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1 **Title:**

2 **Berberine attenuates inflammation and oxidative stress and modulates lymphocyte E-**  
3 **NTPDase in acute hyperlipidemia**

4

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38

39 **Abstract**

40 Hyperlipidemia is a common clinically encountered health condition worldwide that promotes  
41 the development and progression of cardiovascular diseases, including atherosclerosis.  
42 Berberine (BBR) is a natural product with acknowledged anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and  
43 metabolic effects. This study evaluated the effect of BBR on lipid alterations, oxidative stress,  
44 and inflammatory response in rats with acute hyperlipidemia induced by poloxamer-407 (P-  
45 407). Rats were pre-treated with BBR (25 and 50 mg/kg) for 14 days and acute hyperlipidemia  
46 was induced by a single dose of P-407 (500 mg/kg). BBR ameliorated hypercholesterolemia,  
47 hypertriglyceridemia, and plasma lipoproteins in P-407-administered rats. Plasma lipoprotein  
48 lipase (LPL) activity was decreased, and hepatic 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase  
49 (HMGCR) activity was enhanced in hyperlipidemic rats. The expression of low-density  
50 lipoprotein receptor (LDL-R) and ATP-binding cassette transporter 1 (ABCA1) was  
51 downregulated in hyperlipidemic rats. BBR enhanced LPL activity, upregulated LDL-R and  
52 ABCA1, and suppressed HMGCR in P-407-administered rats. Pre-treatment with BBR  
53 ameliorated lipid peroxidation, nitric oxide (NO), pro-inflammatory mediators (IL-6, IL-1 $\beta$ ,  
54 TNF- $\alpha$ , IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-4 and IL-18) and enhanced antioxidants. In addition, BBR suppressed  
55 lymphocyte E-NTPDase and E-ADA as well as NO and TNF- $\alpha$  release by macrophages  
56 isolated from normal and hyperlipidemic rats. *In silico* investigations revealed the binding  
57 affinity of BBR towards LPL, HMGCR, LDL-R, PSK9, ABCA1, and E-NTPDase. In  
58 conclusion, BBR effectively prevented acute hyperlipidemia and its associated inflammatory  
59 responses by modulating LPL, cholesterolgenesis, cytokine release and lymphocyte E-  
60 NTPDase and E-ADA. Therefore, BBR is an effective and safe natural compound that might  
61 be employed as an adjuvant against hyperlipidemia and its associated inflammation.

62 **Keywords:** Dyslipidemia; Inflammation; Oxidative stress; Berberine; E-NTPDase.

## 63 **1. Introduction**

64 Dyslipidemia, a lipid disorder involving derangements in circulating triglycerides (TG) and/or  
65 cholesterol (CHO), is a common clinically encountered health condition worldwide (Berberich  
66 & Hegele, 2022). Dyslipidemia promotes the development and progression of cardiovascular  
67 diseases (CVDs), including atherosclerosis (Berberich & Hegele, 2022). CVDs represent the  
68 leading cause of mortality, and the number of patients has nearly doubled during the period  
69 from 1990 to 2019 to reach 523 million and the mortality rate reached 18.6 million deaths in  
70 2019 (Roth et al., 2020). Sedentary life style, obesity, smoking and suboptimal diet are among  
71 the main risk factors for dyslipidemia and the prevalence is much higher among patients with  
72 coexisting CVDs (Su et al., 2022). Hypercholesterolemia is mainly implicated in the  
73 pathogenesis of atherosclerosis, a CVD that may lead to myocardial infarction (MI), strokes,  
74 ischemic heart disease (IHD) and other serious disorders (Berberich & Hegele, 2022). Plasma  
75 CHO originates from the diet but the primary source is synthesis within the liver where 3-  
76 hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase (HMGCR) acts as the rate-limiting enzyme (Sato &  
77 Takano, 1995). Similar to CHO, both hepatic synthesis and dietary sources contribute to plasma  
78 TG. Dietary fatty acids (FAs) are synthesized into TG in the liver via a multistep process  
79 (Alves-Bezerra & Cohen, 2017). Hepatic free CHO is esterified and packaged together with  
80 TG for transit in lipoproteins (Kang & Davis, 2000). Lipid metabolism is regulated by  
81 transcription factors controlling the genes involved in TG and CHO synthesis, including  
82 HMGCR and low-density lipoprotein (LDL) receptor (LDL-R) (Horton et al., 2002). In  
83 addition, the pathways of CHO efflux inhibit its excessive accumulation within the cells. These  
84 pathways are mediated by ATP binding cassette (ABC) subfamily A member 1 (ABCA1) and  
85 ABCG5/8 that maintain homeostasis through the reverse CHO transport (RCT) pathway and  
86 direct excretion of CHO in the bile, respectively (Duong et al., 2006; Yu et al., 2002).

87 Oxidative stress (OS) and systemic inflammation are linked to hyperlipidemia (Bagley et al.,  
88 2015; Furukawa et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2008). OS is an important factor implicated in the  
89 development and progression of CVDs and hyperlipidemia is associated with redox imbalance  
90 mediated via excess reactive oxygen species (ROS) and declined antioxidants (Abduh et al.,  
91 2023; Yang et al., 2008). Intracellular lipids accumulation increases ROS that contribute to  
92 chronic inflammatory responses in atherosclerosis and can negatively impact body organs  
93 (Chisolm & Steinberg, 2000; Furukawa et al., 2004). Mitochondrial dysfunction, oxidized-  
94 LDL, NADPH oxidase, and oxidatively modified glucose and proteins represent the common  
95 contributors to OS in dyslipidemia (Singh et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2008). Excess ROS depletes  
96 antioxidant defenses and activate nuclear factor (NF)-kB, resulting pro-inflammatory cytokines  
97 release that can further increase ROS and together provoke cell death. Pro-inflammatory  
98 cytokines have been shown to influence abnormalities in lipid metabolism in atherosclerosis,  
99 obesity, steatosis, and diabetes (Hong et al., 2022; Popko et al., 2010). Therefore, agents with  
100 anti-hyperlipidemic, antioxidant, and anti-inflammatory activities could effectively manage  
101 dyslipidemia and prevent its associated complications and disorders.

102 The isoquinoline alkaloid berberine (BBR) showed a wide range of pharmacological activities,  
103 including antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects (Feng et al., 2019; Germoush & Mahmoud,  
104 2014; Mahmoud et al., 2017). BBR is the main bioactive constituent of *Rhizoma coptidis* that  
105 has been used traditionally in the treatment of inflammatory and metabolic disorders (Feng et  
106 al., 2019). It showed protective effects against chemotherapy-induced liver injury (Germoush  
107 & Mahmoud, 2014; Mahmoud et al., 2017), and anticancer, antidiabetic, antimicrobial,  
108 neuroprotective and nephroprotective properties (Qin et al., 2020; Rauf et al., 2021). The  
109 beneficial pharmacological actions of BBR in the management and/or treatment of metabolic  
110 disorders and CVDs have been well-acknowledged (Feng et al., 2019). *In vitro*, pre-clinical  
111 and clinical investigations revealed the benefits of BBR against diabetes, atherosclerosis,

112 thrombosis, IHD, hypertension, stroke, arrhythmias, and insulin resistance (Feng et al., 2019;  
113 Yin et al., 2008). It exerted positive effects on carbohydrate and lipid metabolism in  
114 steatohepatitis *in vivo* (Zhao et al., 2017) and prevented lipolysis in adipocytes *in vitro* (Zhou  
115 et al., 2011). In a rat model of poloxamer-407 (P-407)-induced hyperlipidemia, BBR inhibited  
116 neuronal apoptosis and improved short-term memory (Kim et al., 2019). Despite the reported  
117 effects, the efficacy of BBR against acute hyperlipidemia and its associated inflammation is  
118 not fully understood. This study investigated the effect of BBR on hyperlipidemia, OS,  
119 inflammation, and lymphocyte ecto-nucleoside triphosphate diphosphohydrolase (E-  
120 NTPDase) and ecto-adenosine deaminase (E-ADA) activities in P-407-administered rats.

## 121 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 122 2.1. Experimental groups and samples

123 Thirty adult male Sprague-Dawley rats (180-200 g) were housed under standard conditions of  
124 temperature ( $23 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ ) and humidity (50-60%) on a 12h dark/light cycle. The animal study  
125 protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Al-Azhar University (Approval no. AZ-  
126 AS/PHREC/48/23). The rats were divided into five groups ( $n = 6$ ) as follows:

127 Group I: received 0.5% carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC).

128 Group II: received BBR (50 mg/kg) (Mahmoud et al., 2017) in 0.5% CMC for 14 days.

129 Group III: received 0.5% CMC for 14 days and a single intraperitoneal (i.p.) dose of P-407  
130 (500 mg/kg) (Zanwar et al., 2014) at day 15.

