ALTERAÇÕES MORFOLÓGICAS INDUZIDAS PELO VENENO DA SERPENTE Philodryas nattereri steindachner EM RATOS

(Morphological changes induced by the snake venom from Philodryas nattereri Steindachner in rats)

Fred Ribeiro SANTIAGO1; Roberta da Rocha BRAGA2; Juliana Menezes de SOUZA1; João Alison de Moraes SILVEIRA3; Diva Maria Borges NOJOSA2; Janaina Serra Azul Monteiro EVANGELISTA*

1Pós-Graduação em Ciências Veterinárias (PPGCV), Universidade Estadual do Ceará, Campus do Itaperi, Fortaleza, Ce, Av. Dr. Silas Munguba, 1700. CEP: 60,740 - 000. 2Dpto de Biologia – Núcleo Regional de Ofiologia, Universidade Federal do Ceará (UFC). 3Dpto de Fisiologia e Farmacologia - UFC. *E-mail: janainaserrazul@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Philodryas nattereri snake is commonly distributed in arid and semiarid regions of northeast of Brazil. There is a shortage in the literature on the systemic effects of this venom in animals and humans. After 2h of intraperitoneally injection with different doses in rats, hemorrhagic zones in skin and the abdominal muscles were observed as well as presence of abundant erythrocytes in alveolar spaces and pulmonary congestion, hypereosinophilic cytoplasm in cells of cardiac muscle. Kidney and liver showed Histopathological changes. The snake venom of Philodryas nattereri was capable of causing bleedind in different organs and morphological changes after poisoning.

Keywords: bleeding, opisthoglyphous, Dipsadidae

RESUMO

A serpente Philodryas nattereri é comumente distribuída em regiões áridas e semiáridas do nordeste do Brasil. Há escassez na literatura sobre os efeitos sistêmicos deste veneno em animais domésticos e humanos. Após 2h de injeção intraperitoneal com doses diferentes em ratos, foram observadas zonas hemorrágicas na pele e nos músculos abdominais, bem como a presença de eritrócitos abundantes em espaços alveolares, congestão pulmonar e citoplasma hipereosinofílico em células do músculo estriado cardíaco. O rim e o fígado apresentaram alterações histopatológicas. O veneno da serpente Philodryas nattereri foi capaz de causar sangramento em diferentes órgãos e mudanças morfológicas após o envenenamento.

Palavras-chave: Sangramento, opistóglifa, Dipsadidae.

*Endereço para correspondência: janainaserrazul@gmail.com
INTRODUCTION

In Brazil, approximately 26,244 snakebites were reported only in the year of 2016, including venomous and non-venomous snakes (SINAN, 2017). About 20 to 40% of ophidian accidents in Brazil are caused by colubrid snakes. The Colubridae family includes opisthoglyphous and aglyphous snakes (WEINSTEIN et al., 2013). Opisthoglyphous snakes are capable of causing accidents in animals and humans. These snakes possess a Duvernoy gland, responsible for the production of toxic secretion or poison (HESS and BAPTISTÃO, 2012).

*Philodryas nattereri* Steindachner, 1870 is commonly called “brown racer,” reaching up to 180 mm in total length and it exhibits opistoglyph dentition. *P. nattereri* is distributed in arid and semiarid regions of Brazil and also in other countries of South America (NERY et al., 2014).

There are no reports in the literature on the effects of venom of this species on humans. Factors such as the low amount of venom produced by the great majority of opisthoglyphous snakes and the inefficiency of extraction methods represent some of the difficulties of researches in this area (HESS and BAPTISTÃO, 2012).

The objectives of this work were to evaluate morphological changes induced after the inoculation of venom of *P. nattereri* snake in rats and to verify the histopathological changes in several organs after administration of venom in different doses.

METHODOLOGY

To the experiments, we had used adult male Wistar rats that were supplied by central animal house, State University of Ceará – Brazil. The rats weighed between 200-250g. Five rats per group were used. Before each experiment, the animals were maintained fasting for 8h, but with free water. All experiments followed the ethical standards for animal experiments in toxicological research recommended by the international society of toxicology and approved by Ethical Committee (number: 1571522/2016) from Ceará State University (UECE). Adult snakes of both sexes of *P. nattereri* species were used to extract the venom. Each animal remained in individual enclosure at the serpentarium of the Regional Centre of Ophiology (NUROF) – Federal University of Ceará, Brazil. To perform the extraction, the snakes were contained manually and the venom were collected directly from opisthoglyphous fangs with capillary tubes. Pooled venom was obtained after several extractions. Venom was lyophilized and when required, was dissolved in phosphate buffered saline solution (PBS), pH 7.4.

