Redox Regulation of the AMP-Activated Protein Kinase

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Abstract

Redox state is a critical determinant of cell function, and any major imbalances can cause severe damage or death.

**Objectives:** The aim of this study is to determine if AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), a cellular energy sensor, is activated by oxidants generated by Berberine in endothelial cells (EC).

**Methods:** Bovine aortic endothelial cells (BAEC) were exposed to Berberine. AMPK activity and reactive oxygen species were monitored after the incubation.

**Results:** In BAEC, Berberine caused a dose- and time-dependent increase in the phosphorylation of AMPK at Thr172 and acetyl CoA carboxylase (ACC) at Ser79, a well characterized downstream target of AMPK. Concomitantly, Berberine increased peroxynitrite, a potent oxidant formed by simultaneous generation of superoxide and nitric oxide. Pre-incubation of BAEC with anti-oxidants markedly attenuated Berberine-enhanced phosphorylation of both AMPK and ACC. Consistently, adenoviral expression of superoxide dismutase and pretreatment with anti-oxidants markedly attenuated Berberine-enhanced phosphorylation of both AMPK and ACC. Furthermore, mitochondria-targeted tempol (mito-tempol) pretreatment or expression of uncoupling protein attenuated AMPK activation caused by Berberine. Depletion of mitochondria abolished the effects of Berberine on AMPK in EC. Finally, Berberine significantly increased the phosphorylation of LKB1 at Ser307 and gene silencing of LKB1 attenuated Berberine-enhanced AMPK Thr172 phosphorylation in BAEC.

**Conclusion:** Our results suggest that mitochondria-derived superoxide anions and peroxynitrite are required for Berberine-induced AMPK activation in endothelial cells.

Introduction

AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), a heterotrimeric complex comprised of a catalytic subunit α and two regulatory subunits, β and γ, is an evolutionarily conserved serine/threonine protein kinase that is ubiquitously expressed. It was initially characterized as a “fuel gauge”, modulating cellular energy flux in eukaryotic cells in response to changes of AMP:ATP ratios [1,2,3]. AMPK can be activated by conditions that increase intracellular AMP such as exercise [4], hypoxia [5], hypoglycemia [6], as well as certain cytokines and drugs such as leptin [7], adiponectin [8], metformin [9], statins [10] and rosiglitazone [11]. The primary mechanism responsible for AMPK activation involves phosphorylation of AMPK at Thr172 residue located within the activation loop of α subunits [12]. Activation of AMPK has been linked to numerous energy-conserving cellular processes, such as promotion of glucose uptake and glucose transportation [13]; stimulation of glycogen, cholesterol, fatty acid, triacylglycerol synthesis, glucose and fatty acid oxidation [14]; and acceleration of mitochondrial biogenesis [15]. In addition to its roles in energy homeostasis, more recent studies have identified some broader protective roles for AMPK in atherosclerosis [16] and inflammation [17] as well as some beneficial angiogenic effects [18,19].

Berberine [a naturally yellow colored compound with molecular name 18, 5,6-dihydro-9,10-dimethoxybenzo[g]-1,3-benzodioxolo(5,6-a) quinolizinium], is a benzyl tetra isoquinoline plant alkaloid derived from the Berberidaceae family. It has been used as a nonprescription oral drug to treat gut infections and diarrhea with few side effects in traditional Chinese Medicine and Native American remedies for many centuries. Recently, Berberine has been shown to possess many pharmacological properties, such as anti-inflammatory [17], anti-hypertensive [20], and anti-proliferative/anti-tumor [21] activity. It has also been reported that Berberine has some beneficial effects when used adjunctively for metabolic disorders including obesity, hyperlipidemia, hypercholesterolemia, hyperglycemia, and also displays insulin-sensitizing properties in rodent models of insulin resistance and diabetes. It significantly improves glucose tolerance, and enhances insulin-sensitizing effects in obese and/or diabetic subjects [22,23]. These beneficial effects are related in part to the ability of Berberine to activate...
AMPK. One recent study reported Berberine activated AMPK by inhibiting respiratory complex I, a similar effect to metformin and rosiglitazone [24]. However, the precise mechanism by which Berberine activates AMPK has not been established. The aim of our study was to identify the underlying mechanism of Berberine-induced AMPK activation.

Reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (ROS and RNS) such as superoxide anions (O$_2^{$-}$), hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$), and peroxynitrite (ONOO$^{-}$) are small and highly reactive molecules having both physiological and pathological effects [25]. Normal cellular ROS concentrations play important roles in cell signaling pathways and are vital for physiological functions. Peroxynitrite (ONOO$^{-}$) is a highly reactive ROS formed by O$_2^{$-}$ and NO. It has been demonstrated that metformin inhibits complex I of the respiratory chain to generate mitochondrial O$_2^{$-}$, and then ONOO$^{-}$, which leads to AMPK activation via a c-Src and PI3K-dependent pathway [26]. Our data indicate that Berberine-induced AMPK activation is mediated by mitochondria-derived superoxide and peroxynitrite in endothelial cells (EC).

Materials and Methods

Materials

Human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC) and bovine aortic endothelial cells (BAEC) were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD), cell culture media were purchased from Lonza Group Ltd. (Switzerland). Berberine, ethidium bromide, sodium pyruvate, uridine, and L-nitroarginine methyl ester (L-NAME) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Inc. (St. Louis, MO). Dihydroethidium (DHE) and dihydrodihydramine-123 (DHR) were obtained from Invitrogen Corporation (Carlsbad, CA). Antibodies against phospho-AMPK α (Thr172), AMPK α, phospho-Acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) (Ser79) and β-actin were from Cell Signaling (Beverly, MA). Antibody raised against SOD was obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc (Santa Cruz, CA). Antibody against UCP2 was from Alpha Diagnostic Intl. Inc. (San Antonio, TX). RNeasy Mini Kit and RNA UltraSense One-Step RT-PCR System were obtained from Qiagen Inc (Valencia, CA).

Cell culture

HUVEC were cultured in endothelial basal media (EBM) with EGM$^{TM}$ SingleQuots from LONZA (Walkersville, MD) [27]. The medium was changed every 2 days before the cells reached confluence. Cells were incubated in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO$_2$/95% air at 37°C. BAEC were grown in EBM supplemented with 2% fetal bovine serum. To generate mitochondria-depleted BAEC (p$^3$ cells), wild-type BAEC were incubated in medium containing ethidium bromide (50 ng/ml), sodium pyruvate (1 mM), and uridine (50 µg/ml) for 3 weeks, as described previously [26]. The p$^3$ status of cells was confirmed by the absence of cytochrome c oxidase subunit II by RT-PCR.

Measurement of cellular ATP, ADP, and AMP

After being treated with Berberine or vehicle, HUVEC (100-cm$^2$ dishes) were immediately washed with ice-cold PBS, then scraped with HClO$_4$, and centrifuged at 4°C (5 min, 14,000 rpm). After centrifugation, the supernatants were neutralized by KOH. The supernatants were detected by HPLC to determine the contents of ATP, ADP, and AMP.

Detection of superoxide anions

Intracellular O$_2^{$-}$ was measured using the dihydroethidium (DHE) fluorescence/high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) assay with minor modifications [28]. Briefly, BAEC were incubated with 0.5 µM DHE for 30 min, and then extracted with 50% methanol. Oxeythidium (a product of DHE and O$_2^{$-}$) and ethidium (a product of DHE auto-oxidation) were separated and quantified using a C-18 HPLC column (mobile phase: gradient of acetonitrile and 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid). O$_2^{$-}$ production was determined by the conversion of DHE into oxeythidium.

Measurement of peroxynitrite

ONOO$^{-}$ generation in BAEC after Berberine treatment was determined using chemiluminescence detection by formation of the fluorescent dye rhodamine 123 (RH) from dihydrodihydramine 123 (DHR). 5 µM DHR was added into culture medium, after 1 hour incubation, 200 µl medium was added into 96-well plate, and fluorescence was measured at 570 nm with excitation at 500 nm. Since DHR slowly auto oxidizes to RH, background fluorescence in medium alone was subtracted from the measured values with ONOO$^{-}$.

Adenovirus infection

BAEC or HUVEC were infected in EBM with EGM$^{TM}$ SingleQuots for 48 hours with adenovirus encoding green fluorescence protein (GFP), superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1) or catalase. Adenoviruses encoding GFP served as control, and transfection efficiency was typically >80% as determined by GFP expression.

