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A Comprehensive Review of Natural Products from Microbial Sources and their Applications

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Abstract:

Secondary metabolites, or natural products produced by living organisms, are important in drug discovery and development. Many nations have used natural products in their traditional medicine remedies in the past decades. Microbes produce different types of natural compounds that are useful in the treatment of different diseases, such as cancer, bacterial and fungal infections. This review summarizes different types of natural products derived or extracted from different microbes and their applications.



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INTRODUCTION

Natural products (NPs) are bioactive molecules that are helpful in the drug discovery process. Natural products, secondary metabolites, produced by living organisms, such as microorganisms, plants, and animals (Baker *et al.*, 2000; Ebada *et al.*, 2008; Iqbal and Ashraf, 2018) have been improving human life for thousands of years (Shen, 2015). One of the oldest records of using natural products belonged to ancient Mesopotamia (2600 BC) which described about 1000 plants and plant-derived materials, such as cedar oils (*Cedrus species*) and the juice of the *Papaver somniferum* poppy seed and the resin of *Commiphora myrrha* (myrrh) (Newman *et al.*, 2000). Also, more than 700 natural compounds and around 800 complexes including *Aloe vera* (aloe) and *Ricinus communis* (castor) oil, and *Boswellia carteri* (frankincense) have been described by the ancient Egyptian Ebers Papyrus (1550 BC) (Zhong and Wan, 1999). Many natural compounds and plant-derived substances were collected by the legendary Greek physicians and pharmacist Hippocrates of Cos (circa 460–377 BC). He described the diuretic effect of *Ornithogalum caudatum* (squill) juice, the anesthetic effect of extract from *Atropa belladonna*, the emetic effect of *Veratrum album* (white hellebore) extract, the use of melon juice as a laxative and using of olive oil to speed wound healing (Cheng and Zhen, 2004; Castiglioni, 1985). For decades many nations used natural products as a traditional medical remedy. One of the famous nations is Chinese and in 1979 about 5967 medicinal herbs were used in China (Petrovska, 2012; Patwardhan and Mashelkar, 2009).

Natural products from microbial sources

Since penicillin was discovered by Alexander Fleming in 1928 and its structure was explained and introduced as the first antibiotic by Fleming, Chain, and Florey in 1945 and also the discovery of streptomycin in 1943 by Waksman, Woodruff, Schatz, and Lechevalier, microorganisms have become an important

substitutional source in the production of natural product drugs (Fenical, 1993; Fleming, 1980; Demain and Adrio, 2008; Gaynes, 2017; Woodruff *et al.*, 2014).

Microorganisms as sources of antioxidant compounds

Antioxidants are molecules (mainly reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (ROS and RNS) which are generated from metabolic pathways (Nathan and Cunningham, 2013; Lushchak, 2014) such as lipid β -oxidation and mitochondrial respiratory chain and are capable of causing damage to different cells or molecules such as cell organelles or nucleic acids, proteins and lipids (Netzker *et al.*, 2018; Nimse and Pal, 2015; Schieber and Chandel, 2014; Krumova and Cosa, 2016). High levels of ROS and RNS can cause tissue damage due to oxidative stress and involved in many diseases like autoimmune disorders, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, cancer, neurodegenerative diseases and aging (Amin and Edris, 2017; Ashraf *et al.*, 2020; Nimse and Pal, 2015; Chehue *et al.*, 2013; Phaniendra *et al.*, 2015; Xu and Leeuwenburgh, 2015; Forbes *et al.*, 2007; Gupta *et al.*, 2013).

In a study, ethyl acetate extracts of several *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* species including *Rhizopus oryzae*, were evaluated. Only four extracts of *Aspergillus* and two extracts of *Penicillium* species protected linoleic acid better than the control. Also, it's reported that probiotic bacteria *Streptococcus thermophiles* have powerful antioxidant activity, protecting the body from oxidative stress caused by free radicals which increase in the body due to sugar, antibiotics, stress, aging, and toxins (Malpur *et al.*, 2006; Kim, 2013).

