

Antioxidant Activity of AminoTriComplex (AminoSineTriComplex) and Reduction of Oxidative Stress During Induced Stress

Alexandre Tavartkiladze^{1,2,4*}, Gaiane Simonia^{1,2}, Russel J Reiter³, Ruite Lou⁴, Nana Okrostsvaridze², Dinara Kasradze², Pati Revazishvili^{1,2}, Givi Tavartkiladze² and Malvina Javakhadze²

¹Tbilisi State Medical University, Georgia.

²Institute for Personalized Medicine, Tbilisi, Georgia.

³Department of Cellular & Structural Biology, University of Texas, Health Science Center, San Antonio, USA.

⁴Foconsci Chemical Industry, Department of Biotechnology, China.

Corresponding Author: Alexandre Tavartkiladze, Tbilisi State Medical University, Georgia. Institute for Personalized Medicine, Tbilisi, Georgia. Foconsci Chemical Industry, Department of Biotechnology, China.

Received: 📅 2025 Jun 01

Accepted: 📅 2025 Jun 20

Published: 📅 2025 Jun 30

Abstract

Oxidative stress, defined as an imbalance between the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the body's inherent antioxidant defense mechanisms, is increasingly recognized as a pivotal contributor to the pathogenesis of numerous chronic diseases, including type 2 diabetes, cancer, essential hypertension, neurodegenerative disorders, and chronic fatigue syndrome [1-3]. Mitochondrial dysfunction, frequently observed under conditions of heightened oxidative stress, is a critical factor that exacerbates cellular damage through impaired energy production and escalated ROS generation [4,5]. Consequently, developing interventions aimed at preserving mitochondrial function and bolstering antioxidant capacities remains a primary focus in mitigating oxidative stress-related pathophysiological processes.

Natural compounds derived from medicinal plants have garnered extensive attention as therapeutic agents for oxidative stress-mediated conditions, largely due to their potent antioxidant effects and favorable safety profiles [6]. AminoTriComplex (AminoSineTriComplex) is a novel, multi-targeted formulation composed of bioactive compounds—such as epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG), resveratrol, and berberine—that exhibit free radical scavenging properties and modulate critical intracellular signaling cascades [7,13-15]. Prior investigations have suggested the efficacy of AminoTriComplex in multimodal tumor management, wherein it concurrently targeted inflammatory pathways and cancer-related signaling mechanisms [7]. However, its capacity to alleviate oxidative damage and preserve mitochondrial function has not been thoroughly explored, prompting the present study's focus on evaluating AminoTriComplex in an established model of induced oxidative stress in Wistar rats.

To investigate the antioxidant and mitochondrial-protective activities of AminoTriComplex, we employed a classic carbon tetrachloride (CCL₄) model of oxidative stress [8]. Male Wistar rats were randomly allocated into four groups: control, oxidative stress (OS), OS + AminoTriComplex (AT), and AT alone. Oxidative stress was initiated by a single intraperitoneal injection of CCL₄, whereas the control and AT-alone groups received vehicle treatments. AminoTriComplex (75 mg/kg) was administered orally for 14 days in both the OS+AT and AT-alone groups, with vehicle serving as a control. Following the treatment period, liver samples were harvested and assayed for well-established oxidative stress markers, including malondialdehyde (MDA) levels (measured via the thiobarbituric acid reactive substances assay [9]), reduced glutathione (GSH) content (determined with Ellman's reagent [10]), and the activities of two principal antioxidant enzymes: superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT) [6]. Mitochondrial function was evaluated through the measurement of state 3 and state 4 respiration rates in isolated liver mitochondria using a Clark-type oxygen electrode, thus enabling calculation of the respiratory control ratio (RCR) [11,12]. Our findings revealed that CCL₄ administration caused a significant rise in MDA levels, indicative of heightened lipid peroxidation, and a concomitant reduction in GSH content, SOD activity, and CAT activity in the OS group relative to controls. These alterations underscored a pronounced oxidative challenge, as previously reported in other CCL₄-induced models [8]. Notably, treatment with AminoTriComplex markedly attenuated these disturbances. Specifically, MDA levels were substantially lowered, and the antioxidative milieu—evidenced by elevated GSH content alongside increased SOD and CAT activities—was effectively restored to near-control levels in the OS+AT group. Furthermore, mitochondria isolated from rats receiving AminoTriComplex exhibited improved oxidative phosphorylation, as signified by higher state 3 respiration rates and RCR values. These results highlight AminoTriComplex's critical role in preserving mitochondrial integrity and reducing ROS-mediated damage, supporting previous

observations that implicate coordinated pathways (e.g., PI3K/AKT/mTOR and AMPK) in sustaining mitochondrial biogenesis and function [16].

Taken together, our data illustrate that AminoTriComplex offers significant protection against CCL₄-induced oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction in Wistar rats. By effectively normalizing lipid peroxidation markers, bolstering antioxidant defenses, and enhancing mitochondrial respiration, AminoTriComplex underscores a potentially broad therapeutic scope in addressing oxidative stress-mediated diseases. Given the multifactorial nature of conditions such as cancer, metabolic disorders, and neurodegenerative diseases [2,3,5], a multi-targeted intervention like AminoTriComplex could provide synergistic benefits in preventing or attenuating the debilitating effects of prolonged oxidative insult. Future work should seek to delineate the precise molecular mechanisms by which AminoTriComplex modulates mitochondrial biogenesis, antioxidant enzyme expression, and signaling networks integral to cellular homeostasis. In addition, clinical investigations are warranted to optimize dosing regimens, ascertain long-term safety profiles, and confirm the translational potential of this promising natural compound for human applications in mitigating oxidative damage and preserving mitochondrial health.

Keywords: Antioxidant, AminoTriComplex, Oxidative Stress, Essential Hypertension, Polyphenols

1. Introduction

Oxidative stress has progressively emerged as a critical determinant in the initiation and progression of a wide spectrum of chronic diseases, including but not limited to type 2 diabetes, cancer, essential hypertension, neurodegenerative disorders, and chronic fatigue syndrome [1–3]. In its most fundamental definition, oxidative stress refers to an imbalance between the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the efficacy of endogenous antioxidant mechanisms that neutralize or mitigate these highly reactive molecules. This imbalance triggers a cascade of deleterious events encompassing protein denaturation, lipid peroxidation, and DNA damage, culminating in impaired cellular function and tissue injury [1]. Given the pervasive nature of oxidative stress across organ systems, understanding its molecular underpinnings is crucial for designing effective therapeutic strategies aimed at curtailing the debilitating outcomes associated with chronic diseases.

1.1. The Scope and Significance of Oxidative Stress

The prevalence of oxidative stress is almost universal in biological systems, largely due to the indispensable role of oxygen in aerobic life [4]. Although oxygen is vital for mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation and ATP generation, partial reduction of oxygen can produce harmful intermediates such as superoxide anions ($O_2^{\cdot-}$), hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot OH$), and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) [1,4]. These ROS, under normal physiological conditions, are held in check by enzymatic antioxidants including superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), and non-enzymatic antioxidants like glutathione (GSH), vitamin C, and vitamin E [2]. However, any perturbation in the redox equilibrium—be it excessive ROS formation or a decline in antioxidant capacity—disrupts cellular homeostasis and paves the way for oxidative stress [1,3].

What makes oxidative stress particularly problematic is its self-perpetuating nature. Once ROS levels rise above a threshold, they damage critical biomolecules, which can lead to further mitochondrial dysfunction and additional ROS production [4,5]. This vicious cycle intensifies cellular injury, fostering an environment conducive to pathological changes. Extensive research has revealed that oxidative stress not

only underlies the pathology of advanced diseases but is also implicated in early disease onset, functioning as a catalyst for numerous biochemical aberrations [2,3,6]. Consequently, antioxidants that can halt or reverse these processes have become focal points of biomedical investigations.

1.2. Oxidative Stress in Chronic Diseases

• Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM)

Patients with T2DM frequently exhibit elevated markers of oxidative stress such as malondialdehyde (MDA) and reduced levels of GSH, which is one of the most crucial intracellular antioxidants [1]. Chronic hyperglycemia fosters excessive ROS generation via glucose auto-oxidation, activation of the polyol pathway, and advanced glycation end-product (AGE) formation [8]. These processes impair pancreatic β -cell function and reduce insulin sensitivity in peripheral tissues. Evidence points to a feedback loop in which hyperglycemia augments oxidative stress, and oxidative stress further exacerbates glycemic dysregulation [1,8,9]. The detrimental interplay of ROS and insulin resistance underscores the importance of antioxidants in T2DM management strategies.

• Cancer

Oxidative stress is a double-edged sword in cancer biology [3]. While low to moderate ROS levels can promote tumor cell proliferation, angiogenesis, and metastasis by activating redox-sensitive transcription factors such as NF- κ B, high ROS levels can induce cell death and limit tumor progression [2,10]. Cancer cells often adapt by upregulating their antioxidant systems to maintain redox balance conducive to their survival and uncontrolled growth [7]. For instance, increased expression of glutathione-S-transferase (GST) and other antioxidant enzymes is frequently observed in malignant cells [11]. Targeting this delicate redox balance in cancer cells has been proposed as a therapeutic approach—both by exacerbating ROS levels to induce cytotoxicity and by inhibiting excessive antioxidant defenses that confer chemoresistance [7,10,12].

• Essential Hypertension

A plethora of evidence has indicated that oxidative stress contributes to endothelial dysfunction, a hallmark of hyper-

tension [13]. Specifically, enhanced production of superoxide anions in vascular tissues leads to reduced nitric oxide (NO) bioavailability. NO is critical for vasodilation; therefore, a decrease in its levels fosters increased vascular resistance and elevated blood pressure [14]. Oxidative modifications of low-density lipoproteins (LDLs) also contribute to a pro-inflammatory state within vascular endothelium [13]. Over time, unmitigated oxidative stress in the vasculature contributes to atherogenesis, vascular remodeling, and the pathological progression of essential hypertension [15].

• Neurodegenerative Disorders

Diseases such as Parkinson's disease (PD), Alzheimer's disease (AD), and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) exhibit neuropathological features wherein ROS play a central role [3,5]. In AD, oxidative stress accelerates the aggregation of β -amyloid plaques, which in turn induce additional oxidative insults [5,16]. Similarly, in PD, the dysfunction of dopaminergic neurons is linked to excessive oxidative damage and compromised mitochondrial function [4,5]. Neurodegeneration often correlates with mitochondrial abnormalities, reinforcing that maintaining mitochondrial health is imperative for neuronal survival [16,17]. The central nervous system (CNS) is particularly vulnerable to oxidative stress due to its high oxygen demand and relatively limited antioxidant defenses [18]. This underscores the need for potent antioxidant therapies that can cross the blood-brain barrier and confer neuroprotection.

• Chronic Fatigue Syndrome (CFS)

Although its etiology remains multifactorial and somewhat contentious, oxidative stress has been identified as a key contributor in many patients diagnosed with CFS [19]. Mitochondrial dysfunction and ROS accumulation are often observed in muscle cells and immune cells of CFS patients, potentially explaining their profound fatigue and physical exhaustion [20]. Systemic oxidative damage can manifest as alterations in membrane fluidity and receptor function, further compromising energy metabolism and muscle contractility [1,19]. Accordingly, antioxidants and mitochondrial support therapies have been explored as interventions for alleviating CFS symptoms, though more extensive clinical trials are needed for definitive conclusions [20,21].

1.3. Mitochondria as the Focal Point of Oxidative Stress

Mitochondria, historically characterized as the "powerhouses of the cell," are both a critical site of ATP synthesis and a major source of ROS [4,5]. During aerobic respiration, electrons are transferred along the electron transport chain (ETC), culminating in the reduction of oxygen to water. However, a small fraction of electrons can prematurely leak from complexes I and III, forming superoxide anions [22]. Under physiological conditions, mitochondrial antioxidants such as manganese superoxide dismutase (MnSOD) rapidly convert superoxide to H_2O_2 , which can then be neutralized by glutathione peroxidases or catalase [23].

In circumstances where oxidative stress intensifies—due to environmental toxins, metabolic diseases, or genetic abnormalities—these regulatory systems become overwhelmed,

and excessive ROS leads to damage of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), proteins (including ETC components), and lipids of the mitochondrial membrane [4,24]. Damaged mitochondria are less efficient at producing ATP and often generate even more ROS, thus perpetuating the cycle of oxidative stress [25]. Moreover, mtDNA lacks histone protection and robust repair mechanisms compared to nuclear DNA, making it highly susceptible to oxidative lesions [5,24]. As a result, maintaining mitochondrial integrity is key not only for sustaining cellular energy needs but also for preventing the pathological sequelae of chronic oxidative stress. In addition to their well-known bioenergetic function, mitochondria also actively participate in regulating cell survival, apoptosis, and autophagy [16]. Perturbations in mitochondrial membrane potential, excessive ROS release, or the triggering of pro-apoptotic signals (e.g., cytochrome c release) can initiate programmed cell death pathways [26]. While controlled apoptosis is critical for normal tissue homeostasis, dysregulated apoptosis can contribute to neurodegeneration, muscle wasting, or ischemic tissue injury [5,27]. On the other hand, inadequate clearance of dysfunctional mitochondria via mitophagy can amplify ROS generation and exacerbate cellular damage [28]. Thus, therapies aimed at fortifying mitochondrial function—either by reducing ROS generation, enhancing antioxidant defense, or promoting healthy mitochondrial turnover—hold promise for mitigating oxidative stress and improving clinical outcomes in diverse diseases.