131 Group IV: received BBR (25 mg/kg) (Mahmoud et al., 2017) for 14 days and P-407 at day 15.

132 Group V: received BBR (50 mg/kg) (Mahmoud et al., 2017) for 14 days and P-407 at day 15.

133

134 BBR and CMC were administered via oral gavage. Groups I and II received saline (i.p.) on day  
135 15. Blood was collected before P-407 administration and at 12, 24 and 48 h for the

136 determination of TG and total cholesterol (TC). After 48 h, the rats were anesthetized, and  
137 blood was collected via cardiac puncture on EDTA.

#### 138 2.2. Determination of plasma lipids, LPL, and HMGCR

139 TG, TC and high-density lipoprotein (HDL)-C were assayed using reagent kits supplied by  
140 Biosystems (Spain) following the manufacturer's instructions. vLDL and LDL were calculated  
141 as following:

$$142 \quad vLDL = \text{Trilycerides}/5$$

$$143 \quad LDL = \text{Total Cholesterol} - (\text{HDL} + vLDL)$$

144 The activities of LPL and HMGCR were determined in the plasma and liver of rats using  
145 colorimetric assay kits supplied by Solarbio (China) and Sigma (USA), respectively, according  
146 to the manufacturers' instructions.

#### 147 2.3. Determination of serum thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS), NO, reduced 148 glutathione (GSH) and antioxidant enzymes

149 TBARS and NO were assayed according to the methods of Ohkawa *et al.* (1979) and Green *et*  
150 *al.* (1982), respectively. GSH levels (Ellman, 1959) and the activities of superoxide dismutase  
151 (SOD) (Marklund, 1985), catalase (Aebi, 1984), and glutathione peroxidase (GPx) (Flohé &  
152 Günzler, 1984) were assayed in plasma of rats following the mentioned methods.

#### 153 2.4. Determination of cytokines

154 Serum IL-4, IL-6, IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-18, IFN- $\gamma$ , and TNF- $\alpha$  were assayed using ELISA kits (Cusabio,  
155 China), according to the provided instructions.

#### 156 2.5. Isolation of lymphocytes and determination of E-NTPDase and E-ADA activities

157 Lymphocyte-rich mononuclear cells were separated from the blood collected on EDTA using  
158 sterile endotoxin-free Ficoll-Histopaque (Sigma, USA) density-gradient centrifugation  
159 (Böyum, 1968). As previously reported, the integrity of lymphocyte preparation was checked  
160 using trypan blue exclusion (Strober, 2015). Briefly, cell suspension was mixed with trypan

161 blue (Sigma, USA) at 1:1 ratio and the mixture was incubated for 3 min at room temperature  
162 (RT) followed by checking under a binocular microscope. The lymphocyte preparation was  
163 treated with 1% Triton X-100 and its protein content was assayed using Bradford reagent  
164 (Bradford, 1976). The activity of NTPDase was determined in the isolated cells as reported by  
165 Leal *et al* (2005). The reaction mixture consisted of 20  $\mu$ l of the cell suspension preincubated  
166 for 10 min at 37 °C and 200  $\mu$ l of a mixture containing 120 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 0.5 mM  
167 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 60 mM glucose, and 50 mM Tris–HCl buffer (pH 8.0). ATP or ADP (final concentration  
168 2 mM) was added to initiate the reaction which was stopped with 200  $\mu$ L trichloroacetic acid  
169 (10%). The released inorganic phosphate (Pi) was determined using KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> as a standard and  
170 malachite green as a colorimetric reagent. The absorbance was measured at 630 nm (Chan et  
171 al., 1986). The activity of E-ADA activity was assayed by mixing 25  $\mu$ L of the cell preparation  
172 with 21 mM adenosine and the mixture was incubated for 1 h at 37 °C. The reaction was  
173 stopped using sodium nitroprusside and hypochlorite solution. 75  $\mu$ M of ammonium sulfate  
174 was used as a standard (Giusti & Galanti, 1984).

## 175 2.6. Isolation of peritoneal M $\Phi$ and assay of NO and TNF- $\alpha$

176 The peritoneal cavity was lavaged with complete minimum essential medium containing 5  
177 U/ml heparin. The cell suspension was centrifuged at 250xg for 10 min and washed twice with  
178 the medium. The cells were suspended in the culture medium containing 10% fetal bovine  
179 serum and cultured in 6-well plates at 37°C under 95% CO<sub>2</sub> for 4 h for attachment and non-  
180 adherent cells were removed (Yassad et al., 1997). The cells were treated with 1 $\mu$ g/ml  
181 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *Escherichia coli* (Sigma, USA) and incubated for 24 h. In  
182 another experiment, peritoneal M $\Phi$  from normal rats were incubated with 1 $\mu$ g/ml LPS in the  
183 presence and absence of 1, 5, or 10  $\mu$ M BBR for 24 h (Shin et al., 2016). After incubation, NO  
184 and TNF- $\alpha$  in the culture medium were assayed.

## 185 2.7. qRT-PCR



186 Changes in the expression levels of ABCA1, LDL-R, ABCG5, and ABCG8 were determined  
187 using qRT-PCR. RNA was extracted from the liver using Trizol reagent and samples showed  
188 OD260/OD280 value  $\geq 1.8$  were reverse transcribed using transcription kit. cDNA was  
189 amplified using SYBR Green Master Mix and the primers listed in Table 1. The data were  
190 analyzed using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$  method (Livak & Schmittgen, 2001) and normalized to  $\beta$ -actin.

### 191 2.8. Molecular docking (MD)

192 The binding affinity of BBR with LPL (PDB ID: 6OB0), HMGCR (PDB ID: 1HWI), LDL-R  
193 binding domain of PCSK9 (PDB ID: 3GCX), PCSK9 (PDB ID: 6U26), ABCA1 (PDB ID:  
194 7TBW), and E-NTPDase (PDB ID: 4BQZ) was carried out as previously reported (Antar et al.,  
195 2022).

### 196 2.9. Statistical analysis

197 All data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM. The statistical differences were analyzed by one-way  
198 ANOVA followed by Tukey's test using GraphPad Prism 8. A  $p < 0.05$  was considered  
199 significantly different.

## 200 3. Results

### 201 3.1. BBR ameliorated dyslipidemia oxidative stress in P-407-induced rats

202 Changes in TG, TC, LDL-C, vLDL-C and HDL-C in P-407 and/or BBR-treated rats are shown  
203 in Figure 1A-E. Injection of P-407 increased circulating TG and TC significantly at 12, 24 and  
204 48 h as compared to the control group ( $P < 0.001$ ). Both doses of BBR ameliorated TG and TC  
205 in P-407-administered rats at all time points. The effect of BBR on TG and TC was dose-  
206 dependent at 12 and 24 h time points. P-407-administered rats showed remarkable elevation in  
207 plasma LDL-C and vLDL-C, whereas HDL-C decreased after 48 h. These alterations were  
208 reversed in BBR-treated groups.

### 209 3.2. BBR modulated LPL and HMGCR activities in P-407-induced rats

210 The activities of LPL (Fig. 2A) and HMGCR (Fig. 2B) were assayed in plasma and liver,  
211 respectively, and MD was employed to explore the affinity of BBR toward these enzymes.  
212 Dyslipidemia in P-407-administered rats was associated with decreased LPL activity and  
213 increased activity of HMGCR ( $P<0.001$ ). BBR at two doses ameliorated LPL and HMGCR  
214 activities ( $P<0.001$ ).

215 MD revealed that BBR forms a polar bond with Ser418 and hydrophobic interactions with  
216 Tyr121, Ile221, Lys265, His268, Phe415, Trp417, Trp420, and Trp421 residues of LPL with a  
217 binding energy of  $-9.6$  kcal/mol (Fig. 2C and Table 2). BBR interacts with HMGCR with  
218 hydrophobic interaction at the residues Tyr517, Val522, Gly532, Met534, Tyr533, Ile536,  
219 Val538, Ala556, Ile762, Ala763, Pro813, and Gln814 and the binding energy is  $-7$  kcal/mol  
220 (Fig. 2D and Table 2).

### 221 3.3. Effect of BBR on hepatic LDL-R, ABCA1, and ABCG5/8 in P-407-induced rats

222 P-407 administration downregulated liver LDL-R mRNA (Fig. 3A) significantly ( $P<0.001$ )  
223 while its effect on ABCG5 (Fig. 3B) and ABCG8 (Fig. 3D) was not significant. Like LDL-R,  
224 ABCA1 mRNA was downregulated in P-407-administered rats (Fig. 3D). Both doses of BBR  
225 upregulated ABCA1 and LDL-R and had no effect on ABCG5 and ABCG8 mRNA. *In silico*  
226 analysis revealed the affinity of BBR to bind with LDL-R binding domain of PCSK9 (Fig. 4A),  
227 PCSK9 (Fig. 4B), and ABCA1 (Fig. 4C) with binding energies  $-7.9$ ,  $-7.9$ , and  $-8.9$  kcal/mol,  
228 respectively (Table 2). BBR forms polar bonds with the residues Arg476 and Arg485 of LDL-  
229 R binding domain of PCSK9. It shows hydrostatic interactions with ABCA1, LDL-R binding  
230 domain of PCSK9, and PCSK9 (Table 2).

