



RENORBIO
Programa de Pós-graduação em Biotecnologia

**Viperidinas e derivados: caracterização de alvo molecular em
Trypanosoma cruzi, avaliação antiparasitária e antitumoral, visando o
uso biotecnológico dos peptídeos terapêuticos**

Juciane Vaz Rêgo

UFC-CE
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Orientador: Gandhi Rádís Baptista

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RESUMO

Os peptídeos antimicrobianos relacionados com as catelicidinas- as viperícidinas estão envolvidos na resposta imune inata, no sistema de defesa de muitos organismos, tendo um modo rápido de ação, podendo assim atuar em conjunto com esquemas terapêuticos existentes e/ou constituírem uma alternativa aos fármacos antibióticos convencionais. O presente estudo de tese tem como objetivos duas vertentes: a primeira caracterizar o gene alvo de *T. cruzi*, que interage *in silico* com as viperícidinas: a Ciclofilina-A (TcCyP19) em populações sensíveis e resistentes do *T. cruzi* ao Benzonidazol; segunda avaliar *in vitro* a atividade antiparasitária e a antitumoral, bem como avaliar a citotoxicidade das viperícidinas e seus derivados, visando o uso biotecnológico desses peptídeos. Estudo *in silico* permitiu identificar uma ciclofilina que interage com o peptídeo antimicrobiano GA650- (lutzicidina) do veneno de jararacas. Esse achado é de interesse particular visto que nosso grupo de pesquisa havia realizado um estudo proteômico identificando a ciclofilina-A como uma proteína superexpressa (10 x) em populações resistentes do *T. cruzi* comparado com seu par sensível ao benzonidazol. Diante disso a Ciclofilina-A (TcCyP19), uma peptidil prolil isomerase - molécula-chave com diversas funções biológicas, que incluem dobramento molecular, resposta ao stress, a modulação imunitária e transdução de sinal - compreende um potencial alvo de fármaco, e portanto foi selecionada para estudo. A análise filogenética revelou uma clara divergência entre as seqüências Ciclofilinas-A de tripanosomatídeos e mamíferos - o que a torna uma alvo diferencial. Uma combinação das análises de Southern blot e tempo real de RT-PCR (qPCR) mostraram que TcCyP19 é um gene de cópia única localizada em bandas cromossômicas que variam em tamanho de 0,68-2,2 Mb, dependendo da cepa de *T. cruzi*. Northern blot e qPCR indicaram que os níveis de mRNA TcCyP19 eram duas vezes maior em populações de *T. cruzi* resistentes a fármacos do que contrapartida de seu par sensível. Do mesmo modo , a expressão da proteína CyP19, conforme determinado por electroforese em gel bidimensional / western blot, foi aumentada na mesma ordem em populações resistentes do *T. cruzi* ao BZ. Essas cepas foram usadas para avaliação da atividade antiparasitária das viperícidinas. Além da atividade antiparasitária, nosso grupo determinou a ação inibitória das viperícidinas contra bactérias e fungos. Ensaio de atividade anti-*T. cruzi* *in vitro* de formas epimastigotas, tripomastigotas e amastigotas intracelulares, foi observado que a Viperícidina (crotalicidina - peptídeo C1AB) teve efeito citotóxico dose-dependente contra epimastigotas de *T. cruzi* (IC₅₀ 24h = 4.72 µM; IC₅₀ 48h = 4.37 µM). Para formas tripomastigotas e amastigotas intracelulares somente as viperícidinas -crotalicidina teve atividade seguindo de citotoxicidade celular e nas demais amostras foram inativas. Para avaliação a ação anticancerígena neste estudo, identificamos um oligopeptídeo de nove resíduos, KRFKKFFKK (EVP50) que é repetidamente codificado em conjunto dentro de seqüências da viperícidina. EVP50 exibiu ademais uma potente toxicidade letal para peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio*) (LD = 10 µM), somente quando o N-terminal do peptídeo foi quimicamente conjugado com rodamina B (RhoB). *In vitro*, a RhoB conjugado EVP50 exibiu um efeito antitumoral dependente da concentração, em relação às células MCF-7 de câncer da mama. Nas células MCF-7, o nonapeptídeo EVP50 RhoB conjugado se acumulou no citoplasma e núcleo dentro de minutos. No citoplasma, o RhoB-EVP50 induziu influxo de

cálcio extracelular, liberação de cálcio intracelular e lesões da membrana após a incubação com concentrações micromolares do EVP50 conjugado com o composto fluorescente. O peptídeo não conjugado foi desprovido de atividades tóxico e citotóxico em nossos modelos *in vivo* e *in vitro*. Assim, a interferência do conjugado com a homeostase do cálcio, sua função nuclear e sua disfunção membrana induzida (lesão e vacuolização) parecem agir em conjunto para romper o circuito da célula. Este mecanismo sinérgico da toxicidade foi restrita ao nonapeptídeo viperidina estruturalmente modificado. Como um todo, o presente estudo vem contribuir para o entendimento do alvo molecular (Ciclofilina-A) que interage com peptídeo viperidina e como potencial dessa classe de peptídeos em biotecnologia médica contra *T. cruzi* e atividade anticancerígena, quando o peptídeo é conjugado.

Palavras-chave: Peptídeos antimicrobianos- Viperidinas- Ciclofilina A (TcCyP19)- *Trypanosoma cruzi*- Peixe zebra- células tumorais- citotoxicidade

ABSTRACT

Antimicrobial peptides related cathelicidins-viperidins are involved in the innate immune response in the defense system of many organisms, and a mode of action rapid, and thus can operate in conjunction with existing and / or regimens constitute an alternative to conventional antibiotics drugs. The present study of thesis has as goals two aspects: first to characterize the target gene of *T. cruzi*, which interacts *in silico* with the viperidins: Cyclophilin A (TcCyP19) in sensitive and resistant strains of *Trypanosoma cruzi* to benzimidazole; second to evaluate *in vitro* antiparasitic and antitumor activity, as well as evaluate the cytotoxicity of viperidins and its derivatives, aiming at the use biotechnological of these peptides. *In silico* study allowed identifying a cyclophilin that interacts with the antimicrobial peptide GA650- (lutzicidina) from the venom of pit vipers. This finding is of particular interest given that our research group had conducted one study proteomic identifying the cyclophilin-A as an overexpressed protein (10 x) in resistant populations of *T. cruzi* compared with their pair-sensitive benzimidazole. Therefore Cyclophilin A (TcCyP19), a peptidyl - prolyl isomerase - key molecule with diverse biological functions, including molecular folding, stress response, immune modulation and signal transduction - comprises a potential drug target, and thus was selected for study. Phylogenetic analysis revealed a clear divergence between the sequences of Cyclophilin-A trypanosomatids and mammals - which makes it a differential target. A combination of the Southern blot analysis and real-time RT-PCR (qPCR) showed that TcCyP19 is a single copy gene located in the chromosomal bands ranging in size from 0.68 to 2.2 Mb, depending on the strain *T. cruzi*. Northern blot and qPCR indicated that mRNA levels TcCyP19 were twice higher in populations of *T. cruzi* BZ resistant than its sensitive counterpart pair. Similarly, the expression of CyP19 protein, as determined by two-dimensional electrophoresis / western blot gel was increased in the order of resistant populations *T. cruzi* to BZ. Altogether, these data indicate that Cyclophilin A (TcCyP19) expression is up-regulated at transcriptional and translational levels in *T. cruzi* populations which were *in vitro*-induced and *in-vivo* selected for resistance to BZ. These strains were used to evaluate the antiparasitic activity of viperidins. Besides the antiparasitic activity, our group determined the inhibitory action of viperidins against bacteria and fungi. Activity assay *in vitro* anti-*Trypanosoma cruzi* epimastigotes, trypomastigote and intracellular amastigotes, it was observed that Viperidin (crotalicidin - GA645 peptide) had dose-dependent cytotoxic effect against epimastigotes of *Trypanosoma cruzi* (24h IC₅₀ = 4.72 µM; IC₅₀ 48h = 4:37 mM). To trypomastigotes and intracellular amastigotes only had activity of crotalicidin viperidin following cell cytotoxicity and the remaining samples were inactive. For trypomastigote and amastigote forms only viperidin GA645-crotalicidin have activity followed by cell cytotoxicity and the other samples were inactive. For to evaluate anticancer action in this study, we identify a nine-residue cryptic oligopeptide, KRFKKFFKK (EVP50) that is repeatedly encoded in tandem within viperidin sequences. EVP50 addition exhibited a potent lethal toxicity to zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) (DL = 10 mM), only when the N-terminal peptide was chemically conjugated to rhodamine B (RhoB). *In vitro*, RhoB-conjugated EVP50 exhibits a concentration-dependent antitumor effect toward MCF-7 breast cancer cells. In MCF-7 cells, the RhoB-conjugated EVP50 nonapeptide accumulated in the cytoplasm and the nucleus within minutes. In the cytoplasm, the EVP50 RhoB-induced influx of extracellular calcium, intracellular calcium release and membrane lesions after incubation with micromolar concentrations of EVP50 conjugated with the fluorescent compound. The naïve unconjugated peptide was devoid of toxic and cytotoxic activities in our models *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Thus, the conjugate's interference with calcium homeostasis, its nuclear function and its induced membrane dysfunction (lesion and vacuolization) seem to act in concert to break the cell circuitry. This synergistic mechanism of toxicity was restricted to structurally modified viperidin

nonapeptide. As a whole, this study contributes to the understanding of the molecular target (cyclophilin-A) that interacts with viperacidin peptide and a potential of this class of peptides in medical biotechnology against *T. cruzi* and anticancer activity when the peptide is conjugated.

Keywords: Antimicrobial peptides- Viperacidins- Cyclophilin A (TcCyP19) *Trypanosoma cruzi*- Rhodamin- Zebrafish - tumor cells - cytotoxicity

LISTA DE SÍMBOLOS E ABREVIATURAS

17LER	Cepa de <i>T.cruzi</i> resistente ao Benzonidazol e derivada da cepa Tehuantepec cl2 , induzida <i>in vitro</i>
17WTS	Cepa de <i>T.cruzi</i> susceptível ao Benzonidazol e derivada da cepa Tehuantepec cl2
AcrAP1	Peptídeo antimicrobiano de veneno do escorpião árabe, <i>Androctonus crassicauda</i>
AcrAP2	Peptídeo antimicrobiano de veneno do escorpião árabe, <i>A. crassicauda</i>
APX	Ascorbato peroxidase
ATP	Adenosina trifosfato
B16	Células cancerígenas tumorais de melanoma
B16F10	Células do melanoma metastático
Bf_ PAMRCs	Peptídeo antimicrobiano isolado do veneno de serpente <i>Bungarus fasciatus</i>
Bf_ PAMRCs	<i>Bungarus fasciatus</i> - Peptídeos Antimicrobianos relacionados com catelicidinas
Bf-30	Peptídeo antimicrobiano de serpente <i>Bungarus fasciatus</i>
BMAP	Peptídeo antimicrobiano bovino mielóide
BZ	Benzonidazol
BZR	Cepa de <i>T.cruzi</i> resistente ao benzonidazol derivada da cepa Y selecionada <i>in vivo</i> .
BZS	Cepa de <i>T.cruzi</i> susceptível ao Benzonidazol e derivada da cepa Y.
Cbf-K 16	Derivado da catelicidina Bf-30
CsA	Ciclosporina A
CyPA	Ciclofilina A
D0870	Composto derivados do posaconazol
DTUs	“Discrete Typing Unit” - conjunto de isolados geneticamente semelhantes
GM	Gomesina
gp	Glicoproteína
GPI	Glicosilfosfatidilinositol
HBD-1	Peptídeo defesina natural humano
HGPRT	guanina fosforibosil transferase
LAFEPE	Laboratório Estadual de Pernambuco
LL-37	Catelicidina humana

LmCyP19	Ciclofilina A de <i>Leishmania major</i>
LR14	Peptídeo antimicrobiano isolado do <i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> cepa R14
MCF-7	Células cancerígenas mamária
MDA-MB-231	Célula cancerígena da glândula mamária humana
Na_ PAMRC	<i>Naja atra</i> - Peptídeos Antimicrobianos relacionados com com catelicidinas
NF-AT	Fator nuclear de células T ativadas
NFX	Nifurtimox
NK-lisina	Peptídeo antimicrobiano derivado de NK-2
NTRI	Nitroreduases enzimas
Oh-PAMRs	Peptídeo antimicrobiano isolado de <i>Ophiophagus hannah</i>
OMS	Organização Mundial da Saúde
OPAS	Organização Panamericana da Saúde
PAMRCs ou CRAMPs	Peptídeos Antimicrobianos relacionados com catelicidinas or “ <i>Cathelcidin-related antimicrobial peptides</i> ”
PAMs ou AMPs	Peptídeos Antimicrobianos ou “ <i>Antimicrobial peptides</i> ”
PC12	Células feocromocitoma
PFGE),	Técnica Eletroforese de campo pulsado ou “ <i>pulse field gel electrophoresis</i> ”
PGP	Fosfoglicoproteína de membrana
PPlases	Peptidil - prolil -isomerases enzimas
Pt_ PAMRC1	Peptídeo antimicrobiano isolado de <i>Pseudonaja textilis</i>
Rhob	Peptídeo antimicrobiano Rhodamine B
ROS	Espécies reativas de oxigênio
SCH 56592	Composto derivado do posaconazol
SH-SY5Y	Células neuroblastoma
SL	“splice leader” ou mini-exon,
TbCyP19	Ciclofilina A de <i>Trypanosoma brucei</i> enzima
TcCyP19	Ciclofilina A de <i>T.cruzi</i> enzima
TcFeSOD	Ferro-superóxido dismutase enzima
TcOYE	“ <i>Old Yellow Enzyme</i> ” ou Prostaglandina Sintetase enzima
TvCyP19	Ciclofilina A de <i>Trypanosoma vivax</i>
VEGF	Fator de crescimento vascular endotelial
VSG	Glicoproteína de superfície variante

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INTRODUÇÃO

O impacto da crescente resistência aos fármacos disponíveis no mercado contra bactérias, fungos, parasitos e pelas células cancerígenas tem permitido o desenvolvimento de novos fármacos e formas terapêuticas que sejam capazes de lidar efetivamente com as estratégias de adaptação que esses organismos elaboram.

Os Peptídeos antimicrobianos (PAMs) representam alternativas desejáveis para produtos farmacêuticos convencionais, pois eles têm uma rápida ação e pode atuar em conjunto com esquemas terapêuticos existentes (Zaslouff, M., 2002 e Adade et al., 2013). Os peptídeos antimicrobianos são parte do sistema imune inato de uma variedade de organismos eucariotos: plantas, vertebrados, invertebrados, bactérias, fungos e parasitos (Maróti et al., 2011; Torrent et al.; 2012; Meiyalaghan et al., 2014). Essas moléculas têm-se mostrado como potenciais componentes farmacológicos contra microorganismos e anti-tumorais.

Os peptídeos antimicrobianos têm sido identificados e caracterizados na família das serpentes. Esses peptídeos foram o foco desta pesquisa- Peptídeos antimicrobianos relacionados com catelicidinas (PAMRCs) oriundos da glândula de veneno dos viperídeos denominadas Viperidinas (crotalicidina, batroxidina, lutzidina e lachesidina) e da cobra Elapide compreendendo os peptídeos da *Bungarus fasciatus* (Bf- PAMRC), *Naja atra* (Na-PAMRC), e *Ophiophagus hannah* (Oh- PAMRC) (Falcao et al, 2014, Zhao et al, 2008 e Wang et al., 2008) .

Os mecanismos de atuação da maioria dos peptídeos antimicrobianos catiônicos promovem permeabilização ou perturbação na membrana. Revisões têm relatado sobre peptídeos que afetam a viabilidade microbiana em baixa concentração através da interação moderada com um ou mais alvos intracelulares tais como DNA, proteínas, chaperonas e outros (Nicolas, 2009).

Vários estudos demonstram que os peptídeos antimicrobianos têm ação contra uma variedade de bactérias e fungos pela sua entrada na membrana celular e desregulação da membrana. Peptídeo defensina isolado do fungo *Coprinopsis cinerea* - a Copsina foi

bactericida atuante contra uma diversidade de bactérias Gram-positivas, incluindo agentes patogênicos humanos, tais como *Enterococcus faecium* e *Listeria monocytogenes* (Essig et al., 2014). Além do mais, foi observado que a Cathelicidina-BF, peptídeo antimicrobiano isolado a partir de venenos de serpentes de *Bungarus fasciatus*, tem atividade contra *E. coli*. Os autores sugerem que devido sua conformação helicoidal anfipática podem interagir com as membranas (Wang et al., 2008).

Além disso, o mecanismo de ação em parasitos das catelicidinas foi observado em camundongos infectados com *Trypanosoma brucei* e envolve o rompimento da superfície da membrana plasmática, permitindo a diminuição da parasitemia e a sobrevida prolongada do organismo (McGwire et al, 2003). Por outro lado, estudo evidencia que a trialisina, um peptídeo antimicrobiano da saliva do *Triatoma infestans* ao se interagir com ciclofilina 19 (TcCyP19) bloqueia a ação do PAM e protege os parasitos dos efeitos citolíticos. Os autores também observaram que modificando a estrutura da trialisina esta passa a ter atuação eliminando o *T.cruzi*. (Kulkarni et al., 2013).

Diante disso, com o propósito de buscar possíveis alvos que interagem com peptídeos antimicrobianos-vipericidinas, foi realizado um ensaio *in silico* que permitiu identificar alvos gênicos da base de dados do DrugBank. Desses alvos moleculares identificamos uma ciclofilina com função de dobramento protéico (função de chaperona) que se interagem com o peptídeo viperidina GA650- lutzidina conforme revisado por Nicolas et al (2009). A lista de alvos moleculares obtidos pela análise *in silico* das viperidina GA650-lutzidina e GA645-crotalidina encontra-se no ANEXO E. Além disso, em outro estudo realizado por nosso grupo o gene ciclofilina (TcCyP19) foi encontrado como superexpresso em populações do *T. cruzi* resistentes ao BZ utilizando a metodologia de análise proteômica.

Então, selecionamos esse alvo molecular ciclofilina-A (TcCyP19) que pode se interagir com vipericidinas, pode estar associado com o fenótipo de resistência do *Trypanosoma cruzi* a fármacos e que participa de processos biológicos importantes para o parasito (enovelamento proteico). Nesta pesquisa foi estudado a análise filogenética do

TcCyP19 com outros organismos, e observado o nível de RNAm, organização gênica, número de cópias, localização cromossômica do TcCyP19 e expressão da proteína TcCyP19 em cepas do *T. cruzi* sensíveis (S) e resistentes (R) ao BZ, com a finalidade de demonstrar a participação dessa proteína como alvo de fármaco anti-*T. cruzi* e o seu papel na resistência de agentes antiparasitários.

Além do mais, com intuito do uso biotecnológico das viperidinas contra o *T. cruzi* e verificar sua atividade anti-parasitária, foi proposto avaliar a atividade *in vitro* dos peptídeos viperidinas contra o *T. cruzi* e identificar o IC₅₀ das viperidinas contra as formas de *T. cruzi*.

Estudos também mostram que os efeitos citotóxicos dos peptídeos antimicrobianos podem ser inibidores para desenvolvimento das células cancerígenas. Wang e colaboradores (2013) mostrou que atuação da catelicidina de *Bungarus fasciatus* (Bf-30) destrói o melanoma de células B16F10 em dose dependente e inibe o crescimento do melanoma e metástase em camundongos. Com a mesma atividade foi observada pelo peptídeo mutante de BF-30 (BF30-K16) que exibiu citotoxicidade seletiva *in vitro* contra a propagação de células cancerígenas (Tian et al., 2013).

Na busca das viperidinas serem capazes de inibir o surgimento e a disseminação de células cancerígenas foi proposto sintetizar um peptídeo conjugado para rodamina-B e investigar a atividade biológica do peptídeo selecionado viperidina criptografado e/or modificado na região hipervariável C-terminal das viperidinas. As atividades biológicas e compartimentalização celular e toxicidade foram avaliadas *in vivo* utilizando peixe zebra e *in vitro* com células cancerígenas da mama humana- MCF-7.

A estrutura organizacional da Tese se apresenta da seguinte forma: **Introdução**, **Revisão de literatura** e **04 (quatro) capítulos**. O **CAPÍTULO I** - Ciclofilina A (*TcCyP19*) e fenótipo de resistência; **CAPÍTULO II**- Peptídeos antimicrobianos, viperidinas e sua ação contra *Trypanosoma cruzi*; **CAPÍTULO III** – Rhodamine B- nonapeptídeo Viperidina - atividade tóxica e citotóxica contra o modelo peixe-zebra e câncer de mama; **CAPÍTULO IV** -

Perspectiva Biotecnológicas da aplicação da crotalicidina e peptídeos terapêuticos análogos e **considerações finais**.

REVISÃO DE LITERATURA

1 Peptídeos antimicrobianos

Os peptídeos antimicrobianos (PAMs), também chamados de peptídeos de defesa, são componentes conservados da resposta imune inata de todos organismos, incluindo plantas, animais, e humanos (Kosciuczuk et al., 2012). PAMs exibem uma forte atividade inibidora contra microrganismos bactérias Gram-positivas e Gram-negativas, fungos, vírus, parasitas e células tumorais.

A maioria dos peptídeos antimicrobianos são pequenos (até 5-10 kDa) compostos por 12 a 50 resíduos de aminoácidos, são molécula catiônicas, devido ao excesso de resíduos de lisina, arginina e histidina ($\text{pH} = 7$), e em muitos casos são anfifílicos e hidrofóbicos, exibindo estruturas diversas (Hancock e Scott, 2000). Podem ser divididos em quatro grupos conforme a estrutura:

- **α hélices:** mais comum conformação que se estrutura em α -hélice quando interage com a membrana plasmática. Exemplo: cecropinas P1, peptídeo isolado de nematoides do gênero *Ascaris* (Andersson et al., 2003),
- **Folhas β :** possuem resíduos de cisteínas que formam ligações dissulfeto, e se estruturam em folhas- β antiparalelas. Ocasionalmente podem ter pequenas porções de estrutura α -hélice; Exemplos: as defensinas apresentam seis resíduos de cisteína e três ligações dissulfeto com amplo espectro de atividade contra fungos, bactérias e vírus (Ganz, 2003).
- **Estruturas curvadas:** estruturas menos comuns formadas por ligações dissulfeto simples ou devido à presença de resíduos de prolinas na estrutura; Exemplo: Bactenecina, peptídeo de neutrófilos bovinos, tem dois resíduos de cisteína, que formam uma ligação dissulfureto, tornando-se uma molécula cíclica (Wu et al., 1999)

- **Estruturas estendidas:** são caracterizadas pelas altas repetições de um resíduo de aminoácidos na sequência primária; Exemplo: as indolicidinas, peptídeos ricos em resíduos de triptofano (Selsted et al., 1992); as histatinas, ricas em resíduos de histidina (Shamova et al., 1999); e as bactericinas, ricas em resíduos de prolina (Kavanagh and Dowd, 2004);

As principais classes de peptídeos antimicrobianos estruturalmente distintas são: α -defensinas, β -defensinas e as catelicidinas.

a) **Classes α - defensinas e β -defensinas** - são peptídeos catiônicos que exercem o seu efeito citolítico através permeabilização da membrana. As principais diferenças entre esses péptidos são aparentes nos seus perfis de expressão e estrutura. As defensinas são expressas em vários tecidos, tais como neutrófilos, células de Paneth e os revestimentos epiteliais do intestino, do pulmão e da pele;

b) **Catelicidinas** - são peptídeos catiônicos que exibem diversas estruturas linear, cíclico, α hélices e Folhas β .

1.1 Peptídeos antimicrobianos Catelicidinas

As catelicidinas são a segunda grande classe de peptídeos antimicrobianos encontrados nos eucariotos. Caracterizam-se por serem peptídeos antimicrobianos derivados por clivagem proteolíticas a partir de um pré-propeptídeo que possui domínio catelina em mamíferos e em outros eucariotos esse domínio é menos conservado.

Todas as catelicidinas possuem um domínio conservado N-terminal (catelina) de aproximadamente 100 aminoácidos. A porção de peptídeo antimicrobiano reside no C-terminal tornando ativo após clivagem proteolítica da catelina. Para todas as catelicidinas, os PAMs maduros são gerados por ativação proteolítica entre 12-100 resíduos. Apresentam-se ativos contra um amplo espectro de bactérias, e alguns fungos e vírus com invólucro, parasitas e cânceres. Enquanto a parte catelina N-terminal é muito conservada entre espécies diferentes, os PAMs C-terminal são bastante diversificadas (Sørensen and

Borregaard, 2005). Os genes das catelicidinas são compostos por quatro exons e três introns conforme observado na Fig. 1 (Linde et al., 2013);

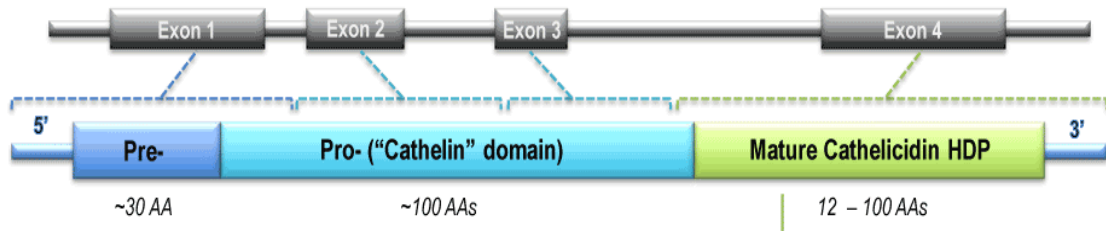


Fig. 1. Estrutura Geral das Catelicidinas

Fonte: (Linde et al., 2013)

Os peptídeos antimicrobianos relacionados com catelicidinas (PAMRCs) oriundos da glândula de veneno dos viperídeos denominadas Viperícidinas (crotalicidina, batroxidina, lutzidina e lachesidina) e da cobra Elapide compreendem os peptídeos da *Bungarus fasciatus* (Bf- PAMRC), *Naja atra* (Na- PAMRC), e *Ophiophagus hannah* (Oh- PAMRC) tem sido descritas (Falcao et al, 2014, Zhao et al, 2008 e Wang et al., 2008) .

PAMRCs das Viperícidinas e Elapide são estruturalmente dispostas como pré-propetides com um peptídeo sinal de aproximadamente 20 resíduos, um domínio conservado catelina (inibidor da proteína catepsina L) e uma hipervariável carboxi-terminal trecho onde uma série de atividades antimicrobianas naturais é encontrada.

O PAMRC maduro compartilha um elevado grau de similaridade de aminoácidos, com mais de seus 34 resíduos idênticos ou substituições sendo estritamente conservados. Devido à elevada proporção de resíduos de lisina que alternam com resíduos hidrofóbicos, estes peptídeos têm uma rede carga positiva e um caráter anfipático. Além disso, uma característica estrutural distinta dos PAMRCs reptilianos foi observada quando comparado com outros membros familiares de catelicidinas é a presença de um fragmento adicional ácido na extremidade C-terminal da pró-sequência, que é rica em ácido aspártico e resíduo não carregado (Falcao et al., 2014).