Also, an important potential source of antioxidants is *actinobacteria*. *Streptomyces* strains isolated in the Oman Sea showed an *in vitro* inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) against 2, 2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical inhibition, which ranges from 356.8 to 566.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Gozari *et al.*, 2019).

Extract from strain *Streptomyces antioxidans* at a concentration of 1.5 mg/mL, isolated from the forest of Tanjung Lumpur, exhibited antioxidant activity (79.84%) against superoxide radicals. Fatty acids, pyrazines, and phenolic compounds were the most abundant compounds in the extract (Ser *et al.*, 2016). Also, similar compounds were found in a strain of *Streptomyces Monachensis*, isolated from a mangrove in Malaysia, with antioxidant activity of 83.80 and 75.50% against superoxide radical and metal chelating activity (Law *et al.*, 2019).

An important factor affecting the production of antioxidant compounds is growth media. In a study, culture media containing sucrose or lactose and ammonium sulfate enhanced the production of antioxidants by *Aspergillus candidus* CCRC 31543 (Yen and Chang, 1999).

Streptomyces variabilis (isolated from the Gulf of Khambhat) was cultured in six different media which are glycerol asparagine agar (ISP5), tyrosine agar (ISP7), Gause synthetic agar (GSA), inorganic salt agar (ISP4), yeast malt extract agar (ISP2) and starch casein agar and incubated for 7–9 days at 30°C. Among these media, the GSA medium was selected due to the larger quantity of cell mass production compared to other media. After the extraction of metabolites using ethyl acetate antioxidant activity tests were performed using DPPH, metal, and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) radical tests using concentrations ranging from 0.5 to 2.0 mg/mL. The best radical scavenging activity was against H₂O₂ radical at a concentration of 0.5 mg/mL with 64% antioxidant activity (Dholakiya *et al.*, 2017).

Carotenoid pigments are a group of antioxidants that can be synthesized and extracted from microorganisms due to their potential coloring properties. These pigments are used as vitamins in the case of carotenes and xanthophylls which can be found on microalgae (*Haematococcus pluvialis*), bacteria (*Gordonia rubropertincta*), and yeast (*Blakeslea trispora*) (De Carvalho *et al.*, 2014). Carotenoids, glycosidic carotenoids, extracted from *Rhodococcus* sp. and *Gordonia* sp. showed good antioxidant activity against

DPPH radical with IC₅₀ of 1.07 and 0.09 µg/mL, respectively (Ortega *et al.*, 2016).

Commercially, a carotenoid pigment from a mutant strain of *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* is available to be used as a supplement like Lycogen™, it contains spheroid enone, bixin (a carotenoid found on *Bixa orellana* L.) and hydroxy spheroid enone (Wang *et al.*, 2016; Li *et al.*, 2017; Raddatz-Mota *et al.*, 2017). Also, astaxanthin pigment from microalgae *Haematococcus pluvialis* is already available. The anticipated production cost is \$552/Kg which is cheaper than the synthetic carotenoids (\$1000/Kg) (Saini and Keum, 2017).

Microorganisms as sources of anti-inflammatory compounds

Several microorganisms contain natural products that exhibit anti-inflammatory properties. Natural microbial product, FK506 (Tacrolimus), isolated from *Streptomyces tsukubaensis* decreases inflammatory mediator expression through inhibition of the release of mast cell and basophil mediators. Also, it has efficacy in the treatment of chronic inflammatory disease rheumatoid arthritis (Mark *et al.*, 2016; Migita and Eguchi, 2003).

In a study conducted by Breyner *et al.*, 2017, seven peptides were found in the supernatant of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* which have *in vivo* anti-inflammatory properties in a dinitrobenzene sulfate-induced colitis model and also inhibit *in vitro* NF-κB pathway. Another natural product isolated from *Streptomyces* sp. SCSIO 10355, strepsesquitriol, inhibited the production of tumor necrosis factor in lipopolysaccharide-activated macrophages, demonstrating anti-inflammatory activity (Yang *et al.*, 2013).

