




Fungal metabolites as anti-diabetic agents: emphasis on PTP1B inhibitors

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Abstract In the last decade the prevalence of diabetes has escalated globally and it is estimated that the number of diabetic people will increase to 642 million by 2040. Although numerous classes of pharmaceutical drugs are available to treat Type II diabetes, they manifest certain side effects. PTP1B has attracted significant interest as an important therapeutic agent and has been validated to target diabetes and obesity. Fungi, in general, produce secondary metabolites with some amazing chemical and structural

diversity and are recognized to be a valuable source for therapeutic molecules. In this review, the focus is on describing the PTP1B effects and their potential as anti-diabetic agents for the various metabolites isolated from fungi.

Keywords Fungi · Secondary metabolites · PTP1B inhibitors · Anti-diabetic

This research work is dedicated to Prof. Dr. M. Iqbal Choudhary on his 60th birthday.

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Introduction

Hyperglycemia is the hallmark of diabetes mellitus. Despite serious efforts to address this issue, the incidence of diabetes mellitus (type-2 diabetes mellitus) and the deaths attributed due to diabetes are rapidly increasing on an international scale. Insulin is an important hormone that performs multiple functions, primarily to maintain normal glucose index within the human body (Hussain et al. 2019; Shrestha et al. 2019). Protein tyrosine phosphatase (PTP) 1B is involved in the down-regulation of insulin and leptin signaling and thus is an emerging therapeutic target for the management of diabetes and obesity (Krishnan et al. 2018).

Both protein tyrosine phosphatases (PTPs) as well as its kinases (PTKs) are signaling enzymes which play vital roles in crucial cellular pathways such as metabolic regulation, mitosis, apoptosis and cell proliferation by controlling phosphorylation of proteins. PTKs actually catalyze the phosphorylation process of tyrosine residues of proteins whereas PTPs hydrolyze the tyrosine phosphate to consequently reverse this action (Shi et al. 2019). PTP1B is a member of the non-receptor PTP family and is widely expressed in the cytoplasmic face of the endoplasmic reticulum. PTP1B mediates the dephosphorylation process that leads to inactivation of insulin and leptin signaling pathways. In connection with insulin signaling, PTP1B results in dephosphorylation of the active insulin receptor (IR) and its downstream targets of the substrate of the insulin receptor while in the case of leptin signaling, it antagonizes Janus kinase (Jak2) activity, which is directly downstream from the leptin receptor. PTP1B negatively regulates signaling pathways of both insulin and leptin and consequently is involved in glucose and lipid homeostasis. In a high fat animal diet model, ablation of the PTPN1 gene that encodes PTP1B resulted in increased insulin sensitivity and resistance to obesity (Shi et al. 2019).

PTP1B has attracted significant interest with an enormous therapeutic potential and is a validated target against diabetes and obesity. PTP1B is also associated with dendritic cell-based cancer

immunotherapy since it is involved in the progression of various types of cancers (Xu et al. 2019). Since PTPs exhibit a high degree of structure similarity in their active sites, selectivity and high affinity for PTP1B are major challenges in the development of PTP1B inhibitors as drugs (Zhang et al. 2007a). During the past two decades, various efforts have been made to discover potential PTP1B inhibitors with broad structural diversity where it was found that most of the inhibitors incorporated phosphotyrosine (pTyr) mimetics in order to develop the essential binding ability at the PTP1B catalytic site. In addition, novel PTP1B inhibitors can overcome these limitations if they were able to target alternative binding sites other than the catalytic site of PTP1B (Tang et al. 2018).

Natural products are an important source in lead compounds for the fight against cancer, bacterial, malaria, fungal infections, autoimmune disorders, and cardiovascular diseases (Bills and Gloer 2016; Newman and Cragg 2016). Additional numerous natural product derived agricultural chemicals have been reported (Bills and Gloer 2016; Asolkar et al. 2013; Rimando and Duke 2006). Fungi are capable to generate interesting and novel secondary metabolites with fascinating chemical diversity from simple starting materials viz., sugars, organic acids, terpenes, amino acids, pyrimidines, and purines (González-Medina et al. 2017). Fungi are in particular, abundant sources of lead compounds and have spectacularly contributed for the beneficitation of human and animal health. The best known examples are penicillins, Cephalosporin C, cephalosporins, pleuromutilin, griseofulvin, echinocandin B, enfumafungin, lovastatin, cyclosporin A, myriocin, ergotamine, ergocryptine, mizoribine, and gibberellic acid (Bills and Gloer 2016).

A literature survey revealed that numerous natural products have been reported to possess PTP1B inhibitory effects. Moreover several reviews dealing with PTP1B inhibitor drug development, have been published. However, the majority of them centered on synthetic PTP1B inhibitors (Zhang et al. 2007b; Combs 2010; Nichols et al. 2006; Taylor and Hill 2004; Taylor 2003; Lee and Wang 2007; Mohler et al. 2009; Thareja et al. 2012). In addition Zhao et al. (2018) published a review on natural products which showed PTP1B inhibition (Zhao et al. 2018) and earlier, Wang et al. (2015) published a review about natural and semisynthetic PTP1B inhibitors covering

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the literature from 2009 to 2014. Additionally, Jiang et al. (2012) reviewed the natural PTP1B inhibitors from 2002 to 2011 while two reviews have been published on PTP1B inhibitory effects of marine natural products (Ezzat et al. 2018; Zhou et al. 2017). The current literature review aims to give an overview on PTP1B inhibitory effects of secondary metabolites derived from various fungi.

We have used various databases as an integral part of our literature search methodology available from the scientific literature (Science Finder, Springer, Science direct, PubMed, Scopus, and Google Scholar) in order to collect and collate all available literature reports. In addition, our search utilized keywords such as: “protein tyrosine phosphatase 1B” or “PTP1B” (alone or in combination), “fungus” or “fungi” with an additional keyword “protein tyrosine phosphatase 1B” or “PTP1B” among others.

Alkaloids

Indole and indole diketopiperazine alkaloids

Indole-terpenoids, penerpenes A (**1**) and B (**2**) along with paxilline (**3**) (Fig. 1) and emindole SB (**4**), were reported from the fungus *Penicillium* sp. and their structures were established via spectroscopic and ECD analysis. Among these compounds, emindole SB (**4**; IC₅₀: 0.7 μM) was the most potent PTP1B inhibitor followed by compounds **1** (IC₅₀: 1.7 μM) and **2** (IC₅₀: 2.4 μM). On the other hand, paxilline (**3**) was moderately active with IC₅₀: 10.6 μM (Kong et al. 2019) (Table 1). Paxilline (**3**) was first isolated from *P. paxilli* (Cole et al. 1974) and showed various biological effects (Knaus et al. 1994; Zhou and Lingle 2014; McLeay et al. 1999). Emindole SB (**4**) was previously reported from the fungi *Emericella striata* (Nozawa et al. 1988), *Albophoma yamanshiensis* (Huang et al. 1995), *Aspergillus oryzae* (Qiao et al. 2010).

Fructigenine A (**5**) (Fig. 2) is a unique indole alkaloid which features a reverse-prenyl moiety was originally isolated from various strains of *Penicillium* spp. (Arai et al. 1989; Sohn et al. 2013), and exhibited PTP1B effects with IC₅₀: 10.7 μM (Sohn et al. 2013). The diketopiperazine alkaloid, echinulin (**6**) was reported from the fungus *Eurotium* sp. (Sohn et al. 2013) along with several *Aspergillus* spp. (Bräse et al. 2009; Liang et al. 2018) and is reported to possess

moderate PTP1B inhibition with IC₅₀: 29.4 μM (Sohn et al. 2013).

Two indole diketopiperazine dimers, SF5280-451 (**7**) and SF5280-415 (**8**) (Fig. 2) were isolated from *Aspergillus* sp. and demonstrated PTP1B activity with IC₅₀: 12.9 and 14.2 μM, respectively (Cho et al. 2018). The SAR study for these compounds showed that an exchange of the benzyl group (compound **7**) or the iso butyl group (compound **8**) does not effect the activity to any great extent. Indole-terpenoids, penerpenes E (**9**; IC₅₀: 14 μM), F (**10**; IC₅₀: 27 μM) and H (**11**; IC₅₀: 23 μM) were reported from the fungus *Penicillium* sp. and possesses activity towards PTP1B. Moreover compound **9** possesses a core with an unusual 6/5/5/6/6/5/5 heptacyclic framework (Zhou et al. 2019). 7-Hydroxypaxilline-13-ene (**12**) was also isolated from *Penicillium* sp. (Zhou et al. 2019; Ariantari et al. 2019) and this paxilline analog illustrated PTP1B effects with IC₅₀: 13 μM (Zhou et al. 2019).

Amauromine (**13**) was initially reported from the fungus *Amauroascus* sp. (Takase et al. 1984, 1985) and the subsequent synthesis of this compound, due to its unusual chemical structure, was later achieved to unambiguously confirm the assigned structure (Muller and Stark 2016; Takase et al. 1986). Amauromine (**13**) was recently reported from the fungus *Malbranchea circinate* and demonstrated PTP1B effects with IC₅₀: 15.3 μM (Rangel-Grimaldo et al. 2020). Malbrancheamide (**14**) was isolated from the fungi *Penicillium* sp., *Aspergillus* sp. and *Malbranchea aurantiaca* (Martinez-Luis et al. 2006; Figueroa et al. 2008; Miller et al. 2008; Rangel-Grimaldo et al. 2020) and possesses significant PTP1B effects with IC₅₀: 14.5 μM (Rangel-Grimaldo et al. 2020).

Quinoline and quinazolinone alkaloids

Marinamide (**15**) (Fig. 3) was produced by the fungus *Aspergillus* sp. and this compound inhibited PTP1B with an IC₅₀: 23.3 μg/mL. In 2006, Feng and Lin isolated marinamide (**15**) and proposed the structure 16 for marinamide which turned out to be incorrect (Feng & Lin 2006). In 2010, She, Lin and co-workers reported on the isolation of marinamide from *Penicillium* sp. (Shao et al. 2010). A year later, Koenig and coworkers determined the correct structure for marinamide via X-ray spectroscopy (Elsebai et al. 2011) to be **15** which was further confirmed via total synthesis

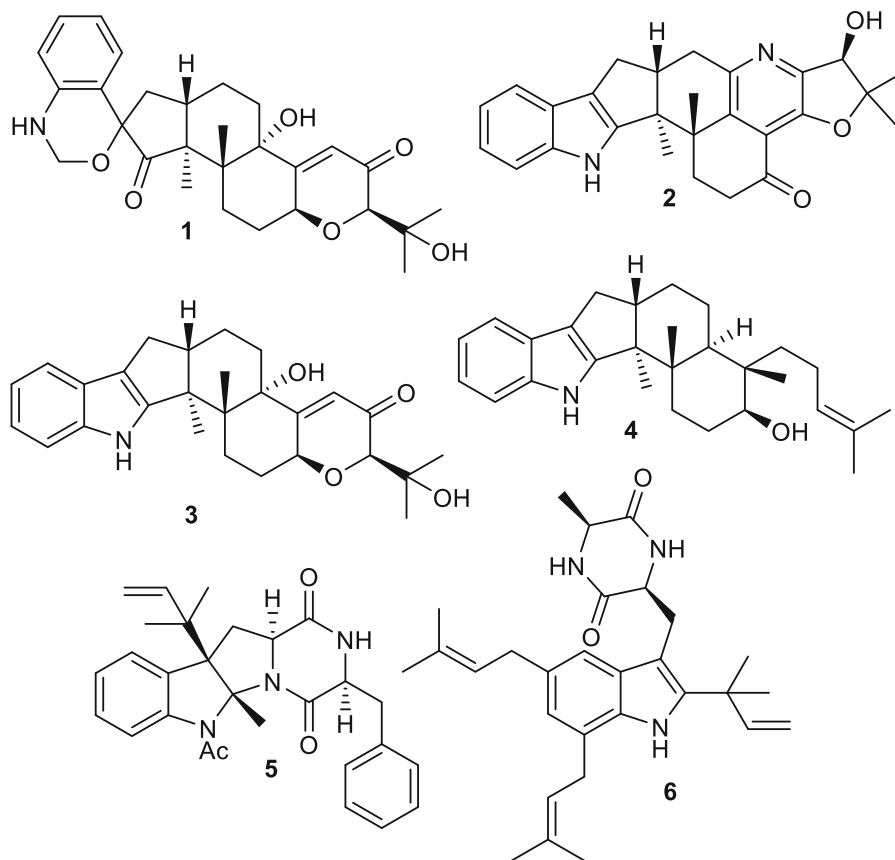


Fig. 1 Structures of alkaloids 1–6

(Naveen et al. 2017). Additionally, viridicatol, a quinoline alkaloid (**17**) also demonstrated PTP1B inhibition with IC_{50} : 64 μ M (Sohn et al. 2013) which compound was isolated from the fungi *Penicillium* sp (Birkinshaw et al. 1963) and *Eurotium* sp. (Sohn et al. 2013).

