

1 **RESEARCH REPORT**

2

3 **Application of phage display for the development of a novel inhibitor of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity in**  
4 **Western cottonmouth venom**

5 James K Titus, Matthew K Kay, CDR Jacob J Glaser and Yoon Y Hwang\*

6

7 Naval Medical Research Unit San Antonio, 3650 Chambers Pass, Fort Sam Houston, Texas  
8 78234, USA

9

10 \*Correspondence to: Yoon Hwang, Email: yoon.y.hwang.ctr@mail.mil

11

12 **Received:** 06 March 2017 | **Revised:** 17 August 2017 | **Accepted:** 12 September 2017 |

13 **Published:** 28 September 2017

14

15 © **Copyright** The Author(s). This is an open access article, published under the terms of the  
16 Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License

17 (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0>). This license permits non-commercial use,  
18 distribution and reproduction of this article, provided the original work is appropriately  
19 acknowledged, with correct citation details.

20

21

22 **ABSTRACT**

23

24 Snakebite envenomation is an important global health concern. The current standard treatment  
25 approach for snakebite envenomation relies on antibody-based antisera, which are expensive, not  
26 universally available, and can lead to adverse physiological effects. Phage display techniques  
27 offer a powerful tool for the selection of phage-expressed peptides, which can bind with high  
28 specificity and affinity towards venom components. In this research, the amino acid sequences of  
29 Phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>) from multiple cottonmouth species were analyzed, and a consensus  
30 peptide synthesized. Three phage display libraries were panned against this consensus peptide,  
31 crosslinked to capillary tubes, followed by a modified surface panning procedure. This high  
32 throughput selection method identified four phage clones with anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> activity against  
33 Western cottonmouth venom, and the amino acid sequences of the displayed peptides were  
34 identified. This is the first report identifying short peptide sequences capable of inhibiting PLA<sub>2</sub>  
35 activity of Western cottonmouth venom *in vitro*, using a phage display technique. Additionally,  
36 this report utilizes synthetic panning targets, designed using venom proteomic data, to mimic  
37 epitope regions. M13 phages displaying circular 7-mer or linear 12-mer peptides with antivenom  
38 activity may offer a novel alternative to traditional antibody-based therapy.

39

40 **KEYWORDS:** Antivenom, phage display, M13 phage, phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>, *Agkistrodon*  
41 *piscivorus* species, *in silico* design, Western cottonmouth

42

43 **INTRODUCTION**

44

45 Snakebite envenomation is a global health concern and classified as a neglected tropical disease  
46 by the World Health Organization (WHO 2007, 2010; Chippaux, 2017). Approximately 5.4  
47 million people are victims of snakebite worldwide each year, with 81,000-138,000 deaths and  
48 over 400,000 suffering from long-term disability, constant wound care, amputations and ongoing  
49 psychological morbidity. Nearly 9,000 cases of snakebite envenomation are reported in the  
50 United States and Canada every year (Smith et al, 2014; Mowry et al, 2013).

51

52 Venoms are extremely complex, consisting of hundreds of proteins, peptides, enzymes and non-  
53 enzymatic toxins (Hall et al, 2016). Through advancements in whole genome studies, venomomics  
54 has evolved to assess toxin composition directly and indirectly via proteome- or transcriptome-  
55 based methodologies. This research has shown that venom composition varies between and  
56 within species due to ontogenetic and geographical variability, and this complexity of venom has  
57 led to inconsistent antivenom potency. For example, the same antivenom produced in different  
58 geographic regions of India exhibits different therapeutic potential, indicating that the current  
59 antivenom manufacturing techniques do not adequately account for the diverse venom  
60 composition (Warrell et al, 2013). Restricted availability of species-specific antivenoms can be  
61 circumvented by designing and producing high potency multipurpose antivenoms effective  
62 against multiple species of snakes (Calvete et al, 2009). Antibody-based antivenoms are  
63 routinely prepared from the plasma of host animals immunized with venoms from multiple snake  
64 species. While this is a successful therapeutic approach for some snake species, there remain  
65 limitations in safety, efficacy, and economic aspects of manufacturing. Immediate

66 hypersensitivity reactions following administration of Crotalidae polyvalent immune Fab  
67 antivenom, including urticaria, dyspnea, hypotension, tachycardia, chest pain, and nausea may  
68 occur in 19% of patients, and the range of serum sickness incidence including fever, myalgia,  
69 epigastric pressure, and arthralgia is 6% - 23% (Schaeffer et al, 2012). In the United States the  
70 most typical antivenom therapy using Crotalidae polyvalent immune Fab could cost more than  
71 \$18,000 and its usage can be a financial burden for patients and hospitals (Weant et al, 2010).  
72 Thus, there is a need for a novel approach to develop antivenom solutions that are capable of  
73 rapid production and maximal efficacy without adverse reactions. Phage display techniques offer  
74 a comprehensive tool for the selection of phage-expressed peptides which have affinity for  
75 unique targets normally inaccessible to antibody-based methods (Wu et al, 2016). Hence, a  
76 phage display technique using composite consensus targets based on venom proteomic data  
77 could lead to the development of a broad spectrum inhibitor of multiple venoms.