Os PAMRCs Reptilianos (Viperícinas e Elapíde) possuem atividade de amplo espectro contra isolados clínicos e cepas padrões de bactéria e fungos (Wang et al., 2008). Essas moléculas tem mostrado atividade contra bactérias Gram-negativa e Gram-positiva (Falcao et al., 2014) (ver Tabela 1).

Pesquisas demonstram que as PAMRCs têm pouca atividade hemolítica e baixa citotoxicidade para células humanas o que torna interessante o uso dos peptídeos como potencial terapêutico. Foi observado que a Cathelicidina-BF, peptídeo antimicrobiano isolado a partir de venenos de serpentes de *Bungarus fasciatus*, além de sua atividade antibactericida e anticancerígeno apresenta pouca atividade hemolítica ou citotóxica em células sanguíneas humanas (Wang et al., 2008). Além do mais, Falcão e colaboradores (2014) observaram a atividade hemolítica de quatro peptídeos (Crotalicidina, Batroxidina, Oh-PAMRC, Pt- PAMRC e LL-37) e mostraram que o peptídeo Oh-PAMRC apresentou menor citotoxicidade (10% de hemólise, a 100 μ M) de eritrócitos (Fig 2). As viperícinas crotalicidinas e batroxidinas foram um pouco mais tóxico, que o Oh-PAMRC, mas ainda possuiu uma confortável diferencial de seletividade entre alvos bacterianos e eucarióticos. O Pt- PAMRC comparado com e Oh-PAMRC, teve uma forte atividade hemolítica tornando-o bastante não seletiva.

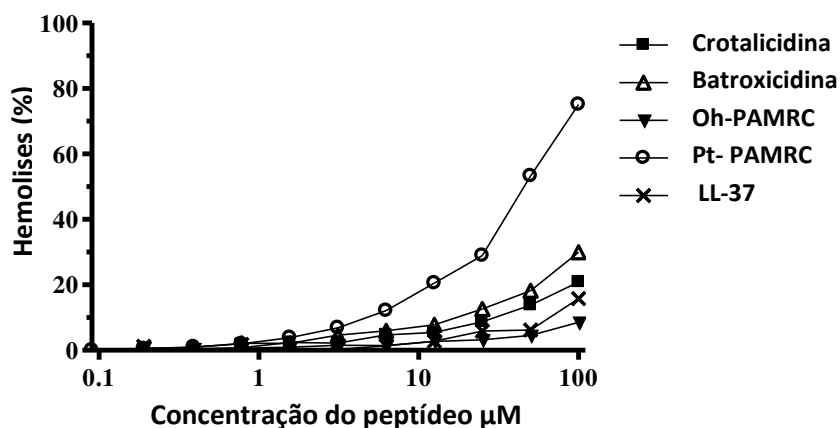


Fig. 2: Comparação da atividade hemolítica de viperícidinas (crotalicidina e batroxícidina), peptídeos relacionados com catelicidina de serpentes asiáticas, e catelicidina humano LL-37 (Fonte: Falcao et al., 2014).

Tabela 1: Peptídeos antimicrobianos catelicidinas encontrados em serpente com potencial terapêutico.^a

Peptídeo	Origem	Atividade inibitória	Reference
Oh_PAMRC	<i>Ophiophagus Hannah</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Zhao et al.(2008); Li et al., (2012)
Derivado Oh_PAMRC 30	<i>O. Hannah</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Zhang et al.(2010) Zhang et al (2013)
Derivado Oh_CM6	<i>O. Hannah</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Zhao et al.(2008); Li et al., (2012)
Bf- PAMRC	<i>Bungarus fasciatus</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas Fungos Células cancerígenas	Wang et al.(2008)
Derivado Bf_PAMRC 30	<i>B. fasciatus</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Chen et al. (2011)
Derivado Bf_PAMRC15	<i>B. fasciatus</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Chen et al. (2011) Zhou et al., (2011)
Na_PAMRC	<i>Naja atra</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Zhao et al.(2008)
Pt_PAMRC1	<i>Pseudonaja textilis</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Falcão et al.(2014)
Pt_PAMRC2	<i>P. textilis</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Falcão et al.(2014)
Batroxicidina	<i>Crotalus durissus terrificus</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Falcão et al.(2014)
Crotalicidina	<i>Lachesis muta rhombeata</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Falcão et al.(2014)
Lachesicidina	<i>Bothrops atrox</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Falcão et al.(2014)
Lutzicidina	<i>Bothrops lutzi</i>	Bactérias Gram positivas e negativas	Falcão et al.(2014)

^a Fonte : Hoek et al.,2014 e Falcao et al., 2014

1.2 Mecanismo de ação dos peptídeos antimicrobianos

O mecanismo de ação de peptídeos antimicrobianos (PAMs) ocorre pela combinação de efeitos hidrofóbicos e eletrostáticos, sendo que a maioria das suas atividades exerce seu efeito por uma única ação ou uma combinação de ações nas membranas lipídicas. As ações dos PAMs quando interagem na superfície de células provocam perturbações na estrutura da bicamada lipídica, e conseqüentemente a lise celular, formação de um poro, ruptura física, e translocação, seguido por interações subsequentes com alvos intracelulares como DNA, RNA e proteínas. Além disso, evidencia

que os PAMs são sinergicamente eficazes para matar as células, restringindo proliferação celular e recrutamento de componentes de imunidade adquirida (Zaslouff, 2002; Sanderson, 2005; Nicolas et al., 2009).

Os PAMs podem eliminar os microorganismos através de mais de um mecanismo de ação, influenciado por fatores individuais como fase de crescimento, localização tecidual, e a presença ou ausência de outros mecanismos imunes ou agentes antimicrobianos exógenos (Yeaman & Yount, 2003), ou seja, podem ser multifuncionais e ter mecanismos de ação diferentes de acordo com o organismo alvo. O interessante que o peptídeo indolicidina elimina tanto bactérias, quanto fungos e vírus, porém cada um de maneiras diferentes. Em fungos o peptídeo permeabiliza a célula (Lee et al., 2003), em bactérias, a indolicidina inibe a síntese de DNA (Nan et al., 2009), em vírus, inibe a integrase do vírus HIV, mostrando assim a sua versatilidade de mecanismos frente a diferentes microorganismos.

Entretanto, o mecanismo pelo qual os peptídeos permeabilizam a membrana e como exercem sua atividade ainda não são completamente definidos, e vários mecanismos têm sido propostos para descrever a interação entre peptídeos e bicamadas lipídicas. (Shai, 2002; Bechinger e Lohner, 2012). Cruz e colaboradores (2014) em sua revisão expõem vários modelos propostos para explicar o mecanismo de ação dos péptidos antimicrobianos em membranas bacterianas e produzir permeabilização da membrana, os quais são dependendo da natureza (Ver Fig. 3). Estes modelos são os seguintes: Modelo de barril, modelo tapete, modelo de poro toroidal e modo de canal agregado. Estes diferem principalmente no modo de fixação de bactérias e inserção na membrana celular de péptidos antibacterianos.

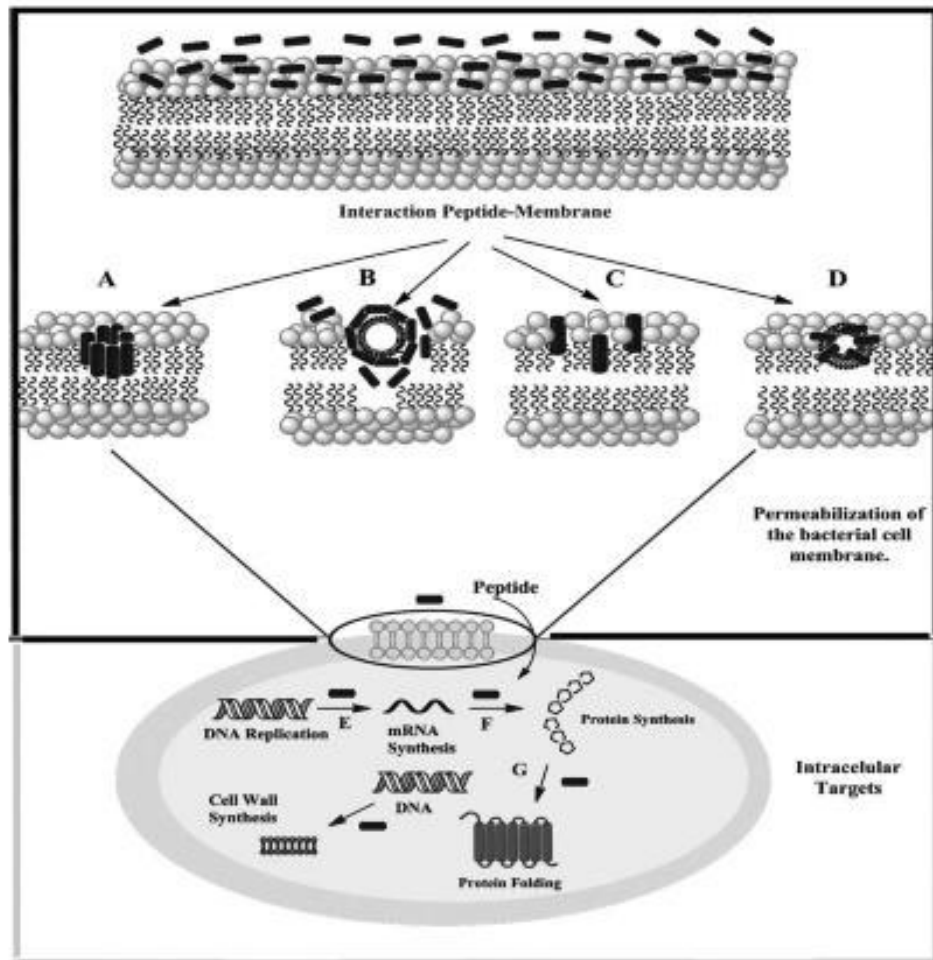


Fig. 3. Modo de ação dos PAMs. (A) Modelo Poro. (B) Modelo Carpete. (C) modelo formação de Barril. (D) Modelo canal de agregado. (E) PAMs inibindo a síntese de DNA. (F) PAMs inibindo a síntese de proteínas e (G) Interação dos PAMs com chaperonas auxiliadas por dobramento de proteínas.

(Fonte: Cruz et. al, 2014)

(A) Modelo de poro

Os peptídeos antimicrobianos, geralmente alfa hélice, são inseridos na membrana lipídica devido à curvatura contínua entre as monocamadas de lípidos e uma associação de superfícies de membrana. Neste caso, as regiões hidrofílicas dos peptídeos e a cabeça lipídica dos grupos interagem juntos formando um poro estrutural que geralmente é maior do que “aduelas barril” um tipo poro. Na formação do poro toroidal, as faces polares dos péptideos estão associados com os grupos de cabeça polares das fracções lipídicas. Os lípideos arranjados nos poros são, em seguida, inclinados a partir da estrutura lamelar

normal, e são ligados os dois folhetos da membrana, formando um contínuo dobrar a partir do topo para o fundo da forma de um buraco toroidal (Matsuzaki et al., 1996)

(B) Modelo Carpete

Inicialmente, os peptídeos ligam-se ao grupamento fosfato dos fosfolipídeos através de suas faces hidrofílicas. Em altas concentrações, os peptídeos são conectados e orientados paralelamente para a superfície da bicamada, o que se assemelha a uma forma "carpete". Esta acumulação de moléculas peptídicas na membrana lipídica produz uma desintegração da membrana bacteriana por perturbar curvatura da bicamada e a formação posterior de micelas (Sanderson, 2005).

(C) Modelo formação de Barril

Envolve a formação de feixes anfipáticos de peptídeos alfa-hélice que oligomeriza e forma canais transmembranas ou poros com os resíduos hidrofílicos voltado para o lúmen do poro. A formação do poro transmembrana ocorre com agregação dos peptídeos monómeros que se inserem perpendicular na bicamada lipídica. Em geral, o número de monómeros para a formação de poros é dependente da concentração de peptídeos, que causa acumulação de monômeros e aumento do tamanho do poro (Pukala et al., 2006)

(D) Modelo canal de agregado.

O peptídeo aumenta somente a permeabilidade da membrana, mas este efeito não é severo suficientemente para causar a morte celular. A ação inicial do peptídeo envolve deslocamento competitivo de lipopolissacarídeo associado com cátions divalente (Mg^{+2} e Ca^{+2}), onde os peptídeos destabilizam essa montagem supramolecular e tem acesso as membranas externas e internas. Esses peptídeos causam ruptura da membrana lipídica, formando domínios de peptídeo específico, fase de segregação lateral dos fosfolipídeos aniônicos, e até mesmo a formação de fase lípido não-lamelar. A agregação dos peptídeos forma canais que permite a difusão de íons através da membrana (Bond et al. 2008)

Modelos de Interação dos PAMs com Alvos intracelulares que inclui (E) inibição da síntese de DNA, (F) A inibição da síntese de proteínas, (G) Interação dos PAMs com chaperonas que desempenham dobramento de proteínas)

Uma vez dentro da célula, os PAMs podem se interagir com o alvo e se ligar eletrostaticamente ao DNA, RNA e proteínas (exemplos enzimas) causando inibição da parede celular, da síntese de DNA, proteínas, atividade da enzima (Hsu et al., 2005) e interferir *in vitro* ou *in vivo* a citocinese de células bacterianas. Conseqüentemente com a interferência desses processos metabólicos-chave necessários para sobrevivência da célula podem desenvolver mecanismos únicos, como translocar para o citoplasma e alterar a formação da membrana citoplasmática (Brown et al, 2006). Zanh et al., (2013), observou a capacidade da chaperona DnaK de se ligar em peptídeos antimicrobianos, bem como as propriedades específicas das sequências que determinam os modos de ligação de peptídeos.

1.3. Amplo espectro dos peptídeos antimicrobianos

1.3.1 Ação antibacteriana

Os peptídeos antibacterianos têm a capacidade de se ligar a estruturas lipídicas e grupos fosfolipídicos. Esses peptídeos têm como alvo principalmente as membranas celulares das bactérias e promovem a desintegração da estrutura da bicamada lipídica e podem inibir vias importantes da célula como síntese de proteínas, da parede celular, e replicação de DNA. Por outro lado podem eliminar as bactérias através de uma interação estereoespecífica com um receptor / molécula de acoplamento que pode ser um componente de um tipo permease do sistema transportador da membrana interna, seguido pela translocação do péptideo para dentro do interior da célula e se ligar ao DNA, RNA ou proteínas (Nicolas et al., 2009). Estudo evidencia que o peptídeo buforin II isolado entra na célula e se liga ao DNA e RNA sem causar danos à membrana celular (Park et al., 1998). Além disso, o “pyrrhocoricin”, um potente peptídeo, não tóxico, apresenta fortes relações

entre a ligação de um fragmento sintético da proteína alvo DnaK da bactéria e atividades antibacterianas deste peptídeo análogo modificado em posições estratégicas (Kragol et al., 2002).

Vários estudos mostram os peptídeos antimicrobianos Catelicidinas sendo encontrados em serpentes e envolvidos com atividade antibacteriana. O Peptídeo antimicrobiano relacionado com a Catelicidina-Bf (Bf_PAMRC), isolado a partir de venenos de serpentes de *Bungarus fasciatus*, Bf_PAMRC tem apresentado atividade contra diferentes bactérias (*E.coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*) de forma eficiente e algumas espécies de fungos incluindo microorganismos isoladas de pacientes com fármaco-resistência (Wang et al., 2008). Outra pesquisa, O Bf_PAMRC foi encontrado exercendo forte atividade antibacteriana contra *Propionibacterium acnes* e *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. Os autores sugerem o potencial do Bf_PAMRC como uma nova opção terapêutica para acne vulgar (Wang et al., 2011). O peptídeo Oh_PAMRC, isolado de serpente também exibiu atividade forte antibacteriana principalmente contra diferentes cepas de *E.coli* e de *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Zhao et al., 2008).

1.3.2 Ação antifúngica

Os mecanismos dos peptídeos antifúngicos têm ação na parede celular ou nos componente intracelulares, desregula a integridade da membrana, produz espécies reativas de oxigênio e induz a morte celular programada. A formação de espécies reativas de oxigênio tem sido um importante mecanismo fungicida de vários peptídeos (Narasimhan et al., 2001). Como se pode observar o peptídeo defensina da planta *Nicotiana glauca* NaD1 que se interage com a superfície da célula fúngica de *Candida albicans* promoveu a permeabilização da membrana, a entrada no citoplasma, hiperprodução de espécies reativas de oxigênio, e morte celular induzida por danos oxidativos (Hayes et al., 2013).

Outro mecanismo que tem sido observado é a ligação dos peptídeos antifúngicos nos constituintes da parede celular. Por exemplo, a ligação de peptídeos antimicrobianos a quitina perturbam a integridade da membrana e aumenta a permeabilização da membrana plasmática ou formação de poro (Van der Weerden et al., 2010). Além do mais, foi

observado a eliminação de *Candida albicans* através da ligação de Histatina 5, um antimicrobiano com alta atividade fungicida, nas β -glicanas que constituem a parede celular do fungo. (Jang et al., 2010). Além disso, estudos mostram a importância do ergosterol da parede celular na seletividade dos peptídeos antimicrobianos. Os peptídeos Cecropina B e dermaseptina precisam se ligar ao ergosterol como parte do mecanismo que leva à morte de espécies do gênero *Aspergillus e Fusarium* (De Lucca et al., 1998).

1.3.3 Ação antiparasitária

A ação dos PAMS em vários estudos tem demonstrado uma atividade de amplo espectro contra parasitas. O alvo mais comum dos PAMs nos tripanosomatídeos é o dano na membrana citoplasmática e a interação com os alvos intracelulares dos parasitas (ver Fig. 4).

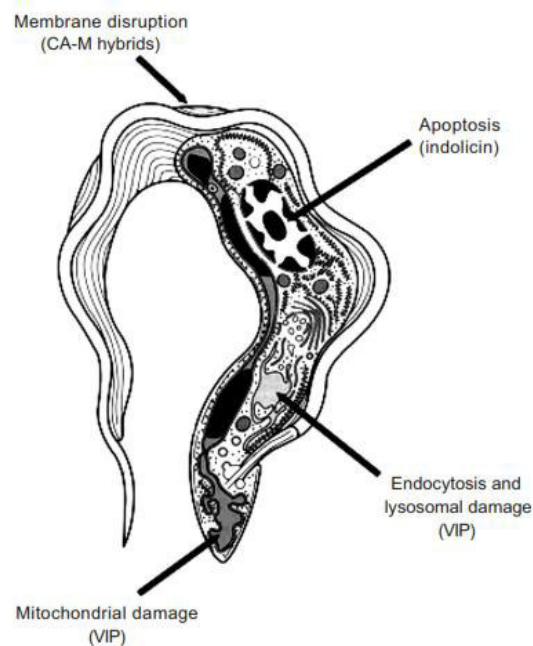


Fig. 4. Modos de ação e alvos dos peptídeos antimicrobianos em tripanosomatídeos (Extraído Torrent et al., 2012)

Os danos na membrana ocorrem com rompimento da integridade da membrana, resultando em desequilíbrio osmótico, inchaço e lise celular. Este mecanismo envolve três mecanismos básicos visto anteriormente tais como: Formação de barril, modelo carpete e formação de poro. Inicialmente, o patógeno sofre um rápido colapso do potencial de

membrana e queda dos níveis intracelulares de ATP; aumento na permeabilidade da membrana, e alteração morfológica, como bolhas e rompimentos ou formação de domínios aniônicos ricos em fosfolípidios que causam defeitos na estruturação do fosfolípido e segue a permeabilidade da membrana (Torrent et al., 2012).

Em *T. brucei*, a ação antiparasitária dos peptídeos pode desregular a integridade da membrana e conduzir a uma instabilidade osmótica causando inchaço e lise celular e morte do parasito. Pesquisadores sugerem que devido a presença de uma variedade de proteínas da superfície de membrana com ancoras glicosilfosfatidilinositol (GPI), presentes em trypanosomas podem permitir a afinidade e comunicação celular entre os peptídeos e essas moléculas (McGwire et al., 2003).

A morte dos Trypanosomas africanos mediada por endocitose também foi observada. Os peptídeos ligam-se as glicoproteínas aniônicas da superfície da membrana tais com a glicoproteína de superfície variante-VSG e são rapidamente endocitados através da bolsa flagelar, acessando o lisossomo e perturbando sua membrana, que libera hidrolases que causam a morte do parasito. (Delgado et al., 2009; Torrent et al., 2012). Alternativamente, a apoptose pode mediar a ação dos peptídeos antimicrobianos contra parasitos promovendo morte celular. Este mecanismo ainda não é totalmente esclarecido, mas existem relatos que em *Leishmania* os PAMs promovem aumento na concentração de Ca^{2+} que são tóxicos para mitocôndria causando um colapso no potencial de membrana e perda de ATP ou liberação de Ca^{2+} para compartimentos intracelulares e interação com organelas ou proteínas intracelulares (Kulkarni et al., 2009).

A interação dos PAMs com alvos intracelulares eliminam o patógeno sem causar qualquer dano na membrana. A Histatin 5, um peptídeo salivar humano, promove alterações morfológicas na mitocôndria de *Leishmania* como: inchaço na matriz mitocondrial e alteração na definição das cristas mitocondriais, diminuição da taxa de respiração e consequente alteração bioenergética do parasito (Luque-Ortega et al 2008). Em *Leishmania major* foi observado que o peptídeo antimicrobiano bovino mielóide (BMAP) promove uma degradação de DNA nas formas promastigotas, evidenciando morte celular por apoptose

tardia, danos na membrana e inchaços de vacúolos citoplasmáticos, provavelmente devido a osmose e lise celular (Lynn et al., 2011). A ação dos peptídeos antimalária foi demonstrado no *Lactobacillus plantarum* e exibiu um peptídeo antimicrobiano, AMPs LR14, não-tóxico, e com ação potente anti-plasmodial provocando a inibição do crescimento de *P. falciparum*, sem causar hemólise. Além disso, o Peptídeo de escorpião, Escorpine, exibiu atividade antibacteriana contra *Bacillus subtilis* e *Klebsiella pneumoniae* e inibiu o desenvolvimento de parasitas sendo 98% de mortalidade em estágios sexuais do *Plasmodium berghei* e 100% de redução do *Plasmodium falciparum* (Carballar- Lejarazu et al. 2008).

1.3.4 Ação Anticancerígena

O peptídeo antimicrobiano tem surgido como nova estratégia no tratamento do câncer devido apresentar baixa toxicidade, não estimularem o aparecimento de resistência pelas células, boa penetrabilidade nos tecidos por tamanho reduzido, amplo espectro de atividade e serem capazes de eliminar tumores primários e metástase (Shadidi & Sioud, 2003; Bhutia & Maiti, 2008).

A ação dos PAMs contra as células cancerígenas pode estar relacionada com a carga positiva dessas moléculas. A interação eletrostática entre PAMs catiônicos e os componentes aniônicos da membrana pode ser uma característica de seletividade contra células cancerígenas. O NK-lisina, peptídeo derivado de NK-2 é um antibacteriano potente, mas não tóxico a uma linha celular de queratinócitos humanos e de baixa atividade hemolítica, tem interação com células cancerosas humanas baseando-se numa forte ligação preferencial às membranas contendo fosfolípidos aniônicos, que não são normalmente encontradas na superfície de células humanas (Schröder-Borm et al., 2005).

A indução de apoptose é o mecanismo mais importante de muitos agentes anticancerígeno. Esta ação foi observada pelo o peptídeo antimicrobiano, magainina, anfipático a-hélice, que induz à morte das células leucêmicas por apoptose e com relação às células normais tem baixa atividade (Cruz-Chamorro et al., 2006). Além disso, as Cecropinas, peptídeos antimicrobianos isolado da hemolinfa imune de *Hyalophora cecropia*, também exibem atividade citotóxica contra as células leucêmicas (HL60) (Ceron et al. 2010).

O envolvimento de canais iônico no mecanismo de ação dos PAMS foi relatado em estudo do peptídeo Gomesina (GM). PAM isolado da hemolinfa da aranha brasileira *Ancathoscurria gomesiana*, apresenta atividade citotóxica contra células cancerígenas tumorais de melanoma B16, neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y, e células feocromocitoma PC12. O mecanismo intracelular da GM ocorre através da indução da permeabilização da membrana precedida por eventos intracelulares específicos, tais como perturbação do retículo endoplasmático, aumento citosólico de Ca^{2+} , seguido por uma acumulação de Ca^{2+} em organelas, que induz a perda de potencial mitocondrial, levando ao colapso de mitocôndrias, que culmina no rompimento da membrana celular (Rodrigues et al., 2010; Soletti et al., 2010; Paredes-Gamero et al., 2013).

A interação do PAM de serpente em células cancerígenas com atuação na membrana plasmática e estruturas intracelulares tem sido estudada. Wang e colaboradores (2013) observaram a Catelicidina-BF (BF-30), um polipeptídeo antibacteriano extraída a partir do veneno de serpente *Bungarus fasciatus*, ao inibir o crescimento de células do melanoma metastático (B16F10) *in vitro e in vivo* promove perturbação na membrana citoplasmática e ligação no DNA genômico bloqueando transcrição e tradução do gene de VEGF (fator de crescimento vascular endotelial). Os autores destacam o potencial terapêutico da BF-30 em pacientes com melanoma metastático. Outro peptídeo antimicrobiano Cbf-K 16 derivado da catelicidina (BF-30) inibe seletivamente a proliferação de células do carcinoma do pulmão por permeabilização da membrana citoplasmática e de ligação DNA, em vez de apoptose. Os autores consideram Cbf-K 16 um candidato para tratamento de câncer de pulmão (Tian et al., 2013).

Pesquisa revisada por Kerkis e colaboradores exhibe que a crotamina, peptídeo antimicrobiano de veneno de serpente, inibe o crescimento de tumores e mata as células tumorais. Esta ação se processa através do aumento da concentração intracelular da crotamina nas células cancerígenas que levam a lise e morte celular. Além de representar uma ferramenta potencial para a identificação *in vivo* das células cancerosas (Kerkis et al., 2014)

1.4 Modificação dos PAMs

Vários estudos têm mostrado que as sequências de aminoácidos de catelicidinas podem ser modificados e sintetizados mais curtos e ativos, mas mantendo as características básicas de atividade antimicrobiana: carga catiônica e estrutura anfipática; e com o propósito de moderar as propriedades indesejáveis, tais como alta atividade hemolítica e citotóxica. Estas propriedades tornam catelicidinas modelos ideais em química combinatória para a concepção de novos péptidos antimicrobianos para utilização terapêutica (Midura-Nowaczek and Markowska, 2014).

Na tentativa de gerar uma molécula que combina a diversidade em termos de estrutura e atividade biológica, estudo sintetizou um peptídeo híbrido da combinação da região C-terminal de HBD-1, peptídeo defensina natural dos seres humanos com a θ -defensinas sintéticos humana, nonapéptido sintético, e outra igual estrutura com diferença apenas com a presença de ponte dissulfeto. O peptídeo híbrido exibiu maior atividade antimicrobiana, com ou sem a ponte de dissulfeto contra ambas as bactérias Gram-negativas e Gram-positivas, contra fungos, incluindo isolados clínicos de infecções bacterianas oculares, *in vitro* não-hemolítico (Olli et al., 2014). Assim, o péptido híbrido foi gerado como um candidato terapêutico e tem um potencial como uma nova classe de antibióticos. Além do mais, os peptídeos, denominados AcrAP1 e AcrAP2, foram identificados no veneno do escorpião árabe, *Androctonus crassicauda*, exibindo atividade anticancerígena. Além disso, análogos desses péptidos foram sintetizados para maior cationicidade e obtiveram uma maior potência e espectro de actividade antimicrobiana a

linhas celulares de câncer humano comparado aos seus peptídeos nativos (Du et al.2014) Evidenciando que a modulação dos peptídeos naturais podem ser mais potenciais contra microorganismos e células cancerígenas.

