

openheart Astaxanthin plus berberine: a nutraceutical strategy for replicating the benefits of a metformin/fibrate regimen in metabolic syndrome

James J DiNicolantonio,¹ Mark McCarty,² James O'Keefe³

To cite: DiNicolantonio JJ, McCarty M, O'Keefe J. Astaxanthin plus berberine: a nutraceutical strategy for replicating the benefits of a metformin/fibrate regimen in metabolic syndrome. *Open Heart* 2019;**6**:e000977. doi:10.1136/openhrt-2018-000977

Accepted 4 July 2019



© Author(s) (or their employer(s)) 2019. Re-use permitted under CC BY-NC. No commercial re-use. See rights and permissions. Published by BMJ.

¹Department of Preventive Cardiology, Mid America Heart Institute, Kansas City, Kansas, USA

²Catalytic Longevity, Encinitas, California, USA

³Saint Luke's Mid America Heart Institute, University of Missouri-Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri, USA

Correspondence to

Dr James J DiNicolantonio; jdinicol@gmail.com

BERBERINE IS A NUTRACEUTICAL ACTIVATOR OF AMP-ACTIVATED KINASE

The phytochemical berberine, a constituent of certain herbs used in traditional Chinese medicine, has long been in use in China as a well-documented therapy for type 2 diabetes.^{1,2} Mechanistic studies demonstrates that, like metformin, it activates AMP-activated kinase (AMPK); this is thought to be the chief basis of its utility in diabetes.^{3–5} The typical therapeutic regimen is 500 mg two or three times per day, or 850 mg two times per day. The most common side effect is constipation, which tends to remit during continuing treatment.⁶ Unlike metformin, however, berberine upregulates the hepatic expression of LDL receptors, through a mechanism that is complementary to that of statins or red yeast rice (RYR); whereas statins increase transcription of the gene coding for LDL receptors, berberine increases the half-life of LDL receptor mRNA.⁷ Hence, the combination of berberine plus RYR—a natural low-potency source of monacolin K (lovastatin) and other monacolins that has moderate hypocholesterolaemic activity in a standardised dose that is well tolerated in most patients who don't tolerate pharmaceutical statins^{8–10}—has been recommended as a nutraceutical alternative to pharmaceuticals in the management of hypercholesterolaemia.¹¹

THE CAROTENOID ASTAXANTHIN CAN ACT AS A PPAR α AGONIST

The natural carotenoid astaxanthin is extraordinarily effective—more so than tocopherols—for conferring radical-scavenging antioxidant protection to biological membranes.¹² It may be particularly beneficial for blunting the feedforward loop whereby mitochondria subjected to oxidative stress—as during ischaemia-reperfusion

injury—become greater sources of oxidants owing to damage to their respiratory chains.¹³ However, in both clinical and rodent studies, oral astaxanthin has ameliorated the dyslipidaemia and hepatic steatosis associated with metabolic syndrome, suggesting that it has an additional target of action.^{14–18} Indeed, there is recent evidence that, in concentrations that can be achieved through oral administration at practical doses, astaxanthin can act as a PPAR α agonist.^{19,20} In other words, astaxanthin has the potential to replicate the activity of PPAR α agonist drugs, such as the fibrates, which are known to decrease risk for cardiovascular events in patients with metabolic syndrome.^{21,22} In a recent placebo-controlled trial enrolling patients with type 2 diabetes, astaxanthin (8 mg daily for 8 weeks) achieved significant reductions in serum triglycerides (156→128 mg/dL), serum fructosamine (7.4→5.8 μ mol/L) and systolic blood pressure (143→132 mm Hg), while significantly elevating adiponectin (36→47 μ g/mL); these parameters all worsened non-significantly in the placebo group.²³

AMPK AND PPAR α AGONISTS REINFORCE EACH OTHER'S UTILITY IN METABOLIC SYNDROME

The combination of metformin and fenofibrate has been studied in patients with type 2 diabetes and metabolic syndrome, and has been found more effective for improving lipid profiles and aiding glycaemic control than either agent alone.^{24,25} This likely reflects the fact that AMPK and PPAR α interact in mutually complementary ways to promote efficient mitochondrial oxidation of fatty acids, thereby lessening hepatic triglyceride synthesis and decreasing the exposure of tissues to ectopic fat.