### 231 3.4. BBR attenuated oxidative stress in P-407-induced rats

232 Circulating levels of TBARS (Fig. 5A) and NO (Fig. 5B) were elevated whereas GSH (Fig.  
233 5C), SOD (Fig. 5D), catalase (Fig. 5E), and GPx (Fig. 5F) declined in P-407-administered rats.

234 BBR at 25 and 50 mg/kg doses decreased TBARS and NO and enhanced antioxidants in P-  
235 407-administered rats.

### 236 3.5. BBR ameliorated cytokines in P-407-induced rats

237 The pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-6 (Fig. 6A), IL-1 $\beta$  (Fig. 6B), and TNF- $\alpha$  (Fig. 6C) were  
238 elevated in the blood of P-407-administered rats. Likewise, P-407-administered rats showed  
239 high levels of IFN- $\gamma$  (Fig. 6D), IL-4 (Fig. 6E), and IL-18 (Fig. 6F). BBR effectively ameliorated  
240 all assayed cytokines, and its effect on IL-6 and IL-18 was dose-dependent.

### 241 3.6. BBR modulated lymphocyte E-NTPDase and E-ADA activities in P-407-induced rats

242 To assess the effect of BBR on lymphocyte E-NTPDase and E-ADA, we measured the  
243 activities of E-NTPDase and E-ADA and investigated its binding with NTPDase using MD.  
244 The hydrolysis of both ATP (Fig. 7A) and ADP (Fig. 7B) representing E-NTPDase activity  
245 were elevated, and E-ADA activity (Fig. 7C) was increased in lymphocytes from P-407-  
246 administered rats. BBR significantly decreased the activities of E-NTPDase and E-ADA. *In*  
247 *silico* analysis revealed the ability of BBR to interact with E-NTPDase through hydrophobic  
248 interactions at the residues Asp45, Ser49, His50, Phe54, Asp201, Gly203, Gly204, Arg245  
249 Ser346, Ala347, Tyr350, Arg394, Ala433, Val434, and Gly435, and showed -7.8 kcal/mol  
250 binding energy (Fig. 7D & Table 2).

### 251 3.7. BBR ameliorated NO and TNF- $\alpha$ release from LPS-induced macrophages

252 Peritoneal macrophages (M $\Phi$ ) from P-407-administered rats showed significant increase in NO  
253 (Fig. 8A) and TNF- $\alpha$  (Fig. 8B) upon exposure to LPS for 24 h. LPS failed to increase NO and  
254 TNF- $\alpha$  in M $\Phi$  from BBR-treated rats. Incubation of M $\Phi$  from normal rats with LPS and/or  
255 different concentrations of BBR revealed the ability of BBR to decrease LPS-induced NO (Fig.  
256 8C) and TNF- $\alpha$  (Fig. 8D).

## 257 **4. Discussion**

258 Dyslipidemia is a major contributor to the development and progression of serious CVDs,  
259 including atherosclerosis (Berberich & Hegele, 2022). This study investigated the protective  
260 effect of BBR on acute dyslipidemia and its associated redox imbalance and inflammatory  
261 responses using *in vivo*, *in vitro* and *in silico* approaches. The results revealed that BBR is  
262 effective against acute hyperlipidemia and inflammation through its ability to modulate  
263 cholesterologenesis-related factors, cytokine release, and lymphocyte E-NTPDase and E-  
264 ADA. The non-ionic copolymer surfactant P-407 is commonly used to induce dyslipidemia in  
265 rodents and its administration resulted in elevated TG and TC in line with previous reports  
266 (Chaudhary & Brocks, 2013; Leon et al., 2006; J. Park et al., 2016; Yeom et al., 2018). It is  
267 non-toxic and its hyperlipidemic effect is related to promoting cholesterolgenesis and  
268 suppressing LPL activity and TG hydrolysis (Chaudhary & Brocks, 2013; Johnston & Palmer,  
269 1993; Leon et al., 2006). The rats that received P-407 exhibited hypercholesterolemia and  
270 hypertriglyceridemia at 12, 24 and 48 h after receiving P-407. These effects were associated  
271 with elevated LDL-C and vLDL-C and decreased HDL-C. HDL-C plays a role in decreasing  
272 circulating CHO and its decline pinpoints an atherogenic lipid profile (O. Stein & Stein, 1999),  
273 and P-407 has been previously reported to induce early stages of atherosclerosis (Korolenko et  
274 al., 2016). Along with hyperlipidemia, plasma LPL activity was decreased and liver HMGCR  
275 was enhanced, demonstrating a decrease in TG hydrolysis and increased *de novo*  
276 cholesterologenesis, respectively. These effects represent the main mechanism of P-407-  
277 induced hyperlipidemia.

278 BBR effectively ameliorated TG, CHO, LDL-C and LDL-C and increased HDL-C, findings  
279 supported by previous studies showing the anti-hyperlipidemic activity of BBR. BBR  
280 decreased lipids in rat models of neuronal injury (Kim et al., 2019) and steatosis (Zhao et al.,  
281 2017), and diabetic mice (Wei et al., 2016). Studies have demonstrated several mechanisms  
282 that contribute to the positive impact of BBR on lipid metabolism. The anti-

283 hypercholesterolemia efficacy of BBR is associated with suppression of intestinal absorption,  
284 micellarization and uptake of CHO by enterocytes (Wang et al., 2014). In Caco-2 cells, BBR  
285 downregulated acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase 2 (ACAT2) and decreased permeability, resulting  
286 in inhibited CHO esterification (Wang et al., 2014). BBR suppressed hydrolase activity in bile  
287 and increased intestinal taurocholic acid levels. Subsequently, intestinal FXR pathway is  
288 upregulated leading to downregulated CD36 and hepatic uptake of long-chain FAs (Sun et al.,  
289 2017). The current study provided information supporting the anti-hyperlipidemic mechanism  
290 of BBR by showing its ability to upregulate LPL and suppress HMGCR, leading to increased  
291 TG hydrolysis and decreased hepatic CHO synthesis. The biochemical findings were supported  
292 by *in silico* MD that revealed the binding affinity of BBR toward LPL and HMGCR. P-407-  
293 induced hypertriglyceridemia in rodents is mainly attributed to LPL and hepatic lipase  
294 inhibition and reduced rate of TG hydrolysis (Johnston & Palmer, 1993; Wasan et al., 2003).  
295 LPL hydrolyses chylomicrons that contain approx. 90% TG and TG within vLDL, the main  
296 lipoprotein synthesized and secreted by the liver and the liberated fatty acids (FAs) are taken  
297 by peripheral tissues (Brahm & Hegele, 2015). HMGCR is the rate-limiting enzyme in hepatic  
298 CHO synthesis and its inhibition is an effective mechanism to treat hypercholesterolemia (Sato  
299 & Takano, 1995). Therefore, inhibition of HMGCR and activation of LPL are involved in the  
300 beneficial role of BBR against hypercholesterolemia and hypertriglyceridemia.

301 Next, we investigated changes in LDL-R, ABCA1, and ABCG5/8 and carried out *in silico* MD  
302 analysis to further understand the beneficial effect of BBR against acute hyperlipidemia. The  
303 results showed downregulation of LDL-R and ABCA1 in the liver of hyperlipidemic rats  
304 whereas ABCG1 and ABCG5 were not affected as we previously reported (Abduh et al., 2023).  
305 In support of our current and previous studies, P-407-induced mice exhibited a trend  
306 downregulation of liver ABCA1 (Leon et al., 2006). BBR upregulated both LDL-R and  
307 ABCA1 in dyslipidemic rat liver, effects that mediated, at least in part, LDL-C and CHO

308 homeostasis. LDL-R is a membrane glycoprotein that functions in the binding and  
309 internalization of LDL-C and is essential in maintaining CHO homeostasis. The endocytosis  
310 of LDL, mediated via LDL-R, reduces the expression of HMGCR and upregulate ACAT  
311 resulting in suppressed CHO biosynthesis and decreased free CHO (Go & Mani, 2012). The  
312 post-transcription by PCSK9 and the intracellular sterol levels are regulators of LDL-R  
313 transcription (Lambert et al., 2009). PCSK9 can bind to and promote the degradation of LDL-R  
314 via two routes. Nascent PCSK9 binds to and directs LDL-R to the lysosomes for degradation  
315 (Poirier et al., 2009), and secreted PCSK9 can bind to LDL-R at the cell surface and prevents  
316 its endocytic recycling following internalization (Zhang et al., 2008). Therefore, inhibition of  
317 PCSK9 binding to LDL-R prevents its lysosomal degradation and results in lowered plasma  
318 LDL-C. Accordingly, anti-PCSK9 monoclonal antibodies lowered plasma LDL-C through  
319 blocking the PCSK9-LDL-R binding interface (Stein & Swergold, 2013).