Os peptídeos podem ser modificados desde que na sua natureza tenha sensibilidade a clivagem proteolítica. Os peptídeos sintéticos têm vantagens de ter sequencia curta e não sofrer com modificações pós-traducionais. E desde que o peptídeo mantenha alta potência, atividade de amplo espectro, baixa toxicidade, alta seletividade e farmacocinética desejável comparado ao natural (Mok et al., 2014). Dessa forma, ampliam-se o arsenal de PAMs e permite criar peptídeos com maior eficácia sobre aqueles que ocorrem naturalmente, muitos grupos de pesquisa têm produzido peptídeo sintético imitando os peptídeos antimicrobianos naturais através do desenho racional. Outra abordagem utilizada é a combinação de peptídeos antimicrobianos com os convencionais antibióticos para o desenvolvimento de terapêuticos contra bactérias, fungos, parasitas e tumores (Cruz et. al., 2014).

A ferramenta de Base de Dados específica que armazena peptídeos antimicrobianos eucarióticos naturais pode ser aplicada na pesquisa para desenho de novos peptídeos. Com simulações dinâmicas moleculares *in silico*, pode-se modelar a conformação e movimento das mudanças virtuais ao longo do tempo, permitindo a previsão de seu mecanismo de ação (Mehta et al. 2014).

2. O *Trypanosoma cruzi* e a doença de Chagas

A Doença de Chagas ou Tripanosomíase Americana, causada pelo *Trypanosoma cruzi*, é um dos principais problemas de saúde pública na América Latina, sendo endêmica em grande parte do México, América Central e América do Sul, onde cerca de 8 milhões de pessoas estão infectadas (CDC, 2013). No entanto, nas últimas décadas, tem sido cada vez mais detectada nos Estados Unidos da América, Canadá, muitos países da Europa Ocidental e alguns do Pacífico (WHO, 2014). No Brasil, estima-se que de 2 a 3 milhões de

peças estão infectadas, com aproximadamente 6000 mortes anualmente (Ramos Jr. *et al.*, 2010; Martins-Melo *et al.*, 2012).

O *T. cruzi* (Protozoa, Sarcosomastigophora, Kinetoplastida, Triponosomatidae) é um protozoário primariamente, transmitido por insetos-vetores (*Triatominae*, *Hemiptera*, *Reduviidae*), transfusão sanguínea, transmissão congênita, acidentes de laboratório, via oral e transplantes de órgãos (Dias, 2011; Pereira *et al.*, 2013).

O ciclo de vida do *T. cruzi* apresenta basicamente três formas evolutivas: tripomastigota, amastigota e epimastigota. No hospedeiro vertebrado tem início quando as formas tripomastigotas metacíclicas eliminadas nas fezes dos triatomíneos durante o repasto sanguíneo, atingem a pele e invadem as células locais, onde se diferenciam em formas amastigotas, as quais se multiplicam por sucessivas divisões binárias no citoplasma. Posteriormente, as amastigotas se diferenciam em tripomastigotas, que rompem as células infectadas e ganham o meio extracelular. As formas tripomastigotas podem infectar as células vizinhas ou entram na circulação sanguínea, onde são, posteriormente, ingeridas pelo inseto vetor durante a alimentação, ou ainda infectarem células de outros tecidos do hospedeiro vertebrado (ver Fig. 5) (Tanowitz *et al.*, 1992).

A doença de Chagas tem duas, sucessivas fases: aguda e crônica. A fase aguda dura de 6 a 8 semanas, com alto grau de parasitismo no sangue e pode apresentar uma sintomatologia tão fugaz que passa inteiramente despercebida. Quando sintomática em torno de 8 a 10 dias após a infecção, há aparecimento de febre, astenia, mal estar geral, hiporexia e cefaléia. Além disso, podem aparecer alterações sistêmicas como edema subcutâneo, aumento de volume dos linfonodos, esplenomegalia, hepatomegalia, sinal de Romaña ou de outros tipos de chagoma de inoculação (Rassi *et al.*, 2012). Nas formas agudas graves, surgem quadros raros de miocardite e a maioria dos óbitos é devido à insuficiência cardíaca (Rassi *et al.*, 2012).

Na fase crônica o *T. cruzi* multiplica-se lentamente e apresenta, em geral, um parasitismo tecidual baixo. Nesta fase a maioria dos pacientes permanece assintomática por um tempo ou por toda a vida, evidenciando a forma indeterminada da doença. Enquanto

acerca de 20 a 50% de casos analisados de áreas endêmicas, desenvolveram características sintomáticas desta fase como: comprometimento do sistema cardíaco (forma cardíaca), digestivo (forma digestiva) ou de ambos (forma cardio-digestiva) (Brener *et al.*, 1987).

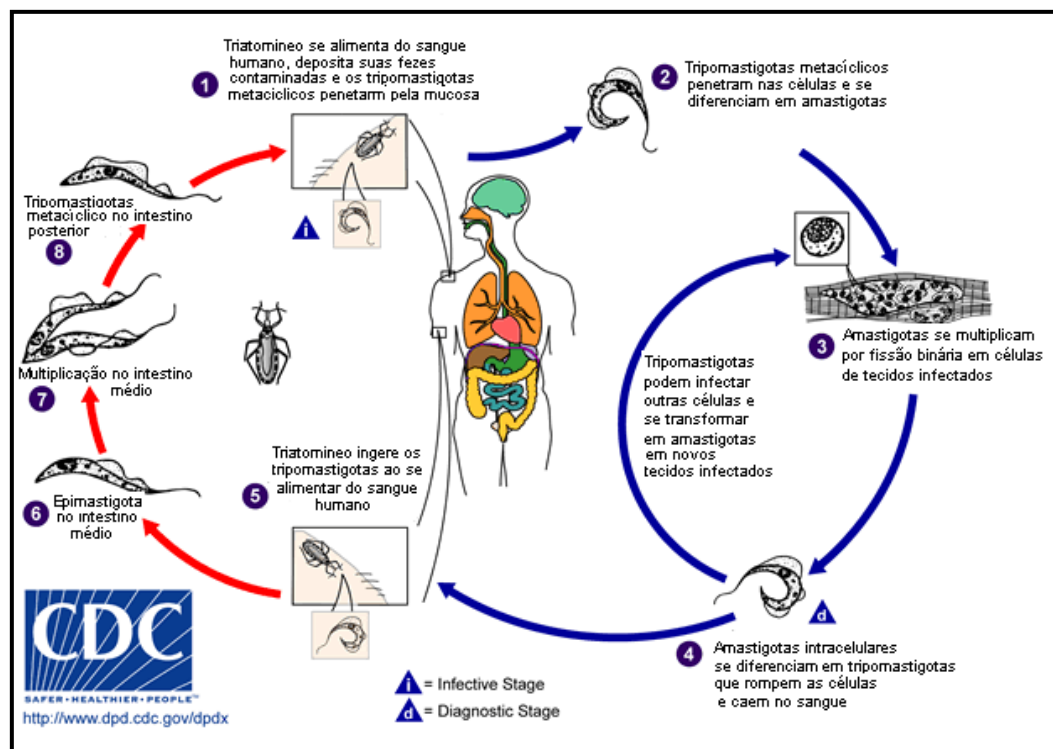


Fig. 5: Ciclo de vida do *Trypanosoma cruzi*.

Fonte: CDC, 2000.

2.1 Diversidade genética do *T. cruzi*

O *T. cruzi* é uma população heterogênea e complexa que diferem entre si quanto à sua morfologia, conteúdo de DNA, virulência, patogenicidade e suscetibilidade a fármacos. Estudos de caracterização biológica e molecular utilizando populações clonadas de *T. cruzi*, reforçam esta heterogeneidade do parasita e demonstram que as cepas são compostas de uma variedade de subpopulações com características distintas (Finley & Dvorak, 1987, Machado *et al.*, 2006).

Inicialmente a diversidade genética foi demonstrada por Miles *et al.* (1977, 1978 e 1980) apresentando a existência de três diferentes grupos de cepas de *T. cruzi*: zimodemas 1 (Z1), 2 (Z2) e 3 (Z3). Os zimodemas 1 e 3 estão associados ao ciclo silvestre de transmissão. O zimodema 2 caracteriza o ciclo doméstico (Miles *et al.*, 1977, 1978, 1980 e 1981; Devera *et al.*, 2003). Posteriormente, estudo de marcadores moleculares como RAPD, microssatélites e genes que codificam o mini-exon e RNA ribossomal 24S α , permitiram a divisão das cepas de *T. cruzi* em duas linhagens filogenéticas distintas denominadas grupo I e grupo II (Souto *et al.*, 1996, Devera *et al.*, 2003). O *T. cruzi* I (zimodema 1) é geralmente observado em mamíferos e triatomíneos silvestres, enquanto que *T. cruzi* II (zimodema 2) é normalmente encontrado em humanos (Devera *et al.*, 2003). Pedroso e col. (2003) observaram distâncias filogenéticas entre os grupos *T. cruzi* I, *T. cruzi* II e híbridos baseados no tamanho dos cromossomas. Esses dados reforçam a hipótese de que cada grupo pode ter evoluído independentemente.

Em 1999, uma nova classificação de *T. cruzi* foi proposta com intuito de padronização, durante uma reunião satélite, na FIOCRUZ, foi definida a separação do parasito em duas grandes linhagens evolutivas, denominadas *T. cruzi* I e *T. cruzi* II (Anonymous 1999). Posteriormente, com o avanço da comunidade científica na estrutura da classificação da população de *T. cruzi*, na segunda reunião satélite, precedendo o XIII Congresso Internacional de Protistologia, a XXV Reunião Anual da Sociedade Brasileira de Protozoologia e a XXXVI Reunião Anual de Pesquisa Básica em Doença de Chagas, foi estabelecido o conceito de DTUs “Discrete Typing Unit” um conjunto de isolados geneticamente semelhantes podendo ser identificados através de marcadores genéticos, moleculares ou imunológicos comuns” (Tibayrenc, 2003). Dessa forma, por consenso científico ficou compreendido que a população de *T. cruzi* se divide em seis DTU's (*T. cruzi* I a VI) (Zingales *et al.*, 2009).

2.2 Organização genômica do *T. cruzi*

O tamanho do genoma do *T. cruzi* ($100-200 \times 10^6$ pb) é relativamente superior ao tamanho dos genomas de outros protozoários parasitas, como por exemplo, *Leishmania* ($45-65 \times 10^6$ pb) ou *T. brucei* (25×10^6 pb). O sequenciamento do genoma de *T. cruzi* revelou que o genoma diploide contém cerca de 22.570 proteínas preditas, em 12.570 representam pares alélicos. Em torno de 50% do genoma consiste de sequências repetidas, tais como retrotransposons e genes de famílias de moléculas de superfície como mucinas, trans-sialidases, gp63s e nova família de mucinas associadas a proteínas de superfície (El-Sayed *et al.*, 2005).

A organização dos genes dos tripanosomatídeos difere daquela conhecida em outros eucariotos. O DNA satélite do *T. cruzi* apresenta repetições de 195 nucleotídeos presente aproximadamente em 10^5 cópias do genoma do parasito, correspondendo a 10% do total de DNA (Elias *et al.*, 2003). Muitas sequências repetitivas - e a maioria dos genes do *T. cruzi* que codificam proteínas - estão presentes em múltiplas cópias na célula. A presença de múltiplas cópias gênicas pode ser uma maneira encontrada pelo parasita de compensar eventuais perdas de genes essenciais durante essas constantes mudanças do genoma devido à amplificação e translocação das sequências gênicas. Essa organização em "tandem" também pode estar relacionada com a transcrição policistrônica existente nos tripanossomas, o que facilitaria a síntese e manutenção dos níveis de mRNAs na célula (Silveira, 2000). Além disso, os genes de cópia única são encontrados em *T. cruzi* e estão presentes em um único locus. Não são muitos os genes em cópia únicos descritos no *T. cruzi* até a presente data. Como exemplo, de tais casos, tem-se: os genes da DNA polimerase II, guanina fosforibosil transferase - HGPRT e glicoproteína (gp) 72 (Silveira, 2000).

O estudo da expressão gênica dos tripanosomatídeos tem revelado a existência de mecanismos genéticos peculiares, como, por exemplo, a organização dos genes de proteínas em unidades transcricionais policistrônicas, o processamento dos transcritos através de trans-splicing e a edição de RNAs polimerases.

O processamento dos mRNAs nos tripanosomatídeos difere dos demais organismos eucariotos, pois transcrevem longos pré-mRNAs policistrônicos, que devem ser processados em mRNAs individuais antes de serem traduzidos (Nilsen, 1992). Durante este processo, uma sequência nucleotídica líder, conhecida como “splice leader” (SL) ou mini-exon, pelo fato de não ser codificada de uma maneira contínua com os genes estruturais, é transferida para a extremidade 5' de cada mRNA individual. Esta transferência ocorre através de uma reação denominada “trans-splicing”. A SL é derivada de um RNA de 110 nucleotídeos codificado por genes localizados em um ou dois cromossomas, dependendo da cepa de *T. cruzi* (Wagner, 1990). A SL está teoricamente presente em todos os mRNAs dos tripanosomatídeos. Pouco se conhece sobre a origem evolutiva do trans-splicing e sua função biológica na célula. No entanto, este mecanismo de transcrição parece ter evoluído para acomodar a necessidade dos tripanosomas em processar seus pré-RNAs policistrônicos, servindo como um meio de individualizar os mRNAs e ao mesmo tempo adicionar a eles uma estrutura de quepe (cap), tornando-os maduros e competentes para tradução. Além da adição da SL na extremidade 5' dos mRNAs individuais, ocorre também nos tripanosomatídeos a adição da cauda poli-A na extremidade 3' dos mRNAs (Vanhamme, 1995).

Os cromossomas do *T. cruzi* não se condensam durante a divisão celular, dificultando a sua análise pelos métodos convencionais de citogenética (Solari, 1980). No entanto, com a utilização da técnica de “pulse field gel electrophoresis” (PFGE), foi possível verificar que o genoma do *T. cruzi* está organizado em pelo menos 20-25 bandas cromossômicas, variando de 0,45 a 1,6 Mb (Gibson & Miles, 1986; Henriksson *et al.*, 1990, 1995 e 1996). Outra peculiaridade marcante deste parasita é a grande variação no conteúdo de DNA entre as diferentes cepas (Dvorak *et al.*, 1982) e até mesmo entre clones de uma mesma cepa (McDaniel & Dvorak, 1993).

2.3 Quimioterapia da Doença de Chagas

Os primeiros compostos analisados experimentalmente para o tratamento da Doença de Chagas foram logo depois da descoberta por Carlos Chagas em 1909. Entre eles citamos atoxil, fucsina, antimônio pentavalente e cloreto de mercúrio (revisto por Coura & Castro, 2002). Em 1957, o uso de Nitrofurazona apresentou resultados promissores, mas depois foi substituído por outro nitrofurano, o Nifurtimox (Brener, 1984).

Desde 1960, dois fármacos nitroheterocíclicos têm ação para o tratamento da Doença de Chagas: um nitrofurano, nifurtimox (NFX) e um nitroimidazol, benzonidazol (BZ). Estes compostos são da mesma família química (dos nitroheterocíclicos), mas possuem diferentes grupos químicos e diferentes mecanismos de ação contra *T. cruzi*. O mecanismo de ação do NFX age sobre a via de redução do grupo nitro por nitroredutases, gerando radicais nitroânion, que na presença do oxigênio causa a produção de compostos altamente tóxicos, tais como: superóxido, peróxido de hidrogênio e radicais de hidroxila.

Atualmente, o BZ é o único fármaco disponível no Brasil para o tratamento de Doença de Chagas. Segundo a Organização Panamericana da Saúde (OPAS) o Brasil é reponsável pela demanda regional e único fornecedor mundial desse produto, sendo produzido pelo Laboratório Estadual de Pernambuco (LAFEPE). O modo de ação do BZ ainda não está claro. Pesquisas relatam que o mecanismo de ação do BZ induz a formação de radicais livres e de metabolitos electofílicos que são gerados quando o grupo nitro (NO₂) é reduzido ao grupo amino (NH₂) através das enzimas nitroredutases (Maya *et al.*, 2003; Wilkinson *et al.*, 2008). Estudo evidencia que o BZ está envolvido com modificação de macromoléculas através da ligação de seus intermediários nitroreduzidos (Maya *et al.*, 2003). Pedrosa e colaboradores (2001) indicam que, em doses terapêuticas, o BZ induz o estress oxidativo em hepatócitos de rato. Além disso, foi observado que o BZ age no DNA promovendo uma descompactação da heterocromatina e catalisa a formação de quebras na dupla fita do DNA genômico do *T. cruzi*. Também demonstrou a superexpressão de proteínas de reparo do DNA mitocondrial indicando que o BZ promove lesões no DNA mitocondrial (Rajão *et al.*, 2014).

O NFX e BZ são compostos efetivos em reduzir a duração e a severidade clínica da doença de Chagas aguda e congênita, levando aproximadamente a 50% dos pacientes tratados à cura parasitológica (Kirchhoff, 1993 e Urbina et.al., 2003). Em uma avaliação do tratamento da doença de Chagas com o BZ foi observado cura em 76% dos pacientes tratados na fase aguda e apenas 8% dos pacientes tratados na fase crônica (Cançado, 2002). Além da baixa eficácia de cura, os mecanismos de ação de ambos compostos podem estar relacionados com reações indesejáveis relatadas por pacientes e médicos tais como: perda de peso, náuseas e vômitos, excitação nervosa, insônia, depressão psíquica, adinamia, paraestésias, convulsões, vertigem e esquecimento (Castro *et al.*, 2006).

Os alvos bioquímicos da quimioterapia incluem, enzimas como a tripanotona redutase, superóxido dismutase, cisteína protease, hipoxantina-guanina fosforibosiltransferase, gliceraldeído-3-fosfato desidrogenase, DNA topoisomerasas, dihidrofolato redutase e farnesilpirofosfato sintase (Coura & de Castro, 2002). Alguns inibidores da biossíntese de esterol pode ser útil para o tratamento da Doença de Chagas. Além disso, derivados de ázóis como D0870 e SCH 56592 (posaconazol) foram capazes de induzir cura parasitológica em modelos murinos de ambas as fases (aguda e crônica) da doença de Chagas (Liendo et al 1998 e Urbina 2001).

2.4 Resistência do *T. cruzi* à Fármacos

Tem sido sugerido que essa resistência natural à fármacos é um fator importante para explicar as baixas percentagens de cura detectadas em pacientes chagásicos tratados. Filardi & Brener (1987) descreveram a presença de cepas do *T. cruzi* com resistência natural ao benzonidazol e nifurtimox. Outros autores demonstraram diferenças na susceptibilidade ao fármaco por cepas de *T. cruzi* (Hauschka, 1949; Neal & Van Bueren, 1988). Murta e Romanha (1998) selecionaram *in vivo* uma população e clones de *T. cruzi* com resistência ao benzonidazol. Posteriormente esses autores mostraram que ao contrário do que ocorre em outros protozoários (Ullman, 1995), a superexpressão dos genes que

codificam a fosfoglicoproteína de membrana (PGP) não está associada com o fenótipo de resistência do *T. cruzi* à fármacos (Murta *et al.*, 2001).

A resistência a fármacos é um complicador para o tratamento de doenças parasitárias, inclusive na doença de Chagas. As alterações bioquímicas e os mecanismos moleculares pelos quais os parasitas tornam-se resistentes são ainda pouco conhecidos. Diante disso, o estudo do mecanismo de resistência a fármacos é de fundamental importância para o desenvolvimento de estratégias terapêuticas mais eficazes para cura. Estudos que visam o conhecimento dos alvos intracelulares do BZ e os potenciais mecanismos de defesa celular ou do parasita contribuem decisivamente para se atingir essa finalidade (de obter fármacos seletivos e eficazes).

O estudo da resistência a fármacos não é simples e pode envolver vários mecanismos distintos. Os principais mecanismos podem ser relacionados (Borst & Ouellette, 1995), como: a diminuição da entrada do fármaco na célula, eliminação do fármaco pela fosfoglicoproteína de membrana (PGP) ou outras proteínas transportadoras dependentes de ATP, diminuição da ativação do fármaco, inativação do fármaco, alteração da formação do complexo alvo-fármaco e eficiência no sistema de reparo.

Uma questão importante foi o comportamento de resistência cruzada entre NFX e BZ. Ambos os compostos apesar de pertencerem a uma mesma família, possuem diferentes grupos químicos e diferentes mecanismos de ação contra o parasita (Pontes & Andrade, 1984; Filardi & Brener, 1987; Neal & Van Bueren, 1988).

2.5 Cepas de *T.cruzi* selecionadas *in vivo* (BZR e BZS) e induzida *in vitro* (17LER e 17 WTS) no estudo do fenótipo de resistência

A grande heterogeneidade do *T.cruzi* tanto genômica como fenotípica, entre as cepas e também clones da mesma cepa, são obstáculos para os estudos de fenótipo de resistência a fármacos. Então, com o intuito de elucidar as bases moleculares desse mecanismo de resistências do *T.cruzi* a fármacos que vem sendo utilizando modelos experimentais através de cepas com resistência selecionada *in vivo* e *in vitro* aos

nitroderivados (Nirdé et al, 1995; Murta & Romanha, 1998; Wilkinson et al, 2008) e também as utilizam em estudos de expressão gênica diferencial. Abdo (1991), conseguiu selecionar *in vitro* uma população de *T. cruzi* 8 vezes mais resistente ao BZ e outra 3 vezes mais resistente ao NFX, do que a cepa selvagem. Murta & Romanha (1998) em seu estudo obtiveram pares de cepas de *T. cruzi* resistentes (BZR) selecionadas ao Benzonidazol e sensíveis (BZS), oriundas da mesma cepa Y (resistência mediana e alto pico de parasitemia, no 7º dia após a infecção). Nirdé et al,(1995) induziram a cepa Tehuantepec cl2 a resistência ao BZ e conseguiram uma cepa 23 vezes mais resistente (17LER) e seu par sensível (17 WTS). Várias pesquisas têm utilizados esses modelos em ensaios de expressão gênica diferencial (Villarreal et al., 2005; Murta et al.2008 e Meija et al., 2012).

2.6 Expressão diferencial de proteínas

A análise proteômica de diferentes estágios do ciclo de vida de organismos como *Plasmodium falciparum* (Lasonder et al., 2002 e Florens et al., 2002), *Leishmania donovani* (Thiel & Bruchhauss 2001), *Leishmania infantum* (El Fakhry et al., 2002), *Leishmania (Viannia) guyanensis* e *L. (V.) panamensis* (Gongora et al., 2003) e *T. cruzi* (Atwood et al., 2005) tem sido descritos. O uso da ferramenta proteômica para identificar alvos terapêuticos e para o entendimento do mecanismo de resistência a fármacos de alguns organismos tem sido relatado em *Helicobacter pylori*, *Leishmania major* e *Staphylococcus aureus* (McAtee et al., 2001; Drummelsmith et al., 2003; Scherl et al., 2006).

Genes promissores associados com fenótipos de resistência a fármacos de *T. cruzi* tem sido estudados. Murta et al., (2006) identificou a deleção de cópias do gene que codifica uma nitroredutase tipo I TcOYE (Old Yellow Enzyme, também chamada Prostaglandina Sintetase) está associada com o fenótipo de resistência do *T. cruzi* ao BZ. Estas nitroredutases podem ser responsáveis pela ativação do BZ. As enzimas de defesa antioxidantes Triparedoxina peroxidase, Ascorbato peroxidase (APX) e Ferro-superóxido dismutase (TcFeSOD) foram observadas superexpressas em populações do *T. cruzi* resistentes a benzonidazol (Nogueira et al 2006, 2009 , 2012); Wilkinson et al., (2008)

mostrou que uma nitroredutase dependente de NADH (NTRI) apresenta um papel na ativação do fármaco. Os autores sugerem que o mecanismo de resistência do *T. cruzi* ao BZ e NFX pode ocorrer pela redução nos níveis de nitroredutases (NTRI) nos parasitos resistentes, enquanto que a superexpressão desta nitroredutase pode resultar na excessiva sensibilidade do parasito.

Em muitos casos, os genes expressos diferencialmente ou mutados são desconhecidas ou a sua participação na resistência à fármacos não está bem definido. A identificação de genes que são expressos diferencialmente nas populações *T. cruzi* resistentes e suscetíveis ao BZ podem ajudar a aumentar nossa compreensão das bases moleculares de resistência do parasita a fármacos e conduzir à descoberta de novos alvos para quimioterapia. Neste estudo, o Ciclofilina A (TcCYP19) foi caracterizada em cepas de *T. cruzi* suscetíveis e resistentes a BZ.

2.7 Ciclofilina- A

Ciclofilina A (CyPA) são proteínas conservadas e tem sido isolada de procariotos e eucariotos, incluindo protozoários (Bell et al, 2006). A Ciclofilina -A pertencem ao grupo de peptidil - prolil -isomerases enzimas (PPIases) que catalisam a isomerização cis/trans. Esta classe de enzima é envolvida em muitos processos biológicos, incluindo o dobramento de proteínas, transdução do sinal, a interação proteína - proteína, resposta ao stress, imunossupressão, sinalização celular, a divisão celular, regulação da transcrição (Wang et al, 2005; Nigro et al. 2013). A localização da CyPA é citosólica, no entanto pesquisas mostram que podem ser secretada em resposta a estímulos inflamatórios, tais como infecção, hipoxia e estresse oxidativo (Jin et al., 2000; Suzuki et al,2006).

O Mecanismo pelo qual as ciclofilinas participam de proteção sob estresses não está bem claro. Estudo sugere que a Ciclofilina pode atuar como proteínas chaperonas facilitando o dobramento de proteínas envolvidas com estresses ou protege essas proteínas da degradação proteolítica ou ocorre agregação sob condições de estresses (Kumari et al., 2013). Andreeva et al. (1999) evidencia o seu envolvimento com a resposta de choque de

calor. Pesquisadores observaram que em baixas concentrações, o H_2O_2 pode atuar como um segundo mensageiro, transdução do sinal oxidativo em respostas biológicas por meio da modificação de proteínas pós-tradução. Estado redox intracelular está intimamente regulado pelo equilíbrio entre oxidantes e sistemas antioxidantes e seu desequilíbrio pode causar estresse oxidativo, levando a danos celulares e desregulação (Sato et al., 2013).

