The sea anemone *Bunodosoma granulifera* contains surprisingly efficacious and potent insect-selective toxins

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Received 3 September 2002; revised 22 October 2002; accepted 22 October 2002

First published online 7 November 2002

Edited by Maurice Montal

Abstract Two sodium channel toxins, BgII and BgIII, isolated from the sea anemone Bunodosoma granulifera, have been subjected to an elaborate electrophysiological and pharmacological comparison between five different cloned sodium channels expressed in Xenopus laevis oocytes in order to determine their efficacy, potency and selectivity. Our results reveal large differences in toxin-induced effect between the different sodium channels. These toxins possess the highest efficacy for the insect sodium channel (para). Our data also show that BgII, generally known as a neurotoxin, is especially potent on the insect sodium channel with an EC₅₀ value of 5.5 ± 0.5 nM. Therefore, this toxin can be used as a template for further development of new insecticides. Based on our findings, an evolutionary relationship between crustaceans and insects is also discussed. © 2002 Federation of European Biochemical Societies. Published by Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

Key words: Sea anemone toxin; Voltage-gated sodium channel; Neurotoxin; Insecticide; Evolution

1. Introduction

Voltage-gated sodium channels (VGSCs) are key elements in the signal transduction process of membranes of neurones and most electrically excitable cells. Therefore, they are the target of toxins of various origins and chemical structures. These toxins are powerful tools to study structure–function relationships and design new drugs and insecticides.

VGSCs are composed of a pore forming α subunit (260 kDa) and one to three auxiliary β subunits. The β_2 subunit (21 kDa) is disulphide linked to the α subunit, while the β_1 (23 kDa) and β_3 (22 kDa) subunits are non-covalently attached. In heterologous systems, expression of the α subunit alone is sufficient to form a voltage-gated sodium channel. The β subunits modulate the level of expression, channel-gating properties and interaction with cytoskeleton proteins [1–4].

It is known that sea anemones produce a class of cardioand neurotoxins which mainly cause a slowing of the inactivation process of sodium currents and a prolongation of the action potential. These polypeptides bind to receptor site 3, located in the extracellular linker between segments S3 and S4 of domain IV. This site is also targeted by scorpion α -toxins

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and funnel web spider toxins [5–7]. The sodium channel inactivation process derives mainly from the voltage-dependent coupling of activation driven by the transmembrane movement of the voltage sensing S4 segment [3]. By binding to site 3, toxins prevent the normal gating movements of the S4 segment of domain IV and thus uncouple sodium channel activation from inactivation.

BgII and BgIII are two toxins that have been purified and sequenced from the sea anemone Bunodosoma granulifera, a common anemone of Cuban sea shores [8]. Their sequence consists of 48 amino acids, each containing six cysteine residues that form three disulphide bridges. The only difference is an aspartic acid at position 16 in BgIII which replaces an asparagine in BgII (Fig. 1).

Despite their high similarity, we show here through a detailed study of the inactivation process of five cloned sodium channels that the toxin concentration needed to produce an effect (potency) and the amplitude of this effect (efficacy) of these two toxins on sodium channels are remarkably different. To our knowledge, this is the first study comparing the effect of toxins on different types of sodium channels in a same expression system. Using the two-electrode voltage-clamp technique, our experiments show that *BgII* especially affects insect sodium channels, thus being a model for the development of new insecticides. Due to the fact that large crustaceans are natural predators of sea anemones and small crustaceans serve as food, this work also points in the direction of an evolutionary relationship between insects on the one hand and crustaceans on the other.

2. Methods

2.1. Expression in Xenopus oocytes

For the expression in *Xenopus* oocytes, the hH1 (Na_v1.5) and β_1 genes were subcloned into pSP64T [9]. For in vitro transcription, hH1/pSP64T and SNS (Na_v1.8)/pSP64T [13] were first linearised with *XbaI* and β_1 /pSP64T with *EcoRI*. Next, capped cRNA's were synthetised from the linearised plasmid using the large-scale SP6 mMESSAGE-mMACHINE transcription kit (Ambion, USA). The para/pGH19-13-5 vector [10], tipE/pGH19 vector [11–12], rBrainII(Na_v1.2)/pLCT1 vector [14] and rSkMI(Na_v1.4)/pUI-2 vector [15] were linearised with *NotI* and transcribed with the T7 mMESSAGE-mMACHINE kit (Ambion).

