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Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part C 132 (2002) 315–339

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Review

Marine pharmacology in 1999: compounds with antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, anthelmintic, anti-inflammatory, antiplatelet, antiprotozoal and antiviral activities affecting the cardiovascular, endocrine, immune and nervous systems, and other miscellaneous mechanisms of action

Alejandro M.S. Mayer^{a,*}, Mark T. Hamann^b

^a*Department of Pharmacology, Chicago College of Osteopathic Medicine, Midwestern University, 555 31st Street, Downers Grove, IL 60515, USA*

^b*School of Pharmacy, The University of Mississippi, Faser Hall University, MS 38677, USA*

Received 28 November 2001; received in revised form 30 May 2002; accepted 31 May 2002

Abstract

This review, a sequel to the 1998 review, classifies 63 peer-reviewed articles on the basis of the reported preclinical pharmacological properties of marine chemicals derived from a diverse group of marine animals, algae, fungi and bacteria. In all, 21 marine chemicals demonstrated anthelmintic, antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, antimalarial, antiplatelet, antituberculosis or antiviral activities. An additional 23 compounds had significant effects on the cardiovascular, sympathomimetic or the nervous system, as well as possessed anti-inflammatory, immunosuppressant or fibrinolytic effects. Finally, 22 marine compounds were reported to act on a variety of molecular targets, and thus could potentially contribute to several pharmacological classes. Thus, during 1999 pharmacological research with marine chemicals continued to contribute potentially novel chemical leads in the ongoing global search for therapeutic agents for the treatment of multiple disease categories.

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Keywords: Marine; Pharmacology; 1999; Toxicology; Review; Secondary metabolites

1. Introduction

The purpose of this article is to review the 1999 primary literature on pharmacological and toxicological studies with marine natural products using a similar format to that used in our 1998 review (Mayer and Lehmann, 2000). The 1999 review corresponding to marine-derived compounds with antitumor and cytotoxic activity has recently been published (Mayer and Lehmann, 2001). Consistent

with our 1998 review, only those articles reporting on the bioactivity and/or pharmacology of marine chemicals for which structures have been established are included in the present review. We have used the chemical classification of Schmitz et al. (1999) to assign each marine compound to a major chemical class, namely polyketides, terpenes, nitrogen-containing compounds or polysaccharides. Those publications reporting on anthelmintic, antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, antimalarial, antiplatelet, antituberculosis or antiviral properties of marine chemicals are tabulated in Table 1 and the corresponding structures are shown in

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +1-630-515-6951; fax: +1-630-971-6414.

E-mail address: amayer@midwestern.edu (A.M. Mayer).

Fig. 1. The articles reporting on marine compounds affecting the cardiovascular, sympathomimetic and nervous systems, as well as those with anti-inflammatory, immunosuppressant and fibrinolytic effects, are grouped in Table 2 and the structures presented in Fig. 2. Finally, marine compounds targeting a number of distinct cellular and molecular targets and mechanisms are shown in Table 3 and their structures are presented in Fig. 3. Although publications on the biological and/or pharmacological activity of marine extracts or as yet structurally uncharacterized marine compounds have not been included in the present review, several interesting reports appeared during 1999 (Berge et al., 1999; Cancre et al., 1999; Choi et al., 1999; Christophersen et al., 1999; Conquer et al., 1999; Fabregas et al., 1999; Horikawa et al., 1999; Matsuda et al., 1999; Siddhanta et al., 1999).

2. Marine compounds with anthelmintic, antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, antimalarial, antiplatelet, antituberculosis and antiviral activities

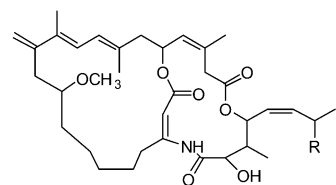
Table 1 summarizes 21 publications that reported on preclinical anthelmintic, antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, antimalarial, antiplatelet, antituberculosis, and antiviral pharmacology of the 21 marine compounds shown in Fig. 1.

Two studies published during 1999 with the marine natural products amphilactams A–S and geodin A contributed to anthelmintic pharmacology. Four novel amphilactams, macrocyclic lactone/lactams isolated from the sponge *Amphimedon* spp. showed in vitro LD₉₉ activity in the range 0.30–7.5 µg/ml (Ovenden et al., 1999). These investigators noted that the level of in vitro activity for amphilactams A, C and D was comparable to that of existing commercial anthelmintics, such as levamisole and closantel, but the mechanism of action of these compounds was not determined. A new macrocyclic polyketide lactam tetramic acid, geodin A Mg salt, was isolated from the sponge *Geodia* sp. (Capon et al., 1999). Although the mechanism of action of the pure Geodin A was not explored, this marine compound, which occurs naturally as the Mg salt, was nematocidal to the nematode *Haemonchus contortus* (LD₉₉ = 1 µg/ml).

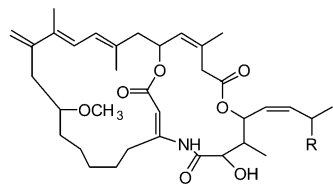
Studies with loloatins A–D, myticin and psammaphin A contributed to the antibacterial pharmacology of marine natural products. The loloatins

A–D, a family of new cyclic decapeptides isolated from a tropical marine bacterium, exhibited in vitro antimicrobial activity against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, vancomycin-resistant enterococci and penicillin-resistant *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (Gerard et al., 1999). Although the molecular mechanism of action was not fully investigated, the authors suggested that their findings were an important contribution to the current search for novel drugs needed in the treatment of antibiotic-resistant strains of human bacterial pathogens. Two isoforms of a cysteine-rich antibacterial peptide myticin, isolated from hemocytes and plasma of the mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, were characterized (Mitta et al., 1999). Although myticins A and B had marked activity against the Gram-positive strains *Micrococcus luteus*, *Bacillus megaterium* and *Enterococcus viridans*, other Gram-positive, Gram-negative bacteria and fungi were unaffected. Kim et al. (1999) reported that psammaphin A, a bromotyrosine derivative from the sponge *Psammaphysilla* sp. possessed antibacterial activity against methicillin-resistant Gram-positive *Staphylococcus aureus* that was “...almost comparable to ciprofloxacin...”, a quinolone antibiotic currently used in the US. Furthermore, extensive mechanism-of-action studies completed by these investigators determined that psammaphin A did not bind to penicillin-binding proteins, but did inhibit DNA synthesis of *S. aureus* SG511 in a dose-dependent manner (IC₅₀ = 2.83 µg/ml), and inhibited the supercoiling activity of DNA gyrase, similar to the quinolones, although less efficiently than ciprofloxacin (Kim et al., 1999).

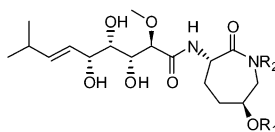
A detailed investigation on the anticoagulant pharmacology of algal and echinoderm marine sulfated furans and sulfated polysaccharides was reported during 1999. Pereira et al. (1999) investigated the possible correlation between structure and anticoagulant activity of echinoderm-derived and brown algae-derived fucans, noting that, while the highly branched sulfated fucans from brown algae directly inhibited thrombin, the linear fucans from echinoderms required the presence of antithrombin or heparin cofactor II for inhibition of thrombin, a molecular mechanism also observed with mammalian glycosaminoglycans (Pereira et al., 1999). These investigators support the use of structural analysis of sulfated polysaccharides from algae and echinoderms and their testing on specific biological assays as an important biochemical



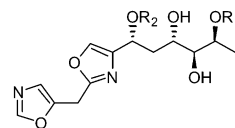
Amphilactam A R=H
Amphilactam B R=CH₃



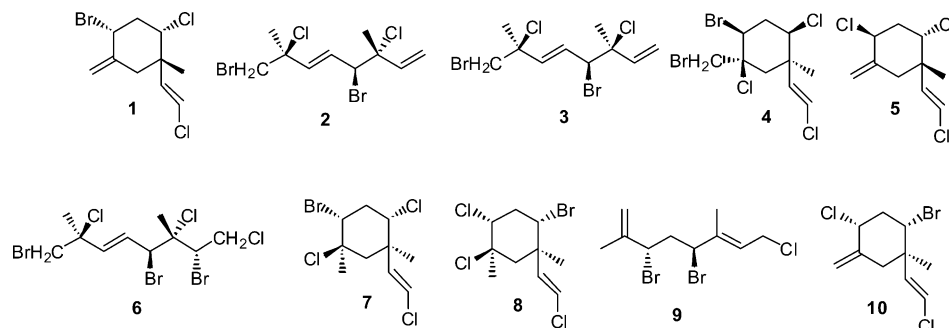
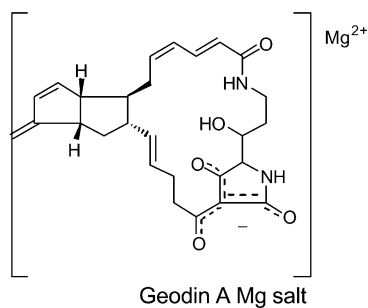
Amphilactam C R=H
Amphilactam D R=CH₃



| | | |
|-------------|--|----------------|
| Bengamide A | R ₁ | R ₂ |
| Bengamide B | CO(CH ₂) ₁₂ CH ₃ | H |
| Bengamide E | CO(CH ₂) ₁₂ CH ₃ | Me |
| Bengamide F | H | H |
| Bengamide L | CO(CH ₂) ₁₁ CH(CH ₃) ₂ | Me |
| | | H |



| | | |
|-----------|--|--|
| Bengazole | R ₁ | R ₂ |
| 1 | CO(CH ₂) ₁₄ CH ₃ | H |
| 2 | H | CO(CH ₂) ₁₄ CH ₃ |
| 3 | CO(CH ₂) ₁₂ CH(CH ₃) ₂ | H |
| 4 | H | CO(CH ₂) ₁₂ CH(CH ₃) ₂ |
| 5 | CO(CH ₂) ₁₃ CH ₃ | H |
| 6 | H | CO(CH ₂) ₁₃ CH ₃ |
| 7 | CO(CH ₂) ₁₁ CH(CH ₃) ₂ | H |
| 8 | H | CO(CH ₂) ₁₁ CH(CH ₃) ₂ |
| 9 | CO(CH ₂) ₁₂ CH ₃ | H |
| 10 | H | CO(CH ₂) ₁₂ CH ₃ |
| 11 | H | H |



Halogenated Monoterpenes

Fig. 1. Marine pharmacology in 1999: compounds with anthelmintic, antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, antiplatelet, antimalarial, antituberculosis and antiviral activities.