78

79 To demonstrate proof-of-concept of phage display for the development of venom component  
80 inhibitor, the venom of the Western cottonmouth, *Agkistrodon piscivorus leucostoma*, a  
81 venomous New World pit viper found in North and Central America (Lomonte et al, 2014), was  
82 selected. Western cottonmouths inhabit a large geographic area and are found along the coast of  
83 the Gulf of Mexico into southeastern and central Texas, presenting a concern to civilian  
84 populations, as well as military operational and training sites across this region. Major  
85 components of the Western cottonmouth venom are phospholipases A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>, 43.2%),  
86 metalloproteases (26.1%) and serine proteases (10.1%) (Lomonte et al, 2014). The clinical  
87 effects of envenomation are the initiation of the coagulation cascade and blockage of  
88 neuromuscular transmission. Snake venom PLA<sub>2</sub> enzymes interfere in the normal physiological

89 processes of victim animals and induce a wide variety of pharmacological effects including  
90 neurotoxicity (Harris and Scott-Davey 2013), myotoxicity (Teixeira et al, 2003), and  
91 anticoagulant effects (Saikia et al, 2013).

92

93 In this study, conserved PLA<sub>2</sub> sequences from several species of cottonmouth snakes were  
94 identified and mapped to the three-dimensional (3D) crystal structure of PLA<sub>2</sub> to determine their  
95 solvent accessibility. Phage-displayed peptides with affinity towards the target consensus  
96 sequence were tested for the generation of potential venom inhibitors.

97

## 98 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

99

### 100 **Designing consensus sequence**

101 Queries against the UniProt database were used to gather amino acid sequences of target  
102 peptides. Sequences were uploaded to Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) to  
103 determine homologous regions using default parameters. Consensus peptides were designed  
104 based on areas of homology, and areas corresponding to active sites were given priority during  
105 the design process. The original sequences were aligned to the consensus sequence to ensure  
106 homology and identity. Once the validity of the consensus sequence was confirmed, the  
107 sequence was overlaid onto a crystal structure of the target protein. Crystal structure information  
108 was unavailable for Western cottonmouth PLA<sub>2</sub>, thus Eastern cottonmouth PLA<sub>2</sub> (PBD: 1PPA)  
109 was used to map consensus sequence. JSmol Viewer, an open-source Java viewer, from Research  
110 Collaboratory for Structural Bioinformatics Protein Data Bank (Berman et al, 2002) was used to  
111 visualize the 3D mapping of the solvent exposed regions of the target peptide.

112

113 **Screening of peptides with affinity to the consensus sequence**

114 A cleavable crosslinker, Sulfo-LC-SPDP (sulfosuccinimidyl 6-[3'-(2-  
115 pyridyldithio)propionamido]hexanoate) was used to bind the target peptide to the interior of an  
116 aminosilylated glass capillary tube. Briefly, a glass capillary tube was washed with acetone and  
117 treated with aminosilane reagent. The silylated glass capillary tube was then modified with 10  
118 mM Sulfo-LC-SPDP. After one hour incubation, the crosslinked capillary tube was rinsed twice  
119 with Coupling Buffer (50mM Phosphate, 150mM NaCl, 10mM EDTA, pH 7.2). The Sulfo-LC-  
120 SPDP modified capillary tube was filled with 5  $\mu$ l of the target PLA<sub>2</sub> consensus peptide  
121 (10mg/ml) and incubated overnight at 4°C to complete the crosslinking reaction. Phages were  
122 panned against target peptide using a modified panning method (Fralick, Chadha-Mohanty, and  
123 Li 2008). Briefly, a Marprene 0.5mm bore 1.6mm wall tubing (Watson-Marlow, Inc.,  
124 Wilmington, MA) circuit containing a 10 $\mu$ l capillary tube with crosslinked peptide was inserted  
125 into a peristaltic pump (Heidolph North America, Elk Grove Village, IL). The tubing circuit was  
126 blocked for one hour with Blocking Buffer [100mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, (pH 8.6), 5mg/ml bovine serum  
127 albumin (BSA)], then rinsed six times with 1x TBST [TBS + 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20]. Phage  
128 libraries (PhD -7, -12, -C7C Phage Display Peptide Library Kits, New England Biolabs, Ipswich,  
129 MA) were diluted to a working concentration of  $1 \times 10^{11}$  PFU/ml in 1x TBST, added to the circuit,  
130 and slowly circulated at a speed of <5 rpm for one hour at room temperature (RT). The tubing  
131 circuit was rinsed ten times with 1x TBST to facilitate removal of non-binding phages. After  
132 siphoning off non-binding phages, phages with high affinity to the target peptide were eluted  
133 using either Elution Buffer (25mM Dithiothreitol, pH 8.5) at 37°C for Ph.D.-7 and Ph.D.-12  
134 libraries or Acidic Elution Buffer [200mM Glycine-HCl (pH 2.2), 1mg/ml BSA] at RT for