The transcription factor PPAR α , after forming a heterodimer with the retinoid

X receptor, stimulates the transcription of genes which promote mitochondrial oxidation of fatty acids and ketogenesis, including carnitine palmitoyl transferases (CPT) 1a and 2, acyl-coenzyme A oxidase and uncoupling protein 2. The favourable impact of PPAR α agonists on human HDL levels reflects the induction of apolipoproteins A-I and A-II—an effect not observed in rodents.^{26 27} PPAR α also stimulates hepatic production of fibroblast growth factor 21 (FGF21), a ‘pro-longevity’ hormone which acts on adipocytes to boost their production of adiponectin; the latter, in turn, acts on hepatocytes and other tissues to stimulate AMPK activity.^{28–38}

Although there is no evidence that AMPK directly phosphorylates PPAR α to influence its transcriptional activity, AMPK acts to increase both the expression and activity of PPAR γ coactivator-1a (PGC-1a), which serves as a coactivator for PPAR α as well as for several other transcription factors that promote mitochondrial biogenesis.^{39–43} Also, in some cellular contexts, AMPK boosts the expression of PPAR α , likely by promoting nuclear translocation of transcription factor EB, a master regulator of autophagy and lysosomal activity; this effect might also be partially attributable to enhanced PGC-1 α activity, as PPAR α acts to drive transcription of its own gene.^{44–49} Importantly, AMPK complements PPAR α impact on mitochondrial fatty acid oxidation by lowering cytoplasmic levels of malonyl-coenzymeA, an allosteric inhibitor of CPT-1a; it does so by conferring inhibitory phosphorylation on acetyl-coenzymeA carboxylase, and activating phosphorylation on malonyl-coenzymeA decarboxylase,^{50 51} and AMPK decreases hepatic triglyceride synthesis both by directing free fatty acids towards mitochondrial oxidation, as well as by suppressing the activity of rate-limiting enzyme for triglyceride synthesis, glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase.⁵² Concurrently, AMPK inhibits hepatic

gluconeogenesis, an effect in large part responsible for the favourable impact of AMPK agonists on glycaemic control in diabetics; a rate-limiting enzyme for gluconeogenesis, fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase, has recently been identified as AMPK’s target in this regard.^{53 54} While, as noted, PPAR α activation in the liver can boost AMPK activity systemically via induced production of FGF21 and adiponectin, it also enhances AMPK activation in hepatocytes and endothelium by promoting cytoplasmic translocation and subsequent activation of LKB1, an upstream activating kinase for AMPK.^{55 56} These reinforcing interactions are depicted in figure 1.

Hence, since AMPK and PPAR α complement each other’s activity in multiple ways, the clinical complementarity of metformin and fibrates is predictable.

PROPOSAL: ASTAXANTHIN PLUS BERBERINE FOR CONTROL OF METABOLIC SYNDROME

We propose that a nutraceutical regimen of berberine plus astaxanthin has the potential of replicating the utility of metformin+fenofibrate for improving the hyperlipidaemia and impaired glycaemic control that characterise metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes. Moreover, adding RYR to this regimen would be expected to provide additional control of LDL cholesterol. A regimen of berberine/RYR/astaxanthin might constitute a safe and usually well-tolerated strategy for optimising lipid profiles in patients in whom triglycerides and LDL cholesterol are both elevated, and HDL cholesterol depressed. Krill oil rich in astaxanthin (1 mg or more per gram) could be employed as an astaxanthin source, as this provides an esterified form of this carotenoid that has superior bioavailability, as well as health-protective omega-3 fatty acids, oxidised metabolites of which likewise act as PPAR α

