

A Review of Antifungal Peptides: Basis to New Era of Antifungal Drugs

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ABSTRACT

The limited arsenal of antifungal drugs coupled with the growing number of drug resistant isolates of Yeast pathogens stresses the need for the development of new antifungal agents with new mechanisms of action. Antimicrobial peptides, an active arm of the innate immunity, represent the natural arsenal against pathogens including the yeast. This review is focused on studying the biophysical prosperities (net charge, stereospecificity, conformation, amphipathicity, hydrophobicity, and length) of the peptides that exhibit antifungal activity enclosed within the antimicrobial peptides database till September/2015. Studying these peptides may be the key for discovering and developing of new potent antifungal agents as they have served as models in drug discovery. Furthermore, the review discusses the main obstacles and barriers -specifically the salt sensitivity- that prevents antifungal peptides from becoming successful drug stories. Proposed solutions from industry and nature are also discussed. This review serves as a potential base for utilizing antifungal peptides in drug discovery.

Keywords: Antimicrobial peptides, Antifungal peptides, Hydrophobicity, Amphipathicity, Cationic peptides, Anionic peptides, Salt intolerance.

1. INTRODUCTION

The extensive use of current available antifungal drugs has resulted in the appearance of drug resistant strains and their incidence is increasing drastically. For instance, resistant yeast to azoles¹⁻⁵, polyenes⁶⁻¹⁰, and echinocandins¹¹⁻¹⁵ have been isolated. Also uncommon human fungal pathogens, which by nature resist current antifungal drugs, start gaining further attention especially in immunocompromised patients such as *Aspergillus* spp (flavus and fumigatus)¹⁶, *zygomycetes* spp (mucorales and entomophthorales)¹⁷, *Fusarium* spp (solani and oxysporum)¹⁸, and *Scedosporium* spp (prolificans and aurantiacum)^{19, 20}. Given the morbidity and mortality associated with yeast infections, there is a strong emphasis on the development of new anti-fungal drugs

with novel mechanisms-of-action ²¹.Concequently, the newly designed antifungal drugs would be less likely to be affected by current resistance mechanisms or subjected to the possibility of cross-resistance. The average length of time for a drug to reach the market and get the FDA approval is approximately 15 years²². Therefore, the current focus on developing new antifungal drugs is a logic step before our current arsenal of drugs fail.

This review discusses peptides featuring antifungal activities (antifungal peptides-AFPs) as antifungal agents with focusing on studying the biophysical characteristics that may interfere with the antifungal activity; net charge, stereospecificity, hydrophobicity, amphipathicity, secondary structure, and peptide length. Furthermore, this review presents the post-translation modification in the natural antifungal peptides as a lesson from nature to improve the activity. The obstacles preventing AFPs from reaching the market were also addressed with emphasis on the salt sensitivity. Finally, salt resistance peptides were summarized and analyzed.

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2. Antimicrobial and Antifungal Peptides

Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are known to play an important role in the human innate immune response against pathogenic and opportunistic microorganisms². The AMPs also serve as promising candidates for new therapeutic compound as they possess unique features; broad activity, rapid action, low microbial resistance and high selectivity. Consequently, several synthetic and semi-synthetic peptide -based- drug have been synthesized²³.

The broad activity of AMPs makes it difficult to exclusively classify them as antifungal or antibacterial. There are relatively few examples where a peptide retains solely antifungal or antibacterial activities. In some cases, AMPs could be antibacterial; however, their antifungal activities have not been tested yet, and vice versa. This review will discuss antimicrobial peptides that exhibit anti-fungal activities and they will be referred to as antifungal peptides²⁴⁻²⁸.

The AMPs which include AFPs represent a diverse array of sequences, and there could be no perfect way to classify them. Several reviews have classified the AMPs using different criteria: secondary structures^{29, 30}, source and the mechanism of action^{26, 30, 31}, cells that produce the peptide^{32, 33, 34}, post-translation modification³⁵ and the species (eukaryotic and prokaryotic)^{36, 37}.

3. The antimicrobial peptide database:

To get a broad picture of currently available AFPs, the antimicrobial peptide database (<http://aps.unmc.edu/AP/main.php>)³⁸ was mined till September/2015 for all possible candidates. In the database search engine, only Fungi were selected under Antimicrobial Activity section and everything else was left empty. Subsequently, around 940 AMPs exhibiting antifungal activities were resulted and then studied. To calculate the percentage of each biophysical characteristic within the database, the search engine tools were utilized.

4. Biophysical properties of AFPs

This section discusses the main biophysical characteristics of AFPs in general which includes net

charge, stereospecificity, hydrophobicity, amphipathicity, secondary structure, and peptide length. It is important to mention that some of these characteristics are interdependent; therefore, modification of one character may lead to alterations in the other.

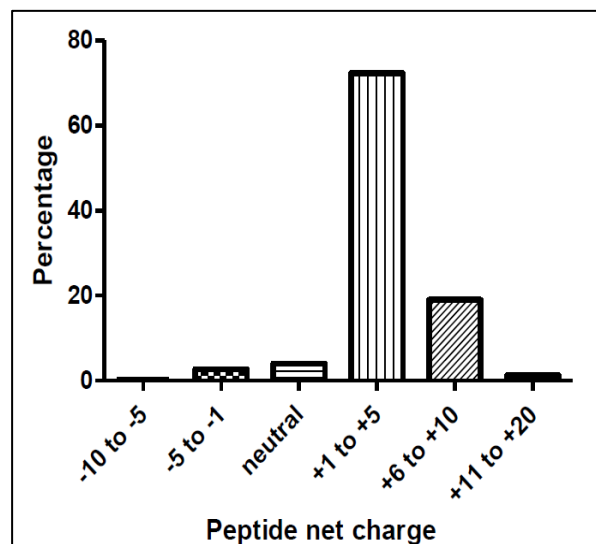


Figure 1: Distribution of the net charge within anti-fungal peptides. The data were generated using the antimicrobial peptide database

4.1 Charge

According to the net charge, the AFPs can be classified into three categories; cationic, neutral, and anionic peptides. The vast majority of database available AFPs are cationic (Figure 1) and display a positive net charge which ranges between +1 to +15 (Table 1).