To the experiments, the rats were divided in 4 groups of 5 animals each. The rats were previously anesthetized by ketamine (75mg/Kg, I.M.) and xylazine (10mg/Kg, I.M.) according to Brazilian regulations and the injection was applied in the right caudal gracilis muscle. After anesthesia, the venom was applied intraperitoneally in the lower quadrant of the left abdomen. Five animals of each group received doses of 0.50, 0.70 and 0.9 mg dissolved in 0.3mL of PBS. The control group received 0.3 mL of PBS only. After 2h of venom injection, rats were euthanized by thiopental overdose, decapitated and a tricotomy was realized in the abdominal region. To assess the intensity of the hemorrhagic action of the
poison, it was traced lines that divided the abdomen of the animal in 4 quadrants: 2 upper quadrants (right and left) and 2 lower quadrants (right and left). We classified the hemorrhagic effects as: 1 - absent - no hemorrhagic area evidenced; 2- slight intensity - when hemorrhage was restricted to the lower left quadrant, site of venom inoculation; 3 - moderate intensity - when the hemorrhagic area was restricted to 2 quadrants and 4 - great intensity - when the hemorrhagic area exceeded 2 quadrants of the abdomen of the animal. After dissection, samples of heart, lung, kidney and liver were taken and fixed with 10% buffered formaldehyde solution for 24-48h. The tissue samples were dehydrated in several alcohol solutions, diaphanyzed in xylol and embedded in histological paraffin. Sections of 5µm were cut in a microtome and stained by hematoxylin and eosin (H.E.). A polarized trinocular microscope with fluorescence (NIKON Eclipse Ni, Japan; Software Nis 4.0) was used for histological analysis and characterization.

Protein concentration was assayed in triplicate according to Bradford (1976). For the sample, 2 mg of the P. nattereri snake venom was used.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The value of total protein from the venom was 719,0±121 µg/mg. Nery et al. (2014) verified a total protein from the venom of P. nattereri of 863,9 µg/mg. Zelanis et al. (2010) showed that the protein content was similar among the venoms: Philodryas olfersii (923±113 µg/mg), Philodryas patagoniensis (814±12 µg/mg) and Philodryas nattereri (847±91 µg/mg).

Hemorrhagic zones in skin and in abdominal muscles were observed after 2h of intraperitoneally injection with different doses of P. nattereri venom in rats. It was observed extensive hemorrhagic zones in the peritoneum and abdominal region of all animals that received 0,9 mg. There were classified as being of great intensity (Fig. 1: G-H). No animal of the control group demonstrated evidence of hemorrhage. Were classified as being absent (Fig. 1: A-B). However, the groups of animals that received 0.5 mg and 0.7 mg of venom showed small hemorrhagic zones at the injection site (lower left quadrant) were classified as having mild intensity (Fig. 1: C-D-E-F).

Urra *et al.* (2015) verified hemorrhagic zones in the peritoneum of mice after 1,5h after of an intraperitoneal injection of *Philodryas chamissonis* venom. Vasconcelos *et al.* (2017) observed the formation of hemorrhage in the skin of three groups of mice that were inoculated by venom of P. nattereri, being more evident in the group that received subcutaneous route at the concentration of 40 µg / mL.

Microscopic examination of lungs sections showed the prominent hemorrhage in the pulmonary tissue with presence of abundant erythrocytes in alveolar spaces and also congestion on pulmonary parenchyma (Fig. 2: asterisk). After administration of three different doses, liver sections showed congestion of blood vessels and sinusoidal dilatation (Fig. 2: arrows), and clear spaces in centrilobular region (Fig. 2). Kidney sections showed congestion blood in vessels of cortex zone (Fig. 2). Nery *et al.* (2014) observed significant increase of pressure perfusion and renal vascular resistance at 60 and 90 min after injecting dose of 1 mg/ml of P. nattereri venom.
Figure 1: Macroscopic images after 2h of intraperitoneal inoculation (arrows) of three different doses of Philodryas nattereri snake venom.

A-B: Control group. Received 0.3 mL of PBS. No evidence hemorrhage. C-D: 0.5 mg and E-F: 0.7 mg of venom dissolved in 0.3 mL of PBS (1.66 mg/mL and 2.33 mg/mL respectively). Note the small hemorrhagic areas at the site of venom inoculation. It was observed an extensive hemorrhagic zone in the peritoneum of animals that received 0.9 mg (G-H) dissolved in 0.3 mL of PBS (3mg/mL).

The hypereosinophilic cytoplasm in cardiac muscle cells and erythrocytes presence between the fibers in longitudinal cut could be observed in (Fig. 2: 0.9mg-arrows). The reperfused acute myocardial infarction are usually hemorrhagic as a consequence of vascular injury and blood extravasation. To microscopic examination, myocytes with irreversible lesion that undergo reperfusion exhibit necrosis with bands of contraction; in this pathology process, the entry of calcium through the plasma membrane of myocytes intensifies the actin-myosin interactions, resulting in the formation of intensely eosinophilic bands of sarcomeres hypercontracted (KUMAR, ABBAS and ASTER, 2013). However, crushing, cutting and handling could result in the formation of scattered groups of hypereosinophilic fibers, which may mimic contraction bands (SCUDAMORE, 2014).

All animals that received 0.9mg of venom showed hypereosinophilic fibers in some regions of the heart and extravasation of erythrocytes between the longitudinal cuts. Thus, it is necessary to carry out further studies on the subject to know if these findings are relate to the association of venom with thiopental overdose at the time of euthanasia or whether it was due to handling during the experiments.
Figure 2: Light Photomicrographs. They showed the histopathological alterations after 2h of *Philodryas natterei* venom i.p. inoculation in rats (dose: 0.9 mg).