Quinazolinone alkaloids have been reported from various fungi and demonstrated to possess a wide range of biological effects (Kshirsagar 2015). Quite recently, the two quinazolinone alkaloids, **18** and **19** (Fig. 3) were isolated from the fungus *Malbranchea circinate* and demonstrated PTP1B activity with IC_{50} : 17.3 and 106.2 μ M, respectively. Interesting, compound **18** was six fold more potent than **19** which would suggest that the C-15 hydroxyl group plays a crucial role in the activity (Rangel-Grimaldo et al. 2020). Notably, compounds **18** and **19** featured a quinazolinone core linked to an aromatic part (ring C) via the imine carbon and this type of framework is also present in sclerotigenin (Witt and Bergman 2002),

circumdatin F (Rahbæk and Breinholt 1999), asperlicins (Tseng et al. 2010), and benzo-malvins (Clevenger et al. 2018; Jang et al. 2012).

Miscellaneous alkaloids

Terreusinone A (**20**) was produced by the fungus *Cordyceps gracilioides* and PTP1B has an inhibition of 12.5 μ g/mL (Wei et al. 2015). Cyclophenol (**21**) is a benzodiazepine alkaloid which was reported from various *Aspergillus* sp. (Zhuravleva et al. 2016) and *Penicillium* sp. (Sohn et al. 2013; Bräse et al. 2009), and illustrated activity towards PTP1B with an IC_{50} : 30 μ M (Sohn et al. 2013). The pyridone alkaloid, fumosorinone (**22**) (Fig. 4) is an amorphous solid produced by the fungus *Isaria fumosorosea* and this alkaloid demonstrated significant PTP1B effects with an IC_{50} : 14.0 μ M. Furthermore, a kinetic study

Table 1 Fungal metabolites **1–40** as PTP1B inhibitors

Compound	Source	PTP1B effects	References
Penerpenes A (1)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 1.7 μM	Kong et al. (2019)
Penerpenes B (2)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 2.4 μM	Kong et al. (2019)
Paxilline (3)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 10.6 μM	Kong et al. (2019)
Emindole SB (4)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 0.7 μM	Kong et al. (2019)
Fructigenine A (5)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 10.7 μM	Sohn et al. (2013)
Echinulin (6)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 29.4 μM	Sohn et al. (2013)
SF5280-451 (7)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 12.9 μM	Cho et al. (2018)
SF5280-415 (8)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 14.2 μM	Cho et al. (2018)
Penerpenes E (9)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 14 μM	Zhou et al. (2019)
Penerpenes F (10)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 27 μM	Zhou et al. (2019)
Penerpenes H (11)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 23 μM	Zhou et al. (2019)
7-Hydroxypaxilline-13-ene (12)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 13 μM	Zhou et al. (2019)
Amauromine (13)	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 15.3 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Malbrancheamide (14)	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 14.5 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Marinamide (15)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 23.3 μg/mL	Xu et al. (2013)
Viridicatol (17)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 64 μM	Sohn et al. (2013)
Compound 18	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 17.3 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Compound 19	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 106.2 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Terreusinone A (20)	<i>Cordyceps gracilioides</i>	IC ₅₀ : 12.5 μg/mL	Wei et al. (2015)
Cyclophenol (21)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 30 μM	Sohn et al. (2013)
Fumosorinone (22)	<i>Isaria fumosorosea</i>	IC ₅₀ : 14.0 μM	Liu et al. (2015a, b)
Fumosorinone A (23)	<i>Isaria fumosorosea</i>	IC ₅₀ : 3.24 μM	Zhang et al. (2017)
KS-506a (24)	<i>Micromucor ramannianus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 4.9 μM	Oh et al. (2004)
KS-506m (25)	<i>Micromucor ramannianus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 69.9 μM	Oh et al. (2004)
Aquastatin A (26)	<i>Cosmospora</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 0.19 μM	Seo et al. (2009)
Compound 27	Semi-synthetic	IC ₅₀ : 17 μM	Seo et al. (2009)
Compound 28	Semi-synthetic	IC ₅₀ : 0.22 μM	Seo et al. (2009)
Compound 29	Semi-synthetic	IC ₅₀ : 0.59 μM	Seo et al. (2009)
Trivaric acid (30)	Fungus F10Z1082	IC ₅₀ : 0.17 μM	Sun et al. (2017a, b)
Trivaric acid (30)	Fungus F10Z1082	IC ₅₀ : 173 nM	Sun et al. (2017a, b)
Nordivaricatic acid (31)	Fungus F10Z1082	IC ₅₀ : 0.51 μM	Sun et al. (2017a, b)
Divarinyldivarate (32)	Fungus F10Z1082	IC ₅₀ : 0.72 μM	Sun et al. (2017a, b)
Asperdichrome (33)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 6.0 μM	Yamazaki et al. (2016)
Secalonic acid F (34)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 9.6 μM	Yamazaki et al. (2016)
Isoprenylravenelin (35)	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 13.9 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Compound 36	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 39.6 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Compound 37	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 27.9 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Compound 38	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 92.5 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Compound 39	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 25.5 μM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
6-O-Methylalaternin (40)	<i>Alternaria</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 0.62 μM	Qi (2019)

