# Isolation and Structure Elucidation of Bioactive Secondary 

## Metabolites from the Sponge-Associated Fungus Aspergillus sp.

# (Isolierung und Strukturaufklärung von Bioaktiven Sekundärmetaboliten aus dem Schwamm Assoziierten Pilz Aspergillus sp.) 

Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung des Doktorgrades der Mathematisch-Naturwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Heinrich-Heine-Universität Düsseldorf

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## Erklärung

Hiermit erkläre ich ehrenwörtlich, dass ich die vorliegende Dissertation mit dem Titel „Isolierung und Strukturaufklärung von Bioaktiven Sekundärmetaboliten aus dem Schwamm Assoziierten Pilz Aspergillus sp." selbst angefertigt habe. Außer den angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmitteln wurden keine weiteren verwendet. Diese Dissertation wurde weder in gleicher noch in abgewandelter Form in einem anderen Prüfungsverfahren vorgelegt. Weiterhin erkläre ich, dass ich früher weder akademische Grade erworben habe, noch dies versucht habe.

Düsseldorf, den 11.05.2012

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## Zusammenfassung

Marine Mikroorganismen haben sich als ergiebige Quelle von strukturell interessanten und biologisch aktiven Naturstoffen erwiesen. Insbesondere haben marine Pilze die Aufmerksamkeit auf sich gezogen durch die Diversität an chemischen Inhaltsstoffen und beobachteten biologischen Aktivitäten ihrer sekundären Metaboliten. Marine Pilze wurden aus verschiedenen Organismen isoliert, einschließlich Algen, Muscheln und im besonderen, Schwämmen. Jedoch erwiesen sich schwammassoziierte Pilze als produktivste Quelle für bioaktive Stoffe. Zudem zeigten die meisten Substanzen aus schwammassoziierten Pilzen eine signifikante Biokativität in einigen pharmakologischen Bioassay Projekten. Daher könnten diese interessante Kandidaten sein, um Leitstrukturen für die Entwicklung neuer Pharmaka, primär auf dem Feld der Zytostatika, Entzündungshemmer, Antiinfektiva und Analgetika, bereitzustellen.

Folglich war es das Ziel dieser Arbeit, sekundär Metabolite aus dem marinen Pilz Aspergillus sp., isoliert aus dem mediterranem Schwamm Tethya auratium, zu identifizieren und auf das pharmakologische Potential zu untersuchen. Die Großkultivierung des Pilzen zur Isolierung und Identifizierung von Sekundärmetaboliten wurde auf zwei unterschiedlichen Medien durchgeführt, und zwar auf Bio-Malz Agar und festem Dinkel-Gerste Medium für 21 Tage bei $22^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Die von beiden Medien gewonnen Kulturen wurden lyophilisiert, mit Ethylacetat extrahiert und der nach dem Abroutieren zurückbleibende trocken Rückstand mit Petrolether entfettet. Die daraus resultierende Fraktion wurde anschließend unterschiedlichen chromatographischen Separierungsverfahren zugeführt um die Sekundärmetabolite zu isolieren.

Zur Identifikation von Molekulargewicht und Struktur der Sekundärmetabolite wurden in erster Linie Verfahren der Massenspektrometrie (MS) und der Magnetresonanz-Experimente (NMR) verwendet. Zudem wurde in Einzelfällen, bei
optisch aktiven Naturstoffen, eine Time-dependent Density Funcional Theory Electronic Circular Dichroism (TDDFT ECD) Berechnungen durchgeführt um deren absolute Konfiguration festzustellen. Schließlich wurden alle isolierten Substanzen unterschiedlichen Bioassays zugeführt, wie z.B. Zytotoxizitäts- und antimikrobiellen Assays, um deren Bioaktivität festzustellen.

Die chromatographische Auftrennung des Rohextraktes vom schammassoziiertem Pilz Aspergillus sp. ergab elf bekannte Polyketide (1-7, 16-18, und 28), sechs neue Meroterpenoide (10-14 und 29), zwölf Alkaloide einschließlich einem neuen Thyotoquivalin (20), sechs neue Fumiquinazolone (21-26), ein neues Tryptophan-Alkaloid (31) als auch vier bekannte Alkaloide (8, 9, 19, und 27), einen neuen Biphenylether (30) und ein bekanntes Nukleosid (15).

Bei den meisten in dieser Studie isolierten Polyketiden waren Citrinin-Derivate. Zusätzlich wurde Butyrolacton II (1) als Hauptsekundärmetabolit des untersuchten Aspergillus sp. isoliert. 4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-5-methyl Isocoumarin (5) zeigte eine ausgeprägte Zytotoxizität gegen mehrere ausgewählte Zelllinien, wohingegen alle anderen Polyketide keine oder eine nur sehr schwache Aktivität gegen die murine Lymphomzellline L5178Y zeigte.

Die unbekannten meroterpenoiden Substanzen, Austalide M-R (10-14 und 29), zeigten sich strukturell verwandt mit den bekannten Austaliden A-L, welche zuvor aus Aspergillus ustus isoliert wurden. Die strukturelle Analyse der Austalide legt einen Biosyntheseweg nahe, welcher 6-Farnesyl-5,7-dihydroxy-4-methylphtalid enthält, ein wichtiges Zwischenprodukt in der Biogenese von Mycophenolsäure. Darüber hinaus wurden TDDFT ECD Berechnungen der Austalide M-Q (10-14), neue Metabolite von Aspergillus sp., vorgestellt. ECD Berechnungen gaben Aufschluss über die absolute Konfiguration und zeigten zudem, dass die Konformation des Chromophors, wie auch der charakteristische ECD-Cotton Effekt im benzylischen Zentrum, durch das Phtalid bestimmt wird. Die Berechnungen erklärten außerdem die bemerkenswerten

Unterschiede der ECD-Spektren der strukturell verwandten Austalide und zeigen, dass die absolute Geometrie nicht durch einen einfachen Vergleich von ECD-Spektren ermittelt werden kann. Letztendlich zeigten diese Verbindungen jedoch nur eine schwache, oder keine Aktivität gegenüber der murinen Lymphomzelllinie L5178Y.

Die bekannten Alkaloide 8, 9 und 19 wurden zum ersten Mal aus einem schwammassoziierten Pilz charakterisiert, während in frühere Studien bereits die Isolierung von Aspergillus fumigatus aus Meeressediment, Aspergillus fumigatus aus der Raumluft von Asthma-Patienten und Trichoderma $s p$. aus Bambusblättern beschrieben wurde. Verbindung $\mathbf{8}$ und 9 zeigten eine ausgeprägte Zytotoxizität gegen die Mauslymphomzelllinie L5158Y mit IC50 Werte von 3,7 und 0,2 $\mu \mathrm{M}$, während 19 nur eine schwache Aktivität in diesem Assay zeigte. Darüber hinaus zeigte 9 getestet auf menschlichen Zelllinien, eine moderate Aktivität gegen ovariale Karzinomzellen (A2780sens) und die Philadelphia Chromosom positive, chronische myeloische Leukämie Zelllinie (K562) mit $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ Werten zwischen 8,0 und 19,3 $\mu \mathrm{M}$, während $\mathbf{8}$ nur eine moderate bis schwache Aktivität gegenüber K562, A2780sens und A2780CisR mit $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ Werten von $15,0,18,5$ und $38,8 \mu \mathrm{M}$ zeigte.

Die Verbindungen 20-26 sind neue Tryptoquivaline- und Fumiquinazolonalkaloide. Die wichtigsten strukturellen Unterschiede zwischen denen in dieser Studie neu erfassten Vertretern und den bereits zuvor beschriebenen Verbindungen mit gleichem molekularem Gerüst, ist die Einbeziehung eines seltenen Aminosäurerests, 1-Aminocyclopropan-1-carbonsäure, anstelle von Alanin- oder Methylalaninresten, wie es in den früher berichteten Analoga zu finden ist. Die absolute Konfiguration von Tryptoquivalin K (20) und Fumiquinazolon K (21) wurde durch TDDFT ECD Berechnungen der Lösung ihrer Konformere untersucht und die ECD letzterer wurden auch verwendet um eine strukturelle Abgrenzung der verwandten Fumiquinazolone L-P (22-26) vorzunehmen. Außerdem wurden die neuen Alkaloide (20-26) bezüglich ihrer Zytotoxizität mittels der murinen Lymphomkarzinoms L5178Y überprüft, wo sie nur eine schwach bis keine Aktivität zeigten (bis zu einer Dosis von $10 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ )

Zusammenfassend kann gesagt werden, dass in dieser Studie einunddreißig Verbindungen erfolgreich aus dem schwammassoziieren Pilz Aspergillus sp. identifiziert wurden, von den fünfzehn nach unserem besten Wissen, neue Naturstoffe sind (Tabelle 5.1).

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## 1. Introduction

Natural products are organic compounds formed by living organisms in response to external stimuli such as nutritional changes, infection and competition. Biologically active natural products produced by plants, animals, insects, fungi, bacteria and protozoans have been isolated to be used in pharmaceutical drug discovery and design (Rollinger et al., 2006; Willian, 2000). At the present time, natural products are commonly related to herbs, herbal concoctions, dietary supplements, traditional Chinese medicine or alternative medicine (Carter, 2011; Holt and Chandra, 2002). No rigid scheme is used to classify natural products due to their bewildering diversity in structure, function and biosynthesis. However, as chemicals, natural products mainly include the following classes of compounds: terpenoids and steroids, fatty acid-derived substances and polyketides, alkaloids, nonribosomal polypeptides, and enzyme cofactors. Natural products serve as a promising major source of drug discovery and are widely recognized in the pharmaceutical industry due to their structural diversity and the broad range of their pharmacological activities (Clark, 1996). Accordingly, they represent very useful tools for pharmacologists and biologists, and function as lead compounds for the treatment of hypercholesteremia, inflammation, microbial infections, cancer, and tissue rejection in organ transplantation (Blunt et al., 2011; Carter, 2011; Ojima, 2008).

### 1.1 Natural products research and development in drug discovery

### 1.1.1 History and background of the use of natural products

Natural products generally originate from either animal sources, plants, microbes or are from prebiotic origin (Nakanishi, 1999). They are not just accidently produced in nature, but it is much more likely that they are a natural expression of the increase in organism complexity (Jarvis, 2000). Throughout the ages nature has provided humankind with the production of foodstuffs, shelters, clothing, means of
transportation, fertilizer, flavors, fragrances, and last not least, medicines for their basic needs, together with the tools for the first attempts at therapeutic intervention. Plants have constantly been the basis of sophisticated traditional medicine systems that have existed for thousands of years (Nakanishi, 1999; Newman et al., 2000). The first use of natural products on the record in medicine has been written on hundreds of clay tablets in cuneiform from Mesopotamia and dates back to nearly 2600 BC. As a matter of fact, many of these plant-derived substances are still in use today as treatments for influenza, inflammation, coughing, parasitic infection, ailments from coughs and colds (Cragg and Newman, 2001; Newman et al., 2000).

The use of traditional medicine in Egypt has been found to date back to about 2900 BC, but the best known Egyptian pharmaceutical record is the Ebers Papyrus, dating from 1500 BC , which documents almost 700 different substances (mostly plants, though animal organs were also involved along with some minerals), and also includes formulation such as snuffs, poultices, gargles, infusions, pills and ointments, with beer, milk, wine and honey being normally used as vehicles (Cragg and Newman, 2001; Holt and Chandra, 2002; Newman et al., 2000). The use of herbaceous plants in China goes as far back as 2000 BC. Indeed, the Chinese Materia Medica has been widely documented over the centuries dating from approximately 1100 BC , with the first time record in Wu Shi Er Bing Fang, including 52 prescriptions, and then followed by works such as the Shennong Herbal ( $\sim 100 \mathrm{BC} ; 365$ drugs) and the Tang Herbal (659 AD; 850 drugs). In India, a collection of Ayurvedic hymns from 1000 BC and earlier describes the use of over 1000 different herbs and this system formed the basis for the primary text of Tibetan medicine, translated from Sanskrit during the eighth century (Fallarino, 1994; Newman et al., 2000). In the Western world, the Greeks made a contribution to the development in use of herbal drugs. In Rome, Galen (130-200 AD), who is extensively known for his complex formulae and prescriptions in use of compounding drugs, practiced and taught medicine and pharmacy, published almost 30 books about these subjects (Newman et al., 2000). As mentioned above, throughout history, the interest in natural products continues to
exist and natural products have provided many applications in the fields of medicine, pharmacy and biology as a rich source of bioactive compounds (Barron and Vanscoy, 1993; Goradliza, 2007; Kaul and Joshi, 2001). The first commercial pure natural product, generally considered to be the narcotic morphine, was introduced for therapeutic use by E. Merk in 1826. The first semi-synthetic pure drug on the basis of a natural product, aspirin, was introduced by Bayer in 1899 (Newman et al., 2000).

A seminal point in the use of natural products as single, pharmaceutical entities was the well known discovery of penicillin in 1928, followed by its subsequent industrialization during World War II. The antibacterial agents chlortetracycline, chloramphenicol, streptomycin and erythromycin, the antitumor agents daunorubicin, and the antifungal drugs amphotericin B and nystatin had been discovered by 1964. All these share two key characteristics: all of them are derived from natural products and they are cornerstones of modern pharmaceutical care. These natural drug substances were crucial for therapeutic research and pivotal in stimulating the development of the modern pharmaceutical industry in drug discovery (Flisiak et al., 2008; Jarvis, 2000).

### 1.1.2 General role of traditional medicine in drug discovery

As noted above, medicine has been closely linked with natural products for thousands of years through the use of traditional medicines and natural poisons (Butler, 2004). Natural products have provided the source of most of the active ingredients of medicines (Harvey, 2008). Plants have formed the basis for clinical, pharmacological and chemical studies of traditional medicine systems, which have been used for thousands of years in countries such as China and India as well as many other cultures (Chang and But, 1986; Kapoor, 1990; Schultes and Raffauf, 1990). These plant-based traditional medicines were the basis of most early medicines such as aspirin, digitoxin, morphine, quinine and pilocarpine (Butler, 2004) and they continue to play an important role in health care. The World Health Organization has estimated that
almost $80 \%$ of the world's inhabitants depend mainly on traditional medicines for their primary health care (Arvigo and Balich, 1993; Farnsworth et al., 1985; Newman, 2008).

For the remaining $20 \%$ of the population products from plants still represent an important source for active ingredients of medicines. The analysis of data of prescriptions dispensed from community pharmacies in the United States from 1959 to 1980 revealed that approximately $25 \%$ contained plant extracts or active principle from higher plants (Newman et al., 2000). At present, approximately 119 chemical substances from 90 plant species are considered as important drugs for use in one or more countries, $74 \%$ of which resulted from chemical studies that aimed at isolation of bioactive substances from plants used in traditional medicine (Arvigo and Balich, 1993). At least, $80 \%$ of drug substances were natural products or inspired by a natural compound and the comparison of information presented on sources of new drugs from 1981 to 2007 exhibited that about half of the drugs approved since 1994 are based on natural products. Likewise, more recent studies demonstrate that natural products constantly play an important role in drug development (Butler, 2008; Newman and Cragg, 2007; Sneader, 1996).

Hence, a large number of examples from medicine reveal the innovative potential of natural compounds and their impact on progress in drug discovery and development (Tejesvi et al., 2007).

### 1.1.3 Current status of natural products research

Natural products are still providing their fair share of new clinical candidates and drugs despite competition from other drug discovery methods. This is established recently by analyzing the number of natural products-derived drugs present in the total drug launches from 1981 to 2002 (Cragg et al., 1997; Newman et al., 2003). In the modern research field of drug discovery, natural products continue to be valuable
targets for production by biotechnological approaches, and as sources of lead compounds derived from traditional systems of medicine (Carter, 2011; Newman, 2008).

Currently, over 100 natural-product-derived compounds are undergoing clinical trials and at least 100 similar projects are in preclinical development. Most of them are derived from leads obtained from microbial or plant sources. These projects on the basis of natural products are predominantly being studied for use in cancers or as anti-infectives. About one-third of the top-selling drugs in the world are natural products or their derivatives. Natural products have inspired many developments in organic chemistry leading to advances in synthetic methodologies and to the possibility of making analogues of the original lead compound with improved pharmacological or pharmaceutical properties (Harvey, 2008; Newman, 2008; Sunazuka et al., 2008; Wilson and Danishefsky, 2006).

These facts demonstrate that natural products are indeed valuable sources for drug discovery and development. As a matter of fact, without natural products, medicine would be lacking therapeutic tools in several important clinical areas. Moreover, the continual emergence of novel natural product skeletons with interesting bioactivities, together with the potential for chemical modification and synthesis bode well for the utility of natural products. At last, the use of natural products is also expanded to agrochemical appreciated as the development of pesticides highlights (Duke et al., 2000; Rishton, 2008).

### 1.1.4 The future of natural product chemistry

The importance of natural products in drug discovery is obvious. Novel bioactive natural products will continue to serve as lead compounds for drug development and as biochemical probes for the discovery of pharmacological and biochemical processes. The use of bioactive natural products to probe the molecular and
pharmacological processes of living organisms will go on with even greater sophistication due to the major advances being made in molecular biology (Baker et al., 2007; Clark, 1996; Newman et al., 2000).

The selection of a successful drug discovery paradigm has reached an important crossroad. The adoption of biochemical assays and high-throughput screening has recently created the good impression that high-throughput screening of large compound collections is more effective or more practical than natural extract screening. It is possible to make the future of natural products in drug discovery more promising than ever before, by applying the vast resources of the pharmaceutical industry together with the incredible advancements of spectroscopic analysis and purification technologies. Therefore, natural products will continue to play a vital role in improving the human condition, and this role will go on as long as there are unexplored sources of new natural products (Clark, 1996; Rishton, 2008).

Despite the obvious successes in drug discovery from natural products, pharmacologists, phytochemists, and other natural product scientists still face many challenges in future. They need to constantly improve the quality and quantity of compounds that enter the drug development phase in order to keep pace with other discovery efforts (Butler, 2008; Carter, 2011; Joseph and Priya, 2011).

### 1.2 Bioactive natural products of fungal origin

Fungi are widespread, non-photosynthetic microorganisms, and they are eukaryotic rather than prokaryotic, playing a vital role in the environment, particularly in the biodegradation of organic material. The definition of a fungus is complex because in the fungal kingdom, there is a broad range of heterotrophic organisms with diverse cellular structures, reproduction, biochemistry, physiology, and secondary metabolism. Fungi are ubiquitous and have been isolated from every conceivable organic substrate examined, wherever in the world it was collected (Hawkesworth et al., 1983).

Recently, there has been an increasing understanding of microbial abundance and diversity, particularly that of fungi. It has revealed that fungal world has just been superficially scratched so far. In fact, there is still a huge unknown and untapped microbial pool, which provides the chance to discover novel, useful and economically profitable bioactive compounds (Joseph and Priya, 2011; Rateb and Ebel, 2011).

The study of fungal metabolites has made important contributions to the overall development of chemistry. On the other hand, the microbiological chemist is interested in their structure, chemistry and biological activity. Fungi are extraordinary organisms that yield a broad range of secondary metabolites and their chemical activities have a long history (Hanson, 2008). Fungi have historically been a gold mine of lead compounds in drug discovery for pharmaceutical industry. The discovery of penicillin (1) isolated from Penicillium notatum by Fleming in the autumn of 1928, and which he reported in 1929, revolutionized medicinal chemistry after a lengthy gestation period. And then, the outbreak of the Second World War increased the urgency with which the study was carried on to success. The yield of penicillin had been increased by 1940 and sufficient material was used for the first human trial in February of 1941, which resulted in a breakthrough in the treatment of bacterial infections. After the exciting discovery of penicillin, more attention of pharmaceutical companies and academic laboratories was put on fungi as a source of lead compounds. Thus, fungi became a vital source of drug discovery for the treatment of various diseases (Butler, 2004; 2005).

Since then, many novel metabolites with quite diverse carbon skeletons have been isolated from fungi. The main driving force has been the search for bioactive fungal metabolites for pharmaceutical use, not only as antibiotics but also for other therapeutic areas, and this has led to several compounds that have achieved commercial importance. Success stories include, lovastatin (2) isolated from Aspergillus terreus which is used as a cholesterol-lowering agent (Endo, 1979), cyclosporine A (3) isolated from Cylindrocarpon lucidum and Tolypocladium inflation
used widely as an immunosuppressive agent (Traber et al., 1982; 1987), aphidicolin (4) isolated from Cephalosporium aphidicola used as a potent inhibitor of DNA polymerase alpha which has been examined as a potential tumour inhibitor and anti-viral agent, pleuromutilin (5) from Pleurotus mutilus which is the core for the antibiotic thiamulin (Hanson, 2008), in addition to well known antimicrobial agents fusidic acid (6), griseofulvin (7), and mycophenolic acid (8) used as immunosuppressive agents (Butler, 2008; Flisiak et al., 2008). Despite this, fungi will still be responsible for the next big breakthrough in medicine (Carter, 2011).

penicillin G(1)

cyclosporine A (3)

pleuromutilin (5)

griseofulvin (7)




lovastatin (2)

aphidicolin (4)

fusidic acid (6)

mycophenolic acid (8)

Figure 1.2.1 Bioactive metabolites of fungal origin used in medicine

### 1.3 Marine fungi as sources of bioactive metabolites

Approximately three quarters of the earth's surface are occupied by seas and oceans. Marine microorganisms have become an important source of pharmacologically active and structurally diverse metabolites (Haefner, 2003). Because marine-derived fungi live in a significantly different environment from those of terrestrial organisms, it is reasonable to suppose that their secondary metabolites will also differ considerably (Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Molinski et al., 2009).

Marine fungi are an ecologically rather than physiologically or taxonomically defined group of organisms. On the basis of the "classic" definition that appears to be universally accepted in the scientific community, marine fungi are separated into two groups, obligate and facultative marine fungi. The obligate marine fungi are those that grow and sporulate exclusively in a marine or estuarine habitat, while facultative marine fungi are those from freshwater or terrestrial milieus able to grow in the marine environment (Kohlmeyer and Kohlmeyer, 1979). Marine fungal strains have been isolated from virtually every possible marine habitat, including inorganic matter, marine microbial communities, marine plants, marine invertebrates and vertebrates (Rateb and Ebel, 2011).

In recent years, natural products obtained from marine-associated fungi have attracted considerable attention, because many of them are structurally unique and possess promising biological and pharmacological properties. Since the discovery of cephalosporin C isolated from a culture of a Cephalosporium species, it took another thirty years for marine-associated fungi to be more systematically evaluated for their chemical potential. Studies reporting chemistry from marine-associated fungi were rare until the 1990s. Since then research on the chemistry of marine-associated fungi have experienced a tremendous increase owing to the need for compounds possessing bioactivity with possible pharmaceutical applications or other economically useful properties such as fine chemical, drugs, cosmetics, and functional personal-care
products. Consequently, 272 new natural products were discovered, many of which having novel carbon skeletons. Overall, the total number of natural products from marine-associated fungi currently exceeds 1000 , including polyketides, terpenes, steroids and peptides (Rateb and Ebel, 2011). Hence, the rapid growth in the chemistry of marine-associated fungi led to the discovery of a surprisingly large number of novel structures and provided the evidence that marine-associated fungi have the potential to be a promising source of pharmaceutical leads (Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Saleem et al., 2007).


Figure 1.3.1 New compounds from marine-derived fungi (Rateb and Ebel, 2011)

Additionally, biological assays are mostly focusing on the areas of antibiotic and anticancer properties, and also other selective bioactivities including cell cycle inhibition, antagonism of platelet activating factor, antiviral activity, neuritogenic activity, phosphatase inhibition, kinase inhibition, and radical scavenging activities (Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Debbab et al., 2011).

Sponges are first-class sources of marine fungal diversity, as shown by the number of novel structures reported therefrom. Sponge-associated fungi were found to represent a vast untapped reservoir of metabolic diversity and have drawn increasing attention to the discovery of bioactive natural products in recent years. The distribution of fungi has been graphically summarized according to the number of distinct genera presented from a marine source in the natural product literature, and thus showing that sponges have produced the greatest taxonomic diversity (see Fig. 1.3.2). Interestingly, sponge-associated fungi have yielded the overall greatest number (28\%) of novel metabolites (see Fig. 1.3.3) (Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Debbab et al., 2011; Paz et al., 2010; Rateb and Ebel, 2011). Herein, a selection of some interesting compounds yielded by sponge-derived fungi and grouped based on their bioactivity is shown below.


Figure 1.3.2 The number of distinct fungal genera based on the marine source
(Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Rateb and Ebel, 2011).


Figure 1.3.3 The distribution of new compounds from marine-associated fungi (Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Rateb and Ebel, 2011).

### 1.3.1 Cytotoxic metabolites from sponge-derived fungi

Asperazine (9), an unusual unsymmetrical diketopiperazine dimer obtained from Hyrtios proteus sponge-associated Aspergillus niger, displayed selective cytotoxicity towards leukemia cells, implying that asperazine has a specific mammalian target. Gymnastatin B (10), obtained from the ascomycete strain Gymnascella dankaliensis derived from the sponge Halichondria japonica, exhibited potent cytotoxicity against P388 lymphocytic leukemia cells (Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Varoglu and Crews, 2000).



gymnastatin B (10)

Figure 1.3.4 Cytotoxic compounds from sponge-derived fungi

### 1.3.2 Kinase inhibitors from sponge-derived fungi

A p56 ${ }^{\text {lck }}$ tyrosine kinase inhibitor, ulocladol (11), was obtained from a culture of Ulocladium botrytis isolated from the sponge Myxilla incrustans. The $\mathrm{p} 56^{1 \mathrm{ck}}$ is necessary for T-cell activation and inhibitors of the kinase could be useful for treating autoimmune diseases. Cathestatin $A$ (12) was obtained from a culture of sponge-derived Microascus longirostris, and the amino acid-derived compound was found to be an irreversible nanomolar inhibitor of cysteine proteases (Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Holler et al., 1999; Yu et al., 1996).

ulocladol (11)

cathestatin A(12)

Figure 1.3.5 Kinase inhibitors from sponge-derived fungi

### 1.3.3 Antimicrobial metabolites from sponge-derived fungi

The fermentation broth of a marine-derived fungus Aspergillus sp. isolated from the sponge Xestospongia testudinaria collected from the South China was shown to yield (-)-sydonol (13) and this compound exhibited strong inhibitory activity against Staphylococcus albus and Micrococcus tetragenus. Varixanthone (14) was obtained from a sponge-derived Emericella variecolor (anamorph Aspergillus variecolor) and displayed promising antimicrobial activity against Escherichia coli, Proteus sp., Bacillus subtilis, and Staphylococcus aureus (Li et al., 2012; Malmstrom et al., 2002; Wang et al., 1998).

(-)-sydonol (13)

varixanthone (14)

Figure 1.3.6 Antimicrobial compounds from sponge-derived fungi

### 1.4 Endophytic fungi as sources of bioactive products

An endophyte is a bacterial (including actinomycete) or fungal microorganism, which spends the whole or part of its life cycle colonizing inter- and/or intra-cellularly within the healthy tissues of the host plant, typically without causing any noticeable symptoms of disease (Aly et al., 2011; Bacon and White, 2000; Hyde and Soytong, 2008). Endophytes have been found in all parts of plants including xylem and phloem
and they can be isolated from mildly surface-sterilized plant tissues and cultivated on nutrient agar (Bacon and White, 2000; Tan and Zou, 2001).

Endophytic fungi are being gradually recognized as an ecological assemblage of microorganisms that provides potential sources for new secondary metabolites with useful bioactivities owing to the world's urgent need for new antibiotics, chemotherapeutic agents and agrochemicals to cope with increasing medicinal and environmental problems (Aly et al., 2010; Blunt et al.; 2011; Debbab et al., 2010; Joseph and Priya, 2011; Rateb and Ebel, 2011; Strobel and Daisy, 2003; Tejesvi et al., 2007). Theoretically, the probability of discovering novel bioactive metabolites will be higher in endophytes than in common genera of soil fungi because endophytes are relatively unstudied (Bill and Polishook, 1992; Carter, 2011; Tejesvi et al., 2007). This has prompted a worldwide scientific effort to isolate endophytic fungi and to study their natural products since they may present a vital area for bioactive metabolites in drug discovery (Joseph and Priya, 2011; Strobel et al., 2004). The majority of isolated endophytic species have been found to belong to the ascomycete and deuteromycete classes of fungi (Gusman and Vanhaelen, 2000; Joseph and Priya, 2011).

### 1.4.1 The endophyte-host interaction

The relationship between the endophyte and its host plant is described as a balanced symbiotic continuum ranging from mutualism through commensalism to parasitism (Tan and Zou, 2001; Kogel et al., 2006). It is believed that endophytism may have evolved from time that higher plants first appeared on the earth millions of years ago, which is proved by the fact that plant-associated microbes have been discovered in the fossilized tissues of stems and leaves. It is plausible that some endophytes may have developed genetic systems allowing for transfer of information between themselves and the higher plants and vice versa owing to long-held association (Strobel, 2002). Moreover, plants may provide compounds necessary for the completion of the life
cycle of the inhabiting microorganism, and in some cases endophytes could be responsible for degradation of the dead or dying host plant to start the process of nutrient re-cycling (Guo et al., 2008; Metz et al., 2000; Joseph and Priya, 2011).

### 1.4.2 Metabolites from endophytic fungi

Endophytic fungi are capable of synthesizing bioactive natural products that can be used by plants for defense against pathogens and some of these natural products have been proven to be promising for use in drug discovery. Recent research on endophytic fungi exhibited hundreds of natural products including substance of alkaloids, terpenoids, flavonoids, steroids, etc. Until now, most of the reported natural products are of therapeutic potential including antibiotics, anticancer agents, and biological control agents. Therefore, the role of endophytic fungi in the production of novel structures for exploitation in medicine is receiving increased interest (Gunatilaka, 2006; Joseph and Priya, 2011). Herein, a selection of some interesting metabolites yielded by endophytic fungi is shown below grouped according to their bioactivity.

### 1.4.2.1 Antimicrobial compounds from endophytic fungi

Guanacastepene A(15) isolated from an unidentified endophytic fungus from Costa Rica has revealed antibiotic activity against methicillin-sensitive and methicillinresistant Staphylococcus aureus and vancomycin-resistant Enterococcus faecalis (Brady et al., 2000). Studies have also shown that guanacastepene A lysed human red blood cells and caused leakage of intracellular potassium (Singh et al., 2000). Moreover, 7-epiaustdiol (16) obtained from the mangrove derived endophytic fungus Talaromyces sp. ZH-154 isolated from the stem of Kandelia candel (L.), displayed significant inhibitory activity against Pseudomonas aeruginosa, a multidrug resistant opportunistic pathogen (Liu et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2010b).


guanacastepene A (15)
7-epiaustdiol (16)

Figure 1.4.1 Antimicrobial compounds of endophytic fungi

### 1.4.2.2 Antiviral compounds from endophytic fungi

Cytonic acids A (17) and B (18), produced by the endophytic fungus Cytonaema sp., isolated from Quercus sp. are two human cytomegalovirus (hCMV) protease inhibitors. The hCMV is a ubiquitous opportunistic pathogen that infects congenitally immunedeficient patients (Guo et al., 2000; Tejesvi et al., 2007).

cytonic acid A (17)

cytonic acid B(18)

Figure 1.4.2 Antiviral compounds from endophytic fungi

### 1.4.2.3 Antitumoral compounds from endophytic fungi

Sequoiatones A(19) and B(20) produced by Aspergillus parasiticus isolated fom the coastal redwood (Sequia sempervirens), revealed moderate and selective inhibition of human tumor cells, with the strongest activity against breast cell lines (Saleem et al., 2007; Stierle et al., 1999).

sequoiatone A (19)

sequoiatone $B(20)$

Figure 1.4.3 Antimicrobial compounds from endophytic fungi

### 1.4.2.4 Immunosuppressive compounds from endophytic fungi

The immunosuppressive noncytotoxic metabolites, subglutinol A (21) and B (22) were obtained from the endophytic fungus Fusarium subglutinans isolated from the perennial twining vine Tripterygium wilfordii (Lee et al., 1995; Tan and Zou, 2001).

subglutinol A 12=S(21)
subglutinol B 12=R(22)

Figure 1.4.4 Immunosuppressive compounds from endophytic fungi

### 1.5 Aim and significance of the study

As mentioned above, sponge-derived fungi are of considerable interest and represent a vital source of chemically new metabolites in new drug discovery with pharmaceutical and agrochemical potential.

The primary aim of this study were to characterize the compounds responsible for biological activity from a marine-derived endophytic Aspergillus strain, isolated from a specimen of the Mediterranean sponge Tethya aurantium and to carry out a preliminary evaluation of their pharmaceutical potential. Based on the previous findings, this study has focused on the isolation and structural elucidation of secondary metabolites from sponge-derived fungi, either known or preferentially new ones.

Moreover, fractions and pure compounds were subjected to various bioassays such as antimicrobial and cytotoxic inhibitory activities, to test their pharmaceutical potential.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Materials

### 2.1.1 Fungal material

The marine-derived endophytic fungus Asperillus sp., isolated from a specimen of the Mediterranean sponge Tethya aurantium, was investigated in this study.

### 2.1.2 Laboratory chemicals

### 2.1.2.1 General laboratory chemicals

$>$ (-)-2-Butanol Merck
> (R)-(-)-Methoxy- $\alpha$-triflourmethylphenylacetyl chloride Aldrich
>(S)-(-)-Methoxy- $\alpha$-triflourmethylphenylacetyl chloride Aldrich
$>$ 2-Aminoethyl diphenylborionate Fluka
> Anisaldehyde (4-methoxybenzaldehyde) Merck
$>$ Concentrated ammonia solution Fluka
> Concentrated sulphuric acid Merck
$>$ Dimethylsulfoxide Merck
$>$ Formic acid Merck
$>$ Trifluroacetic acid (TFA) Merck

### 2.1.2.2 Solvents

### 2.1.2.2.1 Gerenal solvents

$>$ Acetone
> Acetonitrile
> Dichloromethane
$>$ Ethanol
> Ethyl acetate
> Hexane
> Methanol

The solvents were purchased from the Institute of Chemistry, University of Duesseldorf. They were distilled before using and special grades were used for spectroscopic measurements.

### 2.1.2.2.2 Solvents for HPLC and LC-MS

| $>$ Acetonitrile | LiChroSolv HPLC grade (Merck) |
| :--- | :--- |
| $>$ Methanol | LiChroSolv HPLC grade (Merck) |
| $>$ Nanopure water | distilled and heavy metals free water obtained by <br>  |
|  | passing distilled water through nano- and ion- <br> exchange filter cells (Barnstead, France). |

### 2.1.2.2.3 Solvents for optical rotation

> Chloroform Spectral grade
> Ethanol Spectral grade
> Methanol Spectral grade
> Water Spectral grade
(Sigma)
(Sigma)
(Sigma)
(Fluka)

### 2.1.2.2.4 Solvents for NMR

| $>$ Chloroform- $d$ | Uvasol, Merck |
| :--- | :--- |
| $>$ DMSO- $d_{6}$ | Uvasol, Merck |
| $>$ Methanol $-d_{4}$ | Uvasol, Merck |

$>$ Pyridine- $d_{5}$
Uvasol, Merck

### 2.1.3 Chromatography

### 2.1.3.1 Stationary phase

| Diaion HP20 | Supelco |
| :--- | :---: |
| Pre-coated TLC plates, Silica Gel 60 F 254 , layer thickness 0.2 mm | Merck |
| Pre-coated TLC plates, RP-18, $\mathrm{F}_{254} \mathrm{~S}$, layer thickness 0.25 mm | Merck |
| RP-18, $0.04-0.063 \mathrm{~mm}$ mesh size | Merck |
| Sephadex LH 20, 0.25-0.1 mm mesh size | Merck |
| Silica Gel 60, 0.04-0.063 mm mesh size | Merck |

### 2.1.3.2 Spray reagents

The reagents were stored in amber-colored bottles and kept refrigerated until being used. TLC was used to monitor the identity of each of the fractions and the qualitative purity of the isolated compounds. It was also utilized to optimize the solvent system that would be applied for column chromatography.

## Anisaldehyde $/ \mathbf{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4}$ Spray Reagent

Methanol 85 mL
Glacial acetic acid $\quad 10 \mathrm{~mL}$
Conc. $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4} \quad 5 \mathrm{~mL}$ (added slowly)
Anisaldehyde $\quad 0.5 \mathrm{~mL}$

## Vanillin/ $/ \mathbf{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4}$ Spray Reagent

Methanol
85 mL
Conc. $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4} \quad 15 \mathrm{~mL}$ (added slowly)
Vanillin
1 g

### 2.2 Laboratory instruments

## General instruments

| Analytical balances MC -1 | Sartorious |
| :--- | :--- |
| Half-micro and analytical balance MC-1 | Sartorious |
| pH-meter inoLab, pH-Electrode Sen Tix 21 | WTW |
| Desiccator | Glaswerk Werthein |
| Hot plate and magnetic stirrer: IKA-Combimag RCH | Janke \& Kunkel KG |
| Glass ware | Schott Duran |
| Drying oven | ET6130 Heraeus |
| Ultra sonicator RK 510 H | Bandelin |
| UV- lamp (254 and 366 nm) | Camag |
| Rotary evaporator | Büchi Rotavapor R-200 |
| Vacuum pump CVC 2000 | Vacuubrand |
| Centrifuge Pico | Heraeus |
| Nitrogen generator UHPN3001 | Nitrox |
| Air generator ZA20 | WGA |
| Fraction collector retriever II | ISCO |
| Lyvac GT2 (Freeze dryer) | Steris |
| Vacuum pump Trivag D10E (Freeze dryer) | Leybold |
| Cooling trap RVT 400 (Speedvac) | Savant |
| Vacuum pump VLP80 (Speedvac) | Savant |
| Syringe | Hamilton 1701 RSN |

## Semipreparative HPLC

| Pump: L-7100 | Merck/Hitachi |
| :--- | :--- |
| Detector: UV-L7400 (Photodiode array detector) | Merck/Hitachi |
| Printer: Chromato-Intergartor D-2000 | Merck/Hitachi |
| Column: Eurospher 100-C18, $[10 \mu \mathrm{~m} ; 300 \mathrm{~mm} \times 8 \mathrm{~mm}]$ | Knauer |
| Pre-column: Eurospher $100-\mathrm{C} 18,[10 \mu \mathrm{~m} ; 30 \mathrm{~mm} \times 8 \mathrm{~mm}]$ | Knauer |

## Analytical HPLC

| Pump: P 580A LPG | Dionex |
| :--- | :--- |
| Autosampler: ASI-100T (injection volume $=20 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ ) | Dionex |
| Detector: UVD 340S (photodiode array detector) | Dionex |
| Column oven: STH 585 | Dionex |
| Column: Eurospher 100-C18, $[5 \mu \mathrm{~m} ; 125 \mathrm{~mm} \times 4 \mathrm{~mm}]$ | Knauer |
| Pre-column: Vertex column, Eurospher100-5 C18 [5-4 mm] | Knauer |

Software: Chromeleon (V. 6.30)

## HPLC-MS

Analytical HPLC: Agilent 1100 series (photodiode array detector) Agilent

MS: Finigan LCQ-DECA
Ionizer: ESI and APCI
Vacuum pump: Edwards 30
Column: Eurospher 100-C18, [ $5 \mu \mathrm{~m} ; 227 \mathrm{~mm} \times 2 \mathrm{~mm}$ ]
Pre-column: Vertex column, Eurospher 100-5 C18 [5-4 mm] Knauer

## NMR

ARX - 400 Brucker
DRX - 500 Brucker
DMX- 600 Brucker

### 2.3 Methods

### 2.3.1 Purification and identification of fungal strains

The sponge Tethya aurantium, collected from the Mediterranean Sea near Italy, was surface sterilized by immersing in $70 \%$ ethanol for 30 sec . followed by rinsing three times in sterilized artificial sea water. Then, the sponge was cleaved aseptically into small segments $(\approx 1.5 \times 1.5 \mathrm{~mm})$. The material was placed on a potato carrot agar
medium and incubated at room temperature $\left(25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$. After several days hyphae growing from the sponge material were transferred to fresh plates with the same medium, incubated again and periodically checked for culture purity. The fungus was identified as Aspergillus sp. (Moniliaceae) using a molecular biological protocol as well as by morphological characterization.

