

## SOME ASPECTS OF THE CHEMISTRY AND BIOLOGY OF THE GENUS *HYPOCREA* AND ITS ANAMORPHS, *TRICHODERMA* AND *GLIOCLADIUM*

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The literature describing the occurrence, some aspects of the physiology and toxicology of the metabolic products of *Hypocrea*, *Gliocladium* and *Trichoderma* spp. is reviewed. A list of known metabolites of this group of fungi has been assembled and the common physical properties of these compounds are given when they have been reported. Such data as have been published on the toxicity of these metabolites is summarised, with particular emphasis on suitable review articles. An attempt is made to provide a comprehensive list of agents, known as potential inhibitors of the growth of these fungi.

La littérature décrivant quelques aspects de la physiologie et de la toxicologie des métabolites d'*Hypocrea*, *Gliocladium* et *Trichoderma* spp. est passée en revue. Une liste des métabolites connus de ce groupe de moisissures est dressée et les propriétés physiques courantes sont données si connues. Les informations publiées concernant la toxicité de ces métabolites sont resumées avec référence aux articles de revue appropriées. L'auteur tente de donner une liste compréhensive de agents potentiellement inhibiteurs de la croissance de ces moisissures.

### Introduction

The taxonomy of the three genera, *Hypocrea*, *Gliocladium*, and *Trichoderma* is in some respects confused. Authoritative studies of these taxonomic problems may be found in Gams (1971), Webster and Lomas (1964) and Rifai (1969), but there are many examples in the literature that report difficult classification problems (e.g. Brian 1944, Brewer and Taylor 1981). For the purpose of this review, therefore, the position is taken that the three genera are very closely related and that serious lacunae would appear should one or other be excluded. There is also some debate concerning the classification of the fungus that produces cyclosporins; it was originally thought to be *Trichoderma polysporum* but later work has used the name *Tolyocladium inflatum* (Gams 1971b). For the purpose of the review it is assumed that the taxonomy remains uncertain.

The first part of the review is devoted to the substrates on which the organisms are found, with emphasis on the more unusual of these; the second part attempts to give a comprehensive account of the very wide variety of known metabolites and the third part describes what is known of their toxicities. These fungi are heavily involved in the natural degradation of organic substrates and hence a very large body of work has been done in attempts to protect e.g. wood from their activities. The fourth part of the review is therefore devoted to a description of the agents that have been used to this end and to their effectiveness.

The literature has been thoroughly searched up to and including December 1984, but additional references from 1985 will be found where these have come to my attention during that year. I have not read all the papers cited in this review; articles that I have not read can be distinguished by a reference to Chemical Abstracts.

*Natural and unusual habitats of fungi of the genera Hypocrea, Gliocladium and Trichoderma*

*Hypocrea* spp. are usually found on decaying wood but it has been known for more than 100 years that frequently they are parasites on other fungi (see e.g. Saccardo 1883, Tabata and Kondo 1977). By contrast the genera *Gliocladium* and *Trichoderma* are found very frequently in the soils of the planet. There have been a number of extensive studies of the soil ecology of these organisms. For example, Berestetskii, Patyka and Nadkernichuyi (1977) studied more than 700 isolates of *Trichoderma* from soils and Brewer and Taylor (1980) found that *Gliocladium roseum*, *Trichoderma koningii* and *Trichoderma hamatum* accounted for about 6% of some 25,000 fungal isolates collected over a 10 year period from pasture soil at Nappan, Nova Scotia. Many of the species of the three genera are capable of the hydrolysis of plant polysaccharides, especially cellulose, and a very large number of studies of this process both at the cellular and enzymic levels has been recorded in the literature. The impetus behind this work is the conversion of plant waste e.g. coffee grounds (Aguirre *et al.* 1976) into digestible components e.g. fructose in the diet of humans and domestic animals. This topic has been reviewed on many occasions and is not repeated here; the interested reader should consult for example Ryu and Mandel (1980).

The substrates on which these fungi have been observed to grow are given in Table I. It is clear from the data in the Table that these organisms can grow on a diverse range of substrates from stainless steel (Brown and Pabst 1977), presumably with a carbon content to bitumen used for road construction (Khimerik and Koval 1977). However a ubiquitous substrate for most of these fungi is wood and the various products manufactured from it (Merrill *et al.* 1965). Viable *Trichoderma* spp. have been found in thin cross-sections of timber (Dinulescu 1979) and this is perhaps not surprising because of the growing appreciation of the importance of endophytic fungi in higher plants (Claydon *et al.* 1985). The economic losses resulting from fungal degradation of timber and associated products has led to considerable effort to control their growth on this substrate. This aspect is discussed in greater detail in a later part of the review, but it is relevant to mention at this point that alkali treatment of wood chips before storage (Bergman and Nilsson 1971) was not particularly effective and that fumigation with formaldehyde resulted in the discovery that this agent (and other C<sub>1</sub> compounds) were utilised by *Gliocladium deliquescens* with alacrity (Sakaguchi *et al.* 1976). It is known (Moelhave 1977) that the formaldehyde concentration in aggregated wood products cemented with urea-formaldehyde resins is proportional to the humidity; that *Trichoderma* spp. grown on such resins (von Kerner-gang and Hoffmann 1982) and hence it may be concluded that these fungi are natural components of all materials containing products derived from wood. Laboratory studies (Gauze *et al.* 1983, Brewer *et al.* 1982, Sierota 1977) have shown that these fungi grow well on very simple media containing only one of a wide range of carbohydrate sources, and simple nitrogen containing compounds e.g. urea (Nelson 1972, 1976). It follows that these organisms will grow rapidly on almost any natural substrate providing that both the temperature and humidity conditions are suitable. Little is known of the range of humidities conducive to growth (but see Widden and Abitol 1980); much more is known about the temperature range (Brewer and Taylor 1980) which is relatively wide (5-35°).

*Metabolites of fungi of the genera Hypocrea, Gliocladium and Trichoderma*

For the purpose of this review, the metabolic products of these fungi are separated into groups; the grouping is based on the chemistry of the metabolites and particularly on their probable mode of biosynthesis. The appearance of a compound (or a mixture of very closely related compounds) in one of the Tables implies that there

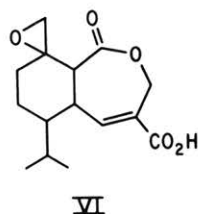
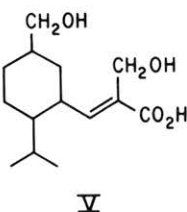
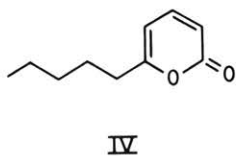
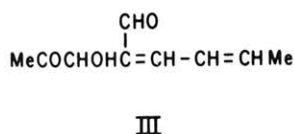
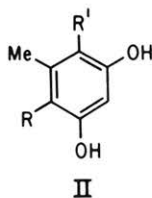
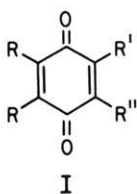
**Table I** Substrates supporting growth of *Hypocrea* spp. *Gliocladium* spp. or *Trichoderma* spp.

Organism	Substrate	Reference
<i>Hypocrea nigricans</i>	Lentinus edodes Cellulose	Tabata & Kondo (1977) Doi et al., (1972)
<i>Hypocrea peltata</i>	Cellulose	Doi et al., (1972)
<i>Hypocrea schweinitzii</i>	Lentinus edodes	Tabata & Kondo (1977)
<i>Gliocladium</i> sp.	Groundnut Epichlorhydrin cross-linked cellulose	Madaan & Chohan (1978) Dao Cong Dan et al., (1980)
<i>Gliocladium</i> varians	Rhizospheres of barley & oats	Sukhorukova (1972)
<i>Trichoderma</i> spp.	Barley $\beta$ -glucan Cork Lentinus edodes Rhizoctonia spp. Phythium spp. Petroleum waxes Motor oil recovered from Chesapeake Bay Road building bitumen Polyvinyl chloride/dibutyl sebacate/dioctyl phthalate Polyvinyl chloride Polyvinyl alcohol based polymer Acetylated cellulose Ethylene/vinyl acetate copolymers Paint Organosilicon protective coatings Chromed leather (N. American) Wood shavings impregnated with urea Silicate rocks and soil Stainless steel and aluminum alloys Domestic humidifiers	Iguae (1966) Cook & Harrington (1948) Tabata & Kondo (1977) Allen & Haenseler (1935) Haenseler & Allen (1934) Bilai et al., (1965) Colwell et al., (1974) Khimerik and Koval (1977) Berk (1951) Yamano (1979) Shteinberg et al., (1983) Abramova et al., (1973) Griffin and Mivetchi (1977) Kleus and Lang (1956) Pashenko et al., (1978) Mitzutani et al., (1980) Nelson (1972) Henderson and Duff (1963) Brown & Pabst (1977) Burge et al., (1980)
<i>Trichoderma hamatum</i>	Diesel fuel	Suess & Netzsch-Lehner (1969)
<i>Trichoderma harzianum</i>	Lentinus edodes Ferric hydroxide mud impregnated with oil	Tabata & Kondo (1977) Gudin and Chater (1977)
<i>Trichoderma koningii</i>	Wood pulp	Wakazawa et al., (1965)
<i>Trichoderma lignorum</i>	Rhizoctonia solani Phytophthora parasitica	Weindling (1932) Daines (1937) Weindling (1932)
<i>Trichoderma lignorum</i>	Sclerotium rolfsii Phythium sp. Rhizopus spp. Actinomyces scabies Wood resin Diglycidyl-hydroquinone ether polymers	Weindling (1932) Weindling (1932) Weindling (1932) Weindling (1932) Daines (1937) Nilsson and Assarsson (1970) Anisimov et al., (1977)
<i>Trichoderma viride</i>	Wood Wood Chitin Rye-grass straw Synthetic rubbers and polyethylene Vanillin Allyl alcohol	Stranks (1971) Verrall (1949) Kawasaki and Ito (1966) Han and Anderson (1975) Mazur (1979) Moreau and Augier (1962) Jackson (1973)

