

Chapter 14

« <> <> <> <> <> <> <> <> <> <> <> <> <> <> »

**Neanderthalic Actinide Dependent Shadow Biosphere of Archaea
and Viroids and Hemispheric Dominance – The Ontogenesis of
Schizophrenia, Autism and Epilepsy**

Introduction

The human brain synthesises an endogenous membrane sodium-potassium ATPase inhibitor digoxin which plays a role in neuro-immuno-endocrine integration and pathogenesis of several neuropsychiatric and systemic diseases. Endomyocardial fibrosis (EMF) along with the root wilt disease of coconut is endemic to Kerala with its radioactive actinide beach sands. Actinides like rutile producing intracellular magnesium deficiency due to rutile-magnesium exchange sites in the cell membrane has been implicated in the etiology of EMF¹. Endogenous digoxin, a steroidal glycoside which functions as a membrane sodium-potassium ATPase inhibitor has also been related to its etiology due to the intracellular magnesium deficiency it produces². Organisms like phytoplasmas and viroids have also been demonstrated to play a role in the etiology of these diseases^{3, 4}. Endogenous digoxin has been related to hemispheric dominance². Right hemispheric dominant individuals were hyperdigoxinemic, left hemispheric dominant individuals were hypodigoxinemic and bihemispheric dominant individuals were normodigoxinemic. The possibility of endogenous digoxin synthesis by actinide based primitive organism like archaea with a mevalonate pathway and cholesterol catabolism was considered^{5, 6, 7}. Davies has put forward the concept of a shadow biosphere of organisms with alternate biochemistry present in earth itself⁸. An actinide dependent shadow biosphere of archaea and viroids in the above mentioned disease states is described⁶. The intracellular endosymbionts archaea and their intron derived viroids constitute the third element regulating the human body.

Materials and Methods

Informed consent of the subjects and the approval of the ethics committee were obtained for the study. The following groups were included in the study: – (I) right handed and left hemispheric dominant group, (II) left handed and right hemispheric dominant group and (III) amphotrous and bihemispheric dominant individuals. Hemispheric dominance was assessed by methods described in previous reports². There were 10 healthy normal individuals in the age range between 20 and 30 years in each group. They were selected randomly from the general population. The blood samples were drawn in the fasting state. 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+ciprofloxacin and doxycycline each in a concentration of 1 mg/ml. Cholesterol substrate was prepared as described by Richmond⁹. Aliquots were withdrawn at zero time immediately after mixing and after incubation at 37°C for 1 hour. The following estimations were carried out: – Cytochrome F420, free RNA, free DNA, muramic acid, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon, hydrogen peroxide, dopamine, pyruvate, ammonia, glutamate, cytochrome C, hexokinase, ATP synthase, HMG CoA reductase, digoxin and bile acids¹⁰⁻¹³. Cytochrome F420 was estimated fluorimetrically (excitation wavelength 420 nm and emission wavelength 520 nm). Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon was estimated by measuring hydrogen peroxide liberated by using glucose reagent. The statistical analysis was done by ANOVA.

Results

The parameters checked as indicated above were: – cytochrome F420, free RNA, free DNA, muramic acid, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon, hydrogen

peroxide, serotonin, pyruvate, ammonia, glutamate, cytochrome C, hexokinase, ATP synthase, HMG CoA reductase, digoxin and bile acids. The plasma of the bihemispheric dominant group showed detectable levels of the above mentioned parameters after incubation for 1 hour and addition of cholesterol substrate resulted in still further increase in these parameters. The addition of antibiotics to the bihemispheric dominant group caused a decrease in all the parameters while addition of rutil increased their levels. The plasma of right hemispheric dominant group showed a significant increase in the above mentioned parameters as compared to bihemispheric dominance group. The addition of antibiotics to the right hemispheric dominant group caused a decrease in all the parameters while addition of rutil increased their levels but the extent of change was more in right hemispheric dominant group as compared to bihemispheric dominant group. The plasma of left hemispheric dominant group showed a significant decrease in the above mentioned parameters as compared to the bihemispheric dominant group. The addition of antibiotics to the left hemispheric dominant group caused a decrease in all the parameters while addition of rutil increased their levels but the extent of change was less in left hemispheric dominant group as compared to bihemispheric dominant group. The results are expressed in tables 1-7 as percentage change in the parameters after 1 hour incubation as compared to the values at zero time.

