

## Isolation and characterisation of acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3, myotoxins from the venom of the death adder *Acanthophis* sp. Seram

Andrew J. Hart<sup>a</sup>, A. Ian Smith<sup>b</sup>, Shane Reeve<sup>b</sup>, Wayne C. Hodgson<sup>a,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Monash Venom Group, Department of Pharmacology, Monash University, Vic. 3800, Australia

<sup>b</sup> Department of Biochemistry & Molecular Biology, Monash University, Vic. 3800, Australia

Received 9 August 2005; accepted 19 September 2005

### Abstract

Death adder (genus *Acanthophis*) venoms display neurotoxic activity but were thought to be devoid of myotoxic components. Studies from our laboratory have shown that some species (i.e. *Acanthophis rugosus* and *Acanthophis* sp. Seram) possess venom with myotoxic activity [Wickramaratna JC, Fry BG, Aguilar M, Kini RM, Hodgson WC. Isolation and pharmacological characterisation of a phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> myotoxin from the venom of the Irian Jaya death adder (*A. rugosus*). *Br J Pharmacol* 2003;138:333–342; Wickramaratna JC, Fry BG, Hodgson WC. Species-dependent variations in the in vitro myotoxicity of death adder (*Acanthophis*) venoms. *Toxicol Sci* 2003;74:352–360]. The present study describes the isolation and characterisation of two myotoxins (acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3) from *A. sp. Seram* venom. Venom was fractionated into approximately 12 major peaks using reverse phase high performance liquid chromatography. Two components caused concentration (0.1–1  $\mu$ M) dependent inhibition of direct (2 ms, 0.1 Hz, supramaximal V) twitches and an increase in baseline tension in the chick biventer cervicis nerve-muscle. Histological examination of the muscle confirmed damage. PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was detected in both acanmyotoxin-2 ( $390.2 \pm 19.7$   $\mu$ mol/(min mg);  $n = 4$ ) and acanmyotoxin-3 ( $14.2 \pm 7.7$   $\mu$ mol/(min mg);  $n = 4$ ). In comparison, *A. sp. Seram* whole venom had a specific activity of  $461.3 \pm 90.4$   $\mu$ mol/(min mg) ( $n = 3$ ). Mass spectrometry analysis indicated acanmyotoxin-2 had a mass of 13,082 Da and acanmyotoxin-3 13,896 Da. Acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3 accounted for approximately 7 and 4% of total venom composition, respectively. N-terminal sequencing of the first 30 amino acids of each toxin indicated they shared some sequence homology with known myotoxins. In conclusion, clinicians should be aware that symptoms of envenoming by some species of death adder may include signs of myotoxicity as well as neurotoxicity. Future studies will investigate the efficacy of the current antivenom treatment against the myotoxic components of *A. sp. Seram* venom.

© 2005 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** Death adder; *Acanthophis*; Acanmyotoxin; Myotoxin; Chick biventer cervicis nerve-muscle; Phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>; Venom

### 1. Introduction

A number of species of death adder (genus *Acanthophis*) are found throughout Australia and South East Asia. They are the largest ranging of the Australasian elapids, inhabiting most parts of mainland Australia and also inhabiting surrounding areas, including Papua New Guinea, Irian Jaya and the Indonesian Islands (e.g. Seram). Although death adders belong to the Elapidae family, they resemble members of the Viperidae family, with large rectangular heads and thick muscular bodies ending in a thin tail.

Previous studies in our laboratory have shown that venom of the common death adder (*Acanthophis antarcticus*) has neurotoxic activity with negligible myotoxic activity [1]. Given that the venom of *A. antarcticus* (including several regional variants) has been the most intensively studied [1,2], it was assumed that the venom of all members of the genus were predominantly neurotoxic. It is only recently that a number of the major species and regional variants have been investigated by liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry [3]. This study revealed that there is great diversity in death adder venoms. Based on recent studies in our laboratory [4,5] and clinical reports from Papua New Guinea [6], it is clear that the venoms of several death adders possess myotoxic activity. Wickramaratna et al. [5]

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +61 3 9905 4861; fax: +61 3 9905 5851.

E-mail address: [wayne.hodgson@med.monash.edu.au](mailto:wayne.hodgson@med.monash.edu.au) (W.C. Hodgson).

compared the in vitro myotoxic effects of 10 *Acanthophis* venoms and showed that at least three had marked myotoxicity with *Acanthophis* sp. Serum and *A. rugosus* venoms being particularly myotoxic. A myotoxin (i.e. acanmyotoxin-1) from *A. rugosus*, the Irian Jayan death adder, was subsequently isolated [4]. This is the first myotoxin isolated from a death adder venom. Although a neurotoxin from *A. sp. Serum* has been isolated and characterised [7], no myotoxins have yet been isolated from this venom.

