

恶性疟原虫青蒿素抗疟药抗性研究进展

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摘要: 疟疾是由疟原虫感染引起的一种传染病, 是全球最重要的公共卫生问题之一。世界卫生组织 (WHO) 推荐以青蒿素为基础的联合疗法 (artemisinin-based combination therapies, ACTs) 作为疟疾流行地区的非复杂性恶性疟的一线治疗。青蒿素及其衍生物的应用在降低全球疟疾发病率方面发挥了不可或缺的作用。但近年来, 青蒿素类药物抗性的出现与扩散使全球疟疾的控制与消除面临巨大挑战。目前, 与青蒿素抗药性关系最为密切的是恶性疟原虫第13号染色体上 *K13* 基因的突变, 但近年来不断有研究表明 *K13* 并不能解释所有的青蒿素抗性。本文综述近年来恶性疟原虫对青蒿素产生抗性研究领域的相关研究进展, 包括青蒿素抗药性的定义、检测方法、抗性相关的分子标记等。此外, 本文所讨论的某些问题仍存在争议, 还需深入研究。

关键词: 恶性疟原虫; 青蒿素; 抗药性; 恶性疟原虫 *Kelch 13* 基因; 环状体生存试验

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Research progress on artemisinin antimalarial resistance of *Plasmodium falciparum*

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Abstract: Malaria, an infectious disease caused by *Plasmodium* infection, is one of the most important public health problems worldwide. Artemisinin-based combination therapies (ACTs) are recommended by WHO as the first-line treatment for uncomplicated *P. falciparum* malaria in malaria-endemic areas. The application of artemisinin and its derivatives has played an integral role in reducing the global incidence of malaria. However, in recent years, the emergence and spread of artemisinin resistance has brought great challenges to global malaria control and elimination. At present, the mutation of *K13* gene on chromosome 13 of *Plasmodium falciparum* is most closely related to artemisinin resistance, but in recent years, studies have shown that *K13* cannot explain all artemisinin resistance. This article reviews the recent research progress in the field of artemisinin resistance in *Plasmodium falciparum*, including definition of artemisinin resistance, detection methods and molecular markers related to resistance. In addition, some of the issues discussed in this review remain controversial and require further study.

Keywords: *Plasmodium falciparum*; artemisinin; drug resistance; *PfK13*; ring survival assay

疟疾是一个全球性的公共卫生问题。寄生于人体的疟原虫有五种, 包括: 间日疟原虫、恶性疟原虫、卵形疟原虫、三日疟原虫和诺氏疟原虫。其中, 恶性疟原虫感染导致的疟疾病情最严重, 死亡率最高, 并对多种抗疟药产生抗性。根据2021年世界卫生组织统计, 2020年全球有2.41亿疟疾病例, 62.7万人死于疟疾^[1]。与2019年相比, 2020年的病例增加约1400万, 死亡人数增加6.9万^[1]。由于实验性疫苗的使用和有效性非常有限, 因此在预防与治疗疟疾感染患者时主要采用抗疟疾药物^[2]。以青蒿素为基础的联合疗

法 (artemisinin-based combination therapy, ACTs) 现在被世界卫生组织 (World Health Organization, WHO) 推荐为所有疟疾流行地区的非复杂性恶性疟的一线治疗方法。WHO 目前推荐六种 ACT: 蒿甲醚-苯茛醇 (artemether-lumefantrine, AL)、青蒿琥酯-阿莫地喹 (artesunate-amodiaquine, AS-AQ)、青蒿琥酯-甲氟喹 (artesunate-mefloquine, AS-MQ)、青蒿琥酯-咯萘啶 (artesunate-pyronaridine, AS-PND)、青蒿琥酯-磺胺多辛/乙胺嘧啶 (artesunate-sulfadoxine/pyrimethamine, AS-SP) 和双氢青蒿素-哌喹 (dihydroartemisinin-

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piperaquine, DHA-PQ)。将 ACT 部署为恶性疟疾的一线治疗方法,为全球疟疾发病率的降低发挥了极大作用。然而,在东南亚地区,恶性疟原虫对 ACTs 的耐药性首次出现在柬埔寨西部^[3-5],目前已扩散到泰国、老挝、越南、缅甸以及中国^[6-9]。非洲疟原虫对 ACT 敏感性延迟的报道^[10-11]显示疟原虫对青蒿素类药物产生抗性会严重削弱治疗效果,伪造和劣质抗疟药的流通以及青蒿素的单药治疗也可能使疟原虫产生抗性^[12-13],对全球疟疾的控制与消除产生影响。