Além disso, foi observado o papel potencial da CyPA relacionada com várias doenças humanas: Em doenças cardiovasculares ocorre aumento de espécies reativas de oxigênio (ROS) e conseqüente a CyPA se sobreexpressa promovendo envolvimento com recrutamento de células inflamatórias; Em diabetes, a CyPA secretada a partir de monócitos poderia ser um importante estímulo pró-inflamatório para inflamação vascular em pacientes com diabetes. CyPA pode funcionar como um sensor de célula-intrínseca capazes de reconhecer as proteínas de superfície do vírus HIV a fim de promover a infecção e replicação viral. A CyPA da célula hospedeira de mamífero pode estar envolvida no ciclo de replicação intracelular de *Leishmania*, *Plasmodium falciparum* e *Toxoplasma gondii* (revisado por Nigro et al., 2013). Estudo mostra que a CyPA é modulada e superexpressa em cancer sugerindo que esta proteína pode ser um alvo promissor para a terapia do câncer (Lee et al., 2010).

A família de Ciclofilinas do *T. cruzi* compreende várias isoformas, incluindo Ciclofilina A (TcCyP19), que variam em tamanho de 19-110 kDa (Potenza et al., 2006). Análise de organização molecular da família de genes de ciclofilina de *T. cruzi* mostrou que o TcCyP19, TcCyP22, TcCyP28, TcCyP40 e ligam-se a ciclosporina A (CsA) (Bua et al. 2001). A Ciclofilina A do *T. cruzi* (TcCyP19) é expressa em todos os estágios evolutivos do parasito, entretanto é bem mais abundantemente na fase de epimastigota do *T. cruzi*. Esta isoforma é uma ciclofilina citosólica clássica com massa teórica de 18,782 Da (19 kDa). Búa e colaboradores (2001) observaram que TcCyP19 é homóloga à ciclofilina A a partir de *T. brucei* (TbCyP19), *L. major* (LmCyP19) e *T. vivax* (TvCyP19). Foi relatado que TcCyP19 e outros membros da ciclofilina de *T. cruzi* (por exemplo, TcCyP22, TcCyP28 e TcCyP40)

também são capazes de se ligar ao composto imunossupressor ciclosporina A (CsA), e evidencia o seu papel na mediação de respostas imunossupressoras (Potenza et al., 2006).

Além disso, pesquisa demonstra a interação de um peptídeo antimicrobiano salivar α -helicoidal do *Triatoma infestans* - a trialisina, com a TcCyP19. Foi observado que a TcCyP19 secretada pelo parasita, se liga e inativa a trialisina através de uma ação no seu resíduo de prolina para induzir ativação bio-energética do parasita protegendo-o contra os efeitos citolíticos e favorecendo um aumento de infectividade. Também os autores perceberam que modificando os resíduos da trialisina torna-se com efeito ativo contra o *T. cruzi* (Kulkarni et al., 2013).

Apesar de várias funções, o envolvimento de TcCyP19 no fenótipo de resistência à BZ de *T. cruzi* não tenha sido ainda demonstrada – o que se deu a partir do presente estudo.

3 Câncer

A Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS) estimou que, para o ano 2030, podem-se esperar 27 milhões de novos casos de câncer, 17 milhões de mortes por câncer e 75 milhões de pessoas vivas, anualmente, com câncer. (OMS, 2012).

O Brasil vem sofrendo mudanças em seu perfil demográfico, consequência, entre outros fatores, do processo de urbanização populacional, da industrialização e dos avanços da ciência e da tecnologia. A essas novas características da sociedade brasileira, unem-se os novos estilos de vida e a exposição, ainda mais intensa, a fatores de risco próprios do mundo contemporâneo. Esse processo de mudança demográfica, denominado de “envelhecimento” da população, associado à transformação nas relações entre as pessoas e seu ambiente, trouxe uma alteração importante no perfil de morbimortalidade, diminuindo a ocorrência das doenças infectocontagiosas e colocando as doenças crônico-degenerativas como o câncer, novo centro de atenção dos problemas de doença e morte da população brasileira (INCA, 2014).

O câncer é um termo genérico para um amplo grupo de doenças que podem afetar qualquer lugar do corpo. Outros termos utilizados são tumores e neoplasias malignas. Uma característica marcante do câncer é a formação rápida de células anormais que podem invadir tecidos próximos, bem como se disseminar para outros tecidos e órgãos (OMS, 2012). As neoplasias podem diferir de acordo com o tipo de célula, tecido ou órgão em que se desenvolvem. Geralmente as células neoplásicas levam a formação de uma massa tumoral, podendo esta ser benigna ou maligna (INCA, 2008).

Seletividade molecular e mecanismo molecular do cancer

3.1 Câncer de Mama

O Câncer de Mama (CM) é o segundo tipo mais frequente no mundo e mais comum entre as mulheres, respondendo por 22% dos casos novos a cada ano. Na população mundial, a sobrevida média após cinco anos é de 61%. No Brasil, a estimativa deste ano 2014 aponta para a ocorrência de aproximadamente 57 mil casos novos de câncer de mama e as taxas de mortalidade continuam elevadas, muito provavelmente porque a doença ainda é diagnosticada em estádios avançados. (INCA, 2014). Segundo a Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS), nas décadas de 60 e 70 registrou-se um aumento de 10 vezes nas taxas de incidência ajustadas por idade nos Registros de Câncer de Base Populacional de diversos continentes. Estatísticas indicam aumento de sua incidência tanto nos países desenvolvidos quanto nos em desenvolvimento.

A etiologia do câncer de mama é variada podendo ser influenciada por agentes físicos e químicos do meio ambiente ou por produtos tóxicos da própria célula, como os radicais livres, ou fator genético de cada indivíduo. Na maioria das vezes o gene do câncer inicia por mutações em células epiteliais constituintes dos túbulos e lóbulos mamário (Ellsworth et al., 2010). Esses genes mutados- são oncogenes, e acarretam a desregulação de vias importantes como perda do controle da proliferação e da divisão celular, imortalização celular, devido ativação da enzima telomerase, alterações cromossômicas, perda de adesão da membrana plasmática, perda de função e da capacidade de diferenciação celular e capacidade para invadir o tecido vizinho promovendo a

carcinogênese. Enquanto os genes supressores mantêm essa proliferação sob controle, restringindo assim o crescimento celular. Os genes reparadores de danos do DNA têm por função refazer as moléculas que sofrem mutação. Quando ocorre o mau funcionamento dos mecanismos de regulação do ciclo celular, permitindo a passagem das células mutadas pelo ciclo, o acúmulo dessas mutações, acaba por contribuir no surgimento das características do tumor maligno (Belizário, 2002; Vermeulen, 2003).

As estratégias para controle do CM podem ser dirigidas a indivíduos assintomáticos ou sintomáticos. As ações de saúde voltadas para indivíduos assintomáticos objetivam evitar o câncer mediante o controle da exposição aos fatores de risco (prevenção primária), bem como detectar a doença e/ou lesões precursoras em fase inicial, chamadas de rastreamento – é a aplicação de um exame em uma população presumivelmente assintomática (WHO, 2007). Por outro lado, as ações que identificam indivíduos sintomáticos são chamadas de diagnóstico precoce – reconhecimento pelo paciente ou pelo profissional de saúde de sinais e sintomas precoces da doença tais como: o surgimento de alterações na pele que recobre a mama, como abaulamentos ou retrações, inclusive no mamilo, ou aspecto semelhante a casca de laranja. Além disso, a liberação de secreção no mamilo também é um sinal de alerta. O sintoma do câncer palpável é o nódulo (caroço) no seio, acompanhado ou não de dor mamária. Podem também surgir nódulos palpáveis na axila (WHO, 2007; INCA, 2014,).

O câncer de mama quando detectado em sua fase inicial tem enormes chances de cura, no entanto, o diagnóstico tardio da doença no Brasil deve-se à dificuldade de acesso da população aos serviços públicos de saúde, baixa capacitação dos profissionais envolvidos na atenção oncológica, incapacidade do sistema público para atender à demanda ou baixa capacidade dos gestores municipais e estaduais em definir o fluxo de casos suspeitos em diferentes níveis de atenção, e a própria demora do paciente em procurar atendimento, seja por medo ou negação da doença (INCA, 2012; Janime et al., 2011).

3.2 Quimioterapia do câncer de mama

O tratamento de câncer de mama avançado é bastante heterogêneo na prática clínica, podendo envolver quimioterapia, fármacos alvo-específicas, hormonioterapia e, e alguns casos, cirurgia e radioterapia paliativa. Além disso, diversos fármacos, isolados ou em combinação, têm mostrado atividade importante para esses pacientes, compondo um arsenal terapêutico bastante diversificado (Schutz et al., 2007)

Os quimioterápicos estão divididos em várias classes, com base no mecanismo pelo qual interferem na divisão celular. Quimioterápicos de diferentes classes podem ser combinados para ter maior eficácia contra o câncer, mas com consequente maior toxicidade.. Quando a quimioterapia é administrada em pacientes com doença metastática e incurável, exceto em situações onde é urgente a resposta rápida ao tratamento, é dada preferência à utilização de quimioterápicos isoladamente, para evitar interferir em demasia na qualidade de vida das pacientes. Assim, administrando um quimioterápico, só muda-se para um segundo, somente quando a doença não responde mais ao primeiro, frequentemente podemos proporcionar sequencialmente o benefício de várias linhas de quimioterapia a estas pacientes, prolongando ao máximo a sobrevida (INCA, 2012).

3.3 Peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio*) e células MCF-7 em estudos de cancer

O peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio*), também conhecido popularmente como “paulistinha”, é um peixe teleósteo com tamanho de 3 a 4 cm e pertencente a família Cyprinidae. As vantagens do peixe-zebra como modelo de estudo do desenvolvimento dos vertebrados deve-se a produção de grandes posturas, que podem atingir 200 embriões a cada sete dias, e ao fato dos embriões serem pequenos, transparentes e com um rápido desenvolvimento externo. Além do Peixe-zebra ter uma taxa muito baixa de neoplasia espontânea, apenas aproximadamente 10% dos peixes zebras tem possibilidade de desenvolver um tumor (Tavares et al,2013).

Outro aspecto importante é que o genoma do peixe-zebra está completamente sequenciado, apresentando 26.206 genes, mais do que em qualquer outro vertebrado. A comparação com o genoma humano de referência mostra que aproximadamente 70% dos genes humanos possuem pelo menos um ortólogo do peixe-zebra (Howe et. al.,2013.)

A primeira publicação na pesquisa do cancer utilizando o peixe-zebra foi realizado por Stanton e colaboradores (1981) para testar os efeitos de substâncias cancerígenas. Atualmente, o peixe-zebra tem sido um interessante modelo para estudo de cânceres. Vários estudos mostram que os melanomas, leucemia linfóide e hepatocarcinoma do peixe-zebra se assemelham a doença humana morfológicamente, geneticamente e epigeneticamente, demonstrando adequação para esse fim terapeutico (Liu et al., 2011; Tavares et al., 2013). Outras pesquisas têm usado painéis de compostos farmacêuticos ou pequenas moléculas, onde os embriões do peixe-zebra são expostos a produtos químicos para testar os níveis de dose-resposta de fármacos, potencial de toxicidade, e potencial terapêutico de compostos conhecidos ou novos (Phillips & Westerfield, 2014)

A célula “Michigan Foundation-7 Câncer” (MCF-7) deve-se esta denominação referindo-se ao instituto onde foi criada, são células de câncer de mama que apresentam um fenótipo tumoral (Soule et al., 1973). Representam bons modelos para estudo de cancer de mama, seja pela rapidez na duplicação, maior resistência aos quimioterápicos e mantêm características diferenciadas específicas de tumores mamários em cultura celular. Estas células têm sido utilizadas em diversos ensaios que envolvem teste de fármacos e radioterapia. (Shenvi et al., 2014) O fármaco doxorubicina induz apoptose das células MCF-7 e MDA-MB-231 cancerígenas mamárias (Wang et al., 2014). A atividade do composto lupeol atua como um agente anticancerígeno contra células MCF-7 (Pitchai et al., 2014).

CAPÍTULO I

Ciclofilina (TcCyP19) e fenótipo de resistência do *Trypanosoma cruzi*.

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Molecular characterization of Cyclophilin (TcCyP19) in *Trypanosoma cruzi* populations susceptible and resistant to benznidazole

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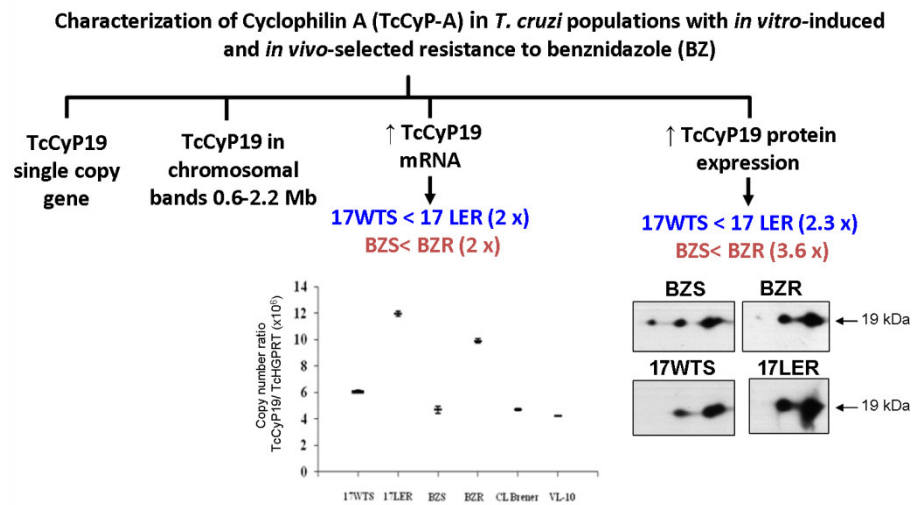
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Abbreviations: CyP-A, cyclophilin-A; TcCyp19, *T. cruzi* 19 kDa cyclophilin; BZ, Benznidazole; HGPRT, Hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase; LIT, Liver-infusion tryptose; NFX, Nifurtimox; PCR, Polymerase chain reaction; qRT-PCR, real time PCR; PFGE, Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis.

HIGHLIGHTS

- > Cyclophilin A (CyP19) gene was characterized in 11 strains and clones of *T. cruzi*
- > TcCyP19 is a single copy gene located in chromosomal bands varying from 0.6 to 2.2 Mb
- > There is a clear divergence between CyP-A of trypanosomatids and mammals
- > TcCyP19 transcripts were 2-fold higher in BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* populations
- > TcCyP19 protein expression was 2-fold higher in BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* populations;

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ABSTRACT

Cyclophilin A (*TcCyP19*), a peptidyl-prolyl cis/trans isomerase, is a key molecule with diverse biological functions that include roles in molecular chaperoning, stress response, immune modulation and signal transduction. In this respect, CyP could serve as potential drug target in disease-causing parasites. Previous studies employing proteomic technique have shown that *TcCyP19* isoform was more abundant in a benznidazole (BZ)-resistant *Trypanosoma cruzi* population than in its susceptible counterpart. In this study, *TcCyP19* has been characterized in BZ-susceptible and BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* populations. Phylogenetic analysis revealed a clear dichotomy between Cyclophilin A (CyPA) sequences from trypanosomatids and mammals. Sequencing analysis revealed that the amino acid sequences of the *TcCyP19* are identical among the *T. cruzi* samples analyzed. Southern blot analysis showed that *TcCyP19* is a single-copy gene, located in chromosomal bands varying in size from 0.68 to 2.2 Mb, depending on the strain of *T. cruzi*. Northern blot and qPCR indicated that the levels of *TcCyP19* mRNA were twofold higher in drug-resistant *T. cruzi* populations compared to drug-susceptible counterparts. Similarly, as determined by two-dimensional gel electrophoresis immunoblot, the expression of *TcCyP19* protein was

increased to the same degree in BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* populations. No differences in the TcCyP19 mRNA and protein expression levels were observed between susceptible and the naturally resistant *T. cruzi* strains analyzed. Taken together, these data indicate that cyclophilin TcCyP19 expression is up-regulated at both transcriptional and translational levels in *T. cruzi* populations that were *in vitro*-induced and *in-vivo* selected for resistance to BZ.

Key words: *Trypanosoma cruzi* – Cyclophilin - Benznidazole - Drug resistance

1. Introduction

Chagas disease, also known as American trypanosomiasis, is caused by the protozoan parasite *Trypanosoma cruzi*. It is estimated that 8 to 11 million people are infected worldwide, mostly in Latin America where Chagas disease is endemic (CDC 2013). Drug treatment of chagasic patients is currently involves the 5-nitrofurans, nifurtimox (NFX) and the 2-nitroimidazole Benznidazole (BZ). However, both drugs cause severe side effects. NFX exerts its action via the generation of nitro anion radicals, a process known as redox cycle (Maya et al., 2003), while BZ acting via reductive stress, which involves the covalent modification of macromolecules such as DNA, proteins, and lipids by reduced nitro intermediates (Docampo, 1990).

A Previous study suggests that both BZ and NFX are pro-drugs activated by nitroreductases to produce nitrogenated radicals (Wilkinson et al., 2008). Interestingly, the deletion of copies of genes encoding two different nitroreductases, namely, old yellow enzyme (TcOYE; also named prostaglandin synthase or NADPH oxidoreductase) (Murta et al., 2006) and trypanosomal type I nitroreductase (NTR-1) (Wilkinson et al., 2008), has been associated with a phenotype of *T. cruzi*, which is resistant to NFX and BZ *in vitro*. Overexpression of enzymatic activity related to antioxidant response, like that of tryparedoxin peroxidase, ascorbate peroxidase and iron-superoxide dismutase has been detected in *T.*

cruzi populations resistant to BZ (Nogueira et al., 2006, 2009, 2012). In addition, the hexose transporter activity was 40% lower in a BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* population than in the susceptible control (dos Santos et al., 2012). Differences in susceptibility to BZ and NFX between *T. cruzi* strains (Filardi and Brener, 1987; Murta et al., 1998; Toledo et al. 2004) and / or genetic diversity of the host (Filardi and Brener, 1987) might explain in part the variations in the efficacies of antiparasitic drugs. The mechanisms underlying drug resistance in *T. cruzi* and most parasites remain poorly understood. A more in-depth understanding of these mechanisms is essential to develop efficacious chemotherapeutic strategies for fighting Chagas disease.

Several groups have used proteomic approaches in order to understand the mechanisms of drug resistance in protozoan parasites. In a previous study by our group, two-dimensional electrophoresis in combination with mass spectrometry was applied to detect differences in protein expression between BZ-susceptible and resistant *T. cruzi* populations, as well as variant clones as well (Andrade et al., 2008). Among the protein up-regulated in BZ-resistant samples, we observed that cyclophilin *TcCyP19* was more abundant in the BZ-resistant population (17LER) and clone (27R) than in their BZ-susceptible counterparts (17WTS and clone 9S).

Cyclophilin is considered an important player in several biological processes like signal transduction, protein-protein interaction, as well as protein folding and cellular stress response (Galat, 2003). This protein belongs to the peptidyl-prolyl isomerase family (PPIases), which catalyzes the cis-trans isomerization of prolyl-peptide bonds in biochemical pathways of cellular communication. The role of CyPs in heat shock response, in which the expression of certain class of cyclophilins was shown to be up-regulated under various stressful conditions, was been reviewed previously (Andreeva et al., 1999). The cyclophilin family comprises several isoforms, including cyclophilin *TcCyP19*, ranging in size from 19 to 110 kDa (Potenza et al., 2006). The most abundantly expressed cyclophilin expressed in the epimastigote stage of *T. cruzi* is *TcCyP19*. This isoform is a classical cytosolic cyclophilin with theoretical mass of 18.782 Da (19 kDa). Búa and co-workers (2001) observed that

TcCyP19 is homologous to Cyclophilin from *T. brucei* (*TbCyP19*), *L. major* (*LmCyP19*) and *T. vivax* (*TvCyP19*). It has been reported that *TcCyP19* and other cyclophilin members of *T. cruzi* (e.g., *TcCyP22*, *TcCyP28* and *TcCyP40*) are also able to bind to the immunosuppressant drug cyclosporine A (CsA), which could serve to explain their role in mediating immunosuppressive responses (Potenza et al., 2006). Despite of multiple roles, the involvement of *TcCyP19* in the BZ-resistance phenotype of *T. cruzi* has not yet been demonstrated.

In the present study, the phylogenetic relationship between *TcCyP19* and CyPs from other organisms was established. *TcCyP19* nucleotide and amino acid sequences polymorphisms were evaluated, the copy number and chromosomal location of *TcCyP19* gene was determined, and the expression of *TcCyP19* gene was analyzed at transcriptional and translational levels. We have observed a positive correlation between increased expression of *TcCyP19* in *T. cruzi* populations with *in vitro*-induced and *in vivo*-selected resistance to BZ.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 *Trypanosoma cruzi* strains

Eleven *T. cruzi* strains and clones were used in this study (Table I). The BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* population (17 LER) derived from the Tehuantepec cl2 susceptible wild-type strain (17 WTS) (Nirdé et al., 1995) was obtained by *in vitro* exposure to increasing concentrations of BZ (LAFEPE Pharmaceutical Laboratory of the State of Pernambuco, Vitória de Santo Antão, Brazil). Parasites of the 17 LER population are resistant to 220 μ M BZ, a concentration that is 23-fold higher than the IC_{50} for the 17 WTS control population. The BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* population (BZR) was derived from the susceptible Y strain (BZS) following *in vivo* selection after 25 successive passages in mice treated with a single high dose (500 mg/kg body weight) of BZ (Murta and Romanha, 1998). We also used two clones derived

from these populations: one susceptible (clone 9S) and other resistant (clone 27R). The other five *T. cruzi* strains were previously characterized according to their *in vivo* susceptibility to BZ and NFX (Filardi and Brener, 1987). The VL-10 strain is naturally resistant to both drugs, while CL Brener, Romano, Buriti and Berenice are susceptible (Murta et al. 1998). All eleven strains were classified as *T. cruzi* group Tc I, TcII or TcVI according to the nomenclature for *T. cruzi* (Zingales et al., 2009). Epimastigotes forms of all *T. cruzi* strains were grown in LIT medium, washed in PBS and the parasite pellets were used for the preparation of DNA, RNA and protein samples.

2.2. *In silico* and phylogenetic analysis of the *TcCyP19* gene

Similarity searches were carried out for complete *TcCyP19* amino acid sequence (GenBank accession no. XM_816485) within five different *T. cruzi* genomes, using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST; National Center for Biotechnology Information). The genomes used for similarity search were CL Brener Esmeraldo_Like, CLBrener Non-Esmeraldo_like, SylvioX10, JRc14 and Marinkellei_B7 (available in TritypDB - www.tritypdb.org - version 6.0). The sequences with high identity values to *TcCyP19* were located within the respective genomes and the predicted proteins were identified using the ARTEMIS (version 15.0 - www.sanger.ac.uk) and BLAST. For phylogenetic analysis, the predicted protein sequences corresponding to cyclophilins were aligned using CLUSTAL-W (Larkin et al., 2007), and the phylogenetic tree was constructed using the MEGA software (Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis, version 5.2.2 – Tamura et al., 2011) with bootstrap test (1000 replicates). In addition, the amino acid sequence from *TcCyP19* was compared with related cyclophilin sequences from four species of *Trypanosoma* (*T. brucei*, *T. congolense*, *T. evansi* and *T. vivax*), five *Leishmania* (*L. donovani*, *L. infantum*, *L. major*, *L. mexicana* and *L. braziliensis*), and two mammals (*Mus musculus*, and *Homo sapiens*). A phylogenetic tree for this second multialignment was also constructed using the MEGA software.

2.3. RNA and DNA preparations

Genomic DNA and total RNA from *T. cruzi* samples were extracted as previously described (Nogueira et al., 2006). In order to prepare the molecular probes used in the Southern and Northern blot assays, a 400 bp segment corresponding to nucleotide 68 to 468 of the *TcCyP19* (GenBank accession no. XM_816485) was amplified from *T. cruzi* Y strain DNA by conventional PCR using the *TcCYP19* forward primer 5' GGTGGCCAATCAGCCGGACG 3' and the *TcCYP19* reverse primer 5' TCCATTGCCTTAACGACTTC 3'. For Southern blot assay, about 5 µg total DNA of different *T. cruzi* strains were digested with the restriction enzyme *SacI* in standard reaction conditions (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The Southern and northern blots were carried out using protocol previously described (Murta et al., 2006).

2.4. DNA sequencing

The *TcCyP19* 534 bp ORF from *T. cruzi* BZ-susceptible and -resistant populations (17WTS, 17LER, BZS, BZR, CL Brener and VL-10) was cloned into the TOPO PCR2.1 vector (Invitrogen) and amplified in *E. coli* TOP 10 F' competent cells. Minipreparations of plasmid DNA were done using the QIAprep Spin Miniprep kit (Qiagen). Aliquots of 500 ng DNA were sequenced using the DYEnamic WET Dye Terminator Kit (GE Healthcare) in a MegaBACE 1000 DNA Analysis System (GE Healthcare), using the following primers: M13 forward 5'-GTAAAACGACGGCCAG-3', M13 reverse 5'-CAGGAAACAGCTATGAC-3' and *TcCyP19* forward 5'-ATGTCGTACAAGCCGCATCA-3' and *TcCyP19* reverse 5'-AGGCCTCTGGTCAACTTTAA-3'. Reaction consisted of an initial denaturation at 95°C followed by 30 cycles of 15s 95°C, 20s at 55°C and 80s at 60°C. Samples were analyzed on Mega Bace 400 sequencer (Amersham) and the data were analyzed using Phred, Phrap and Consed. Sequence variability between parasites was assessed by sequencing three colonies of each *T. cruzi* population and by sequencing each colony twice with each primer. Sequences selected for analysis were those with Phred >40. Nucleotide sequences were

translated into the amino acid sequence using Transec. The nucleotide and amino acid sequences were aligned using the ClustalW 2.1 software.

5. Pulsed Field Gel Electrophoresis (PFGE)

The *T. cruzi* chromosomes were separated by PFGE in a gene navigator™ system (Amersham Pharmacia, Buckinghamshire, UK), as previously described (Murta et al. 2006). After testing different electrophoresis conditions and switch times, the best condition that provided the optimal separation for *TcCyP19* gene was: 70 s for 15 h, 90 s for 24 h, 200 s for 15 h, and 400 s for 15 h at 180 V. After electrophoresis, the gels were transferred onto Hybond nylon membranes (Amersham) as described by the manufacturer's instructions. The membranes were hybridized with the ³²P-labeled *TcCyP19* gene probe.

2.6. Quantitative real-time RT-PCR

The protocol employed for the preparation of first strand cDNA and the procedure for real-time RT-PCR were as previously described (Nogueira et al., 2006). An ABI Prism 7000 - Sequence Detection System SDS (PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) was employed in the real-time PCR amplification of first strand cDNA (5 µl) using the specific primers: 5` TGTCGTACAAGCCGCATCAC 3` (RT CYPRTF forward) and 5` CAATGCTGACGTCGAAGAAGAC 3` (RT CYPRT2 reverse) selected from the complete nucleotide sequence of *TcCyP19* (GenBank Accession No. XM_816485). The *T. cruzi* housekeeping gene hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase (*TcHGPRT*) was used to normalize the amount of samples (Nogueira et al., 2006). Standard curves were prepared for each experiment using known quantities of TOPO PCR 2.1 plasmids (Invitrogen) containing the *TcCyP19* and *TcHGPRT* genes. PCR products were quantified using Sequence Detection System data analysis software and normalized to the *TcHGPRT* values for each sample.