135 Ph.D.-C7C phage library. Eluted high-affinity phages were collected in Eppendorf tubes and the  
136 Ph.D.-C7C eluent was neutralized using 1M Tris-HCl (pH 9.1). The eluate was diluted 1:1000 in  
137 phosphate buffered saline (PBS), then serially diluted and titered out for individual plaques on  
138 soft agar plates. An aliquot of the primary panning eluate was amplified for a new population of  
139 M13 phages up to  $1 \times 10^{12-13}$  PFU/ml for secondary panning. A second round of panning was  
140 carried out with a more stringent wash step (5x TBST). Individual phage clones from the  
141 secondary panning elute were selected on soft agar plates and amplified as before up to  $1 \times 10^{12-13}$   
142 PFU/ml. These clones were picked separately and grown up individually for PLA<sub>2</sub> inhibition  
143 assay. To monitor the accuracy of panning process, the polyclonal phage isolates from the  
144 primary panning were mixed with venom at varying concentrations ( $3.2 \times 10^{12}$  PFU/ml and  $8 \times$   
145  $10^{11}$  PFU/ml) and their anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was measured.

146

#### 147 **Phage harvesting and quantification**

148 Phages were harvested and quantified according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, phages  
149 were harvested using a polyethylene glycol precipitation method (Yu and Smith, 1996) and  
150 resuspended in PBS (pH 7.5). Collected phages were titered on isopropyl  $\beta$ -D-1-  
151 thiogalactopyranoside/5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl  $\beta$ -D-galactopyranoside (50mM IPTG/40mM  
152 X-Gal) Luria-Bertani medium. Phage clones were individually picked from soft agar titer plates  
153 and amplified based on the manufacturer's protocol for further testing.

154

#### 155 **Venom**

156 Snake venoms [Western cottonmouth, Eastern diamondback rattlesnake (*Crotalus adamanteus*),  
157 Western diamondback rattlesnake (*Crotalus atrox*), Mojave rattlesnake (*Crotalus scutulatus*),

158 and broad-banded copperhead (*Agkistrodon contortrix laticinctus*)], were obtained in lyophilized  
159 form from the National Natural Toxins Research Center (Kingsville, TX). Venoms were  
160 reconstituted at a concentration of 10mg/ml in PBS (pH 7.5) and diluted to working  
161 concentrations.

162

### 163 **PLA<sub>2</sub> Activity Assay**

164 PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was measured using the EnzChek Phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> Assay kit (Invitrogen, Eugene,  
165 OR) with modification. Briefly, the concentration of Western cottonmouth venom was optimized  
166 to be 4.88 mg/ml for the linearity of fluorescence signal from the plate reader. The selected  
167 phage clones were diluted to  $1 \times 10^{12}$  PFU/ml and incubated with Western cottonmouth venom  
168 for 30min at RT. A non-specific M13 phage clone was used as a negative control. After adding  
169 reaction substrate to phage and venom mixture, fluorescence (excitation at 485nm and emission  
170 at 528nm) was measured for 20min at one minute intervals to monitor the reaction. The overall  
171 PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was defined by the fluorescence level at the 10min time point.

172

### 173 **Cross-species Inhibition**

174 The inhibitory effect of monoclonal phage isolates on venoms beyond Western cottonmouth was  
175 determined using the EnzChek Phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> Assay kit with modification. Venom from the  
176 Western cottonmouth, Eastern diamondback rattlesnake, Western diamondback rattlesnake,  
177 Mojave rattlesnake, and broad-banded copperhead, was diluted to a working concentration of  
178 4.88µg/ml. Diluted venom was incubated with  $1 \times 10^{12}$  PFU/ml phage clones for 30min at RT. A  
179 non-specific M13 phage clone was used as a negative control. After adding reaction substrate to  
180 phage and venom mixture, fluorescence (excitation at 485nm and emission at 528nm) was



181 measured for 20min at one minute intervals to monitor the reaction. The overall PLA<sub>2</sub> activity  
182 was defined by the fluorescence level at the 10min time point.

183

#### 184 **DNA Sequencing**

185 The double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) replicative form (RF) isolates of monoclonal phage from  
186 single plaque-infected ER2738 cultures were extracted using the QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit  
187 (Qiagen, Germantown, MD) following manufacturer's directions. Extracted dsDNA RFs were  
188 sequenced upstream of the peptide insertion using the -96 gIII sequencing primer supplied with  
189 the Ph.D. Phage Display Peptide Library Kit. DNA sequences were translated to amino acid  
190 sequences using the ExPASy Translate tool from the Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics.

191

#### 192 **Statistical Analysis**

193 All experiments were conducted in triplicate and each fluorescence reading from the PLA<sub>2</sub>  
194 reaction mixture was measured from three separate wells. The means and standard deviations  
195 were calculated from relative fluorescence units. Student's *t*-test was used to determine the level  
196 of significance ( $p < 0.05$ ).