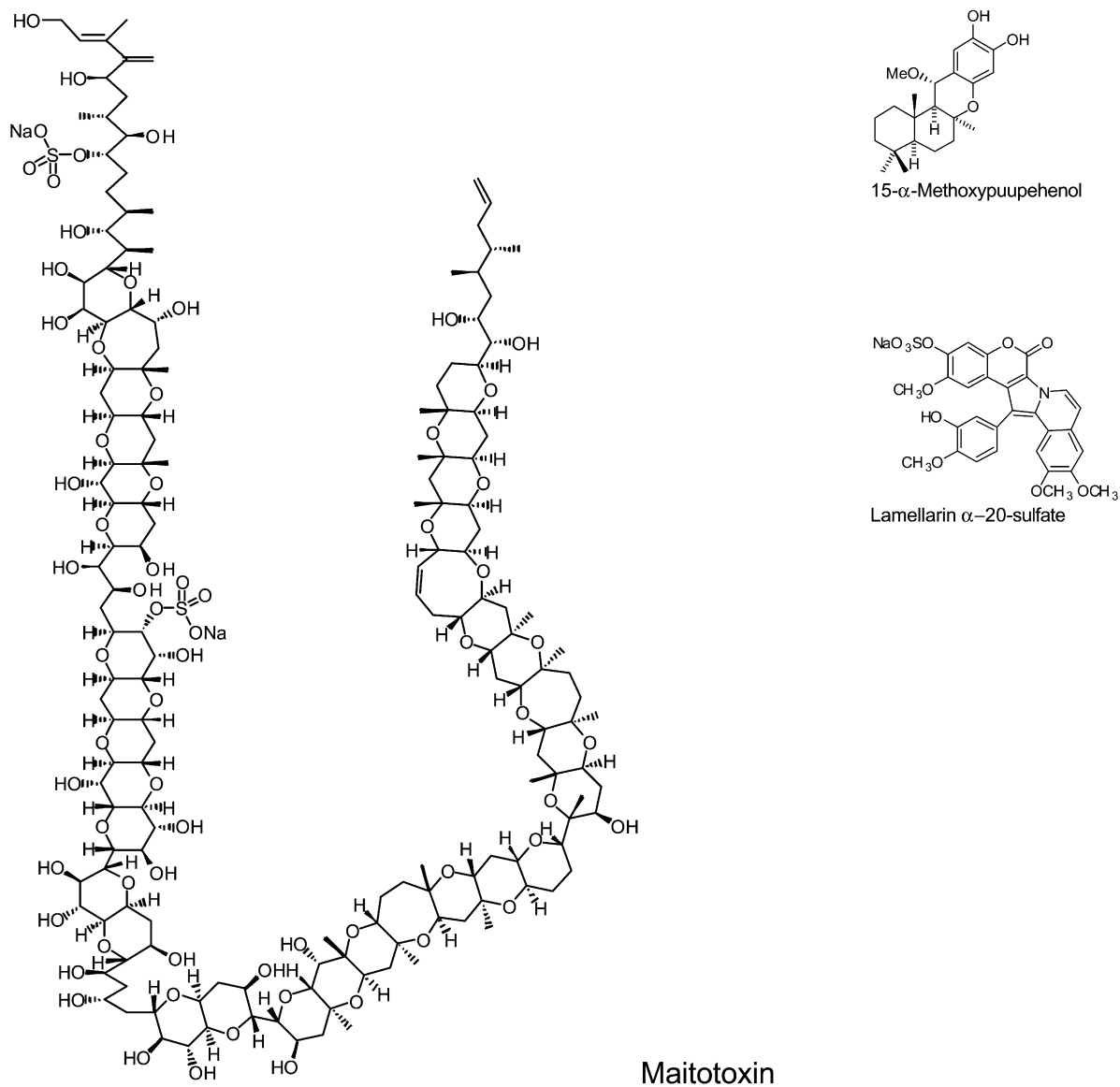


Fig. 1. (Continued).

approach to investigate molecular mechanisms of anticoagulant activity in mammalian systems.

Five studies with the marine chemicals bengamide and bengazole derivatives, oceanapiside, spongistatin 1, tanikolide, and theopederins F–J resulted in novel contributions to antifungal pharmacology. Six new bengazole derivatives and a new bengamide L were reported from the sponge *Pachastrissa* sp. (Fernandez et al., 1999). Although no mechanism-of-action studies were completed, the bengazole derivatives were observed to be active against *Candida albicans*

[minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) 0.8–1.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$]. Oceanapiside, a new glycosidic/amino alcohol lipid from the sponge *Oceanapia phillipensis*, demonstrated antifungal activity against the fluconazole-resistant yeast *Candida glabrata* (MIC 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (Nicholas et al., 1999). Although additional mechanism-of-action studies remain to be completed with oceanapiside, these investigators noted that the aglycon exerted higher antifungal activity than the glycoside, possibly due to better cell penetration. In perhaps the most noteworthy study with a marine broad-spectrum anti-

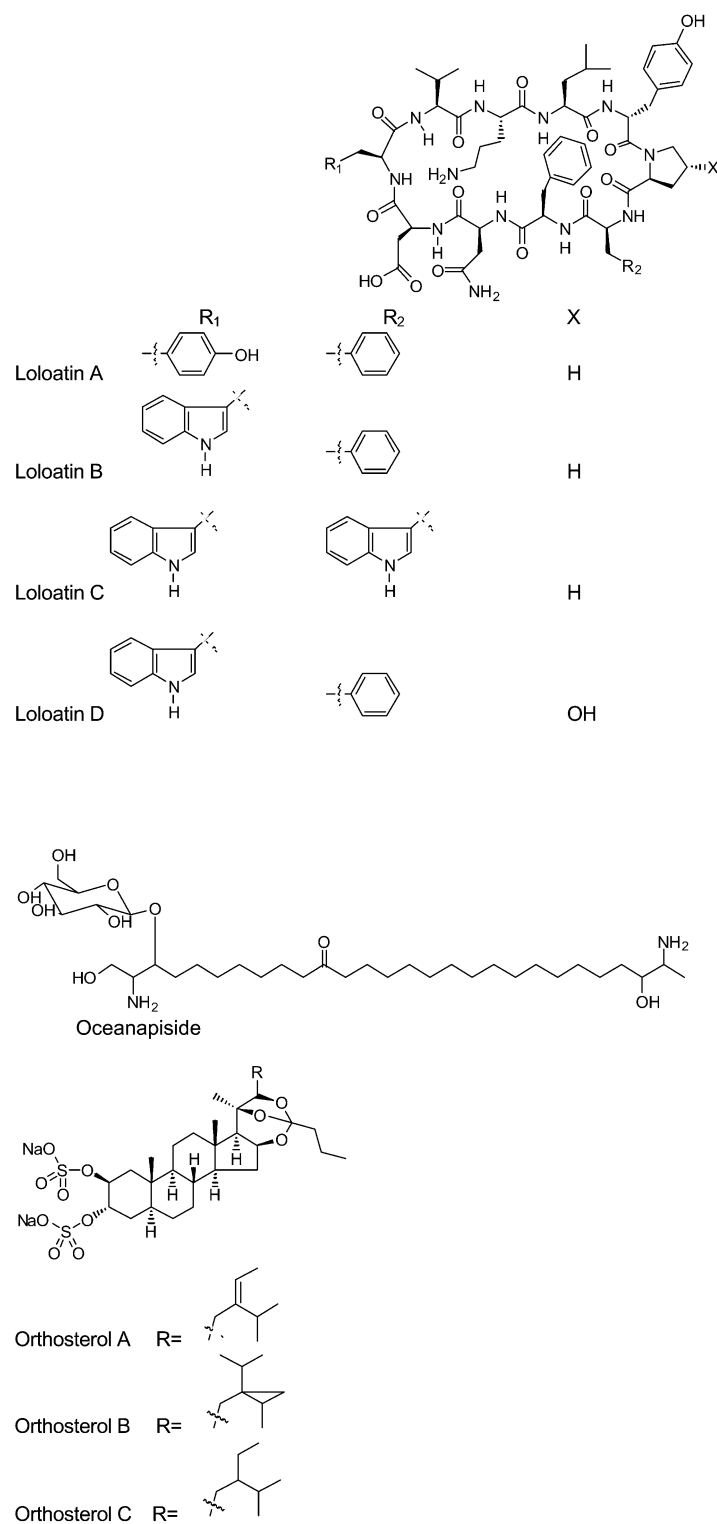
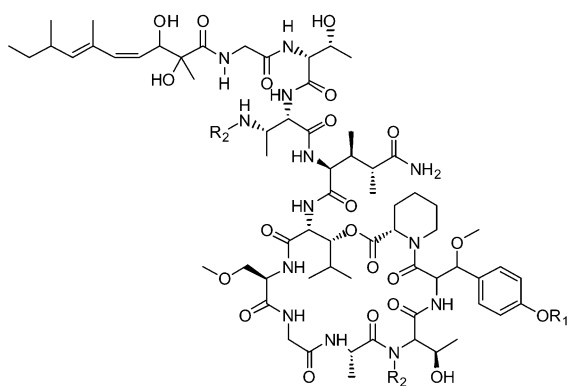
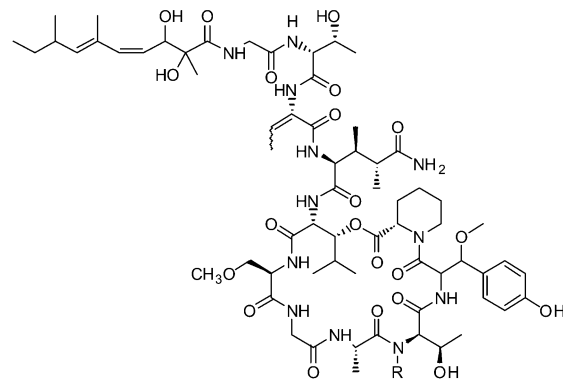


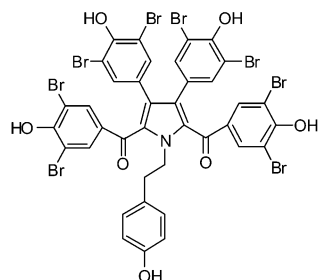
Fig. 1. (Continued).