In cationic AFP, the positive charge plays an important role whereby an electrostatic binding to the negatively charged membrane is initiated. However, increasing the positive charge does not always improve the antifungal activity, it depends on the peptide sequence and secondary structure³⁹. Hence, the increase in positive net charge has shown different effects on the antifungal activity. For example, increasing the number of lysine residues within dF17-6K (compare with dF21-10K) improved the antifungal activity⁴⁰. On the other hand, increasing the charge within MtDef4 peptide from +6 to +7 had an inhibitory effect on the activity against *F.*

*graminearum*⁴¹. It has been demonstrated that increasing peptide positive net charge beyond a threshold might lead to a strong interaction with the negatively charged membrane, resulting in an inhibition in peptide

translocation into the cell⁴². In some peptides, the amount of the positive charge and the net charge was not as important as the location of the cationic residue³⁹.

Table 1. Examples of cationic AFPs sorted in ascending order by the net charge

Name	Origin	Amino acid sequence	Activity	Secondary structure PDB	Net Charge	Ref.
Helioamicin	<i>Heliothis virescens</i> (worm)	DKLIGSCVWGA VNYTSDCNGECKRRGY KGGHCGSFANVNCWCET	<i>C. albicans</i> <i>C. neoformans</i>	Helix and Be112U	+1	144
Metchnikowin	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	HRHQGPIFDTRPSPFNPNQPRPGPIY	<i>F. graminearum</i>	unknown	+2	145
Maximin 1	<i>Bombina maxima</i>	GIGTKILGGVKTALKGALKELASTYAN	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	+3	146
Ranatuerin 1	<i>Rana catesbeiana</i>	SMSVLKNLGKVGGLGFVACKINKQC	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	+4	147
Melittin	<i>Apis mellifera</i>	GIGAVLKVLTTGLPALISWIKRKRQQ	<i>C. albicans</i>	Helix 1MLT	+5	148
Tachystatin A2	<i>achypleus tridentatus</i>	YSRCQLQGFNCVRSYGLPTIPCCRGLT CRSYFPGSTYGRQRY	<i>C. albicans</i>	Beta 1CIX	+6	149
MBP-1	<i>Zea mays L</i>	RSGRGECCRQCLRRHEGQPWETQECMR RCRRRG	<i>F. graminearum</i> <i>F. moniliforme</i>	Helix ¹	+7	150
Lactoferricin B	<i>Bos Taurus</i>	FKCRRWQWRMKKLGAPSITCVRRAF	<i>C. albicans</i> <i>T. mentagrophytes</i> <i>T. rubrum</i>	Beta 1LFC	+8	151
1AFP	<i>Aspergillus giganteus</i>	ATYNGKCYKKNICKYKAQSGKTAICK CYVKKCPRDGAKCEFDSEYKGGKCYC	<i>F. sambucinum</i> <i>N. crassa</i> <i>A. niger</i>	Beta 1AFP	+9	152
BMAP-27	<i>Bos taurus</i>	GRFKRFRKKFKKLFKLSPIPLHLG	<i>C. albicans</i> <i>C. neoformans</i>	Helix 2KET	+10	153
sBD-1	<i>Ovis arues</i>	NRLSCHRNGVCVPSRCPRHMRQIGTC RGPPVKCCRKK	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	+11	154
Buforin I	<i>bufo gargarizans</i>	AGRKGQGGKVRKAKTRSSRAGLQFPV GRVHRLLRKGNV	<i>C. albicans</i> <i>S. cerevisiae</i> <i>C. neoformance</i>	unknown	+12	155
CXCL14	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	SKCKCSRKGPKIRYSDVKKLEMKPKYP HCEEK MVIITTKSVSRYRGQEHCLHPKL QSTKRFIKWYNWNEKRRVYEE	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	+13	156

CodCath	<i>Gadus morhua</i>	SRSGRGSGKGGRRGSSRGSSGRGSKGPS GSRGSSGRGSKGSRGGRSGRGSTIAGN GNRNNGGTRTA	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	+15	157
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Table 2. Anionic AFPs sorted in ascending order by the net charge

Name	Origin	Amino acid sequence	Activity	Secondary structure PDB	Net Charge	Ref.
Tn-AFP	<i>Trapa atans</i>	LMCTHPLDCSN	<i>C. tropicalis</i>	Unknown	-1	158
An-AFP	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	SKYGGECSVEHNTCTYLKGGKD HIVSCPSAANLRCKTERHHCEYD EHHKTVDCQTPV	<i>C. albicans</i> , <i>S. cerevisiae</i> <i>T. beigeli</i> , <i>F. solani</i> <i>F. oxysporum</i> , <i>A. fumigatus</i> <i>A. flavus</i>	Unknown	-1	159
Kalata B1	<i>Viola betonicifolia</i>	GLPVCGETCFGGTCNTPGCTCT WPICTRD	<i>C. kefyr</i>	Helix and Beta 1PT4	-1	160, 161
PvD1	<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	KTCENLADTYKGPCFTTGSCD	<i>C. albicans</i> , <i>C. parapsilosis</i> , <i>C. tropicalis</i> , <i>C. cerevisiae</i>	Expected Helix and Beta	-1	162, 163
human Dermcidin	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	SSLLEKGLDGAKKAVGGLGKLG KDAVEDLESVKGAVHDVKDV LDSV	<i>C. albicans</i>	Helix-2KSG	-2	52
EP-20	<i>Xenorhabdus budapestensis</i>	EGPVGLADPDGPASAPLGAP	<i>P. capsici</i> <i>V. dahliae</i>	Unknown	-3	44
Beta-amyloid peptide	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	DAEFRHDSGYEVHHQKLVFFAE DVGSNKGAIIGLMVGGVV	<i>C. albicans</i>	Helix 1IYT	-3	51
Ls-Stylicin1	<i>Litopenaeus stylirostris</i>	SSFSPPRGPPGWPPCVQQPCPK CPYDDYKCTCDKFPECEECPI SIGCECGYFSCECPKPVCEPCESP IAELIKKGGYKG	<i>F. oxysporum</i>	Unknown	-3	164
Gm anionic peptide-2	<i>Galleria mellonella</i>	EADEPLWLYKGDNIERAPTTAD HPILPSIIDDVKLDPNRRYA	<i>P. pastoris</i> <i>P. stipites</i> <i>C. albicans</i> <i>C. fructus</i> <i>Z. marxianus</i>	Unknown	-4	165

