

**Athens Institute for Education and Research**

**ATINER**



**ATINER's Conference Paper Series**

**PHY-CHE-2013-0879**

**Prophylaxis and Treatment of Generalized  
Infection Induced by Methicillin-Resistant  
Staphylococcus Aureus (MRSA) in Vivo  
with Hypothalamic Proline Rich Peptides  
Galarmin and D-15 Galarmin**

**Margarita Matevosyan**

**Senior Researcher**

**Institute of Biochemistry and Yerevan State University  
Armenia**

**Andranik Durgaryan**

**Researcher**

**H. Buniatian Institute of Biochemistry, NAS RA  
Armenia**

**Armen Galoyan**

**Head of Department Neurohormones Biochemistry  
H. Buniatian Institute of Biochemistry, NAS RA  
Armenia**

Athens Institute for Education and Research  
8 Valaoritou Street, Kolonaki, 10671 Athens, Greece  
Tel: + 30 210 3634210 Fax: + 30 210 3634209  
Email: [info@atiner.gr](mailto:info@atiner.gr) URL: [www.atiner.gr](http://www.atiner.gr)  
URL Conference Papers Series: [www.atiner.gr/papers.htm](http://www.atiner.gr/papers.htm)

Printed in Athens, Greece by the Athens Institute for Education and Research.  
All rights reserved. Reproduction is allowed for non-commercial purposes if the  
source is fully acknowledged.

**ISSN 2241-2891**  
23/1/2014

## An Introduction to ATINER's Conference Paper Series

ATINER started to publish this conference papers series in 2012. It includes only the papers submitted for publication after they were presented at one of the conferences organized by our Institute every year. The papers published in the series have not been refereed and are published as they were submitted by the author. The series serves two purposes. First, we want to disseminate the information as fast as possible. Second, by doing so, the authors can receive comments useful to revise their papers before they are considered for publication in one of ATINER's books, following our standard procedures of a blind review.

Dr. Gregory T. Papanikos  
President  
Athens Institute for Education and Research

This paper should be cited as follows:

**Matevosyan, M., Durgaryan, A. and Galoyan, A. (2013) "Prophylaxis and Treatment of Generalized Infection Induced by Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus Aureus (MRSA) in Vivo with Hypothalamic Proline Rich Peptides Galarmin and D-15 Galarmin" Athens: ATINER'S Conference Paper Series, No: PHY-CHE-2013-0879.**

**Prophylaxis and Treatment of Generalized Infection Induced  
by Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus Aureus (MRSA) in  
Vivo with Hypothalamic Proline Rich Peptides Galarmin and  
D-15 Galarmin**

**Margarita Matevosyan**

**Senior Researcher**

**Institute of Biochemistry and Yerevan State University  
Armenia**

**Andranik Durgaryan**

**Researcher**

**H. Buniatian Institute of Biochemistry, NAS RA  
Armenia**

**Armen Galoyan**

**Head of Department Neurohormones Biochemistry**

**H. Buniatian Institute of Biochemistry, NAS RA  
Armenia**

**Abstract**

Epidemiological data indicate that Staphylococcus aureus and particularly methicillin-resistant strains of S.aureus (MRSA) are responsible for the majority of complicated cases of Staphylococcus infections and are increasingly implicated as a cause of nosocomial and community associated infections worldwide. Proline-rich peptides (Galarmin and analogues) are new brain cytokines isolated from neurosecretory granules of hypothalamus by Prof. A. Galoyan and coworkers with a broad-spectrum of biological activities including antibacterial, antitumor, and immunomodulatory properties. This allowed us to conclude that Galarmin and its analogues can be efficient against generalized infection induced by MRSA on mice model in vivo.

Received data indicate that Galarmin and its analogue d-15 Galarmin are strong remedies for the prophylaxis and treatment of MRSA infection in vivo. Galarmin at the concentration of 1 µg/mice express its highest protective effect for the prophylaxis (administration 24h before infection) and treatment (1h post-infection) by increasing the survival of experimental animals up to 100% over the control (non-treated) group. For the parallel administration more efficient are higher concentrations of Galarmin: 5 and 10 µg, which increase the survival of animals by 50-60%. In that case the absence of bacterial growth from the blood of treated animals was observed. The most efficient protective concentration of d-15 Galarmin is 16 µg administrated 8h before the infection which increase the survival of infected animals by 80%.