320 Interestingly, the *in silico* findings of the current study revealed the affinity of BBR towards  
321 the LDL-R binding domain of PCSK9 as well as PCSK9 itself. These findings supported the  
322 upregulated LDL-R expression and the lowered LDL-C in BBR-treated rats. A Previous study  
323 has demonstrated that BBR can upregulate LDL-R expression in hepatoma cells *in vitro* by  
324 stabilizing its mRNA through a mechanism that is not related to sterol regulatory element  
325 binding proteins (SREBPs) or HMGCoA (Kong et al., 2004). Berberubine, the main  
326 metabolite of BBR, exerted a hypolipidemic effect by upregulating LDL-R in HepG2 cells *in*  
327 *vitro* (Cao et al., 2019). Besides upregulation of LDL-R, BBR upregulated ABCA1, an ABC  
328 subfamily protein member, with an essential role in RCT and CHO homeostasis (Duong et al.,  
329 2006). Moreover, the *in silico* study revealed the binding affinity mediated via hydrophobic  
330 interactions between BBR and ABCA1. In RCT, ABCA1 exports excess cellular CHO and  
331 phosphatidylcholine to the circulating lipid-free ApoA-I, resulting in the generation of HDL-C  
332 (Duong et al., 2006). Hepatic ABCA1 is responsible for 70% of the biogenesis of HDL as

333 shown by murine tissue-specific knockout models (Brunham et al., 2006). Furthermore,  
334 ABCG5 and ABCG8 which are involved in hepatobiliary and trans-intestinal CHO secretion  
335 (Yu et al., 2002) were not affected by treatment with P-407 and/or BBR. These findings were  
336 in line with our recent study (Abduh et al., 2023) as well as the study of Leon *et al* (2006). In  
337 the same context, Wang *et al* (2010) have demonstrated that the BBR-induced lowering of  
338 blood CHO is mechanistically independent of the expression of ABCG5/8. Given that BBR  
339 upregulated LDL-R and ABCA1 and didn't affect ABCG5/8, its anti-hypercholesterolemia  
340 activity is therefore mediated via suppressed cholesterologenesis and increased HDL-C  
341 generation via CHO and phospholipid efflux.

342 Oxidative stress (OS) is linked to dyslipidemia and a positive association between redox  
343 imbalance and hypercholesterolemia/hyperlipidemia has been acknowledged (Singh et al.,  
344 2017; Yang et al., 2008). In P-407-treated rats in this study, OS has been marked by elevated  
345 TBARS and NO and decreased antioxidants as we previously reported (Abduh et al., 2023).  
346 OS is an imbalance between ROS levels and antioxidant defenses and together with  
347 hyperlipidemia is implicated in atherosclerosis and other CVDs (Abduh et al., 2023; Yang et  
348 al., 2008). In diseases linked to dyslipidemia such as atherosclerosis, OS is implicated in  
349 vascular damage, foam cell formation, and oxidation of LDL that activate the endothelium to  
350 recruit monocytes and T cells resulting in inflammatory and immune responses (Pirillo et al.,  
351 2013). Hyperlipidemia is a key contributor to the development of chronic inflammation caused  
352 by disrupted leukocyte activity and cytokine regulation (van Diepen et al., 2013). Extracellular  
353 adenine nucleotides and nucleosides play a central role in inflammatory reactions where high  
354 extracellular ATP activate lymphocytes to release pro-inflammatory cytokines (Burnstock,  
355 2017). E-NTPDase (CD39) is expressed on the surface of immune cells and hydrolyzes ATP  
356 into ADP then AMP which is then hydrolyzed by E-5'-nucleotidase (CD73). The produced  
357 adenosine is deaminated by E-ADA which is fundamental for T lymphocytes proliferation and

358 differentiation as well as monocytes maturation, resulting in the development of immune and  
359 inflammatory responses (Burnstock, 2017). Hyperlipidemic rats in this study exhibited an  
360 elevation in plasma IL-6, IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-4, INF- $\gamma$ , and IL-18. The elevation in cytokines  
361 was associated with enhanced activities of E-NTPDase and E-ADA in lymphocytes. The  
362 elevated cytokines and activated E-NTPDase and E-ADA in hyperlipidemic rats coincided with  
363 previous studies attributed these effects to increased TG, CHO, and LDL-C (Braun et al., 2018;  
364 Klafke et al., 2016; Ruchel et al., 2021). INF- $\gamma$  is a pro-atherogenic cytokine that contributes  
365 to inflammatory activities and promotes the adhesion of leukocytes to the endothelium, and  
366 studies on atherosclerosis supported the evidence that IL-4 is pro-atherogenic (M. L. Leon &  
367 Zuckerman, 2005; Walch et al., 2006). Both cytokines are increased in P-407-induced  
368 hyperlipidemia in rodent models (Braun et al., 2018; Ruchel et al., 2021). P-407-induced  
369 dyslipidemia has been associated with upregulated TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and IL-1 $\beta$ , not only in the  
370 blood as reported by Saja et al (2018), but also in different tissues, including hippocampus (S.-  
371 S. Park et al., 2021). Moreover, IL-18 was elevated in dyslipidemic rats in the current study.  
372 IL-18 is a potent pro-inflammatory cytokine associated with the formation and progression of  
373 atherosclerotic plaque (Mallat et al., 2001). These findings pinpointed the role of dyslipidemia  
374 in promoting the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Additionally, isolated M $\Phi$  from P-  
375 407-administered rats showed significantly enhanced release of NO and TNF- $\alpha$  upon LPS  
376 challenge, supporting the elevated plasma levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines.  
377 BBR effectively attenuated OS and inflammation in P-407-administered rats as shown by the  
378 decreased TBARS, NO, and pro-inflammatory cytokines and enhanced antioxidants. These  
379 effects were attributed to the ameliorative effect of BBR on hyperlipidemia and agreed with  
380 previous studies revealed its anti-inflammatory and antioxidant activities (Song et al., 2020).  
381 BBR reduced oxLDL-mediated ROS release, upregulated adhesion molecules and leukocyte  
382 adhesion to endothelial cells (Hsieh et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2013). It suppressed ROS and



383 pro-inflammatory responses in LPS-challenged MΦ by modulating key signaling pathways  
384 (Jeong et al., 2009). The anti-inflammatory effect of BBR in oxLDL- and LPS-stimulated MΦ  
385 was evidenced by the suppressed IL-1β, IL-6, and other inflammatory mediators (Jeong et al.,  
386 2009). The anti-inflammatory and antioxidant activities of BBR are mediated via different  
387 mechanisms in different tissues and diseases (reviewed in (Feng et al., 2019; Song et al.,  
388 2020)). Our findings supported the anti-inflammatory activity of BBR by showing its ability to  
389 suppress the release of TNF-α by LPS-stimulated MΦ from both normal and dyslipidemic rats  
390 *in vitro*. Moreover, this study introduced new information that the anti-inflammatory  
391 mechanism of BBR involves the modulation of lymphocyte E-NTPDase and E-ADA. The  
392 reported suppressive effect of BBR on the activity of these enzymes was supported by *in silico*  
393 findings that revealed the binding affinity of BBR towards E-NTPDase. The lack of data  
394 showing the changes in protein expression of ABCA1 and LDL-R could be considered a  
395 limitation of this study, but the changes in mRNA of these proteins were in line with the  
396 biochemical findings and MD added further support. Although P-407-induced hyperlipidemia  
397 is one of the well-established models to evaluate the efficacy of therapeutics for  
398 hyperlipidemia, studies on diet-induced hyperlipidemia models are needed to demonstrate the  
399 mechanism of action of BBR.

## 400 **5. Conclusion**

401 This study demonstrated the protective effect of BBR against acute hyperlipidemia and its  
402 associated OS and inflammatory response. BBR ameliorated hypercholesterolemia and  
403 hypertriglyceridemia by suppressing CHO biosynthesis and stimulating TG hydrolysis through  
404 the modulation of LPL, HMGCR, LDL-R and ABCA1. OS marked by elevated TBARS and  
405 declined antioxidants, and altered cytokine secretion and the activity E-NTPDase and E-ADA  
406 were observed in rats with hyperlipidemia. Pre-treatment with BBR attenuated OS, enhanced  
407 antioxidants, suppressed cytokine secretion and the activities of lymphocyte E-NTPDase and

408 E-ADA. In addition, BBR attenuated LPS-stimulated NO and TNF- $\alpha$  secretion from  
409 macrophages. The modulatory effect of BBR on LPL, HMGCR, LDL-R, PSK9, ABCA1, and  
410 E-NTPDase was supported by *in silico* findings showed its binding affinity towards these  
411 proteins. Overall, the effective anti-hyperlipidemic efficacy of BBR is mediated through  
412 amelioration of plasma lipids, cholesterogenesis, TG hydrolysis and its modulatory effects  
413 on inflammatory responses.