Western blot

Western blotting assays were done as described previously [29]. The primary antibodies were polyclonal and raised against p-AMPK-Thr172 (1:1000), p-ACC-Ser79 (1:1000), AMPK (1:1000), SOD1 (1:1000), UCP2 (1:1000), and β-actin (1:3000). The intensity (area density) of the individual bands on Western blots was measured by densitometry (model GS-700, Imaging Densitometer, Bio-Rad). The background was subtracted from the calculated area.

Reverse transcription–polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

Total cellular RNA was isolated from treated HUVEC with the total RNA isolation protocol for the RNeasy Mini Kit RNA. The procedures for semi-quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) were performed by using forward (5'-GGCCATGCGACTTCCACA-3') and reverse (5'-AGGCTTCTGTGATGGCCACCG-3') primers corresponding to bovine cytochrome c oxidase subunit II mRNA according to the manufacturer’s recommendations. Reactions were run for 20 cycles at conditions as follows: denaturation for 30 seconds at 94°C, annealing for 30 seconds at 55°C, and extension for 40 seconds at 72°C. Constitutively expressed glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) mRNA was amplified as internal control.

Statistical analysis

Statistical comparisons were performed using a Student’s t test or one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni’s procedure for post hoc analysis. Values of p<0.05 were considered significant.

Results

Berberine causes a dose- and time-dependent increase in AMPK in EC

To investigate whether ONOO$^{-}$ is critical to Berberine activated AMPK and its downstream target, ACC in EC,
Confluent BAEC were treated with different concentrations of Berberine (0, 1, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200 μM) for 2 h. AMPK activation was evaluated by monitoring the phosphorylation of AMPK at Thr172 and ACC at Ser79. As shown in Fig. 1A and B, Berberine increased the phosphorylation of AMPK-Thr172 and ACC-Ser79 in a dose-dependent manner. Furthermore, activation of AMPK by Berberine was also time-dependent. 10 μM Berberine increased the phosphorylation of AMPK-Thr172 and ACC-Ser79 as early as 30 minutes, reaching a peak value at about 60 minutes without affecting the total content of AMPK (Fig. 1C). Because 10 μM of Berberine caused AMPK activation dramatically, we used this concentration of the compound for subsequent experiments.

Effects of Berberine on AMP/ATP ratios

We next determined if AMPK activation by Berberine was due to the changes of AMP/ATP ratio. As depicted in Fig. 2A, the AMP/ATP ratio didn’t change until 60 min incubation of Berberine (10 μM), suggesting changes in AMP/ATP ratios occur only at late stage of Berberine incubation (>1 h).

Berberine increases intracellular superoxide

Our previous studies have shown that redox signaling plays an important role in AMPK activation [26,30,31]. In order to investigate whether endogenous superoxide was also involved in AMPK activation caused by Berberine, the generation of intracellular superoxide was assessed by using DHE/HPLC assay. As shown in Fig. 2B, exposure of BAEC to Berberine (10 μM), a concentration at which AMPK was activated, also significantly increased DHE fluorescence as early as 30 min after treatment and superoxide release continued to rise when incubation prolonged (Figure 2B), indicating that Berberine triggered intracellular superoxide generation.

Anti-oxidants attenuate Berberine-induced AMPK activation in EC

We next evaluated if antioxidants altered Berberine-induced AMPK activation. Pre-incubation with antioxidant reagents (NAC, DTT and tempol) significantly attenuated AMPK activation caused by Berberine (Fig. 2C and 2D). This implies that reactive oxygen species are involved in the AMPK activation process induced by Berberine.

Activation of AMPK by Berberine is peroxynitrite-dependent

Since simultaneous generation of both O₂⁻ and NO increases the formation of ONOO⁻ and our previous studies [30,31,32] have also demonstrated that ONOO⁻ activates AMPK, we sought to investigate if endogenous ONOO⁻ was involved in this process. To this end, the effects of Berberine on AMPK activity were monitored under conditions where ONOO⁻ production was inhibited. SOD1 was overexpressed in BAEC (to scavenge O₂⁻) or pre-treated with L-NAME (1 mM; to inhibit NO production). Adenoviral expression of SOD1 dramatically increased the levels of SOD1 in BAEC compared with GFP infection (Figure 3A). Interestingly, adenoviral overexpression of SOD1 markedly attenuated Berberine-induced AMPK Thr172 phosphorylation (Fig. 3A and 3B). In contrast, adenoviral overexpression of catalase, an enzyme detoxifying H₂O₂, had no effects on Berberine-enhanced AMPK activation in BAEC (Fig. 3A and 3B), suggesting that H₂O₂ is not involved in AMPK activation by this compound. Similarly, pre-treatment with L-NAME, a non-selective NOS inhibitor, did not alter the basal levels of AMPK phosphorylation at Thr172 (Fig. 3C and 3D), but L-NAME abolished the effects of Berberine on the phosphorylation of AMPK at Thr172 and ACC at Ser79 (Fig. 3C and 3D).