Microplusin	<i>Rhipicephalus</i> (<i>Boophilus</i>) <i>Microplus</i>	HHQELCTKGDDALVTELECIRLR ISPETNAAFDNAVQQLNCLNRA CAYRKMCAATNNLEQAMSVYFT NEQIKEIHDAATACDPEAHHEH DH	<i>S. cerevisiae</i> <i>C. neoformans</i>	Helix 2KNJ	-8	166
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Although the vast majority of AFPs families are cationic, a few are neutral (table 2). For example, Aurein 1.1 is neutral; whereas, the other 11 Aurin peptides are cationic. The brevinin family is another example where brevinin-1- OR3, OR6, OR8, and OR9 are neutral peptides and the rest are cationic⁴³. An exceptional case is GP-19 peptide, which is neutral, and GP-20 peptide is anionic⁴⁴. Despite the net charge is neutral, It has been suggested that the positive charges within the neutral peptides are still able to initiate enough electrostatic interactions with the negatively charged membrane^{45 44 46}. This theory does not fit with Gp-19 and Temporin-1PRb peptides as their sequence lack charged amino acids, and they exhibit antifungal activities.

The first anionic AMPs were described in 1984⁴⁷ and after that several anionic peptides were identified in both eukaryotes and prokaryotes^{48, 49}. Just like cationic AMPs, anionic AMPs might play an important role in the innate immunity⁵⁰. Out of 116 anionic peptides described in the peptide database, only 11 peptides have shown antifungal activity with net charges range from -1 to -8 at neutral pH (table 3). Unlike cationic peptides, anionic peptides display a negative net charge that could lead to repulsion with the negatively charged membrane. It has been found-in anionic peptides- that the overall positive charge is not a prerequisite for the binding to the membrane, and the key modulators of lipid bilayers-peptide interaction is the charge distribution and the secondary structure⁵¹. Consequently, the anionic peptides might be able to interact with the membrane because their basic amino acids are distributed in such a way to give them the accessibility and limit the repulsive effect of negatively charged residues. This model does not fit all anionic peptides since some of these peptides do not have a single basic amino acid, such as Tn-AFP and EP-20. Surprisingly, these peptides retain the capability of

binding to the target membrane, and this binding is critical for the activity^{50,52}. The other suggested explanation is that the anionic peptides form cationic salt bridges with membrane negative charges via metal ions^{49,50, 52}.

4.2. Stereospecificity

Stereospecificity means certain biological processes or chemical reactions are specified for only one of several possible stereoisomers. Within peptides, the focus is on enantiomers or optical isomers. Generally, stereospecificity in the binding processes is an essential requirement for peptide or protein-target interaction and lacking this characteristic might suggest a lack of overall specificity⁵³.

In AMPs, binding to the target microorganism is required to achieve an activity; however, the majority of the AMPs are not stereospecific with some exceptions⁵⁴. Several publications have shown that all-D-amino acid peptides demonstrated similar antimicrobial activities as their all-L-enantiomers⁵⁵⁻⁵⁸. As a subgroup of AMPs, AFPs exhibited the same characteristic^{55, 59} and multiple examples were published demonstrating the stereoisomeric AFPs were equal in activity^{55, 59}. For example, all-D variants of the histatin peptide fragments (including P-113) are equally internalized and they exhibited the same activity. Therefore, the involvement of a stereospecific receptor was excluded^{60, 61}. However, in some case the stereospecificity may interfere with the AFPs activity but at a lesser extent than AMPs. The thanatin peptide is an example of a stereospecific AMP, where the activity against gram-positive bacteria was inhibited in all-D enantiomers, but the activity was retained against fungi just like L-thanatin⁶². The Bac7 peptide, a cathelicidin derived peptide, is a unique example where its antifungal activity shows some

stereospecificity. It has been shown that Bac7 exhibits a stereospecific binding to *C. neoformans* membrane at concentrations near the MIC values, but this interaction became non-stereoselective at higher concentrations⁶³. In conclusion, despite the net charge, the vast majority of AFPs are not stereo-specific.

4.3. Conformation

Similar to other AMPs, there is no dominant conformation within the AFPs; they differ in sequence and secondary structure. The antifungal peptides could be defined according to their conformation into five categories: α -helix, β -hairpin or sheet, mixed α -helix/ β -sheet, amino acid rich peptides, and unknown (not determined yet) (Figure 2).

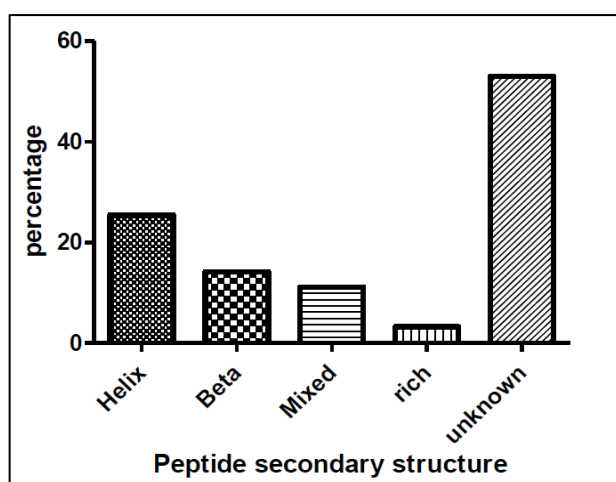


Figure 2: Distribution of the secondary structure within anti-fungal peptides.