Table 1 *Effect of rutil and antibiotics on free DNA and RNA.*

Group	DNA % change (Increase with Rutil)		DNA % change (Decrease with antibiotics)		RNA % change (Increase with Rutil)		RNA % change (Decrease with antibiotics)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
BHD	4.37	0.15	18.39	0.38	4.37	0.13	18.38	0.48
RHD	22.99	1.56	65.19	4.10	23.27	1.36	65.66	3.93
LHD	2.26	0.25	7.45	0.40	2.30	0.12	7.62	0.30
F value	337.577		356.621		427.828		654.453	
P value	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

Table 2 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on cyt F 420 and muramic acid.*

Group	CYT F420 % change (Increase with Rutile)		CYT F420 % change (Decrease with antibiotics)		Muramic acid % change (Increase with Rutile)		Muramic acid % change (Decrease with antibiotics)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
BHD	4.48	0.15	18.24	0.66	4.34	0.15	18.24	0.37
RHD	11.35	0.64	60.49	6.22	22.68	1.99	63.29	5.93
LHD	2.13	0.13	5.37	1.47	2.26	0.25	7.45	0.40
F value	306.749		130.054		348.867		364.999	
P value	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

Table 3 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on HMG CoA reductase and PAH.*

Group	HMG CoA R % change (Increase with Rutile)		HMG CoA R % change (Decrease with antibiotics)		PAH % change (Increase with Rutile)		PAH % change (Decrease with antibiotics)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
BHD	4.30	0.20	18.35	0.35	4.45	0.14	18.25	0.72
RHD	21.06	2.32	63.87	6.22	21.00	2.54	57.42	7.07
LHD	2.33	0.17	7.24	0.59	2.25	0.17	7.01	0.65
F value	319.332		199.553		391.318		257.996	
P value	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

Table 4 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on digoxin and bile acids.*

Group	Digoxin (ng/ml) (Increase with Rutile)		Digoxin (ng/ml) (Decrease with antibiotics)		Bile Acids % change (Increase with Rutile)		Bile Acids % change (Decrease with antibiotics)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
BHD	0.11	0.00	0.054	0.003	4.29	0.18	18.15	0.58
RHD	0.55	0.10	0.248	0.058	21.10	2.43	54.82	8.28
LHD	0.07	0.01	0.026	0.004	2.25	0.19	7.25	0.66
F value	135.116		71.706		290.441		203.651	
P value	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

Table 5 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on pyruvate and hexokinase.*

Group	Pyruvate % change (Increase with Rutile)		Pyruvate % change (Decrease with antibiotics)		Hexokinase % change (Increase with Rutile)		Hexokinase % change (Decrease with antibiotics)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
BHD	4.34	0.21	18.43	0.82	4.21	0.16	18.56	0.76
RHD	11.12	0.66	59.68	6.24	23.27	1.68	67.35	3.77
LHD	2.16	0.18	5.91	1.38	2.24	0.17	6.29	1.06
F value	321.255		115.242		292.065		317.966	
P value	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

Table 6 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on ATP synthase and hydrogen peroxide.*

Group	ATP synthase % change (Increase with Rutile)		ATP synthase % change (Decrease with antibiotics)		H ₂ O ₂ % change (Increase with Rutile)		H ₂ O ₂ % change (Decrease with antibiotics)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
BHD	4.40	0.11	18.78	0.11	4.43	0.19	18.13	0.63
RHD	11.99	0.38	66.34	3.39	17.60	3.53	54.68	5.09
LHD	2.30	0.12	7.62	0.30	2.24	0.23	5.36	0.99
F value	449.503		673.081		380.721		171.228	
P value	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