#### 414 **Author Contributions**

415 Conceptualization, A.M.M.; methodology, R.S.A., M.S.A., A.F.A., A.B., E.M.K., E.H.M.H.,  
416 C.L., and A.M.M.; software, A.M.M. and E.M.K; validation, A.M.M., R.S.A., and C.L.; formal  
417 analysis, A.M.M., R.S.A., and E.M.K.; investigation, R.S.A., M.S.A., A.B., E.M.K., and  
418 A.M.M.; resources, R.S.A., M.S.A., A.F.A., and A.B.; data curation, R.S.A., M.S.A., A.B.,  
419 E.M.K., and A.M.M.; writing—original draft preparation, R.S.A., M.S.A., A.B., C.L., and  
420 A.M.M.; writing—review and editing, A.M.M.; visualization, A.M.M.; supervision, A.M.M.;  
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#### 429 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

430 All authors declare no conflict of interests in relation to the manuscript.

#### 431 **Availability of data and materials**

432 The manuscript contains all data supporting the reported results.

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681 Tables:

682 Table 1. Primers used for qRT-PCR.

<b>Gene</b>	<b>Genbank accession number</b>	<b>Sequence (5'-3')</b>	<b>Amplicon size (bp)</b>
<i>Abca1</i>	NM_178095.3	F: GCAGCGACCATGAAAGTGAC R: GAGGCGGTCATCAATCTCGT	185
<i>Abcg5</i>	NM_053754.2	F: GGGAAAGTGTTTGTGAACGGC R: GTGTATCTCAGCGTCTCCCG	121
<i>Abcg8</i>	NM_130414.2	F: TTCTGATGACGTCTGGCACC R: TTGCTGTAGCGAGACAAGG	97
<i>Ldlr</i>	NM_175762.3	F: CATTTCAGTGCCAACCGCC R: TGCCTCACACCAGTTTACCC	127
<i>Actb</i>	NM_031144.3	F: AGGAGTACGATGAGTCCGGC R: CGCAGCTCAGTAACAGTCCG	71

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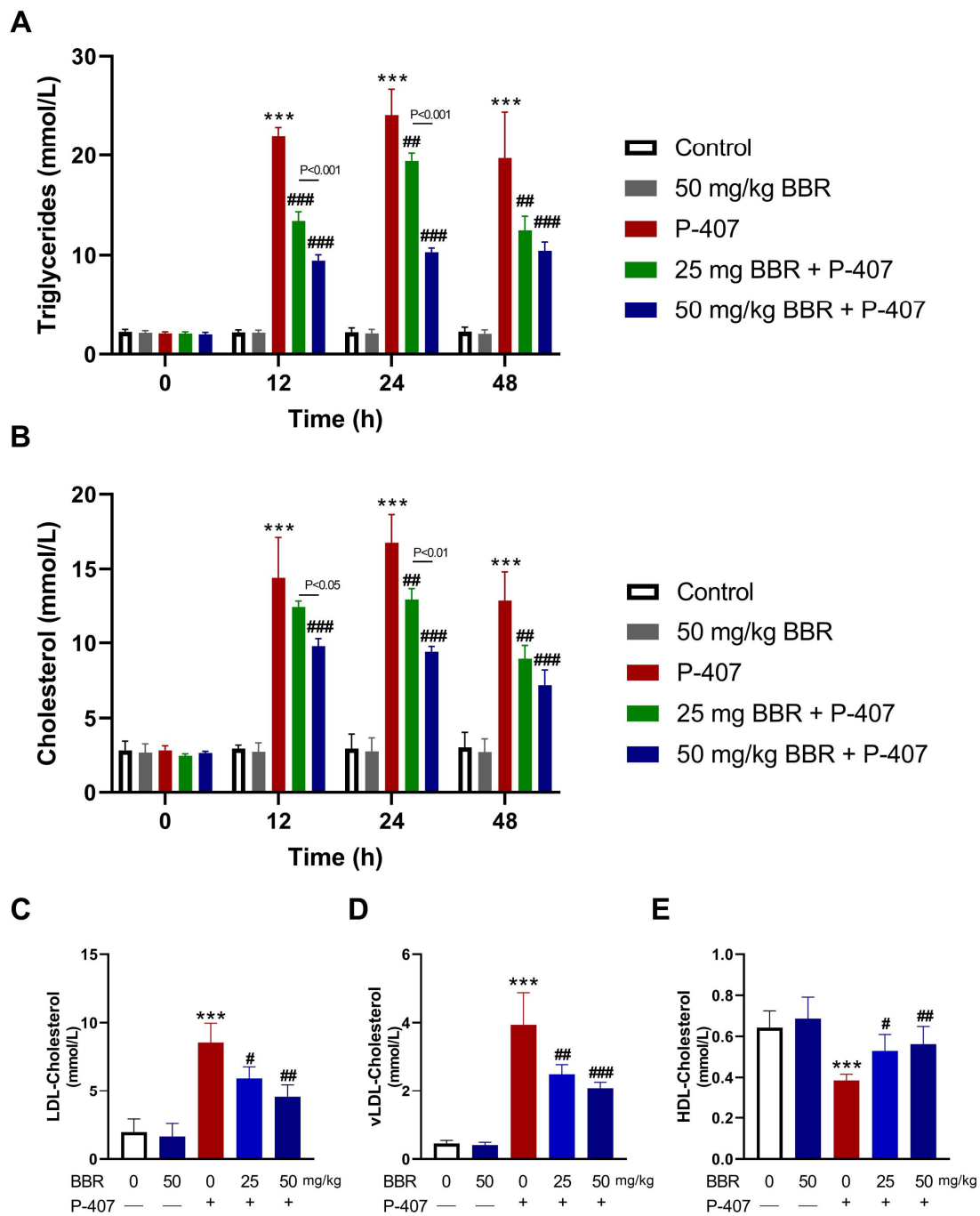


685 Table 2. Binding interactions of BBR with LPL, HMGCR, LDLR binding domain of PCSK9,  
 686 PCSK9, ABCA1, and NTPDase2.

	kcal/mol	Polar bonds	Hydrophobic interactions
LPL	-9.6	Ser418	Tyr121, Ile221, Lys265, His268, Phe415, Trp417, Trp420 and Trp421
HMGCR	-7.0		Tyr517, Val522, Gly532, Met534, Tyr533, Ile536, Val538, Ala556, Ile762, Ala763, Pro813 and Gln814
LDLR binding domain of PCSK9	-7.9	Arg476, and Arg458	Pro331, Arg357, Arg412, Val460, Trp461, Ala463, Ile474, Cys477 and Ala478
PCSK9	-7.9		Pro331, Arg357, Val359, Asp360, Arg458, Thr459, Val460 and Trp461
ABCA1	-8.9		Trp458, Phe466, Phe273, Trp278, Tyr482, Ala487 and Thr491
NTPDase2	-7.8		Asp45, Ser49, His50, Phe54, Asp201, Gly203, Gly204, Arg245 Ser346, Ala347, Tyr350, Arg394, Ala433, Val434 and Gly435