Rapamycin (RAPA), known as sirolimus, has an anti-inflammatory effect by providing a neuroprotective effect after spinal cord injury (Song *et al.*, 2015). Also, researchers demonstrated the effect of RAPA as anti-inflammatory compound *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Zheng *et al.*, 2017). These compounds are fermentation products extracted from

Streptomyces hygroscopicus, which was isolated from a soil sample collected on Easter Island in 1976 (Abraham and Wiederrecht, 1996). Also, other compounds, Salinamides A and B, obtained from marine *Streptomyces* sp. CNB-091 showed a potent topical anti-inflammatory activity through a phorbol ester-induced mouse ear edema assay (Trischman *et al.*, 1994). Another anti-inflammatory compound is Phomol obtained from *Phomopsis* sp. (Weber *et al.*, 2004).

Microorganisms as sources of antibiotics

There are many microorganisms from which antibiotic compounds can be derived (Yunus *et al.*, 2016). The first known medically useful antibiotic was penicillin which was produced by fungus *Penicillium notatum*. After penicillin discovery, several antibiotics were produced from different microorganisms. Streptomycin and neomycin are produced from *actinomycetes*. Chlortetracycline (aureomycin, biomyacin) is produced by *Streptomyces aureofaciens*, which have activity against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria (Demain, 2014). Penicillin is effective against Gram-positive bacteria, which are responsible for diseases such as diphtheria, gonorrhea, meningitis, scarlet fever, and pneumonia (Fleming, 2001; Tan and Tatsumura, 2015).

Filamentous bacteria (*actinomycetes*) (Baltz, 2007) are known to produce a considerable number of antibiotics which include β -lactams (Aoki *et al.*, 1976), heptadecaglycosides (Singh *et al.*, 2000), anthraquinones (Takahashi *et al.*, 1988), piercings (Hayakawa *et al.*, 2007), octapeptide (Radzom *et al.*, 2006), tetracyclines (Hatsu *et al.*, 1992), phenazines (Maskey *et al.*, 2003), peptides/glycopeptides (Kimura *et al.*, 1997), angucyclinone (Sun *et al.*, 2007), macrolides (Tanaka *et al.*, 1997), polyenes (Lemriss *et al.*, 2003), anthracyclines (Maeda *et al.*, 1994), benzoxazolophenanthridines (Doull *et al.*, 1994) and lactones (Imai *et al.*, 1987). Approximately, 75 % of the antibiotics are produced by *actinomycetes* and about 75 % of these are made by a single genus, *Streptomyces*. Strains of *Streptomyces*

hygroscopicus make almost 200 antibiotics (Demain, 2014). The bacterial strain *Streptomyces griseus* produces more than 40 different antibiotics. Also, the *Bacillus subtilis* strain produces more than 60 antibiotic substances (Dworkin, 2007).

A large number of antibiotics have been produced by bacterial strains which include kanamycin, produced by *Streptomyces kanamyceticus* (Yanai *et al.*, 2004), thienamycin, produced by *Streptomyces cattleya*, vancomycin, produced by *Streptomyces orientalis* (Williamson *et al.*, 1985), neomycin, produced by *streptomyces fradiae* (Dulmage, 1953), streptomycin, produced by *streptomyces griseus* (Meanwell *et al.*, 2008), chloramphenicol produced by *streptomyces venezuelae* (Vitayakritsirikul *et al.*, 2016), erythromycin, produced by *streptomyces erythraea* and tetracycline produced by *streptomyces rimosus* (Petković, 2006). Vancomycin is effective against pathogenic bacteria, including methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, *Clostridium difficile* and *Streptococcus pneumonia* (Dasgupta, 2012).

Also, some FDA-approved drugs from bacteria include Tigecycline produced by *Streptomyces aureofaciens* (Zhanel *et al.*, 2004), Biapenem and Ertapenem produced by *Streptomyces cattleya* (Perry and Ibbotson, 2002; Keating and Perry, 2005) and Telithromycin produced by *Saccharopolyspora erythraea* (Zhanel *et al.*, 2002).