Table 7 *Effect of rutile and antibiotics on delta amino levulinic acid and dopamine.*

Group	ALA % (Increase with Rutile)		ALA % (Decrease with antibiotics)		DOPAMINE % change (Increase with Rutile)		DOPAMINE % change (Decrease with antibiotics)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
BHD	4.40	0.10	18.48	0.39	4.41	0.15	18.63	0.12
RHD	22.98	2.06	66.10	4.03	11.36	0.58	65.41	4.83
LHD	2.13	0.11	7.62	0.32	2.13	0.11	7.62	0.32
F value	372.716		556.411		403.394		680.284	
P value	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

Abbreviation

BHD: Bihemispheric dominance; RHD: Right hemispheric dominance; LHD: Left hemispheric dominance.

Discussion

There was increase in cytochrome F420 indicating archaeal growth. The archaea can synthesise and use cholesterol as a carbon and energy source^{14, 15}. The archaeal 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 activities¹⁶. There was also an increase in archaeal HMG CoA reductase activity indicating increased cholesterol synthesis by the archaeal mevalonate pathway. The archaeal beta hydroxyl steroid dehydrogenase activity indicating digoxin synthesis and archaeal cholesterol hydroxylase activity indicating bile acid synthesis were increased⁷. The archaeal cholesterol oxidase activity was increased resulting in generation of pyruvate and hydrogen peroxide¹⁵. The pyruvate gets converted to glutamate and ammonia by the GABA shunt pathway. The archaeal aromatization of cholesterol generating PAH, serotonin and dopamine was also detected¹⁷. The archaeal glycolytic hexokinase activity and archaeal extracellular ATP synthase activity were increased. The archaea can undergo magnetite and calcium carbonate mineralization and can exist as calcified nanoforms¹⁸. 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 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 qualities¹⁹. The decrease in free self replicating RNA and DNA with the addition of antibiotics indicates that the RNA viroids are derived from archaeal introns. Archaeal pyruvate can produce histone deacetylase inhibition resulting in endogenous retroviral (HERV) reverse transcriptase and integrase expression. This can integrate the RNA viroidal complementary DNA into the noncoding region of eukaryotic non coding DNA using HERV integrase as has been described for borna and ebola viruses²⁰. The noncoding DNA is lengthened by integrating RNA viroidal complementary DNA with the integration going on as a continuing event. The archaea genome can also get integrated into human genome using integrase as has been described for trypanosomes²¹. The integrated viroids and archaea can undergo vertical transmission and can exist as genomic parasites^{20, 21}. This increases the length and alters the grammar of the noncoding region producing memes or memory of acquired characters²². The viroidal complementary DNA can function as jumping genes producing a dynamic genome important in storage of synaptic information, HLA gene expression and neurodevelopmental gene expression. The alteration in DNA sequences produced by viroidal complementary DNA jumping genes can lead onto schizophrenia and primary seizure disorder. The RNA viroids can regulate mRNA function by RNA interference¹⁹. The phenomena of RNA interference can modulate T cell and B cell function, neuronal transmission and euchromatin/heterochromatin expression. The RNA viroid induced mRNA interference can modulate dopaminergic, glutamatergic and serotonergic synaptic transmission. The archaea and viroidal density is high in right hemispheric dominance, intermediate in bihemispheric dominance and low in left hemispheric dominance.