Unfortunately, the conformations of more than 50% of AFPs found in the database have not been determined yet. Within the remaining 50%, α -helices are the abundant within AFPs; however, they frequently exist as unstructured conformers. These peptides become helical only upon interaction with an amphipathic membrane such as a fungal plasma membrane⁶⁴. The β -sheet containing AFPs are less abundant than α -helix, and this category is highly diverse at the level of primary structure but they share common features, such as the amphipathic

structure⁴². While studying the peptides within the antimicrobial database, it has been noted that AFPs with beta structure share a common feature; containing at least 2 cysteine residues. This feature is not always present in AMPs since there are beta structured AMPs without a disulfide bridge⁶⁵⁻⁶⁸.

Most amino acid-rich AFPs could be further divided into one of the following subgroups: Gly-rich, Pro-rich, Arg-rich, His-rich, and Trp-rich. According to the antimicrobial peptide database, AFPs did not contain any Lys-rich peptides which typically found in AMPs, such as the dermaseptin family⁶⁹ and GLK-19³⁸. AFPs enriched in particular amino acids exhibited different conformations forming unusual helices or sheets. For instance, tritrypticin, a tryptophan-arginine rich peptide, has retained multiple structures upon binding to a micelle, including a turn-turn and extended α -helix structure⁷⁰. SP-B, a proline-rich peptide exhibited both antibacterial and antifungal activity, is composed of polyproline-II helices, unordered and turn motifs⁷¹.

The secondary structure is very diverse with abundance of alpha helix in all classified peptides (anionic, neutral and cationic AFPs) (Table 3).

4.4. Amphipathicity

Amphipathicity is defined as the ability of a molecule to adopt a shape or structure in which clusters of hydrophobic and hydrophilic amino acids are spatially organized in discrete sectors²⁹. Most of the AMPs as well as the AFPs form amphipathic structures upon interaction with target membranes. Amphipathicity for a peptide is usually determined by the hydrophobic moment (μ_H)⁴², which is the hydrophobicity of a peptide measured for different angles of rotation (0-180 degree) per residue⁷². Measuring the μ_H for a peptide assists in recognizing amphipathic structures via determining when the residues on one side of the structure are more hydrophobic than on the other⁷³.

Regardless the net charge of the AFPs and secondary structure, with some exceptions, increasing the hydrophobic moment leads to increase the antifungal activity via promoting membrane permeabilization. For

instance, In P19(6/E) peptide, research has shown the reduction of amphipathicity by scrambling the sequence was enough to reduce the antifungal activity against *C.*

albicans and *C. neoformans*, even though the amino acid composition, charge, mean hydrophobicity and helical propensity were the same⁷⁴.

Table 3. Examples of neutral AFPs. These examples represent the vast majority of neutral AFPs within the database

Name	Origin	Amino acid sequence	Activity	Secondary structure PDB	Ref.
Aurein 1.1	<i>Litoria raniformis</i>	GLFDIHKIAESI	<i>C. albicans</i> , <i>C. Tropicalis</i> <i>C. Krusi</i> , <i>C. Parapsilosis</i> <i>C. glabrata</i>	Helix 2F3A	167
Maculatin 1.1	<i>Litoria genimaculate</i>	GLFVGVLAKVAAHVPAIAEH F	<i>C. albicans</i>	Helix	168
Skin tyrosine peptide	<i>Phyllomedusa bicolor</i>	YPPKPESPGEDASPEEMNKYL ALRHYINLVTRQRY	<i>C. albicans</i> , <i>A. fumigatus</i> <i>C. neoformans</i>	unknown	169
-Galleria defensin -Galleria defensin like	<i>Galleria mellonella</i>	DTLIGSCVWGATNYTSDCNAE CKRRGYKGGHCGSFLNVNCW CE DKLIGSCVWGATNYTSDCNAE CKRRGYKGGHCGSFWNVNCW CEE	<i>C. albicans</i> , <i>G. candidum</i> <i>C. neoformans</i> , <i>F. oxysporum</i>	unknown	170 165
Gm cecropin D-like peptide	<i>Galleria mellonella</i>	ENFFKEIERAGQRIRDAIISAAP AVETLAQAQKIIGGD	<i>A. niger</i>	unknown	165
Histatin 2	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	RKFHEKHSHREFPFYGDYGS NYLYDN	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	171
Temporin-1PRb	<i>Rana pirica</i>	ILPILGNLLNSLL	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	172
Neuropeptide Y	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	YPSKPDNPGEDAPAEDMARYY SALRHYINLITRQRY	<i>C. neoformans</i> , <i>C. albicans</i> <i>C. krusei</i> , <i>C. utilis</i>	Helix 1RON	45 173
GHH20	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	GHHPHGHHPHGHHPHGHHHP H	<i>C. parapsilosis</i> , <i>C. albicans</i>	Helix	98
Ha-DEF1	<i>Helianthus annuus</i>	ELCEKASQTWSGTCGKTKHCD DQCKSWEGAAHGACHVRDGK HMCFCYFNC	<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	unknown	174
Drosomycin-2	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	DCLSGKYKGPCAVWDNEMCR RICKEEGHISGHCSPLKCWCE GC	<i>N. crassa</i> , <i>G. candidum</i> <i>S. cerevisiae</i>	Helix Beta-1MYN	175

Sm-AMP-D1	<i>Stellaria media L</i>	KICERASGTWKGICHSNDCNN QCVKWENAGSGSCHYQFPNY MCFCYFDC	<i>Phytopathogenic fungi</i>	unknown	176
Brevinin-1-OR3	<i>Odorrana rotodora</i>	IDPFVAGVAAEMMQHVYCAA SKKC	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	43
Andersonin-X1	<i>Odorrana andersonii</i>	GLFSKFAGKGIVNFLIEGVE	<i>C. albicans</i>	unknown	43
GP-19	<i>Xenorhabdus budapestensis NMC- 10</i>	GPVGLLSPPGSLPPVGGAP	<i>F. omycesporum, P. capsici V. dahlia, F. graminearum</i>	unknown	44

Most of the α -helical AFPs have amphipathic structures, but some are not. For example, kaxins is a class of AFPs that do not exhibit an amphipathic structure^{40, 75}. This class has displayed antifungal activity with minimum hemolytic activity, and that supports the correlation between peptide amphipathicity and hemolysis⁴⁰.