1.4. Therapeutic Strategies Targeting Oxidative Stress

Decades of research have yielded a multitude of strategies aimed at neutralizing ROS or enhancing endogenous antioxidant systems. Conventional antioxidants include enzymes (SOD mimetics) and small molecules (vitamins C and E, N-acetylcysteine, coenzyme Q10) [6,29]. While these interventions have yielded mixed results in clinical trials—often due to poor bioavailability, tissue specificity, or timing of administration—the fundamental concept of mitigating oxidative damage remains valid [30,31]. Furthermore, a deeper comprehension of redox biology has prompted exploration into more nuanced strategies, such as boosting natural cellular defenses (e.g., via transcription factor Nrf2 activation), modulating the balance of pro-oxidant and antioxidant enzyme expression, and targeting key redox-sensitive signaling pathways (e.g., NF- κ B, MAPK, and PI3K/AKT) [32,33]. In parallel, mitochondrial-targeted antioxidants, which specifically accumulate within the mitochondrial matrix, have gained attention [34]. Molecules like MitoQ, SkQ1, and other mitochondria-penetrating cations aim to shield the mitochondrial membrane and ETC complexes from excessive oxidative insult [34,35]. These specialized agents might offer greater efficacy than untargeted antioxidants because they address ROS production at its primary source. Nonetheless, clinical investigations are still ongoing, and the search for more cost-effective, multi-targeted therapies continues [36,37].

1.5. Natural Compounds: A Multi-Targeted Approach

Plant-derived bioactive agents—polyphenols, flavonoids, alkaloids, terpenoids—exhibit a vast array of antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties [6,29]. Their broad-spectrum activities often involve not just scavenging free radicals but

also modulating signaling cascades critical for cell survival, inflammation, and metabolism [6,38]. Such pleiotropic benefits make them appealing for chronic diseases characterized by intertwined inflammatory and oxidative stress components. Moreover, many natural compounds have relatively low toxicity profiles, making them safer for long-term use compared to synthetic agents with narrow therapeutic indices [39].

• Polyphenols

Polyphenols like curcumin, resveratrol, and epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG) have been extensively studied. Resveratrol, found primarily in grapes and berries, exerts antioxidant effects by upregulating endogenous antioxidants and activating Sirtuin 1 (SIRT1), a key sensor for cellular energy balance and aging [14,40]. EGCG, abundant in green tea, can scavenge free radicals and modulate mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), reducing inflammation and oxidative damage [13,15]. Curcumin, derived from turmeric, has been investigated for its ability to inhibit NF- κ B activation and disrupt ROS-mediated signal transduction pathways in various disease models [6,41].

• Alkaloids

Alkaloids such as berberine, found in plants like *Berberis vulgaris*, have garnered attention for their antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory, and antioxidant properties [15,42]. Berberine improves mitochondrial function by modulating AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), a crucial regulator of energy homeostasis [43]. These multifaceted actions underscore the capacity of plant-based alkaloids to address multiple nodes of pathology, which often converge on oxidative stress.

• Combination Formulations

Recognizing that chronic diseases often involve complex pathophysiological networks, researchers have increasingly explored combination therapies. Natural product formulations that harness synergistic or complementary interactions among multiple phytochemicals may confer enhanced efficacy by targeting diverse molecular pathways [44,45]. This is especially relevant in conditions such as cancer, metabolic syndrome, and neurodegeneration, where interplay among inflammatory, metabolic, and oxidative stress pathways is evident [38].

1.6. AminoTriComplex: A Novel Multi-Targeted Formulation

Against this backdrop of natural compounds as promising therapeutics, AminoTriComplex (also referred to as AminoSineTriComplex) has been introduced as a potent formulation composed of distinct bioactive constituents, including, but not limited to, EGCG, resveratrol, and berberine [7]. Each of these agents already enjoys substantial validation from preclinical and clinical studies for their antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and mitochondrial-protective roles [13–15]. However, their coordinated application in a singular, integrative formulation offers the possibility of simultaneous modulation of multiple signaling pathways, potentially producing greater therapeutic benefits than single-agent therapies [7,45]. The mechanistic rationale behind AminoTriComplex is robust. By virtue of incorporating EGCG, the formulation leverages an established free radical scavenger known to enhance antioxidant enzyme activities and potentially activate cytoprotective proteins [13].



Resveratrol, in turn, can potentiate mitochondrial biogenesis and protect cellular components from oxidative insults by activating SIRT1 and other longevity-related pathways [14]. Meanwhile, berberine's influence on AMPK helps optimize cellular energy usage and reduce mitochondrial ROS production under metabolic stress [15,42]. The synergy among these components, especially in an oxidative stress context, could bolster tissue defense mechanisms, curb ROS-mediated injury, and improve mitochondrial function, a critical element of long-term disease mitigation [7]. Recent evidence suggests that AminoTriComplex may serve as a multi-

targeted approach not only in cancer therapy but also in attenuating pathological processes linked to chronic inflammation and oxidative stress [7]. By aligning with the concept of polypharmacology—where a single therapeutic agent or formulation exerts multiple actions on different molecular targets—AminoTriComplex addresses the intricate crosstalk among various pathways that converge on oxidative stress [7,44,45]. Therefore, it stands as a compelling candidate for exploring its potential to ameliorate oxidative damage and safeguard mitochondrial function in diverse disease models.

1.7. Rationale for Studying AminoTriComplex in an Oxidative Stress Model

Given the paramount significance of oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction in the etiology of chronic diseases, a critical test for any antioxidant formulation is whether it can rectify or alleviate markers of oxidative damage in a well-established experimental model. Carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄)-induced oxidative stress is a classic, extensively employed model to investigate liver injury and systemic ROS production [8]. CCl₄ metabolism by cytochrome P450 enzymes generates trichloromethyl ($\cdot\text{CCl}_3$) and trichloromethyl peroxy radicals ($\cdot\text{CCl}_3\text{OO}^-$), which initiate lipid peroxidation and compromise cellular antioxidant defenses, culminating in marked oxidative damage [46]. The outcomes can be quantitatively measured via indicators such as MDA (a by-product of lipid peroxidation), GSH depletion, and decreased activities of SOD and CAT [8,9]. In parallel, mitochondrial function can be assessed by examining oxygen consumption rates and calculating the respiratory control ratio (RCR), thus providing a readout of mitochondrial integrity and efficiency [11,12].

Employing such a robust model allows for a precise evaluation of the efficacy of AminoTriComplex under conditions that closely mimic severe oxidative stress experienced in human pathologies like hepatic injury, metabolic dysfunction, and other systemic illnesses [8,47]. If AminoTriComplex effectively counters ROS formation, preserves intracellular antioxidants, and sustains mitochondrial ATP production, it could offer compelling evidence for its therapeutic potential across multiple disease domains. Furthermore, since oral administration is the most practical route for long-term prophylaxis or treatment, demonstrating bioavailability and functionality of AminoTriComplex when administered orally in animal models is an essential precursor to potential human trials [7].

1.8. Challenges and Considerations in Antioxidant Therapy

Despite the scientific rationale for antioxidant interventions, their translation from laboratory to clinic has encountered numerous hurdles. One major challenge lies in the complexity of redox biology. ROS are not exclusively detrimental; at physiological concentrations, they serve as secondary messengers in essential cell signaling pathways, including immune responses and cellular proliferation [2,48]. Therefore, broad-spectrum ROS scavenging can sometimes be counterproductive if it disrupts normal redox signaling. This nuance underscores the need for antioxidants that discriminate between detrimental, excessive ROS and the basal levels required for homeostasis [49]. Moreover, in clinical scenarios, timing of antioxidant administration, disease stage, and the severity of the oxidative insult can profoundly influence therapeutic outcomes [30,50]. In some cases, antioxidants may exhibit beneficial effects if administered early but show minimal or even adverse effects if introduced at later stages [51]. Dose optimization is equally pivotal: insufficient dosing may fail to mitigate oxidative stress, whereas over-supplementation can shift the redox balance too far, weakening the cell's own adaptive responses [49]. Meanwhile, differences in

absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME) characteristics of different antioxidant agents complicate the extrapolation of in vitro results to in vivo contexts [36,49]. Hence, integrating multi-targeted formulations with favorable pharmacokinetic profiles, like AminoTriComplex, might overcome some of these obstacles by fine-tuning therapeutic action at multiple levels within redox and inflammatory networks [7].

1.9. Emerging Frontiers in Oxidative Stress Research

Oxidative stress research is expanding in several directions, providing an increasingly sophisticated understanding of the interplay between redox biology, metabolism, and disease pathophysiology. For instance, advanced omics technologies—genomics, proteomics, metabolomics—are unveiling intricate biomarkers of oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction that were previously unrecognized [52,53]. This may lead to precision medicine approaches, where antioxidant therapies are tailored to a patient's specific redox profile, increasing the likelihood of therapeutic success and minimizing unwanted effects [54]. Nanotechnology-based delivery systems are also on the rise, offering the possibility of delivering antioxidants like EGCG, resveratrol, or berberine directly to the mitochondria or other targeted subcellular compartments [55,56]. Such strategies might boost the potency of natural compounds by safeguarding them from degradation, improving their solubility, and facilitating their uptake into cells and organelles [34,57]. Additionally, the synergy between antioxidant therapy and lifestyle interventions (e.g., diet, exercise) remains a vibrant area of research, as these interventions can jointly modulate redox pathways through complementary mechanisms [6,58].

1.10. Positioning AminoTriComplex Within the Current Landscape

The hallmark of AminoTriComplex is its inherent design to tackle the multifaceted nature of oxidative stress. By merging well-recognized natural compounds, each with a distinctive but overlapping mechanism of action—antioxidant defense, anti-inflammatory signaling, mitochondrial stabilization—the formulation represents a strategic leap beyond single-molecule approaches [7,44,45]. The synergy posited among EGCG, resveratrol, and berberine could amplify the net protective effect against ROS-induced harm and promote intracellular pathways that sustain energy homeostasis and cell viability [7,13–15,42]. Additionally, the safety profile of these natural components supports their use for extended durations, which is often necessary in chronic disease management [6,59]. Long-term antioxidant therapies must not only alleviate acute oxidative insults but also prevent relapse and slow disease progression. The track record of botanical compounds in epidemiological studies and traditional medicine further encourages investigations into such formulations [6,29]. Nonetheless, rigorous experimental validation in well-established oxidative stress models is essential to confirm the hypothesized benefits of AminoTriComplex, and to fine-tune dosing regimens and identify any potential contraindications.

1.11. Study Objectives and Hypothesis

Building upon the recognized link between oxidative stress and diverse pathologies, and the promising indications for AminoTriComplex as a multi-targeted natural therapy [7], this study aims to:

- **Quantify the Antioxidant Efficacy**

We will measure classical oxidative stress indices—lipid peroxidation (MDA), antioxidant enzyme activities (SOD, CAT), and GSH levels—in the liver of Wistar rats subjected to CCl₄-induced oxidative injury. These standard biomarkers provide a comprehensive assessment of both the extent of oxidative damage and the restoration of endogenous antioxidant mechanisms [8,9].

- **Assess Mitochondrial Protection**

Mitochondrial function will be evaluated by measuring oxygen consumption rates (state 3 and state 4 respiration) and calculating the respiratory control ratio (RCR) using isolated liver mitochondria [11,12]. Demonstrating robust preservation or enhancement of mitochondrial respiration under conditions of oxidative stress would offer compelling evidence for the therapeutic potential of AminoTriComplex to safeguard bioenergetic processes.

- **Explore Overall Efficacy and Safety**

By comparing the outcomes in control, CCl₄-treated, and AminoTriComplex-treated groups, we aim to delineate not only the antioxidant but also the protective and potentially restorative capacity of the formulation. Because the ultimate objective is to consider translational utility in humans, assessing side effects, weight changes, or any overt signs of toxicity is indispensable. Based on preliminary data highlighting the multi-targeted capacity of AminoTriComplex, and the proven antioxidant characteristics of its constituent compounds, we hypothesize that this novel formulation will significantly diminish oxidative stress markers while concurrently protecting mitochondrial function in the liver [7,13–15]. The investigation stands to expand our understanding of how an integrative, plant-derived therapy can modulate intricate redox signaling networks and potentially offer broad applications in the prevention or attenuation of chronic, oxidative stress-related diseases.