2.7. Two-Dimensional Gel Electrophoresis (2-DE) and Western blotting analysis

Protein extracts were obtained by direct lysis of parasites in lysis buffer (Matrangolo et al., 2013) in a proportion of 100 µg for 3.5×10^8 epimastigote forms. After extraction, protein concentration was quantified by Bradford method. Protein extracts (100 µg) were loaded on 7 cm non-linear IPG strips pH 3–10 (Bio-Rad) and isoelectric focused using the Protean IEF Cell (Bio-Rad), 50 µA/strip at 20°C. Passive rehydration was performed for 4 h, followed by an active rehydration at 50 V for 12 h. Isoelectric focusing was increased gradually to 4,000 V and run for 16,000 V-hour. Subsequently, the second dimension electrophoretic protein separation was performed in 12% SDS-PAGE and blotted onto nitrocellulose membranes. Blots were incubated for 16 h at 4°C with rabbit polyclonal antibody anti-cyclophilin (TcCyP19) of *T. cruzi* (1:5000). The blots were washed and then incubated for 1 h with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG 1:2000 (GE Healthcare). The blots were washed, incubated with ECL Plus chemiluminescent substrate (GE Healthcare) and exposed to X-ray film. To confirm equivalent loading, SDS-PAGE containing the same samples were stained with Colloidal Coomassie Blue G-250 (Neuhoff et al., 1988). The gels stained with coomassie Blue G250 and the immunoblots were scanned on a GS-800 calibrated densitometer (BioRad) and submitted to comparative analysis.

3. Results

3.1. In silico and phylogenetic analysis of TcCyP19 gene

Similarity searches were carried out between the TcCyP19 sequence (GenBank accession XM_816485) and local copy of the *T. cruzi* database of five different *T. cruzi* genomes. Altogether, 79 sequences similar to that of TcCyP19 were found in the five *T. cruzi* genomes (13 to 19 sequences identified from each genome). The predicted protein sequence of the gene sequences identified was analyzed and compared to NCBI non-redundant database and 61 were found to share the highest similarity with cyclophilins. Of these, 24 proteins (including TcCyP19) had molecular weight ranging from 19 to 23 kDa,

which is similar to the molecular weight of *TcCyP19*. A phylogenetic tree was constructed using these 24 cyclophilin sequences (ranging from 18.7 to 23.7 kDa). A cyclophilin having a molecular weight of 35 kDa was used as outgroup (Supplementary Fig. 1S). The results showed that these cyclophilins were grouped in two divergent branches. One of the branches included cyclophilins having molecular weights of 18.7 kDa (*TcCyP19*); 21.4-23.7 kDa and 21.0-21.1 kDa, while the other encompassed cyclophilins having molecular weights of 21.6-21.7 and 19.7-19.8 kDa.

In order to compare the similarity of *TcCyP19* amino acid sequence with cyclophilin-A (CyPA) sequences of different organisms, a neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree was constructed (Fig. 1). This Phylogenetic tree shows a clear dichotomous divergence between trypanosomatids and mammalian CyPA sequences. The amino acid sequence of *TcCyP19* is closely related to sequences from other species of *Trypanosoma* and *Leishmania*, sharing identities of between 84% to 90% and 78% to 81%, respectively.

3.2. Sequencing data

DNA sequencing of *TcCyP19* gene from *T. cruzi* populations that were susceptible (CL Brener, 17WTS and BZS), naturally resistant (VL-10) and with *in vitro*-induced (17 LER) and *in vivo*-selected (BZS) resistance to BZ was performed in order to investigate whether point mutations could be associated with the BZ-resistance phenotype. Multi-sequence alignment of the *TcCyP19* gene nucleotide sequences revealed three nucleotide mutations (positions 150, 261 and 390) that do not lead to amino acid substitution (Supplementary data Fig. 2S). No association was found between nucleotide mutations and BZ-resistance phenotype. These three nucleotide mutations are strain specific.

3.3. Copy number of *TcCyP19* gene

Southern blot assays were carried out using samples of *T. cruzi* genomic DNA that had been digested with the endonuclease *SacI*; which has one restriction site within the reference *TcCyP19* sequence (GenBank accession no. XM_816485). Hybridization of the blots of *SacI*-

digested DNA with a *TcCyP19*-specific probe revealed two fragments of 7.8 and 1.5 Kb in all *T. cruzi* samples so far analyzed (Supplementary data Fig. S3).

The copy number ratio of the *TcCyP19* gene per genome for the pair 17WTS/17LER and BZS/BZR was also determined by real-time PCR. Considering that *T. cruzi* contains 0.33 pg of DNA (Moser et al., 1989) and that *TcHGPRT* is a single copy gene (Allen and Ullman, 1994), *TcCyP19* copy numbers were estimated using 200, 100, 50 and 25 ng of genomic DNA. It was found that the copy number ratio of the *TcCyP19* gene was the same for 17WTS/17LER and BZS/BZR populations (data not shown), indicating that the number of *TcCyP19* gene is not different in the genome of *T. cruzi* resistant populations.

3.4. Chromosomal location of the *TcCyP19* gene

Chromosomes from *T. cruzi* strains were separated by pulsed field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) (Fig. 2B). Chromosomes hybridization with the *TcCyP19*-specific probe showed that this gene is present in chromosomal bands that range from 680 to 2200 kb (Fig. 2C). A correlation between the chromosomal location of *TcCyP19* gene and *T. cruzi* group was observed for the *T. cruzi* strains analyzed in this study (Table I). However, no correlation between chromosomal location of the *TcCyP19* gene and the drug-resistance phenotype was established.

3.5. Levels of *TcCyP19* mRNA transcript

Levels of *TcCyP19* mRNA in parasite populations were first investigated by Northern blot analysis. A 1.4-kb transcript was detected in Northern blots of total RNA derived from BZ-susceptible and -resistant *T. cruzi* strains, following hybridization with a ³²P-labelled *TcCyP19*-specific probe (Fig. 3A). Quantitative controls using a ribosomal RNA probe are shown in Fig. 3B. Comparative densitometric analysis revealed that *TcCyP19* mRNA levels were at least twofold higher in BZ-resistant 17LER and BZR populations than in their susceptible counterparts 17WTS and BZS. We did not observed any comparative difference in the levels of *TcCyP19* mRNA among other *T. cruzi* strains and clones analyzed.

TcCyP19 mRNA levels were complementarily determined by quantitative real-time RT-PCR to confirm the northern blot results. The amount of *TcCyP19* cDNA in the samples of *T. cruzi* was normalized by a internal reference - the single copy housekeeping gene *TcHGPRT*, used as an internal reference. The results, shown in Fig 3C, indicate that the levels of transcription of the *TcCyP19* gene were twofold higher in the 17LER and BZR populations compared with the 17WTS and BZS populations. No differences in the levels of transcription of the *TcCyP19* gene were detected between the other *T. cruzi* BZ-susceptible and -resistant sample pairs, i.e. CL Brener *versus* VL-10.

3.6. Levels of *TcCyP19* protein expression

2-DE Western blotting analysis showed that the anti-*TcCyP19* polyclonal antibody recognized two spots with the expected size of 19 kDa and isoelectric point (pI) 7.0 to 8.5 in the pair 17LER/17WTS and three spots in the BZR/BZS pair (Fig. 4A), which coincides with that for *TcCyP19*. These spots, with pI's value ranging from 7.0 to 8.5 correspond to the different isoforms of *TcCyP19*, probably owing to post-translational modifications of the protein (Fig. 4). These findings confirm the protein identity and are suggestive of post translational modification of *TcCyP19*. a kind of post-translational modifications of *TcCyP19*. According, to the releante literature, cyclophilin-A of *L. infantum* has one site of acetylation justifying the occurrence of isoforms with more acidic pI (Rosenzweig et al., 2008). In fact, the polyclonal antibody anti-*TcCyP19* might recognize *TcCyP19* and other cyclophilin isoforms of similar molecular weight but different isoelectric points.

Comparative analysis between Coomassie Blue-stained protein profiles of BZS/BZR and 17WTS/17LER *T.cruzi* population showed that the protein load as similar between the samples tested (Fig. 4A and C). We selected the same region of both the Coomassie Blue-stained gels of 17WTS/17LER and BZS/BZR to perform the densitometric analysis. Densitometric analysis of the spots showed that the levels of protein expression of the two spots were higher in the 17LER BZ-resistance population than in its susceptible counterpart,

i.e., the 17 WTS. In the BZS/BZR populations, we identified three spots of cyclophilin TcCyP19. One of them had higher expression levels in the BZS population, while the other two were more highly expressed in the BZ-resistant population BZR than in the susceptible population 17WTS (Fig. 4).

In addition, we comparatively assessed the TcCyP19 protein expression of a BZ-susceptible *T. cruzi* strain (CL Brener) and that of a *T. cruzi* strain (VL-10) naturally resistant to BZ, using western blot one-dimensional gel electrophoresis (1D). No differences were observed in the expression levels of TcCyP19 protein between both *T. cruzi* strains analyzed (data not shown).

4. Discussion

Cyclophilin-A is a member of the peptidyl-prolyl cis/trans isomerase class of enzymes and it is a key molecule in diverse biological processes, including molecular chaperoning, protein folding and protein trafficking (Bell et al., 2006). In the present study, the gene encoding TcCyP19 was characterized from populations and strains of *T. cruzi* that are susceptible or resistance to benznidazole (BZ). The ORF of TcCyP19 (TcCLB.506925.300) is 534 bp in length and encodes a protein of 177 amino acids with a predicted mass of 19 kDa. Phylogenetic analyses of the amino acid sequences of CyPs revealed a clear dichotomy between trypanosomatids and mammalian cyclophilin sequences. CyP19 protein from *Trypanosoma* spp. and *Leishmania* spp. are the closest related groups in this family. In addition, sequences analysis revealed that the amino acid sequences of the TcCyP19 protein are identical among the *T. cruzi* samples analyzed.

Southern blot analysis showed that TcCyP19 gene is present in the parasite genome as a single copy in BZ-resistant and susceptible *T. cruzi* populations. These data are concordant with the results of a study by Potenza et al. (2006), who reported the presence of a single copy for each of TcCyP gene analyzed in the *T. cruzi* genome (i.e., TcCyP19,

TcCyP20, *TcCyp22*, *TcCyP25*, *TcCyP28*, *TcCyP34* and *TcCyP40*). In the present study, the *TcCyP19* gene was located in chromosome bands varying in size from 0.68 to 2.2 Mb, depending on the strain of *T. cruzi*. In partial agreement, Búa and co-workers (2001) observed that the *TcCyP19* gene is located in two chromosomal bands of sizes 2.0 and 2.2 Mb in the CL Brener *T. cruzi* clone, whereas other cyclophilin isoforms are found dispersed in *T. cruzi* genome. These differences could be due to *T. cruzi* chromosomal rearrangements or cyclophilin-like sequences that could be recognized by the *TcCyP19* probe.

Northern blot and qPCR indicated that the levels of *TcCyP19* mRNA were twofold higher in *T. cruzi* populations with in vitro-induced and in-vivo selected resistance to BZ compared with that in drug-susceptible counterparts. In accordance with these results, analytical 2DE immunoblot showed an increase of *TcCyP19* protein expression level in the BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* population. However, no differences in *TcCyP19* mRNA and protein expression levels were observed between the susceptible and naturally resistant *T. cruzi* strain analyzed, indicating different drug resistance mechanisms in these samples. Many studies evaluating drug resistance mechanisms in parasites were based on models produced by artificial induction of resistance. In contrast, there is very little information available on the biochemical mechanisms underlying drug resistance in field isolates. The data presented here show that *TcCyP19* protein expression level is increased in *T. cruzi* populations that were in vitro-induced and in-vivo selected for resistance to BZ, a situation that is different from that observed in the naturally resistant population. In agreement with our results, Villarreal et al. (2005) observed that the mechanisms associated with natural resistance to drugs differ from those associated with induced resistance. The mechanism of drug resistance, such as that to BZ, is often complex and multifactorial, including molecules associated with the host immune system, which may interfere with the susceptibility of the parasite to the drug (Murta et al. 1999). Studies to determine whether overexpression of *TcCyP19* in the susceptible population will confer the BZ-resistant phenotype to these parasites are required to confirm our hypothesis that *TcCyP19* may be involved in *T. cruzi* resistance to BZ.

Interestingly, in the presence of BZ or other stress conditions, an increase in the expression of several proteins of distinct biological function is observed. Consequently, TcCyP19 might contribute to counteract the chemical stress stimulus by increasing, for example, the activity of protein folding, which is necessary for efficient expression of functional polypeptides. The correlation between drug resistance and increased chaperonin activity has been observed in *L. donovani* (Kumar et al., 2013) and *T. cruzi* (Andrade et al., 2008). Interestingly, CyPA also has a protective role in murine cells functioning as an antioxidant against oxidative stress (Doyle et al., 1999; Hong et al., 2004). Additionally, in humans CyPA binds peroxiredoxins thereby increasing the peroxidase activity by their ability to transfer electrons (Lee et al., 2001). In analogy to this role, our data are indicative that the increased expression of TcCyP19 could in turn favor the expression and activity of enzymes associated with antioxidant defense (Nogueira et al., 2006, 2009, 2012). This might serve in detoxifying the parasite and might confer BZ-resistance a hypothesis that warrants further investigation.

Cyclophilin-A is also implicated in biological processes such as tumor resilience and progression. For instance, microarray analysis has shown that CyPA can upregulate the expression of cytokines and genes related to drug resistance (Chen et al., 2008). Furthermore, it was observed that the elevated CyPA expression contributes to drug-resistance phenotype in cancer cells (Yang et al., 2011). Another study revealed that the overexpression of CyPA could promote cancer cell proliferation, cell migration/invasion, apoptosis inhibition and drug-resistance phenotype in various cancer cell types (Obchoei et al., 2009). These data suggested that CyPA is a good target for cancer chemotherapy. Interestingly, some lines of investigation also evidenced that TcCyPs are promising targets for the treatment of Chagas disease (Búa et al., 2008; Carraro et al., 2007). Cyclophilins bind cyclosporin A (CsA), an immunosuppressive antimicrobial drug and non-immunosuppressive CsA analogues possess higher activity against *T. cruzi* (Búa et al., 2008). In conclusion given that our results show that TcCyP19 is upregulated in BZ-resistant *T. cruzi* populations and that several lines of evidence implicate CyPs as a promising chemotherapeutic target against

cancer and parasite disease, our work constitutes a starting point for further investigation into the role of *TcCyPs* in the mechanism of drug resistance and as target for Chagas disease chemotherapy.

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Appendix: Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at doi:10.1016/j.exppara. 2014.11.007.

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TABLE I*Trypanosoma cruzi* populations and clones used in this study

<i>T. cruzi</i> strain	Origin ^a	Host ^b	Sus ^c	<i>T. cruzi</i> group ^d	TcCYP19 chromosomal location (Kb)
17WTS	Mex	Triatomine	S	I	1640, 1120, 945, 610, 680
17LER	Mex	Triatomine	R	I	1640, 1120, 945, 610, 680
BZS	SP	Human A. P.	S	II	1640, 1120, 945
BZR	SP	Human A. P.	R	II	1640, 1120, 945
Clone 9S	SP	Human A. P.	S	II	ND ^e
Clone 27R	SP	Human A. P.	R	II	ND ^e
VL-10	MG	Human C. P.	R	II	ND ^e
Berenice	MG	Human C. P.	S	II	1640, 1120, 945
Cl Brener	RS	<i>T. infestans</i>	S	VI	2200, 2000, 1640, 1120, 945
Romano	Arg	Human A. P.	S	VI	2200, 2000, 1640, 1120, 945
Buriti	RS	<i>T. infestans</i>	S	VI	2200, 2000, 1640, 1120, 945

^a Origin - Mex, Mexico; Arg Argentina; MG, Minas Gerais; RS, Rio Grande do Sul; SP, São Paulo; MG, RS and SP are different states of Brazil.

^b A.P., acute phase and C.P. chronic phase.

^c Sus, *in vivo* susceptibility to BZ and NFX as previously reported (Filardi and Brener, 1987; Murta *et al.*, 1998); S, susceptible; R, resistant.

^d *T. cruzi* group classification as previously described (Zingales *et al.*, 2009);

^e ND Not determinate;

Legends to Figures

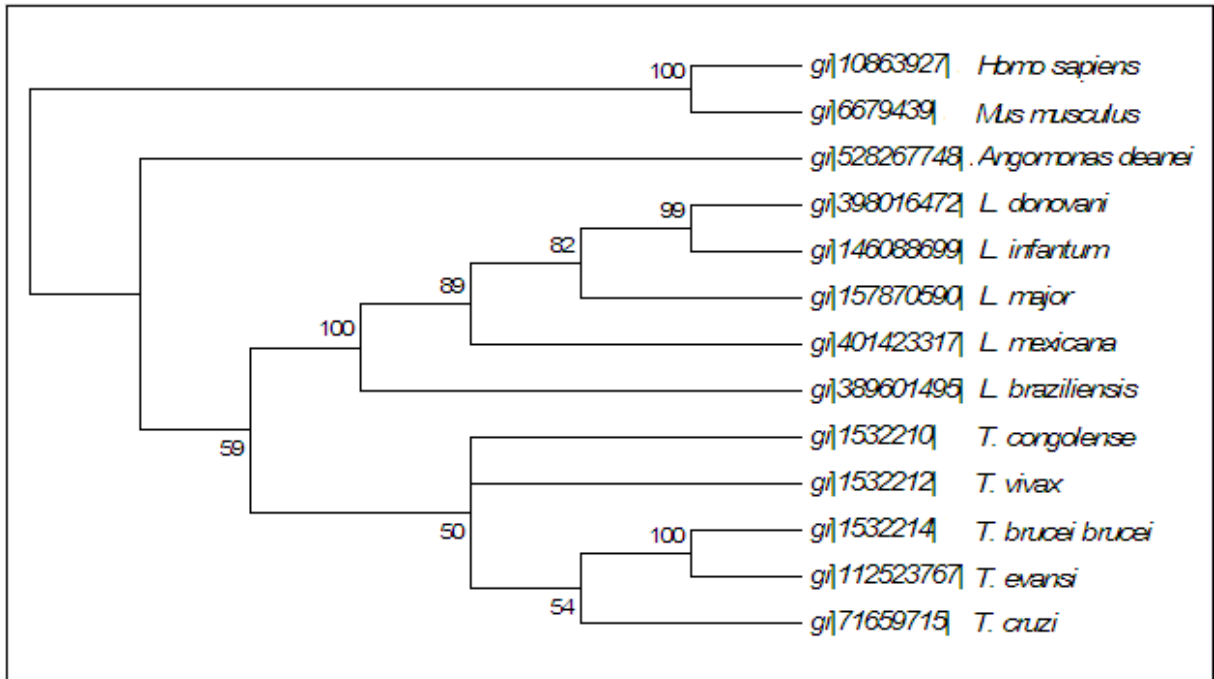


Fig. 1: Neighbour-joining phylogenetic tree of CyPA sequences of *Trypanosoma cruzi* and other organisms with a high similarity degree. The numbers shown are bootstrap values. Bootstrap is a method that provides assessments of confidence for each clade of an observed tree, based on the proportion of bootstrap trees showing that same clade (Efron et al., 1996).

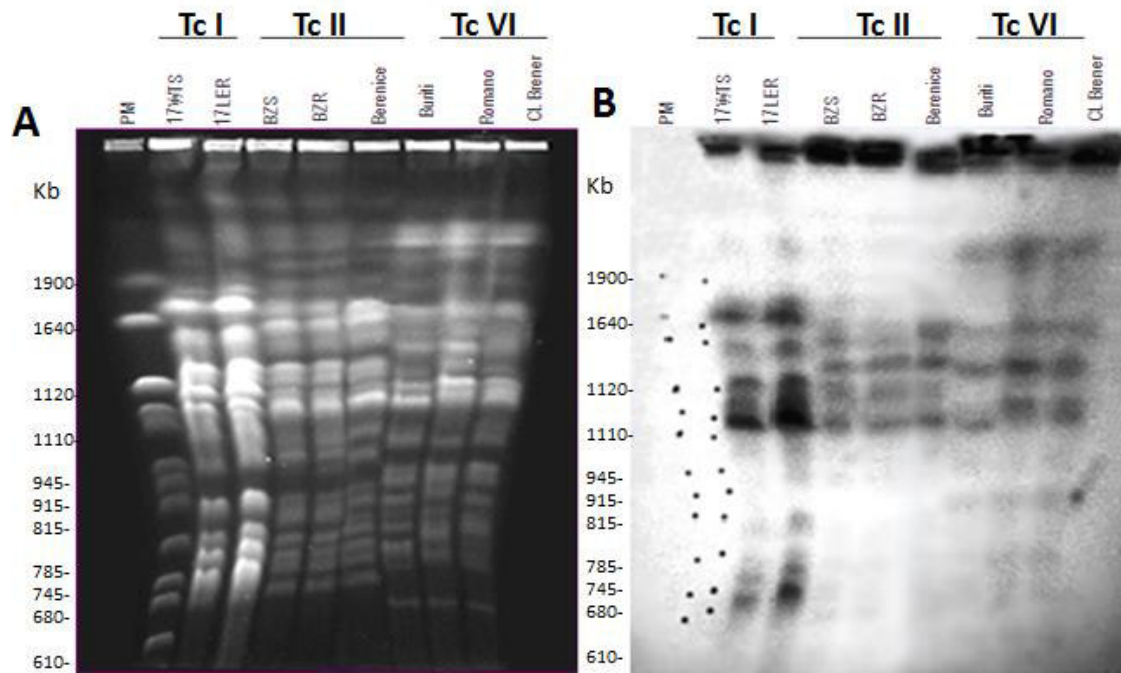


Fig. 2: Chromosomal location of the *TcCyP19* gene in the BZ-resistant and susceptible *T. cruzi* strains. **(A)** Chromosomal bands from the *T. cruzi* strains were separated by PFGE and stained with ethidium bromide. **(B)** Southern blots of the chromosomes were hybridized with a ³²P-labeled *TcCyP19*-specific probe. Whole chromosomes from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* were used as molecular weight markers.

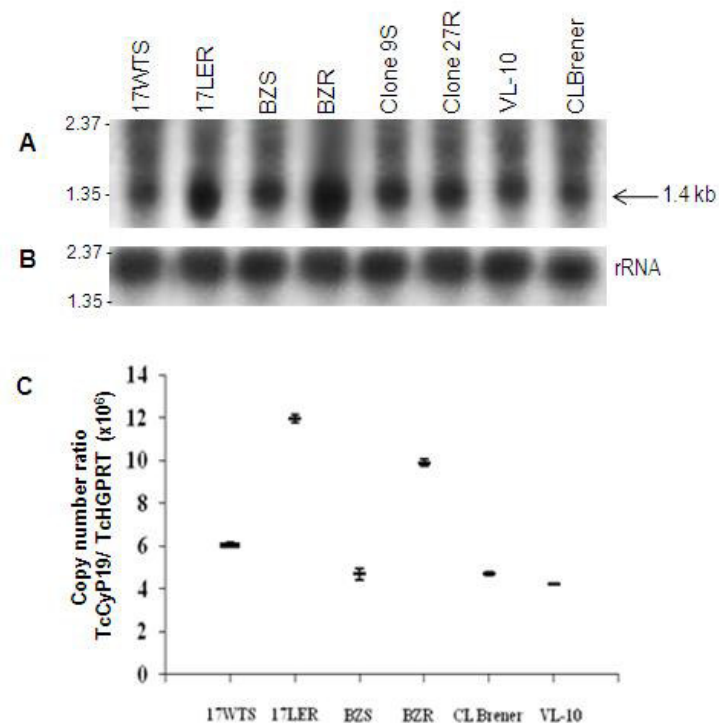


Fig. 3: Levels of *TcCyP19* mRNA in BZ-resistant and susceptible *T. cruzi* strains. (A) Northern blot profile of total RNA extracts from the *T. cruzi* strains obtained using a ^{32}P -labeled *TcCyP19*-specific probe. (B) The quantitative control was used agarose gel containing the RNA, stained with ethidium bromide. (C) Number of cDNA molecules (copy number ratio) of *TcCyP19* ($\times 10^6$). Values were normalized to those obtained for the *TcHGPRT* and are presented as the means (\pm S.D.M.) of triplicate real-time RT-PCR analyses from three independent experiments.

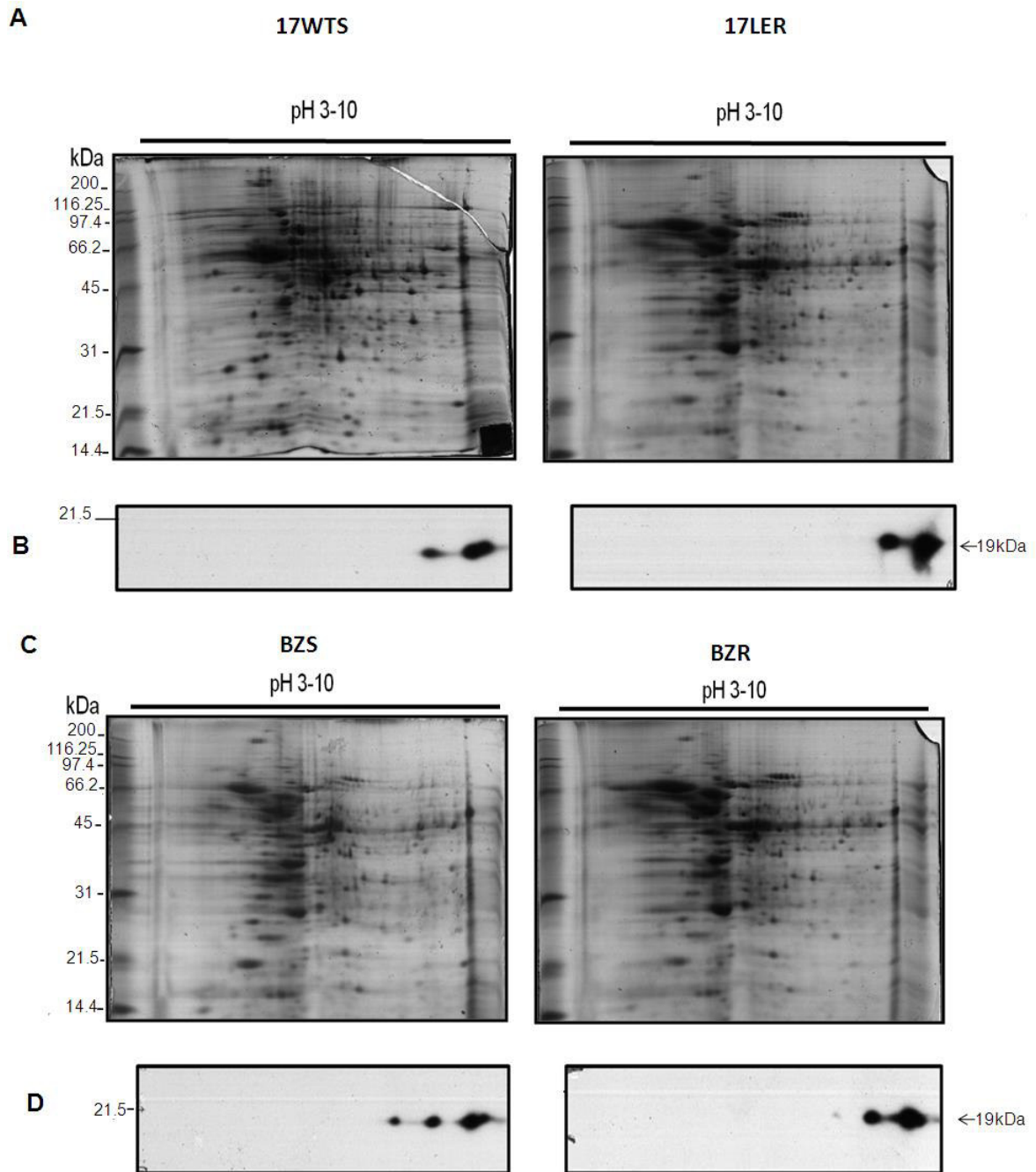


Fig. 4: 2-DE gels of proteins and Western blot analysis of TcCyP19 expression in the benznidazole-susceptible and -resistant *T. cruzi* populations. Proteins (100 μ g) were loaded on 7 cm, non-linear IPG strips of pH 3–10, submitted to isoelectric focusing and separated on 12% SDS-PAGE. The gels were stained with Colloidal Coomassie BlueG250 (A and C) or blotted onto nitrocellulose membranes (B and D). The blots were probed with a rabbit polyclonal antibody anti-cyclophilin-A of *T. cruzi* (1:5,000) and developed using ECL.

