

1 **An insight into neurotoxic and toxicity of spike fragments SARS-CoV-2 by**
2 **exposure environment: A threat to aquatic health?**

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5 Ives Charlie-Silva^{1*}, Amanda P. C. Araújo^{2,3}, Abraão T. B. Guimarães^{2,3}, Flávio P Veras⁴, Helyson L.
6 B. Braz⁵, Letícia G. de Pontes⁶, Roberta J. B. Jorge⁷; Marco A. A. Belo^{8,9}, Bianca H V. Fernandes¹⁰,
7 Rafael H. Nóbrega¹¹, Giovane Galdino¹², Antônio Condino-Neto⁶, Jorge Galindo-Villegas¹³, Glauca
8 M. Machado-Santelli¹⁴, Paulo R. S. Sanches¹⁵, Rafael M. Rezende¹⁶, Eduardo M. Cilli¹⁵, Guilherme
9 Malafaia^{2,3*}

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11
12 ¹Department of Pharmacology, Institute of Biomedical Sciences, University of Sao Paulo (SP, Brazil).

13 ²Post-graduation Program in Biotechnology and Biodiversity, Goiano Federal Institution and Federal
14 University of Goiás (GO, Brazil).

15 ³Biological Research Laboratory, Post-graduation Program in Conservation of Cerrado Natural
16 Resources, Goiano Federal Institute – Urata Campus (GO, Brazil).

17 ⁴Center of Research in Inflammatory Diseases, Ribeirão Preto Medical School,
18 University of São Paulo, Ribeirão Preto, São Paulo, Brazil.

19 ⁵Postgraduate Program in Morphological Science, Department of Morphology, School of Medicine,
20 Federal University of Ceara, Delmiro de Farias St., 60.430-170, Fortaleza-CE, Brazil.

21 ⁶Department of Immunology, Institute of Biomedical Sciences. University of Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo,
22 SP, Brazil (SP, Brazil).

23 ⁷Drug Research and Development Center, Federal University of Ceara, Coronel Nunes de Melo St.,
24 1000, 60.430-275, Fortaleza-CE, Brazil; Department of Physiology and Pharmacology, School of
25 Medicine, Federal University of Ceara, Coronel Nunes de Melo St., 1127, 60.430-275, Fortaleza-
26 CE, Brazil.

27 ⁸Laboratory of Animal Pharmacology and Toxicology, Brazil University, Descalvado, SP, Brazil.

28 ⁹Department of Preventive Veterinary Medicine, São Paulo State University (UNESP),
29 Jaboticabal, SP, Brazil.

30 ¹⁰Laboratório de Controle Genético e Sanitário, Diretoria Técnica de Apoio ao Ensino e
31 Pesquisa, Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade de São Paulo.

32 ¹¹Reproductive and Molecular Biology Group, Institute of Biosciences, São Paulo State University,
33 Botucatu, São Paulo, Brazil.

34 ¹² Institute of Motricity Sciences, Federal University of Alfenas, Alfenas, MG, Brazil.

35 ¹³Faculty of Biosciences and Aquaculture, Nord University, 8049 Bodø, Norway

36 ¹⁴Department of Cell Biology, Institute of Biomedical Sciences, University of São Paulo, São Paulo,
37 Brazil.

38 ¹⁵Institute of Chemistry, São Paulo State University (UNESP), Araraquara -SP, Brazil.

39 ¹⁶Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, 75 Francis St, Boston, United States.

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46 ***Corresponding author:**

47 ***Ives Charlie-Silva PhD.** e-mail: charliesilva4@hotmail.com

48 Department of Pharmacology, Institute of Biomedical Sciences, University of Sao Paulo (SP, Brazil)

49

50 ***Guilherme Malafaia. PhD.** e-mail: guilhermeifgoiano@gmail.com

51 Biological Research Laboratory, Goiano Federal Institution – Urutaí Campus, Rodovia Geraldo Silva

52 Nascimento, 2,5 km, Zona Rural, Urutaí, Brazil.

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59 HIGHLIGHTS

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- 61 • SARS-CoV-2 spike protein peptides (PSDP) were synthesized, purified, and characterized by
- 62 solid phase peptide synthesis.
- 63 • PSDP peptides promoted REDOX imbalance and acute neurotoxicity in tadpoles
- 64 (*Physalaemus cuvieri*)
- 65 • *In silico studies* have shown interactions between peptides and acetylcholinesterase and
- 66 antioxidant enzymes
- 67 • Aquatic particle contamination of SARS-CoV-2 can constitute additional environmental
- 68 damage

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71 **ABSTRACT**

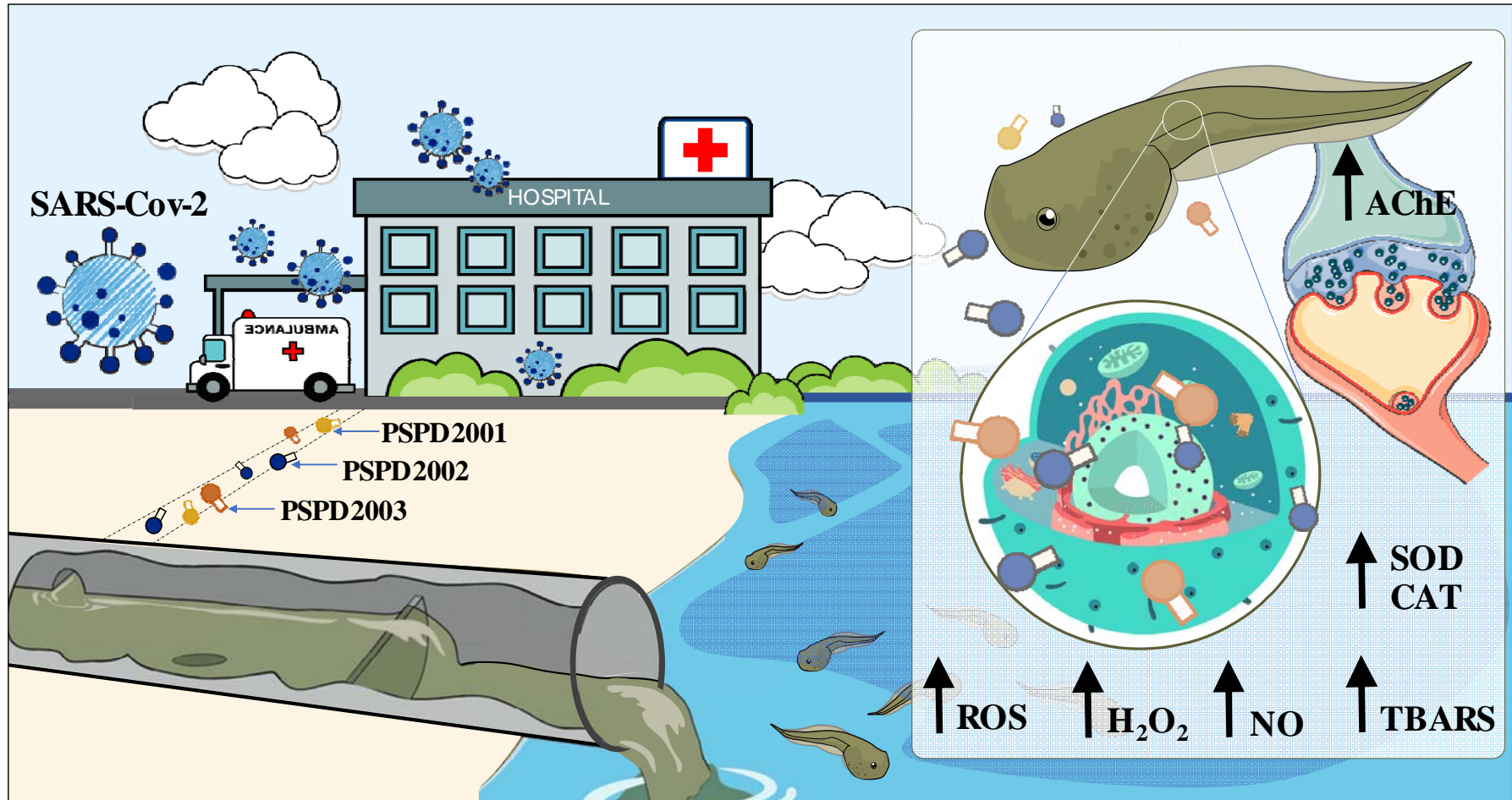
72 The Spike protein (S protein) is a critical component in the infection of the new coronavirus
73 (SARS-CoV-2). The objective of this work was to evaluate whether peptides from S protein could
74 cause negative impact in the aquatic animals. The aquatic toxicity of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein
75 peptides derivatives has been evaluated in tadpoles (n = 50 tadpoles / 5 replicates of 10 animals)
76 from species *Physalaemus cuvieri* (Leptodactylidae). After synthesis, purification, and
77 characterization of peptides (PSDP2001, PSDP2002, PSDP2003) an aquatic contamination has
78 been simulated with these peptides during 24 hours of exposure in two concentrations (100 and 500
79 ng/mL). The control group ("C") was composed of tadpoles kept in polyethylene containers
80 containing de-chlorinated water. Oxidative stress, antioxidant biomarkers and neurotoxicity activity
81 were assessed. In both concentrations, PSDP2002 and PSDP2003 increased catalase and superoxide
82 dismutase antioxidant enzymes activities, as well as oxidative stress (nitrite levels, hydrogen
83 peroxide and reactive oxygen species). All three peptides also increased acetylcholinesterase activity
84 in the highest concentration. These peptides showed molecular interactions in silico with
85 acetylcholinesterase and antioxidant enzymes. Aquatic particle contamination of SARS-CoV-2 has
86 neurotoxic effects in *P. cuvieri* tadpoles. These findings indicate that the COVID-19 can constitute
87 environmental impact or biological damage potential.

