**Polyketides from endophytic fungi: a review**

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**Abstract**

Endophytic fungi are a significant resource of bioactive metabolites and natural products. Here, the biological properties of endophytes that produce polyketides are presented and reviewed. Fungal polyketides play an important role in drug discovery. This review highlights the molecular approaches done in the past years for the identification of PKS genes and also the polyketides from endophytic fungi that possess inhibitory activity against pathogenic microbes and cancer cell lines.

**Keywords** Polyketide synthase, KS domain, Secondary metabolites, IC50 value, spectroscopic methods

**What are Fungal Endophytes?**

A most accepted definition of endophytes was given by Bacon and White [**1**]: ‘Microbes that colonize living, internal tissues of plants without causing any immediate, overt negative effect’. They have been isolated from almost every host plant studied so far. A symbiotic relationship exists between plants and endophytes. Plants provide nutrition and shelter to the endophyte and in return, they provide resistance to the host against biotic and abiotic stress **[2]**. Even though they were discovered in 1904, they got attention only after recognition of their ecological and pharmaceutical significance [**3**]. Every plant on earth hosts one or more endophytic fungus species. Endophytic fungi can thrive asymptomatically in healthy tissues of living plants above and/or under the ground. It is assumed that above one million endophytic fungal species are present in nature **[4]**. Endophytes are horizontally transmitted to their host plants through airborne spores. However,, some endophytes may vertically transfer to the next generation through seeds **[5]**. Endophytic fungi are a source of known and novel potential bioactive compounds. They can produce compounds that are specific to their host plants, which increase the adaptability of both endophytic fungi and their host plants, such as the tolerance to biotic and abiotic stresses **[6**, **2**]. Thus, endophytes have generated significant interest due to their bioactive production capacity. It has been suggested that the association between host and endophytes results in the production of more number and diversity of biological molecules compared to epiphytes or soil-related microbes **[7]**.

A great breakthrough in endophyte-derived natural products happened when the multibillion-dollar anticancer drug taxol-producing endophyte was isolated. At first, the compound was isolated from the Pacific yew tree, *Taxus brevifolia.* However, the plants are slow-growing and result in low yield taxol per gram. Endophytic fungi *Taxomyces andreanae,* isolated from the plant produced the same compound [**8,** **9**]. Hence, an alternative method for taxol production has been explored. Bioactive compounds that are co-produced by the endophytic fungi and their host include the anticancer drugs camptothecin **[10]** and podophyllotoxin **[11]** and the natural insecticide azadirachtin **[12]**.

**Polyketides- An Introduction**

Polyketides are a large family of secondary metabolites with diverse structure and biological activities have enormous use in human and animal medicine and also in agriculture and chemical industries **[13,** **14**, **15**]. Because of these properties, they have been named as the richest “drug gold mines” **[16]**. Polyketides are found in bacteria, fungi, and plants **[17]** and are synthesized by the enzyme Polyketide synthases (PKSs). By the ketosynthase (KS) activity they catalyze the condensation of extender units onto an acyl starter substrate or a growing polyketide chain. PKSs retain their substrates and reaction intermediates as thioester conjugates to an acyl carrier protein (ACP) or a small molecule, Coenzyme A (CoA). Acyl transferase (AT) recognizes a particular acyl starter or extender unit and catalyzes the transfer reaction onto ACP’s phosphopantetheine arm. PKSs catalyze the intramolecular cyclization of the resulting polyketide chain to produce monocyclic or polycyclic polyketides by performing a specific reduction and dehydration reaction on each resulting β-keto carbon **[18,** **14**]. PKSs fall under three categories based on the catalytic domain and enzymatic mechanisms **[19,** **20**]. Proteins of type I PKSs are multimodular and include unique catalytic domains. Three catalytic domains are essential for PKS I: β – ketosynthase (KS), acyl transferase (AT), and an acyl carrier protein (ACP). Type II PKSs consist of individual protein complexes which act iteratively and most commonly produce aromatic polyketides. Type III PKSs are the simplest PKS with homodimers of KS which catalyze the reaction without ACP **[18, 21**, **19**].