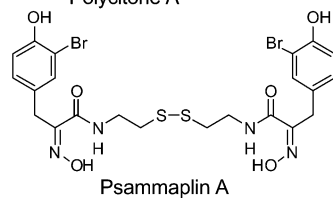
Papuamide A $R_1=R_2=H$; $R_3=CH_3$
 Papuamide B $R_1=R_2=R_3=H$



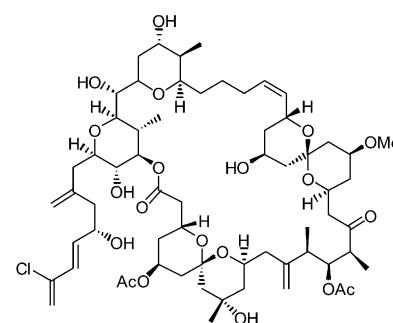
Papuamides C $R=Me$
 Papuamides D $R=H$



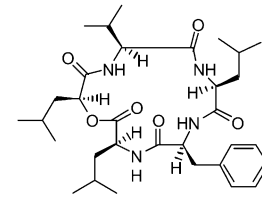
Polycitron A



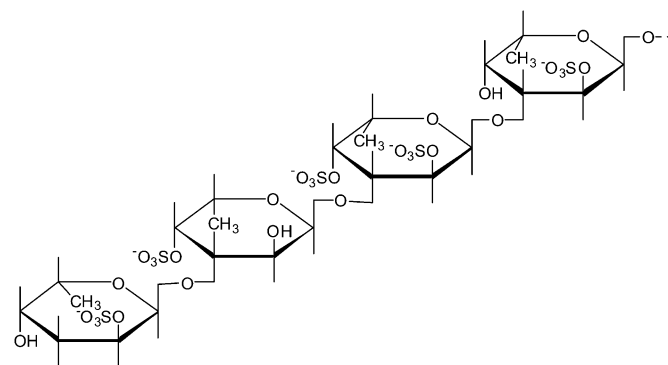
Psammaplina A



Spongistatin 1



Sansalvamide



Sulfated L-Fucan from *L. variegates*

Fig. 1. (Continued).

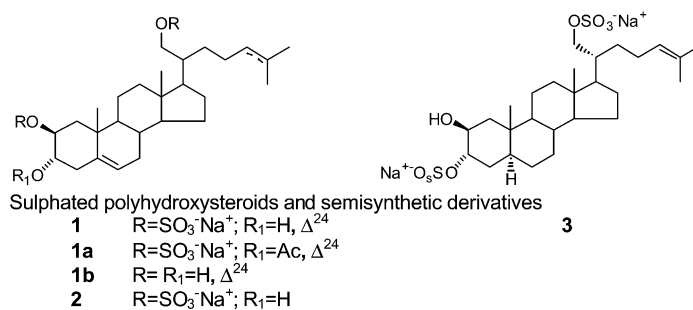
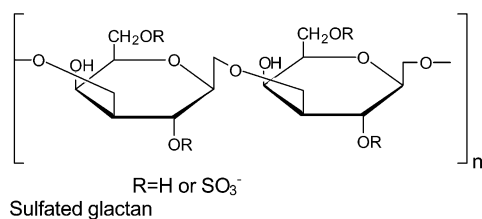
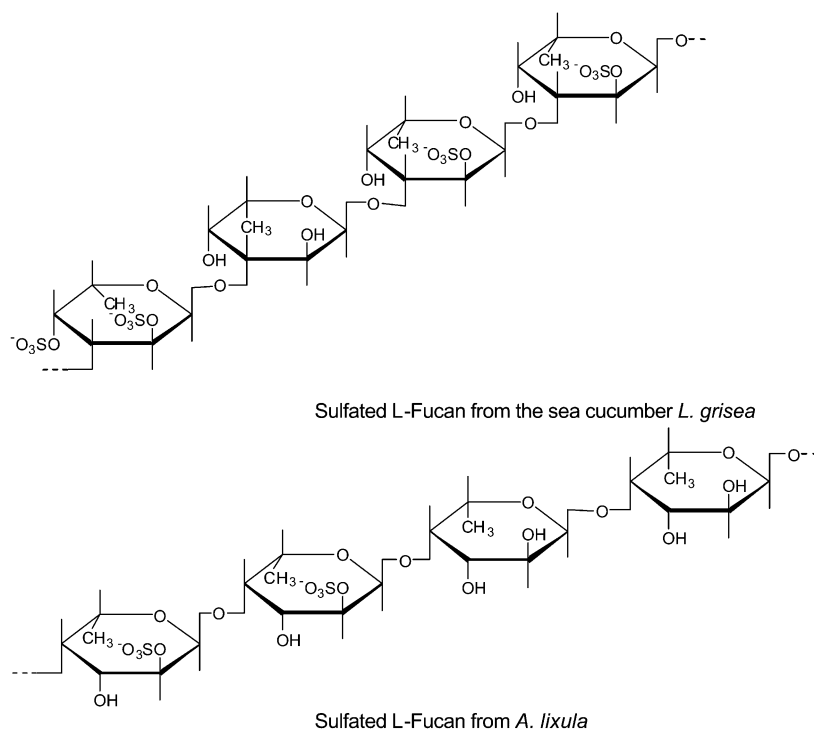


Fig. 1. (Continued).

fungal compound, Ovechkina et al. (1999) demonstrated potent microtubule-severing activity with spongistatin 1, a macrocyclic lactone isolated

from the sponge *Hyrtilis erecta*. This appears to be an interesting observation because, if confirmed in future studies, the mechanism of action of

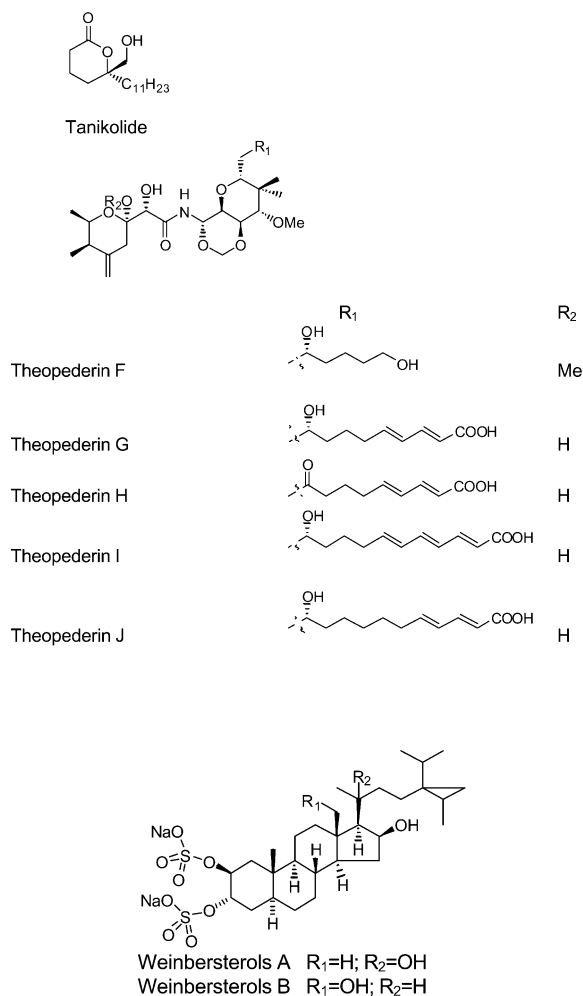
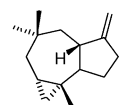


Fig. 1. (Continued).

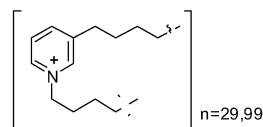
Spongistatin 1 would significantly differ from all other antimicrotubule agents studied to date. A new brine-shrimp toxic and antifungal lactone, tanikolide, was isolated from the marine cyanobacterium *Lyngbia majuscula* (Singh et al., 1999). Although the researchers observed a 13-mm-diameter zone of inhibition (100 µg/disk) when testing the effect of tanikolide on the fungus *Candida albicans*, further mechanistic research is necessary to determine if the toxicity of this compound might perhaps be responsible for the antifungal activity observed. Tsukamoto et al. (1999) isolated five new bioactive metabolites, theopederins F–J, from the sponge *Theonella swinhoei*. Although theopederin F was particularly effective against *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* at 1 µg/disk, no mechanistic studies were reported.

During 1999, three separate studies were reported in the area of antimalarial, antiplatelet and antituberculosis pharmacology of structurally characterized marine natural products. Although no mechanism-of-action studies were reported, the sesquiterpene 15- α -methoxyypuuphenol isolated from the New Caledonian marine sponge *Hyrtios* sp. demonstrated antimalarial activity against chloroquine-susceptible and chloroquine-resistant strains of *Plasmodium falciparum* ($IC_{50} = 0.4\text{--}1.4$ µg/ml) (Bourguet-Kondracki et al., 1999). Detailed studies on the mechanism of platelet activation by the polyether maitotoxin, a Ca²⁺ channel-activating marine toxin causing ciguatera poisoning, were completed by Nakahata et al. (1999a). These researchers observed that the mechanism of action of maitotoxin was similar to U46619, a thromboxane A₂ receptor agonist. However, the effects of maitotoxin on Ca²⁺ mobilization, phosphoinositide hydrolysis and tyrosine phosphorylation in platelets were *strictly* dependent on the presence of external Ca²⁺, an observation that could explain maitotoxin toxicity to platelets *in vivo*. In a bioactivity study with several polyhalogenated monoterpenes isolated from the tropical marine red alga *Plocamium hamatum*, König et al. (1999) observed that one of them was antitubercular towards *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MIC 32 µg/ml) and *Mycobacterium avium* (MIC 64 µg/ml).

