

ISSN- 2230-7346 Journal of Global Trends in Pharmaceutical Sciences



HYDROXYCHLOROQUINE FOR VIRAL INFECTIONS UNDERLYING CELLULAR AND MOLECULAR EVENTS

Kaliaperumal J*, Ramana Hechhu, Tamesgan Siddamo, Tamrat Balcha

Department of Pharmacy, College of Health Science and medicine, Wolaita Sodo University, Ethiopia

*Corresponding author E-mail: shivanijagajaya@gmail.com

ARTICLE INFO

Key words: Hydroxychloroquine, HIV,Ionophore, Molecular, Signaling pathway, Mechanism



Anti-malarial agent hydroxychloroquine known to treat autoimmune conditions, such as rheumatoid arthritis and systemic lupus erythematosus. The long time believe of moSlecules which are interfering human cell membrane environment may block the viral entry into the cell. Further, Increment of intra cellular pH spoils organelles required acidic homeostasis. Augmented molecular evidences including glycosylation inhibition in viral proteins and hindering glycoprotein expression are the prominent for hydroxychloroquine ability as anti-viral. The ability of inhibiting UDP-N-acetylglucosamine 2-epimerasesenzyme which involved in sialic acid biosynthesis produces grater anti-viral properties with virus which use sialic acid moieties as receptors. Over a decade hydroxychloroquine have shown promising effect with Human Immuno Deficiency virus, type A and B influenza viruses,H5N9avian influenza virus,H5N1 type A avian influenza virus and recent pandemic of SARS Covid-2. The influence of hydroxychloroquine extended to Toll-like receptor 7 signalling pathways in plasmacytoid dendric cells and antigenpresenting cells plays vital role in immune activation, which is major contributor for viral load. However, effects like lysosomotropism and Autophagy are also having great consideration of molecular mechanism of Hydroxychloroquine for its anti-viral properties.

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

Hydroxychloroquine (HCQ) differs from anti-malarial agent chloroquine by the presence of a hydroxyl group at the end of the side chain: the N -ethyl substituent is β hydroxylated used in clinical practice more half century.HCQ have similar than pharmacokinetics profile with chloroquine (CQ) belongs to the same molecular family. However, rapid HCQ possess oral absorption and defers in dosage and toxicological profile with It is CQ. considered a disease-modifying antirheumatic drug, it can also can be employed for some symptoms of lupus and few strains of malaria. However, the effectiveness of HCQ in treating of autoimmune diseases is

still less established, though few studies supports the ability of interferes with the communication of cells in the immune system.[1]The activity of HCQ is not only limited to malaria and interference in inflammatory process it also possess wide range of bacterial, fungal, and viral infections.Further, recent studies suggests HCQ inhibits autophagy which drive the malignant cells to apoptosis by indirect autophagozome elevation of p62 accumulation. However, in normal event sensitization of antiestrogens via increased LC3 which drives levels autophagy initiation.[2] Augmented evidences suggested that many virus particles adopts

autophagic machinery for both replication and survival advantage.[3] In other hand, HCQ believed to be employed with multiple viral infections by reduction in immune activation and a decrease in CD38+CD8+ T cells and Ki67 memory CD4+ T cells.[4&5] The pH increment into acidic cellular organelles including endosomes is major cause antiviral property of HCQ occurs in different mechanisms [4]. Majorly virus needs a sharp reduction in the pH to obtain conformational changes which enables fusion and penetration. [6] this will be crucially hindered by HCQ upon elevating pH which will also block the endosomal entry. [7] Further, viral post translation modification for viral envelop formation requires enzymes likeproteases and glycosyltransferases requires low pH for endoplasmic vesicles. [8] Therefore, the HCQ induced effect of elevated pH is directly impairing the viral maturation by blocking envelop formation. [9] Augmented In vitro studies suggested CQ from same molecular family possess anti-viral activity against RNA virus including HIV,[10] rabies virus,[11]poliovirus [12] etc. However, the clinical facts are different than In vitro promising. In other hand, HCQ shown potential adversity including cardiotoxicity signified with enlarged and vacuolated cells with abnormal lysosomes in electron microscopy.[13] Further. its neuromyotoxicity with muscle biopsy displayed curvilinear bodies and vacuolar changes. [14] The HCQ overdose also cause serious incidence including visual and disturbance or ataxia permanent neurotoxic vestibulopathy.[15] Long term establishment of HCQ treatment shown hemolytic anemia patients with glucose-6dehydrogenase phosphate deficiency. However, this may be less common with African descent. [16] However, HCQ own proven advantage over rather side effects clinical reported till date. mounting importance of HCO is unavoidable due to it wider therapeutic applicability. Even in case of virus the molecular similarity ATM and sugar moiety GM1 allows for its host mechanism where HCQ plays as competitive [17]Multiple inhibitor role. evidences