### 2.3.2 Fungal cultivation and extraction

Mass growth of the fungus for the isolation and identification of secondary metabolites was carried out on two different media, namely biomalt agar and spelt barley (composed of 200 g barley, 200 g spelt, 2 g soy protein, 2 mg MnCl 2 und 250 mL distilled water) solid media for 21 days at $22^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The cultures obtained from both media were then lyophilized, extracted with ethyl acetate, and the dry residues left after evaporation were defatted with petroleum ether to afford 35 g of extract after removal of solvent under reduced pressure.

### 2.3.3 Solvent -solvent extraction

Solvent-solvent extraction is a broadly employed technique for the separation of organic compounds from a mixture. It involves the separation of compounds in two immiscible solvents. Since the technique is based on the basis of an unequal distribution of solutes between two solvents with a different polarity, the solutes will be more soluble in one solvent compared to the other. The distribution of a component A between two phases can be expressed as distribution coefficient (K):

$$
K=\frac{[\mathrm{A}]_{\text {top phase }}}{[\mathrm{A}]_{\text {lower phase }}}
$$

where, $[\mathrm{A}]$ is the concentration of solute A .

The following general principles should be considered in choosing a solvent for the system:

- the solvents involved in the extraction must be immiscible
- $\square$ the solvents must not react with the components that will be separated
- the solvents should be easily removed by evaporation after the process

In this study, the solvent extraction was used for the first step in the whole separation process. It was meant to "clean" the ethyl acetate extract from salts and other undesirable polar constituents by water-ethylacetate extraction. Subsequently, the methanol- $n$-hexane extraction was applied to remove fatty acids and other undesirable non polar components yielding 18.0 g dry residue.

### 2.3.4 Isolation and purification of secondary metabolites from Aspergillus $\mathbf{s p}$.

The $90 \% \mathrm{MeOH}$ fraction was used for further isolation and purification of natural products in this study because secondary metabolites are more easily separated and isolated through available chromatography techniques and methods than those in $n$-hexane and water extracts. The details of the schematic isolation and purification of secondary metabolites from large scale fermentation of Aspergillus sp. by using chromatography techniques were displayed as follow.

## Materials and Methods

Figure 2.1 Secondary metabolites isolated from fermentation of Aspergillus sp.


Figure 2.2 Secondary metabolites isolated from fermentation of Aspergillus sp.


Figure 2.3 Secondary metabolites isolated from fermentation of Aspergillus sp.


### 2.3.5 Chromatographic methods

### 2.3.5.1 Thin layer chromatography (TLC)

Thin layer chromatography (TLC) is a simple and quick method of chromatography for analysis of the components in the mixtures and for the determination of the purity of a substance. Chromatography refers to any separation method in which the components are distributed between two different phases, stationary phase and mobile phase. The components separate because of having different affinities for these two phases. Sometimes, TLC is also applied for the preparative separation and purification of the components in mixtures (preparative TLC).

TLC was applied for the detection and monitoring of compounds through the separation processes, and was used to optimize solvent systems for column chromatography. It was performed on pre-coated TLC plates with silica gel $60 \mathrm{~F}_{254}$ (layer thickness 0.2 mm , Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). The band separation on the TLC describing the separation of compounds was detected under UV absorbance at 254 nm (fluorescence absorption) and 366 nm (fluorescence), followed by spraying the TLC plates with anisaldehyde $-\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4}$ reagent and subsequent heating at $110{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. TLC was conducted prior to further work to track the identity of each fraction and the qualitative purity of the isolated compounds. The following solvent systems were used as mobile phase.

For polar compounds: EtOAc:MeOH: $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}(30: 5: 4,30: 6: 5$, and 30:7:6)
For semi-polar compounds: DCM:MeOH (95:5, 90:10, 85:15, 80:20, and 70:30)
DCM:MeOH:EtOAc (90:10:5, and 80:20:10)
For non-polar compounds: $n$-Hexane:EtOAc (95:5, 90:10, 85:15, 80:20, and 70:30) $n$-Hexane:MeOH (95:5, and 90:10)

TLC on reversed phase RP18 $\mathrm{F}_{254}$ (layer thickness 0.25 mm , Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) was used for polar substances using different solvent systems of $\mathrm{MeOH}: \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ (90:10, 80:20, 70:30, and 60:40). The band separation on TLC was detected under UV lamp at 254 and 366 nm , followed by spraying TLC plates with anisaldehyde $/ \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4}$ reagent and they were heated subsequently at $110^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

### 2.3.5.2 Vacuum liquid chromatography (VLC)

Vacuum liquid chromatography is a useful method as an initial isolation step employing extracts or fractions with relatively large weights. The apparatus consists of a 500 cm sintered glass filter funnel with an inner diameter of 12 cm . Silica gel 60 was packed to a hard cake at a height of $5-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ under applied vacuum. The sample used as adsorbed onto a small amount of silica gel using volatile solvents. The resulting sample mixture was then packed onto top of the column. Using step gradient elution with non-polar solvent (e.g. $n$-Hexane or DCM) and increasing amounts of polar solvents (e.g. EtOAc or MeOH ) successive fractions were collected. The flow was produced by vacuum and the column was allowed to run dry after each fraction collected.

### 2.3.5.3 Column chromatography (CC)

Open column chromatography plays a vital role in the separation of compounds from natural product extracts. The separation takes place through selective distribution of the components between a mobile phase and a stationary phase. Different choice of packing material and mobile phase can be applied depending on the class of compounds or fractions. Fractions derived from VLC were subjected to repeated separation through column chromatography using appropriate stationary and mobile phase solvent systems previously determined by TLC. The following types of separation systems were used in this study:

Normal phase chromatography using a polar stationary phase, typically silica gel, in conjunction with a non-polar mobile phase (e.g. $n$-Hexane, DCM) with gradually increasing amount of a polar solvent (e.g. EtOAc or MeOH). Therefore, hydrophobic compounds elute quicker than hydrophilic compounds.
$\triangleleft$ Reversed phase (RP) chromatography using a non-polar stationary phase and a polar mobile phase (e.g. $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{MeOH}$ ). The stationary phase consists of silica with covalently bound n-alkyl chains. For instance, C-8 signifies an octanyl chain and C-18 an octadecyl ligand in the matrix. The more hydrophobic the matrix on each ligand, the greater the tendency of the column to retain hydrophobic moieties. Thus, hydrophilic compounds elute more quickly than do hydrophobic compounds. Elution was performed using $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ with gradually increasing amount of MeOH .
$\diamond$ Size exclusion chromatography involves separations based on molecular size of compounds being analyzed. The stationary phase consists of porous beads (Sephadex LH-20). Compounds having larger molecular size will be excluded from the interior of the bead and thus will firstly elute, while compounds with smaller molecular size will enter the beads and elute according to their ability to exit from the small sized pores where they were trapped. Elution was performed using MeOH or $\mathrm{MeOH}: \mathrm{DCM}$ (1:1).

Ion exclusion chromatography uses ion exchange resin beds (Diaion HP-20) that act as a charged solid separation medium. The components of the processed sample have different electrical affinities to this medium and are, as a result, differently retained by the resins due to these different affinities. Therefore, by elution, these components can be recovered separately at the outlet of the resins bed. Elution was performed using $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ with gradually increasing amounts of MeOH and acetone.

### 2.3.5.4 Flash chromatography

Flash chromatography is a preparative column chromatography based on an optimized pre-packed column and an eluent at a high flow rate driven by air pressure. It is a simple and quick technique widely used for the separation of various organic compounds. Normally, the column, pre-packed by a dried Silica Gel $60 \mathrm{GF}_{254}$ at a height of 18 cm , is filled and saturated with the desired mobile phase just prior to the sample loading on the top of the column. The mobile phase, an isocratic or gradient solvent, is then pumped through the column with the help of air pressure. This process results in the separation of samples on the column. This technique, only considered as a technique under low to medium pressure, is applied for the separation of samples of the range from milligram to some gram of sample.

### 2.3.5.5 Preparative high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC)

HPLC is a robust, versatile, and usually rapid technique to purify compounds from complex mixtures. The reversed-phase C-18 chromatography was used as the exclusive stationary phase of HPLC in this study. This method was used for the isolation and purification of compounds from fractions previously separated by column chromatography. The most appropriate solvent systems were established before running the HPLC separation. The mobile phase combination was MeOH or acetonitrile and nanopure water with or without $0.1 \%$ TFA or $0.1 \%$ formic acid, pumped in gradient or isocratic manner depending on the compounds retention time. Each injection consisted of $20-80 \mathrm{mg}$ of the fraction dissolved in 400 mL of the solvent system. The solvent system was pumped through the column at a rate of 20 $\mathrm{mL} / \mathrm{min}$. the eluted peaks were detected by the online UV detector and collected separately in Erlenmeyer flasks.

## Preparative HPLC system specifications are described as follows:

| Pump | Varian, PrepStar 218 |
| :--- | :--- |
| Detector | Varian, ProStar 320 UV-Vis detector |
| HPLC Program | Varian Star (V.6) |
| Column | Varian Dynamax $(250 \times 4.6 \mathrm{~mm}$, ID and $250 \times 21.4 \mathrm{~mm}, \mathrm{ID})$, |
|  | pre-packed with Microsorb $60-8$ C-18, with integrated |
|  | pre-column |

### 2.3.5.6 Semi-preparative high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC)

All samples for semi-preparative HPLC must be analyzed thoroughly and pretreated to make the separation optimal and maintain the life-span of the HPLC system. The eluant used in semi-preparative HPLC comprises a mixture of nanopure water and methanol. The isocratic conditions were always the premier, even the only choice to achieve separations. $50 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of approximately $40 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{mL}$ solution of the substance was injected each time. The flow rate was stabilized at $5 \mathrm{~mL} / \mathrm{min}$, and the paper speed of the recorder was $5 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{min}$. The eluted peaks were collected respectively by manual work based on the records of a UV-vis detector.

## Semi-preparative HPLC system specifications are described as follows:

Pump Merck Hitachi L-7100
Detector Merck Hitachi UV detector L-7400
Column Knauer ( $300 \times 8 \mathrm{~mm}$, ID), pre-packed with Eurosphere 100-10 C-18, with integrated pre-column

### 2.3.5.7 Analytical high pressure liquid chromatography (DAD-HPLC)

Analytical HPLC which is HPLC coupled to a PDA (photodiode array) detector, is extremely useful for the analysis of natural products to identify the distribution of peaks either from extracts or fractions, as well as to evaluate the purity of isolated
compounds. It can help to analyze individual HPLC peaks, and to obtain complete UV spectra of individual components. The HPLC retention time and the UV spectrum of a component (HPLC peak) can be characteristic of a certain compound. The whole system was run by the sophisticated software (Chromeleon ${ }^{\circledR}$ Version 6.30) that allows building up of spectral libraries for reference compounds and automated compound search.

The solvent gradient used started with MeOH :nanopure water (10:90), adjusted to pH 2 with phosphoric acid, and reached to $100 \% \mathrm{MeOH}$ in 35 minutes. The autosampler injected $20 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ sample. All peaks were detected by UV-VIS photodiode array detector. In some cases, special gradient were used. The HPLC instrument consists of a pump, a detector, an injector, a separation column and a reservoir of mobile phase. The separation column ( $125 \times 2 \mathrm{~mm}$, ID) was pre-filled with Eurospher-100 C18 ( $5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ), with an integrated pre-column (Knauer, Berlin, Germany).

## The conditions of analytical HPLC are described as follows:

| Flow rate: | $1 \mathrm{~mL} / \mathrm{min}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Injection volume: | $20 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ |
| Sample concentration: | ca. $0.1 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{mL}$ |
| Column temperature: | $20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| UV detection wavelengths: | $235,254,280$, and 340 nm |

## LC/UV system specifications are described as follows:

| Pump | Dionex P580A LPG |
| :--- | :--- |
| Detector | Dionex Photodiode Array Detector UVD 340S |
| Column thermostat | STH 585 |
| Autosampler | ASI-100T |
| HPLC Program | Chromeleon (V. 6.3) |
| Column | Knauer (125 $\times 4 \mathrm{~mm}$, ID), pre-packed with |
|  | Eurosphere 100-5 C18, with integrated pre-column |

## Standard gradient for analytical HPLC

| Time (min) | Acidic water (\%) | $\mathrm{MeOH}(\%)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 90 | 10 |
| 5 | 90 | 10 |
| 35 | 0 | 100 |
| 45 | 0 | 100 |
| 50 | 0 | 10 |
| 60 | 0 | 10 |

### 2.3.6 Structure elucidation of the isolated secondary metabolites

### 2.3.6.1 Mass spectrometry (MS)

Mass spectroscopy (MS) is an analytical technique for the determination of the elemental composition of a molecule and for elucidating the chemical structures of molecules. It is a very sensitive technique and even from micro gram amounts good spectra can be obtained. A mass spectrometer is an analytical instrument used for determining the molecular weight of a compound. Technically, mass spectrometers are divided into three parts: ionization source, analyser, and detector, which should be maintained under high vacuum conditions so as to maintain the ions travel through the instrument without any hindrance from air molecules. The sample is ionized in the ionization source and the rising ions are sorted and separated according to their mass ( m ) to charge $(\mathrm{z})$ ratio $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z})$ in the mass analyser. Both negative and positive charged ions can be observed. Once the separated ions flow into the detector, the signals are transmitted to the data system where the mass spectrum is recorded. The molecular ion (parent ion) has to be identified giving the molecular weight of the compound. From the fragmentation patterns of the compound information about substructures can be attained. Therefore, mass spectrometry is used to determine the molecular weights of pure compounds or compounds in a mixture.

### 2.3.6.1.1 Electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (ESIMS)

In ESI method, a solution of a substance is sprayed through a capillary into a chamber. Charged droplets are produced by an applied potential of a few kV , and in the following are driven by the electric field to move into the pre-analyser region. ESIMS is a powerful analytical method, because it allows one to analyse the molecular ions of polar and higher molecular compounds in aqueous solution.

## Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC/MS)

High pressure liquid chromatography is a useful and powerful method for the separation of complex mixtures, especially when many of the components may have similar polarities. If a mass spectrum of each component can be recorded as it elutes from the LC column, quick characterization of the components is greatly facilitated. Generally, ESI-MS is interfaced with LC to make an effective on-line LC/MS. HPLC/ESI-MS was carried out using a Finnigan LCQ-DECA mass spectrometer connected to a UV detector. The samples were dissolved in water/MeOH mixtures and injected to HPLC/ESI-MS set-up. For standard MS/MS measurements, a solvent gradient that started with MeOH:nanopure water (10:90), adjusted with 0.1 \% HCOOH , and reached to $100 \% \mathrm{MeOH}$ in 35 minutes was used.

## LC/UV/MS system specifications are described as follows:

| HPLC system | Agilent 1100 series (pump, detector and autosampler) |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | Finnigan LC Q-DECA |

MS spectrometer Knauer, ( $250 \times 2 \mathrm{~mm}$, ID), prepacked with Eurosphere 100-5 Column C18, with integrated pre-column

## Standard gradient for LC/MS

| Time (min) | Acidic water (\%) | $\mathrm{MeOH}(\%)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 90 | 10 |
| 5 | 90 | 10 |
| 35 | 0 | 100 |
| 45 | 0 | 100 |
| 50 | 0 | 10 |
| 60 | 0 | 10 |

### 2.3.6.1.2 Electron impact mass spectrometry (EI-MS)

Electron impact mass spectrometry (EI-MS) yields a molecular ion $\mathrm{M}^{+}$, named radical cation, through the collision of an electron with the sample in gas phase. The sample is vaporized and then directly injected into a high vacuum chamber where the sample is ionized by bombarding with neutral molecules, which have energy of 70 eV and are accelerated in a 8 kV electric field. The ionization process is then accelerated by vacuum condition in a magnet field and ions are sorted by the ratios of mass to charge in a continued change of magnetic field.

Since the samples must be volatile and thermally stable, the measurement of EI-MS is limited to compounds with low molecular weight of 600 Da or less. Some classes of compounds, only generating molecular ion $\mathrm{M}^{+}$, are not ideal for this measurement. In most cases, the information of molecular structure can be deduced from the extensive fragments occurring in the analysis. The determination of molecular weight using this method is conducted by Dr. Keck and Dr. Tommes at the Institute of Inorganic Chemistry, University of Düsseldorf. The EI mass spectrometer type is Finnegan MAT 8200.

### 2.3.6.1.3 Fast atom bombardment mass spectrometry (FAB-MS)

This was the first broadly accepted method that employs energy sudden ionization. FAB is powerful for compounds, especially polar molecules, unresponsive to either EI or CI mass spectrometry. It enables both non-volatile and high molecular weight compounds to be analyzed. In this technique, a sample is dissolved or dispersed in a polar and relatively non-volatile liquid matrix, introduced into the source on a copper probe tip. Then, this matrix is bombarded with a beam of atoms of about 8 Kev . It uses a beam of neutral gas ( Ar or Xe atoms) and both positive and negative ion FAB spectra can be obtained.

Low resolution FAB-MS was measured by a Finnigan MAT 8430 mass spectrometer. Measurements were conducted by Dr. Peter Tommes, Institute for Inorganic and Structural Chemistry, Heinrich-Heine University, Duesseldorf.

### 2.3.6.1.4 High resolution mass spectrometry (HR-MS)

High resolution is achieved by passing the ion beam through an electrostatic analyzer before it enters the magnetic sector. In such a double focusing mass spectrometer, ion masses can be measured with an accuracy of about 1 ppm . With measurement of this accuracy, the atomic composition of the molecular ions can be determined.

HRESI-MS was measured on a Micromass Qtof 2 mass spectrometer at Helmholtz Centre for Infection Research, Braunschweig. The time-to-flight analyzer separates ions according to their mass-to-charge ratios $(\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z})$ by measuring the time it takes for ions to travel through a field free region known as the flight.

### 2.3.6.2 Nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometry (NMR)

The NMR phenomenon is based on the fact that nuclei of atoms have magnetic
properties that can be utilized to generate chemical information. Some nuclei experience this phenomenon, and others do not, depending upon whether they possess a property called spin. It is used to study physical, chemical, and biological properties of matter. As a consequence, NMR spectroscopy finds applications in several areas of science. NMR spectroscopy is routinely used by chemists to study chemical structure using simple one dimensional technique. Two dimensional techniques were used to determine and confirm the structure of more complicated molecules.

This technique utilizes the atomic nuclei spinning behavior of atoms with an odd number of nucleons, e. g. ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$. An NMR spectrum is acquired by varying the magnetic field that is applied to the sample dissolved in a deuterated solvent over a small range while observing the resonance signal from the sample. Depending on the electron density around each proton they obtain different shielding and deshielding effects appearing in different parts of the resulting NMR spectrum and thus provide information about the environment of each proton. The resulting frequency where the nuclei resonate, the so-called chemical shift, is given in ppm and the coupling constants between adjacent nuclei in Hertz (Hz). NMR experiments can be conducted in a one (1D) or two (2D) dimensional manner. 2D NMR spectra can be either measured between two equal ( $\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{COSY}$ ) or two different (H,C-COSY) frequency axes. For the H,H-2D experiments the connection between two adjacent protons (COSY), between two protons through space (NOESY, nuclear Overhauser enhancement spectroscopy; ROESY, rotatingframe enhancement spectroscopy) or between all protons in one spin system (TOCSY, total correlation spectroscopy) are given. $\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{C}-2 \mathrm{D}$ experiments measure the direct correlation between a proton and a carbon (HMQC, heteronuclear multiple quantum correlation) or the connection of protons over two, three and even four bonds to carbon atoms, so-called long range coupling (HMBC, heteronuclear multiple bond correlation). Correlations are shown as cross peaks in the plane between two axes containing the 1D NMR shifts.

NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker ARX-500 by Dr. Peter Tommes, Institute for

Inorganic and Structural Chemistry, Heinrich-Heine University, Duesseldorf. Some measurements were also performed at the Helmholtz Centre for Infection Research, Braunschweig, by Dr. Victor Wray using an AVANCE DMX-600 NMR spectrometer. All 1D and 2D spectra were obtained using the standard Bruker software. The samples were dissolved in different solvents, the choice of which was dependent on the solubility of the samples. Residual solvent signals were used as internal standards (reference signal). The observed chemical shift ( $\delta$ ) values were given in ppm and the coupling constants ( $J$ ) in Hz.

### 2.3.6.3 Optical activity

When a polarized light is passed through a chiral molecule, the direction of polarization can be changed. This phenomenon is called optical rotation or optical activity. The measurement of this change in polarization orientation is called polarimetry and the instrument used to measure this phenomenon is called a polarimeter.

This measurement is used to study the structure of anisotropic compounds and to check the purity of chiral mixtures. If the sample contains only one enantiomer of its chiral molecule, the sample is said to be optically pure. An enantiomer is called as a levorotatory (l) or (-) enantiomer if it rotates light to the left (counterclockwise). On the contrary, if an enantiomer rotates light to the right (clockwise), it is said to be as a dextrorotary (d) or (+) enantiomer.

Since the degree of optical rotation depends on the number of optically active species (chiral) in which the light passes, the measurement of optical rotation depends on concentration (c) and light path length (l) of the sample. The specific rotation, $[\alpha]$, expresses the optical rotation degree after correction of concentration and path length. Thus the specific rotation is a specific quantity for a chiral molecule at certain temperature T and wavelength $\lambda$.

$$
[\alpha]_{\lambda}^{\mathrm{T}}=100 \alpha / \mathrm{cl}
$$

where:
$[\alpha]_{\lambda}^{\mathrm{T}}$ is specific rotation at certain temperature T and wavelength
$l$ is optical path length in dm
$\lambda \square$ is wavelength
T is temperature
$\alpha \square$ is measured optical rotation degree at certain temperature T and wavelength $\lambda$
c is concentration in $\mathrm{g} / 100 \mathrm{~mL}$

In this study, the measurement of optical rotation was recorded on Perkin-Elmer 241 MC polarimeter. The substance was stored in a 0.5 mL cuvette with 1 dm length. $[\alpha]_{\mathrm{D}}^{20}$ is the specific optical rotation at the wavelength of Sodium-D-lamp, 589 nm , at a temperature of $20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

### 2.3.6.4 Determination of absolute stereochemistry by Mosher reaction

The reaction was performed based on a modified Mosher ester procedure described by Su et al. (Ohtani et al., 1991; Su et al., 2002).

## Reaction with (R)-(-)- $\alpha$-(trifluoromethyl) phenylacetyl chloride

The compounds ( 1 mg of each) were transferred into NMR tubes and were dried under vacuum. Deuterated pyridine ( 0.5 mL ) and ( $R$ )-MTPA chloride were added immediately under a $\mathrm{N}_{2}$ gas stream. The reagent was added in the ratio of 0.14 mM reagent to 0.10 mM of the compound (Dale and Mosher, 1973). The NMR tubes were shaken carefully to mix the samples and MTPA chloride evenly. The reaction NMR tubes were permitted to stand at room temperature and monitored by $1 \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{NMR}$ until the reaction was completed. ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY was measured to confirm the assignment of the signals.

## Reaction with (S)-(-)- $\alpha$-(trifluoromethyl) phenylacetyl chloride

Another portion of each compound ( 1 mg ) was transferred into NMR tube. The reaction was performed in the same manner as described before to yield the $(S)$-MTPA ester.

### 2.3.6.5 Circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy

Circular dichroism is based on the difference between the absorption of left-handed circularly polarised light (L-CPL) and right-handed circularly polarised light (R-CPL). It occurs when a molecule contains one or more chiral chromophores (light-absorbing groups).

$$
\text { Circular dichroism }=\Delta \mathrm{A}(\lambda)=\mathrm{A}(\lambda)_{\mathrm{LCPL}}-\mathrm{A}(\lambda)_{\mathrm{RCPL}}
$$

where $\lambda$ is the wavelength.

Circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy is a spectroscopic method. The CD of molecules is recorded over a range of wavelengths. CD spectroscopy is widely used to study chirality of molecules.

Measurements are carried out in the visible and ultra-violet region of the electro-magnetic spectrum to monitor electronic transitions. If the molecule under investigation contains chiral chromophores, one CPL state will be absorbed to a greater extent than the other and the CD signal over the corresponding wavelengths will be non-zero. A circular dichroism signal can be positive or negative, depending on whether L-CPL is absorbed to a greater extent than R-CPL (CD signal positive) or to a lesser extent (CD signal negative).

Circular dichroism spectra are measured using a circular dichroism spectrometer,
which is a highly specialised derivative of an ordinary absorption spectrometer. CD spectrometers alternately measure the absorption of L- and R-CPL, usually at a frequency of 50 KHz , and then calculate the circular dichroism signal.

In this study, the CD spectra were recorded on a J-810 CD spectropolarimeter. Conformational searches were carried out by means of the Macromodel 9.7.211 (MacroModel et al., 2009) software using Merck Molecular Force Field (MMFF) with implicit solvent model for chloroform. Geometry reoptimizations at B3LYP/6-31G(d) level of theory followed by TDDFT calculations using various functionals (B3LYP, BH\&HLYP, PBE0) and TZVP basis set were performed by the Gaussian 03 (Frisch et al., 2004) package. Boltzman distributions were estimated from the ZPVE corrected B3LYP/6-31G(d) energies. CD spectra were generated as the sum of Gaussians (Stephens and Harada, 2010) with $3000 \mathrm{~cm}^{-1}$ half-height width (corresponding to ca. 16 nm at 230 nm ), using dipole-velocity computed rotational strengths for conformers above 5\%. The MOLEKEL (Varetto, 2009) software package was used for visualization of the results.

### 2.3.7 Testing the biological activity

### 2.3.7.1 Antimicrobial and antifungal activity

Extracts and pure compounds were evaluated in a 96 well plates primary screening assay against the following resistant pathogens: Escherichia coli, Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus pneumonia , Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Klebsiella pneumonia, Candida albicans, Candida krusei, Aspergillus fumigatus, Aspergillus faecius.

Pure compounds were diluted from 250 to $62.5 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ and extracts from 1250 to 312 $\mu \mathrm{g} / \mathrm{mL}$ in Müller Hinton Bouillon (Merck, Germany) for bacterial screening and in RPMI (PAA, Austria), enriched with $2 \%$ glucose (PAA, Austria), for fungal screening.

Afterwards the substance/extract solution was overlaid with the microbes (105 $\mathrm{CFU} / \mathrm{mL}$ ) and cultivated for bacteria 24 h for fungi 48 h at $35^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. As negative control an antibiotic/antimycotic mix (PAA, Austria) was used in addition to a non treated infected control (positive). The result was analysed by checking the microbial growth with the visible eye and by measurement of the turbidity at 650 nm . All procedures were done under aseptic conditions in a sterile laminar air flow according to good laboratory practice.

Substances with an activity around $125 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ and extracts with $625 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ were considered as possible candidates for further antimicrobial screening. With these positive candidates a MIC (minimal inhibition concentration) assay was performed to identify the exactly minimal inhibition concentration. Therefore, the substances/extracts were diluted from $250 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ to $0.24 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ and screened in the same manner as in the primary screening.

### 2.3.7.2 Cytotoxicity test

## Microculture tetrazolium (MTT) assay

Cytotoxicity assays were performed by Prof. Dr. W. E. G. Müller, Institute for Physiological Chemistry and Pathobiochemistry, University of Mainz, Mainz. Cytotoxicity was evaluated against L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells using microculture tetrazolium (MTT) assay, and compared to that of untreated controls (Carmichael et al., 1987).

## Cell cultures

L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells were grown in Eagle's minimal essential medium supplement with $10 \%$ horse serum in roller tube culture. The medium contained 100 units $/ \mathrm{mL}$ penicillin and $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ streptomycin. The cells were maintained in a
humidified atmosphere at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $5 \% \mathrm{CO}_{2}$.

## MTT colorimetric assay

Of the test samples, stock solutions in ethanol $96 \%(\mathrm{v} / \mathrm{v})$ were prepared. Exponentially, growing cells were harvested, counted, and diluted appropriately. Of the cell suspension, $50 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ containing 3750 cells were pipetted into 96 -well microtiter plates. Subsequently, $50 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of a solution of the test samples containing the appropriate concentration was added to each well. The concentration range was 3 and $10 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$. The small amount of ethanol present in the wells did not affect the experiments. The test plates were incubated at $37{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $5 \% \mathrm{CO}_{2}$ for 72 h . A solution of 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) was prepared at $5 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{mL}$ in phosphate buffered saline (PBS; $1.5 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KH} \mathrm{KO}_{4}, 6.5 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{Na} 2 \mathrm{HPO}_{4}$, $137 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl}, 2.7 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}$; pH 7.4 ) and from the solution, $20 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ was pipetted into each well. The yellow MTT penetrates the healthy living cells and in the presence of mitochondrial reductase, MTT is transformed to its blue formazan complex. After an incubation period of 3 h 45 min at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in a humidified incubator with $5 \% \mathrm{CO}_{2}$, the medium was centrifuged ( $15 \mathrm{~min}, 20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, 210 \mathrm{xg}$ ) with $200 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ DMSO, the cells were lysed to liberate the formed formazan product. After thorough mixing, the absorbance was measured at 520 nm using a scanning microtiter-well spectrophotometer. The colour intensity is correlated with the number of healthy living cells. Cell survival was calculated using the formula:

## Absorbance of treated cells - Absorbance of culture medium <br> Survival $\%=100 \times \frac{\text { Absorbance of untreated cells - Absorbance of culture medium }}{\text { Abser }}$

All experiments were carried out in triplicates and repeated three times. As controls, media with $0.1 \%$ EGMME/DMSO were included in the experiments.

## 3. Results

### 3.1 Secondary metabolites from the sponge-associated fungus Aspergillus sp.

Bioactive natural products from marine-derived fungi were reported for the first time back in the 1940s from a fungal strain of Acremonium chrysogenum, which yielded cephalosporin C , the parent compound of cephalosporin antibiotics. Meanwhile, marine-derived fungi have been isolated from various organisms, including algae, mollusks and particularly sponges (Bringmann et al, 2004; Lopez-Gresa et al., 2009). However, sponge-derived fungi were found to be among the most prolific sources of bioactive compounds (Daferner and Sterner, 2002).

The genus Aspergillus (Moniliaceae) contains approximately 180 species which survive in various climates worldwide in both terrestrial and marine environments ( He et al., 2004). Aspergillus species and their chemical profiles have been studied by numerous research groups. The genus has proven to be a rich source of secondary metabolites with novel structures and interesting bioactivities (Liu et al., 2009). Examples of isolated metabolites include meroterpenoids, isochroman derivatives, drimane sesquiterpenoids, and cyclic tripeptides, which in most cases exhibited interesting biological activities, such as plant growth inhibition, cytotoxic activity against tumor cell lines, selective antifungal activity, as well as inhibition of endothelin-type B receptors (Liu et al., 2009; Newman, 2008; Yaming et al., 2011).

With the goal of isolation and identification of novel biologically active metabolites from marine-associated fungi, we have investigated the bioactive constituents from a sponge-derived fungal Aspergillus strain, isolated from a specimen of the Mediterranean sponge Tethya aurantium. Chromatographic separation of the crude extract obtained from this fungal strain, yielded 31 compounds including 15 new natural products.

### 3.1.1 Butyrolactone II (compound 1, known)



Butyrolactone II (1) was isolated as a colorless amorphous powder ( 120 mg ) and it revealed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH}) 202.0,223.8$, and 307.1 nm . The compound was optically active with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $+16.2^{\circ}$ (c 1.0, EtOH). Its molecular weight was indicated as $356 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ based on the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z}$ $357[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak) and $355[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) upon positive and negative ionization by ESI-MS, respectively. ${ }^{13}$ C NMR and DEPT spectra of $\mathbf{1}$ displayed 19 carbon signals assigned for one methoxy group, one methylene group, eight aromatic methine groups including four overlapping ones, and nine quaternary carbon atoms including two ester carbonyl carbons (Table 3.1.1). The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{NMR}$ spectra of $\mathbf{1}$ displayed signals corresponding to eight aromatic protons at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.59 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-5 / 9)$, $6.50 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-6 / 8), 7.52 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-5^{\prime} / 9^{\prime}\right)$, and $6.87 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-6^{\prime} / 8^{\prime}\right)$. A signal at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.74$ ppm revealed the presence of one methoxy group $\left(\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-1 \mathrm{a}\right)$ and the signal at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.40$ ppm belonged to the methylene group $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-3\right)$. At last, the remaining signals revealed the presence of three hydroxy groups at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 10.56 \mathrm{ppm}\left(2^{\prime}-\mathrm{OH}\right), 9.93 \mathrm{ppm}\left(7^{\prime}-\mathrm{OH}\right)$, and $9.22 \mathrm{ppm}(7-\mathrm{OH})$. The HMBC correlations of the methylene protons with C-2 $\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}}\right.$ $84.7 \mathrm{ppm}), \mathrm{C}-4\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 123.1 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-3^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 127.4 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-5 / 9\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 131.1 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and $\mathrm{C}-1$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 169.7 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) suggested that the protons were positioned at C-3 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 38.0 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and connected the aromatic ring to the lactone ring. The correlation of $\mathrm{H}-1 \mathrm{a}$ with $\mathrm{C}-1$ indicated that the methoxy group was attached to $\mathrm{C}-1$. The remaing HMBC correlations are shown in Figure 3.1.1 and Figure 3.1.2. Therefore, compound 1 was finally confirmed as butyrolactone II by analysis of all data as mentioned above together with comparing the data with reported date of butyrolactone II (Table 3.1.1) (Nitta et al., 1983; Rao et al., 2000).

Table 3.1.1 NMR data for butyrolactone II (1)

| Position | $1 \mathrm{DMSO}^{\text {d }} d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), \mathrm{J}$ in Hz |  | Reference, $\delta$ (ppm), $J$ in Hz |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(60 \mathrm{MHz}){ }^{a}$ <br> (Nitta et al., 1983) | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(50 \mathrm{MHz}){ }^{b}$ <br> (Rao et al., 2000) |
| 1a | 3.74 s | 53.5 | 3.71 s | 53.5 |
| 1 |  | 169.7 |  | 169.9 |
| 2 |  | 84.7 |  | 84.9 |
| 3 | 3.40 s | 38.0 | 3.43 s | 38.2 |
| 4 |  | 123.1 |  | 123.4 |
| 5 | 6.59 d (8.6) | 131.1 | 6.63 d (9.0) | 131.3 |
| 6 | 6.50 d (8.6) | 114.6 | 6.43 d (9.0) | 114.8 |
| 7 |  | 156.3 |  | 156.4 |
| 7-OH | 9.22 |  |  |  |
| 8 | 6.50 d (8.6) | 114.6 | 6.43 d (9.0) | 114.8 |
| 9 | 6.59 d (8.6) | 131.1 | 6.63 d (9.0) | 131.3 |
| 1 , |  | 167.9 |  | 168.1 |
| 2 ' |  | 138.1 |  | 138.3 |
| $2^{\prime}$ - OH | 10.56 |  |  |  |
| 3 ' |  | 127.4 |  | 127.7 |
| 4 |  | 121.0 |  | 121.2 |
| 5 | 7.52 d (8.8) | 128.8 | 7.51 d (9.0) | 129.0 |
| 6 ' | 6.87 d (8.8) | 115.8 | 6.85 d (9.0) | 116.0 |
| 7 |  | 157.9 |  | 158.1 |
| 7'-OH | 9.93 |  |  |  |
| 8 ' | 6.87 d (8.8) | 115.8 | 6.85 d (9.0) | 116.0 |
| 9 ' | 7.52 d (8.8) | 128.8 | 7.51 d (9.0) | 129.0 |

${ }^{a}$ acetone- $d_{6}{ }^{b}$ DMSO- $d_{6}$


Figure 3.1.1 HMBC correlations of butyrolactone II (1).


