

Perampanel, a novel neuroprotector and antiviral agent in COVID-19?

Marcos Altable

Abstract

Abstract

A new human coronaviruses (SARS-CoV-2) are the cause of currently severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS), as occurred in the previous epidemic caused by SARS-CoV-1. Perampanel is a drug currently used in epilepsy, with an innovative mechanism of action, through receptors [2-amino-3- (3-hydroxy-5-methyl-isoxazol-4-yl) propanoic acid (AMPA) that modulates the flow of glutamate. It has been reported the utility of another drugs used in neurodegenerative disorders such a memantine. It works through the N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor (NMDA) and regulates the transporting of glutamate. Both are receptor antagonists. Memantine has seen to reduce the symptoms and replication viral in animal models infected with HCoV. We propose that perampanel works in a similar way and may have therapeutic and neuroprotective effects in COVID-19 infection. New studies on it should be started.

Perampanel, a novel neuroprotector and antiviral agent in COVID-19?

Human coronaviruses (HCoV) as pathogens in upper and lower respiratory tract infections [1] are the cause of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS), as occurred in the previous epidemic as a consequence of SARS-CoV-1 [2]. Over the years, HCoV has also been associated with other pathologies such as myocarditis and meningitis [3], [4], as well as, occasionally, acute disseminated encephalitis [5]. SARS-CoV-1 has neuroinvasive properties in mice [6], as does its murine counterpart, the mouse hepatitis virus (VHM), which causes neurodegenerative and neuroinflammatory disease in mice and rats[7] and is used to establish an animal viral model of multiple sclerosis (MS). HCoV have neuroinvasive and neurotropic properties in mice and humans, known to produce respiratory, enteric and neurological infections in various animal species [7]. The HCoV OC43 (SARS-CoV-1) strain causing the previous severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) epidemic, can infect and subsist in human neural cells and trigger a neuroinflammatory and neurodegenerative response, such as the production of proinflammatory mediators (tumour necrosis factor alpha [TNF-], interleukin-1 [IL-1])[8].

Thus, it has been described that the current SARS-CoV2 (COVID-19) is a neuroinvasive virus capable of causing a cytokine storm as an inflammatory response, and that it could persist in infected patients [9]. The viral persistence of the Nidovirus (coronavirus) in the CNS has been described by Lavi, E., Schwartz, T., Jin, Y., et al. 1999[10]. Coronaviruses 229E, 293, and OC43 have been isolated in the cerebrospinal fluid and brain of patients with multiple sclerosis [11], and the immune response after infection may be involved in the induction or exacerbation of outbreaks of multiple sclerosis. in susceptible individuals [12]. This would also support the idea that the apparent reinfections of patients with COVID-19 who passed the disease, suffer it again with or without neurological symptoms, due to the persistence of the virus in neurons in a latency state with low replication that remain undetectable with the usual tests. A recent study suggests that the coronavirus may remain in the lungs after patients have recovered [13]. The Nipah virus (a paramyxovirus) causes many of the same neurological symptoms, and reactivation has been observed, months or years later, due to latent infections [14]. Both viruses (COVID-19 and Nipah virus) selectively infect neurons.

Brison E, et al [8] demonstrated that HCoV-OC43 is a neuropathogenic virus in mice causing encephalitis, and that a viral mutant with a single point of mutation in the spike protein of the viral surface (S) leads to a paralytic disease induced by glutamate excitotoxicity. Memantine, an N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor (NMDA) antagonist that regulates glutamate flux, decreases mortality and replication rates of SARS-CoV-1 in the central nervous system in a dose-dependent manner in this model. This could suggest that memantine could act as an antiviral agent while improving neurological symptoms. Here it should be noted that mutations in the SARS-CoV-1 spike (S) protein appear after a sustained infection of cells of the central nervous system, as a possible viral adaptation to the environment [15]. In this sense it has been seen that a single amino acid change can influence the virus-induced neuropathology, modulated by the viral protein S in mice, and producing from encephalitis to a neuropathology characterized by flaccid paralysis [8]. Memantine resulted in improvement of symptoms of this induced neuropathology. From all of the above, it can be speculated that another molecule with an effect similar to NMDA receptor antagonism, with modulation of glutamate levels, such as perampanel, could have the same effects in coronavirus neuroinfection.