**Keywords:**

## Introduction

Despite the availability of effective antimicrobial agents, *Staphylococcus aureus* continues to cause life-threatening infections, including septic shock [1-3]. Recent increase of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) strains at large hospitals as well as community settings (community associated) started to pose great difficulty in selecting antimicrobial agents for the management of the infections they cause [4-6]. It may also be called multidrug-resistant *S. aureus*, oxacillin-resistant *S. aureus* (ORSA). Healthcare-associated MRSA strains are resistant to the majority of antibiotics [5,7] and are responsible for the majority of complicated cases of *Staphylococcus* infections. MRSA is by definition any strain of *S.aureus* bacterium that has developed resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics which include penicillins (methicillin, dicloxacillin, nafcillin, oxacillin etc) and cephalosporins. Resistance to erythromycin, clindamycin, tetracycline, aminoglycosides, and chloramphenicol has been reported with MRSA strains [8]. The major determinant of MRSA resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics is chromosomally mediated *mecA* gene which involves production of an unusually low affinity penicillin binding proteins PBP2 and allows peptidoglycan synthesis even in the presence of  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics [9,10]. The gene *mecA* is carried on a mobile genetic element called “staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec*” (SCC*mec*) [11]. Community- and hospital-acquired MRSA evolve upon acquisition of Staphylococcal cassette chromosome SCC*mec* [12]. Hospital MRSA contain one of four SCC*mec* types (I–IV), while the community-acquired MRSA is associated with the acquisition of SCC*mec* IV [13], the smallest element and one that confers only resistance to  $\beta$ -lactams. However community MRSA are genetically more diverse than hospital MRSA because of the increased frequency of acquisition of SCC*mec* IV compared with other SCC*mec* types [14]. The horizontal transfer of virulence genes, although infrequent, is epidemiologically associated with the emergence of new virulent strains of MRSA and representing a major and constantly changing clinical challenge [15].

MRSA infection markedly increases the morbidity and mortality in hospitalized patients [16,17]. MRSA is especially troublesome in hospitals. MRSA infections are responsible for more deaths in USA each year than AIDS (2007, Wahigton Post), in 1999 there was 127000 cases in hospitals and 278000 for 1999-2008 in USA. Hospitalization costs associated with MRSA infections are substantially greater than those associated with methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* (MSSA) infections, and MRSA has wider economic effects that involve indirect costs to the patient and to the society [18]. Patients with compromised immune system are at a significantly risk of symptomatic secondary infection. MRSA may progress substantially within 24-48 hours of initial topical symptoms. After 72 hours MRSA can take hold in human tissues and eventually become resistant to the treatment. About 75% of community-associated (CA-MRSA) are localized to skin and soft tissue and usually can be treated effectively. However some CA-MRSA strains displays enhanced

virulence, spreading more rapidly and causing illness much more severe than traditional healthcare hospital-acquired associated (HA-MRSA) infections [19]. They affect vital organs and led to widespread infections (sepsis), toxic shock syndrome and necrotizing (“flash eating”) pneumonia. This is thought to be due to toxins carried by CA-MRSA strains such as PVL and PSM, though PVL was recently found to not be a factor in a study by National Institute of Allergy and Infection Diseases (NIAID) and the NIH. CA-MRSA is more easily treated, though more virulent than HA-MRSA. CA-MRSA apparently did not evolve de novo in community, but represents a hybrid between MRSA and HA-MRSA. It is not known why some healthy people develop CA-MRSA skin infection that are treatable whereas other infected with the same strain develop severe infections or die.

In the UK, where MRSA is commonly called “Golden Staph”, the most common strain of MRSA are EMRSA15 and EMRSA16. EMRSA 16 is the best described epidemiologically, the full genomic sequence of this strain has been published [20]. Diagnosis technique include Real-time PCR and Quantitative PCR and increasingly being employed in clinical laboratories for the rapid detection and identification of MRSA strains [21].