Figure 3.1.2 HMBC correlations of butyrolactone II (1)

### 3.1.2 Dicitrinin A (compound 2, known)

|  | Dicitrinin A |
| :--- | :--- |
| Biological Source | Aspergillus sp. |
| Sample Code | Fr.2.6.5.3 |
| Sample Amount | 4.5 mg |
| Molecular Formula | $\mathrm{C}_{23} \mathrm{H}_{24} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ |
| Molecular Weight | $380 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ |
| Solubility | MeOH |
| Physical Description | Red solid |
| Optical Rotation | $[\alpha]^{20}+76.0^{\circ}\left(c 0.016, \mathrm{CDCl}_{3}\right)$ |
| HPLC Retention Time | 26.6 min $(\operatorname{standard}$ gradient $)$ |



Dicitrinin A (2) was isolated as a red solid ( 4.5 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $+76.0^{\circ}(c$ $0.016, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}$ ). It revealed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH}) 204.8,223.3$, and 383.1 nm . Its molecular weight was determined as $380 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ according to the molecular ion peaks observed at $m / z 381.2[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak) and $379.2[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) upon positive and negative ionization by ESI-MS, respectively. The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR of 2 (Table 3.1.2) showed six methyl carbons, four $\mathrm{sp}^{3}$ methine carbons, a $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ methine carbon, and 12 quarternary carbons including one carbonyl carbon. Furthermore, the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{NMR}$ of $\mathbf{2}$ (Table 3.1.2) displayed four tertiary methyl signals, two aromatic methyl signals, two sets each composed of two $\mathrm{sp}^{3}$ methine protons, and an aromatic proton singlet at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.95 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-7)$. The detailed analysis of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY and HMBC spectra confirmed the planar structure of dicitrinin A. HMBC correlations were observed from H-3 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.03 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) to C-1 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 156.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and C-4a ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 132.3 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), and from H-4 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.16 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) to C-8a ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 98.6 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and C-5 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 128.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), from H-7 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.95$ ppm ) to C-5 and C-8a. Moreover, HMBC correlations were observed from $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-2$ ' $\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}}\right.$ $1.29 \mathrm{ppm})$ to $\mathrm{C}-2^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 87.2 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ and $\mathrm{C}-3^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 43.7 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, from $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-3^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.25 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-2^{\prime}, \mathrm{C}-3^{\prime}$ and $\mathrm{C}-3 \mathrm{a}^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 139.2 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and from $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-4^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.14 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-6^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}}\right.$ $102.6 \mathrm{ppm}), \mathrm{C}-4^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 116.9 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-7{ }^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 134.9 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-7 \mathrm{a}^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 136.8 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-3 \mathrm{a}{ }^{\prime}$ and C-5' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 148.3 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) (Figure 3.1.3 and Figure 3.1.4). Consequently, compound 2 was determined as dicitrinin A by interpretation of COSY and HMBC spectra in addition to comparison of $\mathrm{UV},{ }^{1} \mathrm{H},{ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR, mass spectral data and $[\alpha]_{\mathrm{D}}$ value with published data (Daigo et al., 2006; Benjamin et al., 2006). Inspite of deviations of our NMR data from those reported for dicitrinin A in literature (Table 3.1.2), structural confirmation was achieved by thorough interpretation of 2D NMR spectra, mass spectral analysis and measuremnent of optical rotation. It is to note that such deviations were observed even among published data for the same substance (Daigo et al., 2006; Benjamin et al., 2006).

Table 3.1.2 NMR data for dicitrinin A (2)

| Position | $2 \mathrm{DMSO}-d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), \mathrm{J}$ in Hz |  | Reference DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> (Benjamin et al., 2006) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(400 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  | 156.2 |  | 169.8 |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 5.03 q (6.7) | 81.1 | 5.46 q (6.8) | 84.9 |
| $3-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 1.32 d (6.5) | 21.4 | 1.37 d (6.8) | 18.2 |
| 4 | $3.16 \mathrm{q}(7.2)$ | 33.9 | $3.55 \mathrm{q}(7.2)$ | 33.3 |
| $4-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 1.20 d (7.1) | 18.8 | 1.26 d (7.2) | 18.8 |
| 4a |  | 132.3 |  | 137.5 |
| 5 |  | 128.2 |  | 124.1 |
| $5-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 1.95 s | 10.2 | 2.22 s | 10.0 |
| 6 |  | 169.1 |  | 170.4 |
| 7 | 5.95 s | 101.2 | 7.03 s | 99.4 |
| 8 |  | 157.2 |  | 157.6 |
| 8a |  | 98.6 |  | 102.4 |
| 1 , |  |  |  |  |
| 2 ' | $4.57 \mathrm{dq}(3.9,6.3)$ | 87.2 | $4.75 \mathrm{dq}(3.6,6.4)$ | 87.9 |
| $2^{\prime}-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 1.29 d (6.5) | 18.0 | 1.36 d (6.4) | 20.6 |
| 3 ' | $3.22 \mathrm{dq}(3.8,7.0)$ | 43.7 | $3.42 \mathrm{dq}(3.6,7.0)$ | 44.2 |
| 3 - $\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 1.25 d (7.0) | 18.5 | 1.30 d (7.0) | 18.7 |
| 3a' |  | 139.2 |  | 144.9 |
| 4 |  | 116.9 |  | 119.1 |
| $4^{\prime}-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 2.14 s | 11.6 | 2.27 s | 12.0 |
| 5 |  | 148.3 |  | 149.1 |
| 6 ' |  | 102.6 |  | 104.7 |
| 7 |  | 134.9 |  | 137.3 |
| 7a' |  | 136.8 |  | 137.2 |



Figure 3.1.3 HMBC correlations of dicitrinin A (2)


Figure 3.1.4 HMBC correlations of dicitrinin A (2)

### 3.1.3 4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-3-methoxy-5-methylisocoumarin (compound 3, known)



4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-3-methoxy-5-methylisocoumarin (3) was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid $(11.7 \mathrm{mg})$ with an $[\alpha]^{20}$ D value of $-5.7^{\circ}(c 1.0$, MeOH ). It displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 230.8,273.2$, and 314.3 nm . Its molecular weight was suggested as $266 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ according to the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 266.7[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak) and $288.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$in the positive mode and at $m / z 265.1[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) in the negative mode by ESI-MS analysis. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.3) exhibited an aromatic methine singlet at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.35 \mathrm{ppm}$ (H-7), two methine doublets at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.84 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $4.48 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-3$ and $\mathrm{H}-4)$, a methoxy group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.45 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-11)$, two methyl singlets at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.27 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $1.94 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-13$ and $\mathrm{H}-14$ ), and two hydroxyl singlets at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 10.93 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 10.83 ppm ( $8-\mathrm{OH}$ and 6-OH), respectively. In the ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.3) 13 carbon signals were clearly observed and they were assigned to a ketone carbonyl carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 202.8 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-12), an ester carbonyl carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 167.2 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-1)$, two oxygenated $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ carbons at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 163.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 161.2 ppm (C-6 and C-8, respectively), one aromatic methine carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 100.8 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-7)$, three $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ quaternary carbons at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 135.0 \mathrm{ppm}, 115.5$ ppm and 99.7 ppm (C-10, C-5 and C-9, respectively), an acetal carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 101.0$ $\mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-3)$, a methine carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 52.8 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-4)$, a methoxyl carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 56.3 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-11), and two methyl carbons at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 29.4 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 10.8 ppm (C-13 and $\mathrm{C}-14$, respectively). The structure of $\mathbf{3}$ was determined based on analysis of the HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.5), which revealed correlations from the methine proton $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-5,6,8$, and 9 , as well as the omega correlation to $\mathrm{C}-1$, from the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-14$ to $\mathrm{C}-5,6$, and 10 , from the acetal proton $\mathrm{H}-3$ to $\mathrm{C}-1,10,11$, and 12 , from the methine proton $\mathrm{H}-4$ to $\mathrm{C}-3,5,9,10$, and 12 , from the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$, and from the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-13$ to $\mathrm{C}-4$ and the carbonyl carbon $\mathrm{C}-12$. Furthermore, the coupling constant of $J_{3,4}=1.3 \mathrm{~Hz}$ suggested a trans-bisequatorial arrangement of the substituents at C-3 and C-4 on the pyranone ring. Therefore, the structure of $\mathbf{3}$ was determined as 4-acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-3-methoxy-5methylisocoumarin on the basis of HMBC correlations (Figure 3.1.5) in addition to comparison with reported data (Krohn et al., 2001, 2004).

Table 3.1.3 NMR data for 4-acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-3-methoxy-5-methylisocoumarin (3)

| Position | 3 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Reference $\mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> $(\mathrm{Krohn}$ et al., 2001) |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(400 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(200 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(50 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  | 167.2 |  | 168.3 |
| 3 | $5.84 \mathrm{~d}(1.3)$ | 101.0 | $5.65 \mathrm{~d}(1.3)$ | 102.2 |
| 4 | $4.48 \mathrm{~d}(1.3)$ | 52.8 | $4.24 \mathrm{~d}(1.3)$ | 53.8 |
| 5 |  | 115.5 |  | 116.4 |
| 6 |  | 163.2 |  | 164.1 |
| $6-\mathrm{OH}$ | 10.83 br s |  |  |  |
| 7 | 6.35 s | 100.8 | 6.26 s | 101.2 |
| 8 |  | 161.2 |  | 162.7 |
| $8-\mathrm{OH}$ | 10.93 s |  |  |  |
| 9 |  | 99.7 |  | 100.0 |
| 10 |  | 135.0 | 3.46 s | 135.1 |
| 11 | 3.45 s | 56.3 |  | 56.1 |
| 12 |  | 202.8 | 2.11 s | 203.5 |
| 13 | 2.27 s | 29.4 | 1.96 s | 28.1 |
| 14 | 1.94 s | 10.8 |  | 10.1 |



Figure 3.1.5 HMBC correlations of 4-acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-3-methoxy-5-methylisocoumarin (3)

### 3.1.4 2,3,4-Trimethyl-5,7-dihydroxy-2,3-dihydrobenzofuran (compound 4, known)



2,3,4-Trimethyl-5,7-dihydroxy-2,3-dihydrobenzofuran (4) was isolated as a brown solid ( 20.0 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $+30^{\circ}(c \quad 0.1, \mathrm{MeOH})$. It displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH}) 222.0$, and 294.6 nm . Its molecular formula was assigned as $\mathrm{C}_{11} \mathrm{H}_{14} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ on the basis of its ESI-MS showing molecular ion peak at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 194.9$ $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$in the positive mode, ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR data (Table 3.1.4). Both ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR of 4 contained well-separated and clearly assigned resonances and led to believe that the compound possessed a dihydrobenzofuran-like skeleton. Analysis of the ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT spectra of $\mathbf{4}$ implied the presence of three methyl groups, one $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ aromatic methine, two $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ methines one of which being oxygenated, two aromatic quaternary carbons, and three oxygenated aromatic quaternary carbons. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of 4 revealed signals at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.15 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-3\right), 1.22 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-2\right), 2.92 \mathrm{ppm}$ (H-3), and $4.26 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-2)$, assigned to two methyl groups, one methine signal, and one oxymethine signal, respectively, and thus building the furan ring of the dihydrobenzofuran skeleton. These protons were correlated with the carbon signals at $\delta 19.2 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-3\right), 20.7 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-2\right), 43.6 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-3)$, and $85.3 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-2)$, respectively, in the HMQC spectrum, which is in agreement with a 2,3- dimethyl-2,3dihydrobenzofuran unit. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum also revealed the presence of one aromatic proton at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.14 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-6)$, thus indicativing a pentasubstituted benzene ring, also carrying the methyl group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.93 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-4\right)$. The HMBC correlations of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-3$ to $\mathrm{C}-2, \mathrm{C}-3$, and $\mathrm{C}-9$; of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-2$ to $\mathrm{C}-2$ and $\mathrm{C}-3$; of $\mathrm{H}-2$ to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-3, \mathrm{C}-8$, and $\mathrm{C}-9$; of $\mathrm{H}-3$ to $\mathrm{C}-2, \mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-8$, and $\mathrm{C}-9$; of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-4$ to $\mathrm{C}-4, \mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-6, \mathrm{C}-8$, and $\mathrm{C}-9$; and of H-6 to C-4, C-5, C-7, C-8, and C-9 confirmed the substitution of the benzene ring (Figure 3.1.6). The relative stereochemistry of $\mathbf{4}$ was established from a 1D NOE experiment. NOEs were observed from $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-2$ to $\mathrm{H}-3$, and from $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-3$ to $\mathrm{H}-2$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-4$ thus suggesting a trans relationship for $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-2$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-3$. Therefore, all of the above data are in agreement with the structure of 2,3,4-trimethyl-5,7-dihydroxy-2,3dihydrobenzofuran which was also comfirmed by comparison with reported data (Chen et al., 2002).

Table 3.1.4 NMR data for 2,3,4-trimethyl-5,7-dihydroxy-2,3dihydrobenzofuran (4)

| Position | DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  |  |  |  |  | Reference $\mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J \mathrm{in} \mathrm{Hz}$ <br> $(\mathrm{Chen}$ et al., 2002) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ |  |  |  |
| $2-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | $1.22 \mathrm{~d}(6.3)$ | 20.7 | $1.30 \mathrm{~d}(6.5)$ | 20.1 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 4.26 m | 85.3 | 4.37 m | 86.7 |  |  |  |
| $3-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | $1.15 \mathrm{~d}(6.8)$ | 19.2 | $1.25 \mathrm{~d}(6.5)$ | 18.7 |  |  |  |
| 3 | 2.92 m | 43.6 | 3.00 m | 44.3 |  |  |  |
| $4-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 1.93 s | 11.3 | 2.05 s | 10.5 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 110.1 |  | 111.8 |  |  |  |
| $5-\mathrm{OH}$ | 8.40 s |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 148.8 |  | 149.0 |  |  |  |
| 6 | 6.14 s | 102.8 | 6.20 s | 102.8 |  |  |  |
| $7-\mathrm{OH}$ | 8.65 s |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 |  | 138.6 |  | 138.9 |  |  |  |
| 8 |  | 138.1 |  | 138.7 |  |  |  |
| 9 |  | 131.6 |  | 132.0 |  |  |  |



Figure 3.1.6 HMBC correlations of 2,3,4-trimethyl-5,7-dihydroxy-2,3-dihydrobenzofuran (4)

### 3.1.5 4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-5-methylisocoumarin (compound 5, known)



4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-5-methylisocoumarin (5) was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 7.6 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}$ D value of $-8.0^{\circ}(c 0.07, \mathrm{MeOH})$. It displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 213.4, 271.0, and 311.8 nm . Its molecular weight was suggested as $236 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ according to the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 237.0[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak) and $258.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$in positive mode and at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 235.1$ $[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) in negative mode by ESI-MS analysis. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.5) exhibited two hydroxyl singlets at $\delta 11.0 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $10.8 \mathrm{ppm}(8-\mathrm{OH}$ and $6-\mathrm{OH}$, respectively), an aromatic methine singlet at $\delta 6.36 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-7)$, two oxygenated methylene protons at $\delta 4.90 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $4.59 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-3\right)$, a methine proton at $\delta 4.27$ $\mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-4)$, one acetyl methyl group at $\delta 2.26 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-13\right)$, and one aromatic methyl group at $\delta 1.91 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11\right)$. In the ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT spectra (Table 3.1.5) 12 carbon signals were observed and were assigned to ketone carbonyl carbon at $\delta 205.1$ $\mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-12)$, ester carbonyl carbon at $\delta 169.0 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-1)$, two oxygenated $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ carbons at $\delta 162.9 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 161.3 ppm (C-6 and $\mathrm{C}-8$, respectively), the aromatic methine carbon at $\delta 101.1 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-7)$, three $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ quaternary carbons at $\delta 137.7 \mathrm{ppm}, 114.5 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 100.3 ppm (C-10, C-5 and C-9, respectively), the methylene carbon at $\delta 68.0 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-3), the methine carbon at $\delta 47.7 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-4), and two methyl carbons at $\delta 28.5 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 10.7 ppm (C-13 and C-11, respectively). The structure of $\mathbf{5}$ was deduced from the HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.7), which exhibited correlations from the methine proton $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-5,6,8$, and 9 , as well as to $\mathrm{C}-1$ and $\mathrm{C}-11$ via omega correlation, from the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11$ to $\mathrm{C}-5,6,7,9,10$, and 12 , from the methylene protons $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-3$ to $\mathrm{C}-1,4,10,12$, and to $\mathrm{C}-5$ via omega correlation, from the methine proton $\mathrm{H}-4$ to $\mathrm{C}-3,5,9,10$, and 12 , and from the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-13$ to $\mathrm{C}-4$ and the carbonyl carbon C-12. Moreover, the structure of $\mathbf{5}$ was very similar to that of $\mathbf{3}$. Therefore, based on analysis of the HMBC spectrum, comparison with reported data in literature (Krohn et al., 2001, 2004) and those obtained for 3, compound 5 was finally determined as 4-acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-5-methylisocoumarin (Figure 3.1.7).

Table 3.1.5 NMR data for 4-acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8- dihydroxy-5methylisocoumarin (5)

| Position | 5 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz | Reference $\mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> (Krohn et al., 2001) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(200 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(50 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  | 169.0 |  | 170.1 |
| 3 | $4.59 \mathrm{dd}(11.8,3.9)$ | 68.0 | $4.60 \mathrm{dd}(11.7,3.8)$ | 68.7 |
|  | $4.90 \mathrm{~d}(11.8)$ |  | $4.97 \mathrm{dd}(11.7,1.3)$ |  |
| 4 | $4.27 \mathrm{~d}(3.0)$ | 47.7 | $4.18 \mathrm{dd}(3.8,1.3)$ | 48.7 |
| 5 |  | 114.5 |  | 115.4 |
| 6 |  | 162.9 |  | 163.9 |
| $6-\mathrm{OH}$ | 10.8 s |  |  |  |
| 7 | 6.36 s | 101.1 | 6.38 s | 101.5 |
| 8 |  | 161.3 |  | 162.9 |
| $8-\mathrm{OH}$ | 11.0 | 100.3 |  | 100.4 |
| 9 |  | 137.7 |  | 137.7 |
| 10 |  | 10.7 | 2.07 s | 10.0 |
| 11 | 1.91 s | 205.1 |  | 205.7 |
| 12 |  | 28.5 | 2.27 s | 27.7 |
| 13 | 2.27 s |  |  |  |



Figure 3.1.7 HMBC correlations of 4-acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-5-
methylisocoumarin (5)

### 3.1.6 Citrinin (compound 6, known)

| Citricin |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Biological Source Aspergillus sp. <br> Sample Code Fr.2.5.4.1 <br> Sample Amount 1.9 mg <br> Molecular Formula $\mathrm{C}_{13} \mathrm{H}_{14} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ <br> Molecular Weight $250 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ <br> Solubility MeOH <br> Physical Description Yellow amorphou <br> Optical Rotation $[\alpha]^{20}-40^{\circ}(c 0.0$ <br> HPLC Retention Time 24.0 min (standar | solid <br> , $\mathrm{CHCl}_{3}$ ) <br> gradient) |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Citrinin (6) was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 1.9 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-40^{\circ}\left(c 0.05, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$ and UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 214.3,252.2$, and 319.2 nm . Its molecular weight was established as $250 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ on the basis of the molecular ion peaks observed at $m / z 250.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $272.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$, and 522.8 $[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$in positive mode and at $m / z 249.0[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) in negative mode by ESI-MS analysis. Moreover, analysis of the fragmentation pattern indicated the presence of both a hydroxyl group, evident from the peak at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 233.0\left[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right]^{+}$, and a carboxylic group, demonstrated by the loss of $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ in the negative ionization mode ( $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z}$ 204.9). The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.6) exhibited one olefinic methine singlet at $\delta 5.54 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-1)$, two aliphatic methine units at $\delta 3.94 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 2.66 ppm (H-3 and H-4, respectively), and three methyl groups at $\delta 2.04 \mathrm{ppm}, 1.32$ ppm and 1.13 ppm (H-11, H-9, and H-10, respectively). The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR and MS data (Table 3.1.6) as well as the optical rotation was in excellent agreement with reported data for citrinin (Barber et al., 1987). This compound was first isolated from Penicillium citrinum and later reported from other sources like Penicillium or Aspergillus spp. (Barber et al., 1987).

Table 3.1.6 NMR data for citrinin (6)

| Position | $\mathbf{6} \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz | Reference $\mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> $($ Barber et al., 1987) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 | 5.54 s | 6.00 s |
| 3 | $3.94 \mathrm{q}(6.1)$ | $4.10 \mathrm{q}(6.5)$ |
| 4 | $2.66 \mathrm{q}(6.6)$ | $2.75 \mathrm{q}(6.5)$ |
| 9 | $1.32 \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{(6.6)}$ | $1.25 \mathrm{~d}(6.4)$ |
| 10 | $1.13 \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{(6.7)}$ | $1.18 \mathrm{~d}(6.8)$ |
| 11 | 2.04 s | 2.01 s |

### 3.1.7 Phenol A acid (compound 7, known)



Phenol A acid (7) was isolated as a colorless solid ( 43.2 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-50^{\circ}(c 3.0, \mathrm{EtOH})$ and it showed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 213.5,252.8$, and 314.9 nm . Its molecular weight was established as $240 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ according to the molecular ion peaks observed at $m / z 240.8[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $262.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$, and $502.8[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$in the positive mode and at $m / z 239.1[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak), and 478.8 $[2 \mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$in the negative mode by ESI-MS analysis. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR data (Table 3.1.7) in addition to analysis of COSY, DEPT, and HMQC spectra, revealed the presence of a penta substituted benzene ring, three hydroxyl groups, three methyl groups, and a carboxyl group. The connectivity and assignment of the carbon and proton resonances for 7, which led to the elucidation of the planar structure of this metabolite, were deduced from interpretation of the HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.8). Diagnostic HMBC correlations were observed from 2'- $\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ to $\mathrm{C}-2^{\prime}$, from $1^{\prime}-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ to $\mathrm{C}-1$ ' and $\mathrm{C}-4$, from $3-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ to $\mathrm{C}-2, \mathrm{C}-3$, and $\mathrm{C}-4$, from $\mathrm{H}-5$ to $\mathrm{C}-1, \mathrm{C}-3$, and $\mathrm{C}-6$, from $6-\mathrm{OH}$ to $\mathrm{C}-1, \mathrm{C}-5$, and $\mathrm{C}-6$, and from $2-\mathrm{OH}$ to $\mathrm{C}-1, \mathrm{C}-2$, and $\mathrm{C}-3$, confirmed the structure of phenol A acid (7). On the basis of all the foregoing evidence in addition to comparison with reported data (Brown et al., 1949; Roedel and Gerlach, 1995) 7 was identified as phenol A acid. Chemical shift differences observed upon comaring our NMR data with those published (Table 3.1.7) may be due to the use of different solvents or the difference in magnetic field strength of the NMR spectrometers used for recoding the data.

Table 3.1.7 NMR data for phenol A acid (7)

| Position | 7 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta$ (ppm), $J$ in Hz |  | Reference acetone- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> (Roedel and Gerlach, 1995) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ (270.2 MHz) | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ ( 67.9 MHz ) |
| 1 |  | 101.8 |  | 98.7 |
| $1-\mathrm{COOH}$ |  | 175.6 |  | 172.5 |
| 2 |  | 159.8 |  | 160.5 |
| $2-\mathrm{OH}$ | 14.72 |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 110.9 |  | 116.2 |
| $3-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 1.95 s | 10.5 | 2.11 s | 10.7 |
| 4 |  | 146.9 |  | 153.6 |
| 5 | 6.00 s | 102.7 | 6.50 s | 106.1 |
| 6 |  | 159.2 |  | 157.9 |
| 6-OH | 14.00 |  |  |  |
| 1 , | 2.91 q (6.4) | 41.7 | 3.08 q (6.6) | 43.3 |
| $1{ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 1.03 d (6.0) | 15.4 | 1.15 d (6.6) | 17.0 |
| 2 , | 3.69 q (6.3) | 70.0 | 3.90 q (6.6) | 76.4 |
| $2^{\prime}-\mathrm{OH}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $2^{\prime}-\mathrm{CH}_{3}$ | 0.94 d (6.3) | 19.6 | 1.13 d (6.6) | 20.9 |



Figure 3.1.8 HMBC correlations of phenol $A$ acid (7)

### 3.1.8 Fumiquinazoline $J$ (compound 8, known)



Fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{8})$ was obtained as a white amorphous powder ( 3.4 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-148^{\circ}(c 0.32, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it showed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 224.7, 271.6, and 294.0 nm . Its molecular formula was determined as $\mathrm{C}_{21} \mathrm{H}_{16} \mathrm{~N}_{4} \mathrm{O}_{2}$ with the molecular weight of $356 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ on the basis of the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 357.1[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $712.8[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$, and $734.9[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$in the positive mode, and at $m / z 355.2[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) in the negative mode by ESI-MS analysis, which was fully supported by the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR data (Table 3.1.8). In the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR, signals corresponding to eight aromatic methine protons, one aliphatic methine group, one methylene group, two exchangeable protons, and one methyl group were detected. The COSY spectrum of $\mathbf{8}$ revealed two ABCD spin systems with $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{H}-10$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 7.63,7.80,7.52,8.13 \mathrm{ppm}$, respectively) and $\mathrm{H}-21$ to $\mathrm{H}-24\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 7.35,7.11,6.98,7.39 \mathrm{ppm}\right.$, respectively), as well as correlations between the methine proton $\mathrm{H}-14\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.70 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ and the methylene protons $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.22 / 3.41\right.$ ppm) (Figure 3.1.9). The remaining proton signals were assigned to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-16\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.10\right.$ ppm), H-2 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 9.57 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), and H-19 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 11.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ ). The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectrum indicated the presence of 21 carbon atoms in the structure of $\mathbf{8}$. Together with the DEPT experiment and interpretation of the HMQC spectrum, the presence of ten quaternary carbon atoms were revealed and proton signals were assigned to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms. Accordingly, the following signals were identified: two amide carbonyl carbon atoms at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 169.5 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 159.7 ppm (C-1 and $\mathrm{C}-12$, respectively), two 1,2-disubstituted benzene rings ( $\mathrm{C}-6$ to $\mathrm{C}-11$ and $\mathrm{C}-20$ to $\mathrm{C}-25$ ), two quaternary sp ${ }^{2}$ carbons at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 154.7 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-4)$ and $134.4 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-18)$ bearing one nitrogen, one quaternary carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 54.9 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-3)$, and one quaternary $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$-carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 105.9 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-17)$, one methyl catbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 18.3 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-16), one methylene carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 25.6 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-15)$, and one methine carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 54.1 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-14)$.

The structure of $\mathbf{8}$ was deduced from inspection of its HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.10). The methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-16$ resonated as a singlet and share correlations with $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4$, and $\mathrm{C}-18$. Besides, the methylene protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15\right)$ coupling with the methine proton ( $\mathrm{H}-14$ ) further correlations with $\mathrm{C}-14, \mathrm{C}-17, \mathrm{C}-18$, and $\mathrm{C}-1$ were
observed in the HMBC spectrum, thus proving the linkage between $\mathrm{C}-17$ and $\mathrm{C}-14$ through the methylene group within the planar structure of 8. HMBC correlations of $\mathrm{H}-2$ with $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4$, and $\mathrm{C}-14$, and of $\mathrm{H}-19$ with $\mathrm{C}-17, \mathrm{C}-18, \mathrm{C}-20$, and $\mathrm{C}-25$, established the location of the exchangeable protons. Furthermore, HMBC correlations were observed from $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-9$ and $\mathrm{C}-11$, from $\mathrm{H}-8$ to $\mathrm{C}-6$ and $\mathrm{C}-10$, from $\mathrm{H}-9$ to $\mathrm{C}-7$ and $\mathrm{C}-11$, from $\mathrm{H}-10$ to $\mathrm{C}-6, \mathrm{C}-8$, and $\mathrm{C}-12$, from $\mathrm{H}-21$ to $\mathrm{C}-23$ and $\mathrm{C}-25$, from $\mathrm{H}-22$ to $\mathrm{C}-20$ and $\mathrm{C}-24$, from $\mathrm{H}-23$ to $\mathrm{C}-21$ and $\mathrm{C}-25$, and from $\mathrm{H}-24$ to $\mathrm{C}-20$ and $\mathrm{C}-22$. Therefore, based on the foregoing evidence in addition to comparison with reported data (Han et al., 2007; Heredia et al., 2002) the structure of $\mathbf{8}$ was identified as fumiquinazoline J .

Table 3.1.8 NMR data for fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{J}$ (8)

| Position | 8 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta$ (ppm), $J$ in Hz |  | Reference $\mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta$ (ppm), $J$ in Hz |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ <br> (Han et al., 2007) | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(63 \mathrm{MHz})$ <br> (Heredia et al., 2002) |
| 1 |  | 169.5 |  | 170.5 |
| 2 | 9.57 s |  | 7.38 br s |  |
| 3 |  | 54.9 |  | 54.6 |
| 4 |  | 154.7 |  | 153.1 |
| 5 |  |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 147.0 |  | 146.9 |
| 7 | 7.63 d (8.2) | 127.7 | 7.63 br d (8.2) | 127.7 |
| 8 | 7.80 t (7.4) | 135.2 | 7.72 ddd (8.2, 7.0, 1.0) | 134.4 |
| 9 | 7.52 t (7.7) | 127.6 | $7.47 \mathrm{dd}(8.0,7.0)$ | 127.5 |
| 10 | 8.13 d (7.9) | 126.7 | 8.27 dd (8.0, 1.0) | 126.8 |
| 11 |  | 120.5 |  | 120.6 |
| 12 |  | 159.7 |  | 160.1 |
| 13 |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | 5.70 br s | 54.1 | 6.10 br t | 54.4 |
| 15 | $3.41 \mathrm{dd}(17.4,2.6)$ | 25.6 | 3.56 dd (17.2, 2.6) | 25.8 |
|  | 3.22 dd (17.4, 4.6) |  | 3.42 dd (17.2, 4.7) |  |
| 16 | 2.10 s | 18.3 | 2.27 s | 17.9 |
| 17 |  | 105.9 |  | 107.5 |
| 18 |  | 134.4 |  | 132.2 |
| 19 | 11.2 br s |  | 8.13 br s |  |
| 20 |  | 135.3 |  | 134.5 |
| 21 | 7.35 d (8.2) | 112.1 | 7.33 br d (7.6) | 111.2 |
| 22 | 7.11 t (7.2) | 122.7 | 7.20 br t (7.6) | 123.4 |
| 23 | 6.98 t (7.8) | 119.8 | 7.10 br t (7.6) | 120.5 |
| 24 | 7.39 d (7.9) | 118.5 | 7.42 br d (7.6) | 118.3 |
| 25 |  | 127.4 |  | 127.3 |



Figure 3.1.9 COSY correlations of fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{J}$ (8)


Figure 3.1.10 HMBC correlations of fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{J}$ (8)

### 3.1.9 Methyl 3,4,5-trimethoxy-2-(2-(nicotinamido) benzamido) benzoate (compound 9, known)



Methyl 3, 4, 5-trimethoxy-2-(2-(nicotinamido) benzamido) benzoate (9) was isolated as a colorless solid ( 4.5 mg ). It showed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 218.1$ 260.1, and 310.0 nm . Its molecular formula was determined as $\mathrm{C}_{24} \mathrm{H}_{23} \mathrm{~N}_{3} \mathrm{O}_{7}$ with the molecular weight of $465 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ according to the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z}$ $465.7[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $930.9[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$, and $952.8[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$in the positive mode, and at $m / z 464.1[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) in the negative mode by ESI-MS analysis, which was fully supported by the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR data (Table 3.1.9). In the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum, signals appeared for nine aromatic methine protons, four methoxyl groups, and two exchangeable protons. The singlets at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 12.13 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 10.22 ppm were assigned to the NH-7' and NH-7 groups, respectively. The COSY spectrum revealed one ABCD four-proton spin system with H-3'to H-6' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 8.08,7.33,7.68,8.60 \mathrm{ppm}$, respectively), which suggested the presence of an $o$-disubstituted aromatic ring, and one ABCX spin system with H-4', H-5'', H-6', and H-2'' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 8.20,7.60,8.79,9.03$ ppm, respectively), the chemical shifts and spin-spin couplings of the latter implied the presence of a pyridine ring substituted with a carbonyl group at position 3", (Figure 3.1.11). Moreover, the remaining signals were assigned to $\mathrm{H}-5$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 7.28 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-9\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.88 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{OCH}_{3}-10\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.78 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{OCH}_{3}-11\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.90 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-13\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.65 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$. The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectrum revealed the presence of 24 carbon atoms. Moreover, the DEPT experiment revealed the presence of eleven quaternary carbon atoms and interpretation of the HMQC spectrum supported the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms. Accordingly, carbon signals were assigned as follow: two amide carbon atoms at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 162.9 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 168.2 ppm (C-8' and C-8), an ester carbonyl carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 165.4 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-12)$, nine methine $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$-carbon atoms at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 108.7,128.8,123.4,132.5,120.6,152.6,134.6,123.9$, and $147.9 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-3^{\prime}, \mathrm{C}-4\right.$ ', C-5', C-6', C-2", C-4", C-5", and C-6", respectively), four methoxyl carbon atoms at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 60.9,56.1,60.6$, and $51.9 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-9$, $\mathrm{C}-10, \mathrm{C}-11$, and $\mathrm{C}-13$, respectively), and eight quaternary $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$-carbon atoms at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}}$ 123.9, 145.5, 149.6, 151.5, 123.3, 138.8, 121.1, and $129.9 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-1, \mathrm{C}-2, \mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4$, C-6, C-1", C-2", and C-3", respectively).

The structure of 9 was deduced from inspection of its HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.12). Correlations obtained from $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-11$ to $\mathrm{C}-4$, from $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-10$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$, from $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-9$ to $\mathrm{C}-2$, and from $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-13$ to $\mathrm{C}-12$ suggested that methoxyl groups were placed on the respective carbons. The correlations of $\mathrm{H}-3^{\prime}$ to $\mathrm{C}-1^{\prime}, \mathrm{C}-5^{\prime}$, and $\mathrm{C}-8$, of $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$ and $\mathrm{C}-8$ revealed the linkage between $\mathrm{C}-1$ and $\mathrm{C}-2$ ' through an amide carbonyl group. The correlations of H-4'' to C-2'", C-6'", C-8', of H-7' to C-2', C-6' and C-8', of H-2' ${ }^{\prime}$ to $\mathrm{C}-3^{\prime}$ ' and C-4', and H-6' to $\mathrm{C}-1^{\prime}, \mathrm{C}-2^{\prime}, \mathrm{C}-4^{\prime}, \mathrm{C}-5^{\prime}$, and $\mathrm{C}-8$ confirmed the linkage between C-3'" and C-1' through an amide carbonyl group as well. Moreover, HMBC correlations were observed from H-5 to C-1, C-2, C-3, C-4, $\mathrm{C}-6$, and C-12. Consequently, on the basis of the foregoing evidence along with comparison with reported data (Arai et al., 1981) the structure of 9 was indicated as methyl 3,4,5-trimethoxy-2-(2-(nicotinamido) benzamido) benzoate.


Figure 3.1.11 COSY correlations of methyl 3,4,5-trimethoxy-2-(2-(nicotinamido) benzamido) benzoate (9)

Table 3.1.9 NMR data for methyl 3,4,5-trimethoxy-2-(2-(nicotinamido) benzamido) benzoate (9)

| Position | 9 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), \mathrm{J}$ in Hz |  | Reference acetone- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz (Arai et al., 1981) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz}){ }^{a}$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  | 123.9 |  |
| 2 |  | 145.5 |  |
| 3 |  | 149.6 |  |
| 4 |  | 151.5 |  |
| 5 | 7.28 s | 108.7 | 7.33 |
| 6 |  | 123.3 |  |
| 7 | 10.22 s |  | 9.55 |
| 8 |  | 168.2 |  |
| 9 | 3.88 s | 60.9 |  |
| 10 | 3.78 s | 56.1 |  |
| 11 | 3.90 s | 60.6 |  |
| 12 |  | 165.4 |  |
| 13 | 3.65 s | 51.9 |  |
| 1 , |  | 138.8 |  |
| 2 ' |  | 121.1 |  |
| 3 ' | 8.08 d (7.9) | 128.8 | 8.14 |
| 4 | 7.33 t (7.6) | 123.4 | 7.28 |
| 5 | 7.68 t (7.4) | 132.5 | 7.65 |
| 6 , | 8.60 d (8.2) | 120.6 | 8.85 |
| 7 | 12.13 s |  | 12.40 |
| 8 ' |  | 162.9 |  |
| 1', |  |  |  |
| $2^{\prime \prime}$ | 9.03 s | 152.6 | 9.17 |
| 3', |  | $129 . .9$ |  |
| 4 ', | 8.20 d (7.9) | 134.6 | 8.25 |
| $5^{\prime \prime}$ | 7.60 t (7.4) | 123.9 | 7.53 |
| $6^{\prime \prime}$ | 8.79 s | 147.9 | 8.75 |
| $7{ }^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  |  |



Figure 3.1.12 HMBC correlations of methyl 3,4,5-trimethoxy-2- (2-(nicotinamido) benzamido) benzoate (9)

### 3.1.10 Austalide $M$ (compound 10, new)

| Austalide M |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Biological Source | Aspergillus sp. |
| Sample Code | Fr.2.6.6.8 |
| Sample Amount | 6.0 mg |
| Molecular Formula | $\mathrm{C}_{27} \mathrm{H}_{36} \mathrm{O}_{9}$ |
| Molecular Weight | $504 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ |
| Solubility | MeOH |
| Physical Description | Brown amorphous solid |
| Optical Rotation | $[\alpha]^{20} \mathrm{D}-43^{\circ}(c 0.35, \mathrm{MeOH})$ |
| HPLC Retention Time | $29.7 \mathrm{~min}($ standard gradient $)$ |



Austalide $\mathrm{M}(\mathbf{1 0})$ was obtained as a brown amorphous solid ( 6.0 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-43^{\circ}(c 0.35, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and its molecular formula was established as $\mathrm{C}_{27} \mathrm{H}_{36} \mathrm{O}_{9}$ on the basis of the $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$signal at $m / z 505.2423$ in the HRESIMS. Its UV spectrum showed maxima at $\lambda_{\max }=223$ and 267 nm , which is characteristic of a substituted phthalide moiety (Horak et al., 1985). The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra (Table 3.1.10) indicated the presence of eight methyl groups, appearing as singlets in the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum, including three methoxy groups resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.40,3.50$ and 4.13 ppm $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-28,-31\right.$ and -29 , respectively), one aromatic methyl group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.08 \mathrm{ppm}$ $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-23\right)$, and four aliphatic methyl groups at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 0.90,1.33,1.48$ and 1.60 ppm $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27,-24,-26\right.$ and -25 , respectively). In addition, four methylene groups were observed, one of which was attributed to the oxygenated benzylic methylene group at $\mathrm{C}-1\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.23 \mathrm{ppm}, \mathrm{s}\right)$, as well as three methine groups, two of which are situated on oxygen-bearing carbon atoms as indicated by their chemical shift values at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 4.11$ and 4.44 ppm (H-13 and H-22, respectively). The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectrum of $\mathbf{1 0}$ (Table 3.1.10) confirmed the presence of 27 carbon atoms in the structure. Furthermore, the DEPT experiment revealed the presence of 12 quaternary carbon atoms. Analysis of the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum of $\mathbf{1 0}$ (Table 3.1.10, Figure 3.1.13) established the presence of three spin systems which included the correlations observed for the methylene protons resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.19$ and $2.32 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-12\right)$ to the deshielded methine group at C-13, and for the methine proton appearing at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.50 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-21)$ to the deshielded methine group at C-22. Moreover, the correlation between the protons of both methylene groups at $\mathrm{C}-18$ and $\mathrm{C}-19$ verified the third spin system. Interpretation of the HMQC spectrum allowed the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms.

