8

Endosymbiotic Actinidic Archaea and Viroids
Regulate Cellular Organelle Function, Cell Growth,
Cell Differentiation and Cell Death - Role in
Neurodegenerations - Alzheimer's Disease,
Parkinson's Disease and Motor Neuron Disease

Introduction

A hypothesis regarding the role of endosymbiotic actinidic archaea and viroids in the regulation of cell function, cell differentiation, cell proliferation and cell death is presented in this paper. Actinides like rutile producing intracellular magnesium deficiency due to rutile-magnesium exchange sites in the cell membrane has been implicated in the etiology of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease 1, 2. Organisms like phytoplasmas and viroids have also been demonstrated to play a role in the etiology of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease 3-7. Actinidic archaea and viroids have been related to the pathogenesis of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease². The incidence of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease is high in the presence of low level radioactivity of the mineral sands of Kerala¹. Actinidic archaea and viroids have also been related to the pathogenesis of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease². 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 regulating the cell cycle is described in the above mentioned disease states⁶. The endosymbiotic actinidic archaea and viroids can regulate the cell cycle and cellular organelle function.

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: –



neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. 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. 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, serotonin, pyruvate, ammonia, glutamate, cytochrome C, hexokinase, ATP synthase, HMG CoA reductase, digoxin and bile acids¹⁰⁻¹³. 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. 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. 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 1-7 as percentage change in the parameters after 1 hour incubation as compared to the values at zero time.

Table 1 Effect of rutile and antibiotics on muramic acid and glutamate.

Group	Muramic acid % (Increase without Doxy)		Muramic acid % (Decrease with Doxy)		Glutamate % (Increase without Doxy)		Glutamate % (Decrease with Doxy)	
	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
AD	23.09	1.81	65.86	4.27	23.66	1.67	65.97	3.36
PD	22.48	2.13	63.12	4.84	23.21	1.74	67.76	3.15
MND	21.94	2.03	64.29	5.35	23.89	1.69	65.09	3.89
Aging	22.93	2.08	63.49	5.01	22.71	1.82	66.13	3.83
F value	348.867 < 0.001		364.	364.999 < 0.001		403.394 < 0.001		284
P value			< 0.					< 0.001

Table 2 Effect of rutile and antibiotics on free DNA and RNA.

Group	DNA % change (Increase with Rutile)		DNA % change (Decrease with Doxy)		RNA % change (Increase with Rutile)		RNA % change (Decrease with Doxy)	
	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
AD	23.52	1.65	64.15	4.60	23.29	1.92	65.39	3.95
PD	22.30	2.19	66.19	4.20	23.16	1.60	64.21	3.43
MND	23.11	2.00	61.52	4.97	23.04	1.66	66.13	3.49
Aging	19.73	2.27	65.49	7.28	19.73	2.27	62.70	3.24
F value	337.577		356.621		427.828		654.453	
P value	< 0.0	001	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	



Group	HMG CoA R % change Group (Increase with Rutile)		HMG CoA R % change (Decrease with Doxy)		PAH % change (Increase with Rutile)		PAH % change (Decrease with Doxy)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
Normal	4.30	0.20	18.35	0.35	4.45	0.14	18.25	0.72
AD	23.43	1.68	61.68	8.32	23.26	1.53	60.91	7.59
PD	22.12	2.27	60.98	8.29	23.63	1.75	62.23	5.43
MND	21.79	1.68	64.51	6.96	23.17	2.02	61.03	5.40
Aging	22.94	2.59	59.19	7.18	22.66	1.96	65.88	5.01
F value	319.332		199	199.553		1.318	257.996	
P value	< 0	0.001	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