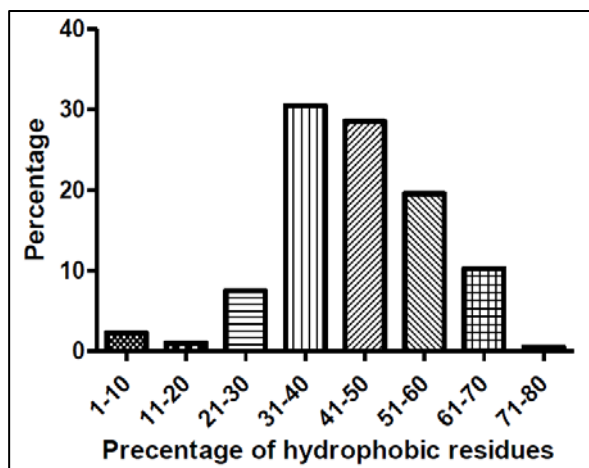


Figure 3: Percentage of the hydrophobic residues within anti-fungal peptides.

The amphipathicity is also observed in β -structures. Tachyplesin and polyphemusin are examples of amphipathic β -sheet⁷⁶ while Rhesus theta defensin-1 (RTD-1) peptide is an example of non-amphipathic β -sheet⁷⁷. In amino acid -rich peptides, the amphipathic structure was also perceived such as in histatin 5(His-

rich)⁷⁸ and Pac-525 (Trp-rich)⁷⁹. It is also important to mention that all proline-arginine rich peptides (AMP or AFP) cannot form amphipathic structures due to the formation of unusual secondary structure, polyproline helical type-II⁸⁰.

Increasing the amphipathicity does not only interfere with the antifungal activity, it surges the hemolytic activity. For the development of new peptides, especially with membrane lytic mechanisms, it has been suggested to keep μ H less than 0.3⁸¹.

The bottom line, amphipathicity in AFPs seems important in the vast majority, but not a must, it totally depends on the peptide sequence. For instance, the reduction of YLK peptide amphipathicity by utilizing helix breaker residues enhanced the antifungal activity⁸¹.

4.5. Hydrophobicity

Peptide hydrophobicity is defined as the percentage of hydrophobic residues within a peptide length. The vast majority of antifungal peptides have hydrophobic values ranging between 30-60% (Figure 3). Hydrophobicity is an essential requirement for peptide membrane interactions as well as membrane permeabilization. Furthermore, the peptide partitioning into the phospholipids layer is also controlled by peptide hydrophobicity. Increasing peptide hydrophobicity might correlate with an increase in the activity, but it also has been linked to increased hemolysis activity^{42, 82}. For example, increasing the hydrophobicity of the D1 peptide, to generate a peptide termed D4, led to the

induction of hemolytic activity by approximately 286-fold. In the same example, the modification of the D1 peptide also interfered with the fungicidal activity. The D1 peptide was more active against *Zygomycota* fungi while the D4 peptide was more active against *Ascomycota* fungi^{42, 82}.

Lipopeptides is a class of antifungal peptide where lipophilic moieties are attached to cationic peptides. Although this class is very hydrophobic, they had a low hemolysis activity⁸³.

It should also be noted that hydrophobicity is not the only factor related to hemolysis, the presence of tryptophan was also linked to the hemolytic activity. A study has shown that replacing one asparagine residue with tryptophan in the NDGP peptide was enough to increase the hemolytic activity approximately 24 fold⁸¹. Further, it has been concluded that tryptophan - tryptophan interactions and tryptophan - lipid interactions are responsible for the increase in hemolytic activity of melittin-tryptophan analogs rather than the hydrophobicity⁸¹. It has been published that tryptophan has a strong ability to insert into membranes as well as to interfere with lipid polymorphism⁸⁴. In spite of the role of tryptophan in hemolytic activity, it has been inspected in multiple research studies and the results were varied. For instance, the Pac-525 peptide is a tryptophan-rich peptide that exhibits low hemolysis activity⁷⁹.

In general, hydrophobicity is essential to AFPs especially membrane acting peptides, and does not change much by net charge and secondary structure; however, there are some exceptions.

4.6. Peptides Length

Total number of amino acids plays an important role in the secondary structure and mode of action of AFPs. Peptides less than 20 amino acid are less possible to cross the yeast membrane in an α -helix structure and thereby designate the mode of action⁸⁵. As illustrated in figure-4, the majority of AFPs are between 11 to 40 amino acids. But in some AFPs the full length is not essential to achieve full activity as smaller fragments of the peptide exhibit the full activity⁸⁶⁻⁸⁸. Therefore, the trend now is to

design a short peptide to increase the cost effectiveness. The AFPs that passed the clinical trials and successfully made it to the market are less than 15 amino acids in length, and 20 % of them are synthetic^{27, 89}.

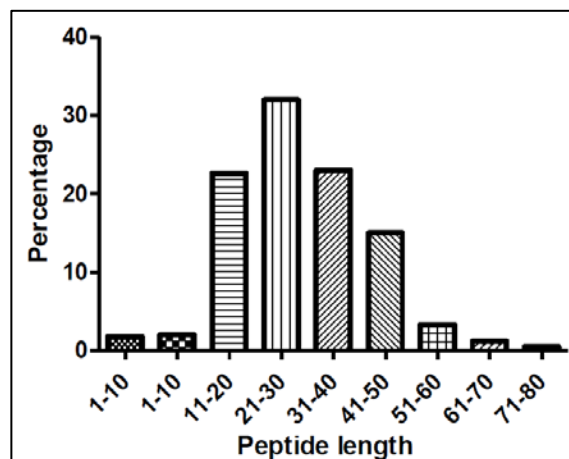


Figure 4: Percentage of peptide length within anti-fungal peptides.