exists in the literature, data from the measurement of physical properties that allow competent chemists to judge if natural products they isolate are identical or not. A few other materials that have been reported in Abstracts in papers I have been unable to read are reported in the text. In addition, such simple volatile metabolites - ethyl alcohol, ethyl acetate, sec-butyl alcohol, isoamyl alcohol, octanol, octa-3-one, oct-1-ene-3-ol (Saito *et al.* 1981) and acetaldehyde (Dennis and Webster 1971) have not been included in the Tables. The biological significance of the production of volatile metabolites by these fungi have interested mycologists for many years (Bilal 1956, Hutchinson and Cowan 1972, Tamimi and Hutchinson 1975). This has been particularly the case because of the part that may be played by such metabolites in the sexual reproductive cycle of many *Phytophthora* spp. (Reeves and Jackson 1972, Pratt *et al.* 1972); species responsible for diseases in some of the world's most important agricultural crops. However a systematic examination of a large number of isolates for volatile metabolites has not been recorded. Reference to the melting points given in the Tables shows that many metabolites have melting points below 150° - all such compounds can be considered to have measurable vapour pressures.

*Polyketide metabolites produced by Hypocrea, Gliocladium and Trichoderma*

A list of these compounds is given in Table II. Apart from the bis-anthraquinone (XXXIII) most of these compounds were studied in the era 1950-1965 i.e. before the advent of high pressure liquid chromatography. It is likely that there are many more variations in the resorcinol (Pettersson 1965) and hydroquinone (Brian *et al.* 1951, Vischer 1953) components than those recorded in the Table. The benzoquinones,



and anthraquinones are easily reduced to the leuco forms and strong evidence has been presented (Pettersson 1965) that these are the true natural products - the more volatile quinones being artefacts of the isolation procedure. Such compounds are, of course, vat-dye stuffs, or in other words they form stable complexes with natural carbohydrate polymers. Most of these compounds are biosynthesised, often in high yield, from acetate by a polyketide route and are formed after the end of the so-called logarithmic phase of growth, usually when all source of nitrogen has been exhausted (Pettersson 1965, Gatenbeck 1958). The diphenyl ether metabolites (XXXI) isolated

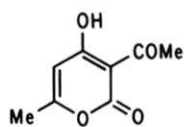
**Table II** Polyketide metabolites of *Hypocrea* spp., *Gliocladium* spp. and *Trichoderma* spp.

Trivial name	Structure	m.p.	Producing organism	References
Tartronic acid	HOCH(CO <sub>2</sub> H) <sub>2</sub>	158-60°	<i>T. pseudokoningii</i>	Kamal <i>et al.</i> , (1971)
Aurantiogliocladin	I, R=Me, R'=R''=OMe	63°	<i>G. roseum</i>	Brian <i>et al.</i> , (1951)
Gliorsein	Dihydro I, R=Me, R'=R''=OMe	48°		
	I, R=Me, R'=R''=OH	182°		Pettersson (1964)
	I, R=Me, R'=OH, R''=OMe	70°		
	I, R=OMe, R'=R''=H		<i>T. pseudokoningii</i>	Kamal <i>et al.</i> , (1971)
Orcinol	II, R=R'=H	108°	<i>G. roseum</i>	Pettersson (1965)
	II, R=Me, R'=H	136°		
	II, R=Me, R'=CO <sub>2</sub> H	158°		
Dehydroacetic acid	XXX	109-11°	<i>H. sulphurea</i>	Nair and Carey (1979)
	XXXI, R=H		<i>H. citrina</i>	
	XXXI, R=CO <sub>2</sub> H	194°		
Pachybasin	XXXII, R=R <sup>3</sup> =H, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =Me	176°	<i>T. viride</i>	Slater <i>et al.</i> , (1967)
Chrysophanol	XXXII, R=R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =Me, R <sup>3</sup> =H	194°		
	XXXII, R=R <sup>1</sup> =R <sup>3</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =Me	256-8°	<i>H. austragrandis</i>	Nago and Ishikawa (1970)
Emodin			<i>T. viride</i>	Slater <i>et al.</i> , (1967)
			<i>H. austragrandis</i>	Nago and Ishikawa (1971)
Hypochrysophanol	unknown	205°		
SC2051	XXXIII		<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	Manyu (1980)
	IV, x=CH=CH		<i>T. viride</i>	Moss <i>et al.</i> , (1975)
	IV, x=CH <sub>2</sub> -CH <sub>2</sub>			Collins and Halim (1972)
			<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	Kikuchi <i>et al.</i> , (1974)

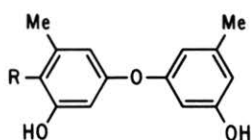
**Table III** Terpenoid metabolites of *Hypocrea* spp., *Gliocladium* spp. and *Trichoderma* spp.

Trivial name	Structure	m.p.	$[\alpha]_D$	Producing organism	References
(+)-R-avellaneol	3-Hydroxy-3,4-dimethylpentanoic acid III	100°/.05 mm	-1.1°  +39°	G. deliquescens  H. avellania	Hanson and O'Leary (1981)  Ananthasubramanian <i>et al.</i> , (1978)
Gliocladic acid	V			G. virans T. viride	Itoh <i>et al.</i> , (1982)
Heptelidic acid = avocetin	VI	62-5°	+7.4°	G. virans	Itoh <i>et al.</i> , (1980)
Cyclonerodiol	VII		-20°	T. polysporum	Stipanovic and Howell (1983)
Cyclonerodioloxyde	VIII	47-50°	-20°		Fujita <i>et al.</i> , (1984)
Trichodermin = WG 696	IX, R=R'''=H, R'=Me, R''=OAc	46°	-11°	T. viride  T. polysporum T. sporulosum H. austrograndis	Godtfredson and Vangedal (1965) Adams and Hanson (1972) Nago and Ishikawa (1971)
Trichodermol = roridin C	IX, R=R'''=H, R'=Me, R''=OH	115°	-33°	T. polysporum T. sporulosum	Adams and Hanson (1972)
T <sub>2</sub> toxin	IX, R=OCOCH <sub>2</sub> CHMe <sub>2</sub> , R'''=OH, R'=CH <sub>2</sub> OAc, R''=OAc	151-2°	+15°	T. lignorum	Bamburg and Strong (1969)
HT <sub>2</sub> toxin (?)	IX, R=OCOCH <sub>2</sub> CHMe <sub>2</sub> , R'=CH <sub>2</sub> OAc, R''=R'''=OH				
Trichodermene A	XX			T. pseudokoningii	Kamal <i>et al.</i> , (1971)
Viridin	X, Y=O	245°	-224°	T. viride	Brian <i>et al.</i> , (1946) Grove <i>et al.</i> , (1965, 1966)
Viridiol	X, Y=H, OH	198-201°			Moffatt <i>et al.</i> , (1969)
Pyrocalciferol	XXVI	93-5°	+502°	T. pseudokoningii	Kamal <i>et al.</i> , (1971)

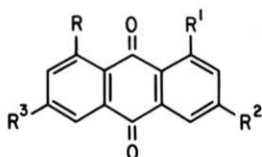
from *Hypocrea citrina* (Nair and Carey 1979) are derived from orcinol (II, R=R'=H, Yamamoto et al. 1972) and the acid (XXXI, R=CO<sub>2</sub>H) has also been isolated from *Aspergillus fumigatus*.