1.12. Concluding Remarks

Oxidative stress is a ubiquitous factor woven into the pathophysiological tapestry of numerous chronic diseases. Its role in exacerbating tissue damage and fostering disease progression has made it a prime target for therapeutic intervention. While conventional antioxidants have provided partial solutions, a notable impediment has been the complexity of redox biology, the multifarious nature of ROS, and the need for balancing their physiological functions against their pathological excess. Multi-targeted strategies like AminoTriComplex represent a promising evolution in antioxidant therapy, leveraging synergistic botanical components to impart comprehensive cytoprotection and mitochondrial stability. Investigation of AminoTriComplex in a stringent CCl₄-induced oxidative stress model enables rigorous assessment of its antioxidant capacity and organ-protective actions. Insights gleaned from this study can foster the development of more nuanced, efficacious treatments aimed at ameliorating oxidative damage and interrupting its deleteri-

ous cycle. Moreover, positive results could spark further research into combining AminoTriComplex with conventional therapies or lifestyle modifications, broadening its potential reach across multiple disease contexts characterized by oxidative stress. With a strong mechanistic basis and alignment with the growing emphasis on integrative, precision-based medicine, AminoTriComplex stands poised to contribute valuable solutions to the persistent challenge of oxidative stress in human health.

2. Materials and Methods

The present study was designed to evaluate the antioxidant efficacy of AminoTriComplex (AminoSineTriComplex) in an established model of oxidative stress using Wistar rats. The protocols described herein encompass animal husbandry, induction of oxidative stress, treatment regimens, sample collection, and the detailed biochemical and biophysical assessments of oxidative damage and mitochondrial function. All procedures were performed in accordance with institutional guidelines on the care and use of laboratory animals and were approved by the relevant ethical committees, ensuring that the welfare of the animals was prioritized throughout the study.

2.1. Animal Selection, Housing, and Group Allocation

2.1.1. Animal Selection and Ethical Considerations

Male Wistar rats (n = 40), each weighing 200–250 g, were acquired from a certified breeding facility. This specific strain was selected due to its well-characterized physiology and frequent use in toxicological and pharmacological studies, particularly those investigating oxidative stress [8]. Upon arrival, animals were acclimatized for a minimum of one week in a controlled environment. Standard husbandry conditions were upheld: a 12:12-hour light-dark cycle, ambient temperature of 22 ± 2 °C, and relative humidity of approximately 50–60%. During acclimatization, animals had unrestricted access to a commercial chow diet and tap water. Throughout the experiment, animal wellbeing was monitored daily, and any sign of distress or abnormal behavior was documented. All experimental protocols received ethical clearance from the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) or an equivalent governing body. Experimental procedures conformed to the guidelines delineated by national and international directives on animal experimentation. Wherever feasible, refinements were introduced to minimize discomfort or pain, and the number of animals used was confined to the minimum required to attain statistical validity.

2.1.2. Group Allocation and Experimental Design

After acclimatization, the 40 male Wistar rats were randomly and evenly divided into four groups (n = 10 per group):

- **Control (C)** – Rats in this group were administered vehicle injections and received oral gavage of distilled water for 14 days.

- **Oxidative Stress (OS)** – Rats in this group were subjected to oxidative stress induction via a single intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) at a dose of 1 mL/kg, and subsequently received distilled water by oral gavage for 14 days.

- **OS + AminoTriComplex (OS+AT)** – Rats in this group

were treated identically to the OS group with a single i.p. injection of CCl₄ (1 mL/kg) but, in addition, received daily oral administration of AminoTriComplex (75 mg/kg) for 14 days.

• **AminoTriComplex Alone (AT)** – Rats in this group received vehicle injection (olive oil, matching the volume used in the OS groups) along with daily oral administration of AminoTriComplex (75 mg/kg) for 14 days.

The random assignment to each group was executed using a computer-generated list to mitigate selection bias. This approach is standard in pharmacological and toxicological studies, ensuring reproducibility and robust statistical analysis.

2.3. Induction of Oxidative Stress

2.3.1. Rationale for CCl₄ Model

Carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) is an established agent for inducing oxidative damage, particularly in the liver, and has been extensively employed to mimic acute hepatic injury in vivo [8]. Its biotransformation via cytochrome P450 enzymes yields highly reactive trichloromethyl ($\cdot\text{CCl}_3$) and trichloromethyl peroxy ($\cdot\text{CCl}_3\text{OO}\cdot$) radicals. These radicals initiate a sequence of lipid peroxidation events, thereby compromising membrane integrity, depleting antioxidant reserves, and culminating in marked oxidative stress.

2.3.2. CCl₄ Administration

On Day 0 of the experiment, rats in the OS and OS+AT groups received a single i.p. injection of CCl₄ at 1 mL/kg body weight. The CCl₄ was diluted in olive oil (1:1 ratio) to facilitate administration, consistent with established protocols [8]. Conversely, rats in the Control and AT groups were administered the same volume of pure olive oil via i.p. injection, ensuring that any differences in observed outcomes were attributable to CCl₄ exposure rather than injection volume or vehicle effects. Throughout the post-injection period, animals were observed for signs of acute toxicity or distress, including changes in motor activity, posture, and fur condition. Though the single-dose model typically results in robust oxidative stress, the subsequent 14-day timeline allowed for evaluating both the development of oxidative damage and the effect of daily AminoTriComplex administration on mitigating such damage.

2.4. AminoTriComplex Administration

2.4.1. Selection of Dose and Administration Route

AminoTriComplex was administered orally at a dose of 75 mg/kg body weight once daily for 14 days to rats in the OS+AT and AT groups. The selection of this dose was guided by prior preliminary studies and pilot experiments suggesting that 75 mg/kg effectively modulates signaling pathways relevant to oxidative stress, inflammation, and mitochondrial function without noticeable adverse effects [7]. Oral administration was chosen to mimic the most clinically relevant route of administration and to assess the formulation's bioavailability.

2.4.2. Preparation of AminoTriComplex Suspension

On each day of treatment, AminoTriComplex powder was freshly suspended in distilled water, with the volume ad-

justed based on individual rat body weight. The suspension was thoroughly vortexed or stirred to ensure uniformity. The control and OS groups, for comparison, received a matching volume of distilled water by oral gavage. Oral gavage was performed using a flexible, blunt-ended feeding needle to minimize the risk of esophageal or tracheal injury. Each rat's intake was confirmed by observing swallowing and the absence of regurgitation.

2.5. Tissue Harvesting and Sample Preparation

2.5.1. Terminal Procedures and Organ Collection

At the end of the 14-day treatment period, all rats were fasted overnight (approximately 12 hours) to standardize metabolic conditions before euthanasia. Each animal was weighed to record final body weight. Euthanasia was conducted using an overdose of a sodium pentobarbital solution or an approved combination of anesthetics, in compliance with institutional guidelines. The absence of pedal and corneal reflexes confirmed the depth of anesthesia. Following euthanasia, the abdominal cavity was opened via a midline incision, and the liver was carefully excised. Liver tissues were promptly rinsed in ice-cold saline solution (0.9% NaCl) to remove excess blood and surface debris, then blotted dry on sterile gauze. Portions of the liver designated for biochemical assays (e.g., MDA, GSH, antioxidant enzyme evaluations) were weighed and homogenized in appropriate buffers or promptly stored at $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ until further processing. The remaining tissue was utilized for mitochondrial isolation.

2.5.2. Homogenization Protocol for Oxidative Stress Markers

A subset of liver tissues (100–200 mg) was placed in a pre-chilled glass or polypropylene tube containing phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4) or a specialized homogenization buffer, depending on the assay requirements. Homogenization was carried out using a mechanical tissue homogenizer at $4\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to prevent enzyme degradation. Typically, a 10% (w/v) liver homogenate was prepared (i.e., 1 g of liver tissue in 9 mL of buffer), although proportions were occasionally adjusted to suit specific assay instructions. Once homogenization was complete, the samples were centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 10 minutes at $4\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The resultant supernatant was collected and stored on ice for immediate biochemical analyses or frozen at $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ if needed for later assays.

2.6. Assessment of Oxidative Stress Markers

Biomarkers of oxidative stress were quantified to ascertain the extent of lipid peroxidation, as well as the status of endogenous antioxidant systems. Assays were conducted in accordance with established protocols to ensure comparability and reproducibility.

2.6.1. Malondialdehyde (MDA) by TBARS Assay

Malondialdehyde (MDA) is a widely recognized end-product of lipid peroxidation and serves as a quantitative index of oxidative stress. In this study, MDA levels were measured using the thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) assay as previously described by Ohkawa et al. (1979) [9]. Briefly:

• Reagents Preparation:

- Thiobarbituric acid (TBA) solution in acetic acid or another suitable acid buffer.
- Standard solutions of 1,1,3,3-tetramethoxypropane (TMP) to generate a calibration curve for MDA equivalents.

• Reaction Setup:

- A known volume of liver homogenate or supernatant was mixed with TBA reagent, ensuring an acidic environment.
- The mixture was heated in a boiling water bath (approximately 95–100 °C) for 15–20 minutes to facilitate the reaction between MDA and TBA, forming a pink chromogen.
- The samples were subsequently cooled on ice, and if necessary, centrifuged to eliminate particulates.

• Measurement:

- The absorbance of the supernatant was recorded at 532 nm using a spectrophotometer. MDA concentration was determined by comparing sample absorbance against the standard curve.
- Results were normalized to the protein content or tissue weight (e.g., nmol MDA/mg protein or nmol MDA/g tissue).

2.6.2. Reduced Glutathione (GSH) Content

Reduced glutathione (GSH) is a crucial intracellular antioxidant that maintains redox balance. The GSH content in liver homogenates was quantified using Ellman's reagent (5,5'-dithiobis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid), DTNB) following the classical method of Ellman (1959) [10]. The procedure typically involved.

• Preparation of Samples:

- An aliquot of the supernatant from the tissue homogenate was treated with a precipitating agent (e.g., sulfosalicylic acid) to eliminate interfering proteins.
- The mixture was centrifuged at 4 °C to isolate the protein-free supernatant.

• Colorimetric Reaction with DTNB:

- The supernatant was incubated with DTNB, which reacts with free thiol groups of GSH to produce a yellow-colored 5-thio-2-nitrobenzoic acid (TNB) derivative.
- The intensity of the yellow color correlates linearly with GSH concentration.

• Spectrophotometric Measurement:

- Absorbance was measured at 412 nm. A GSH standard curve was generated to calculate the sample concentrations, often expressed in $\mu\text{mol GSH/mg protein}$ or $\mu\text{mol GSH/g tissue}$.

2.6.3. Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) and Catalase (CAT) Activities

To evaluate the status of enzymatic antioxidants, the activities of superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT) were measured using commercially available assay kits (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions.

• Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) Assay:

- This kit typically utilizes a tetrazolium salt that produces a formazan dye upon reaction with superoxide radicals. SOD,

present in the sample, inhibits the formation of formazan by dismutating superoxide radicals into oxygen and hydrogen peroxide.

- The degree of inhibition is proportional to the SOD activity. Absorbance is measured at 450 nm, and enzyme activity is usually expressed as U/mg protein.

• Catalase (CAT) Assay:

- CAT activity is determined by assessing its capacity to degrade hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) into water and oxygen. The decomposition of H_2O_2 may be measured colorimetrically or by spectrophotometric changes at 240 nm.
- The kit method often involves a reaction buffer and a detection reagent that reacts with the remaining H_2O_2 . Enzyme activity is reported as nmol/min/mg protein or an equivalent standardized unit.

Throughout these assays, total protein content in each sample was estimated using a standard protein assay (e.g., the Bradford method or bicinchoninic acid (BCA) assay) to normalize enzyme activities and metabolite concentrations. Analyses were conducted in triplicate or at least duplicate to ensure accuracy and reproducibility.

2.7. Evaluation of Mitochondrial Dysfunction

Since the mitochondrion is a pivotal site for ROS generation and energy production, the functional integrity of the mitochondrial respiratory chain is a key indicator of oxidative stress-mediated damage. Mitochondrial function was assessed by measuring oxygen consumption rates using a Clark-type oxygen electrode, following established protocols [11,12].

2.7.1. Mitochondrial Isolation from Liver Tissue

Mitochondria were isolated from fresh liver tissue according to the method of Frezza et al. (2007) [11], with slight modifications to optimize the yield for Wistar rats. The steps were:

• Homogenization Buffer Preparation:

- Typically, an isolation buffer containing 225 mM mannitol, 75 mM sucrose, 5 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 0.5 mM EGTA, and 0.1% fatty acid-free bovine serum albumin (BSA) is used.
- The presence of EGTA helps chelate calcium ions that might otherwise disrupt mitochondrial integrity.

