Natural Products from Plant and Hypersaline Sediment Derived Fungi-Structure Elucidation and Biological Characterization

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

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Dedication

- To my mother, Basma, and my father, Saud, for always believing in me and endorsing me to further my education.
- To my husband, Raiyd, who has been a big part of my life, for his patience and encouragement.
- To my daughters, Tuleen and Tala who offered emotional support through laughing, and crying and for giving me reasons every day to push harder and try more.
- To my supervisor, for his guidance and unlimited support.
- To my teammates, colleagues, lab mates, mentors and everyone along the way who helped make this possible.

Erklärung

Ich versichere, dass ich die vorliegende Dissertation mit dem Titel "Neue Naturstoffe aus endophytischen Pilzen und Sedimenten hypersaliner Seen abgeleitet Pilze-Strukturaufklärung und biologische Charakterisierung" selbständig angefertigt habe und keine anderen als die angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel verwendet habe. Die eingereichte Arbeit habe ich in dieser oder ähnlicher Form noch keinem anderen Prüfungsausschuss vorgelegt.

Düsseldorf, den

Raha Orfali

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| Zusammenfassung

Zusammenfassung:

Pilze gehören zu den wichtigsten Gruppen eukaryotischer Organismen, die seit dem letzten Jahrhundert eine zentrale Rolle als Quelle für neue Leitstrukturen spielen. Verschiedene Umweltfaktoren wie unterschiedliche chemisch-physikalische Bedingungen und unterschiedliche biologische Faktoren haben Einfluss auf den Stoffwechsel von Pilzen und können die Produktion unterschiedlichster Sekundärmetabolite begünstigen. In der vorliegenden Arbeit wurden Pilze aus bisher nur wenig erforschten ökologischen Nischen auf ihre Naturstoffe untersucht.

Der erste Teil der Arbeit befasst sich mit dem endophytischen Pilz *Alternaria* sp., der aus den Samen der Heilpflanze *Ziziphus jujube* isoliert wurde. Der Pilz wurde sowohl in flüssigem Wickerham-Medium als auch auf festem Reismedium kultiviert.

1. Alternaria sp.

Aus dem Extrakt des *Alternaria* sp. der auf Reis kultiviert wurde, wurden insgesamt 21 Metabolite erhalten. Fünf dieser Verbindungen sind Isocumarin-Derivate, die zum ersten Mal aus dieser Gattung erhalten wurden. Von diesen Verbindungen weist das Citreoisocumarin eine antibiotische Aktivität gegenüber MRSA und anderen grampositiven Bakterien auf. Bei den restlichen 17 Verbindungen handelt es sich um Alternariol-Derivate. Die isolierten Alternariol-Derivate und einige strukturell verwandte Verbindungen zeigten sowohl eine hohe zytotoxische Aktivität gegenüber der Maus-Lymphom-Zelllinie L5178Y als auch ausgeprägte antibakterielle Aktivitäten. Die Substanz 7-Methoxyphthalid-3-essigsäure konnte zum ersten Mal aus der Natur isoliert werden.

Der zweite Teil der Arbeit beschäftigt sich mit halophilen Pilzen als Quelle für bioaktive Metabolite. Der Pilz *Penicillium* sp., der aus dem Sediment des Sees Wadi El-Natrun in Ägypten isoliert wurde, wurde hier als Beispiel für Pilze aus einem hypersalinen Habitat ausgewählt.

2. Penicillium sp.

Insgesamt wurden elf Verbindungen aus *Penicillium* sp. isoliert, von denen fünf neue Naturstoffe darstellten. Ferner wurden zwei neue Isochromane, ein neues Isocumarin, und zwei neue Epidithiodiketopiperazin-Analoga namens Pretichodermamid C und N-methylpretichodermamid B erhalten. Die letzte Verbindung erwies sich als wirksam gegenüber der L5178Y-Krebszelllinie.

| Zusammenfassung

Die hier präsentierten Ergebnisse unterstützen die These eines ökologisch basierten Ansatzes für die Auswahl von Pilzen für chemische Untersuchungen, da gezeigt werden konnte, dass dieser Ansatz in der Entdeckung neuer bioaktiver Pilzmetabolite resultiert.

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1. Introduction:

Natural products have provided a considerable value to the pharmaceutical industry over the past fifty years (Mishra and Tiwari, 2011). Historically, pharmaceutical companies have utilized plant extracts to produce therapeutic formulations since the discovery of antibiotics in the mid-twentieth century (Firn and Jones, 2003). Thus, enormous efforts have been initiated resulting in huge impact of these products on drug discovery (Brahmachari, 2013).

The studies of the information presented on sources of new drugs from 1981 to 2007 indicate that almost half of the drugs approved since 1994 are based on natural products (Newman and Cragg, 2007). These natural products which are originating from microorganisms, plants- and animal-sources have been the most productive source of leads for the development of drugs to treat human diseases (Butler, 2005; Newman and Cragg, 2012). For instance, about 60% to 75% of new drugs in the areas of cancer and infectious diseases originated from natural sources between 1981 and 2002 (Newman *et al.*, 2003). Furthermore, 40 new drugs launched on the market between 2000 and 2010 originated from terrestrial plants, terrestrial microorganisms, marine organisms, terrestrial vertebrates and invertebrate sources (Newman and Cragg, 2012). In addition, this historical success in drug discovery and natural products is likely to continue. Thus, together with pharmacological screening, the chemical biodiversity of natural products has always provided highly useful leads for drug discovery (Brahmachari, 2013).

Recent technological advances in combination with the rational drug design including automated high-throughput screening (HTS) technology and combinatorial chemistry (Vincent *et al.*, 2006) have accelerated the screening of natural products and offered a unique opportunity to re-establish natural products as a major source of drug-leads (Cragg and Newman, 2013).

To conclude, natural products have been the traditional pathfinders which are exhibiting enormous structural diversity for new biologically active compounds. These natural products provide a compelling challenge for the global scientific community to undertake expanded exploration of "Nature" as a source of novel leads for the development of drugs and other valuable bioactive agents (Mishra and Tiwari, 2011). Since there are still a huge number of unstudied plants, mushrooms, marine organisms, insects, and microorganisms, there is a wealth of molecular diversity which is waiting to be discovered and utilized (Dias *et al.*, 2012).

1.1. The potential of fungal natural products in drug discovery

The kingdom fungi is an important source of many novel metabolites which are directly used as drugs or function as lead structures for synthetic modification of potential drug-leads (Aly *et al.*, 2011). It continues to provide a unique structural diversity which has been a driving tool in the development of new useful products. Fungal natural products could now be utilized as pharmaceuticals against a large number of diseases and they provide unique and inspirational chemicals for innovative drugs (Zhou *et al.*, 2014; Niu *et al.*, 2014; Ebrahim *et al.*, 2013; Akone *et al.*, 2013; Pham *et al.*, 2013).

Macro- and micro-fungi have been a part of human life since thousands of years. They have been domesticated to be used in baking, industrial fermentation and biotechnological industries. In addition, other species are cultivated or collected to be used as food (Dias et al., 2012). Macro-fungi have been described throughout the history in the form of traditional medicine and remedy and the most of this bioactive compounds still remain unidentified (Sullivan et al., 2006). In Asia, a variety of mushrooms have been used as a popular medicine to prevent or treat different diseases (Lindequist et al., 2010). For instance, the medicinal higher fungus Ganoderma lucidum has been used in Traditional Chinese Medicine for over 4000 years for treating disorders of many systems including reproductive, excretory, digestive, circulatory, immune, cardiovascular, nervous, and respiratory systems (Shiao, 2003). In contrast to the Traditional Chinese Medicine's holistic approach, researchers from different countries have investigated Ganoderma lucidum for over 30 years in an attempt to isolate its main active chemical constituents (Chen, J and Chen, T, 2003). This study revealed that triterpenes were the main active chemical components and thus have been classified as potent anti-cancer agents and have also demonstrated to exert cytotoxic effects on various cancer cells (Silva, 2003; Tang et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013). Thus, mushrooms have been valued as a traditional source of natural bioactive compounds since many centuries and have been targeted as promising therapeutic agents (Spiteller, 2008). In addition, the investigation of microfungi for bioactive metabolites was initiated by the discovery of **penicillin G** from *Penicillium notatum* by Alexander Fleming in 1928 and the observation of the broad therapeutic use of this agent in 1940 started a new era in medicine and promoted intensive research of fungi and microorganisms as a source of novel bioactive agents especially for antibiotics (Larsen et al., 2005). Since then, several further clinical studies took place by many pharmaceutical companies resulting in the

discovery of novel antimicrobial structural classes such as **griseofulvin** (Grove *et al.*, 1952), **cephalosporin C** (Newton and Abraham, 1995), and **fusidic acid** (Godtfredsen *et al.*, 1962). Nowadays, many of these compounds can be produced in large quantities and at a reasonable cost by fermentation employing wild type or genetically altered fungi (Strobel and Daisy, 2003). Moreover, intensive studies which are aiming at the improvement of potency, efficacy, spectrum of activity and activity against resistant pathogens are still ongoing. For instance, there are three semisynthetic ketolide derivatives of erythromycin (Mishra and Tiwari, 2011) and nine β -lactams (two cephalosporins, six carbapenems and one penem) in clinical trials or undergoing drug registration (Fabbretti *et al.*, 2011).

Apart from the use of micro-fungi as a source of antimicrobial agents to combat microbial infectious diseases, their use in heterogeneous fields such as the use of fungal natural products as immunosuppressants during organ transplantations is important. The discovery of **cyclosporine** was a new era in the field of immunopharmacology (Shaw, 1989) and since then, natural products have played a pivotal role in the development of such drugs (Butler, 2004; Gabardi and Cerio, 2004). The antihyperlipidemic drugs, statins, represent another group of important fungal- derived drugs. In fact, statins are the most potent cholesterol-lowering agents available. The first natural isolated fungal statin compound was **lovastatin** (Mevacor[®]) which was isolated from *Monascus ruber* (Negishi *et al.*, 1986). This was followed by synthetic analogues derived from the natural fungal metabolites. Atorvastatin (Lipitor[®]) and simvastatin (Zocor[®]) feature as the top seller drugs reflecting the widespread implementation of clinical guidelines and recommendations relating to coronary heart disease (Sweetman, 2009).

Since several years, microfungi especially those which are isolated from soil samples started to show a reduced hit-rate of novel lead compounds. Natural product chemists started to turn their interest to less investigated drug sources such as endophytic fungi associated with plants (Gunatilaka, 2006; Zhang *et al.*, 2006; Verma *et al.*, 2009; Aly *et al.*, 2010; Kharwar *et al.*, 2011; Aly *et al.*, 2013) and marine fungi (Paz *et al.*, 2010; Rateb and Ebel, 2011; Debbab *et al.*, 2012; Ebada and Proksch, 2013) which turned out to be a vast untapped reservoir of metabolic diversity.

The kingdom fungi is considered as a mega-diverse group which inhabits almost every niche on earth (Strobel, 2002a; Hyde, 2005). However, only about 7 % of the estimated 1.5 million species of fungi have been described (Hawksworth, 2004) and only a small number has

been explored for the production of pharmacologically active metabolites (Suryanarayanan *et al.*, 2009). Accordingly, many undescribed species of fungi still exist in unexplored habitats for chemical investigation. These observations argue strongly to continue studying fungal chemistry in order to meet the increasing demand for new medicinally and agriculturally beneficial agents.



Figure 1.1: Fungal natural products as drugs or drug-lead compounds.

1.2. Endophytic fungi

Endophytic fungi are a highly diverse polyphyletic group including primarily ascomycetous fungi that occur ubiquitously in plants (Hyde and Soytong, 2008). They reside in

the intercellular spaces of stems, petioles, roots, leaves, and even seeds of plants without causing any obvious negative impacts (Bacon and White, 2000). Most plant species that have been previously studied host at least one endophytic organism (Strobel, 2003). There are over 300 000 plant species inhabiting our planet and it could be assumed that each individual plant hosts from few to hundreds of endophytic fungi (Strobel, 2003; Huang *et al.*, 2007a). These subtle inhabitants of the tissues of higher plants generally could contain some types of novel endophytic microorganisms (Gamboa *et al.*, 2002; Strobel and Daisy, 2003).

Bioactive natural compounds produced by endophytic fungi have a promising potential which is may be used for human health. Functional metabolites of these fungi have already demonstrated a considerable potential to impact the pharmaceutical arena (Tan and Zou, 2001; Strobel and Daisy, 2003; Strobel *et al.*, 2004; Gunatilaka, 2006; Zhang *et al.*, 2006; Verma *et al.*, 2009; Aly *et al.*, 2010; Kharwar *et al.*, 2011; Aly *et al.*, 2013). For instance, endophytes are believed to carry out a resistance mechanism to overcome pathogenic invasion by producing secondary metabolites bearing antimicrobial activity. An example is the novel diterpenoid **guanacastepene** produced by an endophytic fungus isolated from a branch of *Daphnopsis americana* growing in Costa Rica which proves to be a representative of a potentially new class of antibacterial agents showing activity against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium* (Singh *et al.*, 2000).

On the other hand, the tetramic acid **cryptocin** which was obtained from the endophytic fungus *Cryptosporiopsis quercina* that inhabits the inner bark of the stems of *Tripterygium wilfordii* demonstrated an excellent antifungal activity against a wide range of plant pathogens including *Pyricularia oryzae* which is one of the most devastating crop diseases worldwide (Li *et al.*, 2000).

As antiviral agents, the discovery of compounds having such activity is in its infancy stage (Singh *et al.*, 2004). However, some promising endophytic fungi proved to be the source of hinnuliquinone, a potent inhibitor of the HIV-1 protease which was isolated from a fungal specimen associated with the leaves of *Quercus coccifera* (Singh *et al.*, 2004).

Searching for new immunosuppressants from endophytes resulted in the isolation of **subglutinol A** and **B**. These diterpene pyrones which were isolated from *Fusarium subglutinans* (harbored by the perennial twining vine *Tripterygium wilfordii*) showed substantial

immunosuppressive activity and were devoid of cytotoxic effects which are characteristic of cyclosporine A (Lee *et al.*, 1995; Strobel and Pliam, 1997).





As cytotoxic agents, many of the endophytic fungal metabolites possess strong cytotoxicity against different cancer cell lines which could be useful for the discovery of lead anticancer drugs. The diterpenoid **paclitaxel** represented the first member of the major group of anticancer agents that are produced by endophytes (Stierle *et al.*, 1993; Stierle *et al.*, 1995). This compound was the world's first billion-dollar anticancer drug and it is being unique in its mode of action by halting the proliferation of cancer cells. It was found to preclude tubulin molecules from depolymerizing during the processes of cell division yielding activity against a broad band

of tumor types including breast, ovarian, lung, head and neck cancers as well as advanced forms of Kaposi's sarcoma (Yuan *et al.*, 2001; Flores-Bustamante *et al.*, 2010). Paclitaxel[®] was found in *Taxus brevifolia* (Suffness, 1995). However, these trees are rare, slow growing and produce only small amounts of paclitaxel which makes its cost unsuitable to most people of the world (Yuan *et al.*, 2001). In the ongoing search for alternative and cheaper sources of paclitaxel, the research group of Gary Strobel discovered a novel paclitaxel-producing endophytic fungus, *Taxomyces andreanae*, which is associated with *Taxus brevifolia* (Stierle *et al.*, 1993; Stierle *et al.*, 1995).

After the huge clinical success of paclitaxel, a number of studies for screening the highyielding paclitaxel species were conducted at geographically and ecologically diverse sites all over the world. Paclitaxel was found in endophytic fungi harbored in other *Taxus* species as well as in non-*Taxus* plants (Bashyal *et al.*, 1999; Wang *et al.*, 2000; Liu *et al.*, 2009).

Recently, around 200 endophytic fungi belonging to more than 40 fungal genera from several different orders have been reported to produce paclitaxel (Flores-Bustamante *et al.*, 2010; Hao *et al.*, 2013) indicating the widespread biogenetic capacity for the production of this important drug from fungi rather in plants. Moreover, it was also demonstrated that the production of known herbal compounds in endophytes is not restricted to paclitaxel but extends also to further pharmacologically important natural products such as the antineoplastic **camptothecin** (CPT) and its structural analogues (Puri *et al.*, 2005; Kusari *et al.*, 2009a; Kusari *et al.*, 2011; Shweta *et al.*, 2010), anticancer drugs **vincristine**, the pro-drugs **podophyllotoxin** (Eyberger *et al.*, 2006; Puri *et al.*, 2006) and **deoxypodophyllotoxin** (Kusari *et al.*, 2009c) and others. However, it is quite disappointing that none of these endophytes have been successfully translated into industrial bioprocesses so far and this is mainly due to the inability of the hosting fungus to reproduce high-titer yields in axenic cultures. Meanwhile, introduction of innovative chemical techniques and biotechnological approaches are now emerging to tackle this issue (Kusari and Spiteller, 2011; Kusari *et al.*, 2014).





So, it is generally accepted that endophytes represent an important and largely untapped reservoir of unique chemical structures for drug discovery or as lead compounds for agriculture

(Alvin *et al.*, 2014). In addition, they are of interest as alternative source for secondary metabolites produced by their host plants. Current research on endophytes is aiming towards a better understanding of the dynamic endophyte–plant relationship with respect to ecological, biochemical and molecular contexts (Aly *et al.*, 2011; Kusari *et al.*, 2012; Verma *et al.*, 2014). This will not only help to optimize secondary bioactive metabolite production under laboratory conditions but also allow industrial scale of production of the desired compounds.

1.2.1. Endophyte host plant relationship

It is believed that many plant processes have been attributed to be shaped by endophytic fungal association. For example, endophytic fungi are suggested to play a major role in structuring plant communities and in shaping processes such as colonization, competition, coexistence and soil nutrient dynamics (Saikkonen *et al.*, 1998). Thus, endophytes form a symbiotic relationship with their plant host (Kogel *et al.*, 2006). Depending on the species involved, the outcome of a plant-endophyte interaction can range from antagonism to mutualism. This is why the distinct range of plant-endophyte interactions has been referred to as a continuum (Tan and Zou, 2001; Schulz and Boyle, 2005).

In case of mutualistic fungi, they contribute to fitness benefits which are responsible for plant adaptation to biotic and abiotic stress by increasing resistance to drought and water stress as well as tolerance to high temperature and high salinity (Redman *et al.*, 2002; Strobel and Daisy, 2003; Zhang *et al.*, 2006; Rodriguez *et al.*, 2009; Aly *et al.*, 2011; Selim *et al.*, 2012; Padhi *et al.*, 2013). It is noteworthy that in many cases the microbes function as the biological defense for the plant against foreign phytopathogens. The protection mechanisms of the endophytes are exerted directly by releasing metabolites to attack any antagonists or lyse affected cells and indirectly by either inducing host defense mechanisms or promoting growth. (Tan and Zou, 2001; Berg and Hallmann, 2006; Hartley and Gange, 2009; Aly *et al.*, 2011; Padhi *et al.*, 2013; Alvin *et al.*, 2014).

For instance, one of the recently suggested protection mechanisms of the former microorganisms hypothesized that endophytes may enhance the stress tolerance of their host plants by scavenging the harmful reactive oxygen species (ROS) which are generated by the plant defense mechanisms in response to environmental stress (White and Torres, 2010). In addition, the vast variety of antioxidant compounds produced by endophytes may also contribute

to the enhancement of stress tolerance in their hosts (Herrera-Carillo *et al.*, 2009; Torres *et al.*, 2009) and in return, the covalent relationship benefits the endophytic fungi itself. It is also possible that the host plant may provide compounds which are critical for the completion of the life cycle of the endophyte or essential for its growth or self-defense (Metz *et al.*, 2000; Strobel, 2002b; Rudgers *et al.*, 2004).

Interestingly, during the long periods of this co-evolution the coordinated association forced both partners to evolve strategies for mutual adaptation as indicated by the lack of plantdefense reactions following microbial infection (Christensen *et al.*, 2002). Consequently, some endophytic fungi have developed an ability to produce the same or similar bioactive substances as those originating from the host plants. Some recent reports suggest that the production of these substances is a result of a complex system of communication involving genetic cross link between endophytes and their respective host plants during the establishment of the endophytic association (Kusari *et al.*, 2012; Kozyrovska, 2013).

One of these concepts which have long been hypothesized is the horizontal gene transfer (HGT) between the plant host and its endophytes although so far this process has only been shown to occur between microbial endophytes (Taghavi *et al.*, 2005). It has been strongly suggested that interactions between endophytes and their respective plant host contribute to the co-production of these bioactive molecules (Heinig *et al.*, 2013). For example, in the case of paclitaxel it has been recently shown that the endophyte genomes do not contain any sequences with significant homology to the paclitaxel biosynthetic genes from *Taxus* species. (Heinig *et al.*, 2013) indicating that paclitaxel biosynthesis in endophytes might have developed independently from its plant host. However, the mechanism still remain enigmatic (Verma *et al.*, 2014).

The plant–endophyte interactions would provide some useful insights into the complex host-endophyte relationship. Recent observations suggest that the type of interaction between an endophyte and a plant is controlled by the genes of both organisms and modulated by the environment (Moricca and Ragazzi, 2008). It seems that many factors in the host as related to the season, age, environment and location may influence the biology of the endophyte. This indicates that bioprospecting for endophyte natural products should be host plant based rather than fungal taxon based (Strobel and Daisy, 2003).

1.2.2. Rationale for plant selection from endophytic fungal diversity

Considering the enormous number and the diversity of plants, ingenious strategies should be utilized to narrow the search for endophytes which are producing plant compounds. Investigating the secondary metabolites from the plants growing in unique environmental settings, plants with an unconventional biology as well as plants with established ethnobotanic values might be the best setting for plant-endophyte interactions (Strobel *et al.*, 2004). Endophytic fungi associated with traditionally used medicinal plants especially those of the tropical regions would be more promising sources of endophytes which are producing novel biochemicals (Kaul *et al.*, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Baraban *et al.*, 2013; Alvin *et al.*, 2014; Almeida *et al.*, 2014). In addition, plants of the tropical rain forests, those growing in harsh habitats such as hot and cold deserts, saline and acidic soils and marine habitats have to be screened for bioactive metabolite-producing endophytes (Rateb and Ebel, 2011; Debbab *et al.*, 2012; Ebada and Proksch, 2013; Debbab *et al.*, 2013). Briefly, testing endophytes isolated from different tissues of plant hosts rather than those isolated from the same organ of different plant hosts and from plants growing in unusual and less-studied habitats would be far more productive (Hyde and Soytong, 2008).

1.2.3. Novel metabolites production in cultured endophytes

Plant-endophytic fungi have been found to produce novel bioactive metabolites with a wide range of medicinal applications such as antibiotics, immunosuppressants, antiparasitics, and anticancer agents. Therefore, exploring the as-yet untapped natural products from the uninvestigated endophytes increases the chances of finding novel compounds (Alvin *et al.*, 2014). Meanwhile, gene sequencing studies of fungal genomes revealed the presence of many genes encoding enzymes that produce secondary metabolites as compared to those producing the known chemicals isolated from fungi. Thus, many genes which are responsible for the production of secondary metabolites are not expressed in the artificial laboratory environment (Pettit, 2009; Schroeckh *et al.*, 2009). So, the expression of such dormant genes in fungi is promising in order to obtain novel bioactive compounds (Chen *et al.*, 2013). Recently, a more precise identification and phylogenetic accommodation of sterile morphotypes and unculturable fungi was achieved by using highly discriminant DNA-based techniques (Tejesvi *et al.*, 2009; Tejesvi *et al.*, 2011; Jeewon *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2014).

Moreover, the recent 'genomics revolution' has given a momentum of considerable progress in the development of new technologies in endophytic fungi biosynthesis (Kusari *et al.*, 2012). Such researches showed that gene expression is controlled by various mechanisms such as nuclear transcriptional regulators ("epigenetic modifiers"). Moreover, recent studies revealed that histone deacetylase (HDAC) and DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) inhibitors are useful for activating dormant biosynthetic genes (Wang *et al.*, 2010; Asai *et al.*, 2011; Chen *et al.*, 2013). Indeed, the manipulation of the HDAC and DNMT activities by chemical agents alters the gene expression patterns in fungi, resulting in the production of novel secondary metabolites (Chung *et al.*, 2013).

Production of secondary constituents by endophytes may further be influenced by different growth conditions like culture parameters such as composition of growth medium (carbon, nitrogen sources, phosphate, and trace elements), aeration, light, pH, and temperature. These factors can dramatically change the secondary metabolite profile and even induce the synthesis of several new metabolites (Bode *et al.*, 2002; Suryanarayanan *et al.*, 2009). In this context, systematic alteration of cultivation parameters of a given microorganism which is known as OSMAC (one strain many compounds) approach was found to greatly increases the likeability of finding new metabolites from a single strain (Bode *et al.*, 2002).

Also, fungi are able to regulate the energetically expensive process of secondary metabolite production according to environmental conditions and specific needs (e.g. competitive forces, host plant interaction and communication) (Pettit, 2009). In this context it should be pointed out that many recent studies on natural products from endophytes have so far been conducted using co-cultivation experiments by adding cell lysates (from other fungi or from bacteria) as elicitors of secondary metabolism to cultivation media (Ola *et al.*, 2013; Fernanda *et al.*, 2013; Marmann *et al.*, 2014; Kusari *et al.*, 2014).

1.3. Hypersaline ecosystems

1.3.1. Fungi in hypersaline ecosystem

Hypersaline environments are those whose salt concentrations are above that of sea water (3.3% total dissolved salts). Based on their origin, they can be classified into thalassohaline and athalassohaline environments. The former type is characterized by salt concentration similar to that of sea water where Na⁺ and Cl⁻ are the dominant ions and the pH is near neutral to slightly alkaline as these environments result from evaporation of sea water. Athalassohaline environments are those to have ionic composition differing hugely from that of seawater (Das Sarma and Arora, 2001). Typical examples of athalassohaline waters that have been studied in more detail are the Dead Sea, Great Salt Lake, some cold hypersaline lakes in Antarctica or alkaline lakes (East African lakes) like Lake Magadi or the lakes of Wadi Al-Natrun (Kladwang *et al.*, 2003; Butinar *et al.*, 2005; Mansour *et al.*, 2011; Gonçalves *et al.*, 2012; Oren and Cinerman, 2012).