An important type of antibiotic that is also produced in high amounts for commercial use is β -lactam antibiotics. β -Lactam antibiotics are natural or derived from natural products which include Glycopeptides such as vancomycin and teicoplanin are produced at a total of 9,000 tons, cephalixin (4,000 tons), cefadroxil (1,000 tons), ampicillin (5,000 tons per year), amoxicillin (16,000 tons), and Macrolides which include azithromycin (1,500 tons) and clarithromycin (1,500 tons) (Arnold, 2014).

Even though β -lactamases are responsible for the major cause of resistance development, β -lactam compounds are still very helpful due to the discovery of β -lactamase inhibitors. Approximately, 40 different -lactam compounds are utilized in medicine. These include broad-spectrum activity doripenem (S-4661), which also has efficiency against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Also, other β -lactam compounds include carbapenems, clavulanic acid, ceftobiprole, meropenem, ceftaroline, tomopenem, and faropenem (Hugonnet *et al.*, 2009).

Two compounds ieodoglycolipid were isolated from the marine bacterium *Bacillus licheniformis*, ieodoglucomide C and ieodoglycolipid, exhibited antibiotic properties against *Salmonella typhi*, *P. aeruginosa*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *B. cereus*, *S. aureus*, and *E. coli* with MICs ranging from 0.01 to 0.05 μ M (Tareq, 2015).

Microorganisms as sources of antifungal compounds

Many microorganisms contain compounds that exhibit an antifungal activity. Polyene antifungal agent Nystatin from *Streptomyces noursei* is effective against *Aspergillus* species (Stanley and English, 1965) and clinically plays a significant role as a topical antifungal agent in treating genital, gastro-intestinal and oral candidiasis (Fjærvik and Zotchev, 2005).

Endophytic *Streptomyces aureofaciens* CMUAc130 produces two compounds, 5, 7-dimethoxy-4-phenylcoumarin and 5, 7-dimethoxy-4-p-methoxyphenyl coumarin, which exhibits antifungal activity (Taechowisan *et al.*, 2007).

Additionally, Amphotericin B, an antifungal produced by *Streptomyces nodosus*, is effective against life-threatening fungal infections caused by *Aspergillus* species, especially in patients undergoing organ transplantation, undergoing

aggressive chemotherapy, or having acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (Abu-Salah, 1996; Tevyashova *et al.*, 2013).

An antifungal Peptide from *B. amyloliquefaciens* sybc H47 was extracted and analyzed by (Li *et al.*, 2016). This substance showed a significant effect on a variety of pathogenic fungi including *Penicillium citrinum*, *Aspergillus niger*, *Fusarium oxysporum*, and *Candida albicans*. A list of antifungal peptides (Li *et al.*, 2021) that exhibited an activity as antifungal is listed in Table 1.

Microorganisms as sources of Immunosuppressive compounds

There are some natural products produced by microbes that act as immunosuppressive agents. Both Mycophenolic acid from the fungus *Penicillium stoloniferum* and Cyclosporin A from the fungus *Tolypocladium inflatum* are used as immunosuppressive agents in organ transplantation. Cyclosporin A is used in heart, liver, and kidney transplants (Courtwright, 2009; Newman and Cragg, 2012; Viaud *et al.*, 2013).

Other immunosuppressive agents are Rapamycin (sirolimus) and FK506 (tacrolimus) which are produced from *Streptomyces rapamycinicus* and *Streptomyces tsukubaensis*. Rapamycin is used as an immunosuppressant in kidney transplants and FK506 in liver, heart, pancreas, intestines, kidney, lung, cornea, trachea, small bowel, skin, bone marrow, and limb transplants. FK506 was approved by the FDA for use as an immunosuppressant (Kim *et al.*, 2014; Tanaka *et al.*, 1987; Nagano *et al.*, 2006).

Microbial red pigments Prodigiosins produced by *Serratia marcescens* and Pigments produced by *Monascus*, both have immunosuppressive activity (Pandey *et al.*, 2007). Also, the Everolimus compound produced by *streptomyces hygrosopicus* can suppress the immune system. (Chapman and Perry, 2004).

Table 1. Antifungal peptides and their applications.