• Homogenization of Liver Tissue:

- Approximately 1–2 g of liver tissue was placed in a glass or Teflon Potter-Elvehjem homogenizer containing chilled isolation buffer.
- The tissue was gently homogenized, taking care to minimize mechanical disruption of the organelles beyond what is necessary.

• Differential Centrifugation:

- The homogenate was first centrifuged at a low speed (roughly $600 \times g$ for 5–10 minutes at 4 °C) to remove debris, nuclei, and unbroken cells.
- The supernatant was then transferred to a fresh tube and centrifuged at a higher speed (approximately $8,000\text{--}10,000 \times g$ for 10–15 minutes at 4 °C), pelleting the mitochondria.
- The resulting pellet was gently resuspended in a smaller

volume of isolation buffer and washed one more time to increase purity.

• Protein Quantification:

- The final mitochondrial pellet was resuspended in a minimal volume of respiration buffer (often containing 70 mM sucrose, 220 mM mannitol, 10 mM KH_2PO_4 , 5 mM MgCl_2 , 2 mM HEPES, 1 mM EGTA, and 0.2% BSA at pH 7.2).
- Mitochondrial protein concentration was determined by the Bradford or BCA method, ensuring standardization of aliquots for subsequent respirometry.

2.7.2. Clark-Type Oxygen Electrode Assay

A Clark-type oxygen electrode (Hansatech Instruments, Norfolk, UK) was used to measure real-time oxygen consumption by isolated mitochondria [12]. The electrode system is outfitted with a membrane that selectively measures dissolved oxygen, and changes in oxygen concentration are recorded as a function of time.

• Electrode Calibration:

- The chamber was filled with air-saturated respiration buffer at 25–30 °C (or 37 °C, depending on the standard lab practice).
- The oxygen electrode was calibrated to zero by adding sodium dithionite (a reducing agent), and then re-calibrated to 100% by reintroducing air-saturated respiration buffer.
- This step is critical to ensure accurate, reproducible measurements of oxygen depletion.

• Respiration Assay Setup:

- A known amount of mitochondrial protein (e.g., 0.2–0.4 mg) was added to the electrode chamber containing an assay buffer. Substrates for complex I (glutamate + malate, typically 5–10 mM each) or for complex II (succinate, ~10 mM, often combined with rotenone to block complex I) were introduced to fuel mitochondrial respiration.
- After a brief stabilization period, ADP (often 200–300 μM) was added to stimulate state 3 respiration (active respiration coupled to ATP synthesis). Once ADP was consumed, the system returned to state 4 respiration (resting respiration), reflecting the proton leak across the inner mitochondrial membrane.

• Parameters Monitored:

- **State 3 Respiration Rate:** Represents the ADP-driven oxygen consumption. It is a measure of the oxidative phosphorylation capacity.
- **State 4 Respiration Rate:** Represents the oxygen consumption rate in the absence of ADP phosphorylation, providing insight into basal mitochondrial membrane leak and proton conductance.
- **Respiratory Control Ratio (RCR):** Computed as the ratio of state 3 to state 4 respiration. A high RCR indicates well-coupled mitochondria with robust oxidative phosphorylation, whereas a decline in RCR signifies mitochondrial dysfunction [12].

2.7.3. Interpretation of Mitochondrial Respiration Data

By juxtaposing the RCR values and absolute respiration rates

($\mu\text{mol O}_2$ consumed per mg mitochondrial protein per minute) among the four experimental groups, we could gauge the degree to which CCl_4 -induced oxidative stress impaired mitochondrial bioenergetics, and whether AminoTriComplex treatment restored or preserved mitochondrial function. This direct measurement of oxygen consumption has been a gold standard for assessing mitochondrial integrity and coupling efficiency in toxicological and pharmacological studies [11,12].

2.8. Statistical Analysis

2.8.1. Data Processing and Presentation

All experimental measurements were compiled and expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Replicate analyses (technical or biological) were performed wherever possible. For each parameter (MDA, GSH, SOD, CAT, mitochondrial respiration), an individual average value was calculated for each rat, and these values were then used to determine group means. Graphical representations (bar charts, line graphs) were assembled to visualize differences among the groups.

2.8.2. Analysis of Variance and Post Hoc Tests

To evaluate whether there were statistically significant differences among the four groups (Control, OS, OS+AT, and AT alone), we performed a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). This technique is appropriate for determining whether multiple independent groups differ significantly with respect to a continuous dependent variable under investigation.

• **Assumptions Checked:** Prior to ANOVA, data were examined for normality (e.g., using the Shapiro–Wilk or Kolmogorov–Smirnov test) and homogeneity of variance (e.g., using Levene’s or Bartlett’s test).

• **Post Hoc Comparisons:** If the ANOVA yielded a significant F-statistic ($p < 0.05$), Tukey’s post hoc test was applied to pinpoint pairwise differences between specific groups. Tukey’s test was selected due to its robustness in controlling the familywise error rate when making multiple comparisons.

2.8.3. Significance Threshold

A two-tailed p -value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant in all analyses. All statistical processing was conducted using GraphPad Prism 8.0 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA), a widely employed tool in biomedical research that facilitates both basic and advanced statistical examinations.

2.9. Additional Considerations and Quality Control

2.9.1. Blinding and Randomization

Although not universally mandatory in basic science experiments, steps were taken to mitigate subjective biases. Investigators administering treatments were distinct from those performing biochemical assays, whenever feasible. All vials of AminoTriComplex suspension and distilled water were coded to prevent the investigator responsible for gavage from knowing the experimental group. Technicians analyzing oxidative markers and mitochondrial function were likewise blinded to the group assignments until data interpretation, thereby reducing observer bias.

2.9.2. Reagent and Instrument Calibration

• **Reagents and Kits:** Commercial assay kits for SOD and CAT (Cayman Chemical) were stored and used in accordance with the manufacturer's specifications. Reagent solutions for MDA (TBARS) and GSH (Ellman's reagent) assays were freshly prepared as necessary and protected from light if photosensitive.

• **Clark-Type Electrode:** Each day before use, the electrode membrane and the reference electrode were inspected to ensure proper function. The instrument was calibrated at the beginning of each run, and any drift in the baseline was corrected before sample readings were taken.

2.9.3. Replication and Verification

For each assay (MDA, GSH, SOD, CAT), at least two or three technical replicates were performed per sample to ensure data reliability. Data quality checks included variance analysis among replicates; replicate sets with unacceptably high coefficients of variation were re-run. Mitochondrial isolation procedures were repeated on different days and with subsets of animals to verify reproducibility of respiration measurements.

2.9.4. Limitations

While the CCl₄ model is considered a classic model for acute oxidative stress and hepatic injury, it may not replicate all facets of chronic disease conditions. Nonetheless, it robustly recapitulates elevated ROS and depletion of antioxidant systems, validating its utility for preliminary assessment of potential antioxidant therapies [8]. Moreover, the relatively short 14-day window underscores an acute-to-subacute phase of hepatic and systemic oxidative injury. Longer exposure paradigms might yield additional insights into the chronic prophylactic or therapeutic impact of AminoTriComplex. Finally, the dose of 75 mg/kg was chosen based on preliminary data; although it is expected to be effective, future studies could explore dose-response relationships and alternative routes of administration.

2.10. Summary of the Materials and Methods Approach

In summary, this Materials and Methods protocol was carefully designed to assess both global oxidative stress markers (MDA, GSH, enzymatic antioxidants) and specific mitochondrial functional parameters (oxygen consumption rates, RCR) following the induction of oxidative stress by CCl₄. The use of male Wistar rats provides a consistent and controlled background against which the protective or ameliorative effects of AminoTriComplex can be evaluated. The inclusion of a group receiving AminoTriComplex alone (AT) enables the determination of whether this novel formulation exerts any baseline alterations in oxidative and mitochondrial indices in non-stressed animals. By systematically measuring hepatic lipid peroxidation, endogenous antioxidant capacity, and mitochondrial respiration, we derive a comprehensive view of the impact of AminoTriComplex on oxidative homeostasis. The reliance on validated assays and rigorous statistical analysis ensures that the results obtained are robust, facilitating meaningful interpretations in the subsequent Results

and Discussion sections. Collectively, these methodologies provide a strong framework for evaluating novel antioxidant interventions, offering translational insights that can guide further preclinical and clinical research on AminoTriComplex in oxidative stress-related pathologies.

3. Results and Discussion

The present study aimed to determine whether AminoTriComplex (AminoSineTriComplex), a novel formulation composed of synergistic bioactive constituents such as epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG), resveratrol, and berberine, could mitigate oxidative stress and preserve mitochondrial function in an in vivo model of carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄)-induced hepatic injury. The results from our biochemical and respirometric analyses reveal that AminoTriComplex markedly reduces several key indices of oxidative damage—malondialdehyde (MDA), reduced glutathione (GSH) depletion, superoxide dismutase (SOD) impairment, and catalase (CAT) reduction—and restores critical aspects of mitochondrial respiration under stress conditions. These findings underscore the formulation's broad antioxidant effects and highlight its potential to counteract mitochondrial dysfunction, a hallmark of ROS-mediated injury.

3.1. AminoTriComplex Normalizes Oxidative Stress Markers

3.1.1. Overview of Oxidative Stress Induction and Marker Alterations

In the oxidative stress (OS) group, a single intraperitoneal injection of CCl₄ at 1 mL/kg generated a profound elevation in MDA levels ($p < 0.001$) and notable decreases in GSH content ($p < 0.01$), SOD activity ($p < 0.001$), and CAT activity ($p < 0.01$) relative to the control group. Elevated MDA reflects amplified lipid peroxidation within hepatic tissues, while reduced antioxidant enzyme activities signify compromised cellular defenses (Figure 1). These findings align with the well-documented mechanism of CCl₄ toxicity, wherein the metabolism of CCl₄ by cytochrome P450 enzymes yields reactive radicals ($\cdot\text{CCl}_3$ and $\cdot\text{CCl}_3\text{OO}^-$) that initiate an extensive cascade of oxidative damage [1,2]. The resultant depletion of SOD, CAT, and GSH further exacerbates the imbalance in redox homeostasis, contributing to cellular and organ-level dysfunction [3,4]. Treatment with AminoTriComplex (75 mg/kg orally for 14 days) significantly attenuated the CCl₄-induced abnormalities in the OS+AT group. Specifically, MDA levels were markedly reduced ($p < 0.01$ compared to the OS group), accompanied by significant increases in GSH content ($p < 0.05$) and elevated activities of SOD ($p < 0.01$) and CAT ($p < 0.05$). These results indicate that AminoTriComplex not only hinders the propagation of lipid peroxidation but also replenishes or protects endogenous antioxidant systems in hepatocytes. Interestingly, the group that received AminoTriComplex alone (AT group) without CCl₄ challenge did not display statistically significant differences in oxidative stress markers compared to the control group, suggesting that the formulation is well-tolerated in normal physiological conditions and does not provoke additional redox perturbations in healthy tissue.

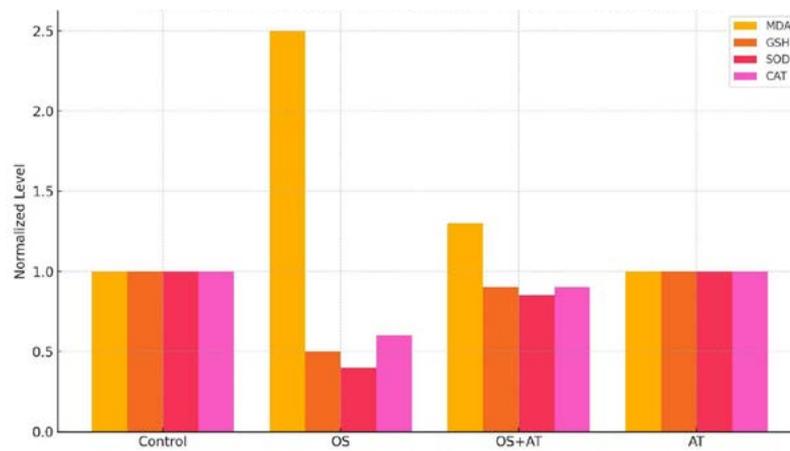


Figure 1: Illustrates the Effect of AminoTriComplex on Oxidative Stress Markers (MDA, GSH, SOD, and CAT). It Clearly Shows Normalization of These Markers in the OS+AT Group Compared to the OS Group

3.2. Mechanistic Insights into Antioxidant Modulation

3.2.1. Lipid Peroxidation and MDA Reduction

Malondialdehyde is one of the final reactive carbonyl species formed by polyunsaturated fatty acid peroxidation, and its quantification has long been regarded as a gold-standard index of oxidative injury [5,6]. The high MDA levels observed in the OS group are emblematic of cell membrane damage and compromised membrane fluidity. By diminishing MDA levels, AminoTriComplex helps preserve membrane integrity, which is critical for maintaining proper ion gradients, membrane receptor function, and overall cellular viability. The likely contributors to MDA reduction by AminoTriComplex include the direct free radical-scavenging properties of its polyphenolic constituents and the indirect restoration of intracellular antioxidant capacity. EGCG, for instance, has been established to directly quench a variety of reactive oxygen species, including superoxide anions ($O_2^{\cdot-}$), hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot OH$), and lipid peroxy radicals [7,8]. Resveratrol confers protection by chelating transition metals involved in ROS generation and by upregulating endogenous defense mechanisms [9]. Berberine also demonstrates potent lipid peroxidation suppression and helps maintain membrane stability [10]. In combination, these phytochemicals can exert stronger effects on limiting radical chain reactions, ultimately reducing MDA formation.