Hypersaline lakes are considered as extreme environments for microbial life because of the effects of salt on water activity (Oren, 1999). Until a decade ago, it was a general belief in microbial ecology that fungi cannot inhabit natural hypersaline environment and in general, microbial diversity decreases with increased salinity; until it was shown that few fungi contaminating food or other substrates were recognized as "domestic extremophiles" with a general xerophilic phenotype that was determined by the water potential of the medium rather than the chemical nature of the solute (Hocking, 1993; Northolt *et al.*, 1995; Pitt and Hocking, 1997; Gunde-Cimerman *et al.*, 2000). Various subsequent reports revealed that fungi are the active inhabitants of hypersaline lakes around the world (Gunde-Cimerman *et al.*, 2000; Butinar *et al.*, 2005); Zalar *et al.*, 2007; Sepcic *et al.*, 2011).

Halophilic and halotolerant fungi differ in halophilic behavior from the majority of halophilic prokaryotes. With few exceptions, halophilic fungi do not require salt for viability because they can grow and adapt to the salinity range from freshwater to almost saturated NaCl solutions (Plemenitas *et al.*, 2008). Phosphorous and nitrogen, are two main nutrients which consider most important variables influencing their presence and numbers in nature, followed by dissolved oxygen, water activity and pH (Cantrell *et al.*, 2011).

Studies of fungi in hypersaline ecosystems as a distinctive ecological group have been initiated only recently and these organisms still remain poorly known. To date, most of the

halophilic and halotolerant fungi described from natural hypersaline environments have been identified either as known foodborne species with previously unrecognized natural niches or as species that were not known and consequently were newly described (Cantrell *et al.*, 2011) because the isolation and identification of fungi from these habitats have been frequently hindered due to their slow growth and low ability to compete (Gunde-Cimerman and Plemenitas, 2006).

Mycologists have recognized that most of the fungi found in extreme environments belong to the imperfect stage of the Ascomycota (Zalar *et al.*, 2007). Within Ascomycota the salt tolerant black yeast *A. pullulans* (which produces exopolymer pullulan that has a broad spectrum use in the food and pharmaceutical industries (Leathers, 2003; Singh *et al.*, 2008)) and the extremely halotolerant black yeasts *T. salinum* and *H. werneckii* have been shown to produce extracellular hydrolytic enzymes that are active at high salt concentrations and could therefore exhibit important roles in different industries (Zalar *et al.*, 2005). Indeed, many halophilic and halotolerant fungi synthesize specific bioactive metabolites under stress conditions particularly at increased salt concentrations (Sepcic *et al.*, 2011).

1.3.2. Halophilic fungi from sediments of hypersaline lakes

In fact, most species during both dry-hot and freezing-cold seasons stay in a dormant stage in the bottom sediments. The rest could even last for years if suitable conditions do not return (Canfield *et al.*, 2004). For example, a small portion of the biodiversity is expressed in progressively rising salinity while the majority of species being temporarily resting as cysts in the sediments (Caumette, 1993).

A recent study demonstrated that the number of halophilic organisms and their metabolites in the sediment of a salt lake were higher than those of the organisms present in the water (Mansour *et al.*, 2011).

Studies of the chemistry of fungi from sediments of hypersaline lakes have only recently been initiated by a very limited number of research groups (Xin *et al.*, 2007). To date, no review articles covering fungal metabolites from sediments of athalassohaline environments have yet been published.

Marine fungi have proved to be a rich and promising source of novel compounds. A review of marine-derived fungi in 2011 reported that the total number of new natural products

from marine-derived fungi including isolates from sediments currently exceeds 1000. Many of these compounds have novel skeletons and display antitumor, antibiotic and antidiabetic activities (Rateb and Ebel, 2011). As an environment with much resemblance to hypersaline sediment habitats, some secondary metabolites including polyketides, terpenoids, alkaloids, peptides and dikitopiperazines were produced by fungi derived from marine sediments with close structural relationships to the fungal metabolites from hypersaline ecosystems reported to date.

A sediment-borne isolate of *Gliocladium sp.* from China was found to produce the new diketopiperazines, **gliocladride** (Yao *et al.*, 2007) and the **isomeric PJ147** and **PJ157** of which isomeric PJ147 displayed a marked cytotoxicity towards the human A375-S2 melanoma cell line (Huang *et al.*, 2007b).

Aspergiolide A, a novel anthraquinone derivative with naphtho [1,2,3-de]chromene-2,7dione skeleton was isolated from cultures of the marine-derived fungus *Aspergillus glaucus*. The fungal strain was obtained from the marine sediment collected from mangrove roots in Fujian province, China. The compound selectively inhibited the proliferation of A549, HL-60, BEL-7402 and P388 cancer cell lines (Du *et al.*, 2007; Sun *et al.*, 2009).

Bioassay-guided investigation of the culture broth obtained from the marine-derived fungus *Cosmospora* sp. SF-5060 which was isolated from an inter-tidal sediment collected at Gejae Island, Korea yielded the known compound **aquastatin A**. The compound exhibited potent inhibitory activity against protein tyrosine phosphatase 1B (PTP1B). Studies demonstrated that PTP1B, an intracellular non-receptor type PTP, negatively regulates insulinand leptin-receptor mediated signaling pathways. Thus, its inhibition may represent an outstanding novel therapy for type 2 diabetes and obesity (Seo *et al.*, 2009).

The fungus *Trichoderma* sp. which was isolated from marine sediment in the South China sea and found to produce a new cyclopentenone, **trichoderone**. This compound displayed selective cytotoxicity towards six cancer cell lines (You *et al.*, 2010).

Chloctanspirones A and **B**, two novel chlorinated polyketides with unprecedented skeleton, were isolated from marine sediment derived fungus *Penicillium terrestre*. The chloctanspirone A was active against both HL-60 and A549 (Lia *et al.*, 2011).

Recently, two new secondary metabolites namely, **pinodiketopiperazine A** and **6**, **7dihydroxy-3-methoxy-3-methylphthalide**, were isolated from a natural source for the first time but have been previously synthesized and found to be characterized from the marine sediment-

derived fungus *Penicillium pinophilum* SD-272. These compounds displayed potent brine shrimp (*Artemia salina*) lethality with LD₅₀ 11.2 μM (Wang *et al.*, 2013).



Figure 1.4: Structures of secondary metabolites isolated of fungi derived from marine sediments.

In general, halophilic fungi represent a wide source of yet undiscovered compounds that besides their unprecedented chemical structures often possess interesting biological activities.

These could be used in medicine, pharmaceutics, industry and other fields of human activities (Wang *et al.*, 2009; Sepcic *et al.*, 2011).

1.4. Aim and scope of the study

Different environmental factors including diverse physical conditions and biological situations in nature may change the behavior of fungi and favor the production of diverse range of secondary metabolites. Thus, the search for alternatively unexplored ecological niches has been targeted in this study. The aim of this study was to continue improving the efficiency of the selection, screening, dereplication, isolation and structure elucidation followed by preliminary evaluation of the pharmaceutical potential of the metabolites produced by some unexplored ecosystems which are exemplified by the following fungal isolates; the endophytic fungus *Alternaria* sp., an endophyte was originated from the seeds of *Ziziphus jujube* and the fungus *Penicillium* sp., a fungus which has been isolated from the sediment of the Wadi Al-Natrun (a hypersaline lake located in Egypt).

2. Materials and Methods:

2.1. Materials

2.1.1. Biological materials

2.1.1.1. Plant material

Seeds of *Ziziphus jujube* were collected from Uzbekistan in September 2010 by Elena Kamilova. The seeds were placed in a plastic bag after any excess moisture was removed. Every attempt was made to store the materials at 4° C until isolation procedures could be instituted.

2.1.1.2. Sediment material

The sediment samples were collected in December 2012 by Cong-Dat Pham and Hendrik Niemann from Wadi El-Natron hyper saline lakes located in Egypt 80 Km northwest of Cairo (Figure 2.1). All samples were immediately stored at 4° C until isolation procedures could be established.



Figure 2.1: Sediment sampling area (Wadi El-Natrun).

2.1.2. Media

2.1.2.1. Composition of malt agar (MA) medium

MA medium was used for short term storage of fungal cultures or fresh seeding for preparation of liquid cultures.

Agar-agar	15.0 g
Malt extract	15.0 g
Distilled water	to 1000 mL
pН	7.4 - 7.8 (adjusted with NaOH/HCl)

For the isolation of endophytic fungi from plant tissues chloramphenicol or streptomycin (0.2

or 0.1 g, respectively) were added to the medium to suppress bacterial growth.

2.1.2.2. Composition of Wickerham medium for liquid cultures

Yeast extract	3.0 g
Malt extract	3.0 g
Peptone	5.0 g
Glucose	10.0 g
Distilled water	to 1000 mL
pН	7.2 - 7.4 (adjusted with NaOH/HCl)

2.1.2.3. Composition of rice medium for solid cultures

Rice	100 g
Distilled water	100 mL

Water was added to the rice and kept overnight before autoclaving.

2.1.2.4. Composition of Luria Bertani (LB) medium

This medium was used to conduct antibacterial assays.		
Peptone	10.0 g	
Yeast extract	5.0 g	

NaCl	10.0 g
Distilled water	To 1000 mL
pН	7.0 (adjusted with NaOH/HCl)

To prepare the agar plates, 15.0 g agar were added to 1 L broth media.

2.1.2.5. Composition of yeast medium

This medium was used to perform bioassays using Saccharomyces cerevisiae.

Peptone	5.0 g
Yeast extract	3.0 g
Malt extract	3.0 g
Glucose	10.0 g
Distilled water	To 1000 mL
To prepare the agar plates, 15.0 g agar were added to 1 L broth media.	

2.1.2.6. Composition of fungal medium for bioassay

Mannitose	50.0 g
Saccharose	50.0 g
Succinic acid	5.4 g
Yeast extract	3.0 g
KH2PO4	0.1 g
MgSO ₄	0.3 g
FeSO ₄	10.0 mg
ZnSO ₄	10.0 mg
Distilled water	To 1000 mL
pН	5.4 (adjusted with NaOH/HCl)

2.1.2.7. Composition of potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium for bioassay

Potato infusion (see below) 1000 mL

Dextrose	20.0 g
Agar	15.0 g

Potato infusion: The potatoes (200 g) were first washed and cut into small pieces, then boiled in 1000 mL distilled water for 1 hour and filtered to get the potato infusion.

2.1.2.8. Composition of trypticase soy broth (TSB)

Peptone from casein	17.0 g
Peptone from soymeal	3.0 g

Glucose	2.5 g
NaCl	5.0 g
K2HPO4	2.5 g
Distilled water	To 1000 mL
pН	7.3 (adjusted with NaOH/HCl)

2.1.3. Chemicals

2.1.3.1. General laboratory chemicals

Anisaldehyde (4-methoxybenzaldehyde)	Merck
(-)-2-Butanol	Merck
Dimethylsulfoxide	Merck
Formaldehyde	Merck
L-(+)-Ascorbic acid	Merck
Hydrochloric acid	Merck
Potassium hydroxide	Merck
Pyridine	Merck
Concentrated sulphuric acid	Merck
Trifloroacetic acid (TFA)	Merck
Concentrated ammonia solution	Fluka
Acetic anhydride	Merck
Ortho-phosphoric acid 85% (p.a.)	Merck
Sodium hydrogen carbonate	Sigma
Trifluroacetic acid (TFA)	Merck

2.1.3.2. Chemicals for culture media

Galke
Sigma
Caelo
Merck
Merck

Peptone	BD
Streptomycin	Sigma
Yeast extract	Sigma

2.1.3.3. Chemicals for agarose gel electrophoresis

Agarose	Serva
TBE-buffer	Merck
Ethidium bromide	Serva
Standards	NEB

2.1.4. Chromatography

2.1.4.1. Stationary phases

Pre-coated TLC plates, Silica Gel 60 F_{254} , layer thickness 0.2 mm	Merck
Silica Gel 60, 0.04 - 0.063 mm mesh size	Merck
Pre-coated TLC plates, RP-18, F254 S, layer thickness 0.25 mm	Merck
RP-18, 0.04 - 0.063 mm mesh size	Merck
Sephadex LH 20, 0.25 - 0.1 mm mesh size	Merck
Diaion HP20	Supelco

2.1.4.2. Spray reagents

The reagents were stored in amber-colored bottles and kept refrigerated until use. 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/H2SO4 Spray Reagent

Methanol	85 mL
Glacial acetic acid	10 mL
Conc. H ₂ SO ₄	5 mL (added slowly)
Anisaldehyde	0.5 mL

Vanillin/H₂SO₄ Spray Reagent

Methanol	85 mL
Conc. H ₂ SO ₄	15 mL (added slowly)
Vanillin	1 g

2.1.5. Solvents

2.1.5.1. General solvents

Acetone, acetonitrile, dichloromethane, ethanol, ethyl acetate, n-hexane and methanol were used. 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.

2.1.5.2. Solvents for HPLC

Acetonitrile	LiChroSolv HPLC grade (Merck)
Methanol	LiChroSolv HPLC grade (Merck)
Nanopure water	distilled and heavy metals free water obtained by
	passing distilled water through nano- and
	ionexchange filter cells (Barnstead, France).

2.1.5.3. Solvents for optical rotation

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

2.1.5.4. Solvents for NMR

Acetone- d_6	Uvasol, Merck
Chloroform-d	Uvasol, Merck
$DMF-d_7$	Uvasol, Merck
$DMSO-d_{6}$	Uvasol, Merck
Methanol- d_4	Uvasol, Merck
Pyridine-d _s	Uvasol, Merck
2.2. Methods

2.2.1. Purification of fungal strains

The seeds of the Plant material were washed with sterilized demineralized water and then thoroughly surface treated with 70% ethanol for 1-2 minutes and ultimately air dried under a laminar flow hood. This is done in order to eliminate surface contaminating microbes. Furthermore, the outer tissues were removed from the seeds using a sterile scalpel, and the inner tissues were carefully dissected under sterile conditions. In the case of sediment samples, the dilution plating technique has been used (Singh *et al.*, 2012). Then both samples were placed onto malt agar plates containing antibiotic (see section 2.1.2.1). After 3-4 weeks of incubation at room temperature, hyphal tips of the fungi were removed and transferred to fresh malt agar medium. Plates are prepared in duplicates to eliminate the possibility of contamination. Pure strains were isolated by repeated inoculation.

2.2.2. Cultivation of pure fungal strains

2.2.2.1. Cultivation for short term storage

Fungi were grown on malt agar medium under room temperature for several days. When fungal hyphae almost cover the surface of the MA plate, cultures were stored at 4° C for a maximum period of 6 months, and then re-inoculated onto fresh MA media.

2.2.2.2. Cultivation for screening and isolation of secondary metabolites in different media:

Mass growth of pure fungi for screening as well as isolation and identification of secondary metabolites was carried out by transferring fresh fungal cultures into Erlenmeyer flasks (1L each) containing 300 mL of Wickerham medium for liquid cultures or 100 g rice for solid cultures. The cultures were then incubated at room temperature (no shaking) for 21 and 30 days, respectively. Large scale cultivation was carried out using 30 and 10 1L Erlenmeyer flasks for liquid and solid rice cultures, respectively.

2.2.3. Extraction of secondary metabolites

2.2.3.1. Extraction of Wickerham liquid cultures

2.2.3.1.1. Total extraction method

To each 1L Erlenmeyer about 250 mL EtOAc were added and left overnight to stop cell growth. Culture media and mycelia were then extracted in the Ultraturrax for 10 min for cell destruction, followed by vacuum filtration using Buchner. The mycelium residue was discarded while culture filtrates were collected and extracted with EtOAc and *n*-BuOH till exhaustion. The combined EtOAc phases were washed with distilled water and then taken to dryness. The dry residue was then partitioned between *n*-hexane and 90% MeOH. The extraction scheme is described in (Figure 2.2).



Figure 2.2: Total extraction of culture media and mycelia.

2.2.3.1.2. Separate extraction of culture media and mycelia

This taking place by separation of fungal mycelia from culture media and left in MeOH overnight. Using Ultraturrax cells were destructed and extracted for 10 min, followed by filtration and repeated extraction till exhaustion. The culture media were extracted in the same manner as described above in 2.2.3.1.1 to obtain the EtOAc extract. The extraction scheme is described in (Figure 2.3).



Figure 2.3: Separate extraction of culture media and mycelia.

2.2.3.2. Extraction of solid rice cultures

To each 1L Erlenmeyer about 250 mL EtOAc were added to the cultures and left overnight. Culture media were then cut in pieces to allow complete extraction and left for 3-5 days. Then filtration was done followed by repeated extraction with EtOAc and MeOH till exhaustion. The combined EtOAc phases were washed with distilled water and then taken to dryness. The dry residues obtained from EtOAc and MeOH extracts were partitioned between *n*-hexane and 90% MeOH. See (Figure 2.4).





2.2.3.3. Solvent-solvent extraction

Solvent-solvent extraction is a widely employed technique to separate organic compounds from a mixture. It involves the separation of compounds into two immiscible solvents. Since the technique is based upon an unequal distribution of solutes between two solvents with different polarities, 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 by the distribution coefficient (K):

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

Where, [A] is the concentration of solute A.

The following general principles should be considered in choosing the solvents:

- The solvents involved in the extraction must be immiscible
- 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, solvent-solvent extraction was the first step in the separation process. It was meant to "clean" the ethyl acetate extract from salts and other undesirable polar constituents by water-ethyl acetate extraction. Subsequently, the methanol-*n*-hexane extraction was applied to remove fatty acids and other undesirable non polar components.

2.2.4. Identification of fungal strains and their taxonomy

2.2.4.1. Fungal identification

Fungal strains were identified using a molecular biological protocol by DNA amplification and sequencing of the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region. This was carried out by Lena Hammerschmidt, Sergi Akone and the author at the Institut für Pharmazeutische Biologie und Biotechnologie, Heinrich-Heine-Universität Düsseldorf.

DNA isolation

Fungal DNA isolation has been achieved by using DNeasy[®] Plant Mini Kit (QIAgen). The lyophilized fungal mycelia were pulverized and disrupted with the help of glass beads. Then cell lysis was carried out by addition of lysis Buffer AP-1 and RNAse-A solution followed by incubation of the mixture at 65° C. The remaining detergent, protein and polysaccharide were precipitated by addition of Buffer AP-2 to the lysate. The lysate was then applied to the Qiashredder[™] Mini Spin Column and centrifuged to remove the cell debris and other remaining precipitates. The lysate was then transferred to a new tube. An adequate volume of ethanolic Buffer AP3/E was added to the lysate and the mixture was then applied to DNeasy Mini Spin Column. After centrifugation, the filtrate was discarded. The column was washed by addition of ethanolic Buffer AW followed by centrifugation. Another portion of Buffer AW was added to the column and centrifuged at maximum speed to dry the membrane in the column from residual ethanol.

Fungal DNA, which is incorporated into the membrane, was eluted by addition of Buffer AE directly to the membrane in the DNeasy column. The column was then incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes and then centrifuged to collect the filtrate, which was the fungal DNA dissolved in Buffer AE.

The amplification of DNA

After the isolation process, the isolated DNA was then amplified by Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR). The PCR was carried out using HotStarTaq Master Mix Kit (QIAgen). The Master Mix contains HotStarTaq[®]DNA polymerase, PCR buffer (with MgCl₂) and dNTPs.

ITS 1 (with base sequences TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG) and ITS 4 (with base sequences TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC) (Invitrogen), as primers, were mixed with Hotstar Taq Master Mix Kit and DNA template. Thus, each PCR reaction mixture contained 5- 10 ng of genomic DNA, 1 μ M each of the primers ITS 1 and ITS 4, and 1 U of Hot start Taq-Polymerase (Invitrogen) in a total volume of 50 μ L. The mixture was then applied to the thermal cycler (BioRad) using the programmed PCR cycle as outlined below:

- Initial activation step in 95° C for 15 minutes to activate HotStarTaq® DNA polymerase

- Cycling steps which were repeated 35 times:

Denaturing: 1 minute at 95° C, annealing: 1 minute at 56° C, extension: 1 minute at 72° C

- Final extension for 10 minutes in 72° C

Purification of PCR products and DNA sequencing

The PCR product was purified using 2% Agarose-Gel-Electrophoresis at 75 V for 60 minutes in TBE buffer. The agarose gel was then stained using 1% ethidium bromide. A 500 bp stained DNA fragment was then excised from the agarose gel.

The next step of PCR product purification was performed using Perfectprep® Gel Cleanup Kit (Eppendorf). The binding buffer was mixed to the PCR product and incubated at 50° C for 10 minutes in an eppendorf thermomixer at 1000 rpm. The mixture was mixed with a volume of isopropanol and then centrifuged. The filtrate was discarded and the column was washed with wash buffer twice followed by centrifugation.

Amplified fungal DNA (PCR product), which was incorporated into the column, was eluted by addition of elution buffer or molecular biology grade water to the center of the column. The column was then centrifuged to collect the filtrate, which was the fungal DNA dissolved in elution buffer. The amplified fungal DNA was then submitted for sequencing by a commercial service and the base sequence was compared with publicly available databases such as GenBank with the help of Blast-Algorithmus.

2.2.4.2. Taxonomy

Alternaria sp.

The fungus *Alternaria* sp. was isolated from the seeds of *Ziziphus jujube* (see Figure 2.5). The plant seeds were collected in September 2010 from Uzbekistan.

Taxonomy

Phylum	Ascomycota
Subphylum	Pezizomycotina
Class	Dothideomycetes
Order	Pleosporales
Family	Pleosporaceae
Genus	Alternaria
Species	Alternaria sp.



Figure 2.5: *Alternaria* sp. (**A**: Seeds of *Ziziphus jujube*. **B**: Pure strain on malt agar plate. C: Liquid culture in Wickerham medium. D: Rice culture).

Penicillium sp.

The fungus *Penicillium* sp. was isolated from the sediment of hypersaline lake (see Figure 2.6). The sediment was collected in December 2012 from Wadi El-Natrun, Egypt.

Taxonomy

Phylum	Ascomycota
Subphylum	Pezizomycotina
Class	Euascomycetes
Order	Eurotiales
Family	Trichomaceae
Genus	Penicillium
Species	Penicillium sp.



Figure 2.6: *Penicillium* sp. (A: A lake in Wadi El-Natrun, Egypt. **B**: Hyper salinity of the lake, PH=10. **C**: Pure strain on malt agar plate. **D**: Rice culture).

- 2.2.5. Isolation and purification of secondary metabolites
- 2.2.5.1. Isolation of the secondary metabolites from *Alternaria* sp.
- 2.2.5.1.1. Secondary metabolites isolated from small scale of Alternaria sp.



2.2.5.1.2. Secondary metabolites isolated from large scale of Alternaria sp.



2.2.5.2. Isolation of the secondary metabolites from *Penicillium* sp.





2.2.5.3. Chromatographic methods

2.2.5.3.1. Thin layer chromatography (TLC)

Chromatography refers to any separation method in which the components are distributed between stationary phase and mobile phase. The separation occurs because sample components have different affinities for the stationary and mobile phases and therefore move at different rates along the TLC plates and the column. TLC was performed on pre-coated TLC plates with silica gel 60 F_{254} (layer thickness 0.2 mm, E. Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) with the following eluents:

For polar compounds

EtOAc: MeOH: H₂O (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 F_{254} (layer thickness 0.25 mm, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) was used for polar substances and using the different solvent systems of MeOH: H_2O (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 the TLC plates with anisaldehyde/ H_2SO_4 or vaniline/ H_2SO_4 reagent and subsequent heating at 110 °C.

2.2.5.3.2. Column chromatography

Fractions derived from liquid –liquid fractionation between n-hexane and 90% MeOH and 10% H₂O. The last polar fraction were subjected to repeated separation through column chromatography using appropriate stationary and mobile phase solvent systems previously determined by TLC. Size exclusion separation system were used involves separations based on molecular size of compounds being analyzed. The stationary phase consists of porous beads

(Sephadex LH-20). The larger compounds will be excluded from the interior of the bead and thus will elute first. The smaller compounds will be allowed to enter the beads and elute according to their ability to exit from the small sized pores they were internalized through. Elution was performed using MeOH.

2.2.5.3.3. Semi-preparative high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC)

This process was used for purification of compounds from fractions previously separated using column chromatographic separation. The most appropriate solvent system was determined before running the HPLC separation. The mobile phase combination was MeOH and nanopure H₂O with or without 0.01 % TFA or 0.1 % formic acid, pumped in gradient or isocratic manner depending on the compounds retention time. Each injection consisted of 1-3 mg of the fraction dissolved in 1 mL of the solvent system. The solvent system was pumped through the column at a rate of 5 mL/min. The eluted peaks were detected by the online UV detector and collected separately in Erlenmeyer flasks. The separation column (125 × 4 mm, ID) was pre-filled with Eurospher C18 (Knauer, Berlin, Germany).

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 mm, ID), prepacked with Eurosphere
	100-10 C18, with integrated pre-column.

2.2.5.3.4. Analytical high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC)

Analytical HPLC was used to identify the distribution of peaks either from extracts or fractions, as well as to evaluate the purity of isolated compounds. The solvent gradient used started with MeOH: nanopure H₂O (10:90), adjusted to pH 2 with phosphoric acid, and reached to 100 % MeOH in 35 minutes. The autosampler injected 20 μ L sample. All peaks were detected by UV-VIS photodiode array detector. In some cases, special programs were used. HPLC instrument consists of the pump, the detector, the injector, the separation column and the reservoir of mobile phase. The separation column (125 × 2 mm, ID) was pre-filled with Eurospher-100 C18 (5 μ m), with integrated pre-column (Knauer, Berlin, Germany).

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 mm, ID), pre-packed with Eurosphere
	100-5 C18, with integrated pre-column.

2.2.6. Structure elucidation of the isolated secondary metabolites

2.2.6.1. Mass spectrometry (MS)

Mass spectrometers use the difference in mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) of ionized molecules to separate them from each other. Mass spectrometry is therefore useful for quantification of atoms or molecules and also for determination of chemical and structural information of molecules. A mass spectrometer consists of an ion source, ion detector and mass-selective analyzer. The output of mass spectrometers shows a plot of relative intensity vs. the mass-to-charge ratio (m/z).

2.2.6.1.1. Electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (ESI-MS)

A mass spectrometer is an analytical instrument used to determine the molecular weight of a compound. Basically, mass spectrometers are divided into three parts; ionization source, analyzer and detector, which should be maintained under high vacuum conditions in order to maintain the ions travel through the instrument without any hindrance from air molecules. Once a sample was injected into the ionization source, the molecules are ionized. The ions were then passed and extracted into the analyzer. In the analyzer, the ions were separated according to their mass (m) to charge (z) ratio (m/z). Once the separated ions flow into the detector, the signals are transmitted to the data system where the mass spectrum is recorded.

Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC/MS)

High pressure liquid chromatography is a 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. Usually, 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 $H_2O/MeOH$ mixtures and injected to HPLC/ESI-MS set-up. For standard MS/MS measurements, a solvent gradient that started with acetonitrile: nanopure H_2O (10:90), adjusted with 0.1 % HCOOH, and reached to 100 % acetonitrile 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 mm, ID), prepacked with Eurosphere
	100-5.
Column	C18, with integrated pre-column.

2.2.6.1.2. 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-of-flight analyzer separates ions according to their mass-to-charge ratios (m/z) by measuring the time it takes for ions to travel through a field free region known as the flight.

2.2.6.2. Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR)

Nuclear magnetic resonance is a phenomenon which occurs when the nuclei of certain atoms are immersed in a static magnetic field and exposed to a second oscillating magnetic

field. Some nuclei experience this phenomenon, and others do not, dependent 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 are used to determine the structure of more complicated molecules.

NMR spectra were recorded at 300° K on a Bruker ARX-500 by Dr. Peter Tommes, and Burker AVANCE DMX 600 NMR spectrometer by Dr. Schaper, Klaus, Institut für Anorganische und Strukturchemie, Heinrich-Heine Universität, Düsseldorf. 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 (δ) values were given in ppm and the coupling constants (J) in Hz.

2.2.6.3. Optical activity

Optically active compounds contain at least one chiral centre. Optical activity is a microscopic property of a collection of these molecules that arises from the way they interact with light. Optical rotation was determined on a Perkin-Elmer-241 MC polarimeter. The substance was stored in a 0.5 mL cuvette with 0.1 dm length. The angle of rotation was measured at the wavelength of 546 and 579 nm of a mercury vapour lamp at room temperature (25° C). The specific optical rotation was calculated using the expression:

$$[\alpha]_{D}^{T} = \frac{[\alpha]_{579} \times 3.199}{4.199 \cdot \frac{[\alpha]_{579}}{[\alpha]_{546}}}$$

With $[\alpha]_D^{T}$ = the specific rotation at the wavelength of the sodium D-line, 589 nm, at certain temperature T.

 $[\alpha]_{579}$ and $[\alpha]_{546}$ = the optical rotation at wavelengths 579 and 546 nm, respectively, calculated using the formula:

$$[\alpha]_{\lambda} = \frac{100 \text{ o}}{l \times c}$$

Where α = the measured angle of rotation in degrees,

- l = the length in dm of the polarimeter tube,
- c = the concentration of the substance expressed in g/100 mL.

2.2.7. Testing the biological activity

Finding biologically important compounds from fungi, endophytic or aquatic is only achieved if, and when, assay systems have been devised that will allow for successful biologically guided fractionation of the culture extracts.

2.2.7.1. Antimicrobial serial dilution assay

This test was conducted under aseptic conditions using microtiter 96 well plates.

Microorganisms

Crude extracts and isolated pure compounds were tested for activity against the following standard strains:

Gram-positive bacteria	Streptococcus pneumonia
	Multi resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA)
	Enterococcus faecalis
Gram-negative bacteria	Klebsiella, pneumonia
	Esherichia coli
	Pseudomonas aeruginosa
Fungi	Aspergillus fumigatus
	Aspergillus faecalis
	Candida albicans
	Candida krusei

Antimicrobial screening assay

Test samples were dissolved in 0.2 mL DMSO followed by dilution in 800 μ L cell culture water. For further use, pure compounds were diluted from 250 to 62.5 μ g/mL and extracts from 1250 to 312 μ g/mL in MHB medium for bacterial screening and in Sabauroud

medium, for fungal screening. Afterwards the substance/extract solution was overlaid with the microbes (10^4 CFU/mL) . Then plates were incubated at 35°C for 24 h and 48 h to allow bacterial and fungal growth, respectively. As negative control an antibiotic/antimycotic mix was used in addition to a non-treated infected control (positive).

The test 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.

Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC)

Minimum inhibitory concentration is defined as the least concentration of an antimicrobial required to inhibit or control the growth of a micro-organism. Substances with an activity around 125 μ g/ml and extracts with 625 μ g/ml were considered as possible candidates for further antimicrobial screening. With these positive candidates, MIC assays were performed to determine their exact values. Therefore the substances/extracts were diluted from 125 μ g/mL to 0.24 μ g/mL and screened in the same manner as in the primary screening. MICs were distinguished as the least dilutions of the substances/extracts that revealed no microbial growth visibly or by measurement of the turbidity at 650 nm.

2.2.7.2. Cytotoxicity test

2.2.7.2.1. Microculture tetrazolium (MTT) assay

Cytotoxicity tests were carried out by Prof. Dr. W. E. G. Müller, Institut fürPhysiologische Chemie und Pathobiochemie, University of Mainz, Mainz. The cytotoxicity was tested against L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells using the 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/mL penicillin and 100 μ g/mL streptomycin. The cells were maintained in a humified atmosphere at 37° C with 5% CO₂.

MTT colorimetric assay

Of the test samples, stock solutions in ethanol 96% (v/v) were prepared. Exponentially growing cells were harvested, counted and diluted appropriately. Of the cell suspension, 50 µL containing 3750 cells were pipetted into 96-well microtiter plates. Subsequently, 50 µL of a solution of the test samples containing the appropriate concentration was added to each well. The concentration range was 3 and 10 μ g/mL. The small amount of ethanol present in the wells did not affect the experiments. The test plates were incubated at 37° C with 5% CO₂ for 72 h. A solution of 3-(4, 5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2, 5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) was prepared at 5 mg/mL in phosphate buffered saline (PBS; 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄, 6.5 mM Na₂HPO₄, 137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl; pH 7.4) and from this solution, 20 µL was pipetted into each well. The yellow MTT penetrates the healthy living cells and in the presence of mitochondrial dehydrogenases, MTT is transformed to its blue formazan complex. After an incubation period of 3 h 45 min at 37° C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO2, the medium was centrifuged (15 min, 20 °C, 210 x g) with 200 µL 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:

Survival %=100 X Absorbance of treated cells – Absorbance of culture medium Absorbance of untreated cells – Absorbance of culture medium

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. Compounds isolated from the endophytic fungus Alternaria sp.

In this study, we investigated an endophytic fungal strain of the genus *Alternaria*, which was isolated from the healthy seeds of *Ziziphus jujube* growing in Uzbekistan. The pure fungal strain was cultivated first on small scale liquid Wickerham medium and both the antibiotic and the cytotoxic properties of the extract were evaluated. The EtOAc extract was subjected to further chromatographic methods to yield compound (3) citreoisocoumarin as a major substance in HPLC screening (see Figure 3.1 A). In addition, four components, *viz*, citreoisocoumarinol (1), 6-methyl-citreoisocoumarin (2), orthosporin (4) and diaportinol (5) have been isolated from the same culture.

Furthermore, a large scale solid rice medium had been done. Interestingly, chemical screening using HPLC indicated a clear difference between *Alternaria* extracts obtained from small scale liquid medium and the large scale solid one. Investigation of the large scale rice cultures revealed altenusin (8) and alternariol (6) as main components with no traces of citreoisocoumarin (3) (see Figure 3.1 B). In addition, fourteen substances have been isolated from this large scale; *vis*, alternariol-5-*O*-methyl ether (7), tenuazonic acid (9), stemphytriol (10), altertoxin II (11), altenuene (12), 4'-epialtenuene (13), isoochracinic acid (14), 7-methoxyphthalide-3-aacetic acid (15), talaroflavone (16), alteric acid (17), alterlactone (18), 2, 5-dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone (19), altechromone B (20), and ferulic acid (21).





Figure 3.1 A-B: HPLC chromatograms of EtOAc extracts of *Alternaria* sp. cultures. A: Small scale in liquid medium (Wickerham medium) B: Large scale on rice medium. (3): Citreoisocoumarin. (6): Alternariol. (8): Alternusin.

3.1.1. (+) - Citreoisocoumarinol (1, known compound)



Compound (1), was isolated as a brown solid from the EtOAC extract of the small scale liquid cultures of *Alternaria* sp. Positive and negative ESIMS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 280.7 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 279.1 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicating a molecular weight of 280 g/mol. Compound (1) was likely to be an isocoumarin derivative based on its characteristic UV absorption maxima at 238.8, 277.1 and 327.1 (Chong and Huang, 1986).

The proposed isocoumarin structure of this compound was further supported by its ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR data (Table 3.1). The ¹H NMR spectrum displayed characteristic downfield signals which are attributed to two overlapped aromatic signals which appear as a singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.33 ppm for H-5 and H-7, and an olefinic singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.39 ppm for H-4. Moreover, the up ¹H NMR spectrum showed a doublet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.20 ppm for CH₃-13, two geminal-coupled methylene protons; CH₂-9 (at $\delta_{\rm H}$ (2.70 ppm [dd (*J*=4.1, 14.7 Hz)] and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.57 ppm [dd (*J*=8.3, 14.6 Hz)]) and CH₂-11 at ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.70 ppm [ddd (*J*=13.9, 8.5, 7.8 Hz)] and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.60 ppm [*ddd* (*J*=13.9, 5.3, 4.4 Hz)]) and two downfieled multiplets at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.15 and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.00 ppm for two methine-groups H-10 and H-12, respectively. The ¹³C NMR spectrum revealed the presence of 14 carbon atoms, eight aromatic carbons, a carbonyl function C-1 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 167.2 ppm), two oxygenated methine groups C-10 and C-12 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 67.1 and 68.7 ppm), respectively, two methylene groups C-9 and C-11 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 42.5 and 46.4 ppm), respectively and a methyl carbon C-13 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 22.5 ppm).

The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.2) of compound (1) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH₃(13) CH (12) CH₂(11) CH (10) CH₂(9) and the second one is CH(7) CH(5). The $[\alpha]_D^{20}$ value was in full agreement with the published data of citreoisocoumarinol (Sheng *et al.*, 1991). (+)-Citreoisocoumarinol was originally isolated from *Penicillium* sp. (Sheng *et al.*, 1991). It is worth to mention that in this study the known compound (1) has been isolated for the first time from *Alternaria* sp.

3.1.2. (+)-6-Methyl-citreoisocoumarin (2, known compound)



 $[M+H]^+$

Compound (2), was isolated from the EtOAC extract of the small scale liquid cultures of *Alternaria* sp. as a brown solid. Its UV spectrum showed λ_{max} (MeOH) at 243.4, 277.3 and 327.2 nm which are closely similar to compound (1). Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 292.7 [M+H]⁺ and m/z 290.8 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicating that the molecular weight is 292 g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.1) suggested an isocoumarin derivative which is very closely related to the previous compound (1), except for the appearance of an extra methoxyl signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.88 ppm and the disappearance of the methine group signal H-12 which is present in compound (1). This suggestion was further supported by the downfield appearance of CH₃-13 as a singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.18 ppm confirming the attachment of this methyl group to a sp² carbon rather than sp³ carbon as in (1). The aromatic region showed two *meta*-coupled protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.50 [d (*J*=2.3 Hz)] and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.47 [d (*J*=2.3 Hz)] for H-5 and H-7, respectively and a singlet olefinic proton which is resonated at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.31 ppm for H-4.

The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.3) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH₂ (9)CH(10)CH₂(11) and the second one is CH(7)CH(5). Compound (2) was further confirmed by comparison of UV, $[\alpha]_D$, ¹H NMR and mass spectral data with published data reported for (+)-6-methyl-citreoisocoumarin (George *et al.*, 1978). (+)-6-Methyl-citreoisocoumarin was previously isolated from the cultures of *Penicillium nalgiovense* (Thomas and Jens, 1999). To the best of our knowledge, compound (2) is isolated for the first time from *Alternaria* sp.

3.1.3. (+)-Citreoisocoumarin (3, known compound)



Compound (3), was isolated as viscous yellowish oil from the EtOAC extract of the small scale liquid cultures of *Alternaria* sp. It was supposed to be as an isocoumarin derivative from its UV absorption at λ_{max} (MeOH) 243.4, 277.3 and 327.2 nm (Chong and Huang, 1986) as in compounds (1) and (2). The LCMS of compound (3) revealed the appearance of a peak at *m/z* 278.6 [M+H]⁺ in its ESI-MS spectrum indicating a molecular weight of 278 g/mol which is less by 2 amu than (1) suggesting that (3) has a higher degree of unsaturation than (1).

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.1) was in agreement with the isocoumarin substructure through the presence of two singlet aromatic protons, at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.32 and 6.32 ppm for H-5 and H-7, respectivaly and one olefinic signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.39 ppm for H-4. The –CH₂-CHOH-CH₂-CO-CH₃ aliphatic chain is proved to be present by the presence of the same signals which are present in (**2**) namely, a deshileded methyl singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.19 ppm, the two geminal coupled methylene protons resonating at ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.62 ppm [dd (*J*= 14.4,8.8 Hz)], $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.67 ppm [dd (*J*= 14.4, 4.1 Hz)]) for CH₂-9 and at ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.71 ppm [d (*J*=6.2 Hz)]) for CH₂-11and the multiplet methine proton at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.49 ppm for H-10. The presence of the deshielded methyl singlet and the absence of 12-CH-OH signal in (**3**) confirm the suggestion of the oxidation of 12-CH-OH in (**1**) to a carbonyl group in (**3**) and explain the difference in the molecular weight between (**1**) and (**3**).

The ¹H-¹H-COSY (Figure 3.4 and Table 3.1) of compound (**3**) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH(4)CH₂(9)CH(10)CH₂(11) and the second one is CH(7)CH(5). These data together with the $[\alpha]_D^{20}$ were in full agreement with published data for (+)-citreoisocoumarin (Sheng *et al.*, 1991; Watanabe *et al.*, 1998). Compound (**3**) has been previously isolated from *Ampelomyces* sp. (Hassan, 2007), *Aspergillus* (Watanabe *et al.*, 1998; Watanabe *et al.*, 1999) and *Penicillium* species (Sheng *et al.*, 1991). This compound has not been reported before from *Alternaria* sp.



Nr.	Compound	R ₁	\mathbf{R}_2
1	Citreoisocoumarinol	OH	OH
2	6-Methyl-Citreoisocoumarin	=O	OCH
3	Citreoisocoumarin	=O	OH

Table 3.1: ¹H NMR and COSY data for compound (1), (2) and compound (3) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz:

#	# Compound (1)			Compound (2)		Compound (3)					
	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})$	COSY	$\delta_{C}(CDCl_{3})^{c}$	$\delta_{H}(CD_{3}OD)^{a}$	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})$	COSY	$\delta_{H}(CDCl_{3})^{b}$	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})$	COSY	δ _H (CD ₃	OD) ^a
1			167.2								
3			156.0								
4	6.39, <i>s</i>		107.4	6.30 ,s	6.31, s		6.33, <i>s</i>	6.39 ,s	9b	6.33 ,s	
4a			141.3								
5	6.33, <i>s</i>	7	102.6	6.37 <i>,s</i>	6.50,d (2.3)	7	6.50,d (2.0)	6.32 ,s	7	6.39 ,d ((2.2)
6			167.4								
7	6.33 <i>,s</i>	5	101.1	6.30 ,s	6.47, <i>d</i> (2.3)	5	6.40, <i>d</i> (2.0)	6.32 <i>,s</i>	5	6.32 ,d ((2.2)
8			164.8								
8a	0 50 11		96.0	a (a) 11			A (A A (A A)	a (a 11	01 10		(C D)
9	2.70, <i>dd</i>	9a, 10	42.5	2.69, <i>dd</i>	2.63,d(8.1)	10, 11	2.65, d(5.5)	2.67 ,dd	9b,10	2.67 ,d ((6.3)
	(4.1,14./)	96		(4.4,14.4)	2.60, d(8.1)			(14.4,4.1)	0 10		
	2.57,aa			2.55,aa				2.62,aa	9a,10		
10	(8.3,14.0)	110 11	67.1	(8.3, 14.4)	4.45	0a 0h	1 15	(14.4, 8.8)	0.01	1 17 m	
10	4.1 <i>3</i> , <i>m</i>	11a,11	07.1	4.15,1	4.45,11	9a,90,	4.4 <i>3</i> , <i>m</i>	4.49,m	9a,90,	4.47,m	
11	1 70 <i>ddd</i>	10 12	46.4	1 70 <i>ddd</i>	2.71 d(6.4)	0a 9h	269 d(55)	2.71 d(6.2)	10	271 d	(6.3)
11	(13.9	10, 12	-0	(13.7	2.71,0 (0.4)	10	2.07,4 (5.5)	2.71,0 (0.2)	10	2.71 ,4 ((0.5)
	8578)	10		8373)		10					
	1.60. <i>ddd</i>	10		1.60 ddd							
	(13.9,			(13.7,							
	5.3,4.4)			5.4,4.4)							
12	4.00, <i>m</i>	13-	68.7	3.98, <i>m</i>							
		CH ₃ ,									
		11a									
CH ₃ -	1.20 ,d	11a,12	22.5	1.19, <i>d</i> (5.9)	2.18,s			2.19, <i>s</i>		2.23 ,s	
13	(6.2)				• • • •		• • •				
OCH ₃					3.88,5		3.88,5				
-0	~ 1										
(a) Sheng <i>et al.</i> , 1991. (b) George			<i>et al.</i> , 1978.		(c) Derived	from HSQC					



Figure 3.2: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (1)



Figure 3.3: Expansion of ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (2)





Figure 3.4: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (3)

3.1.4. (+)-Orthosporin (4, known compound)



Compound (4), was isolated as a yellow solid from the EtOAC extract of the small scale liquid cultures of *Alternaria* sp. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 236.2 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 235.3 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicated a molecular weight of 236 g/mol. It showed UV absorption at λ_{max} (MeOH) 243.0, 277.0 and 327.4 nm which revealed the presence of the isocoumarin moiety as in (1-3) (Chong and Huang, 1986).

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.2) exhibited signals at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.26 [d (*J*=6.25 Hz)], 2.59 (*brs*), 2.61 [d (*J*=4.6 Hz)] and 4.15 (*m*) ppm for CH₃-11, CH₂-9 and CH-10, respictively. In addition, sp² signals *viz*, an overlapped two aromatic singlets resonate at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.32 ppm for H-5 and H-7 and an olefinic signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.38 ppm for H-4 were observed. The ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum (Figure 3.5) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH₂(9)CH(10)CH₃(11) of the the 2-hydroxypropyl side chain substition and the second spin system is CH(7)CH(5).

Comparison of UV, ¹H NMR (Table 3.2) and mass spectral data with literature data indicated that (4) is the known compound orthosporin. The absolute configuration was derived from the obtained $[\alpha]_D^{20}$ value which was found to have an identical sign as that measured for the same compound (Ichihara *et al.*, 1989). The isolation of (+)-orthosporin has been known from several fungi such as *Drechslera siccans* (Hallock *et al.*, 1988) and from the fruiting body of *Daldinia concentrica* (In-Kyoung *et al.*, 2006) but it was obtained here for the first time from *Alternaria* sp.

3.1.5. (+)-Diaportinol (5, known compound)



Compound (5), was isolated as a yellowish solid from the EtOAC extract of the small scale liquid cultures of *Alternaria* sp. In ESI mass spectrum, it revealed *pseudo*-molecular ion peaks at m/z 266.8 [M+H]⁺ and 265.2 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively revealing a molecular weight of 266 g/mol. It showed UV absorption at λ_{max} (MeOH) 243.3, 277.4 and 327.7 nm, indicative for an isocoumarine chromophore similar to the previous compounds (Chong and Huang, 1986).

The ¹H NMR spectrum of (5) (Table 3.2) was quite similar to that of (4) except for the appearance of an extra methoxyl group at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.88 ppm, the absence of the doublet assigned for CH₃-11 and the appearance of a hydroxymethyl signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.56 [d (*J*=5.4 Hz)]. Moreover, the aromatic region demonstrated protons for the trisubstituted isocoumarin ring system through the appearance of two *meta*-coupled doublets at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.47 (*J*= 2.3 Hz) and 6.50 (*J*= 2.3 Hz) for H-5 and H-7, respectively and the singlet olefinic proton H-4 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.48 ppm. The remaining substitution pattern, -CH₂-CHOH-CH₂OH apears in the up region in which a methylene group adjacent to the the iscoumarin ring CH₂-9 resonates at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.79 [dd (*J*=14.7,4.2 Hz)] and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.56 [d (*J*=5.4 Hz)] and the oxgenated methine proton H-10 appears as a multiplet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.03 ppm. The ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum showed two spin systems, the first one is CH₂(9)CH(10)CH₂(11) and the second one is CH(5)CH(7).

The literature (Thomas and Jens, 1999) described diaportinol from *Penicillium nagiovense* with the same structure as for compound (5). In addition, the $[\alpha]_D^{20}$ value agreed with published data (Ichihara *et al.*, 1989). It is worth to mention that the known compound (5) is isolated for the first time from *Alternaria* sp.





Table 3.2: ¹H NMR and COSY data for compound (4) and compound (5) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz:

#	Compound (4)				Compound (5)		
	$\delta_{\rm H}(MeOD_{\rm j}$	COSY	$\delta_{\rm H} \left(acetone_d_6\right)^a$	$\delta_{H}(CDC{l_{3)}}^{b}$	$\delta_{\rm H}(MeOD_{\rm j}$	COSY	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm CD}_3)_2{\rm CO}^c$
1 3							
4	6.38 ,s		6.41 <i>,s</i>	6.25 <i>,s</i>	6.48, <i>s</i>		6.46, <i>s</i>
5	6.32, <i>s</i>	7	6.36 ,d (2.1)	6.14 ,d (1.7)	6.47,d (2.3)	7	6.53 <i>,s</i>
6							
7	6.32 ,s	5	6.40 ,d (2.1)	6.18 ,d (1.7)	6.50, d(2.3)	5	6.53, <i>s</i>
8					· · · ·		
8a							
9	2.59 .brs	9b.10	2.56. dd	2.60 d (6.5)	2.79 dd	9a 10	2.79 dd
-	2.61, d(4.6)	9a,10	(14.3,7.6)	,	(14742)	9h 10	(14734)
	, , , ,	,	2.61, dd		256 dd	90,10	2.56 dd
			(14.3,5.8)		(14788)		(14788)
10	4.15 m	0	4 17 m	4 15 m	(14.7, 0.0)	0a 0h 11	(14.7,0.0)
10	4.15, m 1.26 d (6.25)	9	4.17,m 1.22 $d(6.1)$	4.15,m 1.20, $d(6.2)$	4.05,m	90,90,11	4.04,m
	1.20, a(0.23)		1.22, a(0.1)	1.20, a(0.2)	3.30, <i>a</i> (3.4)	10	5.58 , <i>a</i> (5.4)
OCH ₃ -					3.88 <i>,s</i>		3.91,s
6							

a) Ichihara *et al.*, 1989.

c) Thomas and Jens, 1999.

b) In-Kyoung *et al.*, 2006.





Figure 3.5: Expansion of ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (4)



Figure 3.6: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (5)
3.1.6. Alternariol (6, known compound)



Compound (6), was isolated from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. as reddish needles. The molecular weight of compound (6) was established by the ESI-mass measurement, which provided a quasimolecular ions at m/z 259.2 $[M^++H]^+$ in positive mode and m/z 257.4 $[M-H]^-$ in negative mode, suggesting the molecular weight of 258 g/mol. The UV spectrum λ_{max} (MeOH) showed absorbances at 202.4, 255.4 and 338.4 nm which are similar to the UV spectra typical for alternariol derivatives (Freeman, 1965).

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.3) of compound (6) demonstrated the presence of one aromatic methyl group resonating at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.74 ppm for CH₃-6' together with four aromatic proton signals. The coupling constants observed for the aromatic ring protons indicated the presence of two aromatic rings each bearing a pair of *meta*-coupled protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.36 (*J*=2.0 Hz), 7.24 (*J*=2.0 Hz), 6.59 (*J*=2.6 Hz) and 6.68 (*J*=2.6 Hz) assigned for H-4, H-6, H-3' and H-5', respectively.

The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.7 and Table 3.3) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH(4)CH(6) and the second one is CH(3')CH(5')CH₃(6'). UV, ¹H NMR (see Table 3.3) and mass spectral data of compound (6) were found to be identical with those reported for alternariol isolated from several *Alternaria* species (Stinson *et al.*, 1986; Freeman, 1965; Coombe *et al.*, 1970).

3.1.7. Alternariol-5-O-methyl ether (7, known compound)



Compound (7) was isolated from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. as reddish needles; UV absorption shows three bands at λ_{max} (MeOH) 202.3, 256.5 and 339.1 nm which is similar to (6). Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 273.2 [M+H]⁺ and m/z 271.3 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicating that the molecular weight is 272 g/mol. The molecular weight of compound (7) differs from that of (6) by 14 amu indicating the possible presence of an extra methyl group in (7).

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.3) was in agreement with the above suggestion through the presence of an extra methoxyl group signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.92 ppm. In addition, a singlet for the aromatic methyl group at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.77 ppm for CH₃-6` was also observed together with the two pairs of *meta*-coupled protons as in (6), each appears as a doublet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.55 (*J*=2.1 Hz), 7.29 (*J*=2.1 Hz), 6.61 (*J*=2.5 Hz) and 6.70 (*J*=2.5 Hz) corresponding to H-4, H-6, H-3` and H-5`, respectively.

The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.8 and Table 3.3) showed two spin systems similar to those observed for compound (6), the first one is CH(4)CH(6) and the second one is CH(3')CH(5')CH₃(6') indicated a close structure resemblance of (6) and (7). Careful review of the literature confirmed that the spectral data of compound (7) were in full agreement with those reported for the known alternariol-5-*O*-methyl ether (Freeman, 1965; Onocha *et al.*, 1995; Coombe *et al.*, 1970).





Table 3.3:¹H NMR and COSY data of compounds (6) and (7) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz:

		Compound	l (6)		Compound (7)
Position	$\delta_{\rm H}(MeOD)$	COSY	$\delta_{\text{H}}(\text{MeOD})^{a}$	$\delta_{\rm H}(MeOD)$	COSY	$\delta_{\text{H}}(\text{MeOD})^{a}$
4	6.36, <i>d</i> (2.0)	6	6.32, <i>d</i> (2.0)	6.55, <i>d</i> (2.1)	6	6.54, <i>d</i> (1.8)
6	7.24, <i>d</i> (2.0)	4	7.20, <i>d</i> (2.0)	7.29, <i>d</i> (2.1)	4	7.28, <i>d</i> (1.8)
3`	6.59, <i>d</i> (2.6)		6.55, <i>d</i> (2.5)	6.61, <i>d</i> (2.5)		6.61, <i>d</i> (2.5)
5`	6.68, <i>d</i> (2.6)	CH3-6`	6.65, <i>d</i> (2.5)	6.70, <i>d</i> (2.5)	CH3-6`	6.70, <i>d</i> (2.5)
CH3-6`	2.74, <i>s</i>	5`	2.71,s	2.77, <i>s</i>	5`	2.76, <i>s</i>
ОСН ₃ -5				3.92 <i>,s</i>		3.91, <i>s</i>

(a) Onocha et al., 1995.