Fungal PKSs are similar to type I modular PKSs which act iteratively and are responsible for the production of most fungal polyketides. Optional β- keto processing reactions may be catalyzed by keto reductase (KR), dehydratase (DH), and enoyl reductase (ER) in addition to the basic catalytic domains of type I PKS **[22,** **14**]. Only a small amount of Type III PKSs are found in fungal genomes **[23**, **24**].

Fungal PKSs are categorized into non-reducing or aromatic (NR-PKS), partially reducing (PR-PKS) and highly reducing PKSs based on their architecture and the presence or absence of additional β-keto processing domains. **[25**, **26**].

**Polyketide synthase (PKS) from endophytic fungi**

PCR with degenerated primers or genomic DNA and cDNA libraries screened by heterologous or homologous probes are used for targeting a specific PKS gene from a strain. In 1995, degenerated β- ketoacyl synthase domain primers (KS1 and KS2) were designed [**27**]. These were designed based on the conserved amino acid regions in the β- ketoacyl synthase domains of type I fungal and bacterial PKS. To amplify KS domain fragments from fungal PKS belonging to one of the two subclasses NR and PR-PKS, WA-type and MSAS- type, two sets of degenerate primers (LC1 and LC2c, LC3 and LC5c) were created. It was done by Bingle et al [**25**]. Additional sets of degenerate primers were created to target conserved areas of various fungal PKS domains, such as β-ketoacylsynthase, ketoreductase, and C-methyltransferase, enabling for the selective and quick cloning of specific fungal PKS genes **[26]**.

The KS domain of 24 endophytic fungi isolated from Oryza rufipogon was tested for using the KAF1/KAR1 or KAF1/KAR2 assays**. [28]**. Nine isolates were KS positive. They belong to *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium*, *Phoma*, *Dendryphiella*, *Sarocladium*, *Fusarium*, *Leptosphaerulina*, *Trichoderma, Chaetomium, Sordariales*, *Eurotiales*, *Hypocreales,* and *Pleosporales.* Most of the fungal PKSs were Type I identified by phylogenetic analysis.A collection of 17 sugarcane-derived fungi, which belong to various genera of ascomycetes, were screened for the presence of PKS gene by PCR **[29]**. LC1/2c and KS3/4c were used for the KS domain amplification and Cmet1/3c for CMT domain amplification. The genomes encoded 36 putative PKS sequences, of which 26 shared sequence homology with KS domain and the remaining 10 shared CMT homology. The PKS gene was tested in 63 endophytic fungi isolated from Annona squamosa using the degenerate primer pairs LC1-LC2c, LC3-LC5c, and KS3-KS4c. **[30]**. 11 of the 63 isolates contained all three KS domains.

Manoharan et al **[23]** attempt to identify type III PKS in fungal endophytes isolated from ethnomedicinal plants including *Arbus precatorius, Bacopa monnieri, Citrus aurantifolia,* and *Datura metel.* A total of seventeen endophytic fungal strains were identified by rDNA-ITS phylogenetic analyses. A CODEHOP-PCR based strategy was used to design degenerate primers for the screening of type III PKS genes from the isolates. Eight endophytes showed the presence of a partial PKS gene. The full-length gene was amplified from the partial sequence of FiPKS from *Fusarium incarnatum.* FiPKScDNA was cloned and expressed in *E.coli.*

**Polyketides from endophytic fungi**

The search for bioactive compounds from endophytic fungi resulted in the discovery of many novel and existing polyketides. The most often used approach for identifying polyketides is by HPLC of the crude extract of endophytic fungi. After proper fermentation, crude extracts were obtained, which showed several bioactivities. In majority of cases, individually purified new natural compounds showed promising activities like cytotoxic, antimicrobial, or anti-inflammatory.