Figure 1: Effects of Berberine on the phosphorylation of AMPK-Thr 172 and ACC-Ser79, AMP/ATP ratios, and superoxide production in BAEC. A & B, Dose-dependent increase of of AMPK-Thr172 and Ser79 phosphorylation by berberine in BAEC. Confluent BAEC were incubated with different doses of Berberine (1 μM to 200 μM) for 2 h. The blot is representative of three individual experiments. n = 3 *p<0.05, control versus Berberine-treated. C & D, Time-dependent increase of AMP-Thr172 and Ser79 by Berberine (10 μM) in BAEC. The blot is representative of three blots obtained from three separate experiments. n = 3 * p<0.05, control versus Berberine-treated. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0015420.g001
We next determined if scavenging ONOO\(^{-}\) altered the effects of Berberine. Uric acid is a widely used scavenger of ONOO\(^{-}\). The production of intracellular ONOO\(^{-}\) was directly inhibited by this scavenger and AMPK-Thr172 phosphorylation was detected under this condition (Fig. 3E and 3F). The data show AMPK phosphorylation at Thr172 was inhibited by uric acid pretreatment.
To further confirm the role of ONOO\textsuperscript{−}, its synthesis was measured after incubation with Berberine. ONOO\textsuperscript{−} production was increased significantly as early as 30 min following incubation (Fig 3G). Further, either adenoviral overexpression of SOD or L-NAME administration of L-NAME, ablated berberine-induced ONOO\textsuperscript{−} formation in EC (Figure 3H). Taken together, our result suggest that berberine increased the formation of ONOO\textsuperscript{−}.

Identification of mitochondria as the source of superoxide anions

We next identified the source of oxidants by which Berberine activated AMPK in BAEC. Increasing evidence suggests that NAD(P)H oxidases, xanthine oxidase, and mitochondria are major sources of superoxide in endothelial cells [33]. Pre-incubation of allopurinol and oxypurinol (two potent inhibitors for xanthine oxidase) did not alter the effects of Berberine (Figure 4A). Similarly, overexpression of p47\textsuperscript{phox} dominant negative mutants (p47-DN), a cytosolic and membrane subunit of NAD(P)H oxidase, didn’t alter AMPK phosphorylation at Thr172 in EC (Figure 4C). This result was further confirmed by the inability of overexpression of p67\textsuperscript{phox} dominant negative mutants, another subunit of NAD(P)H oxidase 9 (data not shown). Taken together, our results exclude the possibility of NAD(P)H oxidase as a potential source of oxidants provoked by Berberine treatment. In contrast, pre-incubation of mitochondria-targeted tempol, which inhibits oxidant formation from mitochondria, attenuated Berberine-enhanced phosphorylation of AMPK at Thr172 and ACC at Ser79 in BAEC (Figure 4C and 4D), implying that mitochondria might a source of superoxide in Berberine-treated EC.

Mitochondrial uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2), an inner membrane mitochondrial protein, has been implicated in superoxide modulation. It was interesting to test if gene silencing of UCP2 accentuated the effects of Berberine on AMPK. BAEC were transfected with UCP2 siRNA or control siRNA. As depicted in Fig. 4E and 4F, gene silencing of UCP2 increased the phosphorylation of AMPK at Thr172. Importantly, transfection of UCP2-specific siRNA but not control siRNA, accentuated the effects of Berberine on AMPK phosphorylation at Thr172 (Figure 4E and 4F). Conversely, adenoviral overexpression of UCP-2 accentuated Berberine-enhanced AMPK phosphorylation at Thr172 in EC (Figure 4G). Taken together, these results support a role of mitochondrial superoxide in the effects of Berberine on AMPK.