The presence of muramic acid, HMG CoA reductase and cholesterol oxidase

activity inhibited by antibiotics indicates the presence of bacteria with mevalonate pathway. The density of the mevalonate pathway bacterial is high in right hemispheric dominance, low in left hemispheric dominance and intermediate in bihemispheric dominance. The bacteria with mevalonate pathway include streptococcus, staphylococcus, actinomycetes, listeria, coxiella and borrelia²³. The bacteria and archaea with mevalonate pathway and cholesterol catabolism had an evolutionary advantage and constitutes the isoprenoidal clade organism with the archaea evolving into mevalonate pathway gram positive and gram negative organism through horizontal gene transfer of viroidal and virus genes²⁴. The isoprenoidal clade prokaryotes develop into other groups of prokaryotes via viroidal/virus as well as eukaryotic horizontal gene transfer producing bacterial speciation²⁵. The RNA viroids and its complementary DNA developed into cholesterol enveloped RNA and DNA viruses like herpes, retrovirus, influenza virus, borna virus, cytomegalo virus and Ebstein Barr virus by recombining with eukaryotic and human genes resulting in viral speciation. Bacterial and viral species are ill defined and fuzzy with all of them forming one common genetic pool with frequent horizontal gene transfer and recombination. Thus the multi and unicellular eukaryote with its genes serves the purpose of prokaryotic and viral speciation. The multicellular eukaryote developed so that their endosymbiotic archaeal colonies could survive and forage better. The multicellular eukaryotes are like bacterial biofilms. The archaea and bacteria with a mevalonate pathway uses the extracellular RNA viroids and DNA viroids for quorum sensing and in the generation of symbiotic biofilm like structures which develop into multicellular eukaryotes^{26, 27}. The endosymbiotic archaea and bacteria with mevalonate pathway still uses the RNA viroids and DNA viroids for the regulation of multicellular eukaryote. Pollution is induced by the primitive nanoarchaea and mevalonate pathway bacteria synthesised PAH and methane leading on to redox stress. Redox stress leads to sodium potassium ATPase inhibition, inward movement of plasma

membrane cholesterol, defective SREBP sensing, increased cholesterol synthesis and nanoarchaeal/mevalonate pathway bacterial growth²⁸. Redox stress leads on to viroidal and archaeal multiplication. Redox stress can also lead to HERV reverse transcriptase and integrase expression. The noncoding DNA is formed of integrating RNA viroidal complementary DNA and archaea with the integration going on as a continuing event. The archaeal pox like dsDNA virus forms evolutionarily the nucleus. The integrated viroidal, archaeal and mevalonate pathway bacterial sequences can undergo vertical transmission and can exist as genomic parasites. The genomic integrated archaea, mevalonate pathway bacteria and viroids form a genomic reserve of bacteria and viruses which can recombine with human and eukaryotic genes producing bacterial and viral speciation. Bacteria and viruses can contribute to the regulation of hemispheric dominance as exemplified by schizophrenia, a disorder of consciousness. *Borrelia*, *Toxoplasma*, *Chlamydia*, *Mycoplasma*, retroviruses, herpes virus, influenza virus and borna virus contribute to the neuropathogenesis of schizophrenia^{29, 30, 31}. The change in the length and grammar of the noncoding region produces eukaryotic speciation and individuality³². Changes in the length of noncoding region can lead onto modulation of hemispheric dominance and conscious perception as exemplified in schizophrenia³³. The human endogenous retroviruses and change in the length and grammar of the noncoding region has been described in schizophrenia. The integration of nanoarchaea, mevalonate pathway prokaryotes and viroids into the eukaryotic and human genome produces a chimera which can multiply producing biofilm like multicellular structures having a mixed archaeal, viroidal, prokaryotic and eukaryotic characters which is a regression from the multicellular eukaryotic tissue. This results in a new neuronal, metabolic, immune and tissue phenotype producing microchimeras. Microchimeras can also generate tissue and neuronal polyploidy. The higher degree of integration of archaea, mevalonate pathway bacteria and viroids into the genome produces right hemispheric dominance,

intermediate degree of integration produces bihemispheric dominance and lower degree of integration left hemispheric dominance.