The number of effective antibiotics has been reduced by the emergence of resistance to penicillin, methicillin, and, more recently, vancomycin [20]. A highly vancomycin-resistant mutant of *S. aureus* continuing to grow and synthesize peptidoglycan in the presence of vancomycin (50 mg/ml) was isolated and described by Sieradzki et al [22]. It is not excluded that the appearance of vancomycin resistance among clinical isolates of enterococci has emerged from transfer of the resistance genes to highly virulent strains of MRSA with obvious dire implications for chemotherapy. Both CA-MRSA and HA-MRSA are resistant to traditional anti-staphylococcal antibiotics, such as cephalexin etc. CA-MRSA has a greater spectrum of antimicrobial susceptibility including to sulfo drugs (like co-trimoxazole, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole), tetracyclins (doxycycline and minocycline) and clindamycin, but drug of the choice for treating CA-MRSA is now believed to be vancomycin according to a Henry Ford hospital study. HA-MRSA is resistant even to these antibiotics and often is susceptible only to vancomycin. Newer drugs such as linezolid (belonging to the newer oxazolidinones class) and daptomycin, are effective gains both for CA-MRSA and HA-MRSA. Vancomycin and teicoplanin are glycoprotein antibiotics used to treat MRSA infections. Several newly discovered strains of MRSA show antibiotic resistance even to vancomycin and teicoplanin. These new evolution of the MRSA bacterium have been dubbed vancomycin intermediate-resistant *S. aureus* (VIRSA) [23]. Linezolid, quinupristin/ daptomycin and tigecyclin are used to treat more severe infections that do not respond to glycopolypeptides such as Vancomycin [24].

Thus, there are indications suggesting that MRSA infections increase morbidity and the risk of mortality and the role of traditional antibiotics in the management of serious infections is now being reconsidered [24]. In order to control this infection, there is a need to develop novel agents with greater

inhibitory activity against MRSA. From this point of view it is important to develop new alternate therapies based on immune response activation and study their effectiveness in their antimicrobial activities. Natural products have shown to be a potential source of antimicrobial agents, such neurohormones and immunomodulators cytokines. The discovery by Prof. A. Galoyan and coworkers of new type of cytokines of the neurosecretory hypothalamus, the proline rich polypeptides (PRPs), resulted in changes in understanding of the regulation of immune system in general, and especially genesis, differentiation, proliferation and mobilisation of bone marrow cells into the blood circulation. Data obtained was a basis for the establishing a new field of neurobiology – neuroendocrine immunology s have shown that Galarmin is regulator of humoral and cellular immunity, thymocyte differentiation, and myelopoiesis [25-30]. Galarmin completely restores myelopoiesis after cyclophosphamide-induced leucopenia in mice and increase survival after infection with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Galarmin dramatically enhances spontaneous or fMLP- and PMA-induced oxidative burst, as well as the intracellular killing of *S. aureus* by human neutrophils and monocytes. Galarmin was also shown to protect guinea-pig and mice against *Bacillus anthracis*, even when administrated the ten fold lethal dose infection. This allowed us to suggest that Galarmin can be effectively used against multidrug-resistant strain of methicillin-resistant *S.aureus* (MRSA). Received by us experimental results indicate that Galarmin and its structural analogues Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> discovered by A. Galoyan and d-15 Galarmin analogue are strong remedies against MRSA infection *in vivo*. It was shown also significant influence of Galarmin on MRSA infected animal's complete blood count and plasma immunoglobulins and cytokines levels.

## Material and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions: MRSA ATCC 43300 strain (LGC Standards) were used in this study resistant to  $\beta$ -lactams and cephalosponins and susceptible to four other antibiotics. Fresh colonies of MRSA were seeded on elective saline agar (Allergen Corp, Russia) plates and grown overnight at 37°C. The MRSA bacteria were collected by centrifugation, washed, and resuspended in saline and adjusted to an optical density at 570 nm of 0.6 (about  $4 \times 10^{10}$  cfu/mL) with a spectrophotometer (KFK-2, Russia) prior to injection which gave approximately  $8 \times 10^8$  cfu per mouse in a volume of 200  $\mu$ L. The minimal lethal dose of MRSA was previously determined following subsequent titration on mice according the optical densities (OD) of the bacterial solutions measured. The bacterial inoculum was confirmed by colony counting.