Six new polyketides, aplojaveediins A-F were obtained from the endophytic fungus *Aplosporella javeedii* isolated from the plant *Orychophragmus violaceus* **[31]***.* NMR and MS data analysis elucidated the structure of these metabolites. All the compounds were evaluated for antibacterial activities. Only compounds 1 and 6 displayed antibacterial activities against ATCC 29213 and ATCC 70699 strains of *Staphylococcus aureus.* Among these compounds, only compound 1 showed antifungal activity against *Candida albicans* strain ATCC 2433 in both agar plate diffusion assay and microbroth dilution assay. Time kill assay of compound 1 (Fig 1.1) against *Candida albicans* exhibited a faster killing rate than the positive control hygromycin B.

Penicillium commune QQF-3, which was isolated from the fruit of the mangrove plant *Kandelia candel*, produced ten novel isocoumarins known as peniisocoumarins A–J, along with three known analogs **[32]**. The structure of these coumarins was elucidated by a spectroscopic method including single-crystal x-ray diffraction, Mosher's method, and electronic circular dichorism data. The inhibitory actions of these compounds against α-glucosidase were investigated. Compounds 3 (Fig 1.3), 7 (Fig 1.2), 9 (Fig 1.5) and 11 (Fig 1.4) were more potent than acarbose, which served as a positive control. The IC50 values were in the range of 38.1 to 78.1 µM. With an IC50 value of 20.7µM, compound 7 showed significant MptpB inhibitory action.

Ethyl acetate extract of *Xylariales* sp. (HM1), an endophytic fungus isolated from the leaves of *Distylium chinense* yielded four α- pyrones derivatives, xylariaopyrones A-D **[33]**. Antimicrobial inhibitory activity was observed in xylariopyrones A-D, with MIC values in the range from 20.5 to 50.6 µg/mL. Against the four cancer cell lines put to the test, none of the metabolites showed cytotoxicity. Additionally, the results of the metabolites’ inhibitory action on brine shrimp showed inhibition percentages varying from 42 to 82%.

The endophyte, *Penicillium ochrochloronthe* isolated from the roots of *Taxus media* yielded three new 3,4,6- trisubstituted α-pyrone derivatives, namely 6-(2′*R*hydroxy-3′*E*,5′*E*-diene-1′-heptyl)-4-hydroxy3methyl-2H-pyran-2-one, 6-(2′*S*-hydroxy-5′*E*-ene-1′-heptyl)-4-hydroxy-3-methyl-2H-pyran-2-one, and 6-(2′*S*-hydroxy-1′-heptyl)-4-hydroxy-3-methyl-2Hpyran-2-one **[34]**. With a MIC value of 12.5 µg/ml, the compounds showed substantial activity against the tested fungal strains and it has moderate antibacterial activity against the tested bacterial strains with a MIC of 25 µg/ml.

*Aspergillus fumigatiaffnis*, an endophytic fungus isolated from the medicinal plant *Tribulus terestris* yielded a new polyketide palitantin **[35]**. The 1D and 2D NMR along with mass spectroscopy revealed the structure of this metabolite (Fig 1.6). The broth microdilution method was used to study the antibacterial activity of the compound against the strain panel *S. aureus* ATCC 29213, *Streptococcus pneumoniae* ATCC 49619, *E. coli* ATCC 25922, (multi) drug-resistant *S. aureus* 25697, and *Enterococcus faecalis* UW 2689. With a MIC value of 64 µg/ml, the compound showed antibacterial activity against *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae.*

A rare compound class of polyketides, curvularides A–E were isolated from the endophytic fungus *Curvularia geniculata* CTOM11 associated with the limbs of *Catunaregam tomentosa* **[36]**. Even though all the compounds are cytotoxically inactive, compound B showed inhibitory activity against *Candida albicans* ATCC 90028. It also demonstrated a synergistic impact when used in conjunction with fluconazole medication. From the co-cultures of two different developmental stages of a marine alga *Aspergillus alliaceus,* new chlorinated bianthrones, allianthrone A, and its two diastereomers were identified **[37]**. Allianthrone A was found to have mild cytotoxic activity in HCT-116 colon cancer and SK-Mel-5 melanoma cell lines with IC50 values of 9.0 and 11.0 µM, respectively.