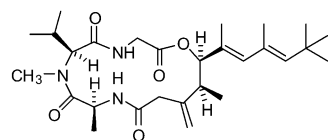
Interest in the antiviral pharmacology of marine natural products remained high during 1999, as evidenced by the seven papers published, a number similar to that reported in our 1998 review (Mayer and Lehmann, 2000). During the screening of diverse marine natural products for compounds against human immunodeficiency virus (HIV-1) integrase, one of the three enzymes encoded by the HIV virus, Reddy et al. (1999b) identified the alkaloid lamellarin α 20-sulfate in an unidentified ascidian that showed selective *in vitro* inhibition. The detailed mechanistic studies completed with lamellarin α 20-sulfate led these investigators to propose that their findings provided a new class of lead compounds for the potential development of clinically useful integrase inhibitors. Novel cyclic depsipeptides papuamides A, B, C and D were isolated from the sponges *Theonella mirabilis* and *Theonella swinhoei* (Ford et al., 1999). Papuamides A and B inhibited the infection of human T-lymphoblastoid cells by HIV-1 *in vitro* ($EC_{50} = 3.6$ ng/ml), a particularly interesting finding,



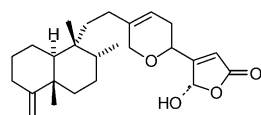
Africanene



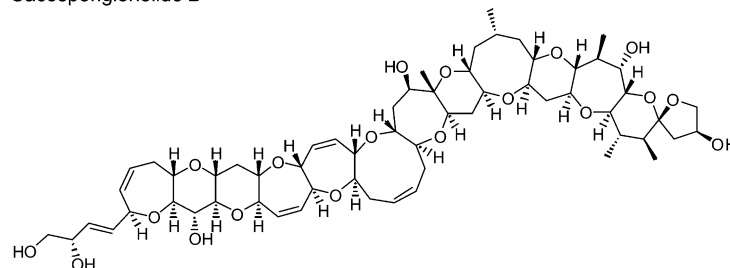
3-Alkylpyridinium polymers n head-to-tail linked N-butyl-3-butyl pyridinium units



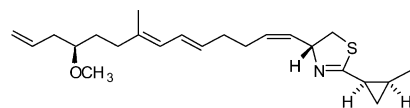
Antillatoxin



Cacospongionolide B



Ciguatoxin

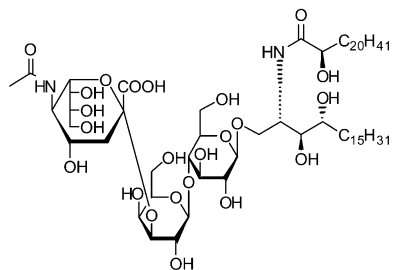


Curacin A

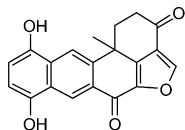
Fig. 2. Marine pharmacology in 1999: compounds with anti-inflammatory, immunosuppressant and fibrinolytic effects and affecting the cardiovascular, simpatomimetic and nervous systems.

because this is the first report of peptides from the sponge *Theonella* that inhibit HIV. However, the mechanism of action of papuamides A and B was

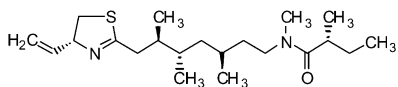
not studied. An extensive report detailed new mechanism-of-action studies with polycitone A, an aromatic alkaloid isolated from the ascidian *Polyc-*



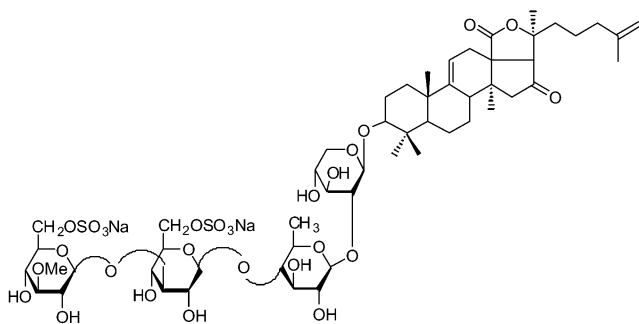
Glycosphingolipids



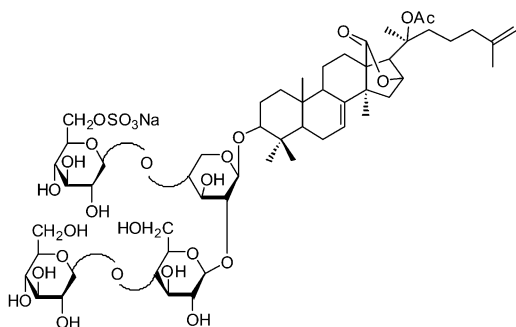
Halenaquinol



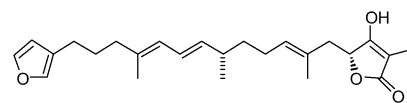
Kalkitoxin



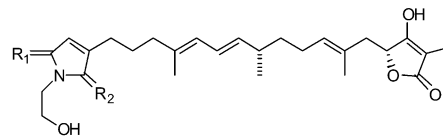
Psolusoside A



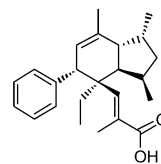
Psolusoside B



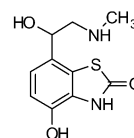
Palinurin



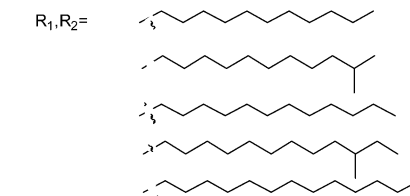
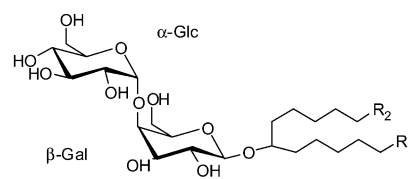
| | | |
|--------------|----------------|----------------|
| Palinurine A | R ₁ | R ₂ |
| Palinurine B | H ₂ | O |
| | O | H ₂ |



Plakotenin



S1319



Simplexides

Fig. 2. (Continued).

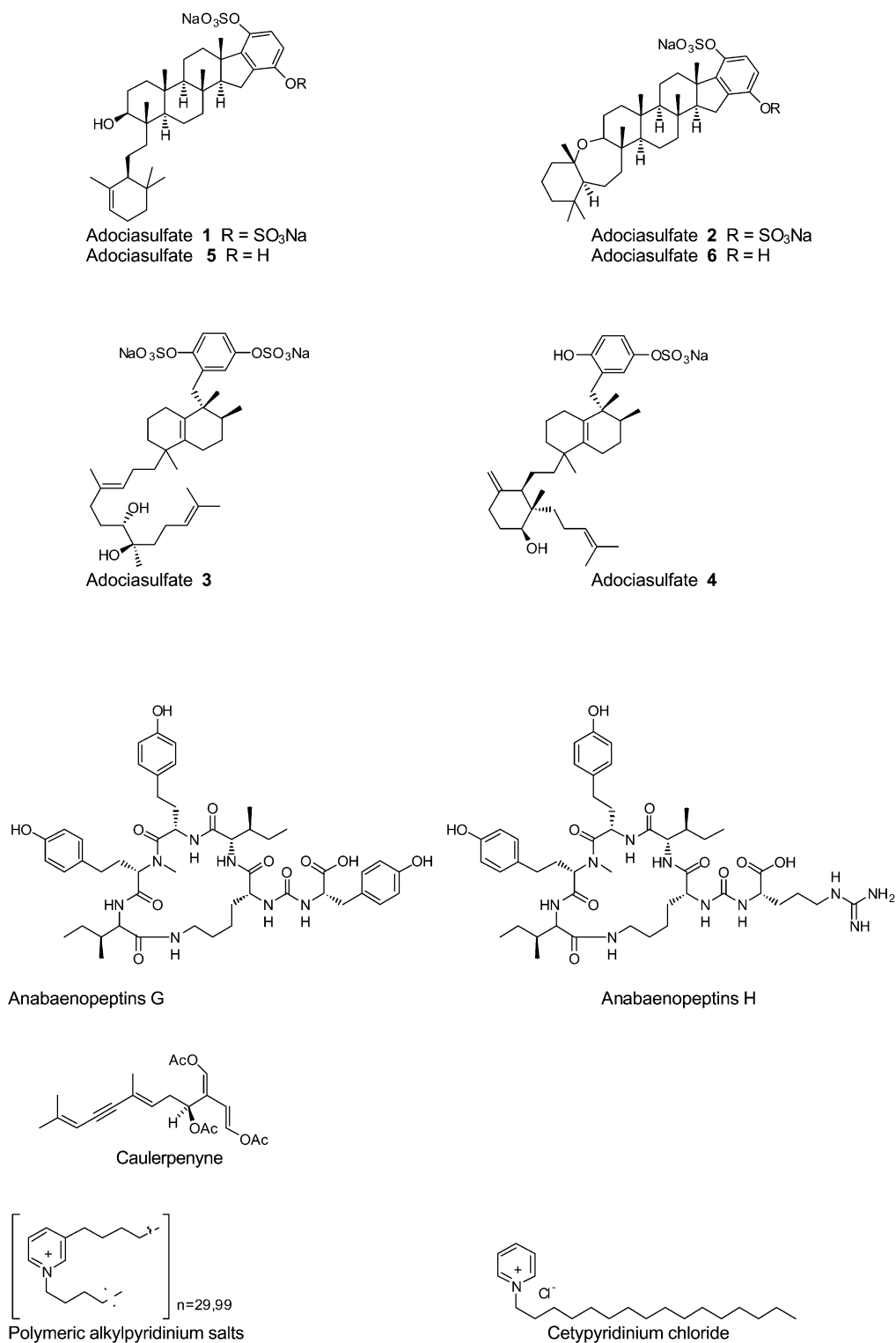
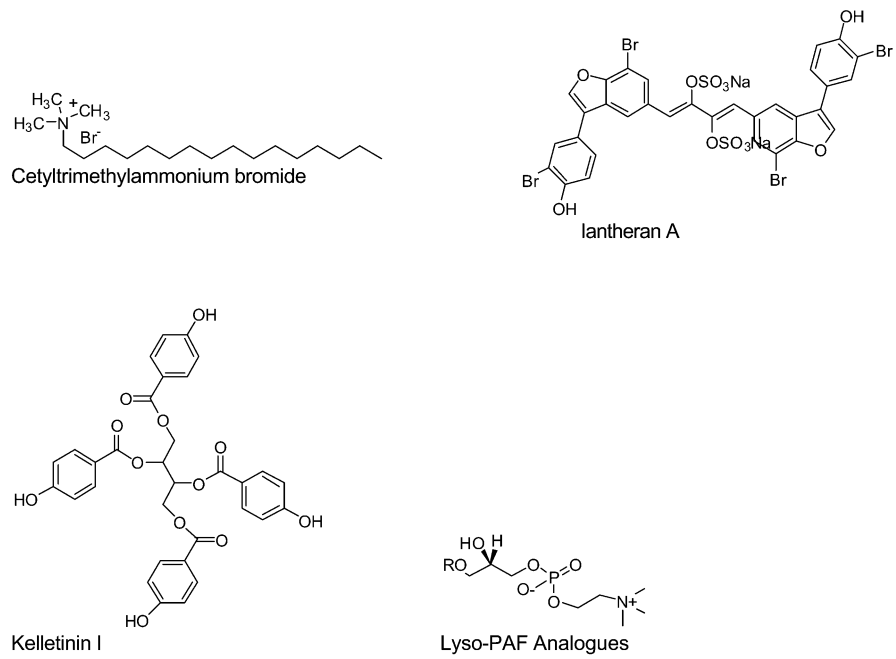


Fig. 3. Marine pharmacology in 1999: compounds with miscellaneous mechanisms of action.