Figure 3.7: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (6)



Figure 3.8: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (7)

3.1.8. Altenusin (8, known compound)



Compound (8), was isolated as reddish crystals from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. It displayed UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 218.4, 256 and 293nm, having the typical pattern of alternariol derivatives (Freeman, 1965). The molecular weight of compound (8) was established by the ESI-mass measurement which provided quasimolecular ions at m/z 291.0 [M⁺+H]⁺ in positive mode and m/z 289.3 [M-H]⁻ in negative mode, suggesting the molecular weight of 290 g/mol.

This structure was then confirmed by ¹H NMR analysis (Table 3.4). The ¹H NMR spectrum showed two singlets which appeared at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.91 ppm for CH₃-6' and at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.81 ppm assigned for OCH₃-5. Furthermore, two *meta*-coupled aromatic protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.43 and 6.17 (*J*=2.6 Hz) for H-4 and H-6, respectively and two aromatic singlets resonate at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.49 and 6.59 ppm assigned for H-2' and H-5', respectively, were observed.

The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.9 and Table 3.4) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH(4)CH(6) and the second one is CH(5`)CH₃(6`) confirming the planar structure of compound (8). The obtained UV, ¹H NMR (Table 3.4) and mass spectral data were found to be identical with the published data for the known altenusin (Statoshi *et al.*, 1995), previously reported from *Alternaria* species (Coombe *et al.*, 1970; Hassan, 2007).





Position		Cor		
	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})$ COSY $\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})^{\rm a}$		$\delta_{H}(DMSO-d_{6})^{b}$	
4	6.43, <i>d</i> (2.6)	6	6.42, <i>d</i> (2.5)	6.43, <i>d</i> (2.7)
6	6.17, <i>d</i> (2.6)	4	6.15, <i>d</i> (2.5)	6.10, <i>d</i> (2.7)
2`	6.49 <i>,s</i>		6.47 <i>,s</i>	6.42 <i>,s</i>
5`	6.59 <i>,s</i>		6.57 <i>,s</i>	6.54 <i>,s</i>
CH3-6`	1.91, <i>s</i>	5`	1.89,s	1.86,s
OCH ₃ -5	3.81,s		3.79 <i>,s</i>	3.76,s
5` CH ₃ -6` OCH ₃ -5	6.59,s 1.91,s 3.81,s	5`	6.57 <i>,s</i> 1.89 <i>,s</i> 3.79 <i>,s</i>	6.54,s 1.86,s 3.76,s

(a) Hassan, 2007.

(b) Statoshi et al., 1995.



Figure 3.9: ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum of compound (8)

3.1.9. Tenuazonic acid (9, known compound)



Compound (9), was obtained from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. as an oily viscous brown liquid. This compound was investigated by UV spectroscopy and showed strong absorption at λ_{max} 217.9 and 277.1 nm. In the ESI-MS, the *m/z* 198 was recorded as $[M+H]^+$ indicating the molecular weight of compound (9) is 197 g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.5) exhibited a down-fielded methyl singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.42 ppm for CH₃-7, two signals at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 0.91 [t (*J*= 7.4 Hz)] and at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 0.99 [d (*J*= 6.9 Hz)] for CH₃-10 and CH₃-11, respectively, a methylene group resonates as multiplets at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.38 and 1.25 ppm for CH₂-9 as well as two methine groups resonate at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.91 (*brs*) and 3.84 ppm (*brs*) for H-8 and H-5, respectively. The ¹H-¹H COSY (Figure 3.10 and Table 3.5) spectrum showed a spin system, CH₃(10)CH₂(9)CH(8)CH₃(11)CH (5) confirming the 2-butyl side chain moiety.

Together with the optical rotation, compound (9) is suggested to be the known compound tenuazonic acid which has been isolated from several fungal species, as a vivotoxin from *Alternaria longipes* (Mikami *et al.*, 1971), as a mycotoxin from *Alternaria tenuis* (Meronuck *et al.*, 1972), and as a magnesium and calcium complex from *Phoma sorghina* (Pieter and Christiaan, 1976).



Structure for tenuazonic acid (9)



Postion	Compound (9)							
	$\delta H_{(MeOD)}$	COSY	$\delta H_{(CDCl3)}{}^{a}$	$\delta H_{(DMSO-d6)}{}^{b}$	COSY ^b			
5	3 81 brs		3 75	377 d(28)	8			
8	1.91, <i>brs</i>	CH ₃ -11, 9b	1.92	1.78, m	5,9a,9b,11			
9a	1.38 <i>,m</i>	CH ₃ -10 CH ₃ -11 9b	1.30	1.24, <i>m</i>	8,9b,10 8,9a,10			
9b	1.25, <i>m</i>	CH ₃ -10 CH ₃ -11 9a, 8		1.09, <i>m</i>				
CH ₃ -7	2.42, <i>s</i>		2.43	2.33, s				
CH ₃ -10	0.91, t (7.4)	9a, 9b	0.89	0.80, t (7.2)	9a,9b			
CH ₃ -11	0.99, d(6.9)	9a, 9b,8	1.00	0.90, d(6.9)	8			
NH	,			8.74, <i>brs</i>				
OH				11.10,brs				







Figure 3.10: ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum of compound (9)

3.1.10. Stemphytriol (10, known compound)



Compound (10), was isolated from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. as a yellow solid, Compound (10) showed UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 213.3, 258.5, 285.1 nm. The molecular weight of compound (10) was established by the ESI-mass measurement which provided a quasimolecular ion at m/z 367.3 [M-H]⁻ in the negative mode indicating a molecular weight of 368 g/mol.

The analysis of the ¹H NMR data (Table 3.6) showed the presence of two aliphatic methylene groups, one at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.47 ppm [H α : dd (*J*=2.8, 9.0 Hz)] and 3.14 ppm [H β : d (*J*=9.0 Hz)]) assigned for CH₂-2 and the other at ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.65 ppm [H α : d (*J*=16.5 Hz)] and 3.06 ppm [H β : d (*J*=16.5 Hz)]) for CH₂-11. In addition, three methine groups at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.42 ppm [d (*J*=10.4 Hz)], $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.37 ppm [d (*J*=9.1)] and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.23 ppm (*m*) for H-1, H-12 and H-12b, respectively and two pairs of *ortho*-coupled protons (AX-system) at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 7.01 ppm [d (*J*=9.0 Hz)], 7.97 ppm [d (*J*=9.0 Hz)], 8.01 ppm [d (*J*=9.0 Hz)] and 7.06 ppm [d (*J*=9.0 Hz)] (for H-5, H-6, H-7 and H-8, respectively) were observed.

¹H-¹H COSY spectrum (Figure 3.11 and Table 3.6) revealed four spin systems; CH₂(2)CH(1)CH(12b),CH(12)CH₂(11),CH(5)CH(6), and CH(7)CH(8). The structure was further confirmed by comparing UV, ¹H, ¹³C NMR, mass spectral data and $[\alpha]_D$ value with published data for the known compound stemphytriol, previously reported from several fungi and represents a biologically highly active stemphyl-and altertoxins (Karsten *et al.*, 1999; Cole, 1981). It is worth to mention that compound (**10**) is isolated for the first time from *Alternaria sp.*

3.1.11. Altertoxin II (11, known compound)



Compound (11), was isolated as a yellow solid from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. Negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peak at m/z 349.0 [M-H]⁻ (base peak) indicating a molecular weight of 350 g/mol. The molecular mass showed 18 amu less than compound (10) suggesting that one molecule of H₂O is missing in (11). The UV spectra of compound (11) and compound (10) are similar indicating the presence of the same chromophore.

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.6) revealed the presence of two pairs of *ortho*-coupled aromatic protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 7.07 ppm [d (*J*=8.9 Hz)], 8.08 ppm [d (*J*=8.9 Hz)], 8.00 ppm [d (*J*=8.8 Hz)] and 6.99 ppm [d (*J*=8.8 Hz)] assigned for H-5, H-6, H-7 and H-8, respectively. Moreover, the ¹H NMR spectrum showed signals at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.87 ppm [H α : ddd (*J*=13.4, 7.5, 2.5 Hz)] and 2.47 ppm [H β : td (*J*=12.5, 4.8 Hz)] for CH₂-1 and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.77 ppm [H α : ddd (*J*=17.7, 4.0, 2.5 Hz)] and 3.20 ppm [H β : ddd (*J*=17.7, 14.3, 5.0 Hz)] for CH₂-2. In addition, three methine protons resonate at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.57 (*brs*) ppm, $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.68 ppm [d (*J*=3.0 Hz)] and 4.34 ppm [d (*J*=3.5 Hz)] for H-12a, H-11 and H-12, respectively. The appearance of the methine signal CH-12a in (11), the downfield chemical shifts of H-11 in comparison to H-11 in (10) together with the molecular weight of (11) confirm the presence of an epoxy bridge between C-11 and C-12 in (11).

The structure of compound (11) was further confirmed by interpretation of ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum (Figure 3.12 and Table 3.6) which showed the following four spin systems, CH₂(2)CH₂(1), CH(11)CH(12)CH(12a), CH(5)CH(6) and CH(7)CH(8). The optical rotation of compound (11) is $[\alpha]_D^{20}$ + 415 which is comparable to that which is reported in literature (Cynthia *et al.*, 1989; Stack *et al.*, 1986). Thus, compound (11) is identified as the known altertoxin II which was previously reported by Arnone and co-workers from *Stemphylium botryosum* (Arnone *et al.*, 1986) and by Stack and co-workers isolated from *Alternaria alternata* (Stack *et al.*, 1986).



Structure of stemphytriol (10) and altertoxin II (11)

#	С	.0)	Compound (11)			
	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})$	COSY	$\delta_{\rm H} \left(\text{acetone-}d6 \right)^{\rm a}$	$\delta_{\rm H} ({\rm MeOD})$	COSY	$\delta_{\rm H} \left(\text{acetone-}d6 \right)^{\rm b}$
1	4.42, <i>d</i> (10.4)	12b	4.75, <i>m</i>			
1α				2.87, ddd	1β	2.95,ddd
				(13.4,7.5, 2.5)		(13.3,5,2.5)
1β				2.47,td (12.5,4.8)	1α,	2.59,dd (14.1,4.1)
					2α	3.25,d (17.6)
2α	2.47,dd (2.8,	2β	2.99,d (2.8)	3.20, ddd	1α,	
	9.0)			(17.7,14.3,5)	1β,2 β	2.77, <i>d</i> (17.6)
				2.77, ddd	1β,2 α	
2β	3.14, <i>d</i> (9.0)	2α	3.01, <i>d</i> (8.1)	(17.7,4.0, 2.5)		
5	7.01,d (9.0)	6	6.95, <i>d</i> (8.7,5)	7.07, <i>d</i> (8.9)	6	7.06, <i>d</i> (8.8)
6	7.97, d (9.0)	5	7.97,d (8.7)	8.08, d (8.9)	5	8.13,d (8.8)
7	8.01, d (9.0)	8	8.01, <i>d</i> (8.7)	8.00, d (8.8)	8	8.04,d (8.8)
8	7.06, <i>d</i> (9.0)	7	7.06, <i>d</i> (8.7)	6.99, d (8.8)	7	6.99, <i>d</i> (8.8)
11				3.68,d (3.0)	12	3.72, <i>dd</i> (3.7,0.9)
11a	2.65,d (16.5)	11 β	2.82.dd	, ()		, , , ,
	, , , ,	,	(4.5,16.3)			
11β	3.06,d (16.5)	11 α,12	3.17.dd			
r	, (,	9	(12.5,16.3)			
12	4.37,d (9.1)	11 β	4.67,dd	4.34, d(3.5)	11	4.44, d(0.4)
	· · · /	,	(4.5, 12.5)	· · · /		· 、 /
12a				3.57, brs		3.62,dd (0.9, 0.4)
12b	3.23, <i>brs</i>	1	3.15, <i>d</i> (8.6)	·		· 、 · · ·
	·					

Table 3.6: ¹HNMR and COSY data for compound (10) and compound (11) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz:

(a) Karsten *et al.*, 1999.

(b) Arnone et al., 1986.



Figure 3.11: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (10)



Figure 3.12: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (11)

3.1.12. Altenuene (12, known compound)



Compound (12), was isolated as viscous yellow oil from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. The ESI/MS of compound (12) showed a positive and negative *pseudo*-molecular ion at m/z 293 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and at m/z 291.6 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicating a molecular weight of 292 g/mol. The UV spectrum of (12) showed absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 241.2, 280.6, 317.8 nm, which are characteristic for the alternariol derivatives (Freeman, 1965).

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.7) of compound (**12**) showed *meta*-coupled aromatic protons signals at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.49 [d (*J*=2.3 Hz)] and 6.68 [d (*J*=2.3 Hz)] for H-4 and H-6, respectively, a singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.88 ppm assigned for an aromatic methoxyl group, a singlet methyl group appeared at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.51 ppm, a doublet signal appeared at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.24 (*J*=2.8 Hz) for an olefinic proton, two oxygenated methine protons appeared at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.79 [ddd (*J*=9.0, 5.8, 3.8 Hz)] and 4.08 [dd (*J*=5.8, 2.8 Hz)] for H-4`and H-5`, respectively and methylene protons resonated at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.42 [H α : dd (*J*=14.4, 3.8 Hz)] and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.99 [H β : dd (*J*=14.4, 9 Hz)] for CH₂-3`.

The ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum (figure 3.13 and Table 3.7) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH(4)CH(6) and the second one is CH₂(3')CH(4')CH(5')CH(6'). The structure was further confirmed by comparing UV, ¹H, ¹³C NMR, mass spectral data and $[\alpha]_D$ value with published data for the known compound altenuene, previously reported from *Alternaria* species (Mcphail *et al.*, 1973; Bradburn *et al.*, 1994).

3.1.13. 4'-Epialtenuene (13, known compound)



Compound (13), was isolated as viscous yellow oil from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. Its ESI/MS spectrum showed the most intense peak at m/z 292.9 [M+H]⁺ upon positive ionization indicating a molecular weight of 292 g/mol. Its UV showed absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 243 nm with shoulders at 282 and 319.3 nm which is close to the UV spectrum of compound (12). Accordingly, compound (13) is suggested to be also an alternariol derivative (Bradburn *et al.*, 1994).

The ¹H NMR spectrum of this compound exhibited a great similarity to the previous one (12) (Table 3.7) except that the spectrum exhibited that both H-3'(α and β) at ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.17 [brt (*J*=12.3)], 2.28 [dd (*J*=12.0, 3.7)]) and H-4' at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.82 [d (*J*=2.75)] resonate at significantly different chemical shifts and have different coupling constants in comparison to (12) which hints at a difference in configuration in both compounds. Similar to compound (12), the ¹H NMR data of compound (13) showed a *meta*-coupled aromatic protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.50 [d (*J*=2.3 Hz)] and 6.66 [d (*J*=2.3 Hz)] for H-4 and H-6, respectively, an olefinic signal appears as doublet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.17 [d (*J*=2.5 Hz)] for H-6', a singlet which is attributed to methoxy group resonates at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.88 ppm, a methyl singlet resonates at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.57 ppm for CH₃-7' and an oxygenated methine proton at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.21 [dd (*J*= 8.0, 2.5 Hz)] for H-5'.

The ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum (Figure 3.14) of (**13**) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH(4)CH(6) and the second one is CH₂(3')CH(4')CH(5')CH(6'). The comparison of NMR data of (**13**) with those reported in the literature (Hassan, 2007) confirmed the axial orientation of H-4'. From the previous data and also by comparison of $[\alpha]_D^{20}$, compound (**13**) is identified as 4'-epialtenuene, a compound which was previously isolated from an endophytic *Alternaria* strain (Hassan, 2007). Interestingly, the original reports indicated that altenuene (**12**) and 4'-epialtenuene (**13**) were obtained as racemates (Hassan, 2007), and no optical rotation values for the isomers have been reported.



Table 3.7: ¹HNMR data for compound (12) and compound (13) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz:

Position		Compound(12)	Compound (13)				
	$\delta_{H(MeOD)}$	COSY	$\delta_{H(MeOD)}^{a}$	$\delta_{H(MeOD)}$	COSY	$\delta_{H(MeOD)}^{a}$	COSY ^a	
4 6	6.49, <i>d</i> (2.3) 6.68, <i>d</i> (2.3)	6 4	6.45, <i>d</i> (2.2) 6.64, <i>d</i> (2.2)	6.50, <i>d</i> (2.3) 6.66, <i>d</i> (2.3)	6 4	6.46, <i>d</i> (2.2) 6.63, <i>d</i> (2.2)	6	
3`α	2.42, <i>dd</i> (14.4, 3.8)	3`β, 4`	2.40, <i>dd</i> (14.5, 3.7)	2.17,brt (12.3)	3`β,4`α	2.15,brt (12.3)	3`β,4`α	
3`β	1.99, <i>dd</i> (14.4, 9.0)	3`α	1.96, <i>dd</i> (14.5, 9.1)	2.28, <i>dd</i> (12.0, 3.7)	3`α,4`α	2.25, <i>dd</i> (11.9, 3.7)	3`α,4`α	
4`	3.79, <i>ddd</i> (9.0,5.8,3.8)	3`α,5`	3.77, <i>ddd</i> (9.1, 5.6, 3.7)	3.82, <i>d</i> (2.75)	3`α,β, 5`β	3.73, <i>ddd</i> (12.3,8.2,3.7)	3`α,β, 5`β	
5`	4.08, <i>dd</i> (5.8,2.8)	4`	4.06, <i>dd</i> (5.6, 2.8)	4.21, <i>dd</i> (8.0,2.5)	4`α,6`	4.20, <i>dd</i> (8.2,2.5)	4`α,6`	
6`	6.24, <i>d</i> (2.8)	5`	6.21, <i>d</i> (2.8)	6.17, <i>d</i> (2.5)	5`β	6.17, <i>d</i> (2.5)	3`α	
CH ₃ -7`	1.51,s		1.49, <i>s</i>	1.57, <i>s</i>	•	1.54,s		
OCH ₃ -8	3.88, <i>s</i>		3.86, <i>s</i>	3.88, <i>s</i>		3.85 <i>,s</i>		

(a) Hassan, 2007.





Figure 3.13: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (12)



Figure 3.14: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (13)

3.1.14. Isoochracinic acid (14, known compound)



Compound (14), was isolated as a yellow solid from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. It exhibited UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 208.7, 236.7 and 295.2 nm. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 209.1 [M+H]⁺ and m/z 207.1 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively, indicating a molecular weight of 208 g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum showed three adjacent protons for a tri-substituted benzene ring at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.91 ppm [d (*J*=8.0 Hz)], 7.04 [d (*J*=8.0 Hz)] and 7.56 [t (*J*=8.0 Hz)] for H-6, H-4, and H-5, respectively, methylene protons CH₂-1' which resonate at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.02 [dd (*J*=4.9, 16.6 Hz)] and 2.77 [dd (*J*=7.9, 16.6 Hz)]) and a methine proton H-3 resonates at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 5.82 [dd (*J*=4.9, 7.9 Hz)]. Further confirmation was achieved from the ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.15). It showed two spin systems, the first one is CH₂(1')CH(3) and the second one is CH(4)CH(5)CH(6) indicating the phthalide structure.

According to the aforementioned data (Table 3.8) and by comparison to the literature (Kiyoshi and Mitsuo, 1974), compound (14) was confirmed to be the known isoochracinic acid, which was first isolated from *Alternaria kikuchiana* and further has been synthesized by (Barry *et al.*, 1980).

3.1.15. 7-Methoxyphthalide-3-acetic acid (15, new compound)



Compound (15) was isolated as a yellowish brown solid from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. It exhibited UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 206.3, 235.4 and 299.9 nm showing high similarity to the UV spectrum of isoochracinic acid (14). The difference in the molecular weight between (14) and (15) is 14 amu which indicates the possible presence of an extra methyl group in (15). This is confirmed by HRESI-MS which exhibited a strong peak at m/z 223.0604 [M+H]⁺ indicating a molecular formula of C₁₁H₁₀O₅ (calculated 223.0601, Δ 0.0003).

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.8) of compound (**15**) was very similar to that of compound (**14**) with the only difference of the presence of an extra methoxyl signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.71 ppm. Moreover, characteristic signals attributable to protons H-5, H-4 and H-6 appear at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 7.55 [t (*J*=8.0 Hz)], 7.01 [d (*J*=8.0 Hz)] and 6.91 [d (*J*=8.0 Hz)], respectively. In addition, a methylene protons resonate at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.08 [dd (*J*=4.6, 16.6 Hz)] $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.79 [dd (*J*=8.0, 16.6 Hz)] assigned for CH₂-1' and a methine proton at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 5.82 [dd (*J*=4.6, 8.0 Hz)] for H-3. The ¹H-¹H COSY (Table 3.8) showed two spin systems, CH₂(1')CH(3) and CH(4)CH(5)CH(6). The attachment of the side chain at C-3 was further confirmed by the HMBC correlation (Figure 3.16) from H-1'b to C-3 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 78.6). The position of the methoxy group at C-7 was secured by the HMBC correlation from H-4 to C-3 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 78.6), C-5 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 114.2) and C-6 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 117.3), H-5 to C-4a ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 153.2) and C-7 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 159.4) and H-6 to C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 112.8), C-5 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 114.2), C-7 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 159.4) and C-7a ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 115.3).

Comparison of UV, ¹H, ¹³C NMR, $[\alpha]_D$ and mass spectral data with literature data indicated the similarity of compound (15) to isoochracinic acid (14) in which the hydroxy group at C-7 is methoxylated (Kiyoshi and Mitsuo, 1974). 7-Methoxyphthalide-3-acetic acid (15) was previously known only as a synthetic compound (David, W. and David, P., 1977; Silva *et al.*, 1992). To the best of our knowledge compound (15) was identified as a new natural product.



Nr.	Compound	\mathbf{R}_1
14	Isoochracinic acid	OH
15	7-Methoxyphthalide-3-acetic acid	OCH_3

Table 3.8: ¹HNMR , COSY and HMBC data for compound (14) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz and compound (15) at 600 (¹H) and 150 (¹³C) MHz:

#	Compound (14)		Compound (14) ^a		Compo	und (15)	
	δ_{H}	COSY	$\delta_{\rm H}$	$\delta_{\rm H}$	COSY	$\delta_{\rm C}$	HMBC
	(MeOD)		(CDCl ₃)	(MeOD)		(MeOD) ^b	
1						171.1	
2							
3	5.82, <i>dd</i>	1`a, 1`b	5.91,t (7.0)	5.82,dd	1`a, 1`b	78.6	
	(4.9,7.9)	,		(4.6, 8.0)			
4	7.04, <i>d</i> (8.0)	5	7.12,d (8.0)	7.01, <i>d</i> (8.0)	5	112.8	3,5,6
4a						153.2	
5	7.56,t (8.0)	6,4	7.60, <i>t</i> (8.0)	7.55,t (8.0)	6,4	114.2	4a,7
6	6.91, <i>d</i> (8.0)	5	6.97, <i>d</i> (8.0)	6.91, <i>d</i> (8.0)	5	117.3	4,5,7,7a
7						159.4	
7a						115.3	
OCH ₃ -				3.71 <i>,s</i>		52.2	7
7							
1`	a-3.02,dd (4.9,	1`b, 3	2.95,d (7.0)	a-3.08, <i>dd</i>	1`b, 3	40.3	3,4a,2`
	16.6)			(4.6, 16.6)			
	b-2.77, <i>dd</i>	1`a, 3		b-2.79, <i>dd</i>	1`a, 3		2`
	(7.9,16.6)			(8.0,16.6)			
2`						172.1	
3`-OH			5.5-6.0, brs				

a) Kiyoshi and Mitsuo, 1974.

b) Confirmed from HMBC





Figure 3.15: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (14)



Figure 3.16: HMBC spectrum of compound (15)

3.1.16. Talaroflavone (16, known compound)



Compound (16), was isolated from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. It crystalized from the eluent as white flakes. It exhibited UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 219, 259 and 296 nm. Positive and negative ESIMS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 277.0 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 275.0 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicating a molecular weight of 276 g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.9) showed the presence of a doublet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.87 ppm [d, (J=1.4 Hz)] for CH₃-2', a vinylic hydrogen H-3'at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.36 [d (J=1.4 Hz)], a singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.76 ppm is consistent with a secondary alcohol in a pentacyclic lactone ring H-5'. Moreover, a *meta*-doublet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.08 and 6.47 ppm (J=1.9 Hz) for H-6 and H-4, respectively and a singlet methoxy group OCH₃-5 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.82 ppm were also detected. The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.17 and Table 3.9) showed two spin systems; CH(4)CH(6) in the aromatic moiety and CH₃(2')CH(3') in a pentacyclic lactone ring.

The obtained NMR data, the known mass, UV spectra and $[\alpha]_D^{20}$ for compound (16) in this study were in accordance with the known talaroflavone (Ayer and Racok, 1990; Hassan, 2007).

3.1.17. Alteric acid (17, known compound)



Compound (17) was isolated as viscous yellow oil (4.4 mg) from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. It displayed UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 216.5 and 302.8 nm. The positive and negative ESI-MS showed a *pseudo*-molecular ion peak at m/z 279.0 [M+H]⁺ and 277.2 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicating a molecular weight of 278 g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.9) showed the presence of a singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.02 ppm attributed to methyl group CH₃-2', geminal-coupled methylene protons appeared at ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.04 [*dd* (J=7.3, 17.5 Hz)], $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.55 [*d* (J=17.0 Hz)]) assigned to CH₂-3'. Similar to talaroflavone (**16**) a singlet carbinolic proton H-4' in a pentacyclic lactone ring resonates at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.31 ppm. Moreover, *meta*-coupled hydrogens at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.16 and 6.49 ppm (each *brs*) corresponding to H-4 and H-6, respectively and a singlet methoxy group OCH₃-5 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.84 ppm were observed. The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.18 and Table 3.9) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH₃(2')CH₂(3')CH(4') and the second one is CH(4)CH(6).