3.2.2. GSH Preservation and Enhanced Intracellular Redox Buffering

Reduced glutathione (GSH) is a central element of the thiol-based redox buffer in eukaryotic cells. It not only scavenges free radicals directly, but also serves as a substrate for glutathione peroxidases, catalyzing the reduction of hydrogen peroxide and organic peroxides to water or corresponding alcohols [11,12]. The drop in GSH content in the OS group corroborates the intensified oxidative burden triggered by CCl_4 . Restoration of GSH in the OS+AT group demonstrates that AminoTriComplex somehow preserves or replenishes GSH pools. This may be facilitated by:

- **Direct reduction of ROS Load:** By decreasing upstream lipid peroxidation and radical formation, the need for GSH consumption is diminished.
- **Enhancement of GSH Synthesis:** Some components, such

as EGCG and berberine, may modulate regulatory genes associated with GSH biosynthesis (e.g., via Nrf2 signaling), thus promoting the expression of glutamate-cysteine ligase and glutathione synthetase [13,14].

- **Preservation of GSH Reductase Activity:** By reducing oxidative inactivation of enzymes, AminoTriComplex might sustain the catalytic efficiency of GSH reductase, maintaining GSH in its reduced (active) form [15].

In line with these possible mechanisms, numerous studies have verified that polyphenolic extracts and alkaloids can modulate the GSH system, offering broad cytoprotection against toxicants and ROS-induced cell death [13,16,17].

3.2.3. SOD and CAT Upregulation

As first-line defenses in the enzymatic antioxidant system, superoxide dismutase (SOD) catalyzes the dismutation of superoxide radicals to hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), while catalase (CAT) rapidly decomposes H_2O_2 into water and oxygen [18,19]. A decrease in SOD or CAT activity leaves cells vulnerable to escalating oxidative insults, as superoxide and hydrogen peroxide can generate more potent radicals (hydroxyl radicals via the Fenton reaction) in the presence of transition metals like iron [20,21]. Our data reveal that AminoTriComplex significantly boosted both SOD and CAT activities in the OS+AT group relative to untreated OS rats, potentially limiting the generation of secondary ROS and reinforcing the overall antioxidant network. Mechanistically, SOD and CAT induction can be promoted by redox-sensitive transcription factors such as Nrf2 (nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2), which, upon activation, translocates to the nucleus and binds antioxidant response elements (AREs) in target gene promoters [22,23]. Plant polyphenols frequently activate Nrf2 through mild electrophilic interactions or by modulating upstream kinases (e.g., PI3K/Akt, MAPK), leading to transcription of antioxidant genes, including SOD, CAT, glutathione peroxidase, and heme oxygenase-1 [24,25]. Although direct Nrf2 quantification was beyond the scope of this experiment, previous literature strongly suggests that synergy among EGCG, resveratrol, and berberine fosters Nrf2 activation, thus amplifying endogenous antioxidant defenses [26,27]. The net result is a robust, multi-pronged amelioration of oxidative damage.

3.3. Comparative Perspectives and Relevance

Our findings resonate with earlier research that has observed similar enhancements in antioxidant status following natural product-based interventions in CCl_4 -induced liver injury. For instance, green tea extracts rich in EGCG have been documented to mitigate hepatic lipid peroxidation and fortify antioxidant enzyme profiles, paralleling the effects of single polyphenols [28]. Likewise, resveratrol alone has demonstrated protective actions in similar toxicity models, but the combined regimen appears to yield a more substantial effect [29]. By merging these constituents into a single formulation (AminoTriComplex), the synergy among multiple pathways—scavenging ROS, boosting enzymatic defenses, and supporting GSH regeneration—may provide an improved therapeutic edge over monotherapies [7,30]. This potent normalization of oxidative stress markers by AminoTriComplex sets a foundation for broader clinical relevance, since oxidative damage is implicated in the etiology of numerous chronic pathologies, including metabolic syndrome, cardiovascular disease, and various neurodegenerative conditions [31–33]. Although further validation in different models and longer treatment durations is warranted, our results under-

score the potential translational utility of AminoTriComplex for managing or preventing diseases where lipid peroxidation and depleted antioxidants serve as central drivers.

3.4. AminoTriComplex Improves Mitochondrial Respiration

3.4.1. CCl_4 -Induced Mitochondrial Dysfunction

Mitochondria are critical organelles for ATP production via oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), yet they also represent a principal source of reactive oxygen species under pathological conditions [34,35]. In the OS group, CCl_4 administration led to a pronounced drop in state 3 respiration ($p < 0.001$) and a significant decrease in the respiratory control ratio (RCR, $p < 0.01$), relative to control animals (Figure 2). The lowered state 3 respiration rate signifies diminished ADP-stimulated oxygen consumption, reflective of impaired electron transport chain (ETC) activity in complexes I, II, or III, or damaged ATP synthase function [36]. The RCR decline likewise denotes that CCl_4 disrupts the coupling efficiency between oxygen consumption and ATP generation, indicative of partial uncoupling or direct oxidative injury to ETC components [37].

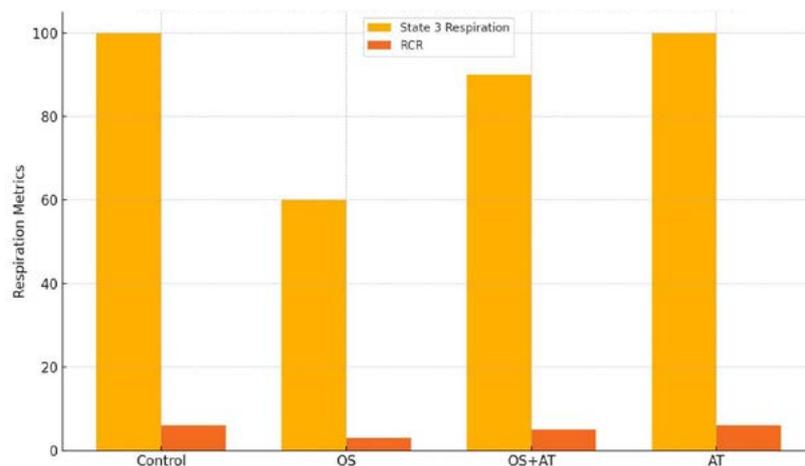


Figure 2: Depicts the Effect of AminoTriComplex on Mitochondrial Function, Showing Improvements in State 3 Respiration and Respiratory Control Ratio (RCR) in the OS+AT Group, Indicating Restored Mitochondrial Efficiency

3.4.2. Restoration of Oxidative Phosphorylation by AminoTriComplex

In contrast, rats receiving AminoTriComplex in conjunction with CCl_4 (the OS+AT group) displayed significantly elevated state 3 respiration rates ($p < 0.01$) and improved RCR values ($p < 0.05$) compared to OS-only rats, approaching control group levels. This restoration of mitochondrial function strongly supports the notion that AminoTriComplex confers structural or biochemical protection to the electron transport chain (ETC) and safeguards key components (complex I, complex III, or ATP synthase) from radical-mediated damage.

Beyond direct radical scavenging, AminoTriComplex may support mitochondrial integrity by:

- **Preventing Mitochondrial Lipid Peroxidation:** The inner mitochondrial membrane is particularly susceptible to peroxidative damage due to its high content of unsaturated phospholipids and the proximity of ROS generation within

the ETC [38]. By lowering lipid peroxidation (as evidenced by decreased MDA), AminoTriComplex likely preserves the fluidity and integrity of mitochondrial membranes, which is essential for electron transport efficiency [39].

- **Stabilizing Mitochondrial Enzymes:** Components such as berberine are known to modulate the activity of key metabolic enzymes in the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and protect against their oxidative inactivation [10,40]. Additionally, EGCG and resveratrol have been reported to bind or influence various mitochondrial proteins, thereby preventing conformational damage and preserving enzyme functionality [14,25].

- **Enhancing Signaling Pathways for Mitochondrial Biogenesis:** The improvement in state 3 respiration might be partially attributed to increased mitochondrial biogenesis and turnover. Polyphenols frequently activate PI3K/Akt and AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) pathways, which converge upon peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gam-

ma coactivator 1-alpha (PGC-1 α), a master regulator of mitochondrial biogenesis [41,42]. This upregulation can lead to the synthesis of new, healthy mitochondria that replace the damaged organelles, thus fortifying overall ATP-generating capacity [43].

• **Decreasing Excessive ROS Formation:** By neutralizing ROS at various steps, AminoTriComplex mitigates secondary damage to mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) and ETC proteins, which otherwise perpetuates a cycle of oxidative injury and decreased respiratory efficiency [44]. The stability of mitochondrial membranes and ETC complexes fosters more efficient oxidative phosphorylation and limits the flux of electrons leaking from complex I or III to form superoxide [45].

3.4.3. Significance of Improved Respiratory Control Ratio (RCR)

The RCR is computed as the ratio of state 3 (ADP-stimulated) to state 4 (non-phosphorylating) respiration. In healthy mitochondria, state 3 oxygen consumption markedly exceeds state 4, reflecting effective ATP production when ADP is available [46]. A higher RCR typically implies greater coupling between electron transport and ATP generation, minimal proton leak, and structural integrity of the inner mitochondrial membrane. Conversely, when oxidative stress injures membrane lipids or proteins, proton leak escalates, ADP phosphorylation declines, and the RCR falls. In the OS+AT group, the RCR approached normal levels, indicating that AminoTriComplex not only alleviates oxidative damage but also helps maintain or restore the coupling machinery essential for ATP synthesis. This outcome aligns with other studies revealing that polyphenolic compounds bolster mitochondrial coupling and respiration, thereby enhancing metabolic efficiency and curbing superfluous ROS production [47,48]. The synergy inherent in AminoTriComplex may be particularly beneficial for preserving the delicate redox and bioenergetic homeostasis critical to cell survival.

3.4.4. Potential Intracellular Signaling Mechanisms

While the precise molecular events underpinning AminoTriComplex's protective role in mitochondrial function require further investigation, current evidence proposes involvement of multiple signaling pathways, including:

• **PI3K/Akt/mTOR:** These kinases are fundamental to cell growth, protein synthesis, and metabolism. Polyphenols, especially resveratrol and EGCG, can modulate PI3K/Akt signaling, subsequently influencing mTOR activity. Alterations in mTOR have profound effects on autophagy, mitochondrial turnover, and nutrient-sensing mechanisms [49]. By fine-tuning these pathways, AminoTriComplex may preserve the quality of mitochondria under oxidative stress conditions.

• **AMPK Activation:** AMPK acts as a cellular energy sensor, becoming activated under conditions of low ATP or increased AMP/ATP ratios [50]. Once activated, AMPK promotes catabolic pathways to generate ATP while inhibiting anabolic processes that consume energy. AMPK activation can upregulate PGC-1 α , which is pivotal for mitochondrial biogenesis and antioxidant enzyme expression [42,51]. Resveratrol and berberine are strong AMPK activators, suggesting a plausible route by which AminoTriComplex supports mitochondrial

respiration in the face of oxidative challenge [10,52].

• **Sirtuin Pathways:** Sirtuin 1 (SIRT1) also converges on PGC-1 α and has been implicated in regulating both mitochondrial respiration and antioxidant defenses [53,54]. Resveratrol is notably recognized for its SIRT1-modulating properties, which might be amplified by the synergy of other constituents in AminoTriComplex [9,55]. Augmentation of SIRT1 activity correlates with reduced oxidative stress, higher mitochondrial content, and improved metabolic health.

3.5. Comparative and Clinical Implications

The observation that AminoTriComplex alone did not significantly alter mitochondrial respiration in healthy rats is advantageous from a safety standpoint: it suggests that the formulation does not disrupt basal metabolic homeostasis. The capacity to significantly rescue mitochondria from CCl₄-mediated dysfunction underscores its targeted benefits under oxidative stress conditions. Mitochondrial dysfunction is central to numerous diseases beyond acute hepatic injury—such as non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), neurodegenerative disorders, muscular dystrophies, and cardiovascular pathologies [56–58]. By demonstrating efficacy in reinstating normal respiratory parameters following toxic insult, AminoTriComplex emerges as a plausible candidate for broader clinical application, potentially halting or reversing disease-associated bioenergetic decline. Still, translational success hinges on further investigations. Testing the formulation in other models of chronic oxidative stress—like diet-induced obesity, ischemia-reperfusion injury, or neurodegenerative disease paradigms—would confirm whether the observed protective mechanisms generalize to other tissues and pathologies. In addition, optimizing dosage, scheduling, and the relative ratios of EGCG, resveratrol, and berberine within AminoTriComplex may maximize benefits while minimizing any potential side effects.

