Viridamides A and B, Lipodepsipeptides with Antiprotozoal Activity from the Marine Cyanobacterium *Oscillatoria nigro-viridis*

T. Luke Simmons,[†] Niclas Engene,[†] Luis David Ureña,[‡] Luz I. Romero,[‡] Eduardo Ortega-Barría,[‡] Lena Gerwick,[†] and William H. Gerwick^{*,†}

Scripps Institution of Oceanography and Skaggs School of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, California 92093-0212, and Institute for Advanced Scientific Investigation and High Technology Services, Secretariat of Science and Technology, Clayton, Ancon, Republic of Panama

Received February 18, 2008

Parallel chemical and phylogenetic investigation of a marine cyanobacterium from Panama led to the isolation of two new PKS-NRPS-derived compounds, viridamides A and B. Their structures were determined by NMR and mass spectroscopic methods, and the absolute configurations assigned by Marfey's method and chiral HPLC analysis. In addition to six standard, *N*-methylated amino and hydroxy acids, these metabolites contained the structurally novel 5-methoxydec-9-ynoic acid moiety and an unusual proline methyl ester terminus. Morphologically, this cyanobacterium was identified as *Oscillatoria nigro-viridis*, and its 16S rDNA sequence is reported here for the first time. Phylogenetic analysis of these sequence data has identified *O. nigro-viridis* strain OSC3L to be closely related to two other marine cyanobacterial genera, *Trichodesmium* and *Blennothrix*. Viridamide A showed antitrypanosomal activity with an IC₅₀ of 1.1 μ M and antileishmanial activity with an IC₅₀ of 1.5 μ M.

The World Heath Organization (WHO) estimates that over 1 billion people suffer from one or more neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) such as malaria, leishmaniasis, trypanosomiasis, schistosomiasis, cholera, and others.¹ On a global scale NTDs account for greater than 10% of global disease burden, yet only 16 of the 1393 new drugs marketed between 1975 and 1999 were developed for their treatment.² A major cause for this extraordinarily unimpressive number is the fact that those people most burdened by these diseases are among the world's most impoverished.³

Trypanosomiasis (Chagas' disease, sleeping sickness) and leishmaniasis are caused by infection by parasitic members of the protozoan order Trypanosomatida that enter the blood stream via insect vectors or transfusion of infected blood.⁴ Symptoms of Chagas' disease occur in two phases: an acute stage characterized by localized swelling and fever, and a chronic stage, which may develop over a decade or more. Chronic stage infection, if left untreated, results in protozoan infestation of all major organs, leading to neurological disorders, intestinal damage, and fatal cardiomyopathy. Leishmaniasis is caused by 20 different species and can affect humans as three forms: visceral (VL; "kala azar"), cutaneous, and mucocutaneous. The pan-tropical phlebotomine sand fly is the known vector of leishmaniasis, with VL being the most severe disease form. If untreated, visceral leishmaniasis can be 100% lethal within two years.⁵ The WHO estimates that more than 200 million people are at risk of leishmaniasis or trypanosomiasis worldwide.^{6,7} Several drugs are currently available and used to treat trypanosomal infections; however, all of these suffer from one or more shortcomings,^{8,9} and drug resistance is emerging and threatens their utility.¹⁰ Despite the pressing and obvious global need for new and more effective antiprotozoal medicines, no new drugs are currently being developed for the treatment of these pan-tropical diseases.¹¹ In addition, while drug discovery programs are making some advances against these pathogens, for example with synthetic phospholipids, progress is slow and the treatments are expensive with many undesirable side effects.¹²

As part of a Panama-based International Cooperative Biodiversity Group (ICBG) project, we have been evaluating the extracts of tropical marine plants, endophytic fungi, and marine algae and cyanobacteria for activity against several tropical parasitic diseases including malaria, leishmaniasis, and Chagas' disease.¹³ Marine cyanobacteria are extremely rich in diverse lipopeptide natural products, many of which have potent biological activities.¹⁴ In the process of adapting a collection of the marine cyanobacterium Lyngbya majuscula to laboratory culture, collected from near the island of Curaçao, a second contaminating cyanobacterium was also isolated. This was cultured in scaled-up quantities and its extract examined for unusual secondary metabolites by LCMS and NMR screening. Subsequently, these efforts were rewarded by the discovery of two novel lipopeptides, termed viridamides A (1) and B (2). Evaluation of these in our suite of tropical disease assays in Panama identified the major component, viridamide A, to be nearly equipotent at inhibiting the parasites causing leishmania and Chagas' disease (IC₅₀ = 1.1 and 1.5 μ M, respectively).

An additional dimension of this study involved a detailed investigation into the taxonomic identity of the viridamideproducing strain of cyanobacterium. On the basis of its gross morphology we reasoned that this strain was dissimilar to those we had previously worked with and that this presented an opportunity to broaden our base of natural product-rich cyanobacteria genera for future studies. Hence, we engaged in a two-pronged investigation using both traditional morphological characters and 16S rDNA sequence information. However, in the course of these studies, we realized a number of problems in the phylogenetic approach, mainly due to (a) the level of sequence conservation of the 16S rRNA gene being too high for precise species differentiation and (b) the general unavailability of 16S rDNA sequence data for many of the morphologically defined species of cyanobacteria. In response to the first point above, we used the present study as an opportunity to explore additional genes in cyanobacteria that could improve the phylogenetic analysis. In response to the second issue, we and others are actively engaged in expanding the availability of 16S rRNA gene sequences that are well correlated to morphologically described species.¹⁵ This two-pronged approach has allowed us to identify the source of the viridamides as the marine cyanobacterium Oscillatoria nigro-viridis and to describe its

^{*} To whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel: (858) 534-0578. Fax: (858) 534-0529. E-mail: wgerwick@ucsd.edu.