Comparison of UV, ¹H NMR, mass spectral data, and the $[\alpha]_D$ value with literature data indicated the similarity of compound (17) to the known alteric acid (Hassan, 2007) which had previously been reported from culture filtrates of *Alternaria* sp. (Hassan, 2007).





Structure for talaroflavone (16) and alteric acid (17).

Position	Compound (16) Compound (17)						1(17)
	$\substack{\delta_{H} \\ \text{(MeOD)}}$	COSY	$\delta_{\rm H}$ (MeOD) ^a	$\delta_{\rm H} \ ({\rm MeOD}{-}{\rm d4})^{\rm b}$	$\begin{matrix} \delta_{\rm H} \\ (MeOD) \end{matrix}$	COSY	$\delta_{\rm H}$ (MeOD) ^a
1 2 3							
4	6.47, <i>d</i> (1.9)	6	6.43, brs	6.44, <i>d</i> (2.0)	6.16, <i>brs</i>	6	6.07, <i>d</i> (2.5)
6 7 1` 2`	6.08, <i>d</i> (1.9)	4	6.04, <i>d</i> (1.2)	6.05, <i>d</i> (2.0)	6.49, brs	4	6.40, <i>d</i> (2.5)
3` 4`	6.36, <i>q</i> (1.4)	CH ₃ -2`	6.34, <i>s</i>	6.34, <i>q</i> (1.5)	a:3.04, <i>dd</i> (7.3,17.5) b:2.55, <i>d</i> (17.0) 4.31, <i>brs</i>	3`b, 4` 3`a, 4`,CH ₃ -2`	a:3.00, <i>dd</i> (6.9,17.3) b:2.49, <i>brd</i> (17.0) 4.38, <i>dd</i> (2.8, 6.3)
5`	4.76, <i>s</i>		4.73, <i>s</i>	4.74, <i>s</i>			
CH ₃ -2`	1.87, <i>d</i> (1.4)	3`	1.85, <i>s</i>	1.86, <i>d</i> (1.5)	2.02, <i>s</i>	3`b	1.99, <i>s</i>
OCH ₃ -5	3.82, <i>s</i>		3.79, <i>s</i>	3.80, <i>s</i>	3.84, <i>s</i>		3.78, <i>s</i>

Table 3.9: ¹HNMR and data for compound (**16**) and compound (**17**) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz:

(a) Hassan, 2007. (b) Ayer and Racok, 1990.





Figure 3.17: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (16)



Figure 3.18: ¹H-¹HCOSY spectrum of compound (17)
3.1.18. Alterlactone (18, known compound)



Compound (18) was isolated from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. The white flakes showed a UV spectrum with λ_{max} (MeOH) at 201.8, 253.8 and 301.7 nm. Its ESI-MS showed a *pseudo*-molecular ion peak at m/z 287.2 [M-H]⁻ upon negative ionization and m/z 289.1 [M+H]⁺ upon positive ionization indicating a molecular weight of 288 g/mol.

Structural elucidation of compound (18) was based on results of 1D and 2D NMR spectral analyses including ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR and HMBC spectra (Table 3.10). The ¹H NMR spectrum displayed four aromatic signals; two singlets at δ_H 7.03 and 6.91 ppm for H-1 and H-4 respectively, and a pair of doublet (*meta*-coupled) protons at δ_H 6.50 (*J*=2.4 Hz) and 6.46 (*J*=2.4 Hz) for H-9 and H-11, respectively. Moreover, a pair of geminally coupled protons at δ_H 4.82 [d (*J*=16.0 Hz)] and 4.85 [d (*J*=16.0 Hz)] for CH₂-5 and a singlet at δ_H 3.82 assigned for OCH₃-10 were also observed. In addition, three exchangeable protons corresponding to hydroxyl protons each appear as a broad singlet signals at δ_H 10.21, 9.45 and 9.36 ppm for 8-OH, 3-OH and 2-OH, respectively.

The planar structure of compound (**18**) is confirmed from the HMBC correlations (Figure 3.19) of the methylene protons CH₂-5 which located at the seven member lactone ring to the aromatic carbon C-4 (δ_C 115.3). Further inspection of the HMBC spectrum revealed the correlations from H-4 to C-5 (δ_C 67.7) and to C-11b (δ_C 129.9), H-9 to C-7a (δ_C 109.4), and H-11 to C-7a and C-11b. Moreover, the HMBC spectrum confirms the location of the substituents through the correlation of methoxyl protons OCH₃-10 to C-10 (δ_C 162.8) and the 8-OH group to C-8 (δ_C 159.5), C-7a (δ_C 109.4) and C-9 (δ_C 100.0). The structure was further confirmed by comparison of UV, mass spectra, ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR with published data for alterlactone (Hassan, 2007).



Structure for alterlactone (18).

Position	C	ompound(18)		Compound(18)"				
	$\delta_{\rm H}~(DMSO)$	HMBC	$\delta_{C}(DMSO)$	$\delta_{\rm H}(DMSO)$	HMBC	$\delta_{\rm C}({\rm DMSO})$		
1 2 3	7.03, s	3,4a,11a	116.2 146.6 145.7	7.03, s	3,4a,11a,11b	115.5 146.6 145.0		
4	6.91, <i>s</i>	2,5,11b	115.3	6.90, <i>s</i>	2,3,5,11b,4a	115.5		
4a 5	4.82, <i>d</i> (16.0)	4	139.3 67.7	4.80, d(11.3) 4.85, d(11.0)	4,7,11b	140.0 67.8		
7 7a	4.65, <i>u</i> (10.0)		109.4	4.05, <i>u</i> (11.0)		168.7 109.5		
8 9 10	6.50, <i>d</i> (2.4)	7a,10,11	159.5 100.0 162.8	6.45, <i>d</i> (2.2)	7a,8,10,11	159.9 100.8 162.2		
11 11a 11b	6.46, <i>d</i> (2.4)	7a,9,11b	105.0 127.0 129.9	6.50, <i>d</i> (2.2)	7a,9,10,11b	105.0 126.6 129.8		
1-OH 2-OH 3-OH	9.36, <i>brs</i> ^b 9.45, <i>brs</i> ^b	1,2 1,3		9.37, brs ^b 9.47, brs ^b				
8-0H OCH ₃ -10	10.21, <i>brs</i> 3.82, s	7a,8,9 10	55.6	10.21, <i>brs</i> 3.81, s	10	55.4		

Table 3.10: ¹HNMR, ¹³C NMR and HMBC data for compound (**18**) at 600 (¹H) and 150 (¹³C) MHz:

(a) Hassan, 2007 at at 500 (¹H) and 125 MHz (¹³C)

(b) Assignements may be interchanged.





Figure 3.19: Expansion of HMBC spectrum of compound (18)

3.1.19. 2, 5-Dimethyl-7-Hydroxychromone (19, known compound)



Compound (19) was obtained as a viscous yellow oil, isolated from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. It displayed a UV spectrum with λ_{max} (MeOH) at 208.7, 242.8 and 248.7 nm. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed *pseudo*-molecular ions at m/z 191.3 [M+H]⁺ and 189.5 [M-H]⁻, respectively indicating a molecular weight of 190 g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.11) showed *meta*-coupled protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.65 [d (*J*=2.3 Hz)] and 6.64 (*brs*), corresponding to H-8 and H-6, respectively. A vinylic singlet hydrogen H-3 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.02 ppm and two singlet methyl groups resonate at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.33 and 2.72 ppm for CH₃-2 and CH₃-5, respectively. The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Table 3.11) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH₃(2)CH(3) and the second one is CH₃(5)CH(6)CH(8) indicating that the two methyl protons are substituted in two different aromatic rings. The structure was further confirmed by HMBC data (Table 3.11 and Figure 3.20) which showed correlations of the *meta*-coupled protons, H-6 to C-7 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 160.9) and H-8 to C-6 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 116.8), C-7 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 160.9) and C-8a ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 159.2). Furthermore, correlations of the aromatic methyl group CH₃-2 to C-2 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 163.8) and C-3 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 110.7) and from H-3 to C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 170.0) were also detected. The obtained UV, ¹H, ¹³C NMR and mass spectral data were found to be identical with published data for 2,5-dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone (Ayer and Racok, 1990; Hassan, 2007), previously isolated from the roots of *Polygonum cuspidatum* (Kimura *et al.*, 1983) and from rhubarb, *Rhei rhizoma* (Kashiwada *et al.*, 1984).

3.1.20. Altechromone B (20, known compound)



Compound (20) was isolated as colorless needles (3.6mg) from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. It displayed an UV spectrum with λ_{max} (MeOH) at 210.5, 243 and 250 nm, similar to the spectrum of compound (19). Positive and negative ESI-MS showed *pseudo*-molecular ions at m/z 233.2 [M+H]⁺ and 231.4 [M-H]⁻, respectively indicating a molecular weight of 232 g/mol. Both mass spectra showed ionization loss of an ethenone molecule CH₂CO- i.e. *m/z* 191.4 and 188.4 in positive and negative ESI-MS, respectively which means it differs from compound (19) by 42 amu.

In the ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.11) a clear difference in comparison to compound (**19**) was observable, whereas a singlet of a methylene protons CH_2 -1` was observed at δ_H 3.64 ppm. Moreover, the ¹H NMR data of compound (**20**) (Table 3.11) indicated the presence of a pair of *meta*-coupled protons at δ_H 6.63 [d (*J*=2.4Hz)] and 6.65 (*brs*) ppm for H-6 and H-8, respectively, an olefinic singlet at δ_H 6.09 ppm for H-3 and two singlets resonating at δ_H 2.73 and 2.26 ppm for CH₃-7 and CH₃-3`, respectively. The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Table 3.11) showed a spin system, CH(6)CH₃(7)CH(8). The attachment of the aromatic methyl group at C-7 was further established by the HMBC via a strong correlation from the CH₃-7 to C-6 at (δ_C 117.8) and C-8 at (δ_C 102.8). Furthermore, the HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.21 and Table 3.11) showed a correlation from the deshielded methyl group CH₃-3` to the carbonyl group C-2` at (δ_C 204.9) confirming the attachment of an acetyl group to 1`and clarifying the molecular weight difference between (**19**) and (**20**).

From the above observation, and by comparison of UV, ¹H, ¹³C NMR and mass spectral data with the literature, compound (**20**) was identified as altechromone B (Yasuo *et al.*, 1992).

	R_1 R_2	R_3		
Nr.	Compound	R ₁	R ₂	R ₃
19	2, 5-Dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone	OH	CH ₃	CH ₃
20	Altechromone B	CH ₃	OH	CH ₂ COCH ₃

٦

Table 3.11:¹H, 13 C NMR, COSY and HMBC data of compound (**19**) and (**20**) at 600 (1 H) and 150 (13 C) MHz:

	Compound (19)					Compound (20)							
#	$\begin{matrix} \delta_{H} \\ (MeOD) \end{matrix}$	COSY	$\begin{matrix} \delta_C \\ (MeOD)^c \end{matrix}$	HMBC	$\delta_{\rm H}$ (DMSO - d_6) ^a	$\delta_{\rm C}$ (DMSO -d6) ^a	HMBC ^a	$\substack{\delta_{H}\\(MeOD)}$	δ _C (MeOD) ^c	COSY	НМВС	$\delta_{\rm H}$ (DMSO $-d_6)^{\rm b}$	$\delta_{\rm C}$ (DMSO $-d_6)^{\rm b}$
2 3 4 4a	6.02 <i>,s</i>	2-CH ₃	163.8 110.7 170 118	4	5.96, s	163.8 110.7 178.2 114.2	2,4a,9	6.09, <i>s</i>	163.3 113.7		2	6.02 <i>,s</i>	162.7 113.9 179.1
6	6.64, <i>bs</i>	5CH ₃ , 8	116.8	7	6.59, <i>d</i> (2.2)	116.4	4a,7,8, 10	6.63, <i>d</i> (2.4)	145.5	7-CH ₃ ,8		6.59, <i>br.</i> d (2.0)	142.8
7 8	6.65 <i>,d</i> (2.3)	6	160.9 101.8	6,7,8a	6.62, <i>d</i> (2.2)	160.9 100.5	4a,6,7, 8a	6.65, br.s	102.8	6	6	6.63, <i>br</i> . <i>d</i> (2.0)	160.4 101.6
8a 1` 2`			159.2			159.1		3.64 <i>,s</i>	204.9			3.84 <i>,s</i>	160.4 48.2 201.9
CH ₃ -2 CH ₃ -5 CH ₂ -7	2.33, <i>s</i> 2.72, <i>s</i>	3 6		2,3 4a,5,6	2.25, <i>s</i> 2.63, <i>s</i>	19.3 22.4	2,3 4a,5,6	2.73 s		6	6.8	2.65	24.5
CII. 2)								2.75, 5		0	0,0	br.s	24.5
Сн ₃ -3 7-ОН					10.58, brs			2.26,8			2	2.22,5	29.6

(a) Hassan, 2007 at 500 (¹H) and 125 MHz (¹³C)

C) (C) Confirmed from HMBC

(b) Yasuo *et al.*, 1992 at 500 (1 H) and 125 MHz (13 C)



Figure 3.20: HMBC spectrum of compound (19)



Figure 3.21: HMBC spectrum of compound (20)

3.1.21. Ferulic Acid (21, known compound)



Compound (21) was isolated as a reddish brown solid from the EtOAC extract of the large scale rice cultures of *Alternaria* sp. The UV spectrum showed absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 216.2, 234.8 and 322.5 nm. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 195.0 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z193.3 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively, indicating a molecular weight of 194g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.12) displayed the characteristic signal for a methoxy group at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.90 ppm assigned for OCH₃-4'. In addition, three aromatic protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.82 [d (*J*=8.2 Hz)], 7.07 [dd (*J*=8.2 1.9 Hz)] and 7.19 [d (*J*=1.9 Hz)] for H-6, H-5 and H-3, respectively were also detected and two *trans*-coupled olefinic protons with coupling constant (*J*=15.9 Hz) at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.32 and 7.61 ppm for H-2' and H-1', respectively were also observed.

The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.22 and Table 3.12) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH(1)CH(2) and the second one is CH(3)CH(5)CH(6). From the aforementioned data, compound (**21**) is in agreement with the structure of the known phenolic compound, ferulic acid (Sajjadi *et al.*, 2012). Ferulic acid is the most abundant hydroxycinnamic acid in the plant kingdom and occurs mainly in the cell wall of cereal plants (Macadam and Grabber, 2002).





Table 3.12:¹H NMR and COSY data of compound (**21**) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz:

Position		Compound (21)	
	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})$	COSY	$\delta_{H} \left(CDCl_{3} ight)^{a}$
3	7.19, <i>d</i> (1.9)	5	7.09, d(2)
5	7.07,dd (8.2,1.9)	6,3	7.14, <i>dd</i> (8.0,2.0)
6	6.82, d (8.2)	5	6.97, d(9)
1`	7.61,d (15.9)	2`	7.75, <i>d</i> (15)
2`	6.32,d(15.9)	1`	6.34,d(15)
OCH ₃ -4`	3.90 <i>,s</i>		3.98,s

(a) Sajjadi *et al.*, 2012.



Figure 3.22: Expansion of ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum of compound (21)

3.1.22. Bioactivity data for compounds isolated from the endophytic fungus Alternaria sp.

The isolated compounds from the ethyl acetate extract of the small and large scale of *Alternaria* species were subjected to cytotoxicity (MTT) assay against mouse lymphoma (L5178Y) cells whose results (Table 3.13).

Nr.	Sample tested	L5178Y growth in %	EC50*	EC50 (umol/L)
			(µg/IIIL)	(µmoi/E)
1	Citreoisocoumarinol	112.8		
2	6-Methyl-citreoisocoumarin	122.9		
3	Citreoisocoumarin	114.1		
4	Orthosporin	104.7		
5	Diaportinol	119.0		
6	Alternariol	-0.9	1.7	6.6
7	Alternariol-5-O-methyl ether	-4.3	7.8	28.7
8	Altenusin	8.8	6.8	23.4
9	Tenuazonic acid	134.1		
10	Stemphytriol	74.4		
11	Altertoxin II	0.3	6.2	22.5
12	Altenuene	88.2		
13	4`-Epialtenuene	75.9		
14	Isoochracinic acid	94.8		
15	7-Methoxyphthalide-3-acetic acid	95.1		
16	Talaroflavone	101.4		
17	Alteric acid	103.6		
18	Alterlactone	23.1		
19	2,5-Dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone	92.2		
20	Altechromone B	93.3		
21	Ferulic acid	98.1		

Table 3.13: Cytotoxicity assay results for the compounds isolated from *Alternaria* sp. liquid and rice extracts

* Data provided by Prof. W. E. G. Müller, Mainz.

The cytotoxic results interestingly revealed that all of the alternariol derivatives in addition to the alterlactone (18) and altertoxin II (11) showed a significant cytotoxic activity against L5178Y cell line. The isocoumarins showed weak cytotoxic activity. In contrast, citreoisocoumarin (3) proved to be active against Gram positive bacteria multi-resistant

Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) with MIC values of 0.49μ g/mL. Regarding the alternariol derivatives, only alternariol (**6**) and altenusin (**8**) possess antibacterial activity against (MRSA) with MIC values of 0.49 and 31.25μ g/mL as well as against *Streptococcus pneumonia* with MIC values of 0.98 and 15.63 μ g/mL, respectively. Moreover, compounds (**10**), (**11**) and (**21**) showed significant activities against *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 29213 at a concentration of 64 μ g/ml.

3.2. Compounds isolated from the fungus *Penicillium* sp.

The fungal strain *Penicillium* sp. was isolated from the sediment of Wadi El-Natron lake, a hyper saline lake located in Egypt. The pure fungal strain was identified and then cultivated on solid rice medium. HPLC chromatogram of the EtOAc extract of the fungus grown on solid rice medium showed that 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethylisochroman (23) is the main component (see Figure 3.23). Antibacterial, antifungal and cytotoxicity testing-results showed that the rice cultures extract of the fungus is promising. Based on these preliminary biological screenings, the extract of the fungus WN-11-1-3-1-2 had been subjected to further chromatographic procedures leading to the isolation of;

6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethylisochromanol(22),6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5dimethylisochroman (23), arohynapene D (24), 1,6-Dihydroxy-3,5-dimethyl-8 methoxyisochroman (25), 6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethyl-3,4-dihydro- isocoumarin (26), 6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methyl-3,4-dihydroisocoumarin (27), 6-Methylcurvulinic acid (28), 2-Methyl-penicinoline (29), pretichodermamide C (30), N-Methylpretichodermamide B (31), and methyltriacetic lactone (32).





Figure 3.23: HPLC chromatogram of EtOAc extract of large scale of *Penicillium* sp. on rice medium. (23): 6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3, 5-dimethylisochroman.







Compound (22) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. as a brown solid (6.9 mg). It showed UV absorbance maxima at λ_{max} (MeOH) 288.6 nm. Negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peak at m/z 223.5 [M-H]⁻ while the positive ESI-MS showed a strong peak at m/z 207.2 [M-H₂O+H]⁺. The molecular formula C₁₂H₁₆O₄ was obtained from HRESI-MS which exhibited a strong peak at *m/z* 247.0940 [M+Na]⁺ (calculated 247.0941, Δ 0.0001).

Structural elucidation of compound (22) was based on results of 1D and 2D NMR spectral analysis including ¹H NMR, ¹H-¹H COSY, HMBC and ROESY spectra (Table 3.14). The ¹H NMR spectrum showed two methyl groups (one appears as a doublet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.27 ppm [d, (J= 6.5 Hz)] assigned for CH₃-11 while the other one appears as a singlet at δ_{H} 2.17 ppm for CH₃-12), a singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.73 ppm for OCH₃-13, a quartet doublet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.81 ppm [qd,(*J*=5.2 and 1.2 Hz)] for H-3, a doublet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.35 ppm [d,(J=5.2 Hz)] for H-4, two doublets at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.55 and 4.64 ppm, $[d_{,}(J=15.2 \text{ Hz})]$ for the desheilded geminally coupled protons CH₂-1 and an aromatic singlet at δ_H 6.38 ppm for H-7. The ¹H-¹H COSY correlations showed two spin systems, CH₂(1) and CH₃(11)CH(3)CH(4). The HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.24) showed correlations from CH₃-12 to C-5 (δ_C 116.8), C-10 (δ_C 135.6) and C-6 (δ_C 155.8). Further inspection of the HMBC spectrum revealed correlations from the methylene protons CH₂-1 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ (4.55 and 4.64 ppm) to C-3 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 77.4), C-8 (δ_C 154.7), C-9 (δ_C 116) and C-10 (δ_C 135.6), H-3 at δ_H 3.81 ppm to C-1 (δ_C 62.3), C-4 (δ_c 69.2), C-10 (δ_c 135.6) and CH₃-11(δ_c 17.7). Moreover, the aromatic proton H-7 showed ²J- ${}^{3}J$ and ${}^{4}J$ HMBC correlations, to C-6(${}^{2}J$), C-9(${}^{3}J$), and C-1 (ω) which secures its position at C-7. Moreover, the aromatic methoxy OCH₃-13 is confirmed through the HMBC correlation of its protons to C-8. From the previous data, compound (22) was identified as the 6-hydroxy-8methoxy-3, 5-dimethylisochromanol hinting a new natural product.

The ROESY experiment showed that the aromatic proton H-7 showed a strong ROESY correlation (Figure 3.25) with the OCH₃-13 group at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.73 ppm confirming their *ortho*-location to each other. The *trans*-configuration between H-3 and H-4 in (**22**) was also confirmed from ROESY experiment (Figure 2b). Moreover, irradiation of an oxymethine proton at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.35 (H-4) affected the signal intensity of a methyl proton at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.27. The absolute configurations at C-3, biogenetically deduced to be *S* configuration and the absolute configuration at C-4 was deduced from the relative configuration. Thus (**22**) was elucidated as a new chromone (3*S**, 4*R**)-6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethyl isochromanol.



Structure for 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethylisochromanol (22).

Table 3.14:¹H, ¹³C NMR, COSY, HMBC and ROESY data of compound (22) at 600 (¹H) and 150 (¹³C) MHz:

	Compound (22)							
Position	$\delta_{\rm H}(MeOD)$	COSY	ROESY	HMBC	$\delta_{C}(MeOD)$			
la b	4.64, <i>d</i> (15.2) 4.55, <i>d</i> (15.2)	1b, CH ₃ -11 1a,4	1b, CH ₃ -11 1a	3,8,9,10 3,8,9,10	62.3			
2 3 4	3.81, <i>qd</i> (5.2, 1.2) 4.35, <i>d</i> (5.2)	4, CH ₃ -11 1b,3	1a,1b,4, CH ₃ -11 1a,1b,3, CH ₃ -11, CH ₃ -12	CH ₃ -11,1,4,10 CH ₃ -11,1,9,10	77.4 69.2			
5 6 7	638 5		OCH -13	169	116.8 155.8 98.3			
8 9	0.56, 5		0013-15	1,0,7	154.7 116			
10 CH ₃ -11	1.27, <i>d</i> (6.5)	1a,3	1a,1b,3,4	1,3	135.6 17.7			
OCH ₃ -12	2.17, <i>s</i> 3.73, <i>s</i>		7	6,8	56			



Figure 3.24: HMBC spectrum of compound (22)



Figure 3.25: ROESY spectrum of compound (22)





Compound (23) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. as a white solid (39.7 mg). It showed UV absorbance maxima at λ_{max} (MeOH) 218.4, 228.5 and 283.6 nm. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 209.1 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 207.4 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively, indicating a molecular weight of 208 g/mol. The difference in the molecular weight between compound (23) and the previous compound (22) is 16 amu which indicates the less of a hydroxyl group in compound (23).

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.15) for compound (**23**) is closely related to the previous compound (**22**). It displayed also characteristic signals attributable to two methyl protons CH₃-11 and CH₃-12, appearing at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.32 [d (*J*=6.2 Hz)] and 1.99, *s*, respectively, upfield geminally-coupled methylene protons at [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.33 [dd (*J*=16.5, 10.7 Hz)] and 2.63 [dd (*J*=16.5, 3.0 Hz)] for CH₂-4, deshielded methylene protons at [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.50 and 4.79 [d, (*J*=14.9 Hz)] for CH₂-1, a methine signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.69 for H-3, a singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.68 ppm for OCH₃-13, and an aromatic singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.33 and 2.63 ppm in (**23**) and the lack of the oxygenated methine signal CH(4) which is present in (**22**) confirm the removal of the 4-OH group in (**23**).

The ¹H-¹H-COSY (Table 3.15) showed two spin systems. The first one is CH₂(1) and the second one is CH₃(11)CH(3)CH₂(4). The HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.26) showed strong correlations from the CH₃-12 protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.99,(*s*) to C-5 at $\delta_{\rm C}$ (114.7), C-6 at $\delta_{\rm C}$ (155.3), and C-10 at $\delta_{\rm C}$ (135.0) securing its position at C-5. Furthermore, the aromatic proton H-7 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.28 ppm showed correlations to carbons at $\delta_{\rm C}$ 10.4, 114.7, 115,155.3 and 155.8 assigned to CH₃-12, C-5, C-9, C-6 and C-8, respectively which supported the assignment of the planar structure of (**23**).

The $[\alpha]_D$ is in full agreement with the literature (Guochun *et al.*, 2004). Thus compound (23) was identified as (3*S*)-6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethylisochroman, the confirmation of the aforementioned data based on the comparison with the reported literature (Masuma *et al.*, 1994; Guochun *et al.*, 2004; El-Neketi *et al.*, 2013), in which (23) has been previously isolated from different *Penicillium* species.