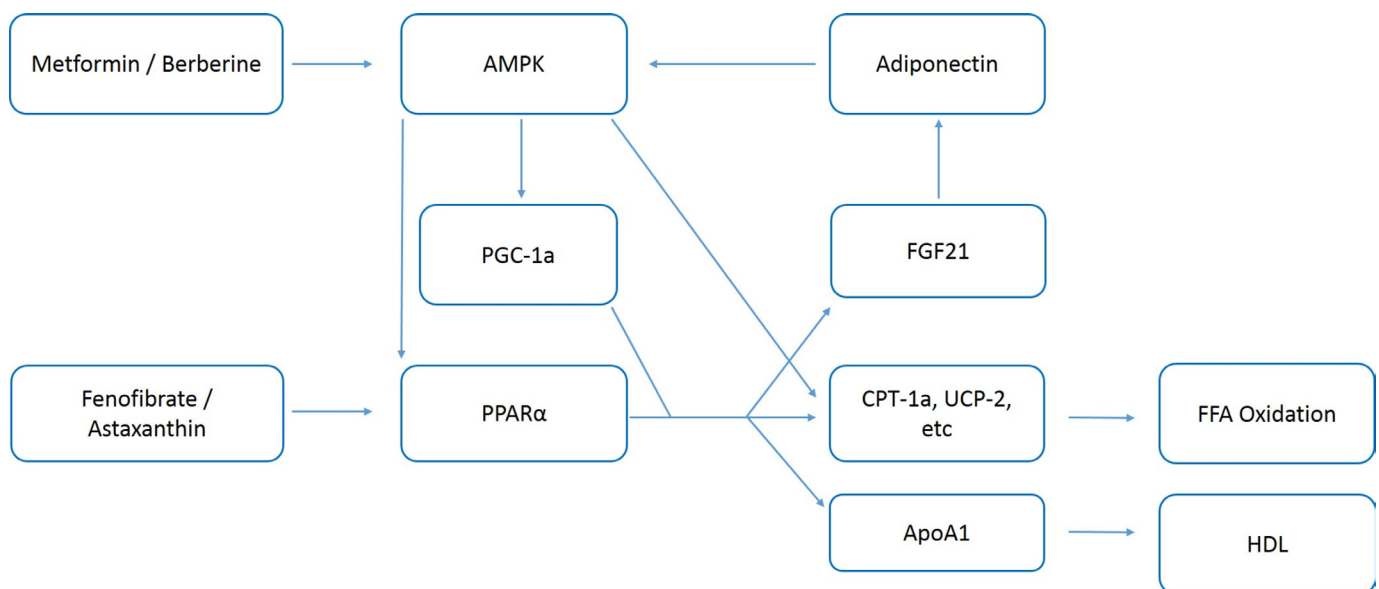


Figure 1 Legend interactions of AMPK and PPAR α in promoting fatty acid oxidation and HDL production. Arrows reflect induction and/or activation. AMPK, AMP-activated kinase; CPT-1a, carnitine palmitoyl transferases-1a; FGF21, fibroblast growth factor 21; PGC-1a, PPAR γ coactivator-1a; UCP-2, uncoupling protein-2.

agonists.^{57–60} Meta-analysis confirms the utility of krill oil supplementation for improving serum lipid profile.⁶¹ Its efficacy with respect to modulating serum lipids, glucose and C reactive protein appears to be superior to that of fish oil.^{62–63} The possibility of incorporating astaxanthin into hypolipidaemic nutraceutical regimens incorporating RYR, berberine and other agents was presciently envisioned by Cicero *et al* over a decade ago.⁶⁴

Contributors All the authors contributed to the final manuscript.

Funding The authors have not declared a specific grant for this research from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-for-profit sectors.

Competing interests JJD is the author of The Salt Fix and Superfuel. MM: Owner and science director of NutriGuard Research, a nutraceutical company which, among other things, sells berberine and astaxanthin supplements. JO: Chief medical officer and founder of CardioTabs, a nutraceutical company, has a major ownership interest in the company.

Patient consent for publication Not required.

Provenance and peer review Not commissioned; internally peer reviewed.

Data availability statement No additional data are available.

Open access This is an open access article distributed in accordance with the Creative Commons Attribution Non Commercial (CC BY-NC 4.0) license, which permits others to distribute, remix, adapt, build upon this work non-commercially, and license their derivative works on different terms, provided the original work is properly cited, appropriate credit is given, any changes made indicated, and the use is non-commercial. See: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>.

