



## Mini-Review

# Venom neutralization by purified bioactive molecules: Synthetic peptide derivatives of the endogenous PLA<sub>2</sub> inhibitory protein PIP (a mini-review)

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## ARTICLE INFO

## Article history:

Received 25 September 2009

Received in revised form 17 December 2009

Accepted 21 December 2009

Available online 4 January 2010

## Keywords:

Antivenom

Snake venom

Neutralization

Secretory phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>

Metalloproteinase

Peptide inhibitor

## ABSTRACT

Envenomation due to snakebite constitutes a significant public health problem in tropical and subtropical countries. Antivenom therapy is still the mainstay of treatment for snake envenomation, and yet despite recent research focused on the prospects of using anti-venom adjuncts to aid in serotherapy, no new products have emerged so far for therapeutic use. Various methodologies including molecular biology, crystallography, functional and morphological approaches, etc., are employed in the search for such inhibitors with a view to generate molecules that can stop partially or completely the activities of toxic phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>) and snake venom metalloproteinase (SvMPs) enzymes at the molecular level. Herein, both natural and synthetic inhibitors derived from a variety of sources including medicinal plants, mammals, marine animals, fungi, bacteria, and from the venom and blood of snakes have been briefly reviewed. Attention has been focused on the snake serum-based phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> inhibitors (PLIs), particularly on the PLI derived from python snake serum (PIP), highlighting the potential of the natural product, PIP, or possible derivatives of it, as a complementary treatment to serotherapy against the inflammation and/or muscle-damaging activity of snake venoms. The data indicate a more efficient pathway for inhibition and blocking the activity of PLA<sub>2</sub>s and matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), thus representing a feasible complementary treatment for snakebites. Such information may be helpful for interfering on the biological processes that these molecules are involved in human inflammatory-related diseases, and also for the development of new drugs for treatment of snake envenomation.

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## 1. Introduction

Snake envenoming is an important public health problem in many regions, particularly in tropical and subtropical countries. Envenomings by most viperid snakes and some elapids can cause local tissue necrosis, mostly due to the action of enzymes such as phospholipases A<sub>2</sub> and zinc-dependent metalloproteinases. Systemic effects due to

envenomings include haemorrhage, coagulopathy, haemodynamic disturbances, and neurotoxicity caused by pre-synaptic and post-synaptic neurotoxins. The only remedy currently available for treatment of snake envenomations is antivenom. Although this form of therapy is in widespread use the world over and is currently the mainstay of treatment for snakebite, there are some drawbacks that must be taken into consideration: (1) antivenom use is associated with a high incidence of early and late adverse reactions; (2) specific antivenom containing broad spectrum of protective antibodies to treat envenomings by different species of snakes or same species from different

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geographical locations is not yet available; (3) antivenom effectiveness is limited to systemic envenomation only, being ineffective in most cases of local tissue damage; (4) most antivenoms are ineffective in the reversal of neurotoxicity induced by presynaptically acting phospholipases A<sub>2</sub>s (e.g.,  $\beta$ -bungarotoxin, crotoxin, taipoxin, mojave toxin, etc). Hence, it is essential to search for natural or synthetic bioactive molecules that could complement or substitute antivenom therapeutics.

## 2. Phospholipases A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>s) and PLA<sub>2</sub>-inhibitors (PLIs)

Toxicity of snake venom is often addressed to the activities of PLA<sub>2</sub>s, one of the major components of snake venoms (Meier and White, 1995). Phospholipases A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>s) are commonly found in snake venoms from Viperidae, Hydrophiidae and Elaphidae families. They exhibit a wide variety of pharmacological effects such as neurotoxicity, cardiotoxicity, myotoxicity, cytotoxicity, nephrotoxicity, anticoagulation, hypotension, and edema (Kini, 1997). Besides snake venoms, PLA<sub>2</sub>s have also been found in mammalian systems. On the basis of cellular disposition and calcium dependence, PLA<sub>2</sub>s are broadly divided into three classes, namely secretory PLA<sub>2</sub> (sPLA<sub>2</sub>), cytosolic PLA<sub>2</sub> (cPLA<sub>2</sub>) and calcium-independent PLA<sub>2</sub> (iPLA<sub>2</sub>). Each class of PLA<sub>2</sub> is further subdivided into isoenzymes for which there are 10 for mammalian sPLA<sub>2</sub> (groups IB, IIA, IIC, IID, IIE, IIF, III, V, X, XIIA) (Six and Dennis, 2000), at least 3 for cPLA<sub>2</sub>, and 2 for iPLA<sub>2</sub> (Gilroy et al., 2004). The PLA<sub>2</sub> superfamily includes 15 groups comprising five main types including the secreted sPLA<sub>2</sub>, cytosolic cPLA<sub>2</sub>, calcium-independent iPLA<sub>2</sub>, the platelet activating factor (PAF) acetyl hydrolase/oxidized lipid lipoprotein associated (Lp) PLA<sub>2</sub>, and the lysosomal PLA<sub>2</sub>s (Burke and Dennis, 2009). Interested readers should also consult other reviews for more details on PLA<sub>2</sub> nomenclature/classification (Six and Dennis, 2000; Schaloske and Dennis, 2006).