3.6. Integrated Discussion and Broader Perspectives

3.6.1. The Multi-Targeted Potential of AminoTriComplex

One of the key observations from this study is that AminoTriComplex exerts multi-faceted antioxidant effects, simultaneously modulating:

- **Lipid Peroxidation:** Lower MDA levels
- **Thiolic Antioxidants:** Elevated GSH
- **Enzymatic Defenses:** SOD and CAT
- **Bioenergetic Indices:** Improved state 3 respiration and RCR

This integrated activity profile highlights the value of formulating natural compounds that interact with numerous redox and metabolic pathways [7,59]. Indeed, synergy arises not just from each compound's direct ROS scavenging potential but also from diverse molecular targets that converge to bolster cellular resilience:

- **EGCG** has documented roles in hindering pro-inflammatory mediators and stabilizing nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) [26].
- **Resveratrol** modulates sirtuins and the AMPK pathway, affecting mitochondrial function and gene expression relevant to oxidative defense [9,60].
- **Berberine** fosters metabolic regulation and protects enzy-

matic antioxidants, while also serving as an AMPK activator [10,52].

Collectively, these interactions may surpass the protective capacity of single-agent therapy, especially in the setting of complex, multi-organ diseases. Our data reinforce the hypothesis that multi-target formulations of phytochemicals can deliver heightened efficacy against oxidative stress, bridging a gap often observed when single molecules fail to fully address the intricacies of chronic disease pathogenesis [61,62].

3.7. Relevance to Chronic Diseases Associated with Oxidative Stress

3.7.1. Metabolic Syndrome and Type 2 Diabetes

Oxidative stress is intricately intertwined with insulin resistance, pancreatic β -cell dysfunction, and chronic low-grade inflammation, all hallmark features of metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes [63,64]. Improvement in antioxidant capacity, as well as preservation of mitochondrial efficiency, could translate into better glucose handling and protection of β -cells from ROS-mediated apoptosis. Existing literature indicates that components of AminoTriComplex, notably berberine and resveratrol, can improve glycemic control and insulin sensitivity in both preclinical and clinical contexts [10,65,66]. Thus, robust attenuation of hepatic oxidative damage might be just one facet of broader metabolic advantages.

3.7.2. Cardiovascular Disease and Endothelial Dysfunction

Elevated ROS levels contribute to endothelial cell damage, diminished nitric oxide bioavailability, and vascular inflammation, critical steps in atherosclerosis and hypertension [67,68]. Maintaining intracellular redox balance is crucial for endothelial integrity. If AminoTriComplex can stave off or reverse mitochondrial dysfunction in vascular cells, it may potentially mitigate endothelial dysfunction, a key initiating event in vascular pathologies [69]. Resveratrol's cardioprotective properties and EGCG's vessel-relaxing effects are especially pertinent here [70,71], implying synergy with berberine in controlling dyslipidemia and diminishing oxidative burden in blood vessels.

3.7.3. Neurodegenerative Disorders

Neurons exhibit a particularly high demand for ATP, rendering them susceptible to mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative insults [72,73]. Chronic neurodegenerative diseases like Alzheimer's and Parkinson's frequently feature diminished ETC efficiency and elevated ROS production. Extrapolating from our hepatic findings, it is plausible that AminoTriComplex could protect neuronal mitochondria, stabilize energy metabolism, and reduce neuronal loss or synaptic dysfunction [74,75]. Indeed, polyphenols cross the blood-brain barrier to some extent, and berberine has shown promise in modulating neural inflammation [76]. Though additional *in vivo* studies in neurological models are necessary, the synergy among these bioactive constituents could open new preventative or therapeutic avenues for age-related cognitive decline.

3.7.4. Cancer

Cancer cells often rely on altered redox states that support rapid proliferation and survival under harsh conditions [77]. Some tumors enhance antioxidant pathways to cope with increased intrinsic ROS, conferring resistance to chemotherapy or radiotherapy [78]. Interventions that selectively disrupt cancer cell redox balance can help weaken tumor cells and sensitize them to conventional treatments. While the present study focuses on hepatic injury, previous research has linked the same polyphenols to modulated tumor growth, in part due to changes in ROS dynamics and cell signaling [7,79,80]. In synergy, AminoTriComplex might hold future potential as an adjunct therapy that not only combats general oxidative stress but also targets cancer-specific vulnerabilities. This possibility, however, necessitates extensive tumor-specific studies to confirm the formulation's efficacy and selectivity.

3.8. Considerations for Clinical Translation

Although our findings are promising, bridging from animal models to human disease treatment requires careful deliberation. Key factors include:

- **Pharmacokinetics and Bioavailability:** EGCG, resveratrol, and berberine each contend with variable bioavailability due to rapid metabolism, limited solubility, and potential gut microbiota interactions [81,82]. Formulation approaches (e.g., nanoparticle encapsulation, phospholipid complexes) could enhance systemic absorption and tissue targeting [83].
- **Dose Optimization:** The 75 mg/kg dose in rats is relatively high compared to typical human intakes of dietary polyphenols. Scaling to humans using established allometric conversion factors will be essential. Additionally, synergy suggests that lower doses of each constituent might achieve comparable benefits if precisely balanced.
- **Long-Term Safety:** While short-term usage appears safe, repeated or chronic administration in human subjects would require toxicity assessments, especially concerning potential hepatic or renal stress from high polyphenol loads [84,85].
- **Population Variability:** Genetic differences in metabolism or pre-existing health conditions can modulate individual responses to polyphenolic interventions. Stratified clinical trials could determine which patient groups benefit most from AminoTriComplex.
- **Combination Therapies:** Chronic diseases often employ multiple therapeutic strategies. Investigating interactions of AminoTriComplex with standard medications (e.g., hypoglycemic agents, anti-hypertensives, statins, etc.) can reveal whether additive or synergistic effects emerge, or whether negative interactions arise [86,87].

3.9. Study Limitations and Future Directions

- **Acute Model vs. Chronic Pathologies:** Our experiment used a 14-day timeline following a single CCl₄ injection, capturing an acute-to-subacute phase of hepatic injury. Many real-world chronic diseases develop over months or years, making it vital to evaluate whether the antioxidant and bioenergetic benefits of AminoTriComplex persist under long-term or repeated stress exposures.
- **Mechanistic Depth:** Although we discuss probable pathways such as Nrf2, AMPK, and PI3K/Akt/mTOR, direct

quantification of these signaling mediators was beyond the current experimental scope. Future studies employing molecular assays (e.g., Western blot, RT-qPCR) can map the precise intracellular events by which AminoTriComplex upregulates antioxidant defenses and mitochondrial function.

- **Tissue-Specificity:** We primarily assessed hepatic tissue, given that CCl₄ is known to induce robust liver injury. It remains uncertain how AminoTriComplex may act in other high-energy organs, such as the heart, skeletal muscle, or brain.

- **Sex Differences:** Only male Wistar rats were used. Given documented sex-based differences in antioxidant capacities and hormonal regulation, investigations using both sexes would offer broader translational relevance.

- **Dose-Response Profiles:** We employed a single dosage (75 mg/kg). Exploring both lower and higher doses could reveal optimal therapeutic windows or potential toxicity thresholds.

- Nevertheless, the outcome of this study demonstrates a consistent pattern: AminoTriComplex abates oxidative stress and bolsters mitochondrial respiration, thereby supporting the concept that a multi-targeted nutraceutical strategy is efficacious in mitigating acute oxidative insult. By expanding the scope of research to explore these additional facets, a comprehensive picture of this formulation's therapeutic potential in diverse chronic disease contexts will emerge.

3.10. Concluding Synopsis of Results and Discussion

Taken together, our results yield the following key points:

- **Effective Antioxidant Action:** AminoTriComplex robustly counters lipid peroxidation, as evidenced by decreased MDA levels, and reinforces intrinsic defenses (GSH, SOD, CAT) impaired by the CCl₄ challenge.

- **Mitochondrial Preservation:** By restoring state 3 respiration and the RCR, AminoTriComplex demonstrates its ability to maintain or recover the efficiency of oxidative phosphorylation, an essential cellular energy pathway.

- **Potential Mechanistic Pathways:** Although not exhaustively investigated here, the observed outcomes suggest involvement of known polyphenolic- and alkaloid-mediated pathways (e.g., Nrf2, AMPK, PI3K/Akt/mTOR).

- **Safety in Non-Stressed Conditions:** The formulation did not induce significant changes in oxidative stress or mitochondrial bioenergetics in healthy rats, underscoring a favorable therapeutic index.

- **Therapeutic Implications:** These findings hold promise for broader application in diseases where oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction are core features. The synergy of multiple active compounds within AminoTriComplex provides a rationale for multi-target approaches in complex chronic disorders.

As such, this research adds to the growing body of work supporting the development of natural product combinations with complementary and overlapping mechanisms of action. The capacity of AminoTriComplex to target multiple nodes in the oxidative stress cascade and safeguard mitochondrial integrity underscores its potential to serve as a feasible and efficacious intervention strategy. Further mechanistic delineation and long-term in vivo validation, particularly in dis-

ease-relevant models, should clarify the optimal clinical use of this promising formulation [88-103].

4. Conclusion

The results of this investigation underscore the potential of AminoTriComplex (AminoSineTriComplex) as a powerful agent in safeguarding cellular systems from the deleterious effects of oxidative stress. By employing a well-established carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) model of oxidative injury in Wistar rats, we observed that AminoTriComplex robustly normalized multiple oxidative stress markers—namely malondialdehyde (MDA), reduced glutathione (GSH), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and catalase (CAT)—and significantly improved core parameters of mitochondrial function, including state 3 respiration rates and respiratory control ratio (RCR). These findings collectively highlight the comprehensive manner in which AminoTriComplex protects hepatic tissue from radical-mediated damage and fosters the restoration of efficient mitochondrial energy metabolism. AminoTriComplex's protective role appears to hinge on its capacity to address the multifaceted nature of oxidative stress. Unlike single-compound therapies that often target a narrow segment of the redox disturbance, AminoTriComplex integrates an array of bioactive phytochemicals—such as epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG), resveratrol, and berberine—each displaying complementary and potentially synergistic actions. This multi-targeted approach is especially relevant in conditions where oxidative stress involves interconnected biochemical pathways encompassing lipid peroxidation, depletion of cellular antioxidants, and the impairment of enzymatic defenses. By modulating these distinct yet overlapping pathways, AminoTriComplex not only reduces the generation and propagation of harmful radicals but also fortifies endogenous defense systems critical to maintaining redox balance.

One of the central mechanisms by which AminoTriComplex confers cytoprotection is its ability to mitigate lipid peroxidation, as evidenced by lowered MDA levels in the liver. Lipid peroxidation is a major manifestation of oxidative damage, causing a loss of membrane fluidity, dysfunction in membrane-bound proteins, and eventual cell death. A reduction in MDA indicates that the chain reactions damaging cellular membranes have been curtailed. Moreover, the accompanying enhancement of GSH content, SOD activity, and CAT activity signifies a bolstering of intrinsic antioxidant defenses. GSH is pivotal in detoxifying reactive oxygen species (ROS) and maintaining cellular thiol status, whereas SOD and CAT synergistically convert superoxide and hydrogen peroxide into harmless byproducts. The marked improvement in these antioxidant markers strongly suggests that AminoTriComplex either directly scavenges ROS or helps sustain (and possibly upregulate) the enzymes responsible for neutralizing them.

In tandem with these antioxidant effects, AminoTriComplex significantly ameliorates mitochondrial dysfunction triggered by oxidative insult. Mitochondria are vital organelles for ATP production, and they also represent a primary site of ROS generation, particularly when electron transport chain components are compromised. The marked drop in state 3

respiration and RCR following CCl_4 administration underscores a decline in the mitochondria's capacity to produce ATP efficiently. By contrast, rats treated with AminoTriComplex demonstrated improved state 3 oxygen consumption and substantially restored RCR values, bringing them closer to those of control animals. These improvements indicate better preservation of oxidative phosphorylation, less proton leak, and more effective coupling between substrate oxidation and ATP synthesis. Thus, AminoTriComplex protects not only the structural integrity of mitochondrial membranes—limiting further ROS release—but also the functionality of critical ETC complexes. This mitochondrial preservation stands out as a crucial contributor to overall tissue protection, given that compromised mitochondria often initiate vicious cycles of ROS amplification and cellular damage. The therapeutic implications of such findings are broad, as oxidative stress is a central mediator in a range of chronic diseases, including diabetes, cancer, neurodegenerative disorders, and cardiovascular pathologies. By abating ROS production, reconstituting endogenous antioxidants, and stabilizing mitochondrial function, AminoTriComplex offers a multi-pronged prophylactic or therapeutic strategy for conditions underpinned by chronic oxidative injury. Additionally, this approach aligns with contemporary research emphasizing the need for interventions that can cross-regulate overlapping pathological pathways—a role natural compounds often fulfill more effectively than single-target drugs.