Antifungal Peptide	Source (Microbial Species)	Fungal Species (active against)	Reference
HP 2-20	<i>Helicobacter pylori</i>	<i>Candida albicans</i> and <i>Hyphomyces burnetii</i>	Ribeiro and Medina-Acosta, 2003
EntV	<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	<i>C. albicans</i> , <i>C. tropicalis</i> , <i>C. paraplantatus</i> , etc.	Graham <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Chitinase	Marine <i>streptomyces</i> DA11	<i>Aspergillus niger</i> and <i>Candida albicans</i>	Han <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Chandrananimycin A	Marine <i>Actinomycetes</i> M045	<i>M. miehei</i>	Maskey <i>et al.</i> , 2003
Fusaricidin A	<i>Paenibacillus polymyxa</i> KT-8	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> , <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> , <i>Magnaporthe grisea</i> , etc	Kajimura and Kaneda, 1996; Hua <i>et al.</i> , 2020
Syringostatin A, syringostatin E	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i>	Yeasts, filamentous fungi	Sorensen <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Nikkomycin Z	<i>Streptomyces tendae</i>	<i>Glomus</i> , <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> , etc.	Hector <i>et al.</i> , 1990; Ganesan <i>et al.</i> , 2004
Polyoxin D	Actinomycete <i>Streptomyces cacao</i>	<i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> , etc.	Becker <i>et al.</i> , 1983
Iturin A	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> CCTCCM207209	<i>Candida</i> , <i>Hyphomyces cerevisiae</i> , <i>Fusarium</i> and <i>Aspergillus</i>	Lei <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Klich <i>et al.</i> , 1991
Not named	<i>Bacillus velezensis</i> DTU001	<i>Candida</i> , <i>Penicillium</i> , <i>Aspergillus</i> , etc	Devi <i>et al.</i> , 2019
Echinocandin B	<i>Aspergillus nidulans</i>	<i>Candida</i>	Nyfelner <i>et al.</i> , 1974
VL-2397	<i>Acremonium persicinum</i>	<i>Aspergillus</i> , <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> , <i>Candida glabrata</i> , etc	Nakamura <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Aureobasidin A (AbA)	<i>Aureobasidium pullulans</i>	<i>Candida</i> , <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> , <i>Blastomyces dermatitis</i> etc	Takesako <i>et al.</i> , 1993; Takesako <i>et al.</i> , 1991

Microorganisms as sources of anticancer compounds

Microbial compounds are one of the most important agents used in cancer treatment. The first antibiotic shown to have anticancer activity was polyketide actinomycin which was isolated

from *Streptomyces parvulus* in 1940. Actinomycin D (dactinomycin) is widely used as an anticancer drug for treating many tumors, such as metastatic, non-seminomatous testicular cancer, childhood rhabdomyosarcoma, Wilms'

tumor and Ewing's sarcoma in clinical practice (Waksman and Woodruff, 1940; Hollstein, 1974).

In addition to its immunosuppressive, anti-inflammatory, and antifungal properties, rapamycin, is a natural product derived from *Streptomyces rapamycinicus* (Kim *et al.*, 2014) and inhibits angiogenesis, tumor cell proliferation, and acts as an antitumor agent on a tumor cell (Law, 2005).

Another glycopeptide anticancer agent is bleomycin which is produced by *Streptoalloteichus hindustanus*. It's used in the treatment of sarcomas, ovarian melanomas and testicular cancer, testis tumors, Hodgkin's and non-Hodgkin's lymphomas, and squamous cell carcinomas. Also, bleomycin, a derivative of bleomycin, is used with other compounds against head, neck, and testicle tumors, lymphomas, and skin carcinomas (Demain and Vaishnav, 2011). Other examples of anticancer agents are epothilone which produced from mycobacterium *Sorangium cellulosum* (Molnar *et al.*, 2000), and dolastatin (marine microbial natural products) which is originated from cyanobacteria of the genera *Symploca* and *Lyngbya* (Simmons *et al.*, 2008). In addition, fungal furanosteroid, represented by Wortmannin, extracted from *Penicillium funiculosum* is useful against human breast MCF-7 cancer cells (Davidson *et al.*, 2013). Benzoquinone ansamycin antitumor compound, Geldanamycin and its analogs, derived from *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* var. *geldanus*, play an important role as an anticancer agent in multiple myeloma, breast, and prostate cancer (Singh *et al.*, 2010; Gorska *et al.*, 2012).