CH_2OR
 CH_2OH
 $\text{CH}_2\text{OPO}_3\text{CH}_2\text{N}^+(\text{CH}_3)_3$
 Lysophosphatidylcholines

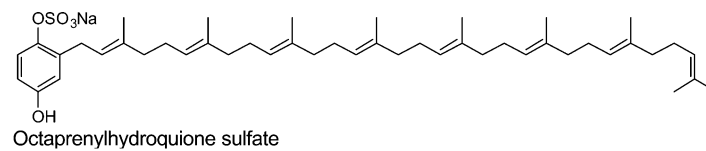
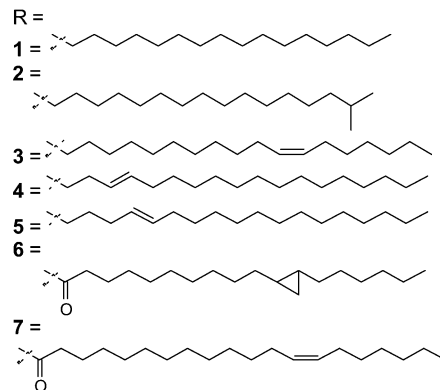


Fig. 3. (Continued).

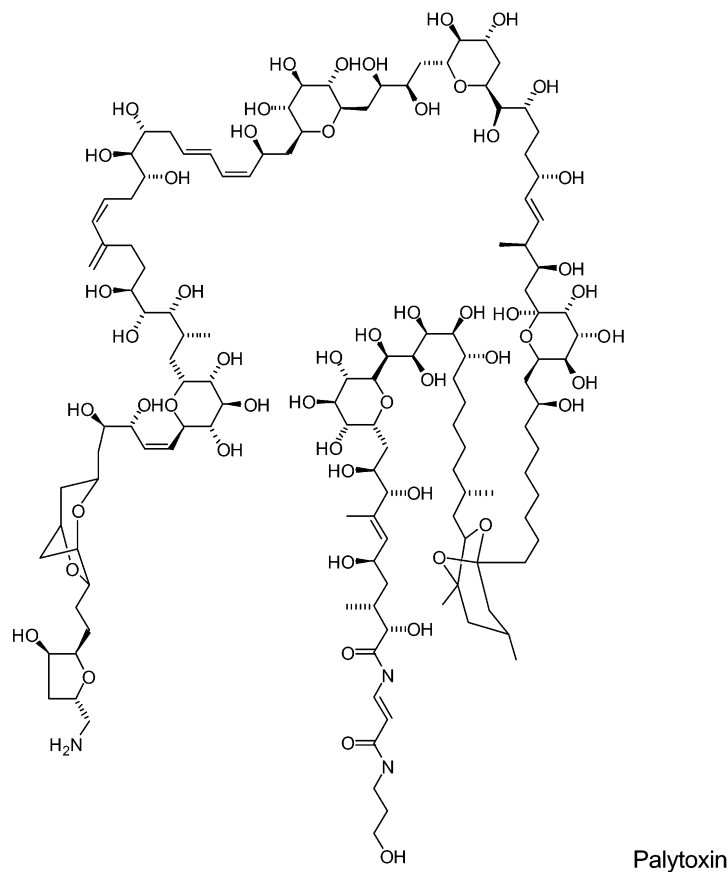
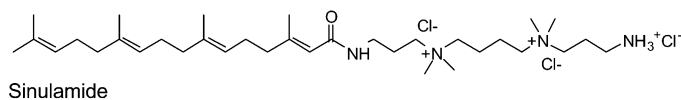
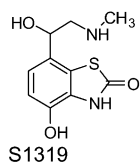
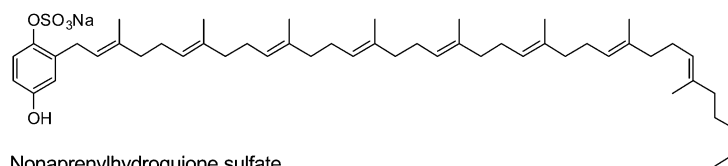


Fig. 3. (Continued).

itor sp., that is a potent inhibitor of the reverse transcriptase of HIV and both C and B retroviruses, as well as a general inhibitor of cellular DNA

polymerases (Loya et al., 1999). Although it appears that, because polycitone A is a general inhibitor of DNA polymerases it cannot serve as

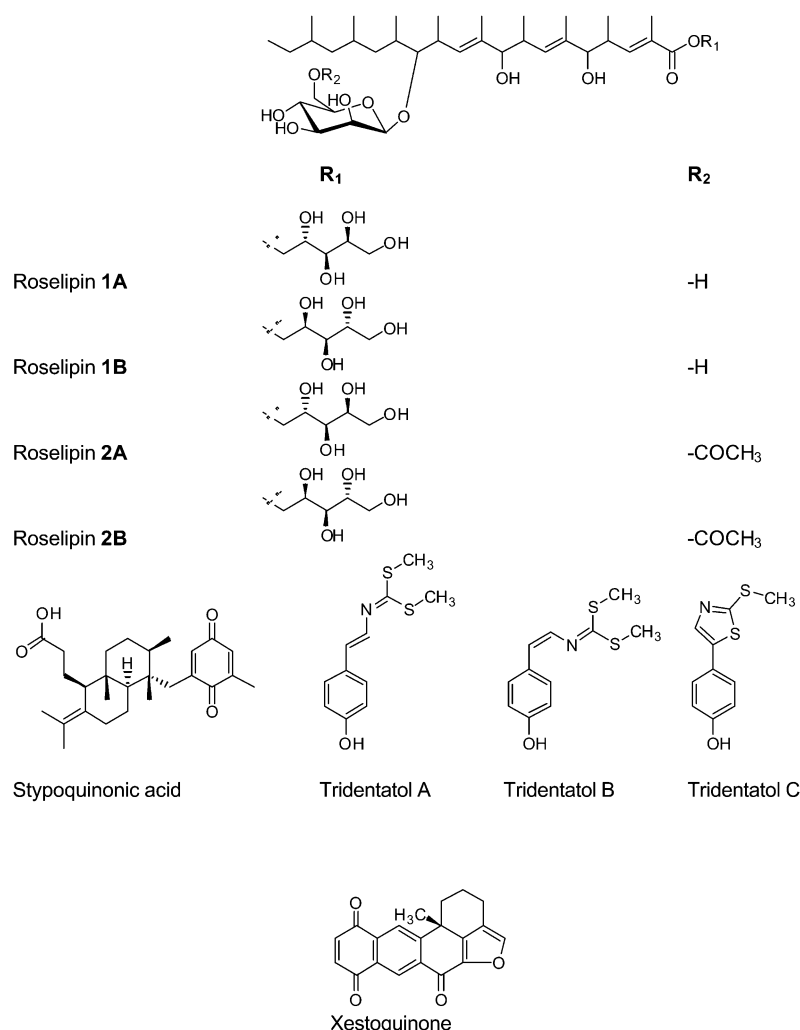


Fig. 3. (Continued).

an anti-HIV drug, structural modifications of polycitone A could lead towards the rational design of new derivatives with anti-HIV reverse transcriptase activity. The synthesis of sulfated derivatives of a glycosaminoglycan isolated from the marine bacterium *Pseudomonas* sp. and their testing against two strains of influenza virus types A and B were described by Ahmad et al. (1999). The authors noted that introduction of the sulfate groups into the polysaccharides containing L-glutamic acid resulted in antiviral activity against influenza virus type A, but not against type B, and that this activity was similar to that of ribavirin, an antiviral drug that is clinically used in the US to treat influenza A infections. Amornrut et al. (1999) isolated a novel sulfated β -galactan from the

marine clam *Meretrix petechialis* and examined its anti-HIV activity in an in vitro assay. The sulfated galactan inhibited CD4⁺ HeLa cells from forming syncytia, an observation that was interpreted as probably the result of a "...direct interaction of the polysaccharide with the HIV binding site at the membrane protein receptor CD4". Comin et al. (1999) evaluated natural disulfated polyhydroxysteroids isolated from the Antarctic ophiuroid *Astrotoma agassizii* against three pathogenic human viruses, namely herpes simplex type 2 (HSV-2), Junin (JV) and polio type 3 (PV-3) viruses. The investigators concluded that the steroids with sulfate groups at C-21 and C-2 or C-3 were very effective against HSV-2, PV-3 and JV. Sansalvamide A, a cyclic depsipeptide isolated

Table 1

Marine pharmacology in 1999: compounds with anthelmintic, antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, antimalarial, antiplatelet, antituberculosis and antiviral activities