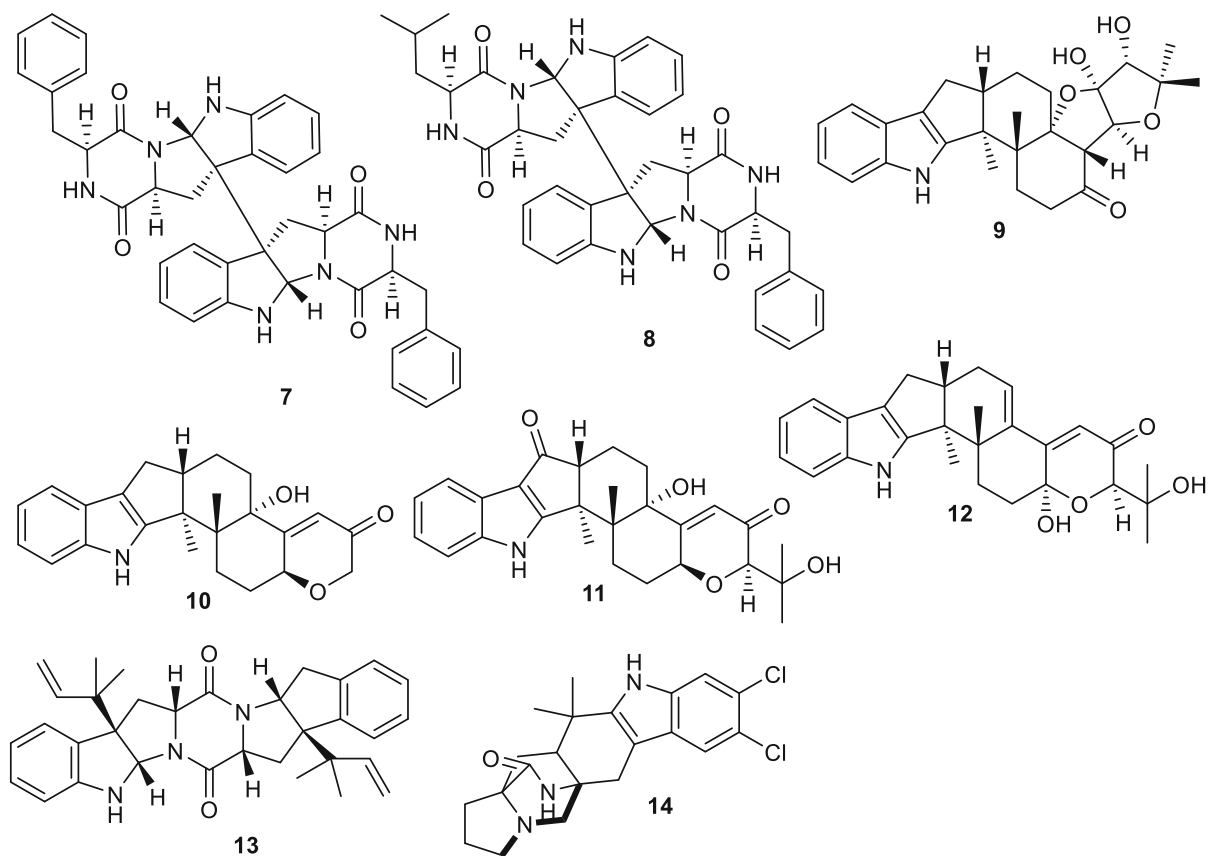


Fig. 2 Structures of alkaloids 7–14

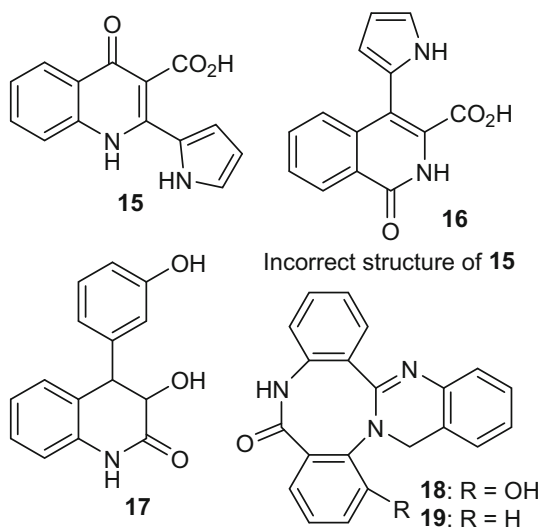
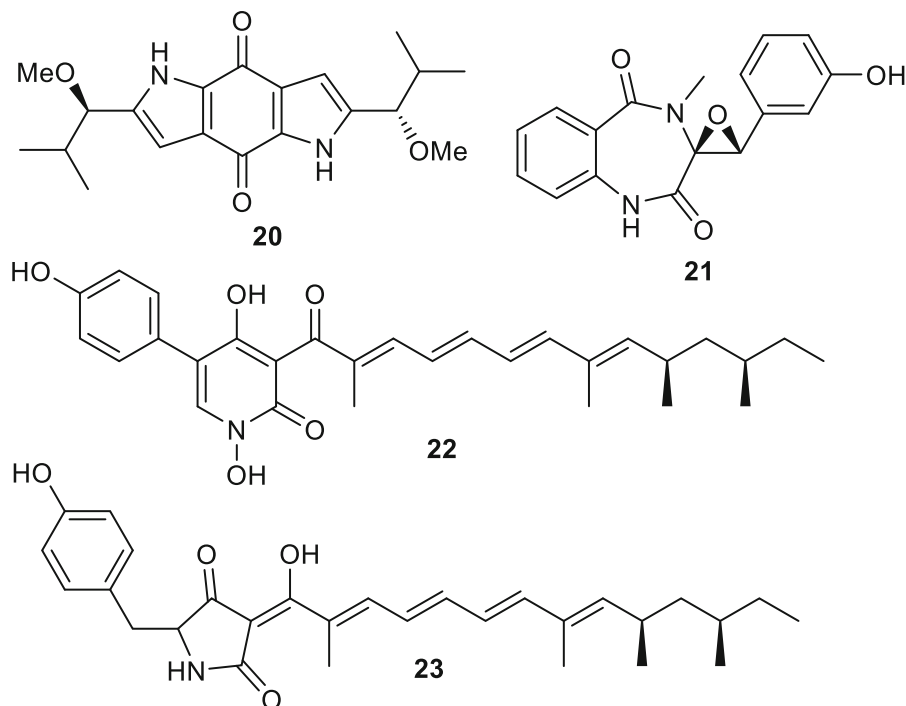


Fig. 3 Structures of alkaloids 15–19

revealed that compound **22** is a noncompetitive inhibitor (Liu et al. 2015a, b).

Fumosorinone (**22**) furthermore demonstrated a significant similarity with the 2-pyridones viz., tenellin (Eley et al. 2007), aspyridone A (Xu et al. 2010), and desmethylbassianin (Heneghan et al. 2011). These compounds could conceivably share similar biosynthetic pathways (Liu et al. 2015a, b). In another study, Liu et al. reported that compound **22** reduces PTP1B expression, increases the insulin-provoked glucose uptake, and also decreases blood glucose and lipid levels in mice (Liu et al. 2015a, b). Moreover, fumosorinone (**22**) is also active towards other PTPs (Chen et al. 2015a, b). The fungus *Isaria fumosorosea* produces fumosorinone A (**23**), which inhibits the activity of PTP1B with IC_{50} : 3.24 μ M (Zhang et al. 2017). This report revealed that compound **23** is more potent than compound **22** and 4-times more potent than sodium orthovanadate (IC_{50} = 11.3 μ M). Quite recently, Schobert and his

Fig. 4 Structures of alkaloids **20–23**

group reported the total synthesis of fumosorinone A (**23**) (Bruckner et al. 2018).

Depsides

KS-506a (**24**) and KS-506m (**25**) (Fig. 5) were isolated from *Micromucor ramannianus* and evaluated for their PTP1B inhibition. Interestingly, compound **24** possesses potent PTP1B inhibition with an IC_{50} : 4.9 μ M and K_i : 2.7 μ M (Table 1) while metabolite **25** proved to be moderately active IC_{50} : 69.9 μ M (Oh et al. 2004). Notably, compounds **24** and **25** were previously isolated from *Mortierella vinacea* (Kuroda 1988). In another report the fungus *Cosmospora* sp. was described to produce the glycosylated depside, aquastatin A (**26**) and this compound was shown to possess potent PTP1B effects with an IC_{50} : 0.19 μ M (Seo et al. 2009). In addition, compound **26** was converted into its methyl ester **27** whose PTP1B activity proved to unfortunately be less than (IC_{50} : 17 μ M). This indicated that the carboxylic acid moiety plays a crucial role in the inhibition mechanism (Zhang et al. 2008a; Na et al. 2006). Compound **26** after being subjected to enzymatic hydrolysis, produced compound **28** and this latter metabolite

inhibited PTP1B with IC_{50} : 0.22 μ M). Further hydrolysis of **26** with NaOH produced product **29** which inhibited PTP1B with an IC_{50} : 0.59 μ M (Seo et al. 2009). This study suggest that the additional aromatic ring present in compound **26** has a very minor influence on PTP1B effects.

Trivarinic acid (**30**) (Fig. 6) was initially reported to be isolated from lichen (Culberson et al. 1999) but later also from the fungus F10Z1082 (Sun et al. 2017a, b). Trivarinic acid (**30**) illustrated very potent effects towards PTP1B with an IC_{50} : 0.17 μ M. Moreover, compound **30** possesses an insulin sensitizing activity in diabetic and normal mice (Sun et al. 2017a, b). In another study trivarinic acid (**30**) inhibited PTP1B very strongly with an IC_{50} : 173 nM. An in vivo study of this depside demonstrated that it increased insulin stimulation and glucose consumption. In addition compound **30** decreases glucose levels and boosts insulin resistance (Sun et al. 2017a, b). Similarly, nordivarinic acid (**31**) and the divarinyl divarate (**32**) were reported as lichen metabolites (Zheng et al. 2012) and later isolated from the fungus F10Z1082 (Sun et al. 2017a, b). Depsides **31** and **32** strongly inhibited PTP1B with IC_{50} : 0.51 and 0.72 μ M respectively (Sun et al. 2017a, b). An SAR study of

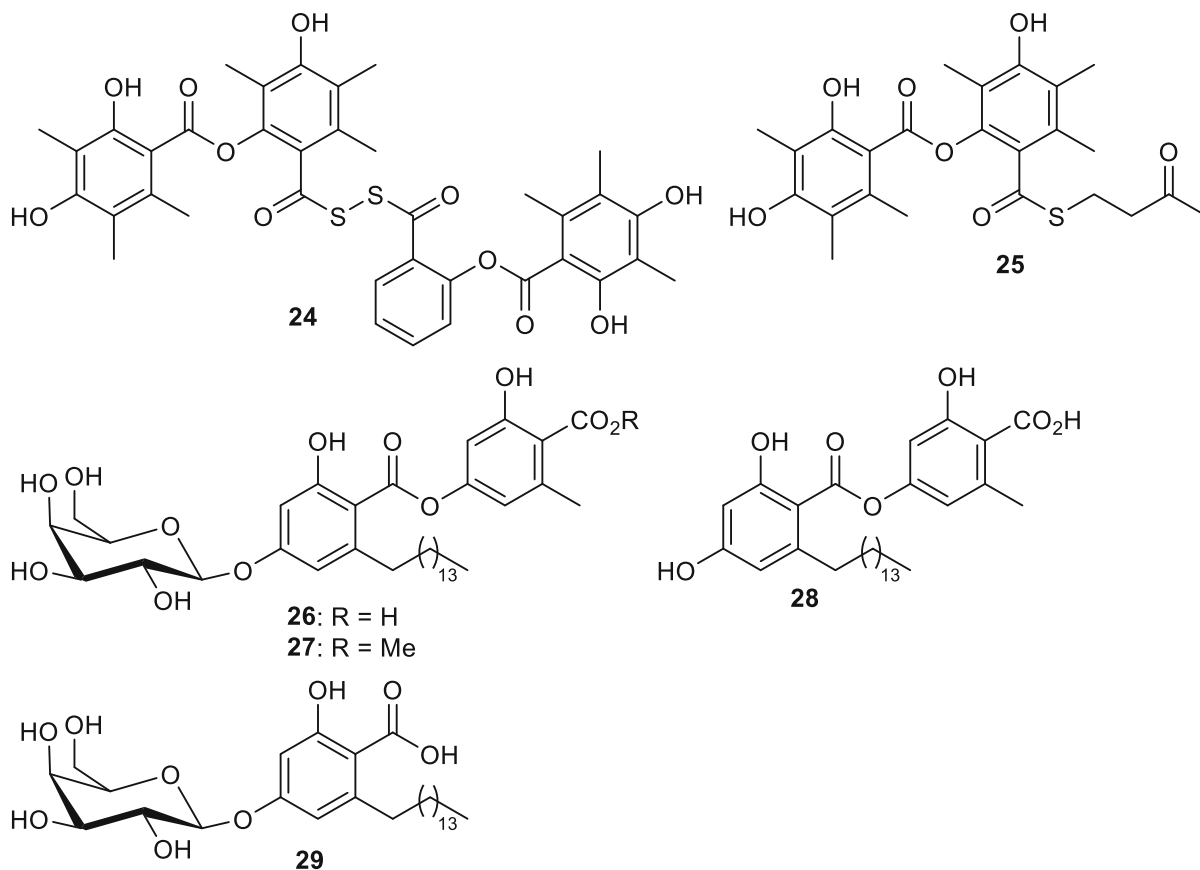


Fig. 5 Structures of depsides **24–29**

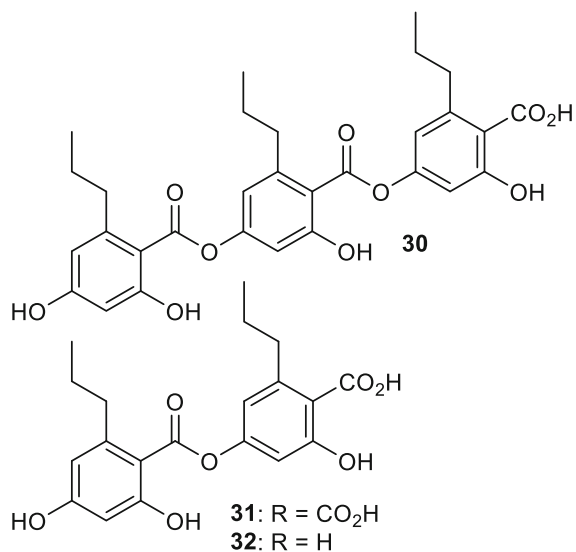


Fig. 6 Structures of depsides **30–32**

compounds **31** and **32** demonstrated that the carboxylic acid plays only a minor role in PTP1B effects.