Taxol compound produced by the endophytic fungi *Taxomyces Andreae* and *Nodulisporium styliform* exhibited anticancer activity against breast and advanced forms of Kaposi's sarcoma. It's also approved for refractory ovarian cancer (Newman and Cragg, 2007). On the other side, compounds produced from brown alga, *Dictyota dichotoma* possess antitumor activity which are 4-acetoxydictyolactone,

dictyolide A, B (diterpenes), and nordictyolide compounds (Asolkar *et al.*, 2010; Vuong, 2017).

Myxobacteria, relatively large Gram-negative rods, are an unusual source of secondary metabolites which possess antitumor activity. Approximately 400 compounds had been isolated from *myxobacteria* and in clinical trials epothilones were active against taxol-resistant tumors. Also, *myxobacterium Sorangium cellulosum* produces 16-member ring polyketide macrolide lactones which have antitumor activity. They are active against breast cancers, including those that don't respond to taxol or other chemotherapy (Gerth *et al.*, 2000; Goodin, 2008). Two compounds exhibited antitumor activity, 5, 7-dimethoxy-4-phenylcoumarin and 5, 7-dimethoxy-4-p-methoxyphenyl coumarin, were isolated from endophytic *Streptomyces aureofaciens* (Taechowisan *et al.*, 2007).

In addition, the *Streptomyces* group produced about two-thirds of antitumor bioactive compounds such as brostallicin (a derivative of distamycin A), daunorubicin, nogalamycin, actinomycin A, mithramycin, actinomycin D, bleomycin, mitomycin C and Amrubicin which isolated from *streptomyces distallicus*, *Streptomyces facetious*, *Streptomyces nogalater*, *Streptomyces galilaeus.*, *Streptomyces argillaceus*, *Streptomyces antibiotics*, *Streptoverticillium verticillium*, *Streptomyces lavendulae* and *Streptomyces peuceticus*, respectively (Broggini *et al.*, 2004; Salas *et al.*, 1998; Sugiura *et al.*, 2005).

Microorganisms as sources of antiviral compounds

There are many types of viruses that infect humans and some of these virus infections lead to death. Recently many researchers focused on the antiviral activity of natural products produced by microbes. Table (2) summarizes the inhibition activity of some natural products on different viruses (Frediansyah *et al.*, 2022).

Table 2. Natural products as antiviral agents.

Microbial (Source)	Strain	Compound and Type	Name	Viral Target	IC ₅₀ /EC ₅₀ /ED ₅₀	Target Inhibition	Ref.
<i>Cladosporium</i> sp.	7951	aspulvinone (polyphenol)	D	SARS-CoV-2	IC ₅₀ : 10.3 µM	Virus replication	Liang <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Cladosporium</i> sp.	7951	aspulvinone (polyphenol)	M	SARS-CoV-2	IC ₅₀ : 9.4 µM	Virus replication	Liang <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Cladosporium</i> sp.	7952	aspulvinone (polyphenol)	R	SARS-CoV-2	IC ₅₀ : 7.7 µM	Virus replication	Liang <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	MR2012	neoechinulin (alkaloid)	A	SARS-CoV-2	IC ₅₀ : 0.47 µM	Virus replication	Alhadrami <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	No.LC582533	aurasperone polyphenol	A	SARS-CoV-2	IC ₅₀ : 12.25 µM	Virus replication	ElNaggar <i>et al.</i> , 2022
<i>Penicillium purpurogenum</i>	JS03-21	purpurquinone (polyketide)	B	H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 61.3 µM	ND	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Penicillium purpurogenum</i>	JS03-22	purpurquinone (polyketide)	C	H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 64 µM	ND	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Penicillium purpurogenum</i>	JS03-23	purpurester A (polyketide)		H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 85.3 µM	ND	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Penicillium purpurogenum</i>	JS03-24	TAN-931 (polyketide)		H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 58.6 µM	ND	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Penicillium camemberti</i>		3-deoxy-4b-deoxypaxilline (alkaloid)		H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 28.3 µM	ND	Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>P. camemberti</i>	OUCMDZ-1492	TTD (alkaloid)		H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 34.1 µM	ND	Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>P. camemberti</i>	OUCMDZ-1492	paspaline (alkaloid)		H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 77.9 µM	ND	Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>P. camemberti</i>	OUCMDZ-1492	DPT (alkaloid)		H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 32.2 µM	ND	Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>P. camemberti</i>	OUCMDZ-1492	emindole (alkaloid)	SB	H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 26.2 µM	ND	Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>P. camemberti</i>	OUCMDZ-1492	DCA (alkaloid)		H1N1	IC ₅₀ : 38.9 µM	ND	Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Podospora vesticola</i>	XJ03-56-1	alachalasin (alkaloid)	A	HIV-1	EC ₅₀ = 8.01 µM	ND	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2008
<i>Epicoccum nigrum</i>		epicoccin G (alkaloid)		HIV-1	EC ₅₀ = 13.5	ND	Wang <i>et al.</i> ,