Characterization of Cyclophilin A (TcCyP19) in *Trypanosoma cruzi* populations with *in vitro*-induced and *in vivo*-selected resistance to benznidazole (BZ)

Juciane Vaz Rêgo, Ana Paula Duarte, Daniel Barbosa Liarte, Francirlene de Carvalho Sousa, Humberto Medeiros Barreto, Jacqueline Búa, Alvaro José Romanha, Gandhi Rádis-Baptista, Silvane Maria Fonseca Murta.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

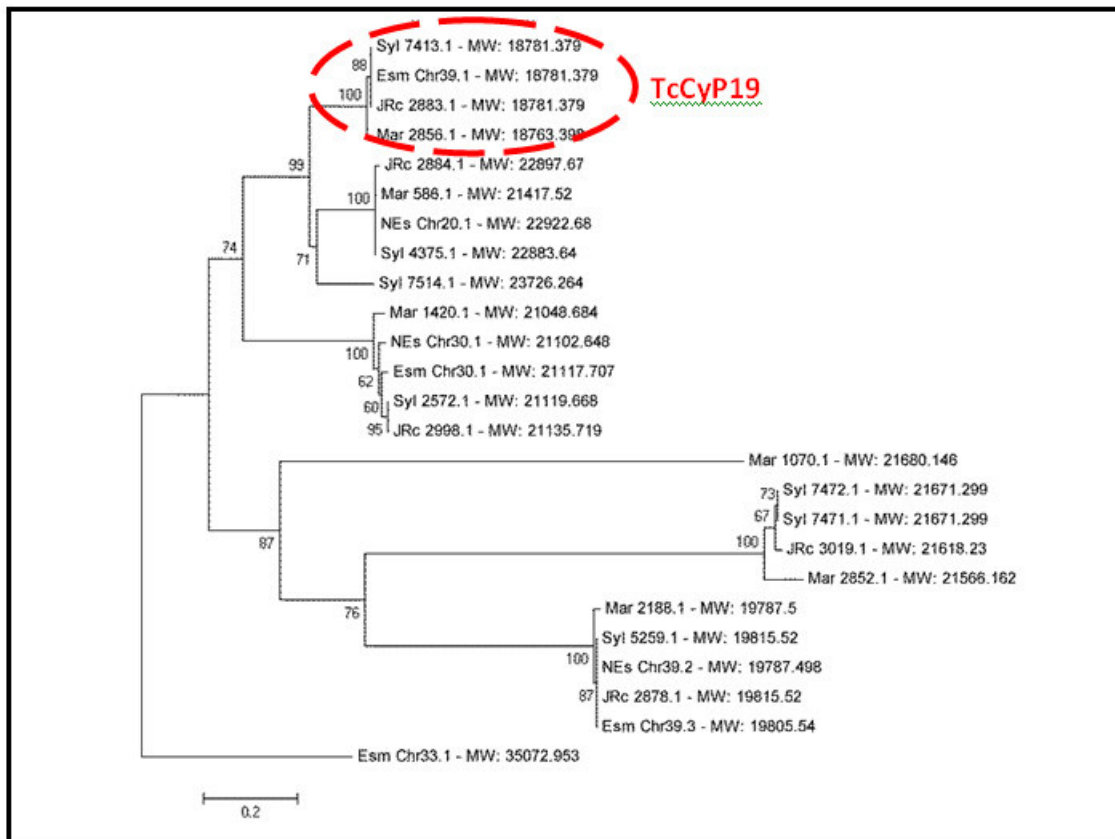


Fig. 1S. Neighbour-joining phylogenetic tree of twenty-four TcCyPs sequences of five different *Trypanosoma cruzi* genomes: NEs, Non Esmeraldo CL Brener like; Esm, Esmeraldo CL Brener like; Syl, SilvioX10; JRc, JRc14 and Mar, Marinkellei-B7. MW, predicted molecular weight (Daltons). *T. cruzi* cyclophilin amino acid sequence of 35 kDa was used as outgroup. The numbers shown are bootstrap values. Bootstrap is a method that provides assessments of confidence for each clade of an observed tree, based on the proportion of bootstrap trees showing that same clade (Efron et al., 1996). Circle red indicates cyclophilins of 18.7 kDa (TcCyP19).

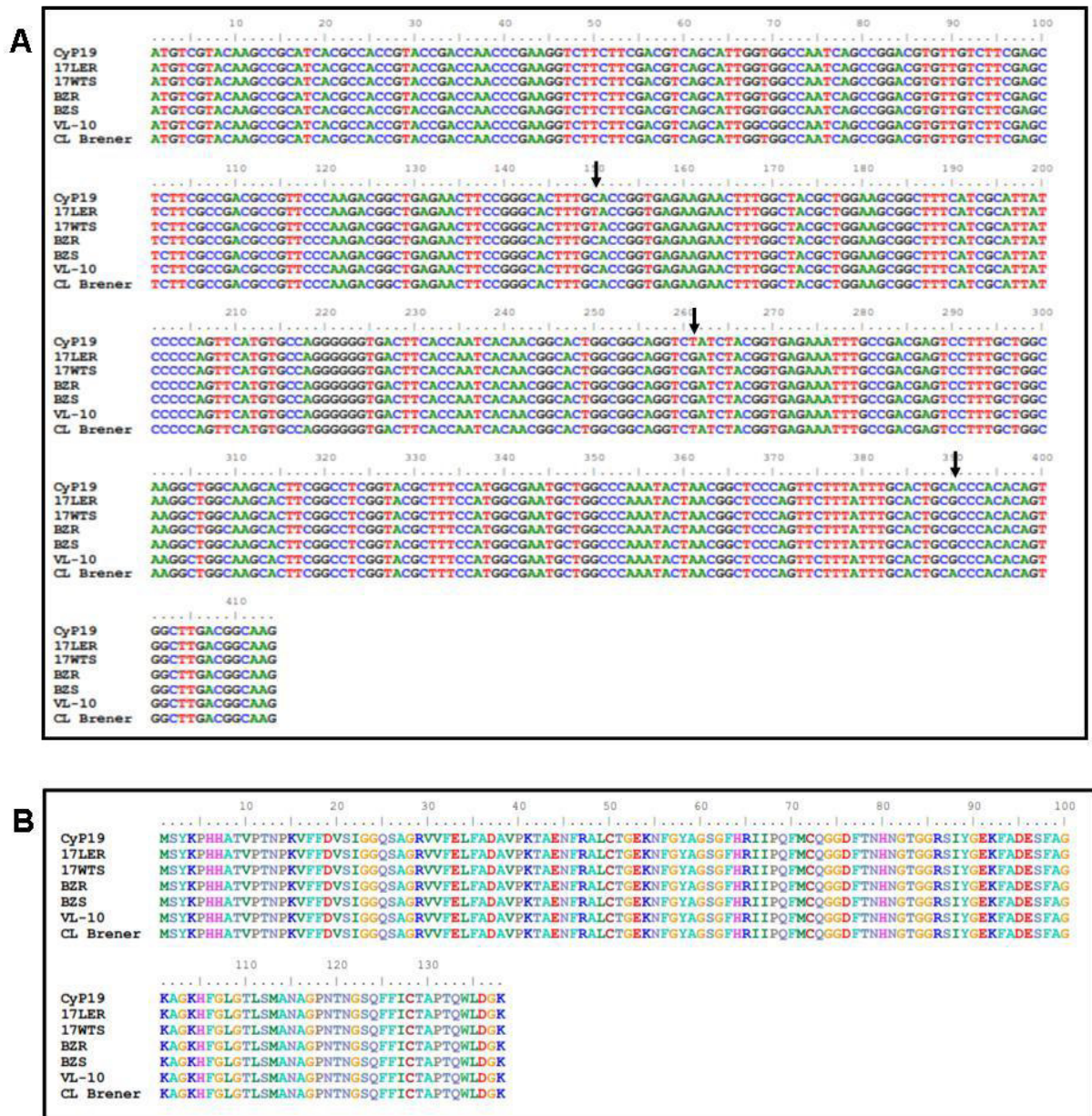


Fig. 2S. Multiple sequence alignment of TcCyP19 nucleotide (A) and amino acid (B) sequences from six BZ-resistant or -susceptible *T. cruzi* strains. The sequences were aligned against the TcCyP19 nucleotide sequence from the *T. cruzi* CL Brener clone (TcCyP19, GeneBank accession number XM_816485). Arrows indicate nucleotide mutations (position 150: T (17WTS/17LER) and -C (all samples); position 261: T (CyP19/CL Brener) and -G (all samples); position 390: A (CyP19/CL Brener) and -G (all samples)).

CAPÍTULO II

Peptídeos antimicrobianos, viperidinas e sua atividade contra *T. cruzi*

Artigo em fase de elaboração

SHORT COMMUNICATION

Activity of Antimicrobial peptides isolated from the venom of snakes (Viperacidins) against *Trypanosoma cruzi*

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Given the urgent need to develop an effective drug for Chagas disease. Thus, we proposed to evaluate the *in vitro* activity of peptides viperacidins against *T. cruzi*. **Methods:** *In vitro* assay using epimastigotes forms, and mixture of trypomastigote and intracellular amastigote of *T. cruzi* by expression of β -galactosidase. **Results:** crotalicidin viperacidin had a dose-dependent cytotoxic effect for epimastigote form of *T. cruzi* (IC_{50} 24h = 4.72 μ M; IC_{50} 48h = 4.37 μ M). For trypomastigote and amastigote forms only viperacidin GA645 crotalicidin have activity followed by cell cytotoxicity and the other samples were inactive. **Conclusions:** The viperacidins shows indications of being an interesting target of search against Chagas disease with the possibility of designing new therapeutic synthetic peptides effective starting from natural peptides.

Keywords: Viperacidins, *Trypanosoma cruzi*, Chagas disease

Chagas' disease (American trypanosomiasis), caused by the protozoan *Trypanosoma cruzi*, is one of the world's 13 neglected diseases and represent a public health problem. According the World Health Organization an estimated about 8 million people are infected

worldwide and more than 10,000 deaths are thought to occur annually¹. The drugs nifurtimox (NFX) and benznidazole (BZ) are the medications presently available for the treatment of Chagas disease. The effectiveness of these drug nitroheterocyclic is observed only in patients treated in the acute phase². However, these drugs are toxic, require prolonged therapy, neither are active in the chronic phase of infection. The side effects are observed in up to 40% of patients, which include nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain and several neurological effects³. Furthermore, the appearance of naturally resistant populations in *T. cruzi* to NFX and BZ, hampers the treatment of Chagas disease^{4,5}. Thus, the development of alternative therapeutic drugs effective against *T. cruzi* is urgently needed.

Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) have been shown as potential pharmacological components against various target bacteria, fungi, protozoa, and virus⁶⁻⁸. This peptide, called peptides defense, are conserved components of the innate immune response of all organisms, including plants, animals, and humans⁹. Cathelicidin- related antimicrobial peptides (CRAMPs) derived from the venom gland of snake called Viperacidin (crotalicidina, batroxidina, lutzidina and lachesidina) and the snake Elapide comprise peptides of *Bungarus fasciatus* (BF-CRAMP), *Naja atra* (Na- CRAMP) and *Ophiophagus hannah* (Oh-CRAMP) have been described¹⁰⁻¹². These molecules have shown activity against bacteria Gram-negative and Gram-positive¹² fungi and cancer cells¹⁰. Research shows that CRAMPs have little hemolytic activity and cytotoxicity to human cells which makes interesting use of peptides as therapeutic potential^{10,12}.

Thereby, aiming the biotechnological use of viperacidins against *T. cruzi* and verify their anti-parasitic activity, was proposed evaluate the *in vitro* activity of peptides viperacidins against *T. cruzi* forms.

This study, the Benznidazole (BZ) was donated by LAFEPE (Pharmaceutical Laboratory of Pernambuco State). Chemicals and reagents used in this work were purchased from Sigma and Aldrich (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO), Applied Biosystems, Pierce and Bio Rad (USA).

Epimastigotes effects: Epimastigotes forms of *T. cruzi* were grown at 28 °C in Liver Infusion Tryptose (LIT) medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, penicillin and streptomycin. The epimastigotes used for all experiments were from the log growth phase (6th day). The experiments were performed in 96-well plates at a density of 1×10^6 parasites/mL treated with of different concentrations (12.5; 6.25; 3.12 and 1.56 $\mu\text{M/mL}$) of crotalicidin peptide. The plates were incubated for 24, 48 and 72h and after that, the viability was determined by quantification in a Neubauer Chamber and the results were expressed as the percentage of inhibition in relation to the control cultured in medium alone. Cultures of the parasite without treatment were considered as 100% growth and inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) was determined by logarithm regression analysis of the data obtained¹³. (Veiga-Santos

et al., 2010). Benznidazole was used as the reference drug. Each experiment was conducted in triplicate and repeated at least 3 times.

In vitro assay in trypomastigote and intracellular amastigote *T. cruzi* forms: The assay was performed according to the protocols established by Buckner *et al.* (1996)¹⁴, with reported modifications¹⁵. The β -galactosidase Tulahuen strain used was courtesy of Dr Frederick Buckner, University of Washington. Initially, the L929 mouse fibroblast line was seeded into 96 well plates and incubated for 24 hours at °37 C for adhesion on the plate and infection with 10 μ g parasites / well. After 2 h, the medium containing the extracellular parasites is replaced with fresh medium again and the plate incubated at °37 C for 48 hours. After this period, the culture medium was replaced with fresh medium in addition to the compounds in decreasing concentrations from 10 ug/mL until reaching the IC₅₀. After 96 hours of incubation, the substrate CPRG was added, the plate incubated at C°37 and reading taken after 16-20 h in a spectrophotometer using a 570 nm filter. The benznidazole in its IC₅₀ (1 ug / ml = 3.81 uM) was used as positive control. The results are expressed as the percentage of inhibition of parasite growth.

Cytotoxicity Assay: *In vitro* cytotoxicity tests were performed using alamarBlue[®] to determine the toxicity of the compounds against L929 cells. The conditions were the same as those described for the β -galactosidase assay. After 96 h of exposure to the compounds, alamarBlue[®] was added to each well and the absorbance at 570 and 600 nm was measured after 4-6 h. The lethal concentration (LC₅₀) and IC₅₀ values were calculated using linear interpolation and the selectivity index (SI) was determined based on the ratio of the LC₅₀ value for the host cell to the IC₅₀ value for the parasite (LC₅₀ /IC₅₀ ratio) (Table I). The activity and toxicity of benznidazole as the positive control were included for comparison.

For the antiparasitic effect epimastigote forms of *T. cruzi* Y strain were treated with different concentrations of crotalicidin-viperidicin (12.5; 6.25; 3.12 and 1.56 μ M) for 24, 48 and 72 hours (Figure 1) shows that crotalicidin viperidicin had a dose-dependent cytotoxic effect (IC₅₀ 24h = 4.72 μ M; IC₅₀ 48h = 4.37 μ M) while the IC₅₀ of the reference drug benznidazole was greater (IC₅₀48h = 117 μ M).

In this present study, we demonstrated viperidicin-crotalicidin activity against epimastigote, trypomastigote and amastigotas forms of *T. cruzi*. Our data showed that crotalicidin viperidicin peptide had a dose-dependent activity against the epimastigote form after 24 and 48h of treatment, exhibiting an IC₅₀ of 4,72 μ M and 4,37 μ M respectively, while benznidazole showed greater IC₅₀ in 48h of treatment (117 μ M). The activity assay of viperidicin- GA645-crotalicidin against forms of *T. cruzi* trypomastigotes and intracellular amastigotes showed activities IC₅₀ 10 ug / mL followed by cell cytotoxicity, however, the other samples viperidicidins did not inhibit parasite growth (Table I).

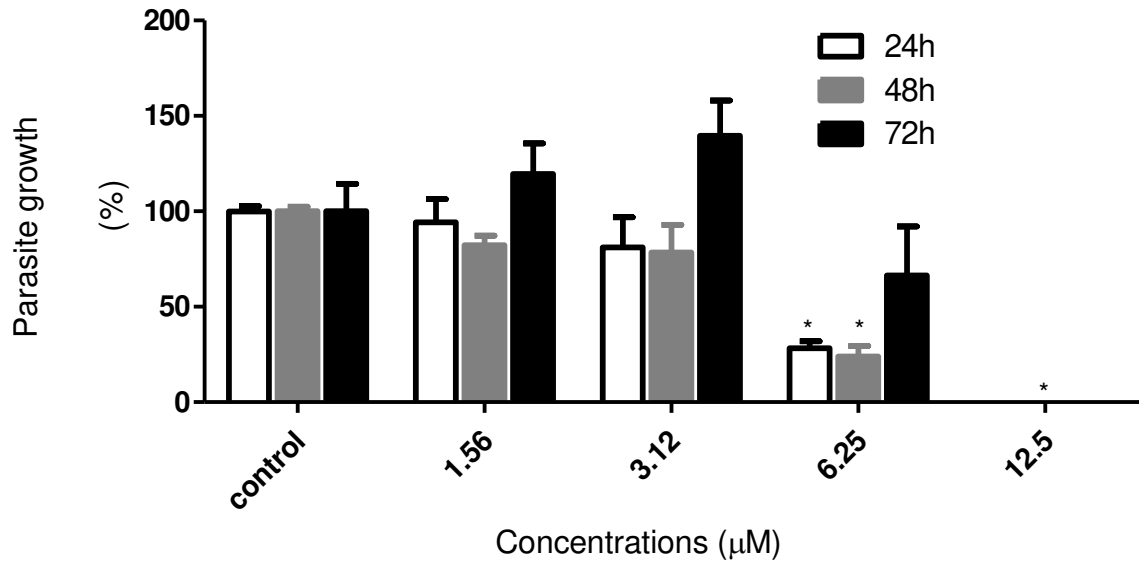


Figure 1. Effects of crotalicidina- viperigidin against the epimastigote form of *trypanosoma cruzi* Y strain. The protozoa were treated with different concentrations (12.5; 6.25; 3.12 and 1.56µM) for 24h, 48h and 72h. Each experiment was conducted in duplicate and repeated at least 3 times. The results were expressed as mean \pm E.P.M and analyzed by Student's t-test. * $p < 0.05$ compared to the corresponding control group.

Table I: Activity of viperigidins against trypomastigote and intracellular amastigote *T. cruzi* forms

Types viperigidins	concentration (µg/ mL)	activity ¹ (%)	IC ₅₀ on the parasite ²	IC ₅₀ on cell ³	Selectivity ⁴
GA648	20	4	Inativo	-	-
GA646	20	0	Inativo	-	-
GA649	20	1	Inativo	-	-
GA650-lutzicidin	5	cell death	Inativo	-	-
	2,5				
GA647	20	7	Inativo	-	-
GA645-crotalicidin	20	cell death	10 µg/mL	10 µg/mL	1
	10	68			
	5	4			
Benzonidazole	1 µg/mL (3,81 µM)	-	1 µg/mL	625 µg/mL	625

¹ Percentage reduction of amastigotes and trypomastigotes under the action of viperigidins

² Concentration of viperigidins that reduces by 50% the parasitic growth.

³ Concentration of viperigidins that induces 50% cell death (L929).

⁴ IC₅₀ of viperigidins on the cells divided by the IC₅₀ of viperigidin of the parasite.

The bioactive substances derived from animal products are foci of science in the search for new drugs and biotechnology applications¹⁶⁻¹⁷. Side effects of drug associated with the lack of sensitivity specific to some strains of *T. cruzi* and low clinical efficacy of benznidazole, evidences the urgent need to develop effective novel drug for the acute and chronic phases of Chagas disease. The peptide antimicrobiano of snake are attractive, because several components of poisons Viperidae have demonstrated potent anti-bacterial and anti-fungal activity^{10,18,19}.

In our study, the peptide viperigidin- GA645 crotalicidin was active in trypomastigotes and intracellular amastigotes, however, their therapeutic potential as anti-parasitic agent was restricted to cell cytotoxic activity, and other peptides tested did not inhibit the growth of *T. cruzi*. Furthermore, the viperigidin crotalicidin peptide was more active against epimastigotes of *T. cruzi*. corroborating these findings, in *T. brucei*, the antiparasitic action of peptides can deregulate membrane integrity and lead to instability causing osmotic swelling and cell lysis and death of the parasite. Researchers suggest that due to the presence of a variety of proteins to the surface of the membrane (GPI) present in trypanosomes affinity and may allow the communication between the cell such peptides and molecules²⁰.

On the other hand, the differences observed in the activities of viperecidin regarding the different types of *T. cruzi* can be due the specific constitution of each peptide or the surface charge of parasite be specific for each species and vary with the developmental stages, including their protein profiles²¹. In addition, the constitution of each peptide tested which interacts with the structure of the parasite influence the outcome. *In silico* analysis can provide a wide range of information about AMPs and their structures, suggesting which residues could be important for membrane interactions²²

Lastly, the viperidins shows indications of being an interesting target of search against Chagas disease. New alternatives can expand the possibilities in therapy against Chagas disease. In order to develop a more effective peptide can synthesize another peptide from the natural structure. With that, we reduce the hydrophobicity the molecule and increase its amphipathicity which, according to some authors collaborate to increase the therapeutic index of the peptide²³

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CAPÍTULO III

Rhodamine B- nonapeptideo Viperidina - atividade tóxica e citotóxica contra o modelo peixe-zebra e câncer de mama

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Rhodamine B-conjugated encrypted viperidinin nonapeptide is a potent toxin to zebrafish and associated with cytotoxicity towards human breast cancer cells

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ABSTRACT

Animal venoms contain a diverse array of proteins and enzymes that are toxic towards various physiological systems. However, there are also some practical medicinal uses for these toxins including use as anti-bacterial and anti-tumor agents. In this study, we identify a nine-residue cryptic oligopeptide, KRFKKFFKK (EVP50) that is repeatedly encoded in tandem within viperidicin sequences. EVP50 displays potent lethal toxicity to zebrafish (LD₅₀ = 10 μ M) when the peptide's N-terminus is chemically conjugated to rhodamine B (RhoB). *In vitro*, RhoB-conjugated EVP50 exhibits a concentration-dependent antitumor effect toward MCF-7 breast cancer cells. In MCF-7 cells, the RhoB-conjugated EVP50 nonapeptide accumulated in the cytoplasm and the nucleus within minutes. In the cytoplasm, the RhoB-EVP50 induced extracellular calcium influx and intracellular calcium release. Membrane budding was also observed after incubation with micromolar concentrations of a fluorescent EVP50 conjugate. The naïve unconjugated peptide lacked toxic and cytotoxic activities in our *in vivo* and *in vitro* models. Thus, the conjugate's interference with calcium homeostasis, its nuclear function and its induced membrane dysfunction (budding and vacuolization) seem to act in concert to disrupt the cell circuitry. This synergic mechanism of toxicity was restricted to the structurally modified encrypted viperidicin nonapeptide.

Key words: viperidicins; encrypted peptides; cell-penetrating peptide; membranolytic peptide; cytotoxin; membrane budding; zebra-fish model; Rhodamine B-conjugated peptide;

INTRODUCTION

Viperidins (crotalidin, batroxidin, lutzidin, and lachesidin) together with Bf-CRAMP, Na-CRAMP and Oh-CRAMP comprise the cathelicidin-related antimicrobial peptides (CRAMPs) from the venom gland of the pit viper and elapid snake, respectively.¹⁻³ The cathelicidin family of peptides encompasses thousands of sequences expressed in the tissues and cells of the immune systems of numerous species of vertebrates. Viperidins and elapid CRAMPs are structurally arranged as prepropeptides with a signal peptide of ~ 20 residues, a conserved cathelin domain (cathepsin L inhibitor protein) and a hypervariable carboxyl-terminal stretch where a range of natural antimicrobial activities are found. Mature viperidins and elapid CRAMPs share a high level of amino acid similarity, with most of their 34 residues being identical or strictly conserved substitutions. Due to the high proportion of lysine residues alternating with hydrophobic residues, these peptides have a net positive charge and have an amphipathic character. One distinctive structural feature in reptilian CRAMPs when compared to other familial members of cathelicidins is the presence of an extra acidic patch (or acidic signature) at the C-terminal end of the prosequence, which is rich in aspartic acid and uncharged residues (Figure 1). Reptilian CRAMPs (viperidins and elapid cathelicidins) possess effective broad-spectrum activity against clinical isolates and standard strains of bacteria and yeast.²⁻⁵ Gram-negative bacteria¹ They are particularly active against , even rivaling organic antimicrobial compounds. Interestingly, the cathelicidin of *Bungarus fasciatus* (Bf-30) was shown to annihilate *in vitro* melanoma B16F10 cells in a dose- and time-dependent fashion and inhibit melanoma growth and metastasis in grafted mice.⁷ On the same spectrum of activity, a Lys-16 mutant of BF-30 (BF30-K16) displayed selective *in vitro* cytotoxicity against cancer cell propagation in a concentration range that was not toxic to non-tumor cell lines.⁸ Pre-propeptides are processed by specific proteases that release the active portion of the polypeptide responsible for a given biological effect.

For instance, crotamine and crotamine-like peptides from snake venom and lizards,^{9,10} cytolysins from sea anemones,^{11,12} apamin, melittin and mastoparan-B from hymenoptera venom,^{13,14} conotoxins from the marine gastropods *Conus*^{15,16} and antimicrobial and cytolytic peptides from spider venom¹⁷ are all toxins that mature by being proteolytically cleaved. A less obvious maturation process is found in the proteolytic release of a number of bioactive peptides that are encrypted within longer polypeptides. Classic examples of cryptic peptides that contain natural physiologically active human cryptomes include the proteolytically activated prohormone precursor pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC) and the extracellular-matrix-derived crypteins.¹⁸ In the first example, dozens of diverse active hidden opioid peptides with distinct pharmacological functions are released from POMC by tissue-specific convertases (proteases). In the second example, encrypted peptides with anti-angiogenic, anti-tumor, immunomodulation, antimicrobial and chemotaxis activities are proteolytically cleaved from proteins in the extracellular matrix, such as collagens, laminin and perlecan.¹⁸ Thus, biological systems utilize proteolytic processing to generate encrypted peptides and to increase the structural, molecular and pharmacological diversity of the peptidome to elicit complex physiological and pathophysiological responses in mammals.