Xanthenes and anthraquinones

Bis-tetrahydroxanthenes, asperdichrome (**33**) and secalonic acid F (**34**) (Fig. 7) were obtained from the fungus *Aspergillus* sp. Metabolites **33** (IC₅₀: 6.0 μM) and **34** (IC₅₀: 9.6 μM) demonstrated significant activity towards PTP1B (Yamazaki et al. 2016). Secalonic acid F (**34**) was previously reported from *Aspergillus* sp. (Andersen et al. 1977) and the lichen *Diploicia canescens* (Millot et al. 2009). Secalonic acid F (**34**) was recently isolated from *Aspergillus* sp. and illustrated PTP1B effects with IC₅₀: 5.9 μM (Rotinsulu et al. 2017). 4-Isoprenylravenelin (**35**) was produced by the fungus *Malbranchea circinate* and illustrated activity towards PTP1B with an IC₅₀: 13.9 μM (Rangel-Grimaldo et al. 2020). Anthraquinone

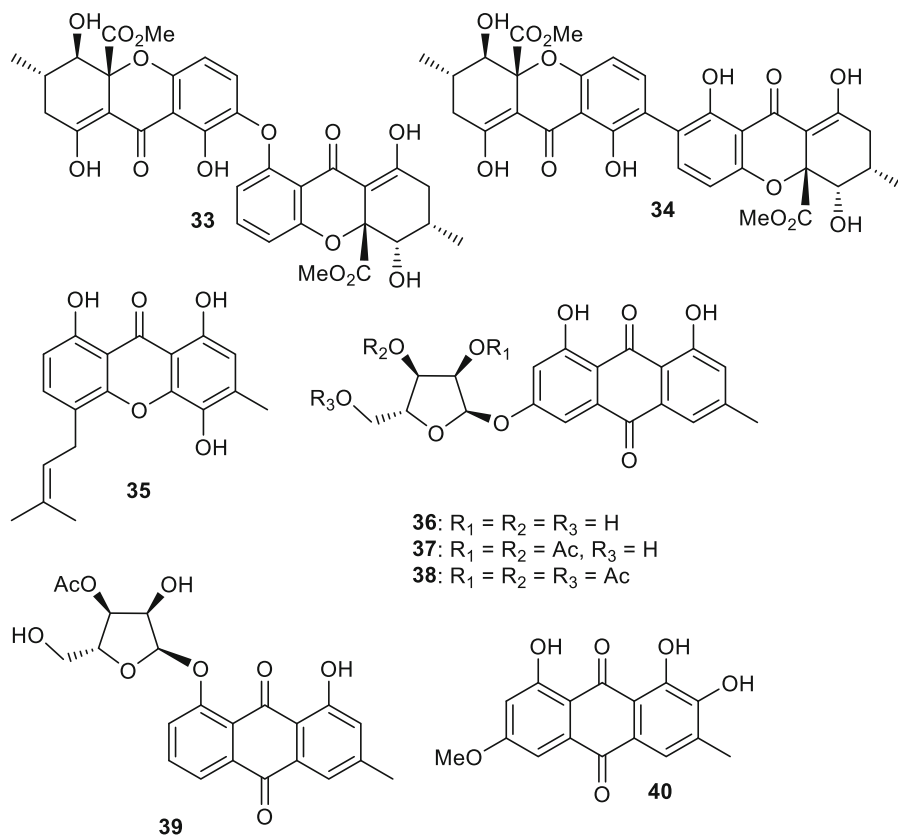


Fig. 7 Structures of xanthenes and anthraquinones **33–40**

glycosides **36–39** were produced by the fungus *Malbranchea circinate* and these metabolites possess a D-ribofuranosyl group. Moreover, all these compounds demonstrated PTP1B effects with IC_{50} values ranging from 25.5 to 92.5 μM . Metabolites **37** (IC_{50} : 27.9 μM) and **39** (IC_{50} : 25.5 μM) illustrated better effects than compounds **36** and **38** (Rangel-Grimaldo et al. 2020). 6-O-Methylalaternin (**40**) was produced by the fungi *Stemphylium globuliferum* (Debbab et al. 2009) and *Alternaria* sp. (Qi 2019) and were shown to possess potent PTP1B effects with IC_{50} : 0.62 μM (Qi 2019).

Azaphilones

Pinophilin C (**41**) (Fig. 8) was produced by the fungus *Cordyceps* sp. (Wei et al. 2015; Isaka et al. 2001) and illustrated PTP1B inhibition with 6.8 $\mu g/mL$ (Wei et al. 2015) (Table 2). Deflectins C1–C3 (**42–44**), D1–D2 (**45,46**), E (**47**), 1a–1c (**48–50**), 2a (**51**), and 2b (**52**)

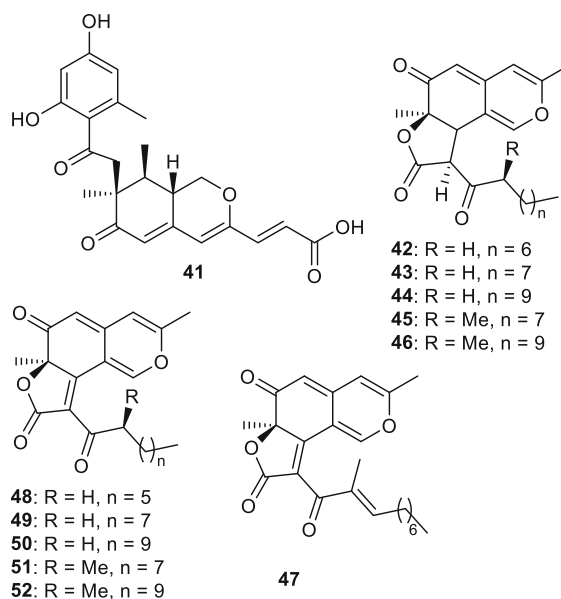


Fig. 8 Structures of azaphilones **41–52**

Table 2 Fungal metabolites **41–80** as PTP1B inhibitors

Compound	Source	PTP1B effects	References
Pinophilin C (41)	<i>Cordyceps</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 6.8 µg/mL	Wei et al. (2015)
Deflectin C1 (42)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 40.4 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin C2 (43)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 19.8 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin C3 (44)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 16.5 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin D1 (45)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 19.2 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin D2 (46)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 6.1 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin E (47)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 24.0 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin 1a (48)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 37.4 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin 1b (49)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 18.2 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin 1c (50)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 2.6 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin 2a (51)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 15.5 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Deflectin 2b (52)	<i>Aspergillus deflectus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 2.1 µM	Huo et al. (2020)
Cordycerebroside B (53)	<i>Cordyceps militaris</i>	IC ₅₀ : 4.68 µM	Sun et al. (2019)
4E,8E)-N-D-2'-Hydroxypalmitoyl-1-O-β-D-glycopyranosyl-9-methyl-4,8-sphingadienine (54)	<i>Cordyceps militaris</i>	IC ₅₀ : 16.9 µM	Sun et al. (2019)
Cordycerebroside A (56)	<i>Cordyceps militaris</i>	IC ₅₀ : 10.4 µM	Sun et al. (2019)
Soya-cerebroside I (56)	<i>Cordyceps militaris</i>	IC ₅₀ : 18.9 µM	Sun et al. (2019)
(24E)-3,4-seco-cucurbita-4,24-diene-3,26,29-trioic acid (57)	<i>Russula lepida</i>	IC ₅₀ : 0.4 µM	Maarisit et al. (2017)
(24E)-3,4-seco-cucurbita-4,24-diene-3-hydroxy-26,29-dioic acid (58)	<i>Russula lepida</i>	IC ₅₀ : 20.4 µM	Maarisit et al. (2017)
Phomasterol A (59)	<i>Phoma</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 25 µM	Chen et al. (2015a, b)
Clitocybulol C (60)	<i>Pleurotus cystidiosus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 36.0 µM	Tao et al. (2016a, b)
Clitocybulol G (61)	<i>Pleurotus cystidiosus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 49.5.0 µM	Tao et al. (2016a, b)
Clitocybulol L (62)	<i>Pleurotus cystidiosus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 38.1 µM	Tao et al. (2016a, b)
Postinin A (63)	<i>Postia</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 1.6 µg/mL	Fan et al. (2014)
Postinin B (64)	<i>Postia</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 6.2 µg/mL	Fan et al. (2014)
Pleurotin A (65)	<i>Pleurotus citrinopileatus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 32.1 µM	Tao et al. (2016a, b)
Pleurotin E (66)	<i>Pleurotus citrinopileatus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 30.5 µM	Tao et al. (2016a, b)
Phelligridin H (67)	<i>Phellinus igniarius</i>	IC ₅₀ : 3.1 µM	Wang et al. (2007)
Phelligridin I (68)	<i>Phellinus igniarius</i>	IC ₅₀ : 3.0 µM	Wang et al. (2007)
Cladosporamide A (69)	<i>Cladosporium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 48 µM	Rotinsulu et al. (2018)
Asperentin B (70)	<i>Aspergillus sydowii</i>	IC ₅₀ : 2.0 µM	Wiese et al. (2017)
Verruculide A (71)	<i>Penicillium verruculosum</i>	IC ₅₀ : 8.4 µM	Yamazaki et al. (2015a)
Chrodrimanin A (72)	<i>Penicillium verruculosum</i>	IC ₅₀ : 8.5 µg/mL	Yamazaki et al. (2015b)
Chrodrimanin H (73)	<i>Penicillium verruculosum</i>	IC ₅₀ : 14.9 µM	Yamazaki et al. (2015a)
Preaustinoide A6 (74)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 17.6 µM	Park et al. (2019)
Preaustinoide A3 (75)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 58.4 µM	Park et al. (2019)
Chrodrimanin O (76)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 71.6 µM	Kong et al. (2017)
Chrodrimanin R (77)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 62.5 µM	Kong et al. (2017)
Chrodrimanin S (78)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 63.1 µM	Kong et al. (2017)

Table 2 continued

Compound	Source	PTP1B effects	References
Compound 79	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 39.6 μM	Kong et al. (2017)
Furanoaustinol (80)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 77.2 μM	Park et al. (2018)

were reported to be isolated from the fungus *Aspergillus deflectus*. Azaphilones **42–52** possess a wide spread of activity towards PTP1B with IC₅₀: 2.1–40.4 μM. Among these metabolites, compounds **50** and **52** were the most potent with IC₅₀: 2.1 and 2.6 μM. An SAR study showed that the presence of the γ-lactone ring with the double bonds at C-8/C-12, the length of the aliphatic side chain and the presence of a C-2' methyl on the side chain all play a positive role in the PTP1B activity (Huo et al. 2020). Compounds **48–52** were previously isolated from *Aspergillus deflectus* (Musso et al. 2010; Anke et al. 1981; Gao et al. 2013).

Cerebrosides

Glycosphingolipids (cerebrosides) were first reported by the German physician J. L. W. Thudichum in the second half of the nineteenth century (Thudichum 1884). The structure of the actual cerebroside isolated by J. L. W. Thudichum was determined by Carter (Carter et al. 1965). Cerebrosides are crucial and important constituents in a wide range of organs and tissues in biological systems. Cerebrosides mainly comprise two parts viz., a sugar part (red part) and a ceramide nucleus while the latter in turn comprises of a long-chain „sphingoid base“ (blue part) and an amide-linked long-chain fatty acid (green part).

A large number of cerebrosides have been reported from plants and fungi and have been shown to possess a diverse range of biological activities (Tan and Chen 2003). Cordycerebroside B (**53**) (Fig. 9) was isolated from the fungus *Cordyceps militaris* and inhibited PTP1B with an IC₅₀: 4.68 μM. This activity was higher than the standard ursolic acid (IC₅₀: 5.15 μM) (Sun et al. 2019). Furthermore, cerebroside **54** was isolated from the fungi, *Cordyceps militaris* (Sun et al. 2019), *Schizophyllum commune* (Kawai and Ikeda 1983) and *Cortinarius tenuipes* (Tan et al. 2003), and inhibited PTP1B with an IC₅₀: 16.9 μM (Sun et al. 2019). Cordycerebroside A (**55**) was obtained from the

fungus *Cordyceps militaris* (Sun et al. 2019; Chiu et al. 2016) and was shown to possess activity towards PTP1B with an IC₅₀: 10.4 μM (Sun et al. 2019) (Table 2). On the other hand, soya-cerebroside I (**56**) was initially reported as a plant metabolite (Kim et al. 2001) but quite recently this compound was isolated from the fungus *Cordyceps militaris* (Sun et al. 2019) and reported to show PTP1B inhibition with an IC₅₀: 18.9 μM.

