

Selecting key toxins for focused development of elapid snake antivenoms and inhibitors guided by a Toxicity Score

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1	Letter to the Editor					
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4	Selecting key toxins for focused development of elapid snake antivenoms					
5	and inhibitors guided by a Toxicity Score					
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34 For more than 100 years, antivenoms have been produced by traditional methods of immunization of 35 large mammals with mixtures of snake venoms (WHO, 2010; Gutiérrez et al., 2011). With the 36 introduction of proteomic and transcriptomic tools in the molecular analysis of both venoms 37 (venomics) (Calvete, 2014) and antivenoms (antivenomics) (Calvete, 2011, Calvete et al., 2014), in 38 combination with the toxicological assessment of venoms, a more in-depth understanding of venom 39 composition and antivenom efficacy is being built. As retrieved from current public databases on 40 Elapidae, values for Median Lethal Dose (LD₅₀) are known for 203 toxins, belonging to seven protein 41 sub-families, originating from 40 species (Fig. 1). Furthermore, the number of elapids for which 42 venom-wide proteomics or transcriptomics studies have been reported has now reached 49 out of 43 355 described species (our unpublished data; http://www.reptile-database.org). Information is now 44 available for a considerable number of species of high medical relevance.

45 Taken together, these insights, and new information being published, may provide the 46 grounds for a knowledge-based design of future antivenoms, based on the identification of the 47 toxicologically most relevant toxins in venoms. Scientific efforts have so far mainly been centered 48 around molecular targeting of relevant snake toxins by using synthetic inhibitors (de Oliveira et al., 49 2003, Howes et al., 2007), nanobodies (Richard et al., 2013), or antibody fragments (Kulkeaw et al., 50 2009, Tamarozzi et al., 2006). However, a limitation for introducing novel antitoxins or inhibitors is 51 that they usually only target one or few individual toxins, and not the whole venom, which typically 52 contains many toxins belonging to various protein families (Calvete, 2011). For many snake venoms, 53 this challenge could be overcome if a complete overview of the effect of each toxin in the venom 54 were at hand; this would allow a distinction between toxins that are essential to neutralize in 55 envenoming cases, and toxins/proteins that are not pathophysiologically important. This could in the 56 future enable researchers to develop antitoxins against the medically relevant toxins and use 57 mixtures of these antitoxins as a replacement, or reinforcement, of antivenoms (Roncolato et al., 58 2013), potentially providing better efficacy and safety, and lower cost of treatment. We argue that 59 despite the wealth of efforts within characterization of snake venoms, a lack of a systematic approach 60 for evaluating the importance of individual toxins within whole venom still exists. Furthermore, no 61 simple tool has been presented for evaluating whether a given toxin in a snake venom is of sufficient 62 medical relevance to justify an antitoxin discovery program against it. Without such a tool, modern antivenom research based on molecular biology, medicinal chemistry, and biotechnology risks
becoming unfocused in the jungle of snake venom and antivenom data.

65 Primarily two properties of toxins are relevant when evaluating their potential medical 66 impact: 1) Intrinsic toxicity, and 2) abundance in venom. A systematic method for evaluating the 67 relevance for acute toxicity, i.e. lethality, of each toxin in whole venom, taking both toxicity and 68 abundance into account, was recently presented (Laustsen et al., 2015a). This method is based on a 69 Toxicity Score, which is calculated for either a toxin or whole venom itself by dividing the relative 70 toxin abundance in the venom (in percentage) by the $\ensuremath{\text{LD}_{50}}$ value for the toxin in mice. If the 71 confidence intervals are known for both the abundance and LD₅₀, a confidence interval for the 72 Toxicity Score can be easily calculated. This parameter was initially proposed for ranking the medical 73 importance of toxins in the venom of the black mamba, Dendroaspis polylepis (Lautstsen et al., 74 2015a). Further studies on Naja kaouthia and Aipysurus laevis venoms strongly suggest that Toxicity 75 Score is likely to be a better parameter to determine the medical relevance of a toxin than LD_{50} 76 estimation alone, and may be used for assessing the relative importance of toxins in whole venom 77 (Laustsen et al., 2015b, Laustsen et al., 2015c). The Toxicity Score can be used to quickly assess 78 whether, for example, a toxin of high abundance and moderate toxicity is of higher importance than a 79 very potent toxin of low abundance. This approach provides an easy, systematic method for 80 identifying the key toxins that antivenom development should focus on. Table 1 presents an example 81 of estimation of the Toxicity Score.