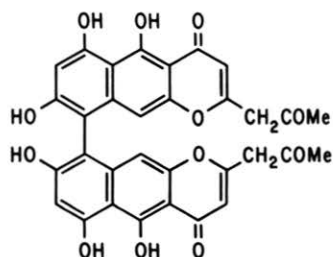
**XXX**



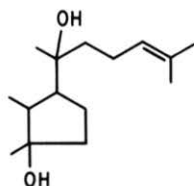
**XXXI**



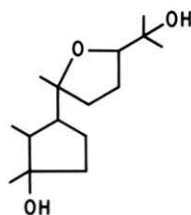
**XXXII**



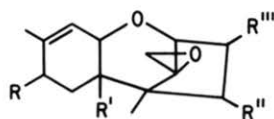
**XXXIII**



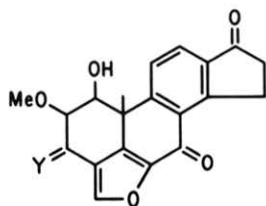
**VII**



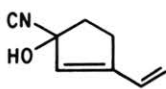
**VIII**



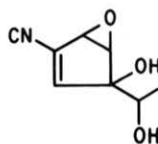
**IX**



**X**



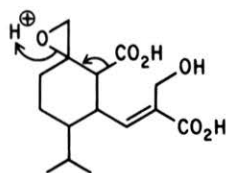
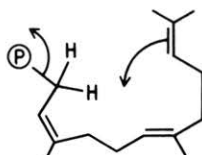
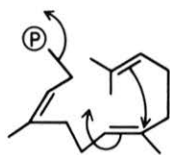
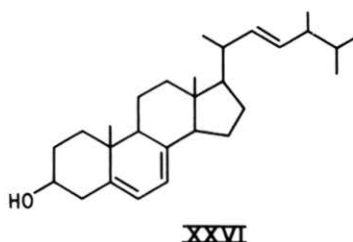
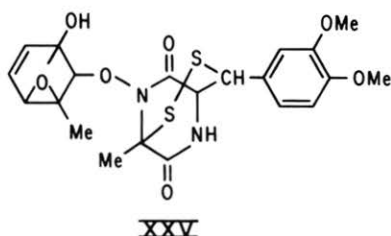
**XI**



**XII**

Oligomers of mevalonic acid produced by *Gliocladium* spp., *Hypocrea* spp., and *Trichoderma* spp.

A list of these compounds is given in Table III. Most of the compounds in the Table are low-melting solids. The structures of all, with perhaps the exceptions of avellaneol and trichodermane A have been rigorously established, though the absolute configuration of T<sub>2</sub>-toxin and its congeners has not yet been determined. There have been extensive studies on the biosynthesis of trichodermin (IX, R=R''=H, R'=Me, R''=OAc; Achilladelis *et al.* 1972) and heptelic acid (VI, Stipanovic and Howell 1983). Both arise from farnesyl pyrophosphate, folded in the same way, but the carbonium ion generated by the leaving pyrophosphate group cyclises in the former case (Arigioni *et al.* 1973) as shown in XXVII and in the latter case as shown in XXVIII. In both cases



the following reaction is a hydride shift nominally over 4 carbon atoms in the trichothecin and 3 in the example of heptelic acid. There is ample precedent for the subsequent rearrangements. It has been suggested (Itoh *et al.* 1982) that gliocladic acid (V) is biodegradatively derived from heptelic acid by decarboxylation as shown in XXIX. Cyclonerodiol (VII) and its congeners are also known to be sesquiterpenoid (Pitel *et al.* 1971) cyclisation products of farnesyl pyrophosphate.

A number of C<sub>20</sub> and higher oligomers of mevalonic acid are given in Table III of which viridin (X) and its derivatives are perhaps the most interesting. These compounds are not diterpenes but are biodegradation products of steroid intermediates (Blight *et al.* 1968) e.g. lanosterol (Golder and Watson 1980), and squalene (Hanson and Wadsworth 1979). Some work has been done on the biosynthesis of avellaneol (III, Nair *et al.* 1982) who have shown that \*CH<sub>3</sub>CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and CH<sub>3</sub>\*CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> are recovered in about 2% yield in avellaneol but that \*CH<sub>3</sub>\*CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> is not incorporated intact. It is therefore possible that the biosynthesis of this metabolite (III) is not terpenoid but is analogous to that of the isocyanides discussed in the next section.

*Metabolites derived from α-amino acids by degradation or elaboration*

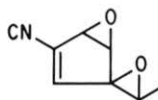
A list of these compounds is given in Table IV. About eight cyclopentyl isocyanides



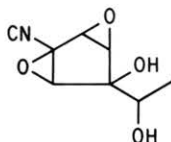
**Table IV** Non-polypeptide metabolites of *Gliocladium* spp. and *Trichoderma* spp. derived from  $\alpha$ -amino acids.

Trivial name	Structure	m.p.	$[\alpha]_D$	Producing organism	References
Isonitrin D	XI	55°	+68.5°	<i>T. harzianum</i>	Fujiwara <i>et al.</i> , (1982)
Isonitrin B	XII	89°	-89.9°	<i>T. hamatum</i>	
Isonitrin A	XIII	91°	+9°		
Trichoviridin = isonitrin C	XIV	102°	-41.2°	<i>T. viride</i>	Tamura <i>et al.</i> , (1975) Nobuhara <i>et al.</i> , (1976)
Dermadin	XV	120-5°	+133°	<i>T. hamatum</i>	Brewer <i>et al.</i> , (1982)
	XVI				
	XVII				Baldwin <i>et al.</i> , (1985)
	XVIII (CO <sub>2</sub> Me)				
TP-1		185-7°		<i>T. polysporum</i>	Fujita <i>et al.</i> , (1984)
Valinotricin	XIX	128-9°	-65.7°	<i>G. virens</i>	Behling and Fischer (1980)
	3-Benzyl-6-hydroxy- methylenepiperazine-2,5- dione				
Gliotoxin	XXI	221°	-255°	<i>G. fimbriatum</i> <i>T. hamatum</i> <i>G. deliquescens</i>	Johnson <i>et al.</i> , (1943) Hussain <i>et al.</i> , (1975) Hanson and O'Leary (1981)
	XXII, R=H	68-9°	-55.6°		
	XXII, R=CH <sub>2</sub> CH=CMe <sub>2</sub>		-26.8°		
	XXIII (?)				
	XXIV				Kirby <i>et al.</i> , (1980)
Gliovirin	XXV	247-9°	-97°	<i>G. virens</i>	Stipanovic and Howell (1982)
	3,6-Dibenzylpiperazine -2,5-dione	303-8°	-167°		
Trichorin A	unknown	234-46°	-190°	<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	Katayama <i>et al.</i> , (1977)
Trichorin B		212-4°			

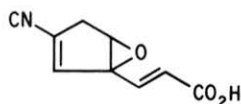
that have been fully characterised, are now known. Their structures are given in formulae XI to XVIII - the latter is only known as its methyl ester, which is not a natural product (Baldwin *et al.* 1985). There are, however, many more such compounds in fermentation broths of *T. hamatum*, *T. koningii*, *T. harzianum* and *T. polysporum* and it is likely that many of these will be characterised now that it is possible to obtain stable co-ordination complexes of them with rhodium pentamethylcyclopentadiene



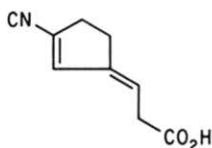
XIII



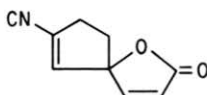
XIV



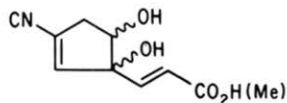
XV



XVI

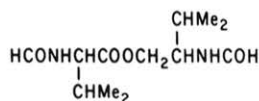


XVII

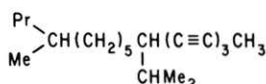


XVIII

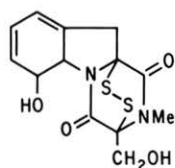
isothiocyanate (Hanson *et al.* 1985). The known compounds vary in instability from trichoviridin (XIV) - a stable crystalline solid to 3-(3'-isocyanocyclopent-2-enylidene-) propionic acid (XVI), which has a half-life in dilute aqueous solution of pH 8 of about 4 h. All of these compounds are volatile and an early method of recovery was by steam