Polypeptides: Apyrogenic sterile solution of the proline-rich polypeptides Galarmin (AGAPEPAEPAQPGVY), Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> (APEPAEPAQP) and their patented analogues d-15 Galarmin and d-Gx--NH<sub>2</sub> were used in this study. Galarmin was adiminstarted intramuscularly (i.m.) at the concentration range



from 0.1 to 10 µg per mouse diluted with the saline in a volume of 200 µL. The analogue d-15 were used at concentration of 16 µg.

Animals and infection model: Groups of at least ten male inbred non-linear white and C57Black/6 mice (8 to 10 weeks old weighting 22-25g) were used (Animal house of the UNESCO Chair- Life Sciences International Postgraduate Educational Center (LSIPEC), Yerevan, Armenia). Mice were housed at a temperature of 20-25°C in a room with a 12:12-h light-dark cycle for 1 week before experiments in standart ventilated cages (*up to 10 mice per cage*) and fed with commercial pelleted mouse diet and water *ad libitum*. Animals injected intraperitoneally (i.p.) with MRSA ( $8 \times 10^8$  CFU/mouse) in 200 µL of saline. Control mice were injected with the same volume of saline. At 24 h before infection, parallel and 1 h post-infection (p.i.), Galarmin and its analogues were administrated i.m. at 200 µL of saline in various concentrations to deduce sub-lethal levels in mice, and the survival rate was measured. Untreated mice received the same volume of saline without polypeptides. Each experimental group consisted of 10 animals, the survival following MRSA infection was monitored during the next 9 days. Five independent sets of experiments were performed. All surviving animals were eutanaziated by cervical dyslocation under chloral hydrat anesthesia (400 mg/kg ip). Animal housing and care were performed according to the US National Research Council's "Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals".

Statistical analysis: In every experiment, ten mice were used for each agent at each concentration. Data were expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.D. of five independent sets of experiments ( $n = 5$ ). Statistical processing of the results was performed using Statistical Package SPSS11. Comparative analysis was performed using parametric univariate analysis ANOVA, multiple comparisons performed using Scheffe test for linear contrasts and paired Student's t-test. The level of significance was defined at  $P \leq 0.05$ .

## Results

For the first sets of experiments Galarmin and Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> were adiminstrated at a concentration of 1 µg per mice two-fold – 24 h b.i. and parallel to infection process ( $8 \times 10^8$  cfu). Received data (Table 1A) suggests that in this mode of administration Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> showed remarkable protective effect by increasing the overall survival rate up to 30% as compared to untreated group, however Galarmin in this case doesn't affect survival rate. Therefore in further experimental design we used smaller concentration of Galarmin administrating 120-24h b.i in a concentration range from 0.01-0.1 µg. As it can seen from the Table 1B the most significant protective effect produced the concentration of Galarmin 0.01 µg injected 24 h b.i. while early administration of polypeptides (120 h b.i.) failed to produce significant protection.

We could conclude therefore that Galarmin and Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> are potential protective compounds against MRSA infection *in vivo*. Particularly protection by Galarmin requires smaller concentration of polypeptides and administration

24 h prior to infection process, while Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> manifests its beneficial effect when injected simultaneously and prior to infection process at greater concentrations. Upon received results we have investigated the protective activity of Galarmin for prophylaxis of MRSA (ATCC 43300) infection at a concentration range from 0.1 to 1 µg injected 24 h b.i. Received by us experimental results as compared to untreated and Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> group are presented on Fig. 1.

**Table 1.** Survival rate of MRSA infected mice following i.m. administration of Galarmin and Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> at different concentrations and time-period as compared to untreated group