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90 **Key words:** oxidative stress; coronavirus; amphibians; acetylcholinesterase, SARS-Cov-2

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



93 1. INTRODUCTION

94 Coronavirus Disease-2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, caused by SARS-CoV-2 (Severe acute
95 respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2), an emergent beta-coronavirus threatening human
96 health, has led to a dramatic worldwide crisis and presents unprecedented global challenges
97 on everybody's daily life, social aspects, political affairs, and health measures (Chakraborty &
98 Prasenjit, 2020)

99 Remarkably, the poor and the most vulnerable people are at critical high risk, and
100 Oxfam, an international confederation of 20 NGO's already calculates that nearly 500 million
101 people worldwide may succumb to poverty resulting from the same (OI, 2020). By Dec. 27,
102 over 79.2 million cases and over 1.7 million deaths have been reported since the start of the
103 pandemic (FAO, 2020). Resulting from the same, in only 12 months, we have learned a lot
104 about SARS-CoV-2. Our ability to test for and manage COVID-19 has improved, but ongoing
105 debate remains about how SARS-CoV-2 is transmitted (Editorial Lancet, 2020).

106 The most recurrent forms of SARS-CoV-2 transmission are through direct contact with
107 an infected person (Meyerowitz et al., 2020), inhaling respiratory droplets containing the
108 virus (Harrison et al., 2020), or accessing a contaminated environment where suspended
109 particles are present over longer distances and time than droplet transmission (Graham et al.
110 2020).

111 However, by reviewing the environmental threats of the virus reported so far, it is
112 concluded that the virus can survive on inanimate surfaces such as metal, glass, or plastic for
113 up to 9 days if any effective disinfection procedure with ozone, ethanol, hydrogen peroxide,
114 UV light, chlorine or its derivatives as sodium hypochlorite is not conducted in between
115 (Kampf et al. 2020).

116 Although the direct contact described above concerns meaningful, a different
117 environmental transmission source with the virus now recognized is the indirect contact
118 through the infected people's stool and urine (Chen et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2020; Jones et al.,
119 2020). Unconventional studies support this notion by reporting positive SARS-CoV-2 viral
120 titers in domestic sewages (Pandey et al., 2020; Elsamadony et al., 2020; Polo et al., 2020).

121 So far, Sars-Cov-2 has been detected in several countries wastewaters of the American,
122 European, and Asian continents, suggesting as mandatory the monitoring of the secondary
123 transmission of the new coronavirus via wastewater (Liu et al. 2020). On a more compelling
124 perspective, strong evidence suggests that surveillance of primarily settled solids in
125 wastewater through one-step ddPCR is a solid strategy to track the spread of Covid-19 disease
126 transmission before the clinical cases break out in a particular location (Graham, 2020).

127 Moreover, following this trend can shed light on the characteristics of infection that are
128 difficult to capture in clinical investigations, such as the dynamics of infection and early viral
129 elimination (Wu et al., 2020).

130 The increase in the generation of household waste (Sharma et al., 2020; Zand& Heir,
131 2020; Urban et al., 2021), hospitals (Abu-Qdais et al., 2020; Sangkham, 2020; Yang et al.,
132 2020), and notable civil buildings (Carvalho et al., 2020; Abu-Rayash et al., 2020; Santiago et
133 al., 2020) constitute some of the environmental grounds where no information on the
134 ecotoxicological effects of SARS-CoV-2 proteic or genetic structural components impact on
135 freshwater vertebrates exists.

136 Therefore, this lack of knowledge requires urgent attention by developing studies to
137 assess how COVID-19 impacts the aquatic populations in the close vicinity of the
138 anthropogenic activities described above. Such studies may focus on supporting actions or
139 strategies on the remediation or at least mitigation of impacts in favor of conserving non-
140 target species at the edge of any Sars-Cov-2 variant.

141 The Spike (S) protein is a critical component of the new Sars-Cov-2 coronavirus found
142 on the surface of the SARS-Cov-2 virus, giving it a "crown" appearance. The S protein is a
143 granule-shaped structural protein with a length of about 1200 aa, which helps the virus bind
144 to cell receptors and mediates viral infection and pathogenesis (Coughlan, 2020). The S
145 protein plays a key role in the receptor recognition and cell membrane fusion process with
146 ACE-2 (angiotensin-converting enzyme 2) (Huang et al., 2020). Therefore, it is not surprising
147 this ligand-receptor interaction of the S protein is the primary target to produce vaccines
148 against COVID-19, as reported in different studies (Bangaru et al., 2020; Samrat et al., 2020;
149 Keech et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2020; Qi et al., 2020; Ravichandran et al., 2020).

150 Several in vivo platforms to dissect the cellular and molecular programs governing
151 Sars-Cov-2 viral dissemination on vertebrates are available. However, the number of aquatic
152 model animals that may support trials and provide reliable information is almost inexistent.
153 Among them, the zebrafish model represents an attractive model to explore the desired
154 effects on the context of a full vertebrate (Galindo-Villega, 2020). Unfortunately, the zebrafish
155 has not been vigorously infected in vivo trials so far by the causative agent of Covid-19
156 (Gaudin & Goetz, 2021).

157 Following a synthetic approach in previous research, we have developed three
158 peptides of the full-length SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein (PSPD2001, PSPD2002, and PSPD 2003)
159 after a pattern memorization phagolysosomal proteolysis (Fernandes et al. 2020). To attempt
160 to elucidate whether and how the Sars-Cov-2 influence the aquatic animals, in this study, we

161 investigate the same by adding the three produced synthetic peptides to mimic the resulting
162 Covid-19 aquatic contamination in wastewater. The tadpole *Physalaemus cuvieri*, is a prevalent
163 amphibian species found in many freshwater habitats throughout Brazil and South America
164 ((Miranda et al., 2019; Herek et al., 2020; Araújo et al., 2020ab; Rutkoski et al., 2020). Its
165 population stability and abundance in the areas that occur (Frost 2017), good adaptability in the
166 laboratory, and early biological response justify the species' choice (Herek et al., 2020; Araújo et
167 al., 2020ab; Rutkoski et al., 2020). Previous studies using this species report the effects of water
168 pollution caused by wastewater runoff (Wrubleswski et al. 2018). Therefore, in this study, we
169 selected *P. cuvieri* as our choice of a translational model vertebrate.

170 From different biomarkers indicative of an imbalance in oxidation-reduction (REDOX)
171 and neurotoxicity processes, we aimed to test the hypothesis that nanometric concentrations
172 of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein fragments in water may affect the health of amphibians. We
173 believe that studies like ours are needed not only to expand our knowledge about the impacts
174 of COVID-19 on aquatic biodiversity; but also to predict the environmental impacts of the
175 recent pandemic on the populations of neotropical amphibians, which have already, over the
176 years, shown a drastic population decline (Pechmann et al., 1991; Blaustein et al., 2002;
177 Ranvestel et al., 2004; Grant et al., 2020).

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180 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

181 2.1. Synthesis, purification, and characterization of peptides

182 2.1.1. Synthesis of SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein peptides

183 The peptides were obtained manually using the solid phase peptide synthesis method (SPFS)
184 using the Fmoc strategy (Raibaut et al., 2014; Behrendt et al., 2016). The couplings were carried
185 out by activating the carboxyl groups of the Fmoc-amino acids with a solution of
186 diisopropylcarbodiimide and hydroxybenzotriazole (HOBT), for 2 h. In this step, a 2-fold excess of
187 Fmoc-amino acids and coupling agents in relation to the number of reactive sites in the resin was
188 used. Deprotection of the amino group after coupling, i.e., removal of the base labile Fmoc group
189 was carried out by reaction with a 20% solution of 4-methyl-piperidine in dimethylformamide
190 (DMF) following the exit of the protective group through the colorimetric test ninhydrin (Luna et
191 al., 2016), which identifies free amine groups converting the yellow solution to violet-blue after
192 incubation at 110°C for 3 min. The resins used for synthesis were Fmoc-Cys (Trt)-Wang, Fmoc-Thr
193 (TBu)-Wang, and Fmoc-Asn (Trt)-Wang for peptides Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys-

194 COOH (PSPD2001); Gln-Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-Arg-Thr-COOH (PSPD2002) and Asn-Asn-
195 Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH (PSPD2003), respectively

196 2.1.2. Cleavage of SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein peptides

197 After coupling all the amino acid residues from the peptide sequences, the chains were
198 removed from the solid support by acid cleavage using trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) for 2 h [similarly
199 to Guy & Fields (1997)]. In addition to TFA, reaction suppressors were added according to the
200 sequence of each peptide. After cleavage, the peptides were precipitated with cold ether and later
201 extracted with 0.045% TFA solution in purified water. The solutions were lyophilized to obtain solid
202 crude material.

203

204 2.1.3. Purification of SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein peptides

205 The crude compounds were purified by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)
206 with a reverse-phase column using different purification methods according to the retention time
207 obtained in a gradient program of 5 to 95% in 30 min (exploration gradient) in Analytical HPLC
208 (Klaassen et al., 2019). Table S1 (see “Supplementary Material”) presents a summary of the
209 purification methods adopted in our study. The purification solvents were water containing 0.045%
210 TFA (solvent A) and acetonitrile containing 0.036% TFA (solvent B).

211 After collecting, lyophilizing, and weighing the pure material fractions, its yield was
212 calculated, obtaining 13.0% for PSPD2001, 21.4% for PSPD2002, and 18.2% for PSPD2003. The
213 pure and solid material was subjected to chromatographic analysis to determine the purity of the
214 final product. Only compounds with purity equal to or greater than 95% were considered for
215 biological analysis,

216

217 2.1.4. Characterization of SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein peptides

218 The analysis of the synthesized peptides' identity was carried out in a mass spectrometer
219 (Metzger et al., 1994) Thermo LCQ-fleet, with ESI-IT-MS configuration. For this, the sample
220 solutions were directly infused at a concentration of approximately 10 mg/L in acetonitrile/water
221 containing 0.1% v/v formic acid. The infusion rate was adjusted to 5.0 μ L/min, and the electrospray
222 source was operated in a positive mode, applying 4.5 kV to the electrospray capillary.