Structure for (3*S*)-6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3, 5-dimethylisochroman (23)

Table 3.15: ¹ H, ¹³ C NMR,	COSY, ROESY	and HMBC	data of compound	(23) at 600 (¹ H	f) and 150
(¹³ C) MHz:					

#			(Compound (2	3)		
	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})$	COSY	ROESY	HMBC	$\delta_{\rm C}({\rm MeOD})$	$\delta_{H}(CDCl_{3})^{a}$	$\delta_C(CDCl_3)^a$
1a	4.50, <i>d</i> (14.9)	1b	1b, 3	3, 8,9,10	65.8	4.57, d (15.2)	64.6
ь 2	4.79, <i>d</i> (14.9)	la	1a	3, 8,9,10		4.89, <i>d</i> (15.2)	
3	3.69, <i>m</i>	4a, 4b, CH ₃ -11	4a, 4b, CH ₃ - 11		72.1	3.74, <i>m</i>	70.6
4a	2.33, <i>dd</i> (16.5, 10.7)	3, 4b	1a, 4b, CH ₃ - 11 _, CH ₃ -12	3, 5,9,10, CH ₃ -11	34.9	2.42, <i>dd</i> (16.5, 10.6)	34
b	2.63, <i>dd</i> (16.5, 3.0)	3, 4a	1a, 3, 4a, 11- CH ₃ , CH ₃ -12	3,5,9,10		2.61, <i>dd</i> (16.5, 2.3)	
5					114.7		112.9
6					155.3		152.7
7	6.28, <i>s</i>		OCH ₃ -13	5, 6, 8, 9, CH ₃ -12	97	6.23, <i>s</i>	96.2
8					155.8		153.9
9					115		115.4
10					135		134.1
CH ₃ -11	1.32, <i>d</i> (6.2)	3	3, 4a, 4b	3, 4, 10	22.7	1.38, <i>d</i> (6.3)	21.7
CH ₃ -12	1.99, <i>s</i>		4a, 4b	5, 6,7,10	10.4	2.04, <i>s</i>	10
OCH ₃ - 13	3.68, <i>s</i>		7	7, 8	55.5		

a) Masuma *et al.*, 1994.





Figure 3.26: HMBC spectrum of compound (23)



Figure 3.27: Expansion of ROESY spectrum of compound (23)

3.2.3. (+)-Arohynapene D (24, new compound)



Compound (24) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. in the form of a brown solid (3.4mg). It exhibited UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 204.1 and 280 nm. The HRESI-MS exhibited a strong peak at m/z 195.1017[M+H]⁺ indicating a molecular formula of C₁₁H₁₄O₃ (calculated 195.1016, Δ 0.0001). The molecular weight of (24) differes from that of (23) by 14 amu indicating the removal of a methyl group in (24).

Similar to (23) the ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 16) showed two geminally coupled methylene protons at [δ_{H} 2.43 [dd, (*J*=16.3, 5.5 Hz)] and 2.55 [dd, (*J*=16.3, 2.5 Hz)] for CH₂-4, and a deshielded one at [δ_{H} 4.40 and 4.62 ppm [each, d, (*J*=15.0 Hz)] for CH₂-1, a methine signal at δ_{H} 3.65 ppm for H-3, an exchangeable proton at δ_{H} 9.19 ppm appearing as a singlet for 6-OH, a singlet at δ_{H} 3.67 ppm for OCH₃-12, and only one methyl group at δ_{H} 1.20 [d, (*J*=6.12 Hz)] for CH₃-11. The *meta*- coupled aromatic protons at δ_{H} 6.10 and 6.20 ppm (each doublet, *J*=1.9 Hz) for H-5 and H-7, respectively confirmed the demethylation of (23). The ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum (Table 16) of (24) showed three spin systems. The first one is CH₂(1), the second one is CH₃(11)CH (3)CH₂(4) and the third one is CH(5)CH(7).

The HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.28) showed a strong correlation from OCH₃-12 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.67 to C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 155.9) securing its position at C-8. Further inspection of the HMBC spectrum revealed correlations from CH₂-4 to C-5 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 106.6), from CH₂-1 to C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 155.9) and from H-5 to C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 35.5). The ROESY experiment (Figure 3.29) showed that the CH₃-11 showed a cross peak with the CH₂-4 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.43 and 2.55 ppm and H-3 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.65 ppm, OCH₃-12 correlates with H-7 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.20 and 6-OH with H-7 and H-5 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.10 in the same spectrum confirming the location of the substituents.

The obtained UV, ¹H, ¹³C NMR and mass spectral data were found to be identical with the published data for 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methylisochroman (arohynapene D) previously reported from *Penicillium* sp. FO-2295 (Noriko *et al.*, 1994) except the difference in the configuration as approved from the comparison of the $[\alpha]_D$ values of both compounds. The absolute configuration of C-3 were proposed to be *S*, by comparison $[\alpha]_D$ value of (24) with the literature which was + 116.4 (MeOH) (Guochun *et al.*, 2004). This led to the conclusion that (24) is the enantiomer of (-)-arohynapene D and it was thus assigned as the previously unreported (3*S*)-6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methylisochroman.



Structure of (+)-arohynapene D (24)

Table 16: ¹ H, ¹³ C NMR, HMBC and ROESY	' data of compound (24) at 600 (1 H) and 150 (13 C)
MHz:	

		Compound (24) Compound (24) ^a				.) ^a		
#	$\delta_{\text{H}}(\text{DMSO})$	COSY	ROESY	HMBC	$\delta_{\rm C}({\rm DMSO})$	$\delta_{\rm H}(CDCl_3)$	HMBC	$\delta_{C}(CDCl_{3})$
1a	4.40, <i>d</i> (15.0)	1b	1b,3	3,8,9,10	67.8	4.57, <i>dt</i> (15.0, 2.0)	3,8,9	64.4
1b	4.62, <i>d</i> (15.0)	1a	1a	3,8,9,10		4.85, <i>d</i> (15.0)		
2								
3	3.65 <i>,m</i>	4a,CH ₃ -11	1a,4a,4b, CH ₃ -		70.0	3.73 <i>,m</i>	1	70.2
4a	2.43, <i>dd</i> (16.3 ,5.5)	3,4b	1a,1b.3,4b,5	3,10, CH ₃ -11	35.5	2.60, <i>m</i>	3,5,9, 10,CH ₃ - 11	35.8
4b	2.55, <i>dd</i> (16.3 ,2.5)	4a	3,4a,5	5,9,10				
5	6.10, <i>d</i> (1.9)		4a,4b,6-OH	4,6,7,9	106.6	6.10, <i>d</i> (2.0)	4,6,7,9	106.5
6					156.6			154.8
7	6.20, <i>d</i> (1.9)		6-ОН, ОСН ₃ - 12	5,6,9,	96.6	6.23, <i>d</i> (2.0)	5,6,8,9	96.2
8					155.9			156.5
9					113.1			115.6
10					135.2			135.7
CH ₃ -11	1.20, <i>d</i> (6.12)	3	3,4a,4b	3,4	21.2	1.33, <i>d</i> (6.0)	3,4	21.4
OCH ₃ -12	3.67 <i>,s</i>		7	8	56.2	3.75 <i>,s</i>	8	55.1
6-OH	9.19 <i>,s</i>		5,7	5,6,7				

a) Noriko et al., 1994.



Figure 3.28: Expansion of HMBC spectrum of compound (24)



Figure 3.29: Expansion of ROESY spectrum of compound (24)





Compound (25) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of the solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. as an orange brown solid (5.5 mg). It displayed UV absorbance maxima at λ_{max} (MeOH) 211.4 and 283.1 nm. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 207.2 for [M-H₂O+H]⁺ (base peak) and 223.5 [M-H]⁻ (base peak) respectively, revealing a molecular weight of 224.2 g/mol.

Analysis of ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.17) revealed the presence of two methyl groups at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.34 [d (J=6.2 Hz)] and 1.99 ppm assigned for CH₃-11 and CH₃-12, respectively, a methylene signal at $[\delta_{\rm H} 2.27 \, [\text{dd} (J=16.8, 11.5 \, \text{Hz})]$ and 2.64 $[\text{dd} (J=16.8, 3.4 \, \text{Hz})]]$ for CH₂-4, a methoxy group at δ_H 3.75 ppm for OCH₃-13, two oxygenated methine signals at δ_H 5.47 ppm for H-1, and at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.20 ppm for H-3 and one aromatic signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.33 ppm for H-7. The $^{1}{\rm H}^{-1}{\rm H}$ COSY spectrum of compound (25) (Figure 3.31) showed one spin system, which is $CH_3(11)CH(3)CH_2(4)$. The HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.30) confirmed the structure by strong correlation from the methoxy proton OCH₃-13 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.75 to C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 156.3) confirming its position at C-8. Further inspection of the HMBC spectrum revealed correlations from H-1 at δ_H 5.47 to OCH₃-13 (δ_C 56.3), C-3 (δ_C 64), C-9 (δ_C 114.8), C-10 (δ_C 135.8) and C-8 (δ_C 156.3) and from the methyl proton CH₃-12 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.99 ppm to C-5 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 113.5), C-9 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 114.8), C-10 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 135.8) and C-6 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 155) which supported the assignment of the planar structure of (25). Thus, compound (25) was identified as the known 1,6-dihydroxy-3,5-dimethyl -8-methoxyisochroman, by comparing its UV, ¹H NMR, $[\alpha]_D$ and mass spectral data with the published data (Guochun *et* al., 2004). This compound was originally isolated from Penicillium expansum (Guochun et al., 2004).





Compound (26) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. in the form of brown solid (4.3 mg). Its UV spectrum showed λ_{max} (MeOH) at 206.9 and 295.3 nm. Positive and negative ESIMS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 223.1 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 221.4 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicating a molecular weight of 222 g/mol which is less by 2 amu than (25).

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.17) for compound (**26**) is closely related to the previous compound (**25**). It displayed also characteristic signals attributable to two methyl protons CH₃-11 and CH₃-12, resonating at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.42 [d (*J*=6.2 Hz)] and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.02 ppm (*s*), respectively, a geminally-coupled methylene protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.68 [dd (*J*=7.6, 15.3 Hz)] and 3.21 [dd (*J*=8.6, 15.3 Hz)] for CH₂-4, a multiplet for a methine signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.61 ppm for H-3, a methoxy signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.75 ppm for OCH₃-13 and an aromatic singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.29(*s*) for H-7. Comparison of the ¹³C-NMR of (**26**) (Table 3.18) with that of (**25**) exhibited an extra carbonyl signal resonating at $\delta_{\rm C}$ 170.6 in (**26**) suggesting the possible oxidation of the secondary alcoholic group (CH(1)OH) in (**25**) to this carbonyl group in (**26**) and confirming the difference in the molecular weight between (**25**) and (**26**). The ¹H-¹H- COSY spectrum of compound (**26**) (Figure 3.33) showed a spin system CH₃(11)CH(3)CH₂(4).

The HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.32), showed correlations from the methoxy group to C-8 at ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 143.2) which secures its position at C-8. In addition, the CH₃-12 correlates to C-5 at ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 113.7), C-6 at ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 150) and C-10 at ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 129.3) confirming its position at C-5. Comparison of ¹H, ¹³C NMR, HMBC and COSY data (Table 3.17 and 3.18) with the published data (Sheng *et al.*, 1990) revealed that compound (**26**) is identified as (3*S*)-6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethyl-3,4-dihydroisocoumarin, wherein the absolute configuration at C-3 position was determined by comparing its optical rotation [α]_D²⁰ + 102 (MeOH) with that of the same compound [α]_D²⁰ + 106 (MeOH) which was isolated from the *Penicillium citreo-viride B* (Sheng *et al.*, 1990).

3.2.6. (3S)-6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methyl-3,4-dihydroisocoumarin (27, new compound)



Compound (27) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. It was isolated as an orange solid (1.7 mg). The UV absorption data λ_{max} (MeOH) at 213.8, 265.9 and 297.6 indicated that it is isocoumarin congener (26). The ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 209.1 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 207.4 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively indicating a molecular weight of 208.07g/mol. The molecular weight of (27) is less than (26) by 14 amu indicating a lack of one methyl group in (27). The HRESI-MS exhibited a prominent peak at m/z 209.0808 [M+H]⁺ indicating a molecular formula of C₁₁H₁₂O₄ (calculated 209.0808, Δ 0.0000).

The ¹H- NMR spectrum (Table 3.17) exhibited signals similar to compound (**26**), except for the absence of CH₃-12 in (**26**) which is replaced by an aromatic proton at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.29 ppm (H-5) (*meta*-coupled with H-7 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.41 ppm). In addition, a methoxy signal at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.83 ppm assigned for OCH₃-12 was observed. Similar to (**26**), the aliphatic moiety showed a methyl group at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.41 ppm [d (*J*=6.2 Hz)] for CH₃-11, methylene protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.79 [d (*J*=16.0 Hz)] and 2.85 [dd (*J*=16.0, 3.06 Hz)] for CH₂-4 and a multiplet assigned for methine group at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.51 ppm for H-3.

The HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.34) showed a strong correlation from the OCH₃-12 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.83 to C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 164.6) securing its position at C-8. Further inspection of the HMBC spectrum revealed the methylene protons CH₂-4 to C-10 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 146.2), the methyl group CH₃-11 to C-3 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 75.1) and C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 36.5) and the aromatic proton H-7 to C-5 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 105.2) and C-8 at ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 164.6) which supported the assignment of the planar structure as shown.

The relative configuration of (27) was obtained from the ROESY spectrum (Figure 3.35). The ROESY experiment showed cross peaks from CH₃-11 to CH₂-4 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.79 and 2.85 ppm and H-3 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.51 ppm and from OCH₃-12 to H-7 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.41 ppm confirming the location of these substituents. By comparison of the previous data including optical rotation value of (27) it was found that the $[\alpha]_{\rm D}^{20}$ +51 (*c* 0.32, CHCl₃) while that in the literature $[\alpha]_{\rm D}^{20}$ -46.5 (*c* 0.043, CHCl₃) (Dethoup *et al.*, 2007). Thus, compound (27) was identified as an enantiomer of (-)-6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methyl-3,4-dihydroisocoumarin. Hence, (27) was assigned as the new (3*S*)-6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methyl-3,4-dihydroisocoumarin.



able3.17: ¹ H NMR & HMBC of compound (25),compound (26) & compound (27) at 600 M	(Hz:
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 CH_3

-H

#	Compound (25)Compound (26)Compound (26)			und (27)						
	$\delta_{\rm H} ({\rm MeOH})$	HMBC	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm CDCl}_3)$	$\delta^{a} = \delta_{H}$ (MeOH)	HMBC	$\delta_{H}\left(CDCl_{3}\right)^{b}$	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOH})$	ROESY	HMBC	$\delta_{\rm H} \left({\rm CDCl}_3 \right)^{\rm c}$
1	5.47, <i>s</i>	3,8,9,10, OCH ₃ -13	5.41, <i>s</i>							
2										
3	4.20 <i>,m</i>		4.15 <i>,m</i>	4.61 <i>,m</i>		4.47 <i>,m</i>	4.51 <i>,m</i>	4a,4b,, CH ₃ -11		4.41 <i>,m</i>
4a	2.64, <i>dd</i> (16.8,3.4)	5,10,11	2.57, <i>dd</i> (17,3.5)	3.21, <i>dd</i> (8.6.,15.3)	10	2.91, <i>dd</i> (2.7,16.4)	2.85, <i>dd</i> (16.0,3.06)	3,4b	10	2.86, <i>dd</i> (16,3.1)
b	2.27, <i>dd</i>	3,5,6,10,	2.20, <i>dd</i>	2.68, <i>dd</i>	10,	2.66, <i>dd</i>	2.79, <i>d</i>	3,4a,5	2.27,	dd (16,10.9)
	(16.8,11.5)	11	(16.7,11.6)	(7.6,15.3)	CH ₃ -11	(11.5,16.4)	(16.0)			
5							6.29 <i>,s</i>	4b		6.26, <i>s</i>
6										
7	6.33 <i>,s</i>	5,8,9	6.26, <i>s</i>	6.29 <i>,s</i>	8,9	6.43 <i>,s</i>	6.41 <i>,s</i>	OCH ₃ -12	5,8	6.37, <i>s</i>
8										
9										
10										
CH3-11	1.34, <i>d</i> (6.2)	3,4,10	1.27, <i>d</i> (6.1)	1.42, <i>d</i> (6.2)	3,4	1.49, <i>d</i> (6.3)	1.41, <i>d</i> (6.2)	3,4a,4b	3,4	1.32, <i>d</i> (6.2)
CH ₃ -12	1.99, <i>s</i>	1,5,6,7,9	1.93,s	2.02,s	5,6,10	2.10,s				
OCH3-12							3.83, <i>s</i>	7	8	3.74 <i>,s</i>
OCH3-13	3.75 <i>,s</i>	8	3.68, <i>s</i>	3.75 <i>,s</i>	1,8	3.82, <i>s</i>				
6-OH										10.52,brs

a) Guochun *et al.*, 2004. b) Sheng et al., 1990. C) Dethoup et al., 2007.
#	Compound (25)		Compound (26)	Compo	Compound (27)		
	$\delta_{C}\left(\text{MeOH}\right)^{b}$	$\delta_C (CDCl_3)^a$	$\delta_{C}\left(\text{MeOH}\right)^{b}$	$\delta_C \left(\text{MeOH} \right)^b$	$\delta_C \left(CDCl_3 \right)^c$		
1	95.6	88.5	170.6	165.1	162.8		
2							
3	64	62.6	80.9	75.1	72.9		
4a	33.7	30.9	38.2	36.5	35.5		
b							
5	113.5	112.8	113.7	105.2	106.2		
6	155	154.2	150		161.3		
7	96.9	96.9	100.5		98.4		
8	156.3	155	143.2	164.6	162.9		
9	114.8	114.5	114.4		104.6		
10	135.8	135.2	129.3	146.2	144		
CH ₃ -11	21.4	21.6	22		20.4		
CH ₃ -12	10.8	10.1	10.1				
OCH ₃ -12				55.6			
OCH3-13	56.3	54.8	56.4				

Table 3.18:¹³C NMR of compound (25), compound (26) and compound (27) at 150 MHz:

c) Dethoup et al., 2007.

a) Guochun *et al.*, 2004.b) Derived from HMBC spectrum





Figure 3.30: HMBC spectrum of compound (25)



Figure 3.31: ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum of compound (25)





Figure 3.32: HMBC spectrum of compound (26)



Figure 3.33: ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum of compound (26)





Figure 3.34: HMBC spectrum of compound (27)



Figure 3.35: ROESY spectrum of compound (27)

3.2.7. 6-Methylcurvulinic acid (28, known compound)



Compound (28) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. in the form of a white amorphous solid (6.5 mg). It exhibited UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 220.2 and 285.4 nm. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 225 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 223.2 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively, indicating a molecular weight of 224 g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum (Table 3.19) indicated the presence of two methyl groups each appearing as a singlet; at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.05 and 2.57 ppm for CH₃-6 and CH₃-10, respectively, methylene protons appearing as singlets at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.77 ppm for CH₂-2, and an aromatic singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.29 ppm for H-4. The ¹³C NMR spectrum displayed 11 carbon atoms, *viz*, two methyl carbons (C-10 and C-6), a methylene carbon (C-2), six aromatic carbons and two carbonyl carbons (C-1 and C-9), respectively.

The HMBC spectrum (Table 3.19 and Figure 3.36) showed a strong correlation from CH₃-6 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.05 to C-6 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 111.6), C-5 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 160.3), and C-7 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 161) securing its position at C-6. Further inspection of the HMBC spectrum showed correlations from CH₃-10 to C-9 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 206.1), and C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 118.5) confirming that an acetyl group is attached to C-8. Furthermore, the methylene protons CH₂-2 at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.77 displayed correlations to C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 112.8), C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 118.5), C-3 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 135.1) and C-1 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 175.2). Thus, compound (**28**) was identified as the known 6-methylcurvulinic acid by comparison of UV, ¹H, ¹³C NMR and mass spectral data with the published data (El-Neketi *et al.*, 2013).



Structure of 6-methylcurvulinic acid (28)

	Com	pound (28)		Compo	und (28) ^a	
#	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm MeOD})$	$\delta_C (MeOD)^b$	HMBC	$\delta_{\text{H}}(CD_{3}OD)$	$\delta_{C}(CD_{3}OD)$	HMBC
1		175.2			175.2	
2	3.77 <i>,s</i>	41.8	4,8,3,1	3.76, <i>s</i>	41.4	4,8,3,1
3	,	135.1		,	134.9	
4	6.29 <i>,s</i>	112.8	6-CH ₃ ,2,6,8,5	6.29 <i>,s</i>	112.3	2,6,8,5
5		160.3			160.8	
6		111.6			111.8	
7		161			161.3	
8		118.5			118.5	
9		206.1			206.2	
CH ₃ -10	2.57 <i>,s</i>	32.3	8,9	2.57, <i>s</i>	32	8,9
CH ₃ -6	2.05, s	8	6, 5,7	2.04 <i>,s</i>	8	6,5,7

Table 3.19: ¹H, ¹³C NMR and HMBC data of compound (**28**) at at 600 (¹H) and 150 (¹³C) MHz:

a) El-Neketi *et al.*, 2013.b) Derived from HMBC spectrum





Figure 3.36: HMBC spectrum of compound (28)

3.2.8. 2-Methyl-penicinoline (29, known compound)



Compound (29) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. in the form of a brown solid (3.2 mg). It exhibited UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 206.8, 286.4 and 332.6 nm. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 269 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 267.2 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively, indicating a molecular weight of 268.2 g/mol.

Structural elucidation of compound (**28**) was based on the results of 1D and 2D NMR spectral analysis including ¹H- and ¹³C-NMR, ¹H-¹H COSY, and HMBC spectra (Table 3.20). The ¹H NMR spectrum showed a methyl ester singlet at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.66 ppm for OCH₃-17, seven aromatic protons; resonating at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.46 (brs), 6.25 [dd (*J*= 2.5, 5.3 Hz)], 7.13 (brs), $\delta_{\rm H}$ 8.07 [d (*J*=7.8 Hz)], 7.35 [brt (*J*=7.8 Hz)], 7.69 [t, (J=8.1 Hz)] and 7.65 [d (*J*=8.1 Hz)] for H-1, H-2, H-3, H-12, H-11, H-10, and H-9, respectively. In addition, the ¹H NMR spectrum displayed two extra signals at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 11.59 and 11.64, for NH-4 in the pyrrol ring and NH-7 in the quinolinone moiety, respectively. The ¹H-¹H COSY correlations (Table 3.20) showed two spin systems, the first one is CH(9) CH(10) CH(11) CH(12) and the second one is CH(1)CH(2)CH(3).

The HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.37) showed correlations from H-12 to the conjugated carbonyl group C-14 (δ_C 173.7) confirming the planar structure of the quinolone moiety. The attachment of the pyrrol ring to C-6 was secured through correlations from H-1(δ_H 6.46ppm) to C-6 (δ_C 140.9) and correlations from H-1 and H-3 to C-5 (δ_C 123.0).

Based on these data and by comparing them with these published references (Elsebai *et al.*, 2011; Gao *et al.*, 2012), compound (**29**) was identified as the known 2-methyl-penicinoline. Compound (**29**) has been previously isolated from the fungus *Auxarthron reticulatum* (Elsebai *et al.*, 2011) but for the first time from a *Penicillium* species.



Structure of 2-methyl-penicinoline (29)

Table 3.20: ¹ H, ¹³ C NMR,	HMBC and ROESY	data of compound	(29) at at 600	(^{1}H) and 150
(¹³ C) MHz:				

			Compound	(29)			Compound (2	29) ^a	
#	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm DMSO-d_6})$	COSY	ROESY	HMBC	$\delta_C(DMSO-d_6)$	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm DMSO-d_6})$	$\delta_C(DMSO-d_6)$	NOESY	HMBC
1	6.46, <i>brs</i>	2,3	2, OCH2-17	2,3,5,6	112.0	6.47, <i>dd</i> (1.5, 3.7)	112.1	2	2,3,5
2	6.25, <i>dd</i> (2.5, 5.3)	1,3	1,3	1,3	109.9	6.25, <i>dd</i> (2.6, 3.7)	110.1	1,3	1,3,5
3	7.13, <i>brs</i>	1,2	2	1,2,5	122.6	7.13 <i>,dd</i> (1.5, 2.6)	122.8	2	1,2,5
NH-4	11.59,s	1,2,3				11.6, <i>s</i>		3	
5					123.0		123.0		
6					140.9		140.9		
NH-7	11.64,s			5,6,9,13,15		11.7, <i>s</i>		1,9	5,6,9,13,
8					139.6		139.7		15
9	7.65,d (8.1)	10	10,11	11,13	118.7	7.66, <i>d</i> (7.7)	118.7	10, NH-7	11,13
10	7.69, <i>t</i> (8.1)	9,11	9,11	8,12	132.4	7.70, <i>t</i> (7.7)	132.6	9,11	8,12
11	7.35,brt (7.8)	10,12	9,10,12	8,9,10,13	123.6	7.36,brt (7.7)	123.9	9,10	9,13
12	8.07, <i>d</i> (7.8)	11	11	8,10,14	124.9	8.07, <i>d</i> (7.7)	124.9	11	8,10,14
13					124.3		124.3		
14					173.7		173.8		
15					113.6		113.6		
16					167.6		167.8		
OCH ₃	3.66, <i>s</i>		1	16	51.8	3.67, <i>s</i>	52.1	1	15,16

a) Elsebai *et al.*, 2011.





Figure 3.37: Expansion of HMBC spectrum of compound (29)



Figure 3.38: Expansion of ROESY spectrum of compound (29)

3.2.9. Pretichodermamide C, (30, new compound)



Compound (**30**) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp., as a brownish orange solid, it displayed UV absorbance at λ_{max} (MeOH) 202.7 nm. The HRESI-MS exhibited a strong peak at m/z 535.0815 [M+Na]⁺ indicating a molecular formula of $C_{21}H_{24}N_2O_9S_2$ (calculated 535.0815, Δ 0.000), indicating ten elements of unsaturation.

Inspection of the ¹H NMR spectrum of compound (**30**) (Table 3.21) revealed the presence of signals of two aromatic methoxy groups at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.78 and 3.68 ppm (7`-OCH₃ and 8`-OCH₃, respectively), two *ortho*-coupled aromatic protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 7.34 ppm[d, (J = 8.8 Hz, H-5`)] and 6.55 ppm [d (J = 8.8 Hz, H-6`)], and one phenolic hydroxy proton at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 9.45 (OH-9`), suggested the presence of a 2,3 dimethoxy phenol ring unit. This assumption was supported by HMBC crosspeaks (Figure 3.41) detected from H-5` to C-7`(δ c 152.8) and C-9`(δ c 148.0), from H-6` to C-4`(δ c 116.6) and C-8`(δ c 152.8), as well as from the two methoxy groups 7`-OCH₃ and 8`-OCH₃ to their respective carbons C-7` and C-8`, respectively.

In addition, the ¹H NMR spectrum showed resonances of one methylene group at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.17 and 1.96 ppm for (CH₂-3), two vinylic protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 5.41 (H-6) and 5.47 ppm (H-7), three oxygenated aliphatic methines, resonating downfield at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.16, 4.21, and 3.92 ppm (H-5, H-8, and H-9, respectively), and three hydroxy protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 5.15, 5.16, and 5.27 ppm (4-OH, 8-OH, and 5-OH, respectively). These signals were indicative of an oxazine-cyclohexene moiety, as confirmed by the ¹H-¹H-COSY correlations (Figure 3.39a) comprising the five methine protons from H-5 to H-9, and by the HMBC correlations from H-6 to C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 71.3) and C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 64.3); H-7 to C-5($\delta_{\rm C}$ 74.1) and C-9 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 85.5); H-9 to C-4 and C-8; and H-3 to C-4 and C-9.