| Drug class | Compound | Organism ^a | Chemistry | Pharmacological activity | MMOA ^b | Country ^c | References |
|------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|---|---|----------------------|---------------------------------|
| Anthelmintic | Amphilactams | Sponge | Macrolide ^d | <i>H. contortus</i> inhibition | Undetermined | AUS | Ovenden et al., 1999 |
| Anthelmintic | Geodin A | Sponge | Macrolide ^d | <i>H. contortus</i> inhibition | Undetermined | AUS | Capon et al., 1999 |
| Antibacterial | Loloatins A–D | Bacterium | Cyclic peptide ^f | <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>S. pneumoniae</i> and enterococci inhibition | Undetermined | CAN | Gerard et al., 1999 |
| Antibacterial | Myticin | Mussel | Peptide/ proteins ^f | <i>M. luteus</i> , <i>B. megaterium</i> , <i>E. viridans</i> inhibition | Undetermined | FRA | Mitta et al., 1999 |
| Antibacterial | Psammaplin A | Sponge | Tyrosine-based ^f | <i>S. aureus</i> inhibition | DNA gyrase and synthesis inhibition | S. KOR | Kim et al., 1999 |
| Anticoagulant | Sulfated fucans | Alga and cucumber | Sulfated polysaccharide ^g | Thrombin inhibition | Inhibition direct or with antithrombin or heparin cofactor II | BRA, UK | Pereira et al., 1999 |
| Antifungal | Bengazole, bengamide | Sponge | Polyketide ^d | <i>C. albicans</i> inhibition | Undetermined | FRA | Fernandez et al., 1999 |
| Antifungal | Oceanapiside | Sponge | Polyketide ^d | <i>C. glabrata</i> inhibition | Undetermined | USA | Nicholas et al., 1999 |
| Antifungal | Spongistatin I | Sponge | Macrolide ^d | <i>A. nidulans</i> inhibition | Induces microtubule fragmentation | USA | Ovechkina et al., 1999 |
| Antifungal | Tanikolide | Bacterium | Fatty acid ^d | <i>C. albicans</i> inhibition | Undetermined | USA | Singh et al., 1999 |
| Antifungal | Theopederins F–J | Sponge | Polyketide ^d | <i>S. cerevisiae</i> inhibition | Undetermined | JPN | Tsakamoto et al., 1999 |
| Antimalarial | 15- α -Methoxy-puupehenol | Sponge | Sesquiterpene ^e | <i>P. falciparum</i> inhibition | Undetermined | FRA | Bourguet-Kondracki et al., 1999 |
| Antiplatelet | Maitotoxin | Alga | Polyketide ^d | Platelet activation | Highly dependent on external Ca ²⁺ | JPN | Nakahata et al., 1999a |
| Antituberculosis | Monoterpenes | Alga | Terpene ^e | <i>M. tuberculosis</i> inhibition | Undetermined | GER, SWZ | Konig et al., 1999 |
| Antiviral | Lamellarin α -20-sulfate | Tunicate | Tyrosine-based ^f | In vitro HIV infection inhibition | HIV integrase inhibition | IND, USA | Reddy et al., 1999b |
| Antiviral | Papuamides A–D | Sponge | Depsipeptide ^f | In vitro HIV infection inhibition | Undetermined | CAN, USA | Ford et al., 1999 |
| Antiviral | Polycitone A | Tunicate | Tyrosine-based ^f | In vitro anti-RT inhibition | DNA polymerase inhibition | ISR | Loya et al., 1999 |
| Antiviral | Glycosaminoglycan | Bacterium | Sulfated polysaccharide ^g | In vitro anti-influenza A and B inhibition | Only influenza A virus inhibition | JPN | Ahmad et al., 1999 |
| Antiviral | Sulfated β -galactan | Clam | Sulfated polysaccharide ^g | In vitro syncytia formation inhibition | Inhibition of HIV binding to CD4 | S. KOR, JPN, USA | Amornrut et al., 1999 |
| Antiviral | Poly-hydroxysteroids | Brittle star | Sterol ^e | In vitro reduction of HSV-2, JV, PV plaque formation | Sulfate at C-21, C-2 and C-3 critical for inhibition | ARG | Comin et al., 1999 |
| Antiviral | Sansalvamide | Fungus | Depsipeptide ^f | <i>Molluscum contagiosum</i> virus topoisomerase inhibition | DNA binding and relaxation inhibition | USA | Hwang et al., 1999 |

^a Organism: kingdom Animalia: brittle star and cucumber (Echinodermata); clam and mussel (Mollusca); sponge (Porifera); tunicate (Chordata); kingdom Fungi: fungus; kingdom Plantae: alga; kingdom Monera: bacterium (Cyanobacteria).

^b MMOA: molecular mechanism of action.

^c Country: ARG, Argentina; AUS, Australia; BRA, Brazil; CAN, Canada; FRA, France; GER, Germany; IND, India; ISR, Israel; JPN, Japan; S. KOR, South Korea; SWZ, Switzerland; UK, United Kingdom.

^d Polyketide.

^e Terpene.

^f Nitrogen-containing compound.

^g Polysaccharide.

from the marine fungus *Fusarium* sp., inhibited the topoisomerase of the pathogenic poxvirus *Molluscum contagiosum* (MCV) (Hwang et al., 1999), an important finding, because MCV may cause severe lesions in AIDS patients. This is a particu-

larly significant study, because it determined that sansalvamide A inhibited MCV topoisomerase by inhibition of topoisomerase-catalyzed DNA relaxation, DNA-binding and covalent complex formation. This finding represents the first identification

Table 2

Marine pharmacology in 1999: compounds with anti-inflammatory, immunosuppressant and fibrinolytic effects and affecting the cardiovascular, nervous and sympathomimetic systems

| Drug class | Compound | Organism ^a | Chemistry | Pharmacological activity | MMOA ^b | Country ^c | References |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|---|---|----------------------|-------------------------|
| Anti-inflammatory | Africanene | Coral | Sesquiterpene ^e | In vivo rat paw edema inhibition | Undetermined | IND | Reddy et al., 1999a |
| Anti-inflammatory | Cacospongiolide B | Sponge | Sesterterpene ^e | In vivo and in vitro inflammation assays | Human sPLA ₂ inhibition | ITAL, SPA | Pastor et al., 1999 |
| Anti-inflammatory | Palinurin, palinurines A, B | Sponge | Sesterterpene ^e | In vitro modulation of activated rat brain microglia | Thromboxane B ₂ inhibition | USA, NZ | El Sayed et al., 1999 |
| Anti-inflammatory | Plakotenin | Sponge | Polyketide ^d | Synovial fibroblast proliferation inhibition | Undetermined | USA | Qureshi et al., 1999 |
| Cardiovascular | Equinatoxin | Anemone | Protein ^f | Cardiotoxic | LDH release | SLOV | Bunc et al., 1999 |
| Cardiovascular | Halenaquinol | Sponge | Polyketide ^d | Cardioactivity at the cellular level | Na ⁺ , K ⁺ and Ca ²⁺ ATPase inhibition | RUS | Gorshkova et al., 1999a |
| Cardiovascular | Seal oil | Seal | Fatty acids ^d | Reduced cardiovascular disease in humans | Rise in serum EPA and DHA | CAN | Conquer et al., 1999 |
| Fibrinolytic | <i>C. latum</i> protease | Alga | Protein ^f | Fibrinolysis of human fibrinogen | Specificity for Arg and Lys residues | JPN | Matsubara et al., 1999 |
| Immuno-suppressant | Simplexides | Sponge | Fatty acid metabolites ^d | Lymph node cell proliferation inhibition | Undetermined | ITA | Costantino et al., 1999 |
| Nervous system | 3-Alkyl-pyridinium | Sponge | Pyridines ^f | Acetylcholinesterase inhibition | Aggregation and multisite binding | SLOV, FRA | Sepcic et al., 1999 |
| Nervous system | Ciguatoxin-I | Dinoflagellate | Polyketide ^d | Differential action on Na ⁺ channel subtypes | Modulation of Na ⁺ gating | AUS | Strachan et al., 1999 |
| Nervous system | Conantokin-G, T | Snail | Peptide ^f | Neuronal NMDA-receptor inhibition | Current inhibition | USA | Klein et al., 1999 |
| Nervous system | Conotoxin CcTX | Snail | Peptide ^f | Axon and motor nerve terminals | Na ⁺ channel activation | FRA | Le Gall et al., 1999 |
| Nervous system | k-Conotoxin-PVIA | Snail | Peptide ^f | K ⁺ channel inactivation | Competitive lysine interaction | MEX, AUS | Garcia et al., 1999 |
| Nervous system | Curacin-A, antillatoxin, kalkitoxin | Bacterium | Polyketide/peptide ^f | Cytotoxicity to rat cerebellar granule cells | NMDA-mediated toxicity | USA | Berman et al., 1999 |
| Nervous system | Psolusosides A, B | Sea cucumber | Triterpene glycosides ^e | Na ⁺ , K ⁺ -ATPase inhibition | Irreversible, with cholesterol affinity | RUS | Gorshkova et al., 1999b |
| Nervous system | Glycosphingolipids | Seastar | Glycoside ^g | Neuritogenic to rat pheochromocytoma | Undetermined | JPN | Kawatake et al., 1999 |
| Sympathomimetic | S1319 | Sponge | Tyrosine-based ^f | Potent relaxation of guinea pig tracheal muscle | β ₂ -selective adrenoreceptor agonist | JPN | Suzuki et al., 1999 |

^a Organism: kingdom Animalia: coral (Cnidaria); snail (Mollusca); sponge (Porifera); seastar and sea cucumber (Echinodermata); seal (Chordata); kingdom Plantae: dinoflagellate and alga; kingdom Monera: bacterium (Cyanobacteria).

^b MMOA: molecular mechanism of action.

^c Country: AUS, Australia; CAN, Canada; FRA, France; IND, India; ITA, Italy; JPN, Japan; NZ, New Zealand; MEX, Mexico; RUS, Russia; SLOV, Slovenia; SPA, Spain.

^d Polyketide.

^e Terpene.

^f Nitrogen-containing compound.

^g Polysaccharide.

of a new inhibitor against *Molluscum contagiosum* topoisomerase in vitro.

3. Marine compounds with anti-inflammatory, immunosuppressant and fibrinolytic effects, and affecting the cardiovascular, nervous and sympathomimetic systems

Table 2 lists the preclinical pharmacological research completed on 23 marine chemicals shown

in Fig. 2, affecting the cardiovascular, immune and nervous systems, as well as possessing anti-inflammatory, immunosuppressant, lipid-lowering and sympathomimetic effects.