223

224 2.2. Alignment of SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein peptides

225 The similarities between the PSPD2001, PSPD2002 and PSPD2003 peptides synthesized in
226 the present study were tested using the CLUSTAL W version 1.83 software [Higgins et al. (1996),
227 Pais et al. (2014) - <http://www.ebi.ac.uk/clustalw/>]. The peptides were aligned with proteins

228 deposited in the NCBI/BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool), consisting of a set of programs
229 that look for similarities between different sequences. The investigated sequences' alignment was
230 carried out with the nucleic acid and/or protein database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast>).
231 Within BLAST, the search was carried out in the “Protein blast” using as a database the “Swissprot
232 protein sequence (swissprot)”, algorithm - blastp (protein BLAST) and the search was restricted to
233 *Physalaemus cuvieri* (taxid:218685). The database UniProtKBSwissProt (<http://www.uniprot.org/>)
234 was used to obtain detailed information on the protein aligning with the selected peptides revealed.

235

236 2.3. Model system and experimental design

237 To evaluate the synthesized peptides' aquatic toxicity, we used tadpoles of the species
238 *Physalaemus cuvieri* (Leptodactylidae) as a model system. All tadpoles used came from an ovigerous
239 mass (containing approximately 1500 eggs), according to Pupin et al. (2010). They were collected in
240 a lentic environment (Urutaí, GO, Brazil) surrounded by native vegetation from the Cerrado biome,
241 under license no. 73339-1 of the Biodiversity Authorization and Information System
242 (SISBIO/MMA/ICMBio) in Brazil.

243 Upon arrival at the laboratory, the eggs were kept in an aquarium (40.1 x 45.3 x 63.5 cm)
244 containing 80 L of naturally dechlorinated water (for at least 24 h), under controlled light
245 conditions (light-dark cycle, 12:12 h), temperature ($26\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ - similar to the natural
246 environment) and constant aeration (maintained by air compressors), being fed once a day (ad
247 libitum) with commercial fish food (guarantee levels: 45% crude protein, 14% ether extract, 5%
248 crude fiber, 14% mineral matter and 87% dry matter). After the eggs hatched, the tadpoles
249 remained in these conditions until they reached stage 27G, according to Gosner (1960) (body
250 biomass: $70\text{ mg} \pm 4.1\text{ mg}$ and total length: $20.1\text{ mm} \pm 0.7\text{ mm}$ - mean \pm SEM). The healthy
251 tadpoles (i.e., with normal swimming movements and without morphological deformities or
252 apparent lesions) were divided into seven experimental groups ($n = 50$ tadpoles / each - 5 replicates
253 composed of 10 animals/each. The control group (“C”) was composed of tadpoles kept in
254 polyethylene containers containing 50 ml of de-chlorinated water, free of any peptide. The animals
255 kept in water containing the peptides comprised the groups “PSPD2001”, “PSPD2002”, and
256 “PSPD2003”. Two concentrations were tested for each peptide (100 and 500 ng/mL, defined based
257 on reports that SARS-CoV-2 in sweet environments occurs in minimal concentrations (Shutler et
258 al., 2020; Guerrero-Latorre et al., 2020; Tran et al., 2020). The exposure period (24 h; in the static
259 system) was defined considering the low persistence of SARS-CoV-2 in the aquatic environment
260 after being released with human feces (Bivins et al., 2020). We emphasize that, throughout the
261 exposure period, different physical-chemical parameters of the quality of the exposure waters were

262 monitored (every 6 hours), keeping them equitable between treatments (temperature: $23^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1.14$;
263 atmospheric pressure (atm) : 0.91 ± 0.0001 ; electrical resistivity (Ωm): 0.01 ± 0.0001 ; electrical
264 conductivity ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}^2$): 96.2 ± 1.83 ; total dissolved solids (mg/L): $48, 2 \pm 0.83$; salinity: $0.04 \pm$
265 0.004 ; oxidation-reduction potential (ORP): 130.21 ± 6.17 ; dissolved oxygen (mg/L): 7.72 ± 0.78
266 and pH: $7, 2 \pm 0.38$).

267

268 **2.4. Toxicity biomarkers**

269 We evaluated peptide-induced toxicity from predictive biomarkers of REDOX imbalance
270 and neurotoxicity after exposure, considered classic and essential parameters in ecotoxicological
271 studies (Valavanidis et al., 2016). For this, pools of four animals/each composed the samples to be
272 analyzed. Such animals were weighed and later macerated in 1 mL of phosphate-buffered saline
273 (PBS), centrifuged at 13.000 rpm for 5 min (at 4°C). The supernatant was separated into aliquots to
274 be used in different biochemical evaluations. Entire bodies were used in the experiment due to the
275 hard time isolating specific organs from small animals. Organ-specific biochemical assessment in
276 tadpole requires highly accurate dissection due to their small size, making it difficult to process large
277 sample numbers under a time constraint (Khan et al. 2015). Organ “contamination” by organic
278 matter and/or by other particles consumed by tadpole can be biased at biochemical analysis applied
279 to organs at dissection time (Lusher et al. 2017; Guimarães et al., 2021).

280

281 **2.4.1. REDOX state**

282 **2.4.1.1. Oxidative stress biomarkers**

283 The effects of exposure to peptides on oxidative stress reactions were evaluated based on
284 indirect nitric oxide (NO) determination on REDOX regulated processes via nitrite measurement
285 (Soneja et al. 2005); thiobarbituric acid reactive species (TBARS), a predictive of lipid peroxidation
286 (De-Leon & Borges, 2020); production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and on hydrogen peroxide
287 (H_2O_2), which plays an essential role in responses to oxidative stress in different cell types (Sies,
288 2017). The Griess colorimetric reaction was used to measure NO (Grisham et al., 1996). This
289 reaction consisted of detecting nitrite resulting from NO oxidation. TBARS levels were determined
290 based on procedures described by Ohkawa et al. (1979) and modified by Sachett et al. (2020), with
291 adaptations for conduction in microtubes and ELISA microplate reading. The reagent of 1,1,3,3-
292 tetra-ethoxy-propane was used as a standard solution in the reaction with thiobarbituric acid (TBA)
293 reactive substance, according Ro et al. (2020). In brief, this method's principle depends on the
294 Determination of the pink color produced by TBA interaction with malondialdehyde (MDA). The

295 production of hydrogen peroxide and ROS was evaluated using the methodologies proposed by
296 Elnemma et al. (2004) and Maharajan et al. (2018).

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300 **2.4.1.2. Antioxidant response biomarkers**

301 The activation or suppression of antioxidant activity by peptides was assessed by determining
302 catalase and superoxide dismutase (SOD) enzyme activities, which are considered critical first-line
303 antioxidants for defense strategies against oxidative stress (Ighodaro&Akinloye, 2018; Jing et al.,
304 2020). While catalase activity was assessed based on Sinha et al. (1972) andMontalvão et al.
305 (2021). The SOD was determined according to the method described by Del-Maestro & McDonald
306 (1985) (initially) and adapted by Estrela et al. (2021). To assess the balance between the synthesis
307 of hydrogen peroxide by SOD and its decomposition by catalase, the SOD/CAT ratio was calculated
308 and recorded, as Liu et al. (2017).

309

310 **2.4.2. Neurotoxicity**

311 Peptide neurotoxicity was assessed by quantifying acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activity,
312 based on the method by Ellman et al. (1961), with minor detailed modifications in Estrela et al.
313 (2021). AChE activity is used as a cholinergic function marker since it regulates the acetylcholine
314 (ACh) amount interacting with its receptors (Tougu, 2001).

315

316 **2.4.3. Determination of the protein level**

317 All results of the biochemical analyzes were expressed by the “g of proteins” of the samples.
318 In this case, the protein level was determined with a commercial kit (Biotécnica Ind. Com. LTD,
319 Varginha, MG, Brasil. CAS number: 10.009.00) based on biuret reaction (Gornall et al., 1949;
320 Henry et al., 1957). In general, Cu²⁺ ions, in an alkaline medium, react with the peptide bonds of
321 proteins forming the blue complex specifically with protein, and the intensity of color, measured by
322 an ELISA reader at a wavelength of 492 nm, is proportional to the protein concentration.

323

324 **2.5. Bioinformatics *in silico* analysis**

325 Seeking to predict the binding mode and affinity of the bonds between the peptides
326 synthesized in our study and the protein structures of the enzymes AChE, catalase, and SOD, we
327 performed docking and chemoinformatic screens (Kolb et al., 2009). For this, we obtained the
328 peptide ligand PSPD2002 and PSPD2003 in three dimensions through the web server PEP-FOLD3

329 (<https://bioserv.rpbs.univ-paris-diderot.fr/services/PEP-FOLD3/>). Protein structures and sequences
330 of the *P.cuivieri* (i.e.:Leptodactylidae) taxonomic family were not found in the biological structure
331 databases. Therefore, we use as target structures those from the Xenopodinae family, a family
332 phylogenetically close to the group of Leptodactylidae (Jetz& Pylon, 2018). The AChE and catalase
333 enzymes' structures were obtained using the homology construction technique with values of
334 similarity 65.48% and 87.14% to structures (targets) used for comparative modeling on the server
335 SWISS-MODEL (<https://swissmodel.expasy.org/>), respectively. On the other hand, the structure of
336 the SOD was obtained by Research Collaboratory for Structural Bioinformatics protein databank
337 (<https://www.rcsb.org>) PDB code: 1XSO with 1.49Å resolution, obtained by X-ray diffraction of
338 Xenopodinae origin. For molecular docking simulations, AutoDock tools (ADT) v4.2 (Morris et al.,
339 2009) and AutoDock Vina 1.1.2 (Trott & Olson, 2010) were used. The procedure was carried out
340 by removing water molecules and other residues present in the target structures. A polar hydrogen
341 group was added to establish hydrogen bonds between the macromolecule and the ligand tested.
342 The grid box was chosen based on the native ligand of the macromolecules (targets). The binding
343 potency (ΔG affinity) was used to determine better molecular interactions. The results were
344 visualized using ADT and UCSF Chimera X (Pettersen et al., 2021).