REFERENCES

- Dong H, Wang N, Zhao L, *et al*. Berberine in the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus: a systemic review and meta-analysis. *Evid Based Complement Alternat Med* 2012;2012:1–12.
- Lan J, Zhao Y, Dong F, *et al*. Meta-Analysis of the effect and safety of berberine in the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus, hyperlipemia and hypertension. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2015;161:69–81.
- Lee YS, Kim WS, Kim KH, *et al*. Berberine, a natural plant product, activates AMP-activated protein kinase with beneficial metabolic effects in diabetic and insulin-resistant states. *Diabetes* 2006;55:2256–64.
- Turner N, Li J-Y, Gosby A, *et al*. Berberine and its more biologically available derivative, dihydroberberine, inhibit mitochondrial respiratory complex I: a mechanism for the action of berberine to activate AMP-activated protein kinase and improve insulin action. *Diabetes* 2008;57:1414–8.
- Hawley SA, Ross FA, Chevztzoff C, *et al*. Use of cells expressing γ subunit variants to identify diverse mechanisms of AMPK activation. *Cell Metab* 2010;11:554–65.
- Zhang Y, Li X, Zou D, *et al*. Treatment of type 2 diabetes and dyslipidemia with the natural plant alkaloid berberine. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2008;93:2559–65.
- Kong W, Wei J, Abidi P, *et al*. Berberine is a novel cholesterol-lowering drug working through a unique mechanism distinct from statins. *Nat Med* 2004;10:1344–51.
- Lu Z, Kou W, Du B, *et al*. Effect of Xuezhikang, an extract from red yeast Chinese rice, on coronary events in a Chinese population with previous myocardial infarction. *Am J Cardiol* 2008;101:1689–93.
- Becker DJ, Gordon RY, Halbert SC. Red yeast rice for dyslipidemia in Statin-intolerant patients. *Ann Intern Med* 2009;150:830–9.
- Venero CV, Venero JV, Wortham DC, *et al*. Lipid-Lowering efficacy of red yeast rice in a population intolerant to statins. *Am J Cardiol* 2010;105:664–6.
- McCarty MF, O'Keefe JH, DiNicolantonio JJ. Red yeast rice plus berberine: practical strategy for promoting vascular and metabolic health. *Altern Ther Health Med* 2015;21(Suppl 2):40–5.
- Kurashige M, Okimasu E, Inoue M, *et al*. Inhibition of oxidative injury of biological membranes by astaxanthin. *Physiol Chem Phys Med NMR* 1990;22:27–38.
- Zhang Z-W, Xu X-C, Liu T, *et al*. Mitochondrion-Permeable antioxidants to treat ROS-Burst-Mediated acute diseases. *Oxid Med Cell Longev* 2016;2016:1–10.
- Hussein G, Nakagawa T, Goto H, *et al*. Astaxanthin ameliorates features of metabolic syndrome in SHR/NDmcr-cp. *Life Sci* 2007;80:522–9.
- Ikeuchi M, Koyama T, Takahashi J, *et al*. Effects of astaxanthin in obese mice fed a high-fat diet. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem* 2007;71:893–9.
- Yoshida H, Yanai H, Ito K, *et al*. Administration of natural astaxanthin increases serum HDL-cholesterol and adiponectin in subjects with mild hyperlipidemia. *Atherosclerosis* 2010;209:520–3.
- Choi HD, Youn YK, Shin WG. Positive effects of astaxanthin on lipid profiles and oxidative stress in overweight subjects. *Plant Foods Hum Nutr* 2011;66:363–9.
- Yang Y, Pham TX, Wegner CJ, *et al*. Astaxanthin lowers plasma tag concentrations and increases hepatic antioxidant gene expression in diet-induced obesity mice. *Br J Nutr* 2014;112:1797–804.
- Jia Y, Kim J-Y, Jun H-J, *et al*. The natural carotenoid astaxanthin, a PPAR- α agonist and PPAR- γ antagonist, reduces hepatic lipid accumulation by rewiring the transcriptome in lipid-loaded hepatocytes. *Mol Nutr Food Res* 2012;56:878–88.