The archaea and viroids can regulate the nervous system including the NMDA/GABA thalamocorticothalamic pathway mediating conscious perception^{2, 34}. NMDA/GABA receptors can be modulated by digoxin induced calcium oscillations resulting in NMDA/glutamic acid decarboxylase (GAD) activity induction, PAH increasing NMDA activity and inducing GAD as well as viroid induced RNA interference modulating NMDA/GABA receptors². The cholesterol ring oxidase generated pyruvate can be converted by the GABA shunt pathway to glutamate and GABA. Increased NMDA transmission has been described in schizophrenia and primary seizure disorder. The dipolar 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 inducing quantal perception with nanoarchaeal sensed gravity producing the orchestrated reduction of the quantal possibilities to the macroscopic world^{2, 34}. The archaea can regulate limbic lobe transmission with archaeal cholesterol aromatase/ring oxidase generated norepinephrine, dopamine, serotonin and acetyl choline¹⁷. Thus the shadow biosphere of archaea and viroids can regulate conscious and quantal perception. The archaea and viroids can also modulate multiple neurotransmitter systems. Schizophrenia is described as a disorder of consciousness and increased integration of archaea and viroids into the genome can contribute to its neuropathogenesis. Increased dopaminergic, serotonergic and NMDA transmission is important in the pathogenesis of schizophrenia. The higher degree of integration of the archaea into the genome produces increased digoxin synthesis producing right hemispheric dominance and lesser degree producing left hemispheric dominance². Bihemispheric dominance is intermediate with normal digoxin synthesis. Right hemispheric

dominance has been described in schizophrenia. The increased integration of archaea into the neuronal genome can produce increased cholesterol oxidase and aromatase mediated monoamine and NMDA transmission producing schizophrenia. The archaeal bile acids are chemically diverse and structurally different from human bile acids. The archaeal bile acids can bind olfactory GPCR receptors and stimulate the limbic lobe producing a sense of social identity. The dominance of archaeal bile acids over human bile acids in stimulating the olfactory GPCR-limbic lobe pathway leads to loss of social identity leading to schizophrenia and autism³⁵.

Archaea and RNA viroid can bind the TLR receptor induce NF κ B producing immune activation and cytokine TNF alpha secretion. The archaeal DXP and mevalonate pathway metabolites can bind $\gamma\delta$ TCR and digoxin induced calcium signalling can activate NF κ B producing chronic immune activation^{2, 36}. The archaea and viroid induced chronic immune activation and generation of superantigens can lead on to autoimmune disease. This produces a state of chronic immune activation in right hemispheric dominance producing increased predisposition to autoimmune diseases. The left hemispheric dominant group is immunosuppressed and the bihemispheric dominant group has normal immune function.

Archaea, viroids and digoxin can induce the host AKT PI3K, AMPK, HIF alpha and NF κ B producing the Warburg metabolic phenotype³⁷. The increased glycolytic hexokinase activity, decrease in blood ATP, leakage of cytochrome C, increase in serum pyruvate and decrease in acetyl CoA indicates the generation of the Warburg phenotype. There is induction of glycolysis, inhibition of PDH activity and mitochondrial dysfunction resulting in inefficient energetics. The immune activation mediated increased levels of TNF alpha can produce insulin resistance acting at the level of insulin receptor. Thus a state similar to metabolic