[†] Scripps Institution of Oceanography and Skaggs School of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences.

 $^{^{\}ast}$ Institute for Advanced Scientific Investigation and High Technology Services.

phylogenetic relationship to other genera and species of marine cyanobacteria.

Results and Discussion

Isolation and Structure Elucidation of the Viridamides. The dark green and very small cyanobacterial filaments of strain OSC3L (10 μ m wide by >1 cm long) were isolated as a contaminating (epiphytic) species from a partially purified culture of Lyngbya majuscula 3L (GenBank acc. no. AY599501) collected at the CARMABI Research Station in Curacao, Netherlands Antilles, in 1993. The filaments of OSC3L were isolated on solid agar plates using standard isolation techniques and then cultured in enriched seawater medium under cool white fluorescent lights for 21 days. Harvest of filaments was achieved by filtration through paper filters, and extraction and initial fractionation was performed using our standard protocols.¹⁶ Screening of fractions by LCMS and NMR showed two midpolar fractions to contain interesting metabolites, and two compounds, named viridamides A (1) and B (2), were subsequently isolated by repetitive reversed-phased HPLC in 1.9% (30 mg) and 0.2% (3.6 mg) yield, respectively.¹⁷

Viridamide A (1) was isolated as a colorless, glassy oil with a molecular formula of C46H79N5O10 as determined by HRESITOFMS (obsd $[M + H]^+$ at m/z 862.5847; calcd $[M + H]^+$ 862.5827). This formula agreed with deductions from the ¹H and ¹³C NMR data (Table 1) and corresponded to 10 degrees of unsaturation. FT-IR absorption peaks at 1640 and 1750 cm⁻¹ indicated the presence of amide and ester functionalities, respectively. The ¹H NMR spectrum of 1 was well dispersed in CDCl₃ and displayed a pattern of chemical shifts typical for peptides (two NH doublets at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 6.21 and 6.45 and a series of $\alpha\text{-amino}$ and $\alpha\text{-hydroxy}$ protons at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 4.37–5.0). Two 3H singlets at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.01 and 3.07 indicated the presence of two N-methylated amides, whereas two sharp methyl singlets at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.29 and 3.64 were consistent with two methoxy groups. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of 1 displayed all 46 carbon resonances, and seven of the 10 double-bond equivalents were attributable to seven ester/amide carbonyl resonances between 160 and 175 ppm. Carbon resonances at $\delta_{\rm C}$ 68.4 and 84.3, in combination with gHMBC data, were determined to comprise a terminal acetylenic group and thus accounted for an additional two degrees of unsaturation. These data suggested viridamide A contained a single ring.

Interpretation of two-dimensional NMR spectra (gCOSY, gH-SQC, and gHMBC) defined partial structures for an *N*-methylisoleucine, two valine residues, an *N*-methylvaline, a 2-hydroxy-3methylpentanoic acid residue, and a terminal proline methyl ester (Table 1). These structural fragments accounted for 680 Da, leaving C₁₁H₁₇O₂ still to be determined. Further analysis of the 2D-gHSQC-TOCSY NMR data revealed seven continuously coupled protons beginning with one at $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.20 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 36.6) and correlated to $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.67 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 21.5), $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.48 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 32.8), $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.15 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 80.1), $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.56 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 32.3), $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.55 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 24.1), and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.18 ($\delta_{\rm C}$ 18.5). Combining these TOCSY data with gCOSY and gHMBC interpretations allowed development of a structurally novel methoxylated fatty acid moiety, 5-methoxydec-9-ynoic acid (Mdyna, Figure 1). These seven partial structures accounted for all atoms present in the molecular formula of viridamide A (**1**) (see Table 1).

The linear sequence of the assigned partial structures was determined by combined 1D HMBC and FABMS/MS fragmentation patterns. Interpretation of the HMBC correlations from the α -amino and α -hydroxy proton resonances (4–5 ppm) to the adjacent carbonyl carbons, and from the two amide protons to their adjacent carbonyl carbons, allowed the assembly of a linear sequence for most of viridamide A (1). A 1D HMBC experiment was used to observe correlation from H-5 through the oxygen atom to the adjacent C-12 ester carbonyl resonance. Interpretation of the FABMS/MS fragmentation pattern fully supported the linear sequence proposed from the HMBC analysis.

Table 1. 1D and 2D NMR Data for Viridamide A (1) in $CDCl_3$ (¹H NMR at 500 MHz; ¹³C NMR at 75 MHz)