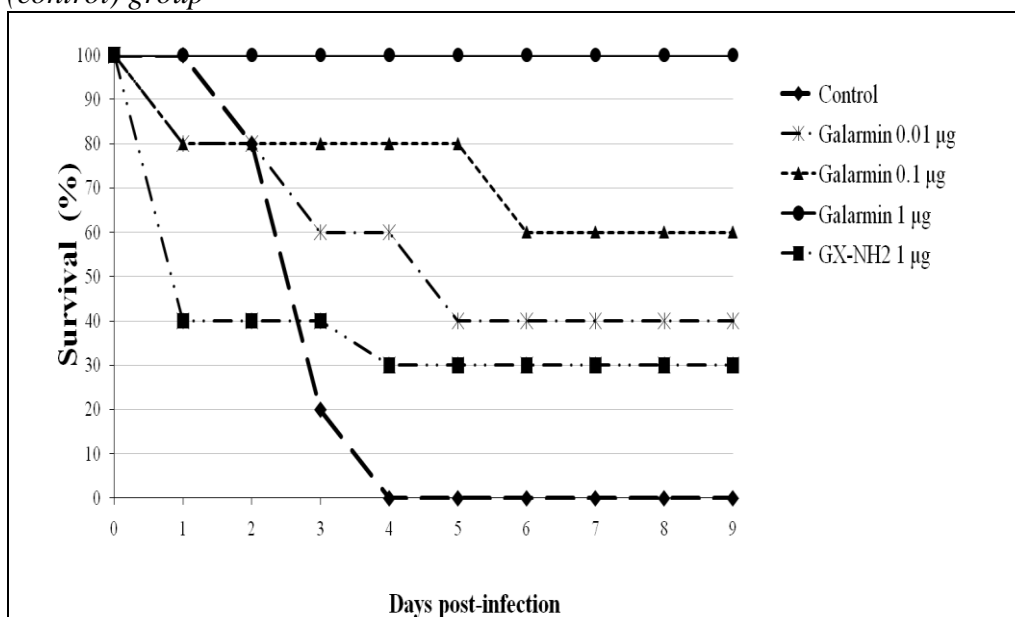
Agent	Concentration of agent (µg/mice)	Administration mode	Survival rate
Untreated	-	-	20
Galarmin	1	24 h b.i. and parallel	23
Gx-NH <sub>2</sub>	1	24 h b.i. and parallel	50

**A**

Agent	Concentration of agent (µg/mice)	Administration mode	Survival rate
Untreated	-	-	60
Galarmin	0.01	120 h b.i.	60
Galarmin	0.1	120 h b.i.	40
Galarmin	0.01	24 h b.i.	100

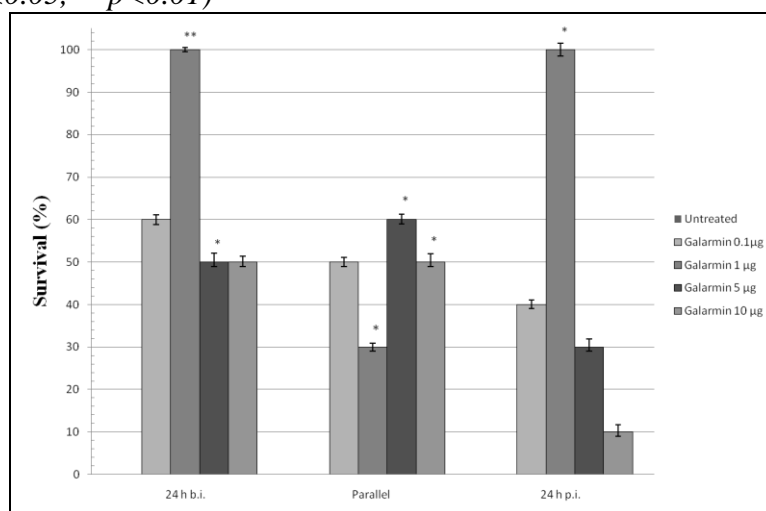
**B**

**Figure 1.** Survival rate of MRSA infected mice following i.m. administration of Galarmin and Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> at different concentrations as compared to untreated (control) group