1 青蒿素及其衍生物 (Artemisinin and its derivatives, ART) 抗药性

ART 抗药性存在不寻常的表型和潜在机制。目前对于青蒿素的抗药性可以从两方面定义:体内试验和体外试验。根据 WHO 定义的疟原虫对药物产生抗性中,将疟原虫的反应分为 4 种类型(分别是 S, R I, R II 和 R III)^[14]:敏感性 S 定义为首次用药后的 7 d 内无性期原虫被清除且无复发;抗性 R I 定义为用药后无性期原虫被清除但有复发;抗性 R II 定义为用药后能显著降低无性期原虫率但不能完全清除原虫;抗性 R III 定义为用药后不能显著降低无性期原虫率。R II 和 R III 类型的氯喹(chloroquine, CQ)抗性、乙胺嘧啶-磺胺多辛抗性及其他药物抗性已有大量报道,属于 R II 和 R III 类型的疟原虫,其升高的药物半抑制浓度(the half maximal inhibitory concentration, IC₅₀s)通常可以采用体外的药物抑制原虫生长试验进行测定。恶性疟原虫的 CQ 抗性和乙胺嘧啶抗性所产生的关联基因已经获得证实,分别是由 CQ 抗性转运蛋白编码基因(*Pfcr1*)和二氢叶酸还原酶编码基因(*Pfdhfr*)的突变引起^[15-16]。

对青蒿素类药物抗性的定义,有文献认为,根据标准青蒿素类药物的延迟原虫清除(delay parasite clearance, DPC),将延迟半数原虫清除时间(DPC1/2) >5 h 定义为青蒿素抗性虫株,药物剂量 2~4 mg/(kg·d),给药 3 d^[17]。然而,报道显示 DPC1/2 >5 h 的虫株和 DPC1/2 <3 h 的虫株之间的 IC₅₀ 值并没有很大差别^[4-5],可能是 DPC1/2 会受到宿主免疫力、发热、贫血以及原虫密度等因素的影响^[17],因此直接采集患者血液进行测试很难对 DPC1/2 表型进行精确测定。临床上将病人经过规范剂量青蒿素类药物治疗后,第 3 天血片仍然阳性定义为抗性;实验室以环状体生存试验(ring survival assay, RSA)进行判定^[18]。RSA 体外测试,即在疟原虫早期环状体时期(0~3 h 龄期),让疟原虫暴露于双氢青蒿素(DHA) 700 nmol/L, 6 h,随后清洗掉药物,再孵育 66 h 后评估疟原虫的生存能力,存

活率 >1% 则被定义为青蒿素抗性^[19],无论 Kelch 13 propeller protein(*K13*)基因是否突变。目前的观点认为,现有的耐药虫株会利用青蒿素半衰期短的特性,改变生活周期或暂时进入休眠状态,以规避敏感杀虫期。在环状体发育阶段,疟原虫可通过进入休眠状态,减少细胞代谢,增加对外部压力的抵抗力^[20-21],有休眠表现的疟原虫可通过实验室的 RSA 检出。

目前学术界对青蒿素类药物抗性的定义与 WHO 有关疟原虫抗性定义不一致的情况存在争议与讨论。Wang 等^[22]研究发现青蒿素在人体内半衰期很短,仅 1~2 h,而临床推荐采用的青蒿素联合药物治疗的疗程是 3 d,该疗程下青蒿素真正高效的杀虫窗口只有 4~8 h,不符合 WHO 关于疟原虫抗性的定义。因此,不应该以第 3 天血片仍然阳性定义为抗性。