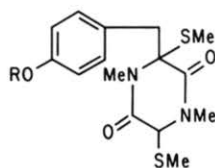
XIX



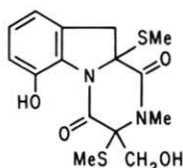
XX



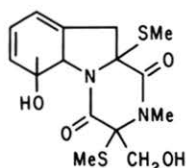
XXI



XXII



XXIII



XXIV

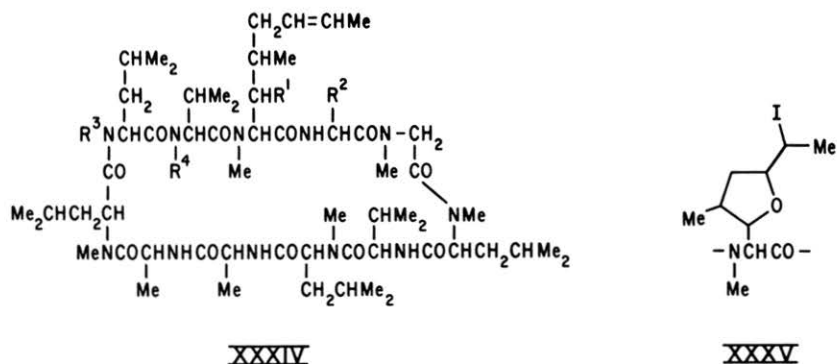
distillation at about 35°/1 mm. These isocyanides are biodegradation products of tyrosine (Baldwin *et al.* 1985, Parry and Hanh Phuoc Buu 1982) and are formed by oxidation of the aromatic ring at the phenolic group, decarboxylation, and cyclisation of the side-chain of the amino acid to provide the cyclopentenyl moiety. This process



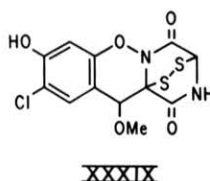
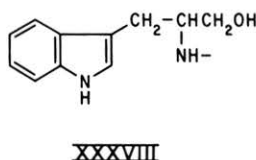
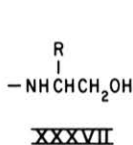
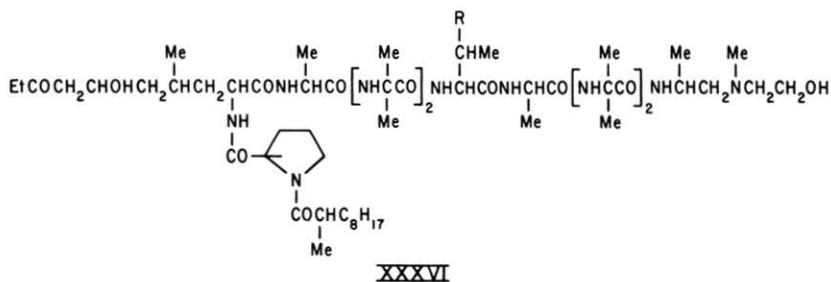
Shannon 1966). The biosynthesis of these sulphur compounds has been exhaustively examined and has been reviewed on numerous occasions (see e.g. Leigh and Taylor 1976).

*Polypeptide metabolites other than proteins, of Gliocladium spp., Hypocrea spp. and Trichoderma spp.*

The peptide metabolites of these fungi can be divided into two groups - those produced by *Trichoderma polysporum* i.e. XXXIV and XXXVI, and all of the others. This may be a chemotaxonomic basis for the reclassification of *T. polysporum* as *Tolypocladium inflatum* (Traber et al. 1982). The structure of the cyclosporins is based



on x-ray crystallography of the iodo derivative XXXV in which the 3-hydroxyl group of the unsaturated 4-methylcaprylic acid side-chain and iodine have added to the double bond (Petcher et al. 1976). This same hydroxyl group participates in a rearrangement involving the 2-methylamino group of this C<sub>9</sub> amino acid whereby a depsipeptide is produced; the lactone being generated with the proximal valyl residue. No details of the toxicity of such depsipeptides have been revealed. A synthesis of cyclosporin A (XXXIV, R<sup>1</sup>=OH, R<sup>2</sup>=Et, R<sup>3</sup>=R<sup>4</sup>=Me) and its enantiomer cyclosporin H has been reported (Wenger 1984).



**Table V** Polypeptide antibiotics produced by *Hypocrea peltata*, *Gliocladium deliquescens* and *Trichoderma* spp.

Trivial Name	Producing Organism	Structure	m.p.	$[\alpha]_D$	References
Cyclosporin A	<i>T. polysporum</i>	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =Et, R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me	148-51°	-244°	Ruegger <i>et al.</i> , (1976)
Cyclosporin B	- do -	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me	149-52°	-244°	Traber <i>et al.</i> , (1977)
Cyclosporin C	- do -	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =CHOHMe, R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me	152-5°	-238°	Ruegger <i>et al.</i> , (1976)
Cyclosporin D	- do -	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =CHMe <sub>2</sub> , R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me	148-51°	-255°	Traber <i>et al.</i> , (1977)
Cyclosporin E	- do -	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =Et, R <sup>3</sup> =Me, R <sup>4</sup> =H	142-3°	-179°	Traber <i>et al.</i> , (1982)
Cyclosporin F	- do -	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =H, R <sup>2</sup> =Et, R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me	183-4°	-290°	
Cyclosporin G	- do -	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =CHMe <sub>2</sub> , R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me	196-7°	-245°	
Cyclosporin H	- do -	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =Et, R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me	162-5°	-177°	
Cyclosporin I	- do -	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =CHMe <sub>2</sub> , R <sup>3</sup> =H, R <sup>4</sup> =Me	137-40°	-177°	
Trichotoxin	<i>T. viride</i>	See Table VI	187°		Hou <i>et al.</i> , (1972); Brückner <i>et al.</i> , (1979)
Alamethicin	<i>T. hamatum</i>	- do -	275-9°	-5°	Upjohn Co., (1969); Pandey <i>et al.</i> , (1977)
Gliodeliquescin	<i>G. deliquescens</i>	- do -	260°		Brückner & Przybylski (1984)
Hypelcin AI	<i>H. Peltata</i>	- do -	265-6°	-17°	Fujita <i>et al.</i> , (1979, 1984)
Hypelcin AII	- do -	- do -	254-6°	-1°	
Hypelcin AIII	- do -	- do -	256-8°		
Hypelcin AIV	- do -	- do -	259-61°		
Paracelsin	<i>T. reesei</i>	- do -	253-5°	-19.5°	Brückner <i>et al.</i> , (1984)
Suzukacillin	<i>T. viride</i>	- do -	250°	-85.7°	Ooka <i>et al.</i> , (1966); Katz (1983)
Trichorzianine	<i>T. harzianum</i>	- do -	253-4°	-25°	Davoust <i>et al.</i> , (1983); Bodo <i>et al.</i> , (1985)
Trichopolyn I	<i>T. polysporum</i>	XXXVI, R=Et	114-6°		Fuji <i>et al.</i> , (1978)
Trichopolyn II = tricholides	- do -	XXXVI, R=Me			Fujita <i>et al.</i> , (1981)

**Table VI** Tentative structures of 2-methylalanine polypeptide antibiotics

Trivial name	Position of amino acid residue from N-terminal end of the chain																				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Alamethicin I	Ac	Aib	Pro	Aib	Ala	Aib	Ala	Gln	Aib	Val	Aib	Gly	Leu	Aib	Pro	Val	Aib	Aib	Glu	Gln	P
II							Aib														
Gliodeliquescin			Ala																Gln		
Paracelsin A			Ala										Aib						Gln		
B			Ala							Leu			Aib						Gln		
C			Ala				Aib						Aib						Gln		
D			Ala				Aib			Leu			Aib						Gln		
Suzukacillin I			Ala							Aib									Gln		
II			Ala				Aib			Leu							Iva	Gln			
Hypelcin I							Aib			Leu			Aib						Gln		L
II										Leu			Aib						Gln		L
III							Aib			Leu			Aib						Gln		-
IV							Aib			Ile			Aib						Gln		L
Trichotoxin E			Gly		Leu		O			Aib		Ala	Ala			Leu			O		V
F			Gly		Leu		O			Aib	Ala	Ala	Ala			Leu		Iva	O		V
G			Gly		Leu		O			Aib		Ala	Ala			Leu			O		V
Trichorzianine Allc			Ala	O			Aib			Aib		Ser						Ile	Gln		T

Abbreviations: Aib = 2-methylalanine; Iva = 2-ethylalanine; P = XXXVII, R=CH<sub>2</sub>C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>; L = XXXVII, R=CH<sub>2</sub>CHMe<sub>2</sub>; V = XXXVII, R = CHMe<sub>2</sub>; T = XXXVIII; O = residue missing; - = unkno  $\bigcirc$  Ac = CH<sub>3</sub>CO-. All other amino acid abbreviations are standard. A blank indicates the amino acid cited at the top of the column.