197

#### 198 **RESULTS**

199

200 The BLAST report identified a region of 120 amino acids with high consensus. A section of 57  
201 amino acids annotated as the active (yellow highlight) and metal binding site (red characters) for  
202 PLA<sub>2</sub> (Figure 1a) is shown. The section corresponding to the active site was matched to the  
203 predicted crystal structure of PLA<sub>2</sub> (PDB: 1PPA) from Eastern cottonmouth venom, and the

204 surface-exposed residues were annotated (Figure 1b). The consensus peptide used as the panning  
205 target shares  $\geq 95\%$  homology with the major North American Crotalid (rattlesnakes,  
206 copperheads and cottonmouths) PLA<sub>2</sub> proteins. During the panning process, polyclonal phage  
207 isolates from the primary panning process showed PLA<sub>2</sub> inhibition activity in a concentration-  
208 dependent manner (Figure 2). Two different concentrations of polyclonal anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> isolates  
209 ( $3.2 \times 10^{12}$  PFU/ml and  $8 \times 10^{11}$  PFU/ml) were incubated with Western cottonmouth venom,  
210 inhibiting PLA<sub>2</sub> activity by 55% and 15% of uninhibited venom. Since phages from the primary  
211 panning showed inhibition of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity, the secondary panning was conducted with these  
212 eluted phages in more stringent conditions (5x TBST). After the second round of phage panning,  
213 the eluent was amplified and tested against Western cottonmouth venom again. Four individual  
214 phage clones were selected from polyclonal mixture based on their anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> activity (Figure 3).  
215 These clones inhibited 30% to 60% of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity from Western cottonmouth venom. Phage  
216 DNA sequencing from the selected monoclonal isolates identified four unique sequences and  
217 their corresponding peptide sequences (Table 1). Three of the sequenced isolates were from the  
218 Ph.D.-C7C library, showing three circular 7-mer motifs (Ph.D.-C7C-6, Ph.D.-C7C-7, and Ph.D.-  
219 C7C-9). The fourth was from the Ph.D.-12 library with a linear 12-mer peptide (Ph.D.-12-7).  
220 Cross-species anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was tested against five major snake venoms in North America  
221 (Western cottonmouth, Eastern diamondback rattlesnake, Western diamondback rattlesnake,  
222 Mojave rattlesnake, and broad-banded copperhead) using one of selected anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> clones  
223 (Ph.D.-12-7). Results showed approximately 40% inhibition in Western cottonmouth venom and  
224 30% inhibition in the other crotalid venoms (Figure 4).

225

## 226 **DISCUSSION**

227

228 A consensus peptide, based on sequence homologous of PLA<sub>2</sub> in cottonmouth species venom,  
229 proved to be a viable target for the selection of anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> peptides displayed on M13 phages.  
230 Utilizing venom proteomic data, epitope design could be optimized *in silico* to produce a  
231 consensus antigenic determinant. This *in silico* approach could enhance the effective selection  
232 from a phage display library by targeting areas closely related to the venom activity, in contrast  
233 to serum-based methods that produce 5% - 36% therapeutically relevant antibodies (Laustsen et  
234 al, 2017). Successful selection of anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> display phages which can inhibit a major component  
235 of Western cottonmouth venom, PLA<sub>2</sub>, could open the door to targeting other venom  
236 components, including metalloprotease or serine protease, utilizing this approach. Selection of  
237 antivenom phages was completed within four months, including design and synthesis of a novel  
238 consensus peptide, panning several Ph.D. libraries, and characterizing inhibitory effects.

239

240 While the observed highest inhibitory rate was 60%, a synergistic inhibitory effect could be  
241 expected after combining all the selected anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> phages. Because four unique sequences of  
242 selected peptides displayed on M13 phages would target different regions of the PLA<sub>2</sub> active  
243 sites, a more comprehensive inhibitory effect could be observed. Expansion of target venom  
244 components is currently underway and the design of consensus peptides for both metalloprotease  
245 and serine protease is being formulated. Once inhibitory phages for the three major venom  
246 components have been identified, a phage cocktail will be assembled and its synergetic effect  
247 will be tested against whole venom in an animal model to confirm the efficacy in practical  
248 application. In addition to screening individual venom components in Western cottonmouth

249 venom, the universal consensus sequences of six other venoms from the Crotalidae subfamily  
250 have been identified for screening, incorporating features of all seven Crotalidae snake venoms.

251

252 Antivenom development and production towards the venom of small animals (eg. scorpion and  
253 spider) is hindered by the limited amounts of venom available for collection (Laustsen et al,  
254 2016). In this study, only 5  $\mu$ l of consensus venom peptide (10 mg/ml) was needed for the  
255 panning process. *In silico* design and synthesis of consensus peptides could provide an  
256 alternative solution to the limitation of venom availability. Design of *in silico* peptides could  
257 utilize transcriptome annotations to identify potential epitopes of unknown or punitive toxins. In  
258 addition, the design of consensus peptides could be based on shared homology across several  
259 genera or species. A future therapeutic product developed from multiple composite consensus  
260 peptides could show general effectiveness across venom components from several snake species  
261 in the geographic region. This design methodology could be expanded to include target  
262 molecules beyond proteins like carbohydrates and metals that are integral to venom components.