residue	#	$\delta_{ m C}$	$\delta_{ m H}$ (mult.)	gHMBC	gCOSY/ TOCSY
Mdyna	44	68.4 (CH)			
2	43	84.3 (C)			
	42	18.5 (CH ₂)	2.18 (dd; 6.1,6.3)	44,41,39	41
	41	24.1 (CH ₂)	1.55 (m)	44	40,42
	40	32.3 (CH ₂)	1.56 (m)		39,41
	39	80.1 (CH)	3.15 (m)		38,40
	38	32.8 (CH ₂)	1.48 (m)	36	37,39
	37	21.5 (CH ₂)	1.67 (m)		36,38
	36	36.6 (CH ₂)	2.20 (m)	37,35	37
	35	172.7 (C)			
	45	56.4 (CH ₃)	3.29 (s)	39	
N-MeIle	34	31.7 (CH ₃)	3.07 (s)	35,29	
	29	60.7 (CH)	5.00 (d; 10.2)	28	30
	30	33.4 (CH)	1.96 (m)		29
	33	15.6 (CH ₃)	0.96 (d; 6.8)	29	
	31	24.8 (CH ₂)	1.01/1.33 (m)		
	32	$10.77 (CH_3)$	0.85 (dd; 6.5, 6.8)		
	28	172.9 (C)		• •	
Val 1	NH		6.21	28	
	24	53.6 (CH)	4.81 (d; 6.3)	28	25
	25	31.2 (CH)	1.99 (td; 6.3, 6.5)		
	26	17.4 (CH ₃)	0.89 (d; 6.3)		
	27	19.6 (CH ₃)	0.96(d; 6.3)		
17.1.0	23	169.5 (C)	6.45	22	
val 2	NH 10	55 5 (CII)	0.45	23	20
	19	55.5 (CH)	4.58 (d; 6.8)	23	20
	20	30.8 (CH)	1.99 (td; 6.3 , 6.8)		19
	21	$19.7 (CH_3)$	0.95(0; 0.5)		
	10	$17.7 (CH_3)$	0.87(0, 0.5)		
M MaVal	10	170.3(C)	2.01(a)	10 12	
IV-IVIE V al	12	50.5 (СП3) 62.1 (СН)	5.01(8)	10, 15	14
	13	02.1 (CH) 25.0 (CH)	4.72 (u, 10.7) 2.27 (td: 6.5, 10.7)	12	14
	14	23.9 (CII) 18.1 (CH ₂)	2.27 (u, 0.3, 10.7) 0.78 (d: 6.5)		15
	15	14.8 (CH ₂)	0.78(d, 0.5) 0.88(d: 6.5)		
	12	170.5(C)	0.00 (u, 0.5)		
Hmna	7	74 9 (CH)	$4.98(d\cdot 7.0)$	0	8
impu	8	35.7 (CH)	2 01 (m)	7	7
	11	19.5 (CH ₂)	0.95 (d: 6.3)	,	,
	9	244 (CH ₂)	$1 \frac{19}{161} (td \cdot 63 \ 70)$		
	10	$10.8 (CH_2)$	0.87 (t; 7.0)		
	6	17.0 (C)			
MePro	5	47.1 (CH ₂)	3.52/3.92 (m)		
	4	24.5 (CH ₂)	1.98/1.33 (m)		
	3	29.2 (CH ₂)	1.97/2.14 (m)	2	
	2	58.6 (CH)	4.37 dd; 8.5, 3.4)	1	
	1	172.1 (C)			
	46	51.9 (CH ₃)	3.64 (s)	1	

The absolute configurations of the α -amino and α -hydroxy acid residues in viridamide A were determined by combined chiral HPLC [for Val, *N*-Me-Val, Pro, and 2-hydroxyl-3-methylpentanoic acid (HMPA)] and application of the advanced Marfey's method (*N*-Me-Ile).^{18,19} Chiral HPLC was achieved using a dioctyl-(D)penicillamine (Chirex 3126; Phenomenex) column with aqueous 2.0 mM CuSO₄ in CH₃CN. Comparison of retention times for the acid hydrolysate of **1** (6 N HCl at 110 °C for 18 h) with authentic



Figure 1. Structure of the 5-methoxydec-9-ynoic acid moiety found in viridamides A (1) and B (2).

Table 2. 1D and 2D NMR Data for Viridamide B (2) in $CDCl_3$ (¹H NMR at 500 MHz; ¹³C NMR at 75 MHz)

residue	#	δ_{C}	$\delta_{ m H}$ (mult.)	gHMBC	gCOSY TOCSY
Mdyna	43	68.4 (CH)			
	42	84.3 (C)			
	41	18.5 (CH ₂)	2.20 (dd; 6.0, 6.2)	43,40,38	40
	40	24.1 (CH ₂)	1.56 (m)	43	39,41
	39	32.2 (CH ₂)	1.58 (m)		38,40
	38	79.3 (CH)	3.17 (m)		37,39
	37	32.8 (CH ₂)	1.48 (m)	35	36,38
	36	21.5 (CH ₂)	1.67 (m)		35,37
	35	36.8 (CH ₂)	2.22 (m)	36,34	36
	34	172.8 (C)	· · ·		
	44	55.8 (CH ₃)	3.31 (s)	38	
N-MeIle	33	31.5 (CH ₃)	3.1 (s)	34,28	
	28	60.4 (CH)	5.03 (d; 10.1)	27	29
	29	33.5 (CH)	2.03 (m)		28
	32	15.6 (CH ₃)	0.98 (d; 6.8)	28	
	30	24.8 (CH ₂)	1.0/1.34 (m)		
	31	10.31 (CH ₃)	0.85 (dd; 6.6, 6.7)		
	27	172.85 (C)			
Val 2	NH		6.19 (d; 9.3)	27	
	23	53.4 (CH)	4.86 (d; 6.4)	27	24
	24	29.3 (CH)	2.2 (td; 6.4, 6.6)		23
	25	17.4 (CH ₃)	0.88 (d; 6.4)		
	26	19.6 (CH ₃)	0.96 (d; 6.4)		
	22	169.6 (C)			
Val 1	NH		6.33 (d; 9.1)	22	
	18	55.4 (CH)	4.59 (d; 6.7)	22	19
	19	30.8 (CH)	1.97 (td; 6.2, 6.7)		18
	20	19.6 (CH ₃)	0.96 (d; 6.2)		
	21	19.6 (CH ₃)	0.95 (d; 6.2)		
	17	172.1 (C)			
<i>N</i> -MeVal	16	29.5 (CH ₃)	2.99 (s)	17,12	
	12	61.4 (CH)	4.76 (d; 11.0)	11	13
	13	25.6 (CH)	2.27 (td; 6.4, 6.5)		
	15	17.9 (CH ₃)	0.81 (d; 6.4)		
	14	17.4 (CH ₃)	0.88 (d; 6.4)		
	11	170.4 (C)			
Ahva	7	75.4 (CH)	4.96 (d; 6.8)	8	6
	8	33.4 (CH)	2.02 (m)	6	7
	10	19.6 (CH ₃)	0.95 (d; 6.8)		
	9	18.1 (CH ₃)	0.81 (d' 6.1)		
	6	170.0 (C)			
MePro	5	46.8 (CH ₂)	3.55/3.94 (m)		
	4	24.5 (CH ₂)	1.99/2.05 (m)		
	3	28.9 (CH ₂)	1.96/2.15 (m)	2	
	2	5.84 (CH)	4.38 (dd; 8.5, 2.5)	1	
	1	172.6 (C)			
	45	51.8 (CH ₃)	3.66 (s)	1	