The aim of this study was to isolate and characterise myotoxins from *A. sp. Serum* venom. It is important to understand the composition and mechanism of action of this venom so that envenomation can be recognised and appropriate treatments can be administered to victims of snake bite.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Fractionation of venom

Freeze dried venom was dissolved in MilliQ water and fractionated by RP-HPLC using a Shimadzu system (LC-10ATVP pump and SPD-10AVP detector). Phenomenex Jupiter semi-preparative (250 mm × 10 mm, 5 µm, C18 300 Å) and Phenomenex Jupiter analytical (150 mm × 2 mm, 5 µm, C18 300 Å) columns were equilibrated with 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) (solvent A). Solvent A was then mixed with a varying gradient of 90% acetonitrile in 0.09% TFA solution (solvent B). The concentrations of solvent B were 0–20% for 0–5 min (4% gradient), 20–60% for 5–45 min (1% gradient) and 60–80% for 45–50 min (4% gradient). The semi-preparative column was used with a flow rate of 2 ml/min, while the analytical column was used with a flow rate of 0.2 ml/min. The elutant was monitored at 280 and 214 nm.

### 2.2. Mass spectrometry analysis

Analysis was carried out on a Micromass ZMD Electrospray mass Spectrometer (Micromass UK Ltd., Manchester, UK) under the following conditions; 3.0 kV capillary, 30, 60 or 90 V cones, in positive ion mode. Nitrogen gas was used as a curtain gas with a flow rate of 3.3 l/min. Samples were injected by direct infusion at 8 µl/min. Data processing were performed using MassLynx Version 3.5 (Micromass UK Ltd.).

### 2.3. Determination of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity

PLA<sub>2</sub> activity of the isolated components and whole venom was determined using a secretory PLA<sub>2</sub> colour-metric assay kit (Cayman Chemical, USA). The assay uses the 1,2-dithio analogue of diheptanoyl phosphatidylcholine as a substrate. Free thiols generated upon hydrolysis of the thio ester bond at the *sn*-2 position by PLA<sub>2</sub> are detected using DTNB (5,5'-dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic

acid)). Colour changes were monitored using a CER-ES900C microplate reader (Bio Tek Instruments, USA) at 405 nm, sampling every min for a 5-min period. PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was expressed as phosphatidylcholine hydrolysed µmol/min/mg enzyme.

### 2.4. Amino acid sequence determination

The pure peptides were N-terminally sequenced using Edman degradation chemistry on an Applied Biosystems Procise pulsed-liquid-phased peptide sequencer fitted with a 140C microgradient LC and 785A programmable absorbance detector (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA).

### 2.5. Chick biventer cervicis nerve-muscle preparation

Male chicks aged between 4 and 10 days were killed with CO<sub>2</sub> and both biventer cervicis nerve-muscles removed. The muscles were mounted under 1 g resting tension in 5 ml organ baths containing physiological salt solution (NaCl, 118.4 mM; KCl, 4.7 mM; MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 1.2 mM; KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 1.2 mM; CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 2.5 mM; NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 25 mM; glucose, 11.1 mM). The solution was bubbled with carbogen (95% O<sub>2</sub> and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>) and maintained at 34 °C. Direct twitches were established by electrical stimulation (0.1 Hz, 2 ms, supramaximal voltage) using a Grass S88 stimulator with an electrode placed around the body of the muscle. The preparation was equilibrated for 30 min, after which d-tubocurarine (d-TC; 10 µM) was added to the bath. This blocks indirect (i.e. nerve-mediated) twitches ensuring that the twitches are due only to direct muscle stimulation. The preparation was left for a further 30 min for equilibration or until a steady, consistent twitch height was obtained. Toxins or venom fractions were then added and left in contact with the tissue for a period of 3 h. A contracture of the skeletal muscle and a diminished twitch height were indicative of myotoxicity [8].

### 2.6. Morphological studies

On completion of the in vitro experiments, the tissues were placed in Tissue Tek, frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at –80 °C until required. The tissues were cut into transverse sections (14 µm) using a Leica CM1800 cryostat and placed onto gelatin-coated slides. Tissue sections were post fixed for 15 min in a solution containing 4% paraformaldehyde in distilled water, stained with eosin and haematoxylin and examined under a light microscope (Olympus BX 51, Olympus Co., Japan). Slides were photographed using an Olympus C-4040ZOOM (Olympus Optical Co., Japan) digital camera.

### 2.7. Chemicals and drugs

The following drugs and chemicals were used: trifluoroacetic acid (Auspep, Melbourne, Australia), acetonitrile

(Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), d-tubocurarine, eosin, Mayer's Haemalum (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, USA), *A. sp.* Serum venom (Venom Supplies Pty Ltd., Tanunda, Australia). Isolated toxins were reconstituted in filtered MilliQ water for in vitro experiments and for RP-HPLC.

## 2.8. Analysis of results and statistics

For isolated tissue experiments, responses were measured via a Grass force displacement transducer (FT03) and recorded on a MacLab System. Twitch height was expressed as a percentage of the original twitch height prior to the administration of venom fractions. Change in baseline tension was measured as an increase/decrease of the original baseline prior to the administration of venom fractions. Statistical difference was determined by a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the change in twitch height or baseline tension at the 180 min time point. All ANOVAs were followed by a Dunnett's Multiple Comparison Test against the vehicle control. Statistical significance was indicated when  $P < 0.05$ .