345

346 2.6. Data analysis

347 GraphPad Prism Software Version 8.0 (San Diego, CA, USA) was used to perform the
348 statistical analysis. Initially, data were checked for deviations from the normality of variance and
349 homogeneity of variance before analysis. Normality of data was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilks
350 test, and homogeneity of variance by the Bartlett's test. Multiple comparisons were performed using
351 a one-way ANOVA and Tukey's posthoc analysis (for parametric data) or the Kruskal-Wallis test,
352 with Dunn's posthoc (for non-parametric data). Correlation analysis was performed through
353 Pearson's (parametric data) or Spearman's method (non-parametric data). Besides, the regression
354 analysis was performed when significant differences were detected between different treatments.
355 Levels of significance were set at (p) less than 0.05, 0.01, or 0.001.

356

357 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

358 3.1. Synthesis and characterization of SARS-CoV-2 Spike peptides

359 Our study's first stage was to synthesize and characterize the SARS-CoV-2 Spike peptides
360 arbitrary named PSPD2001, PSPD2002, and PSPD2003. During the peptides' cleavage, we
361 performed the addition of different reaction suppressors to avoid the return of the side chain
362 protectors present in some amino acids with a reactive side chain. The results obtained in this step

363 are shown in Table 1. Regarding the mass spectrometry analysis, the spectra obtained indicated the
 364 molecular mass/charge ratio (m/z) of the identified compounds, allowing us to confirm the
 365 deprecated molecules' achievement. The spectra can be seen in Figure S1 (see "Supplementary
 366 Material"), and Table 2 summarizes the results obtained in this step. Figure 1 also shows the
 367 structural models of the PSPD2001, PSPD2002, and PSPD2003.

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370

371 **Table 1.** General information on the synthesis of the peptides used in the present study.

Sequences	Codes	M.W.	Resins	Cleavage Solution
Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys-COOH	PSPD2001	1013,09	Fmoc-Cys-Wang SG*: 0,55 mmol/g	94% TFA 2,5% H ₂ O 2,5% DODT* 1% TIS*
Gln-Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-Arg-Thr-COOH	PSPD2002	1035,18	Fmoc-Thr-Wang SG: 0,55 mmol/g	94% TFA 2,5% H ₂ O 2,5% DODT 1% TIS
Asn-Asn-Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH	PSPD2003	532,51	Fmoc-Asn-Wang SG: 0,51 mmol/g	95% TFA 2,5% H ₂ O 2,5% TIS

372 M.W.: molecular weight; SG: substitution grade– Number of active sites available for the growth of the peptide chain.

373 DODT: 2,2'-(Ethylendioxy) diethanol; TIS: triisopropylsilane; TFA: trifluoroacetic acid.

374

375 **Table 2.** Mass spectrometry analysis after peptide purification

	PSPD2001	PSPD2002	PSPD2003
M.W.	1013,09 g/mol	1035,18 g/mol	532,51 g/mol
m/z calculated	1014,09; 507,54	1036,18;518,59	533,51
m/z obtained	1013,41; 507,52	1035,41;518,96	533,04;1064,86

376 M.W.: molecular weight; PSPD2001: Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys-COOH; PSPD2002: Gln-Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-
 377 Arg-Thr-COOH; PSPD2003: Asn-Asn-Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH.

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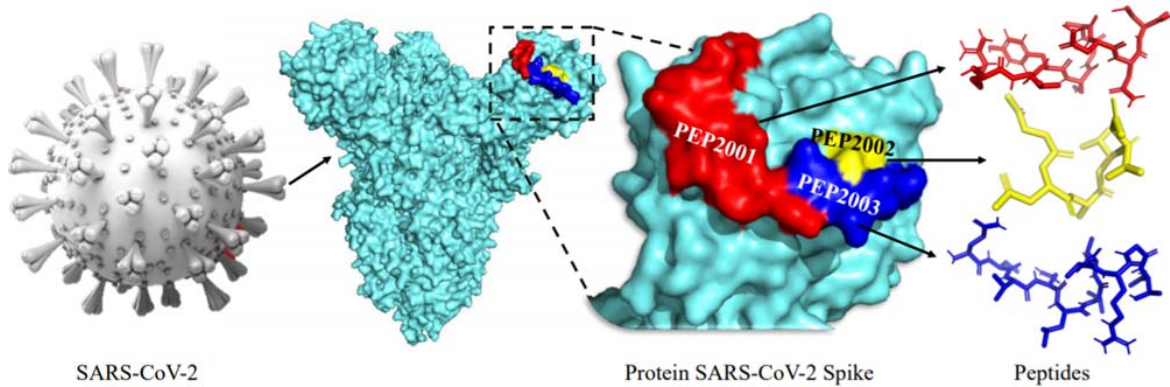


Figure 1. Structural models of peptides (A) PSPD2001, (B) PSPD2002, and (C) PSPD2003 that were synthesized in the present study.

380

381 Regarding the alignment of the obtained sequences, our analyzes revealed the existence of
382 similarities between the nucleotide sequences of the synthesized peptides and different regions
383 conserved in SARS-Cov-2, whose comparisons were made from three datasets COVID, originated
384 from Texas (USA), Iran, and Australia (Figure 2). These data demonstrated that the peptides
385 PSPD2001, PSPD2002, and PSPD2003 are, in fact, part of the protein structure of the etiological
386 agent of COVID-19. However, the sequences obtained for *P. cwieri* (taxid: 218685) showed two
387 main agreements belonging to five of the total of nine peptides found. The identification of possible
388 linear epitopes was performed by BLAST with the Swissprot protein sequence database restricted to
389 *P. cwieri*. All peptides obtained in the sequencing were evaluated. However, only the main results
390 found for five peptides are being presented in Table S1, two in the form SARS-CoV-2, in addition
391 to the analysis made for the consensus obtained in alignment with Clustal W.

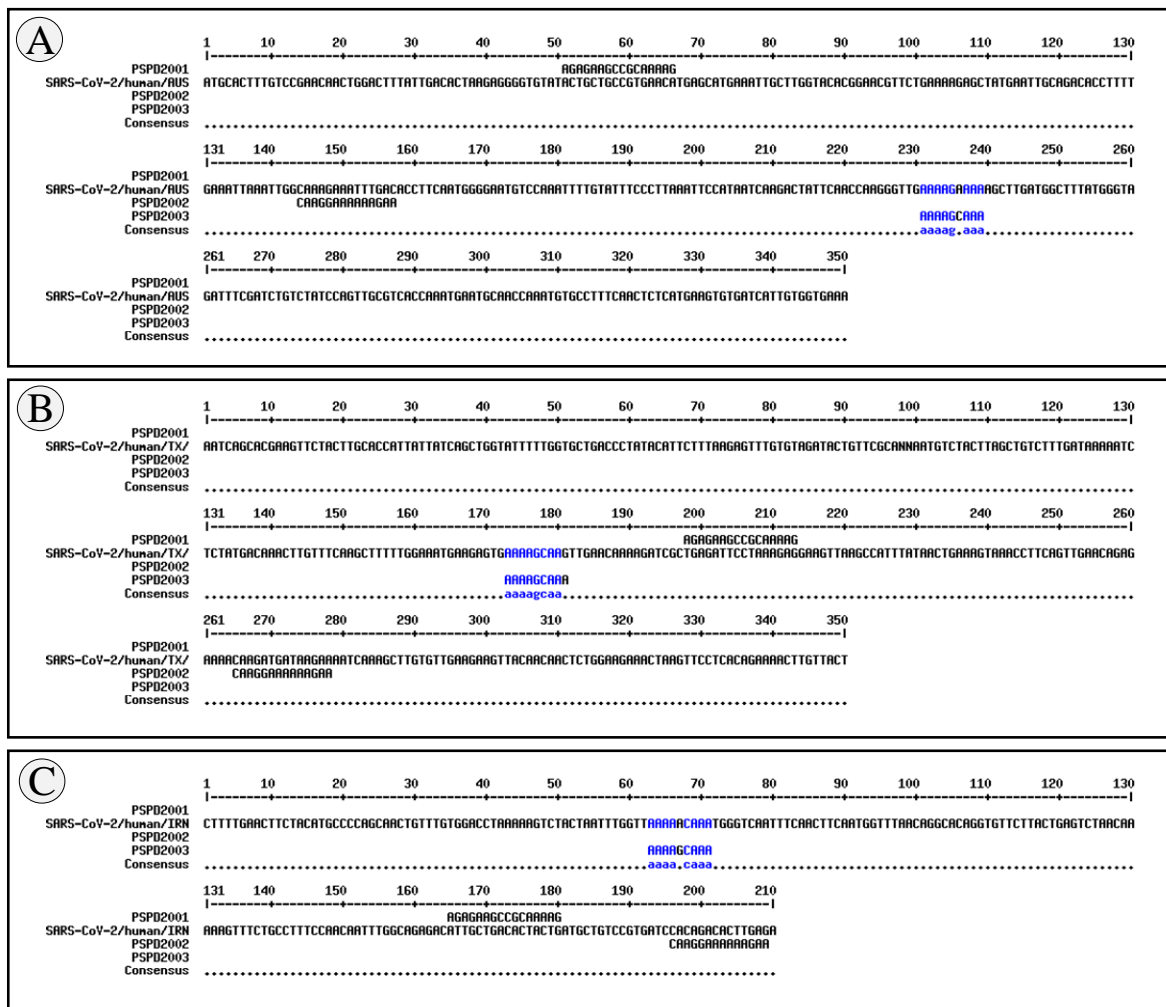


Figure 2. Alignment of the nucleotide sequence encoding PSPD2001, PSPD2002 and PSPD2003 with SARS-CoV-2 obtained from the (A) COVID dataset from Australia (SARS-Cov-2 / human / AUS), (B) Texas, USA (SARS-Cov-2 / human / TX) and (C) Iran (SARS-Cov-2 / human / IRN). The blue markings refer to similar nucleotides between the synthesized peptides and those present in SARS-CoV-2.