Because of their implication in a range of diseases including rheumatoid and osteoarthritis, asthma, acute pancreatitis, septic shock, etc., recent research has focused on the role of PLA<sub>2</sub>-inhibitors (PLIs) as possible anti-inflammatory agents (Meyer et al., 2005), which may be useful as potential therapeutics for inflammation-related diseases or as antivenom-like bioactive molecules for snake venom neutralization. PLA<sub>2</sub> inhibitors specific to Group I and II PLA<sub>2</sub> isoforms are therapeutically important both against venom toxicity and as anti-inflammatory molecules.

## 3. PLIs from different natural sources

Because of the importance of PLIs for their therapeutic applications against inflammation and venom PLA<sub>2</sub> toxicity, a number of review articles on this topic are already available in the literature (see recent reviews by Marcussi et al., 2007; Sanchez and Rodriguez-Acosta, 2008). A valuable collection of latest information compiled in the recent special issue (Rangappa, 2007) comprehensively covers this particular area of research. In summary, PLIs have been identified from a variety of natural sources

including medicinal plants, mammals, marine animals, fungi, bacteria, and from the venom and blood of snakes. A number of reports on plants from different geographical areas that are able to neutralize snake venoms are available (Abubakar et al., 2006; Soares et al., 2004, 2009), but only a few chemical compounds have been isolated and identified as active components (Soares et al., 2005; Narendra Sharath Chandra et al., 2007). The neutralization factors isolated from the serum of mammals like the opossum, mongoose, and hedgehog are all anti-hemorrhagic large multimeric proteins (Perales et al., 1994; Tomihara et al., 1987; Lizano et al., 2003). An antivenom substance isolated from opossum serum inhibits both the protease and PLA<sub>2</sub> activities (Rodriguez-Acosta et al., 1995). Although the marine-derived PLIs such as manoalide, scalaradial, petrospongolide M-R, and their related compounds (Monti et al., 2007) have interesting anti-inflammatory properties, few marine compounds have entered clinical trials, requiring further developmental approaches to qualify as anti-inflammatory therapeutics (Alcaraz and Payá, 2006). PLIs have also been purified and characterized from sources like fungi and bacteria (Souza et al., 2008), and also from the primary sequences of group II PLA<sub>2</sub>s from snake venoms and human, based on the native peptide inhibition method (Tseng et al., 1996; Church et al., 2001), but few have entered clinical developmental stage.

### 3.1. PLIs from snake blood

The PLIs that interact with PLA<sub>2</sub>s and inhibit their enzymatic activity have been purified from the sera of venomous (Crotalinae, Viperidae, Elapidae) as well as non-venomous snakes (for details see recent reviews by Marcussi et al., 2007; Sanchez and Rodriguez-Acosta, 2008). Three types of PLIs have been classified: C-type lectin-like proteins ( $\alpha$ -PLIs), molecules bearing leucine-rich repeats similar to human  $\alpha$ 2-glycoprotein ( $\beta$ -PLIs), and those with a three-finger configuration ( $\gamma$ -PLIs) analogous to proteins found in mammalian cell-surface Ly-6 antigens, elapid neurotoxins, and urokinase-type plasminogen activator receptor uPAR. All three types of PLIs have been identified in the sera of viperid snakes; whereas in the sera of elapid and hydrophid snakes, only PLI $\gamma$  has been identified. The sera of non-venomous snakes, *Elaphe quadrigata* (Okumura et al., 2002) and *Elaphe climacophora* (Shirai et al., 2009) contain two homologous subunits, PLI $\gamma$ -A and PLI $\gamma$ -B, whereas *Python reticulatus* contains only a single PLI $\gamma$ -A subunit (Thwin et al., 2000). *Crotalus durissus terrificus* CNF (dos Santos et al., 2005) has also been reported to be homomeric PLI $\gamma$  like PIP. In addition, a single PLI member of the immunoglobulin supergene family has also been identified (Neves-Ferreira et al., 2009). For detailed information on the PLI proteins derived from both snake and mammalian blood, and on the classification, molecular and functional characterization of myotoxic PLIs, see reviews by Marcussi et al. (2007).

#### 3.1.1. PLI from *Python* serum (PIP)

Our group has previously purified a PLI with potent antitoxic and anti-inflammatory activities from the serum of the non-venomous snake *P. reticulatus*. This PLI, initially

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