Glutamate is an important excitatory neurotransmitter of the central nervous system (CNS) involved in various neurophysiological functions. A disruption of your homeostasis leads to excitotoxicity, a pathological process by which neuronal cells (neurons and glial cells) can be damaged after excessive stimulation of glutamate at its specific ionotropic receptors [2-amino-3- (3-hydroxy-5-methyl-isoxazol-4-yl) propanoic acid (AMPA). Hyperactivation of the AMPA and NMDA receptors may cause a neural

overload of Ca²⁺, which can mediate said excitotoxicity through a cascade of events that involve the production of free radicals, mitochondrial dysfunction and the activation of various enzymes such as phospholipase A₂, which damages the cell membranes, the cytoskeleton and DNA [16]. Memantine blocks NMDA receptors only when they are overstimulated by glutamate [17]. On the other hand, perampanel works by selectively blocking AMPA receptors, it has no direct affinity for other metabotropic receptors, such as those of kainate or NMDA, although modulation of AMPA receptors can indirectly modify the activity, expression and location of NMDA receptors, which could mediate the mechanisms of synaptic plasticity and of neuropathology by HCoV. The variant of SARS-CoV-1 that hosts a point mutation in its superficial spike glycoprotein (S) (Y241H) produces glutamate excitotoxicity and has been associated with dysregulation at the level of AMPA receptors [8], whose antagonism is responsible the perampanel.

In addition to neuroinflammation, glutamate excitotoxicity may be involved in CNS infections with West Nile Virus [18], human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) [19], human herpes virus 6 (HHV-6) [20], human T-lymphotropic virus type 1 (HTLV-1) [21], bornavirus [22] and Sindbis virus [23]. Dysregulation of glutamate homeostasis leads to neuronal loss (neurodegeneration) [8], as shown in other virus infections [24]–[26].

Currently, the study by Brison, E., et al. is the first evidence that a glutamatergic transmission modulator shows antiviral properties against a human neurotropic and neuroinvasive virus [8]. Fact not yet studied for the perampanel. This novel mechanism of action of memantine and perampanel could suppose that it worked as an antiviral agent in various neurological diseases with viral involvement, such as herpetic encephalitis or meningitis, and coronavirus infection. And probably with a neuroprotective effect.

For all these reasons, it would be interesting to carry out new studies on the role of perampanel in models of SARS-CoV-1 and SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) infection. In the hope of being able to act as therapy for the current or future COVID-19 pandemic.

Reference

- [1] P. J. Talbot, H. Jacomy, and M. Desforges, 'Pathogenesis of Human Coronaviruses Other than Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus', in *Nidoviruses*, American Society of Microbiology, 2014, pp. 313–324. doi:10.1128/9781555815790.ch20.
- [2] P. A. Rota et al., 'Characterization of a novel coronavirus associated with severe acute respiratory syndrome', *Science* (80-.), vol. 300, no. 5624, pp. 1394–1399, May 2003. doi:10.1126/science.1085952.
- [3] H. Riski and T. Hovi, 'Coronavirus infections of man associated with diseases other than the common cold', *J. Med. Virol.*, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 259–265, Jan. 1980. doi:10.1002/jmv.1890060309.
- [4] S. Forgie and T. J. Marrie, 'Healthcare-associated atypical pneumonia', *Seminars in*

- Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine, vol. 30, no. 1. © Thieme Medical Publishers, pp. 67–85, 06-Feb-2009. doi:10.1055/s-0028-1119811.
- [5] E. A. Yeh, A. Collins, M. E. Cohen, P. K. Duffner, and H. Faden, 'Detection of coronavirus in the central nervous system of a child with acute disseminated encephalomyelitis.', *Pediatrics*, vol. 113, no. 1 Pt 1, 2004. doi:10.1542/peds.113.1.e73.
- [6] H. Jacomy and P. J. Talbot, 'Vacuolating encephalitis in mice infected by human coronavirus OC43', *Virology*, vol. 315, no. 1, pp. 20–33, Oct. 2003. doi:10.1016/S0042-6822(03)00323-4.
- [7] M. J. Buchmeier and T. E. Lane, 'Viral-induced neurodegenerative disease', *Current Opinion in Microbiology*, vol. 2, no. 4. Current Biology Ltd, pp. 398–402, 01-Aug-1999. doi:10.1016/S1369-5274(99)80070-8.
- [8] E. Brison, H. Jacomy, M. Desforges, and P. J. Talbot, 'Glutamate Excitotoxicity Is Involved in the Induction of Paralysis in Mice after Infection by a Human Coronavirus with a Single Point Mutation in Its Spike Protein', *J. Virol.*, vol. 85, no. 23, pp. 12464–12473, Dec. 2011. doi:10.1128/jvi.05576-11.
- [9] P. J. Serrano-Castro et al., 'Influencia de la infección SARS-Cov2 sobre Enfermedades Neurodegenerativas y Neuropsiquiátricas: ¿Una pandemia demorada?', *Neurología*, Apr. 2020. doi:10.1016/j.nrl.2020.04.002.
- [10] E. Lavi, T. Schwartz, Y. P. Jin, and L. Fu, 'Nidovirus infections: Experimental model systems of human neurologic diseases', *Journal of Neuropathology and Experimental Neurology*, vol. 58, no. 12. American Association of Neuropathologists Inc., pp. 1197–1206, 1999. doi:10.1097/00005072-199912000-00001.
- [11] J. S. Burks, B. L. Devald, L. D. Jankovsky, and J. C. Gerdes, 'Two coronaviruses isolated from central nervous system tissue of two multiple sclerosis patients', *Science (80-.)*, vol. 209, no. 4459, pp. 933–934, Aug. 1980. doi:10.1126/science.7403860.
- [12] M. Desforges et al., 'Human coronaviruses and other respiratory viruses: Underestimated opportunistic pathogens of the central nervous system?', *Viruses*, vol. 12, no. 1. MDPI AG, 20-Dec-2019. doi:10.3390/v12010014.
- [13] X.-H. Yao et al., 'Pathological evidence for residual SARS-CoV-2 in pulmonary tissues of a ready-for-discharge patient', *Cell Res.*, pp. 1–3, Apr. 2020. doi:10.1038/s41422-020-0318-5.
- [14] K. Roe, 'Explanation for COVID-19 infection neurological damage and reactivations', *Transbound. Emerg. Dis.*, Apr. 2020. doi:10.1111/tbed.13594.
- [15] E. Brison, H. Jacomy, M. Desforges, and P. J. Talbot, 'Novel Treatment with Neuroprotective and Antiviral Properties against a Neuroinvasive Human Respiratory Virus', *J. Virol.*, vol. 88, no. 3, pp. 1548–1563, Feb. 2014. doi:10.1128/jvi.02972-13.
- [16] R. Sattler and M. Tymianski, 'Molecular mechanisms of calcium-dependent