standards indicated an L-configuration for the Val, *N*-Me-Val, Pro, and HMPA residues. Configurational assignment of the *N*-Me-Ile required division of a portion of the acid hydrolysate and derivatization of each with either L- or D-FDAA (1-fluoro-2,4-dinitrophenyl-5-alanine amide) to produce the chromatographic equivalents of D-*N*-Me-Ile and L-*N*-Me-Ile. Reversed-phase HPLC of the FDAA derivatives indicated an L-(2S,3S)-configuration for this residue.

Viridamide B (**2**) was isolated as a colorless oil with a molecular formula of $C_{45}H_{77}N_5O_{10}$ as determined by HRTOFMS (obsd [M + H]⁺ at *m*/*z* 848.5661; calcd [M + H]⁺ 848.5670), and this molecular formula was also supported by the ¹H and ¹³C NMR data (Table 2). The ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of **2** closely resembled those of viridamide A (**1**); however, there was a notable absence of a high-field methyl carbon resonance in the 10–11 ppm range, assigned to the C-10 methyl of the HMPA residue in **1**, and this appeared to explain the 14 Da mass reduction found between the two compounds. Analysis of the 2D gHSQC and gHMBC NMR spectra of **2** revealed that viridamide B contained a 2-hydroxy-3methylbutanoic acid (HMBA) residue versus the 2-hydroxy-3methylpentanoic acid residue found in viridamide A. The remaining structural features were identical between the two metabolites, as determined by detailed NMR and MS analysis. Because viridamide B was isolated in much smaller yield that viridamide A, its absolute configuration was not studied experimentally; however, on the basis of its co-occurrence with A and nearly identical structural and NMR features, we predict it possesses the same configuration at comparable centers.

Biological Evaluation of Viridamide A. Inspired by the bioactivity of other recently discovered linear peptides of cyanobacterial origin,^{13,20} viridamide A (1) was tested against a series of relevant tropical pathogens and cancer cell lines. Interestingly, 1 displayed significant activity against the three parasitic protozoa *Trypanosoma cruzi, Leishmania mexicana,* and *Plasmodium falciparum* with little toxicity to the cancer cell lines treated. The assay results are summarized in Table 3. The variable toxicity between pathogen and human-derived cell lines is encouraging and may suggest therapeutic value for these new compounds. Studies are ongoing to more fully understand these results.

Mophological and Phylogenetic Characterization of the Viridamide-Producing Cyanobacterium. The culture sample of strain OSC3L was observed as a blackish-green, mat-forming, filamentous cyanobacterium. Microscopically, it possessed cylindrical trichomes that were straight or slightly waved that measured $9-10 \ \mu m$ wide. The trichomes were covered with a thin, barely visible sheath, and there were slight constrictions at the cross walls between cells. The cells were disk-shaped, with a cell length (2–3 μm) to width (9–10 μm) ratio of approximately 0.25, and were granulated near the cross walls. The terminal cells were capitated and the trichomes slightly attenuated toward their tips. On the basis of these morphological features, strain OSC3L was identified as *Oscillatoria nigro-viridis* Thwaites in Harvey.²¹

To gain further insight into the phylogenetic relationship of this collection of O. nigro-viridis to other species and genera of cyanobacteria, a detailed molecular genetic analysis was conducted of strain OSC3L by amplifying its nearly full length 16S rRNA gene sequence using cyanobacterial specific primers (1378 bp, 93%) of 16S rRNA gene; GC content 54.79%; GenBank acc. no. EU244875). Because characterization of the species O. nigro-viridis is based entirely on a morphological description, a 16S rRNA gene sequence was not available for comparison with our data (e.g., this is the first report of the 16S rRNA gene sequence for this species). However, BLAST analysis revealed this gene sequence to be 99.3% identical to that of a filamentous cyanobacterium (strain PAB-21) we recently collected from the Caribbean coast of Panama (Gen-Bank acc. no. EU253967). This latter collection was also characterized as an Oscillatoria sp. based on its morphological features. In addition, BLAST analysis showed that strain OSC3L was phylogenetically closely related to several other Oscillatoria and Trichodesmium strains, including T. erythraeum IMS101 (97.4%; GenBank acc. no. CP000393) and O. sancta PCC 7515 (97.2%; GenBank acc. no. AF132933).

Phylogenetic trees were constructed from the 16S rRNA gene sequence obtained for strain OSC3L and related sequences recovered from GenBank following the BLAST analysis. Three commonly employed algorithms for constructing phylogenetic trees were used in this analysis (parsimony, distance, and maximum likelihood; see Experimental Section and Supporting Information), and all gave very similar topologies. However, the maximum-likelihood method (ML) provided the most robust boot-strap values and thus was used to construct the phylogenetic tree shown in Figure 4.

As predicted from the BLAST analysis, strain OSC3L clusters in a distinct and well boot-strap supported monophyletic clade that contains various strains of *Oscillatoria* and *Trichodesmium*.