We and other groups have recently characterized viperacidins and analyzed elapid CRAMPs and observed that reptilian cathelicidins contain several proteolytic cleavage sites that can potentially produce a diverse array of smaller peptides, which are embedded and encrypted in

their corresponding precursors. It was proposed that elastase-like proteases are involved in the processing of bovine and porcine cathelicidins and potentially fowlicidins – cathelicidins from chicken.¹⁹ Because reptilian cathelicidin-related peptides contain several proteolytic cleavage sites that may cleave to form bioactive peptides and anticipating their potential use as theranostic tools, we investigated the biological activities of select viperacidin encrypted peptides. We focused our attention on the C-terminal hypervariable region of viperacidins and prepared synthetic peptides conjugated to rhodamine-B. The biological activities and cell and

tissue compartmentalization and toxicity were evaluated *in vivo* with zebrafish and *in vitro* with human breast MCF-7 cancer cells.

RESULTS

Assessment of lethal toxicity of encrypted viperidins peptides in zebrafish

From the reptilian CRAMPs shown in Figure 1, peptides derived from the C-terminus of the viperidins lachesicidin and batroxicidin were chemically synthesized by standard solid phase chemistry with rhodamine B covalently linked to the peptide N-terminus. The synthesized peptides and their physicochemical properties are listed in Table 1. In a screen of

the lachesicidin and batroxicidin acidic connecting peptides (ACPs, namely ACPi and ACPb, respectively) and encrypted viperidins peptides (EVPs), the peptides RhoB-ACP1i, RhoB-ACP1c and RhoB-EVP50 showed the highest acute lethal toxicity to the zebrafish (Table 1). RhoB-EVP50 was the most potent peptide, exhibiting an LD₅₀ value <10 μM (Figure S1), and was selected for further studies

Distribution of RhoB-EVP50 in zebrafish tissue

To determine whether Rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 is able to enter zebrafish larvae, a number of zebrafish individuals (3dpf) were incubated with Rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 (10 μM) for 24 h, and the rhodamine B accumulation and emission was recorded using fluorescence microscopy. Free rhodamine B was used as negative control. Figure 2A and B show that free rhodamine B accumulated exclusively in the yolk of the zebrafish. In contrast, RhoB-EVP50 was distributed to the blood vessels (Figure 2E and Figure 2F) and co-localized with the green fluorescence of EGFP in *Tg(fli1:EGFP)* transgenic zebrafish (Figure 2C and 2D). Figure 2G and 2H demonstrate the distribution overlap pattern of Rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 and EGFP expression in zebrafish. The merged images show that RhoB-EVP50 specifically accumulates in the posterior cardinal vein and in the intersegmental vessels. RhoB-EVP50 was also detected in the cardiomyocytes of the heart (Figure S2 and Video S1).

Cellular uptake of RhoB-EVP50

The distribution of RhoB-EVP50 in MCF-7 cells was detected in a similar manner using fluorescence microscopy. Figure 3 shows that at 10 μ M, RhoB-EVP50 entered and

Table 1. Primary structures, molecular weights, physicochemical characteristics and toxicity levels of Rhodamine B-conjugated peptides derived from viperacidin hypervariable C-terminal regions.

Peptides ^a	Primary sequences ^b	MW	pI ^c	Net charge ^c (z)	LC ₅₀ (μ M) ^d
ACP1b	RhoB-PVGGVEEEEEDEEEQKAEVEKDEEKEDEEKDRPKRVKRFKKFFKK	5935.5	4.52	-6	16
ACP1l	RhoB-PVGGVEEEEEDEEEQKAEAEENDEEVEKEKEDEEKDQPKRVKRFKKFFKK	6495.0	4.28	-10	13
ACP18b	RhoB-EEEEDEEEQKAEVEKDEEKE	3035.1	3.59	-12	105
ACP18l	RhoB-EEEEDEEEQKAEAEENDEEV	2978.0	3.13	-14	123
ACP41b	RhoB-EKDEEKEDEEKDRPKRV	2584.9	4.44	-3	116
ACP41l	RhoB-EKEKEDEEKDQPKRV	2312.6	4.56	-2	106
EVP26	RhoB-ENDEEV	1159.3	2.89	-4	>200
EVP50	RhoB-KRFKKFFKK	1682.2	11.85	+6	6

^a ACP: Acidic connecting (viperacidin) peptide; EVP- Encrypted viperacidin peptide. Values of molecular weight and isoelectric point are for unlabeled peptides. Batroxicidin-derived peptides: “b”; lachesicidin-derived peptides: “l”.

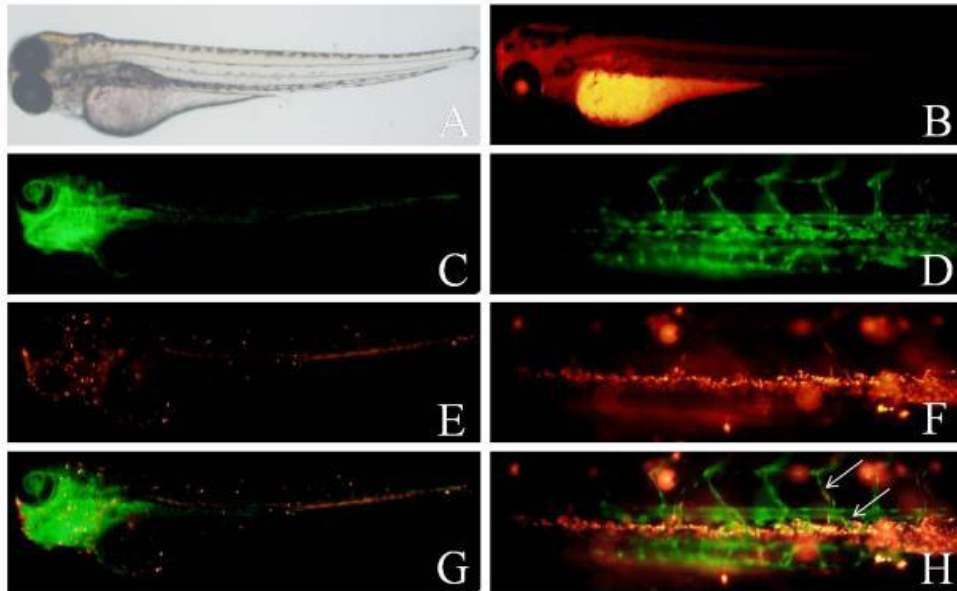
^b The fluorochrome Rhodamine-B (RhoB) is covalently linked to peptide N-terminal; the carboxyl-terminal is free. Data of toxicity are for rhodamine-B labeled peptides. Unlabeled peptides are innocuous.

^c Values of pI and net charge are for unlabeled peptides. A pH-dependent extra charge (positive, at pH<6.0; negative, at pH>10.8) is imparted by

rhodamine-B to peptide molecule. At pH between 6.0 and 10.8, rhodamine-B is neutral (uncharged).⁶

^d LC₅₀ denotes the concentration of rhodamine-B conjugated peptides that cause 50% of zebrafish death.

Figure 2. Fluorescent images of the distribution of RhoB-EVP50 in *Tg(fli1: EGFP)* zebrafish. Bright field microphotography (A, B) of zebrafish (3dpf) treated with 10 μ M of free Rhodamine B for 24 h as a negative control. Green fluorescence pattern of EGFP expression in transgenic *Tg(fli1: EGFP)* zebrafish (C, D). Fluorescent images (E-F) from zebrafish (3dpf) after incubation with RhoB-EVP50 (10 μ M) for 24 h. Merged fluorescent images (G, H) of blood vessels (green) and Rhodamine-conjugated EVP50 (red).



distributed uniformly around the nucleus (perinuclear region) of MCF-7 cells. At higher concentrations (40 μ M), RhoB-EVP50 accumulated in both the cytosol and the nucleus of MCF-7 cells. Furthermore, our study showed that treatment with a high concentration (40 μ M) of RhoB-EVP50 for a longer period of incubation (60 min versus 10 min), the dye-conjugated nonapeptide damaged the cell membrane and caused MCF-7 cell lysis in cells that initiated within a 5 minute time frame (Figure 3). RhoB-EVP50 was also able to penetrate embryonic rat ventricle H9c2 cardiomyoblasts (ATCC) in culture, spread into the cytoplasm and accumulate in the nucleus (Figure S2).

Toxicity of RhoB-EVP50 toward MCF-7 breast tumor cells

The cell viability and cytotoxicity of RhoB-EVP50 toward MCF-7 cells was determined by LDH and MTT assays, respectively. As shown in Figures 4A and 4B, treatment with RhoB-EVP50 for 1 h significantly decreased the viability and increased the cytotoxicity of MCF-7 cells in a dose-dependent manner.

Rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 promoted changes in intracellular calcium.

The dynamics of intracellular calcium levels were measured after incubating MCF-7 cells in a fixed concentration of RhoB-EVP50. Figure 5A shows that RhoB-EVP50 treatment for 90 s caused a rise in the intracellular calcium fluorescence intensity when compared to the control group. Treatment of MCF-7 cells with RhoB-EVP50 for 5 min compromised the cell membrane and caused the release of the cytoplasm from cells, as evidenced by an increased

Figure 3. Fluorescent images of the intracellular distribution of rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 in MCF-7 cells. MCF-7 cells were treated with different concentrations of encrypted viperidicin RhoB-conjugated nonapeptide EVP50 for 10 min and 60 min.

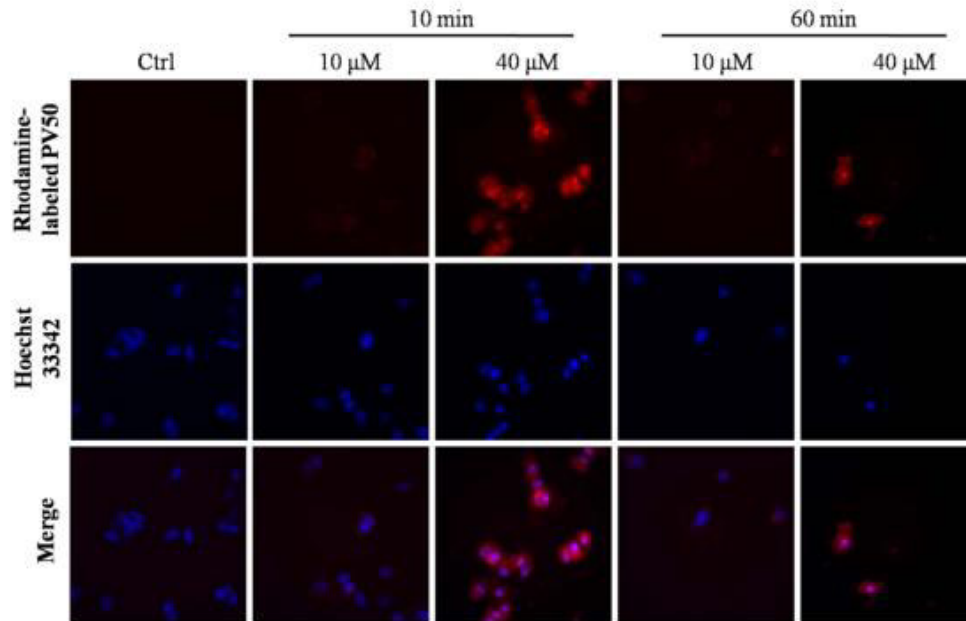


Figure 4. Rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 induces cell death in MCF-7 cells. The cells were treated with different concentrations of RhoB-EVP50 for 1 h. Cell viability and membrane integrity were evaluated by an MTT cytotoxic assay (A) and an LDH leakage assay (B), respectively. * $P < 0.05$ vs. untreated control (Ctrl).

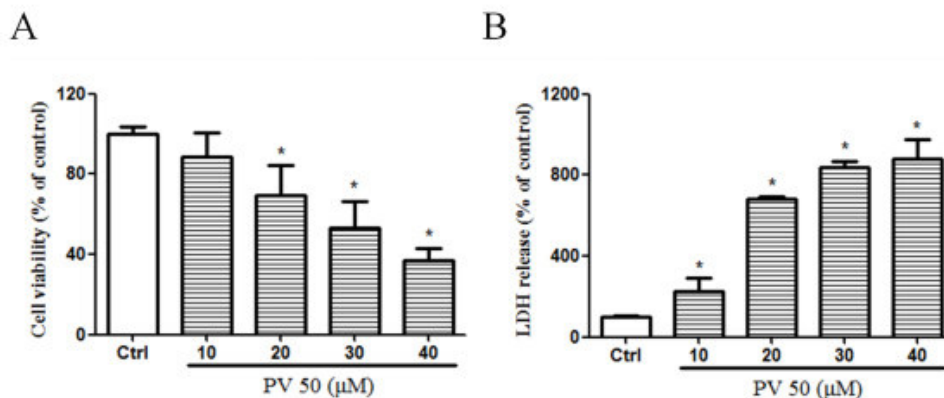
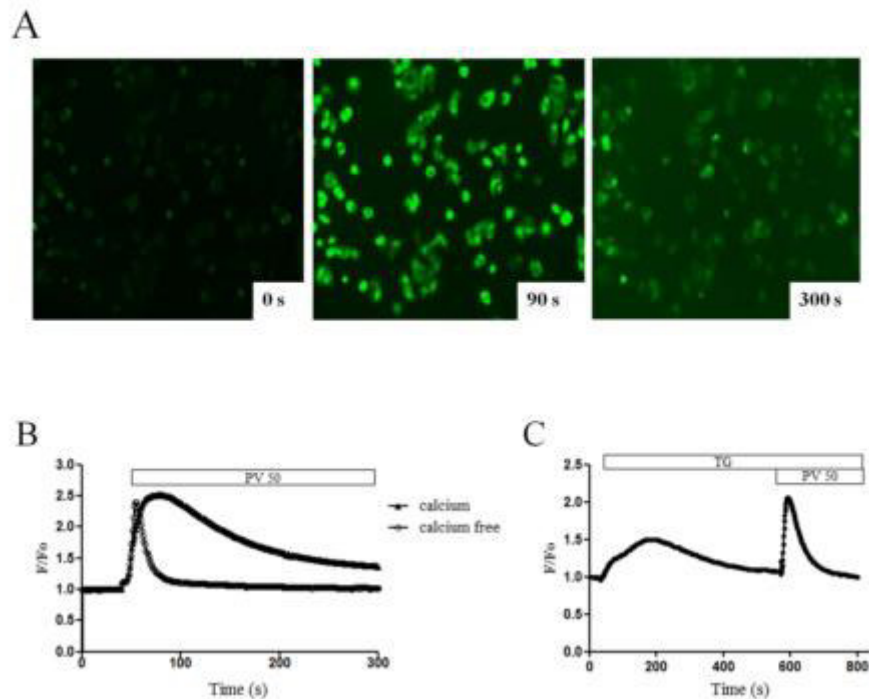


Figure 5. Rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 induces calcium influx and intracellular calcium release in MCF-7 cells. (A) Representative images of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ intensity in MCF-7 cells before and after treatment with EVP50 (30 μ M). (B) EVP50 caused $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ elevation in the absence or presence of extracellular calcium. F/F_0 represents the fluorescence signal relative to the baseline fluorescence intensity. (C) Effect of EVP50 on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ after intracellular calcium store depletion by thapsigargin (TG).



fluorescent background when compared to the control group. The dynamic change in intracellular calcium levels mediated by RhoB-EVP50 in the treated MCF-7 cells was also recorded (Video S2). As shown in Figure 5B, the levels of cytosolic calcium increased after addition of RhoB-EVP50 in the presence or absence of extracellular calcium, which indicated that RhoB-EVP50 caused extracellular calcium influx and intracellular calcium release from the endoplasmic reticulum into the cytosol in MCF-7 cells. This is consistent with the data presented in Figure 5C, which show that RhoB-EVP50 also induced an increase in calcium levels even if calcium stores were depleted with thapsigargin (TG).

DISCUSSION

Cathelicidin-related antimicrobial peptides (CRAMPs) are broad-spectrum antimicrobial components of tissues involved in innate immunity responses in organisms ranging from extant fossil fish (hagfish) to humans. 20,21 A recent characterization of cathelicidins from toads 22 concluded that cathelicidin genes and their peptide products are maintained in the course of biological evolution from aquatic organisms to land vertebrates. In snakes, the first members of cathelicidin family were described for elapids.^{2,3} Recently, four new CRAMP sequences were identified from South American pit vipers (rattlesnakes and jararacas), collectively named viperacidins, and two novel elapid CRAMPs from *Pseudonaja textilis* were characterized from venom glands.¹ These reptilian CRAMPs are expressed in the venom gland and can be purified from venom. Wang and co-workers² found that a *B. fasciatus* (Bf-) CRAMP is expressed in several snake tissues, including skin, trachea, stomach, muscle, heart, kidney, lung, brain, liver, and ovary, with comparable levels of transcript. Whether reptilian CRAMPs have a primary antimicrobial function for protecting the tissues of the snake venom glands or have a synergic role as a venom component in snake envenomation deserves further investigation. In *B. fasciatus* snake venom, a mature CRAMP with only 30 amino acids was purified, revealing additional post-translational proteolytic processing that removed four N-terminal residues from the predicted 34 residue CRAMP. As noted earlier, the mature reptilian CRAMPs that contain 30 to 34 residues display antimicrobial and antitumor activities against most bacterial strains and cell lines studied so far and are amenable to peptide engineering for therapeutic development.^{1,4,5,7,23}

Despite the large evolutionary and geographical distances between pit vipers and elapid snakes, viperacidins and elapid CRAMPs have high structural similarities, with most of their 34 residues strictly conserved, except for a few conservative substitutions (Figure 1). The extra acidic sequence (acidic signature or acidic connecting peptide, as named here), in the propeptides is believed to help neutralize the net positive charge of the mature amphiphatic/cationic peptides that might otherwise cause undesired auto-damage to the peptide-producing cells and tissues.²⁴ Another possible role for the acidic stretches in the C-

terminal domains would be to assist in the correct folding of the mature amphiphatic/cationic peptides to confer full biological activity.²⁵ Analysis of the complete amino acid sequences of viperidicin CRAMPs reveals several putative protease cleavage sites, such as the dipeptides KK, KR and VK (Figure 1). Therefore, several different encrypted peptides can be formed after post-translational proteolytic modification,²⁶ releasing cryptic peptide sequences whose biological activity and potential toxicity are unpredictable and must be experimentally ascertained. As mentioned, the proteolytic release and activation of encrypted peptides (and subsequent post-translational modifications) is a process that operates on a repertoire of long polypeptides with numerous biological functions.^{17,27-29} Additionally, propeptides in certain classes of proteins with unknown biological functions can release sequences after proteolytic processing that have unpredictable effects, including malignant transformation.³⁰ Therefore, crossing transcriptomic with proteomic data is necessary in order to understand the diversity of peptide structures in the field of venomics and is essential to characterizing functional peptidomes.

With regards to the cathelicidin-related antimicrobial peptides, Chen and co-workers³¹ prepared several peptides derived from BF-30 (Bf -CRAMP) and found that a 15-mer oligopeptide (i.e., ¹⁵⁷ VKRFKKFFRKLKKS¹⁷²) retains the minimal helical structure necessary for potent antimicrobial activity. In another study, Zhang and collaborators³² produced short synthetic analog peptides, which correspond to sequences internally embedded in *Ophiophagus hannah* cathelicidin (Oh-CATH, 34 mer), and demonstrated that they display a distinct spectra of antimicrobial activity and hemolysis toward human erythrocytes.

Our study was centered on the C-terminal hypervariable acidic stretches of viperidicins and the first encrypted amphiphatic nonapeptide peptide, KRFKKFFKK. This encrypted viperidicin nonapeptide is practically invariable in all reptilian CRAMPs and appears repeatedly in tandem, with some conserved substitutions (Figure 1). Incubation of zebrafish embryos with increasing concentrations of the Rhodamine B-conjugated viperidicin-derived peptides (RhoB-ACPs and RhoB-EVPs) indicated that both the peptides that contain the amphiphatic nonapeptide KRFKKFFKK in their sequences (i.e., RhoB-ACP11 and RhoB-

ACP1b) and the cationic nonapeptide itself (named RhoB-EVP50) are extremely toxic. The calculated LD50 for these toxic peptides is in the micromolar range of concentration (16 μ M, 13 μ M and 10 μ M, respectively) (Table 1 and Figure S1). One possible explanation for the difference in the values of LD50 for the nonapeptide-containing ACPs in relation to RhoB-EVP50 might be the presence of the anionic piece just upstream of the cationic EVP50. Thus, we focused our attention in the encrypted nonapeptide and investigated the toxicity of naïve-unconjugated EVP50 using the same animal model. Unexpectedly, the amino-terminus of unmodified EVP50 was not toxic to zebrafish even at concentrations as high as 200 μ M (data not shown). Despite this fact and because peptides with covalently linked rhodamine B display improved functionalities,³³ we monitored the distribution of the RhoB-EVP50 into the organs and tissues of zebrafish. With this goal in mind, *Tg(fli1:EGFP)* transgenic zebrafish were exposed to 10 μ M RhoB-EVP50 for 24 h and visualized by fluorescence microscopy. As shown in Figure 2 (A-H), RhoB-EVP50 heavily accumulates in the cardiovascular system (posterior and intersegment vasculature) of zebrafish. After this, the embryo dies. It is interesting to note that RhoB-EVP50 easily penetrates and accumulates not only *in vivo* in the zebrafish organs (blood vessels and heart) but also *in vitro* in rat cardiomyocytes (H9c2 cardiomyoblasts) where intense red fluorescence was observable in both the cytoplasm and nucleus of cells (Figure S2 and Video S1). Notably, free rhodamine B was not taken up and consequently was not distributed in the same tissues as the RhoB-conjugate EVP50. Indeed, it is known that free rhodamine B molecule has low bioavailability and low cell permeability in certain biological systems.³⁴ Consequently, the functionalization of this fluorescent dye is due to the EVP50 carrier sequence. These findings support work by El-Andaloussi and collaborators,³⁵ which show the cargo-dependence³⁵ and the positional effect of cargo coupling on the toxicity of three different cell-penetrating peptides. Moreover, our data indicate that cells of cardiovascular system and tissues may be a target site for RhoB-EVP50 penetration; the cardiovascular system may also contain the preferential organs for peptide accumulation *in vivo* and the means by which zebrafish are poisoned.

In light of the facts that (1) RhoB-EVP50 accumulates *in vivo* in the cardiovascular system of zebrafish and in mammalian cardiomyocytes *in vitro* and that (2) elapid CRAMPs and analogues are cytotoxic against tumor cells,^{5,7} we decided to investigate the specific biological activity and toxicity of RhoB-EVP50 on a selected cancer cell line. Snake venom and spider venom have previously been reported to arrest breast cancer cell growth.³⁶⁻³⁸ In our study, human breast cancer MCF-7 cells were used to test the anti-tumor activity of EVP50. Fluorescent image analysis of MCF-7 incubated with 10 μ M and 40 μ M RhoB-EVP50 for 10 minutes showed that the Rhodamine B-conjugated nonapeptide rapidly internalizes into the cytoplasm and concentrates in the nucleus (and perinuclear region) of cells (Figure 3). Within 60 min of incubation, the induced toxicity led to cell death and severely decreased the number of observable cells. Standard assays of cell viability and membrane integrity showed that RhoB-EVP50 is cytotoxic to MCF-7 in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 4). Together, these properties of fast peptide uptake, intracellular accumulation and membrane disruption impart a toxic capacity to the structurally modified encrypted nonapeptide to efficiently kill tumor cells. Again, naïve-unconjugated EVP50 was inactive and incapable of arresting cancer cells in culture (data not shown). These results imply the necessity for deeper study of the selective and specific toxicity of RhoB-EVP50 and related engineered peptide analogues against certain cancer cells and tissues. For instance, the short synthetic analog peptides produced by Zhang and collaborators,³² which corresponded to sequences internally embedded in *Ophiophagus hannah* cathelicidin (Oh-CATH, 34 mer), displayed a distinct spectra of antimicrobial activity and hemolysis toward human erythrocytes. In the study, they found that the four N-terminal residues contribute to a hemolytic effect but not to the antimicrobial activity, whereas the ten C-terminal residues are necessary for both biological activities. Similarly, substitution of Lys for a Glu residue at position 16 (Cbf-K16) in Bf-cathelicidin improves the activity of the parental peptide against non-small lung cancer cells and antibiotic-resistant clinical isolates of *E. coli*.^{7,39} Most antimicrobial activities exert their effect by a single action or a combination of actions on lipid membranes, such as formation of a pore, physical disruption, and translocation, followed by

subsequent interactions with intracellular targets.^{40,41} Cathelicidins are multifunctional antimicrobial peptides with immunomodulatory, tissue remodeling, angiogenic and anticancer activities. They can disrupt cell membranes and interact with DNA and thus are synergistically effective in killing cells, restraining cell proliferation and recruiting components of acquired immunity.^{8, 42,43} However, despite their interference with lipid membranes, this general molecular mechanism of action is not the case for this class of peptides. Coincidentally, in our present findings, a critical peptide concentration appears to play a role in triggering a cell response.⁴¹ Specifically, low peptide/cell and peptide/membrane ratios may trigger intracellular signal transduction events, whereas excessive amounts of molecules massively intoxicate the cells. The same reasoning can be applied to cationic peptides that display cell-penetrating, antimicrobial and antitumor activity. Membrane interference/disruption and translocation followed by intracellular target interactions may play a role in cell cytotoxicity separately or in combination, depending on the peptide to cell ratio.

^{8,22,44,45} These facts may explain how RhoB-EVP50 exerts its action on cells. Measurements of intracellular calcium release after incubating MCF-7 cells in a micromolar concentration (30 μ M) of peptide demonstrated that RhoB-EVP50 provoked an instantaneous and specific cellular calcium imbalance (increased extracellular calcium influx and intracellular calcium release) and consequent cytoplasm leakage (Figure 5 and Video S2).

