

## **Review**

# **The role of hepcidin and ferroportin in iron absorption**

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**Summary.** The field of iron metabolism is moving rapidly. There have been significant advances in our understanding of how proteins carry out the process of iron absorption. The three main tissues involved in iron exchange are the enterocyte which contributes new iron to the system, the hepatocyte which stores and releases iron and the macrophages which recycles iron from effete red blood cells to the plasma. This review examines recent evidence into the function of the iron transporters divalent metal transporter and ferroportin in enterocytes. Evidence is also provided from the author's laboratory which presents an alternative hypothesis into how hepcidin a key regulator molecule might interact with ferroportin in enterocytes. It is proposed that ferroportin operates differently in enterocytes compared with macrophages. Specifically in enterocytes ferroportin appears to function in the uptake stage of iron absorption.

**Key words:** Absorption, DMT1, Regulation, Uptake, Release, Inflammation, Ferroportin, Macrophages

### **Introduction**

Iron is essential for life. It is incorporated into enzymes and proteins required for important cellular processes such as oxygen transport, proliferation and energy production. If there is a sustained negative iron balance less iron is available for incorporation into haemoglobin, leading to anaemia, and in children, to central nervous system dysfunction and impaired growth. On the other hand, excess cellular iron is extremely harmful to cells by facilitating the production of reactive oxygen species which results in damage to cellular proteins, lipids and DNA. Consequences of such damage are organ failure and predisposition to cancer.

Since mammals have a limited capacity to excrete iron, the iron content of the body must be tightly regulated at the stage of intake into the body namely, via intestinal absorption.

Internal daily iron balance is maintained by the efficient destruction of senescent red blood cells by macrophages and the return of the freed iron to the circulation where it is available for uptake by the bone marrow for erythropoiesis. In addition hepatocytes buffer changes in plasma iron by uptake and release. In the event of reduced iron stores or increased erythropoiesis such as might occur after a haemorrhage there is increased requirement for iron by the body. This results in reduced release of hepcidin by hepatocytes that signals to increase iron absorption by the enterocyte and iron release from macrophages via the iron efflux transport protein, ferroportin.

This review is divided into four parts, firstly it examines the recent literature into the expression of hepcidin normally and during inflammation and the evidence that ferroportin is the receptor for hepcidin. Secondly it examines the physiological significance of mutations to ferroportin that result in the ferroportin disease, where it is suggested that ferroportin combines with cell specific proteins to modulate iron absorption by enterocytes. Thirdly, evidence is provided from the author's laboratory which presents an alternative hypothesis on how hepcidin operates with ferroportin in enterocytes. The review then focuses on how ferroportin may be linked to heme breakdown in macrophages and this is compared with enterocytes. Finally a discussion of major unresolved issues regarding the structure and function of ferroportin is presented.

### **Molecular explanations of primary iron overload**

A persuasive hypothesis has recently been proposed which suggests that the liver regulates iron flux and iron absorption via the expression of at least four proteins namely, the hemochromatosis (HFE) protein (Feder et al., 1996), hemojuvelin (HJV) (Papanikolaou et al., 2004; Gehrke et al., 2005), transferrin receptor 2 (TfR2)

(Camaschella et al., 2000) and hepcidin (Nicolas et al., 2001; Roetto et al., 2003; Gehrke et al., 2005). The roles of HFE, HJV and Tfr2 are to regulate the appropriate expression and release of hepcidin which in turn acts as a humoral mediator determining the amounts of iron released by enterocytes and macrophages. The importance of these proteins is evidenced by mutations to their genes that manifest in various forms of hemochromatosis (Cazzola, 2003).

## Hepcidin 1

### *Identification of hepcidin and its importance in iron metabolism*

Hepcidin (aka, LEAP-liver-expressed antimicrobial peptide, HAMP- hepatocyte antimicrobial peptide) was discovered when an inadvertent hepatic iron overload phenotype was observed in the *Upstream Stimulatory Factor 2 (USF2)* knockout mice (Nicolas et al., 2001; Pigeon et al., 2001). The nature of this iron overload resembled that of genetic hemochromatosis (GH) where the hepatic iron distribution was in the periportal parenchyma while the reticuloendothelial system was spared from iron loading. It was shown that the iron overload in *USF2* knockout mice is due to the absence of the duplicated hepcidin gene in the liver of these mice (Nicolas et al., 2001). Supporting this, the phenotype reported in combined *Hamp/USF2<sup>+</sup>* (Nicolas et al., 2001) was similar to *Hamp<sup>-/-</sup>* mice (Lesbordes-Brion et al., 2006).

### *Increased hepcidin expression is linked to iron deficiency and anaemia*

Pigeon and co-workers demonstrated that liver iron accumulation increased hepcidin mRNA while reduced hepcidin mRNA expression produced progressive liver iron loading (Pigeon et al., 2001; Nicolas et al., 2002). Newborn animals in which hepcidin was overproduced resulted in severe iron deficiency and they died within a few hours of birth (Nicolas et al., 2002). Similarly hepcidin expressing tumours also result in iron deficiency anaemia due to reduced iron accumulation and availability (Roy et al., 2003; Rivera et al., 2005). Recently mutations in the hepcidin gene have been implicated in a new form of juvenile hemochromatosis which maps to chromosome 19 in humans (Roetto et al., 2003).