263

## 264 **CONCLUSIONS**

265

266 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report identifying short peptide sequences  
267 expressed on M13 phages that can inhibit PLA<sub>2</sub> activity of Western cottonmouth venom *in vitro*.  
268 The phage display methods conducted in this study could be implemented for the development of  
269 novel antivenom. Using BLAST search tool and subsequent categorization of venom sequences,  
270 the consensus target peptides of multiple peptide families could be systematically selected and  
271 used for the development of a universal antivenom covering snakes, reptiles, arachnids, sea

272 jellies, or other venomous species. Future work is needed to investigate the synergetic effects of  
273 selected phages on target venom components.

274

## 275 **DISCLAIMER**

276

277 The views expressed in this article are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the  
278 official policy or position of the Department of the Navy, Department of Defense, nor the United  
279 States Government. This work was supported and funded by the Naval Medical Research  
280 Center's In-house Laboratory Independent Research program using work unit number G1606.  
281 The authors are military service members or contract employees of the United States  
282 Government. This work was prepared as part of their official duties. Title 17 U.S.C. §105  
283 provides that 'Copyright protection under this title is not available for any work of the United  
284 States Government.' Title 17 U.S.C. §101 defines a United States Government work as a work  
285 prepared by a military service member or employee of the United States Government as part of  
286 that person's official duties. Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

287

## 288 **STATEMENT OF COMPETING INTERESTS**

289

290 One patent is pending on the selected phages with antivenom activity and their displayed  
291 peptides. No additional competing interests were declared by the authors.

292

## 293 **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

294

295 3D: Three-dimensional  
296 BLAST: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool  
297 IPTG: Isopropyl  $\beta$ -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside  
298 PBS: Phosphate buffered saline  
299 PFU: Plaque-forming unit  
300 PLA<sub>2</sub>: Phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>  
301 RF: Replicative form  
302 RT: Room temperature  
303 Sulfo-LC-SPDP: Sulfosuccinimidyl 6-[3'-(2-pyridyldithio)propionamido]hexanoate  
304 TBS: Tris-buffered saline  
305 TBST: TBS with 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20  
306 X-Gal: 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl  $\beta$ -D-galactopyranoside

307

## 308 **REFERENCES**

309

310 Berman HM, Battistuz T, Bhat TN et al. 2002. The Protein Data Bank. *Acta Crystallogr D Biol*  
311 *Crystallogr*, 58, 899-907.  
312 Calvete JJ, Sanz L, Angulo Y, Lomonte B and Gutierrez JM. 2009. Venoms, venomics,  
313 antivenomics. *FEBS Lett*, 583, 1736-1743.  
314 Chippaux J-P. 2017. Snakebite envenomation turns again into a neglected tropical disease! *J*  
315 *Venomous Animals Toxins Incl Trop Dis*, 23, 38.  
316 Fralick J, Chadha-Mohanty P and Li G. 2008. Phage Display and Its Application for the  
317 Detection and Therapeutic Intervention of Biological Threat Agents. In: Kendall R, Presley S,

318 Austin G, Smith P (Ed) *Advances in Biological and Chemical Terrorism Countermeasures*. Boca  
319 Raton, CRC Press, FL, USA, pp 179-202.

320 Hall A, Papacostas N, Gauthier G et al. 2016. Bites, Stings, and Envenomation - Guide providers  
321 in the evaluation and treatment of patients with bites and stings from animal life with focus on  
322 envenomation. *Joint Trauma System Clinical Practice Guideline*, 1-12.

323 Harris JB and Scott-Davey T. 2013. Secreted phospholipases A2 of snake venoms: effects on the  
324 peripheral neuromuscular system with comments on the role of phospholipases A2 in disorders  
325 of the CNS and their uses in industry. *Toxins (Basel)*, 5, 2533-2571.

326 Laustsen AH, Johansen KH, Engmark M and Andersen MR. 2017. Recombinant snakebite  
327 antivenoms: A cost-competitive solution to a neglected tropical disease? *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*,  
328 11, e0005361.

329 Laustsen AH, Sola M, Jappe EC, Oscoz S, Lauridsen LP and Engmark M. 2016.  
330 *Biotechnological Trends in Spider and Scorpion Antivenom Development*. *Toxins (Basel)*, 8,  
331 226.

332 Lomonte B, Tsai WC, Urena-Diaz JM, et al. 2014. Venomics of New World pit vipers: genus-  
333 wide comparisons of venom proteomes across Agkistrodon. *J Proteomics*, 96, 103-116.

334 Mowry JB, Spyker DA, Cantilena LR, Jr, Bailey JE and Ford M. 2013. 2012 Annual Report of  
335 the American Association of Poison Control Centers' National Poison Data System (NPDS):  
336 30th Annual Report. *Clin Toxicol (Phila)*, 51, 949-1229.

337 Saikia D, Majumdar S and Mukherjee AK. 2013. Mechanism of in vivo anticoagulant and  
338 haemolytic activity by a neutral phospholipase A(2) purified from *Daboia russelii russelii*  
339 venom: correlation with clinical manifestations in Russell's Viper envenomed patients. *Toxicon*,  
340 76, 291-300.