strongly suggests HCQ can be a low cost substitute for anti-viral therapy for poor cost resource countries. Further, increased pandemic mortalities over past few decades drawn our greater attention to drive the molecular concepts. In this current review we attempt to drive molecular mechanical concepts of HCQ for various viral infections. However, HCQ possess wider therapeutic employment as antimalarial, rheumatoid arthritis and systemic lupus erythematosus will not be discussed in this review.

Zinc Ionophore

Zinc ionophores typically transport Zn^{2+} ions extracelluar across a cell membrane, Ionic zinc shown significant antiviral properties against a number of human viruses. [18-22] HCQ plays vital role as zinc ionosphere, elevated intracellular cytoplasmic Zn²⁺ ions were observed when Co-administration of zinc with HCO. [23] Typically intracellular elevation of Zn^{2+} ions demonstrated various events in viral infections including inhibition of RNAdependent **RNA** polymerase, [24]Interference with membrane fusion with histidine residue on E1 protein using acidic endosomal pH, [25]and modulating the secretion of interferons also modifying IFN- λ 3 signaling; which results suppression of SOCS-1 and SOCS-3 cvtokines and JAK protein signaling inhibition, finally this serial events leads preventing inflammatory stimuli. [26] The molecular similar CQ shown higher intracellular Zn²⁺ probed by TPEN metal binding detection compound along with elevation LC3B-II protein levels. [27] The Zn^{2+} inhibition of RNA-dependent RNA polymerase has greater advantage than RNA inhibitors which are does not cause intermediate chain termination.

Lysosomal pH modification- Autophagy accumulation in HCO the lysosome (lysosomotropism) is the major event occurs in CD4⁺ T cells. [28] On other hand, HCQ targeting of palmitoyl-protein thioesterase 1 which is a key enzyme involved in lipid is also evidences catabolism its immunomodulatory potency. [29]Different viruses exploit endocytosis to enter into host cells to initiate infection. The pH dependent activation of viral endosomal proteins majorly needs acidic. Prior to viral fusion the process of formation of fusion pores needs prerequisite for release as nucleocapsid, this event also partially depends on acidic pH.[30] During lysosomal autophagy, MiT super family transcription factors may bind with the coordinated lysosomal enhancement and regulation (CLEAR) network promotor regions. [31] The basic transcription factors includes Transcription Factor EC (TFEC), Transcription Factor EB (TFEB),(Microphthalmia-associated transcription factor (MITF) and Transcription Factor E3 (TFE3). Under HCO induced lysosomal stress condition migration of TFEB and TFE3 to cytoplasm to nucleus happens in order to facilitate lysosomal biogenesis. [32] Further, mTORC1 facilitates the phosphorylation of TFEB/TFE3 and equipping lysosome-tosignalling mechanism. nucleus [33] Lysosomotropism is largely possible with HCQ due to its basicity. Further, the statement of Noble laureate Christian de Duve evidences the pH gradients of lumen and cytosol are normally about 4.5 and 7.4 eventually. Hence, the pH partition assists easy traverse lipid bilayers and HCQ being trapped in the acidic environment of the lysosome. This event results increase lysosomal pH. Typical increment of pH by CQ observed with ARPE19 cells evidenced under LTR staining. [34] The process of transportation and degradation of troublesome proteins by lysosomal pathway is known as Autophagy. Phagophores are transient sequestering structures its matured double membrane vesicles known as autophagosomes which are fuse with lysosomes and allows cargo degradation. [35&36]Autophagy-related proteins directs generation of phagophore the and autophagosomes sequentially.