Triterpenes and steroids

Russula lepida is included in the subdivision of higher fungi viz., Basidiomycotina. (Clericuzio et al. 2012) after a phytochemical investigation of fruiting bodies of *R. lepida* led to the isolation of seco-cucurbitane triterpenes **57** and **58** (Maarisit et al. 2017) (Fig. 10). Notably, compound **57** demonstrated potent PTP1B effects with an IC₅₀: 0.4 μM which is higher than the standard oleanolic acid (IC₅₀: 1.1 μM) (Table 2). Moreover, metabolite **58** was moderately active with an IC₅₀: 20.4 μM (Maarisit et al. 2017). An SAR study showed that the CH₂OH group (present in compound **57**) causes a larger effect than the carboxylic acid group (present in compound **58**). A C₂₅ sterol bearing the C-5/C-8 peroxide group, phomasterol A (**59**) was produced by the fungus *Phoma* sp. and illustrated activity towards PTP1Bc with an IC₅₀ : 25 μM (Chen et al. 2015a, b).

Sesquiterpenes

The sesquiterpenes, clitocybulols C (**60**: IC₅₀: 36.0 μM), G (**61**: IC₅₀: 49.5 μM), and L (**62**: IC₅₀: 38.1 μM) (Fig. 11) were reported from the fungus *Pleurotus cystidiosus* and illustrated activity towards PTP1B (Tao et al. 2016a, b). The SAR study of compounds **60–62** revealed that the CH₂OAc and CH₂OH groups enhance the PTP1B effects and activity was decreased when these groups was replaced by a methyl group

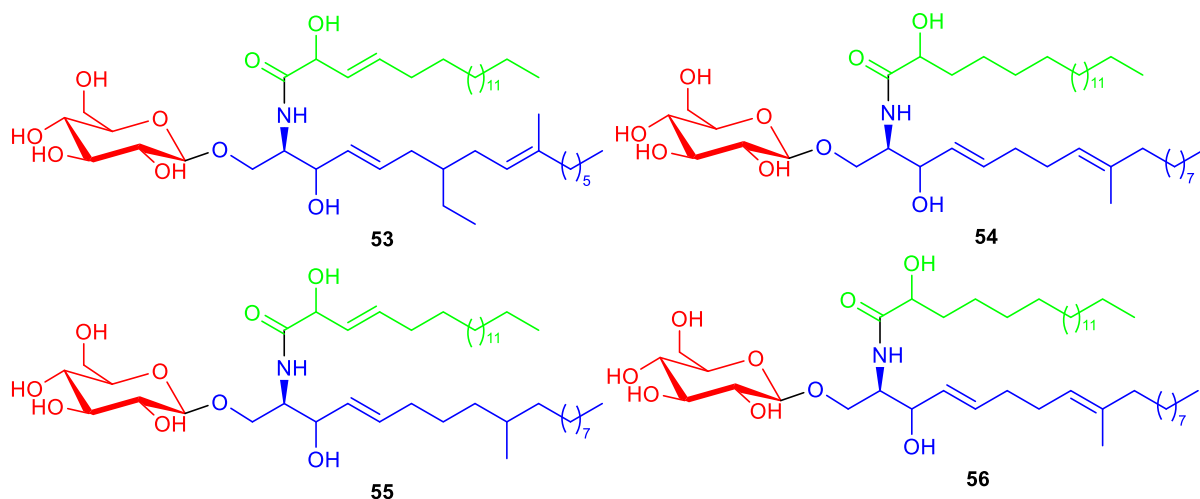


Fig. 9 Structures of cerebrosides **53–56**

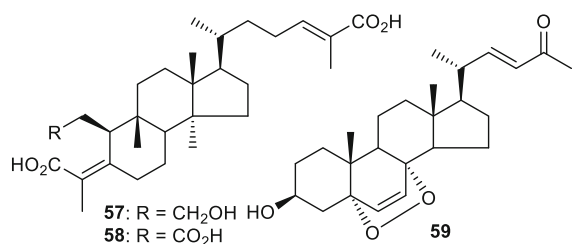


Fig. 10 Structures of triterpenes and steroids **57–59**

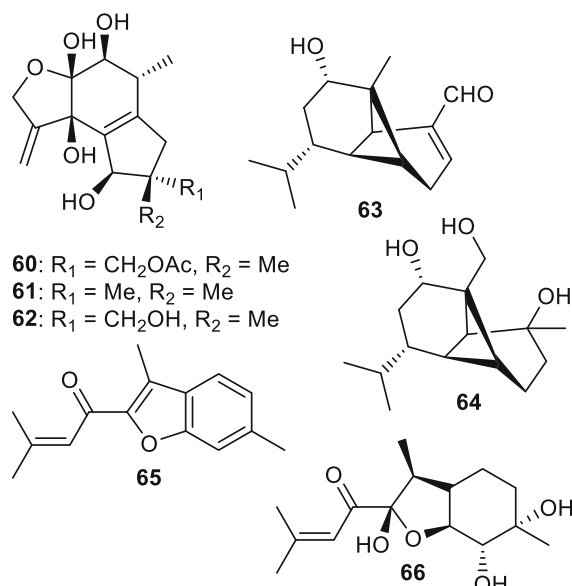


Fig. 11 Structures of sesquiterpenes **60–66**

(compound **61**). Ylangene-type sesquiterpenes, positinins A (**63**) and B (**64**) were isolated from the fungus *Postia* sp. Metabolite **63** illustrated significant effects towards PTP1B with IC₅₀: 1.6 μg/mL while compound **64** was less effective with IC₅₀: 6.2 μg/mL (Fan et al. 2014). Bisabolene sesquiterpenes, pleurotins A (**65**) and E (**66**) were isolated from the fungus *Pleurotus citrinopileatus* and both compounds exhibited PTP1B inhibition with IC₅₀: 32.1 and 30.5 μM respectively (Tao et al. 2016a, b) (Table 2).

Isocoumarin-based metabolites

Two isocoumarin analogs, phelligrindins H (**67**: IC₅₀: 3.1 μM) and I (**68**: IC₅₀: 3.0 μM) (Fig. 12) were isolated from the fungus *Phellinus igniarius* and both possess good PTP1B activity (Wang et al. 2007). Cladosporamide A (**69**) was isolated from the fungus *Cladosporium* sp. and illustrated moderate activity towards PTP1B with IC₅₀: 48 μM (Rotinsulu et al. 2018). Asperentin B (**70**) was produced by the fungus *Aspergillus sydowii* (Wiese et al. 2017) and its structure was noted to be quite close to that of asperentin (Scott et al. 1971). Asperentin B (**70**) illustrated significant PTP1B effects with an IC₅₀: 2.0 μM (Table 2) and these effects were six fold higher than the standard suramin (IC₅₀: 11.8 μM). In addition, compound **70** was only weakly active towards *Propionibacterium acnes* and demonstrated no effects towards *Xanthomonas campestris*, *Septoria tritici*,

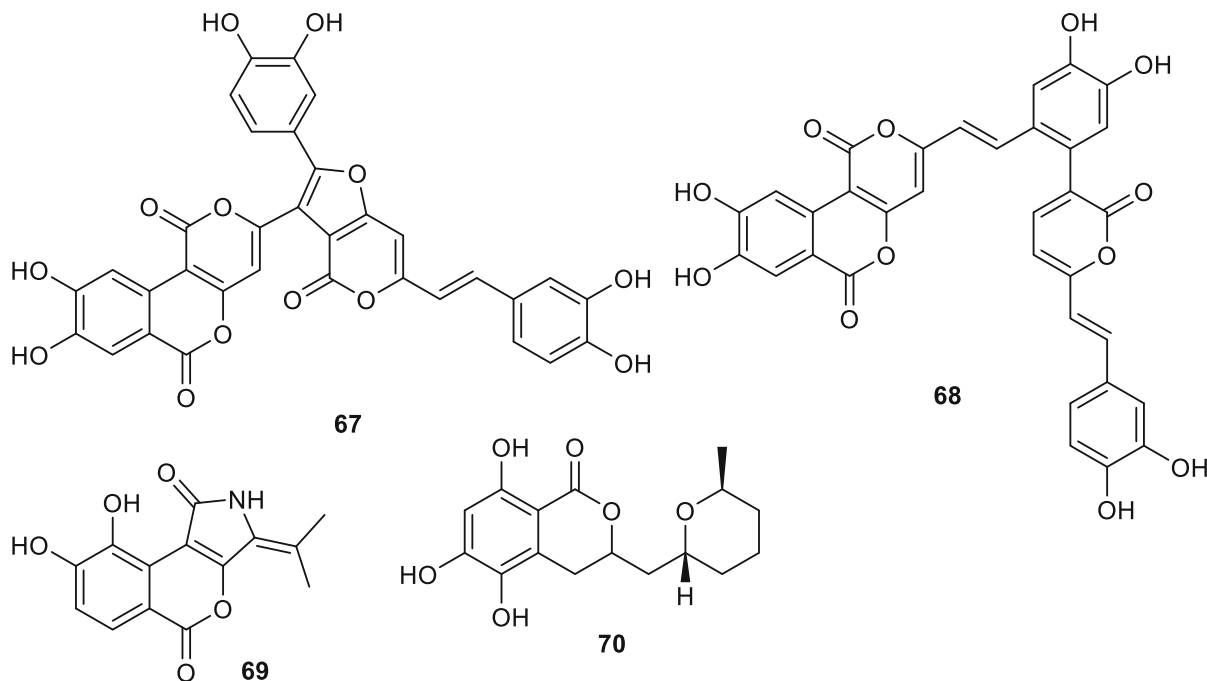


Fig. 12 Structures of isocoumarin-based metabolites **67–70**

Candida albicans, *Staphylococcus lentus*, HT29 and HepG2 cancer cells (Wiese et al. 2017).

Meroterpenoids

Meroterpenoids are a class of secondary metabolites originating from a biosynthetic pathway between a hybrid polyketide or non-polyketide and terpenoid (Peng and Qiu 2018; Geris and Simpson 2009; Matsuda and Abe 2016). Merosesquiterpenes, verruculide A (**71**), chrodrimanins A (**72**) and H (**73**) (Fig. 13) were reported from the fungus *Penicillium verruculosum*. Compounds **71** (IC_{50} : 8.4 μ M) and **72** (IC_{50} : 8.5 μ M) inhibited PTP1B almost to the same level. Notably, metabolite **73** was less effective with IC_{50} : 14.9 μ M (Yamazaki et al. 2015). In another report the meroterpenoid, preaustinoid A6 (**74**) was reported from the fungus *Penicillium* sp. and inhibited PTP1B with an IC_{50} : 17.6 μ M. In addition, a kinetic study revealed that compound **74** is a noncompetitive inhibitor having a K_i : 17.0 μ M (Park et al. 2019). It is also noted that preaustinoid A3 (**75**) is produced by various fungal species of *Penicillium* sp. (Park et al. 2019; Fill et al. 2007) and possesses PTP1B activity with IC_{50} : 58.4 μ M (Park et al. 2019).