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Isolation and purification of myotoxins from *A. sp.* Serum venom

Two myotoxins were identified and isolated from *A. sp.* Serum venom by successive reverse phase high perfor-

mance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC) separations. The initial fractionation of *A. sp.* Serum venom using the analytical column produced approximately 12 major peaks (Fig. 1a). Preliminary studies in the chick biventer cervicis nerve-muscle preparation showed that peaks 10 and 11 exhibited myotoxic activity. Peaks 10 and 11 were then collected from multiple RP-HPLC runs using the semi-preparative column. The samples were freeze dried and then reconstituted in MilliQ water. To test the purity, and determine the homogeneity and location of the isolated toxins, venom and the two toxins were run on the same conditions using the analytical column (Fig. 1b and c). If any contaminants were detected then the sample was run through the analytical column and then put through the freeze drying process again. Peak 10 eluted at 29.55 min and accounted for approximately 7% of total venom composition, while peak 11 eluted at 32.90 min and accounted for approximately 4% of total venom composition.

Peak 10 is subsequently referred to as acanmyotoxin-2 and Peak 11 referred to as acanmyotoxin-3.

### 3.2. Purity and molecular mass determination

The homogeneity and molecular mass of both toxins were determined by electrospray mass spectrometry. The purified samples of acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3 displayed consistent peaks at several charged states and could be reconstituted into single masses of 13,082 Da (Fig. 2a) and 13,896 Da, respectively (Fig. 2b).

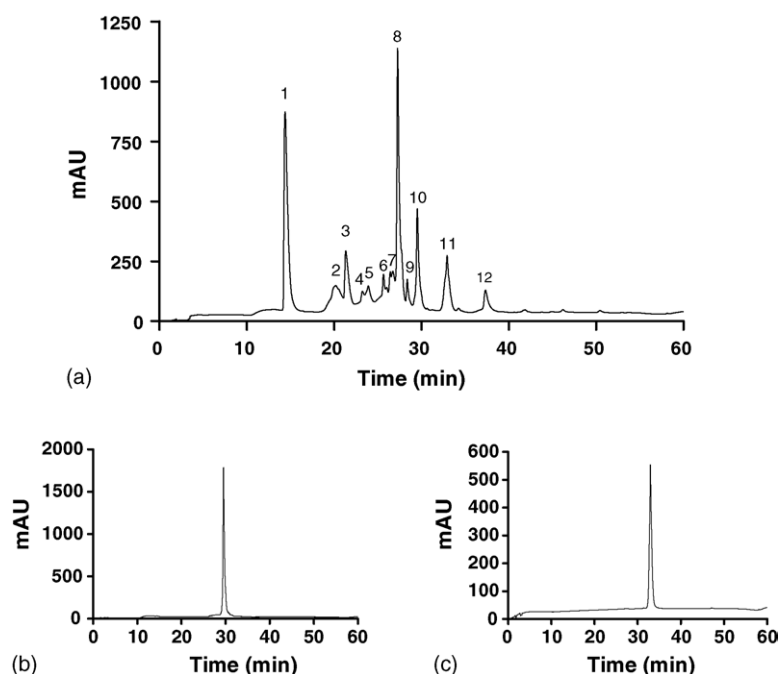


Fig. 1. RP-HPLC chromatograph of (a) *A. sp.* Serum venom with numbered peaks, (b) acanmyotoxin-2 and (c) acanmyotoxin-3 run with the same conditions on the Jupiter analytical column, equilibrated with solvent A (0.1% TFA) and eluted with the following gradient of solvent B (90% acetonitrile in 0.09% TFA) and solvent A: 0–20% for 0–5 min, 20–60% for 5–45 min and 60–80% for 45–50 min. Flow rate of 0.2 ml/min.

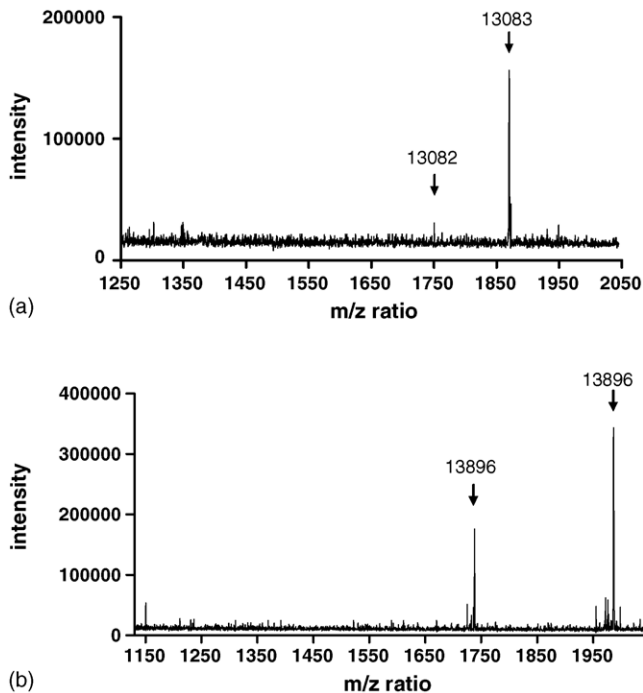


Fig. 2. Electrospray mass spectrometry of (a) acanmyotoxin-2 and (b) acanmyotoxin-3. The spectra shows a series of multiple-charged ions, arrows indicate charges found consistently at different voltages.