341 Schaeffer TH, Khatri V, Reifler LM and Lavonas EJ. 2012. Incidence of immediate  
342 hypersensitivity reaction and serum sickness following administration of Crotalidae polyvalent  
343 immune Fab antivenom: a meta-analysis. *Acad Emerg Med*, 19, 121-131.

344 Smith S, Sammons SS, Carr J, King TR, Ambrose HS, Zimmet L and Repasky TM. 2014.  
345 Bedside management considerations in the treatment of pit viper envenomation. *J Emerg Nurs*,  
346 40, 537-545.

347 Teixeira CF, Landucci EC, Antunes E, Chacur M and Cury Y. 2003. Inflammatory effects of  
348 snake venom myotoxic phospholipases A2. *Toxicon*, 42, 947-962.

349 Warrell DA, Gutierrez JM, Calvete JJ and Williams D. 2013. New approaches & technologies of  
350 venomics to meet the challenge of human envenoming by snakebites in India. *Indian J Med Res*,  
351 138, 38-59.

352 Weant KA, Johnson PN, Bowers RC and Armitstead JA. 2010. Evidence-based,  
353 multidisciplinary approach to the development of a crotalidae polyvalent antivenin (CroFab)  
354 protocol at a university hospital. *Ann Pharmacother*, 44, 447-455.

355 WHO. 2007. Rabies and Envenomings A Neglected Public Health Issue.

356 WHO. 2010. WHO Guidelines for the Production Control and Regulation of Snake Antivenom  
357 Immunoglobulins.

358 Wu CH, Liu IJ, Lu RM and Wu HC. 2016. Advancement and applications of peptide phage  
359 display technology in biomedical science. *J Biomed Sci*, 23, 8.

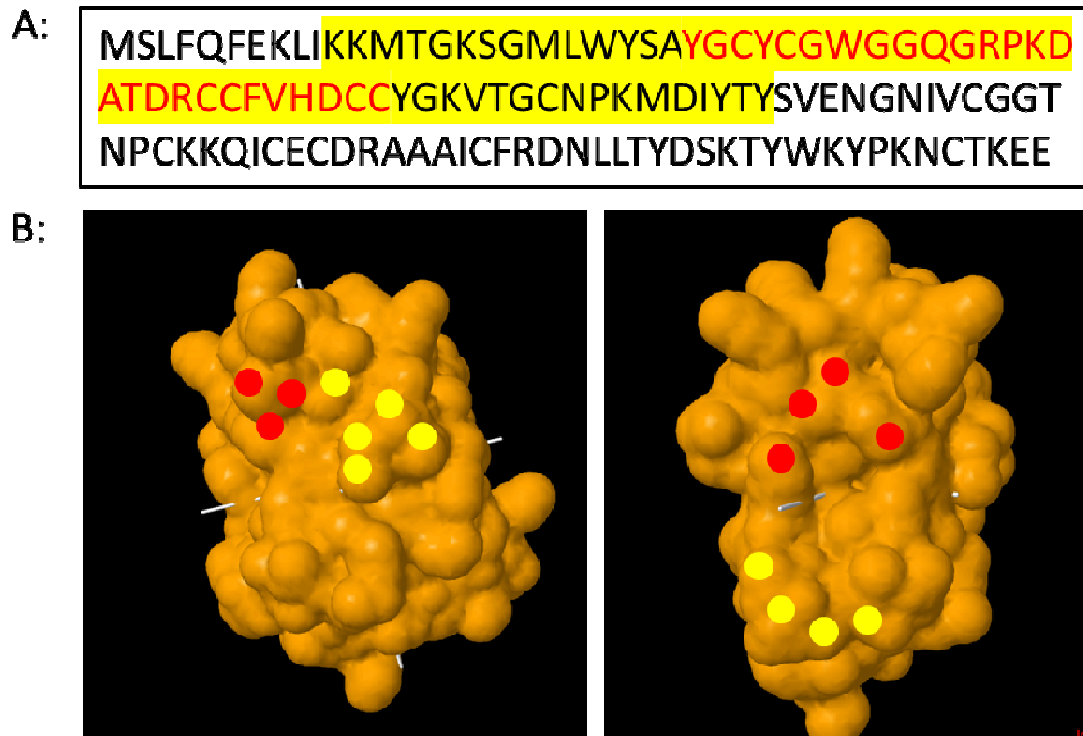
360 Yu J and Smith GP. 1996. Affinity maturation of phage-displayed peptide ligands. *Methods*  
361 *Enzymol*, 267, 3-27.