The connection between the different substructures of $\mathbf{1 0}$ was determined by inspection of the HMBC spectrum (Table 3.1.10, Figure 3.1.14). The tertiary methyl group $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 19.2\right)$ correlated with the quaternary carbon $\mathrm{C}-20\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 39.8\right), \mathrm{CH}_{2}-19$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 31.4$ ), $\mathrm{CH}-21\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 43.6\right)$, and an oxygenated quaternary carbon resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 87.7$, which was assigned to $\mathrm{C}-14$. The $\mathrm{C}-14$ signal further correlated with the methyl
groups $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-25$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-26$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 26.5$ and 29.2, respectively), which were found to constitute a geminal dimethyl moiety, as indicated by their correlation with each other as well as with an oxygenated quaternary carbon resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 86.1$ (C-15). Furthermore, the methoxy group $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-28\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 49.0\right)$ correlated with a highly deshielded quaternary carbon resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 120.3$, which was assigned to $\mathrm{C}-17$, in agreement with reported chemical shifts observed for the carbon atom of ortho esters (Horak et al., 1985). H-21 correlated with C-20, C-22, $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27$, and an aromatic quaternary carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 119.4$ (C-6). The location of $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-31$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 56.4$ ) was established based on its correlation with C-22. H-22 correlated with C-20, C-31, C-6, as well as with three oxygenated quaternary carbons, two aromatic ones overlapping at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 158.9$, and an aliphatic one at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 77.3$, which was assigned to $\mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-7$ and $\mathrm{C}-11$, respectively. Correlations of the tertiary methyl group $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 28.8$ ) with $\mathrm{C}-11$, $\mathrm{C}-21$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-12\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 43.8\right)$ provided the remaining connections of the spin systems previously observed in the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum (Table 3.1.10, Figure 3.1.13). The methoxy group $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-29\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 63.3\right)$ was attached to $\mathrm{C}-5$, as indicated by the respective HMBC correlation. The aromatic $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-23\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 10.7\right)$ correlated to the quaternary aromatic carbons C-7, C-8 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 116.2$ ), and C-9 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 149.3$ ), and hence, was placed at $\mathrm{C}-8$. The remaining ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ resonances at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 108.9$ and 171.5 were attributed to the remaining $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ carbon atom of the completely substituted benzene ring (C-4) and the carbonyl carbon C-3, respectively. This was further confirmed by correlation of C-9 with the oxygenated benzylic methylene group $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-1$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 70.0$ ), which, in turn, correlated with C-4 and C-3.

The relative configuration of $\mathbf{1 0}$ was deduced from analysis of the ROESY spectrum (Table 3.1.10). Correlations were observed for $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$ to $\mathrm{H}-21$ indicating that rings C and D are cis-fused. This was further confirmed by $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-31$ correlations to $\mathrm{H}-21$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}$-24. The correlation observed between $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27$ and $\mathrm{H}-22$, but not to $\mathrm{H}-21$, indicated a trans relationship between $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27 . \mathrm{CH}_{3}-25$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27$, as well as $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-26$ and $\mathrm{H}-13$, are cis-oriented based on the correlations observed between them. Consequently, ring C is cis-fused with ring B and trans-fused with the
seven-membered ring. Thus, the relative stereochemistry of $\mathbf{1 0}$ was established as $\left(11 S^{*}, 13 R^{*}, 14 R^{*}, 20 R^{*}, 21 S^{*}, 22 S^{*}\right)$. For the determination of the absolute configuration, the solution ECD spectrum of $\mathbf{1 0}$ was recorded in acetonitrile and TDDFT ECD calculation of solution conformers was carried out. The experimental ECD spectrum is dominated by the strong negative Cotton effect (CE) at $217 \mathrm{~nm}(\Delta \varepsilon=$ 16.00) accompanied by a positive CE at $196 \mathrm{~nm}(\Delta \varepsilon=5.61)$ and three weaker transitions at 262, 295 and 301 nm (Figure 3.1.15). The MMFF conformational search followed by B3LYP/6-31G (d) DFT reoptimization afforded two conformational isomers (conformer A and B in Figure 3.1.16 with $77.2 \%$ and $19.5 \%$ populations, respectively) above $3 \%$ population. The two conformers showed minor differences in the orientations of methoxy and hydroxy groups and the conformation of the fused phtalide moiety. In both conformers, the benzylic 22-OMe group adopted axial orientation to relieve the peri interaction with the 5-OMe group, and the pyran ring of the chroman chromophore had $M$ helicity. The weak coupling between $\mathrm{H}-22$ and the contiguous H-21, indicating a torsion angle close to $90^{\circ}$ between these vicinal protons (Karplus, 1963), corroborated the axial orientation of the 22-OMe group. In spite of their similarities, however, the computed ECD spectra of the two conformers were significantly different (Figure 3.1.17 and Figure 3.1.18), i.e. the major conformer reproduced well the two intense high-energy CEs, whereas the minor one seems responsible for the negative CE at 262 nm . The different ECDs of the conformers were attributed to the different orientation of the C-3 carbonyl relatively to the benzene ring ( $\omega_{\mathrm{O} 3, \mathrm{C} 3, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}$ ). The torsional angle $\omega_{\mathrm{O} 3, \mathrm{C} 3, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C} 9}$ was found to be $-178.8^{\circ}$ for the major conformer and $+174.3^{\circ}$ for the minor one. The Boltzman-weighted ECD spectra of the two conformers reproduced well the two strong CEs of the high-energy region, which allowed determining the absolute configuration of $\mathbf{1 0}$ as $(-)-(11 S, 13 R$, $14 R, 20 R, 21 S, 22 S)$. However, the agreement was quite poor for the weak transitions above 250 nm , which could be improved by setting the ratio of the two conformers to 1:1 (Figure 3.1.19). The CD calculation revealed that the $\omega_{\mathrm{O} 3, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}$ torsional angle and ratio of the conformers, which are determined by the central chirality elements, are decisive for the observed CEs; this makes the application of the chroman helicity
rule (Antus et al., 2001) not relevant. Attempts to determine the absolute configuration of 10 by a modified Mosher procedure (Ohtani, et al., 1991; Su et al., 2002) proved inconclusive. The observed chemical shift differences ( 500 MHz , $\mathrm{C}_{5} \mathrm{D}_{5} \mathrm{~N}$ ) between the ( $2, S$ )-2'-methoxy-2'-trifluoromethyl-2'- phenylacetic acid (MTPA) ester and its ( $2^{\prime} R$ )-MTPA diastereomer were too small to allow unambiguous assignment (Table 3.1.11). A plausible explanation may be the presence of multiple conformers for MPTA esters of $\mathbf{1 0}$, which may be due to the axial orientation of the sterically hindered 13-OH in $\mathbf{1 0}$.

The absolute configuration of $\mathbf{1 0}$ corroborates those determined for austalides A and B by X-ray analysis and enantioselective synthesis, respectively, and represent the first austalide with a benzylic C-22 chirality center (Dillen et al., 1989; Paquette et al, 1994). Thus, 10 was identified as the 22 - OMe derivative of austalide B and named austalide M . Because the austalide skeleton is derived from 6-[(2E, $6 E)$-farnesyl]-5, 7-dihydroxy-4-methyl-phthalide, which is biosynthesized through a mixed polyketide-terpenoid pathway with subsequent cyclization and oxidative modification (De Jesus et al., 1983, 1987; Dillen et al., 1989), the C-22 benzylic substituent must be introduced after the cyclization.


Figure 3.1.13 COSY correlations of austalide M(10)

Table 3.1.10 NMR data for austalide M (10)

| Position | $10 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC | ROESY |
| 1 | 5.23 s | 70.0 |  | 3,4,9 |  |
| 3 |  | 171.5 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 108.9 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 158.9 |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 119.4 |  |  |  |
| 7 |  | 158.9 |  |  |  |
| 8 |  | 116.2 |  |  |  |
| 9 |  | 149.3 |  |  |  |
| 11 |  | 77.3 |  |  |  |
| 12 | $\begin{aligned} & 2.19 \mathrm{dd}(4.3,15.6) \\ & 2.32 \mathrm{dd}(2.2,15.7) \end{aligned}$ | 43.8 | 13 |  |  |
| 13 | $4.11 \mathrm{dd}(2.3,4.3)$ | 69.9 | 12 |  | 26 |
| 14 |  | 87.7 |  |  |  |
| 15 |  | 86.1 |  |  |  |
| 17 |  | 120.3 |  |  |  |
| 18 | $\begin{aligned} & 1.71 \operatorname{brd}(8.6) \\ & 1.98 \operatorname{brd}(8.4) \end{aligned}$ | 32.0 | 19 |  |  |
| 19 | $\begin{aligned} & 1.98 \mathrm{brd}(8.4) \\ & 2.06 \mathrm{~m} \end{aligned}$ | 31.4 | 18 |  |  |
| 20 |  | 39.8 |  |  |  |
| 21 | 2.50 brs | 43.6 | 22 | 6, 20, 22, 27 | 24 |
| 22 | 4.44 brs | 72.2 | 21 | 5, 6, 7, 11, 20, 31 | 27 |
| 23 | 2.08 s | 10.7 |  | 7,8,9 |  |
| 24 | 1.33 s | 28.8 |  | 11, 12, 21 | 21 |
| 25 | 1.60 s | 26.5 |  | 14, 15, 26 | 27 |
| 26 | 1.48 s | 29.2 |  | 14, 15, 25 |  |
| 27 | 0.90 s | 19.2 |  | 14, 19, 20, 21 | 25, 22 |
| 28 | 3.40 s | 49.0 |  | 17 |  |
| 29 | 4.13 s | 63.3 |  | 5 |  |
| 31 | 3.50 s | 56.4 |  | 22 |  |



Figure 3.1.14 HMBC correlations of austalide M (10)

(10)


Figure 3.1.15 Experimental ECD spectrum of 10 in acetonitrile compared with the Boltzmann-weighted PBE0/TZVP spectrum calculated for the two lowest-energy conformers of the (11S,13R,14R,20R,21S,22S)-enantiomer



Figure 3.1.16 DFT optimized geometries of the two lowest-energy conformers of $(11 S, 13 R, 14 R, 20 R, 21 S, 22 S)-10$ with torsional angle $\omega_{03, \mathrm{C} 3, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}=\mathbf{- 1 7 8 . 8 ^ { \circ }}$ and $+174.3^{\circ}$, respectively


Figure 3.1.17 Experimental ECD spectrum of 10 compared with the PBE0/TZVP spectrum of the lowest-energy ( $11 S, 13 R, 14 R, 20 R, 21 S, 22 S$ )-conformer (conformer A, 77.2\% population). Bars represent rotational strengths (R)


Figure 3.1.18 Experimental ECD spectrum of 10 compared with the PBE0/TZVP spectrum of (11S,13R,14R,20R,21S,22S)-conformer B (19.5\% population). Bars represent rotational strengths ( $\mathbf{R}$ )


Figure 3.1.19 Experimental ECD spectrum of 10 compared with the PBE0/TZVP spectrum of the two lowest-energy ( $11 S, 13 R, 14 R, 20 R, 21 S, 22 S$ )-conformers supposing their 1:1 ratio

Table 3.1.11 Chemical shift difference between the ( $S$ )- and ( $R$ )-MTPA esters of compound 10

| Position | Chemical shift $\left(\boldsymbol{\delta}_{\mathbf{H}}\right.$, in $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{5}} \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{5}} \mathbf{N}$, at $\left.\mathbf{5 0 0} \mathbf{~ M H z}\right)$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\mathbf{1 0}$ | $(\boldsymbol{S})$-MTPA ester | $\boldsymbol{( R})$-MTPA ester | $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{S} \boldsymbol{-} \boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{R}$ |
| 12 | 2.3959 | 2.3913 | 2.2914 | -0.0001 |
|  | 2.5938 | 2.5985 | 2.5983 | 0.0002 |
|  | 4.4496 | 4.4558 | 4.4557 | 0.0001 |
| 18 | 2.2054 | 2.0221 | 2.0223 | -0.0002 |
|  | 2.1326 | 2.1276 | 2.1274 | 0.0002 |
| 19 | 2.1530 | 2.1486 | 2.1487 | -0.0001 |
|  | 2.2984 | 2.2936 | 2.2937 | -0.0001 |
| 21 | 2.7423 | 2.7379 | 2.7380 | -0.0001 |
| 22 | 4.6709 | 4.6664 | 4.6666 | -0.0002 |
| 23 | 1.9793 | 1.9783 | 1.9781 | 0.0002 |
| 24 | 1.5375 | 1.5322 | 1.5324 | -0.0002 |
| 25 | 1.8343 | 1.8302 | 1.8303 | -0.0001 |
| 27 | 1.2875 | 1.2831 | 1.2833 | -0.0002 |
| 28 | 3.5370 | 3.5322 | 3.5323 | -0.0001 |
| 29 | 4.3979 | 4.3921 | 4.3923 | -0.0002 |
| 31 | 3.6170 | 3.6216 | 3.6115 | 0.0101 |

### 3.1.11 Austalide $\mathbf{N}$ (compound 11, new)

| Austalide N |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Biological Source | Aspergillus sp. |
| Sample Code | Fr.2.6.6.6 |
| Sample Amount | 7.5 mg |
| Molecular Formula | $\mathrm{C}_{28} \mathrm{H}_{36} \mathrm{O}_{10}$ |
| Molecular Weight | $532 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ |
| Solubility | MeOH |
| Physical Description | Brown amorphous solid |
| Optical Rotation | $[\alpha]^{20}-15^{\circ}(c 0.40, \mathrm{MeOH})$ |
| HPLC Retention Time | 28.7 min $($ standard gradient $)$ |






Austalide $\mathrm{N}(\mathbf{1 1})$ was obtained as a brown amorphous solid $(7.5 \mathrm{mg})$ with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-15^{\circ}(c 0.40, \mathrm{MeOH})$. Similar to $\mathbf{1 0}$, the UV spectrum of $\mathbf{1 1}$ showed maxima at $\lambda_{\text {max }}=223.9$ and 266.9 nm . Compound $\mathbf{1 1}$ displayed similar spectroscopic data to those of $\mathbf{1 0}$, suggesting that both compounds have the same basic molecular framework. The HRESIMS indicated the molecular formula $\mathrm{C}_{28} \mathrm{H}_{36} \mathrm{O}_{10}$, in accordance with the $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$signal at $m / z 533.2388$, thus revealing a 28 amu increase in the molecular weight compared with $\mathbf{1 0} .{ }^{1} \mathrm{H},{ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT spectra of $\mathbf{1 1}$ were identical with those of $\mathbf{1 0}$ (Table 3.1.12) except for the replacement of the benzylic $\mathrm{C}-2$ methoxyl group by a methyl ester group resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.07 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 21.3$ $\mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-32\right)$. The respective ester carbonyl carbon was detected at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 171.6 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-31). This was further confirmed by the observed downfield chemical shift of the $\mathrm{H}-22$ signal ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.21$ ) caused by the acetyl substituent. Inspection of COSY, HMQC and HMBC spectra (Table 3.1.12, Figure 3.1.20 and Figure 3.1.21) revealed that, apart from the methyl ester function at $\mathrm{C}-22$, the two compounds were identical. Based on the ROESY spectrum, 11 has ( $\left.11 S^{*}, 13 R^{*}, 14 R^{*}, 20 R^{*}, 21 S^{*}, 22 S^{*}\right)$ relative configuration in accordance with the corresponding chirality centers of $\mathbf{1 0}$. Accordingly, compound $\mathbf{1 1}$ was finally characterized as a new natural product and was named austalide N .


Figure 3.1.20 COSY correlations of austalide $\mathbf{N}$ (11)

Table 3.1.12 NMR data for austalide $\mathbf{N}$ (11)

| Position | $11 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  | ROESY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |  |
| 1 | 5.25 s | 69.9 |  | 3,9 |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 171.2 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 108.5 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 158.4 |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 116.0 |  |  |  |
| 7 |  | 159.6 |  |  |  |
| 8 |  | 116.4 |  |  |  |
| 9 |  | 150.1 |  |  |  |
| 10 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 |  | 77.1 |  |  |  |
| 12 | $2.17 \mathrm{dd}(4.3,15.6)$ | 43.7 | 13 |  |  |
|  | 2.33 dd (1.7, 15.7) |  |  |  |  |
| 13 | 4.08 dd (2.1, 4.0) | 69.6 | 12 |  | 26 |
| 14 |  | 87.6 |  |  |  |
| 15 |  | 85.1 |  |  |  |
| 16 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17 |  | 120.6 |  |  |  |
| 18 | 1.57 m | 32.0 | 19 |  |  |
|  | $1.83 \mathrm{dt}(5.2,12.9)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 19 | $1.93 \mathrm{dt}(6.1,12.6)$ | 31.6 | 18 |  |  |
|  | $2.45 \mathrm{dd}(4.5,14.2)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 20 |  | 40.9 |  |  |  |
| 21 | 2.40 brs | 46.3 | 22 | 6, 20, 22, 27 | 24 |
| 22 | 6.21 brs | 65.3 | 21 | 5, 6, 7, 11, 20, 21, 31 | 27 |
| 23 | 2.10 s | 10.6 |  | 6, 7, 8, 9 |  |
| 24 | 1.36 s | 28.8 |  | 11, 12, 14, 21 | 21 |
| 25 | 1.60 s | 26.4 |  | 14, 15, 26 | 27 |
| 26 | 1.46 s | 29.2 |  | 14, 15, 25 |  |
| 27 | 0.98 s | 19.2 |  | 14, 19, 20, 21 | 22, 25 |
| 28 | 3.36 s | 50.1 |  | 17 |  |
| 29 | 4.06 s | 63.1 |  | 5 |  |
| 30 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 31 |  | 171.6 |  |  |  |
| 32 | 2.07 s | 21.3 |  | 6,31 |  |



Figure 3.1.21 HMBC correlations of austalide $\mathbf{N}$ (11)

### 3.1.12 Austalide $O$ (compound 12, new)



Austalide $\mathrm{O}(\mathbf{1 2})$ was obtained as a brown amorphous solid ( 4.0 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-41^{\circ}(c 0.15, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and its UV spectrum showed maxima at $\lambda_{\max }=222.8$ and 268.4 nm . The molecular formula of $\mathbf{1 2}$ was determined as $\mathrm{C}_{26} \mathrm{H}_{34} \mathrm{O}_{9}$, from the prominent signal at $m / z$ 491.2293, corresponding to $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$in the HRMS (ESI), indicating a loss of 14 amu compared with $\mathbf{1 0}$. The physicochemical and NMR data of $\mathbf{1 2}$ were almost identical to those of $\mathbf{1 0}$, apart from the disappearance of the C-22 methoxy group in the NMR spectra of $\mathbf{1 2}$ (Table 3.1.13). This suggested that $\mathbf{1 2}$ possessed the same skeleton as $\mathbf{1 0}$ but with a benzylic $22-\mathrm{OH}$ group instead of the $22-\mathrm{OCH}_{3}$, which accounts for the 14 amu molecular weight difference. Accordingly, slight downfield and large upfield shifts were observed for $\mathrm{H}-22$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 4.97 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and $\mathrm{C}-22\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 62.0 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, respectively, in the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra of $\mathbf{1 2}$. As with 11, further confirmation of the planar structure was achieved by analysis of the DEPT, COSY, HMQC, and HMBC spectra (Table 3.1.13). Moreover, the ROESY spectrum indicated a $\left(11 S^{*}, 13 R^{*}, 14 R^{*}, 20 R^{*}, 21 S^{*}, 22 S^{*}\right)$ relative configuration, in agreement with those of $\mathbf{1 0}$ and 11. Therefore, compound $\mathbf{1 2}$ was identified as a new natural product and was named austalide O . When compound $\mathbf{1 2}$ was kept in ethyl acetate for more than 48 hours, no formation of the acetate derivative $\mathbf{1 1}$ was detected. Thus, we conclude that compound $\mathbf{1 1}$ is a genuine natural product and not an artefact resulting from acetylation of $\mathbf{1 2}$.

Table 3.1.13 NMR data for austalide $\mathbf{O}$ (12)

| Position | $12 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  | ROESY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |  |
| 1 | 5.23 s | 69.9 |  | 3, 9 |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 172.0 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 108.5 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 158.5 |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 116.0 |  |  |  |
| 7 |  | 159.2 |  |  |  |
| 8 |  | 116.1 |  |  |  |
| 9 |  | 149.2 |  |  |  |
| 10 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 |  | 77.1 |  |  |  |
| 12 | $2.20 \mathrm{dd}(4.4,15.6)$ | 43.8 | 13 |  |  |
|  | 2.32 dd (2.1, 15.7) |  |  |  |  |
| 13 | 4.09 dd (2.3, 4.3) | 70.0 | 12 |  | 26 |
| 14 |  | 87.6 |  |  |  |
| 15 |  | 86.2 |  |  |  |
| 16 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17 |  | 120.5 |  |  |  |
| 18 | 1.64 m | 31.8 | 19 |  |  |
|  | 1.96 m |  |  |  |  |
| 19 | 1.96 m | 31.8 | 18 |  |  |
|  | 2.13 m |  |  |  |  |
| 20 |  | 40.1 |  |  |  |
| 21 | 2.48 brs | 48.0 |  | 20,22,27 | 24 |
| 22 | 4.97 brs | 62.0 |  | 11 | 27 |
| 23 | 2.09 s | 10.8 |  | 7, 8, 9 |  |
| 24 | 1.37 s | 29.2 |  | 11,12, 21 | 21 |
| 25 | 1.60 s | 26.4 |  | 14,15, 26 | 27 |
| 26 | 1.47 s | 29.0 |  | 14,15, 25 |  |
| 27 | 0.92 s | 19.0 |  | 14,19, 20, 21 | 25, 22 |
| 28 | 3.38 s | 50.0 |  | 17 |  |
| 29 | 4.16 s | 62.2 |  | 5 |  |

### 3.1.13 Austalide $P$ (compound 13, new)

| Austalide P |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Biological Source Aspergillus sp. <br> Sample Code Fr.2.6.5.2 <br> Sample Amount 4.2 mg <br> Molecular Formula $\mathrm{C}_{26} \mathrm{H}_{36} \mathrm{O}_{7}$ <br> Molecular Weight $460 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ <br> Solubility MeOH <br> Physical Description Brown amorphous <br> Optical Rotation $[\alpha]^{20} \mathrm{D}-35^{\circ}(c 0.15$ <br> HPLC Retention Time 30.6 min (standard | solid $\mathrm{MeOH})$ gradient) |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

Austalide P (13) was obtained as a brown amorphous solid (4.2 mg) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-35^{\circ}(c 0.15, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and its UV spectrum showed maxima at $\lambda_{\max }=221.7$ and 270.1 nm . Compound $\mathbf{1 3}$ was determined from the HRMS (ESI) to have the molecular formula $\mathrm{C}_{26} \mathrm{H}_{36} \mathrm{O}_{7}$, with a prominent peak at $m / z 483.2349[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$. Its physical characteristics were comparable to those of $\mathbf{1 0}$, suggesting the same basic molecular framework. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra of $\mathbf{1 3}$ (Table 3.1.14) indicated the presence of seven methyl groups, appearing as singlets in the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum, including two methoxy groups resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.68 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $4.04 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-28\right.$ and -29 , respectively), one aromatic methyl group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.08 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-23\right)$, and four aliphatic methyl groups at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 0.70,1.20,1.19$ and $1.27 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27,-24,-25\right.$ and -26 , respectively). In addition, six methylene groups were observed, one of which was attributed to the oxygenated benzylic methylene group at $\mathrm{C}-1\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.21 \mathrm{ppm}\right.$, s), as well as two methine groups. The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.14) confirmed the presence of 26 carbon atoms in the structure. Furthermore, the DEPT experiment revealed the presence of 11 quaternary carbon atoms. Analysis of the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum of $\mathbf{1 3}$ (Table 3.1.14, Figure 3.1.22) established the presence of three spin systems which included the fragment $\mathrm{CH}_{2}(12) \mathrm{CH}_{2}(13) \mathrm{CH}(14)$ based on the correlations observed between the corresponding protons resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.61$ $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-12\right), 1.52$ and $1.83\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-13\right)$, as well as $2.14(\mathrm{H}-14) \mathrm{ppm}$, thus indicating the loss of the hydroxyl group substituent at C-13 present in 10-12 as well as of the oxo-bridge connecting C-14 to C-17. Moreover, the correlations observed between the protons of the methylene groups at $\mathrm{C}-18\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.32\right.$ and 2.60 ppm$)$ and $\mathrm{C}-19\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.80\right.$ and 2.42 ppm ), and between the methylene protons appearing at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.78$ and 3.03 ppm $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-22\right)$ and the methine group at $\mathrm{C}-21\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.70 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ verified the remaining two spin systems. Proton signals were assigned to their corresponding carbon atoms by analysis of the HMQC spectrum.

The structural units identified in $\mathbf{1 3}$ were connected on the basis of correlations observed in the HMBC spectrum (Table 3.1.14, Figure 3.1.23). The tertiary methyl group $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 19.5\right)$ correlated with the quaternary carbon $\mathrm{C}-20\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 41.6\right), \mathrm{CH}_{2}-19$
( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 34.9$ ), $\mathrm{CH}-21$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 41.2$ ), and $\mathrm{CH}-14$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 40.1$ ). C-14 further correlated with the methyl groups $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-25$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-26$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 28.0$ and 33.2, respectively), which were found to constitute a geminal dimethyl moiety, as indicated by their correlation with each other as well as with an oxygenated quaternary carbon resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 75.7$ (C-15). The upfield chemical shift of C -15 in $\mathbf{1 3}$ compared to that observed in $\mathbf{1 0 - 1 2}$ and indicated its location within a side chain and not as part of a seven-membered ring as in 10-12. Furthermore, the methoxy group $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-28\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 52.0\right)$ correlated with an ester carbonyl carbon resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 177.7$ which was assigned to C-17. H-21 correlated with $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-19, \mathrm{C}-20, \mathrm{CH}_{3}-27, \mathrm{CH}_{2}-22\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 18.5\right.$ ), and C-6 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 118.0$ ). $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-22$ correlated with $\mathrm{C}-20, \mathrm{CH}-21, \mathrm{C}-6$, as well as with the oxygenated quaternary carbons C-5 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 158.1$ ), C-7 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 160.0$ ) and C-11 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 78.3$ ). Correlations of the tertiary methyl group $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 27.9$ ) with $\mathrm{C}-11, \mathrm{C}-21$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-12$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 40.2$ ) provided the remaining connections of the spin systems previously observed in the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum. The methoxy group $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-29\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 62.1\right)$ was attached to $\mathrm{C}-5$ as indicated by the respective HMBC correlation. The aromatic $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-23\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 10.6\right)$ correlated to the quaternary aromatic carbons $\mathrm{C}-7, \mathrm{C}-8\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 117.3\right)$, and $\mathrm{C}-9$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 148.0$ ), and hence, was placed at $\mathrm{C}-8$. The remaining ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ resonances at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 108.0$ and 172.1 were attributed to C-4 and C-3, respectively. This was further confirmed by the observed correlation of C-9 with $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-1$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 69.8$ ), which, in turn, correlated with $\mathrm{C}-8, \mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-3$. Accordingly, $\mathbf{1 3}$ shows familiar features to 10-12, except for that the seven-membered ring of 10-12 was opened at the oxo-bridges, giving rise to two side chains located at C-20 and C-14.

The relative configuration of $\mathbf{1 3}$ was established by interpretation of the ROESY spectrum. By analogy with $\mathbf{1 0}, \mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$ correlated with $\mathrm{H}-21$ thus denoting cis-fusion of rings C and D . This was further confirmed by correlations observed for $\mathrm{H}-21$ with $\mathrm{H}-14$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$, indicating the cis oriention of $\mathrm{H}-21$ and $\mathrm{H}-14$. A trans relationship between $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27$ was assumed from the absence of correlations between $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27$ and $\mathrm{H}-14, \mathrm{H}-21$ or $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$. Accordingly, the relative stereochemistry of $\mathbf{1 3}$ was determined as $\left(11 S^{*}, 14 R^{*}, 20 S^{*}, 21 R^{*}\right)$. Compound 13 lacked the benzylic
chirality center and its ECD spectrum was completely different from that of $\mathbf{1 0}$, which implied that ECD calculation was required for the configurational assignment. The ECD spectrum of $\mathbf{1 3}$ showed four main ECD bands at 267, 228, 212 and 194 nm with alternating negative, positive, negative, positive CEs, respectively (Figure 3.1.24). The MMFF conformational search followed by B3LYP/6-31G(d) DFT reoptimization of 31 conformers afforded four conformational isomers with $40.0 \%, 23,5 \%, 16.8 \%$ and $15.1 \%$ populations above $2 \%$ populations. Besides slightly different orientations of the side-chains, the value of the torsional angle $\omega_{03, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}$ was identified as the main difference among the conformers (Figure 3.1.25). In contrast to the situation for austalide M (10), the two lowest-energy conformers had positive torsional angle $\omega_{\mathrm{O} 3, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}$, whereas the two higher-energy conformers had negative angles. In accordance, conformers A and B gave nearly identical calculated ECDs, which was different from those of conformer C and D , which were similar. The Boltzmann-weighted ECD spectra of $(11 S, 14 R, 20 S, 21 R)$ - $\mathbf{1 3}$ computed with TZVP basis set and three different functionals (B3LYP, BH\&HLYP, PBE0) reproduced well the experimental ECD spectrum, with PBE0 giving the best agreement (Figure 3.1.25). Thus, the absolute configuration of $\mathbf{1 3}$ was unambiguously determined as $(-)-(11 S, 14 R, 20 S, 21 R)$ and it was named as austalide P. The ECD calculation also revealed that the sign of the torsional angle $\omega_{03, \mathrm{C3}, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}$, i.e., the conformation of the benzene-fused pthalide ring, is decisive for the ECD parameters. The major conformers of austalide $M(10)$ and $P(13)$ had oppositely signed torsional angles $\omega_{03, C 3, C 4, C 9}$, which resulted in markedly different ECD spectra. The torsional angle $\omega_{\mathrm{O} 3, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}$ of the conformers and their populations are clearly determined by the central chirality elements and the benzylic C-22 chirality center has obviously a determining role. The results of the ECD calculation also explain the fact that the ECD spectra (Figure 3.1.26) of austalide $\mathrm{N}(\mathbf{1 1 )}$ and $\mathrm{O}(\mathbf{1 2})$ were different from that of austalide $\mathrm{M}(\mathbf{1 0 )}$, although they are homochiral and they differ only in the nature of the benzylic C-22 substituent. The nature of the benzylic C-22 substituent (methoxy, acetoxy or hydroxyl) has an effect on the torsional angle $\omega_{\mathrm{O3}, \mathrm{C} 3, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}$ of the conformers and their populations, which in turn determines the ECD parameters. The examples of
austalides studied here suggest that a general procedure to determined absolute configuration for structurally related compounds by simple comparison of their ECD spectra cannot be used safely in the presence of a chirally perturbed benzene-fused phtalide chromophore. Austalide P is similar to the reported austalide G and H , in which the oxygen-bridged bicyclic $\mathrm{A} / \mathrm{B}$ rings are also opened, but it lacks the $\mathrm{C}-13$ chiral center (Horak et al., 1985).


Figure 3.1.22 COSY correlations of austalide $\mathbf{P}$ (13)

Table 3.1.14 NMR data for austalide $P$ (13)

| Position | $13 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  | ROESY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |  |
| 1 | 5.21 s | 69.8 |  | 3, 4, 8,9 |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 172.1 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 108.0 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 158.1 |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 118.0 |  |  |  |
| 7 |  | 160.0 |  |  |  |
| 8 |  | 117.3 |  |  |  |
| 9 |  | 148.0 |  |  |  |
| 10 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 |  | 78.3 |  |  |  |
| 12 | $1.61 \mathrm{dt}(3.8,14.3)$ | 40.2 | 13 |  |  |
| 13 | 1.52 t (10.7) | 22.4 | 12,14 | 15, 20, 25, 26, 27 |  |
|  | 1.83 m |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | 2.14 dd (3.4, 13.7) | 40.1 | 13 |  | 21 |
| 15 |  | 75.7 |  |  |  |
| $15-\mathrm{OH}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 16 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17 |  | 177.7 |  |  |  |
| 18 | $2.32 \mathrm{~m}, 2.60 \mathrm{~m}$ | 30.0 | 19 | 17,19 |  |
| 19 | $1.80 \mathrm{~m}, 2.42 \mathrm{~m}$ | 34.9 | 18 | 14, 17, 18, 20, 21 |  |
| 20 |  | 41.6 |  |  |  |
| 21 | 1.70 d (8.1) | 41.2 | 22 | 6, 19, 20, 22, 27, | 24,14 |
| 22 | $\begin{aligned} & 2.78 \mathrm{dd}(8.1,18.5) \\ & 3.03 \mathrm{~d}(18.6) \end{aligned}$ | 18.5 | 21 | 5, 6, 7, 11, 2021 |  |
| 23 | 2.08 s | 10.6 |  | 7, 8, 9 |  |
| 24 | 1.20 s | 27.9 |  | 11, 12, 21 | 21 |
| 25 | 1.19 s | 28.0 |  | 14, 15, 26 |  |
| 26 | 1.27 s | 33.2 |  | 15, 14, 25 |  |
| 27 | 0.70 s | 19.5 |  | 14, 19, 20, 21, |  |
| 28 | 3.68 s | 52.0 |  | 17 |  |
| 29 | 4.04 s | 62.1 |  | 5 |  |



Figure 3.1.23 HMBC correlations of austalide $\mathbf{P}$ (13)


Figure 3.1.24. Experimental ECD spectrum of 13 in acetonitrile compared with the Boltzmann-weighted PBE0/TZVP spectrum calculated for the four lowest-energy conformers with (11S,14R,20S,21R) absolute configuration. Bars represent rotational strengths $(R)$ of the lowest-energy conformer (40.0\%)





Figure 3.1.25 DFT optimized geometries and populations of the four lowest-energy conformers of $(11 S, 14 R, 20 S, 21 R)-13$ with torsional angle $\omega_{03, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C} 4, \mathrm{C} 9}+174.61^{\circ}, \mathbf{+ 1 7 4 . 9 2}^{\circ}, \mathbf{- 1 7 6 . 2 8}{ }^{\circ}$ and $\mathbf{- 1 7 5 . 9 4}{ }^{\circ}$, respectively


Figure 3.1.26 Experimental ECD spectra of austalide M(10, red), austalide $\mathbf{N}$ (11, green), austalide $O$ (12, blue), austalide $P$ (13, black) and austalide $Q$ (14, cyan) in acetonitrile

### 3.1.14 Austalide $Q$ (compound 14, new)

|  | Austalide Q |
| :--- | :--- |
| Biological Source | Aspergillus sp. |
| Sample Code | Fr.2.6.6.7 |
| Sample Amount | 1.6 mg |
| Molecular Formula | $\mathrm{C}_{26} \mathrm{H}_{34} \mathrm{O}_{7}$ |
| Molecular Weight | $458 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ |
| Solubility | MeOH |
| Physical Description | Brown amorphous solid |
| Optical Rotation | $[\alpha]^{20}-40^{\circ}(c 0.16, \mathrm{MeOH})$ |
| HPLC Retention Time | 29.1 min (standard gradient) |




Austalide $\mathrm{Q}(\mathbf{1 4})$ was obtained as a brown amorphous solid ( 1.6 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-40^{\circ}(c 0.16, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and its UV spectrum showed maxima at $\lambda_{\max }=220.5$ and 261.1 nm . The HRESIMS of $\mathbf{1 4}$ exhibited a prominent peak at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 459.2376$ $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$, indicating a molecular formula of $\mathrm{C}_{26} \mathrm{H}_{34} \mathrm{O}_{7}$. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H},{ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT data of $\mathbf{1 4}$ (Table 3.1.15) were similar to those of $\mathbf{1 3}$, apart from the replacement of one of the methylene protons at C-13 by a hydroxyl group in $\mathbf{1 4}$, as evidenced by the chemical shifts of $\mathrm{CH}-13\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 4.11, \delta_{\mathrm{C}} 72.2\right.$ ). In addition, the hydroxyl group at $\mathrm{C}-15$ of $\mathbf{1 3}$ was absent and one of the geminal methyl groups was replaced by an olefinic methylene group instead, the protons of which resonating downfield at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 4.96$ and $5.05 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-25\right)$. This was further confirmed by analysis of the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum (Table 3.1.15) which verified the fragment $\mathrm{CH}_{2}(12) \mathrm{CH}(13) \mathrm{CH}(14)$ derived from the correlations observed between the methylene protons at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.02$ and 2.41 ppm $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-12\right)$, the proton at $\mathrm{C}-13$, and $\mathrm{H}-14$ detected at 2.20 ppm . HMQC and HMBC spectra gave further evidence for the assigned partial structures of 14. The correlations observed for $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-26\left(\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.90\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-14\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 54.3\right)$, the olefinic quaternary carbon detected at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 148.0$ (C-15), and an olefinic methylene carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 116.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-25), confirmed the dehydrogenation of the $\mathrm{C}-15-\mathrm{C}-25$ bond in $\mathbf{1 4}$ compared to that of $\mathbf{1 3}$. The ROESY spectrum of $\mathbf{1 4}$ showed similar correlations to those of $\mathbf{1 3}$ indicating ( $11 S^{*}, 13 R^{*}, 14 S^{*}, 20 S^{*}, 21 R^{*}$ ) relative configuration, which regarding the corresponding chirality centers, was homochiral with that of austalide M (10). Since compound $\mathbf{1 4}$ exhibited nearly identical ECD spectrum with that of $\mathbf{1 3}$ and the $\mathrm{C}-11$ and C-21 chirality centers, the closest ones to the substituted chroman chromophore, were the same, its absolute configuration was determined as (-)-(11S, 13R, 14S, 20S,21R) and it was named austalide Q .