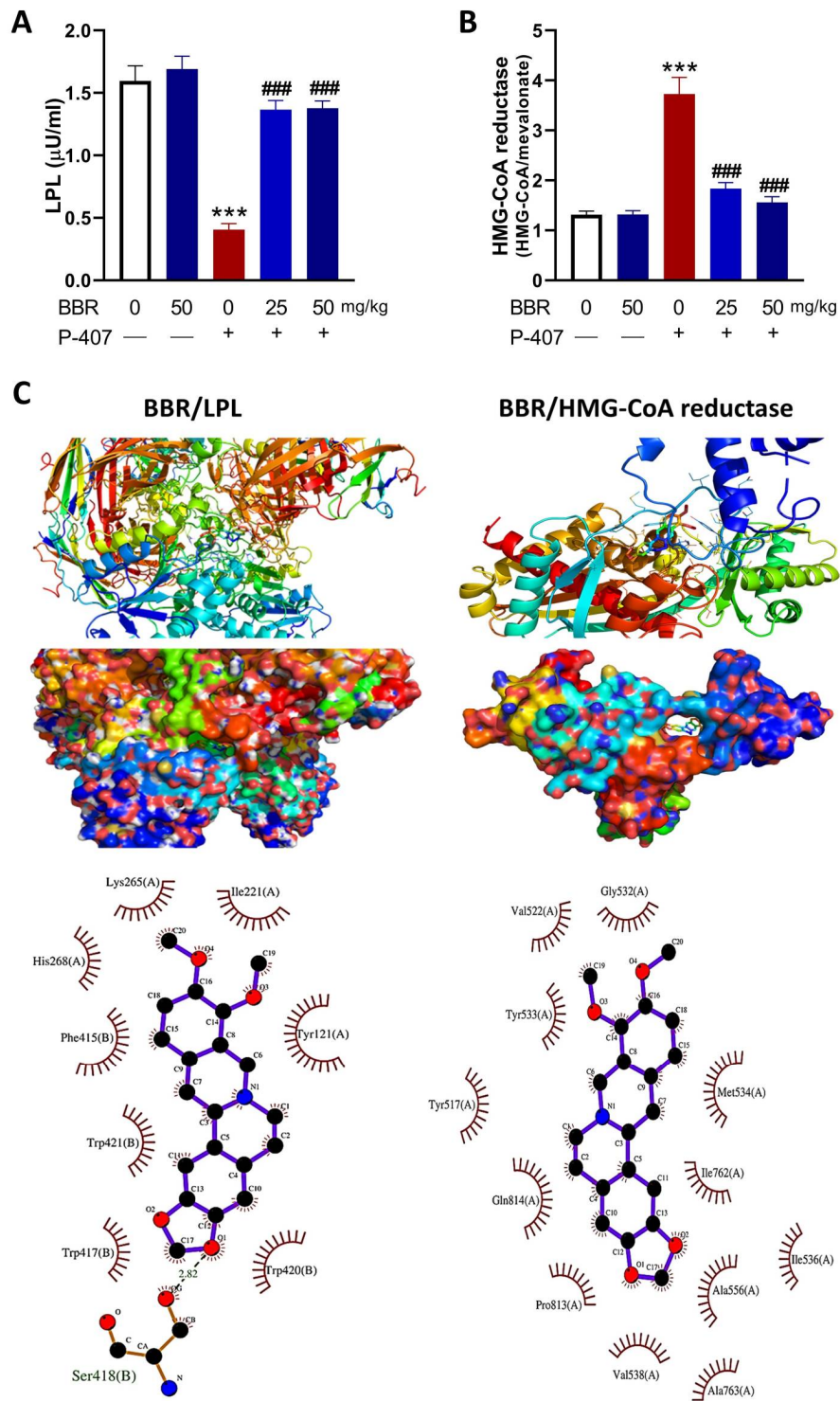
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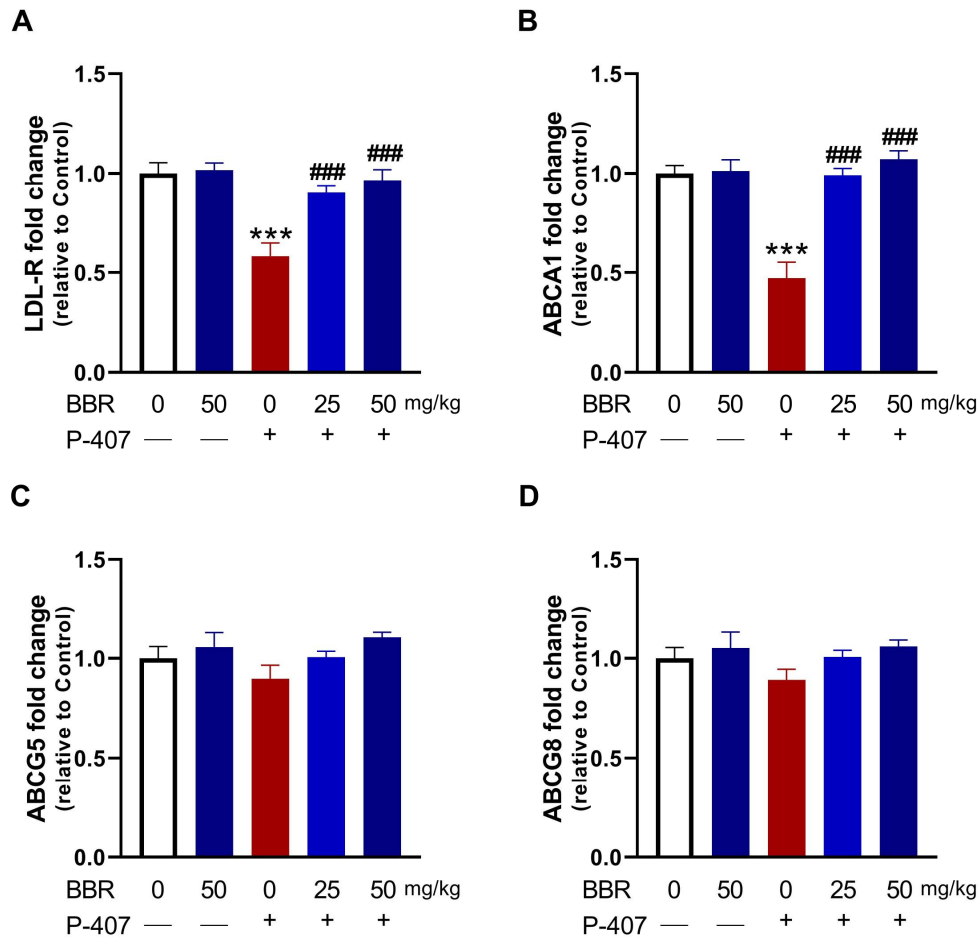
690

691 Fig. 1. BBR ameliorated TG (A) and CHO (B) levels at 12, 24 and 48 h, and LDL-C (C),  
 692 vLDL-C (D) and HDL-C (E) at 48 h in P-407-administered rats. Data are Mean  $\pm$  SEM, ( $n =$   
 693 6). \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  vs Control. # $P < 0.05$ , ## $P < 0.01$  and ### $P < 0.001$  vs P-407.



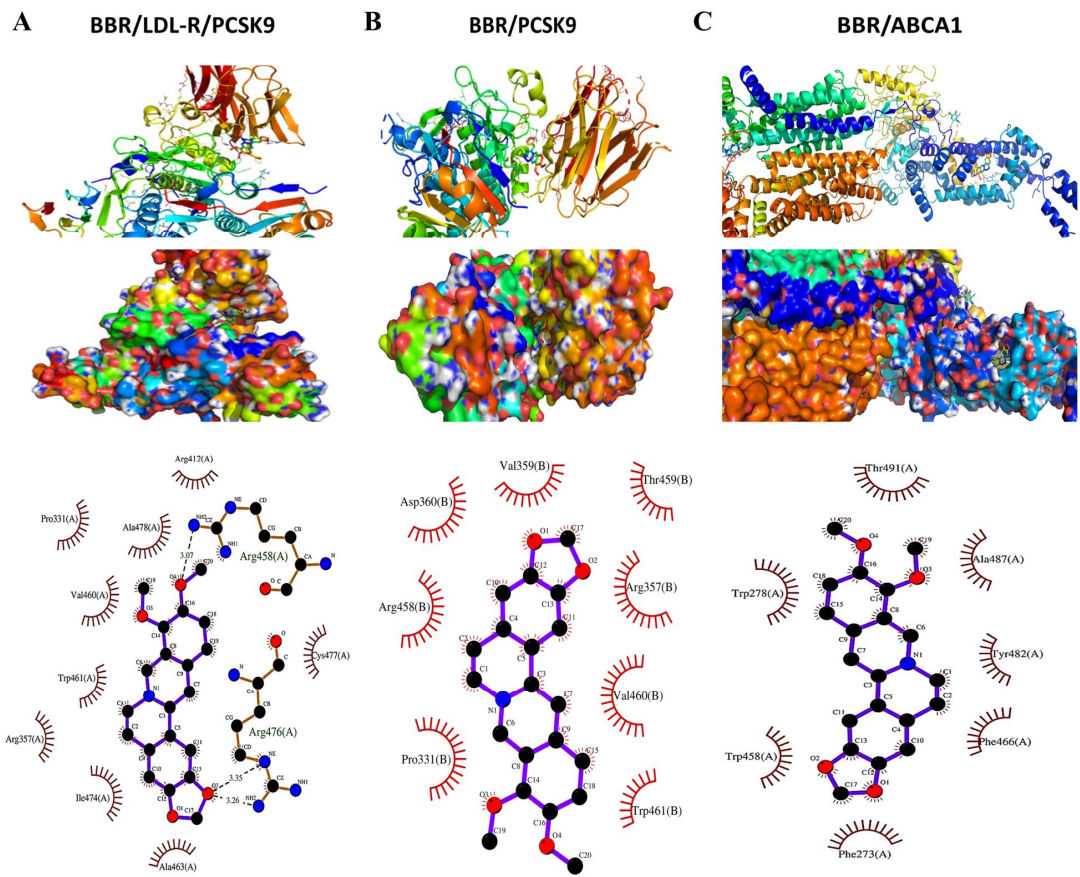
694

695 Fig. 2. BBR ameliorated plasma LPL (A) and liver HMGCR (B) activities in P-407-  
 696 administered rats. Data are Mean  $\pm$  SEM, ( $n = 6$ ). \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  vs Control and ### $P < 0.001$  vs P-  
 697 407. (C) Binding interactions of BBR with LPL and HMGCR.