### 3.3. Phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> activity

PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was detected in both acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3. The specific activity for acanmyotoxin-2 was  $390.2 \pm 19.7 \mu\text{mol/min/mg}$  ( $n = 4$ ) and acanmyotoxin-3 was  $14.2 \pm 7.7 \mu\text{mol/min/mg}$  ( $n = 4$ ). *A. sp.* Serum venom had a specific activity of  $461.3 \pm 90.4 \mu\text{mol/min/mg}$  ( $n = 3$ ). The positive control, bee venom PLA<sub>2</sub>, had a specific activity of  $637.0 \pm 172.1 \mu\text{mol/min/mg}$  ( $n = 3$ ).

### 3.4. N-terminal amino acid sequence

The first 30 amino acids were identified for both acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3 (Table 1). The sequence was compared with other protein sequences at the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database using the BLAST service. Acanmyotoxin-2 shares 53% sequence identity with acanthin II, isolated from *A. antarcticus* venom [9] and 50% sequence identity with pseudexin A, isolated from the red-bellied black snake (*Pseudechis porphyriacus*) [10]. Acanmyotoxin-3 shares 38% sequence identity with taipoxin- $\alpha$ , a toxin isolated from the Australian taipan (*Oxyuranus scutellatus scutellatus*) [11].

### 3.5. Chick biventer cervicis nerve-muscle preparation

Acanmyotoxin-2 (0.1 and 1.0  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and acanmyotoxin-3 (0.1 and 1.0  $\mu\text{M}$ ) caused significant and concentration-dependent decreases in twitch height compared to vehicle ( $n = 4$ ; one-way ANOVA,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 3a and b). Acanmyotoxin-2 caused a significantly greater decrease than acanmyotoxin-3 at 1.0  $\mu\text{M}$ . Both toxins caused a significant increase in baseline tension at the higher concentration (1.0  $\mu\text{M}$ ) compared to vehicle ( $n = 4$ ; one-way ANOVA,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig. 4a and b). The lower concentration (0.1  $\mu\text{M}$ ) had no significant effect on baseline tension.

### 3.6. Morphological studies

Light microscopy studies of tissues exposed to acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3 indicated morphological changes. Acanmyotoxin-2 (1  $\mu\text{M}$ ) caused the most muscle damage with obvious tissue breakdown and vacuolisation (Fig. 5b) compared to the tissue exposed to vehicle (Fig. 5a). Acanmyotoxin-3 (1  $\mu\text{M}$ ) (Fig. 5c) showed simi-

Table 1

N-terminal sequence of PLA<sub>2</sub> components isolated from other death adder species and other elapid snake venoms with myotoxic activity

Species	PLA <sub>2</sub> component	N-terminal sequence		
<i>A. antarcticus</i>	Acanthin I <sup>a</sup>	DLFQFGGMIG	CANKGARSWL	SYVNYGCIYC
<i>A. antarcticus</i>	Acanthin II <sup>a</sup>	NLYQFGGMIQ	CANKGARSWL	SYVNYGCIYC
<i>A. antarcticus</i>	Acanthoxin A1 <sup>b</sup>	NLYQFGGMIQ	CANKGARSWL	SYVNYGCIYC
<i>A. praelongus</i>	Acanthoxin B <sup>c</sup>	DLFQFGFMIQ	CANKGSRPVF	
<i>A. pyrrhus</i>	Acanthoxin C <sup>c</sup>	NLFQFGGMIG	CANKGTRSWL	SYVNYGCIYC
<i>Pseudechis australis</i>	Pa-1G <sup>d</sup>	NLIQFGNMIQ	CANKGSRPTR	HYMDYGCYC
<i>Oxyuranus scutellatus scutellatus</i>	Taipoxin $\alpha$ chain <sup>e</sup>	NLLQFGFMIR	CANRRSRPVW	HYMDYGCYC
<i>Pseudechis porphyriacus</i>	Pseudexin A <sup>f</sup>	NLYQFKNMIQ	CANKGSRSWL	DYVNYGCIYC
<i>A. rugosus</i>	Acanmyotoxin-1 <sup>g</sup>	NLLQIGIMKR	CANKRRRPVF	HYRDIYGCYC
<i>A. sp. Serum</i>	Acanmyotoxin-2	NLYQFGGMIG	CANKGTRSWL	SYVNYGCIYC
<i>A. sp. Serum</i>	Acanmyotoxin-3	NLLQFAFMIR	QANKRRRPVI	PYEEYGLYYM

<sup>a</sup> Chow et al. [9].

<sup>b</sup> van der Weyden et al. [18].

<sup>c</sup> van der Weyden et al. [19].

<sup>d</sup> Takasaki et al. [24].