Table 3.1.15 NMR data for austalide Q (14)

| Position | $14 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC | ROESY |
| 1 | 5.21 s | 70.7 |  | 9 |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 172.1 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 108.0 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 154.7 |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 118.0 |  |  |  |
| 7 |  | 160.0 |  |  |  |
| 8 |  | 117.3 |  |  |  |
| 9 |  | 146.2 |  |  |  |
| 10 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 |  | 79.3 |  |  |  |
| 12 | $2.02 \mathrm{dd}(3.9,15.3)$ | 46.6 | 13 |  |  |
|  | $2.41 \mathrm{dd}(2.4,15.5)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 13 | 4.11 dd (1.7, 4.5) | 72.2 | 12, 14 |  |  |
| 14 | 2.20 d (1.8) | 54.3 | 13 |  | 21 |
| 15 |  | 148.0 |  |  |  |
| 16 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17 |  | 176.7 |  |  |  |
| 18 | 2.36 t (8.0) | 29.9 | 19 | 17,19 |  |
| 19 | 1.65 m | 36.0 | 18 |  |  |
| 20 |  | 40.1 |  |  |  |
| 21 | 1.80 d (7.5) | 40.7 | 22 | 20 | 24,14 |
| 22 | $2.87 \mathrm{dd}(4.9,19.3)$ | 18.9 | 21 | 6, 21 |  |
|  | 2.93 d (18.5) |  |  |  |  |
| 23 | 2.08 s | 10.8 |  | 7, 8, 9 |  |
| 24 | 1.25 s | 27.8 |  | 11, 12, 21 | 21 |
| 25 | 4.96 d (2.8) | 116.2 |  |  |  |
|  | 5.05 d (1.8) |  |  |  |  |
| 26 | 1.90 s | 26.4 |  | 14, 15, 25 |  |
| 27 | 0.86 s | 20.7 |  | 14, 19, 20, 21 |  |
| 28 | 3.67 s | 52.4 |  | 17 |  |
| 29 | 4.05 s | 62.7 |  | 5 |  |

### 3.1.15 3'-O-Acetylthymidine (compound 15, known)

| $\mathbf{3}^{\prime}$ - $\boldsymbol{O}$-Acetylthymidine |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Biological Source | Aspergillus sp. |
| Sample Code | Fr.7.5.3.4.2 |
| Sample Amount | 6.0 mg |
| Molecular Formula | $\mathrm{C}_{12} \mathrm{H}_{16} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{6}$ |
| Molecular Weight | $284 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ |
| Solubility | MeOH |
| Physical Description | Pale yellow powder |
| Optical Rotation | $[\alpha]^{20} \mathrm{D}-28^{\circ}\left(c 0.4, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$ |
| HPLC Retention Time | 17.3 min (standard gradient) |





$3^{\prime}-O$-Acetylthymidine (15) was obtained as a pale yellow powder with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-28^{\circ}\left(c 0.4, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$. Its UV spectrum showed maxima at $\lambda_{\max }=213.6$ and 265.9 nm.. Based on its ESIMS ( $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 284.7[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$) and NMR spectral data (Table 3.1.16), the molecular formula of $\mathbf{1 5}$ was indicated as $\mathrm{C}_{12} \mathrm{H}_{16} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{6}$. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of 15 exhibited three singlets resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.87,2.08$ and 7.84 ppm , which were assigned to be the aromatic methyl group $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-7\right)$, the acetoxy methyl group ( $3^{\prime}-\mathrm{OAc}$ ) and the aromatic proton (H-6), respectively. Furthermore, the signals at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.32,3.79$, 4.06, 5.30, 6.26 ppm were assigned as H-2', H-5', H-4', H-3', and H-1', respectively. ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT spectra revealed the presence of twelve carbon atoms, including two methylene groups one of which being oxygenated $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-5\right.$ '), four quaternary including two amide carbonyl carbons, one ester carbonyl carbon and one aromatic quaternary carbon, three oxygenated methine groups, and one aromatic methine group. The carbon signals appearing at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 166.4$ (C-4), 152.6 (C-2), 137.9 (C-6), 111.8 (C-5) ppm , along with a carbon signal at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 12.4 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-7)$, and the corresponding proton signals, were thought to be attributable to a thymine base (Davies et al., 1974; Pretsch et al., 1989). The above data, together with ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY and HMBC correlations (Figures 3.1. 27 and 3.1.28) established the sugar part thus identifying 15 as an acetyl derivative of thymidine. Consequently, on the basis of all the foregoing evidence along with comparison with reported data (Atallan et al., 2006), the structure of $\mathbf{1 5}$ was finally characterised as $3^{\prime}-O$-acetylthymidine.

Table 3.1.16 NMR data for 3'-O-acetylthymidine (15)

| Position | $\mathbf{1 5 ~ C D}{ }_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz | Reference $\mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> (Atallan et al., 2006), |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 2 |  | 152.6 |  | 150.2 |
| 4 |  | 166.4 |  | 163.3 |
| 5 |  | 111.8 |  | 111.4 |
| 6 | 7.84 s | 137.9 | 7.50 s | 136.2 |
| 7 | 1.87 s | 12.4 | 1.93 s | 12.6 |
| 1, | $6.26 \mathrm{t}(6.2)$ | 86.1 | $6.25 \mathrm{t}(6.0)$ | 86.0 |
| 2, | 2.32 m | 38.3 | 2.42 m | 37.2 |
|  |  |  | 2.40 m |  |
| 3, | 5.30 m | 76.3 | 5.35 m | 74.7 |
| 4, | 4.06 m | 86.7 | 4.10 m | 85.0 |
| 5, | $3.79 \mathrm{~d}(3.0)$ | 62.9 | $3.94 \mathrm{dd}(12.0,2.5)$ | 62.6 |
|  |  |  | $3.93 \mathrm{dd}(12.0,2.5)$ |  |
| $3^{\prime}-\mathrm{OAc}$ | 2.08 s | 20.7 |  | 21.0 |
|  |  | 172.1 | s | 170.7 |



Figure 3.1.27 COSY correlations of $\mathbf{3}^{\prime}$ - $O$-acetylthymidine (15)


Figure 3.1.28 HMBC correlations of $\mathbf{3}^{\prime}$ - $O$-acetylthymidine (15)

### 3.1.16 Dihydrocitrinin (compound 16, known)

|  | Dihydrocitrinin |
| :--- | :--- |
| Biological Source | Aspergillus sp. |
| Sample Code | Fr.7.5.3.4.5 |
| Sample Amount | 1.4 mg |
| Molecular Formula | $\mathrm{C}_{13} \mathrm{H}_{16} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ |
| Molecular Weight | $252 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ |
| Solubility | MeOH |
| Physical Description | Colourless powder |
| Optical Rotation | $[\alpha]^{20} \mathrm{D}+87.6^{\circ}\left(c 0.015, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$ |
| HPLC Retention Time | 24.8 min $($ standard gradient $)$ |






Dihydrocitrinin (16) was obtained as a colourless powder ( 1.4 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $+87.6^{\circ}\left(c 0.015, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$ and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 215.6, 252.4, and 318.0 nm . Its molecular weight was suggested as $252 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ according to the molecular ion peaks observed at $m / z 253.7[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $274.7[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$, and $527.8[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$in the positive mode and at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 251.0[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$ (base peak) in the negative mode by ESI-MS analysis. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.17) showed an oxygenated methylene group at $\delta 4.62 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-1)$, two methine groups at $\delta 3.93$ and $2.68 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-3$ and $\mathrm{H}-4$, respectively), an aromatic methyl singlet at $\delta 2.07 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-11)$, and two methyl doublets at $\delta 1.24$ and $1.23 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-9$ and $\mathrm{H}-10$, respectively). The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectrum indicated the presence of 13 carbon signals, assigned to the carboxyl carbonyl carbon at $\delta 172.0 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-12), two oxygenated $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ carbons at $\delta 158.8$ and 155.7 ppm (C-6 and C-8, respectively), four $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ quaternary carbons at $\delta 144.3,113.9,110.7$ and $96.2 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-13, \mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-14$ and $\mathrm{C}-7$, respectively), two oxygenated methine carbons at $\delta 73.6$ and $60.1 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-3$ and $\mathrm{C}-1$, respectively), one methine carbon at $\delta 36.6 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-4), and two methyl carbons at $\delta$ 20.6 and 18.2 ppm (C-10 and C-9, respectively), and one aromatic methyl carbon $\delta$ $10.1 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-11)$. Analysis of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum of $\mathbf{1 6}$ established the presence of one spin system, including the correlations observed for $\mathrm{H}-3$ to $\mathrm{H}-9$, for $\mathrm{H}-3$ to $\mathrm{H}-4$, and for $\mathrm{H}-4$ to $\mathrm{H}-10$. The interpretation of the HMQC spectrum allowed the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms. The connection between the different substructures of 16 was determined by inspection of the HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.29). HMBC correlations were observed for the methylene protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-1$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-13$, and $\mathrm{C}-14$, for the aromatic methyl group protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11$ to $\mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-6$, and $\mathrm{C}-13$, for the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-9$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$ and $\mathrm{C}-4$, and for the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-10$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4$, and $\mathrm{C}-13$. Accordingly, the structure of 16 was determined as dihydrocitrinin on the basis of its spectroscopic data combined with comparison with reported data (Jack et al., 1992).

Table 3.1.17 NMR data for dihydrocitrinin (16)

| Position | $\mathbf{1 6 ~ C D}{ }_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz | Reference $\mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> $($ Jack et al., 1992) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(250 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(63 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 | $4.62 \mathrm{q} \mathrm{(15.1)}$ | 60.1 | 4.73 s | 58.6 |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | $3.93 \mathrm{dq}(2.5,6.6)$ | 73.6 | 4.04 q | 74.0 |
| 4 | $2.68 \mathrm{dq}(2.6,7.0)$ | 36.6 | 2.69 q | 35.7 |
| 5 |  | 113.9 |  | 114.4 |
| 6 |  | 158.8 |  | 157.3 |
| 7 |  | 96.2 |  | 96.8 |
| 8 |  | 155.7 |  | 154.2 |
| 9 | $1.24 \mathrm{~d}(5.0)$ | 18.2 | $1.26 \mathrm{~d}(6.5)$ | 17.9 |
| 10 | $1.23 \mathrm{~d}(4.7)$ | 20.6 | $1.26 \mathrm{~d}(6.5)$ | 19.9 |
| 11 | 2.07 s | 10.1 | 2.10 s | 10.0 |
| 12 |  | 172.0 |  | 172.8 |
| 13 |  | 144.3 |  | 146.5 |
| 14 |  | 110.7 |  | 111.7 |



Figure 3.1.29 HMBC correlations of dihydrocitrinin (16)

### 3.1.17 Dihydrocitrinone (compound 17, known)

| Dihydrocitrinone |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Biological Source Aspergillus sp. <br> Sample Code Fr. 7.5 .3 .7 .5 <br> Sample Amount 2.1 mg <br> Molecular Formula $\mathrm{C}_{13} \mathrm{H}_{14} \mathrm{O}_{6}$ <br> Molecular Weight $266 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ <br> Solubility MeOH <br> Physical Description Colourless powd <br> Optical Rotation $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}+105.6^{\circ}(c$ <br> HPLC Retention Time 23.0 min (standar | $\left.0.015, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$ gradient) |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Dihydrocitrinone (17) was isolated as a colourless powder ( 2.1 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value fo $+105.6^{\circ}\left(c 0.015, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$ and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 200.5, 233.8, and 266.4 nm . Its molecular weight was established as $266 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ based on the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 267.0[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak) in the positive mode and at $m / z 265.0[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) in the negative mode by ESI-MS analysis, indicating an increase by 14 amu in the molecular weight compared to $\mathbf{1 6}$. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.18) indicated the presence of two methine groups at $\delta 4.75$ ppm and $3.22 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-3$ and $\mathrm{H}-4$, respectively), an aromatic methyl singlet at $\delta 2.12$ $\mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-13)$, and two methyl doublets at $\delta 1.32 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $1.24 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-12$ and $\mathrm{H}-11$, respectively) in analogy to $\mathbf{1 6}$. This suggested that both compounds $\mathbf{1 6}$ and $\mathbf{1 7}$ have the same basic molecular framework. ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra of 17 were similar to those of 16 except for the replacement of the methylene group $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-1\right)$ by a carbonyl group, which corresponded to the difference in molecular weight between both compounds. Consequently, the structure of $\mathbf{1 7}$ was determined as dihydrocitrinone according to its spectroscopic data in addition to comparison with reported data (Xin et al., 2007).

Table 3.1.18 NMR data for dihydrocitrinone (17)

| Position | $\mathbf{C D}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz | Reference $\mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> (Xin et al., 2007) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(500 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  |  |  | 168.5 |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 4.75 m | 81.0 | $4.53 \mathrm{q}(6.6)$ | 79.6 |
| 4 | 3.22 m | 36.5 | $3.05 \mathrm{q}(6.9)$ | 36.9 |
| 5 |  | 114.3 |  | 113.8 |
| 6 |  | 166.3 |  | 166.6 |
| 7 |  |  |  | 101.7 |
| 8 |  |  |  | 165.8 |
| 9 |  | 148.7 |  | 103.8 |
| 10 |  | 20.5 | $1.19 \mathrm{~d}(6.6)$ | 148.2 |
| 11 | $1.24 \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{(6.5)}$ | $1.24 \mathrm{~d}(6.9)$ | 20.9 |  |
| 12 | $1.32 \mathrm{~d}(6.5)$ | 20.1 | 2.04 s | 10.9 |
| 13 | 2.12 s | 10.5 |  | 177.9 |
| 14 |  |  |  |  |

### 3.1.18 Decarboxydihydrocitrinone (compound 18, known)

| Decarboxydihydrocitrinone |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Biological Source Aspergillus sp <br> Sample Code Fr. 7.6 .7 .5 .1 <br> Sample Amount 2.0 mg <br> Molecular Formula $\mathrm{C}_{12} \mathrm{H}_{14} \mathrm{O}_{4}$ <br> Molecular Weight $222 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ <br> Solubility MeOH <br> Physical Description Colourless po <br> Optical Rotation $[\alpha]^{20} \mathrm{D}-18.2^{\circ}$ <br> HPLC Retention Time 23.5 min (sta | wder $c 0.26, \mathrm{MeOH})$ <br> dard gradient) |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Compound $\mathbf{1 8}$ was obtained as a colourless powder ( 2.0 mg ) giving UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 216.4,271.3$, and 310.3 nm and an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-18.2^{\circ}(c 0.26$, $\mathrm{MeOH})$. Its molecular formula was established as $\mathrm{C}_{12} \mathrm{H}_{14} \mathrm{O}_{4}$ on the basis of the molecular ion peaks observed at $m / z 222.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak) and $466.7[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$ in the positive mode and at $m / z 221.1[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) in the negative mode by ESI-MS analysis, thus revealing a 44 amu decrease in the molecular weight compared with 17. This was further supported by inspection of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.19) displayed familiar features of compounds $\mathbf{1 6}$ and $\mathbf{1 7}$ including the presence of two methine groups at $\delta 4.72 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $3.13 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-3$ and $\mathrm{H}-4$, respectively), an aromatic methyl singlet at $\delta 2.11 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-13)$, and two methyl doublets at $\delta 1.32 \mathrm{ppm}$ and $1.30 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-11$ and $\mathrm{H}-12$, respectively), in addition to an aromatic proton at $\delta 6.28 \mathrm{ppm}$ (H-7). The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectrum of $\mathbf{1 8}$ (Table 3.1.19) confirmed the presence of 12 carbon atoms in the structure, including six quaternary carbon atoms as indicated by the DEPT experiment. Analysis of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum of $\mathbf{1 8}$ established the presence of one spin system, including the correlations observed for $\mathrm{H}-3$ to $\mathrm{H}-11$, for $\mathrm{H}-3$ to $\mathrm{H}-4$, and for $\mathrm{H}-4$ to $\mathrm{H}-12$. Interpretation of the HMQC spectrum allowed the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms. The connection between the different substructures of 18 was determined by inspection of HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.30). HMBC correlations were observed for the aromatic proton $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-6, \mathrm{C}-8$, and $\mathrm{C}-9$, as well as the omega correlation to $\mathrm{C}-1$, for the aromatic methyl group protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-13$ to $\mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-6$, and $\mathrm{C}-10$, for the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$ and $\mathrm{C}-4$, and for the methyl protons $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-12$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4$, and $\mathrm{C}-10$. Accordingly, compound $\mathbf{1 8}$ has the same basic molecular framework of 17, apart from the replacement of the carboxyl group at C-7 in $\mathbf{1 7}$ by an aromatic proton (H-7), which corresponded to the difference in molecular weight between both compounds. Therefore, the structure of $\mathbf{1 8}$ was confirmed as decarboxydihydrocitrinone based on its spectroscopic data (Table 3.1.19) and by comparison with reported data (Han et al., 2009).

Table 3.1.19 NMR data for decarboxydihydrocitrinone (18)

| Position | $\mathbf{1 8 ~ C D}{ }_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz | Reference $\mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> (Han et al., 2009) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(400 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  | 170.5 |  | 170.4 |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | $4.72 \mathrm{q}(6.6)$ | 81.5 | $4.69 \mathrm{q}(6.6)$ | 81.5 |
| 4 | $3.13 \mathrm{q}(6.8)$ | 35.8 | $3.08 \mathrm{q}(7.0)$ | 35.7 |
| 5 |  | 115.6 |  | 115.6 |
| 6 |  | 163.7 |  | 163.6 |
| 7 | 6.28 s | 101.4 | 6.25 s | 101.3 |
| 8 |  | 165.0 |  | 164.9 |
| 9 |  | 99.7 |  | 99.7 |
| 10 |  | 144.3 |  | 144.2 |
| 11 | $1.32 \mathrm{~d}(6.0)$ | 19.8 | $1.28 \mathrm{~d}(6.1)$ | 19.8 |
| 12 | $1.30 \mathrm{~d}(6.5)$ | 19.9 | $1.27 \mathrm{~d}(6.9)$ | 19.9 |
| 13 | 2.11 s | 10.0 | 2.06 s | 10.0 |



Figure 3.1.30 HMBC correlations of decarboxydihydrocitrinone (18)

### 3.1.19 Pretrichodermamide A (compound 19, known)

| Pretrichodermamide A |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Biological Source Aspergillus sp. <br> Sample Code Fr.7.5.3.7.2 <br> Sample Amount 5.2 mg <br> Molecular Formula $\mathrm{C}_{20} \mathrm{H}_{22} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{9} \mathrm{~S}_{2}$ <br> Molecular Weight $498 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ <br> Solubility MeOH <br> Physical Description Pale yellow solid <br> Optical Rotation $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}-132.0^{\circ}(c$ <br> HPLC Retention Time 20.0 min (standa | d $c 0.10, \mathrm{MeOH})$ <br> ard gradient) |
|  |  |
| ( |  |
|  |  |

Compound 19 was isolated as a pale yellow solid ( 5.2 mg ) showing a UV absorbance band at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 206.3 \mathrm{~nm}$ and an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-132.0^{\circ}(c 0.1, \mathrm{MeOH})$. Its molecular weight was determined as $498 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ according to the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 498.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak) and $997.5[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$in the positive mode and at $m / z 496.9[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak) in the negative mode upon ESI-MS analysis. The molecular formula of $\mathbf{1 9}$ was suggested as $\mathrm{C}_{20} \mathrm{H}_{22} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{9} \mathrm{~S}_{2}$ by ESIMS, ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR data. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra of $\mathbf{1 9}$ were very similar to those of gliovirin (19a) (Stipanovic et al., 1982). The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of 19 (Table 3.1.20) revealed the presence of two olefinic AB systems the protons of which appearing at $\delta 7.52 \mathrm{ppm}(J$ $\left.=8.8 \mathrm{~Hz}, \mathrm{H}-5^{\prime}\right), 6.56 \mathrm{ppm}\left(J=8.9 \mathrm{~Hz}, \mathrm{H}-6^{\prime}\right), 5.68 \mathrm{ppm}(J=10.2,1.8 \mathrm{~Hz}, \mathrm{H}-7)$ and $5.64 \mathrm{ppm}(J=10.2,1.6 \mathrm{~Hz}, \mathrm{H}-6)$, five aliphatic methine protons at $\delta 4.72 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-3{ }^{\prime}\right)$, $4.57 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-2$ '), $4.54 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-8), 4.38 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-5)$, and $4.11 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-9)$, one methylene group at $\delta 2.34$ and $2.25 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-3\right)$, and two methoxy groups at $\delta 3.88$ ppm $\left(\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-7\right.$ ') and $3.82 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-8^{\prime}\right)$. The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR (Table 3.1.20) and DEPT spectra revealed the presence of twenty carbon atoms in the structure of 19 including eight quaternary carbon atoms. The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra displayed two carbonyl groups with chemical shifts characteristic of amides at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 168.0$ and $169.6 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-1$ ' and $\mathrm{C}-1$, respectively). Moreover, eight olefinic carbon atoms were observed, including four signals corresponding to the previously mentioned AB systems in addition to four quaternary signals, three of which being oxygenated. The three aromatic carbons with oxygen substituents resonated at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 154.8 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-7^{\prime}\right), 149.2 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-9^{\prime}\right)$, and 137.4 ppm ( $\mathrm{H}-8^{\prime}$ ). Two methoxyl groups were also detected at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 56.3$ and 61.1 ppm $\left(\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-7\right.$, and $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-8$ ', respectively). Analysis of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum of $\mathbf{1 9}$ established the presence of three spin systems: one spin system including the correlation observed for $\mathrm{H}-5^{\prime}$ to $\mathrm{H}-6^{\prime}$, the second for $\mathrm{H}-2^{\prime}$ to $\mathrm{H}-3$ ', and the third comprising the five methine protons $\mathrm{H}-5$ to $\mathrm{H}-9$ (Figure 3.1.31).

The interpretation of the HMQC spectrum allowed the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms. In addition, the connection of the different substructures of $\mathbf{1 9}$ was determined by interpretation of the HMBC spectrum
(Figure 3.1.32). The methylene protons $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-3$ correlated with the carbonyl carbon $\mathrm{C}-1\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 169.6 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, the oxygenated quaternary carbon $\mathrm{C}-4\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 72.6 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, the quaternary carbon $\mathrm{C}-2\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 70.2 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, which is connected to the disulfide and to both methine carbons C-5 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 75.9 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and C-9 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 88.3 \mathrm{ppm}$ ). Correlations observed for the olefinic AB spin systems included those of H-6 to C-4 and C-8 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 66.6 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), of H-7 to C-5 and C-9, of H-5' to C-3', C-7', C-8' and C-9' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 46.5,154.8,137.4$, and 149.2 ppm , respectively), and of H-6' to C-4' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 117.4 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), C-7', C-8' and C-9'. Moreover, correlations of H-2' to C-1, C-1' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 168.0 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), C-3' and C-4', and of $\mathrm{H}-3^{\prime}$ to $\mathrm{C}-1$ ', $\mathrm{C}-2^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 61.5 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-4^{\prime}, \mathrm{C}-5^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 124.2 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ and $\mathrm{C}-9$ ' provided the connections of the third spin system in the structure of 19. Remaining HMBC correlations were observed for the methoxy group $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-7$ 'to $\mathrm{C}-7$ ' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 154.8 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and for the methoxy group $\left(\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-8^{\prime}\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-8^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 137.4 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$. Therefore, based on the above interpretation and by comparison with reported data (Prapairat et al., 2006), compound 19 was finally identified as pretrichodermamide A.

(19a) gliovirin

(19) pretrichodermamide A

Table 3.1.20 NMR data for pretrichodermamide A (19)

| Position | $19 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Reference $\mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta$ (ppm), $J$ in Hz <br> (Prapairat et al., 2006) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(400 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  | 169.6 |  | 167.1 |
| 2 |  | 70.2 |  | 69.5 |
| 3 | 2.34 d (16.3) | 32.1 | 2.09 d (16.0) | 31.9 |
|  | 2.25 d (16.2) |  | 1.96 d (16.0) |  |
| 4 |  | 72.6 |  | 71.0 |
| 4-OH |  |  | 5.09 brs |  |
| 5 | 4.38 m | 75.9 | 4.16 m | 74.3 |
| 5-OH |  |  | 5.26 d (5.1) |  |
| 6 | $5.64 \mathrm{dt}(10.2,1.6)$ | 131.2 | 5.42 brd (10.4) | 129.9 |
| 7 | $5.68 \mathrm{dt}(10.2,1.8)$ | 129.0 | $5.48 \mathrm{dt}(10.4,2.0)$ | 128.9 |
| 8 | 4.54 m | 66.6 | 4.23 m | 64.7 |
| $8-\mathrm{OH}$ |  |  | 5.22 d (6.7) |  |
| 9 | 4.11 d (7.1) | 88.3 | 3.93 d (7.2) | 85.7 |
| 1 , |  | 168.0 |  | 164.8 |
| 2, | 4.57 (4.1, 2.0) | 61.5 | 4.41 dd (4.2, 3.0) | 59.0 |
| 3 , | 4.72 d (1.8) | 46.5 | 4.49 d 2.7 | 45.0 |
| 4, |  | 117.4 |  | 116.6 |
| 5, | 7.52 d (8.8) | 124.2 | 7.44 d (8.8) | 123.1 |
| 6 ' | 6.56 d (8.9) | 104.4 | 6.55 d (8.9) | 103.5 |
| 7 ' |  | 154.8 |  | 153.1 |
| 7'- $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}$ | 3.88 s | 56.3 | 3.78 s | 55.9 |
| 8 , |  | 137.4 |  | 136.0 |
| $8^{\prime}-\mathrm{OCH}_{3}$ | 3.82 s | 61.1 | 3.67 s | 60.4 |
| 9 ' |  | 149.2 |  | 148.0 |
| $9^{\prime}$ - OH |  |  | 9.45 s |  |
| NH |  |  | 9.05 d (4.4) |  |



Figure 3.1.31 COSY correlations of pretrichodermamide A (19)


Figure 3.1.32 HMBC correlations of pretrichodermamide A (19)

### 3.1.20 Tryptoquivaline $K$ (compound 20, new)



Compound 20 was obtained as a white amorphous solid ( 8.0 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{D}$ value of $-8.0^{\circ}$ (c 0.10, MeOH) and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 206.9$, 226.3, and 301.6 nm . Its molecular formula was determined as $\mathrm{C}_{25} \mathrm{H}_{20} \mathrm{~N}_{4} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ by HRESIMS $\left([\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}\right.$observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z}$ 457.1503), indicating 18 elements of unsaturation. Thorough inspection of its UV and NMR data (Table 3.1.21) revealed spectroscopic features comparable to those of tryptoquivaline metabolites, previously reported from A. fumigatus (Yamazaki et al., 1976; 1977; 1978). ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR (Table 3.1.21) indicated the presence of two 1,2-disubstituted benzene rings, an aromatic proton resonating downfield at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 8.45$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 149.1$ ) ppm (CH-26), three methylene groups, two of which showing upfield chemical shifts characteristic for a cyclopropane moiety at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.47 / 2.12$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 13.8$ ) and $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.42 / 1.74$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 13.3$ ) ppm ( $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-29$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-30$, respectively), two methine protons situated on nitrogen-bearing carbon atoms as indicated by their downfield chemical shift values at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.16\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 85.1\right)$ and $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.51\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 60.0\right) \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{CH}-2$ and $\mathrm{CH}-12$, respectively), and a methyl amide group resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.18\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 21.8\right) \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-28\right)$.

Furthermore, ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT spectra disclosed signals for eight $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ quaternary carbons, three of which were attributed to the amide carbonyl groups at C-15, C-18 and C-27 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 173.1,162.1$ and 171.4 ppm , respectively). The upfield chemical shift of C -18 indicated its $\alpha, \beta$-unsaturated nature. The remaining signals were assigned to the ester carbonyl group at $\mathrm{C}-11\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 173.1 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and to the aromatic carbons ( $\mathrm{C}-4, \mathrm{C}-9$, $\mathrm{C}-19$ and C-24). The deshielded signals of C-9 and C-24 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 140.6$ and 149.1 ppm , respectively) indicated their nitrogenated nature. In addition, two $\mathrm{sp}^{3}$ quaternary carbons were detected downfield at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 87.2$ and 47.9 ppm (C-3 and C-14, respectively), which implied their attachment to oxygen and nitrogen atoms, respectively. Analysis of the COSY spectrum (Table 3.1.21 and Fig 3.1.33) established the presence of four spin systems, based on correlations of the methylene protons resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.42$ and $3.54 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-13\right)$ to the deshielded methine group at C-12, for the protons of both methylene groups at C-29 and C-30 to each other, and for the two aromatic ABCD systems ( $\mathrm{H}-5$ to $\mathrm{H}-8$ and $\mathrm{H}-20$ to $\mathrm{H}-23$ ). Assignment of
proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms was achieved by interpretation of the HMQC spectrum.

The different substructures of $\mathbf{2 0}$ were connected based on the correlations observed in the HMBC spectrum (Table 3.1.21 and Fig 3.1.34). The more deshielded aromatic ABCD system (H-20 to H-23) was attributed to a 4-quinazolinone moiety on the basis of the correlations observed for $\mathrm{H}-23$ to $\mathrm{C}-19$ and $\mathrm{C}-21$, for $\mathrm{H}-22$ to $\mathrm{C}-20$ and $\mathrm{C}-24$, for $\mathrm{H}-21$ to $\mathrm{C}-19$ and $\mathrm{C}-23$, for $\mathrm{H}-20$ to $\mathrm{C}-22, \mathrm{C}-24$ and to the amide carbonyl group at $\mathrm{C}-18$, for $\mathrm{H}-26$ to $\mathrm{C}-18$ and $\mathrm{C}-24$, in addition to the downfield chemical shift of $\mathrm{C}-24$. Furthermore, correlations of $\mathrm{H}-26$ to $\mathrm{C}-12$, and of $\mathrm{H}-12$ to $\mathrm{C}-18$ and $\mathrm{C}-26$ established the connection to the ethylene group $\mathrm{CH}(12) \mathrm{CH}_{2}(13)$ through the nitrogen atom $\mathrm{N}-17$. Both $\mathrm{H}-12$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-13$ correlated to the ester carbonyl group at $\mathrm{C}-11$, as well as to each other. $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-13$ correlated also to the oxygenated $\mathrm{sp}^{3}$ quaternary carbon C -3 to close the central $\gamma$-butyrolactone ring. Further correlations of $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-13$ were observed to the aromatic quaternary carbon C-4, and to the downfield shifted tertiary carbon C-2, both belonging to the indoline moiety which also includes the second aromatic ABCD system ( $\mathrm{H}-5$ to $\mathrm{H}-8$ ). This was corroborated by correlations of $\mathrm{H}-8$ to $\mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-6$, of $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-5$ and $\mathrm{C}-9$, of $\mathrm{H}-6$ to $\mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-8$, and of $\mathrm{H}-5$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-7$ and C-9. Accordingly, the indoline moiety was connected to the $\gamma$-butyrolactone ring through a spiro-junction at $\mathrm{C}-3$. Correlations of $\mathrm{H}-2$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$ and $\mathrm{C}-13$ provided additional evidence. Both $\mathrm{H}-2$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-28$ correlated to the amide carbonyl at $\mathrm{C}-27$ thus establishing the acetamide group at N-16. Furthermore, H-2 and both cyclopropane methylenes $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-29\right.$ and $\left.\mathrm{CH}_{2}-30\right)$ correlated to the quaternary carbon C-14, which was placed adjacent to N-16 due to its downfield chemical shift. Finally, both methylene groups correlated to each other and to the amide carbonyl at C-15, which was connected to $\mathrm{N}-1$ to rationalize the remaining element of unsaturation. Accordingly, the NMR data of $\mathbf{2 0}$ indicated an analogue of the known tryptoquivaline J (Han et al., 2007) bearing an additional acetyl function at N-16. Furthermore, the alanine residue in tryptoquivaline J was replaced by a 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid residue in $\mathbf{2 0}$.

The relative configuration of $\mathbf{2 0}$ was deduced from analysis of the ROESY spectrum. Key correlations were observed for both $\mathrm{H}-12$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-13$ to $\mathrm{H}-2$, indicating a cis configuration between $\mathrm{H}-2$ and $\mathrm{H}-12$, and thus a relative configuration of $\left(2 S^{*}, 3 R^{*}, 12 R^{*}\right)$ for $\mathbf{2 0}$. The absolute configuration of $\mathbf{2 0}$ was determined by TDDFT ECD calculation of its solution conformers. The experimental ECD of $\mathbf{2 0}$ showed a strong positive Cotton effect (CE) at 230 nm with positive plateau up to 325 nm and an intense negative $C E$ at 208 nm with a shoulder at 214 nm . The MMFF conformational analysis of $\mathbf{2 0}$ provided four conformers, the reoptimization of which at the level of B3LYP/6-31G(d) afforded a major conformer with $99.5 \%$ populations. Then TDDFT ECD calculations of $(2 S, 3 R, 12 R)-\mathbf{2 0}$ were performed with TZVP basis set and various functionals (B3LYP, BH\&HLYP, PBE0), which consistently reproduced the experimental ECD spectrum with PBE0 giving the best agreement (Figure 3.1.35 and Figure 3.1.36). Hence, the structure of $\mathbf{2 0}$ was determined as tryptoquivaline K representing a new natural product.

Table 3.1.21 NMR data for tryptoquivaline $K$ (20)

| Position | $20 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC | ROESY |
| 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 6.16 s | 85.1 |  | 3,13,14,27 | 12,13 |
| 3 |  | 87.2 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 134.3 |  |  |  |
| 5 | 8.17 br d (7.6) | 128.0 | 6 | 3,7,9 |  |
| 6 | 7.47 ddd (1.7, 7.3, 7.4) | 128.1 | 5,7 | 4,7,8 |  |
| 7 | 7.61 ddd (1.3, 7.3, 7.9) | 132.6 | 6,8 | 5,9 |  |
| 8 | 7.64 dd (1.8, 7.9) | 117.8 | 9 | 4,6 |  |
| 9 |  | 140.6 |  |  |  |
| 10 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 |  | 173.1 |  |  |  |
| 12 | $5.51 \mathrm{dd}(8.6,10.7)$ | 60.0 | 13 | 11,13,18,26 | 2 |
| 13 | $\begin{aligned} & 3.42 \mathrm{dd}(8.7,13.6) \\ & 3.54 \mathrm{dd}(10.7,13.6) \end{aligned}$ | 36.1 | 12 | 2,3,4,11,12 | 2 |
| 14 |  | 47.9 |  |  |  |
| 15 |  | 173.1 |  |  |  |
| 16 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 18 |  | 162.1 |  |  |  |
| 19 |  | 123.7 |  |  |  |
| 20 | 8.37 dd (1.6, 8.0) | 127.5 | 21 | 18,22,24 |  |
| 21 | 7.68 ddd (1.1, 7.0, 8.1) | 129.0 | 20,22 | 19,23 |  |
| 22 | 7.94 ddd (1.6, 7.1, 8.2) | 136.3 | 21,23 | 20,24 |  |
| 23 | 7.81 br d (7.9) | 128.7 | 22 | 19,22,21 |  |
| 24 |  | 149.1 |  |  |  |
| 25 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 26 | 8.45 s | 149.1 |  | 12,18,24 |  |
| 27 |  | 171.4 |  |  |  |
| 28 | 2.18 s | 21.8 |  | 27 |  |
| 29 | 1.47 ddd (6.0, 7.0, 10.5) | 13.8 | 30 | 14,15,30 |  |
| 30 | $\begin{aligned} & 2.12 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right) \\ & 1.42 \operatorname{ddd}(6.0,8.0,10.5) \\ & 1.74 \operatorname{ddd}(6.0,8.0,10.4) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 13.3 | 29 | 14,15,29 |  |



Figure 3.1.33 COSY correlations of tryptoquivaline K (20)


Figure 3.1.34 HMBC correlations of tryptoquivaline $K$ (20)


Figure 3.1.35 Experimental ECD spectrum of 20 in acetonitrile compared with the PBE0/TZVP spectrum calculated for the lowest-energy conformer (99.5\%) of the ( $2 S, 3 R, 12 R$ )-enantiomer. Bars represent rotational strengths


Figure 3.1.36 Computed low-energy conformer of 20 (99.5\%)

### 3.1.21 Fumiquinazoline $K$ (compound 21, new)

## Fumiquinazoline K

| Biological Source | Aspergillus sp. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Sample Code | Fr. 7.7 .8 .5 .1 |
| Sample Amount | 4.2 mg |
| Molecular Formula | $\mathrm{C}_{26} \mathrm{H}_{23} \mathrm{~N}_{5} \mathrm{O}_{4}$ |
| Molecular Weight | $469 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ |
| Solubility | MeOH |
| Physical Description | Yellow amorphous solid |
| Optical Rotation | $[\alpha]^{20} \mathrm{D}-120.9^{\circ}(c 0.11, \mathrm{MeOH})$ |
| HPLC Retention Time | 23.8 min (standard gradient) |






Compound 21 was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 4.2 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-120.9^{\circ}(c 0.11, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 204.1, 228.9, and 268.4 nm . The $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$signal at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 470.1812$ in the HRESIMS of 21 indicated a molecular formula of $\mathrm{C}_{26} \mathrm{H}_{23} \mathrm{~N}_{5} \mathrm{O}_{4}$, thus comprising 18 elements of unsaturation as in 20. Its physical characteristics were comparable to those of 20, suggesting a similar basic molecular framework. ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR (Table 3.1.22) indicated the presence of two 1,2-disubstituted benzene rings, and two methylene groups of a cyclopropane moiety resonating upfield at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 0.15 / 0.82$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 14.0$ ) and $\delta_{\mathrm{H}}$ $0.90 / 1.59$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 11.2$ ) ppm $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-29\right.$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-30$, respectively), which were comparable to the respective signals of $\mathbf{2 0}$. In addition, the spectra of 21 displayed signals corresponding to an aliphatic hydroxyl group appearing as a singlet at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 4.47 \mathrm{ppm}$, three methine protons on nitrogen-bearing carbons at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.04$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 61.8$ ), $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.24$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}}$ 52.7) and $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.09$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 86.2$ ) ppm ( $\mathrm{CH}-3, \mathrm{CH}-14$ and $\mathrm{CH}-18$, respectively), two methylene groups one of which being adjacent to nitrogen, as indicated by its chemical shift value at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.22 / 3.52\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 51.1\right) \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-16\right)$, and a N -methyl group resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.06\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 32.5\right) \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-31\right)$. Inspection of ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT spectra of 21 (Table 3.1.22) revealed the presence of eight $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ quaternary carbons as in 20, including the amide carbonyl groups at C-1, C-12 and C-21 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 164.9,160.1$ and 174.7 ppm , respectively), and five aromatic carbons (C-4, C-6, C-11, C-23 and C-28), three of which are placed adjacent to nitrogen based on their downfield chemical shifts at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 150.0,147.4$ and 138.0 ppm (C-4, C-6 and C-23, respectively). Moreover, in analogy to 20, two $\mathrm{sp}^{3}$ quaternary carbon signals resonating downfield at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 75.9$ and 51.1 ppm were assigned to C-17 and C-20, respectively. Examination of the COSY spectrum of $\mathbf{2 1}$ (Table 3.1.22 and Fig 3.1.37) disclosed five spin systems, including the familiar aromatic ABCD systems ( $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{H}-10$ and $\mathrm{H}-24$ to $\mathrm{H}-27$ ), the cyclopropane methylene groups $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-29\right.$ and $\left.\mathrm{CH}_{2}-30\right)$, and the ethylene group with the deshielded methine $\mathrm{CH}(14) \mathrm{CH}_{2}(15)$, which were also detected in $\mathbf{2 0}$, as well as an additional ethylene group $\mathrm{CH}(3) \mathrm{CH}_{2}(16)$ possibly flanked by nitrogen as indicated by chemical shift values.