### *Intracellular hepcidin processing*

Hepcidin has been purified from human plasma ultrafiltrate and from urine (Park et al., 2001). It was shown to be a disulfide-bonded peptide exhibiting antimicrobial activity (Krause et al., 2000; Nicolas et al., 2001; Hunter et al., 2002). Hepcidin is synthesised in the liver in the form of a propeptide that contains 84 amino

acids, including a putative 24 amino acid leader peptide. It is proteolytically cleaved into the bioactive peptide of 25 amino acids during cellular processing (Krause et al., 2000; Nicolas et al., 2001; Park et al., 2001; Nemeth et al., 2006). Hepcidin is also found as -22 and -20 peptide fragments but these are not biologically active (Nemeth et al., 2004). The differences between the active and inactive forms of hepcidin reside at the N-terminal (Nemeth et al., 2006).

### *Hepcidin is a hormone*

The physiological role of hepcidin as an effector of iron absorption was shown when changes in iron absorption coincided inversely with changes in the amount of hepcidin expressed. This was the case in response to alterations in erythropoiesis, body iron loading, pregnancy and hypoxia (Anderson et al., 2002; Frazer et al., 2002, 2004; Millard et al., 2004). Direct evidence was provided when recombinant hepcidin was injected into rodents or applied to intestinal cell lines and iron absorption fell around 24 hrs later (Laftah et al., 2004; Yamaji et al., 2004; Yeh et al., 2004).

The response time to changes in hepcidin expression on plasma iron levels was demonstrated in a transgenic mouse model with an inducible promoter linked to the hepcidin gene (Viatte et al., 2006). Activation of hepcidin expression reduced plasma iron levels within 6hrs. A quicker response was seen after parenteral administration of recombinant hepcidin-25 to mice (Rivera et al., 2005). The different response time represents the time required to activate transcription, translation and post-translational modifications of the peptide and its secretion before an effect is produced. These events are entirely consistent with the processing of a peptide hormone and its target action. Notwithstanding these data, direct measurements of plasma hepcidin are presently not available because of the lack of a suitable antibody directed against hepcidin-25, presumably because of the limited number of epitopes that can be generated from the 5 amino acids that comprise the bioactive form.

### *Structure of hepcidin*

The structures of Hepcidin-20 and -25 have been solved (Hunter et al., 2002). Both structures appear to be distorted  $\beta$ -sheets with six disulphide bonds from cysteine residues maintaining interconnectivity between the sheets. At the N-terminal hepcidin-25 has several modifications around a proline residue near the N-terminal and a disulfide hairpin bridge that may confer functionality. The peptides are amphipathic in structure and that may confer antimicrobial activity. In solution hepcidin-20 maintains a monomeric state, whereas hepcidin-25 aggregates and appears to form an interface for peptide interactions. These variations may account for the difference in activities of the two peptides.

## Stimuli of hepcidin expression

### *Body iron stores*

It is known that iron absorption is inversely related to body iron stores (Bezwoda et al., 1979; Millard et al., 2004). In humans and mice under normal circumstances there is a strong correlation between hepcidin levels and hepatic iron stores (Simpson et al., 2003; Detivaud et al., 2005). How body iron stores produce appropriate hepcidin expression is unclear but it is probably relayed in part by plasma transferrin saturation.

### *Erythropoiesis*

Under normal circumstances there is a strong correlation between hepcidin expression and hemoglobin levels (Simpson et al., 2003; Detivaud et al., 2005), suggesting that hepcidin is responsive to erythropoiesis (Nicolas et al., 2001; Nicolas, Chauvet et al., 2002; Frazer et al., 2004; Ezech et al., 2005; Leung et al., 2005; Kattamis et al., 2006; Latunde-Dada et al., 2006; Yoon et al., 2006).

### *Erythroid regulator versus the stores regulator*

The erythropoietic regulator has a greater capacity to increase iron absorption than the stores regulator. Supporting this, low hepcidin expression is found in the presence of high iron stores when there is ineffective erythropoiesis (Ajioka et al., 2002; Papanikolaou et al., 2005; Latunde-Dada et al., 2006; Weizer-Stern et al., 2006). This results in increased iron absorption and exacerbates the iron loading.

### *Anaemia of chronic disease (ACD)*

Inflammation either acute or chronic results in hypoferrremia due to iron retention by macrophages (Noyes et al., 1960; Quastel and Ross, 1966; Cartwright, 1966; Lee, 1983) and reduced intestinal iron absorption (Gubler et al., 1950; Cortell and Conrad, 1967; Schade, 1972). The anaemia is the result of reduced iron availability because of impaired release from macrophages, reduced life span of the erythrocyte, reduced activity of erythropoietin affecting erythropoiesis (Epo) (Theurl et al., 2006) and a decreased responsiveness of erythroid precursors to EPO (Cartwright, 1966; Lee, 1983).

The hypoferrremia associated with inflammation is most likely mediated by hepcidin in reducing iron efflux and absorption by macrophages and enterocytes, respectively. Injection of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) to humans increased urinary hepcidin by 6 hours and was followed by a fall in plasma iron (Kemna et al., 2005). LPS derived from the wall of bacterial cell membranes is known to initiate an inflammatory response by interacting with Toll-Like Receptors (TLR) on the cell membrane of hepatocytes (Schwabe et al., 2006) and

macrophages (Hoshino et al., 1999). Since LPS stimulates hepcidin release from isolated hepatocytes (Pigeon et al., 2001, Lee et al., 2005), this suggests that TLR are linked to hepcidin expression (Lee et al., 2005; Constante et al., 2006).