5. Posttranslational modifications of natural AFPs

Several post-translation modifications have been observed in naturally occurring AFPs, and each modification could have an influence on the AFPs activity. The knowledge of these modifications is important to reach a full understanding about the peptide activity and later, to improve the activity or solve problems related to the antifungal activity. The common modifications are: glycosylation, amidation of C-terminus, isomerization which includes diastereomers and enantiomers, halogenation, phosphorylation, hydroxylation and cyclization⁹⁰. The data in this section are general and subjected to change at any time, as new AMPs could be published or added to the database. Furthermore, some of the AMPs have not yet been tested for antifungal activity.

5.1. Glycosylation

Generally, the addition of carbohydrates is one of the most common post-translational modifications of proteins and peptides, which normally observed at asparagine or serine/threonine residues⁹¹. N-linked and O-linked are the

most common types of glycosylation⁹², while S-linked is the rarest⁹³. In AMPs, glycosylation was observed in proline-rich peptides such as in Drosocin⁹⁴ and Pyrrhocoricin⁹⁵. While, the glycosylation of these peptides was essential for full antimicrobial activity, it was not for others, especially the S-linked⁹⁶.

Only two glycosylated AFPs are available at AMP database, Daticin⁹⁷ and GHH20⁹⁸. The role of glycosylation is not clear in both peptides. Nevertheless, there are couple of examples of O-glycosylated AFPs in the literature; caspofungin⁹⁹ and hassallidin A¹⁰⁰. In both peptides the addition of monosaccharide was sufficient to improve the antifungal activity.

5.2. Amidation of Carboxy Terminus

The main role of amidation is to improve the peptide stability in the presence of aminopeptidases¹⁰¹ and in some cases to increase the anti-fungal activity¹⁰². Several examples of AFPs with amidated C-terminal were identified in nature such as ctriporin from scorpions¹⁰³ and ranacyclin from *Rana esculenta* skin¹⁰⁴. Moreover, the amidation has also been a common approach to increase the stability in synthetic AFPs³⁵.

5.3. Isomerization

In general, the isomerization (Diastereomers and enantiomers) increases the antimicrobial activity and improves the stability of AMPs¹⁰⁵. Diastereomer is the ability of a peptide to exist in two conformations, *cis* and *trans*. Diastereomers have been identified in AMPs (Caenopore-5)¹⁰⁶ as well as in AFPs (Cyclo(L-Phe- 4-OH-L-Pro))¹⁰⁷. Enantiomers, there are a few examples of naturally existed AMPs with D-conformation, such as bombinin H4¹⁰⁸, lactocin S¹⁰⁹ and gramicidin A¹¹⁰. However, none of them had any antifungal activity. Several AFPs have been synthesized using D-amino acids in an attempt to improve the peptide stability against proteases^{60, 61}.

5.4. Halogenation

In nature, the most common halogenations are bromination and chlorination, with an ambiguous

function. Bromination is mainly occurred in AMPs, precisely in the tryptophan indole ring, while chlorination is the most observed in AFPs. Bromination has been described in different AMPs such as *Hedistin* and in *hagfish* cathelicidins^{35, 111}. The role of indole bromination was suggested to reduce the peptide susceptibility to proteolysis via steric modifications¹¹². On the other hand, the role of the chlorination in AFPs is unclear as the remove of chloride did not alter the antifungal activity of naturally chlorinated Misgurin (*Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*)³⁵.

5.5. Phosphorylation

Nature has produced multiple examples of phosphorylated AMPs. Phosphorylation has been found to be essential for AMPs activity. For instance, enkelytin, an antibacterial peptide derived from *proenkephalin A*, has two phosphoserines that are required for the full activity¹¹³. Prochromacin and chromacin are also examples in which the modifications are mandatory for peptide activity (glycosylation and phosphorylation)¹¹⁴. In AFPs, the situation is different, and phosphorylation may not be required for the antifungal activity. Histatin 1 is an example of a phosphorylated AFP where the modification did not have any effect on the peptide activity; however, it did increase the stability of the peptide in saliva¹¹⁵.

5.6. Hydroxylation

In AMPs, hydroxylation was primarily observed at lysine, arginine, tryptophan and phenylalanine residues. The effect of hydroxylation on the peptides is unclear with contradicted effects. For example, the hydroxylation of the MGD-2 peptide was essential for antimicrobial activity; however, other studies have suggested that the peptide activity did not change by the hydroxylation¹¹⁶. The effect of hydroxylation in AFPs is also varied. The Cecropins AMP family is an example of hydroxylated lysine peptides, and only cecropin B has shown antifungal activity¹¹⁷. Halocyanines, tetrapeptides from *Halocynthia roretzi*, are example of dihydroxyphenylalanine modified AFP¹¹⁸. Styelin D and

callinectin are examples of AMPs with dihydroxyarginine and hydroxyl-tryptophan residues, respectively^{116, 118}, but both peptides did not display fungicidal activity.

5.7. Methylation

The most common sites of methylation are tyrosine and lysine residues. Clavanins are natural AMPs with a methylated tyrosine¹¹⁹; however, none of them has exhibited antifungal properties. The synthetic cecropin A-melittin is one of few examples of methylated AMPs that possess antifungal activity. It has been shown that the methylation decreased the hemolytic activity and promoted the selectivity against certain microorganisms, but it did not increase the antifungal activity¹²⁰.

5.8. Cyclization

Although is not considered a posttranslational modification, cyclization unique properties to the peptides, such as increasing the antifungal activity, reducing the toxicity and improving the stability in proteases¹²¹. Tunicyclins B^{24, 122} and cyclopsychotride A¹²³ are examples of cyclic naturally occurring AFPs. Moreover, there are several examples of synthetic antifungal peptides such as Datomycin, where the cyclization has improved the antifungal activity¹²⁴.