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

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

Group	Digoxin (ng/ml) (Increase with Rutile)		Digoxin (ng/ml) (Decrease with Doxy+Cipro)		Bile acids % change (Increase with Rutile)		Bile acids % change (Decrease with Doxy)	
	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD	Mean	±SD
Normal	0.11	0.00	0.054	0.003	4.29	0.18	18.15	0.58
AD	0.55	0.03	0.192	0.040	22.12	2.19	62.86	6.28
PD	0.54	0.03	0.193	0.042	23.77	1.40	65.39	4.88
MND	0.53	0.06	0.229	0.051	23.53	1.78	61.61	6.77
Aging	0.56	0.10	0.238	0.049	24.58	1.08	64.20	5.16
F value	135.116		71.706		290.441		203.651	
P value	< 0.0	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 Doxy)		Hexokinase % change (Increase with Rutile)		Hexokinase % change (Decrease with Doxy)	
	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
AD	22.63	0.88	56.40	8.59	22.96	2.12	65.11	5.91
PD	21.64	0.67	61.36	8.49	22.95	1.82	64.15	4.62
MND	21.58	0.81	59.11	10.05	23.15	1.78	64.41	4.90
Aging	21.31	2.51	60.42	7.65	23.36	1.78	66.62	4.83
F value	321.255		115.242		292.065		317.966	
P value	< 0.0	001	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	



	H ₂ O ₂ %		H ₂ O	$H_2O_2\%$		ALA %		ALA %	
Group	(Increase with Rutile)		(Decrease with Doxy)		(Increase with Rutile)		(Decrease with Doxy)		
F	Mean	\pm SD	Mean	\pm SD	Mean	\pm SD	Mean	\pm SD	
Normal	4.43	0.19	18.13	0.63	4.40	0.10	18.48	0.39	
AD	22.65	2.48	60.19	6.98	23.67	1.68	66.50	3.58	
PD	24.17	1.33	56.09	6.56	23.79	1.58	65.56	4.03	
MND	23.58	1.94	57.85	6.63	23.06	1.72	64.82	3.31	
Aging	22.27	1.87	61.77	6.79	19.73	2.27	64.78	6.62	
F value	380.721		171.	171.228		372.716		556.411	
P value	< 0.0	001	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001		

Table 6 Effect of rutile and antibiotics on hydrogen peroxide and delta amino levulinic acid.

 Table 7
 Effect of rutile and antibiotics on ATP synthase and cytochrome F 420.

Group	ATP synthase % (Increase with Rutile)		ATP synthase % (Decrease with Doxy)		CYT F420 % (Increase with Rutile)		CYT F420 % (Decrease with Doxy)		
	Mean	\pm SD	Mean	\pm SD	Mean	\pm SD	Mean	\pm SD	
Normal	4.40	0.11	18.78	0.11	4.48	0.15	18.24	0.66	
AD	23.58	2.08	66.21	3.69	23.12	2.00	56.90	6.94	
PD	23.86	1.86	65.93	3.95	22.32	2.17	57.31	9.22	
MND	23.75	1.81	66.49	4.11	22.76	2.20	61.60	8.74	
Aging	23.19	1.74	65.68	4.06	22.09	1.38	61.42	7.26	
F value	449.503		673.081		306.749		130.054		
P value	< 0.0	001	< 0.	< 0.001		< 0.001		< 0.001	

Discussion

There was increase in cytochrome F420 indicating archaeal growth in neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. The archaea can synthesize 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. This can lead to the pathogenesis of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease.

The archaeal digoxin is the master conductor regulating and coordinating cellular organelle function. Digoxin can produce sodium-potassium ATPase inhibition and inward movement of plasma membrane cholesterol. This produces defective SREBP sensing, increased HMG CoA reductase activity and cholesterol synthesis. The digoxin induced inward movement of plasma membrane cholesterol can alter membrane cholesterol/sphingomyelin ratio producing modified lipid microdomains. The digoxin induced lipid microdomain modulation can regulate the GPCR couple, neurotransmitter-glutamate, dopamine, and serotonin, GPCR coupled endocrine receptors-adrenaline, noradrenaline, glucagon and neuropeptide receptors and protein tyrosine kinase linked insulin receptor. The digoxin mediated inhibition of nuclear membrane sodium-potassium ATPase can modulate nuclear membrane lipid microdomains and steroidal/thyroxine DNA receptor function. Thus endogenous digoxin can modulate all the neurotransmitter and endocrine receptors by regulating lipid microdomains. Digoxin induced sodium potassium ATPase inhibition can