Curtachalasins A and B, a novel family of cytochalasans with a 5/6/66- fused tetracyclic structure, were produced by the endophytic fungus *Xylaria curta* E10, which was isolated from the healthy stem tissues of potato (Solanum torvum). **[38]**. These compounds were tested for cytotoxic activities against 5 new human cancer cell lines but no cytotoxic activities are found. The metabolites were tested for antimicrobial activities against four bacterial strains and four fungal strains. At a concentration of 200 µM, both compounds showed weak antifungal activity against the *Microsporum gypseum.* Again, three new novel metabolites, curtachalasins C-E were isolated from the endophytic fungus *Xylaria* cf. *curta* from the same plant **[39]**. Curtachalasins C together with 10 µg/mL fluconazole showed dose-dependent resistance. When compared to fluconazole alone, the inhibitory ratio against the strain reported a substantial improvement.

Five new polyketides, paralactonic acids A-E were isolated from an endophytic fungus *Paraconiothyrium* sp. SW-B-1 inhabiting the seaweed *Chondrus ocellatus* **[40]**. Among the all isolates only paralactonic acid E (Fig 1.7) showed moderate antibacterial activity with a MIC value of 3.2 µg/mL at a concentration of 100µg/disk against *S. aureus* NBRC 13276. Using a hypersensitive drug screening approach based on the YNS17 [*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*] strain, all metabolites were evaluated for their ability to block Ca2+ signal transduction. In the mutant yeast strain YNS17, only paralactonic acid E exhibited dose-dependent growth restoring activity around the inhibitory zone.

*Penicillium purpurogenum IMM003,* an endophytic fungus isolated from the solid-substrate cultures, yielded three new polyketides including two benzophenone derivatives, penibenzones A and B, and a new phthalide derivative, penibenzone C **[41]**. By spectroscopic studies, the structures of the compounds were interpreted. None of the compounds displayed inhibitory activity against pancreatic lipase.

Nine polyketides including two new benzophenone derivatives, peniphenone, and methyl peniphenone, along with seven known xanthones were obtained from the fermentation of *Penicillium* sp. ZJ-SY2, isolated from the leaves of *Sonneratia apetala* **[42]**. The structure of the compounds was determined spectroscopically using MS, 1D, and 2D NMR data. All the metabolites were tested for their immunosuppressive activities against Con A-induced (T cell) and LPS-induced (B cell) proliferation of mouse splenic lymphocytes. Compounds peniphenone and three xanthones showed immunosuppressive activity with IC50 values ranging from 5.9 to 9.3 µg/mL.

*Daldinia eschscholtzii,* fungal strain inhabiting the terrestrial orchid *Paphiopedi lumexul* (Ridl.) Rolfe, was found to produce aromatic polyketides including the new naphthalene derivatives daldionin (Fig 1.8), nodulones B and C, and daldinones F and G along with eight known compounds **[43]**. MS and NMR spectroscopic studies revealed the structure of these compounds. Dadionin showed weak antiproliferative activity against HUVEC and K-562 cell lines. The medicinal plant, *Globularia alypum* associated fungal strain *Preussia similis* was found to produce six novel bicyclic polyketides, *Preussilides A−F* **[44]**. The biological activity of all the metabolites was tested towards bacteria, yeast, and filamentous fungi. With a MIC value of 150 and 37.5 µg/mL, compounds A and C showed mild antifungal activity respectively. All the compounds showed the weakest to modest cytotoxic activity against tested cell lines.