362



363 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

364



365

366 **Figure 1.** *In silico* design of consensus peptide from Cottonmouth PLA<sub>2</sub>. **A.** Homology sequence

367 of PLA<sub>2</sub> from cottonmouth species. This sequence corresponds to the homologous sequence

368 between three PLA<sub>2</sub> proteins from cottonmouth species. The yellow section corresponds to the

369 active site and was synthesized as the target molecule for panning. Characters in red are the

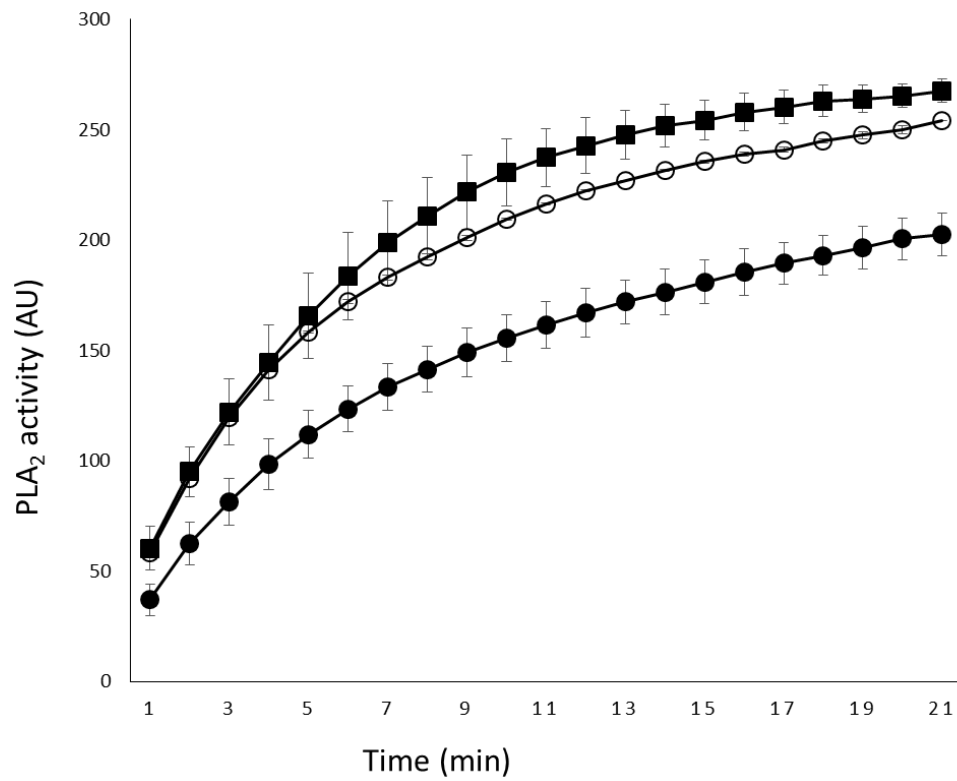
370 metal binding site, based on BLAST annotations. **B.** Crystal Structure of *A. p. leucostoma* PLA<sub>2</sub>.

371 The front and 90° counterclockwise rotated views of PLA<sub>2</sub> are shown. Colored circles annotate

372 shared solvent-exposed residues with the synthesized homologous sequence (red: metal binding

373 site, yellow: active site).

374



375

376 **Figure 2.** Anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> activity of polyclonal M13 phages after the primary panning. Two different

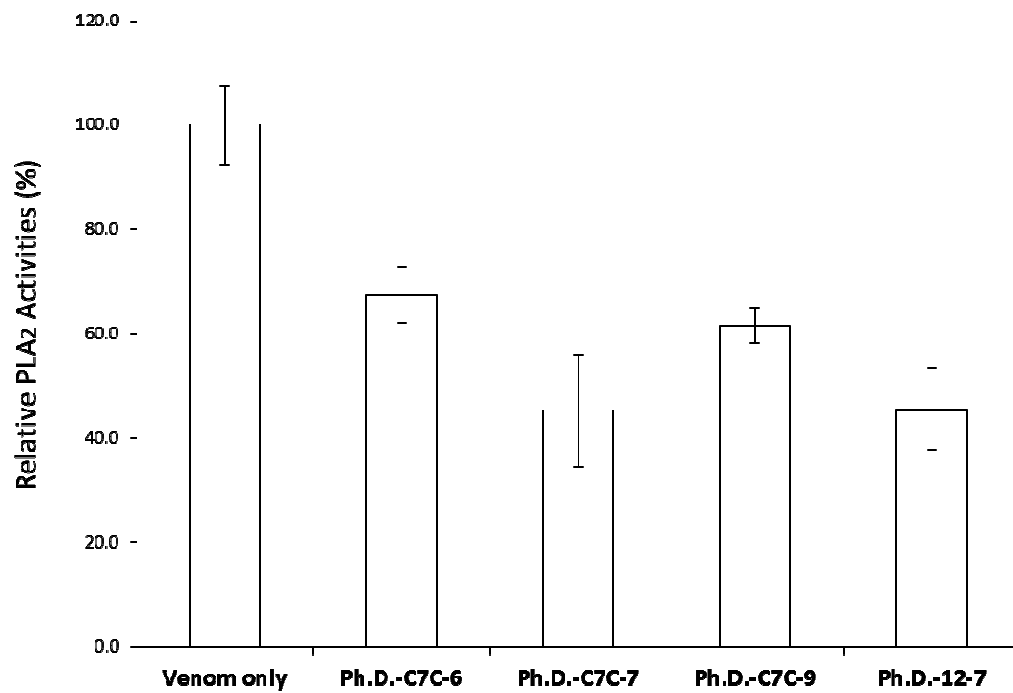
377 concentration of polyclonal anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> M13 phages after the primary panning inhibited 55% and