By contrast, the structures of the remaining metabolites summarised in Tables V and VI are less secure. All of the compounds given in the Tables are in fact complex mixtures analogous to the cyclosporins (Brewer *et al.* 1979, Shaw and Taylor 1986). In the case of alamethicin, x-ray crystallography of the mixture of metabolites (Fox and Richards 1982) has provided impressive support of the structure proposed by Pandey *et al.* 1977) based on degradative chemistry and mass spectroscopy. The data given in Table VI reveals that about 10 i.e. half of the positions in the chain are invariable and only at position 10 are there more than 2 or 3 variations. Such variations are common in other congener peptide metabolites (Taylor 1970) especially if the known relationship of valine with 2-methylalanine (Ooka and Takeda 1974) is taken into account. There have been 4 totally independent attempts to synthesise the proposed alamethicin sequence (Nagaraj and Balaram 1981a, Gisin *et al.* 1981, Balasubramanian *et al.* 1981, Schmitt and Jung 1985). The results of this prodigious effort have been summarised by the latter authors, whose synthesis uniquely considered the stereochemical complexities of the procedure. All four products had different physical properties, only two were reported to have biological activity - if the detergent properties of all such lipophilic peptides are not considered. It must be emphasised that these discrepancies indicate non-trivial chemical problems associated with the determination of purity and hence identity of such large molecules. The composition and proportions of peptide metabolites is greatly influenced by the fermentation conditions (Brewer *et al.* 1979) and it is therefore possible that many of the assemblies of congeners given in Tables V and VI contain identical components. However, a test of this supposition will require much better methods of separation than those currently available.

A number of other peptide metabolites of this group of fungi have been reported but at present have not been characterised to the same extent as those in Table V. These include antibiotic 1037 ( $[\alpha]_D^{25} -8^\circ$ , Ooka 1977) produced by *T. viride* and a phytotoxic substance 11313 (m. p.  $330-1^\circ$ ) produced by *Gliocladium zaleskii* (Nazarova and Zakharova 1982).

Biosynthetic studies have been made in the cases of alamethicin and suzukacillin. Good evidence that the biosynthesis was not ribosomal, but analogous to that of valinomycin or gramicidin A was obtained by Reusser (1966), and much later by Kleinkauf and Rindfleisch (1975). It has been proposed that the biosynthesis starts at the N-acetyl 2-methylalanyl N-terminal moiety and thence proceeds stepwise by addition of amino acid residues as activated thio esters (Mohr and Kleinkauf 1978). The mechanism of chain termination with a  $\beta$ -amino alcohol is unknown but the latter authors have provided some information about the generation of this C-terminal residue.

#### *Toxicity of metabolites of Gliocladium spp., Hypocrea spp., and Trichoderma spp.*

No attempt is made in this section to give a complete account of all the toxicological studies to be found in the literature on the compounds described in Tables II-V. Table VII is an attempt to reduce this literature, drastically, so that comparisons can be made. In general organisms have been selected to appear in Table VII because they are commonly used in toxicological studies, and to some extent comparisons are permissible. However, many toxicological phenomena cannot be conveniently tabulated and these matters are presented in the following text where each group of metabolites (as in Tables II-V) is discussed in turn. Problems of synergy are appreciated but not considered.

*Polyketide metabolites (Table II)* Very little is known of the toxicological properties of benzoquinones such as aurantiogliocladin (I, R=Me, R'=R''=OMe). Of course benzoquinone is known to be irritant and the recommended safety level of its vapour is about 0.1 p.p.m. (Sax 1968). The m. p. of benzoquinone is  $115^\circ$  and it is therefore

**Table VII** Toxicities of metabolites of *Hypocrea* spp., *Gliocladium* spp., and *Trichoderma* spp.

Metabolite	Structure	In vitro antimicrobial activity ( $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ )			Toxicity		LD <sub>50</sub> in Mammals. Route of Admin. ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	References
		Antibact.		Antifung.	Growth of mammalian cells $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$			
		Gram+	Gram-					
Aurantiogliocladin	I, R=Me, R'=R''=OMe	200 <sup>a</sup>	400 <sup>b</sup>	50 <sup>A</sup>			Brian <i>et al.</i> , (1951)	
Glioresein	I, dihydro, R=Me R'=R''=OMe	200 <sup>a</sup>	400 <sup>b</sup>	400 <sup>A</sup>			- do -	
Dehydroacetic acid	XXX	3000 <sup>f</sup>	2000 <sup>h</sup>	500 <sup>E</sup>			Spencer <i>et al.</i> , (1950)	
Gliocladic acid	V				active	oral	200 <sup>M</sup> Itoh <i>et al.</i> , (1982)	
Heptelidic acid	VI	25 <sup>c</sup>	0.4 <sup>D</sup>		0.25	i.p.	31.5 <sup>M</sup> Itoh <i>et al.</i> , (1980)	
Trichodermin	IX, R=R''=H, R'=Me, R''=OAc			+ <sup>B</sup>		s.c.	500 <sup>M</sup> Yamamoto <i>et al.</i> , (1969)	
T <sub>2</sub> -toxin	IX, R=OCOCH <sub>2</sub> CHMe <sub>2</sub> , R=CH <sub>2</sub> OAc, R'=OAc, R''=OH			30 <sup>E</sup>	0.03	oral	4 <sup>M</sup> Ueno <i>et al.</i> , (1973); Marasas <i>et al.</i> , (1969); Schappert and Khachatourians (1983)	
Viridin	X, Y=O			0.006 <sup>A</sup>			Brian <i>et al.</i> , (1946)	
Isonitrin D	XI	200 <sup>a</sup>	200 <sup>b</sup>	12.5 <sup>B</sup>			Fujiwara <i>et al.</i> , (1982)	
Isonitrin B	XII	200 <sup>a</sup>	100 <sup>b</sup>	200 <sup>B</sup>		i.p.	300 <sup>M</sup> - do -	
Isonitrin A	XIII	12.5 <sup>a</sup>	1.56 <sup>b</sup>	6.25 <sup>B</sup>		i.p.	160 <sup>M</sup> - do -	
Trichoviridin	XIV	100 <sup>a</sup>	6.26 <sup>b</sup>	25 <sup>B</sup>		i.p.	100 <sup>M</sup> - do -	
Dermadin	XV	2.3 <sup>e</sup>	3.13 <sup>b</sup>	200 <sup>B</sup>		i.p.	240 <sup>M</sup> - do -	
	XVI	2.5 <sup>e</sup>	1.5 <sup>f</sup>	200 <sup>B</sup>		i.p.	20 <sup>M</sup> Brewer <i>et al.</i> , (1982)	
Gliotoxin	XXI	0.8 <sup>a</sup>	18.7 <sup>b</sup>	100 <sup>B</sup>	0.1	oral	50 <sup>M</sup> Fujiwara <i>et al.</i> , (1982)	
						i.p.	50 <sup>M</sup> Brewer <i>et al.</i> , (1966)	
							Taylor (1971); Allen <i>et al.</i> , (1954); Johnson <i>et al.</i> , (1943)	



Gliovirin	XXV			0.06 <sup>C</sup>				Howell and Stipanovic (1983)
Trichorin A			50*					Katayama <i>et al.</i> , (1977)
Cyclosporin A	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =Et, R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me			3 <sup>D</sup>	4	oral	2000 <sup>M</sup>	Traber <i>et al.</i> , (1977); Gorden and Singer (1979); Borel <i>et al.</i> , (1976)
Cyclosporin B	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>2</sup> =R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Me			3 <sup>D</sup>				- do -
Cyclosporin C	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>3</sup> =Me, R <sup>4</sup> =Me, R <sup>2</sup> =CHOHMe			1 <sup>D</sup>				- do -
Cyclosporin D	XXXIV, R <sup>1</sup> =OH, R <sup>3</sup> =Me, R <sup>4</sup> =Me, R <sup>2</sup> =CHMe <sub>2</sub>			1 <sup>D</sup>				- do -
Alamethicin	See Table VI	31 <sup>c</sup>	200 <sup>i</sup>	100 <sup>F</sup>		oral	80 <sup>M</sup>	Meyer and Reusser (1967); Brewer <i>et al.</i> , (1979)
Hypelcins	- do -	25 <sup>a</sup>	100 <sup>b</sup>	100 <sup>G</sup>				Fujita <i>et al.</i> , (1984b)
Paracelsins	- do -					i.p.	5 <sup>M</sup>	Brückner <i>et al.</i> , (1984)
Suzukacillin	- do -	10 <sup>a</sup>		100 <sup>D</sup>				Ooka <i>et al.</i> , (1966)
Trichotoxin	- do -	1000 <sup>g</sup>				i.p.	4.36 <sup>M</sup>	Hou <i>et al.</i> , (1972)
						oral	600 <sup>M</sup>	- do -
Trichorzianine	- do -		<sup>+H</sup>					Merlier <i>et al.</i> , (1985)
Trichopolyns	XXXVI	6.25 <sup>a</sup>	100 <sup>b</sup>	6.25 <sup>B</sup>		i.p.	5 <sup>M</sup>	Fuji <i>et al.</i> , (1978)