*Phoma bellidis,* endophytic fungi isolated from the healthy leaves tissue of the medicinal plant *Tricyrtis maculate,* yielded four new polyketides bellidisins A-D along with three known compounds pinolidoxin 5,6-epoxypinolidoxin, and 2-epiherbarumin II **[45]**. The structure of these compounds was elucidated by 1D, 2D and NMR, HRESIMS, and ECD calculation. Cytotoxic activity of all the metabolites was tested against the human leukemia cell line HL-60, adenocarcinomic human alveolar basal epithelial cells A549, human breast cancer cell line MCF-7, human colorectal adenocarcinoma cell lines SW480, and human hepatocarcinoma cell line SMMC-7221. With an IC50 value of 3.40 ± 0.11µM, compound D (Fig 1.9) showed cytotoxic activity against the human leukemia cell line.

The fungus, *Phomopsis* sp. CFS42 was isolated from a medicinally important plant, *Cephalotaxus fortunei* Hook **[46]**. The fungus yielded a polyketide having an unprecedented carbon-carbon skeleton with a rare C6 unit connected to a C12 unit via CAC bond, Phomotide A. Spectroscopic data analyses, and single X-ray diffraction was used to elucidate the structure of the metabolite. The study also suggested a plausible biogenetic pathway of the compound.

*Penicillium chermisinum,* isolated from the healthy root of a mangrove tree, *Hertiera littoralis,* yielded a new polyketide derivative, 2-chloro-3,4,7-trihydroxy-9-methoxy-1-methyl-6H-benzo[c]chromen-6-one **[47]**. The structure of the compounds was elucidated by spectroscopic methods including UV, IR, HR-ESI MS, and 1D and 2D NMR experiments. With an IC50 value of 14.94 µM, the metabolite showed selective cytotoxic activity towards the MOLT-3 cell line.

The endophytic fungus *Pestalotiopsis clavispora,* isolated from the mangrove plant *Rhizophora harrisonii,* yielded six new polyketide derivatives, including pestalpolyol I, pestapyrones A and B, (R)-periplanetin D, pestaxanthone, norpestaphthalide A, and an isolation artifact pestapyrone C **[48.]**. 1D and 2D NMR spectroscopy was used to elucidate the structure of these compounds. All the compounds were inactive towards the MTT assay with the murine lymphoma cell line L5178Y, except pestapolyol I which exhibited an IC50 value of 4.1 µM.

Three polyoxy-generated polyketides, namely epicolactone and epicocolides A and B were isolated from ethyl extract of the fungus *Epicoccum* sp., an endophyte isolated from *Theobroma cacao* **[49]**. All the isolates were evaluated for their antibacterial activity against *Bacillus subtilis, Staphylococcus aureus, and Escherichia coli.* Epicolactone showed maximum activity against the tested strains. All the metabolites showed significant antifungal activity against phytopathogens, *Pythium ultimum* and *Aphanomyces cochlioides,* and the basidiomycetous fungi *Rhizoctonia solani.*

The endophytic fungus *Fusarium* sp. LN-10 isolated from the leaves of *Melia azedarach* yielded a new isocoumarin derivative named fusariumin (Fig 1.11), along with two known related resorcylic acid lactones aigialomycin D and ponchonin N **[50]**. 1D and 2D NMR spectroscopic studies revealed the structure of the compounds. All three compounds were evaluated for growth inhibitory activity against brine shrimp. At a concentration of 10 µg/mL, all the metabolites showed significant toxicity towards brine shrimp larvae.

Three endophytic strains of *Talaromyces* from the Amazonian rainforest yielded 6 polyketide compounds **[51]**. These compounds were evaluated for their antibacterial activity against a panel of pathogenic microorganisms, wild hospital strains of gram-positive *Bacillus cereus*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, gram-negative *Escherichia coli*, and a wild environmental strain of the plant pathogen *R. solanacearum*. All the metabolites showed moderate antibacterial activity.