The structural units identified in 21 were connected on the basis of correlations observed in the HMBC spectrum (Table 3.1.22 and Figure 3.1.38). In analogy to 20, correlations observed for the more deshielded aromatic protons ( $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{H}-10$ ), as well as the downfield chemical shifts of C-4 and C-6, indicated the presence of a 4-quinazolinone moiety. Absence of an aromatic proton singlet and presence of an additional aromatic quaternary carbon implied substitution at C-4 in 21. Correlations of $\mathrm{H}-14$ to $\mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-12$ established the connection to the ethylene group $\mathrm{CH}(14) \mathrm{CH}_{2}(15)$ through $\mathrm{N}-13$. Both $\mathrm{H}-14$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$ correlated to each other as well as to the amide carbonyl at C-1 and to the tertiary alcohol at C-17. Correlations of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-31$ to $\mathrm{C}-1, \mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-14$ established the additional oxopiperazine ring, which was further corroborated by correlations of $\mathrm{H}-3$ to $\mathrm{C}-1, \mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-31 . \mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$ showed further correlations to the aromatic quaternary carbon $\mathrm{C}-28$, and to the downfield shifted tertiary carbon $\mathrm{C}-18$, thus establishing the connection to the indoline moiety through C-17. Correlations observed for $17-\mathrm{OH}$ to $\mathrm{C}-15, \mathrm{C}-17, \mathrm{C}-18$ and $\mathrm{C}-28$, for $\mathrm{H}-27$ to $\mathrm{C}-17$, and for $\mathrm{H}-18$ to $\mathrm{C}-15$ and $\mathrm{C}-17$, provided additional evidence for the structural assignment. Moreover, H-18 and both cyclopropane methylenes $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-29\right.$ and $\left.\mathrm{CH}_{2}-30\right)$ correlated to the downfield resonating quaternary carbon C-20, as well as to the amide carbonyl at C-21, thus verifying the 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid residue detected in 20. The remaining correlations of $\mathrm{H}-3$ and $\mathrm{H}-18$ to $\mathrm{C}-16$, together with the downfield chemical shift of $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-16$, indicating a neighbouring nitrogen $(\mathrm{N}-19)$, suggested that $\mathrm{N}-19$ was linked to $\mathrm{C}-3$ through $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-16$. Correlations of the latter to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4, \mathrm{C}-18$ and $\mathrm{C}-20$ confirmed this connection and hence accounted for the remaining element of unsaturation in the structure of 21. Consequently, 21 was found to be structurally related to the fumiquinazolines A-J (Liu et al., 2011; Nisho et al., 2000) previously isolated from A. fumigatus. More specifically, $\mathbf{2 1}$ represents an analogue of the known fumiquinazoline A (Takahashi et al., 1995) differing in the presence of a methyl group at $\mathrm{N}-2$, and the replacement of the methyl groups at C-20 and C-3 in fumiquinazoline A by a cyclopropane moiety and a methylene bridge to $\mathrm{N}-19$.

The relative configuration of 21 was assigned by interpretation of the ROESY spectrum. The presence of the methylene bridge between $\mathrm{C}-3$ and $\mathrm{N}-19$ implied a cis configuration of the C-3-C-16 and C-14-C-15 bonds. This was further confirmed by correlations observed for $\mathrm{H}-18$ to $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15, \mathrm{CH}_{2}-16$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-31$, for $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$ to 17-OH and $\mathrm{H}-27$, and for $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-16$ to $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-29$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-31$. Accordingly, a relative configuration of ( $3 R^{*}, 14 R^{*}, 17 R^{*}, 18 S^{*}$ ) was established for $\mathbf{2 1}$, which is in agreement with the corresponding chirality centers of $\mathbf{2 0}$. The ECD spectrum of $\mathbf{2 1}$ was markedly different from that of $\mathbf{2 0}$ due to their different skeleton and thus the comparison of their ECD spectra could not be used to determine the absolute configuration of $\mathbf{2 1}$. The ECD spectrum has a broad negative transition above 260 nm consisting of three overlapping CEs, a positive CE at 250 nm , a negative one at 221 nm with shoulder at 233 nm and a strong positive one at 205 nm . The MMFF conformational search and DFT reoptimization afforded a single conformer with $99.9 \%$ population for the ECD calculation. The TDDFT ECD spectrum of this conformer with $(3 R, 14 R, 17 R, 18 S)$ absolute configuration was in agreement with the experimental ECD curve allowing a unambiguous configurational assignment (Figure 3.1.39 and Figure 3.1.40). The corresponding chirality centers of 20 and 21, C-12/C-14 and C-3/C-17, were found homochiral. Thus, 21 was identified as a new natural product and named fumiquinazoline K .

Table 3.1.22 NMR data for fumiquinazoline $K$ (21)

| Position | 21 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  | ROESY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |  |
| 1 |  | 164.9 |  |  |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 5.04 d (6.4) | 61.8 | 16 | 31,16,4,1 |  |
| 4 |  | 150.0 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 147.4 |  |  |  |
| 7 | 7.62 br d (7.8) | 126.3 | 8 | 11,9,6,12 |  |
| 8 | 7.82 ddd (1.7, 7.1, 8.2) | 134.6 | 7,9 | 10,6 |  |
| 9 | 7.50 ddd (1.1, 7.0, 8.1) | 126.3 | 8,10 | 11,7,8,6 |  |
| 10 | 8.14 dd (1.7, 8.0) | 126.3 | 9 | 8,6,12 |  |
| 11 |  | 119.8 |  |  |  |
| 12 |  | 160.1 |  |  |  |
| 13 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | 5.24 br d (8.4) | 52.7 | 15 | 15,17,4,12,1 |  |
| 15 | $2.42 \mathrm{dd}(1.1,15.3)$ | 35.6 | 14 | 17,28,1,14,18 | 17,27 |
|  | $3.56 \mathrm{dd}(8.4,15.3)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 3.22 dd (6.4, 13.6) | 51.1 | 3 | 20,3,18,4 | 29,31 |
|  | 3.52 d (13.6) |  |  |  |  |
| 17 | 4.47 s | 75.9 |  | 15,17,18,28 | 16 |
| 18 | 5.09 s | 86.2 |  | 29,15,16,20,17,21 | 15,16,31 |
| 19 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 |  | 51.1 |  |  |  |
| 21 |  | 174.7 |  |  |  |
| 22 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 |  | 138.0 |  |  |  |
| 24 | 7.26 br d (7.6) | 116.5 | 25 | 26,28 |  |
| 25 | 7.32 ddd (1.3, 7.6, 7.6 ) | 129.2 | 24,26 | 27,23 |  |
| 26 | 7.19 ddd (1.2, 7.6, 7.6 ) | 125.8 | 25,27 | 24,28 |  |
| 27 | 7.40 dd (1.1, 7.6) | 123.7 | 26 | 23,25,17 | 15 |
| 28 |  | 139.2 |  |  |  |
| 29 | 0.15 ddd (4.1, 8.5, 10.5) | 11.2 | 30 | 30, 21, 20 |  |
|  | 0.82 ddd (4.1, 6.5, 10.5) |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | 0.90 ddd ( $6.0,8.5,10.4$ ) | 14.0 | 29 | 29, 21, 20 |  |
|  | 1.59 ddd ( $6.0,6.5,10.4$ ) |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | 3.06 s | 32.5 |  | 14,3,4,1 | 16,18 |



Figure 3.1.37 COSY correlations of fumiquinazoline $K$ (21)





Figure 3.1.38 HMBC correlations of fumiquinazoline $K$ (21)


Figure 3.1.39 Experimental ECD spectrum of 21 in acetomitrile compared with the PBE0/TZVP spectrum calculated for the lowest-energy conformer $\mathbf{( 9 9 . 9 \%})$ of the $(\mathbf{3 R}, 14 R, 17 R, 18 S)$-enantiomer. Bars represent rotational strengths


Figure 3.1.40 Computed low-energy conformer of 21 (99.9\%)

### 3.1.22 Fumiquinazoline $L$ (compound 22, new)



Compound 22 was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 4.4 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-30.6^{\circ}(c 0.14, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 205.9, 231.6, and 304.1 nm . It displayed similar spectroscopic data to those of 21, suggesting that both compounds have the same molecular skeleton. The molecular formula of 22 was established as $\mathrm{C}_{25} \mathrm{H}_{23} \mathrm{~N}_{5} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ from the prominent signal at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z}$ 474.1767, corresponding to $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$in the HRESIMS, thus revealing an increase in the molecular weight of 4 amu and the loss of one double-bond equivalent compared to 21. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H},{ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT spectra of $\mathbf{2 2}$ were similar to those of $\mathbf{2 1}$ (Tables 3.1.23) except for the replacement of the C-3 methine proton in 21 by a tertiary methyl group resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.87\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 25.8\right) \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-16\right)$ in 22. The signal corresponding to the methyl group at $\mathrm{N}-2$ of $\mathbf{2 1}$ was absent in the spectra of $\mathbf{2 2}$ and a proton of a secondary amide group resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 9.55 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-2)$ appeared instead. In addition, the methylene bridge connecting C-3 with $\mathrm{N}-19$ in 21 was not detected in $\mathbf{2 2}$, which accounts for the loss of one element of unsaturation in the structure of $\mathbf{2 2}$. Consequently, exchangeable signals corresponding to a secondary amine proton and a tertiary hydroxyl group resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.83$ and 7.30 ppm were assigned to $\mathrm{H}-19$ and 3-OH, respectively. The latter was further confirmed by the downfield chemical shift observed for C-3 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 80.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) indicating a hydroxyl substituent. H-19 showed a COSY correlation to $\mathrm{H}-18$ and HMBC correlations to $\mathrm{C}-17, \mathrm{C}-18, \mathrm{C}-20$ and to the cyclopropane methylenes at C-29 and C-30. Correlations of $\mathrm{H}-2$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-14$, as well as of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-16$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$ and $\mathrm{C}-4$ were also observed in the HMBC spectrum of $\mathbf{2 2}$ (Table 3.1.23 and Figure 3.1.41).

The relative configuration of $\mathbf{2 2}$ was deduced on the basis of the ROESY correlations observed for $\mathrm{H}-14$ to $\mathrm{H}-18$, and for $17-\mathrm{OH}$ to $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$ and $\mathrm{H}-19 . \mathrm{CH}_{3}-16$ correlated to $\mathrm{H}-2$, whereas no correlations were observed to $\mathrm{H}-14$ or to $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$, which indicated that the oxopiperazine ring exists in a twist-boat conformation with $\mathrm{H}-14$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-16$ in equatorial position, while $3-\mathrm{OH}$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$ acquire a coaxial arrangement. Furthermore, the correlation of $\mathrm{H}-27$ to $\mathrm{H}-14$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$ implied that the indoline ring is arranged on a nearly vertical plane to the oxopiperazine ring, hence justifying
the weak correlation observed for $\mathrm{H}-18$ to $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$. Consequently, $\mathbf{2 2}$ adopts the same $\left(3 R^{*}, 14 R^{*}, 17 R^{*}, 18 S^{*}\right)$ relative configuration as determined for 21. Since 21 and 22 contain the same 2 H -pyrazino[2,1-b]quinazoline-3,6(1H,4H)-dione and tetrahydro-3H-imidazo[1,2-a]indole-3-one chromophores with analogue chirality centers, their ECD spectra could be also compared to establish the absolute configuration of $\mathbf{2 2}$. Compound 22 exhibited the same signs for the corresponding ECD transitions as those of 21, although the intensities and shapes were somewhat different (Figure 3.1.42). It had three weak negative CEs below 270 nm , a positive one at 249 nm , a negative one at 230 nm and a positive below 210 nm correlating well with the CEs of $\mathbf{2 1}$. Thus the absolute configuration of $\mathbf{2 2}$ was established as $(3 R, 14 R, 17 R, 18 S)$. Consequently, compound 22 was characterized as a new natural product and named fumiquinazoline L .

Table 3.1.23 NMR data for fumiquinazoline $L$ (22)

| Position | 22 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC | ROESY |
| 1 |  | 170.1 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 9.55 s |  |  | 3, 4, 14 | 16 |
| 3 | 7.30 d (1.6) | 80.2 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 151.6 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 146.1 |  |  |  |
| 7 | 7.63 br d (8.0) | 126.9 | 8 | 9, 11, 8 |  |
| 8 | 7.79 ddd (1.6, 7.2, 8.2) | 134.5 | 7,9 | 6,10 |  |
| 9 | 7.45 ddd (1.1, 7.0, 8.1) | 126.9 | 8,10 | 11,7 |  |
| 10 | 7.85 dd (1.6, 8.0) | 126.2 | 9 | 6, 8, 12 |  |
| 11 |  | 119.8 |  |  |  |
| 12 |  | 160.1 |  |  |  |
| 13 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | $5.37 \mathrm{dd}\left(\sum 14.4\right)$ | 52.9 | 15 | 15, 17, 4, 12, 1 | 18 |
| 15 | 2.78 dd (6.8, 14.7) | 38.7 | 14 | $14,17,18,28,1$ |  |
|  | 2.90 dd (7.6, 14.7) |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 1.87 s | 25.8 |  | 3, 4 | 2 |
| 17 | 5.58 s | 75.4 |  | 15, 17, 28 | 15,19 |
| 18 | 5.75 d (9.8) | 79.7 | 19 | 15, 17 | 14 |
| 19 | 3.83 d (9.9) |  | 18 | 29, 30, 20, 17, 18 |  |
| 20 |  | 46.5 |  |  |  |
| 21 |  | 174.2 |  |  |  |
| 22 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 |  | 138.8 |  |  |  |
| 24 | 7.23 br d (7.7) | 114.4 | 25 | 28, 26 |  |
| 25 | 7.01 ddd (1.3, 7.6, 7.6 ) | 129.0 | 24,26 | 27, 23 |  |
| 26 | 6.67 ddd (1.0, 7.6, 7.6 ) | 123.7 | 25,27 | 24, 28 |  |
| 27 | 7.19 dd (1.0, 7.7) | 123.8 | 26 | 25, 23, 17 | 14,15 |
| 28 |  | 136.9 |  |  |  |
| 29 | 0.97 ddd (4.0, 7.0, 10.4) | 13.8 | 30 | 30, 20, 21 |  |
|  | 1.07 ddd (4.0, 7.0, 10.3) |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | 0.94 ddd (4.0, 7.0, 10.3) | 11.7 | 29 | 29, 20, 21 |  |
|  | 1.03 ddd (4.0, 8.0, 10.4) |  |  |  |  |




Figure 3.1.41 HMBC correlations of fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{L}$ (22)


Figure 3.1.42 Experimental ECD spectra of 21 (black), 22 (red) and 23 (blue) in acetonitrile

### 3.1.23 Fumiquinazoline $M$ (compound 23, new)



Compound 23 was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 5.4 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-24.6^{\circ}(c 0.11, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 213.4, 248.7, and 319.2 nm . The $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$signal at $m / z 706.2508$ in the HRESIMS of 23 indicated a molecular formula of $\mathrm{C}_{38} \mathrm{H}_{35} \mathrm{~N}_{5} \mathrm{O}_{9}$, hence including 24 elements of unsaturation. Partial fragmentation observed in the ESIMS spectrum of $\mathbf{2 3}$ indicated fragments corresponding to two moieties with molecular weights of 252 and 455 $\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{mol}$. Furthermore, ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR and COSY spectra (Tables 3.1.24) showed two different sets of signals implying that the compound consists of two structurally unrelated moieties. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H},{ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT data of one part of the compound (Table 3.1.24) were almost identical to those of 22, apart from the absence of the hydroxyl group at C-3 of 22, and the replacement of the methyl group by an olefinic methine group resonating downfield at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.31$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 119.2$ ) ppm ( $\mathrm{CH}-16$ ), which explains the downfield chemical shift of C-3 in 23 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 128.4 \mathrm{ppm}$ ). In contrast, signals due to the other half of the molecule included three aliphatic methine groups resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}}$ 2.65, 4.02 and 5.74 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 35.0,72.5$ and 63.9 ) ppm (CH-3', CH-2' and $\mathrm{CH}-10^{\prime}$, respectively), denoting the oxygenated nature of the latter two, and three methyl groups including one linked to an aromatic ring which appeared at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.98\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 9.6\right)$ ppm ( $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-13$ '). In addition, seven $\mathrm{sp}^{2}$ quaternary carbons, including six aromatic carbons (C-4' to C-9'), two of which being oxygenated as indicated by their downfield chemical shifts at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 158.9$ and 156.6 ppm (C-6' and C-8', respectively), and a carboxyl carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 175.5 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{C}-14\right.$ ') were detected in the ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectrum of $\mathbf{2 3}$ (Table 3.1.24). The COSY spectrum established a continuous spin system beginning with $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-12$ ' through $\mathrm{H}-3$ ' and the lowfield resonating $\mathrm{H}-2$ ' to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11^{\prime}$, which is a typical feature of citrinin derivatives (Benjamin et al., 2006). NMR data analysis and the characteristic ESIMS fragment observed at $252 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ indicated that dihydrocitrinin constitutes the second partial structure of 23. This was further confirmed by comparison with data reported for dihydrocitrinin (Jack et al., 1992) and inspection of respective correlations observed in the HMBC spectrum (Table 3.1.24 and Figure 3.1.43). Correlations observed for $\mathrm{H}-16$ to $\mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-9$ ', and for $\mathrm{H}-10$ ' to $\mathrm{C}-16$, indicated that $\mathrm{C}-10$ ' was connected to $\mathrm{C}-3$ through the olefinic
methine group $\mathrm{CH}-16$. Further evidence for the structural assignment was provided by the direct coupling observed between H-16 and H-10' in the COSY spectrum. Thus, the planar structure of $\mathbf{2 3}$ was established as fumiquinazoline M .

The relative configuration of $\mathbf{2 3}$ was established by inspection of the ROESY spectrum. The southern part of the molecule showed ROESY correlations similar to those observed for 22, hence indicating the same configuration at $\mathrm{C}-14, \mathrm{C}-17$ and C-18. Correlations observed for $\mathrm{H}-2^{\prime}$ to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-12$ ' and $\mathrm{H}-16$, for $\mathrm{H}-3$ ' to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11^{\prime}$, and for $\mathrm{H}-10$ ' to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11$, and $\mathrm{H}-2$ established the relative configuration of the dihydrocitrinin moiety and its connection to the southern part of the molecule. For the dihydrocitrinin part of the molecule the same absolute configuration as previously established for other citrinin derivatives (Richard et al., 1964) was assumed based on biogenetic considerations. In addition, the correlation observed for H-16 to H-7 indicated that the dihydrocitrinin moiety exists in a nearly vertical arrangement to the rest of the molecule. Thus, a relative configuration of $\left(2^{`} R^{*}, 3^{`} S^{*}, 10^{`} R^{*}, 14 R^{*}, 17 R^{*}, 18 S^{*}\right)$ was determined for 23 , in agreement with the corresponding chirality centers of 22 and of dihydrocitrinin (Richard et al., 1964). The ECD spectrum of $\mathbf{2 3}$ showed the same positive/negative/positive pattern of transitions below 270 nm as observed for 22, which indicated that C-14 and the tetrahydro-3H-imidazo[1,2-a]indole-3-one moiety have the same configuration as that of 22 (Figure 3.1.42), while the contribution of the isochroman chromophore is not significant in this range. Above $270 \mathrm{~nm}, \mathbf{2 3}$ had a broad positive plateau, opposite to the CE of $\mathbf{2 2}$, which is attributed to the contribution of the $\mathrm{C}-10$ ' chirality center adjacent to the conjugating $\Delta^{3,16}$ double bond. Thus, $\mathbf{2 3}$ was identified as a new and structurally unusual dimer of fumiquinazoline L and dihydrocitrinin and was given the name fumiquinazoline M .

Tables 3.1.24 NMR data for fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{M}$ (23)

| Position | 23 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta$ (ppm), $J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  | ROESY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |  |
| 1 |  | 166.1 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 10.3 br s |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 128.4 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 146.0 |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 147.1 |  |  |  |
| 7 | 7.59 br d (8.0) | 127.7 | 8 | 11,9,8,12 |  |
| 8 | 7.74 ddd (1.7, 7.1, 8.2) | 134.2 | 7,9 | 10,9,6 |  |
| 9 | 7.40 ddd (0.9, 7.1, 8.0) | 127.3 | 8,10 | 11,7 |  |
| 10 | 7.89 dd (1.6, 8.0) | 127.1 | 9 | 6,12,8 |  |
| 11 |  | 120.0 |  |  |  |
| 12 |  | 159.9 |  |  |  |
| 14 | $5.51 \mathrm{dd}\left(\sum 13.5\right)$ | 51.6 | 15 | 15,17,4,12,1 | 18 |
| 15 | $2.42 \mathrm{dd}(7.0,14.8)$ | 39.5 | 14 | 14,17,18,28,1 |  |
|  | 2.66 dd (6.5, 14.8) |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 6.31 d (8.5) | 119.2 | 10' | 4,9 | 2,7 |
| 17 | 5.48 br s | 75.1 |  |  | 15,19 |
| 18 | 5.58 d (9.7) | 80.1 | 19 | 15,17 |  |
| 19 | 3.80 d (9.7) |  | 18 | 29,20,18,17,30 |  |
| 20 |  | 46.5 |  |  |  |
| 21 |  | 174.2 |  |  |  |
| 23 |  | 138.5 |  |  |  |
| 24 | $7.21 \mathrm{br} \mathrm{d} \mathrm{(7.7)}$ | 114.4 | 25 | 26,28 |  |
| 25 | 7.04 ddd (1.0, 7.7, 7.8 ) | 129.2 | 24,26 | 24,27,23 |  |
| 26 | 6.76 br dd (7.4, 7.7) | 124.0 | 27,25 | 24,28 |  |
| 27 | 7.22 br d (7.4) | 124.1 | 26 | 25,23,17 | 14,15 |
| 28 |  | 136.7 |  |  |  |
| 29 | 0.98 m | 14.1 | 30 | 30,20,21 |  |
|  | $1.08 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | 0.98 m | 11.7 | 29 | 29,20,21 |  |
|  | $1.02 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 2' | $4.02 \mathrm{dq}(2.2,6.5)$ | 72.5 | 11',3' | $11^{\prime}, 12^{\prime}, 3^{\prime}, 10^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}$ | 12, 16 |
| 3 ' | 2.65 dq ( $2.3,6.9$ ) | 35.0 | 2',12' | $5^{\prime}, 9^{\prime}, 12^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}$ | 11' |
| 4 |  | 139.3 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 109.8 |  |  |  |
| 6 | 14.82 s | 158.9 |  | 5',7',6' |  |
| 7 |  | 101.9 |  |  |  |
| 8' | 15.22 s | 156.6 |  | $7^{\prime}, 9^{\prime}, 8^{\prime}$ |  |
| $9^{\prime}$ |  | 108.9 |  |  |  |
| 10' | $5.74 \mathrm{~d}(8.5)$ | 63.9 | 16 | $9^{\prime}, 16,3,4^{\prime}, 8^{\prime}$ | 11',2 |
| 11' | 1.17 d (6.5) | 18.5 | 2, | 3', 2' |  |
| 12' | 1.28 d (6.9) | 20.2 | 3 , | 3', 2', 4' |  |
| 13' | 1.98 s | 9.6 |  | $5^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}, 6^{\prime}$ |  |
| 14 |  | 175.5 |  |  |  |



Figure 3.1.43 HMBC correlations of fumiquinazoline $M$ (23)

### 3.1.24 Fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{N}$ (compound 24, new)



Compound 24 was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 10.0 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-209.0^{\circ}(c 0.12, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 206.5, 305.9, and 317.0 nm . The molecular formula of 24 was determined as $\mathrm{C}_{28} \mathrm{H}_{27} \mathrm{~N}_{5} \mathrm{O}_{6}$, from the prominent signal at $m / z 530.2029$ corresponding to $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$in the HRESIMS, indicating a 56 amu increase in the molecular weight and an additional double-bond equivalent compared to 22. Spectroscopic data of 24 revealed close similarity to 21 and 22 , thus proposing an analogous core structure for $\mathbf{2 4}$. This assumption was confirmed by inspection of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H},{ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR and DEPT spectra (Table 3.1.25), which were almost identical to those of $\mathbf{2 2}$, except for the presence of two additional methyl groups resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.14\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 28.3\right)$ and $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.98\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 22.4\right) \mathrm{ppm}$ in 24, and the absence of signals corresponding to the secondary amide and amine protons ( $\mathrm{H}-2$ and $\mathrm{H}-19$, respectively) detected in 22. Based on chemical shift values, the additional signals were assigned to the N-methyl group at $\mathrm{N}-2$ and the methyl amide group at $\mathrm{N}-19$, respectively. The respective amide carbonyl of the latter was detected at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 169.3 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-33)$ thus verifying the additional double-bond equivalent in 24. Inspection of COSY and HMBC spectra (Table 3.1.25 and Figure 3.1.44) revealed similar structural features as in $\mathbf{2 2}$, in addition to correlations of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-31$ to $\mathrm{C}-1$ and $\mathrm{C}-3$, and of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-32$ to $\mathrm{C}-33$, which confirms the additional functionalities and the planar structure of $\mathbf{2 4}$ as shown. Since the corresponding ECD transitions of 24 and 25 had the same sign as those of 21 even above 270 nm , the absolute configuration of $\mathbf{2 4}$ was found ( $3 R, 14 R, 17 R, 18 S$ ), i.e homochiral with 21 regarding their corresponding chirality centers (Figure 3.1.45). Thus, compound $\mathbf{2 4}$ was finally characterized as a new natural product and was named fumiquinazoline N .

Table 3.1.25 NMR data for fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{N}$ (24)

| Position | $24 \mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC | ROESY |
| 1 |  | 169.3 |  |  |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 84.7 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 150.5 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 146.6 |  |  |  |
| 7 | 7.69 br d (7.7) | 127.9 | 8 | 9,11 |  |
| 8 | 7.73 ddd (1.6, 6.6, 8.2) | 134.7 | 7,9 | 6,10 |  |
| 9 | 7.43 ddd (1.4, 6.8, 8.1) | 127.5 | 8,10 | 7,11 |  |
| 10 | 8.09 br d (7.9) | 126.5 | 9 | 6,8 |  |
| 11 |  | 120.3 |  |  |  |
| 12 |  | 160.9 |  |  |  |
| 13 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | $5.73 \mathrm{dd}(6.5,8.5)$ | 53.5 | 15 | 15,17,4,12,1 |  |
| 15 | 3.04 dd (6.4, 14.2) | 39.6 | 14 | 14,17,18,28,1 | 32 |
|  | 3.16 dd (7.0, 14.2) |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 2.13 s | 25.7 |  | 3,4 | 31 |
| 17 |  | 78.7 |  |  |  |
| 18 | 6.58 s | 80.7 |  | 17,33,21,20 | 14,15,32 |
| 19 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 |  | 47.2 |  |  |  |
| 21 |  | 172.4 |  |  |  |
| 22 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 |  | 139.3 |  |  |  |
| 24 | 7.46 br d (7.8) | 117.7 | 25 | 26,28 |  |
| 25 | 7.17 br dd (7.5, 7.6) | 130.2 | 24,26 | 23,27 |  |
| 26 | 7.07 br m | 126.4 | 25,27 | 24,28 |  |
| 27 | 7.72 br d (7.7) | 124.0 | 26 | 23,25 | 14,15 |
| 28 |  | 135.4 |  |  |  |
| 29 | $1.38 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ | 13.0 | 30 |  |  |
|  | $1.93 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | $1.33 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ | 13.0 | 29 |  |  |
|  | $1.45 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | 3.14 s | 28.3 |  | 3,1 |  |
| 32 | 1.98 s | 22.4 |  | 33 |  |
| 33 |  | 169.3 |  |  |  |



Figure 3.1.44 HMBC correlations of fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{N}$ (24)


Figure 3.1.45 Experimental ECD spectra of 21 (black), 24 (red), 25 (olive) and 26
(blue) in acetonitrile

### 3.1.25 Fumiquinazoline $O$ (compound 25, new)



Compound 25 was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 10.0 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-89.0^{\circ}(c 0.12, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 205.1, 231.2, and 274.5 nm . The molecular formula of $\mathbf{2 5}$ was established as $\mathrm{C}_{29} \mathrm{H}_{29} \mathrm{~N}_{5} \mathrm{O}_{6}$ by analysis of its HRESIMS ( $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 544.2186[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$), indicating an increase by 14 amu compared with 24 . The physicochemical data of $\mathbf{2 5}$ were almost identical to those of $\mathbf{2 4}$ (Table 3.1.26), apart from the appearance of an additional $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}$ signal at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.03\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 51.2\right) \mathrm{ppm}$ in the NMR spectra of $\mathbf{2 5}$, which accounts for the 14 amu molecular weight difference. This suggested that 25 features the same molecular skeleton as $\mathbf{2 4}$, but with a methoxy substitutent at C-3 instead of $3-\mathrm{OH}$ as found in 24. The observed HMBC (Figure 3.1.46) correlation of the methoxy protons $\left(\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-34\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$ supported this assumption. Accordingly, large downfield shifts were observed for C-3 and C-16 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 89.2$ and 27.7 ppm , respectively), whereas $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-16$ protons suffered only a slight upfield shift ( $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.03 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) compared to the respective values in 24. Further confirmation of the planar structure of $\mathbf{2 5}$ was achieved by comprehensive analysis of 2D NMR spectra (Table 3.1.26). Hence, 25 was characterized as a new natural product and was named fumiquinazolines O .

The relative configurations of $\mathbf{2 4}$ and $\mathbf{2 5}$ were determined on the basis of ROESY experiments, which showed an identical set of correlations for both compounds. Comparison with ROESY data obtained for 22 indicated identical relative configurations for all three compounds. In analogy to 22, correlations were observed for both $\mathrm{H}-18$ and $\mathrm{H}-27$ to $\mathrm{H}-14$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}$-15. In addition, $\mathrm{H}-18$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15$ correlated to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-32$, and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-16$ to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-31$ in 24 and to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-31$ and $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-34$ in 25. Hence, a relative configuration of ( $3 R^{*}, 14 R^{*}, 17 R^{*}, 18 S^{*}$ ) was established for $\mathbf{2 4}$ and $\mathbf{2 5}$, in agreement with that determined for 21 and 22. Since the corresponding ECD transitions of $\mathbf{2 4}$ and $\mathbf{2 5}$ had the same sign as those of $\mathbf{2 1}$ even above 270 nm , the absolute configuration of $\mathbf{2 5}$ was found ( $3 R, 14 R, 17 R, 18 S$ ), i.e. homochiral with 21 regarding their corresponding chirality centers (Figure 3.1.44).

Table 3.1.26 NMR data for fumiquinazoline O (25)

| Position | $25 \mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta$ (ppm), $J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC | ROESY |
| 1 |  | 167.4 |  |  |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 89.2 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 149.6 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 146.8 |  |  |  |
| 7 | $7.82 \mathrm{dd}(1.5,8.2)$ | 127.8 | 8 | 9,11 |  |
| 8 | 7.79 ddd (1.6, 6.7, 8.3) | 135.1 | 7,9 | 6,10 |  |
| 9 | 7.49 ddd (1.6, 6.8, 8.1) | 127.8 | 8,10 | 7,11 |  |
| 10 | 8.17 dd (1.1, 7.9) | 126.8 | 9 | 6,8,12 |  |
| 11 |  | 120.3 |  |  |  |
| 12 |  | 160.5 |  |  |  |
| 13 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | $6.15 \mathrm{dd}(5.0,8.6)$ | 52.4 | 15 | 15,17,4,1 |  |
| 15 | $2.71 \mathrm{dd}(5.0,14.5)$ | 40.9 | 14 | 14,17,18,28,1 | 32 |
|  | 2.88 dd (8.7, 14.5) |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 2.02 s | 27.7 |  | 3,4 |  |
| 17 |  | 78.8 |  |  |  |
| 18 | 6.51 s | 81.3 |  | 15,20,17,33,21 | 14,15,32 |
| 19 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 |  | 46.7 |  |  |  |
| 21 |  | 173.1 |  |  |  |
| 22 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 |  | 139.4 |  |  |  |
| 24 | $7.51 \mathrm{br} \mathrm{d} \mathrm{(7.6)}$ | 117.4 | 25 | 26,28 |  |
| 25 | 7.27 ddd (1.0, 7.7, 8.2) | 130.3 | 24,26 | 23,27 |  |
| 26 | 7.10 br t (7.5) | 126.2 | 25,27 | 24,28 |  |
| 27 | 7.55 br d (7.5) | 123.9 | 26 | 23,25 | 14,15 |
| 28 |  | 135.9 |  |  |  |
| 29 | 1.44 ddd (6.2, 7.8, 10.3) | 13.6 | 30 | 30,20,21 |  |
|  | 1.93 ddd (6.0, 7.7, 10.1) |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | 1.38 ddd (6.0, 8.0, 10.4) | 13.3 | 29 | 29,20,21 |  |
|  | 1.47 ddd (6.1, 8.0, 10.4) |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | 3.09 s | 27.3 |  | 3,1 | 34 |
| 32 | 2.03 s | 22.6 |  | 33 |  |
| 33 |  | 169.2 |  |  |  |
| 34 | 3.03 s | 51.2 |  | 3 |  |



Figure 3.1.46 HMBC correlations of fumiquinazoline $O$ (25)

### 3.1.26 Fumiquinazoline $P$ (compound 26, new)



Compound 26 was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 5.2 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $-73.8^{\circ}(c 0.12, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it displayed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 210.5, 231.6, and 305.3 nm . HRESIMS of 26 exhibited a prominent peak at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z}$ $512.1927[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$, indicating a molecular formula of $\mathrm{C}_{28} \mathrm{H}_{25} \mathrm{~N}_{5} \mathrm{O}_{5}$, including 19 double-bond equivalents. ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ and ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra of 26 showed a set of signals similar to those observed for $\mathbf{2 4}$ (Table 3.1.27), apart from the absence of the hydroxyl group at C-3 in 24 and replacement of the methyl group $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-16$ by an exocyclic olefinic methylene group, the protons of which resonating downfield at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.25$ and $6.33 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-16\right)$ and the corresponding carbon at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 103.7 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-16)$. Accordingly, the signal corresponding to C-3 appears downfield at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 138.5 \mathrm{ppm}$. This was further confirmed by correlations observed for the olefinic methylene protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-16\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$ and $\mathrm{C}-4$ in the HMBC spectrum (Table 3.1.27 and Figure 3.1.47). Analysis of ROESY correlations indicated the same relative configuration at C-14, C-17 and C-18 as in the previously discussed compounds (21-26), thus establishing a relative configuration of $\left(14 R^{*}, 17 R^{*}, 18 S^{*}\right)$ for 26. Although compound 26 lacks the C-3 chirality center, it exhibited near identical ECD spectrum with 25 (Figure 3.1.44), which confirmed its $(14 R, 17 R, 18 S)$ absolute configuration. Therefore, 26 was characterized as a new natural product and named fumiquinazoline $P$.