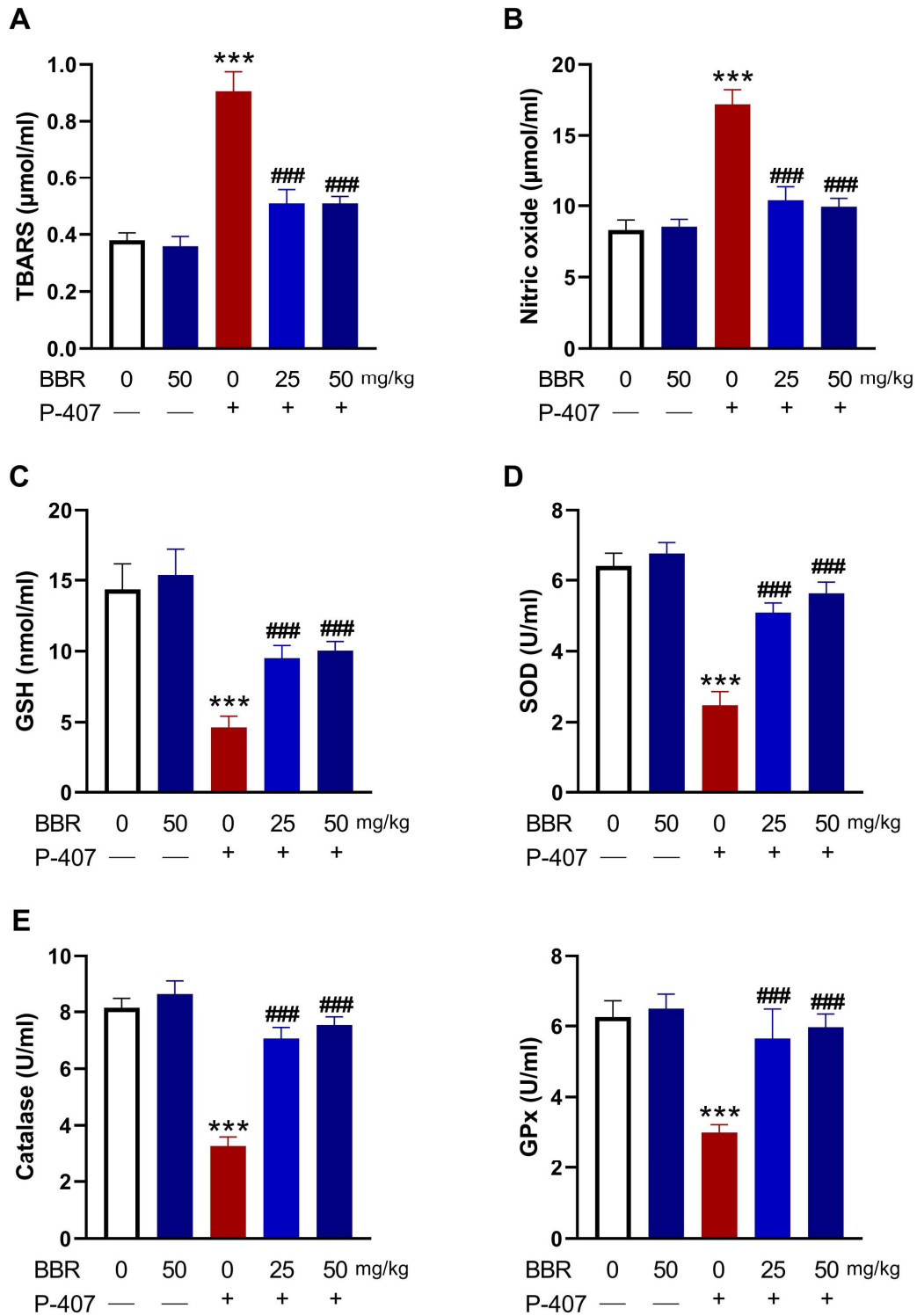
698

699 Fig. 3. Effect of BBR on LDL-R (A), ABCA1 (B), ABCG5 (C), and ABCG5 (D) mRNA in  
 700 liver of P-407-administered rats. Data are Mean  $\pm$  SEM, ( $n = 6$ ). \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  vs Control and  
 701 ### $P < 0.001$  vs P-407.