increase intracellular calcium and reduce intracellular magnesium. Digoxin by increasing intracellular calcium can produce mitochondrial PT pore dysfunction. There is intracellular magnesium deficiency producing ATP synthase defect. Digoxin can thus modulate mitochondrial function. Decreased intracellular magnesium can lead to altered glycoconjugate synthesis and a protein processing dysfunction and lysosomal dysfunction. Digoxin induced redox stress can produce histone deacetylase inhibition and modulate gene expression. Digoxin can modulate mRNA splicing and RNA function. Digoxin can thus modulate mitochondrial, cell membrane, golgi body, lysosomal and nuclear functions. It can integrate the function of cell organelle². Archaeal bile acids can modulate mitochondrial function. Bile acids can produce uncoupling of oxidative phosphorylation and produce mitochondrial hibernation. Archaeal pyruvate is a HDAC inhibitor and modulates gene expression. Archaeal ammonia can activate membrane sodium potassium ATPase and produce mitochondrial PT pore dysfunction. Archaeal butyrate functions as a HDAC inhibitor modulating gene expression. Butyrate can also modulate protein conformation and folding. Butyrate can thus regulate protein structure and function. Butyrate is used in the treatment of the unfolded protein response. Archaeal PAH can combine with the cell membrane, proteins and nucleic acids modulating their structure and function. Thus the archaeal cholesterol catabolites can regulate function of multiple cellular organelle and produce integration of cellular organelle function². This can contribute to the pathogenesis of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease.

The actinidic archaea and viroids can modulate DNA and RNA function and regulate the cell cycle. 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. 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 modulating gene expression. The RNA viroids can regulate mRNA function by RNA interference 19. The phenomena of RNA interference can modulate T cell and B cell function, cell differentiation, cell growth and euchromatin/heterochromatin expression. RNA viroidal mRNA interference can modulate the cell cycle producing malignant transformation. The phenomenon of RNA interference and the RNA viroidal complementary DNA related jumping genes can lead onto proof reading errors and generation of trinucleotide repeats contributing to the pathogenesis of huntington's disease. The phenomena of viroidal RNA induced RNA interference can modulate the cell death pathways producing neuronal and cell degeneration. This contribute the pathogenesis can neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease.



The presence of muramic acid, HMG CoA reductase and cholesterol oxidase activity inhibited by antibiotics indicates the presence of bacteria with mevalonate pathway. The bacterial with mevalonate pathway include streptococcus, staphylococcus, actinomycetes, listeria, coxiella and borrelia²³. The bacteria and archaea with mevalonate pathway and cholesterol catabolism had a evolutionarily 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 synthesized 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. This can contribute to the pathogenesis of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease.

The change in the length and grammar of the noncoding region produces eukaryotic speciation and individuality³³. The integration of nanoarchaea, mevalonate pathway prokaryotes and viroids in to 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 leading to neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. The microchimeras formed can lead to polyploidy and neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. Archaea, viroids and digoxin can induce the host AKT PI3K, AMPK, HIF alpha and NFKB producing the Warburg metabolic phenotype³⁵. 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 increased glycolysis and induction of Warburg phenotype results in neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. 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 and lipid synthesis³⁵. Cholesterol oxidase activity, increased glycolysis related NADPH oxidase activity and mitochondrial dysfunction generates free radicals important in the pathogenesis of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. The pyruvate can be converted to glutamate and ammonia which is oxidised by archaea for energy needs. The increased cholesterol substrate also leads to increased archaeal growth and digoxin synthesis leading to metabolic channeling to the mevalonate pathway. This leads to increased synthesis of Hyperdigoxinemia is important in the pathogenesis neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. Archaea and RNA viroid can bind the TLR receptor induce NFKB producing immune activation and cytokine TNF alpha secretion. The archaeal DXP and mevalonate pathway metabolites can bind γδ TCR and digoxin induced calcium signaling can activate NFKB producing chronic immune activation^{2, 36}. The archaea and viroid induced chronic immune activation and generation of superantigens. Autoimmunity is important in neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. The archaea and viroids can regulate the nervous system including the NMDA synaptic transmission². NMDA can be activated by digoxin induced calcium oscillations, PAH and viroid induced RNA interference². The cholesterol ring oxidase generated pyruvate can be converted by the GABA shunt pathway to glutamate. NMDA excitotoxicity can lead to neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. 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 Right hemispheric dominance lead can to neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease as reported previously from this laboratory. Archaeal PAH can thus induce neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease³⁷. The archaeal bile acids can bind GPCR and modulate D2 regulating the conversion of T4 to T3. T3 activates uncoupling proteins reducing redox stress. Bile acids can also activate NRF ½ inducing NQO1, GST, HOI reducing redox stress. The archaeal bile acids can bind VDR, the vitamin D receptor resulting in inhibition of neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease^{38, 39}. Thus the actinide, viroid and mevalonate pathway bacteria induced metabolic, genetic, immune and neuronal transmission changes can lead on to neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease.