syndrome X exists in right hemispheric dominance. Left hemispheric dominance can have a pattern of insulin sensitivity while bihemispheric dominance will be metabolically intermediate. Cholesterol oxidase activity, increased glycolysis related NADPH oxidase activity and mitochondrial dysfunction generates free radicals. Free radical production and mitochondrial dysfunction can increase NMDA transmission important in conscious perception. The accumulated pyruvate enters the GABA shunt pathway and is converted to citrate which is acted upon by citrate lyase and converted to acetyl CoA, used for cholesterol synthesis³⁷. The increased cholesterol substrate leads to increased archaeal growth and digoxin synthesis leading to metabolic channelling to the mevalonate pathway. Hyperdigoxinemia is important in the regulation of hemispheric dominance². The right hemispheric dominant group is hyperdigoxinemic, left hemispheric dominant group is hypodigoxinemic and bihemispheric dominant group is normodigoxinemic. The pyruvate can be converted to glutamate and ammonia which is oxidised by archaea for energy needs. Ammonia can regulate both NMDA and GABA transmission depending on its levels. The Warburg phenotype can contribute to the hemispheric dominance by augmenting the bacterial shikimic acid pathway. The upregulated glycolysis consequent to the Warburg phenotype produces phosphoenolpyruvate, a basic substrate for the bacterial shikimic acid pathway which can synthesise monoamines and neuroactive alkaloids. The shikimic acid pathway can generate dopamine and serotonin producing increased monoaminergic transmission. The shikimic acid pathway can also synthesise the neuroactive alkaloids strychnine, nicotine, morphine, mescaline and LSD important in regulating neural transmission². The upregulated glycolysis can also contribute to increased NMDA and GABA transmission in the thalamocorticothalamic pathway. The glycolytic pathway produces phosphoglycerate which is converted to phosphoserine and then serine which activates the NMDA receptor. The glycolytic enzyme glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase is a GABA

receptor kinase and activates GABA transmission. Thus the archaea and viroid induced Warburg phenotype can contribute to the modulation of hemispheric dominance by regulating the multiple neurotransmitter systems. The archaeal cholesterol catabolism can deplete the cell membranes of cholesterol resulting in alteration in lipid microdomains and their related neurotransmitter receptor contributing to the regulation of NMDA, serotonergic and dopaminergic transmission. Thus the archaeal cholesterol catabolism and viroids can regulate brain function and hemispheric dominance. The archaea and viroids have axonal and transynaptic transport functioning as biological neurotransmitters. The brain can be visualized evolutionarily as a modified mevalonate pathway bacteria and archaeal colony functioning by mechanisms of quorum sensing using RNA viroids with its bacterial flagellar system forming axo-axonic and axo-dendritic connections. The third element of archaea and their derived viroids can also regulate the immune, genetic, metabolic and neural systems producing its integration.

The third element formed of intracellular archaea and viroidal symbiosis determines hemispheric dominance. Archaeal cholesterol synthesis and catabolism determines hemispheric dominance.

References

- [1] Valiathan M. S., Somers, K., Kartha, C. C. (1993). *Endomyocardial Fibrosis*. Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- [2] Kurup R., Kurup, P. A. (2009). *Hypothalamic digoxin, cerebral dominance and brain function in health and diseases*. New York: Nova Science Publishers.
- [3] Hanold D., Randies, J. W. (1991). Coconut cadang-cadang disease and its viroid agent, *Plant Disease*, 75, 330-335.
- [4] 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.

- [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] Adam Z. (2007). Actinides and Life's Origins, *Astrobiology*, 7, 6-10.
- [7] Schoner W. (2002). Endogenous cardiac glycosides, a new class of steroid hormones, *Eur J Biochem*, 269, 2440-2448.
- [8] 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.
- [9] 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.
- [10] Snell E. D., Snell, C. T. (1961). *Colorimetric Methods of Analysis*. Vol 3A. New York: Van Nostrand.
- [11] Glick D. (1971). *Methods of Biochemical Analysis*. Vol 5. New York: Interscience Publishers.
- [12] Colowick, Kaplan, N. O. (1955). *Methods in Enzymology*. Vol 2. New York: Academic Press.
- [13] Maarten A. H., Marie-Jose, M., Cornelia, G., van Helden-Meewsen, Fritz, E., Marten, P. H. (1995). Detection of muramic acid in human spleen, *Infection and Immunity*, 63(5), 1652-1657.
- [14] Smit A., Mushegian, A. (2000). Biosynthesis of isoprenoids via mevalonate in Archaea: the lost pathway, *Genome Res*, 10(10), 1468-84.
- [15] 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.
- [16] Francis A. J. (1998). Biotransformation of uranium and other actinides in radioactive wastes, *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, 271(273), 78-84.