excitotoxicity', *Journal of Molecular Medicine*, vol. 78, no. 1. Springer Verlag, pp. 3–13, 02-Feb-2000. doi:10.1007/s001090000077.

[17] C. G. Parsons, A. Stöffler, and W. Danysz, 'Memantine: a NMDA receptor antagonist that improves memory by restoration of homeostasis in the glutamatergic system - too little activation is bad, too much is even worse', *Neuropharmacology*, vol. 53, no. 6. Pergamon, pp. 699–723, 01-Nov-2007. doi:10.1016/j.neuropharm.2007.07.013.

[18] P. K. Blakely, B. K. Kleinschmidt-DeMasters, K. L. Tyler, and D. N. Irani, 'Disrupted Glutamate Transporter Expression in the Spinal Cord With Acute Flaccid Paralysis Caused by West Nile Virus Infection', *J. Neuropathol. Exp. Neurol.*, vol. 68, no. 10, pp. 1061–1072, Oct. 2009. doi:10.1097/NEN.0b013e3181b8ba14.

[19] I. E. Cisneros and A. Ghorpade, 'HIV-1, Methamphetamine and Astrocyte Glutamate Regulation: Combined Excitotoxic Implications for Neuro-AIDS', *Curr. HIV Res.*, vol. 10, no. 5, pp. 392–406, Jul. 2012. doi:10.2174/157016212802138832.

[20] J. Fotheringham, E. L. Williams, N. Akhyani, and S. Jacobson, 'Human herpesvirus 6 (HHV-6) induces dysregulation of glutamate uptake and transporter expression in astrocytes', *J. NeuroImmune Pharmacol.*, vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 105–116, Jun. 2008. doi:10.1007/s11481-007-9084-0.

[21] R. Szymocha et al., 'Human T-Cell Lymphotropic Virus Type 1-Infected T Lymphocytes Impair Catabolism and Uptake of Glutamate by Astrocytes via Tax-1 and Tumor Necrosis Factor Alpha', *J. Virol.*, vol. 74, no. 14, pp. 6433–6441, Jul. 2000. doi:10.1128/jvi.74.14.6433-6441.2000.

[22] J.-N. Billaud, C. Ly, T. R. Phillips, and J. C. de la Torre, 'Borna Disease Virus Persistence Causes Inhibition of Glutamate Uptake by Feline Primary Cortical Astrocytes', *J. Virol.*, vol. 74, no. 22, pp. 10438–10446, Nov. 2000. doi:10.1128/jvi.74.22.10438-10446.2000.

[23] J. Darman et al., 'Viral-induced spinal motor neuron death is non-cell-autonomous and involves glutamate excitotoxicity', *J. Neurosci.*, vol. 24, no. 34, pp. 7566–7575, Aug. 2004. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2002-04.2004.

[24] C. Power, T. Moench, J. Peeling, P. A. Kong, and T. Langelier, 'Feline immunodeficiency virus causes increased glutamate levels and neuronal loss in brain', *Neuroscience*, vol. 77, no. 4, pp. 1175–1185, Feb. 1997. doi:10.1016/S0306-4522(96)00531-3.

[25] S. Gupta et al., 'HIV-Tat elicits microglial glutamate release: Role of NADPH oxidase and the cystine-glutamate antiporter', *Neurosci. Lett.*, vol. 485, no. 3, pp. 233–236, Nov. 2010. doi:10.1016/j.neulet.2010.09.019.

[26] C.-J. Chen et al., 'Glutamate released by Japanese encephalitis virus-infected microglia involves TNF- α signaling and contributes to neuronal death', *Glia*, vol. 60, no. 3,



pp. 487–501, Mar. 2012. doi:10.1002/glia.22282.