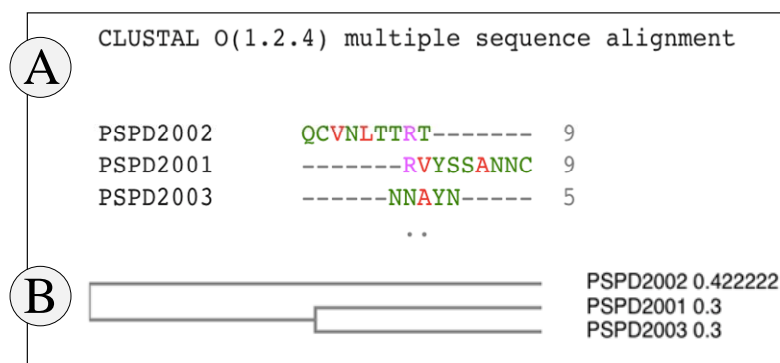


Figure 3. (A) Peptide alignment and (B) Guide Tree Phylogram. Both for the *Physalaemus cuvieri* form (taxid: 218685) by the Clustal W program. The green regions highlight 50% of the conserved region and, in red, 50% to 85% of the conserved region.

392

393 The *in vivo* experiments revealed that short exposure to SARS-CoV-2 Spike peptides was
394 able to induce significant biochemical changes in *P. cuvieri* tadpoles. After 24 h of exposure, we
395 observed that the peptides PSPD2002 and PSPD2003 (100 and 500 ng/mL) induced a significant
396 increase in nitrite production (the indirect measurement of NO (Soneja et al. 2005) and hydrogen
397 peroxide (Figure 4A-B, respectively), which in association with the higher levels of ROS (Figure
398 4D), suggest an increase in oxidative stress processes in the animals. The PSPD2003 peptide, in
399 particular, demonstrated an even more significant effect on NO production, exceeding a 30%
400 increase, to the control group, in both tested concentrations (100 and 500 ng/ml); almost 60%
401 increase in hydrogen peroxide levels in the group exposed to 500 ng/mL, and 29% ROS in the
402 animals treated with 100 ng/mL. However, we did not observe significant differences between the
403 groups regarding MDA levels (Figure S2-A), suggesting that the treatments did not intensify the
404 lipid peroxidation processes in the tadpoles.

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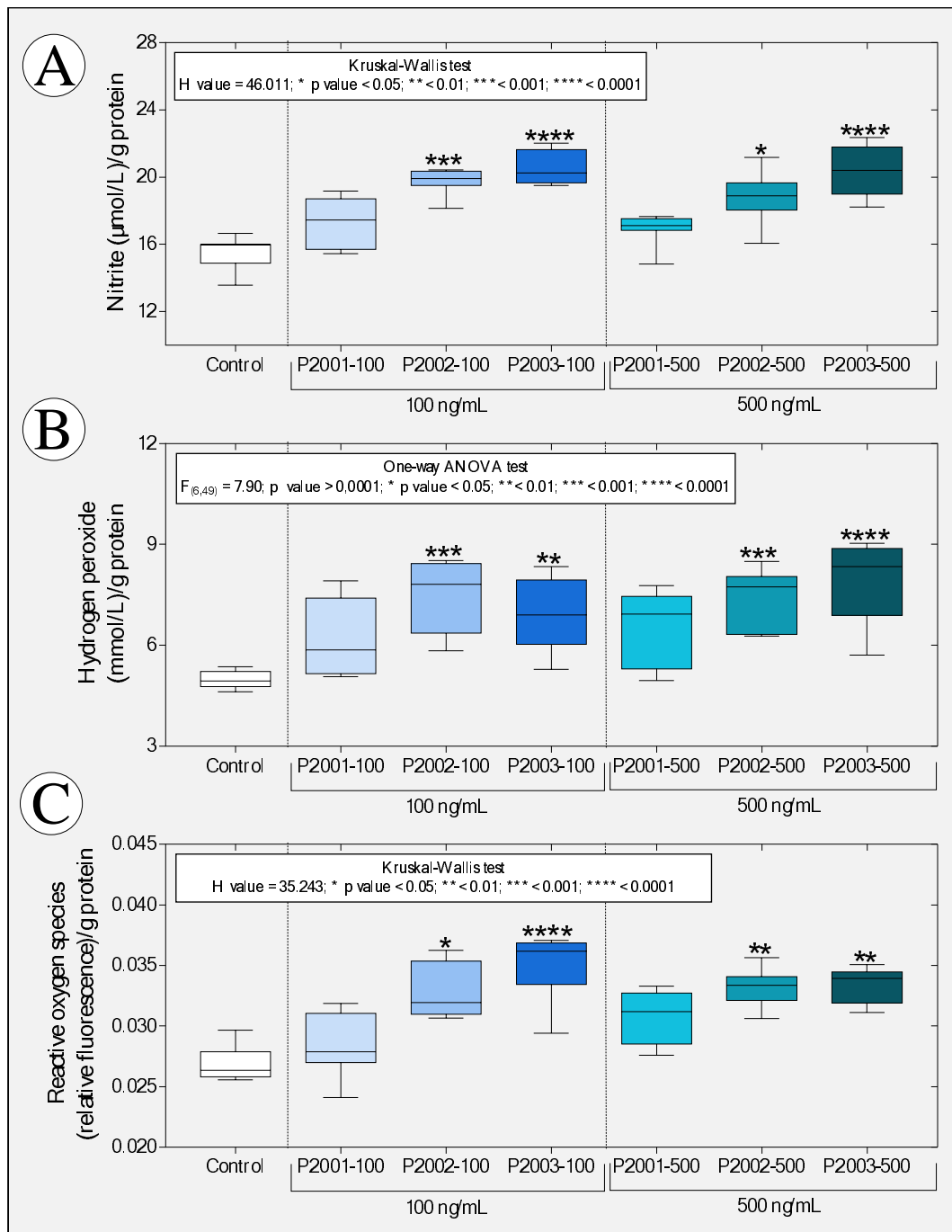


Figure 4. Boxplot of data obtained from predictive oxidative stress biomarkers [(A) nitrite levels, (B) hydrogen peroxide and (C) reactive oxygen species] in tadpoles of *P. cwieri* (phase 27G) exposed or not to peptides PSPD 2001, 2002 and 2003 of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein. The summaries of the statistical analyzes are shown in the upper left corner of the graphs. Asterisks indicate significant differences between the respective groups and the control group. (n = 50 animals/group). PSPD2001: Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys- COOH; PSPD2002: Gln-Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-Arg-Thr-COOH; PSPD2003: Asn-Asn-Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH.

407 Similar to the previous findings, we observed that the animals exposed to PSPD2002 and
408 PSPD2003 showed an increase, in a concentration-dependent manner, of the activity of the
409 enzymes SOD and catalase (Figure 5A-B), with these data being positively and significantly
410 correlated with the increase in the levels of nitrite, peroxide hydrogen and ROS (Figure 5C-D). We
411 also observed that PSPD2003, once again, induced more intense effects on the antioxidant activity;
412 there was an increase above 36% as compared to the control group for the two concentrations
413 tested (100 and 500 ng/mL). The levels of SOD and catalase in the tadpoles exposed to PSPD2002
414 fragments were 28.9% higher than those reported in the control group. However, the SOD/catalase
415 ratio was unaffected or decreased which indicates the relative balance between hydrogen peroxide
416 synthesis by SOD and its decomposition by catalase (Figure 2S-B).

417 These data are exciting since they corroborate previous studies that describe the critical role
418 the SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein in inducing oxidative stress in COVID-19 infection [see the review
419 of Suhail et al. (2020)] while demonstrating that the peptides evaluated, even in a non-host
420 organism, can cause metabolic disorders related to the increase in reactive species. On the other
421 hand, the impairment of antioxidant defenses observed in several viral infections (Fraternale et al.,
422 2006), including COVID-19 (Baradaran et al., 2020; Polonikov, 2020; Bayindir & Bayindir, 2020;
423 Abouhashem et al., 2020), was not evident in the studied organism. These data also reinforce the
424 hypothesis that the responses to the peptide fragments tested may be different between hosts and
425 non-hosts of SARS-CoV-2; they also confirm the ability of peptides PSPD2002 and PSPD2003 to
426 induce metabolic changes that alter REDOX homeostasis towards oxidative stress in tadpoles.

427 The proportional increase in oxidative stress biomarkers and the activity of SOD and
428 catalase enzymes [two essential and indispensable molecules in cellular antioxidant defense
429 strategies -Nishikawa et al. (2009), Hu & Tirelli (2012) and Ighodaro & Akinloye (2018)]
430 reinforces our hypothesis, showing that the increase in antioxidant defenses does not seem to have
431 been sufficient to reduce oxidative stress. The proposition of an action mechanism explaining the
432 increase in these enzymes' activity is very incipient, either due to our study's pioneering nature or
433 the need to deepen biochemical assessments in future studies. However, it is tempting to speculate
434 that the interactions between PSPD2002 and PSPD2003 peptides and antioxidant enzymes
435 evaluated in tadpoles (confirmed by molecular docking) have induced functional changes in SOD
436 and catalase, similarly to what was observed by Jing et al. (2020) by exposing hepatocytes isolated
437 from C57BL6 mice to different concentrations of naphthalene. The data obtained from the
438 molecular docking reinforces our hypothesis by confirming the affinity between the PSPD2002 and
439 PSPD2003 peptides and the referred enzymes and the existence of interactions with residues from
440 all tested moorings (Figure 6). In the interactions with PSPD2002, it was possible to verify several

441 hydrogen bonds in the threonine mixture (T9), revealing the potencies of the binding affinities and
442 the central region of interaction in the active sites of the tested targets. In contrast, PSPD2003
443 interactions showed ≥ 20 hydrogen interactions in all the tested couplings, with the structures of
444 valine (V2) and serine (S4) (central of the peptide) considered to have the best affinity region of the
445 ligand.