### *Cytokines stimulate hepcidin expression that cause cellular iron sequestration*

The hypoferrremia associated with inflammation is also mediated by increased release of hepcidin in response to pro-inflammatory cytokines (Weinstein et al., 2002; Nemeth et al., 2003, 2004; Lee et al., 2004, 2005; Andriopoulos and Pantopoulos, 2006). In response to LPS and/or specific cytokines hepcidin expression increased and hypoferrremia followed (Nemeth et al., 2003, 2004, Kemna et al., 2005). In addition to IL-6 others have found that IL-1 $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  increased hepcidin expression (Lee et al., 2004, 2005). Conversely, producing an inflammatory response with turpentine in HAMP<sup>-/-</sup> mice did not produce hypoferrremia (Nicolas et al., 2002). This loss of iron from the plasma is likely to be due to inhibition of iron release caused by reduced expression of ferroportin in macrophages. Whether enterocytes retain iron in the presence of increased hepcidin is discussed below.

### *Hepcidin-independent iron sequestration*

A hepcidin independent role in iron efflux has been suggested in macrophages (Yang et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2005) and enterocytes (Johnson et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 2005), whereby ferroportin expression is reduced or the protein is rendered non-functional. Thus there appear to be at least three ways in which hypoferrremia can be produced, two hepcidin dependent processes involving TLR and cytokine receptors on hepatocytes and a third hepcidin -independent mechanism.

### *Hepcidin 2*

In mice a second gene encoding hepcidin is expressed in the pancreas (Hepcidin 2) (Ilyin et al., 2003). This appears to be a recent evolutionary development because rat and human pancreas do not express Hepcidin 2. Hepcidin 1 and 2 are both responsive to dietary iron loading (Mazur et al., 2003), but only Hepcidin 1 responds to lipopolysaccharide induced inflammation (Krijt et al., 2004). Furthermore, over-expression of Hepcidin 1 but not Hepcidin 2 produces an iron deficient phenotype (Lou et al., 2004), suggesting that Hepcidin 1 is the effector molecule regulating iron efflux and Hepcidin 2 in this role is dispensable. Supporting this, targeted disruption of Hepcidin 1 produced iron overload even in the presence of the USF2 gene (Lesbordes-Brion et al., 2006). Since the iron overload phenotype can be fully explained by Hepcidin 1 the function of Hepcidin 2 is unknown but it shares homology to fish Hepcidin-like peptides that may

function like a  $\beta$ -defensin in innate immunity (Bao et al., 2006). Interestingly, in TfR2<sup>-/-</sup> knockout mice hepcidin 2 but not hepcidin 1 expression increased with iron loading (Wallace et al., 2005), suggesting that input via a TfR2 pathway is important for regulating hepcidin 2. The role of hepcidin 2 in mice is presently unknown.

### **Ferroportin is an iron exporter and the hepcidin 1 receptor**

Ferroportin is a transmembrane protein (Abboud and Hailey, 2000; McKie et al., 2000; Donovan et al., 2005) expressed in tissues involved in maintaining body iron stores and turnover including enterocytes, macrophages, placenta and hepatocytes suggesting ferroportin is an iron efflux transporter and the receptor to hepcidin.

Evidence implicating ferroportin in the efflux of non-heme iron is provided by six observations. [1] Over-expression of ferroportin results in a cellular iron deficient phenotype indicating that ferroportin caused iron efflux from the cells (Abboud and Haile, 2000). [2] Ferroportin expression in *Xenopus* oocytes along with DMT1 resulted in iron efflux (Donovan et al., 2000; McKie et al., 2000). [3] Over-expression of ferroportin in cells exposed to hepcidin-25 resulted in internalisation of ferroportin and its targeting to lysosomes for degradation and was linked with increased cellular iron stores. Hepcidin-20 had no effect (Nemeth et al., 2004). [4] Mutations to ferroportin have been described which result in a hemochromatosis phenotype, suggesting that iron release from the stores is impaired or that ferroportin is un-responsive to hepcidin-25 (De Domenico et al., 2005, 2006). [5] Over-expression of ferroportin in macrophages during erythrophagocytosis increased the release of non-heme iron after its release from heme (Knutson et al., 2005). [6] *Ferroportin*<sup>-/-</sup> mice resulted in non-heme iron accumulation within enterocytes (Donovan et al., 2005). These data support the hypothesis that ferroportin is the receptor for hepcidin, is involved in non-heme iron release and that hepcidin is a major regulator of iron absorption and body iron turnover.

### **The ferroportin disease**

The ferroportin disease otherwise described as hereditary hemochromatosis type 4 is inherited as an autosomal dominant trait. There are numerous different mutations to the ferroportin gene that result in iron overload (Njajou et al., 2001; Pietrangelo, 2004; Sham et al., 2005). Affected individuals fall into two phenotypes, those that manifest with an early increased plasma ferritin, relatively low to normal transferrin saturation and iron overload of macrophages (Montosi et al., 2001; Cazzola et al., 2002; Devalia et al., 2002; Roetto et al., 2002; Wallace et al., 2002, 2004; Beutler, 2003; Jouanolle et al., 2003), the other with hyperferritinemia, high transferrin saturation and iron loading of the parenchyma (Rivard et al., 2003; Wallace et al., 2004; Sham et al., 2005).

At the molecular level the various mutations to ferroportin fall into three categories. Mutations to ferroportin (A77D, V162 $\Delta$ , G490D, N174I) that result in the retention of ferroportin within the endoplasmic reticulum (De Domenico et al., 2005, 2006; Drakesmith et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2005), preventing its targeting to the cell surface. Lack of ferroportin on the membrane of macrophages produces hepcidin resistance (De Domenico et al., 2006) and manifests as an iron overload phenotype of the macrophages, presumably because heme is catabolised after entry but the iron cannot be released (see below). Nonetheless, in a *Xenopus* oocyte functional assay system A77D and V162 $\Delta$  were able to target the membrane and transport iron albeit at reduced rate (McGregor et al., 2005). These data suggest the function of ferroportin needs to be considered in a cell context manner.