TLR signaling

Toll-like receptors (TLRs) belongs to pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) family which are readily recognize and respond for repertoire molecules as pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs).[37] In case of viral infections, TLRs may transduce the signals to pledge innate and subsequent adoptive immunity.[38] Majority of nucleic acid ligands including dsRNA, ssRNA, and CpG-DNA from various virus and bacteria demonstrates good recognition with TLRs. [39] HCQ activates TLRs plays vital role in endosomal acidification process, particularly TLR7/8/9. [40]HCQ shows a serious significant levels when compared to newly developed small molecule inhibitors including quinacrine derivative of CpG-.[41] The inhibitory effect on B-cell activation by TLRs especially TLR9 may play viral role in HCQ clinical efficacy as antiviral. This event perhaps due to the occurrence of antidsDNA. [42] However, There is no significant differences in IFN-a/TNFa levels up on HCO administered subjects up on TLR-7/9- stimulated. [43]

Biosynthesis of sialic acid

In many of viral attachment proteins have unique and complex with sialylated compound explored recently. Usually the monosaccharide sialic acid present in all eukaryotic cell surfaces. Further, the glycans terminating in sialic acid plays crucial viral receptor role for number of viruses including highly pathogenic Influenza A, B and C viruses etc. [44] Interestingly, many severe of viral pneumonitis indicates cases prominent role in lower respiratory tract infection. However, the severity of illness differs with viral binding properties. Many of virus has offers clues on specific amino acid changes in SAa2,3 and SAa2,6.[45] HCO exhibits antiviral potential bv hindering the receptor recognition process upon influencing sialic acid and ganglioside membrane fusion process. [46]The good fit of HCQ with sialic acid perhaps owing to cationic charges of HCQ interactions with 9-Oacetyl-N-acetylneuraminic acid. viral Further, HCQ potentially inhibits quinone reductase 2 which will play vital role in bio synthesis of sialic acid. Basically, the sialic acids are usually part of gangliosides and glycoproteins. HCQ establishes storng interface with ganglioside- rice microdomin with critical residues of Asp-111, Gln-134, Phe-135, Arg-158 and Ser-161.[47]

Regulation of pro-inflammation cytokines.

with maturation HCQ interferes and recognition in antigen presenting cells with process of endosomal pH modification. Normally viral entry happens in dendritic by either micropinocytosis cells or phagocytosis which activates T cells. Which is facilitated means of clathrin medicated endocytosis and clathrin-independent endocvtosis. In both case pathogen internalization to T cells will allow to the proteins which allows process interactions with antigen presenting cells, which allows peptide mobilization of Major Histocompatibility complex (MHC). However, MHC class I which are loaded with antigens obtained by degradation of pathogenic proteins by endoplasmic reticulum. In other hand, endocytosed proteins will be processed via endosomal and lysosomal means. The acidic pH allows to activate protease for MHC class I antigen &491HCO significantly complex. [48] phosphatidylinositol reduces binding clathrin assembly protein (PICALM) and antigen processing as well which results reduction in Т cell activation and differentiation finally the whole results in decrease of production of pro-inflammatory cytokins. [50] HCQ potentially blocks Ca2+ signaling and downstream events results reduced activation of T and B cell antigen complexes. [51] There are evidences of TLR 9 related activation of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokine such interleukin-6/12, interferons influences the inflammatory process. [51] Further, HCQ influences associated PLR 9 matrix metalloproteinase have direct influence in induced cytokine and chemokine in the inflammatory process. [52]Further, HCQ demonstrates phospholipase A2 inhibition arachidonic acid and cascades of prostaglandin and thromboxane formations which leads blockade of inflammatory process. [53] Majority of respiratory virus activates p38 MAPK pathways lead to release of cytokines such as TNF- α , IKK alpha and Beta, IL-1 β and so on which is ultimately hindered by HCQ. [54]

Endosomal Ironrelease inhibition

Irons plays vital role in viral metabolic functions. Augmented evidences suggested that HCQ and CQ both possess significant inhibition on Tf/transferrin receptor 1(homodimeric Π membrane type glycoprotein).[55&56] However Τf receptors are pH dependent for its metal binding.[57&58]depends on pH gradient in the cytosol TfR1 undergoes conformational changes which promote iron release and increases affinity to apo-Tf.As discussed HCQ is good candidate which greatly influence the cytosolic pH. The iron loaded complex Tf/TFR1 clathrin-mediated endocytosis and its cytosolic translocation is primary step to satisfy the cellular iron gaining. [59] Lower pH of endosomes diminish the strength of binding of Tf to Fe makes the release within the vesicles, the basic moity of HCO elevates the pH of endocytic vesicles, limiting the iron removal form Tf at endosomes. [60] Hence, with in the cytosol the Fe^{3+} is reduced to Fe^{2+} by endothelial antigen the gradient driving transport of irons from endosome to cytosol is greatly influences by HCQ. These events may led the cytosol to starving for iron.

