3

Archaeal Porphyrins, Regulation of Cell Function and Neuro-Immuno-Endocrine Integration

Introduction

Actinidic archaea have been related to the pathogenesis of schizophrenia, malignancy, metabolic syndrome x, autoimmune disease and neuronal degeneration.[1-8] An actinide dependent shadow biosphere of archaea and viroids in the above mentioned disease states is described.[7,9] Actinidic archaea have a mevalonate pathway and are cholesterol catabolizing. They can use cholesterol as a carbon and energy source. Archaeal cholesterol catabolism can generate porphyrins via the cholesterol ring oxidase generated pyruvate and GABA shunt pathway. Porphyrins have been related to schizophrenia, metabolic syndrome x, malignancy, systemic lupus erythematosis, multiple sclerosis and Alzheimer's diseases. The role of archaeal porphyrins in regulation of cell functions and neuro-immuno-endocrine integration is discussed.

Materials and Methods

The following groups were included in the study: – endomyocardial fibrosis, alzheimer's disease, multiple sclerosis, non-hodgkin's lymphoma, metabolic syndrome x with cerebrovascular thrombosis and coronary artery disease, schizophrenia, autism, seizure disorder, creutzfeldt jakob disease and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. There were 10 patients in each group and each patient had an age and sex matched healthy control selected randomly from the general population. The blood samples were drawn in the fasting state before treatment was initiated. Plasma from fasting heparinised blood was used and the experimental protocol was as follows (I) Plasma+phosphate buffered saline, (II) same as I+cholesterol substrate, (III) same as II+rutile 0.1 mg/ml, (IV) same as II+ciprofloxacine and doxycycline each in a concentration of 1 mg/ml. Choles-

terol substrate was prepared as described by Richmond.[10] Aliquots were withdrawn at zero time immediately after mixing and after incubation at 37 ^{o}C for 1 hour. The following estimations were carried out: – Cytochrome F420, free RNA, free DNA, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon, hydrogen peroxide, pyruvate, ammonia, glutamate, delta aminolevulinic acid, succinate, glycine and digoxin.[11-13] Cytochrome F420 was estimated flourimetrically (excitation wavelength 420 nm and emission wavelength 520 nm). Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon was estimated by measuring hydrogen peroxide liberated by using glucose reagent. Informed consent of the subjects and the approval of the ethics committee were obtained for the study. The statistical analysis was done by ANOVA.

Results

Plasma of control subjects showed increased levels of the above mentioned parameters with after incubation for 1 hour and addition of cholesterol substrate resulted in still further significant increase in these parameters. The plasma of patients showed similar results but the extent of increase was more. The addition of antibiotics to the control plasma caused a decrease in all the parameters while addition of rutile increased their levels. The addition of antibiotics to the patient's plasma caused a decrease in all the parameters while addition of rutile increased their levels but the extent of change was more in patient's sera as compared to controls. The results are expressed in tables 1-6 as percentage change in the parameters after 1 hour incubation as compared to the values at zero time. There was upregulated archaeal porphyrin synthesis in the patient population which was archaeal in origin as indicated by actinide catalysis of the reactions. The cholesterol oxidase pathway generated pyruvate

which entered the GABA shunt pathway. This resulted in synthesis of succinate and glycine which are substrates for ALA synthase.

Table 3.1 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on cytochrome F420 and PAH.*

Group	CYT F420 % (Increase with Rutile)		CYT F420 % (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)		PAH % change (Increase with Rutile)		PAH % change (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)	
	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD
Normal	4.48	0.15	18.24	0.66	4.45	0.14	18.25	0.72
Schizo	23.24	2.01	58.72	7.08	23.01	1.69	59.49	4.30
Seizure	23.46	1.87	59.27	8.86	22.67	2.29	57.69	5.29
AD	23.12	2.00	56.90	6.94	23.26	1.53	60.91	7.59
MS	22.12	1.81	61.33	9.82	22.83	1.78	59.84	7.62
NHL	22.79	2.13	55.90	7.29	22.84	1.42	66.07	3.78
DM	22.59	1.86	57.05	8.45	23.40	1.55	65.77	5.27
AIDS	22.29	1.66	59.02	7.50	23.23	1.97	65.89	5.05
CJD	22.06	1.61	57.81	6.04	23.46	1.91	61.56	4.61
Autism	21.68	1.90	57.93	9.64	22.61	1.42	64.48	6.90
EMF	22.70	1.87	60.46	8.06	23.73	1.38	65.20	6.20
	F value 306.749 P value < 0.001		F value 130.054 P value < 0.001		F value 391.318 P value < 0.001		F value 257.996 P value < 0.001	