The second group of mutations present with iron overload of the parenchyma and increased plasma saturation that is interpreted as a gain of ferroportin function. Mutations to ferroportin (N144H, N144D, Q182H, Y64N, and C326Y) indicate appropriate targeting of ferroportin to the cell surface where it appears to bind hepcidin but fails to be internalised. This is proposed to lead to constitutive entry of iron from the intestinal tract into the body and iron loading of hepatocytes and increased transferrin saturation (Montosi et al., 2001).

### *Hypotheses accounting for dominant transmission*

Two hypotheses are proposed to account for the autosomal dominant transmission of the disease namely, dominant negative (De Domenico et al., 2005) and haploinsufficiency hypotheses (Schimanski et al., 2005), respectively. In the dominant negative hypothesis ferroportin wild type and mutant proteins oligomerise to produce a protein complex that combines functionally to produce a loss of iron transport capacity (De Domenico et al., 2005). McGregor and coworkers showed that adding equimolar amounts of wild type and mutant ferroportin mRNA to *Xenopus* oocytes reduced iron efflux, a finding that supports the dimer model of dominant negative action (McGregor et al., 2005). However, other groups have failed to observe dimerization of ferroportin both in vitro and in vivo (Schimanski et al., 2005; Canonne-Hergaux et al., 2006; Goncalves et al., 2006; Pignatti et al., 2006) and therefore suggest the haploinsufficiency hypothesis (Liu et al., 2005; Schimanski et al., 2005). This hypothesis suggests that reduced production of wild type protein is rate limiting when required at high transport capacity such as in macrophages, but not at low capacity such as in the enterocyte. However there is some doubt to the validity of this hypothesis.

### *Testing the haploinsufficiency hypothesis*

On a daily basis, macrophages recycle about 30mg of iron to the plasma iron pool derived from effete

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erythrocytes whereas enterocytes contribute about 1mg of iron (Knutson and Wessling-Resnick, 2003). It is thought that insufficient production of ferroportin could be rate limiting (haploinsufficient) in the release of iron by macrophages but not from enterocytes. This assumes that the mass of macrophages and enterocytes engaged in iron efflux are similar. However previous studies using rats allow an estimate of efflux of iron by a single enterocyte and macrophage. If it is assumed that a macrophage breaks down one erythrocyte containing about 20 pg of haemoglobin per day or releases  $10^9$  atoms of iron per day (Kondo et al., 1988; Knutson and Wessling-Resnick, 2003) approximately 100fg of iron will be returned to the circulation per macrophage. In the rat about 10  $\mu$ g of iron is absorbed per day. However, since the conditions for absorption are only optimal in the duodenum the calculation for enterocyte iron absorption should be limited to this region. It was estimated that for the entire length of intestine, villus enterocytes contain 6.8 mg of DNA (Oates and Morgan, 1996b), however, since the duodenum represents 10% of this length there is 0.68 mg of DNA from enterocytes and based on the fact that a rat diploid nucleus contains 10pg of DNA there will be approximately 68 million enterocytes present in the duodenum. Therefore each enterocyte will absorb about 150 fg of iron per day. If these estimations apply to humans then the amount of iron released from an enterocyte and by macrophages per day will be similar. It is clear that enterocytes are exposed to sufficient dietary iron to produce non-heme iron loading and *ferroportin*<sup>-/-</sup> mice clearly demonstrate iron accumulation in enterocytes (Donovan et al., 2005). Thus these data do not support the haploinsufficiency hypothesis. An alternative hypothesis points to a more fundamental difference in the functions of ferroportin in these two tissues. This review will now examine the recent literature on iron absorption in the enterocyte and in particular the function of ferroportin.

### Iron absorption by enterocytes

Iron absorption involves the movement of iron from the intestinal lumen across the apical membrane of the enterocyte (uptake), movement through the cell (intracellular processing) and then movement across the basal membrane (efflux) into the bloodstream. This occurs by several steps. A large number of proteins are known to be involved in non-heme iron absorption and these are tabled along with their known and expected sites of function in table 1.

### Uptake of iron

In the enterocyte divalent metal transporter 1 (DMT1) is essential for the uptake of Fe(II) across the apical membrane (Fleming et al., 1997; Gunshin et al., 1997), as evidenced by homozygous mk mice and b rats that carry a G185R mutation to DMT1. In mk/mk and b/b rats there is markedly impaired iron absorption that leads to a severe iron deficient phenotype (Oates and Morgan, 1996a). There are 4 possible transcripts for DMT1 two containing iron responsive elements (Hubert and Hentze, 2002), although most studies suggest that one isoform transcript of DMT1-IRE dominates expression.

In enterocytes during severe iron deficiency DMT1 operates at the apical membrane (Trinder et al., 2000; Canonne-Hergaux et al., 2001), however normally DMT1 is found at intracellular sites (West et al., 2006), suggesting that dietary iron and DMT1 can interact inside the cell (Thomas and Oates 2004a,b; Oates and Thomas, 2005b). Like most integral proteins expressed at the apical membrane, DMT1 is glycosylated, presumably to protect against digestion from luminal secretions and acidity (Thomas and Oates, 2002). DMT1 operates by a symport action in which equivalent amounts of ferrous iron (Fe(II)) and H<sup>+</sup> are co-

**Table 1.** Proteins both known and putatively involved in the uptake, movement and release of iron by enterocytes. Their intracellular function and location are also listed.