CONCLUSION

HCQ exhibits multiple cellular and molecular function including endothelial dysfunction, interface with viral coagulopathy and action on Neutrophil extracellular traps etc. However, multiple randomized control studies are warranted to explore therapeutic and safety profile of HCQ for various viral infections.

REFERENCES:

- Álvaro Danza, Diego Graña, Mabel Goñi, Andrea Vargas, Guillermo Ruiz-Irastorza Hydroxychloroquine for Autoimmune Diseases. Rev Med Chil.. 2016;144(2):232-40
- Katherine L. Cook, Anni Wärri, David R. Soto-Pantoja, Pamela A.G. Clarke,1 M. Idalia Cruz, Alan Zwart, and Robert Clarke. Hydroxychloroquine inhibits autophagy to potentiate anti estrogen responsiveness in ER+ breast cancer.

Clin Cancer Res. 2014 ; 20(12): 3222–3232.

- 3. Heung Kyu Lee and Akiko Iwasaki. Autophagy and antiviral immunity. Curr Opin Immunol. 2008 ; 20(1): 23–29.
- 4. Martinson JA, Montoya CJ, Usuga X, Ronquillo R, Landay AL, Desai SN. Chloroquine modulates HIV-1-induced plasmacytoid dendritic cell alpha interferon: implication for T cell activation., Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 2010;54 :2: 871-881
- Murray SM, Down CM, Boulware DR, et al. Reduction of immune activation during chronic HIV infection with chloroquine therapy., J Virol, 2010; 84 :22. 12082-12086
- 6. Sieczkarski SB, Whittaker GR. Dissecting virus entry via endocytosis.J Gen Virol 2002;83:1535–45
- Gonzalez-Dunia D, Cubitt B, de la Torre JC. Mechanism of Born a disease virus entry into cells. J Virol 1998;72:783–8.
- Randolph VB, Winkler G, Stollar V. Acidotropic amines inhibit proteolytic processing of flavivirus prM protein. Virology 1990;174:450–8
- Naarding MA, Baan E, Pollakis G, Paxton WA. Effect of chloroquine on reducing HIV-1 replication in vitro and the DC-SIGN mediated transfer of virus to CD4+ T-lymphocytes. Retrovirology 2007;4:6.
- Romanelli F, Smith KM, Hoven AD. Chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine as inhibitors of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV-1) activity. Curr Pharm Des2004;10:2643–8
- 11. Tsiang H, Superti F. Ammonium chloride and chloroquine inhibit rabies virusinfection in neuroblastoma cells. Arch Virol 1984;81:377–82.
- 12. Kronenberger P, Vrijsen R, Boeyé A. Chloroquine induces empty capsid formation during poliovirus eclipse. J Virol 1991;65:7008–11
- Piette JC, Guillevin L, Chapelon C, et al. Chloroquine cardiotoxicity. N Engl J Med 1987; 317: 710–711
- 14. M Stein, M J Bell, L C Ang.Hydroxychloroquine

Neuromyotoxicity.J Rheumatol. 2000 ;27(12):2927-31.

- 15. Chansky PB, Werth VPAccidental hydroxychloroquine overdose resulting in neurotoxic vestibulopathyCase Reports 2017;2017:bcr-2016-218786
- 16. Mohammad S, Clowse ME, Eudy AM, Criscione-Schreiber LG (March 2018).
 "Examination of Hydroxychloroquine Use and Hemolytic Anemia in G6PDH-Deficient Patients". Arthritis Care & Research. 70 (3): 481–485
- Fantini, 17. Jacques Henri Chahinian, Yahi. Synergistic Antiviral Nouara Effect of Hydroxychloroquine and Azithromycin in Combination Against SARS-CoV-2: What Molecular Dvnamics **Studies** of Virus-Host Interactions Reveal.Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2020;13;106020.
- Bracha M, Schlesinger MJ. Inhibition of Sindbis virus-replication by zinc ions. Virology. 1976;72(1):272–7.
- 19. Wei ZY, Burwinkel M, Palissa C, Ephraim E, Schmidt MFG. Antiviral activity of zinc salts against transmissible gastroenteritis virus in vitro. Vet Microbiol. 2012;160(3– 4):468–72.
- 20. Zaslavsky V. Inhibition of vaccinia virus growth by zinc ions—effect on early RNA and thymidine kinase synthesis. J Virol. 1979;29(1):405–8.
- Katz E, Margalith E. Inhibition of vaccinia virus maturation by zincchloride. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 1981;19(2):213–7.
- 22. Shuman S, Golder M, Moss B. Characterization of vaccinia virus-DNA topoisomerase-I expressed in Escherichia c oli. J Biol Chem. 1988;263(31):16401–7.
- 23. Maycotte P, Aryal S, Cummings CT, Thorburn J, Morgan MJ, et al. (2012) Chloroquine sensitizes breast cancer cells to chemotherapy independent of autophagy. Autophagy 8: 200–212
- 24. Oxford JS, Perrin DD. Inhibition of the particle-associated RNA-dependent RNA polymerase activity of influenza viruses by chelating agents. J Gen Virol. 1974;23(1):59–71.