<sup>e</sup> Lind and Eaker [11].

<sup>f</sup> Schmidt and Middlebrook [10].

<sup>g</sup> Wickramaratna et al. [4].

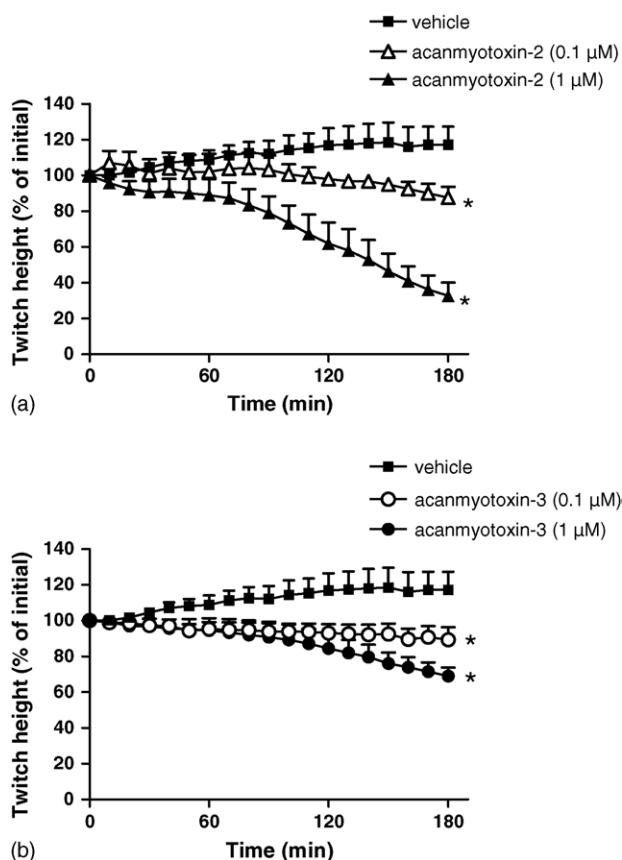


Fig. 3. The effect of (a) acanmyotoxin-2 (0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M,  $n = 4$ ) and (b) acanmyotoxin-3 (0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M,  $n = 4$ ) on direct twitches (0.1 Hz, 2 ms, supramaximal voltage) in the CBCNM preparation. \* $P < 0.05$ , significantly different from vehicle, one-way ANOVA.

lar damage but not to the extent of acanmyotoxin-2. There was some indication of early muscle damage caused by both toxins at lower concentrations (0.1  $\mu$ M; data not shown). These results are consistent with the concentration-dependent effects observed on direct twitches in the CBCNM preparation.

#### 4. Discussion

It has recently been reported that some species of death adder venom have myotoxic activity [5,6], an activity that was originally thought to be absent from this genus. Clinical reports from Papua New Guinea indicated signs of myotoxic activity in the venom of a local species [6]. Consequently, venom from *A. rugosus* was studied and a myotoxin isolated (i.e. acanmyotoxin-1), the first from a death adder [4]. A further study compared the myotoxic effects of 10 death adder venoms [5]. The venom from *A. sp.* Seram showed the highest myotoxic activity and is the focus of the current study.

After fractionation of *A. sp.* Seram venom and screening of the pooled fractions for myotoxic activity, two myotoxins were isolated as single peaks by successive RP-HPLC. Using electrospray mass spectrometry the molecular mass

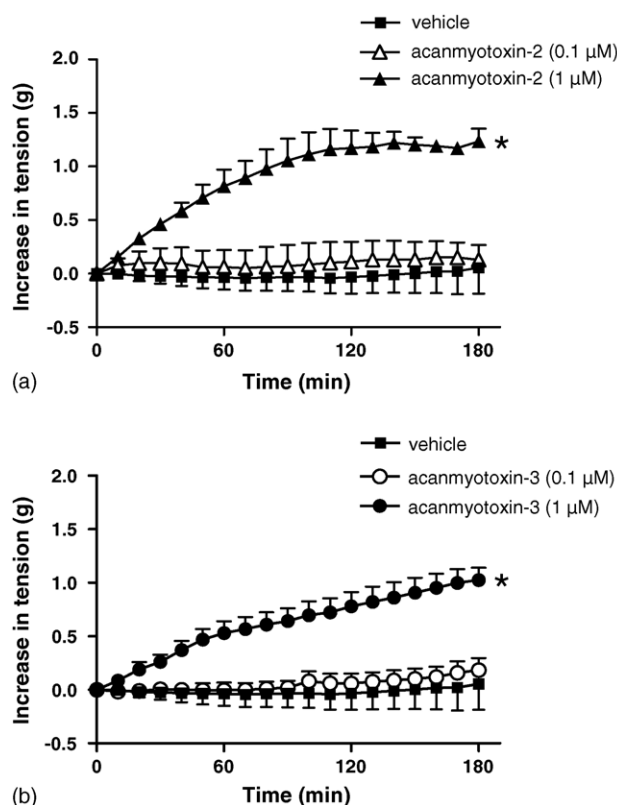


Fig. 4. The effect of (a) acanmyotoxin-2 (0.1 and 1.0  $\mu$ M,  $n = 4$ ) and (b) acanmyotoxin-3 (0.1 and 1.0  $\mu$ M,  $n = 4$ ) on baseline tension in the CBCNM preparation. \* $P < 0.05$ , significantly different from vehicle, one-way ANOVA.

