Antichagasic Activities of Natural Products against *Trypanosoma cruzi*

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Trypanosoma cruzi (*T. cruzi*) is a parasitic protozoan transmitted to mammalian hosts by blood-sucking triatomine bugs. Infections by *T. cruzi*, known as Chagas' disease, pose a major public health problem in endemic countries in Central and South America. New chemotherapeutic agents are desired because of the lack of effective vaccines, undesirable side effects of anti-chagasic drugs in use such as nifurtimox and benznidazole, and the emergence of parasite resistance to these drugs. In the past two decades, novel advances and an improved understanding of the biology and biochemistry of *T. cruzi* have led to the identification of various targets for chemotherapy to treat Chagas' disease. In addition, many efforts have been undertaken to develop antichagasic agents, such as designed and synthesized compounds, natural products, and their derivatives, against a number of targets. Here, I mainly review recent studies on the antichagasic activities of natural products.

Key words ----- Trypanosoma cruzi, antichagasic activity, natural product

INTRODUCTION

Chagas' disease is a major public health problem endemic in Central and South American countries, with 18-20 million infected people, 25 % of the human population at risk of infection, ca. 200000 new cases annually, and 21000 deaths per vear.¹⁾ Its causative agent is *Trypanosoma cruzi* (T. cruzi), a parasitic protozoan transmitted to mammalian hosts by blood-sucking triatomine bugs. T. cruzi undergoes three main developmental stages during its life cycle: the replicative epimastigote form in insect vectors and the trypomastigote and amastigote forms in mammalian hosts. Nondividing and infective trypomastigotes circulate in the blood with their free flagellum before invading host cells, preferably muscle cells, where they lose their flagellum to differentiate into replicative amastigotes.²⁾ Infections by *T. cruzi* result in a lifethreatening, acute, and/or chronic disease with severe cardiac complications. This situation is worsened by the lack of effective vaccines, undesirable side effects of anti-chagasic drugs in use such as nifurtimox and benznidazole, and the emergence of parasite resistance to these drugs. Therefore, new chemotherapeutic agents are urgently needed. Advances in our understanding of the basic biochemistry of *T. cruzi* have allowed the identification of new specific pathways and novel drug targets for chemotherapy, such as sterol biosynthesis, trypanothione reductase, and cystein protease.^{1, 3–6)} This has led to some rationally designed and synthesized candidates for the treatment of Chagas' disease.⁴⁾

On the other hand, the use of natural products for the treatment of protozoal infections is well known and long documented.⁴⁾ A number of recent works reported the trypanocidal activity of a wide variety of extracts of natural medicines or its constituents.^{7,8)} In our screening work on many medicinal plants used in Asian countries, especially Vietnam and Uzbekistan for trypanocidal activity, several extracts of the plants or its constituents showed trypanocidal activity against *T. cruzi*.⁹⁾ Extensive reviews of chemotherapy against Chagas' disease have been reported.^{4,7,8)} Thus, I mainly review recent studies on the antichagasic activities of natural products.

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Fig. 1. Structures of Phenylpropanoids and Flavonoids with Trypanocidal Activity

TRYPANOCIDAL COMPOUNDS ISOLATED FROM MEDICINAL PLANTS

Phenylpropanoids

An acetone extract of rhizomes of *Alpinia* galanga (Zingiberaceae) showed strong trypanocidal activity against epimastigotes of *T. cruzi* with a minimum lethal concentration (MLC) of 1.56 µg/ml. Fractionation of the extract resulted in the isolation of seven known phenylpropanoids, 1'-acetoxychavicol acetate (1), 1'-acetoxyeugenol acetate (2), *p*-coumaryl diacetate (3), coniferyl diacetate (4), *p*-coumaryl acetate (5), 1'-hydroxychavicol acetate (6), and *p*-acetoxycinnamaldehyde (7), as shown in Fig. 1. The MLCs of these compounds against epimastigotes of *T. cruzi* were $6.7 \,\mu$ M (1), $12 \,\mu$ M (2), $27 \,\mu$ M (3), $24 \,\mu$ M (4), $8.1 \,\mu$ M (5), > 260 μ M (6), and $132 \,\mu$ M (7), respectively (Table 1).⁹

Flavonoids

An acetone extract of roots of *Sophora flave*scens (Leguminosae) exhibited trypanocidal activity against epimastigotes of *T. cruzi* with an MLC of $6.25 \,\mu g/ml.^{9)}$ Ten prenylated flavonoids, sophoraflavanone G (8), (–)-kurarinone (9), kushenol L (10),