- Jia Y, Wu C, Kim J, *et al*. Astaxanthin reduces hepatic lipid accumulations in high-fat-fed C57BL/6J mice via activation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) alpha and inhibition of PPAR gamma and Akt. *J Nutr Biochem* 2016;28:9–18.
- Tenenbaum A, Fisman EZ. Fibrates are an essential part of modern anti-dyslipidemic arsenal: spotlight on atherogenic dyslipidemia and residual risk reduction. *Cardiovasc Diabetol* 2012;11:125.
- Botta M, Audano M, Sahebkar A, *et al*. Ppar agonists and metabolic syndrome: an established role? *Int J Mol Sci* 2018;19:1197.
- Mashhadi NS, Zakerkish M, Mohammadiasl J, *et al*. Astaxanthin improves glucose metabolism and reduces blood pressure in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr* 2018;27:341–6.
- Nieuwdorp M, Stroes ESG, Kastelein JJP, *et al*. Normalization of metabolic syndrome using fenofibrate, metformin or their combination. *Diabetes Obes Metab* 2007;9:869–78.
- XM L, Li Y, Zhang NN, *et al*. Combination therapy with metformin and fenofibrate for insulin resistance in obesity. *J Int Med Res* 2011;39:1876–82.
- Staels B, Auwerx J. Regulation of apo A-I gene expression by fibrates. *Atherosclerosis* 1998;137(Suppl):S19–S23.
- Vu-Dac N, Schoonjans K, Kosykh V, *et al*. Fibrates increase human apolipoprotein A-II expression through activation of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor. *J Clin Invest* 1995;96:741–50.
- Inagaki T, Dutchak P, Zhao G, *et al*. Endocrine regulation of the fasting response by PPAR α -Mediated induction of fibroblast growth factor 21. *Cell Metab* 2007;5:415–25.
- Badman MK, Pissios P, Kennedy AR, *et al*. Hepatic fibroblast growth factor 21 is regulated by PPAR α and is a key mediator of hepatic lipid metabolism in ketotic states. *Cell Metab* 2007;5:426–37.
- Lundåsen T, Hunt MC, Nilsson L-M, *et al*. Ppar α is a key regulator of hepatic FGF21. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2007;360:437–40.
- Zhang Y, Xie Y, Berglund ED, *et al*. The starvation hormone, fibroblast growth factor-21, extends lifespan in mice. *eLife* 2012;1:e00065.
- Mendelsohn AR, Larrick JW. Fibroblast growth factor-21 is a promising dietary restriction mimetic. *Rejuvenation Res* 2012;15:624–8.
- Lin Z, Tian H, Lam KSL, *et al*. Adiponectin mediates the metabolic effects of FGF21 on glucose homeostasis and insulin sensitivity in mice. *Cell Metab* 2013;17:779–89.
- Hui X, Feng T, Liu Q, *et al*. The FGF21-adiponectin axis in controlling energy and vascular homeostasis. *J Mol Cell Biol* 2016;8:110–9.
- Yamauchi T, Kamon J, Minokoshi Y, *et al*. Adiponectin stimulates glucose utilization and fatty-acid oxidation by activating AMP-activated protein kinase. *Nat Med* 2002;8:1288–95.
- Tomas E, Tsao T-S, Saha AK, *et al*. Enhanced muscle fat oxidation and glucose transport by Acpr30 globular domain: acetyl-CoA carboxylase inhibition and AMP-activated protein kinase activation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2002;99:16309–13.
- Wu X, Motoshima H, Mahadev K, *et al*. Involvement of AMP-activated protein kinase in glucose uptake stimulated by the globular domain of adiponectin in primary rat adipocytes. *Diabetes* 2003;52:1355–63.
- Ong KL, Rye K-A, O'Connell R, *et al*. Long-Term fenofibrate therapy increases fibroblast growth factor 21 and retinol-binding protein 4 in subjects with type 2 diabetes. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2012;97:4701–8.
- Vega RB, Huss JM, Kelly DP. The coactivator PGC-1 cooperates with peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha in transcriptional control of nuclear genes encoding mitochondrial fatty acid oxidation enzymes. *Mol Cell Biol* 2000;20:1868–76.
- Duncan JG, Finck BN. The PPARalpha-PGC-1alpha axis controls cardiac energy metabolism in healthy and diseased myocardium. *PPAR Res* 2008;2008.