Berberine fails to activate AMPK in mitochondria-deleted \(\rho^0\)-BAEC

To further confirm if mitochondrial superoxide was required for these Berberine-induced effects, we created BAEC without functional mitochondria (\(\rho^0\) cells). After BAEC were incubated with mitochondria deleting conditional medium for 3 weeks, BAEC dramatically reduced the expression of cytochrome c oxidase subunit II at the mRNA levels detected by RT-PCR (Fig. 5A), confirming a deficiency of mitochondria in \(\rho^0\) BAEC. Subsequently we tested if Berberine increases intracellular superoxide in \(\rho^0\)-BAEC. We confirmed our expectation in the demonstration that Berberine did increase superoxide production in wild-type BAEC, but failed to do so in mitochondria-deleted \(\rho^0\)-BAEC, as assayed by DHE staining (Figure 5B). Further, as predicted, Berberine also increased the phosphorylation of AMPK at Thr172 and ACC at Ser79 in BAEC. However, it failed to increase AMPK phosphorylation in \(\rho^0\)-BAEC (Fig. 5C and D).

It was provocative to determine if AMPK in \(\rho^0\) BAEC could be activated by exogenous ONOO\textsuperscript{−}. Both BAEC and \(\rho^0\) BAEC were therefore exposed to chemically synthesized ONOO\textsuperscript{−} (50 \(\mu\)M) for 5 min. Figure 5C show that ONOO\textsuperscript{−} caused activation of AMPK in both BAEC and \(\rho^0\) BAEC to a similar degree, suggesting that the response to ONOO\textsuperscript{−} in \(\rho^0\) BAEC remained unchanged compared to BAEC. Thus, the decrease of AMPK activation in \(\rho^0\)
BAEC is likely due to its attenuation of ONOO\(^{-}\) production in p\(^{-}\) BAEC in response to Berberine.

Exogenous ONOO\(^{-}\) inhibits AMPK activity \textit{in vitro}

To exclude a direct effect of ONOO\(^{-}\) on AMPK, recombinant AMPK was exposed to chemically synthesized ONOO\(^{-}\) \textit{in vitro}. After the treatment, AMPK activity was assayed. Unexpectedly, ONOO\(^{-}\) caused a dose-dependent inhibition of AMPK activity, suggesting a direct inhibitory effect of ONOO\(^{-}\) on AMPK (Figure 6A). This suggests that ONOO\(^{-}\) might exert opposite effects on AMPK activity, i.e., AMPK activation via upstream enzymes and AMPK suppression via an unknown posttranslational modification by ONOO\(^{-}\).

PP2A is not required for Berberine-induced AMPK activation

PP2A is reported to regulate AMPK activation [34]. We next determined if PP2A inhibition with pharmacological or genetic means altered Berberine-induced AMPK phosphorylation. As depicted in Figure 3B, OA pretreatment had no effect on Berberine-induced phosphorylation of AMPK-Thr172 and ACC at Ser79. Concomitantly, transfection of PP2A siRNA didn’t attenuate the phosphorylation of AMPK or ACC, suggesting that the effect of Berberine was PP2A independent.

STO609 treatment does not alter Berberine-enhanced phosphorylation of AMPK and ACC in EC

Calcium calmodulin protein kinase II (CaMKK II) is reported to be an upstream kinase for nitric oxide-induced AMPK activation [35]. We next assayed the contribution of CaMKKII in berberine-induced AMPK activation. As shown in Figure 6D, pretreatment of STO-609 (100 nM) had no effect on Berberine-enhanced AMPK phosphorylation in EC.

Berberine increases LKB1 phosphorylation at Serine 307 in EC

LKB1 is a known upstream kinase of AMPK. Phosphorylation of Ser307 is reported for metformin-induced AMPK activation in endothelial cells [36]. Thus, we next determined if Berberine altered LKB1 phosphorylation at Serine 307. As shown in Figure 6E, Berberine markedly increased the detection of LKB1 phosphorylation at Serine 307 (Figure 6E), which was paralleled with increased AMPK phosphorylation at Thr172 (Figure 6E). Further, transfection of LKB1 siRNA abolished Berberine-enhanced AMPK phosphorylation in EC (Figure 6F). Finally, Berberine had no effects on AMPK Thr172 phosphorylation in LKB1 deficient A549 cells (Figure 6G). Taken together, our results imply that LKB1 was required for Berberine-induced AMPK phosphorylation.