Table 3.2 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on free RNA and DNA.*

Group	DNA % change (Increase with Rutile)		DNA % change (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)		RNA % change (Increase with Rutile)		RNA % change (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)	
	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD
Normal	4.37	0.15	18.39	0.38	4.37	0.13	18.38	0.48
Schizo	23.28	1.70	61.41	3.36	23.59	1.83	65.69	3.94
Seizure	23.40	1.51	63.68	4.66	23.08	1.87	65.09	3.48
AD	23.52	1.65	64.15	4.60	23.29	1.92	65.39	3.95
MS	22.62	1.38	63.82	5.53	23.29	1.98	67.46	3.96
NHL	22.42	1.99	61.14	3.47	23.78	1.20	66.90	4.10
DM	23.01	1.67	65.35	3.56	23.33	1.86	66.46	3.65
AIDS	22.56	2.46	62.70	4.53	23.32	1.74	65.67	4.16
CJD	23.30	1.42	65.07	4.95	23.11	1.52	66.68	3.97
Autism	22.12	2.44	63.69	5.14	23.33	1.35	66.83	3.27
EMF	22.29	2.05	58.70	7.34	22.29	2.05	67.03	5.97
	F value 337.577 P value < 0.001		F value 356.621 P value < 0.001		F value 427.828 P value < 0.001		F value 654.453 P value < 0.001	

Table 3.3 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on digoxin and delta aminolevulinic acid.*

Group	Digoxin (ng/ml) (Increase with Rutile)		Digoxin (ng/ml) (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)		ALA % (Increase with Rutile)		ALA % (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)	
	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD
Normal	0.11	0.00	0.054	0.003	4.40	0.10	18.48	0.39
Schizo	0.55	0.06	0.219	0.043	22.52	1.90	66.39	4.20
Seizure	0.51	0.05	0.199	0.027	22.83	1.90	67.23	3.45
AD	0.55	0.03	0.192	0.040	23.67	1.68	66.50	3.58
MS	0.52	0.03	0.214	0.032	22.38	1.79	67.10	3.82
NHL	0.54	0.04	0.210	0.042	23.34	1.75	66.80	3.43
DM	0.47	0.04	0.202	0.025	22.87	1.84	66.31	3.68
AIDS	0.56	0.05	0.220	0.052	23.45	1.79	66.32	3.63
CJD	0.53	0.06	0.212	0.045	23.17	1.88	68.53	2.65
Autism	0.53	0.08	0.205	0.041	23.20	1.57	66.65	4.26
EMF	0.51	0.05	0.213	0.033	22.29	2.05	61.91	7.56
	F value 135.116 P value < 0.001		F value 71.706 P value < 0.001		F value 372.716 P value < 0.001		F value 556.411 P value < 0.001	

Table 3.4 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on succinate and glycine.*