41. Fernandez-Marcos PJ, Auwerx J. Regulation of PGC-1 α , a nodal regulator of mitochondrial biogenesis. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2011;93:884S–90.
42. Suwa M, Nakano H, Kumagai S. Effects of chronic AICAR treatment on fiber composition, enzyme activity, UCP3, and PGC-1 in rat muscles. *J Appl Physiol* 2003;95:960–8.
43. Irrcher I, Ljubcic V, Kirwan AF, et al. Amp-Activated protein kinase-regulated activation of the PGC-1 α promoter in skeletal muscle cells. *PLoS One* 2008;3:e3614.
44. Settembre C, De Cegli R, Mansueto G, et al. Tfeb controls cellular lipid metabolism through a starvation-induced autoregulatory loop. *Nat Cell Biol* 2013;15:647–58.
45. Lee WJ, Kim M, Park H-S, et al. Ampk activation increases fatty acid oxidation in skeletal muscle by activating PPAR α and PGC-1. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2006;340:291–5.
46. Joly E, Roduit R, Peyot ML, et al. Glucose represses PPAR α gene expression via AMP-activated protein kinase but not via p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase in the pancreatic β -cell. *J Diabetes* 2009;1:263–72.
47. Kondo T, Kishi M, Fushimi T, et al. Acetic acid upregulates the expression of genes for fatty acid oxidation enzymes in liver to suppress body fat accumulation. *J Agric Food Chem* 2009;57:5982–6.
48. Guo H, Sun S, Zhang X, et al. Ampk enhances the expression of pancreatic duodenal homeobox-1 via PPAR α , but not PPAR γ , in rat insulinoma cell line INS-1. *Acta Pharmacol Sin* 2010;31:963–9.
49. Pineda T, I, Jamshidi Y, Flavell DM, et al. Characterization of the human PPARalpha promoter: identification of a functional nuclear receptor response element. *Mol Endocrinol* 2002;16:1013–28.
50. Park H, Kaushik VK, Constant S, et al. Coordinate Regulation of Malonyl-CoA Decarboxylase, sn -Glycerol-3-phosphate Acyltransferase, and Acetyl-CoA Carboxylase by AMP-activated Protein Kinase in Rat Tissues in Response to Exercise. *J Biol Chem*. 2002;277:32571–7.
51. Ruderman NB, Park H, Kaushik VK, et al. Ampk as a metabolic switch in rat muscle, liver and adipose tissue after exercise. *Acta Physiol Scand* 2003;178:435–42.
52. Muoio DM, Seefeld K, Witters LA, et al. Amp-Activated kinase reciprocally regulates triacylglycerol synthesis and fatty acid oxidation in liver and muscle: evidence that sn-glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase is a novel target. *Biochem J*. 1999;338:783–91.
53. Correia S, Carvalho C, Santos M, et al. Mechanisms of action of metformin in type 2 diabetes and associated complications: an overview. *Mini Rev Med Chem* 2008;8:1343–54.
54. Hunter RW, Hughey CC, Lantier L, et al. Metformin reduces liver glucose production by inhibition of fructose-1-6-bisphosphatase. *Nat Med* 2018;24:1395–406.
55. Liangpunsakul S, Wou S-E, Wineinger KD, et al. Effects of Wy-14,643 on the phosphorylation and activation of AMP-dependent protein kinase. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 2009;485:10–15.
56. Xu N, Wang Q, Jiang S, et al. Fenofibrate improves vascular endothelial function and contractility in diabetic mice. *Redox Biol* 2019;20:87–97.
57. Takaichi S, Matsui K, Nakamura M, et al. Fatty acids of astaxanthin esters in krill determined by mild mass spectrometry. *Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem Mol Biol* 2003;136:317–22.
58. Aoi W, Maoka T, Abe R, et al. Comparison of the effect of non-esterified and esterified astaxanthins on endurance performance in mice. *J Clin Biochem Nutr* 2018;62:161–6.
59. Sethi S, Ziouzenkova O, Ni H. Oxidized omega-3 fatty acids in fish oil inhibit leukocyte-endothelial interactions through activation of PPARalpha. *Blood* 2002;100:1340–6.
60. Mishra A, Chaudhary A, Sethi S. Oxidized omega-3 fatty acids inhibit NF- κ B activation via a PPAR α -Dependent pathway. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 2004;24:1621–7.
61. Ursoniu S, Sahebkar A, Serban M-C, et al. Lipid-modifying effects of krill oil in humans: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Nutr Rev* 2017;75:361–73.
62. Cicero AFG, Rosticci M, Morbini M, et al. Lipid-Lowering and anti-inflammatory effects of omega 3 ethyl esters and krill oil: a randomized, cross-over, clinical trial. *Aoms* 2016;3:507–12.
63. Bunea R, FK E, Deutsch L. Evaluation of the effects of Neptune krill oil on the clinical course of hyperlipidemia. *Altern Med Rev* 2004;9:420–8.
64. Cicero AF, Rovati LC, Setnikar I. Eulipidemic effects of berberine administered alone or in combination with other natural cholesterol-lowering agents. A single-blind clinical investigation. *Arzneimittelforschung* 2007;57:26–30.