PROTEIN	FUNCTION	REFERENCE
DMT1 membrane/cytosol	Transports Fe(II) to cytoplasm	(Gunshin et al., 1997)
$\beta$ 3 integrin	Transports Fe(III)	(Conrad et al., 1993b)
Citrate binding	Bind Fe(III) at cell surface	(Thomas and Oates, 2004b)
Dcytb	Ferrireductase	(McKie et al., 2001)
Mobilferrin/Calreticum	Ferrireductase/Chaperone/Protein folding	(Conrad et al., 1993a)
Steap1	Ferrireductase	(Ohgami et al., 2005)
HFE protein	Binds TfR/functions in iron transport	(Feder et al., 1998; West et al., 2006)
TfR	Binds HFE and diferric transferrin and modulates iron uptake from transferrin	(Trinder et al., 2002)
Transferrin	Binds Fe(III) in plasma	(Oates and Morgan, 1997)
Ferritin	Store Fe(III)	(Gerard et al., 1996)
Ferroportin	Exports Fe(II)	(Donovan et al., 2000; McKie et al., 2000)
Hephaestin	Ferroxidase + ?	(Vulpe et al., 1999)

DMT: divalent metal transporter; HFE: Haemochromatosis protein; TFR; Transferrin receptor; ?: putative.

transported into the enterocyte (Gunshin et al., 1997). Since most dietary non-heme iron is in the ferric (Fe(III)) form that cannot be transported by DMT1 the Fe(III) must undergo ferrireduction before transport by DMT1.

#### *The role of Dcytb in iron absorption*

Dcytb is a ferrireductase expressed predominately on the cell surface (McKie et al., 2000). Reduction of dietary Fe(III) may occur by the ferrireductase Dcytb (McKie et al., 2000), although *Dcytb/Cryb1*<sup>-/-</sup> mice were not iron deficient, indicating that iron absorption was normal (Gunshin et al., 2005). This suggests redundancy in ferrireductase activity and therefore the existence of other ferrireductases (Conrad et al., 1993a,b; Ohgami et al., 2005) (Table 1).

#### *Ferroportin is expressed on the apical membrane of enterocytes*

In the author's laboratory ferroportin is detectable on the apical membrane of enterocytes by immunofluorescence microscopy (Thomas and Oates 2004a), but not when prepared from wax sections as also suggested by others (Abboud and Haile, 2000; Oates and Thomas, 2005a; Canonne-Hergaux et al., 2006). These observations suggest that the low levels of expression of ferroportin at the apical membrane is lost by extensive fixation, or in the preparation for wax embedding as previously suggested for intestinal transferrin receptor (TfR) (Oates et al., 2000). Importantly these data are supported by Western blot analysis showing enrichment of ferroportin expression in apical membrane preparations compared with the starting homogenate. (Thomas and Oates, 2004a) Interestingly, others have shown in polarised epithelial cells that ferroportin is expressed on the apical membrane of airway epithelia (Yang et al., 2005).

#### *DMT1 and Fe(II) interact with ferroportin in the uptake of iron*

Functional data supports a role for ferroportin in the uptake of Fe(II) by enterocytes and enterocyte-like cells (Oates and Thomas, 2005b). Using the predicted sequence of ferroportin (McKie et al., 2000) when a blocking antibody directed against the largest extracellular domain of ferroportin was incubated with rat Intestinal Epithelial Cells (IEC-6) and Caco-2 cells, uptake of Fe(II) fell. In IEC-6 cells this was due to internalisation and targeting of the ferroportin to lysosomes (Oates and Thomas, 2005b). Since the antibody had no effect on the release of iron it suggests that the binding site on ferroportin at the basal surface is unavailable or that other key proteins are masking the antibody binding site at the basal surface but not at the apical membrane (see below). It is unlikely that

ferroportin transports Fe(II) into the cell as there is clear evidence that DMT1 is the transporter involved in iron uptake. Therefore DMT1 is a logical candidate to interact with ferroportin. Taken together with the study of Nemeth and co-workers it suggests that ferroportin has at least two binding sites, one where hepcidin binds to inhibit efflux (Nemeth et al., 2004) and a second identified by the ferroportin antibody that impairs uptake.

#### *Citrate and Fe(III) interact with ferroportin in the uptake of iron*

Another interaction that has been observed in the author's laboratory is that between ferroportin, citrate and Fe(III) (2004). Citrate binding sites exist on the apical membrane of enterocytes (Muir et al., 1984) and the ferroportin antibody completely blocks the binding of Fe(III) to citrate on this membrane (2004). In IEC-6 cells the uptake of Fe(III) involves initial binding of Fe(III) to citrate binding sites on the cell membrane followed by internalisation of Fe(III). Since there is no evidence of ferrireduction on the cell surface the Fe(III) can enter the cell perhaps by a  $\beta$ -integrin pathway (Conrad et al., 1993b). Once inside the cell the iron is reduced possibly by Dcytb, mobilferrin (Conrad et al., 1993) or Steap (Ohgami et al., 2005) and then transported by DMT1 to a distal site possibly involving lysosomes (Thomas and Oates, 2004a,b). This pathway supports the idea of redundancy in several steps in iron absorption, namely ferrireductase activity and uptake but non-redundancy for transport by DMT1 (Gunshin et al., 2005). The physiological significance of this pathway is still unclear but it does indicate that ferroportin functions in the uptake of Fe(III) into enterocytes.