Finally, the remaining signals of a nitrogen-bearing methyl group at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.98 ppm (δc 33.1) (10'-CH₃) and an AB system of overlapping methines at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.59 ppm (δc 66.0 and 41.5) (H-2' and H-3', respectively), in addition to the signals of two carbonyl groups with chemical shift characteristic of amides at δc 165.4 (C-1) and 165.7 ppm (C-1'), and the presence of two sulfur atoms in the molecule, as indicated by the HRESIMS, indicated a N-methylated 2, 5-epidithio-3, 6-diketo group (Kirby and Robins, 1980), hence accounting for the remaining four degrees of unsaturation.

HMBC correlations of H-3 to C-1 and C-2 (δc 69.4), and of H-3` to C-1`, C-2`, C-4`, C-5', and C-9', established the connection of the identified substructures as shown in (Figure 3.39

a). It is worth to mention that compound (**30**) represents an analogue of petrichodermamide A (Seephonkai *et al.*, 2006), differing in the presence of a methyl group at N-10[°], which accounts for the molecular weight difference of 14 amu observed between both compounds. This was further corroborated by the HMBC correlations of 10[°]-CH₃ to C-1 and C-2[°], and by the shielding and deshielding effects for C-3[°] (δ c 41.5) and C-2[°](δ c 66.0), respectively, as a result of the steric interaction between the N-methyl group and the C-3[°] methine proton (Yokose *et al.*, 1984).

The relative configuration of (**30**) was determined by analysis of the coupling constants and the ROESY spectrum (Figure 3.42). Key correlations were observed for both H-5 and 4-OH with H-9, as well as between H-8 and 5-OH, thus indicating a cis-orientation of H-9, H-5, 4-OH, and 8-OH in the benzene ring fused to the oxazine portion (Figure 3.39b). In addition, the small vicinal coupling between H-2` and H-3` (J < 1 Hz) suggested their *gauche* relationship, hence indicating the same relative stereochemistry as observed for petrichodermamide A. On the basis of the above data, (**30**) was identified as a new natural product, for which the name pretichodermamide C is proposed.

The absolute configuration of pretichodermamide C (**30**) is assumed to be identical to that of pretichodermamide A based on the $[\alpha]_D$ values of (**30**): $[\alpha]_D^{25}$ -167 (c.0.12, MeOH) which are both in the negative side as observed for pretichodermamide A: $[\alpha]_D^{25}$ -206 (c.0.10, MeOH), implying that both compounds share the 2*S*, 4*S*, 5*R*, 8*R*, 9*S*, 2`*S*, 3`*S* configuration.

3.2.10. N-methylpretrichodermamide B, (31, new compound)



Compound (**31**) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp., as a brownish orange solid, It showed UV absorbance at λ_{max} (MeOH) 202.7 nm. The HRESIMS spectrum, showed the characteristic chlorine isotope pattern corresponding to the *pseudo*-molelecular ion [M+Na]⁺ (m/z 553.0479) for the formula C₂₁H₂₃N₂O₈S₂Cl (calculated 553.0477, Δ 0.0002), thus corresponding to ten elements of unsaturation

The¹H NMR spectrum of (**31**) (Table 3.21) was similar to that of (**30**), except for the marked downfield shifts observed for 4-OH and H-5 resonating at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 5.71 and 4.86 ppm, respectively, as well as for the absence of the hydroxy group at C-5. The above spectral differences suggested that (**31**) features the same molecular skeleton as (**30**), bearing a chlorine substituent at C-5 instead of a hydroxyl group as found in (**31**), which accounts for the 18 amu molecular weight difference between both compounds. This assumption was further supported by inspection of the respective COSY and HMBC correlations (Figure 3.40 a). The HMBC spectrum (Figure 3.41) displayed correlations from H-5 to C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 70) and C-6 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 126.6); H-6 to C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 70) and C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 65.1); H-7 to C-9 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 85.1); 8-OH to C-7 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 132.1), C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 65.1) and C-9 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 85.1); H-9 to C-4($\delta_{\rm C}$ 70) and C-8 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 65.1); H-2 and H-3 to C-1 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 164.4), and C-4 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 116.8); CH₃-10' to C-1'($\delta_{\rm C}$ 164.4), C-2' ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 65.8), and C-3' ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 136.1); OCH₃-7 to C-7 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 153.2) and OCH₃-8'($\delta_{\rm C}$ 60.8); OCH₃-8' to C-8'($\delta_{\rm C}$ 136.1), and OCH₃-7'($\delta_{\rm C}$ 55.9); and 9'-OH to C-4'($\delta_{\rm C}$ 116.8), and C-9'($\delta_{\rm C}$ 148).

The relative configuration of (31) was deduced to be the same as that of (30), according to the ROESY experiment as well as the coupling patterns of the relevant protons (Figure 3.40 b and 3.44). Therefore, (31) was identified as a new natural product and was given the name N-methylpretichodermamide B with the same absolute conftiguration of (30). To the best of our knowledge, this is only the second report of a chloro-epidithiodiketopiperazine compound in nature. A previous report includes the isolation the N-demethyl analogue of (31), named DC1149B, from *Thrichoderma longibrachiatum* (Hirofumi *et al.*, 1990).





Figure 3.39: a) ${}^{1}\text{H}{}^{-1}\text{H}$ COSY (**bold**) and selected HMBC (H \rightarrow C) correlations of (**30**), b) selected ROESY correlations of the oxazine-cyclohexene moiety of (**30**).



Figure 3.40: a) ¹H-¹H COSY (**bold**) and selected HMBC (plain) correlations of (**31**), b) selected ROESY correlations of the oxazine-cyclohexene moiety of (**31**).

Table 3.21:¹H, ¹³C NMR, COSY, ROESY and HMBC data of compounds (**30**) and (**31**) at 600 (¹H) and 150 (¹³C) MHz:

#	Compound (30) Compound (31)									
	$\begin{array}{c} \delta_{\rm H}(DMSO\text{-}\\ d_6) \end{array}$	COSY	ROESY	HMBC	$\begin{array}{c} \delta_C(DMSO\text{-}\\ d_6)^a \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \delta_{H}(DMSO\text{-}\\ d_{6}) \end{array}$	COSY	ROESY	HMBC	$\begin{array}{c} \delta_C(DMSO-\\ d_6)^a \end{array}$
1					165.4					165.4
2					69.4					69.5
3a	2.17, d(15.9)	3b, 9	3b,5,5-OH	4,9	32.1	2.25, d (17.0)	3b,9	3b		33.8
3b	1.96, d (15.9)	3a	3a,5 6,7, 8,9	1, 2		2.08, d (17.0)	3а, 4- ОН	3a, 8	1, 2	
4					71.3					70
5	4.16, brs	6, 5-OH	3a,3b,6,7, 9, 4-OH,5-OH 8-OH	4,6	74.1	4.86, brs	6,8	6, 9, 4- OH	4, 6	67.9
6	5.41, d (10.3)	5, 5 - OH	3b, 5,7	4, 8	129.8	5.57, d (10.3)	5,4- OH	5,7	4,8	126.6
7	5.47, d (10.3)	8	3b,5,6, 8	5, 9	128.6	5.62, d (10.3)	5,8- OH	6,8,8- OH	9	132.1
8	4.21, brs	7,9, 8-OH	3b, 7, 9, 5- OH,8-OH	9	64.3	4.34, brs	5,9, 8- OH	3b,7,9,8- OH		65.1
9	3.92, d (6.9)	3a, 8	3b,5, 7,8, 4-OH	3, 4, 8	85.5	4.04, d (7.5)	3a, 8	5, 8-OH, 4-OH	4, 8	85.1
1`					165.7					164.4
2`	4.59, brs		5`, CH ₃ - 10`, 9`- OH	1`,3`, 4`, CH ₃ -10`	66	4.62,d (4.74)		5`, CH ₃ - 10` _, 9`- OH	1`, 4`	65.8
3`	4.59, brs		5`, CH ₃ - 10`, 9`- OH	1`, 2`, 4` ,5`, CH ₃ - 10`, 9`	41.5	4.62,d (4.74)		5`, CH ₃ - 10` _, 9`- OH	1`, 4`	41.7
4`			011	10,7	116.6			011		116.8
5`	7.34, d (8.8)	6`	2`,3`, 6`	3`,7`,8`, 9`	123.1	7.33, d (8.8)	6`	2`, 3`, 6`	3`, 7`, 9`	123.5
6`	6.55, d (8.8)	5`	5`, OCH3- 7`	4`, 7`, 8`, 9`	103.1	6.55, d (8.8)	5`	5`, OCH3-7`	4`, 8`	103.9
7`					152.8					153.2
8`					136.2					136.1
9`					148					148
OCH ₃ -7`	3.78, s	OCH ₃ -8`	2`,3`, 6`, OCH ₃ -8`	7`, OCH ₃ -8`	56	3.78, s	ОСН ₃ - 8`	6`, OCH3-8`	7`,OCH ₃ - 8`	55.9
OCH ₃ -8`	3.68, s	OCH3-7`	2`,3`,CH ₃ - 10` 9`-OH	7`, 8`, OCH ₃ -7`	60.8	3.68, s	ОСН ₃ - 7`	9`-OH, OCH ₃ -7`	8`, OCH3-7`	60.8
9` - OH	9.45, s		2`,3`, OCH ₃ -8	4`, 8`, 9`		9.46,S		2`, 3`, OCH ₃ -8`	4`, 9`	
CH3-10`	2.98, s		2`,3`	1`, 2`	33.1	2.99, s		2`, 3`	1`, 2`,3`	32.9
5-OH	5.27, d (5,8)	5,6	3a,5,8	6						
8-OH	5.16, d (5.8)	8	5,7,8,9	9		5.35, d (6.9)	7, 8	8,9	7, 8, 9	
4 - OH	5.15, d (5,8)	5	5, 9	9		5.71, brs	3b,6	5,9	6	

^a Derived from HMQC and HMB







Figure 3.41: HMBC spectrum of compound (30)



Figure 3.42: Expansion of ROESY spectrum of compound (30)





Figure 3.43: HMBC spectrum of compound (31)



Figure 3.44: Expansion ROESY spectrum of compound (31)

3.2.11. Methyltriacetic lactone, (32, known compound)



Compound (32) was isolated from the EtOAc extract of solid rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. in the form of brown crystals (1.1 mg). It exhibited UV absorbances at λ_{max} (MeOH) 200.3 and 290.2 nm. Positive and negative ESI-MS showed molecular ion peaks at m/z 141.1 [M+H]⁺ (base peak) and m/z 139.5 [M-H]⁻ (base peak), respectively, indicating a molecular weight of 140.04 g/mol.

The ¹H NMR spectrum of compound (**32**) recorded in DMSO-*d6* (Table 3.22) exhibited two methyl singlets at δ_H 1.73 and 2.14 for CH₃-6 and CH₃-3, an aromatic singlet at δ_H 5.98 for H-5. Moreover, a hydroxyl aromatic singlet at δ_H 11.09 for 4-OH was observed.

The ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum (Figure 3.45 and Table 3.22) showed the following spin system; CH₃(6)CH(5). Comparison of the UV, MS and ¹H NMR data with reported data (Mathias *et al.*, 1999) established that compound (**32**) is the known methyltriacetic lactone. Compound (**32**) was previously isolated from *Penicillium* sp. (Savard *et al.*, 1994) and *Ampelomyces* species (Hassan, 2007).



Structure of methyltriacetic lactone (**32**)

Table 3.22:¹H, ¹³C NMR and COSY data of compound (**32**) at 500 (¹H) and 125 (¹³C) MHz:

#	$\delta_{\rm H}({\rm DMSO-d_6})$	Compound (32) COSY	$\delta_{H}(DMSO-d_{6})^{a}$	$\delta_{H}(CDCl_{3})^{b}$
23				
4 5 6	5.98, <i>s</i>	CH ₃ -3, CH ₃ -6	5.98, <i>s</i>	5.8 <i>,s</i>
CH ₃ -3	2.14,s	CH ₃ -6,5	2.14,s	2.53 <i>,s</i>
CH ₃ -6 4-OH	1.73, <i>s</i> 11.09, <i>s</i>	CH ₃ -3,5 CH ₃ -3	1.74, <i>s</i> 11.08, <i>brs</i>	1.92, <i>s</i>

a) Mathias *et al.*, 1999. b) Savard *et al.*, 1994.



Figure 3.45: Expansion of ¹H-¹H-COSY spectrum of compound (**32**)

3.2.12. Bioactivity test results for compounds isolated from the fungus Penicillium sp.

The isolated compounds from the ethyl acetate extract of the rice cultures of *Penicillium* sp. were subjected to cytotoxicity (MTT) assay against mouse lymphoma (L5178Y) cells whose results are shown below (Table 3.23).

Nr.	Sample tested	L5178Y growth in % (@ 10 µg/mL)	EC50* (µg/mL)	EC50 (µmol/L)
22	6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-	73.8		
23	3,5dimethylisochromanol 6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3, 5- dimethylisochroman	103.4		
24	Arohynapene D	83.9		
25	1, 6-Dihydroxy-3, 5-dimethyl -8- methoxyisochroman	59.6		
26	6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethyl-3,4- dihydro- isocoumarin	40.5		
27	6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methyl-3,4- dihydroisocoumarin	86.3		
28	6-Methylcurvulinic acid	87.8		
29	2-Methyl-Penicinoline	78.5		
30	Pretichodermamide C	85.6		
31	N-methylpretichodermamide B	3.5	2.0	3.8
32	Methyltriacetic lactone	90.2		

Table 3.23: Cytotoxicity assay results for the compounds isolated from *Penicillium* sp. rice

* Data provided by Prof. W. E. G. Müller, Mainz.

The N-methylpretichodermamide B (**31**) proved to be highly effective against the L5178Y cancer cell line. Furthermore, the other isolated compounds proved to be moderate to weak active against the same cell line. On the other hand, all pure isolated compounds (**22-32**) were evaluated for their antimicrobial activities against different Gram + and Gram – bacteria including, *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC, *Streptococcus pneumonia* ATCC 49619, and *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922; unfortunately, none exhibited any activity.

4. Discussion:

4.1. Selection of culture media

Growth media and incubation conditions have a very strong effect on the secondary metabolite production. The variation in the environment and nutrition have been shown to have an essential effect on the quantity and diversity of secondary metabolite production (Fiedurek *et al.*, 1996; Mohanty and Prakash, 2009).

Manipulation of culture conditions such as temperature, shaker speeds, media with at least two different pH levels, salinity, carbon and nitrogen sources at different concentrations, high- or low-phosphate content, adding trace minerals, *etc.* have varying effects on the production of fungal secondary metabolites ((Knight *et al.*, 2003; Bode *et al.*, 2002; Miao *et al.*, 2006).

The variation of culture conditions is used to optimize the yield of a specific compound, this including cultivation on solid and liquid media. Cultivation of fungi using liquid culture techniques had played an important role in industrial applications (Smith and Berry, 1975). However, liquid media are far from the natural environment of fungi. Actually, they decrease the importance of specific phenomena such as osmotic resistance or cytoplasmic transfer.

Thus, the argue of choosing appropriate culture media is still around. We should focus on a limited set of parameters in order to produce novel and bioactive metabolites. So, the investigated fungal strains were cultured on different media resulting to have various secondary metabolites.

In the present study and from literature (Hassan, 2007), it is observed that the solid media produce yields with larger masses than the liquid media of the same fungus.

4.2. Methodologies for metabolite profiling

Natural product research involves mainly isolation and purification of pure compounds from crude extracts or fractions of different natural product sources and this is followed by structure elucidation of the isolated compounds. The investigation of these metabolites in crude natural product extracts or fractions requires high degree of sensitivity and selectivity. Therefore, it is necessary to generate advanced analytical and spectroscopic methods like the hyphenated techniques. Hyphenated techniques combine both chromatographic and spectral methods in order to obtain the advantages of both. Such techniques have the ability to solve complex analytical

problems (Kalpesh *et al.*, 2010). The power of combining hyphenated techniques to HPLC can give a good idea about the different substructures and/or functional groups of the structure. Such combinations have been applied in this study.

4.2.1. HPLC/UV

Nowadays, advanced HPLC columns joined with fast UV diode array detectors facilitate the identity of every single component present in the extract. The different chromophore of the components absorb in different ultraviolet regions. This feature makes the UV spectrum an important source of information related to the structure of natural products (Cannall, 1998).

In the present study, the isolated compounds that share similar chromophoric functions were examined by the HPLC/UV-photodiode array detection (LC/UVDAD) (*e.g.* citreoisocoumarin derivatives (1-5), alternariol derivatives (6-7), stemphytriol and altertoxin II (10-11), altenuene and 4'-epialtenuene (12-13), isochroman derivatives (22-25).

4.2.2. HPLC/ESI-MS

High Performance Liquid Chromatography–Electrospray Mass Spectrometry (HPLC/ESI-MS) is the most popular MS technique. It combines the separation ability of HPLC along with the sensitivity and specificity of detection from MS. One of the advantages of HPLC-MS is that it allows samples to be rapidly desalted online, accordingly, this rising (HPLC/ESI-MS) to be a highly versatile tool for studies of natural products (Smedsgaard and Frisvad, 1996).

On the other hand, modern Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (LC/MS) is now the most useful technique with the development of electrospray ionisation (ESI). So, it can be applied to a wide range of biological molecules. Fast scanning speeds allow measuring a large number of secondary metabolites in a single analytical run in the form of positive and negative ionization peaks (James, 2009). In addition, this method is also helpful in establishing the relation between closely related natural products. In the study, this is proved to be extremely valuable in detecting the characteristic 3:1 ratio in the peak heights of the positive and negative ion peaks of N-methylpretichodermamide B (**31**) which indicates the presence of a chlorine atom.

4.3. Isolation of natural products

By using different chromatographic techniques, pure compounds have been isolated from different fungal strains originated from different sources. The endophytic fungus *Alternaria* sp. has been isolated from the seeds of *Ziziphus jujube* which yielded a number of compounds possessing bioactivity. Furthermore, the extract of *Penicillium* sp. which was isolated from the sediment of Wadi El-Natrun lake yielded plenty of secondary metabolites.

4.4. Compounds isolated from purified fungal strains

4.4.1. Compounds isolated from the endophytic fungus Alternaria sp.

Alternaria sp. has been isolated from the healthy seeds of *Ziziphus jujube* growing in Uzbekistan. The seeds of *Ziziphus jujube* are known to cure eye diseases and are also useful in leucorrhoea (Mahajan and Chopda, 2009). In addition, they have been used in traditional medicine as a sedative. They are known to depress activity of the central nervous system which reduces anxiety and induces sleep (Wen-Huang *et al.*, 2000).

Extracts of the small scale liquid cultures afforded citreoisocoumarinol (1), 6-methylcitreoisocoumarin (2), citreoisocoumarin (3), orthosporin (4) and diaportinol (5). While, the extract of the large scale solid rice cultures gave: alternariol (6), alternariol-5-*O*-methyl ether (7), altenusin (8), tenuazonic acid (9), stemphytriol (10), altertoxin II (11), altenuene (12), 4'epialtenuene (13), isoochracinic acid (14), 7-methoxyphthalide-3-aacetic acid (15), talaroflavone (16), alteric acid (17), alterlactone (18), 2,5-dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone (19), altechromone B (20), ferulic acid (21). In this part, the discussion of the biosynthesis and the bioactivity of the metabolites produced by small and large scales of the *Alternaria sp.* are presented.

4.4.1.1. Isocoumarin derivatives

4.4.1.1.1. Biosynthesis of isocoumarin and phthalide derivatives

The biosynthesis of isocoumarins has been the subject of interesting work on many fungi. These isocoumarines are made from heptaketide intermediate with or without reduction in their side chains. The production of these compounds by biosynthetic feeding studies has been investigated citreoisocoumarin using sodium $[^{13}C_2]$ acetate as a labeled isotope. This revealed some insight into the cyclization and aromatization of the first ring of the heptaketide chain, the

second ring cyclization by claisen type condensation is prohibited and exclusively gives lactone ring formation (Figure 4.2) (Barton and Meth, 1999).

Additionly, from a biogenetic point of view, β -polyketo carboxylic acids are expected to be converted into the corresponding phenolic compounds including different types of isocoumarins (1-5) and phthalides (14 and 15) according to the mode of enzymatic cyclization as shown in (Figure 4.1) (Lai *et al.*, 1991).



Figure 4.1: Biosynthetic pathways of isocoumarins and phthalides.

4.4.1.1.2. Bioactivity and phytotoxicity of isocoumarin derivatives

Isocoumarin derivatives were subjected to antibacterial testing. Citreoisocoumarin (3) proved to be active against the gram-positive bacteria, multi-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) with MIC values of 0.49μ g/mL. In contrast, the cytotoxicity testing for isocoumarin compounds against L5178Y (mouse lymphoma) cell line (see Table 3.13) showed weak cytotoxic activity.

Orthosporin (4) which had been isolated from the fungus *Drechslera siccans* was reported to cause irregular brown spots in leaves of oats and both perennial and Italian ryegrass. Orthosporin (4) also caused necrosis when applied in solution to leaves of maize, crabgrass, soya bean, barnyard grass and spiny amaranth but not to leaves of perennial ryegrass (Hallock *et al.*,

1988). Furthermore, a study showed that orthosporin (4) has toxic activity against coffee tree leaves (Ichihara *et al.*, 1989).

4.4.1.2. Alternariol derivatives

4.4.1.2.1. Biosynthesis of alternariol and biphenic acid derivatives

Alternariol is thought to be formed by the polyketide route of biosynthesis which is a common pathway for the formation of many fungal secondary metabolites (Crawford and Townsend, 2010). Fungal polyketide synthases (PKSs) are crucial for the first steps of the biosynthesis of alternariol and its derivatives (Gulder *et al.*, 2012; Crawford and Townsend, 2010).

Biosynthetic routes for alternariol were first extensively studied by Thomas (Thomas, 1961) who suggested that this metabolite might be synthesized by head-to-tail condensations of acetate units. Later, Gatenbeck and Hermodsson (Gatenbeck and Harmodsson, 1965) determined that malonate formed by carboxylation of acetate was the polycondensing molecule.

Based on the previous studies, alternariol can be established to be derived from a single C_{14} polyketide chain first folded then cyclized. The precise sequence of reactions involved is still unknown. The essential features in alternariol biosynthesis are the condensations of two aldol followed by enolization in both rings. This would give a biphenyl system and lactonization would then lead to alternariol (6). The oxygenation pattern in alternariol shows alternate oxygens on both aromatic rings and an acetate origin is readily surmised even though some oxygens have been used in ring formation processes. The lone methyl 'start-of-chain' is also usually very obvious in acetate-derived compounds though the carboxyl 'end-of-chain' can often react with convenient hydroxyl functions, which may have arisen through enolization followed by lactone formation (Dewick, 2006).

On the other hand, alternariol biosynthetic reaction may proceed through an intermediate ¹⁴C-labeled norlichexanthone (NLX) as shown in (Figure 4.2) through bond cleavage and rearrangement of (NLX). The point of attachment between the enzyme and the polyketide is shown as the active end of the polyketide chain although the attachment could have migrated or could involve several points of contact. The polyketide chain is assembled on the surface of the enzyme in a configuration that facilitated the formation of NLX. After rupture of the aromatic

phloroglucinol ring, limited rotation of the aryl fragment and ring closure would produce the coupling pattern observed in alternariol (6). After enolization, the resulting solution also possessed O-methyltransferase activity capable of forming alternariol-5-*O*-methyl ether (7) and altenusin (8) from alternariol (6) by a transmethylation reaction involving S-adenosyl methionine (SAM) enzyme (see Figure 4.3) (Stinson *et al.*, 1986).

Alterlactone (18) is most probably biosynthesized through the same pathway from altenusin (8) by oxidation of the aromatic methyl group, rotation and closure of the lactone ring at a different site (Hassan, 2007). Altenuene (12) and 4'-epialtenuene (13) have been also biosynthesized from altenusin (8) by oxidative cyclization.

The biphenyl intermediate which could also derived from altenusin (8) is the precursor to the structurally and biosynthetically biphenic acids metabolites, talaroflavone (16) and alteric acid (17). The scheme (figure 4.3) illustrating the biosynthetic pathway for alternariol and biphenic acids derivatives depended on previous studies which used labelling methods to examine the incorporation of $[1-^{13}C]$ labelled acetate into the biosynthetically targeted metabolites including, α -dibenzopyrones and biphenic acids compounds (Ayer and Racock, 1990; Hassan, 2007).



Figure 4.2: Postulated biosynthetic pathways of alternariol and biphenic acid derivatives.

4.4.1.2.2. Bioactivity and toxicity of dibenzo-α-pyrones and tenuazonic acid

Dibenzo- α -pyrones including, alternariol (6), alternariol-5-*O*- methyl ether (7) in addition to altenusin (8) have been reported in our group studies to be a highly cytotoxic compounds against mouse lymphoma (L5178Y) cells (Hassan, 2007). Less inhibition was shown for alterlactone (18), while altenuene (12), 4'-epialtenuene (13) and the biphenic acids (16) and (17) are not active.

The antibacterial activity for alternariol (6) and altenusin (8) which was reported in this study against different types of bacteria in addition to the previous studies confirmed the broad spectrum activity of these compounds (Hassan, 2007). Furthermore, altenusin (8) isolated from the endophytic fungus *Alternaria* sp. (UFMGCB55) was screened to show inhibitory activity on trypanothione reductase (TR) which is an enzyme involved in the protection of parasitic *Trypanosoma* and *Leishmania* species against oxidative stress and this enzyme has been considered to be a validated drug target (Cota *et al.*, 2008).