Chrodrimanins O (**76**), R (**77**), S (**78**) and compound **79** are all produced by the fungus *Penicillium* sp. Metabolite **76** contains the unusual trichlorinated pattern bearing an uncommon dichloromethine moiety. Furthermore, metabolites **76–79** illustrated PTP1B activity with IC_{50} ranging from 39.6 to 71.6 μ M. However, these compounds were not active towards HepG2, A549, and Hela cancer cells (Kong et al. 2017). Meroterpenoid, furanoaustinol (**80**) is produced by the fungus *Penicillium* sp. and this metabolite weakly inhibited PTP1B IC_{50} : 77.2 μ M (Park et al. 2018).

Biphenyl ethers

The fungus *Phoma* sp. produces the biphenyl ether, 1-methoxy-3,5'-dimethyl-2,3'-oxybiphenyl-5,1',2'-triol (**81**) and in an anti-PTP1B assay, **81** (IC_{50} : 13.0 μ M) (Fig. 14; Table 3) displayed significant activity towards PTP1B (Sumilat et al. 2017a, b). Cyperine (**82**) initially reported as a herbicide isolated from *Alternaria* sp. (Singh and Pandey 2019) as well from the plant (*Cyperus rotundus*) (Sharma and Rani 2016). In 2017, cyperine (**82**) was reported to be isolated from the fungus *Phoma* sp. and illustrated PTP1B activity

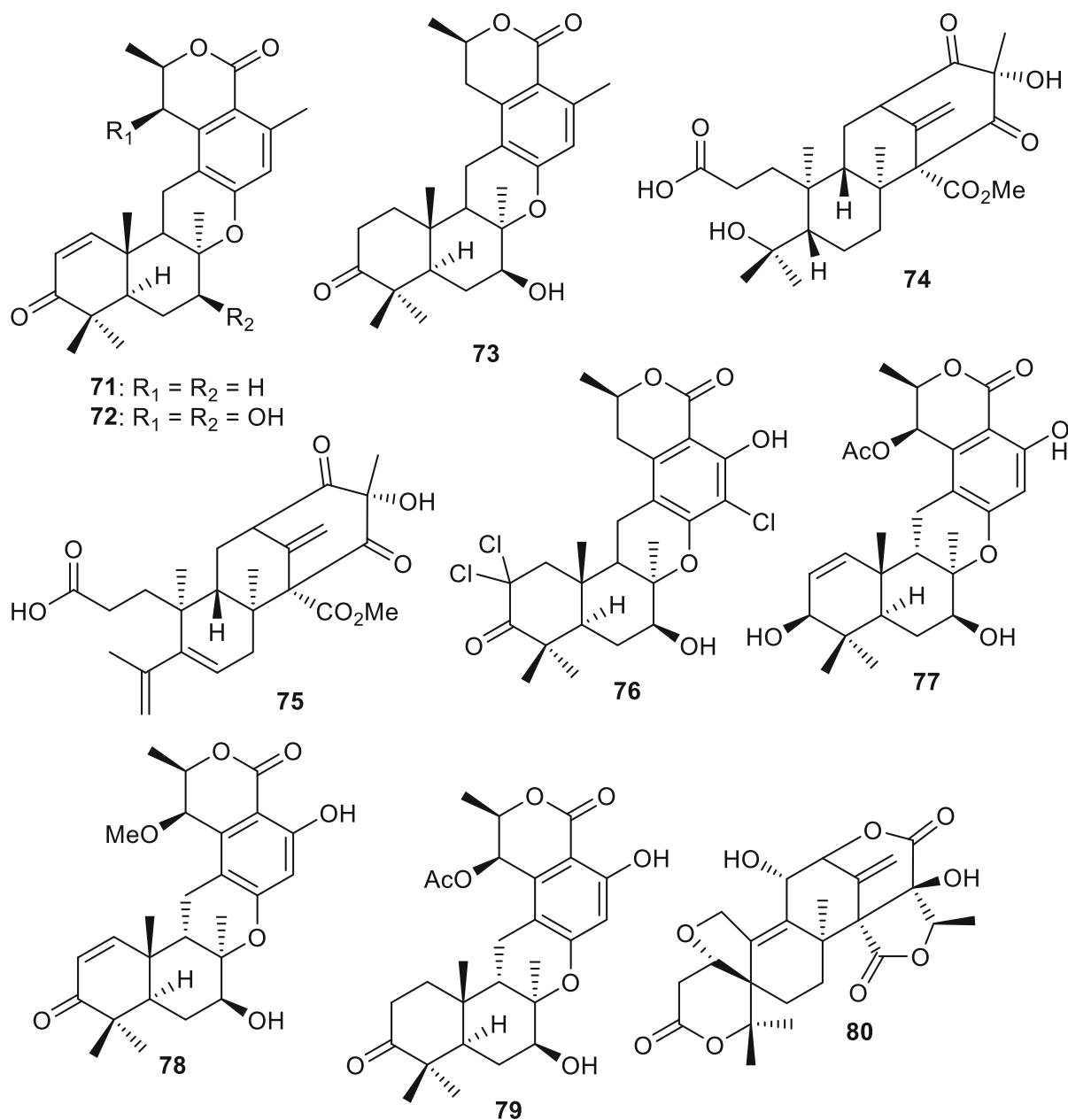
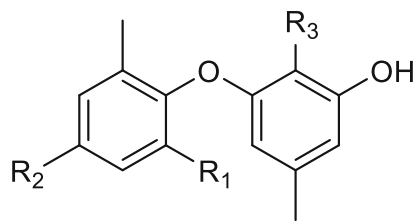


Fig. 13 Structures of meroterpenoids **71–80**

with an IC_{50} : 17.0 μM (Sumilat et al. 2017a, b). In comparison with the activity of oleanolic acid (positive control; $IC_{50} = 1.3 \mu M$), compounds **81** and **82** appear to be good candidates for further studies. A mode of action evaluation based on Huh-7 cells, demonstrated that only compound **82** exhibited 26% growth inhibition (Sumilat et al. 2017a, b).

Palmarumycins and naphthopyranones

Palmarumycins have been isolated from various fungi and reported to possess interesting biological activities (Macías-Rubalcava et al. 2008; Schlingmann et al. 1996; Dong et al. 2008; Martinez-Luis et al. 2008; Seephonkai et al. 2002; Chu et al. 1994, 1995; Singh et al. 1994; Sakemi et al. 1995; Wipf et al. 2001; Powis



81: R₁ = OMe, R₂ = OH, R₃ = OH

82: R₁ = OH, R₂ = OMe, R₃ = H

Fig. 14 Structures of biphenyl ethers **81** and **82**

et al. 2006). Guignardin C (**83**) was obtained from the fungus *Guignardia* sp. and inhibited PTP1B with an IC₅₀: 25.7 μM. In addition, compounds **83** possesses

antimicrobial activity towards *Staphylococcus aureus* (Ai et al. 2014). The naphtho-γ-pyrone, rubrofusarin B (**84**) (Fig. 15) is produced by various fungi viz., *Aspergillus* sp. (Huang et al. 2010, 2011; Sakurai et al. 2002; Zhang et al. 2008a; Song et al. 2004; Xiao et al. 2014; Zhan et al. 2007; Kim et al. 2020), *Alternaria* sp. (Shaaban et al. 2012), and *Cladosporium herbarum* (Ye et al. 2005). This compound inhibited PTP1B with IC₅₀: 6.5 μM (Kim et al. 2020) (Table 3).

Additionally TMC-256A1 (**85**) was obtained from various *Aspergillus* sp. (Zhang et al. 2008b; Zahn et al. 2007; Huang et al. 2007; Sakurai et al. 2002; Kim et al. 2020) and illustrated PTP1B effects with IC₅₀: 5.1 μM (Kim et al. 2020). The SAR study of compounds **84** and **85** revealed that the methyl group in compound **84**

Table 3 Fungal metabolites **81–107** as PTP1B inhibitors

Compound	Source	PTP1B effects	References
1-Methoxy-3,5'-dimethyl-2,3'-oxybiphenyl-5,1',2'-triol (81)	<i>Phoma</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 13.0 μM	Sumilat et al. (2017a, b)
Cyperine (82)	<i>Phoma</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 17.0 μM	Sumilat et al. (2017a, b)
Guignardin C (83)	<i>Guignardia</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 25.7 μM	Kim et al. (2020)
Rubrofusarin B (84)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 6.5 μM	Kim et al. (2020)
TMC-256A1 (85)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 5.1 μM	Kim et al. (2020)
Aurasperone F (86)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 7.9 μM	Kim et al. (2020)
Fonsecin (87)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 3.3 μM	Kim et al. (2020)
Penostatin A (88),	<i>Isaria tenuipes</i>	IC ₅₀ : 12.5 μM	Chen et al. (2014)
Penostatin B (89)	<i>Isaria tenuipes</i>	IC ₅₀ : 0.37 μM	Chen et al. (2014)
Penostatin C (90)	<i>Isaria tenuipes</i>	IC ₅₀ : 15.8 μM	Chen et al. (2014)
Penostatin J (91)	<i>Isaria tenuipes</i>	IC ₅₀ : 33.6 μM	Chen et al. (2014)
Trichoketide A (92)	<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 53.1 μM	Yamazaki et al. (2015a)
Trichoketide B (93)	<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 65.1 μM	Yamazaki et al. (2015b)
Trichodermaketone C (94)	<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 68.0 μM	Yamazaki et al. (2015a)
Trichodermaketone D (95)	<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 55.9 μM	Yamazaki et al. (2015b)
(±)-Tylophilus D (96)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 8.1 μM	Kim et al. (2020)
Funalenone (97)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 6.1 μM	Kim et al. (2020)
Botcinin A (98)	<i>Botryotinia</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ = 340.7 μM	Kim et al. (2012)
Botcinin B (99)	<i>Botryotinia</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 53.6 μM	Kim et al. (2012)
Botcinin D (100)	Semi-synthetic	IC ₅₀ = 461.2 μM	Kim et al. (2012)
Botcinin G (101)	Semi-synthetic	IC ₅₀ = 96.2 μM	Kim et al. (2012)
Ascochitine (102)	<i>Ascochyta</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 38.5 μM	Seibert et al. (2006)
Tanzawaic acid A (103)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 8.2 μM	Quang et al. (2014)
Tanzawaic acid B (104)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 8.2 μM	Quang et al. (2014)
(10'S)-Verruculide B (105)	<i>Phoma</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 13.7 μM	Gubiani et al. (2017)
Penstyrylpyrone (106)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 5.28 μM	Lee et al. (2013)
Anhydrofulvic acid (107)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 3.1 μM	Lee et al. (2013)

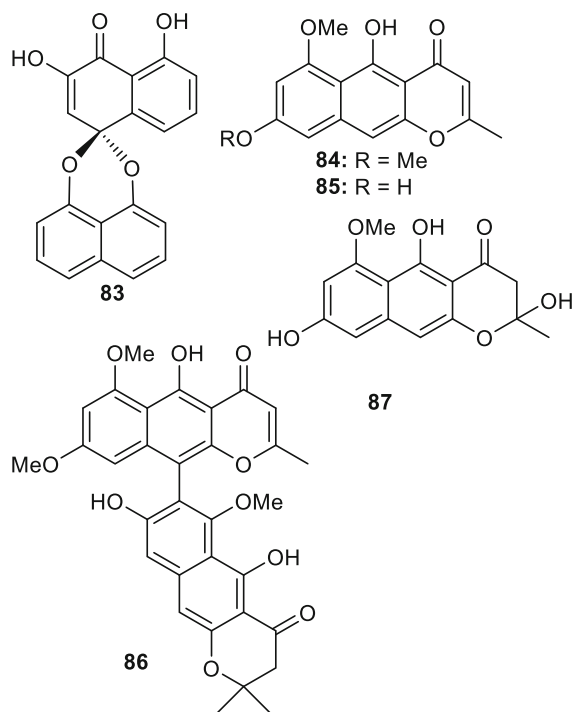


Fig. 15 Structures of palmarumycins and naphthopyraones 83–87

does not alter the PTP1B effects. Interestingly, aurasperone F (**86**) (Shaaban et al. 2012; Bouras et al. 2005, 2007; Kim et al. 2020) and fonsecin (**87**) (Shaaban et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2008a; Ehrlich et al. 1984; Bouras et al. 2005; Zhan et al. 2007; Sakurai et al. 2002; Kim et al. 2020) are both quite active and strongly inhibited PTP1B with IC_{50} : 7.9 and 3.3 μM respectively (Kim et al. 2020). Notably, the effects of fonsecin (**87**) was higher than the standard ursolic acid (IC_{50} : 4.3 μM (Kim et al. 2020).