#### *Hepcidin reduces iron absorption by affecting uptake*

The effect of recombinant hepcidin-25 on the uptake and efflux steps of iron absorption in the human intestinal cell line (Caco-2) and mice has been studied (Laftah et al., 2004; Yamaji et al., 2004). In polarised Caco-2 cells and in mice hepcidin firstly decreased expression of the DMT1 which then decreased iron uptake and therefore overall iron absorption. In mice ferroportin expression remained unchanged as did the efflux of iron expressed as a percentage of iron internalised (Yamaji et al., 2004). Importantly when hepcidin was added to the apical membrane iron uptake was not affected indicating that the hepcidin binding site on ferroportin is not available possibly because it is masked by proteins expressed on the apical surfaces only or by mucous (see below for other possibilities) (Oates and Thomas, 2005b). This observation confirms the humoral nature of the action of hepcidin in its interaction with ferroportin at the basal membrane and indicates that the uptake step is affected by an interaction occurring at the basal membrane.

Iron absorption

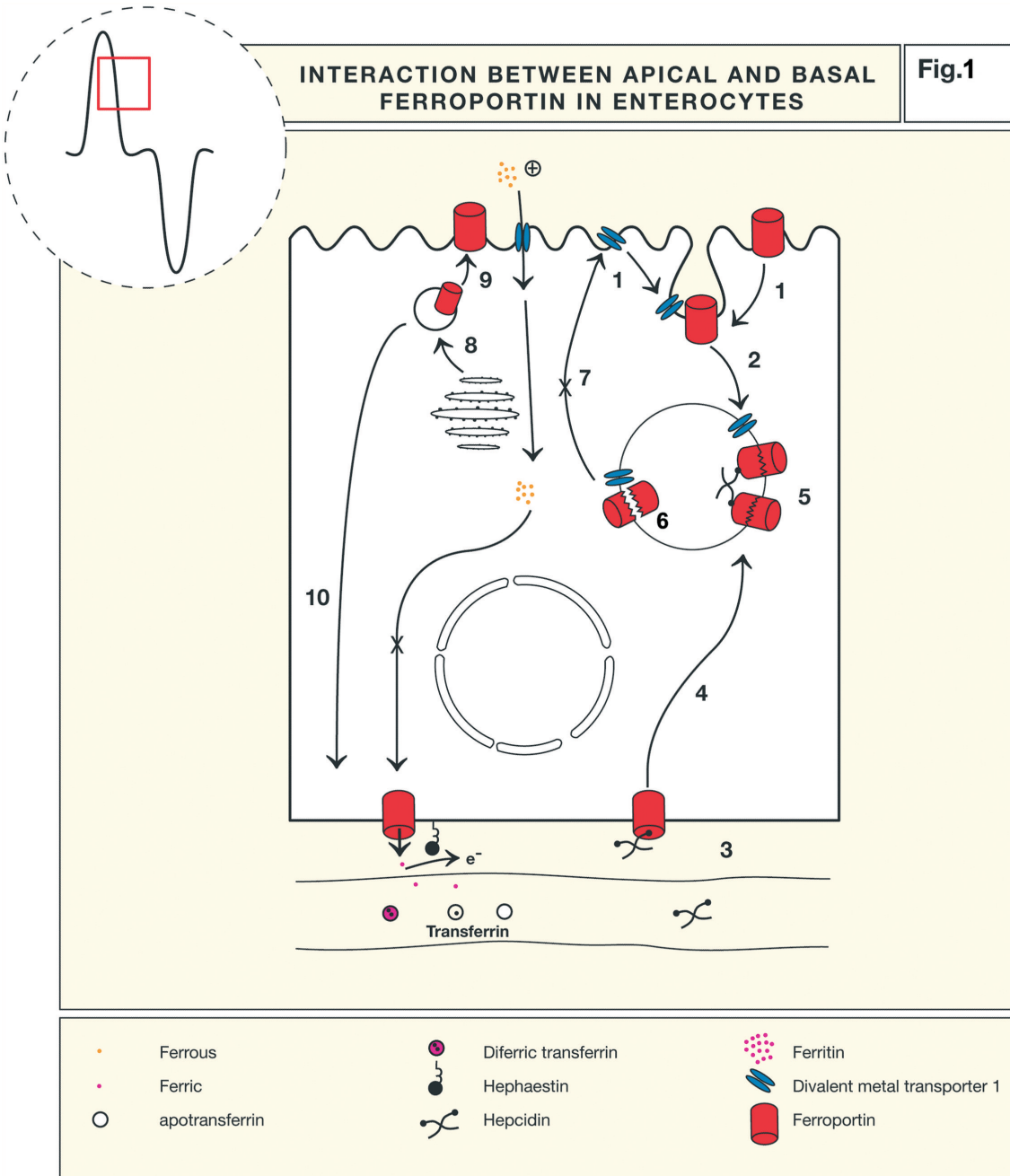
Endotoxin induced inflammation reduced iron absorption by impairing uptake

Inflammation is known to reduce iron absorption in humans and rodents (Cartwright, 1966; Cortell and Conrad, 1967; Haurani and Green, 1967; Beresford et al., 1971). Endotoxin-reduced iron absorption initially occurs at the uptake step and presumably was hepcidin mediated (Cortell and Conrad, 1967). Importantly this study revealed that the enterocyte is iron deficient suggesting that the reduction in iron uptake was not

secondary to an initial loss of ferroportin function which is expected to increase cell iron stores as described above. This supports the idea that hepcidin operates indirectly at the apical step in iron absorption.

Hypothesis: Ferroportin on the basal membrane interacts with ferroportin on the apical membrane to impair uptake

A hypothesis has been proposed that takes the above observations into account and is summarised in figure 1. This hypothesis states that circulating hepcidin-25 in the



aggregated form binds ferroportin at the basal membrane and is targeted to lysosomes via late endosomes. Ferroportin on the apical membrane also constitutively enters the cell along with DMT1. The two pathways converge in or near a late endosome. At this site hepcidin cross links basal ferroportin with apical membrane derived ferroportin causing the complex to be targeted to the lysosomes along with DMT1. This leads to reduced apical membrane expression of DMT1 and in turn iron absorption. Normally DMT1 and ferroportin leave the apical membrane in the same endosome. In the absence of basal derived hepcidin/ferroportin DMT1 and ferroportin return to the apical membrane via a recycling compartment. The recent development of transgenic mouse models makes the testing of this hypothesis possible (Viatte et al., 2006).