O. nigro-viridis OSC3L groups closely with other strains of *Trichodesmium* and *Oscillatoria*. This clade is described in Bergey's manual as the *Trichodesmium–Oscillatoria* lineage.^{22,13} Recently, it was shown that the genus *Blennothrix* (former *Hydrocoleum* sensu *Komárek & Anagnostidis, 2005; B. cantharidosmum* GenBank acc. no. EU253967) also clades within the *Trichodesmium–Oscillatoria*

Table 3. Activity of Viridamide A (1) against a Series of Pathogens (IC_{50}) and Cancer Cell Lines (mm zones)

compound	<i>T. cruzi</i> IC ₅₀ (µM)	L. mexicana IC ₅₀ (µM)	P. falciparum IC ₅₀ (µM)	HCT-116 ^{<i>a</i>} zone (mm)	H-125 ^{<i>a</i>} zone (mm)
1 nifurtimox	$1.1 \pm 0.1 \\ 10 \pm 0.5$	1.5 ± 0.15	5.8 ± 0.6	250	200
amphothericin B chloroquine		0.1 ± 0.01	0.1 ± 0.014		

^a Disk diffusion zone of inhibition



Figure 2. Important fragmentations observed from FABMS and key HMBC connectivities used to sequence the series of residues in viridamide A (1).



Figure 3. Molecular structures of viridamides A (1) and B (2).

lineage, and this has led to a proposal that these genera derive from a common evolutionary origin.²³ While several strains of Oscillatoria, Trichodesmium, and recently Blennothrix have been associated with the production of biologically active secondary metabolites, 15,24 the genus Oscillatoria is clearly the richest in this regard.²⁵ O. nigroviridis contributes to harmful alga blooms (HABs) by causing dermatitis and inflammation in humans²⁶ and is reported to have fish antifeedant properties.²⁷ Chemical analyses of Pacific strains of O. nigro-viridis have yielded several bioactive compounds, including debromoaplypsiatoxin, oscillatoxin A, 21-bromooscillatoxin A, 19,21-dibromooscillatoxin A, and 19-bromoaplysiatoxin, a suite of metabolites that likely explains the toxic effects of this species in humans.²⁸ Whether these reports truly reflect a greater ability of Oscillatoria to produce natural products versus Trichodesmium and Blennothrix or, rather, identify that benthic cyanobacteria have been better studied than those with a mainly planktonic habit is uncertain at present. Ongoing studies that partner detailed culture, chemical, pharmacologic, and phylogenetic investigations should give valuable insights into this important question.

Herein we report two new bioactive marine natural products, viridamides A (1) and B (2), as well as details of the molecular taxonomy of the producing marine cyanobacterium. These new viridamide natural products have a familiar overall topology compared with other cyanobacterial metabolites, such as the carmabins,²⁹ jamaicamides,³⁰ and apramides,³¹ in that they are linear lipopeptides with a terminal acetylene group. However, they also display unique structural modifications within this subgroup in that they contain a terminal proline methyl ester and a 5-methoxydec-9-ynoic acid moiety. Viridamide A shows antitry-

panosomal activity ($IC_{50} = 1.1 \ \mu M$ to *Trypanosoma cruzi*) and antileishmanial activity ($IC_{50} = 1.5 \ \mu M$ to *Leishmania mexicana*) and, thus, represents a moderately potent new chemotype to display activity to these important parasitic diseases. Our combined morphological and molecular phylogenetic approaches to characterize the producing strain of cyanobacterium, *O. nigro-viridis*, as well as reveal its taxonomic relationships to other cyanobacterial species, allows for a deeper understanding and appreciation of the biological and chemical diversity in this taxonomic group. In turn, these insights are being employed to refine and make more productive our continuing drug discovery efforts.

Experimental Section

General Experimental Procedures. Optical rotations were measured using a Perkin-Elmer 241 polarimeter with a 10 cm cell. UV spectra were recorded on a Waters model 996 LC photodiode array detector and IR spectra on a ThermoElectron Nicolet IR100 FT-IP spectrometer. ¹H and 2D NMR data were obtained on a Varian Inova spectrometer operating at 500 MHz. ¹³C NMR spectra were acquired on a Varian Inova spectrometer operating at 75 MHz. CDCl₃ residual solvent peaks were used as internal references ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 7.26; $\delta_{\rm C}$ 77.0 ppm). Low-resolution LC/MS and MS/MS data were acquired on a Thermo Finnigan LCQ Advantage Max spectrometer with ESI source and Surveyor Series LC. The FAB mass spectrum was recorded on a Kratos MS50TC mass spectrometer. High-resolution mass spectra were collected on a highaccuracy Agilent ESI-TOF at the Scripps Research Institute, La Jolla, CA.

Collection, Isolation, and Culture of *Oscillatoria nigro-viridis* strain OSC3L. Strain OSC3L was isolated from an assemblage of *Lyngbya majuscula* collected at the CARMABI Research Station in



Figure 4. Phylogenetic relationships of marine cyanobacteria of the order Oscillatoriales from 16S rDNA nucleotide sequences (ML).

Curaçao, Netherlands Antilles, in 1993. The OSC3L filaments were isolated on solid agar plates using standard isolation techniques, as previously described.³² The isolated OSC3L filaments were cultured in BG-11 medium at 28 °C with 33 g/L Instant Ocean salt (Aquarium Systems, Mentor). The cultures were kept in a 16 h/8 h light/dark cycle with a light intensity of ca. 500 lx provided by 40 W cool white fluorescent lights. Scaled-up cultures for organic extraction or DNA extraction were produced using 75 mL Erlenmeyer flasks, 3 L Fernbach flasks, and 15 L pans, with the medium changed every 21 days. Total culture time varied from 21 to 30 days.