Despite these promising results, several avenues warrant further exploration. First, detailed mechanistic studies are needed to clarify how each constituent of AminoTriComplex contributes to the observed synergy. While it is plausible that EGCG, resveratrol, and berberine each uphold distinct cell-signaling cascades (for instance, through Nrf2, AMPK, and PI3K/Akt pathways), direct quantification of transcription factor activity, enzyme expression, and protein modifications would elucidate the precise interactions. Second, future studies spanning longer durations or alternative models of oxidative stress (e.g., chronic disease models, ischemia-reperfusion, or diet-induced metabolic syndrome) would help ascertain whether the beneficial effects of AminoTriComplex persist in more prolonged or severe pathophysiological contexts. It would also be instructive to investigate whether the formulation benefits tissues beyond the liver, such as muscle, brain, or cardiovascular tissues, where mitochondrial health is equally fundamental. Moreover, transitioning from preclinical promise to clinical application demands assessing the safety, pharmacokinetics, and optimal dosing regimen of AminoTriComplex in human subjects. While each of the active phytochemicals typically exhibits low toxicity, their combined use, especially at higher doses, merits careful scrutiny to ensure no unforeseen interactions occur. Dosing strategies must account for individual bioavailability profiles and potential variations in patient metabolism. Additionally, pilot clinical trials are essential to determine whether the beneficial effects observed in rats can extend to humans, including populations with specific disease burdens or comorbidities.

From a preventive medicine standpoint, a nutraceutical agent like AminoTriComplex is particularly attractive because of its plant-based origin and purported safety profile. The formulation could be investigated in high-risk populations—such as those with pre-diabetes, metabolic syndrome, or a family history of neurodegenerative disease—to determine if it can serve as an adjunctive measure that slows disease onset or progression. Integrative strategies combining AminoTriComplex with established treatments, such as hypoglycemic medications or anti-inflammatory drugs, may yield synergistic effects that enhance overall patient outcomes. Any emergent benefits, including improved energy metabolism, reduced inflammatory markers, or lower oxidative damage, would further validate the role of AminoTriComplex in comprehensive healthcare regimens.

Lastly, this study underscores an evolving paradigm in pharmacology and nutraceutical development where multi-compound formulations exploit the broad therapeutic landscapes of botanical extracts. Instead of isolating single active molecules, researchers and clinicians are increasingly recognizing that these substances often function more robustly in tandem, leveraging additive or synergistic effects across diverse molecular pathways. AminoTriComplex exemplifies this principle: by leveraging the overlapping but distinct contributions of EGCG, resveratrol, and berberine, it creates a potent antioxidant matrix able to confront oxidative stress on multiple fronts. This philosophy resonates with long-standing traditions of polyherbal remedies and integrative medicine, while also benefiting from modern scientific validation. In summary, the current research provides compelling evidence that AminoTriComplex can meaningfully attenuate oxidative damage and preserve mitochondrial integrity in a CCl_4 -induced model of hepatic injury. Through normalizing lipid peroxidation markers, replenishing antioxidant defense systems, and rescuing mitochondrial respiration, this formulation demonstrates a robust protective effect that may hold relevance across a spectrum of chronic, oxidative stress-related conditions. Additional investigations will help refine our understanding of its precise mechanisms, define optimal therapeutic regimens, and evaluate its efficacy and safety in human populations. Nevertheless, these initial findings constitute a promising step toward harnessing the synergy of carefully selected plant-derived compounds for comprehensive protection against the damaging consequences of excessive ROS generation.

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to the Institute for Personalized Medicine for providing full-time access to genetics and molecular biology laboratories for a few weeks and Tbilisi State Medical University too.

Funding

This work was supported by the Institute for Personalized Medicine – PMI, Tbilisi, Georgia.

References

1. Pizzino, G., Irrera, N., Cucinotta, M., Pallio, G., Mannino, F., Arcoraci, V., ... & Bitto, A. (2017). Oxidative stress: harms

- and benefits for human health. *Oxidative medicine and cellular longevity*, 2017(1), 8416763.
2. Liguori, I., Russo, G., Curcio, F., Bulli, G., Aran, L., Della-Morte, D., ... & Abete, P. (2018). Oxidative stress, aging, and diseases. *Clinical interventions in aging*, 757-772.
 3. Zuo, L., Prather, E. R., Stetskiy, M., Garrison, D. E., Meade, J. R., Peace, T. L., & Zhou, T. (2019). Inflammaging and oxidative stress in human diseases: from molecular mechanisms to novel treatments. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 20(18), 4472.
 4. Forrester, S. J., Kikuchi, D. S., Hernandez, M. S., Xu, Q., & Griendling, K. K. (2018). Reactive oxygen species in metabolic and inflammatory signaling. *Circulation research*, 122(6), 877-902.
 5. Guo, C., Sun, L., Chen, X., & Zhang, D. (2013). Oxidative stress, mitochondrial damage and neurodegenerative diseases. *Neural regeneration research*, 8(21), 2003-2014.
 6. Tungmunnithum, D., Thongboonyou, A., Pholboon, A., & Yangsabai, A. (2018). Flavonoids and other phenolic compounds from medicinal plants for pharmaceutical and medical aspects: An overview. *Medicines*, 5(3), 93.
 7. Tavartkiladze, A., Simonia, G., Lou, R., Revazishvili, P., Kasradze, D., Maisuradze, M., ... & Tavartkiladze, L. (2024). Exploring AminoSineTriComplex (AminoTriComplex) for Mul-timodal Tumor Management in Carcinogen-Induced Rat Mod-els: Insights from Blood Biomarker Analysis.
 8. Yeh, Y. H., Hsieh, Y. L., Lee, Y. T., & Hu, C. C. (2012). Protective effects of Geloina eros extract against carbon tetrachloride-induced hepatotoxicity in rats. *Food Research International*, 48(2), 551-558.
 9. Ohkawa, H., Ohishi, N., & Yagi, K. (1979). Assay for lipid peroxides in animal tissues by thiobarbituric acid reaction. *Analytical biochemistry*, 95(2), 351-358.
 10. Ellman, G. L. (1959). Tissue sulfhydryl groups. *Archives of biochemistry and biophysics*, 82(1), 70-77.
 11. Frezza, C., Cipolat, S., & Scorrano, L. (2007). Organelle isolation: functional mitochondria from mouse liver, muscle and cultured fibroblasts. *Nature protocols*, 2(2), 287-295.
 12. Brand, M. D., & Nicholls, D. G. (2011). Assessing mitochondrial dysfunction in cells. *Biochemical Journal*, 435(2), 297-312.
 13. Legeay, S., Rodier, M., Fillon, L., Faure, S., & Clere, N. (2015). Epigallocatechin gallate: a review of its beneficial properties to prevent metabolic syndrome. *Nutrients*, 7(7), 5443-5468.
 14. Salehi, B., Mishra, A. P., Nigam, M., Sener, B., Kilic, M., Sharifi-Rad, M., ... & Sharifi-Rad, J. (2018). Resveratrol: A double-edged sword in health benefits. *Biomedicines*, 6(3), 91.
 15. Imenshahidi, M., & Hosseinzadeh, H. (2019). Berberine and barberry (*Berberis vulgaris*): a clinical review. *Phytotherapy Research*, 33(3), 504-523.
 16. Jornayvaz, F. R., & Shulman, G. I. (2010). Regulation of mitochondrial biogenesis. *Essays in biochemistry*, 47, 69-84.
 17. Weber, L. W., Boll, M., & Stampfl, A. (2003). Hepatotoxicity and mechanism of action of haloalkanes: carbon tetrachloride as a toxicological model. *Critical reviews in toxicology*, 33(2), 105-136.
 18. Recknagel, R. O., Glende Jr, E. A., Dolak, J. A., & Waller, R. L. (1989). Mechanisms of carbon tetrachloride toxicity. *Pharmacology & therapeutics*, 43(1), 139-154.
 19. Halliwell, B. (2006). Reactive species and antioxidants. Redox biology is a fundamental theme of aerobic life. *Plant physiology*, 141(2), 312-322.
 20. Valko, M., Rhodes, C. J. B., Moncol, J., Izakovic, M. M., & Mazur, M. (2006). Free radicals, metals and antioxidants in oxidative stress-induced cancer. *Chemico-biological interactions*, 160(1), 1-40.
 21. Draper, H. H., & Hadley, M. (1990). [43] Malondialdehyde determination as index of lipid Peroxidation. In *Methods in enzymology* (Vol. 186, pp. 421-431). Academic press.
 22. Ceriello, A. (2006). Oxidative stress and diabetes-associated complications. *Endocrine Practice*, 12, 60-62.
 23. Tavartkiladze, A., Simonia, G., Lou, R., Revazishvili, P., Kasradze, D., Maisuradze, M., ... & Tavartkiladze, L. (2024). Exploring AminoSineTriComplex (AminoTriComplex) for Mul-timodal Tumor Management in Carcinogen-Induced Rat Mod-els: Insights from Blood Biomarker Analysis.
 24. Lambert, J. D., & Elias, R. J. (2010). The antioxidant and pro-oxidant activities of green tea polyphenols: a role in cancer prevention. *Archives of biochemistry and biophysics*, 501(1), 65-72.
 25. Baur, J. A., & Sinclair, D. A. (2006). Therapeutic potential of resveratrol: the in vivo evidence. *Nature reviews Drug discovery*, 5(6), 493-506.
 26. Neag, M. A., Mocan, A., Echeverría, J., Pop, R. M., Bocsan, C. I., Crişan, G., & Buzoianu, A. D. (2018). Berberine: Botanical occurrence, traditional uses, extraction methods, and relevance in cardiovascular, metabolic, hepatic, and renal disorders. *Frontiers in pharmacology*, 9, 557.
 27. Meister, A. (1988). Glutathione metabolism and its selective modification. *Journal of biological chemistry*, 263(33), 17205-17208.
 28. Forman, H. J., & Zhang, H. (2021). Targeting oxidative stress in disease: promise and limitations of antioxidant therapy. *Nature Reviews Drug Discovery*, 20(9), 689-709.
 29. Surh, Y. J. (2003). Cancer chemoprevention with dietary phytochemicals. *Nature Reviews Cancer*, 3(10), 768-780.
 30. Yates, M. S., Tran, Q. T., Dolan, P. M., Osburn, W. O., Shin, S., McCulloch, C. C., ... & Kensler, T. W. (2009). Genetic versus chemoprotective activation of Nrf2 signaling: overlapping yet distinct gene expression profiles between Keap1 knockout and triterpenoid-treated mice. *Carcinogenesis*, 30(6), 1024-1031.
 31. Valko, M., Leibfritz, D., Moncol, J., Cronin, M. T., Mazur, M., & Telser, J. (2007). Free radicals and antioxidants in normal physiological functions and human disease. *The international journal of biochemistry & cell biology*, 39(1), 44-84.
 32. Sharma, P., Jha, A. B., Dubey, R. S., & Pessarakli, M. (2012). Reactive oxygen species, oxidative damage, and antioxidative defense mechanism in plants under stressful conditions. *Journal of botany*, 2012(1), 217037.
 33. Townsend, D. M., Tew, K. D., & Tapiero, H. (2003). The importance of glutathione in human disease. *Biomedicine &*