The harvesting of oocytes from anaesthetised female *Xenopus laevis* frogs was as previously described [16]. Oocytes were injected with 50 nl of cRNA at a concentration of 1 ng nl⁻¹ using a Drummond micro-injector (USA). The solution used for incubating the oocytes contained (in mM): NaCl 96, KCl 2, CaCl₂ 1.8, MgCl₂ 2 and HEPES 5 (pH 7.4), supplemented with 50 mg l⁻¹ gentamicin sulphate.

2.2. Electrophysiological recordings in Xenopus oocytes

Two-electrode voltage-clamp recordings were performed at room

temperature (18°–22°C) using a GeneClamp 500 amplifier (Axon Instruments, Foster City, CA, USA) controlled by a pClamp data acquisition system (Axon). Whole-cell currents from oocytes were recorded 1 to 4 days after injection. Voltage and current electrodes were filled with 3 M KCl. Resistances of both electrodes were kept as low as possible (<0.5 M Ω). Bath solution composition was (in nM): NaCl 96, KCl 2, CaCl₂ 1.8, MgCl₂ 2 and HEPES 5 (pH 7.4). Using a four-pole low-pass Bessel filter, currents were filtered at 2 kHz and sampled at 10 kHz. Leak and capacitance subtraction were performed using a P/4 protocol. Current traces were evoked in an oocyte expressing the cloned sodium channels by depolarisations between -70 and 40 mV, using 10 mV increments, from a holding potential of -90 mV.

2.3. Fast inactivation

The degree of fast inactivation was assayed by measuring the $I_{5\,\mathrm{ms}}/I_{\mathrm{peak}}$ ratio which gives an estimate of the probability for the channels not to be inactivated after 5 ms [17]. Depending on the sodium channel, a test voltage was chosen so that $I_{5\,\mathrm{ms}}/I_{\mathrm{peak}}$ was close to zero under control conditions. $I_{5\,\mathrm{ms}}/I_{\mathrm{peak}}$ was measured at the same test voltage after addition of the toxin. Toxin-induced removal of fast inactivation was measured by plotting $I_{5\,\mathrm{ms}}/I_{\mathrm{peak}}$ as a function of toxin concentrations. The following equation was used:

$$I_{5 \text{ ms}}/I_{\text{peak}} = a_0 + \{a_1/[1 + (\text{EC}_{50}/[\text{toxin}])^h]\}$$

were h is the Hill coefficient, [toxin] the toxin concentration, a_0 the value of $I_{5 \text{ ms}}/I_{\text{peak}}$ obtained at a chosen test voltage under control conditions, the sum of a_0 and a_1 equals the maximum value of $I_{5 \text{ ms}}/I_{\text{peak}}$ at the chosen test voltage indicating the expected maximum effect of the toxin on fast inactivation. Curve manipulations were performed using pClamp8 (Axon) and Origin software (Microcal, USA).

2.4. Purification of BgII and BgIII toxins

Collection of the sea anemone *Bunodosoma granulifera*, toxin extraction and isolation were performed as previously described [18].

3. Results

Using the two-electrode voltage-clamp technique on Xenopus oocytes, a pharmacological comparison was made regarding the effects of BgII and BgIII on five different cloned sodium channels (as shown in Fig. 2). Current traces were evoked using 25-ms-step depolarisations to a voltage range between -20 and 10 mV, depending on the sodium channel, from a holding potential of -90 mV. Both BgII and BgIII caused the inactivation to slow down with every VGSC except Na_v1.8 which was not affected at any of the used concentrations. Both toxins showed the highest efficacy on para/tipE with an almost complete removal of the inactivation process. When the two toxins were compared, it was found that BgII showed a higher efficacy than BgIII, except on para/tipE where BgIII showed a slight but significant higher efficacy. There was no significant difference in efficacy regarding BgII between Na_v1.5/Na_v1.4 (*t*-test: P < 0.05).