- 25. Liu CY, Kielian M. Identification of a specific region in the E1 fusion protein involved in zinc inhibition of Semliki Forest virus fusion. J Virol. 2012;86(7):3588–94
- 26. Yoshimura A, Naka T, Kubo M. SOCS proteins, cytokine signalling and immune regulation. Nat Rev Immunol. 2007;7(6):454–65.
- 27. Jing Xue, Amanda Moyer, Bing Peng, Jinchang Wu, Bethany N. Hannafon, Wei-Qun Ding Chloroquine Is a Zinc Ionophore. PLoS One. 2014; 9(10): e109180.
- 28. Kroemer G, Jaattela M. Lysosomes and autophagy in cell death control. Nat Rev Cancer. 2005;5(11):886–97.
- 29. Rebecca VW, Nicastri MC, Fennelly C, et al. PPT1 Promotes Tumor Growth and Is the Molecular Target of Chloroquine Derivatives in Cancer. Cancer Discov. 2019;9(2):220-229.
- Miyauchi K, Kim Y, Latinovic O, Morozov V, Melikyan GB Cell. 2009 May 1; 137(3):433-44.
 - 31. Roczniak-Ferguson A, Petit CS, Froehlich F, Qian S, Ky J, Angarola B, Walther TC, Ferguson SM .Sci Signal. 2012:12; 5(228):ra42.
 - 32. Martina JA, Diab HI, Lishu L, Jeong-A L, Patange S, Raben N, Puertollano R. Sci Signal. 2014:21; 7(309):ra9.
 - 33. de Duve C, de Barsy T, Poole B, Trouet A, Tulkens P, Van Hoof F Biochem Pharmacol. 1974;15; 23(18):2495-531.
- 34. Shuyan Lu, Tae Sung, Nianwei Lin, Robert T. Abraham, and Bart A. Jessen. Lysosomal adaptation: How cells respond to lysosomotropic compounds. PLoS One. 2017; 12(3): e0173771.
- 35. Kawamata T, Kamada Y, Kabeya Y, et al. Organization of the preautophagosomal structure responsible for autophagosome formation. Mol Biol Cell. 2008;19(5):2039–2050
- 36. Levine B, Klionsky DJ. Development by self-digestion: molecular mechanisms and biological functions of autophagy. Dev Cell. 2004;6(4):463–477.

- 37. Kawai T, Akira S The role of patternrecognition receptors in innate immunity: update on Toll-like receptors.Nat Immunol. 2010 May; 11(5):373-84
- Akira S, Takeda K. Toll-like receptor signalling. Nat Rev Immunol. 2004 Jul; 4(7):499-511.
- 39. O'Neill LA, Bryant CE, Doyle SL. Therapeutic targeting of Toll-like receptors infectious for and inflammatory diseases and cancer.Pharmacol 2009 Rev. Jun; 61(2):177-97.
- Borges M. C., Castro L. A., Fonseca B. A. (2013). Chloroquine use improves dengue-related symptoms. Mem. Inst. Oswaldo Cruz 108, 596–599.
- Cui G., Ye X., Zuo T., Zhao H., Zhao Q. Chen W (2013). Chloroquine pretreatment inhibits toll-like receptor 3 signaling after stroke. Neurosci. Lett. 548, 101–104.
- 42. Kyburz D and Gay S (2003) Toll-like receptors direct antimicrobial immune responses—and drive arthritis?Curr Rheumatol Rep 5: 407–408
- 43. Bombardier C, Gladman DD, Urowitz MB, Caron D, Chang CH. Derivation of the SLEDAI. A disease activity index for lupus patients. The Committee on Prognosis Studies in SLE. Arthritis Rheum. 1992;35:630–640.
- 44. Viswanathan K., Chandrasekaran A., Srinivasan A., Raman R., Sasisekharan V., Sasisekharan R. Glycans as receptors for influenza pathogenesis. Glycoconj J. 2010;27:561–570.
- 45. Vazquez-Perez JA, Isa P, Kobasa D, et al. A (H1N1) pdm09 HA D222 variants associated with severity and mortality in patients during a second wave in Mexico. Virol J. 2013;10:41.
- 46. KonoM, TatsumiK, ImaiAM, et al. Inhibition of human coronavirus 229E infection in human epithelial lung cells (L132) by chloroquine: involvement of p38 MAPK and ERK. Antiviral Res. 2008;77(2):150–152
- 47. Jacques Fantini, Coralie Di Scala, Henri Chahinian, and Nouara Yahia,Structural and molecular modelling studies reveal a