for both toxins was determined (i.e. acanmyotoxin-2, 13,082 Da and acanmyotoxin-3, 13,896 Da). It has been documented that snake venom PLA<sub>2</sub> components have masses in the range of 12–14 kDa [12–14]. Acanmyotoxin-3 is similar in molecular weight to that of acanmyotoxin-1 (13,811 Da), the toxin isolated from *A. rugosus* [4]. Previous LCMS analysis has indicated that *A. sp.* Seram venom contains a toxin with a molecular weight of 13,898 Da and this was classified as a PLA<sub>2</sub> due to its molecular weight and N-terminal sequence [3]. However, PLA<sub>2</sub> activity had not been confirmed and no characterisation has been performed. What the current study does show is an apparent match and confirmation of this toxin in *A. sp.* Seram venom.

The N-terminal sequences showed similarities with other elapid toxins. Acanmyotoxin-2 shares 53% sequence identity with acanthin II, a potent PLA<sub>2</sub> inhibitor of platelet aggregation from the venom of *A. antarcticus* [9]. Acanmyotoxin-3 shares 38% sequence identity with taipoxin- $\alpha$  chain, isolated from the Australian coastal taipan (*Oxyuranus scutellatus scutellatus*) [11]. Taipoxin has been shown to act as a potent presynaptic neurotoxin but also exhibits myolytic and necrotic activity [15–17]. Some sequence similarities can also be seen with toxins previously isolated from *A. antarcticus* [18,19].

In the present study, PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was determined and confirmed for both of the isolated fractions. The activity of



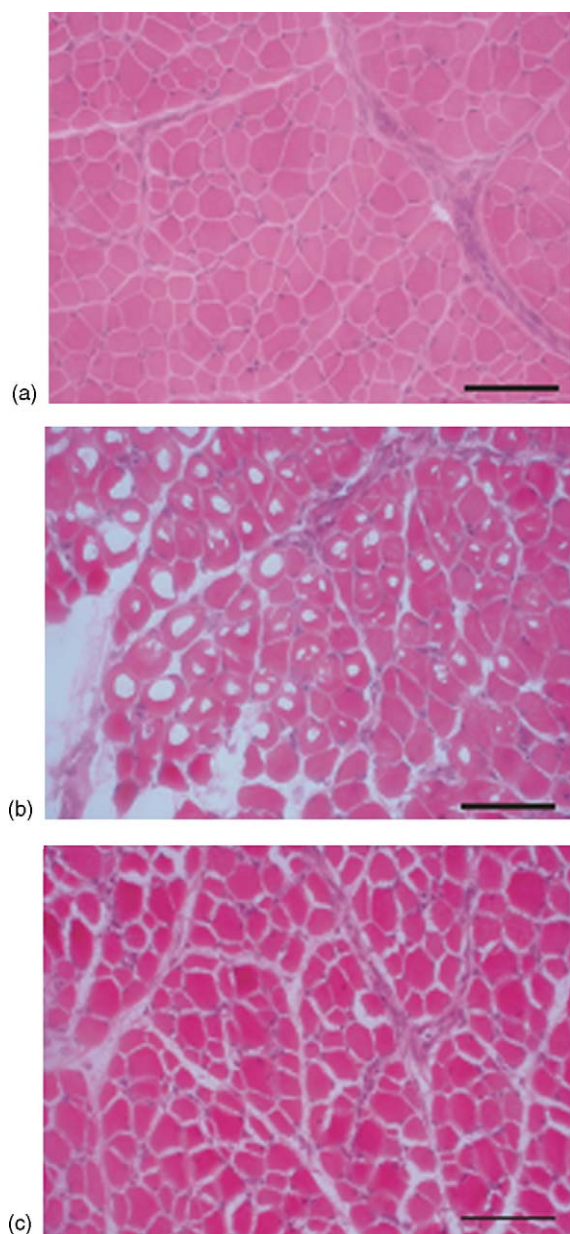


Fig. 5. Transverse sections of CBCNM preparations exposed to (a) vehicle (50  $\mu$ l 0.1% BSA) for 3 h, (b) acanmyotoxin-2 (1  $\mu$ M) and (c) acanmyotoxin-3 (1  $\mu$ M) for 3 h. Scale bar = 100  $\mu$ m.