378 15% of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity of Western cottonmouth venom after 30min incubation. [■: venom only

379 ( $4.88\mu\text{g/ml}$ ); ○: venom with  $8 \times 10^{11}$  PFU/ml of anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> phages; ●: venom with  $3.2 \times 10^{12}$

380 PFU/ml of anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> phages.]

381



382

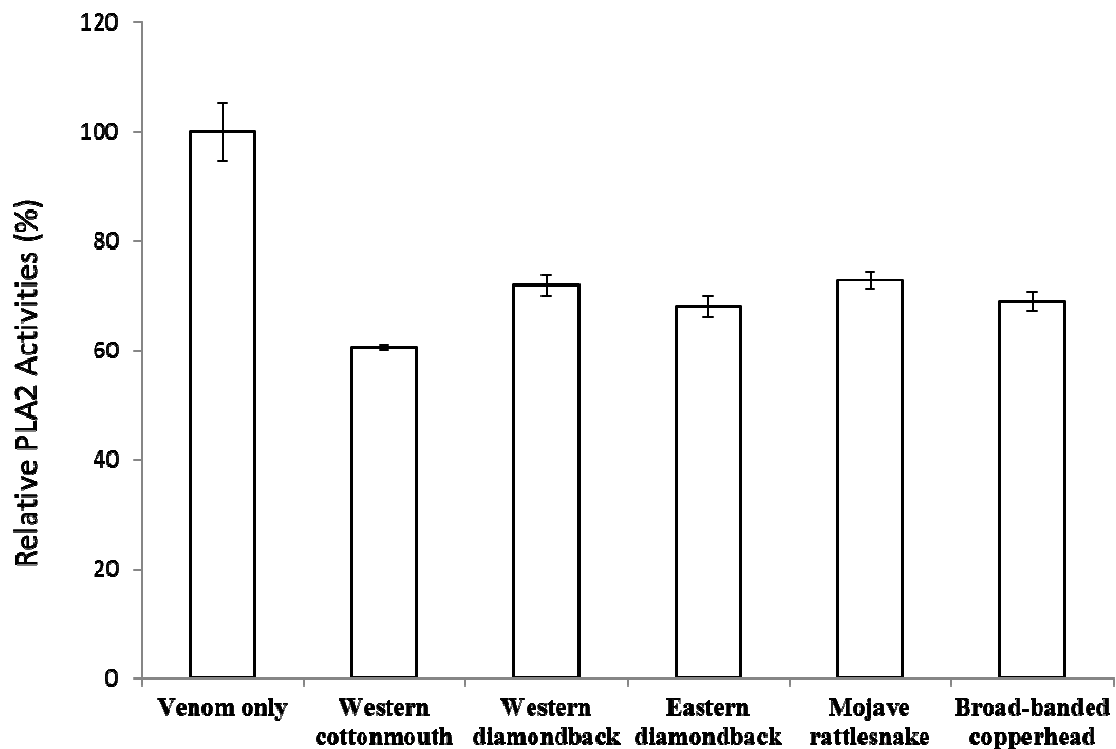
383 **Figure 3.** Anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> activities of selected M13 phage clones. Incubation with selected phage

384 clones isolated from phage display libraries inhibited the PLA<sub>2</sub> activity of *A. p. leucostoma*

385 venom by 30-60% during the first 10min. Phage clones were incubated with 4.88μg/ml of venom

386 for 30min.

387



388

389 **Figure 4.** Cross-species anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> activity of Ph.D.-12-7 phages against five major snake  
 390 venoms in North America. Cross-species anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> activity was tested against five major snake  
 391 venoms in North America (Western cottonmouth, Eastern diamondback rattlesnake, Western  
 392 diamondback rattlesnake, Mojave rattlesnake, and broad-banded copperhead) using one of  
 393 selected anti-PLA<sub>2</sub> clones (Ph.D.-12-7). Approximately 40% inhibition in Western cottonmouth  
 394 venom and 30% inhibition in the other crotalid venoms were observed.

395

396 **Table 1:** Nucleotide sequences and corresponding peptide sequences of selected monoclonal  
397 phage binding motifs.  
398

<b>Monoclonal Isolate</b>	<b>Nucleotide Sequence</b>	<b>Peptide Sequence</b>
<b>Ph.D.-C7C-6</b>	TCGCCGTTGCATAAGACTATG	SPLHKTM
<b>Ph.D.-C7C-7</b>	TCGGGGATGAAGAAGACGAAG	SGMKKTK
<b>Ph.D.-C7C-9</b>	AAGACGACGAAGATGGGGTTG	KTTKMGL
<b>Ph.D.-12-7</b>	AAGCTTATTCATGGTAATGGTGTTATGGATGAGGGG	KLIHNGVMDEG

399