Calcium homeostasis has been implicated in cell signaling for cell survival and death and is mediated by the interface between the mitochondria and the endoplasmic reticulum.⁴⁶ It is interesting to note that in some of fluorescent images from our experimental study, membrane

budding was clearly observed (Video S2 and Figure S3). Membrane budding and the formation of extracellular vesicles are associated with a plethora of intercellular messages, including pathological conditions of tumor progression, viral infection, immune responses, and microcystin-induced hepatotoxicity and apoptosis.^{47,48} As seen here, calcium imbalance and

outward blebbing of the cell membrane appear to be the early intracellular events in the cytotoxicity caused by RhoB-EVP50 uptake and cytoplasmic accumulation into the cytoplasm and nucleus of MCF-7 cells. In the present work, we find that the hypervariable acidic moieties of the viperidicin carboxyl-termini have reduced or are devoid of acute toxicity, whereas the lysine-rich encrypted amphiphatic nonapeptide conjugated to rhodamine B (RhoB-EVP50) displays potent toxicity toward zebrafish and tumor cells in culture. In a transgenic zebrafish model, the encrypted nonapeptide is widely distributed and massively accumulates in the zebrafish cardiovascular system, which is lethal to the organism. Additionally, RhoB-EVP50 efficiently penetrates rat ventricular cardiomyoblasts and concentrates in the cytoplasm and nucleus. Human breast cancer (MCF-7) cells are substantially sensitive to the biological effects of the viperidicin-encrypted peptide. In this cancer cell line, RhoB-EVP50 causes observable calcium imbalance, membrane budding, membrane disruption, and cytoplasm leakage. The overall effect of RhoB-EVP50 is the induction of cell death over a short period of time, ranging from seconds to minutes. However, after peptide translocation, whether vesicle budding contributes to the spread of RhoB-EVP50 toxicity to tissue and organs, as observed in zebrafish embryos, remains to be seen. The fact that rhodamine B improves the efficiency of EVP50 in the translocation of dye-peptide conjugate into the cell makes EVP50 an excellent peptide sequence platform for the development of a drug delivery system. Moreover, taking into account the findings reported here, a system of structure-activity modulation has been initiated using covalent linkage of molecules with distinct physicochemical properties to the basic core sequence of the EVP50 nonapeptide.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Peptide sequences and synthesis

The hypervariable C-terminus of the viperidicins, which served as template sequences for synthesis of the encrypted peptides, were from lachesidicin (GenBank accession number AGS36142.1), which shares a high degree of sequence identity with crotalidicin

(99%, AGS36138.1), batroxicidin (85%, AGS36140.1), lutzicidin (84%, AGS36141.1), Bf-CRAMP (65%, B6D434), Oh-CRAMP (65%, B6S2X2.1), and Na-CRAMP (64%, B6S2X0.1).

Batroxicidin was also used for the design and synthesis of an acidic cryptic peptide (Figure 1).

All peptides were synthesized by solid phase chemistry and obtained at a purity grade over 95% and confirmed by the presence of a single peak in analytical reverse-phase HPLC and mass spectrometry analysis (Cellmano Biotech Limited, Hefei, China). The fluorescent dye Rhodamine B was covalently linked to the N-terminal end of the peptide series. Table 1 summarizes the synthetic encrypted viperidicin peptides used in this study.

Zebrafish maintenance

The enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) was specifically expressed in the endothelial

cells of *Tg(fli-1:EGFP)* zebrafish embryos. The zebrafish used in our study were maintained as previously described.⁴⁹ Natural pair-wise mating (3-12 months old) was used to generate zebrafish embryos. The embryos were raised and maintained in embryo medium at 28.5°C. Ethics approval for the animal experiments was granted by the Animal Research Ethics Committee in University of Macau, University of Macau, China.

Acute toxicity of encrypted viperidicin peptides toward zebrafish embryos

Zebrafish embryos at three days post-fertilization (3dpf) were separated into a 24-well plate and exposed to 2-logs concentration of Rhodamine B-conjugated ACPs (RhoB-ACP1b, RhoB-ACP1l, RhoB-ACP18b, RhoB-ACP18l, RhoB-ACP41b and RhoB-ACP41l) and Rhodamine B-conjugated EVPs (RhoB-EVP26 and RhoB-EVP50) for 24 h. The acute toxicity and mortality of zebrafish exposed to the RhoB conjugates were determined by monitoring the absence of a heartbeat, as observed under a light microscope.

Distribution of RhoB-EVP50 in zebrafish and determination of acute toxicity

Zebrafish embryos were exposed to a fixed concentration (10 μ M) of RhoB-EVP50 for 24 hours and mounted on microscope glass slides. The distribution of Rhodamine B-conjugated

EVP50 in zebrafish body and tissues was visualized using an IX81 motorized inverted fluorescent microscope (Olympus Co., Tokyo, Japan).

RhoB-EVP50 cell uptake by tumor cells

Human breast cancer MCF-7 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum and 100 IU⁻¹ penicillin-streptomycin at 37°C ml in a humidified incubator containing 5% CO. Cells were seeded into a 96-well plate at a density of 5×10³ cells per well and incubated overnight. After 24 h of seeding, MCF-7 cells were treated with 10 and 40 μM RhoB-EVP50 for 10 min or 60 min. Then, the cells were stained with Hoechst 33342 to label the nuclear DNA. The sub-cellular distribution of Rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 was detected by an IN CELL Analyzer 2000 system (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Piscataway NJ, USA).

Assessment of cell viability and cytotoxicity

The MCF-7 cells (5×10³ per well) were cultured as above and treated with increasing concentrations (up to 40 μM) of RhoB-EVP50 for 1 h. The level of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) in the medium was measured by using a Cytotoxicity Detection Kit (Roche Diagnostics Co., Indianapolis, USA) according to the protocol from the manufacturer. Cell viability was determined by a standard 3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay.

Measurement of intracellular calcium concentration

The MCF-7 cells were seeded on glass coverslips placed into the bottom of the wells of 12-well plate. Twenty-four hours after seeding, the cells were stained with 3 μM Fluo-3/AM for 30 min at 37°C. The cells were then washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) three times, and the calcium levels in the MCF-7 cells were detected using the Cell[^]R imaging system of an IX81 microscope (Olympus Co., Tokyo, Japan).

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION AVAILABLE

Video S1. A Video showing the penetration and accumulation of rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50 into the heart of zebrafish.

Video S2. A Video showing the change of intracellular calcium levels when MCF-7 cells are treated with rhodamine B-conjugated EVP50.

Figure S1. Accumulation of rhodamine-B conjugated EVP50 into rat cardiomyocytes.

Figure S2. The rhodamine B-conjugated EVP-50 causes membrane budding of MCF-7 cells.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing financial interest

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CAPÍTULO IV

**Perspectiva Biotecnológicas da aplicação das viperidinas e peptídeos
terapêuticos análogos**

Perspectiva Biotecnológicas da aplicação das viperidinas e peptídeos terapêuticos análogos

As viperidinas e peptídeos terapêuticos análogos constituem modelos moleculares interessantes para o desenvolvimento de estratégias biotecnológicas para gerar agentes terapêuticos e / ou ferramentas experimentais para a pesquisa básica e aplicada. De modo geral as proteínas modificadas ou análogos tem intuito de alterar as propriedades das proteínas, tais como: estabilidade, eficácia, especificidade, imunogenicidade e a farmacocinética, visando a melhoria terapêutica (Buckel, 1996).

Os peptídeos terapêuticos podem ser extremamente valiosas nos problemas de infecções hospitalares, devido à sua incrível versatilidade e modos de ação que fornecem um amplo espectro de atividades, funções e exigem baixas concentrações para ser ativo (de Oliveira Junior et al., 2013), podendo ser de interesse farmacologicamente ativo na clínica-médica e conhecimento na área científica. Além disso, existem evidências de que as PAMs sejam menos suscetíveis à resistência bacteriana quando comparada como os antibióticos tradicionais utilizados, assim, podem ser considerados como uma nova alternativa de agentes terapêuticos (Hancock e Partzykat, 2002).

PAMs têm diversos efeitos biológicos, participando no controle de doenças infecciosas e inflamatórias (câncer, doenças de pele como a dermatite atópica e psoríase, doenças intestinais, na patogênese da pneumonia, doença pulmonar obstrutiva crônica, aterosclerose, fibrose cística e doenças neurodegenerativas), possuindo características que tornam estes peptídeos atraentes como ferramentas terapêuticas (Guaní-Guerra et al., 2010).

Portanto, mais estudos devem ser realizados para entendermos mais sobre os mecanismos de ação dos peptídeos antimicrobianos e como atuam nas células do corpo humano, de modo que eles possam ser melhorados para servir como novos medicamentos

para combater infecções de microorganismos resistentes como: bactérias, fungos e parasitas e/ou eliminar células cancerígenas.

Pesquisa mais aprofundada dos componentes estruturais dos peptídeos relacionados viperidinas permitirá avaliar os locais de maior atração do peptídeo e seu alvo na célula. Foi observado que região rica em prolina com hidrofóbica resíduos (Phe e Leu) conferem 30% de taxa de hidrofóbico, o que provavelmente favorece a interação com os fosfolípidos da membrana celular. Análise *in silico* tem fornecido ampla informações sobre as estruturas dos PAMs, sugerindo que os resíduos podem ser importantes para as interações da membrana plasmática bacteriana (Okubo et al.2012).

As variantes de peptídeos sintéticos são alternativas de pesquisa que podem ser obtidas apartir dos peptídeos naturais (Deslouches et al., 2013). Os peptídeos sintéticos podem ser conduzidos para ensaios antibacteriano, antifúngico, anti-*T.cruzi* e anticancerígenos *in vivo* e *in vitro*. Dessa forma, poderá proporcionar melhor atividade antimicrobiana, antiparasitária e anticancerígena, e mantendo sua atividade hemolítica reduzida.

CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

Nesta pesquisa seguiu duas vertentes a primeira foi possível realizar a caracterização do gene alvo molecular TcCyP19 que é regulado positivamente em populações de *T. cruzi* resistentes a BZ e que várias linhas de evidência implicam CyPs como um alvo quimioterápico promissor contra o câncer e doenças parasitárias.

A segunda vertente deste estudo foi avaliação *in vitro* a atividade antiparasitária e a antitumoral, bem como avaliação da citotoxicidade das viperidinas e seus derivados, visando o uso biotecnológico desses peptídeos. Os ensaios de atividade anti-*T. cruzi in vitro* de formas epimastigotas foi observado que a Viperidina (crotalidina) teve efeito citotóxico dose-dependente contra epimastigotas de *T. cruzi*. Na avaliação a ação anticancerígena o oligopeptídeo (EVP50) conjugado com rodamina B (RhoB) exibiu uma potente toxicidade letal para peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio*). *In vitro*, a RhoB conjugado EVP50 exibiu um efeito antitumoral dependente da concentração, em relação às células MCF-7 de câncer da mama, demonstrando que EVP50 surge como uma plataforma de sequência de peptídeos alternativos para aplicação no desenvolvimento de nanobiomateriais.

Este estudo vem contribuir para o entendimento do alvo molecular (Ciclofilina-A) que tem a capacidade de interagir com peptídeo viperidina e tem atuação potencial dessa classe de peptídeos em biotecnologia médica contra *T. cruzi* e atividade anticancerígena, quando o peptídeo é conjugado. Nesse contexto, essa pesquisa representa um ponto de partida para uma investigação mais aprofundada sobre a função de TcCyPs e no mecanismo de resistência aos medicamentos e como um possível alvo para Quimioterapia para doença de chagas. Além disso, as viperidinas mostram indicações de serem interessantes alvos de pesquisa contra a doença de Chagas e com a possibilidade de se desenhar novos peptídeos sintéticos terapêuticos eficazes a partir de peptídeos naturais.

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ANEXO A

Normas para publicação do periódico *Experimental Parasitology*



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INTRODUCTION

Experimental Parasitology emphasizes modern approaches to parasitology, including molecular biology and immunology. The journal features original research papers on the physiological, metabolic, immunologic, biochemical, nutritional, and chemotherapeutic aspects of parasites and host-parasite relationships.

Authors of studies on anti-microbial properties of natural substances are strongly encouraged to submit their work to other, more appropriate journals unless the studies have a strong focus on anti-parasitic activity and address the following points: the chemical characterization of the compounds likely implicated to a reasonable degree controls for the effects of vehicles and solvents if an animal model is not investigated or not available, in vitro activity studies that include at least comparative cytotoxicity data using host cells or tissues to show selective anti-parasitic activity at a level that could indicate a realistic prospect for translation some investigation into the potential mode of action or effects on likely molecular targets in parasites

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ANEXO B

Normas para publicação do periódico Bioconjugate Chemistry



*Bioconjugate
Chemistry*

Bioconjugate Chemistry Guidelines for Authors

(Revised May 2014)

Contents (Click on the topic)

Manuscript Classes – Peer Review – Manuscript Submission – Electronic Cover Letter – Journal Publishing Agreement – Manuscript Preparation

Manuscript Organization – Title – Abstract – Introduction – Experimental Procedures – Results and Discussion – Acknowledgments – Conflict of Interest – Professional Ethics – Author List – Web Enhanced Objects – Supporting Information – Abbreviations – References and Footnotes – Tables – Schemes and Charts – Figures – Color – Table of Contents Graphic – Nomenclature – Structural Data – Revised Manuscripts – Proofs – *Just Accepted* Manuscripts – ASAP Publication – E-prints and Reprints – Author Choice – Corrections – Policy on Prior Publication

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fonts, particularly those that do not come bundled with the system software, may not translate properly.

Ensure that all special characters (e.g., Greek characters, math symbols, etc.) are present in the body of the text as characters and not as graphic representations. Tables may be created using a word processor's text mode or table format feature. The table format feature is preferred. If the text mode is used, please separate columns with a single tab and use a return (line feed) at the end of each row.

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Title

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corresponding author's current telephone and fax numbers should also be included. It is implicit in listing a person as an author that this individual has agreed to appear as an author of the manuscript.

Abstract

The abstract should briefly present the problem and experimental approach and state the major findings and conclusions. It should be self-explanatory and suitable for reproduction without rewriting. *Footnotes or undefined abbreviations may not be used in the abstract.* Generally, the abstract will be formatted as one paragraph without any subheads or other divisions.

Introduction

The introduction should state the purpose of the investigation and its relation to other work in the field. Background material should be brief and relevant to the research described. Lengthy reviews of the literature should be avoided.

Results and Discussion

Normal formatting of the manuscript will have a combined Results and Discussion section, however authors may provide these as separate sections. The results should be presented concisely. In the interest of economy of space in the article, it is often desirable to place

supplementary data (also subject to review) in a separate document for publication as Supporting Information on the Web. Recent issues of the journal should be consulted for current practices.

Tables and figures should be designed to make it easy for the reader to understand the experimental data. The same data should not be presented in more than one figure or in both a figure and a table in the manuscript. In some cases it is appropriate to validate the significance of processed data (e.g., a graph), by including the underlying raw data (e.g., a gel or biodistribution) as Supporting Information.

Experimental Procedures

The experimental procedures should be described in sufficient detail to enable others to repeat the experiments. Names of products and manufacturers should be included only if they are not widely known or if alternate sources are deemed unsatisfactory. Novel experimental procedures should be described in detail. Care should be taken to describe any differences between published methods and methods actually used. Published procedures should be referred to by literature citation of both the original and any published modifications, unless the information is so fragmented that the reader would benefit from a unified presentation. Precautions for handling dangerous materials or for performing hazardous procedures must be stated or referenced.

Characterization of New Compounds and Bioconjugates. ACS journals require a high standard of chemical characterization, to confirm the identity and purity of the compounds under study.

Papers that explore conjugation conditions for multifunctional molecules, e.g., amino groups on proteins, should include analytical studies to identify the *sequence positions* of the residues affected. For medium-sized or larger peptides, evidence for homogeneity by separation methods of adequate resolving power and by amino acid analysis is normally required. For small organic molecules, the conventional practices of organic chemistry apply, including nuclear magnetic resonance data (for recommended practices see NMR guidelines available in the Author & Reviewer Resource Center (<http://pubs.acs.org/page/4authors/tools/index.html>) and elemental

analyses and/or high resolution mass spectrometry of all new small molecules if practical.

The numerical results for all elemental analyses should be included in Supporting Information.

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Acknowledgments

This section should acknowledge financial support, technical assistance, advice from colleagues, gifts, etc. Sources of funding of the research should be stated. Permission should be sought from persons whose contribution to the work is acknowledged in the manuscript.

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Material that is not needed for reading the paper but is needed to document the experiments or methodology should be put into a Supporting Information file. Such Supporting Information is published on the Web as a separate document. Authors are encouraged to use this resource in the interest of shorter articles, which not only save journal space but also result in clearer and more readable presentations. However, "dumping" of materials to this section is to be discouraged, and the editors reserve the right to make downward adjustments in the amounts of such material presented.

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Tabulation of experimental results is encouraged when this leads to more effective presentation. Tables should be numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. Provide a brief title with each table and a brief heading for each column. Clearly indicate the units of measure (preferably SI). Data should be rounded to the nearest significant figure. Footnotes in tables should be given lowercase letter designations and cited in the tables as italicized superscripts. Explanatory material referring to the whole table is to be included as a footnote to the title. All tables must be cited in the text.

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Chemical syntheses and some processes may be represented as schemes. These often do not have captions or legends. Charts are used to illustrate chemical structures rather than syntheses. All schemes and charts must be cited in the text.

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Figures cannot be modified or enhanced by the journal production staff. Graphics should have

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Color art (RGB color mode) 300 dpi

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Illustrations must fit a one- or two-column format on the journal page. For efficient use of journal space, single column illustrations are preferred.

	single (preferred)	double
minimum width		300 pts (10.58 cm; 4.167 in.)
maximum width	240 pts (8.45 cm; 3.33 in.)	504 pts (17.78 cm; 7 in.)
maximum depth (including caption – allow 12 pts for each line of text)	660 pts (23.28 cm; 9.167 in.)	660 pts (23.28 cm; 9.167 in.)

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(1) As drawing settings select:

chain angle	120°
bond spacing	18% of width
fixed length	14.4 pt (0.508 cm, 0.2 in.)
bold width	2.0 pt (0.071 cm, 0.0278 in.)
line width	0.6 pt (0.021 cm, 0.0084 in.)
margin width	1.6 pt (0.056 cm, 0.0222 in.)
hash spacing	2.5 pt (0.088 cm, 0.0347 in.)

(2) As text settings select:

font	Arial/Helvetica
size	10 pt

(3) Under the preferences choose:

units	points
tolerances	5 pixels

(4) Under page setup choose:

Paper	US Letter
Scale	100%

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Nomenclature

The complexity of typical macromolecular bioconjugates has so far defeated efforts to systematize their nomenclature. It is customary to name products by referring to starting materials; thus, antibody–drug conjugates are named according to the individual molecules involved. It is important that complicated or unwieldy names be avoided. Informative schemes, charts, or figures depicting the subject molecules, which can be referred to by number, are essential.

For the individual molecules assembled to form bioconjugates, it is the responsibility of the authors to provide correct nomenclature. All nomenclature must be consistent and unambiguous, and should conform to current American usage. Insofar as possible, authors should use systematic names such as those used by Chemical Abstracts Service, the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (<http://www.chem.qmul.ac.uk/iupac/>), and the International Union of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology (<http://www.chem.qmul.ac.uk/iubmb/>). *Chemical Abstracts* nomenclature rules are described in Appendix IV of the *Chemical Abstracts Index Guide*. A name generation service is available for a fee through CAS Client Services, 2540

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Structural Data

Atomic coordinates for structures of proteins determined by X-ray and all macromolecules

determined by NMR should be deposited with the Protein Data Bank (PDB; <http://www.rcsb.org/pdb/>). It is the responsibility of the author to obtain a File Name for the macromolecule; the File Name must appear in a footnote on the title page. A manuscript will be accepted only after receipt from the corresponding author of a written statement that the coordinates have been deposited. The PDB File Name must be provided before the paper can be published, and coordinates must be released immediately upon publication. Please address all inquiries about deposition to the Protein Data Bank. Crystal structures of nucleic acids should be deposited with the Nucleic Acid Database (NDB; <http://ndbserver.rutgers.edu/>).

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Each revised manuscript should be submitted in final form, without edit marks, highlighting, or colored text, so that it may be transmitted directly for processing if appropriate. Careful attention should be paid to reference format and accuracy. In addition, a marked-up file showing all changes should be submitted as supporting information not for publication. Following this instruction will avoid delays in processing.

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is the **official date of publication** and appears on both the HTML and PDF versions of a paper.

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Ms. No.: EP-14-114R2

Title: Molecular characterization of Cyclophilin (TcCyP19) in Trypanosoma cruzi populations susceptible and resistant to benznidazole

Corresponding Author: Dr. Silvane Maria Fonseca Murta

Authors: Juciane V Rego, M.Sc.; Ana Paula Duarte, Ph.D.; Daniel B Liarte, Ph.D.; Francirlene C Sousa, Master student; Humberto M Barreto, Master student; Jacqueline Búa, Ph.D.; Alvaro J Romanha, Ph.D.; Gandhi Rádis-Baptista, Ph.D.;

Dear Dr. Murta,

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Many thanks for submitting your paper to Experimental Parasitology.

Sincerely,

Bernd Kalinna
Editor-in-Chief
Experimental Parasitology

ANEXO D**Comprovante de Submissão do periódico "Bioconjugate Chemistry"**

16-Oct-2014

Dear Prof. Dr. RÁDIS-BAPTISTA:

Your manuscript has been successfully submitted to Bioconjugate Chemistry.
Title: "Rhodamine B-conjugated encrypted viperidicin nonapeptide is a potent toxin to zebrafish and associated with cytotoxicity towards human breast cancer cells"

Authors: Wang, Liang; Chan, Judy; Rêgo, Juciane; Chong, Tony; Ai, Nana; Falcao, Claudio; Lee, Simon M.Y.; RÁDIS-BAPTISTA, GANDHI

Manuscript ID: bc-[2014-004789](#).

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Thank you for submitting your manuscript to Bioconjugate Chemistry.

Sincerely,

Bioconjugate Chemistry Editorial Office

ANEXO E

Análise *in silico* de interação das viperidinas e alvos moleculares

Análise *in silico* foi realizada identificando alvos gênicos da base de dados DrugBank que se interagem com as viperidinas. Essa análise revelou que entre os 6 peptídeos (viperidinas) testados (Tabela), dois GA645-crotalidina e GA650- lutzidina se interagem com 24 alvos moleculares que tiveram melhores hits. Desses alvos moleculares identificamos uma ciclofilina que se interage com o peptídeo GA650. Segue abaixo a tabela e as listas de alvos moleculares obtidos pela análise *in silico* das viperidinas GA650-lutzidina e GA645-crotalidina , respeticvamente.

Tabela Anexo E. Peptídeos Viperidinas utilizadas na análise *in silico*

Peptideo	Sequencias
GA645-Crotalididin (Ctn)	KRFKKFFKKVKKSVKKRLKKIFKKPMMVIGVTIPF
GA646-Ctn fragment A*	KRFKKFFKKVKKSV
GA645-Ctn fragment B*	KKRLKKIFKKPMMVIGVTIPF
GA648	KKRLKKIFKKPIFKKV
GA649	KKSV
GA50-lutzididin	KRFKKFFKKLKNNVKKRVKKFFRKPRVIGVTIPF

* Peptides derived from crotalididin (Ctn)

Lista 1: Relação de Alvos gênicos que se interage com Peptídeo GA650- Iutzicidina *in silico* utilizando a base de dados DrugBank

Reference: Altschul, Stephen F., Thomas L. Madden, Alejandro A. Schaffer, Jinghui Zhang, Zheng Zhang, Webb Miller, and David J. Lipman (1997), "Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs", *Nucleic Acids Res.* 25:3389-3402.

Query= GA650
(34 letters)

Database: C:\BioEdit\database\all_target.fasta
3789 sequences; 1,829,073 total letters

Sequences producing significant alignments:		Score (bits)	E value
drugbank_target	3803 sodium channel protein type 3 subunit alpha...	24	2.2
drugbank_target	6331 Probable ribosome biogenesis protein RLP24 ...	21	25
drugbank_target	6300 Poly [ADP-ribose] polymerase 2 (DB07232)	21	25
drugbank_target	256 Tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase, cytoplasmic (DB0013...	21	25
drugbank_target	4382 Sulfotransferase family cytosolic 1B member...	20	32
drugbank_target	2950 Inositol-trisphosphate 3-kinase A (DB01863;...	20	32
drugbank_target	21 Beta-adrenergic receptor kinase 2 (DB00171)	20	32
drugbank_target	340 Apoptotic protease-activating factor 1 (DB00...	20	42
drugbank_target	94 5-hydroxytryptamine 4 receptor (DB00604; DB00...	20	42
drugbank_target	4086 Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase (DB00...	20	55
drugbank_target	1939 Heat shock protein HSP 90-alpha (DB00615; D...	20	55
drugbank_target	771 Pyruvate carboxylase, mitochondrial (DB00119...	20	55
drugbank_target	6544 STE20-like serine/threonine-protein kinase ...	19	72
drugbank_target	6243 Nuclear receptor-interacting protein 1 (DB0...	19	72
drugbank_target	5239 Exopolyphosphatase (DB03382)	19	72
drugbank_target	4343 Alpha-glucosidase (DB01769; DB01907; DB03323)	19	72
drugbank_target	1716 Tripartite motif-containing protein 13 (DB0...	19	72
drugbank_target	288 Trifunctional enzyme subunit alpha, mitochon...	19	72
drugbank_target	6552 Poly [ADP-ribose] polymerase 3 (DB07677; DB...	19	94
drugbank_target	4467 Alpha-glucosidase, putative (DB01907)	19	94
drugbank_target	4116 Dihydropterolate synthetase (DB00359; DB0066...	19	94
drugbank_target	3950 Cell division protein kinase 9 (DB03496)	19	94
drugbank_target	3273 SpoOB-associated GTP-binding protein (DB04022)	19	94
drugbank_target	222 DNA ligase 1 (DB00290)	19	94

Lista 2: Relação de Alvos gênicos que se interage com Peptídeo GA645-crotalícidina *in silico* utilizando a base de dados DrugBank

Reference: Altschul, Stephen F., Thomas L. Madden, Alejandro A. Schaffer, Jinghui Zhang, Zheng Zhang, Webb Miller, and David J. Lipman (1997), "Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs", *Nucleic Acids Res.* 25:3389-3402.

Query= GA645
(34 letters)

Database: C:\BioEdit\database\all_target.fasta
3789 sequences; 1,829,073 total letters

Sequences producing significant alignments:		Score (bits)	E Value
drugbank_target 288	Trifunctional enzyme subunit alpha, mitochon...	23	5.0
drugbank_target 256	Tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase, cytoplasmic (DB0013...	22	8.5
drugbank_target 2399	Uricase (DB01875)	21	19
drugbank_target 662	Fatty aldehyde dehydrogenase (DB00157)	21	25
drugbank_target 2322	Genome polyprotein (DB01693; DB01752)	20	32
drugbank_target 1757	Myeloperoxidase (DB00244; DB00535; DB00583;...	20	32
drugbank_target 6069	Penicillin-binding protein 2 (DB00303; DB00...	20	42
drugbank_target 6832	Serine/threonine-protein kinase SRPK2 (DB00...	20	55
drugbank_target 774	CysteinyI-tRNA synthetase, cytoplasmic (DB00...	20	55
drugbank_target 3	Histidine decarboxylase (DB00114; DB00117)	20	55
drugbank_target 6371	Beta-hexosaminidase (DB07432; DB08704)	19	72
drugbank_target 4539	Catalase (DB01942; DB03014)	19	72
drugbank_target 220	Sodium channel protein type 5 subunit alpha ...	19	72
drugbank_target 215	Sodium channel protein type 11 subunit alpha...	19	72
drugbank_target 198	Sodium channel protein type 10 subunit alpha...	19	72
drugbank_target 6063	Major histocompatibility complex class I-re...	19	94
drugbank_target 5239	Exopolyphosphatase (DB03382)	19	94
drugbank_target 408	Riboflavin kinase (DB00140; DB03247; DB03431)	19	94
drugbank_target 328	Sorbitol dehydrogenase (DB00157; DB01907; DB...	19	94
drugbank_target 222	DNA ligase 1 (DB00290)	19	94
drugbank_target 94	5-hydroxytryptamine 4 receptor (DB00604; DB00...	19	94
drugbank_target 70	Type-1 angiotensin II receptor (DB00177; DB00...	19	94