acanmyotoxin-2 was similar to that of acanmyotoxin-1 from *A. rugosus* venom [4]. The specific PLA<sub>2</sub> activity of acanmyotoxin-3 was much lower than that of acanmyotoxin-2. This lower level of enzymatic activity correlates with the lesser amount of damage caused by acanmyotoxin-3 at the tested concentrations. It is possible that acanmyotoxin-3 may be a Lys-49 PLA<sub>2</sub> myotoxin and acanmyotoxin-2 a Asp-49 PLA<sub>2</sub> myotoxin. Lys-49 PLA<sub>2</sub>s do not exhibit catalytic activity and have a lysine substitution for aspartate at position 49 of the amino acid sequence. This substitution results in an inability of the protein to bind to calcium, and hence has no catalytic activity [20]. It has been shown that Lys-49 PLA<sub>2</sub>s still cause marked inflammatory reactions [21], suggesting that catalytic

activity is not the sole mechanism of action for myotoxic PLA<sub>2</sub>s. The current study has identified the first 30 amino acids for both acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3, further sequencing is required to discover the identity of the amino acid at position 49. Future experimentation could also include the use of catalytic inhibitors such as *p*-bromophenacyl bromide (pBPB), to investigate if acanmyotoxin-3 does in fact act by non-catalytic mechanisms and also investigate the activity of acanmyotoxin-2 with its high level of catalytic activity being inactivated. pBPB has been used commonly as a catalytic inhibitor for the study of myotoxic PLA<sub>2</sub>s [4,20,21]. It is possible that there are PLA<sub>2</sub> components in the venom that are yet to be identified. In the present study, only the venom fractions that exhibited in vitro myotoxic activity were further examined for PLA<sub>2</sub> activity. PLA<sub>2</sub> activity is commonly associated with myotoxic activity [4,5,22–24], but is not specific to venom myotoxins. Components such as presynaptic neurotoxins [25,26] and toxins that effect blood coagulation [27] also have PLA<sub>2</sub> activity.

Acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3 were both examined for myotoxicity in vitro using the directly stimulated CBCNM preparation. The results indicated a concentration-dependent myotoxic action for both toxins. In addition, light microscopy studies were carried out to identify morphological changes within the tissues. Both acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3 produced obvious changes in the skeletal muscle compared to that of the control tissues. The combination of these results suggests that both acanmyotoxin-2 and acanmyotoxin-3 are myotoxic. Acanmyotoxin-2 was seen to exhibit greater myotoxic action than acanmyotoxin-3. *A. sp.* Serum venom has previously been examined in vitro, in our laboratory, using the CBCNM preparation [5]. In this study, the venom showed a more rapid decrease in twitch height than that observed to either acanmyotoxin-2 or acanmyotoxin-3. This effect is likely to be due to the synergistic action of the different myotoxins found in the whole venom producing a greater level of tissue breakdown than either alone.

Death adder envenoming in Australia is not very common. However, there is a much greater incidence on some of Indonesia's islands and Papua New Guinea [28,29]. The prescribed treatment for systemic death adder envenoming is CSL death adder antivenom [30] which is raised against *A. antarcticus* venom, i.e. a non-myotoxic venom [1,31]. Myotoxicity can cause serious morbidity if not monitored and treated correctly. Therefore, clinicians need to be aware that the symptoms of envenoming by some species may include signs of myotoxicity as well as neurotoxicity.

### Acknowledgement

We would like to acknowledge Mr. Phillip Holt (Green Chemistry, Department of Chemistry, Monash University, Australia) for carrying out the mass spectrometry.