Group	Succinate % (Increase with Rutile)		Succinate % (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)		Glycine % change (Increase with Rutile)		Glycine % change (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)	
	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD
Normal	4.41	0.15	18.63	0.12	4.34	0.15	18.24	0.37
Schizo	22.76	2.20	67.63	3.52	22.79	2.20	64.26	6.02
Seizure	22.28	1.52	64.05	2.79	22.82	1.56	64.61	4.95
AD	23.81	1.90	66.95	3.67	23.12	1.71	65.12	5.58
MS	24.10	1.61	65.78	4.43	22.73	2.46	65.87	4.35
NHL	23.43	1.57	66.30	3.57	22.98	1.50	65.13	4.87
DM	23.70	1.75	68.06	3.52	23.81	1.49	64.89	6.01
AIDS	23.66	1.67	65.97	3.36	23.09	1.81	65.86	4.27
CJD	22.92	2.14	67.54	3.65	21.93	2.29	63.70	5.63
Autism	21.88	1.19	66.28	3.60	23.02	1.65	67.61	2.77
EMF	22.29	1.33	65.38	3.62	22.13	2.14	66.26	3.93
	F value 403.394 P value < 0.001		F value 680.284 P value < 0.001		F value 348.867 P value < 0.001		F value 364.999 P value < 0.001	

Table 3.5 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on pyruvate and Glutamate.*

Group	Pyruvate % change (Increase with Rutile)		Pyruvate % change (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)		Glutamate (Increase with Rutile)		Glutamate (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)	
	Mean	**± SD**	**Mean**	**± SD**	**Mean**	**± SD**	**Mean**	**± SD**
Normal	4.34	0.21	18.43	0.82	4.21	0.16	18.56	0.76
Schizo	20.99	1.46	61.23	9.73	23.01	2.61	65.87	5.27
Seizure	20.94	1.54	62.76	8.52	23.33	1.79	62.50	5.56
AD	22.63	0.88	56.40	8.59	22.96	2.12	65.11	5.91
MS	21.59	1.23	60.28	9.22	22.81	1.91	63.47	5.81
NHL	21.19	1.61	58.57	7.47	22.53	2.41	64.29	5.44
DM	20.67	1.38	58.75	8.12	23.23	1.88	65.11	5.14
AIDS	21.21	2.36	58.73	8.10	21.11	2.25	64.20	5.38
CJD	21.07	1.79	63.90	7.13	22.47	2.17	65.97	4.62
Autism	21.91	1.71	58.45	6.66	22.88	1.87	65.45	5.08
EMF	22.29	2.05	62.37	5.05	21.66	1.94	67.03	5.97
	F value 321.255 P value < 0.001		F value 115.242 P value < 0.001		F value 292.065 P value < 0.001		F value 317.966 P value < 0.001	

Table 3.6 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on hydrogen peroxide and ammonia.*

Group	H_2O_2 % (Increase with Rutile)		H_2O_2 % (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)		Ammonia % (Increase with Rutile)		Ammonia % (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)	
	Mean	**± SD**	**Mean**	**± SD**	**Mean**	**± SD**	**Mean**	**± SD**
Normal	4.43	0.19	18.13	0.63	4.40	0.10	18.48	0.39
Schizo	22.50	1.66	60.21	7.42	22.52	1.90	66.39	4.20
Seizure	23.81	1.19	61.08	7.38	22.83	1.90	67.23	3.45
AD	22.65	2.48	60.19	6.98	23.67	1.68	66.50	3.58
MS	21.14	1.20	60.53	4.70	22.38	1.79	67.10	3.82
NHL	23.35	1.76	59.17	3.33	23.34	1.75	66.80	3.43
DM	23.27	1.53	58.91	6.09	22.87	1.84	66.31	3.68
AIDS	23.32	1.71	63.15	7.62	23.45	1.79	66.32	3.63
CJD	22.86	1.91	63.66	6.88	23.17	1.88	68.53	2.65
Autism	23.52	1.49	63.24	7.36	23.20	1.57	66.65	4.26
EMF	23.29	1.67	60.52	5.38	22.29	2.05	61.91	7.56
	F value 380.721 P value < 0.001		F value 171.228 P value < 0.001		F value 372.716 P value < 0.001		F value 556.411 P value < 0.001	