Abbreviations: Bacteria: a=*Bacillus subtilis*, b=*Escherichia coli*, c=*Streptococcus faecalis*, d=*Bacterioides fragilis*, e=*Micrococcus luteus*, f=*Bacterioides succinogenes*, g=*Staphylococcus aureus*, h=*Salmonella typhosa*, i=*Selenomonas ruminantium*. Fungi: A=*Botrytis allii*, B=*Candida albicans*, C=*Pythium ultimum*, D=*Aspergillus niger*, E=*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, F=*Blastomyces dermatitidis*, G=*Trichophyton rubrum*, H=*Botrytis cinerea*. Animals: M=Mice, R=rats. \*=organism not given; +=concentration unknown.

possible that the more volatile benzoquinone metabolites (I, m. p. 63°, Table 2) could achieve high concentrations in enclosed spaces should building structural material become colonised with isolates of *Gliocladium roseum* capable of their production. The orcinol derivatives (Pettersson 1965) are probably much less toxic since the LD<sub>50</sub> of orcinol in mice is known to be 722 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Veldre *et al.*, 1971). The anthraquinones (XXXII) are generally regarded as non-toxic though emodin (XXXII, R=R<sup>1</sup>=R<sup>3</sup>=OH, R<sup>2</sup>=Me) is thought to be one of the active ingredients in traditional purgatives.

The pyrone derivatives (IV, x=CH<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>2</sub>, CH=CH) were first isolated during investigations of the odors associated with these fungi e.g. in brackish water (Kikuchi *et al.* 1974) and in the latter case to find the agent capable of initiating oospore formation in *Phytophthora*. However there has been a recent claim (Merlier *et al.* 1985) that the C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>11</sub> pyrone is fungicidal. Dehydroacetic acid (XXX) has some claim as a general antiseptic in view of its bactericidal action (Spencer *et al.* 1950) and low toxicity, but it has not been used because of the superior properties of detergents such as cetyl trimethylammonium halide.

*Terpene metabolites* (Table III) Avellaneol (III) has been reported (Nair *et al.* 1982) to be active against PS 388 lymphocytic leukemia in mice, but no experimental details were given.

Gliocladic acid (V) and heptelidic acid (VI) were discovered during investigations of the biological activity of a number of isolates of *Gliocladium virens*, *Trichoderma viride*, and *Chaetomium globosum* from soil. Gliocladic acid at a dose of 3 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in female mice inhibited the growth of sarcoma-37 by 46% and was less toxic than the related metabolite heptelidic acid (Itoh *et al.* 1982). The latter acid has a noticeable specificity for inhibition of growth of some anaerobic bacteria though the range of bacteria that are susceptible is narrower than that affected by the isocyanide XVI.

Trichodermin (IX, R=R''=H, R'=Me, R''=OAc) and T<sub>2</sub>-toxin (IX, R=OCOCH<sub>2</sub>CHMe<sub>2</sub>, R'=CH<sub>2</sub>OAc, R''=OH) represent the extremes of toxicity found in more than 100 trichothecins now known to be produced by fungi. In all cases that have been examined in detail large numbers of congeneric trichothecins have been found (e.g. Greenhalgh *et al.* 1984), and it therefore seems likely that the *Trichoderma* spp. that have been reported to produce trichodermin and T<sub>2</sub>-toxin also produce a range of trichothecins in low concentration. It can be seen from Table VII that there are more than two orders of magnitude in the acute toxicity of trichodermin and T<sub>2</sub>-toxin in mice. Thus the precise toxicity of the mixture of metabolites produced by a particular isolate will depend on the toxicity of the mixture. The factors that govern the composition of such mixtures are unknown. The literature devoted to the toxicity of T<sub>2</sub>-toxin is very large (for a general review see Ueno 1983) since it has been implicated in mycotoxicoses in farm animals (Mirocha 1983) and in alimentary toxic aleukia in man (Joffe 1974). In general trichothecins have little or no antibacterial properties, but inhibit the growth of fungi and other eukaryotic cells. Thus rapidly growing cells such as B and T lymphocytes are particularly susceptible and there is a growing literature on the effect of T<sub>2</sub>-toxin on the mammalian immune system. The reader is referred to one of the reviews cited above for further details on the toxicology of this and other trichothecins.

Viridin (X, Y=0) and viridiol (X, Y=H, OH) are unusual steroid derivatives that are very active inhibitors of fungal spore germination (Brian *et al.* 1946). The germination of spores of *Collectotrichium lini* and *Fusarium coeruleum* was inhibited at 3 ng ml<sup>-1</sup> and the germination of spores of *Cladosporium herbarum*, *Fusarium culmorum*, *Penicillium digitatum*, *P. notatum*, and *Stemphylium* spp. at 0.2 µg ml<sup>-1</sup>. Viridin was only fungicidal to the latter fungus at 50 µg ml<sup>-1</sup>. No data on the mammalian toxicity of viridin has been published.

*Non-polypeptide metabolites derived from α-amino acids*

From a toxicological point of view these metabolites fall into two groups - the cyclo-pentenylisocyanides and the epidithiodioxopiperazines.

*CycloPentenylisocyanides.* The first report of these compounds as metabolites occurred about 8 years ago (Nobuhara *et al.* 1976) and work on their toxicity has been hampered by their instability. However in the period that has elapsed since 1976 they have emerged as very common metabolites of *Trichoderma hamatum* (Brewer and Taylor 1981) and several other *Trichoderma* spp. (Fujiwara *et al.* 1982). They have marked bacteriostatic properties but the bacterial spectrum that is susceptible is unusual. The growth of Gram + bacteria except for *Sarcina lutea* is inhibited at concentrations greater than  $100 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ , but Gram - bacteria and particularly obligately anaerobic bacteria are inhibited in the concentration range  $0.1\text{-}10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ . Bacteria that digest cellulose are very susceptible, especially to the unstable compound XVI. Thus cellulose digestion is inhibited by XVI in *Ruminococcus albus* at  $5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ; in *R. flavofasciens* at  $6 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$  and in *Bacterioides succinogenes* at  $1\text{-}2 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$  (Liss *et al.* 1985). In general the genus *Bacterioides* is very susceptible to this antibiotic. At minimum inhibitory concentrations of XVI its activity is reversed by addition of approximately equimolar amounts of nickelous ion (Brewer *et al.* 1986) and it has been suggested that the mode of action of these compounds lies in their ability to co-ordinate with Ni cofactors (Whitman and Wolfe 1980) implicated in, for example, the reduction of pyruvate to propionate or formaldehyde to methane. The acute toxicities of these isocyanides to mice is given in Table VII (Fujiwara *et al.* 1982) and it can be seen that the toxicities of the various compounds very considerably. One of the most toxic, XVI, has been fed to lambs, intraruminally at a dose level of  $5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$  for 3 weeks without overt toxicity, apart from a slightly slower weight gain which could be attributed to an induced, reduced digestibility of the feed.

*Epidithiodioxopiperazines.* The toxicity of gliotoxin (XXI) has been known for more than 50 years, but early reports of its fungicidal activity were probably biased by the contamination of specimens with viridin. However Johnson *et al.* (1943) showed that gliotoxin was bacteriostatic at about  $0.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$  against Gram + bacteria and at about  $10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$  against Gram - organisms. It inhibited the growth of *Penicillium italicum* at  $100 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ , *Rhizopus* sp. at  $10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$  and *Aspergillus niger* at  $1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ . Its  $\text{LD}_{50}$  in mice, rats and rabbits was about  $50 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ , whether dosed orally, intraperitoneally, or intravenously. Two developments in its toxicology have occurred since this work was published. The first was the discovery that gliotoxin inhibited the growth of RNA virus in cell culture (Rightsel *et al.* 1964; Miller *et al.* 1968). A comprehensive review of its toxicology prior to 1970 has been published (Taylor 1971). The latest event is the report that gliotoxin inhibits phagocytosis of macrophage at  $20\text{-}50 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  and that at  $0.1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$  it abrogates induction of alloreactive cytotoxic T lymphocytes (Müllbacher and Eichner 1984). Since *Aspergillus fumigatus* is not only a known human pathogen but it is also known to produce gliotoxin (Menzel *et al.* 1944), there arises the question of whether the toxin is produced *in vivo*, and if so what effect this may have on the progress of an infectious agent(s). Gliovirin (Stipanovic and Howell 1982) which seems to be very similar to trichorin (Katayama *et al.* 1977) has a growth inhibiting effect on a very narrow range of fungi, though trichorin is known to have some effect on the growth of (unspecified) Gram - bacteria. The structure of gliovirin has some similarity to that of A30641 (XXXIX, though this structure has been questioned, Sakata *et al.* 1982), which has marked antifungal activity (Berg *et al.* 1976).