Fig. 3 shows the concentration dependence of the slowing of inactivation induced by BgII and BgIII toxins on the tested VGSCs. EC₅₀ values were obtained after a sigmoidal fit of the data. For BgII, the following EC₅₀ values were obtained:

para/tipE 5.5 ± 0.5 nM, $Na_v 1.5/\beta_1 0.5 \pm 0.1$ μ M, $Na_v 1.4/\beta_1$ $1.0\pm0.1~\mu\text{M}$ and Na_v1.2/ $\beta_1~0.3\pm0.2~\mu\text{M}$. For BgIII, the following EC₅₀ values were obtained: para/tipE $1.3 \pm 0.2 \mu M$, $Na_v 1.5/\beta_1 5.1 \pm 0.5 \mu M$, $Na_v 1.4/\beta_1 9.8 \pm 0.9 \mu M$ and $Na_v 1.2/\beta_1 9.8 \pm 0.9 \mu M$ β_1 18.9 ± 2.0 μ M (see also Table 1). According to potency the following ranking is applicable for BgII: para/tipE≫ Na_v1.2/ $\beta_1 > Na_v 1.5/\beta_1 > Na_v 1.4/\beta_1 \gg Na_v 1.8/\beta_1$; for BgIII: para/ tipE > $Na_v 1.5/\beta_1 > Na_v 1.4/\beta_1 > Na_v 1.2/\beta_1 \gg Na_v 1.8/\beta_1$. should be stressed that the dose-response curve of BgII on para/tipE is almost completely separated from the other curves, indicating its insect selectivity. BgII is about one hundred times more potent on para/tipE as compared with $Na_v 1.2/\beta_1$. Moreover, the efficacy of BgII on $Na_v 1.2/\beta_1$ is only half that of para/tipE. The EC₅₀ values of BgIII indicate that this toxin is more than about two hundred times less potent than BgII. The EC₅₀ value of BgIII for para/tipE is almost 5 times lower than its next neighbour, Na_v1.5/β₁. BgIII shows a very low efficacy on Na_v1.4/ β_1 . The value of $I_{5 \text{ ms}}$ / I_{peak} of Na_v1.8/ β_1 is the highest of all VGSCs because this channel is known to be a slowly inactivating channel, indicating that after 5 ms the inactivation is far from completed. Interestingly, the efficacy of BgII and BgIII on Na_v1.8/ β_1 is zero, making this channel completely resistant to these sea anemone toxins. A similar observation was made with several classical α-scorpion toxins (unpublished data). The EC₅₀ values of $Na_v 1.5/\beta$ confirm the earlier published values by Goudet et al. [18].

4. Discussion

The main effect induced by BgII and BgIII is a concentration-dependent slowing of the inactivation process of sodium current. The electrophysiological effect of BgII and BgIII can be compared with other VGSCs toxins from sea anemones, for example, ATX II from Anemonia sulcata [19,20] or ApA and ApB from Anthopleura xanthogrammica [21]. These toxins inhibit the inactivation process of sodium channels which causes cardiotoxic and neurotoxic effects. The EC50 values of the sodium influx increase induced by ATX II, ApA and ApB in rat cardiac tissues are 15, 3 and 2 nM, respectively [22]. Our pharmacological comparison clearly indicates that para/tipE is profoundly and preferentially affected by BgII and BgIII. The difference in potency between these two toxins has already been reported by Loret et al. [8] and Goudet et al. [18]. It is a surprising observation that only one amino acid residue (Fig. 1) is responsible for drastically changing the potency while the efficacy remains practically unaffected.

Due to the fact that BgII seems to be very active on the insect sodium channel, it could serve as a template for further development of new insecticides. Pyrethroids, for instance, are commonly used as insecticides in crop protection, animal health and the control of insects that endanger human health.

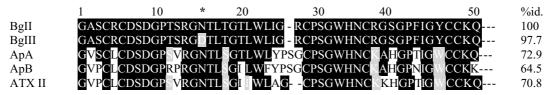


Fig. 1. Comparison of the amino acid sequences of BgII and BgIII (Bunodosoma granulifera); ApA and ApB (Anthopleura xanthogrammica); ATX II (Anemonia sulcata). Identical amino acids have a black background, homologous amino acids have grey background. * indicates the amino acid on position 16; %id. indicates the percentage of identity in comparison to BgII; dashes represent gaps.