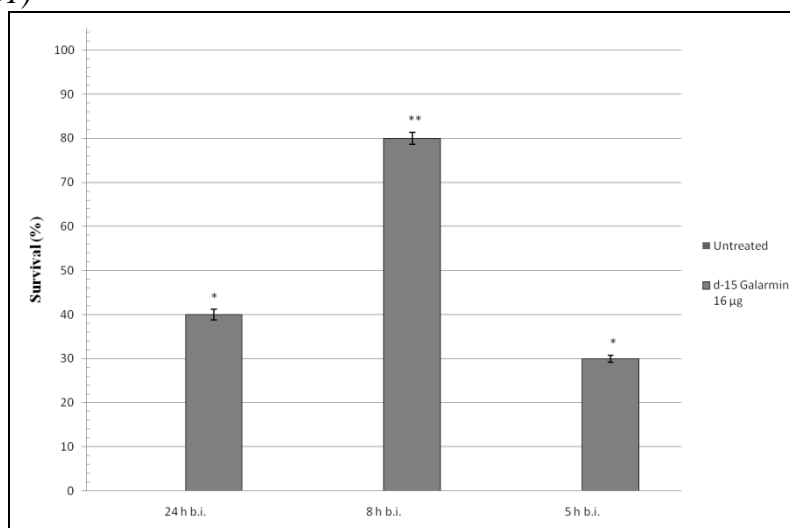


Protective activity of novel analogue d-15 Galarmin have been studied as well for the concentration of 16  $\mu\text{g}$  injected 24, 8 and 5h before MRSA infection. Figures 2 and 3 represent survey of outcome of MRSA-infected mice following Galarmin and d-15 administration.

**Figure 2.** Survival rate of MRSA infected mice following i.m. administration of Galarmin at concentration of 0.1-10  $\mu\text{g}$  injected 24 h b.i., parallel and 24 h p.i.. (\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ )



**Figure 3.** Survival rate of MRSA infected mice following i.m. administration of d-15 Galarmin at concentration of 16  $\mu\text{g}$  injected 24, 8 and 5 h b.i. (\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ )



### Conclusions

As we can see from obtained results, Galarmin administrated at the dose 1  $\mu\text{g}$  per mice 24 h before infection fully protects animals from MRSA lethal

dose. Concentrations of 0.1-10  $\mu\text{g}$  were also highly protective increasing the survival by 50-60%. For the parallel with infection administration of Galarmin higher concentrations (5 and 10  $\mu\text{g}$ ) were more efficient increasing the survival rate respectively by 60 and 50%. Galarmin at the concentration of 1  $\mu\text{g}$  administered 1h post-infection increased survival rate by 100%, smaller and higher concentration of 0.1  $\mu\text{g}$  and 5  $\mu\text{g}$  had significantly less performance (respectively 40 and 30%), and 10  $\mu\text{g}$  was inefficient. For the analogue d-15 Galarmin injected at the dose 16  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mice}$  the most efficient time of administration was 8h before infection with an increase of the survival rate by 80%. Administration 24 and 5h before infection was less effective increasing the survival by 40 and 30% respectively. Therefore we could conclude that Galarmin is a powerful agent for MRSA prophylaxis and treatment *in vivo* and its structural analogues Gx-NH<sub>2</sub> and d-15 Galarmin are perspective anti-MRSA agent too.

## References

- Bone, R. C. 1993. How gram-positive organisms cause sepsis. *J. Crit. Care* 8:51–59.
- Sheagren, J. N. 1984. *Staphylococcus aureus*. The persistent pathogen. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 310:1437–1442.
- Waldvogel, F. A. 1995. *Staphylococcus aureus* (including toxic shock syndrome), p. 1754. In G. L. Mandell, J. E. Bennett, and R. Dolin (ed.), *Principles and practice of infectious diseases*, 4th ed. Churchill Livingstone, New York, N.Y.
- Lowy F.D. 2003. Antimicrobial resistance: the example of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J. Clin. Invest.* 111(9), 1265-1273.
- Cauda R., Garau J. 2009. New insights concerning methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* disease. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.* 15(2), 109-111.
- Lode H.M. 2009. Clinical impact of antibiotic-resistant Gram-positive pathogens. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.* 15(3), 212-217.
- Hiramatsu, K., Hanaki, H. & Ino, T. (1997). Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* clinical strain with reduced vancomycin susceptibility. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy* 40, 135–6.
- Chang, S. C., Hsieh, W. C. & Liu, C. (2000). High prevalence of antibiotic resistance of common pathogenic bacteria in Taiwan. *Diagnostic Microbiology and Infectious Disease* 36, 107–12.
- Lyon B.R., Skurray R. 1987. Antimicrobial resistance of *Staphylococcus aureus*: Genetic basis. *Microbiol Rev*; 51:88-134.
- Locksley R.M. 1994. Staphylococcal infections in *Harrisons Principles of Internal Medicine*, Thirteenth ed.; 1:611-613.
- Mongkolrattanothai K, Boyle S, Kahana MD, Daum RS. Severe *Staphylococcus aureus* infections caused by clonally related community-acquired methicillin-susceptible and methicillin-resistant isolates. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2003, 37(8):1050-8.
- Ito T, Katayama Y, Asada K et al. Structural comparison of three types of staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec in the chromosome of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2001;45:1323-36.