- [17] 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.
- [18] Vainshtein M., Suzina, N., Kudryashova, E., Ariskina, E. (2002). New Magnet-Sensitive Structures in Bacterial and Archaeal Cells, *Biol Cell*, 94(1), 29-35.
- [19] Tsagris E. M., de Alba, A. E., Gozmanova, M., Kalantidis, K. (2008). Viroids, *Cell Microbiol*, 10, 2168.
- [20] 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.
- [21] Hecht M., Nitz, N., Araujo, P., Sousa, A., Rosa, A., Gomes, D. (2010). Genes from Chagas parasite can transfer to humans and be passed on to children. Inheritance of DNA Transferred from American Trypanosomes to Human Hosts, *PLoS ONE*, 5, 2-10.
- [22] Flam F. (1994). Hints of a language in junk DNA, *Science*, 266, 1320.
- [23] Horbach S., Sahm, H., Welle, R. (1993). Isoprenoid biosynthesis in bacteria: two different pathways? *FEMS Microbiol Lett*, 111, 135-140.
- [24] Gupta R. S. (1998). Protein phylogenetics and signature sequences: a reappraisal of evolutionary relationship among archaeobacteria, eubacteria, and eukaryotes, *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev*, 62, 1435-1491.
- [25] Hanage W., Fraser, C., Spratt, B. (2005). Fuzzy species among recombinogenic bacteria, *BMC Biology*, 3, 6-10.
- [26] Webb J. S., Givskov, M., Kjelleberg, S. (2003). Bacterial biofilms: prokaryotic adventures in multicellularity, *Curr Opin Microbiol*, 6(6), 578-85.
- [27] Whitchurch C. B., Tolker-Nielsen, T., Ragas, P. C., Mattick, J. S. (2002). Extracellular DNA Required for Bacterial Biofilm Formation. *Science*, 295(5559), 1487.
- [28] Chen Y., Cai, T., Wang, H., Li, Z., Loreaux, E., Lingrel, J. B. (2009). Regulation of intracellular cholesterol distribution by Na/K-ATPase, *J Biol Chem*, 284(22), 14881-90.

- [29] Fritzsche M. (2002). Seasonal correlation of sporadic schizophrenia to Ixodes ticks and Lyme borreliosis. *Int J Health Geogr*, 1(1), 2.
- [30] Waltrip R. W. 2nd, Buchanan, R. W., Summerfelt, A., Breier, A., Carpenter, W. T. Jr., Bryant, N. L., Rubin, S. A., Carbone, K. M. (1995). Borna disease virus and schizophrenia. *Psych Res*, 56(1), 33-44.
- [31] Torrey E. F., Yolken, R. H. (2003). Toxoplasma gondii and schizophrenia. *Emerg Infect Dis*, 9(11), 1375-80.
- [32] Poole A. M. (2006). Did group II intron proliferation in an endosymbiont-bearing archaeon create eukaryotes? *Biol Direct*, 1, 36-40.
- [33] Villarreal L. P. (2006). How viruses shape the tree of life, *Future Virology*, 1(5), 587-595.
- [34] Lockwood M. (1989). *Mind, Brain and the Quantum*. Oxford: B. Blackwell.
- [35] Lefebvre P., Cariou, B., Lien, F., Kuipers, F., Staels, B. (2009). Role of Bile Acids and Bile Acid Receptors in Metabolic Regulation, *Physiol Rev*, 89(1), 147-191.
- [36] Eberl M., Hintz, M., Reichenberg, A., Kollas, A., Wiesner, J., Jomaa, H. (2010). Microbial isoprenoid biosynthesis and human $\gamma\delta$ T cell activation, *FEBS Letters*, 544(1), 4-10.
- [37] Wallace D. C. (2005). Mitochondria and Cancer: Warburg Addressed, *Cold Spring Harbor Symposia on Quantitative Biology*, 70, 363-374.