### Intracellular handling of iron

There is considerable evidence to show that following uptake at the apical membrane the movement of iron through the enterocyte involves interactions with various organelles before it exits at the basal membrane. Organelles situated in a centrally located supranuclear region appear to be an important staging post for the movement of iron through the enterocyte. High resolution autoradiography have shown that following an intragastric dose of radiolabelled iron, the iron passes into the enterocyte via the microvilli and terminal web and links with the rough endoplasmic reticulum (Bedard et al., 1971a; Humphrys et al., 1977). In enterocytes HFE localises to the terminal web and may play a direct role in iron absorption (Levy et al., 2000; Fergelot et al., 2002; Laftah et al., 2004; West et al., 2006).

In *sla<sup>-/-</sup>* mice in which the ferroxidase hephaestin is mutated iron accumulates in ferritin adjacent to the endoplasmic reticulum (Bedard et al., 1971b). This is a similar site to where the majority of hephaestin is situated and suggests that hephaestin may have an intracellular role in iron movement (Frazer et al., 2001). Interestingly, this is a similar site to where iron accumulates in enterocytes of *ferroportin<sup>-/-</sup>* mice (Donovan et al., 2005), suggesting that ferroportin also may operate at this site. What leads to the accumulation of iron at this site when hephaestin and ferroportin loose function is unclear but one possibility is that failure of hephaestin and ferroportin to operate properly leads to sequestration by ferritin as evidenced by Perl's staining (Bedard et al., 1971b; Donovan et al., 2005). Nonetheless, these observations are in part consistent with the hypothesis from the author's laboratory that DMT1 and ferroportin operate within lysosomes (Thomas and Oates, 2004b; Oates and Thomas, 2005b) since these organelles are mainly concentrated in the apical cytoplasm (West et al., 2006). It also suggests that hephaestin and ferroportin may operate in at least two sites during the movement of iron. Further studies are required to resolve these hypotheses.

Other proteins that are present within the enterocyte

are transferrin and TfR. As stated above TfR haploinsufficiency results in mild iron deficiency perhaps suggesting a direct role in iron absorption. If this is the case then it is unlikely by binding to transferrin bound iron and providing a sense of transferrin saturation (Pollack et al., 1963). However, TfR may be involved in the regulation of iron absorption either by the enterocyte or in the crypt region (Trinder et al., 2002).

### Release of iron

The release component of iron absorption involves two recently cloned proteins, a copper-oxidase termed hephaestin (Vulpe et al., 1999) and ferroportin. Ferrooxidation of released iron by hephaestin is thought necessary to enable binding to plasma transferrin (Osaki and Johnson, 1969) (Fig. 1).

### Protein interaction with ferroportin may be different in macrophages and enterocytes

Corradini and co-workers showed by histochemical means that mutations to ferroportin increased iron accumulation in macrophages but not in enterocytes (Corradini et al., 2005). Furthermore *ferroportin<sup>+/-</sup>* mice have iron loading of macrophages and mild iron-restricted erythropoiesis, however they do not show signs of liver iron loading. This suggests that iron absorption by enterocytes may be normal and the difference between macrophage and enterocyte may lie in the interaction of ferroportin with other cell specific proteins (Donovan et al., 2005).

This review has dealt with the handling of non-heme iron by the enterocyte. Since the major form of iron handled by macrophages is heme following erythrophagocytosis and in the case of enterocytes heme derived from animal sources this review will now compare and contrast possible ferroportin-protein interactions in macrophage and enterocytes with respect to heme-iron.

### Uptake of heme occurs by different pathways in macrophages compared with enterocytes

Unlike macrophages which process heme from phagocytosed red blood cells, enterocytes acquire dietary heme by the activity of a heme carrier protein (Latunde-Dada et al., 2006) or a receptor mediated endocytotic process (Oates and West, 2006). This is likely to result in partitioning of heme to different compartments during the breakdown of heme in the respective cell types.

### Enterocytes and macrophages breakdown heme by different routes

In macrophages, a key interaction is likely to be that of HO-1 and ferroportin in the recycling of heme from



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senescent erythrocytes. In macrophages this requires HO-1 as evidenced by *HO1*<sup>-/-</sup> mice which manifest with iron overload particularly within macrophages (Poss and Tonegawa, 1997). There appear two separate fates for catabolized heme-iron in macrophages, a HO-1 dependent pathway, where iron from heme is efficiently effluxed. A second HO-1 independent pathway results in the freed iron remaining within the cell probably stored within ferritin (Bissell and Guzelian, 1980). This suggests that in macrophages for optimal release of Fe(II) from heme, HO-1 and ferroportin needs to interact (Knutson et al., 2005) but not in the HO-1 independent pathway where iron is retained within ferritin. Supporting this, knockdown of ferroportin in human macrophages produces iron accumulation within ferritin (Galli et al., 2004).

In enterocytes, heme is broken down by the activity of HO, although it is still unclear whether enterocytes use HO-1 or HO-2 to breakdown heme (Oates and West, 2006).