*Non-protein polypeptide metabolites* These compounds (Tables V and VI) fall into two groups - the cyclosporins, and linear peptides that contain several 2-methylalanine residues.

*Cyclosporins.* About 9 of these metabolites have been characterised but cyclosporin A (XXXIV,  $\text{R}^1=\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{R}^2=\text{Et}$ ,  $\text{R}^3=\text{R}^4=\text{Me}$ ) has been the main subject of toxicity studies.

These compounds have little or no bacteriostatic effect but as shown in Table VIII both cyclosporin A and cyclosporin C (XXXIV, R<sup>1</sup>=OH, R<sup>2</sup>=CHOHMe, R<sup>3</sup>=R<sup>4</sup>=Me) inhibit the growth of fungi and in some cases at low concentration (Dreyfuss *et al.*

**Table VIII** Growth inhibition of some fungi by cyclosporin A and cyclosporin C

Organism inhibited	Minimum Inhibitory Concentration ( $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ )	
	Cyclosporin A	Cyclosporin C
<i>Rhodotorula rubra</i>	100	100
<i>Oospora lactis</i>	31.6	100
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	3	1
<i>Curvularia lunata</i>	1	1
<i>Neurospora crassa</i>	10	10
<i>Anixiopsis stercoraria</i>	100	100
<i>Trichophyton quinckeanum</i>	10	31.6

1976); this activity perhaps provides a rationale for the use of these compounds in the treatment of patients with immune deficiency. However the main toxicological properties of these compounds are their remarkable effects on the immune system of mammals. The literature on this subject is large and growing. Some indication of its size may be had from the facts that there are 149 references to this subject in the 10th collective index of Chemical Abstracts, but 70 references in the 6 month period (Vol. 101) July-December 1984. No attempt to review this literature is made - the reader can consult several excellent surveys e.g. Weil 1984, Thomson *et al.* (1984). Renal and/or hepatic and/or hemopoietic abnormalities have been found in mice, rats, rabbits, dogs, chickens and monkeys at dose levels of about  $25 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ . In man this is about twice the dose used in immunosuppressant therapy. It may be concluded that the low concentrations of these compounds possibly present in the environment are not a toxicological hazard.

*Alamethicin-like peptides.* These compounds inhibit the growth of a wide range of bacteria and fungi. Representative examples are given in Table VII. It is possible that some of the discrepancies in the literature regarding the bacteriostatic effect of these metabolites is due to the fact that they diffuse slowly through agar. Thus the diameter of zones of inhibition depend, more critically than usual, on the time of diffusion before inoculation. In general the LD<sub>50</sub> in mice treated intraperitoneally with any of these compounds is about  $5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ , but about 100 times this dose can be tolerated when it is administered orally. This also is probably due to slow diffusion and hence uptake through the wall of the gut. Paradoxically, the great interest that these compounds have evoked lies in their remarkable effects on membrane physiology. This subject has stimulated a great deal of interest and there are several excellent reviews available on the subject (e.g. Jung *et al.* 1979, Nagaraj and Balaram 1981b). In brief, these are amphiphilic molecules which differ from such trans-membrane carriers as valinomycin (where transport is dependent on the selective residence of a metal ion e.g. K<sup>+</sup> in the interannular space of the cyclic peptide) or gramicidin A (which induces a voltage independent dimeric channel) by inducing conductance which is exponentially dependent on the applied voltage. The channel structures (Fox and Richards 1982) are characterised by an hydrophilic interior and a hydrophobic exterior and are stabilised by an hydrated annulus of glutamine residues. A model for the mechanism of pore formation has been proposed by Jung and his coworkers (Boheim *et al.* 1983). Thus the mammalian toxicity of the metabolites is probably manifested by their effect on neuro-transmission, though their access to

such sensitive receptors is limited by their high molecular weight. In general they are not hydrolysed by peptidases and thus might progress through the gut unscathed, affecting the intestinal flora in a possibly deleterious way.

*Miscellaneous antagonistic effects of Trichoderma spp.* Mycologists have been interested in the phenomenon of soil fungistasis for more than 50 years and the suspicion that *Trichoderma* spp. were involved has been entertained by many workers (see e.g. Elad *et al.* 1980, Widden and Abitol 1980). Unambiguous experimental evidence for the phenomenon is however rare - Mitchell and Dix (1975) showed that the germination of *Trichoderma* spores was inhibited by sterile soil but by contrast Lewis and Papavizas (1984) found that *Trichoderma* spp. proliferated in soil when added as a mycelial culture. Dennis and Webster (1971b) have shown, by elegant photomicroscopy, that *Trichoderma* spp. can grow on the mycelium of other fungi and in the Soviet Union (Kanivets *et al.* 1940) increased yields of several crops have been claimed after infestation of soil with *Trichoderma lignorum*. Earlier work on the role of gliotoxin in soil fungistasis has been reviewed (Taylor 1971). In summary the use of *Trichoderma* spp. as agents in biocontrol systems has stimulated much work but little practical application has as yet emerged.

#### *Methods and agents for the control of growth of Trichoderma and taxonomically related genera*

A representative selection of compounds that have been claimed to retard the growth of these fungi is given in Table IX. The bulk of these compounds fall into the categories: fungicidal triazines (XL), benzimidazoles (XLI, see in addition Tabata and Kondo 1977), phenylurea/urethanes (XLIII, XLIV), thiourea/thiourethanes (XLVIII, LII) and insecticidal chlorinated hydrocarbons (XLV, XLVI, LIII). The number of compounds studied in each group is probably large but details of the concentrations at which inhibition was observed are hard to find. For example, among chlorinated compounds patent protection for compounds of the type  $\text{ROCH}_2\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_2\text{Cl}$  ( $\text{R}=\text{Me}$ ,  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ , Cass 1949) was obtained as antagonists of *Gliocladium fimbriatum* but there seems to have been no exploitation of this discovery. Similarly considerable work has been done on the effect of dichlorvos ( $(\text{MeO})_2\text{POOCH}=\text{CCl}_2$ ) on *Trichoderma viride* (Matsumora and Boush 1968) but I have been unable to find the minimum concentration of this insecticide that inhibits growth of the fungus. It seems to be generally held that chlorophenols preserve wood from all but superficial attack by these fungi (Lew and Wilcox 1981, Cserjesi and Rolf 1976) but I have been unable to find details of the relationship between structure and activity despite the known mammalian toxicity of these compounds (Sax 1968).

The importance of the preservation of wood has led to many studies of the antifungal effects of fumigation. Reference has already been made to the disastrous use of formaldehyde for this purpose; ethyl mercaptan has also been used (Kvasnikov *et al.* 1971) but had no effect on *Gliocladium salmonicolor* and only slight effect (at  $0.6 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) on *Trichoderma lignorum*.

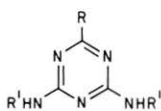
There remain a miscellaneous group of materials that have growth suppressive activity, at relatively high concentration; these include: manganous ion (at  $0.5 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ , Babich and Stotzky 1981), certain alkyloxyacetic acids ( $\text{ROCH}_2\text{CO}_2\text{H}$ ,  $\text{R}=\text{C}_8\text{H}_{17}$ ,  $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{19}$ ,  $\text{C}_{11}\text{H}_{23}$ ;  $0.1 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ , Gershon *et al.* 1979), a tetraene antibiotic (Chakrabarty and Chandra 1979), and certain  $\alpha$ -naphthoquinones ( $0.1 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ , Tripathi *et al.* 1980).

A further group of poorly defined materials include bacterial volatile metabolites (Moore-Landecker and Stotzky 1972) and hot water extracts of oak-bark - probably tannic acids and catechin (LIV, Yoshimoto *et al.* 1984). Finally there are reports of suppression of spore germination of *Trichoderma viride* by ozone (Hibben and Stotzky 1969); actinomycin D ( $0.1 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ ); cycloheximide ( $0.005 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ ) and 5-fluorouracil ( $0.01 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$ , Betina and Spisiakova 1976).