82 When the Toxicity Score is used to select the relevant toxins, which should be neutralized by 83 an antivenom or an inhibitor, a decision has to be made to define a threshold value for relevance. For 84 snakes that are able to inject large amounts of venom into their prey or predators, even toxins with a 85 low Toxicity Score may become important. Therefore, the minimum cut-off value for the Toxicity 86 Score has to be analyzed on a case-by-case basis and has to take into account the total amount of 87 venom that the specific snake is able to inject in a bite. Table 2 illustrates an example on how to 88 determine the relevant toxins in a venom on the basis of a cut-off value for the Toxicity Score of 5. 89 Using reported venom yields from milking of snakes (e.g. the values reported on 90 http://snakedatabase.org/pages/LD50.php) provides a basis for the worst-case upper limit of venom 91 that may be injected in a bite from different snake species. For example, from our previous work on

92 the venom of *Naja kaouthia* (Laustsen et al., 2015b), reported in this database to deliver up to 742 mg 93 of venom, a cut-off value of the Toxicity Score of 5 would select a group of 5 neurotoxins of the three-94 finger toxin family and one PLA₂ among a total of 28 fractions as the most relevant targets to 95 neutralize. Fractions with a Toxicity Score below this value would have less than 37 LD₅₀s for an 96 envenoming with the maximum yield of 742 mg, and are thus likely not to play a significant role in 97 overall venom toxicity.

98 The issue of potential synergism between venom components has to be taken into 99 consideration when selecting key toxins to focus antivenom development efforts on. Using the 100 Toxicity Score allows for the identification of venoms where toxins display synergistic effects. As 101 shown in the cases of D. polylepis (Laustsen et al., 2015a) and A. laevis (Laustsen et al., 2015c) 102 venoms, the Toxicity Score of the whole venom is higher than the sum of Toxicity Scores of individual 103 toxins, thus indicating the presence of synergism. In these cases it is relevant to further investigate 104 the synergistic effects by assessing the toxicities of pairs of toxins in order to identify proteins of low 105 Toxicity Score, but which exert synergistic effects. An example of such an approach is given by 106 Strydom (1976) for toxins from D. polylepis venom. Despite their low intrinsic toxicity, synergistically 107 acting toxins would also be good candidates to include in an antivenom development program.

108 The Toxicity Score can be readily applied to the study of elapid snake venoms because: (a) 109 the main toxic activity of these venoms is neuromuscular paralysis leading to respiratory arrest and 110 death, thus making the assessment of lethality a clinically-relevant parameter; (b) the solvents used in 111 many separation methods (such as the commonly used reverse-phase HPLC) do not generally 112 denature the most relevant elapid venom toxins, such as three-finger toxins, dendrotoxins, and 113 phospholipases A_2 (PLA₂) (Fry et al., 2015); and (c) the mouse model used in the determination of LD₅₀ 114 is generally relevant to the human situation, as the physiological mechanisms involved in 115 neuromuscular transmission in mice and humans are similar.

The use of this parameter in viperid snake venoms might be more complicated, for the following reasons: (a) Although lethality is the most serious complication of viperid envenomings, other aspects also have high medical relevance, such as local tissue damage, i.e. necrosis and hemorrhage, and systemic effects such as coagulopathy and systemic hemorrhage (Warrell, 2010). (b) The solvents used in reverse phase-HPLC, especially acetonitrile, denature relevant toxins in viperid 121 venoms, particularly zinc-dependent metalloproteinases (SVMPs), thus affecting their toxicity. It is 122 likely, nevertheless, that these two hurdles might be overcome in the future, with the development of 123 non-denaturing separation methods of high resolution. At present, using the Toxicity Score is 124 therefore only feasible for focusing development efforts on elapid antivenoms, where the toxins do 125 not loose activity in the purification process. An exception is the case of some Australian elapid 126 venoms containing potent procoagulant serine proteinases playing a significant role in toxicity (Kini, 127 2005), which could be affected by chromatographic solvents; however, the key toxins in the vast 128 majority of elapid venoms can withstand solvents used in reverse-phase HPLC.

The Toxicity Score has been employed for directing drug discovery efforts against α cobratoxin, which was shown to have the highest relevance in *Naja kaouthia* venom (Laustsen et al., 2015b), using phage display screening (Laustsen et al., 2015d). In this example, the Toxicity Score predicts that blocking the action of α -cobratoxin will abrogate the overall toxicity of the venom. In conclusion, when working with elapid venoms, using the Toxicity Score may thus provide a clearer path for determining the medical importance of different toxins in whole venom for the development of toxin inhibitors and the improvement of antivenoms.

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Table 1: Example of how Toxicity Scores are calculated for three toxins and whole venom.

		Abundance (%)	LD ₅₀ (mg/kg)	Toxicity Score*
	Toxin 1	10	0.1	100
	Toxin 2	20	2	10
	Toxin 3	50	1	50
	Whole venom	100	0.25	400
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195	* Toxicity Score = $\frac{Abur}{Abur}$	ndance (%) LD ₅₀		
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Table 2: Example of how Toxicity Scores may help distinguish between medically relevant and non-

216 relevant toxins/proteins, when selecting targets for focused antivenom development.

	Abundance (%)	LD ₅₀ (mg/kg)	Toxicity Score	Medically relevant
Whole venom	100	0.25	400	
Toxin A	10	0.05	200	Yes
Toxin B	20	0.2	100	Yes
Toxin C	50	1	50	Yes
Toxin D	10	10	1	No
Toxin E	10	10	1	No

235 Figure legend

- 236 Figure 1: Overview of numbers of elapid snake venom toxins for which toxicity, as judged by
- estimation of Median Lethal Dose (LD₅₀), has been assessed. Snake genera are highlighted in A by

color codes.

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