Discussion

There was increase in cytochrome F420 indicating archaeal growth. The archaea can synthesise and use cholesterol as a carbon and energy source.[6,14] The archeal origin of the enzyme activities was indicated by antibiotic induced suppression. The study indicates the presence of actinide based archaea with an alternate actinide based enzymes or metalloenzymes in the system as indicated by rutile induced increase in enzyme activities.[15] The archaeal beta hydroxyl steroid dehydrogenase activity indicating digoxin synthesis.[8] The archaeal cholesterol oxidase activity was increased resulting in generation of pyruvate and hydrogen peroxide.[14] The pyruvate gets converted to glutamate and ammonia by the GABA shunt pathway. The pyruvate is converted to glutamate by serum glutamate pyruvate transaminase. The glutamate gets acted upon by glutamate dehydrogenase to generate alpha ketoglutarate and ammonia. Alanine is most commonly produced by the reductive amination of pyruvate via alanine transaminase. This reversible reaction involves the interconversion of alanine and pyruvate, coupled to the interconversion of alpha-ketoglutarate (2-oxoglutarate) and glutamate. Alanine can contribute to glycine. Glutamate is acted upon by Glutamic acid decarboxylase to generate GABA. GABA is converted to succinic semialdehyde by GABA transaminase. Succinic semialdehyde is converted to succinic acid by succinic semialdehyde dehydrogenase. Glycine combines with succinyl CoA to generate delta aminolevulinic acid catalysed by the enzyme ALA synthase. There was upregulated archaeal porphyrin synthesis in the patient population which was archaeal in origin as indicated by actinide catalysis of the reactions. The cholesterol oxidase pathway generated pyruvate which entered the GABA shunt pathway. This resulted in synthesis of succinate and glycine which are substrates for ALA synthase. The

archaea can undergo magnetite and calcium carbonate mineralization and can exist as calcified nanoforms.[16,17]

There was an increase in free RNA indicating self replicating RNA viroids and free DNA indicating generation of viroid complementary DNA strands by archaeal reverse transcriptase activity. The actinides and porphyrins modulate RNA folding and catalyse its ribozymal action. Digoxin can cut and paste the viroidal strands by modulating RNA splicing generating RNA viroidal diversity. The viroids are evolutionarily escaped archaeal group I introns which have retrotransposition and self splicing qualities.[18] Archaeal pyruvate producing histone deacetylase inhibition and porphyrins intercalating with DNA can produce endogenous retroviral (HERV) reverse transcriptase and integrase expression. This can integrate the RNA viroidal complementary DNA into the noncoding region of eukaryotic noncoding DNA using HERV integrase as has been described for borna and ebola viruses.[19] The archaea and viroids can also induce cellular porphyrin synthesis. Bacterial and viral infections can precipitate porphyria.[20-23]

The porphyrins can undergo photooxidation generating free radicals. The archaeal porphyrins can produce free radical injury. The porphyrins can complex and intercalate with the cell membrane producing sodium potassium ATPase inhibition adding on to digoxin mediated inhibition. Porphyrins can complex with proteins and nucleic acid producing biophoton emission. Porphyrins complexing with proteins can modulate protein structure and function. Porphyrins complexing with DNA and RNA can modulate transcription and translation. The porphyrin especially protoporphyrins can bind to peripheral benzodiazepine receptors in the mitochondria and modulate its function, mitochondrial cholesterol transport and steroidogenesis. Peripheral benzodiazepine receptor modulation by protoporphyrins can regulate cell death, cell

proliferation, immunity and neural functions. The porphyrin photo-oxidation generates free radicals which can modulate enzyme function. Redox stress modulated enzymes include pyruvate dehydrogenase, nitric oxide synthase, cystathione beta synthase and hemeoxygenase. Free radicals can modulate mitochondrial PT pore function. Free radicals can modulate cell membrane function and inhibit sodium potassium ATPase activity. Thus the porphyrins are key regulatory molecules modulating all aspects of cell function.[20-23]