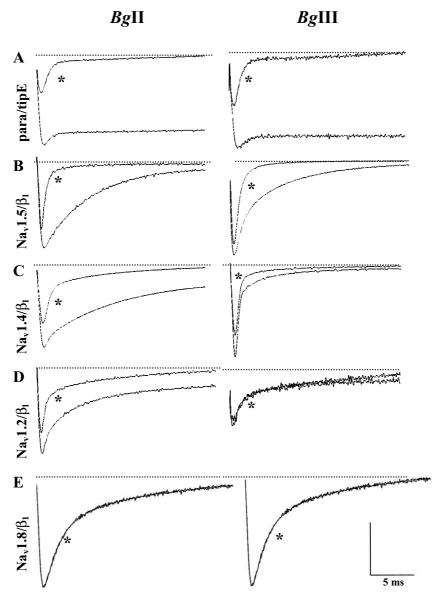


Fig. 2. Left column represents the effects of BgII, right column the effects of BgIII on the cloned sodium channels expressed in Xenopus oocytes. * represents control conditions where no toxin was added. A: Para/BgII (20 nM); para/BgIII (5 μ M). B: Na_v1.5/BgII (1 μ M); Na_v1.5/BgIII (60 μ M). C: Na_v1.4/BgIII (4 μ M); Na_v1.4/BgIII (100 μ M). D: Na_v1.2/BgIII (20 μ M); Na_v1.2/BgIII (120 μ M). E: Na_v1.8/BgIII (10 μ M). Current traces were evoked by depolarisations ranging from -20 to 10 mV, depending on the sodium channel, from a holding potential of -90 mV. E: No effect was observed after the addition of BgII and BgIII. A slowing of inactivation was observed for the other VGSCs. Scale bar: Y-axis scale for A and C=1 μ A; B=3 μ A, D=0.5 μ A; E=0.75 μ A.

Pyrethroids paralyse flying insects and, as such, are known as knockdown insecticides. The intensive use of these insecticides has led to the development of resistance in many insect species. One of the most important mechanisms of resistance in

Table 1 Summary of the obtained EC_{50} values of BgII and BgIII on the VGSCs

	EC ₅₀ BgII	EC ₅₀ BgIII	
Para/tipE	$5.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ nM}$	$1.3 \pm 0.2 \mu M$	
$Na_v 1.2/\beta_1$	$0.3 \pm 0.2 \mu M$	$18.9 \pm 2.0 \ \mu M$	
$Na_v 1.5/\beta_1$	$0.5 \pm 0.1 \mu M$	$5.1 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{M}$	
$Na_v 1.4/\beta_1$	$1.0 \pm 0.1 \mu M$	$9.8 \pm 0.9 \mu M$	
$Na_v 1.8/\beta_1$	_	_	

Data are mean ± S.E.M. of at least three experiments.

insects is the knockdown resistance (or kdr), caused by several mutations in the para gene (L1014F and M918T), which confers cross-resistance to the entire class of pyrethroids [23,24,12].

The natural predators of sea anemones are large crustaceans. Small crustaceans serve as food. One could assume that sea anemone toxins are directed against these organisms. We did not test *BgII* and *BgIII* on crustaceans, but the fact that these toxins are very potent for insect sodium channels could be an argument to say that there is a link between insects and crustaceans. Both of them indeed belong to the family of the arthropods. Proof of the link between insects and crustaceans has already been found on a genetic level [25]. The toxins studied in this work could be considered proof on a pharmacological level.

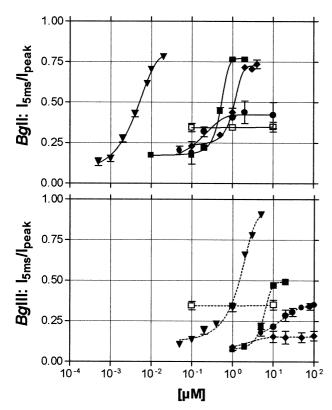


Fig. 3. Comparison of the dose–response curves of BgII (upper panel) and BgIII (lower panel) on para/tipE (\blacktriangledown), $Na_v1.5/\beta$ (\blacksquare), $Na_v1.2$ (\bullet), $Na_v1.4$ (\bullet) and $Na_v1.8$ (\square). The X-scale is the same for both panels in order to show the difference in potency between the two toxins. Y-axis is not normalised for better view of maximal efficacy of the toxins. Data are mean \pm S.E.M. of at least three experiments. EC_{50} values are discussed in the text.

Acknowledgements: We would like to thank the following persons: Martin S. Williamson, IACR-Rothamsted, UK, for sharing the para and tipE clone; John N. Wood, University College London, UK, for sharing Na_v1.8; A.L. Goldin, University of California, Irvine, CA, USA, for sharing Na_v1.2; G. Mandel, State University of New York, NY, USA, for sharing Na_v1.4; R.G. Kallen, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA, for sharing Na_v1.5, and S.H. Heinemann, Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena, Germany, for sharing the $β_1$ subunit. We are grateful to C. Goudet for his comments and suggestions.

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