6. Disadvantages of AMPs and AFPs, and Proposed Solutions

The general disadvantages of AMPs, and AFPs specifically, could be summarized as: poor oral and tissue absorption, rapid in vivo degradation, poor stability (shelf-life) and potential immunogenicity. Moreover, most peptides are rapidly excreted, poorly bioavailable and salt sensitive. Human toxicity and hemolysis have also been observed with some AMPs. These issues will be addressed in detail below.

6.1. Stability

The stability is not an issue for naturally occurring AFPs within their environment for multiple reasons. First, most of the AFPs are derived by proteolysis of larger proteins or peptides; therefore, equilibrium exists

between peptide generation and degradation. For example, buforin II is generated from histone 2A¹²⁵, lactoferricin from lactoferrin¹²⁶ and histatin-5 from histatin-1. Second, small peptide fragments that are generated via proteolysis of the active peptide, in some case, maintain some antifungal activity. For example, 12 fragments of histatin I have been identified and most of them retain antifungal activity. Finally, there might be something within the physiological environment that supports peptide stability and increases the half-life. For instance, the ability of histatin-1 to bind to hydroxyapatite within the enamel pellicle decreases the proteolytic degradation, and consequently increases the half-life¹¹⁵.

For synthetic peptides, stability and bioavailability problems may be solved via peptide formulations or modifications. Several approaches have been used to improve the stability, such as liposome-encapsulation¹²⁷, use of peptoids¹²⁸, D-conformation-based peptide¹²⁹, and β -peptides¹³⁰. The use of different peptide formulations has been the major approach to improve peptide bioavailability, delivery, and stability. The melittin-lipid disk is an example of a formulated peptide in which polyethylene glycol-stabilized lipid was fused to the melittin peptide to reduce toxicity and improve bioavailability¹³¹. Carbon nanotubes and magnetic nanoparticles are also useful tools for drug delivery; therefore, this may represent a promising avenue of research for peptide delivery¹³².

6.2. Specificity and Toxicity

One major challenge in designing new antifungal drug is achieving high specificity toward fungal cells. The perfect antifungal drug would ideally have an affinity for multiple targets within the fungi, and the targets must be accessible and relatively immutable. In therapeutics, drug toxicity is directly proportional to the concentration; however, the toxic concentration varies between the drugs. Host cell toxicity would be solved by increasing the specificity which required a full understanding of the mechanism by which the peptides recognize their target^{42,81}.

Natural AFPs, within their tissues, have shown a high target specificity and low toxicity. Most multicellular organisms express a cocktail of peptides within their 'defensive' tissues, in which the cocktail contains several classes of AMPs and AFPs²⁹. Furthermore, these peptides probably have a synergistic effect and work at low concentrations far from their toxic levels¹³³. The synergistic effect is absent in most in vitro assays, since each AFP is tested individually. Furthermore, different isoforms of the same peptide could be present at the same

time. For example, different forms of *Rhesus* θ defensins (RTD-1, RTD-2, and RTD-3) have been identified in leukocytes of *Rhesus macaques*, where the cellular abundance of the three peptides (RTD1, RTD-2 and RTD-3) is differ at a ratio of 29:1:2, respectively. In spite of having multiple forms, all of the RTD isoforms have the same antifungal activity; however, they do display distinct antibacterial activity as well as differences in the net charges RTD-1 (+5), RTD-2 (+6), and RTD-3 (+4)¹²⁴.

Table 4. Salt-resistant peptides. Most of this data were generated using antimicrobial data base until the writing of this article

Name	Sequence	Source	Secondary structure	Disulfide bond	Activity (MIC)	Net charge	Ref.
Thanatin Thanatin-1 S-Thanatin	GSKKPVPIIYCNRRTGKCQRM GSKKPVPIIYCNRRGKCQRM GSKKPVPIIYCNRRSGKCQRM	<i>Podisus maculiventris</i>	beta	C11-C18	- <i>N. crassa</i> 0.6-1.2 μ M - <i>B. cinerea</i> 1.2-2.5 μ M - <i>N. haematococca</i> 1.2-2.5 μ M - <i>T. viride</i> 1.2-2.5 μ M - <i>A. brassicola</i> 2.5-5 μ M - <i>F. culmorum</i> 2.5-5 μ M - <i>A. pisi</i> 5-10 μ M - <i>F. oxysporum</i> 10-20 μ M - <i>C. albicans</i> 25-50 μ M	+6	177
RTD-1 RTD-2 RTD-3	GFCRCLRRGVCRCICTR GVCRCCLRRGVCRCCLRR GFCRCICRRGFCRCICTR	<i>Rhesus Macaque</i>	beta	C3-C16 C5-C14 C7-C12	- <i>C. albicans</i> 1 μ g/ml - <i>C. neoformans</i> 4 μ g/ml	+5 +6 +4	139 124
Tachyplesin I Tachyplesin II	KWCFRVCYRGICYRRCR RWCFRVCYRGICYRKCR	<i>Tachyplesus tridentatus</i>	beta	C3-C16 C7-C12	- <i>C. albicans</i> 3.1 μ g/ml - <i>C. neoformans</i> 1.56 μ g/ml - <i>C. kefyri</i> 0.9 μ M - <i>C. tropicalis</i> 0.5 μ M	+6	76 140
Arenicin-1	RWCVYAYVRVGVLVRYRRC W	<i>Arenicola marina</i>	beta	C3-C20	- <i>C. albicans</i> 4.5 μ g/ml	+6	141
Protegrin I	RGRLCYCRRRFCVGVGR	<i>Pig</i>	beta	C6-C15 C8-C13	- <i>C. neoformans</i> 2 μ M - <i>C. albicans</i> 4 μ M	+6	178
Ci-MAM-A24	WRSLGRTLRLSHALKPLARRS GW	<i>Ciona intestinalis</i>	helix	no	- <i>C. albicans</i> 6 μ M	+6	142
N-[RLLR]2-C	RLLRLLLR	<i>synthetic</i>	helix	no	- <i>C. albicans</i> 0.5 μ g/ml - <i>S. cerevisia</i> 0.5 μ g/ml - <i>C. neoformans</i> 0.5 μ g/ml	+4	179
P-18	KWKLFKIPKFLHLAKKF	<i>synthetic</i>	helix	no	- <i>C. albicans</i> 2-4 μ M	+7	159