From the cultures of Phoma sp., an endophytic fungus isolated from the medicinal plant Cinnamomum mollissimum, a polyketide chemical known as 4-hydroxymellein (Fig. 1.10) was discovered and characterised*.* **[52]**. The crude extracts were tested for cytotoxicity against P388 murine leukemic cells and antimicrobial activity against the fungi *Aspergillus niger* and *A. fumigatus* and the bacteria *Bacillus subtilis.* The compound exhibited high inhibitory activity against P388 murine leukemic cells (94.6%) and *B. subtilis (97.3%). Aspergillus* sp., isolated from the root of *Tripterygium wilfordii,* yielded four new butenolides, terrusnolides A-D **[53]**. LPS-stimulated RAW264.7 macrophages were used to evaluate the *in vitro* anti-inflammatory effects of these isolates. All the compounds showed admirable inhibitory effects on the production of interleukin- 1β (IL-1β), tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α), and Nitric oxide (NO) in LPS-induced RAW264.7, equivalent with the positive control indomethacin.

The endophytic fungus *Diaporthe* sp. isolated from *Datura inoxia,* produced three new compounds xylarolide A, diportharine A, and xylarolide B, and a known compound xylarolide **[54]**. All the compounds were screened for their antioxidant, antibacterial, and cytotoxicity activities. None of these compounds showed any antibacterial activity. Xylarolide A showed growth inhibition in MIA-PaCa-2 and PC-3 cells with IC50 values of 20 and 14 µM respectively and for xylarolide, 32 and 18 µM respectively.

Two novel polyketides, fusariumins C and D, were isolated from the endophytic fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* ZZP-R1, obtained from the traditional Chinese medicinal herb *Rumex madaio* Makino **[55]**. With a MIC value of 25.0 µM, fusariumins D exhibited moderate inhibitory effect against *S. aureus,* and fusariumins C (Fig 1.12) showed potent activity against *S. aureus* with a MIC value of 6.25 µM. The endophytic fungus *Dothiorella* sp., isolated from the stem of the mangrove *Xylocarpus granatum* Koenig, yielded three new cytosporone derivatives, dothiorelones K-M **[56]**. The compounds were tested for their inhibitory activities against α-glycosidase, antibacterial activity against five pathogenic bacteria, and cytotoxicity activity against human A549, Hela, and HepG2 cell lines. With IC50 values of 22.0 and 77.9 µg/mL, compound K (Fig 1.13) and M (Fig 1.14) showed α-glucosidase inhibitory activity respectively. These compounds also showed moderate antibacterial activities against *S. aureus.* None of the metabolites showed cytotoxic activity

The chemical investigation was done on the endophytic fungus *Diaporthe* sp. JC-17 isolated from the stems of *Dendrobium nobile* **[57]**. In steatoic L-02 cells, Diaporthsin E (Fig 1.16) had a 26% inhibitory ratio on triglycerides, with a concentration of 5 µg/mL. All the compounds exhibited an inhibition ratio of less than 10%. The endophytic fungus *Ascomycota* sp., isolated from the mangrove plant *Kandelia candel* yielded two prenylated polyketides, ascomfurans C and ascomarugosin A **[58]**. With an IC50 value of 72.3 µM, ascomarugosin A exhibited weak anti-inflammatory activity.

Organic extract of the endophytic fungus *Byssochlamys spectabilis,* inhabiting the leaf tissues of the traditional Chinese medicinal plant *Edgeworthia chrysantha,* produced a polyketide-derived octaketide dimer with a novel carbon skeleton, designated bysspectins A and two new precursor derivatives, bysspectins B and C **[59]**. Only bysspectins C exhibited a weak inhibition with MIC values of 32 and 64 µg/mL against *E. coli* and *S. aureus* respectively. Bysspectin A showed inhibition against human carboxylesterase hCE2 with an IC50 value of 2.01 µM.