Polyketides

The polyketides, penostatins A (**88**), B (**89**), C (**90**) and J (**91**) (Fig. 16) produced by the fungus *Isaria tenuipes* were tested for their biological activity. It was found that compounds **88–91** possess significant effects towards PTP1B with IC_{50} values ranging from 0.37 to 43.6 μM . Among these compounds, penostatin B (**89**) was the most potent inhibitor with an IC_{50} : 0.37 μM followed by penostatin A (**88**: IC_{50} : 12.5 μM) (Chen et al. 2014). The SAR study of compounds **88** and **89** revealed that the stereochemistry of the hydroxyl group plays an important

role in the PTP1B effects. Polyketides, trichoketides A (**92**) and B (**93**) are produced by the fungus *Trichoderma* sp. together with a few C-8 epimers. Octaketides **92** and **93** possess PTP1B effects with IC_{50} : 53.1 and 65.1 μM , respectively (Yamazaki et al. 2015). Similarly, trichodermaketones C (**94**) and D (**95**) are produced by various *Trichoderma* sp. (Song et al. 2010; Mukhopadhyay et al. 1996; Yamazaki et al. 2015a) and these compounds also inhibited PTP1B with IC_{50} : 68.0 and 55.9 μM (Table 3), respectively (Yamazaki et al. 2015a).

The fungus *Aspergillus* sp. produces the polyketides, (\pm)-tylopilusins D (**96**) and funalenone (**97**) (Fig. 17). Both compounds possess PTP1B activity with IC_{50} values of 8.1 and 6.1 μM , respectively (Kim et al. 2020). Botcinin A (**98**) and B (**99**) are produced by the fungus *Botryotinia* sp. In a PTP1B evaluation study, metabolite **99** illustrated significant inhibition with an IC_{50} : 53.6 μM , while metabolite **98** was only a weak inhibitor (IC_{50} = 340.7 μM) (Table 3). An SAR study of compounds **98** and **99** demonstrated that the length of the alkyl chain plays a crucial role of PTP1B effects. The authors observed that botcinins A (**98**) and B (**99**) were unstable in MeOH and slowly transformed into botcinin D (**100**) and botcinin G (**101**) respectively. The metabolite **101** was two-fold less active (IC_{50} = 96.2 μM) than compound **99**. Similarly, **100** was also less active (IC_{50} = 461.2 μM) than its natural precursor **98** (Kim et al. 2012).

Ascochitine (**102**) (Fig. 18) was reported to be isolated from various fungal species of *Ascochyta* sp. (Seibert et al. 2006; Kim et al. 2016; Bertini et al. 1956; Oku and Nakanishi 1963; Venkatasubbaiah and Chilton 1992) and found to possess PTP1B activity with an IC_{50} : 38.5 μM (Seibert et al. 2006). The polyketides, tanzawaic acids A (**103**) and B (**104**) were isolated from *Penicillium* sp. (Quang et al. 2014; Shin et al. 2016) and demonstrated activity towards PTP1B with IC_{50} values of 8.2 μM and 30 μM respectively (Quang et al. 2014). The fungus *Phoma* sp. produces (10'S)-verruculide B (**105**) which was shown to possess PTP1B effects with an IC_{50} : 13.7 μM . Moreover, this compound was also active towards SHP1 and TCPTP (Gubiani et al. 2017).

Penicillium sp. produced the pyrone-derived metabolite, penstyrylpyrone (**106**) which demonstrated good PTP1B inhibitory effects with an IC_{50} : 5.28 μM (Lee et al. 2013). The chaetocyclinone derivative, anhydrofulvic acid (**107**) was produced initially by *Penicillium* sp. (Lösger et al. 2007) and

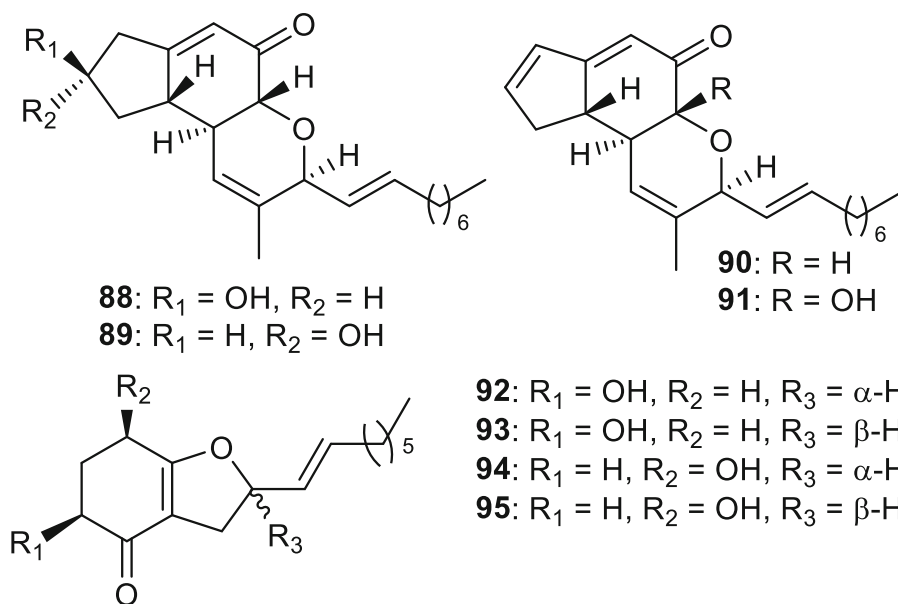
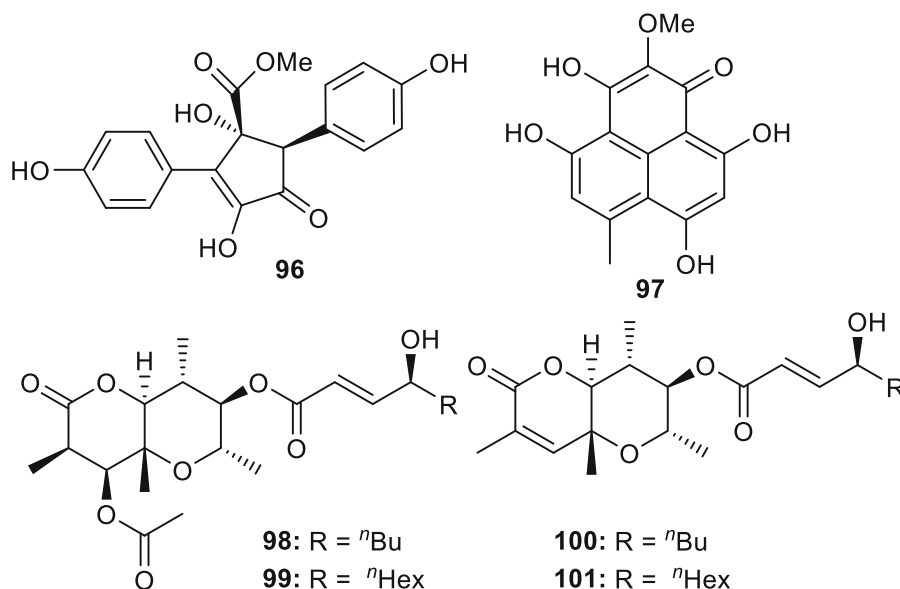


Fig. 16 Structures of polyketides **88–95**

Fig. 17 Structures of polyketides **96–101**



possesses antimicrobial effects towards *Candida* sp. (Fujita et al. 1999). The latter compound **107** was also reported from various *Penicillium* sp. Yamauchi et al. (1984) synthesized this compound to confirm its assigned structure. Lee et al. (2013) reported that anhydrofulvic acid (**107**) possesses inhibitory effects towards PTP1B with an IC_{50} : 1.90 μM and this compound was more potent than the standard ursolic acid (IC_{50} : 3.1 μM).

Cryptosporioptide A (**108**) (Fig. 19) was produced by the fungi *Cordyceps gracilioides* (Wei et al. 2015) and *Cryptosporiopsis* sp. (Tousif et al. 2014). This compound illustrated reasonable PTP1B inhibition with an IC_{50} : 7.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (Wei et al. 2015). The polyketide, neglectine A (**109**), was reported from the fungus *Pestalotiopsis neglecta* and illustrated PTP1B inhibitory effects with an IC_{50} : 6.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (Gao et al. 2019) (Table 4).

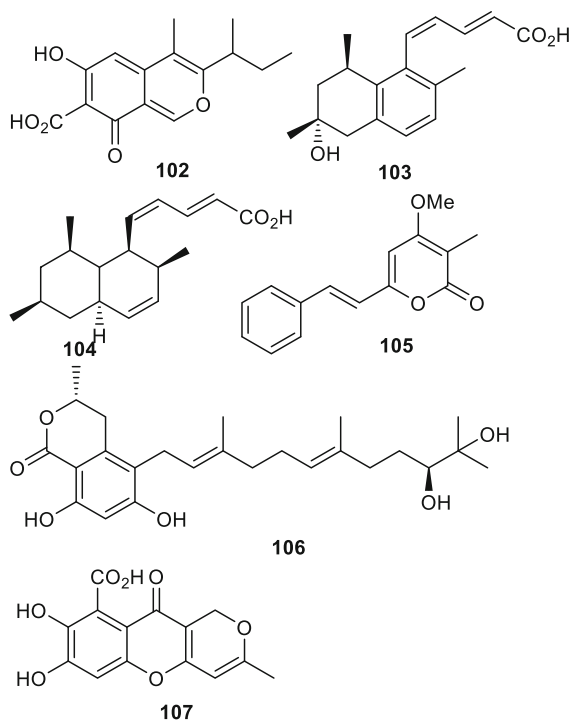


Fig. 18 Structures of polyketides **102–107**

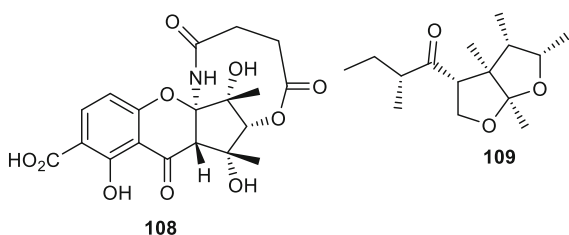


Fig. 19 Structures of polyketides **108** and **109**

Miscellaneous

Butanolide A (**110**) (Fig. 20) was reported from the fungus *Penicillium* sp. and illustrated moderate inhibitory effects towards PTP1B with an IC_{50} : 27.4 μ M (Zhou et al. 2018). Betulactone B (**111**) was reported from the fungus *Lenzites betulinus* and demonstrates PTP1B inhibitory effects with an IC_{50} : 21.5 μ g/mL (Wen et al. 2017). Talarodride (**112**) was produced by the fungus *Talaromyces purpurogenus* and inhibited PTP1B by 76% (Zhao et al. 2019).