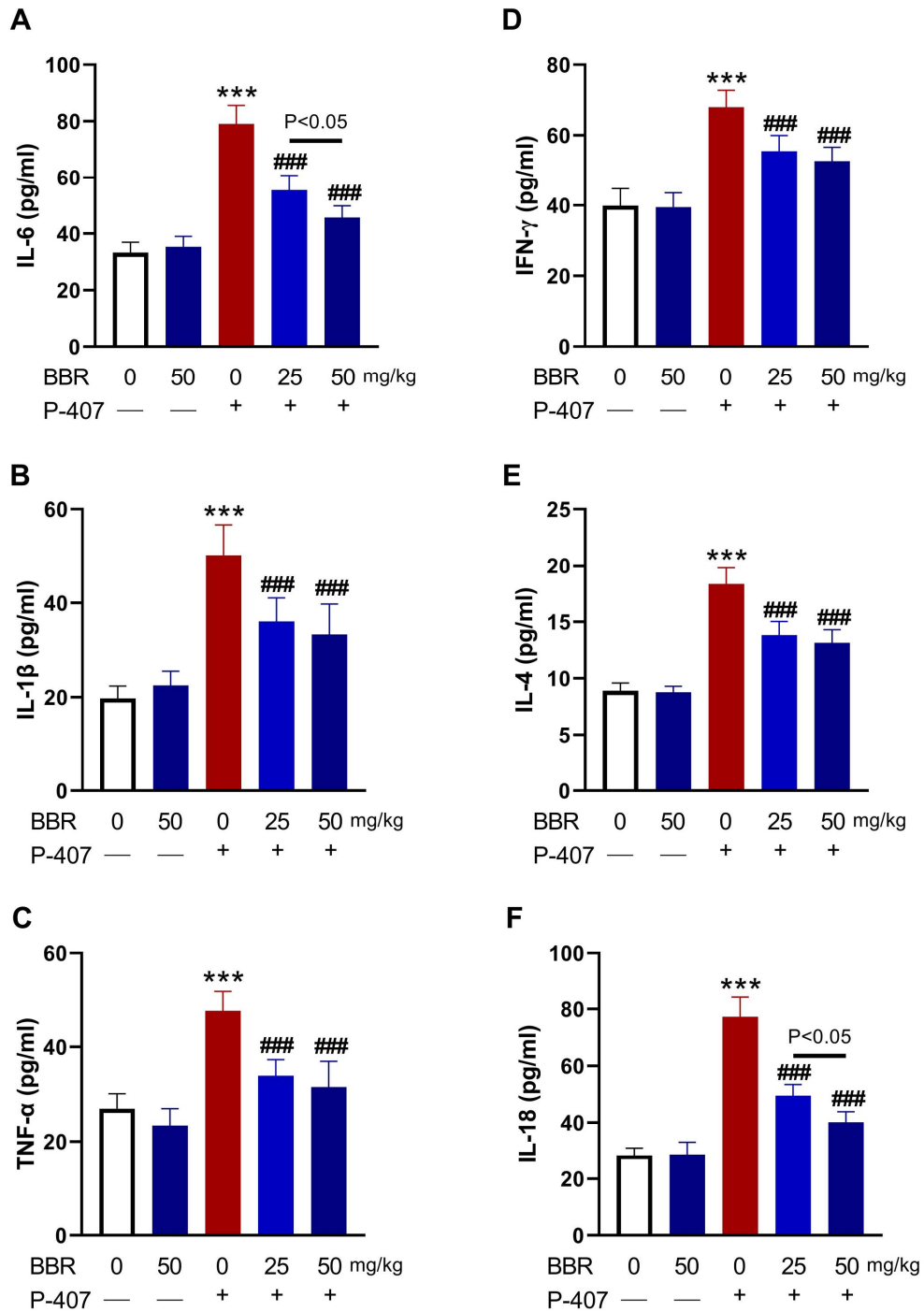
702

703 Fig. 4. Binding interactions of BBR with (A) LDLR binding domain of PCSK9, (B) PCSK9,  
 704 and (C) ABCA1.



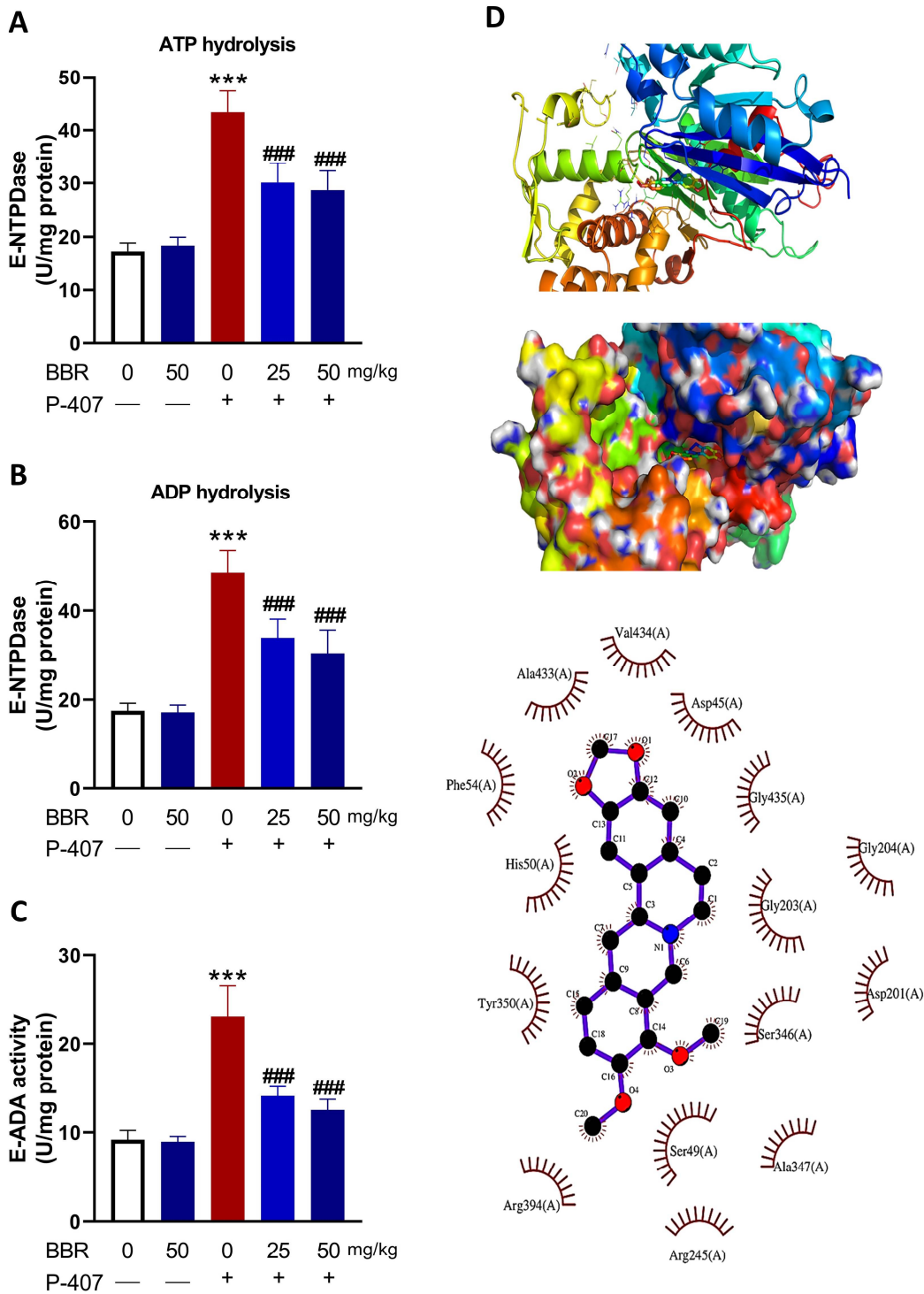
705

706 Fig. 5. BBR attenuated oxidative stress in hyperlipidemic rats. BBR decreased TBARS (A) and  
 707 NO (B) levels, and boosted GSH (C), SOD (D), CAT (E) and GPx (F) in P-407-administered  
 708 rats. Data are Mean  $\pm$  SEM, ( $n = 6$ ). \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  vs Control and ### $P < 0.001$  vs P-407.



709

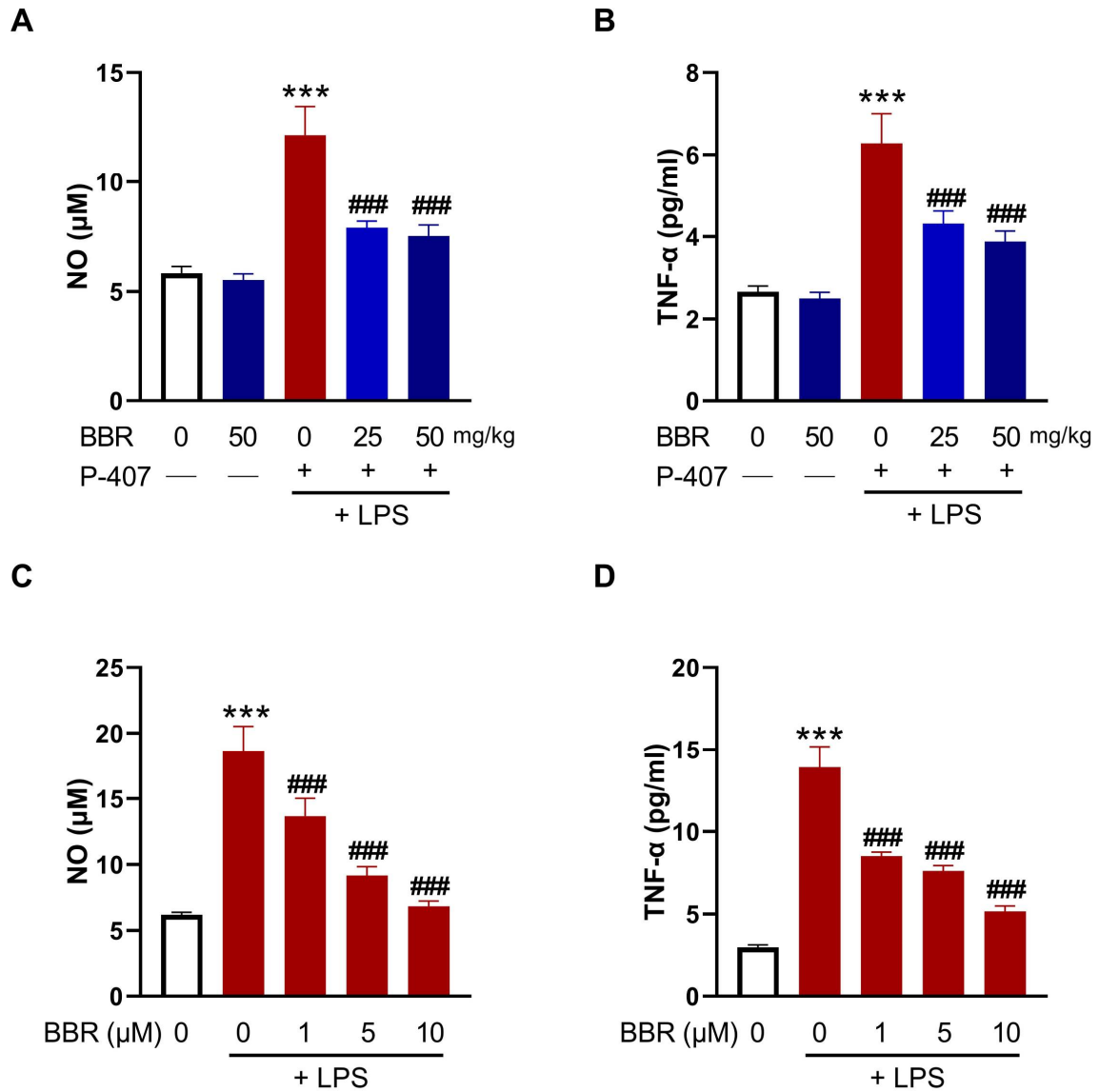
710 Fig. 6. BBR mitigated inflammation in hyperlipidemic rats. BBR decreased IL-6 (A), IL-1β  
 711 (B), TNF-α (C), IFN-γ (D), IL-4 (E) and IL-18 (F) in P-407-administered rats. Data are Mean  
 712 ± SEM, (n = 6). \*\*\*P<0.001 vs Control and ###P<0.001 vs P-407.



713

714 Fig. 7. BBR ameliorated E-NTPDase (A,B) and E-ADA (B) activities in lymphocytes of P-  
 715 407-administered rats. Data are Mean  $\pm$  SEM, ( $n = 6$ ). \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  vs Control and ### $P < 0.001$   
 716 vs P-407. Binding interactions of BBR with E-NTPDase.





717

718 Fig. 8. BBR decreased NO and TNF- $\alpha$  release from LPS-challenged macrophages from  
 719 dyslipidemic (A,B) and normal rats (C,D). Data are Mean  $\pm$  SEM, ( $n = 6$ ). (A,B) \*\*\* $P < 0.001$   
 720 vs Control and ### $P < 0.001$  vs P-407. (C,D) Data are Mean  $\pm$  SEM, ( $n = 6$ ). (A,B) \*\*\* $P < 0.001$   
 721 vs Control and ### $P < 0.001$  vs LPS.