Four novel polyketides, emericelactones A-D, were obtained from the endophytic fungal isolate *Emericella* sp. XL029, obtained from the leaves of *Panax otoginseng* **[60]**. The one-strain many compounds (OSMAC) approach was used in this strain. All the compounds exhibited moderate antifungal activity against agricultural pathogenic fungi, *Verticillium dahlia* kleb*, R. solani*, and *Gibberella saubinetii,* and antibacterial activity against human pathogenic bacteria, *M. lysodeikticus,* and *S. typhi.*

The ethyl acetate extract of a co-culture of the endophytic fungus *Aspergillus versicolor* KU258497, isolated from the leaves of *Eichhornia crassipes,* and the bacterium *B. subtilis* 168 trpC2, yielded two new cryptic 3,4-dihydronaphthalen-(2H)-1-one (1-tetralone) derivatives, aspvanicin A and its epimer aspavanicin B **[61]**. Antiproliferative activity of these metabolites was measured in the mouse lymphoma cell lines L5178Y. With an IC50 value of 22.8 µM, aspavanicin B (Fig 1.15) showed cytotoxic potential. The endophytic fungus *Colletotrichum* sp. JS-0367, inhabiting the leaves of mulberry tree *Morus alba,* yielded a new anthroquinone and three known anthroquinones **[62]**. One of the anthroquinone exhibited potent neuroprotection against excessive glutamate-induced cell death in the immortalized murine HT22 hippocampal neuronal cell line.

The endophytic fungus *Neofusicoccum austral* SYSU-SKS024, isolated from the branches of a mangrove plant *Kandelia candel* yielded nine new metabolites, including three new ethylnaphthoquinone derivatives **[63]**. Among the compounds, six exhibited indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (IDO) inhibitory activity. Chemical investigation of the endophytic fungus *Talaromyces wortmannii* LGT-4 isolated from *Tripterygium wilfordii* resulted in two new pyrones, Wortmannine F and G **[64]**. Both metabolites exhibited potent phosphoionositide 3-kinase α (PI3Kα) inhibition with IC50 values of 25 and 5 µM, respectively. *Nigrospora* sp. BCC47789, an endophytic fungus isolated from the leaf of *Choerospondias axillaris,* produced new hydroanthraquinone, nigrosporone A, and a new naturally occurring nigrosporone B together with eleven known compounds **[65]**. All the compounds were subjected to assays to test their antiplasmodial, antimycobacterial, antibacterial activities, and cytotoxic potential in cancer cell lines. Nigrosporone B (Fig 1.17) exhibited antiplasmodial activity against *P. falciparum,* antimycobacterial activity against *M. tuberculosis,* antibacterial activity against *B. cereus* and *E. faecium.* With an IC50 value of 0.25 µM, it showed cytotoxicity in NCI-H187. Nigrosporone B exhibited only weak cytotoxicity in MCF-7 and NCI-H187