The anti-inflammatory pharmacology of marine natural products during 1999 involved studies with africanene, cacospongiolide B, palinurin, palinurine A and B, and plakotenin, an increase of one compound compared to 1998 (Mayer and Leh-

mann, 2000). Reddy et al. (1999a) conducted an extensive bioactivity screen with the sesquiterpene africanene, isolated from the soft coral *Sinularia leptoclados*, that included an investigation of its anti-inflammatory activity. In acute inflammation studies utilizing the carrageenan-induced rat edema assay, an oral in vivo dose of 10 mg/kg body weight of africanene resulted in a more potent reduction of paw volume than that produced by 100 mg/kg body weight of ibuprofen, strongly suggesting that africanene may be worthy of further anti-inflammatory characterization studies. Pastor et al. (1999) extended the pharmacology of cacospongionolide B, a novel sesterterpene inhibitor of human synovial phospholipase A₂ isolated from the sponge *Fasciospongia cavernosa*, studying its mechanism of action in several assays for both in vitro (secretory and cytosolic phospholipase A₂, leukotriene B₄, cyclooxygenase I and II, nitric oxide) and in vivo inflammation (rat air pouch, mouse ear edema, mouse paw edema and mouse air pouch). Their results indicated that cacospongionolide B irreversibly inhibited both secretory PLA₂ in vitro and group II secretory PLA₂ in vivo. Perhaps the fact that cacospongionolide B was bioavailable by the oral route and had an effect on cytokine generation suggests that further research on this marine compound may lead to a novel anti-inflammatory agent. El Sayed et al. (1999) used microbial transformation of palinurin, a linear furanosesterterpene isolated from the marine sponge *Ircinia echinata* to produce two novel metabolites, palinurine A and B (El Sayed et al., 1999). The effect of these three compounds on thromboxane B₂ (TXB₂) and superoxide anion (O₂⁻) release from activated rat neonatal microglia was investigated because these potentially neurotoxic mediators appear to be involved in neuroinflammatory conditions (Mayer et al., 1999). The investigators noted that, while palinurin inhibited TXB₂ (IC₅₀ = 0.21 μM) and O₂⁻ (IC₅₀ = 5 μM) generation, palinurine A and B were relatively ineffective inhibitors of both TXB₂ and O₂⁻, thus suggesting that the furan ring appears to be required for the pharmacological activity of palinurin observed. Furthermore, the authors suggested that palinurin, by becoming a "...lead compound for development as an anti-inflammatory medication", could contribute to the current search for novel drugs to treat neuroinflammatory conditions (Mayer, 1998). Qureshi et al. (1999) investigated the inhibition of proliferation

of arthritic cells with the carboxylic acid homoplakotenin, as well as the known compound plakotenin derived from the palauan sponge *Plakortis lita*. Although both compounds inhibited the ability of rheumatoid synovial fibroblasts to proliferate in response to platelet-derived growth factor at concentrations of 1 μg/ml, they were unable to inhibit proliferation at 0.1 μg/ml, suggesting that the compounds are active over a limited range of concentrations.

Immunosuppressant activity was reported for the novel glycolipids simplexides, isolated from the sponge *Plakortis simplex* (Costantino et al., 1999). Simplexides showed a 43% inhibitory effect on lymph node cell proliferation at 10 ng/ml. Interestingly, this immunosuppressive activity that was not related to cytotoxicity is probably attributable to its sugar head, and very probably involves an interaction with "...glycoproteins involved in the immune mechanism".

Cardiovascular pharmacology of marine natural products during 1999 involved studies with equinatoxin, halenaquinol and seal oil. Bunc et al. (1999) studied the mechanism of cardiotoxicity of equinatoxin II, a toxic basic protein isolated from the sea anemone *Actinia equina* (L.). The investigators observed that equinatoxin II was very potent, because in the nanomolar range it had clear dose-dependent, direct cardiotoxic effects, but, because it also caused lactate dehydrogenase release, it appeared that cytotoxicity probably played an important part in the toxin's cardiotoxic effects. Gorshkova et al. (1999a) extended the pharmacology of halenaquinol, a natural pentacyclic hydroquinone isolated from the sponge *Petrosia seriata* with previously known cardiotoxic action. Halenaquinol inhibited membrane transport enzymes, such as rat brain Na⁺, K⁺-ATPase and rabbit muscle sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺-ATPase, enzymatic systems involved in muscle contraction regulation. Furthermore, structure-activity relationship studies with halenaquinol determined that the inhibition of Na⁺, K⁺-ATPase observed was dependent on the presence of a naphthohydroquinone fragment in the molecule. Conquer et al. (1999) completed a 6-week double-blind trial with 19 healthy male subjects on the effects of seal oil, which contains omega-3 fatty acids, on cardiovascular disease risk factors. A marked increase in both eicosapentanoic acid and docosahexaenoic acid levels in serum phospholipid and non-esterified fatty acids was observed, an interesting finding

in view of the fact that both docosahexaenoic acid and non-esterified fatty acids possess antiplatelet aggregatory and antiarrhythmic effects. Furthermore, the authors noted that seal oil had a slight beneficial effect on fibrinogen and protein C levels, and thus proposed that seal oil supplementation may influence the balance between plasma procoagulant and anticoagulant activity in healthy volunteers in the direction of reduced cardiovascular disease (Conquer et al., 1999).

Reports on nervous system pharmacology of marine natural products increased slightly over 1998 (Mayer and Lehmann, 2000), with the 1999 studies involving 10 marine compounds, namely 3-alkyl-pyridinium, antillatoxin, ciguatoxin-1, conantokin-G and -T, conotoxin CcTX, κ -conotoxin, curacin-A, kalkitoxin and psolusosides A and B. Sepcic et al. (1999) investigated the mechanism of inhibition of the water-soluble cholinesterase inhibitors 3-alkylpyridinium polymers isolated from the marine sponge *Reniera sarai*. The investigators' extensive work determined that the apparently non-specific mechanism of acetylcholinesterase inhibition was strong and irreversible, and was not due to conformational changes of the protein and/or its unfolding, but rather the result of multisite binding between the two molecules, resulting in aggregation. Strachan et al. (1999) completed an extensive pharmacological investigation of the effect of ciguatoxin-1, an abundant and potent cyclic polyether ciguatoxin isolated from the marine dinoflagellate *Gambierdiscus toxicus*, on sodium channel subtypes in rat dorsal-root ganglion sensory neurons using whole-cell patch-clamp techniques. The investigators observed that ciguatoxin-1 acted in a "...differential manner on the two types of sodium channel subtypes found in rat dorsal root ganglion neurons", and therefore would appear to modulate sodium channel gating, thus providing a possible explanation for the enhanced degree of neuronal excitation and disturbance in nerve conduction observed in ciguatera patients.

Three studies extended the toxicology of the conotoxins, a family of small peptide toxins derived from the venom of marine snails of the genus *Conus* that have been shown to bind to excitable tissue (Olivera, 1997). Klein et al. (1999) evaluated the effect of the marine cone snail toxins conantokin-G and -T on *N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) ionotropic glutamate receptors in mouse primary hippocampal neuronal cultures

using the whole-cell patch-clamp technique. The researchers observed that both toxins non-competitively inhibited NMDA-evoked currents, a fact that is of importance because NMDA receptors play a critical role in a number of physiological processes in the central nervous system, as well as in neuropathological states, such as stroke, chronic pain, Parkinson's disease and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Conotoxin CcTX, a new 30-amino-acid peptide was isolated from the Indo-Pacific fish-hunting marine snail *Conus consors* (Le Gall et al., 1999). The investigators demonstrated that CcTX showed particular selectivity to axons and motor nerve terminals, because it activated neuronal voltage-gated sodium channels and produced Na^+ entry into nerve terminals and axons without directly affecting skeletal muscle fibers. Interestingly, because conotoxin CcTX has an unusual sequence compared with previously reported classes of conotoxins, it defines a novel family of conotoxins. Garcia et al. (1999) extended the pharmacology of the marine snail *Conus purpurascens* κ -conotoxin-PVIIA (κ -PVIIA), a 27-residue peptide venom component that inhibits voltage-gated K channels. While studying the mechanism by which this peptide inhibited K channels expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes Garcia et al. (1999) determined that there was a "...purely competitive interaction..." with "...a positively charged side chain, possibly a lysine, interacting electrostatically with K^+ ions from the intracellular side of the channel". Interestingly, the investigators noted a putative convergence between κ -PVIIA and evolutionary distant scorpion toxins of the α -KTx family towards a common mechanism of action on K channels.

Berman et al. (1999) reported on the nervous system pharmacology of curacin-A, the lipopeptide antillatoxin and the thiazoline-containing lipid kalkitoxin, compounds isolated from the pantropical marine cyanobacterium *Lyngbia majuscula*. During studies designed to determine the neurotoxic activity of these compounds in primary cultures of rat cerebellar granule cells, curacin-A was non-toxic, while under similar experimental conditions both antillatoxin and kalkitoxin produced concentration-dependent cytotoxicity ($\text{LC}_{50} = 20.1 \pm 6.4$ and 3.86 ± 1.91 nM, respectively), although clearly involving "...distinct temporal patterns". Additional mechanism-of-action studies determined that the neurotoxicity induced by both toxins appeared to involve ionotropic

glutamate receptor-dependent excitotoxic mechanisms, probably mediated by *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptor blockage. Gorshkova et al. (1999b) extended the pharmacology of psolusosides A (PsA) and B (PsB), two membranolytic triterpene glycosides isolated from the holothurian *Psolus fabricii* that form a complex with membrane sterols as well as "...solitary ion channels and large aqueous pores". As part of their effort to characterize the membranotropic properties of these compounds, they determined that both PsA and PsB differed in their inhibiting action on rat brain Na⁺,K⁺-ATPase, "...possibly irreversible" and probably explained by their chemical structure and particular affinity to membrane cholesterol. Kawatake et al. (1999) isolated a glycosphingolipid from the starfish *Luidia maculata* that appears similar to the mammalian ganglioside GM₃. Interestingly, in rat pheochromocytoma PC-12 cells treated with 10 µg/ml of this active glycoside, neurite outgrowth was induced.

A novel benzothiazole-2-one (S319) sympathomimetic agent was isolated from the marine sponge *Dysidea* sp. (Suzuki et al., 1999). While investigating its tracheal-relaxing activity, the investigators determined that this compound was more potent than isoproterenol. Because its pharmacological effect appeared to be mediated through β₂-adrenoceptors, the authors suggested that this compound might become a clinically useful and potent bronchodilator (Suzuki et al., 1999).

4. Marine compounds with miscellaneous mechanisms of action

Table 3 lists 22 marine compounds with miscellaneous mechanisms of action in Fig. 3. Interestingly, and in contrast to the chemicals included in Tables 1 and 2, this third group of marine compounds includes nitrogen-containing compounds (i.e. proteins, peptides, pyridines, tyrosine-based metabolites), terpenes and polyketides, but not polysaccharides.

For some of these marine chemicals, namely alkyipyridinium polymers, caulerpenyne, CEL-1, CEL-2, equistatin, eucheuma isolectins, maitotoxin, obelin, palytoxin, *Ptilota serrata* lectin, sinulamide, tridentatols and xestoquinone, both the pharmacological activity and a molecular mechanism of action have been investigated. For the anabaenopeptins G and H, kelletinin A, roseline and styloquinonic acid, only the pharmacological

activity has been investigated so far. Finally, although adociasulfates 1–6, iantheran A, lyso-PAF analogues and octa- and nonaprenylhydroquinone sulfates have been explored at the molecular level, no pharmacological activity has been clearly identified at this time. Hopefully, ongoing studies with these compounds will permit their assignment to a particular therapeutic class in the near future.