目前 ART 的确切作用方式尚未明确。目前一种流行的理论是青蒿素的激活依赖于疟原虫在生物合成途径中与消化血红蛋白中产生的血红素^[23]。在早期环状体时期,疟原虫体内合成的血红素是激活青蒿素的主要来源;而在疟原虫发育晚期,消化血红蛋白产生的和生物合成途径产生的血红素对青蒿素的激活均有贡献。由于早期环状体尚未开始大量消化血红蛋白,因此可能无法有效地激活青蒿素,所以此阶段对青蒿素有较高的耐性,而处于活跃消化血红蛋白状态下的滋养体对青蒿素更为敏感。青蒿素一旦被激活,就会使许多疟原虫生长过程中所需的蛋白和血红素烷基化,导致疟原虫死亡。此外,活化的 ART 会导致活性氧(reactive oxygen species, ROS)的产生,从而降低细胞的抗氧化能力并损害线粒体和寄生虫 DNA 等大分子^[24-25]。这种独特的激活和广泛的靶向机制表明,单个蛋白质靶点的突变随机不可能引起耐药性^[23],这可能解释了为什么青蒿素在经过数十年的广泛使用后仍然有效。然而,也有观点认为 RSA 忽略了疟原虫的整个生命周期。只有到达滋养体期,“青蒿素敏感”和“青蒿素耐药”疟原虫才能对青蒿素类药物产生同样好的应答^[22]。若药物持续存在,在暴露 6 h 后存活的环状体疟原虫随后发育为更成熟的滋养体阶段则可能被杀死,因此 RSA 被认为无法准确反映或预测是否发生青蒿素耐药^[26-27]。

2 *K13* 突变是 ART 抗性的关键决定因素

K13 基因的部分突变是青蒿素抗药性的主要决定因素^[28-30],这一发现为全球监测这种抗药性提供了机会。*K13* 基因是位于恶性疟原虫基因组的第 13 号染色体上的 *Kelch* 基因,全长 2 180 bp,主要编码 *Kelch* 螺旋桨蛋白(*k13-propeller*),生物信息学预测 *k13-*

propeller同源蛋白由6个 β -螺旋结构域组成,并与N末端片段、C末端 β -折叠结构域紧密联系^[31-33]。K13属于Kelch蛋白质超家族,其螺旋桨结构域包含多个蛋白质相互作用位点并介导多种细胞功能,包括泛素调节的蛋白质降解和氧化应激反应^[34]。

近年来,青蒿素抗药性机理研究最大的突破,是将体外培养的恶性疟原虫,通过青蒿素药物筛选出来的恶性疟原虫青蒿素抗性虫株(F32-ART5),通过全基因组测序,发现1个基因的突变与柬埔寨西部发现的青蒿素抗性虫株的突变基因不谋而合,即*Kelch13*(K13, PF3D7_1343700)^[28]。然而,并非所有的K13突变都会导致ART抗性,例如在几个非洲国家观察到的A578S突变的流行率非常低,并且在基因编辑后无法存活^[35],被证实与体外ART抗性无关。WHO发布了经验证与部分青蒿素耐药相关的K13基因突变,包括C580Y、R561H、F446I、P574L、N458Y、I543T、M476I、R539T、Y493H和P553L^[28,36],提供了用于监测ART抗性的标记基因。然而,在大湄公河次区域(Greater Mekong Subregion Economic Cooperation, GMS)之外也发现了介导青蒿素抗性的K13突变。在非洲卢旺达,尽管ACT的治愈率很高(>95%),但在7.4%的患者中发现了R561H突变,这表明当地抗性谱系的重新出现和扩大^[10]。当在Dd2菌株中基因编辑此位点时,发现它还导致了体外ART抗性^[10]。

即使在首次出现ART抗性的GMS的地域附近,K13突变也具有高度多样性和区域特异性^[6,37]。目前,C580Y突变在柬埔寨^[28]和泰缅边境^[28,37]占据主流,且已在圭亚那和巴布亚新几内亚中独立出现^[38-40]。F446I突变在缅甸北部和中缅边境为主流^[6,41]。这种差异可能是受到不同地区的人类迁移历史、药物使用、遗传背景等影响。K13的突变情况,有明显的地域差异,也与特定的地理位置有关,亚洲不同国家的虫株,差异也很大^[42]。因此,存在于不同地域的虫株,遗传背景可能不同,导致相同的点突变在不同地域显示出不同抗性^[43]。

3 K13不能解释所有ART抗性

人们发现K13不能解释所有ART抗性,比如:(1)将K13 C580Y基因导入不同地理背景的疟原虫,RSA存活率处在不同水平^[30]。(2)在体外产生的青蒿素抗性并不都有K13突变^[44]。(3)不断有临床病例观察到青蒿素抗性,但病例疟原虫的K13却没有突变^[45-47]。即除了K13,可能有其他蛋白对青蒿素的抗性起作用。