The archaea and viroids can regulate the nervous system including the NMDA/GABA thalamocorticothalamic pathway mediating conscious perception.[4,22] Porphyrin photo-oxidation can generate free radicals which can modulate NMDA transmission. Free radicals can increase NMDA transmission. Free radicals can induce GAD and increase GABA synthesis. Thus porphyrins can modulate the thalamocorticothalamic pathway of conscious perception. The dipolar porphyrins, PAH and archaeal magnetite in the setting of digoxin induced sodium potassium ATPase inhibition can produce a pumped phonon system mediated frohlich model superconducting state[22] inducing quantal perception with nanoarchaeal sensed gravity producing the orchestrated reduction of the quantal possibilities to the macrosopic world.[4,22] Thus the porphyrins can mediate conscious and quantal perception. Porphyrins binding to proteins, nucleic acids and cell membranes can produce biophoton emission. Biophotons can mediate quantal perception. Cellular porphyrins photo-oxidation are involved in sensing of earth magnetic fields and low level biomagnetic fields. Thus prophyrins can mediate extrasensory perception. The increase in archaeal porphyrins can contribute to the pathogenesis of schizophrenia and autism. Porphyria can lead to psychiatric disorders and seizures. Altered porphyrin metabolism has been described in autism. Porphyrin induced increased NMDA transmission and free radical injury can contribute to neuronal degeneration. Free radicals can produce mitochondrial PT pore

dysfunction. This can lead to cytoC leak and activation of the caspase cascade leading to apoptosis and cell death. Altered porphyrin metabolism has been described in Alzheimer's disease. The increased porphyrin photo-oxidation generated free radicals mediated NMDA transmission can also contribute to epileptogenesis. The protoporphyrins binding to mitochondrial benzodiazepine receptors can regulate brain function and cell death.[20-23]

The porphyrin photo-oxidation can generate free radicals which can activate NFKB. This can produce immune activation and cytokine mediated injury. The increase in archaeal porphyrins can lead to autoimmune disease like systemic lupus erythematosis and multiple sclerosis. A hereditary form of multiple sclerosis and systemic lupus erythematosis related to altered porphyrin metabolism has been described. The protoporphyrins binding to mitochondrial benzodiazepine receptors can modulate immune function.[20-23]

The porphyrin photo-oxidation mediated free radical injury can lead to insulin resistance and atherogenesis. Thus archaeal porphyrins can contribute to metabolic syndrome x. Glucose has got a negative effect upon ALA synthase activity. Therefore hyperglycemia may be reactive protective mechanism to increased archaeal porphyrin synthesis. The protoporphyrins binding to mitochondrial benzodiazepine receptors can modulate mitochondrial steroidogenesis and metabolism. Altered porphyrin metabolism has been described in the metabolic syndrome x. Porphyrias can lead onto vascular thrombosis.[20-23]

The porphyrin photo-oxidation can generate free radicals inducing HIF alpha and producing oncogene activation. This can lead to oncogenesis. Hepatic porphyrias induced hepatocellular carcinoma. The protoporphyrins binding to mitochondrial benzodiazepine receptors can regulate cell proliferation.[20-23]

The porphyrin can combine with prion proteins modulating their conformation. This leads to abnormal prion protein conformation and degradation. Archaeal porphyrins can contribute to prion disease. The porphyrins can intercalate with DNA producing HERV expression. The HERV particles generated can contribute to the retroviral state.[20-23] The porphyrins in the blood can combine with bacteria and viruses and the photo-oxidation generated free radicals can kill them. The archaeal porphyrins can modulate bacterial and viral infections. The archaeal porphyrins are regulatory molecules keeping other prokaryotes and viruses on check.

Thus the archaeal porphyrins can contribute to the pathgenesis of metabolic syndrome x, malignancy, psychiatric disorders, autoimmune disease, AIDS, prion disease, neuronal degeneration and epileptogenesis. Archaeal porphyrin synthesis is crucial in the pathogenesis of these disorders. Porphyrins may serve as regulatory molecules modulating immune, neural, endocrine, metabolic and genetic systems. The porphyrins photo-oxidation generated free radicals can produce immune activation, produce cell death, activate cell proliferation, produce insulin resistance and modulate conscious/quantal perception. The archaeal porphyrins functions as key regulatory molecules with mitochondrial benzodiazepine receptors playing an important role.[20-23]

References

[1] Hanold D., Randies, J. W. (1991). Coconut cadang-cadang disease and its viroid agent, *Plant Disease,* 75, 330-335.