Discussion

In this study, we observed that mitochondria derived superoxide and peroxynitrite are required for Berberine-induced AMPK activation (Fig. 6). The key evidence can be summarized as follows: (1) Exposure of BAEC to Berberine at the dose required for AMPK-Thr172 phosphorylation significantly increased intracellular O\(_2^\circ\) and ONOO\(^{-}\) production. Although Berberine increased intracellular AMP/ATP ratio after 1 h of incubation, intracellular O\(_2^\circ\) and ONOO\(^{-}\) production was increased at about 30 min incubation, suggesting that this time frame adequately allows oxygen and nitrogen species to initiate AMPK activation. (2) Inhibition of ONOO\(^{-}\) formation by overexpression of SOD1

**Figure 5.** Mitochondria depletion abolishes Berberine-induced AMPK phosphorylation in endothelial cells. Confluent monolayers of BAEC were incubated in EGM with 2% fetal bovine serum alone or in p\(^{-}\) medium as described in “Materials and Methods.” A, After incubation, BAEC were harvested, total RNA were extracted, and mRNA for cytochrome c oxidase subunit II (CytOxII) were estimated by RT-PCR. Data are representative of three independent experiments. B, BAEC and p\(^{-}\) cells were treated with Berberine (10 \(\mu\)M) for 30 min; the production of ROS was detected by DHE/HPLC assay. C & D: Effects of mitochondria depletion on AMPK-Thr172 phosphorylation caused by Berberine and ONOO\(^{-}\). BAEC and p\(^{-}\) cells were treated with Berberine (10 \(\mu\)M) for 2 h or ONOO\(^{-}\) (50 \(\mu\)M) for 15 min, after treatment, cells were lysed and proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and Western blots. \(n = 3 \quad * p<0.05\), control versus Berberine-treated.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0015420.g005
(to scavenge $O_2^-$), or incubation with L-NAME (to prevent NO production), attenuated Berberine-induced AMPK phosphorylation. (3) When BAEC were pre-treated with uric acid (an ONOO$^-$ scavenger), the AMPK phosphorylation induced by Berberine was abolished. (4) Exposure of BAEC to mitochondrial tempol (which blocks $O_2^-$ release from mitochondria), also blocked Berberine-induced AMPK phosphorylation. In contrast, incubation with allopurinol, oxypurinol or overexpression with adenovirus encoding p47phox-DN, did not alter Berberine induced AMPK activation. These results suggest that mitochondria, rather than xanthine oxidase or NADPH oxidase, were the major source of superoxide in cells exposed to Berberine. (5) When using UCP2 siRNA to knock down the expression of UCP2 (which uncouples mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation from ATP production), Berberine-induced AMPK phosphorylation was further enhanced. (6) These results were further corroborated by the findings in $p^{-}$-BAEC lacking functional mitochondria. Exposure of $p^{-}$-BAEC to Berberine neither enhanced intracellular superoxide release nor AMPK phosphorylation. Cumulatively these results indicate that activation of AMPK by Berberine is mitochondrial superoxide dependent.

Another important finding in this study is that the phosphorylation of LKB1 at S307 is involved in LKB1-mediated AMPK activation induced by berberine. Our published study [36] has reported that in multiple cell types the signaling pathways engaged by several physiological stimuli converge upon LKB1 phosphorylation at S307, which directs the nucleocytoplasmatic transport of LKB1 and consequent AMPK activation. However, further investigation of LKB1 Ser307 phosphorylation is warranted.

The traditional view has been that ROS exert toxic effects by damaging or killing cells under pathophysiological conditions. However, growing experimental evidence now suggests that ROS such as ONOO$^-$ are required in some physiological processes as well [25]. It is conceivable that sub-toxic concentrations of ROS/
Recently, it has also been reported that Berberine effects observed in therapy using metformin and the statin drugs work from our laboratory has demonstrated that complex I other pharmacological properties remains unknown. Previous complex I is involved in its anti-microbial, anti-arrhythmic or mitochondrial component [43]. Whether the mitochondrial the adenine nucleotide translocator, (ANT) [41,42]. The anti-tu-

and decrease calcium loading capacity through induction of the mitochondrial permeability transition (MPT) via interactions with the adenine nucleotide translocator, (ANT) [41,42]. The antitu-

or its derived oxidant, ONOO

In summary, we demonstrate for the first time that Berberine increases mitochondria-derived superoxide and peroxynitrite to activate AMPK. Activation of AMPK by Berberine can potentially expand the pharmaceutical role of the compound in the management of several diverse yet intertwined human pathologies.

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