446 An increase in NO production (inferred by high levels of nitrite) in tadpoles exposed to
447 PSPD2002 and PSPD2003 (Figure 4A) suggests that the production of this free radical gas
448 constitutes a standard response to the constituents of the SARS-CoV protein -2 Spike of the new
449 coronavirus, both in the evaluated non-host organism and in humans infected with SARS-CoV-2.
450 The ability of NO (both endogenous and exogenous) to inhibit the replication cycle of other viruses
451 in the Coronaviridae family, affecting their proteins and reducing viral RNA (Chen et al., 2004;
452 Keyaerts et al., 2004; Åkerström et al., 2005; Jung et al., 2010), has even motivated studies, whose
453 preliminary results point to its potential therapeutic use in patients infected with SARS-CoV-2
454 (Alvarez et al., 2020). Alternatively, we cannot neglect the hypothesis of increased NO in tadpoles
455 due to the innate immune response modulated by the peptides, with a consequent increase in the
456 production of inflammatory cytokines. In this case, studies reporting a positive correlation between
457 NO production and increased pro-inflammatory cytokine levels (TNF- α , IL-6, IL-17, IL-12, and
458 interferon- γ) in patients with COVID-19 reinforce our hypothesis (Karki et al., 2020; Del Valle et
459 al., 2020; Costela-Ruiz et al., 2020).

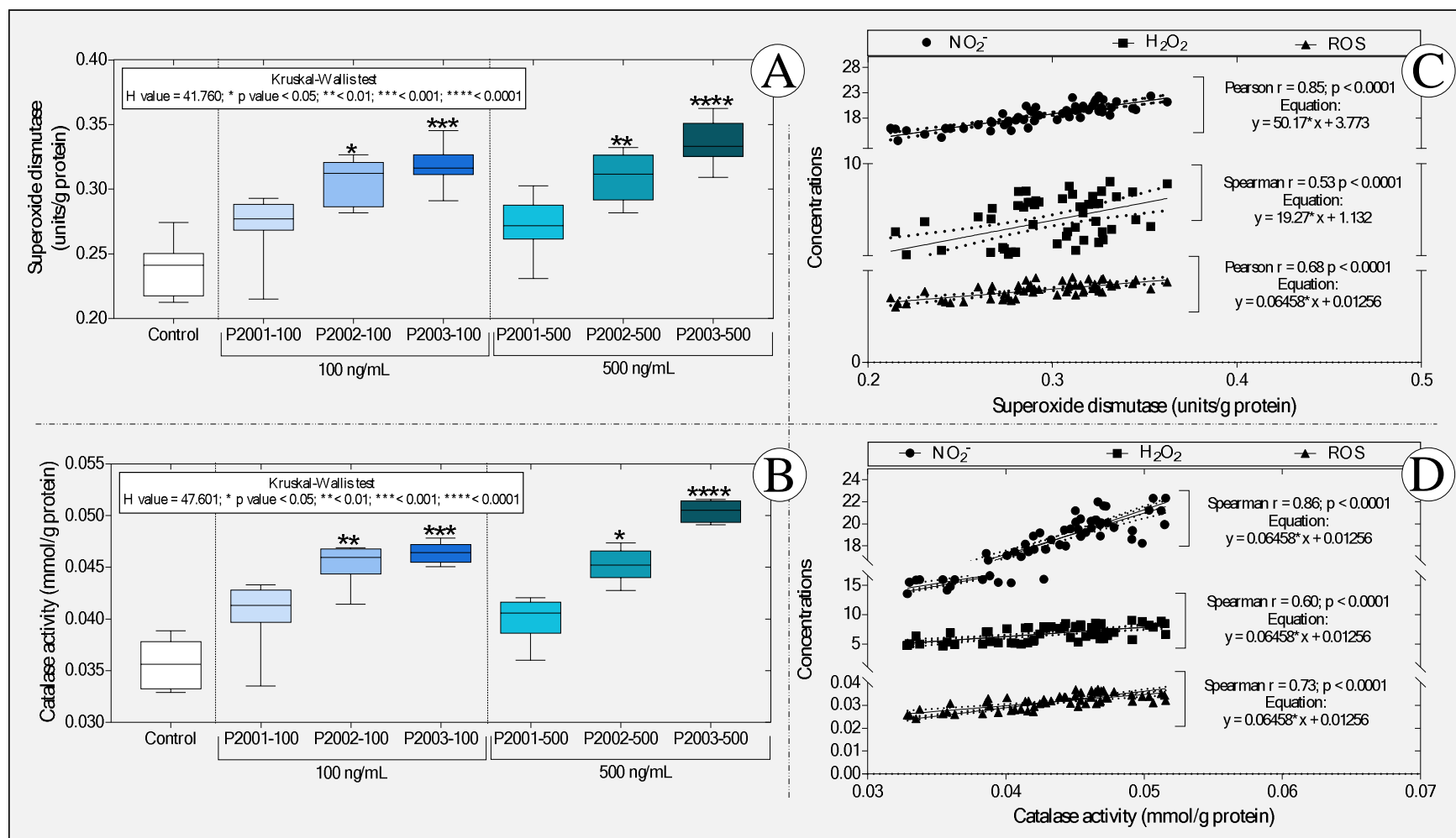


Figure 5. Boxplot of the activity of the enzymes (A) superoxide dismutase and (B) catalase, as well as correlations between the levels of (C) superoxide dismutase and (D) catalase and the different predictive biomarkers of oxidative stress. NO₂⁻: nitrite; H₂O₂: hydrogen peroxide and ROS: reactive oxygen species. In "A" and "B," the statistical analyses' summaries are shown in the graphs' upper left corner. Asterisks indicate significant differences between the respective groups and the control group. (n = 50 animals / group). PSPD2001: Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys- COOH; PSPD2002: Gln-Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-Arg-Thr-COOH; PSPD2003: Asn-Asn-Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH.

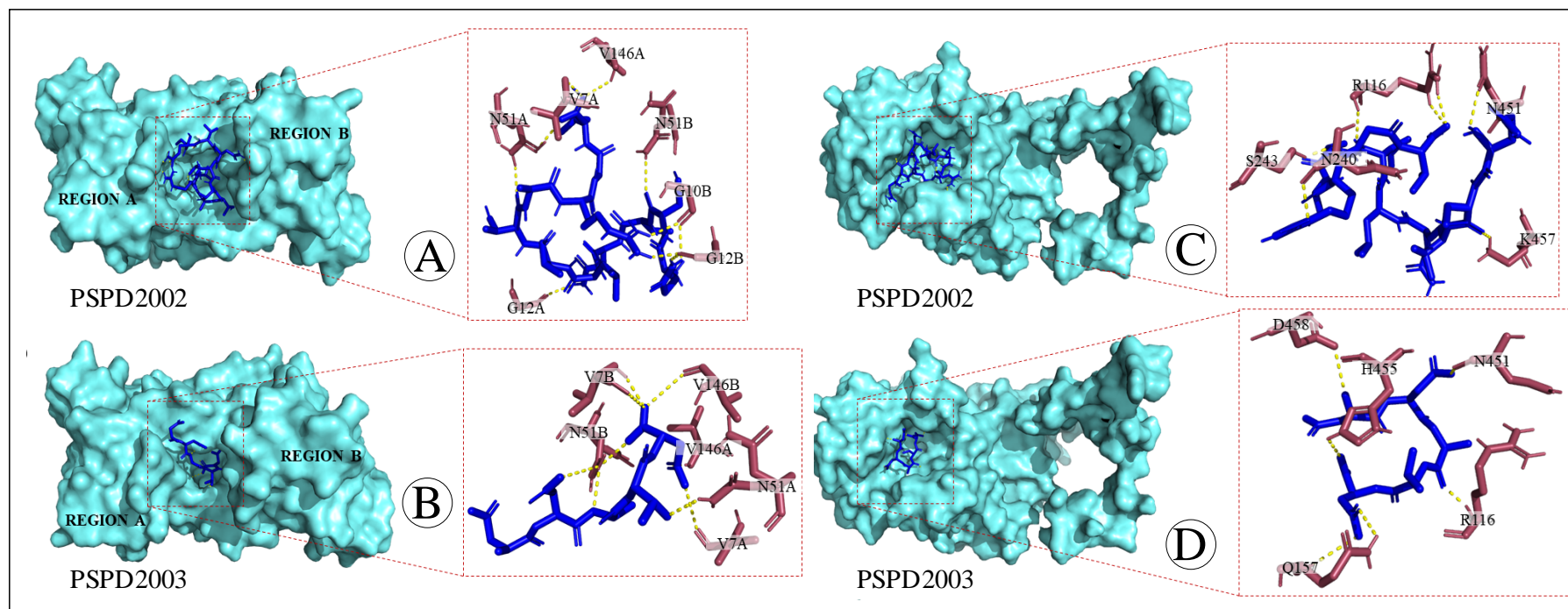
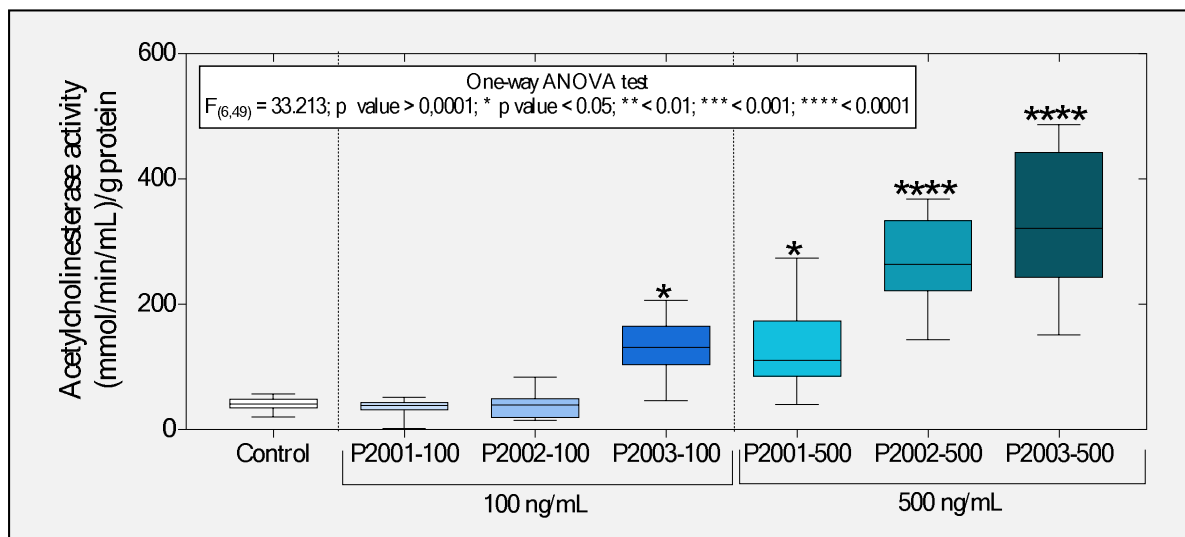