Isolation of Viridamides A (1) and B (2). The crude extract (1.56 g) was fractionated by normal-phase vacuum liquid chromatography (VLC) on Si gel, resulting in nine fractions of increasing polarity (A, 100% hexanes; B, 10% EtOAc in hexanes; C, 20% EtOAc in hexanes; D, 40% EtOAc in hexanes; E, 60% EtOAc in hexanes; F, 80% EtOAc in hexanes; G, 100% EtOAc; H, 25% CH₃OH in EtOAc; I, 100% CH₃OH). These nine fractions and the crude extract were then simultaneously screened by NMR and LC MS and evaluated for cancer cell cytotoxicity. The parallel screening of fractions G and H indicated the presence of unknown compounds and showed cytotoxicity in the initial screen.¹⁰ These fractions were subjected to RP C₁₈ HPLC (Phenomenex RP-Fusion semipreparative column 10 × 250 mm) monitored at 254 nm; 45 min gradient elution 80% aqueous CH₃OH to 100% CH₃OH at 3.0 mL/min flow rate). Viridamides A and B (30 and 3.6 mg, respectively) were further purified from the fractions eluting

at 19.5 and 17.5 min, respectively, by repeated isocratic HPLC (Phenomenex RP-Fusion semipreparative column 10×250 mm; CH₃CN/H₂O (7:3) at 3.0 mL/min.

Viridamide A (1): colorless oil; $[\alpha]_D - 107.4$ (*c* 0.05, CDCl₃); UV (CH₃CN) λ_{max} (log ε) 210 (2.9); IR (neat) ν_{max} 3500, 3313, 2962, 2971, 2873, 1737, 1643, 1533, 1461, 1442, 1192, 1100, 1011 cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃) and ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃), see Table 1; FABMS *m*/*z* 735.51 (C₄₀H₆₉N₄O₈), 608.45 (C₃₅H₆₂N₅O₈), 454.29 (C₂₃H₄₀N₃O₆), 407.29 (C₂₃H₃₉N₂O₄), 355.22 (C₁₈H₃₁N₂O₅), 280.22 (C₁₇H₃₀NO₂); HRESITOFMS (obsd [M + H]⁺ at *m*/*z* 862.5847; calcd [M + H]⁺ 862.5827).

Viridamide B (2): colorless oil; $[\alpha]_D - 98$ (*c* 0.10, CDCl₃); UV (CH₃CN) λ_{max} (log ε) 210 (3.1); IR (neat) ν_{max} 3500, 3313, 2962, 2971, 2873, 1737, 1643, 1533, 1461, 1442, 1192, 1100, 1011 cm⁻¹; ¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃) and ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃), see Table 2; HRTOFMS (obsd [M + H]⁺ at *m*/*z* 848.5661; calcd [M + H]⁺ 848.5670)

Acid Hydrolysis, Chiral HPLC, and Advanced Marfey's Analysis. Viridamide A (1 mg) was hydrolyzed in 0.5 mL of 6 N HCl at 110 °C for 18 h. Excess aqueous HCl was removed under vacuum. The dry material was resuspended in 0.5 mL of H₂O. Retention time comparisons of the commercially available L and D free amino acids by chiral HPLC (Chirex 3126, UV detection at 245 nm) indicated an Lconfiguration for all residues: L-Ile with 85:15 2 mM CuSO₄/CH₃OH (15.4 min; L-allo-Ile, 12.9 min; D-Ile, 24.3 min; D-allo-Ile 20.0 min),

Lipodepsipeptides with Antiprotozoal Activity

L-Val with 2 mM CuSO₄ (23.0 min; D-Val, 36.1 min), N-Me-L-Val with 2 mM CuSO₄ (15.5 min; N-Me-D-Val, 24.8 min), L-Pro with 2 mM CuSO₄ (18.2 min; D-Pro, 32.3 min).

For determination of the configuration of the N-Me-Ile residue, the hydrolysate of 1 was divided into two portions and dissolved in 1 N NaHCO₃ (100 μ L) followed by the separate addition of 50 μ L of 3 mg/mL (acetone) L-FDAA and D-FDAA, respectively. The reaction mixture was incubated at 80 °C for 3 min, then quenched by neutralization with 50 µL of 2 N HCl. Next, 300 µL of 50% aqueous CH₃CN was added to the solution and the products were analyzed by reversed-phase HPLC (LiChrosphere 100 C₁₈, UV detection at 340 nm) using a linear gradient of 9:1 50 mM triethylammonium phosphate (TEAP) buffer (pH 3)/CH₃CN to 1:1 TEAP/CH₃CN over 60 min. Because only N-Me-L-Ile and N-Me-L-allo-Ile were commercially available, the D-Marfey's reagent was used to make the N-Me-D-Ile and N-Me-D-allo-Ile chromatographic equivalents. The retention times $(t_{\rm R}, \min)$ of the Ile derivative from the hydrolysate of 1 matched that of N-Me-L-Ile (40.7 min; N-Me-L-allo-Ile, 41.2 min; N-Me-D-Ile, 44.2 min; N-Me-D-allo-Ile, 44.7 min).

Preparation and Chiral Analysis of HMPA. L-Ile (100 mg, 0.75 mmol) was dissolved in 50 mL 0.2 N HClO₄ at 0 °C. To this was added a cold (0 °C) solution of NaNO₃ (1.4 g, 20 mmol) in 20 mL of H₂O with rapid stirring. With continued stirring the reaction mixture was allowed to reach room temperature, at which time evolution of N₂ subsided (ca. 30 min). The solution was then boiled for 3 min, cooled to room temperature, and then saturated with NaCl. This mixture was extracted with Et₂O and dried under vacuum. The three other stereois somers (2*R*,3*R*)-HMPA, (2*R*,3*S*)-HMPA, and (2*S*,3*R*)-HMPA were synthesized in a similar manner from D-Ile, D-*allo*-Ile, and L-*allo*-Ile, respectively. A portion of the resultant oil was dissolved in aqueous 2 mM CuSO₄ buffer for HPLC. The retention time (Chirex-D, linear gradient 100:0 2 mM CuSO₄/CH₃CN to 95:5 over 20 min) of the natural product hydrolysate matched that for 2*S*,3*R*-HMPA, 23.2 min).