new mechanism of action of chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine against SARS-CoV-2 infection.Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2020 May; 55(5): 105960.

- 48. Guerriero J.L. Macrophages: their untold story in t cell activation and function. Int. Rev. Cell Mol. Biol. 2019;342:73–93.
- 49. Goldman F.D., Gilman A.L., Hollenback C., Kato R.M., Premack B.A., Rawlings D.J. Hydroxychloroquine inhibits calcium signals in T cells: a new mechanism to explain its immunomodulatory

properties. Blood. 2000; 95:3460-3466.

- 50. Wolfram J., Nizzero S., Liu H., Li F., Zhang G., Li Z., Shen H., Blanco E., Ferrari M. A chloroquine-induced macrophage-preconditioning strategy for improved nanodelivery. Sci. Rep. 2017;7(October (1)) doi: 10.1038/s41598-017-14221-2.
- 51. Conti P., Ronconi G., Caraffa A., Gallenga C.E., Ross R., Frydas I. Induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-1 and IL-6) and lung inflammation by Coronavirus-19 (COVI-19 or SARS-CoV-2): anti-inflammatory strategies. J. Biol. Regul. Homeost. Agents. 2020;34
- 52. Lim E.J., Lee S.H., Lee J.G., Chin B.R., Bae Y.S., Kim J.R., Lee C.H., Baek S.H. Activation of toll-like receptor-9 induces matrix metalloproteinase-9 expression through Akt and tumor necrosis factoralpha signaling. FEBS Lett. 2006;580 (18):4533–4538.
- 53. McGonagle D., Sharif K., O'Regan A., Bridgewood C. The role of cytokines including Interleukin-6 in COVID-19 induced pneumonia and macrophage activation syndrome-like disease. Autoimmun. Rev. 2020;3
- Manley G.C.A., Parker L.C., Zhang Y. Emerging regulatory roles of dualspecificity phosphatases in inflammatory airway disease. Int. J. Mol. Sci. 2019;20:E678.
- 55. Potter M.D., Mutations in the murine fitness 1 gene result in defective hematopoiesis. Blood. 1997;90 (5):1850–1857.

- 56. Schultze A.E., Poppenga R.H., Johnson D.K. Alterations in serum and tissue iron profiles associated with mutations in the*fitness1*4226sb locus of mice. Comp. Haematol. Int. 1998;8:72–76.
- 57. Steere AN, Chasteen ND, Miller BF, Smith VC, MacGillivray RT, Mason AB. 2012. Structure-based mutagenesis reveals critical residues in the transferrin receptor participating in the mechanism of pH- induced release of iron from human serum transferrin. Biochemistry 51:2113–21
- Luck AN, Mason AB. 2012. Transferrinmediated cellular iron delivery. Curr. Top. Membr. 69:3–35
- 59. Inoue Y., Tanaka N., Tanaka Y., Inoue S., Morita K., Zhuang M., Hattori T., Sugamura K. Clathrin-dependent entry of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus into target cells expressing ACE2 with the cytoplasmic tail deleted. J. Virol. 2007;81(16):8722–8729
- 60. Shawki A., Knight P.B., Maliken B.D., Niespodzany E.J., Mackenzie B. H(+)coupled divalent metal-ion transporter-1: functional properties, physiological roles and therapeutics. Curr. Top. Membr. 2012;70:169–214