[2] Valiathan M. S., Somers, K., Kartha, C. C. (1993). *Endomyocardial Fibrosis.* Delhi: Oxford University Press.

[3] Edwin B. T., Mohankumaran, C. (2007). Kerala wilt disease phytoplasma: Phylogenetic analysis and identification of a vector, Proutista moesta, *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology*, 71(1-3), 41-47.

[4] Kurup R., Kurup, P. A. (2009). *Hypothalamic digoxin, cerebral dominance and brain function in health and diseases*. New York: Nova Science Publishers.

[5] Eckburg P. B., Lepp, P. W., Relman, D. A. (2003). Archaea and their potential role in human disease, *Infect Immun*, 71, 591-596.

[6] Smit A., Mushegian, A. (2000). Biosynthesis of isoprenoids via mevalonate in Archaea: the lost pathway, *Genome Res*, 10(10), 1468-84.

[7] Adam Z. (2007). Actinides and Life's Origins, *Astrobiology*, 7, 6-10.

[8] Schoner W. (2002). Endogenous cardiac glycosides, a new class of steroid hormones, *Eur J Biochem*, 269, 2440-2448.

[9] Davies P. C. W., Benner, S. A., Cleland, C. E., Lineweaver, C. H., McKay, C. P., Wolfe-Simon, F. (2009). Signatures of a Shadow Biosphere, *Astrobiology*, 10, 241-249.

[10] Richmond W. (1973). Preparation and properties of a cholesterol oxidase from nocardia species and its application to the enzymatic assay of total cholesterol in serum, *Clin Chem*, 19, 1350-1356.

[11] Snell E. D., Snell, C. T. (1961). *Colorimetric Methods of Analysis.* Vol 3A. New York: Van NoStrand.

[12] Glick D. (1971). *Methods of Biochemical Analysis.* Vol 5. New York: Interscience Publishers.

[13] Colowick, Kaplan, N. O. (1955). *Methods in Enzymology.* Vol 2. New York: Academic Press.

[14] Van der Geize R., Yam, K., Heuser, T., Wilbrink, M. H., Hara, H., Anderton, M. C. (2007). A gene cluster encoding cholesterol catabolism in a soil actinomycete provides insight into Mycobacterium tuberculosis survival in macrophages, *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 104(6), 1947-52.

[15] Francis A. J. (1998). Biotransformation of uranium and other actinides in radioactive wastes, *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, 271(273), 78-84.

[16] Probian C., Wülfing, A., Harder, J. (2003). Anaerobic mineralization of quaternary carbon atoms: Isolation of denitrifying bacteria on pivalic acid (2, 2-

Dimethylpropionic acid), *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 69(3), 1866-1870.

[17] Vainshtein M., Suzina, N., Kudryashova, E., Ariskina, E. (2002). New Magnet-Sensitive Structures in Bacterial and Archaeal Cells, *Biol Cell*, 94(1), 29-35.

[18] Tsagris E. M., de Alba, A. E., Gozmanova, M., Kalantidis, K. (2008). Viroids, *Cell Microbiol*, 10, 2168.

[19] Horie M., Honda, T., Suzuki, Y., Kobayashi, Y., Daito, T., Oshida, T. (2010). Endogenous non-retroviral RNA virus elements in mammalian genomes, *Nature*, 463, 84-87.

[20] Bouche Ɲ., Fromm, H. (2004). GABA in plants: just a metabolite? *Trends in Plant Science*, 9(3), 110-114.

[21] Puy, H., Gouya, L., Deybach, J. C. (2010). Porphyrias. *The Lancet*, 375(9718), 924-937.

[22] Kadish, K. M., Smith, K. M., Guilard, C. (1999). *Porphyrin Hand Book*. Academic Press, New York: Elsevier.

[23] Gavish M., Bachman, I., Shoukrun, R., Katz, Y., Veenman, L., Weisinger, G., Weizman, A. (1999). Enigma of the Peripheral Benzodiazepine Receptor. *Pharmacological Reviews*, 51(4), 629-650.