Intracellular *Trypanosoma cruzi* **Assay.** The antitrypanosomal activity was determined using a recombinant Tulahuen clone C4 of *T. cruzi* that expresses β -galactosidase as a reporter enzyme.³³ The method is based on the growth inhibition effect of test samples on trypomastigote, the intracellular form of the parasite, infecting Vero cells, as previously described.³⁴

Antileishmanial Bioassay. Leishmaniasis bioassays were performed using a method based on parasite (*Leishmania mexicana*) DNA fluorescence, as previously described.³⁵

Morphological Analysis of Strain OSC3L. The morphological characterization of OSC3L was performed using an Olympus BH-2 light microscope. The following parameters were selected to describe its morphology: length, width, and length/width ratios of vegetative cells, presence/absence of specialized cells such as heterocysts, akinetes, or calyptra, the size and shape of trichomes, granulation, constrictions at cross walls, morphology of terminal cells, and thallus growth characteristics and coloration. Morphological identification was made in accordance with traditional phycological²⁰ and bacteriological systems.¹⁸

DNA Extraction, 16S rRNA Gene PCR-Amplification, and Cloning. Genomic DNA was extracted from 40 mg of cleaned algal tissue using the Wizard Genomic DNA purification kit (cat. A1120) following the manufacturer's specifications (Promega, Madison, WI). The isolated genomic DNA was further purified using a Genomic-tip 20/G kit from Qiagen (cat. 10223). The 16S rRNA gene was amplified from isolated DNA using the cyanobacterial-specific primers 106F and 1509R, as previously described.²¹ The reaction volume was 25 μ L containing 0.5 μ L of DNA (50 ng), 2.5 μ L of 10 × PfuUltra IV reaction buffer, 0.5 µL of dNTP mix (25 mM each of dATP, dTTP, dGTP, and dCTP), 0.5 μ L of each primer (10 μ M), 0.5 μ L of PfuUltra IV fusion HS DNA polymerase (cat. 600760), and 20.25 µL of dH₂O. The PCR reaction was performed in an Eppendorf Mastercycler gradient as follows: initial denaturation for 2 min at 95 °C, 30 cycles of amplification: 20 s at 95 °C, 20 s at 50 °C, and 1.5 min at 72 °C, and final elongation for 3 min at 72 °C. PCR products were subcloned using the Zero Blunt TOPO PCR cloning kit (cat. K2800-20SC) from Invitrogen, into the pCR-Blunt IV TOPO vector, and then transformed into TOPO cells and cultured on LB-kanamycin plates. Plasmid DNA was isolated using the QIAprep spin miniprep kit (cat. 27106) from Qiagen and sequenced with pCR-Blunt IV TOPO vector specific primers M13F/M13R and internal middle primers 359F and 781R as previously described. 21

Phylogenetic Analysis of Strain OSC3L. The bidirectional 16S rRNA gene sequences of OSC3L were combined, and the resulting consensus sequence was inspected both visually and by secondary structure analysis using the CLC DNA Workbench 3. The GC content was determined using the MBCF Oligo calculator from the Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Molecular Biology Core Facilities (http://mbcf.dfci-.harvard.edu/docs/oligocalc.html). The 16S rRNA gene was aligned together with related cyanobacterial strains representing 13 major genera of the order Oscillatoriales (subsection III) obtained from GenBank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) and the Ribosomal Database Project II (http://rdp8.cme.msu.edu/html/). The multiple sequence alignments were performed using ClustalX in MEGA 4³⁶ with standard gap opening and extension penalties without gaps. The aligned 16S rRNA gene sequences were used to generate phylogenetic trees in MEGA 4. The phylogenetic relation of the cyanobacterial 16S rDNA genes were compared by (1) the distance method by neighbor-joining (NJ), (2) maximum parsimony (MP), and (3) the maximum-likelihood (ML) method. The evolutionarily distant cyanobacterium Nostoc punctiforme PCC73102 (GenBank acc. no. AF027655), from the order Nostocales, was used as an outgroup. Selection of the phylogenetic method used for the tree appearing in Figure 4 was based on tree topology and bootstrap values.

Acknowledgment. We gratefully acknowledge the government of Curaçao for permission and the Carmabi Research Station for assistance in making these cyanobacterial collections. We thank R. C. Coates for cyanobacterial culturing, and M. Balunas and C. Spatafora for assistance with data management. Financial support for this work came from the National Cancer Institute (CA52955) and the International Cooperative Biodiversity Groups Program (grant no. 1U01 TW 006634-01).

Supporting Information Available: HPLC chromatograms of **1** and **2**, full 1D and 2D NMR spectra for **1**, ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of **2**, and phylogenetic trees produced by alternative algorithms. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