Table 3.1.27 NMR data for fumiquinazoline $P$ (26)

| Position | $26 \mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta$ (ppm), $J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  | ROESY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |  |
| 1 |  | 165.0 |  |  |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 138.5 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 144.9 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 147.0 |  |  |  |
| 7 | 7.60 br d (8.1) | 127.2 | 8 | 9,11 |  |
| 8 | 7.69 ddd (1.6, 6.8, 8.3) | 134.6 | 7,9 | 6,10 |  |
| 9 | 7.34 ddd (1.3, 6.8, 7.6) | 127.3 | 8,10 | 7,11 |  |
| 10 | 7.87 br d (7.6) | 126.8 | 9 | 6,8,12 |  |
| 11 |  | 119.6 |  |  |  |
| 12 |  | 160.2 |  |  |  |
| 13 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14 | 6.04 dd (4.9, 9.7) | 52.1 | 15 | 4 |  |
| 15 | 2.66 dd (9.7, 14.5) | 39.4 | 14 | 14,17,18,28,1 | 32 |
|  | 3.09 dd (5.1, 14.5) |  |  |  |  |
| 16 | 5.25 d (1.8) | 103.7 |  | 3, 4 |  |
|  | 6.33 d (1.7) |  |  |  |  |
| 17 |  | 78.0 |  |  |  |
| 18 | 6.62 s | 80.1 |  | 17,33,21 | 14,15,32 |
| 19 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 |  | 47.0 |  |  |  |
| 21 |  | 173.1 |  |  |  |
| 22 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 |  | 139.2 |  |  |  |
| 24 | 7.33 br d | 117.0 | 25 | 26,28 |  |
| 25 | 6.87 br t | 130.5 | 24,26 | 27,23 |  |
| 26 | 6.64 br t | 126.1 | 25,27 | 24,28 |  |
| 27 | 7.07 br d | 122.7 | 26 | 23,25 | 14,15 |
| 28 |  | 134.2 |  |  |  |
| 29 | $1.38 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ | 12.6 | 30 |  |  |
|  | $1.92 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 30 | $1.33 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ | 12.6 | 29 |  |  |
|  | $1.50 \mathrm{~m}\left(\sum 24.0\right)$ |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | 3.34 s | 31.3 |  | 3,1 | 16 |
| 32 | 2.05 s | 22.0 |  | 33 |  |
| 33 |  | 169.0 |  |  |  |



Figure 3.1.47 HMBC correlations of fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{P}$ (26)

### 3.1.27 Cytochalasin Z17 (compound 27, known)



Compound 27 was obtained as a colorless amorphous powder ( 5.2 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{D}$ value of $+53.6^{\circ}(c 0.1, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it revealed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 223.5$, and 261.0 nm . Its molecular formula was established as $\mathrm{C}_{28} \mathrm{H}_{33} \mathrm{NO}_{5}$ according to the $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$signal at $m / z 464.2431$ (calc. for 464.2437 ) in the HRESIMS. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{NMR}$ spectrum (Table 3.1.28) of $\mathbf{2 7}$ revealed the presence of an amide proton (NH-2) at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}}$ 8.36 ppm , three methyl singlets at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.73\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24\right), 1.50\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-12\right)$, and $1.17\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11\right)$ ppm , one methyl doublet at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 0.98 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-23\right)$, three methylene groups at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.66$ and $2.94 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-10\right), 1.68$ and $2.19 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-15\right)$, and 2.97 and 3.56 ppm $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-20\right)$, five methine groups at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.46(\mathrm{H}-3), 3.26(\mathrm{H}-4), 3.58(\mathrm{H}-7), 2.90(\mathrm{H}-8)$, and 3.54 (H-16) ppm, and one aliphatic hydroxyl group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 4.59$ (7-OH). Moreover, three olefinic hydrogen atoms at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 5.21 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-14), 5.78 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-13)$, and 6.47 ppm ( $\mathrm{H}-19$ ), and five aromatic protons at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 7.15 \mathrm{ppm}$ (H-2' and H-6', respectively), 7.23 ppm ( $\mathrm{H}-4^{\prime}$ ), and 7.33 ppm ( $\mathrm{H}-3^{\prime}$ and $\mathrm{H}-5^{\prime}$, respectively) of a phenyl ring were observed. The observation suggested the presence of one dimethylated 5,6-double bond in the structure of 27 . The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$-NMR spectrum of $\mathbf{2 7}$ confirmed the appearance of 28 carbon signals with two carbon signals overlapping in the structure. Furthermore, the DEPT experiment revealed the presence of eight quaternary carbon atoms, three of which were attributed to the carboxyl carbonyl at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 168.8 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-21)$, the amide carbonyl at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 171.0 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{C}-1)$, and the ketone carbonyl at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 205.4 \mathrm{ppm}$ (C-17), respectively. Inspection and comparison of the NMR spectra of 27 led to the conclusion that compound 27 had the same 10-phenylperhydroisoindol-1-one skeleton identified in cytochalasin Z17 (Table 3.1.28) (Lin et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010). The analysis of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum (Table 3.1.28 and Figure 3.1.48) established the presence of four spin systems including correlations observed for the methine group (H-3) to the methylene protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-10\right)$, the methine proton $(\mathrm{H}-4)$, and the amide proton (NH-2), for the methylene protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-20\right)$ to the olefinic methine proton (H-19), for the aromatic system (H-2' to $\mathrm{H}-6^{\prime}$ ), and for the methine proton (H-8) to $\mathrm{H}-7$ and $\mathrm{H}-13$ as well as for $\mathrm{H}-13$ to $\mathrm{H}-16$ and $\mathrm{H}-16$ to $\mathrm{H}-23$. Interpretation of HMQC spectrum allowed the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms.

The connection between the different substructures of 27 was determined by the HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.49). HMBC correlations were observed from the methylene protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-10\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4, \mathrm{C}-1$ ', $\mathrm{C}-2$ ', and $\mathrm{C}-6$ ' $\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 58.1,47.4,137.5\right.$, 129.4, and 129.4 ppm , respectively), from the methine proton (H-4) to C-5 and C-6 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 124.2$ and 134.0 ppm , respectively), from the amide proton ( $\mathrm{NH}-2$ ) to $\mathrm{C}-1, \mathrm{C}-3$, $\mathrm{C}-4$, and $\mathrm{C}-9$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 171.0,58.1,47.4$, and 84.2 ppm , respectively), from the proton (CH-8) to C-1, C-4, C-6 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 134.0 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), C-7 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 69.0 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), C-9, C-13 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 127.5$ $\mathrm{ppm})$, and $\mathrm{C}-14\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 133.0 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, from the methyl group $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-4, \mathrm{C}-5$, and $\mathrm{C}-6$, and from the methyl group $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-12\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-6$, and $\mathrm{C}-7$. Furthermore, the HMBC spectrum revealed correlations of $\mathrm{H}-16$ to $\mathrm{C}-14$ and $\mathrm{C}-18$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 141.6 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-23$ to $\mathrm{C}-15\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 40.1 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-16\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 38.9 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and $\mathrm{C}-17$, of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-24$ to $\mathrm{C}-17, \mathrm{C}-18$, and $\mathrm{C}-19\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 133.4 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, of $\mathrm{H}-19$ to $\mathrm{C}-17$ and $\mathrm{C}-24\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 12.6 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and of $\mathrm{H}-20$ to $\mathrm{C}-9$, $\mathrm{C}-18, \mathrm{C}-19$, and $\mathrm{C}-21$.

Inspection of ROESY spectrum showed correlations between $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-10$ and $\mathrm{H}-4, \mathrm{H}-8$ and $\mathrm{OH}-7$, and between $\mathrm{H}-8$ and $\mathrm{H}-4$ indicating the relative configuration of $\mathbf{2 7}$ as shown, which was also in accordence with reported data for this compound (Lin et al., 2009). Therefore, compound 27 was finally established as cytochalasin Z17 according to the analysis mentioned above in addition to comparison with reported data (Table 3.1.28) (Lin et al., 2009).

Table 3.1.28 NMR data for cytochalasin Z17 (27)

| Position | $27 \mathrm{DMSO}-d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), \mathrm{J}$ in Hz |  | Reference DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz (Lin et al., 2009) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  | 171.0 |  | 171.0 |
| 2-NH | 8.36 s |  | 8.35 s |  |
| 3 | 3.46 m | 58.1 | 3.39 dd (4.8, 9.5) | 58.2 |
| 4 | 3.26 m | 47.4 | 3.28 s | 47.4 |
| 5 |  | 124.2 |  | 124.2 |
| 6 |  | 134.0 |  | 134.1 |
| 7 | 3.58 m | 69.0 | $3.59-3.61 \mathrm{~m}$ | 69.0 |
| 7-OH | 4.59 d (7.6) |  |  |  |
| 8 | 2.90 d (10.0) | 48.8 | 2.91-2.94 m | 48.8 |
| 9 |  | 84.2 |  | 84.2 |
| 10 | 2.66 dd (10.0, 13.0) | 42.7 | 2.69 dd (9.9, 12.8) | 42.7 |
|  | 2.94 dd (4.5, 11.8) |  | 2.93-2.95 m |  |
| 11 | 1.17 s | 17.1 | 1.18 s | 17.0 |
| 12 | 1.50 s | 14.5 | 1.51 s | 14.5 |
| 13 | 5.78 dd (10.1, 15.2) | 127.5 | $5.81 \mathrm{dd}(9.8,15.4)$ | 127.6 |
| 14 | 5.21 m | 133.0 | 5.23 ddd (3.7, 11.0, 15.0) | 133.4 |
| 15 | 1.68 d (11.4) | 40.1 | $1.70-1.72 \mathrm{~m}$ | 40.2 |
|  | 2.19 d (13.6) |  | $2.19-2.21 \mathrm{~m}$ |  |
| 16 | 3.54 m | 38.9 | $3.45-3.48 \mathrm{~m}$ | 39.1 |
| 17 |  | 205.4 |  | 205.4 |
| 18 |  | 141.6 |  | 141.6 |
| 19 | 6.47 dd (6.3, 9.3) | 133.4 | $5.48 \mathrm{dd}(6.3,10.3)$ | 133.0 |
| 20 | 2.97 d (5.0) | 37.2 | 2.97 m | 37.2 |
|  | 3.56 d (10.8) |  | 3.57 m |  |
| 21 |  | 168.8 |  | 168.8 |
| 22 |  |  |  |  |
| 23 | 0.98 d (6.40) | 17.0 | 0.99 d (6.3) | 17.2 |
| 24 | 1.73 s | 12.6 | 1.71 s | 12.6 |
| 1 , |  | 137.5 |  | 137.6 |
| 2' | 7.15 d (7.3) | 129.4 | 7.16 d (7.3) | 129.2 |
| 3 , | 7.33 t (7.5) | 128.4 | 7.33 dd (7.3, 7.7) | 128.9 |
| 4 | 7.23 t (7.4) | 126.5 | $7.23 \mathrm{dd}(7.3,7.3)$ | 126.6 |
| 5 , | 7.33 t (7.5) | 128.4 | 7.33 dd (7.3, 7.7) | 128.9 |
| 6 ' | 7.15 d (7.3) | 129.4 | 7.16 d (7.3) | 129.2 |



Figure 3.1.48 COSY correlations of cytochalasin Z17 (27)

Figure 3.1.49 HMBC correlations of cytochalasin Z17 (27).

### 3.1.28 Dihydroisoflavipucine (compound 28, known)

| Dihydroisoflavipucine |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Biological Source Aspergillus sp. <br> Sample Code Fr.7.6.6.2.2 <br> Sample Amount 12 mg <br> Molecular Formula $\mathrm{C}_{12} \mathrm{H}_{17} \mathrm{NO}_{4}$ <br> Molecular Weight $239 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ <br> Solubility MeOH <br> Physical Description Yellow amorphou <br> Optical Rotation $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}-23^{\circ}(c 0.5$ <br> HPLC Retention Time 21.7 min (standar | us solid <br> , MeOH ) <br> rd gradient) |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| 30,0 40,0 | 00 |
|  |  |

Compound 28 was obtained as a yellow amorphous solid ( 12 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{D}$ value of $-23^{\circ}(c 0.5, \mathrm{MeOH})$ and it exhibited UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH})$ 218.3, 251.8, and 303.9 nm , which suggested that $\mathbf{2 8}$ was a pyridione derivative (Loesgen et al., 2011). Its molecular weight was established as $239 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ based on the molecular ion peaks observed at $m / z 239.8[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $261.8[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}, 478.9[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$, $500.8[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$and $739.9[3 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$upon the positive ionization by ESI-MS analysis. Its molecular formula was determined as $\mathrm{C}_{12} \mathrm{H}_{17} \mathrm{NO}_{4}$ based on the $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$ signal at $m / z 240.1229$ (calc. for 240.1231) in HRESIMS, containing two more hydrogen atoms than the isoflavipucine (28a). The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$-NMR spectrum of 28 (Table 3.1.29) revealed the appearance of one olefinic methine proton at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.15 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-5)$, three aliphatic methine groups at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.10 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-7), 3.91 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-8)$ and 1.92 ppm $(\mathrm{H}-10)$, one aliphatic methylene group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 1.33$ and $1.41 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-9\right)$, two methyl groups at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 0.97 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11\right)$ and $1.01 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-12\right)$, and one aromatic methyl at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.30 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-13\right)$. The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}-\mathrm{NMR}$ and DEPT spectra of $\mathbf{2 8}$ displayed 12 carbon signals for three methyl groups, one methylene group, four methine groups, and four quaternary olefinic carbon atoms including one amide carbonyl carbons as well as two oxygenated carbon atoms. The analysis of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum (Table 3.1.29 and Figure 3.1.50) established the presence of one continuous spin system indicating the protons $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-12$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11$ going through $\mathrm{H}-8, \mathrm{CH}_{2}-9$ and $\mathrm{H}-10$. Moreover, the interpretation of HMQC spectrum allowed the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms.

Additionally, the connection of different substructures of $\mathbf{2 8}$ was determined based on the interpretation of the HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.1.51). HMBC correlations were observed for $\mathrm{H}-5$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4, \mathrm{C}-6, \mathrm{C}-13$ and even to $\mathrm{C}-2\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 132.7,157.9,143.5,18.8\right.$, and 155.2 ppm , respectively), corresponding to the pyridone ring, for $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-4$, $\mathrm{C}-8\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 70.5 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and $\mathrm{C}-9\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 40.4 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ which were assigned to the oxygen-containing five-membered ring, for $\mathrm{H}-8$ to $\mathrm{C}-7$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 115.8 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), $\mathrm{C}-9$, and $\mathrm{C}-10$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 25.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), for $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-9$ to $\mathrm{C}-7, \mathrm{C}-8, \mathrm{C}-10, \mathrm{C}-11\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 21.8 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and $\mathrm{C}-12\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 24.0\right.$ ppm ), for $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-11$ to $\mathrm{C}-9, \mathrm{C}-10$ and $\mathrm{C}-12$, and for $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-12$ to $\mathrm{C}-9, \mathrm{C}-10$ and $\mathrm{C}-11$,
corresponding to the previously mentioned spin system. Besides, correlation of the methylene group protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-13\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-4, \mathrm{C}-5, \mathrm{C}-6$, and even to $\mathrm{C}-3$, revealed that the methyl group was placed at C-6. By comparison of the data obtained for 28 to those of isoflavipucine (28a), the only difference was the resonance of an oxygenated saturated carbon atom at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 70.5$ (C-8) in 28, instead of the carbonyl group in 28a. Therefore, compound $\mathbf{2 8}$ was finally established as dihydroisoflavipucine according to the analysis as mentioned above and by comparison with reported data (Table 3.1.29) (Loesgen et al., 2011).

Table 3.1.29 NMR data for dihydroisoflavipucine (28)

| Position | $28 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Reference $\mathrm{CDCl}_{3}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz <br> Loesgen et al., 2011 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz})$ |
| 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 2 |  | 155.2 |  | 153.9 |
| 3 |  | 132.7 |  | 130.7 |
| 4 |  | 157.9 |  | 156.5 |
| 5 | 6.15 d (0.7) | 95.0 | 5.96 s | 94.2 |
| 6 |  | 143.5 |  | 142.7 |
| 7 | 6.10 d (3.3) | 115.8 | 6.00 d (3.5) | 114.1 |
| 8 | $3.91 \mathrm{dt}(3.5,9.3)$ | 70.5 | 3.92 ddd (4.0, 4.0, 10.0) | 69.8 |
| 9 | 1.33 ddd (3.6, 3.6, 9.4) | 40.4 | 1.37 ddd (4.0, 4.0, 10.0) | 39.6 |
|  | 1.41 ddd (3.6, 3.6, 9.4) |  | 1.57 ddd (4.0, 4.0, 10.0) |  |
| 10 | 1.92 m | 25.2 | 1.88 m | 24.0 |
| 11 | 0.97 d (6.6) | 21.8 | 0.91 d (6.5) | 21.5 |
| 12 | 1.01 d (6.6) | 24.0 | 0.95 d (6.5) | 23.5 |
| 13 | 2.30 d s | 18.8 | 2.36 s | 19.3 |


(28a) isoflavipucine

(28) dihydroisoflavipucine


Figure 3.1.50 COSY correlations of dihydroisoflavipucine (28).


Figure 3.1.51 HMBC correlations of dihydroisoflavipucine (28).

### 3.1.29 Austalide $R$ (compound 29, new)



Compound 29 was obtained as a brown amorphous solid ( 5.4 mg ) with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{D}$ value of $-57^{\circ}(c 0.15, \mathrm{MeOH})$. Similar to $\mathbf{1 0 - 1 4}$, the UV spectrum of $\mathbf{2 9}$ showed maxima at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 222.6$ and 268.5 nm , which indicated it was a meroterpenoid derivative. Its molecular weight was established as $476 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ according to the molecular ion peaks observed at $m / z 477.1[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $499.2[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$, and 975.1 $[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$upon positive ionization by ESI-MS analysis. The molecular formula of 29 was determined to be $\mathrm{C}_{25} \mathrm{H}_{32} \mathrm{O}_{9}$ based on the prominent signal at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 477.2119$ $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(calc. for 477.2125) in the HRESIMS, indicating a loss of 14 amu in the molecular weight compared with 12. The physicochemical data of 29 were almost identical to those of $\mathbf{1 2}$ apart from the disappearance of the methoxy group located at C-17 in $\mathbf{1 2}$ in the NMR spectra of $\mathbf{2 9}$ (Tables 3.1.30 and 3.1.31). This revealed that $\mathbf{2 9}$ possesses the same skeleton as austalide $O$ (12) but with a hydroxyl group ar C-17 instead of the 17-OMe, which accounts for the 14 amu molecular weight difference. Further confirmation of the planar structure was achieved by analysis of the DEPT, COSY, HMQC, and HMBC spectra (Table 3.1.30 and Figure 3.1.52). Moreover, the ROESY spectrum (Table 3.1.30) exhibited the relative configuration in agreement with those of austalides M-O (10-12) (Yaming et al., 2011). Consequently, compound 29 was identified as a new natural product and named austalide R by analysis of all mentioned data and by comparison with reported data (Yaming et al., 2011).

(12) austalide 0

(29) austalide R

Table 3.1.30 NMR data for austalide $\mathbf{R}$ (29)

| Position | 29 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  | ROESY $^{a}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(75 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |  |
| 1 | 5.25 s | 68.1 |  | 3,4,7,8,9 |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  | 168.6 |  |  |  |
| 4 |  | 107.0 |  |  |  |
| 5 |  | 156.7 |  |  |  |
| 6 |  | 119.4 |  |  |  |
| 7 |  | 157.2 |  |  |  |
| 8 |  | 113.9 |  |  |  |
| 9 |  | 147.3 |  |  |  |
| 10 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 |  | 75.2 |  |  |  |
| 12 | 2.01 d (4.7) | 42.8 | 13 |  |  |
|  | 2.20 d (14.3) |  |  |  |  |
| 13 | 3.89 brs | 67.6 | 12 |  | 26 |
| $13-\mathrm{OH}$ | 4.62 brs |  |  |  |  |
| 14 |  | 85.5 |  |  |  |
| 15 |  | 83.8 |  |  |  |
| 16 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17 |  | 117.1 |  |  |  |
| 18 | $1.50 \mathrm{~m}, 1.74 \mathrm{~m}$ | 30.6 | 19 | 17,20 |  |
| 19 | $1.80 \mathrm{~m}, 1.93 \mathrm{~m}$ | 31.0 | 18 | 17 |  |
| 20 |  | 38.0 |  |  |  |
| 21 | 2.34 s | 46.3 | 22 | 6,11,19,20,22,24,27 | 24 |
| 22 | 4.83 d (2.8) | 59.5 | 21 | 6,7,11,20 | 27 |
| $22-\mathrm{OH}$ | 5.20 brs |  |  | 6 |  |
| 23 | 1.99 s | 10.5 |  | 6,7,8,9 |  |
| 24 | 1.29 s | 28.8 |  | 11,12,21 | 21 |
| 25 | 1.43 s | 25.6 |  | 14,15,26 | 27 |
| 26 | 1.32 s | 29.1 |  | 14,15,25 |  |
| 27 | 0.79 s | 18.2 |  | 14,19,20,21 | 22,25 |
| $28-\mathrm{OH}$ | 7.04 brs |  |  |  |  |
| 29 | 4.01 s | 62.5 |  | 5 |  |

Table 3.1.31 Comparison between austalide $R(29)$ and austalide $O$ (12)


Figure 3.1.52 HMBC correlations of austalide $\mathbf{R}$ (29).
3.1.30 3-(4-(4-(2-Carboxyvinyl)-2-methoxyphenoxy)-3-methoxyphenyl)-2hydroxyacrylic acid (compound 30, new)

| $\begin{gathered} \text { 3-(4-(4-(2-Carboxyvinyl)-2-methoxyphenoxy)-3-methoxyphenyl)-2- } \\ \text { hydroxyacrylic acid } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Biological Source <br> Sample Code <br> Sample Amount <br> Molecular Formula <br> Molecular Weight <br> Solubility <br> Physical Description <br> HPLC Retention Time | Aspergillus sp. <br> Fr.7.5.3.7.6 <br> 2.5 mg <br> $\mathrm{C}_{20} \mathrm{H}_{18} \mathrm{O}_{8}$ <br> $386 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ <br> MeOH <br> Yellow powder <br> 24.5 min (standard gradient) |
|  |  |
|  |  |
| $\begin{array}{llllll}300 & 100 & 1000 & 300\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |

Compound 30 was isolated as a yellow powder ( 2.5 mg ) and it revealed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\max }(\mathrm{MeOH}) 217.9,234.5$, and 326.2 nm . Its molecular weight was established as $386 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ based on the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 386.6$ $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $408.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}, 794.5[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}, 384.8[\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$(base peak), and $770.7[2 \mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$upon positive and negative ionization by ESI-MS analysis. The molecular formula of $\mathbf{3 0}$ was determined as $\mathrm{C}_{20} \mathrm{H}_{18} \mathrm{O}_{8}$ based on the $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$signal at $\mathrm{m} / z 387.1074$ (calc. for 387.1080) in the HRESIMS, indicating an increase of 16 amu in the molecular weight compared with 1-feruloyloxy-2-methoxy cinnamic acid (30a) (Huang et al., 2000). The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$-NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.32) of $\mathbf{3 0}$ displayed two sets of ABX aromatic systems at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.82 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-5), 7.11 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-6)$, and $7.36 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-2)$, as well as $6.79 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-5^{\prime}\right), 7.13 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-6^{\prime}\right)$, and $7.46 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-2^{\prime}\right)$, which were assigned to the two trisubstituted benzene rings. Two signals resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.74$ ppm $\left(3,-\mathrm{OCH}_{3}\right)$ and $4.01 \mathrm{ppm}\left(3-\mathrm{OCH}_{3}\right)$ in the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{NMR}$ spectra with two corresponding carbon signals at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 56.1 \mathrm{ppm}$ and 56.8 ppm , respectively, revealed the presence of two methoxyl groups on both rings. Moreover, two trans related olefinic protons resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.44 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-8, J=13.4)$ and $7.65 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-7, J=15.9)$ revealed the appearance of the $-\mathrm{CH}=\mathrm{CH}$ - moiety. In addition, the proton signal resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 7.44 \mathrm{ppm}$ was assigned to the olefinic methine group (CH-7). The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$ and DEPT spectra of $\mathbf{3 0}$ displayed 18 carbon signals for two methoxy groups, nine olefinic methine groups, and seven quaternary carbon atoms including one carbonyl carbon, whereas two carbon atoms were not detected as indicated by the molecular formular of 30. The analysis of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum (Table 3.1.32 and Figure 3.1.53) established the presence of two aromatic olefinic $A B$ spin systems corresponding to correlations of H-6 to H-5 and H-2, and of H-6' to H-5' and H-2', as well as one additional olefinic AB system corresponding to correlation of $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{H}-8$. The interpretation of HMQC spectrum allowed the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms. Accordingly, the NMR spectra of $\mathbf{3 0}$ revealed signals of two feruloyl moieties. The NMR data of $\mathbf{3 0}$ were similar to those of 30a indicating similar molecular framework for both compounds apart from the appearance of an additional hydroxyl group at C-8' in $\mathbf{3 0}$ revealing in an asymmetrical
compound, which accounts for the 16 amu molecular weight difference.

The connection between the different substructures of $\mathbf{3 0}$ was achieved by interpretation of the HMBC spectrum (Table 3.1.32 and Figure 3.1.54). The aromatic proton H-2 correlated with two aromatic carbons C-6 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 123.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and C-7 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}}$ 146.0 ppm ) as well as three quaternary carbons $\mathrm{C}-1\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 130.7 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-3\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 150.6\right.$ $\mathrm{ppm})$ and C-4 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 149.3 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), two of which being oxygenated. HMBC correlations were also observed for $\mathrm{H}-5$ to $\mathrm{C}-1$ and $\mathrm{C}-3$, for $\mathrm{H}-6$ to $\mathrm{C}-2$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 112.9 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), $\mathrm{C}-4$ and $\mathrm{C}-7$, and for $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-1, \mathrm{C}-2, \mathrm{C}-6, \mathrm{C}-8$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 118.0 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), and C-9 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 170.1 \mathrm{ppm}$ ). Moreover, correlations of the aromatic proton H-2' to C-1', C-3', C-4', C-6' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 126.5$ ppm), and C-7', and for the $\mathrm{H}-5^{\prime}$ to $\mathrm{C}-1^{\prime}\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 125.8 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ and C-3' $\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 148.9 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and of H-6' to C-2' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 113.9 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), C-4' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 149.4 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and C-7' ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 128.6 \mathrm{ppm}$ ). Correlations of the methoxy group protons $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-3$, and $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}-3$ to $\mathrm{C}-3$ ' and $\mathrm{C}-3$, respectively, suggested their location on the aromatic rings. Remaining HMBC correlations were observed for the H-7' to C-2'. Despite of missing carbon signals the structure of $\mathbf{3 0}$ was confirmed by HRESIMS and comparison with reported data for 1-feruloyloxy-2-methoxy cinnamic acid (30a). Therefore, compound $\mathbf{3 0}$ was finally confirmed as a new natural product and was named 3- (4- (4- (-2 -carboxyvinyl)-2-methoxyphenoxy)-3-methoxyphenyl)-2-hydroxyacrylic acid based on the analysis of the foregoing evidence in addition to comparison with reported data (Huang et al., 2000).

(30a) 1-Feruloyloxy-2-methoxy cinnamic acid (Huang et al., 2000)

(30) 3-(4-(4-(2-Carboxyvinyl)-2-methoxyphenoxy)-3-methoxyphenyl)-2hydroxyacrylic acid

Table 3.1.32 NMR data for 3-(4-(4-(2-carboxyvinyl)-2-methoxyphenoxy)
-3-methoxyphenyl)-2-hydroxyacrylic acid (30)

| Position | $30 \mathrm{CD}_{3} \mathrm{OD}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(600 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(150 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |
| 1 |  | 130.7 |  |  |
| 2 | 7.36 d (1.3) | 112.9 | 3,6 | 1,3,4,6,7 |
| 3 |  | 150.6 |  |  |
| $3-\mathrm{OCH}_{3}$ | 4.01 s | 56.8 |  | 3 |
| 4 |  | 149.3 |  |  |
| 5 | 6.82 d (8.0) | 114.8 | 6 | 1,3 |
| 6 | 7.11 d (7.5) | 123.2 | 2,5 | 2,4,7 |
| 7 | 7.65 d (15.9) | 146.0 | 8 | 1,2,6,8,9 |
| 8 | 6.44 d (13.4) | 118.0 | 7 |  |
| 9 |  | 170.1 |  |  |
| 1 ' |  | 125.8 |  |  |
| 2, | 7.46 d (1.3) | 113.9 | $3^{\prime}, 6^{\prime}$ | $1^{\prime}, 3^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}, 6^{\prime}, 7^{\prime}$ |
| 3' |  | 148.9 |  |  |
| 3'- $\mathrm{OCH}_{3}$ | 3.74 s | 56.1 |  | 3 ' |
| 4 , |  | 149.9 |  |  |
| 5 , | 6.79 d (8.22) | 116.3 | 6 ' | $1^{\prime}, 3^{\prime}$ |
| 6 ' | 7.13 dd (1.1, 8.2) | 126.5 | 2',5' | $2^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}, 7 \times$ |
| 7 | 7.44 brs | 128.6 |  | 2' |
| 8' |  |  |  |  |
| $9 \times$ |  |  |  |  |



Figure 3.1.53 COSY correlations of 3-(4-(4-(2-carboxyvinyl)-2- methoxyphenoxy) -3-methoxyphenyl)-2-hydroxyacrylic acid (30).


Figure 3.1.54 HMBC correlations of 3-(4-(4-(2-carboxyvinyl)-2- methoxyphenoxy) -3-methoxyphenyl)-2-hydroxyacrylic acid (30).

### 3.1.31 3-((1-Hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl)-2-oxoindolin-3-yl)methyl)-1-methyl-3,4-dihydro- $1 H$-benzo $[e][1,4]$ diazepine-2,5-dione (compound 31, new)

| 3-((1-Hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl)-2-oxoindolin-3-yl)methyl)-1-methyl-3,4-dihydro-1 $\boldsymbol{H}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| -benzo $[\boldsymbol{e}][\mathbf{1 , 4 ] \text { diazepine-2,5-dione }}$ |$|$| Aspergillus sp. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Biological Source | Fr .7 .6 .7 .3 .2 |
| Sample Code | 8.0 mg |
| Sample Amount | $\mathrm{C}_{24} \mathrm{H}_{25} \mathrm{~N}_{3} \mathrm{O}_{4}$ |
| Molecular Formula | $419 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$ |
| Molecular Weight | MeOH |
| Solubility | Colourless amorphous powder |
| Physical Description | $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}+62^{\circ}\left(c 1.0, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$ |
| Optical Rotation | 25.3 min $($ standard gradient $)$ |
| HPLC Retention Time |  |






- c ÉSI Full ms [100.00-1000.00]


Compound $\mathbf{3 1}$ was obtained as a colorless amorphous powder $(8.0 \mathrm{mg})$ with an $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\mathrm{D}}$ value of $+62^{\circ}\left(c 1.0, \mathrm{CHCl}_{3}\right)$ and it revealed UV absorbances at $\lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathrm{MeOH}) 214.1$, 250.1, and 290.0 nm , which suggested the presence of indoline chromophore (Bhat and Harrison, 1986; Kimura et al., 1982). Its molecular weight was established as 419 $\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{mol}$ based on the molecular ion peaks observed at $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 419.9[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$(base peak), $442.0[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}, 838.9[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$, and $860.9[2 \mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Na}]^{+}$upon positive ionization, and at $\left.\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{z} 417.9 \mathrm{MM}^{\mathrm{M}} \mathrm{H}\right]^{-}$(base peak) and $837.0[2 \mathrm{M}-\mathrm{H}]^{-}$upon negative ionization by ESI-MS analysis. The molecular formula of $\mathbf{3 1}$ was established as $\mathrm{C}_{24} \mathrm{H}_{25} \mathrm{~N}_{3} \mathrm{O}_{4}$ on the basis of the $[\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{H}]^{+}$signal at $m / z 420.1917$ (calc. for 420.1923 ) in the HRESIMS. The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.33) of $\mathbf{3 1}$ showed the presence of eight aromatic protons corresponding to two ABCD aromatic spin systems resonating at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 7.30,6.90,7.21$, $6.73 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{H}-5,6,7,8\right.$, respectively) and at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 7.24,7.50,7.18,7.27 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-18,19$, 20, 21, respectively), an olefinic proton at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 6.07 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-23)$, a methine signal resonaing at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.09 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-11)$, a methylene group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 2.30$ and 2.70 ppm $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-10\right)$, an olefinic methylene group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 4.94$ and $5.02 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-24\right)$, three methyl groups including two aliphatic methyl groups at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 0.98$ and 0.98 ppm $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-25\right.$ and $\left.\mathrm{CH}_{3}-26\right)$, and a nitrogen-bearing methyl group at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 3.15 \mathrm{ppm}\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27\right)$. Additionally, an amide NH was observed at $\delta_{\mathrm{H}} 8.18 \mathrm{ppm}(\mathrm{H}-17)$ in the ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{NMR}$ spectrum. The ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}$-NMR spectrum (Table 3.1.33) of $\mathbf{3 1}$ confirmed the presence of 24 carbon atoms in the structure. Furthermore, the DEPT experiment revealed the presence of ten methine groups, two methylene groups, three methyl groups, and nine quaternary carbon atoms including three amide carbonyl carbons at $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 172.3,169.9$, and 166.8 ppm (C-2, C-12, and C-16, respectively). The analysis of ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}-{ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ COSY spectrum (Table 3.1.33 and Figure 3.1.55) established the presence of four spin systems, which included the correlations observed for the aliphatic methylene protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-10\right)$ to the deshielded methine proton ( $\mathrm{CH}-11$ ), for the olefinic methylene protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-24\right)$ to the olefinic methine proton $(\mathrm{H}-23)$, in addition to the previously mentioned aromatic spin systems H-8 to H-21 and H-5 to H-8. Besides, the analysis of HMQC spectrum allowed the assignment of proton signals to the corresponding proton-bearing carbon atoms.

The connection between the different substructures of $\mathbf{3 1}$ was achieved by inspection of the HMBC spectrum (Table 3.1.33 and Figure 3.1.56). The tertiary methyl group $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-27\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 34.9 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ correlated with two quaternary carbon atoms $\mathrm{C}-12\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 169.9\right.$ $\mathrm{ppm}), \mathrm{C}-14\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 140.1 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, whereas the amide proton $(\mathrm{NH}-17)$ correlated with the carbon atom C-10 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 28.9 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) as well as with C-11 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 49.6 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and C-15 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}}$ 128.2 ppm ), which indicated that the seven-membered nitrogen-containing ring was fused to a benzene ring. HMBC correlations of the methylene protons $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{2}-10\right)$ to $\mathrm{C}-2\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 72.3 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-3\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 54.7 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-4\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 124.8 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-11\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 49.6 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-12$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 169.9 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), and $\mathrm{C}-22\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 41.8 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, revealed that the indoline moiety was connected with the seven-membered nitrogen-containing ring through $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-10$. Moreover, the location of $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-25\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 21.3 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ and $\mathrm{CH}_{3}-26\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 22.5 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ was established on the basis of correlations of both methyl groups to each other and to C-3, $\mathrm{C}-22$, and $\mathrm{C}-23\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 142.9 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$. The olefinic methylene group $\mathrm{CH}_{2}-24\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 113.4 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$ was assigned by its correlation with C-22 and C-23. Furthermore, remaining HMBC correlations were observed for the aromatic protons as follow: $\mathrm{H}-5$ to $\mathrm{C}-3, \mathrm{C}-7\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}}\right.$ 128.0 ppm ), and C-9 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 142.7 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), for $\mathrm{H}-6$ to $\mathrm{C}-4\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 124.8 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, C-7, and C-8 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}}$ 106.3 ppm ), for $\mathrm{H}-7$ to $\mathrm{C}-5\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 126.6 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, $\mathrm{C}-8$, and $\mathrm{C}-9$, for $\mathrm{H}-8$ to $\mathrm{C}-4, \mathrm{C}-6\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}}\right.$ 120.8 ppm ), and C-9, for $\mathrm{H}-18$ to $\mathrm{C}-15$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 128.2 \mathrm{ppm}$ ) and C-20 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 125.1 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), for $\mathrm{H}-19$ to $\mathrm{C}-14\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 140.1 \mathrm{ppm}\right), \mathrm{C}-18$ ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 121.1 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), and C-21 ( $\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 28.8 \mathrm{ppm}$ ), for $\mathrm{H}-20$ to $\mathrm{C}-14, \mathrm{C}-15$, and $\mathrm{C}-18\left(\delta_{\mathrm{C}} 121.6 \mathrm{ppm}\right)$, and for $\mathrm{H}-21$ to $\mathrm{C}-14, \mathrm{C}-16$, and $\mathrm{C}-19$. Hence, compound $\mathbf{3 1}$ was determined as a new metabolite based on the analysis of its data as mentioned as above and named 3-((1-hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl) -2-oxoindolin-3-yl)methyl)-1-methyl-3,4-dihydro-1 $H$-benzo $[e][1,4]$ diazepine-2,5-dio ne. The relative configuration of $\mathbf{3 1}$ is still to be determined..

Table 3.1.33 NMR data for
3-((1-hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl)-2-oxoindolin-3-yl)methyl)-1-methyl -3,4-dihydro-1H -benzo[e][1,4]diazepine-2,5-dione. (31)

| Position | 31 DMSO- $d_{6}, \delta(\mathrm{ppm}), J$ in Hz |  | Correlation |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}(300 \mathrm{MHz})$ | ${ }^{13} \mathrm{C}(100 \mathrm{MHz})$ | COSY | HMBC |
| 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 2 |  | 172.3 |  |  |
| 3 |  | 54.7 |  |  |
| 4 |  | 124.8 |  |  |
| 5 | $7.30 \mathrm{~d}(7.8)$ | 126.6 | 6 | 3, 7, 9 |
| 6 | 6.90 ddd (0.1, 7.5, 7.5) | 120.8 | 5,7 | 4,7,8 |
| 7 | 7.21 t (7.7) | 128.0 | 6, 8 | 5,8,9 |
| 8 | 6.73 d (7.6) | 106.3 | 7 | 4,6,9 |
| 9 |  | 142.7 |  |  |
| 10 | $2.30 \mathrm{dd}(7.7,14.9)$ | 28.9 | 11 | 2, 3, 4, 11, 12, 22 |
|  | 2.70 dd (3.2, 14.9) |  |  |  |
| 11 | 2.90 br m | 49.6 | 10,17 |  |
| 12 |  | 169.9 |  |  |
| 13 |  |  |  |  |
| 14 |  | 140.1 |  |  |
| 15 |  | 128.2 |  |  |
| 16 |  | 166.8 |  |  |
| 17 | 8.18 d (5.9) |  | 11 | 10, 11, 15 |
| 18 | 7.24 d (8.1) | 121.6 | 19 | 15, 20 |
| 19 | 7.50 ddd (1.7, 8.5, 8.6) | 132.0 | 18, 20 | 14, 18, 21 |
| 20 | 7.18 t (7.9) | 125.1 | 19, 21 | 14, 15, 18 |
| 21 | 7.27 d (7.1) | 128.8 | 20 | 14, 16, 19 |
| 22 |  | 41.8 |  |  |
| 23 | $6.07 \mathrm{dd}(10.8,17.4)$ | 142.9 | 24 | 22, 25, 26 |
| 24 | $4.94 \mathrm{dd}(0.1,17.4)$ | 113.4 | 23 | 22, 23 |
|  | $5.02 \mathrm{dd}(0.1,10.9)$ |  |  |  |
| 25 | 0.98 s | 21.3 |  | 3, 22, 23, 26 |
| 26 | 0.98 s | 22.5 |  | 3, 22, 23, 25 |
| 27 | 3.15 s | 34.9 |  | 12, 14 |



Figure 3.1.55 COSY correlations of
3-((1-hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl)-2-oxoindolin-3-yl)methyl)-1-methyl
-3,4-dihydro-1H -benzo $[e][1,4]$ diazepine-2,5-dione (31).