## References

- [1] Wickramaratna JC, Hodgson WC. A pharmacological examination of venoms from three species of death adder (*Acanthophis antarcticus*, *Acanthophis praelongus* and *Acanthophis pyrrhus*). *Toxicon* 2001;39:209–16.
- [2] Fry BG, Wickramaratna JC, Jones A, Alewood PF, Hodgson WC. Species and regional variations in the effectiveness of antivenom against the in vitro neurotoxicity of death adder (*Acanthophis*) venoms. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* 2001;175:140–8.
- [3] Fry BG, Wickramaratna JC, Hodgson WC, Alewood PF, Kini RM, Ho H, et al. Electrospray liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry fingerprinting of *Acanthophis* (death adder) venoms: taxonomic and toxinological implications. *Rapid Commun Mass Spectr* 2002;16:600–8.
- [4] Wickramaratna JC, Fry BG, Aguilar M, Kini RM, Hodgson WC. Isolation and pharmacological characterization of a phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> myotoxin from the venom of the Irian Jaya death adder (*Acanthophis rugosus*). *Br J Pharmacol* 2003;138:333–42.
- [5] Wickramaratna JC, Fry BG, Hodgson WC. Species-dependent variations in the in vitro myotoxicity of death adder (*Acanthophis*) venoms. *Toxicol Sci* 2003;74:352–60.
- [6] Lalloo DG, Trevett AJ, Black J, Mapao J, Saweri A, Naraqi S, et al. Neurotoxicity, anticoagulant activity and evidence of rhabdomyolysis in patients bitten by death adders (*Acanthophis* sp.) in Southern Papua New Guinea. *Q J Med* 1996;89:25–35.
- [7] Wickramaratna JC, Fry BG, Loiacono RE, Aguilar M-I, Alewood PF, Hodgson WC. Isolation and characterization at cholinergic nicotinic receptors of a neurotoxin from the venom of the *Acanthophis* sp. Seram death adder. *Biochem Pharmacol* 2004;68:383–94.
- [8] Harvey A, Barfaraz A, Thomson E, Faiz A, Preston S, Harris JB. Screening of snake venoms for neurotoxic and myotoxic effects using simple in vitro preparations from rodents and chicks. *Toxicon* 1994;32:257–65.
- [9] Chow G, Subburaju S, Kini RM. Purification, characterization, and amino acid sequence determination of acanthins, potent inhibitors of platelet aggregation from *Acanthophis antarcticus* (common death adder) venom. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 1998;354:232–8.
- [10] Schmidt JJ, Middlebrook JL. Purification, sequencing and characterization of pseudexin phospholipases A<sub>2</sub> from *Pseudechis porphyriacus* (Australian red-bellied black snake). *Toxicon* 1989;27:805–18.
- [11] Lind P, Eaker D. Amino-acid sequence of the alpha-subunit of taipoxin, an extremely potent presynaptic neurotoxin from the Australian snake taipan (*Oxyuranus s. scutellatus*). *Eur J Biochem* 1982;124:441–7.
- [12] Sim KL. Purification and preliminary characterisation of praelongin phospholipases, antiplatelet agents from the snake venom of *Acanthophis praelongus*. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1998;1379:198–206.
- [13] Alape-Giron A, Persson B, Cederlund E, Flores-Diaz M, Gutierrez JM, Thelestam M, et al. Elapid venom toxins: multiple recruitments of ancient scaffolds. *Eur J Biochem* 1999;259:225–34.
- [14] Chioato L, Ward RJ. Mapping structural determinants of biological activities in snake venom phospholipases A<sub>2</sub> by sequence analysis and site directed mutagenesis. *Toxicon* 2003;42:869–83.
- [15] Harris JB, Johnson MA, Macdonell C. Taipoxin, a presynaptically active neurotoxin, destroys mammalian skeletal muscle. *Br J Pharmacol* 1977;61:133 [Proceedings].
- [16] Harris JB, Maltin CA. Myotoxic activity of the crude venom and the principal neurotoxin, taipoxin, of the Australian taipan, *Oxyuranus scutellatus*. *Br J Pharmacol* 1982;76:61–75.
- [17] Maltin CA, Harris JB, Cullen MJ. Regeneration of mammalian skeletal muscle following the injection of the snake-venom toxin, taipoxin. *Cell Tissue Res* 1983;232:565–77.
- [18] van der Weyden L, Hains P, Morris M, Broady K. Acanthoxin, a toxic phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> from the venom of the common death adder (*Acanthophis antarcticus*). *Toxicon* 1997;35:1315–25.
- [19] van der Weyden L, Hains PG, Broady KW, Shaw D, Milburn P. Amino acid sequence of a neurotoxin phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> enzyme from common death adder (*Acanthophis antarcticus*) venom. *J Nat Toxins* 2001;10:33–42.
- [20] Evans J, Ownby CL. Lysine 49 phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> proteins. *Toxicon* 1999;37:633–50.
- [21] Zuliani JP, Fernandes CM, Zamuner SR, Gutierrez JM, Teixeira CFP. Inflammatory events induced by Lys-49 and Asp-49 phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> isolated from *Bothrops asper* snake venom: role of catalytic activity. *Toxicon* 2005;45:335–46.
- [22] Gutierrez J, Lomonte B. Phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> myotoxins from *Bothrops* snake venoms. *Toxicon* 1995;33:1405–24.
- [23] Harris JB. Phospholipases in snake venoms and their effects on nerve and muscle. In: Harvey AL., editor. Snake toxins. New York: Pergamon Press; 1991. p. 91–129.
- [24] Takasaki C, Yutani F, Kajiyashiki T. Amino acid sequences of eight phospholipases A<sub>2</sub> from the venom of Australian king brown snake, *Pseudechis australis*. *Toxicon* 1990;28:329–39.
- [25] Hains PG, van der Weyden L, Broady KW. A neurotoxic phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> in the venom of the common death adder, *Acanthophis antarcticus*. *Toxicon* 1997;35:809.
- [26] Kuruppu S, Fry BG, Hodgson WC. Presynaptic neuromuscular activity of venom from the brown-headed snake (*Glyphodon tristis*). *Toxicon* 2005;45:383–8.
- [27] Kini RM. Structure–function relationships and mechanism of anticoagulant phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> enzymes from snake venoms. *Toxicon* 2005;45:1147–61.
- [28] Currie BJ. Snakebite in tropical Australia, Papua New Guinea and Irian Jaya. *Emergency Med Australasia* 2000;12:285–95.
- [29] Lalloo DG, Trevett AJ, Nwokolo N, Naraqi S, Kevau I, Kemp M, et al. Myocardial effects of envenoming by elapids in Papua New Guinea. *Toxicon* 1996;34:145–6.
- [30] White J. Antivenom handbook. Melbourne: CSL Ltd., 2001.
- [31] Sutherland SK, Campbell DG, Stubbs AE. A study of the major Australian snake venoms in the monkey (*Macaca fascicularis*). *Pathology* 1981;13:705–15.