References and Notes

- (1) http://www.who.int/neglected_diseases/en/.
- (2) Trouiller, P.; Olliara, P.; Torreele, E.; Orbinski, J.; Laing, R.; Ford, N. Lancet 2002, 359, 2188–2194.
- (3) Yamey, G. Br. J. Med. 2002, 325, 176-177.
- (4) Teixeira, A. R. L.; Nascimento, R. J.; Sturm, N. R. Mem. Inst. Oswaldo Cruz 2006, 101, 463–491.
- (5) www.who.int/leishmaniasis/en/.
- (6) Guerin, P. J.; Olliaro, P.; Sundar, S.; Boelaert, M.; Croft, S. L.; Desjeux, P.; Wasunna, M. K.; Bryceson, A. D. M. *Lancet Infect. Dis.* 2002, 2, 494–501.
- (7) World Health Organization. *Control of Chagas Disease*, second report of the WHO expert committee; Technical Report Series, Vol. 905, WHO: Geneva, 2002.
- (8) Sanderson, L.; Khan, A.; Thomas, S. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 2007, 51, 3136–3146.
- (9) (a) Lee, J.; Michael, A. J.; Martynowski, D.; Goldsmith, E. J.; Phillips, M. A. J. Biol. Chem. 2007, 282, 27115–27125. (b) Priotto, G.; Kasparian, S.; Nqouama, D.; Ghorashian, S.; Arnold, U.; Ghabri, S.; Karunakara, U. Clin. Infect. Dis. 2007, 45, 1435–1442.
- (10) Carrillo, C.; González, N. S.; Algranati, I. D. Biochim. Biophys. Acta 2007, 1770, 1605–1611.
- (11) Bouteille, B.; Oukem, O.; Bisser, S.; Dumas, M. Fundam. Clin. Pharmacol. 2003, 17, 171–181.
- (12) Seifert, K.; Lemke, A.; Croft, S. L.; Kayser, O. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 2007, 51, 4525–4528.
- (13) (a) Sanchez, L. A.; Capitan, Z.; Romero, L. I.; Ortega-Barria, E.; Gerwick, W. H.; Cubilla-Rios, L. *Nat. Prod. Commun.* **2007**, *2*, 1065–1069. (b) McPhail, K. L.; Correa, J.; Linington, R. G.; Gonzalez, J.; Ortega-Barria, E.; Capson, T. L.; Gerwick, W. H. *J. Nat. Prod.* **2007**, *70*, 984–988.
- (14) Gerwick, W. H.; Tan, L.; Sitachitta, N. *The Alkaloids*; Academic Press: San Diego, 2001; Vol. 57, pp 75–184.
- (15) (a) Marquardt, J.; Palinska, K. A. Arch. Microbiol. 2007, 187, 5, 397–413. (b) Rajaniemi, P.; Hrouzek, P.; Katovská, K.; Willame, R.; Rantala, A.; Hoffmann, L.; Komárek, J.; Sivonen, K. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 2005, 55, 11–26. (c) Clark, B. R.; Engene, N.; Gerwick, W. H. J. Nat.Prod. 2008, submitted.

- (16) Repetitive extraction with CH₂Cl₂/CH₃OH (2:1) followed by normalphase vacuum liquid chromatography using an organic mobile phase of increasing polarity generating nine fractions (A–I).
- (17) These fractions were initially active in a cell toxicity screen, but the activity did not repeat.
- (18) (a) FujIV, K.; Ikau, Y.; Oka, H.; Suzuki, M.; Harada, K. Anal. Chem. 1997, 69, 3346–3352. (b) FujIV, K.; Ikau, Y.; Oka, H.; Suzuki, M.; Harada, K. Anal. Chem. 1997, 69, 5146–5151. (c) Marfey, P. Calsberg Res. Commun. 1984, 49, 591–596.
- (19) Mamer, O. A. Methods Enzymol. 2000, 324, 3-10.
- (20) Linington, R. G.; Gonzalez, J.; Ureña, L. D.; Romero, L. I.; Ortega-Barría, E.; Gerwick, W. H. J. Nat. Prod. 2007, 70, 397–401.
- (21) (a) Geitler, L. Akad. Verlagsgesellschaft 1932, 942–943. (b) Komárek, J.; Anagnostidis, K. Süsswasserflora Mitteleuropa 2005, 19/2, 576– 579.
- (22) Castenholz, R. W.; Rippka, R.; Herdman, M. Bergey's Manual Syst. Bacteriol. 2001, 1, 492–553.
- (23) Abed, R. M.; Palinska, K. A.; Camoin, G.; Gulobic, S. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 2006, 260, 171–177.
- (24) Sudek, S.; Haygood, M. G.; Youssef, D. T. A.; Schmidt, E. W. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 2006, 72, 4382–4387.
- (25) Van Wagoner, R.; Drummond, A. K.; Wright, J. L. C. Adv. Appl. Microbiol. 2007, 61, 89–217.
- (26) Katırcıoglu, H.; Akın, B. S.; Tahir, A. Afr. J. Biotech. 2004, 3, 667– 674.

- (27) Wilkinson, C. R.; Sammarco, P. W. Mar. Ecol.: Prog. Ser. 1983, 13, 15–19.
- (28) (a) Mynderse, J. S.; Moore, R. E.; Kashiwagi, M.; Norton, T. R. Science 1977, 196, 538–540. (b) Mynderse, J. S.; Moore, R. E. J. Org. Chem. 1978, 43, 2301–2303.
- (29) Hooper, G. J.; Orjala, J.; Schatzman, R. C.; Gerwick, W. H. J. Nat. *Prod.* **1998**, *61*, 529–533.
- (30) Edwards, D. J.; Marquez, B. L.; Nogle, J. N.; McPhail, K.; Goeger, D. E.; Roberts, M. A.; Gerwick, W. H. *Chem. Biol.* 2004, *11*, 817– 833.
- (31) Leusch, H.; Yoshida, W. Y.; Moore, R. E.; Paul, V. J. J. Nat. Prod. **2000**, *63*, 1106–1112.
- (32) (a) Gerwick, W. H.; Roberts, M. A.; Proteau, P. J.; Chen, J.-L. J. Appl. Phycol. 1994, 6, 143–149. (b) Nubel, U.; Garcia-Pichel, F.; Muyzer, G. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 1997, 63, 3327–3332.
- (33) Buckner, F. S.; Verlinde, C. L.; LaFlamme, A. C.; Van Boris, W. C. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 1996, 40, 2592–2597.
- (34) Gutierrez, M.; Capson, T. L.; Guzman, H. M.; Gonzalez, J.; Ortega-Barria, E.; Quinoa, E.; Riguera, R. J. Nat. Prod. 2006, 69, 1379– 1383.
- (35) Calderon, A.; Romero, L.; Oretga-Barria, E.; Brun, R.; Correa, M.; Gupta, M. P. *Panama Pharm. Biol.* **2006**, *44*, 1–16.
- (36) Kumar, S.; Tamura, K.; Nei, M. Briefings Bioinf. 2004, 5, 150–163.

NP800110E