Figure 3.1.56 HMBC correlations of
3-((1-hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl)-2-oxoindolin-3-yl)methyl)-1-methyl -3,4-dihydro-1H -benzo[e][1,4]diazepine-2,5-dione (31).

### 3.2 Bioactivity test results for compounds isolated from Aspergillus sp.

All isolated compounds (1-31) from Aspergillus sp. were evaluated for their bioactivity against the murine cancer cell line L5178Y using the MTT assay (Aly et al., 2008). Results of the cytotoxicity assay are presented in Table 3.2.1. Compounds 8 and 9 revealed pronounced cytotoxicity against L5178Y with $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ values of 3.7 and $0.2 \mu \mathrm{M}$, respectively. Compound 5 showed moderate activity with an $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ value of $39.4 \mu \mathrm{M}$, whereas the remaining investigated compounds showed either weak or no activity in the assay (up to a dose of $10 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ ). (Table 3.2.1).

Compounds 5, 8, and 9 were further tested against cell lines human Philadelphia chromosome-positive chronic myelogenous leukaemia (K562), human ovarian carcinoma (A2780sens), and a derived cisplatin-resistant subline (A2780CisR) (Drexler et al., 2000; Klein et al., 1976; Lozzio et al., 1975; Rose et al., 1990), where compounds $\mathbf{8}$ and 9 exhibited moderate cytotoxic activity with $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ values of $15.0,18.5$ and $38.8 \mu \mathrm{M}$ for $\mathbf{8}$, and 19.3, 8.0 and $22.5 \mu \mathrm{M}$ for 9 , respectively. However, compound 5 exhibited weak bioactivity in the assay (Table 3.2.1). Compounds 10-14 were also evaluated for their effect on human alveolar basal epithelial cells (A549) viability by XTT viability assay and none of them showed potential bioactivity.

Table 3.2.1 Results of cytotoxicity assay of the isolated compounds (1-31)

| Compound tested |  | \% Growth inhibition$(10 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL})$ |  | $\mathrm{IC}_{50}(\mu \mathrm{M})$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | L5178Y | L5178Y | K562 | A2780sens | A2780CisR |
| Butyrolactone II | 1 | 49.1 |  |  |  |  |
| Dicitrinin A | 2 | 44.6 |  |  |  |  |
| 4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-3methoxy -5-methylisocoumarin | 3 | 9.3 |  |  |  |  |
| 2,3,4-Trimethyl-5,7-dihydroxy-2,3dihydrobenzofuran | 4 | 9.1 |  |  |  |  |
| 4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy | 5 | 76.9 | 39.4 | 77.7 | 34.5 | 79.6 |
| -5-methylisocoumarin |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Citrinin | 6 | 35.8 |  |  |  |  |
| Phenol A acid | 7 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| Fumiquinazoline J | 8 | 99.1 | 3.7 | 15.0 | 18.5 | 38.8 |
| Methyl 3,4,5-trimethoxy-2-(2-(nicotinamido) | 9 | 100.1 | 0.2 | 19.3 | 8.0 | 22.5 |
| benzamido) benzoate |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Austalide M | 10 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| Austalide N | 11 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| Austalide O | 12 | 28.0 |  |  |  |  |
| Austalide P | 13 | 16.2 |  |  |  |  |
| Austalide Q | 14 | 41.7 |  |  |  |  |
| 3'-O-acetylthymidine | 15 | 52.2 |  |  |  |  |
| Dihydrocitrinin | 16 | 10.7 |  |  |  |  |
| Dihydrocitrinone | 17 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| 6,8-Dihydroxy-3,4,5-trimethylisocoumarin | 18 | 8.3 |  |  |  |  |
| Pretrichodermamide A | 19 | 24.3 |  |  |  |  |
| Tryptoquivaline K | 20 | 22.8 |  |  |  |  |
| Fumiquinazoline K | 21 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| Fumiquinazoline L | 22 | 5.8 |  |  |  |  |
| Fumiquinazoline M | 23 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| Fumiquinazoline N | 24 | 3.3 |  |  |  |  |
| Fumiquinazoline O | 25 | 1.4 |  |  |  |  |
| Fumiquinazoline P | 26 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| Cytochalasin Z17 | 27 | 25.3 |  |  |  |  |
| Dihydroisoflavipucine | 28 | 8.5 |  |  |  |  |
| Austalide R | 29 | 3.6 |  |  |  |  |
| 3-(4-(4-(2-carboxyvinyl)-2-methoxyph-enoxy)- | 30 | 24.3 |  |  |  |  |
| 3-methoxyphenyl)-2-hydroxyacrylic acid |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3-((1-hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl)-2-oxoindolin-3-yl)methyl)-1-methyl-3,4-dihydro- | 31 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| $1 H$-benzo $e$ e][1,4]diazepine-2,5-dione |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## 4 Discussion

### 4.1 Considerations of natural products research in the present future

In drug discovery programs, the role of natural products or their derivatives has been important and substantial. However, despite of a sustained record of important contributions, the major biopharmaceutical companies have terminated or obviously scaled down their natural products-based discovery projects during the last 15 years. A main reason for the decline of natural product research was attributed to the lengthy time scales to identify or dereplicate promising new lead compounds based on the bioassay-guided pursuit, and one additional reason has been explained by the difficulties encountered upon designing effective natural product-based platforms which would incorporate modern high-throughput screening (HTS) (Baker et al., 2007; Tyler et al., 2011).

Cancer research, however, has mainly kept or renewed the interest of natural products study. In clinical use, $60 \%$ of all anticancer agents come from natural products or derivatives thereof. Moreover, around $80 \%$ of antibiotics used in clinical treating for bacterial infections are also either natural products or their derivatives (Jacob, 2010; Newman and Cragg, 2007). In recent years, research on the chemistry of marine-organisms has experienced a tremendous increase due to the need for drug discovery, and exhibited a revival of leadfinding marine natural antibiotics (Saleem et al., 2007). This indicates that natural products research is still a promising and important source for drug discovery in pharmaceutical industry.

Traditional natural product research is indeed time consuming and compound availability is very low, which makes it unattractive for pharmaceutical industries. The natural product research and development will not only rely on new findings, but also the rate of making use of the isolated new molecules derived from microorganisms by interdisciplinary approach. Furthermore, it is also very vital to
make a great deal of efforts to find low cost and short term methods for discovering bioactive secondary metabolites.

In the future, natural products research must be based on fast and low cost methods, as well as focusing on biological materials showing high probabilities of finding promising and valuable bioactive compounds. Recently, an approach that incorporates systematic LC-MS-UV-ELSD analysis is reported and used to accelerate identifying compounds with unreported bioactivity and/or new structure (Tyler et al., 2011), which significantly reduces the cycle times required to discover bioactive lead compounds and also illustrates the importance of applying modern HT methods to streamline therapeutic lead discovery projects in natural products research.

### 4.2 The importance of marine-associated fungi

The marine environment has gained considerable attention as a tremendous source of natural products. Furthermore, many of the isolated compounds from marine macroand microorganisms revealed obvious biological effects, and some proved to be useful and valuable sources as lead structures for the development of promising anticancer drug candidates (Saleem et al., 2007; Rateb and Ebel, 2011). With the advance in molecular biology in the early 1990s microbial life was found to occupy a vast range of hitherto unexplored environmental extremes including the deep ocean realm. Hence, special attention of natural product chemists was drawn to fungi surviving in the marine environment characterized by its unique ecosystems and harsh living conditions such as total darkness, extreme cold and great pressure. Such marine-derived fungi have proven to be a valuable source for promising drugs and drug lead compounds due to the structural diversity and potent pharmaceutical activities of their secondary metabolites (Debbab et al., 2010; 2010; Rateb and Ebel, 2011; Saleem et al., 2007).

A wide array of bioactive secondary metabolites were characterized from
marine-derived Aspergillus species, including the antibiotic and antifungal aculeacins A-G (Mizuno et al., 1977; Satio et al., 1977) and the squalene synthase inhibitor and antifungal agent CJ-15,183 (Watanabe et al., 2001) from A. aculeatus, the antibiotic asporyzin C from A. oryzae (Qiao et al., 2010), the tubulin-depolymerising halimide from Aspergillus sp. (Mayer et al., 2010), the NF- $\kappa$ B inhibiting azonazine from $A$. insulicola (Wu et al., 2010), and the cytotoxic cephalimysin A from A. fumigatus (Yamada et al., 2007). Despite more than two decades of intensive investigations, marine-derived members of this genus continue to provide new natural products with novel structures and interesting biological activities (Numata et al., 1992; Rateb and Ebel, 2011; Tyler et al., 2011).

The main interest of this research was the isolation, identification and biological assay of new natural products isolated from sponge-derived Aspergillus sp. Fifteen new secondary metabolites and sixteen known ones are reported in this study. The isolated new compounds comprised six meroterpenoids named austalides M-R (10-14 and 29), eight alkaloids including tryptoquivaline K (20) and fumiquinazolines K-P (21-26) bearing a rare amino acid residue, as well as the novel biphenyl ether 30, and the new tryptophan-derived alkaloid 31, hence confirming that marine sponge-derived fungi are an important source of novel and interesting secondary metabolites.

### 4.3 The compounds isolated from Aspergillus sp.

In this study, the isolated compounds mainly belong to three different groups on the basis of their structure types and were classified as follow:

### 4.3.1 Polyketides

From the selected marine sponge-associated endophytic fungus Aspergillus sp. eleven polyketide-derived compounds (1-7, 16-18, and 28) were obtained. For some of them, a closer look will be taken at their structural features together with their biogenetic
origin and bioactivity.

The structure of polyketide antibiotic citrinin (6) was proposed and established in 1949, primarily by the investigations of Robertson and his co-workers. Citrinin is a pentaketide and its biosynthesis might proceed through the polyketide way (Curtis et al., 1968). Citrinin is of the first compounds with antibiotic activity isolated as a fungal metabolite from Penicillium citrinum. Subsequently, 6 was also obtained from other Penicillium and Aspergillus species and from the leaves of the Australian plant Crotalaria crispate. Due to its high toxicity, its occurrence as mycotoxin in foodstuffs, citrinin has not been broadly exploited in medicine as an antibiotic, despite of promising activity. Moreover, citrinin has been demonstrated to possess nephrotoxic activity in addition to a number of chronic toxic effects (Benjamin et al., 2006; Roedel and Gerlach, 1995). In the course of this study, compound 6 showed weak cytotoxic activity against the murine cancer cell line L5178Y using MTT assay.

Intense biosynthetic research has been performed on compound $\mathbf{6}$ using a variety of isotopic labeling strategies (Barber et al., 1987; Benjamin et al, 2006). A great deal of citrinin derivatives have been isolated, most famously by Curtis et al., who revealed the isolation of seven metabolites related to citrinin in 1968 (Curtis et al., 1968).

In this study, chemical investigation resulted in the isolation of six citrinin derivatives, which included compounds $\mathbf{4}, \mathbf{7}, 16,17,18$ and a citrinin dimer dicitrinin A (2). All of them may result from the sequential transformation of citrinin into both monomeric and dimeric products. Their proposed biosynthetic schemes are displayed in figures 4.3.1.1 and 4.3.1.2, respectively. Those protocols hypothesize the transformation of citrinin into both monomeric and dimeric derivatives, offering extensive molecular elements for future analytical chemistry investigation (Benjamin et al., 2006; Jill et al., 1981). In the present study, all isolated compounds were tested against the murine cancer cell line L5178Y using the MTT assay. None possessed significant cytotoxic activity, but dicitrinin A (2) exhibited the moderate growth inhibition of $44.6 \%$ at a
concentration of $10 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$.

In addition, compounds $\mathbf{3}$ and 5 belong to members of the isocoumarin family. Isocoumarins and 3, 4-dihydroisocoumarins are secondary metabolites of a wide variety of insects, plants, and microbial sources. Most isocoumarins have been obtained from different species of the genera Artemisia, Aspergillus, Fusarium, Penicillium, and Streptomyces etc. Isocoumarins and 3, 4-dihydroisocoumarins have displayed impressive biactivities (Daigo et al., 2006; Lin and Shen, 2009; Lu et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). Herein, the isolated 4-acetyl-3, 4-dihydro-6, 8-dihydroxy -5methylisocoumarin (5) revealed moderate cytotoxity against the murine cancer cell line L5178Y, whereas, compound $\mathbf{3}$ showed weak activity in this assay. Comparing the structure of both compounds showed that both have the same framework and the main difference is the presence of an additional substituent at $\mathrm{C}-3$ in $\mathbf{3}$, which may result in the difference of the biological activity observed for $\mathbf{3}$ and 5 .

Butyrolactone II (1) belongs to the structure type of saturated dibenzylbutyrolactone lignans (Lin and Shen, 2009). The compound was first isolated from the culture broth of Aspergillus terreus IFO 4100 and may be a de-prenyl derivative of butyrolactone I (Keiichi et al., 1983; Kunizo et al., 1983). The biosynthesis of 1 was presumed as shown in Figure 4.3.1.3. Moreover, it was previously reported that $\mathbf{1}$ exhibited mild or no cytotoxic activity (Rao et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2011), which was in agreement with the bioactivity assay in this study. Additionally, the dihydroisoflavipucine (28) was reported for the first time from a sponge-derived fungus (Loesgen et al., 2011) and showed weak activity against murine cancer cell line L5178Y.


Figure 4.3.1.1 Suggested biosynthetic scheme from citrinin to monomeric species.
(Benjamin et al., 2006)


Figure 4.3.1.2 Proposed biosynthetic mechanism for the dicitrinin A (2)
(Benjamin et al., 2006)


Figure 4.3.1.3 Proposed biosynthesis of butyrolactone II (1)
(Keiichi et al., 1983)

### 4.3.2 Meroterpenoids

Chromatographic separation yielded six new meroterpenoid metabolites, austalides M-R (10-14 and 29). They are a family of mycotoxins previously reported to be produced by whole maize cultures of Aspergillus ustus MRC 1163 and arise biogenetically via 6-farnesyl-5, 7-dihydroxy-4-methylphthalide, a key and confirmed intermediate in the biogenesis of mycophenolic acid as well. The molecular architecture of these structurally unique meroterpenoids is endowed with functional group diversity (Horak et al., 1981, 1985; De Jesus et al., 1983, 1987).

The isolation and characterization of twelve biosynthetically related metabolites, austalides A-L was reported from Aspergillus ustus (Horak et al., 1985). Austalide M
(10) was determined as the 22 -OMe derivative of austalide B. Because the austalide skeleton is originated from the 6-[(2E, 6E)-farnesyl]-5, 7-dihydroxy-4-methylphthalide, which is biosynthesized through a mixed polyketide-terpenoid pathway with subsequent cyclization and oxidative modification (Horak et al., 1985; De Jesus et al., 1983, 1987), the C-22 benzylic substituent must be introduced after the cyclization. The structure of austalide N (11) was similar to $\mathbf{1 0}$ except for the replacement of the bezylic C-22 methoxy group by a methyl ester group. In addition, austalide O (12) possesses the same skeleton as $\mathbf{1 0}$ but with a benzylic 22-OH group instead of the 22 -OMe. It is important to note that austalide O (12) was kept in ethyl acetate for more than 48 hours, and no formation of the acetate derivatives $\mathbf{1 1}$ was detected, which suggested that austalide $\mathrm{N}(\mathbf{1 1})$ is a genuine natural product and not an artefact resulting from acetylation of 12. Austalide R (29) possesses the same skeleton as austalide $\mathrm{O}(\mathbf{1 2})$ but with a $17-\mathrm{OH}$ group instead of the 17-OMe present in 12. Consequently, the main structural difference between the austalides 10-12 and 29 and previously isolated austalides with the same molecular framework, is the presence of an additional substituent at C-22. On the other hand, austalides $\mathbf{1 3}(\mathbf{P})$ and $\mathbf{1 4}(\mathbf{Q})$ are similar to the reported austalides G and H . By comparison to the structurally related austalides G and H (Horak et al., 1985), austalides 13 (P) lacks a substituent at C-13, having a methylene group in this position, whereas $\mathbf{1 4}(\mathbf{Q})$ features a C-15-C-25 double bond, which may have resulted from dehydration.

The absolute configuration of $\mathbf{1 0}$ and $\mathbf{1 3}$ was determined by time-dependent density functional theory electronic circular dichroism (TDDFT ECD) calculations, which allowed the assignment of the absolute configuration of analogous derivatives 11, 12, and 14. The calculations revealed that the conformation of the benzene-fused phtalide chromophore, which is sensitive to even minor changes in its proximity, is decisive for the ECD parameters, rendering the simple ECD comparison of related homochiral austalides difficult. TDDFT calculations of ECD are being increasingly utilized in determining the absolute configuration of chiral molecule (Mccann et al., 2006).

Earlier biosynthetic studies on austalide D, suggested that those meroterpenoid metabolites are derived from 6-[(2E, $6 E)$-farnesyl]-5, 7-dihydroxy- 4-methylphthalide. In their original proposal, cyclization of 6-[(2E, 6E)-farnesyl]-5, 7-dihydroxy-4-methylphthalide (a) is initiated by stereospecific attack of the phenolic oxygen on the Si face of the proximal double bond to yield the chromene (b). Subsequent oxygen-centered cyclization is believed to provide a reasonable route to austalide K , whose role is to serve as precursor to the other austalides. Hydroxylation of austalide K gives rise to austalide L. Ensuing an enzymatic Baeyer-Villiger oxidation occurs to yield the seven-membered lactone ring of austalide J and after $O$-methylation with $(S)$-adenosylmethionine, austalide J is transformed to an orthoester. Subsequent hydroxylation and acetylation lead to austalide D (Figure 4.3.2.1). Thus, austalide J, K and L play the intermediary role in the biosynthesis of austalide D (De Jesus et al., 1983, 1987; Paquette et al., 1994). Based on above biosynthetic origin, the biosynthesis of austalides M-O (10-12) and $\mathrm{R}(\mathbf{2 9})$ is proposed as shown in Figure 4.3.2.1, whereas, the biosynthetic pathway of austalides P-Q (13-14), possessing the same molecular framework as austalide G, which probably represent the products of a branch-point in the biosynthetic pathway leading to the highly oxygenated austalides A-F, remain unclear (Horak et al., 1985).

All of these new meroterpenoid compounds, austalides M-R (10-14 and 29), showed either weak or no activity in the cytotoxicity assay, and it is interesting to note that no activities were reported for the structurally analogous known austalides A-L isolated from Aspergillus ustus.


Figure 4.3.2.1 Proposed biosynthetic pathways of austalides 10-12 (M-O) and 29 (R) (De Jesus et al., 1983, 1987; Paquette et al., 1994)

### 4.3.3 Alkaloids

Compounds 20-26 are new tryptoquivaline and fumiquinazoline alkaloids isolated from the selected fungus Aspergillus sp. Both of them belong to the subclass of quinazoline alkaloids, which is extensively produced by filamentous fungi. The fumiquinazolines possess a pyrazino[2,1b]quinazoline-3, 6-dione core which originated from condensation of anthranilic acid with two additional amino acids. In addition, the main structural difference between the new members (20-26) reported in this study and in previously isolated compounds possessing the same molecular framework is the inclusion of a rare amino acid residue, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid, instead of alanine or methylalanine residues as found in previously reported analogues (Yamazaki et al., 1976, 1977, 1978). Only one analogue bearing a 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid residue, cottoquinazoline D, had been reported in literature so far (Zhuang et al., 2011). The structurally most simple member and proposed biological precursor of fumiquinazolines, fumiquinazoline $F$ with a 6-6-6 tricyclic core, is known to be biosynthetically derived from anthranilic acid, tryptophan and alanine involving a trimodular nonribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS). Modification of the indole side chain via oxidative coupling of an additional amino acid molecule, commonly alanine or methylalanine, results in the formation of the imidazoindolone part of the compounds. In contrast, unusual oxidative opening of the pyrazinone ring of fumiquinazoline F was suggested as an intermediate step in the biosynthesis of tryptoquivalines (Ames et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2011).

The absolute configuration of tryptoquivaline $\mathrm{K}(\mathbf{2 0})$ and fumiquinazolines K (21) were determined by TDDFT ECD calculations of their solution conformers and the ECD of the latter was used for the configurational assignment of the related fumiquinazolines L-P (22-26).

All new tryptoquivaline and fumiquinazoline alkaloids (20-26) together with the
known fumiquinazoline $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{8})$ were evaluated for their cytotoxicity against the murine cancer cell line L5178Y. Only fumiquinazoline $\mathrm{J}(\mathbf{8})$ showed pronounced cytotoxicity with an $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ value of $3.7 \mu \mathrm{M}$, whereas the remaining investigated compounds showed weak or no activity in this assay. Compound $\mathbf{8}$ was further evaluated against selected human cell lines and it showed moderate activities as shown in Table 3.2.1. It was worth noting that previously reported fumiquinazolines are moderately cytotoxic and were found to show antitumor activity against several cancer cell lines. In addition, compound $\mathbf{8}$ was isolated for the first time from a sponge-associated fungus, whereas previous studies reported its isolation from Aspergillus fumigatus obtained from sea mud (Ames, et al., 2010; Han et al., 2007).

In addition, two known alkaloids, compound 9 and the unusually bridged epidithiodiketopiperazine, pretrichodermamide A (19), were characterized for the first time from a sponge-associated fungus, whereas previous studies reported their isolation from Aspergillus fumigatus collected from the air and dust of asthmatic patients' rooms and Trichoderma sp. isolated from bamboo leaves, respectively (Prapairat et al., 2006; Yamamoto et al., 1965). Compound 9 displayed pronounced cytotoxicity with an $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ value of $0.2 \mu \mathrm{M}$ against the murine cancer cell line L5178Y, whereas 19 showed weak activity in this assay. Moreover, the novel tryptophan-derived alkaloid $\mathbf{3 1}$ exhibited no activity against the murine cancer cell line L5178Y.

The known alkaloid cytochalasin Z17 (27) was characterized for the first time from a sponge-associated fungus, whereas previous studies reported its isolation from $A$. terreus collected from the plant Artemisia annua, and A. flavipes isolated from the mangrove plant Acanthus ilicifolius (Lin et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010). 27 showed weak cytotoxic activity against the murine cancer cell line L5178Y, whereas previous studies reported its cytotoxic activity against A-549 cell line and against human nasopharyngeal epidermoid tumor KB cell line with $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ values of 5.6 and $26.2 \mu \mathrm{M}$, respectively (Lin et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010).

## 5. Summary

Marine microorganisms have proven to be a prolific source of structurally interesting and biologically active natural products. In particular, marine fungi have attracted considerable interest because of the diversity in chemical structures and biological activities observed for their secondary metabolites. Marine-derived fungi have been isolated from various organisms, including algae, mollusks and particularly sponges. However, sponge-associated fungi were found to be among the most prolific sources of bioactive compounds. Moreover, most compounds isolated from sponge-associated fungi displayed significant bioactivities in some pharmacological bioassay projects. Therefore, they could be interesting candidates offering lead structures for developing new drugs, primarily in the fields of anti-cancer, anti-inflammatory, anti-infective and analgesic drugs.

Consequently, the aim of this work was to investigate and identify the secondary metabolites from the marine-derived fungus Aspergillus sp., isolated from the Mediterranean sponge Tethya aurantium, followed by examination of their pharmacological potential. Mass growth of the fungus for the isolation and identification of secondary metabolites was carried out on two different media, namely biomalt agar and spelt barley solid media for 21 days at $22 \square$. The cultures obtained from both media were then lyophilized, extracted with ethyl acetate, and the dry residues left after evaporation were defatted with petroleum ether. The resulting fraction was then subjected to different chromatographic separation techniques in order to isolate the secondary metabolites.

The identification of the secondary metabolites was mainly performed using mass spectrometry (MS) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) experiments to determine the molecular weight and structure, respectively. Moreover, in the case of selected optically active natural products, time-dependent density functional theory electronic circular dichroism (TDDFT ECD) calculations were employed in order to determine
their absolute configuration. Eventually, all of the isolated compounds were subjected to various bioassays to screen their bioactivities, such as cytotoxic and antimicrobial activities.

Chromatographic separation of the crude extract of the sponge-associated fungus Aspergillus sp. yielded eleven known polyketide-derived compounds (1-7, 16-18, and 28), six new meroterpenoid metabolites (10-14 and 29), twelve alkaloids including one new tryptoquivaline (20), six new fumiquinazolines (21-26), one novel tryptophan-derived alkaloid (31) as well as four known alkaloids (8, 9, 19, and 27), one novel biphenyl ether (30), and one known nucleoside (15).

Most polyketide-derived compounds isolated in this study were citrinin derivatives. In addition, butyrolactone II (1) was isolated as the main secondary metabolite of the investigated Aspergillus sp. 4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-5-methyl isocoumarin (5) exhibited pronounced cytotoxic activity against several selected cell lines, whereas the remaining polyketide-derived compounds showed either weak or no activity against L5178Y mouse lymphoma cell line.

The new meroterpenoid compounds, austalides M-R (10-14 and 29), were found to be structurally related to the known austalides A-L previously isolated from Aspergillus ustus. Structural analysis of the austalides suggested a biosynthetic pathway which involves 6-farnesyl-5,7-dihydroxy-4-methylphthalide, a key intermediate in the biogenesis of mycophenolic acid. Furthermore, TDDFT ECD calculations of austalides M-Q (10-14), new metabolites of Aspergillus sp., have been presented. ECD calculations of these derivatives afforded their absolute configurations and also revealed that the conformation of the phthalide chromophore was governed by the central chirality elements and that the benzylic center is decisive for the characteristic ECD Cotton effects. The calculations also explain the remarkable difference in the ECD spectra of the structurally related austalides, and demonstrate why the absolute geometry cannot be determined by simple comparison of their ECD spectra. Finally,
they showed either weak or no activity against L5178Y mouse lymphoma cell line.

The known alkaloids 8, 9 and 19 were characterized for the first time from sponge-associated fungi, whereas previous studies reported their isolation from Aspergillus fumigatus obtained from sea mud, Aspergillus fumigatus collected from the air and dust of asthmatic patients' rooms, and Trichoderma sp. isolated from bamboo leaves, respectively. Compounds $\mathbf{8}$ and 9 exhibited pronounced cytotoxicity against L5178Y mouse lymphoma cell line with $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ values of 3.7 and $0.2 \mu \mathrm{M}$, respectively, whereas 19 showed weak activity in this assay. Furthermore, when tested against human cell lines 9 exhibited moderate activity against human ovarian cancer (A2780sens) and human Philadelphia chromosome-positive chronic myelogenous leukemia (K562) cell lines with $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ values of 8.0 and $19.3 \mu \mathrm{M}$, respectively, whereas 8 exhibited only moderate to weak cytotoxic activity against K562, A2780sens, and A2780CisR cell lines with $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ values of $15.0,18.5$ and $38.8 \mu \mathrm{M}$, respectively.

Compounds 20-26 are new tryptoquivaline and fumiquinazoline alkaloids. The main structural difference between the new members reported in this study and previously reported compounds possessing the same molecular framework is the inclusion of a rare amino acid residue, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid, instead of alanine or methylalanine residues as found in previously reported analogues. The absolute configurations of tryptoquivaline K (20) and fumiquinazolines K (21) were determined by TDDFT ECD calculations of their solution conformers and the ECD of the latter was used for the configurational assignment of the related fumiquinazolines L-P (22-26). In addition, the new alkaloids (20-26) were evaluated for their cytotoxicity against the murine lymphoma cancer cell line L517Y and they showed weak or no activity in this assay (up to a dose of $10 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$ ).

In conclusion, a total of thirty-one compounds were successfully identified from the sponge-associated fungus Aspergillus sp. in this study, to the best of our knowledge, fifteen of which were confirmed as new natural products (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Summary of the isolated compounds

|  | Compound name | Structure | Source | Note |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Butyrolactone II |  | Aspergillus sp | Known |
| 2 | Dicitrinin A |  | Aspergillus sp | Known |
| 3 | 4-Acetyl-3, 4-dihydro-6, 8-dihydroxy-3-methoxy-5methyllisocoumarin |  | Aspergillus sp | Known |
| 4 | 2,3,4-Trimethyl-5,7-dihydroxy <br> -2,3-dihydrobenzofuran |  | Aspergillus sp | Known |
| 5 | 4-Acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihy-droxy-5-methylisocoumarin |  | Aspergillus sp | Known |

6
Citricin
$7 \quad$ Phenol A acid

$8 \quad$ Fumiquinazoline J


9 Methyl 3,4,5-trimethoxy-2-(2-(nicotinamido) benzamido) benzoate


10 Austalide M


Aspergillus sp
Known

Aspergillus sp Known

Aspergillus sp Known

Aspergillus sp Known

Aspergillus sp New

11 Austalide N


12 Austalide O


13 Austalide P


14 Austalide Q


15 3'-O-acetylthymidine


Aspergillus sp Known

16 Dihydrocitrinin


17 Dihydrocitrinone


18 6,8-Dihydroxy-3,4,5- trimethyl -isocoumatin


Pretrichodermamide A



Fumiquinazoline K


22 Fumiquinazoline L


23 Fumiquinazoline M



Aspergillus sp New

Fumiquinazoline O


Fumiquinazoline P


Dihydroisoflavipucine


Austalide R


30 3-(4-(4-(2-Carboxyvinyl)-2-me thoxyphenoxy)-3-methoxyphe nyl)-2-hydroxyacrylic acid


Aspergillus sp New

Aspergillus sp New
31 3-((1-Hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut -3-en-2-yl)-2-oxoindolin-3-yl) methyl)-1-methyl-3,4-dihydro$1 H$-benzo[ $e$ ][1,4]diazepine-2,5 -dione


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## 7. Attachments

Attachment 1.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of butyrolactone II (1, known)


Attachment 2.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of dicitrinin A (2, known)


Attachment 3.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of 4-acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-3-methoxy-5-methylisocoumarin (3, known)


Attachment 4.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of 2,3,4-trimethyl-5,7-dihydroxy-2,3-dihydrobenzofuran (4, known)


Attachment 5.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of 4-acetyl-3,4-dihydro-6,8-dihydroxy-5-methylisocoumarin (5, known)


Attachment 6.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of citrinin ( $\mathbf{6}$, known)


Attachment 7.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of phenol A acid (7, known)


Attachment 8.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of fumiquinazoline J (8, known)


Attachment 9.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of methyl 3,4,5-trimethoxy-2-(2-(nicotinamido) benzamido) benzoate (9, known)


Attachment 10.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of austalide $\mathrm{M}(\mathbf{1 0}$, new)


Attachment 11.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of austalide $\mathrm{N}(\mathbf{1 1}$, new)


Attachment 12.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of austalide $\mathrm{O}(\mathbf{1 2}$, new)


Attachment 13.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of austalide $\mathrm{P}(\mathbf{1 3}$, new $)$


Attachment 14.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of austalide $\mathrm{Q}(\mathbf{1 4}$, new $)$


Attachment 15.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of 3'-O-acetylthymidine (15, known)


Attachment 16.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of dihydrocitrinin (16, known)


Attachment 17.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of dihydrocitrinone (17, known)


Attachment 18.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of decarboxydihydrocitrinone (18, known)


Attachment 19.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of pretrichodermamide A (19, known)


Attachment 20.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of tryptoquivaline $\mathrm{K}(\mathbf{2 0}$, new)


Attachment 21.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of fumiquinazoline $\mathrm{K}(\mathbf{2 1}$, new)


Attachment 22.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of fumiquinazoline L (22, new)


Attachment 23.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of fumiquinazoline $\mathrm{M}(\mathbf{2 3}$, new)


## Attachment 24.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of fumiquinazoline $\mathrm{N}(\mathbf{2 4}$, new)



Attachment 25.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of fumiquinazoline $\mathrm{O}(\mathbf{2 5}$, new)


Attachment 26.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of fumiquinazoline $\mathrm{P}(\mathbf{2 6}$, new)


Attachment 27.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of cytochalasin Z17 (27, known)


Attachment 28.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of dihydroisoflavipucine (28, known)


Attachment 29.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of austalide $\mathrm{R}(\mathbf{2 9}$, new)


Attachment 30.The ${ }^{1}$ H NMR spectrum of 3-(4-(4-(2-carboxyvinyl)-2-methoxyph-enoxy)-3-methoxyphenyl)-2-hydroxyacrylic acid (30, new)


Attachment 31.The ${ }^{1} \mathrm{H}$ NMR spectrum of 3-((1-hydroxy-3-(2-methylbut-3-en-2-yl)-2-oxoindolin-3-yl)methyl)-1-methyl-3,4-dihydro- $1 H$-benzo $[e][1,4]$ diazepine-2,5-dione (31, new)


## 8. List of abbreviations

| $[\alpha]^{20}{ }_{\text {D }}$ | Specific rotation at the sodium D-line |
| :---: | :---: |
| amu | Atomic mass unit |
| Approx. | Approximately |
| br | Broad signal |
| CC | Column chromatography |
| $\mathrm{CDCl}_{3}$ | Deuterated chloroform |
| $\mathrm{CHCl}_{3}$ | Chloroform |
| CI | Chemical ionization |
| COSY | Correlation spectroscopy |
| d | Doublet |
| DAD-HPLC | HPLC with diodenarray detector |
| dd | Doublet of doublet signal |
| DEPT | Distortionless enhancement by polarization transfer |
| DMSO | Dimethyl sulfoxide |
| e.g. | exempli gratia (for the sake of example) |
| EI | Electron impact ionizarion |
| ESI | Electron spray ionization |
| et al. | et altera (and others) |
| EtOAc | Ethyl acetate |
| eV | Electron Volt |
| FAB | Fast atom bomhardment |
| g | Gram |
| HMBC | Heteronuclear multiple bond connectivity |
| HMQC | Heteronuclear multiple quantum coherence |
| $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ | Water |
| HPLC | High performance liquid chromatography |
| HR-MS | High resolution-mass spectrometry |
| Hz | Hertz |
| $\mathrm{IC}_{50}$ | Half maximal inhibitory concentration |
| L | Liter |
| LC | Liquid chromatography |
| LC-MS | Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry |
| m | Multiplet signal |
| MeOD | Deuterated methanol |
| MeOH | Methanol |


| mg | Milligram |
| :--- | :--- |
| MHz | Mega Hertz |
| min | Minute |
| mL | Milliliter |
| MS | Mass spectrometry |
| MTT | 3 -(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide |
| $m / z$ | Mass per charge |
| $\mu g$ | Microgram |
| $\mu \mathrm{L}$ | Microliter |
| $\mu \mathrm{M}$ | Micromolar |
| MW | Molecular weight |
| ng | Nanogram |
| $n$-BuOH | $n$-Butanol |
| NMR | Nuclear magnetic resonance |
| NOE | Nuclear Overhauser effect |
| NOESY | Nuclear Overhauser and exchange spectroscopy |
| ppm | Part per million |
| q | Quartet signal |
| ROESY | Rotating frame Overhauser enhancement spectroscopy |
| RP-18 | Reversed phase C 18 |
| s | Singlet signal |
| SAM | $S$-adenosyl methionine |
| Si | Silica |
| t | Triplet signal |
| TFA | Trifluoroacetic acid |
| TLC | Thin layer chromatography |
| UV | Ultra-violet |
| VLC | Vaccum liquid chromatography |
|  |  |

## 9. Curriculum Vitae

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## Current Research Subject

Bioactive marine natural products from the sponge-derived endophytic fungus Aspergillus sp.

## Educational Background

10.2008 ~ Present Ph.D. student in Pharmacy, Institute of Pharmaceutical Biology and Biotechnology, Heinrich-Heine-Universitaet Duesseldorf, Germany
09.2005 ~ 07.2008 Master of Science in Plant Pathology, College of Agriculture \& Biotechnology, China Agricultural University
09.2001 ~ 07.2005 Bachelor of Science in Food Science and Engineering, College of Food Science \& Nutritional Engineering, China Agricultural University

## Research Experience

$\diamond$ Ph.D. student in marine natural products at the Institute of Pharmaceutical Biology and Biotechnology, Heinrich-Heine University Düsseldorf, Germany, since 2008.
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Peter Proksch
Fields: studies means useful for isolation, purification, and cultivation of endophytic fungi associated with various organisms (sponges and plants). Most importantly, work at the extraction, isolation, characterization and structure elucidation of biologically active secondary metabolites together with the preliminary evaluation of their pharmacological properties based on rapid screening system.
$\diamond$ Key laboratory of Plant Pathology, Ministry of Agriculture, P. R. China, College of Agriculture \& Biotechnology, China Agricultural University, 06.2006 ~ 06.2008.
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Ligang Zhou
Fields: research on plant antimicrobial compounds in addition to work with fungi and bacteria subculture and storage, identification of fungi, and preliminary antimicrobial assays of the extractions, fractions and compounds in Plant-Microbe Interactions Group.

## Honors

Granted a full scholarship from Program of Governmental Graduate Students Scholarship launched by China Scholarship Council (2008)

## Self-Evaluation

$\diamond$ Progressive, strong self-learning ability and team spirit
$\diamond$ Hard-working and strong ability to forge ahead
$\diamond$ Effective communicative and totally adaptive abilities
$\diamond$ Energetic and strong sense of responsibility

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## Conferences

1. ScieTalk NRW: Cutting-Edge Technologies in Molecular Life Sciences, November $23^{\text {th }}$, 2011, Münster, Germany. (Poster presentation)
2. $6^{\text {th }}$ Annual Meeting of The Chinese Association for Life Science and Biotechnology in Germany, September 24-25 ${ }^{\text {th }}$, 2011, Bonn.
3. $4^{\text {th }}$ Asia-Link Meeting \& $10^{\text {th }}$ Anniversary of Proksch Group at HHU, September 20-22 ${ }^{\text {th }}, 2010$, Duessseldorf.
4. Annual Meeting of Chinese Society for Plant Pathology, August 5-9 ${ }^{\text {th }}$, 2007, Sian. (Oral presentation)