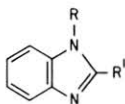
**Table IX** Compounds known to inhibit growth of *Hypocrea pilulifera*, *Gliocladium* spp. (G), and *Trichoderma* spp. (T)

Trivial Name of Inhibitor	Chemical Structure	Susceptible Fungi	Min. Growth Inhib. Conc. (mg ml <sup>-1</sup> )	References
Atrazine	XL, R=Cl, R'=Et, R''=CHMe <sub>2</sub>	T	0.1	Couch <i>et al.</i> , (1965)
Benomyl	XLI, R=CONHC <sub>4</sub> H <sub>9</sub> , R''=NHCO <sub>2</sub> Me	G T. viride T. harzianum - do - T. virgatum		Stratton (1983) Davet (1980) - do - Davet (1981) Cserjesi and Rolf (1976) - do -
Benlate	- do -	T	0.3	Usui and Iida (1980)
Thiuram	LII	T		- do -
Butachlor	XLII, R'=Et, R <sup>2</sup> =COCH <sub>2</sub> Cl, R <sup>3</sup> =CH <sub>2</sub> OC <sub>4</sub> H <sub>9</sub> , R <sup>4</sup> =H	T	0.3	Popescu (1979) Chen (1980)
Carbendazim	XL, R=H, R''=NHCO <sub>2</sub> Me	G T. viride		Davet (1980) - do -
2,4-Damine	?XLII, R'=R <sup>4</sup> =Cl, R''=R <sup>2</sup> =H, R <sup>3</sup> =CH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	- do -	1	Pommer (1966)
Dalapon	2,2-dichloropropionic acid	- do -		Senior <i>et al.</i> , (1976)
DDT	XLV Dipropylene glycol dibenzoate	- do - T. longibrachiatum	0.03	Singh <i>et al.</i> , (1977) Butz <i>et al.</i> , (1983)
Diuron	XLIII, R <sup>1</sup> =R <sup>2</sup> =Me, R <sup>3</sup> =R <sup>4</sup> =Cl	T. viride		10
Endrin	XLVI	- do - T	Singh <i>et al.</i> , (1977) Patil <i>et al.</i> , (1970)	

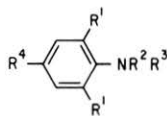
EPTL	$(C_3H_7)_2NCOSEt$	<i>T. viride</i>		Peeples (1972)
Fluometuron	XLIII, $R^1=R^2=Me$ , $R^3=H$ , $R^4=CF_3$	- do -	10	Davis <i>et al.</i> , (1976)
Heptachlor	LIII	- do -	0.01	Singh <i>et al.</i> , (1977)
	Hexachlorobutadiene	<i>T. lignorum</i>	1-10	Mukasheva (1976)
		<i>G. verticilloides</i>	1-10	- do -
Lindane	Benzene hexachloride	<i>T. viride</i>	0.03	Singh <i>et al.</i> , (1977)
Linuron	XLIII, $R^1=Me$ , $R^2=OMe$ , $R^3=R^4=Cl$	- do -		Glad <i>et al.</i> , (1981)
Methabenzthiazuron	XLVII	<i>Hypocrea pilulifera</i>	.059	Göttfert and Corte (1978)
Methylthiophanate	XLVII	<i>T. viride</i>		Davet (1980)
		<i>G.</i>		- do -
Mexacarbate	XLII, $R^1=R^2=R^3=Me$ , $R^4=CO_2NHMe$	<i>T. viride</i>	0.008	Benezet and Matsumura (1974)
MSMA	Monosodium methanarsenate	- do -	10	Davis <i>et al.</i> , (1976)
Phenmediphan	XLIV, $R=Me$	- do -		Bellinck (1980)
	XLIV, $R=H$	- do -		- do -
	XLII, $R^1=R^2=H$ , $R^3=CO_2Me$ , $R^4=OH$	- do -		- do -
Permethrin	XLIX	- do -	0.1	Stratton (1983)
	Phenyl mercuric acetate	<i>T.</i>	0.1	Popescu (1979)
Prometryn	XL, $R=SMe$ , $R'=CHMe_2$	<i>T. viride</i>	1	Davis <i>et al.</i> , (1976)
Sicarol	L	<i>T.</i>		Anilkumar and Sastry (1979)
Simazine	XL, $R=Cl$ , $R'=Et$	<i>T.</i>		Couch <i>et al.</i> , (1965)
Solanine	LI	<i>T. viride</i>	2	Patil <i>et al.</i> , (1972)
Thiabendazole	XLI, $R=H$ , $R'=2$ -thiazolyl	<i>T. harzianum</i>		Cserjesi and Rolf (1976)
		<i>T. virgatum</i>		- do -
	$Bu_3SnR$ ( $R=Cl$ , $O$ , $OAc$ )	<i>T. viride</i>		Selivokhin <i>et al.</i> , (1974)
Trifluorin	XLII, $R^1=NO_2$ , $R^2=R^3=C_3H_7$ , $R^4=CF_3$	<i>T. viride</i>		Zayed <i>et al.</i> , (1983)
Topsin M	XLVIII	<i>T. lignorum</i>	0.01-	Zoltanska (1984)
		<i>T. koningii</i>	0.001	- do -
		<i>T. album</i>	- do -	- do -



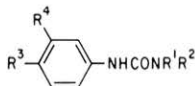
XL



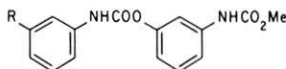
XLI



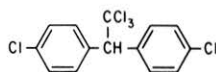
XLII



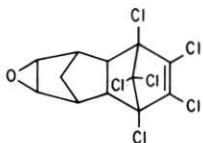
XLIII



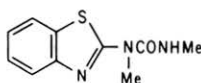
XLIV



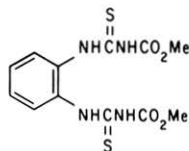
XLV



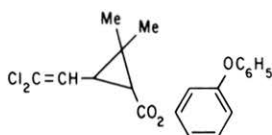
XLVI



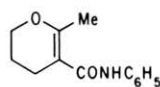
XLVII



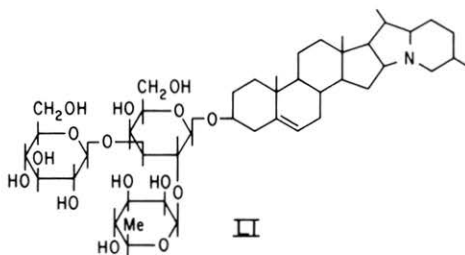
XLVIII



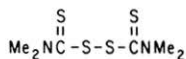
XLIX



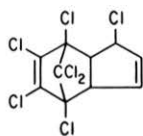
I



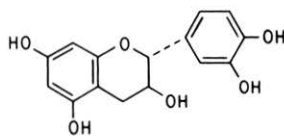
II



III



IV



V



### Conclusions

The data in the tables of this report demonstrate that the group of fungi that is its subject can be found in almost any environment of the planet; that they produce well-defined metabolites whose biological and chemical properties differ, but which include some of the most toxic substances hitherto described. Only under exceptional circumstances, e.g. when volatile metabolites accumulate in an enclosed space, when metabolites are produced in the course of an infectious process or when they are concentrated naturally in or during the manufacture of food, are acute, toxic manifestations patent. Such toxicity is rare, though an increasing number of examples are coming to light because of the use of better analytical facilities. In the case of long-term sub-clinical toxicity it is usually very difficult to associate cause and effect and therefore epidemiological phenomena of this sort are commonly overlooked. An appreciation of the latter problem and its implications for public health is long overdue, but our ability to assess the importance of such chronic toxicities in society is hampered by inadequate analytical tools.

Until such methods become available our only recourse is to start with the population dynamics of this group of fungi making the assumption that the population density is related in some unknown way with the presence, composition, and concentration of its toxic metabolites. However this job can hardly be started because the taxonomy of this group (and related groups) of fungi fails to provide easy identification and hence classification. Assuming (as seems likely) that these problems can be solved there remains the question of the selective inhibition of fungal growth. Here the prognosis is not bright, because their elimination is probably undesirable, since there are those who believe them to be useful vectors in biological control methods, and perhaps more cogently, that elimination of a relatively benign component of the flora might result in its replacement with a virulent pathogen. Thus fungistatic agents are required, hopefully active at very low concentrations. The antifungal agents summarised in Table IX are effective at concentrations that are at least 4 orders of magnitude greater than e.g. the concentration of penicillin that inhibits the growth of *Streptococcus* spp. It can therefore be concluded that a considerable research effort is required to find antifungal agents that are effective in the concentration range  $0.01 - 1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ . An examination of the dates of publications cited in Table IX indicates that the large economic losses due to fungal infestation of wood, wood products and cellulosic materials are in fact stimulating such a research programme, and on a world-wide scale. One hopes that the public health aspects of sub-acute mycotoxicoses, together with the growing realisation of their importance in animal production will provide further impetus for this research.

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