleotide oligomerization domain-like receptors 2 |
| | | | NOx | = | Total nitrate/nitrite |
| | | | Nrf2 | = | Nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 |
| | | | OPN | = | Osteopontin |
| | | | PAI-1 | = | Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 |
| | | | p-Akt | = | Phospho-protein kinase B |
| | | | PC | = | Protein carbonyl |
| | | | PCNA | = | Proliferating cell nuclear antigen |
| | | | PDGF-BB | = | Platelet derived growth factor-BB |
| | | | PEPCK | = | Phosphoenol pyruvate carboxykinase |

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| PGC-1 α | = Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1-alpha |
| p-JNK | = Phospho-c-Jun NH2-terminal kinase |
| p-mTOR | = Phospho-mammalian target of rapamycin |
| p-p70S6K | = Phospho-p70 ribosomal protein S6 kinase |
| PPAR- γ | = Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ |
| pSTAT3 | = Signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 |
| RIP2 | = Receptor-interacting protein 2 |
| ROS | = Reactive oxygen species |
| Saa1/2 | = Serum amyloid a |
| Scd1 | = Stearoyl-CoA desaturase 1 |
| SMC α -actin | = Smooth muscle cell alpha actin |
| SOCS3 | = Suppressor of cytokine signalling 3 |
| SOD | = Superoxide dismutase |
| SREBF-1c | = Sterol regulatory element binding factor-1c |
| SREBP-1c | = Sterol regulatory element binding protein-1c |
| STAT5A | = Signal transducer and activator of transcription 5A |
| TBARS | = Thiobarbituric acid reactive substances |
| TC | = Total cholesterol |
| TG | = Triglyceride |
| TGF- β | = Transforming growth factor-beta |
| TH | = Tyrosine hydroxylase |
| TNF- α | = Tumor necrosis factor- α |
| TRPM3 | = Melastatin-related transient receptor potential |
| TUNEL | = Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labeling |
| UCP2 | = Uncoupling protein 2 |

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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Guest or honorary authorship based solely on position (e.g. research supervisor, departmental head) is discouraged.

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