Monodictyphenone (**113**) (Fig. 21) was produced by the fungus *Penicillium albobiverticillium* and was shown to possess moderate PTP1B inhibitory effects with an IC_{50} : 36 μ M (Sumilat et al. 2017a, b).

Flavoglaucin (**114**) was isolated from *Eurotium* sp. (Gao et al. 2011; Sohn et al. 2013) and showed PTP1B inhibition with an IC_{50} : 13.4 μ M (Sohn et al. 2013). Prenylflavanone, (2*S*)-7,4'-dihydroxy-5-methoxy-8-(γ,γ -dimethylallyl)-flavanone (**115**) was initially isolated as a plant metabolite (Kang et al. 2000) and later from the fungus *Cladosporium* sp. and illustrated moderate inhibitory effects towards PTP1B with IC_{50} : 11 μ M (Table 4) (Rotinsulu et al. 2018).

The fungus *Isaria fumosorosea* produces the most intriguing peptide, beauvericin (**116**) (Fig. 22), which exhibited very low inhibitory activity with an IC_{50} value (0.59 μ M) against PTP1B. Interestingly, this compound's inhibitory effects was 22-times more potent than sodium orthovanadate (IC_{50} = 11.3 μ M) which is used as reference compound (Zhang et al. 2017). In another investigation, the fungus *Aspergillus* sp. afforded the very interesting cyclic peptide, malformin A1 (**117**) which inhibited PTP1B with an IC_{50} : 5.2 μ M (Kim et al. 2020).

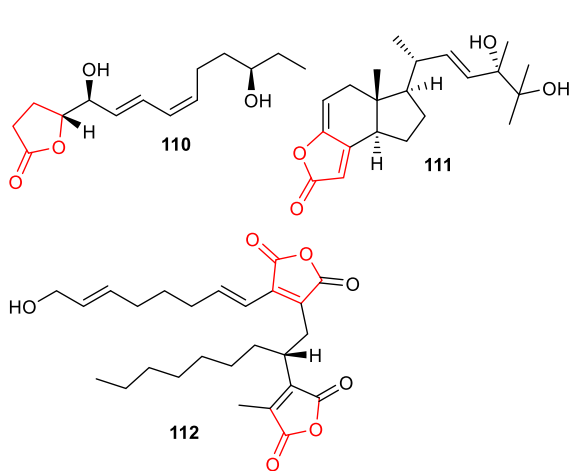
A mixture of arugosin N (**118**) and its 1,6,10-trihydroxy-8-methyl-2-(3-methyl-2-butenyl)dibenz[*b,e*]oxepin-11(6*H*)-one (**119**) were produced by the fungi *Malbranchea circinate* (Rangel-Grimaldo et al. 2020) and *Talaromyces flavus* (Sun et al. 2016). The epimeric mixture of compounds **118** and **119** has been reported to possess PTP1B inhibitory effects with an IC_{50} : 30.3 μ M (Rangel-Grimaldo et al. 2020) (Table 3). Divaric acid (**120**) and 2,4-dihydroxy-6-[(3*E*,5*E*)-nona-3,5-dien-1-yl] benzoic acid (**121**) were produced by the fungus F10Z1082 and these compounds possess PTP1B inhibitory effects with IC_{50} : 1.58 and 4.27 μ M respectively. The PTP1B activity of metabolite **120** was 2.7-fold more potent than that of metabolite **121**, indicating that the length and double bonds of the carbon side chain on C-6 of the aromatic ring might be crucial for activity (Sun et al. 2017a, b).

Conclusion and future perspective

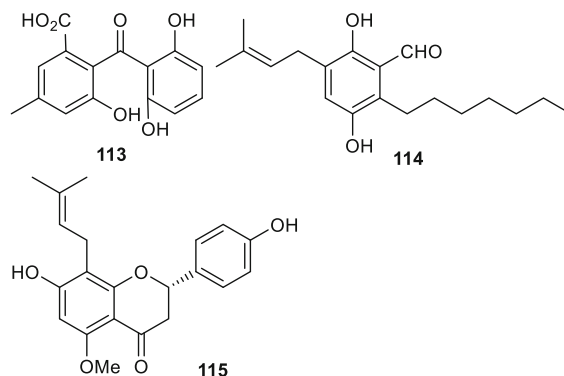
Fungal metabolites play a vitally important and sustainable role in initiating drug development. In this context, the last two decades have been observed as a most fruitful period in isolating low molecular weight antidiabetic compounds from fungi. The fascinating research on PTP1B inhibitors that has been accomplished based on fungal metabolites

Table 4 Fungal metabolites **108–121** as PTP1B inhibitors

Cryptosporioptide A (108)	<i>Cordyceps gracilioides</i>	IC ₅₀ : 7.3 µg/mL	Wei et al. (2015)
Neglectine A (109)	<i>Pestalotiopsis neglecta</i>	IC ₅₀ : 6.7 µg/mL	Gao et al. (2019)
Butanolide A (110)	<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 27.4 µM	Zhou et al. (2018)
Betulactone B (111)	<i>Lenzites betulinus</i>	IC ₅₀ : 21.5 µg/mL	Wen et al. (2017)
Talarodride (112)	<i>Talaromyces purpurogenus</i>	76% Inhibition	Zhao et al. (2019)
Monodictyphenone (113)	<i>Penicillium albobiverticillium</i>	IC ₅₀ : 36 µM	Sumilat et al. (2017a, b)
Flavoglaucin (114)	<i>Eurotium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 13.4 µM	Sohn et al. (2013)
Prenylflavanone, (2S)-7,4'-dihydroxy-5-methoxy-8-(γ,γ-dimethylallyl)-flavanone (115)	<i>Cladosporium</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 11 µM	Rotinsulu et al. (2018)
beauvericin (116)	<i>Isaria fumosorosea</i>	IC ₅₀ : 0.59 µM	Zhang et al. (2017)
Malformin A1 (117)	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp.	IC ₅₀ : 5.2 µM	Kim et al. (2020)
Arugosin N (118)	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>		Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
1,6,10-Trihydroxy-8-methyl-2-(3-methyl-2-butenyl)dibenz[b,e]oxepin-11(6H)-one (119)	<i>Malbranchea circinate</i>	IC ₅₀ : 30.3 µM	Rangel-Grimaldo et al. (2020)
Divaric acid (120)	Fungus F10Z1082	IC ₅₀ : 1.58 µM	
2,4-dihydroxy-6-((3E,5E)-nona-3,5-dien-1-yl) benzoic acid (121)	Fungus F10Z1082	IC ₅₀ : 4.27 µM	

**Fig. 20** Structures of compounds **110–112**

cannot be underestimated. Moreover some of these fungal metabolites possess PTP1B effects with IC₅₀: < 1 µM and notably the depside analog trivaric acid (**30**) inhibited PTP1B very strongly with an IC₅₀: 173 nM. These active fungal metabolites furnish new chemical entities for developing novel candidates for the treatment of diabetes and obesity. Notably, further synthetic and biological studies on these chemical templates are necessary in order to obtain intriguing SAR information. Furthermore, the mode of actions of

**Fig. 21** Structures of compounds **113–115**

these compounds have not yet been fully investigated and future research should focus on establishing the mechanism of action of these active compounds.

It has been reported that an insufficient number of lead compounds have reached clinical trials. A benzothiophene derivative (Liu 2003) and ertiprotafib (Xue et al. 2019) have failed in the Phase II clinical trial because of their unsatisfactory side effects. Some reports showed that two more PTP1B inhibitors viz., SI-1436 (Lantz et al. 2010) and JTT-551 (Ito et al. 2014) have reached clinical trials. The major issues which are associated with PTP1B drug development is their cell permeability, bioavailability coupled with

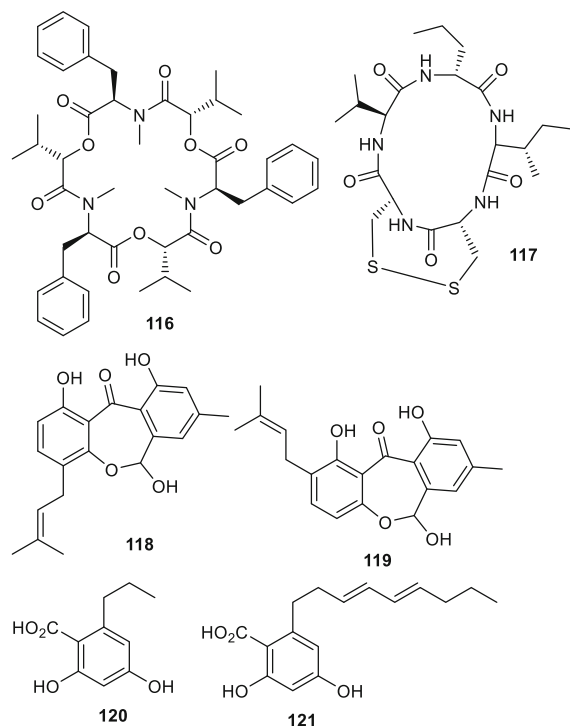


Fig. 22 Structures of compounds **116–121**

their poor selectivity. Although some of these fungal metabolites illustrated significant PTP1B effects, very few semi-synthetic secondary metabolites have been synthesized for PTP1B activity employing natural product scaffolds. Furthermore, computational studies illustrated that natural products cover larger areas of chemical space than synthetic compounds. In addition, natural products comprise higher numbers of stereogenic centers along with greater diversity in heteroatomic rings. Moreover, natural products have inspired synthetic protocols which can therefore access lead compounds with better potency, selectivity, lipophilicity and bioavailability.

Another strategy for the establishment of PTP1B inhibitors is that these can be used in combination therapy by utilizing PTP1B inhibitors for treatment regarding diabetes/obesity protocols. These combined treatment strategies could have a synergistic effect and may be more effective than either treatment alone. Literature revealed that a PTP1B inhibitor is used with anti-ErbB2 antibodies to treat breast cancer (Julien et al. 2007). In another study, Delibegovic et al. (2009) proposed that the combined treatment of PPAR γ agonist and PTP1B inhibition could be more effective

for diabetes and obesity. In view of the outstanding value of PTP1B drug targeting, only a few screening methods are available for testing for PTP1B inhibition viz., fluorescence method, colorimetric method employing p-nitrophenyl phosphate (PNPP) as substrate and scintillation proximity assay (SPA). However, those technologies could lead to false positive results in some cases which could create more difficulties in PTP1B drug discovery. Therefore, further high-throughput methods are essential in order to screen lead PTP1B inhibitors more efficiently and accurately. The information provided in this literature review may help to achieve the goal of establishing therapeutic drugs for diabetes and obesity with more efficacy.

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