Figure 6. Three-dimensional surface-ligand coupling of interactions between peptides PSPD2002 and PSPD-2003 and the enzyme (A-B) superoxide dismutase (SOD) and (C-D) catalase (C-D), all in surface mode and highlighted active site. In “B and D”, we also observe regions A and B of the homo-dimer structure. Interaction residues in “A” (SOD-PSPD2002): G12A; N51A *; V7A; V146B; G10B *; G12B *; N51B (affinity (kcal / mol) = -8.3). In “B” (SOD-PSPD2002): N51A; V7A; V146A; N51B **, V7B; V146B * (affinity (kcal / mol) = -8.6). In “C” (Catalase-PSPD2002): K457; N240; N451; R116 **, S243 (affinity (kcal / mol) = -9.3). In “D” (Catalase-PSPD2003): D458; H455; N451; Q157 *; R116 (affinity (kcal / mol) = -6.8). An "asterisk" indicates two interactions in the same residue. Two "asterisks" indicate the existence of three interactions in the same residue.

464 We also evaluated the peptides' possible neurotoxicity in tadpoles exposed to the peptide
465 fragments of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein. Interestingly, we observed that 100 ng/mL PSPD2003
466 induced an increase greater than 220% concerning the control group. However, at a concentration
467 of 500 ng/mL, all the peptides evaluated exerted an effect in the cholinergic system, causing an
468 increase in the activity of AChE (Figure 7). While the peptides PSPD2001 and PSPD2002 induced
469 increases of 219 and 553.8% in relation to AChE activity in the control group's animals,
470 respectively; the PSPD2003 peptide impressively induced an even more significant increase
471 (697.3%). Therefore, these data confirmed the initial hypothesis that the SARS-CoV-2 Spike
472 fragments induce neurotoxic effects, inferred by the stimulatory effect of the cholinergic system of
473 the animals evaluated, especially in those exposed to the highest concentration (500 ng/mL) of the
474 peptides.
475



476 **Figure 7.** Boxplot of the enzyme acetylcholinesterase activity evaluated in tadpoles of *P. cuvieri*
477 exposed or not to the peptides PSPD 2001, 2002, and 2003 of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein. The
478 summaries of the statistical analyzes are shown in the upper left corner of the graphs. Asterisks
479 indicate significant differences between the respective groups and the control group. (n = 50
480 animals / group). PSPD2001: Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys- COOH; PSPD2002: Gln-
Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-Arg-Thr-COOH; PSPD2003: Asn-Asn-Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH.

476

477 Interestingly, these data differ from other studies that report suppression in AChE induced
478 by increased cellular oxidative stress (Flora et al., 2013; Kayode et al., 2016; Bali et al., 2019;
479 Ezeoyili et al., 2019; Pala et al., 2019; Ibrahim et al., 2020). In general, such studies argue that this
480 can occur due to the deterioration of neurotransmission and oxidative damage. Additionally, AChE

481 inhibition impairs oxidative phosphorylation and is followed by neuronal Ca^{2+} influx and activation
482 of nNOS, associated with the neurons' oxidative and nitrosative injury (Milatovic et al., 2006).
483 However, the increased AChE activity observed in tadpoles exposed to the peptides may be related
484 to the activation of the cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway (CAP), which has been found
485 beneficial in preventing inflammatory conditions such as sepsis and acute respiratory distress
486 syndrome in animal models [see the review of Liu et al. (2020)]. As discussed by Osman (2020),
487 CAP constitutes a neural mechanism that modulates inflammation through the release of
488 acetylcholine (ACh), that have led to increased AChE synthesis to decompose higher levels of this
489 neurotransmitter [see details in Tracey (2007)]. This mechanism has been reported in different
490 studies involving patients infected with the new coronavirus (Bonaz et al., 2020; Mazloom et al.,
491 2020; Pomara et al., 2020), strengthening the presumption that this mechanism may constitute
492 another similar physiological response between SARS-CoV-2 non-host and host organisms. Besides,
493 it is plausible to assume not only that the peptide composition of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein
494 participates in the CAP activation (both in humans and in the evaluated tadpoles) but also that the
495 neuroimmune system of the tadpoles has an essential role in responding to exposure of peptides
496 PSPD2001, PSPD2002 and PSPD2003.

497 Alternatively, the tadpoles' cholinergic system's stimulation may also be explained by the
498 direct interactions between the tested peptides and AChE, whose affinity was demonstrated in the
499 molecular docking analysis (Figure 8). In this case, future studies will be useful to understand if
500 these interactions induced a significant change in the association and catalysis mechanism or
501 expansion of the enzyme efficiency with an increase of the substrate affinity to the active site
502 (increasing the catalytic constant was increased and decreasing the Michaelis constant). In both
503 situations, a significant increase in AChE activity can occur, either as part of a compensatory
504 mechanism that will aim to compensate for the enzyme's catalytic deficit or as a more efficient
505 response to the increased release of acetylcholine in synaptic clefts via CAP activation. The
506 hypothesis that increased AChE activity in these animals was associated with positive AChE gene
507 regulation due to Spike protein peptides' inhibitory effect needs to be tested in future studies.

508 Finally, it is essential to emphasize that although our study gathers clear and pioneering
509 evidence on the negative impact of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike fragments (especially PSPD2002 and
510 PSPD2003) on the biochemical parameters evaluated in *P. cuvieri* tadpoles, many questions about
511 the consequences of the presence of these fragments in the aquatic environment remains obscure.
512 The evaluation of the effects of prolonged exposure to the tested peptides (in higher and lower
513 concentrations), the use of other experimental models (expanding the environmental
514 representativeness), and the use of multiple toxicity biomarkers are some future investigative

515 perspectives. Equally important will be to deepen the mechanisms of action of the peptides of the
516 SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein when in direct contact with non-host organisms of the new coronavirus.
517 Approaches of this nature can significantly expand our knowledge of the impact of COVID-19 on
518 the environment and the functioning of ecosystems, and support the proposal for strategies to
519 remedy or mitigate aquatic contamination by SARS-Cov2 particles.
520

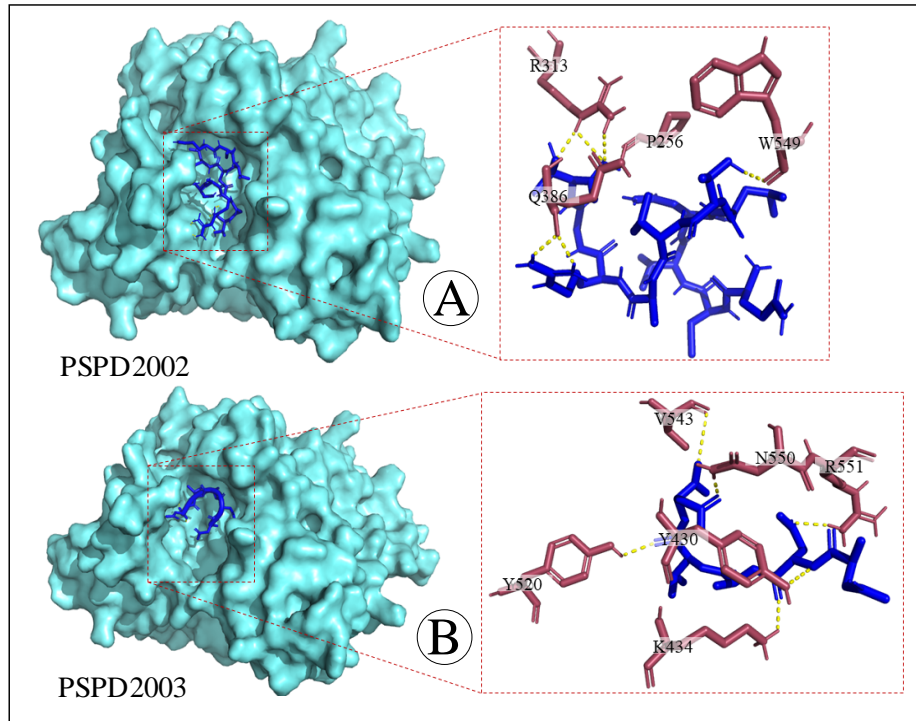


Figure 8. Three-dimensional surface-ligand coupling of interactions between peptides (A) PSPD2002 and (B) PSPD-2003 and the enzyme acetylcholinesterase, all in surface mode and highlighted active site. Interaction residues in "A" (AChE-PSPD2002): P256; Q386 *; R313 **; W549 (affinity (kcal / mol) = -9.4). In "B" (AChE-PSPD2003): K434; N550; R551; V543; Y430; Y520 (affinity (kcal / mol) = -8.4). An "asterisk" indicates two interactions in the same residue. Two "asterics" indicate the existence of three interactions in the same residue.

521

522 4. CONCLUSIONS

523 From a systemic approach that included the synthesis, cleavage, purification, and alignment
524 of peptides to *P. cuvieri* tadpoles' exposure to peptide fragments of Spike protein, we gathered
525 evidence that confirms the toxicity of viral constituents in the evaluated animal model. The
526 increase in predictive biomarkers of REDOX imbalance and neurotoxic action is, therefore, an
527 insight into how aquatic particle contamination of SARS-CoV-2 can constitute additional
528 environmental damage to the COVID-19 pandemic. In this sense, we strongly suggest conducting

529 further studies necessary to understand the real magnitude of the biological/environmental impact
530 of COVID-19.

531

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909

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

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911 **Table S1.** Summary information on the methodological procedures adopted in the purification stage
912 of the present study's compounds.