DCD-1	SSLLEKGLDGAKKAVGGLGKL GKDAVEDLESVKGAVHDVK DVLDSV	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	helix	no	- <i>C. albicans</i>	10 µg/ml	-2	143, 180
Melittin	GIGAVLKVLTTGLPALISWIKR KRQQ	<i>Apis mellifera</i>	helix	no	- <i>C. albicans</i>	NA	+5	148
Pelteobagrin	GKLNFLSRLEILKLVFGAL	<i>Yellow catfish</i>	unknown	no	- <i>C. albicans</i>	5.4 µM	+2	181

The literature has provided several examples in which the cytotoxicity of synthetic peptides was reduced successfully via modifications in the peptide composition¹³⁴⁻¹³⁶. However, each case is unique and the solutions varied. An example of reduced toxicity was observed with the melittin peptide, where cytotoxicity was reduced by fusing melittin with cecropin A or the magainin peptide rather than by amino acids substitution^{137, 138}.

6.3. Salt sensitivity

Salt sensitivity may present the greatest challenge for the majority of AMPs as and AFPs for clinical uses as the activity will be inhibited at physiological concentration of ions. Table 4 shows synthetic and natural AFPs that seem to maintain an activity at the presence of salts. Since salt insensitivity is only found in a small number of peptides, the general biochemical properties of these peptides will be discussed briefly.

One parameter is the *net charge* that varies dramatically between anionic and cationic peptides; however, the majority of salt insensitive peptides are cationic with a net charge greater or equal to +4 at pH 7. The amphipathicity has been observed in this group with an exception of RTD-1 which did not display any amphipathicity, although the surface models suggested a clustering of positive charges⁷⁷.

The second parameter of salt-insensitive peptide is the *secondary structure*. This group can be subdivided into two groups, helices and sheets, where each group has something in common other than secondary structure. By looking to the amino acid composition, most β -structure peptides have more arginine than lysine, and also share the ability to form disulfide bonds. Studying the peptide structure and amino acid compositions of β - peptides

sheds light on the role of disulfide bonds and cyclization in salt tolerance. It has been found the cyclization and disulfide bonds are essential for the salt insensitivity in RTD-1¹³⁹, TP-1¹⁴⁰, and arenicin-1¹⁴¹ peptides. However, the essential factor in potegrin 1 was structure rigidity and the presence of disulfide bonds did not have any effect⁷⁵. The major general conclusion is from looking at salt-insensitive β -peptides is that disulfide bonds and/or structure rigidity is crucial to salt insensitivity.

On the contrary, α -helical peptides did not have any cysteine nor disulfide bonds. Peptides in α -helical subclass did not show any common essential feature. The only observed similarity is that the majority of α -helices have lysine more than arginine in their sequence. For instance, it has been reported that the substitution of arginine to lysine in Ci-MAM-A24 increased salt sensitivity¹⁴². This fact cannot be generalized as in some cases the increase in arginine percentages led to increase salt sensitivity¹²⁵. DCD-1 is a unique example of α -helical peptide, that has been shown to be only 20% active at low salt conditions and the activity is retained by increasing the salt content¹⁴³. The common factor in all salt resistant peptides is that the fungicidal activity is accomplished via pore formation or membrane permeabilization.

7. Conclusions

Antifungal peptides are excellent models for drug discovery exhibiting unique characteristics such as low level of resistance reaching the absent, high specificity, broad spectrum, and unique mode of action. Despite the distinctiveness, only few examples of antifungal peptides have successfully reached the market. The biophysical characteristics and mode of action in antifungal peptides are diverse to a limit that probably each peptide family has its own structure and structure activity relationship

(SAR). This review establishes the bases gathering all possible information including the biophysical characteristics of antifungal peptides available in “AMP database” regardless the source, the net charge, the secondary structure, and the mode of action. The best path for a drug utilizing AFP model to treat systematic

yeast infection should be started from the few salt resistant peptides to expand the site of action, and then extensively study the structure activity relationship to improve the activity, and finally utilize the natural posttranslation modification to improve the activity and increase the stability.

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مضادات الفطريات البيتيديّة: عصر جديد من العقاقير المضادة للفطريات

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ملخص

وجود عدد محدود من الأدوية المضادة للفطريات والتزايد المستمر للسلاسل الفطرية المقاومة لهذه المضادات يحفز على ضرورة تطوير أدوية جديدة للفطريات وتعمل بآليات فريدة. إن مضادات الميكروبات البيتيديّة عناصر نشطة تعمل كترسانة طبيعية ضد مسببات الأمراض بما في ذلك الفطريات. في هذا البحث نسلط الضوء على جميع الدراسات التي أجريت حول الخصائص البيوفيزيائية للبيتيديّات والتي تظهر الصفات المضادة للفطريات الموجودة في قاعدة بيانات البيتيديّات المضادات للميكروبات حتى شهر أيلول 2015، والتي تشمل على الشحنة التي تحملها البيتيديّات والتوزيع الفراغي والتشكل وغيرها من الخصائص. إن جمع الدراسات التي تتحدث عن هذه الخصائص البيتيديّة من الممكن أن يكون مدخلاً لاكتشاف وتطوير مضادات جديدة. كما تتحدث هذه الدراسة عن العقبات والمشاكل التي تمنع البيتيديّات من أن تصبح أدوية فاعلة وتحاول إيجاد حلول لها لتصبح مرجعا يمكن استعماله في مجال اكتشاف الأدوية المضادة للفطريات.

الكلمات الدالّة: مضادات الميكروبات البيتيديّة، مضادات الفطريات، الخصائص البيوفيزيائية للبيتيديّات.