### *Regulation of ferroportin in macrophages versus enterocytes*

A co-ordinated up-regulation in ferroportin expression during iron-restricted erythropoiesis was observed in macrophages and enterocytes (Canonne-Hergaux et al., 2006), but this report is at variance with another study (Abboud and Haile, 2000). Interestingly, in *IRP2*<sup>-/-</sup> mice the expression of ferroportin in macrophages was reduced compared with the intestine. It was also independent of hepcidin since this was similar to wild type animals (Galy et al., 2005), and possibly modulated by nitric oxide (Liu et al., 2002). In contrast deletion of hepcidin resulted in upregulation of ferroportin in macrophages and enterocytes (Viatte et al., 2005). Thus ferroportin appears to be independently regulated by both hepcidin-dependent and hepcidin-independent pathways in macrophages and enterocytes.

### *Iron loading increases ferroportin expression in macrophages and down regulates it in enterocytes*

Iron loading in macrophages *in vitro* results in up-regulation of ferroportin expression (Knutson et al., 2005) and its displacement from intracellular vesicles to the cell membrane (Delaby et al., 2005). In the case of intestinal cell lines iron loading reduced ferroportin expression presumably by transcriptional means (Zoller et al., 2001; Martini et al., 2002).

### *Differences in the mass of ferroportin*

Ferroportin is glycosylated in both macrophage and enterocyte, although other yet to be determined modifications are likely since following glycosidase treatment the mass of ferroportin in enterocytes is greater than in macrophages (Canonne-Hergaux et al.,

2006).

### *Macrophages require ceruloplasmin while enterocytes require hephaestin for the release of iron*

The released iron from tissues requires ferroportin coupled with ferroxidase activity probably to convert ferrous to ferric iron in order to bind transferrin (Osaki and Johnson, 1969). The ferroxidase used by macrophages is ceruloplasmin, while enterocytes require hephaestin (Harris et al., 1999; Vulpe et al., 1999). It is likely that ceruloplasmin operates extracellularly, while hephaestin either operates within vesicles or on the basal membrane.

### *Macrophages respond quicker to hepcidin than do enterocyte*

Exposure to hepcidin produced hypoferremia within 3 hrs (Rivera et al., 2005) while iron absorption fell after 24 hrs (Laftah et al., 2004). This suggests that the hepcidin-induced hypoferremia is primarily the result of sequestration of iron by macrophages rather than the lost contribution of iron from the intestine. Further studies are required to confirm this hypothesis.

In view of the preceding discussion it is likely that ferroportin functions in a distinctly cell context manner in macrophages compared with enterocytes. This review will now consider additional key unresolved questions regarding ferroportin.

## **Additional unresolved issues**

### *The topology of ferroportin requires clarification*

There is considerable debate about the membrane topology of ferroportin. It has been suggested that ferroportin has 10- (Donovan et al., 2000; McKie et al., 2000), 9- (Devalia et al., 2002; Goncalves et al., 2006), or 12- transmembrane domains (Liu et al., 2005). Some groups predict that the largest loop between transmembrane domains 5 and 6 is extracellular, while others suggest it is intracellular (Devalia et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2005; De Domenico et al., 2006). In addition, antibodies raised against sequences within this loop and used in immunofluorescent studies on viable cells transfected with ferroportin failed to produce a signal indicating the protein was intracellular (Liu et al., 2005; Goncalves et al., 2006). In marked contrast when an antibody raised against a similar region of ferroportin was incubated with viable enterocytes (Caco-2 and IEC-6 cells) the largest loop in ferroportin was extracellular (McKie et al., 2000; Thomas and Oates, 2002, 2004a,b; Oates and Thomas, 2005b). This may suggest that ferroportin exists in two states, right side out and inside out. This might be achieved during synthesis, function, or that the structure differs between cells types, including enterocytes. If ferroportin can exist in two

states with respect to the membrane then this may be one explanation as to why hepcidin only interacts with ferroportin on the basal membrane and not the apical membrane (Yamaji et al., 2004) and conversely why the antibody used in the author's laboratory only operates on the apical and not the basal membrane (Thomas and Oates, 2004a). It may explain why under some circumstances the large loop in ferroportin is intracellular in some cases while extracellular in other circumstances. Finally it may also explain variations in ferroportin function with respect to the ferroportin disease if one state is favoured over another.

#### *Full characterization of ferroportin as a transporter is missing*

The evidence for ferroportin as an iron efflux transporter is persuasive but still indirect and based on changes in iron responsive proteins, changes in cellular ferritin levels, efflux of iron from transferrin and iron from xenopus oocytes (McGregor et al., 2005). Two studies demonstrated release of iron from *Xenopus* oocytes by over expressing both DMT1 and ferroportin. Fe(II) was facilitated by DMT1 under acidic conditions and the iron released under neutral pH was measured and attributed to ferroportin. Similarly *in vitro* studies using various mutant forms of ferroportin were less effective in releasing iron than wild type ferroportin indicating that ferroportin is clearly involved in the release of iron (McGregor et al., 2005; Schimanski et al., 2005). However, it cannot be excluded that under some circumstances ferroportin modulates the activity of other proteins such as DMT1 in addition to being an iron exporter.

#### **Conclusion**

It is likely that hepcidin interacts with ferroportin differently in enterocytes and macrophages. From the author's laboratory and from available evidence hepcidin/ferroportin plays a key role in the uptake of iron in enterocytes by an interaction between basal and apical localised ferroportin. In contrast in macrophages hepcidin/ferroportin impairs the release of iron resulting in cellular iron sequestration. In view of the fact that the enterocyte is primarily responsible for body iron loading, understanding the regulatory process and mechanisms that carry out iron absorption is vital to a more complete understanding of the molecular basis of the various forms of hereditary hemochromatosis. This will be aided by studies looking at protein-protein interaction in the context of the enterocyte.

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