Table 1: Polyketides producing endophytes and their hosts.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Source** | **Host** | **Polyketide** | **Reference** |
| *Aplosporella javeedii* | *Orychophragmus violaceus* | Aplojaveediins A-F | **[31]** |
| *Penicilium commune* QQF3 | *Kandelia candel* | Peiisocoumarins A-J | **[32]** |
| *Xylaria sp.* HM1 | *Distylium chinense* | Xylariopyrones A-D | **[33]** |
| *Penicilium ochrochloron* | *Taxus media* | 3,4,6- trisubstituted α-pyrone derivatives | **[34]** |
| *Aspergillus fumigatiaffnis* | *Tribulus terrestris* | Palitantin | **[35]** |
| *Curvularia geniculata* CTM011 | *Catunaregram tomentosa* | Curvularides A-E | **[36]** |
| *Aspergillus alliaceus* | *Marine alga* | Allianthrone A | **[37]** |
| *Xylaria curta* E10 | *solanum torvum* | Curtachalasins A&B | **[38]** |
| Curtachalasins C-E | **[39]** |
| *Paraconiothyrium sp.* SW-B-1 | *Chondrus ocellatus* | Paralactonic acid A-E | **[40]** |
| *Penicilium purpogenum* IMM3 | Solid substrate cultures | Penibenzone A-C | **[41]** |
| *Penicilium sp.* ZJ-SY2 | *Sonneratia apetala* | Peniphenone,Methyl peniphenone and xanthones | **[42]** |
| *Daldinia escholtzii* | *Paphiopedilum exul.(Ridl) Rolfe* | Nodulones B&C, Daldinones F&G | **[43]** |
| *Preussia similis* | *Globularia alypum* | Preussilides A-F | **[44]** |
| *Phoma bellidis* | *Tricyrtis maculatae* | Bellidisins A-D | **[45]** |
| *Phomopsis sp.* CFS42 | *Cephalotaxus fortuni Hook* | Phomotide A | **[46]** |
| *Penicilium chemisinum* | *Hertiera littoralis* | 2-chloro-3,4,7-trihydroxy-9-methoxy-1-methyl 6H-benzo[c]chromen-6-one | **[47]** |
| *Pestalotiopsis clavispora* | *Rhizophora harrisonii* | Pestalpolyol I, Pestapyrones A&B, Pestaxanthone | **[48]** |
| *Epicoccum sp.* | *Theobroma cacao* | Epicolactone, Epicocolides A&B | **[49]** |
| *Fusarium sp.* LN-10 | *Melia azedarach* | Fusariumin, Algialomycin D, Ponchonin N | **[50]** |
| *Phoma sp.* | *Cinnamomum mollissimum* | 4-hydroxymellein | **[52]** |
| *Aspergillus sp.* | *Tripterygium wilfordii* | Butenolides, Terrusnolides A-D | **[53]** |
| *Diaporthe sp.* | *Datura inoxia* | Xylarolide A&B, Diportharine A | **[54]** |
| *Fusarium oxysporum* ZZP-R1 | *Rumex madaio Makino* | Fusariumin C&D | **[55]** |
| *Dothiorella sp.* | *Xylocarpus granatum. Koeing* | Dothiorelones K-M | **[56]** |
| *Ascomycota sp.* | *Kandelia candel* | Ascomfurans C and ascomarugosin A | **[58]** |
| *Byssochlaemys spectabilis* | *Edgeworthia chrysantha* | Bysspectins A,B & C | **[59]** |
| *Emericella sp.* XL029 | *Panax otoginseng* | Emericelactones A-D | **[60]** |
| *Aspergillus versicolor* KO258497 | *Eichhornia crassipes* | 3,4-dihydronaphthalen-(2H)-1-one, Aspavanicin A&B | **[61]** |
| *Colletotrichum sp.* JS-0367 | *Morus alba* | Anthroquinone | **[62]** |
| *Neofusicoccum austral* SYSU-SKS024 | *Kandelia candel* | Ethylnaphthoquinone derivatives | **[64]** |
| *Nigrospora sp.* BCC47789 | *Choerospondias axillaris* | Hydroanthraquinone, Nigrosporone A&B | **[65]** |

**1** **2** **3**

**4** **5**  **6**

 **7** **8**  **9**

 **10**  **11**  **12**

**13**** **14**** **15****

**16**** **17** **

Fig.1 The structures of polyketides (1-17) isolated from endophytic fungi

**Conclusion**

This review demonstrated the polyketides and the enzyme polyketide synthases (PKS) yielded by various endophytic fungi. Most of the endophytic crude extracts yielded after fermentation exhibited various biological activities including antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, and cytotoxic activities. Some isolated polyketides had a low level of activity. However, their distinct structures may provide fertile ground for additional research. Thus, these polyketides are valuable and can be used for drug development. Plant endophytes, on the other hand, are still poorly studied in terms of their medicinal qualities. For the structure elucidation of these polyketides, spectroscopic methods such as 1D, and 2D NMR studies are often used. Degenerate primers were used to detect the presence of the PKS gene in endophytic fungi. Heterologous expression facilitates the production of native polyketides. There are still a lot of biosynthetic potentials to be discovered. This is a fruitful study area that will continue to advance in the coming years.

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