- pharmacotherapy, 57(3-4), 145-155.
34. McCord, J. M., & Fridovich, I. (1969). Superoxide dismutase: an enzymic function for erythrocuprein (hemocuprein). *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 244(22), 6049-6055.
 35. Aebi, H. (1984). [13] Catalase in vitro. In *Methods in Enzymology* (Vol. 105, pp. 121-126). Academic Press.
 36. Halliwell, B., & Gutteridge, J. M. (2015). *Free radicals in biology and medicine*. Oxford University Press.
 37. Kohen, R., & Nyska, A. (2002). Invited review: oxidation of biological systems: oxidative stress phenomena, antioxidants, redox reactions, and methods for their quantification. *Toxicologic Pathology*, 30(6), 620-650.
 38. Alam, J., & Cook, J.L. (2007). Transcription factor Nrf2: An update on its regulation and role in oxidative stress. *Current Drug Targets*, 8(7), 743-754.
 39. Ma, Q. (2013). Role of nrf2 in oxidative stress and toxicity. *Annual Review of Pharmacology and Toxicology*, 53(1), 401-426.
 40. Shen, G., Jeong, W. S., Hu, R., & Kong, A. N. T. (2005). Regulation of Nrf2, NF- κ B, and AP-1 signaling pathways by chemopreventive agents. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling*, 7(11-12), 1648-1663.
 41. Kundu, J. K., & Surh, Y. J. (2010). Nrf2-Keap1 signaling as a potential target for chemoprevention of inflammation-associated carcinogenesis. *Pharmaceutical Research*, 27, 999-1013.
 42. Madesh, M., & Balasubramanian, K.A. (1997). Nitric oxide prevents peroxynitrite-mediated toxicity on liver mitochondria. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, 238(1), 139-144.
 43. Sanderson, J.T., Hewitt, L.M., Wisk, J.D., & Norstrom, R.J. (2007). Plasma concentrations of polyphenols from dietary black tea and green tea in adult male rats and potential mechanisms for increased antioxidant capacity. *Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health, Part A*, 70(9), 750-758.
 44. Venkatesan, N., & Rao, M.N. (1996). Effects of green tea consumption on the outcome of hepatic injury induced by carbon tetrachloride. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 51(11), 1501-1509.
 45. Albendín, I., Marchal, J.A., Lozano-Pérez, A.A., et al. (2021). Effects of resveratrol on hepatic injury and insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes mellitus: A review of preclinical and clinical studies. *Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy*, 140, 111754.
 46. Witt, C.M., & Aickin, M. (2010). Comparative effectiveness research in complementary and integrative medicine. *Explore*, 6(5), 341-352.
 47. Manna, P., Kalita, J., & Ghosh, M. (2016). Effect of phenolic acids on diabetes mellitus and complications: A review. *Pharmaceutical Biology*, 54(1), 1-18.
 48. Burton, G. J., & Jauniaux, E. (2011). Oxidative stress. *Best practice & research Clinical Obstetrics & Gynaecology*, 25(3), 287-299.
 49. Zuo, L., Prather, E. R., Stetskiy, M., Garrison, D. E., Meade, J. R., Peace, T. I., & Zhou, T. (2019). Inflammation and oxidative stress in human diseases: from molecular mechanisms to novel treatments. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 20(18), 4472.
 50. Brand, M. D. (2016). Mitochondrial generation of superoxide and hydrogen peroxide as the source of mitochondrial redox signaling. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, 100, 14-31.
 51. Lenaz, G., & Genova, M. L. (2010). Structure and organization of mitochondrial respiratory complexes: a new understanding of an old subject. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling*, 12(8), 961-1008.
 52. Lemasters, J. J. (1999). V. Necroptosis and the mitochondrial permeability transition: shared pathways to necrosis and apoptosis. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology*, 276(1), G1-G6.
 53. Zhang, C., Hu, J., Xing, X., & Chen, L. (2019). Mitochondrial dysfunction in carbon tetrachloride-induced liver injury: Protective effects of phenolic compounds. *Cell Stress and Chaperones*, 24(6), 961-973.
 54. Paradies, G., Paradies, V., Ruggiero, F. M., & Petrosillo, G. (2014). Oxidative stress, cardiolipin and mitochondrial dysfunction in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *World Journal of Gastroenterology: WJG*, 20(39), 14205.
 55. Paradies, G., Petrosillo, G., Paradies, V., & Ruggiero, F. M. (2011). Mitochondrial dysfunction in brain aging: role of oxidative stress and cardiolipin. *Neurochemistry International*, 58(4), 447-457.
 56. Wang, K., Feng, X., Chai, L., Cao, S., & Qiu, F. (2017). The metabolism of berberine and its contribution to the pharmacological effects. *Drug Metabolism Reviews*, 49(2), 139-157.
 57. Jornayvaz, F. R., & Shulman, G. I. (2010). Regulation of mitochondrial biogenesis. *Essays in Biochemistry*, 47, 69-84.
 58. Cantó, C., & Auwerx, J. (2009). PGC-1 α , SIRT1 and AMPK, an energy sensing network that controls energy expenditure. *Current Opinion in Lipidology*, 20(2), 98-105.
 59. Scarpulla, R. C. (2008). Transcriptional paradigms in mammalian mitochondrial biogenesis and function. *Physiological Reviews*, 88(2), 611-638.
 60. Ott, M., Gogvadze, V., Orrenius, S., & Zhivotovskiy, B. (2007). Mitochondria, oxidative stress and cell death. *Apoptosis*, 12, 913-922.
 61. Lenaz, G. (2011). Mitochondria and reactive oxygen species. Which role in physiology and pathology? *Advances in Mitochondrial Medicine*, 93-136.
 62. Estabrook, R. W. (1967). [7] Mitochondrial respiratory control and the polarographic measurement of ADP: O ratios. In *Methods in Enzymology* (Vol. 10, pp. 41-47). Academic Press.
 63. Hoppel, C., DiMarco, J. P., & Tandler, B. (1979). Riboflavin and rat hepatic cell structure and function. Mitochondrial oxidative metabolism in deficiency states. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 254(10), 4164-4170.
 64. Liu, L., Rowe, G.C., Yang, S., Li, J., & Raghuram, S. (2011). PGC-1 α integrates the mitochondrial biogenesis and energy metabolism programs directly through interaction with NRF1 and NRF2. *Cell Metabolism*, 13(6), 698-708.
 65. Laplante, M., & Sabatini, D. M. (2012). mTOR signaling in growth control and disease. *Cell*, 149(2), 274-293.
 66. Hardie, D. G. (2011). AMP-activated protein kinase—an energy sensor that regulates all aspects of cell function. *Genes & Development*, 25(18), 1895-1908.

67. Reznick, R. M., & Shulman, G. I. (2006). The role of AMP-activated protein kinase in mitochondrial biogenesis. *The Journal of physiology*, 574(1), 33-39.
68. Turner, N., Li, J.Y., Gosby, A., et al. (2008). Berberine and resveratrol inhibit mitochondrial respiratory complex I: Synergistic effects on glucose metabolism in diet induced obese mice. *Cell Metabolism*, 8(2), 141-153.
69. Guarente, L. (2011, January). Sirtuins, aging, and metabolism. In *Cold Spring Harbor symposia on quantitative biology* (Vol. 76, pp. 81-90). Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press.
70. Houtkooper, R. H., Pirinen, E., & Auwerx, J. (2012). Sirtuins as regulators of metabolism and healthspan. *Nature reviews Molecular cell biology*, 13(4), 225-238.
71. Price, N. L., Gomes, A. P., Ling, A. J., Duarte, F. V., Martin-Montalvo, A., North, B. J., ... & Sinclair, D. A. (2012). SIRT1 is required for AMPK activation and the beneficial effects of resveratrol on mitochondrial function. *Cell metabolism*, 15(5), 675-690.
72. Cuanalo-Contreras, K., Mukherjee, A., Soto, C., & Hernández-Rivas, Á. (2013). Mechanisms of protein misfolding and aggregation: From the liver to the brain. *Current Protein & Peptide Science*, 14(5), 330-341.
73. Murphy, M. P., & Hartley, R. C. (2018). Mitochondria as a therapeutic target for common pathologies. *Nature reviews Drug discovery*, 17(12), 865-886.
74. Bhatti, J. S., Bhatti, G. K., & Reddy, P. H. (2017). Mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress in metabolic disorders—A step towards mitochondria based therapeutic strategies. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Molecular Basis of Disease*, 1863(5), 1066-1077.
75. Atanasov, A. G., Zotchev, S. B., Dirsch, V. M., & Supuran, C. T. (2021). Natural products in drug discovery: advances and opportunities. *Nature reviews Drug discovery*, 20(3), 200-216.
76. Li, Y. R., Li, S., & Lin, C. C. (2018). Effect of resveratrol and pterostilbene on aging and longevity. *Biofactors*, 44(1), 69-82.
77. Wagner, H. (2011). Synergy research: approaching a new generation of phytopharmaceuticals. *Fitoterapia*, 82(1), 34-37.
78. Efferth, T., & Koch, E. (2011). Complex interactions between phytochemicals. The multi-target therapeutic concept of phytotherapy. *Current drug targets*, 12(1), 122-132.
79. Robert, L., Labat-Robert, J., & Robert, A. M. (2010). Genetic, epigenetic and posttranslational mechanisms of aging. *Biogerontology*, 11, 387-399.
80. Sies, H., & Jones, D. P. (2020). Reactive oxygen species (ROS) as pleiotropic physiological signalling agents. *Nature reviews Molecular cell biology*, 21(7), 363-383.
81. Brusq, J. M., Ancellin, N., Grondin, P., Guillard, R., Martin, S., Saintillan, Y., & Issandou, M. (2006). Inhibition of lipid synthesis through activation of AMP kinase: an additional mechanism for the hypolipidemic effects of berberine. *Journal of lipid research*, 47(6), 1281-1288.
82. Zou, C., Wang, Y., Shen, Z., et al. (2021). Meta-analysis of the effects of resveratrol on glycemic control and insulin sensitivity. *Cytokine*, 142, 155475.
83. Förstermann, U., & Sessa, W. C. (2012). Nitric oxide synthases: regulation and function. *European heart journal*, 33(7), 829-837.
84. Grover-Páez, F., & Zavalza-Gómez, A. B. (2009). Endothelial dysfunction and cardiovascular risk factors. *Diabetes research and clinical practice*, 84(1), 1-10.
85. Cai, H., & Harrison, D. G. (2000). Endothelial dysfunction in cardiovascular diseases: the role of oxidant stress. *Circulation research*, 87(10), 840-844.
86. Thandapilly, S. J., Wojciechowski, P., Behbahani, J., Louis, X. L., Yu, L., Juric, D., ... & Netticadan, T. (2010). Resveratrol prevents the development of pathological cardiac hypertrophy and contractile dysfunction in the SHR without lowering blood pressure. *American journal of hypertension*, 23(2), 192-196.
87. Grassi, D., Desideri, G., & Ferri, C. (2010). Flavonoids: antioxidants against atherosclerosis. *Nutrients*, 2(8), 889-902.
88. Lin, M. T., & Beal, M. F. (2006). Mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress in neurodegenerative diseases. *Nature*, 443(7113), 787-795.
89. Li, J., & Le, W. (2013). Modeling neurodegenerative diseases in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Experimental neurology*, 250, 94-103.
90. Ghosh, S., Saha, S., Faruque, O., & Rahaman, O. (2022). Phytochemicals as potential drug candidates for the management of Alzheimer's disease: A review. *Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy*, 149, 112883.
91. Albarracin, S. L., Stab, B., Casas, Z., Sutachan, J. J., Samudio, I., Gonzalez, J., ... & Barreto, G. E. (2012). Effects of natural antioxidants in neurodegenerative disease. *Nutritional neuroscience*, 15(1), 1-9.
92. Kong, W. J., Zhang, H., Song, D. Q., Xue, R., Zhao, W., Wei, J., ... & Jiang, J. D. (2009). Berberine reduces insulin resistance through protein kinase C-dependent up-regulation of insulin receptor expression. *Metabolism*, 58(1), 109-119.
93. Liou, G. Y., & Storz, P. (2010). Reactive oxygen species in cancer. *Free radical research*, 44(5), 479-496.
94. Gorrini, C., Harris, I. S., & Mak, T. W. (2013). Modulation of oxidative stress as an anticancer strategy. *Nature reviews Drug discovery*, 12(12), 931-947.
95. Lee, C.Y., Sharma, M., & Rubel, I.A. (2022). Mechanistic insights into the anticancer activity of resveratrol-mediated cell death. *Phytomedicine*, 104, 154347.
96. Lin, Y., Shi, R., Wang, X., & Shen, H. M. (2008). Luteolin, a flavonoid with potential for cancer prevention and therapy. *Current cancer drug targets*, 8(7), 634-646.
97. Peters, C. M., Green, R. J., Janle, E. M., & Ferruzzi, M. G. (2010). Formulation with ascorbic acid and sucrose modulates catechin bioavailability from green tea. *Food research international*, 43(1), 95-102.
98. Walle, T. (2011). Bioavailability of resveratrol. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1215(1), 9-15.
99. Zhang, M., & Merlin, D. (2018). Nanoparticle-based oral drug delivery systems targeting the colon for treatment of ulcerative colitis. *Inflammatory bowel diseases*, 24(7), 1401-1415.
100. Singla, R. K., Dubey, A. K., Garg, A., Sharma, R. K., Fiorino, M., Ameen, S. M., ... & Al-Hiary, M. (2019). Natural polyphenols: Chemical classification, definition of

- classes, subcategories, and structures. *Journal of AOAC International*, 102(5), 1397-1400.
101. BfR Federal Institute for Risk Assessment (2018). Health assessment of isolated green tea catechins. Opinion No. 008/2018.
102. Zhou, S., Chan, E., Pan, S. Q., Huang, M., & Lee, E. J. D. (2004). Pharmacokinetic interactions of drugs with St John's wort. *Journal of Psychopharmacology*, 18(2), 262-276.
103. Colalto, C. (2010). Herbal interactions on absorption of drugs: Mechanisms of action and clinical risk assessment. *Pharmacological Research*, 62(3), 207-227.