**Heart**: It showed the hypereosinophilic cytoplasm in cardiac muscle cells (arrows) and erythrocytes present between the fibers in longitudinal cut. **Lung**: It showed hemorrhage in pulmonar parenchyma with presence of abundant erythrocytes in alveolar spaces and vascular congestion. **Kidney**: These sections showed vascular congestion in cortex zone. **Liver**: These sections showed vascular congestion and sinusoidal dilatation (arrows), and clear spaces in centrlobular region. All these findings were observed in all animals that received 0.9 mg. Scale bar, 100 µm. 200x H.E. Trinocular Light Microscope (NIKON Eclipse Ni, Japan; Software Nis 4.0).
After inoculation of 3 different doses of the venom it was possible to verify macroscopically that all the animals that received 0.9mg had hemorrhagic areas in the lung (Fig. 3-B: arrows). No bleeding was evidenced in animals of control group.

**Figure 3:** Macroscopic image of the lungs. A-Lung of the control group. No bleeding was evident. B-Lung of the group that received 0.9 mg of the venom. This image show hemorrhage areas (arrows).

Upon microscopic examination, hemorrhage was evidenced in several organs of rats after inoculation of *P. nattereri* snake venom. These results are similar to the study realized by Peichoto *et al.* (2006) using venom of *Philodryas patagoniensis*, which verified bleeding in different organs. Bleeding may have been caused due to the action of snake venom metalloproteinases (SVMPs) present in the venom of *P. nattereri*. In the subfamily Dipsadinae, SVMPs are predominant components in transcriptomes and the proteomes (FOX and SERRANO, 2008).

SVMPs were classified into structural classes based on the presence of various domain structures and according to their domain organization. The first class, named P-I is simplest and small SVMPs comprised of only a metalloproteinase domain and the molecular weight is approximately 25 kDa. The second class of SVMPs is P-II, characterized by the presence of pro domain, proteinase domain and desintegrin domain. The molecular weight of P-II classes is between 25 – 50 kDa. The P-III class, the large SVMPs, has much more domains than P-II. Contain pro-domain, proteinase, desintegrin –like and cysteine - rich domain. This family of metalloproteinases has molecular weight of more than 50 kDa (FOX and SERRANO, 2008; JÚNIOR and SWENSON, 2013; GÁZ *et al.*, 2016). All sequences described in Colubridae up to date belong to the P-III class of SVMPs (AZEVEDO *et al.*, 2016). SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis showed multiple protein bands ranging 45 Kda to 100 Kda of *P. nattereri* venom (NERY *et al.*, 2014). The study of Nery *et al.* (2014) showed that *P. nattereri* venom comprised molecular weight above 50 kDa, belonging to the P-III class of SVMPs.

P-III class of SVMPs contain two non-catalytic domains (disintegrin-like...
and cysteine–rich domain) and has high hemorrhagic activity associated with other effects, such as a degradation of the components of the basement membrane.

There is a two-step model to explain the mechanism of action of hemorrhagic SVMPs in capillary vessel. In the first step, SVMPs bind to and hydrolyze critical structural components of the basement membrane of capillary vessels, particular type IV collagen and perlecan, and possibly other molecules that link the basement membrane to the fibrilar extracellular matrix (GUTIÉRREZ et al., 2016). Each collagen is composed of three chains that form a trimer in the form of a triple helix. Glycoproteins (laminin and entactin) and proteoglycans (heparan sulfate and perlecan) adhere to the collagenous supra-structure (KUMAR et al., 2010). The cleavage of peptide bonds of basement membrane components results in the mechanical weakening of this structure. In the second step, the hydrostatic pressure, induce a distention of the vessel wall, until the capillary is eventually disrupted, with the consequent extravasation of blood (GUTIÉRREZ et al., 2016).

A recent study about local and hematological alterations induced by Philodryas offersii snake venom in mice showed that the venom caused thrombocytopenia, leukopenia, lymphopenia and neutrophilia after administration of the 3 different doses in gastrocnemius muscle (i.m.). Histological analysis of this study revealed the presence of edema, progressive myonecrosis and an inflammatory infiltrate (OLIVEIRA et al., 2017). According with authors, these various alterations are probably mediated by metalloproteinases, serine proteinases, CRISPs and C-Type lectins (OLIVEIRA et al., 2017).

The continuity in studying this snake venom of our Northeast biodiversity region is necessary to investigate the biological effects of total venom and its fractions in different biological systems.

As a conclusion, the snake venom of Philodryas nattereri was capable of causing bleeding in different organs and morphological changes after poisoning. Animals that received 0.5 mg and 0.7 mg of venom showed small hemorrhagic zones at the injection site. All animals that received 0.9 mg showed hemorrhagic zones classified how great intensity. Liver sections showed congestion of blood vessels, hypereosinophilic cytoplasm in cardiac muscle cells and erythrocytes between longitudinal fibers were observed.

REFERENCES
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