5. Reviews on marine pharmacology

During 1999, several reviews covering selected aspects of marine pharmacology were published: the patent literature (Kerr and Kerr, 1999); the literature of marine natural product chemistry for 1997 (Faulkner, 1999); the biochemistry and biomedical applications of giant keyhole limpet hemocyanin (Harris and Markl, 1999); sea anemone toxins as templates for new immunosuppressant drugs (Kem et al., 1999); the pharmacology of polyketides from dinoflagellates (Rein and Borronne, 1999); the biochemistry and pharmacology of the anti-inflammatory phospholipase A₂ inhibitor manoalide (Soriente et al., 1999); and the current state of knowledge of actin-binding marine natural products (Spector et al., 1999).

Kerr and Kerr (1999) reviewed the patent literature in the field of marine natural products covering the period 1996–April 1999, noting that the majority of the patents focused on antitumor agents, although some covered antiviral and anti-inflammatory activities. Phylum Porifera was the source of the majority of metabolites described in the patents.

In an extensive review, Faulkner (1999) discussed some 749 novel marine compounds reported during 1997 and derived from organisms belonging to four kingdoms, namely Animalia (Echinodermata, Cnidaria, Porifera, Mollusca, Chordata), Fungi, Plantae (Chlorophyta, Phaeophyta, Rhodophyta) and Monera (Cyanobacteria), some of which possessed interesting "... biological and pharmacological properties".

1999 saw the completion of an extensive review of the biochemistry, structure and cellular immunology of keyhole limpet hemocyanin (KLH) (Harris and Markl, 1999), a copper-containing respiratory protein isolated from the marine gastropod *Megathura crenulata*. Although the review provides extensive information on the use of KLH for tumor immunotherapy, as a pharmaceutical carrier for vaccines and antigens and as a tool for

Table 3
Marine pharmacology in 1999: compounds with miscellaneous mechanisms of action

| Compound | Organism ^a | Chemistry | Pharmacological activity | MMOA ^b | Country ^c | References |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|--|---|---|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| Adociasulfates 1–6 | Sponge | Sulfated triterpene ^e | Undetermined | Kinesin motor protein inhibition | USA | Blackburn et al., 1999 |
| Alkylpyridinium polymer | Sponge | Pyridine ^f | Cytolytic to bovine erythrocytes | 5.8-nm pores in membranes | SLO | Malovrh et al., 1999 |
| Anabaenopeptins G and H | Bacterium | Peptide ^f | Carboxypeptidase A inhibition | Undetermined | JPN | Itou et al., 1999 |
| Caulerpenyne | Alga | Sesquiterpene ^e | Pancreatic lipase inhibition | Competitive inhibition of enzyme | JPN | Bitou et al., 1999 |
| CEL-1 | Sea cucumber | Protein ^f | Hemolysis of rabbit erythrocytes | Ca ²⁺ -dependent binding to carbohydrates | JPN | Hatakeyama et al., 1999 |
| CEL-III | Sea cucumber | Protein ^f | Hemolysis of rabbit erythrocytes | Ca ²⁺ -dependent binding to carbohydrates | JPN | Oda et al., 1999 |
| Equistatin | Anemone | Protein ^f | Cysteine proteinase and cathepsin D inhibition | Inhibitory activity of first, second and third domains determined | SLO | Lenarcic and Turk, 1999 |
| <i>Eucheuma</i> isolectins | Alga | Protein ^f | Hemagglutination and mitogenesis | Lectins with affinity for mannose glycans | JPN | Kawakubo et al., 1999 |
| Iantheran A | Sponge | Polyketide ^d | Undetermined | Na,K-ATPase inhibition | JPN | Okamoto et al., 1999 |
| Kelletinin A | Mollusc | Complex polyketide ^d | Differentiation promoter in <i>Hydra</i> | Undetermined | ITA | De Petrocellis et al., 1999 |
| Lyso-PAF analogues | Sponge | Polyketide ^d | Undetermined | Cholesterol biosynthesis inhibition | S. KOR | Shin et al., 1999 |
| Maitotoxin | Alga | Complex polyketide ^d | Ca ²⁺ increase in erythrocyte ghosts | Blocked by gangliosides | JPN | Konoki et al., 1999 |
| Maitotoxin | Alga | Complex polyketide ^d | Cytotoxicity and cell death | Ca ²⁺ -dependent ERK1/ERK2 activation | JPN, ITA | Malaguti et al., 1999 |
| Maitotoxin | Alga | Complex polyketide ^d | Phosphoinositide hydrolysis | Dependent on extra-cellular Ca ²⁺ | JPN | Nakahata et al., 1999b |
| Maitotoxin | Alga | Complex polyketide ^d | Ca ²⁺ increase in single hepatocytes | Dependent on extra-cellular Ca ²⁺ | UK, JPN | Woods et al., 1999 |
| Obelin | Cnidaria | Protein ^f | Bioluminescence-based immunoassay for small peptides | Competition with obelin-octapeptide fusion protein | USA | Matveev et al., 1999 |
| Octa/nonaprenyl hydroquinone sulfates | Sponge | Prenylated hydroquinone sulfate ^{d,e} | Undetermined | α1,3-Fucosyl transferase VII inhibition | JPN, AUS | Wakimoto et al., 1999 |
| Palytoxin | Coral | Macrolide ^d | Induction of non-selective cation channel in megakaryocytes | Sensitivity to ouabain, NiCl ₂ and amiloride derivatives | JPN | Ichida et al., 1999 |
| <i>Ptilota serrata</i> lectin | Alga | Protein ^f | Hemagglutination inhibition assays | Activity dependent on divalent cations | UK, BRA | Sampaio et al., 1999 |
| Roselipins | Fungus | Polyketide | Diacylglycerol | Undetermined | JPN | Tomoda et al., 1999 |

Table 3 (Continued)

| Compound | Organism ^a | Chemistry | Pharmacological activity | MMOA ^b | Country ^c | References |
|--------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|--|---|----------------------|----------------------|
| | | glycoside ^d | acyltransferase inhibition | | | |
| Sinulamide | Coral | Diterpene ^e | Cytotoxic to murine leukemia cells | H,K-ATPase inhibition | JPN | Sata et al., 1999 |
| Stypoquinonic acid | Alga | Complex polyketide ^d | Tyrosine kinase inhibition | Undetermined | GER | Wessels et al., 1999 |
| Tridentatols | Hydroid | Tyrosine-based ^f | Antioxidant | Inhibition of lipid peroxidation of LDL | USA | Johnson et al., 1999 |
| Xestoquinone | Sponge | Complex polyketide ^d | Induction of sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca ²⁺ release | Modification of sulfhydryl groups | JPN | Ito et al., 1999 |

^a Organisms: kingdom Animalia: anemones, corals and hydroids (Cnidaria); mollusc (Mollusca); sea cucumber (Echinodermata); sponge (Porifera); kingdom Fungi: fungus; kingdom Plantae: alga; kingdom Monera: bacterium (Cyanobacteria).

^b MMOA: molecular mechanism of action.

^c Country: AUS, Australia; BRA, Brazil; GER, Germany; ITA, Italy; JPN, Japan; S. KOR, South Korea; SLO, Slovenia; SWZ, Switzerland; UK, United Kingdom.

^d Polyketide.

^e Terpene.

^f Nitrogen-containing compound.

the investigation of immune competence in both animal and human health, the authors suggest that a number of critically important questions currently remain to be addressed by the suppliers of KLH for both experimental and clinical use.

Kem et al. (1999) reviewed a novel class of sea anemone K channel toxins as a potential template for the design of novel immunosuppressant drugs. The article is quite thought-provoking, because it focuses upon a relatively novel immunosuppressant strategy that is based on the inhibition of K channels to control T-lymphocyte proliferation. The authors propose that the use of novel immunosuppressant agents incorporating the anemone toxin pharmacophore could potentially lead to new pharmacologic treatments for autoimmune diseases, such as multiple sclerosis, type 1 diabetes and systemic lupus, as well as therapy for organ transplantation.

In an extensive review on human immunodeficiency virus reverse-transcriptase inhibitors of natural origin, these inhibitors were grouped according to their source organism, i.e. plant, micro-organism and marine organism (Matthee et al., 1999). The section on marine-derived reverse transcriptase (RT) inhibitors describes 20 marine chemicals, as well as algal extracts showing antiviral activities. The authors conclude their review by suggesting that marine compounds remain a poorly investigated source of HIV-RT inhibitors, and thus could potentially represent a resource of lead structures.

The biological activities of dinoflagellates polyketides are varied and include cytotoxic, antitumor, antibiotic, antifungal, immunosuppressant, and neurotoxic activities (Rein and Borrone, 1999). As to future directions in dinoflagellate polyketide pharmacology, the authors suggest that studies aimed at "...identifying biosynthetic potential at the genomic level" may ultimately allow the discovery of novel biosynthetic capability in these organisms.

The chemistry and pharmacology of manoalide, a potent analgesic and anti-inflammatory sesterterpene isolated from *Luffariella variabilis*, were comprehensively reviewed (Soriente et al., 1999). This report emphasizes the chemistry of manoalide and its analogues, structure–activity relationships, mechanism-of-action studies of manoalide and related compounds on phospholipase A₂ and an extensive discussion of the in vitro and in vitro pharmacology of manoalide. Because this review

includes more than 100 peer-reviewed articles, it appears to be the most comprehensive to date on manoalide chemistry and pharmacology.

Spector et al. (1999) described the current state of knowledge of actin-targeted marine natural products. In recent years, these investigators have identified several marine chemicals, namely the latrunculins, jasplakinolides, swinholide A, misakinolide A, halichondramides and pectenotoxin II, that bind to actin. The use of these chemicals to study fenestrae formation in liver endothelial cells provides an example of the "...new insights into specific aspects of actin-mediated cellular processes" that can be gained using these actin-binding marine natural products.

6. Conclusion

Although during 1999 no new marine natural product was approved for patient care by the US Food and Drug Administration, the present report clearly documents the fact that during 1999 pre-clinical pharmacological research with marine chemicals continued to be an extremely active, as well as multinational, effort involving collaborations between natural product chemists and pharmacologists from more than 18 countries, including the United States.

Acknowledgments

This publication was made possible with support from grant number R03 ES10138-01 (to A.M.S.M) from the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, National Institutes of Health and Midwestern University, grant numbers 5R01AI36596 and 5K02AI01502 (to MTH) from the National Institutes of Allergy and Infectious Diseases. Its contents are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official view of the NIEHS, NIH. Excellent support for extensive bibliographic searches and article retrieval by library staff members, medical and pharmacy students at Midwestern University is most gratefully acknowledged. The authors wish to specially thank Mrs Victoria Sears for her excellent secretarial assistance in the preparation of this manuscript.

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