The actinidic archaea and viroids can modulate cell death and neuronal degeneration. Bacteria and viruses have been related to the pathogenesis of motor neuron disease, alzheimer's disease and parkinson's disease. Chlamydia, mycoplasma, cyanobacteria, actinomycetes and borrelia have been reported to be involved in the pathogenesis of alzheimer's disease. Helicobactor pylori, nocardia, streptococcus and corona viruses have been implicated in parkinson's disease. Mycoplasma, borrelia, retroviruses and enteroviruses have been related to the pathogenesis of MND⁴⁰⁻⁴⁶. The change in the length and grammar of the noncoding region³³. The integration of nanoarchaea, mevalonate pathway prokaryotes and viroids in to 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 leading to human diseases like neuronal degeneration. The microchimeras formed can lead to polyploidy which has been implicated in degenerations like alzheimer's disease. Microchimeras can lead onto autoimmunity in neurodegenerations-alzheimer's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease. The actinidic archaea and viroids can regulate the NMDA transmission leading onto cell death². As discussed before NMDA receptors can be activated by digoxin induced calcium oscillations, PAH increasing NMDA activity as well as viroid induced RNA interference². The cholesterol ring oxidase generated pyruvate can be converted by the GABA shunt pathway to glutamate contributing to NMDA excitotoxicity. The archaea can regulate dopaminergic transmission with archaeal cholesterol aromatase/ring oxidase generated dopamine ¹⁶. The increased dopamine synthesis can generate increased free radicals consequent to its catabolism. Cholesterol oxidase can generate free radical hydrogen peroxide. Free radicals can produce neuronal degeneration. 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. Previous studies by the authors have related right hemispheric chemical dominance to neuronal degeneration. Archaea and RNA viroid can bind the TLR receptor induce NFKB producing immune activation and cytokine TNF alpha secretion. The archaeal DXP and mevalonate pathway metabolites can bind γδ TCR and digoxin induced calcium signaling can activate NFKB producing chronic immune activation^{2, 36}. The archaea and viroid induced chronic immune activation and generation of superantigens can lead on to autoimmune disease. Immune activation and autoantibodies have been related to neuronal degeneration. Immune activation and free radicals induce sphingomyelinase generating ceramide. Ceramide acts upon the mitochondrial PT pore producing cell death. Archaea, viroids and digoxin can induce the host



AKT PI3K, AMPK, HIF alpha and NFKB producing the Warburg metabolic phenotype³⁵. 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. Mitochondrial dysfunction has been related to neuronal degeneration. The increased glycolysis results in increased generation of the enzyme glyceraldehyde 3 phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPD). GAPD can undergo polyadenylation via free radical activated PARP enzyme. The polyadenylated GAPD can undergo nuclear translocation producing nuclear cell death. 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 synthesis³⁵. The pyruvate can be converted to glutamate and ammonia which is oxidised by archaea for energy needs. Ammonia can produce NMDA excitotoxicity and cell death. Ammonia can activate sodium potassium ATPase producing increased neuronal requirement of ATP leading onto mitochondrial transmembrane potential changes and cell death. The increased cholesterol substrate leads to increased archaeal growth and digoxin synthesis leading to metabolic channelling to the mevalonate pathway. Digoxin can produce sodium potassium ATPase inhibition and increase in intracellular calcium producing mitochondrial PT pore dysfunction and cell death². The archaeal cholesterol catabolism generated PAH can produce NMDA excitotoxicity and cell death. The archaeal and mevalonate pathway bacteria cholesterol catabolism can deprive cholesterol from neuronal cell membrane and organelle membranes like mitochondrial, ER and lysosomal membranes producing cellular and organelle dysfunction and death. Cholesterol metabolic defect has been described in huntington's disease. Thus, the shadow biosphere of actinide dependent archaea, viroids and mevalonate pathway bacteria can lead



onto neuronal degenerations like alzheimer's disease, huntington's disease, parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease.

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