XZC04-CS-302				μM		2020
<i>Stachybotrys chartarum</i> MXH-X73	Stachybotrin (terpenoid)	D	HIV-1	$\text{EC}_{50} = 8.4 \mu\text{M}$	replication	Ma <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Truncatella angustata</i> XSB-01-43	truncateol (terpenoid)	O	HIV-1 and H1N1	$\text{IC}_{50} = 39.0 \mu\text{M}$ (HIV) and $30.4 \mu\text{M}$ (H1N1)	ND	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2018
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	penicillixanthone (polyketide)	A	HIV-1	$\text{IC}_{50} = 0.26 \mu\text{M}$	entry	Tan <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Penicillium raistrickii</i> IMB17-034	raistrickindole (alkaloid)	A	HCV	$\text{EC}_{50}: 5.7 \mu\text{M}$	ND	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2019
<i>Trichoderma harzianum</i> LZDX-32-08	harzianoic acid (terpenoid)	A	HCV	$\text{IC}_{50}: 5.5 \mu\text{M}$	entry	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2017
<i>Aspergillus versicolor</i>	cyclo (L-Tyr-L-Pro) (peptide)	A	HCV	$\text{IC}_{50}: 8.2 \mu\text{g/mL}$	replication	Ahmed <i>et al.</i> , 2017
<i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i> var. dcjhyium	destruxin A (peptide)		HBV	$\text{IC}_{50}: 1.2 \mu\text{g/mL}$ (mix A+B+E)	ND	Dong <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>M. anisopliae</i> var. echium	destruxin B (peptide)		HBV	$\text{IC}_{50}: 1.2 \mu\text{g/mL}$ (mix A+B+E)	ND	Dong <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>M. anisopliae</i> var. dcjhyium	destruxin E (peptide)		HBV	$\text{IC}_{50}: 1.2 \mu\text{g/mL}$ (mix A+B+E)	ND	Dong <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp strain XS-2009	22-O-(N-Me-l-valyl)-21-epi-aflaquinolone B (alkaloid)		RSV	$\text{IC}_{50}: 0.042 \mu\text{M}$	ND	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp strain XS-2009	aflaquinolone (alkaloid)	D	RSV	$\text{IC}_{50}: 6.6 \mu\text{M}$	ND	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2014

Note: ND: not yet described, TTD: (6S,7R,10E,14E)-16-(1H-indol-3-yl)-2,6,10,14-tetramethylhexadeca-2,10,14-triene-6,7-diol, * DPT: 4a-demethylpaspaline-3,4,4a-triol and DCA: 4a-demethylpaspaline-4a-carboxylic acid.

CONCLUSION

Different microbial strains can produce different types of bioactive natural products. They are active against cancer, and microbial infections and also act as immunosuppressant agents. To develop and focus on their useful applications in the treatment of numerous human diseases, additional experimental studies are required.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author declares that this article's content has no conflict of interest.

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