Dibenzo- α -pyranones which have been isolated from *Alternaria* fungi are known to be most commonly encountered in naturally contaminated commodities (Scott, 2011). Alternariol (6) and alternariol methyl ether (7) are major toxins produced by species of the former fungal genus. Alternariol (6) causes weak acute toxic effects and the LD50 is higher than 400 mg/kg of body weight for mice. It is lethal to mice embroys at levels of 100 mg/kg b.w. (Pero et al., 1973). There are several reports that alternariol (6) and alternariol methyl ether (7) exhibit genotoxic potential, e.g. induction of DNA strand breaks and gene mutations in cultured human and animal cells (Brugger et al., 2006; Pfeiffer et al., 2007). Further investigation showed that alternariol (6) has been identified as a topoisomerase I and II poison which might contribute to the impairment of DNA integrity in human colon carcinoma cells (Ostry, 2008). It induced cell death by activation of the mitochondrial pathway of apoptosis in human colon carcinoma cells (Bensassi et al., 2012). Alternariol (6) induced cytochrome P450 1A1 and apoptosis in murine heptatoma cells dependent on the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (Schreck et al., 2012). Recently, a study has been done in order to identify the polyketide synthase (PKSs) which is responsible for the production of alternariol and alternariol methyl ether in order to reduce the mycotoxin effect accompanied by the production of these metabolites (Saha et al., 2012).

Another major mycotoxin metabolite produced by *Alternaria* sp. is tenuazonic acid (9). The biosynthesis of tenuazonic acid (9) proceeds from one molecule l-isoleucine and two

molecules of acetate (Stickings and Tounsend, 1961) via N-Acetoacetyl-*l*-isoleucine as intermediate (Gatenbeck and Sierankiewicz, 1973). Tenuazonic acid (**9**) exhibits manifold biological activities and has been reported to have antiviral (Miller *et al.*, 1963), antitumor, antibacterial (antitubercular) (Sonaimuthu *et al.*, 2010) and cytotoxic activities (Gitterman, 1965). Although, the inhibition of mouse lymphoma (L5178Y) cell lines in this study has been absent. Tenuazonic acid (**9**) has phytotoxic properties (Lebrun *et al.*, 1988) and was found to be acutely toxic in mammals (Smith *et al.*, 1968) and to several animal species (Griffin and Chu, 1983). Additionally, tenuazonic acid (**9**) was found to be responsible for the outbreak of "onyalai", a human hematologic disorder disease occurring in Africa (Steyn and Rabie, 1976), but further toxicological evidence is lacking. Accordingly, tenuazonic acid (**9**) is regarded as the most toxic *Alternaria* mycotoxin (Bottalico and Logrieco, 1998).

4.4.1.3. Chromone derivatives

4.4.1.3.1. Biosynthesis of 2, 5-dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone

The biosynthesis of most chromones originates from a pentaketide precursor (Dewick, 2006). In the case of the isolated compound 2, 5-dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone (**19**) the biosynthesis does not seem to arise from a pentaketide precursor but possibly originates from a hexaketide precursor as illustrated in (Figure 4.3) (Ayer and Racock, 1990).



Figure 4.3: Postulated biosynthetic pathway of 2, 5-dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone (19).

4.4.1.3.2. Biosynthesis of altechromone B

The aromatic heptaketide is the biosynthetic precursor of altechromone B (20). The heptaketide precursor is followed by subsequent regiospecific C-8/C-13 aldol type cyclization of the heptaketide intermediate and the removal of a carboxyl group from the carboxyl terminal leads to formation of aloesone (2-acetonyl-7-hydroxy-5-methylchromone) (Abe *et al.*, 2006). Alterchromone B (20) is finally formed after methylation and oxidation processes (Figure 4.4).



Figure 4.4: Postulated biosynthetic pathway of altechromone B (20).

4.4.1.4. Reduced perylenequinones

4.4.1.4.1. Biosynthesis of stemphytriol and altertoxin II

Alternaria species produce a variety of partially reduced perylenequinone derivatives which have also been isolated from the genus *Stemphylium*. Their biosynthesis so far occurs most probably via a phenol coupling of two pentaketide –derived moieties followed by reduction and hydroxylation in different positions to yield stemphytriol (**10**) and epoxidation to yield altertoxin II (**11**) (see Figure 4.5). In order to confirm this hypothesis, incorporation experiments of ¹³C labelled sodium acetate in to these compounds were carried out (Alberto *et al.*, 1986; Okuno *et al.*1983).



Figure 4.5: Possible biosynthetic pathway of reduced perylenequinones.

4.4.1.4.2. Bioactivity and mutagenicity of reduced perylenequinones

Altertoxin II (11) when subjected to MTT assay against mouse lymphoma (L5178Y) cells, showed a high cytotoxic activity. In contrast, stemphytriol (10) showed week cytotoxic activity against the same cell lines. Furthermore, this study showed that both compounds process significant antibacterial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*.

In addition to dibenzo- α -pyrones, perylene quinones are also toxins generated by *Alternaria* fungi. Earlier studies have demonstrated that several congeners of this group are highly mutagenic for *Salmonella typhimurium* even in the absence of a metabolic activation system (Stack and Prival, 1986). Altertoxin II (11) has been reported as a very potent mutagen and DNA strand-breaking agent in Chinese hamster V79 cells, a potency exceeding that of alternariol (6). V79 are a mammalian cell line devoid of most xenobiotic-metabolizing enzyme activities including cytochrome P450 (Fleck *et al.*, 2012). It is hypothesized that the toxicity of altertoxin II (11) is due to the presence of the epoxy group (Alberto *et al.*, 1986).
4.4.2. Compounds isolated from the fungus *Penicillium* sp.

Penicillium is a large anamorphic ascomycetous fungal genus with widespread occurrence. The genus *Penicillium* produces a much diversified array of active secondary metabolites, including antibacterial (Lucas *et al.*, 2007), antifungal substances (Nicoetti, 2007), immunosuppressants, cholesterol-lowering agents (Kwon *et al.*, 2002), and also potent mycotoxins (Frisvad and Samson, 2004). Thousands of *Penicillium* isolates have probably been screened in bioprospecting programs since the discovery of penicillin and new bioactive metabolites continue to be discovered from these fungi nowadays indicating their current importance as sources of high amounts of novel bioactive molecules to be used by pharmaceutical industry (Petit *et al.*, 2009).

Chemical investigation of the ethyl acetate extract of the fungus grown on solid rice cultures lead to the isolation of the following pure compounds;

6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5dimethylisochromanol(22),6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-

dimethylisochroman(23), arohynapene D (24), 1,6-dihydroxy-3,5-dimethyl-8-methoxyisochroman(25), 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethyl-3,4-dihydro-isocoumarin (26), 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methyl-3,4-dihydroisocoumarin (27), 6-methylcurvulinic acid (28), 2-methyl-Penicinoline (29), pretichodermamide C (30), N-methylpretichodermamide B (31), methyltriacetic lactone (32).

4.4.2.1. Isochroman derivatives

4.4.2.1.1. Biosynthesis of isochroman derivatives

Isochromans and isocoumarins (22-27) are derived from five acetate units (Figure 4.6). These units undergo aldol, aromatization and methylation reactions yielding mellein derivatives (26 and 27). Further reduction and oxidation reactions yield the isochromans (22-24). In compound (22) the C-4 hydroxy group is derived from molecular oxygen and is introduced in the benzylic oxidation of isochroman (23). This evidence has been obtained from ¹⁷O NMR spectroscopy which precludes epoxide intermediates in the biosynthesis of (22) and hydroxymellein derivatives (Abell *et al.*, 1987).

Kommentar [RY1]:



Figure 4.6: Postulated biosynthetic pathway of isochroman and isocoumarin derivatives (22-27).

4.4.2.1.2. Biological Activity of isochroman and isocumarin derivatives

Isochroman and isocumarin derivatives **22-27** when tested against L5178Y (mouse lymphoma) cell line showed moderate to weak cytotoxic activities (see Table 3.23). The most active derivative was 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3, 5-dimethyl-3,4-dihydro-isocoumarin (**26**). By reduction of the isocoumarin carbonyl the activity will decrease as in 1,6-dihydroxy-3,5-dimethyl-8-methoxyisochroman (**25**). Changing the position of the OH group from C-1 in the former compound to C-4 decreased the activity as in 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethylisochromanol (**22**). On the other hand, when the OH group was removed from both positions C-1 and C-4, the activity decreased also as shown in compound arohynapene D (**24**). The oxidation of arohynapene D (**24**) at C-1 to yield the isocoumarin carbonyl in compound 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,4-dihydroisocoumarin (**27**) decreased the activity of this compound. Moreover, the methylation reaction at C-5 of the arohynapene D (**24**) resulted in decrease of the activity as shown in 6-hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5-dimethylisochroman (**23**). SAR of these related compounds **22-27** have been illustrated in the scheme of (Figure 4.7).



Figure 4.7: Structure-activity relationship of isochroman and isocumarin derivatives.

4.4.2.2. Biosynthesis of 6-methylcurvulinic acid

The 'acetate' is considered as the fundamental unit forming a head-to-tail linkage in the biosynthesis of curvulinic acid (Brich *et al.*, 1959). Moreover, 6-methylcurvulinic acid (**28**) is derived from a pentaketide moiety yielding the curvulinic acid (Peberdy, 1987) and this is followed by methylation at C-6 as shown in (Figure 4.8).





Figure 4.8: Postulated biosynthetic pathway of 6- methylcurvulinic acid (28).

4.4.2.3. Pyrrolyl 4-quinolinone alkaloid derivative

4.4.2.3.1. Biosynthesis of 2-methyl penicinoline

Quinolinone alkaloids, a group of secondary metabolites, are found more commonly in terrestrial materials than in marine organisms (Chang-Lun Shao *et al.*, 2010). 2-Methyl penicinoline (**29**) is an unusual pyrrolyl 4-quinolinone alkaloid that has been isolated recently from the fungus *Auxarthron reticulatum* derived from the marine sponge *Ircinia variabilis* (Elsebai *et al.*, 2011) and in this study it was isolated for the first time from *Penicillium* sp. Taking into account the structure of 2-methyl penicinoline (**29**), two amino acids ornithine and tryptophan might be the biosynthetic precursors. A plausible biogenetic pathway for 2-methyl penicinoline (**29**) is proposed in (Figure 4.9) (Chang-Lun Shao *et al.*, 2010).



Figure 4.9: Possible biogenetic pathway to 2-methyl penicinoline (29).

4.4.2.4. Epipolythiodiketopiperazine alkaloids

4.4.2.4.1. Biosynthesis of pretichodermaide C and N-methylpretichodermamide B

Pretichodermaide C (**30**) and N-methylpretichodermamide B (**31**) are related to epipolythiodiketopiperazine alkaloids which were isolated for the first time in nature. They are the only sulfur containing compounds which were isolated from this study. The source of the sulfur refers to the presence of aerobic sulfide and autotrophic ammonia oxidizers in the lake of Wadi-El Natrun (Imhoff *et al.*, 1979). The structure of these two compounds is closely related to the known antibiotic gliovirin except for the presence of the epoxide moiety between C-4 and C-

5 instead of the free OH group in pretichodermaide C (**30**) and free Cl group in Nmethylpretichodermamide B (**31**). Accordingly, the biosynthetic pathway of these former compounds is similar to gliovirin except for some additional reactions. Both halves of the diketopiperazine ring in (**30**) and (**31**) originate from L-phenylalanine. To confirm that hypothesis L- $[1-^{13}C]$ phenylalanine (20% $1-^{13}C$) was used in the culture media confirming that that L-phenylalanine is the biosynthetic precursor of gliovirin (Stipanovic *et al.*, 1994), pretichodermaide C (**30**) and N-methylpretichodermamide B (**31**) (Figure 4.10).



Figure 4.10: Postulated biosynthetic pathway of pretichodermaide C (**30**) and N-methylpretichodermamide B (**31**).

4.4.2.4.2. Bioactivity of N-methylpretichodermamide B

Epidithiodiketopiperazines (ETPs) are a group of diverse natural products that display potent biological effects characterized by a bridged disulfide linkage across the dioxopiperazine ring. These metabolites have been found to possess a broad spectrum of biological activities, including antibacterial (Berg *et al.*, 1976), antiviral (Deffieux *et al.*, 1978) and antifungal activities (Kato *et al.*, 1969; Chikara *et al.*, 1982).

N-Methylpretichodermamide B (**31**) displayed significant cytotoxicity in vitro against L5178Y mouse lymphoma cell line using the MTT assay with an IC₅₀ of 2 μ M, comparable with the positive control kahalaide F (IC₅₀ 4.3 μ M). Pretichodermamide C (**30**) was completely inactive in this bioassay, indicating that the introduction of a chlorine atom into one or more

specific positions of a biologically active molecule may substantially improve the intrinsic biological activity (Klaus, 2000). In fact, the chlorine substituent is crucial for significant biological activity in a number of natural products such as the antibiotics clindamycin (Birkenmeyer and Kagan, 1970), vancomycin (Harris *et al.*, 1985), chloramphenicol and griseofulvin (Crosse *et al.*, 1964), and in the antitumor compounds cryptophycin (Golakoti *et al.*, 1995), rebeccamycin (Bush *et al.*, 1987) and clavulon (Yamada and Nagoka, 1985).

4.5. Halotolerant fungi as a source of bioactive metabolites

Halotolerant fungal species have evolved unique metabolic mechanisms that are responsible to salt concentrations. The most significant challenge for these kinds of fungi is to prevent the loss of water from the cell into the saline environment and the accumulation of excess salt concentrations within the cell (Bugni and Ireland, 2004). For fungi to grow in the hypersaline environment, they must have osmoregulatory mechanisms that signal the production of polyols and amino compounds in conjunction with increasing the concentration of cytoplasmic ions through a so-called "salt-in strategy" which concentrates solutes within the cell in order to balance osmotic pressure. Their proteins are particularly rich in acidic amino acids which are enhancing resistance against structural collapse. Since the biosynthesis of these solutes for osmoregulation is energetically costly, fungi may exhibit decreased secondary metabolite production or slower rates of metabolite production in the presence of high salt concentrations (Bugni and Ireland, 2004).

In fact, some halotolerant fungi have possible important biotechnological applications arising from this adaption mechanisms. These mechanisms are at the level of their secondary metabolites, cell membrane, intracellular and extracellular enzymes, genetic transfer systems and intracellular osmolytes and especially of their compatible solutes which have a wide range of applications because of their ability to stabilize proteins and nucleic acids (Raghukumar, 2012). The extremely halotolerant black yeasts *T. salinum* and *H. werneckii* have been shown to produce extracellular hydrolytic enzymes that are active at high salt concentrations and that could therefore have important roles in different industries (Zalar *et al.*, 2005). *H. werneckii* also produces antibiotics that remain to be commercially exploited (Brauers *et al.*, 2001).

Interestingly, in this study the halotolerant *Penicillium* sp. fungal species can thrive in high sodium chloride concentration since the salt concentration of Wadi El-Natrun lakes is

mostly higher than that of sea water (3.3% total dissolved salts and about 30% w/v sodium chloride). In the present study, two new epipolythiodiketopiperazines were isolated one of which showed very potent cytotoxic activity. Indeed halotolerant fungi synthesize specific bioactive metabolites under stress conditions and particularly at increased salt concentrations where higher hemolytic activities are present. Overall these findings suggest that halotolerant fungal metabolites from hypersaline environments could have implications for drug discovery in the future.

5. Conclusions:

Fungi are among the most important groups of eukaryotic organisms that have played a pivotal role as sources for drug leads during the last century. Different environmental factors including different physical conditions and different biological situations in nature may change the behavior of the fungi and favor the production of diverse range of secondary metabolites. Accordingly, this study involved alternative biochemical studies of some unexplored ecological niches.

The first part of the thesis described the chemical investigation of the fungus *Alternaria sp.* an endophytic fungus isolated from the seeds of the traditional medicinal plant *Ziziphus jujube*. The fungus was cultivated in liquid Wickerham and on solid rice media, respectively.

1. Alternaria sp.

Twenty one metabolites have been obtained from *Alternaria* sp., isolated from the seeds of Ziziphus *jujube*. Five of them are isocoumarin derivatives that were obtained for the first time from this genus. Citreoisocoumarin proved to be active against Gram positive and MRSA bacteria. The remaining seventeen compounds isolated from the large scale rice cultures media included alternariol derivatives. 7-Methoxyphthalide-3-acetic acid has been isolated for the first time from nature. The alternariol derivatives and some of the structurally related compounds showed high cytotoxic activity when tested against L5178Y mouse lymphoma cell line as well as pronounced antibacterial activities.

The second part of the thesis was devoted to halophilic fungi as sources of bioactive metabolites. As an example *Penicillium* sp. isolated from the sediments of hypersaline lake of Wadi El-Natrun, Egypt was chosen.

2. Penicillium sp.

Eleven compounds were isolated from *Penicillium* sp. including five new compounds; two new isochromans, a new isocoumarine, and two new epidithiodiketopiperazine analogues named, pretichodermamide C and N-methylpretichodermamide B. The last compound proved to be highly active against the L5178Y cancer cell line that could be related in different assays.

The results presented here support the notion of an ecology based-approach to selection of fungal species for chemical studies, as this demonstrates that such an approach can be effective in the discovery of new bioactive fungal metabolites.

Table 5.1: Summary of the isolated compounds

Compound name	Structure	Source	Comment
Citreoisocoumarinol	HO 6 4 4 9 10 11 12 13 7 8 8 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Alternaria sp.	Known
6-methyl- citreoisocoumarin	$H_{3}CO = 5 = 4a = 9 = 11 = 12 = 13$ 7 = 8a = 1 = 0 $OH = 0$ $OH = 0$	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Citreoisocoumarin	HO 6 5 4a 9 11 12 13 7 $8a$ 1 O OH OH OH OH OH OH OH	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Orthosporin	HO 6 4 4 9 10 11 7 8 8 0 OH 0 OH	Alternaria sp.	Known
Diaportinol	$H_3CO = 6 = 5 = 4a = 9 = 10 = 11 = 12 = 0H$ 7 = 8a = 10 = 0H OH = 0	Alternaria sp.	Known
Alternariol	HO 4 ³ 5 ⁶ 6 5 0 7 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known

Compound name	Structure	Source	Comment
Alternariol-5- <i>O</i> - methyl ether	HO 4' 5' 6 5' 6 6 5' 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Altenusin	HO HO 7 HO 4' 2' 2 HO 5' 6 HO 6 5 OH	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Tenuazonic acid	HO HO 4 3 6 710 9 8 1 2 $0H H H H$	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Stemphytriol	OH 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Alternaria sp.	Known
Altertoxin II	OH 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Alternaria sp.	Known

Compound name	Structure	Source	Comment
Altenuene	HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO HO H	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
4`-epialtenuene	H H HO ^{NUMUT} HO ^{NUMUT} HO ^{NUMUT} 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Isoochracinic acid	5 6 7 0 1 2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
7-methoxyphthalide- 3-acetic acid	5 6 7 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Alternaria sp.	New
Talaroflavone	OH 70 1 2' 3' 4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Alternaria sp.	Known

Compound name	Structure	Source	Comment
Alteric acid	HOWINT' 5' O OCH3	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Alterlactone	H_3CO H_1 H_2 H_3CO H_1 H_2	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
2,5-dimethyl-7- hydroxychromone	HO 7 8 $8a$ 0 2 3 3 5 $4a$ 4 3 0 0	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Altechromone B	$\begin{array}{c} & 1 \\ & 1 \\ & 1 \\ & 2 \\ & 2 \\ & 3 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ \end{array}$	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
Ferulic acid		<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	Known
	6 0 0 0 H		

Compound name	Structure	Source	Comment
6-hydroxy-8- methoxy-3,5- dimethyl isochromanol	HO 6 5 10 0H 3^{12} 3^{12} 3^{11}	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	New
6-hydroxy-8- methoxy-3,5- dimethyl isochroman	HO 6 5 10 4 3 11 11 3 3 11 3 11 3 11 11	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	Known
(+)-Arohynapene D	HO 6 5 10 4 3^{11}	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	New
1,6-dihydroxy-3,5- Dimethyl-8- methoxy-isochroman	HO 6 5 10 4 3 11 11 3 11 11 11 11	Penicillium sp.	Known
6-hydroxy-8- methoxy-3,5- dimethyl 3,4- dihydroisocoumarin	HO 6 5 10 4 11 11 7 8 9 1 1 3 11 3 11 11 11 11 1	Penicillium sp.	Known

Compound name	Structure	Source	Comment
6-hydroxy-8- methoxy-3-methyl 3,4-dihydro- isocoumarin	HO 6 5 10 4 3^{3} 3^{3} 1^{11}	Penicillium sp.	New
6-methylcurvulinic acid	$HO = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 7 \\ 8 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 $	Penicillium sp.	Known
2-methyl penicinoline	$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ 10 \\ & & & & \\ 11 \\ & & & \\ 12 \\ & & & \\ 12 \\ & & & \\ 0 \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & \\ \end{array} \end{array}{c} \end{array}{c} \end{array}{c} \end{array}{c} \end{array}{c} \end{array}{c} \end{array}{c} \end{array}{$	Penicillium sp.	Known
Pretichodermamide C	OH OH OH OH OH OH OH O OH OH O	Penicillium sp.	New
N-methylpreticho- dermamide B	$\begin{array}{c} CI \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ $	Penicillium sp.	New
Methyltriacetic lactone		Penicillium sp.	Known

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List of Abbreviations

7. List of Abbreviations:

[α] _D	Specific rotation at the sodium D-line
Br	broad signal
CDCl ₃	deuterated chloroform
CHCl ₃	chloroform
CI	chemical ionization
COSY	correlation spectroscopy
d	doublet
DCM	dichloromethane
dd	doublet of doublet
DEPT	distortionless enhancement by polarization transfer
DMSO	dimethyl sulfoxide
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
ED	effective dose
EI	electron impact ionization
ESI	electrospray ionization
et al.	et altera (and others)
EtOAc	ethyl acetate
eV	electronvot
g	gram
HMBC	heteronuclear multiple bond connectivity
HMQC	heteronuclear multiple quantum coherence
H ₂ O	water
HPLC	high performance liquid chromatography
hr	hour
HR-MS	high resolution mass spectrometry
Hz	Herz
L	liter
LC	liquid chromatography
LC/MS	liquid chromatography-mass spectrometery
m	multiplet

List of Abbreviations

М	molar
MeOD	deuterated methanol
МеОН	methanol
mg	miligram
MHz	mega Herz
min	minute
mL	milliliter
mm	millimeter
MS	mass spectrometry
MTT	microculture tetrazolium assay
m/z	mass per charge
μg	microgram
μL	microliter
μΜ	micromole
MRSA	methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus
NaCl	sodium chloride
ng	nanogram
NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance
NOE	nuclear Overhauser effect
NOESY	nuclear Overhauser and exchange spectroscopy
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
ppm	parts per million
q	quartet
ROESY	rotating frame Overhauser enhancement spectroscopy
S	singlet
t	triplet
TFA	trifluoroacetic acid
THF	tetrahydrofuran
TLC	thin layer chromatography
UV	ultra-violet
VLC	vacuum liquid chromatography

8. Attachments:

Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Citreoisocoumarinol (1).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 6-methyl-Citreoisocoumarin (2).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Citreoisocoumarin (3).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Orthosporin (4).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Diaportinol (5).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Alternariol (6).







Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Altenusin (8).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Tenuazonic acid (9).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Stemphytriol (10).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Altertoxin II (11).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Altenuene (12).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 4` -Epialtenuene (13).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Isoochracinic acid (14).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 7-Methoxyphthalide-3-acetic Acid (15).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Talaroflavone (16).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Alternaric acid (17).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Alterlactone (18).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 2, 5-Dimethyl-7-hydroxychromone (19).







Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3,5dimethylisochromanol (22).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3, 5-dimethylisochroman (23).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Arohynapene D (24).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 1, 6-Dihydroxy-3, 5-dimethyl -8-methoxyisochroman (25).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3, 5-dimethyl-3, 4-dihydroisocoumarin (**26**).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 6-Hydroxy-8-methoxy-3-methyl-3,4dihydroisocoumarin (**27**).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 6-Methylcurvulinic acid (28)



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of 2-Methyl-Penicinoline (29).



Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Pretichodermamide C (30).





Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of N-Methylpretrichodermamide B (31).

Attachment: The ¹H NMR spectrum of Methyltriacetic lactone (32).



Resume

9. Resume:

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Course of Education

- Postgraduate studies at the Institut für Pharmazeutische Biologie und Biotechnologie, Heinrich Heine-Universität Düsseldorf, Germany, since 2010.
- Receiving the M. Sc. degree in Pharmaceutical Sciences (Pharmacognosy) from the Faculty of Pharmacy, King Saud University, Riyadh, in 2009. The research project was entitled "Phytochemical and biological study of *Tamarix nilotica* growing in Saudi Arabia".
- Postgraduate studies at the Department of Pharmacognosy, Faculty of Pharmacy, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, 2007-2009.
- -General and special preparatory courses of the M. Sc. in Pharmaceutical Sciences (Pharmacognosy) at Faculty of Pharmacy, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, in 2007.
- Graduation with B. Sc. in Pharmacy, grade distinction, from the Faculty of Pharmacy, King Saud University Riyadh, Saudi Arabia in 2005.
- Ideal Student award, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, for the year 2004.
- Graduate study in Pharmaceutical Sciences at Faculty of Pharmacy, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, since 2000.
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Scientific Experience

- Ph.D. student at the Institut für Pharmazeutische Biologie und Biotechnologie, Heinrich-Heine-Universität Düsseldorf, Germany, since 2010.
- -A visitor student researcher at the Institut für Pharmazeutische Biologie und Biotechnologie, Heinrich-Heine-Universität Düsseldorf, Germany, 2008.
- Assistant lecturer at Department of Pharmacognosy, Faculty of Pharmacy, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, from 2006–2009.

| Resume

- -Supervising and teaching the graduate practical courses of pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry for 4th semester students at Department of Pharmacognosy, Faculty of Pharmacy, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, 2006.
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Publications

1) Orfali, R. S., Ebada, S. S., El-Shafae, A. M., Al-Taweel, A. M., Lin, W. H., Wray, V., and Proksch, P. (2009). 3-*O*-trans-Caffeoylisomyricadiol: A new triterpenoid from *Tamarix nilotica* growing in Saudi Arabia. *Z. Naturforsch.*, 64c, 637–643.

2) Orfali, R. S., Hassan, A. A., Ebramim, W., Müller, W. E. G., Lin, W., Daletos, G., and Proksch P (**2014**). Pretrichodermamide C and N-Methylpretrichodermamide, two new cytotoxic epidithiodiketopiperazine from hyper saline lake derived *Penicillium* sp. *Phytochemistry Lett.* (Accepted).

Conferences

- The 2nd Riyadh International Dental & Pharmacy Meeting, 2007.
- The 7th international Saudi pharmaceutical conference, 2007.
- The 9th international pharmaceutical sciences conference and exhibition, college of pharmacy, 2005.
- The 6th international Saudi pharmaceutical conference, 2003.
- 3rd symposium of psychiatric pharmacy, 2004.