将K13 C580Y基因导入不同的地理背景的疟原虫,结果显示与Dd2和FCB疟原虫相比,引入C580Y

突变的疟原虫在3种柬埔寨分离株中显示了更高水平的青蒿素抗性^[30]。Cheeseman等发现^[31]在疟原虫13号染色体上有一个35-kb区域,该区域与延迟的寄生虫清除时间有关。这个区域内有分子伴侣grp170(pf3d7_1344200)、脂肪酸合成酶(pf3d7_1344600)和硫氧化还原蛋白2(pf3d7_1345100),它们分别在细胞应激反应、脂肪酸补救或生物合成途径和氧化反应中发挥作用。目前,新发现了与青蒿素类药物抗性相关的1、2、6、9、11、13号染色体上的基因位点^[48],其中一些被基因编辑工作证实了抗性^[30,49];一些只在疟原虫的一定时期出现抗性^[50]。这些抗性位点的证实,说明了疟原虫的基因背景对产生青蒿素抗药性有重要影响。有研究认为多药耐药蛋白2基因(multidrug resistance protein 2,MDR2)T484I,铁氧化还原蛋白(ferredoxin)D193Y,磷脂酰肌醇结合蛋白基因7(phosphoinositide-binding protein 7,PIB7)C1484F,顶端体核糖体蛋白S10基因(apicoplast ribosomal protein S10,ARPS10)V127M,及*pfcr1*的I356T和N326S这些突变都存在于东南亚虫株的基因背景里^[48]。因此,有可能是这些共同的背景导致的抗性;还有可能是*Kelch10* P623T与K13 C580Y或者E252Q协调作用导致抗性^[51]。不过,这些观察到的现象,很多都需要进一步验证。有报道显示^[44],通过CRISPR/Cas9介导的基因编辑将*pfcoronin*突变引入亲代疟原虫时,这些突变足以降低亲代系中的ART易感性。Henrici等^[49]研究发现,编码AP2运输复合物的 μ 亚基和泛素水解酶UBP1的基因突变可以在体外产生降低恶性疟原虫环状体期青蒿素敏感性的现象,类似于K13介导的ART抗性循环的特征。并进一步探索是否存在其他基因与K13在相同的功能途径中起作用并产生与K13突变无关的相似抗性水平^[52]。另外,He等^[46]研究发现,在中国广西壮族自治区输入性疟疾感染患者在青蒿素治疗后的28 d内疟疾再发作,但这些样本中K13基因没有突变,所以不能用K13基因来解释再燃现象。因此,对ART抗性的成因还需进一步探索。

4 总结与展望

多重耐药恶性疟原虫的出现是对消灭疟疾的重大挑战。尽管GMS恶性疟发病率持续下降,但监测抗药性对区域抗疟药物政策仍然至关重要。抗CQ和乙胺嘧啶的疟原虫从GMS传播到非洲,导致数百万儿童死亡^[53-55]。在GMS中观察到的抗ART疟原虫的跨国传播表明解决跨大陆传播刻不容缓^[56-57]。尽管在其他地方尚未观察到临床ART耐药性,但对在大洋洲、非洲和南美洲出现的K13 C580Y和R561H突变

需要提高警惕。对于保持 ACT 的有效性^[10, 38-40], 由于 ART 药物的作用窗口相对较短, 选择合适的伙伴药物至关重要。另外, 延长疗程, 例如将治疗时间从 3 d 延长至 7 d, 可能也有助于保障当前药物的疗效^[22]。目前为了对抗青蒿素抗药性, 已经制定了两种疟疾控制策略: 三联疗法 (TACT) 和大规模药物治疗 (massive drug administration, MDA)^[58-59]。TACTs 是利用组合不同的药物作用来防止产生多药耐药性或消除对一种 ACT 合作药物产生抗药性的风险; 而 MDA 旨在消除抗药性寄生虫传播和持续存在的宿主的无症状疟疾。TACT 疗效的临床测试正在第二阶段追踪抗青蒿素协作 II (TRAC II) 多中心研究中进行。早期研究表明, 双氢青蒿素 + 哌喹 + 甲氟喹和蒿甲醚 + 苯茛醇 + 阿莫地喹组合可能有助于延缓青蒿素抗药性的发展或恢复曾经对青蒿素抗药地区的药物敏感性^[60]。为了及时调整疟疾流行不同阶层之间的抗疟药物政策和维持 ACT 的有效性, 抗疟药物抗药性监测应结合体内疗效研究、体外测定和抗药性标志物的分子监测; 并了解 ACT 的抗药性如何演变和传播, 使用有效的伙伴药物并采取科学的监测方法。

重新思考选择药物组合与给药方式将有助于在疟原虫进化的威胁下保持药物疗效并结合抗药性检测、机制阐明和加强监测等工作来指导实施有效的抗疟药物政策。

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