- Enright MC, Robinson DA, Randle G, Feil EJ, Grundmann H, Spratt BG. The evolutionary history of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2002 May 28;99(11):7687-92.
- Spratt, B. G. (2002) The evolutionary history of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 99, 7687–7692.
- Ma, X. X., Ito, T., Tiensasitorn, C., Jamklang, M., Chongtrakool, P., Boyle-Vavra, S., Daum, R. S. & Hiramatsu, K. (2002). Novel Type of Staphylococcal Cassette Chromosome *mec* Identified in Community-Acquired Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* Strains. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 46, 1147–1152.
- Robinson, D. A. & Enright, M. C. (2003) Evolutionary Models of the Emergence of Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 47, 3926–3934.
- Chambers, H. F. (1997). Methicillin resistance in staphylococci: molecular and biochemical basis and clinical implication. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 10, 781–91.
- Engemann, J. J., Carmeli, Y., Cosgrove, S. E. et al. (2003). Adverse clinical and economic outcomes attributable to methicillin resistance among patients with *Staphylococcus aureus* surgical site infection. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 36, 592–8.
- Ippolito G, Leone S, Lauria FN, Nicastrì E, Wenzel RP. 2010. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: the superbug. 13. *Int J Infect Dis*.
- B.A. Diep, H.A. Carleton, R. F. Chang et al. Roles of 34 Virulence Genes in the Evolution of Hospital- and Community-Associated Strains of Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Infect Dis*. 2006, 193(11):1495-503.
- Matthew T. G. Holden et al. Complete genomes of two clinical *Staphylococcus aureus* strains: Evidence for the rapid evolution of virulence and drug resistance. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2004, 101(26):9786-91.
- Tacconelli E, De Angelis G, de Waure C, Cataldo MA, La Torre G, Cauda R. Rapid screening tests for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* at hospital admission: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2009;9(9):546-54.
- Sieradzki K, Tomasz A.J. Alterations of cell wall structure and metabolism accompany reduced susceptibility to vancomycin in an isogenic series of clinical isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Bacteriol.* 2003;185(24):7103-10.
- Shi SH, Kong HS, Jia CK, Xu J, Zhang WJ, Wang WL, Shen Y, Zhang M, Zheng SS. Coagulase-negative staphylococcus and enterococcus as predominant pathogens in liver transplant recipients with Gram-positive coccal bacteremia. *Chin Med J (Engl)*. 2010 Aug 5;123(15):1983-8.
- Galoyan A.A. (2008) The brain immune system: chemistry and biology of the signal molecules. In: *Handbook of Neurochemistry and Molecular Neurobiology*, 3rd Edition, Neuroimmunology (Lajtha A., Galoyan A. and Besedovsky H., eds), pp.155-195. Springer Science.
- Galoyan A. (2010) Concepts of Neuroendocrine Cardiology and Neuroendocrine Immunology, Chemistry and Biology of Signal Molecules. *Neurochem. Res.*, 35, 2, 2001-2027.
- Galoyan A.A. (1997) Biochemistry of Novel Cardioactive Hormones and Immunomodulators of the Functional System Neurosecretory Hypothalamus – Endocrine Heart. *Nauka Publ., Moscow*, 240 P.

- Galoyan A.A. (2004) Brain Neurosecretory Cytokines: Immune Response and Neuronal Survival. Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers, New York. 188 P.
- Lajtha A. 2009 Academician Armen Galoyan's Scientific Achievements "Gitutyun" Publishing House of NAS RA.
- Galoyan A.A., Grigoryan S.L., Badalyan A.A. (2006) Treatment and Prophylaxis of Anthrax by new Neurosecretory Cytokines. Neurochem. Res., 31, 6, pp.795-803.