Compound	Retention time (min)	Purificationmethod
PSPD2001	7,7	Gradient 3 to 43% B in 90 min
PSPD2002	10,0	Gradient 10 to 50% B in 90 min
PSPD2003	2,0 e 13,3	Isocratic 2% to B in 20 min and gradient 2 to 53% B in 90 min

913

PSPD2001: Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys- COOH; PSPD2002: Gln-Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-Arg-Thr-COOH;

914

PSPD2003: Asn-Asn-Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH.

915

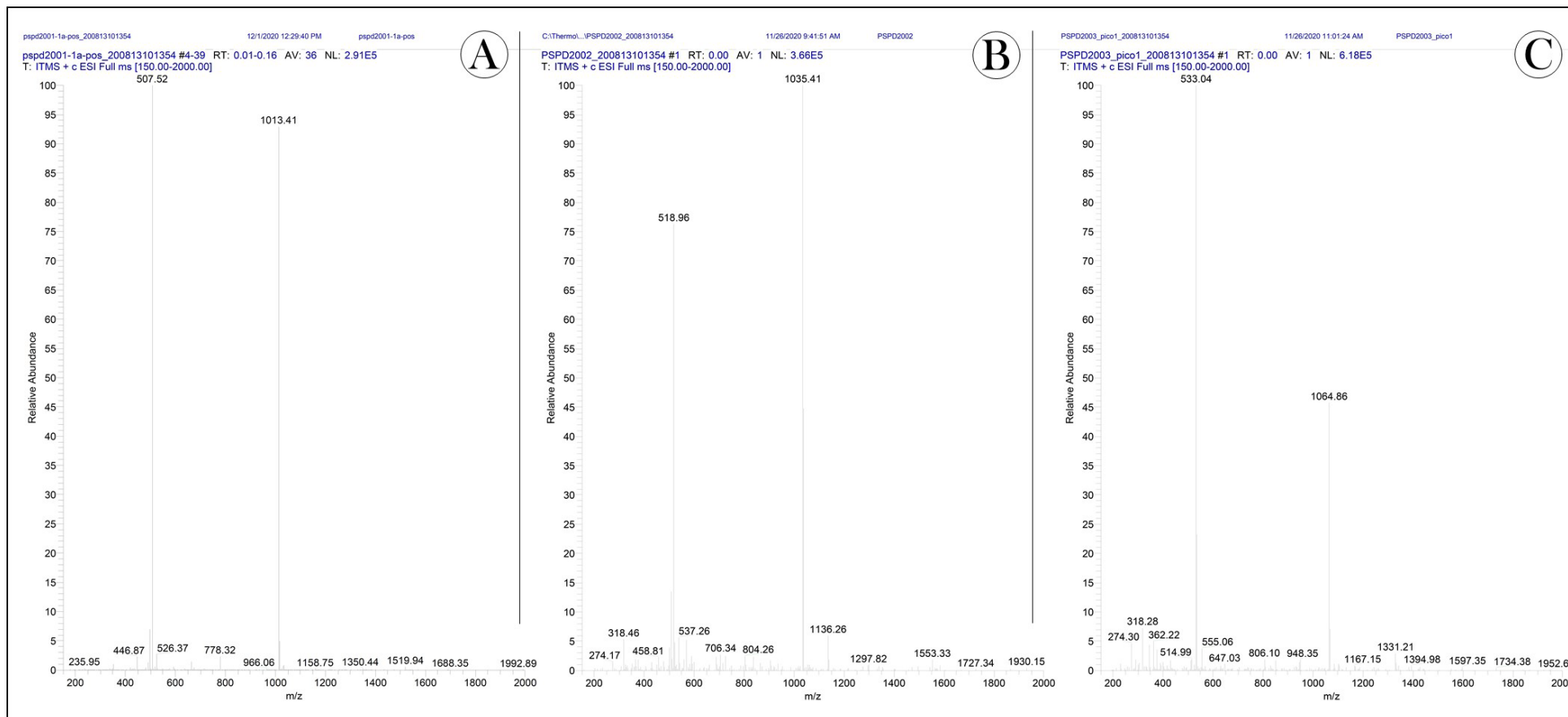


Figure S1. Mass spectra obtained for peptides (A) PSPD2001, (B) PSPD2002 and (C) PSPD2003. PSPD2001: Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys-COOH; PSPD2002: Gln-Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-Arg-Thr-COOH; PSPD2003: Asn-Asn-Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH.

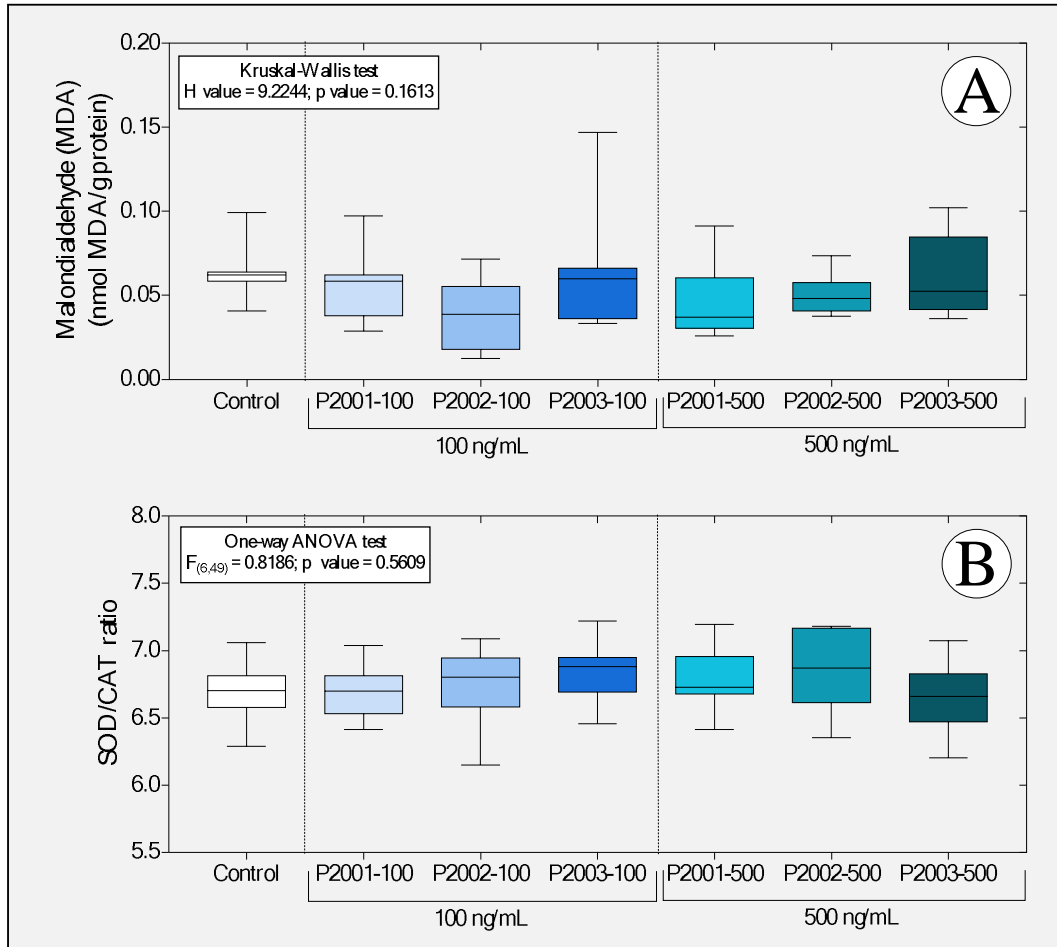
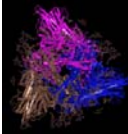
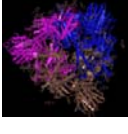
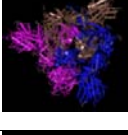
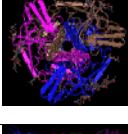
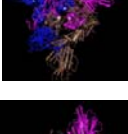
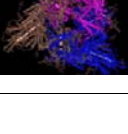


Figure S2. Boxplot of (A) concentrations of malondialdehyde and (B) SOD / CAT ratio in tadpoles of *P. cuvieri* (phase 27G) exposed or not to PSPD peptides 2001, 2002, and 2003 of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein. Summaries of statistical analyzes are shown in the upper left corner of the graph. (n = 50 animals / group). PSPD2001: Arg-Val-Tyr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Asn-Asn-Cys-COOH; PSPD2002: Gln-Cys-Val-Asn-Leu-Thr-Thr-Arg-Thr-COOH; PSPD2003: Asn-Asn-Ala-Thr-Asn-COOH. SOD: superoxide dismutase; CAT: catalase.

916 **TableS1:** Alignment of the sequences and consensus for PSPD2001, showing the similarities found
 917 with the proteins noted in the GeneBank database by BLAST, with the Sequence ID, the protein's
 918 name, the Number of Matches, the alignment and the Protein 3D Structure.

Sequence ID	Protein	Number of Matches	Alignment	Protein 3D Structure
6XR8_A	Distinct conformational states of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein [Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2]	1	Query 1 RVYSSANNC 9 Sbjct 158 RVYSSANNC 166	
6XKL_A	SARS-CoV-2 HexaPro S One RBD up [Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2]	1	Query 1 RVYSSANNC 9 Sbjct 158 RVYSSANNC 166	
6VSB_A	Prefusion 2019-nCoV spike glycoprotein with a single receptor-binding domain up [Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2]	1	Query 1 RVYSSANNC 9 Sbjct 158 RVYSSANNC 166	
6Z43_A	Cryo-EM Structure of SARS-CoV-2 Spike : H11-D4 Nanobody Complex [Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2]	1	Query 1 RVYSSANNC 9 Sbjct 158 RVYSSANNC 166	
6ZGG_A	Furin Cleaved Spike Protein of SARS-CoV-2 with One RBD Erect [Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2]	1	Query 1 RVYSSANNC 9 Sbjct 189 RVYSSANNC 197	
6ZGE_A	Uncleavable Spike Protein of SARS-CoV-2 in Closed Conformation [Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2]	1	Query 1 RVYSSANNC 9 Sbjct 189 RVYSSANNC 197	

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