sophoraflavone J (11), 2'-methoxykurarinone (12), 7,4'-dihydroxy-5-methoxy-8-(γ , γ -dimethylallyl)-flavanone (13), leachianone A (14), 8-prenylnaringenin (15), noranhydroicaritin (16), and alopecurone G (17) were isolated as trypanocidal compounds (Fig. 1). The MLCs of these compounds against epimastigotes of T. cruzi were 3.7 µM (8), 14 µM (9), 7.1 µM (10), 7.2 µM (11), 6.9 µM (12), 71 µM (13), 5.5 µM (14), 18 µM (15), 4.4 µM (16), and $3.6\,\mu\text{M}$ (17), respectively (Table 1).¹⁰⁾ Although some flavonoids have been reported to have trypanocidal activity.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ this was the first report of trypanocidal activity for prenylated flavonoids. Among the isolated flavanones, those with a lavandulyl group (8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 17) showed stronger activity than those with a prenyl group (13, 15), suggesting that prenyl groups may play important roles in the activity. In fact, naringenin, a flavanone with no prenyl group, showed only very weak trypanocidal activity (MLC = $370 \,\mu$ M).¹⁰⁾ Furthermore, two flavonoids were isolated from the ethyl acetate (EtOAc) extract of Dracocephalum kotschvi (Labiatae) and identified as isokaempferide (18) and apigenin (19), as shown in Fig. 1. These compounds have trypanocidal activity against epimastigotes of T. cruzi with MLCs of 30 µM and

Compound		MLC ^{a)} or IC ₅₀ (μ M)	
1'-acetoxychavicol acetate $(1)^{9}$	MLC	6.7	(epi)
1'-acetoxyeugenol acetate $(2)^{9)}$	MLC	12.0	(epi)
<i>p</i> -coumaryl diacetate $(3)^{9}$	MLC	27.0	(epi)
coniferyl diacetate (4) ⁹⁾	MLC	24.0	(epi)
<i>p</i> -coumaryl acetate $(5)^{9}$	MLC	8.1	(epi)
1'-hydroxychavicol acetate $(6)^{9)}$	MLC	> 260.0	(epi)
<i>p</i> -acetoxycinnamaldehyde (7) ⁹⁾	MLC	132.0	(epi)
sophoraflavanone G $(8)^{10}$	MLC	3.7	(epi)
$(-)$ -kurarinone $(9)^{10)}$	MLC	14.0	(epi)
kushenol L $(10)^{10}$	MLC	7.1	(epi)
sophoraflavone J $(11)^{10)}$	MLC	7.2	(epi)
$2'$ -methoxykurarinone $(12)^{10)}$	MLC	6.9	(epi)
7,4'-dihydroxy-5-methoxy-8-(γ , γ -dimethylallyl)-	MLC	71.0	(epi)
flavanone $(13)^{10)}$			
leachianone A (14) ¹⁰⁾	MLC	5.5	(epi)
8-prenylnaringenin (15) ¹⁰⁾	MLC	18.0	(epi)
noranhydroicaritin (16) ¹⁰⁾	MLC	4.4	(epi)
alopecurone G $(17)^{10}$	MLC	3.6	(epi)
isokaempferide (18) ¹¹⁾	MLC	30.0	(epi)
apigenin $(19)^{11}$	MLC	70.0	(epi)
chrysin dimethylether $(20)^{12}$	IC ₅₀	14.8 (3.9 µg/ml)	(trypo)
3'-hydroxydaidzein (21) ¹²⁾	IC ₅₀	17.4 (4.7 μg/ml)	(trypo)
Gentian violet ^{<i>b</i>, 13)}	MLC	6.3	(epi)

Table 1. Trypanocidal Activity of Phenylpropanoids and Flavonoids against Epimastigotes (epi) and Trypomastigotes (trypo) of T. cruzi

a) Minimum lethal concentration against T. cruzi. b) Positive control.

 $70 \,\mu\text{M}$, respectively (Table 1).¹¹⁾ On the other hand, Tasdemir et al. reported that several flavonoid glycosides from a Turkish plant were tested in mouse models showing moderate activity against trypomastigotes of T. cruzi, and only chrysin dimethylether (20) and 3'-hydroxydaidzein (21) had IC₅₀ values of $3.9 \,\mu\text{gml}$ (14.8 μM) and 4.7 μgml (17.4 μ M), respectively (Fig. 1, Table 1).¹²⁾

Terpenoids

Monoterpenes

Four monoterpene hydroperoxides, (-)-(2S,4S)and (-)-(2R,4S)-p-mentha-1(7),8-dien-2-hydroperoxide (23 and 24) and (-)-(1R,4S)- and (-)-(1S,4S)-pmentha-2,8-dien-1-hydroperoxide (25 and 26), were isolated from aerial parts of Chenopodium (Chenopodiaceae) along ambrosioides with monoterpene endoperoxide ascaridole (22) as trypanocidal compounds (Fig. 2). The MLCs of these compounds against epimastigotes of T. cruzi were 23 µM (22), 1.2 µM (23), 1.6 µM (24), 3.1 µM (25), and $0.8 \,\mu M$ (26), respectively (Table 2).¹⁷⁾ Meanwhile, the alcohols, corresponding to the hydroperoxides 23-26, did not show trypanocidal activity even at 400 µM, indicating that the hydroperoxy group is essential for the activity of

this type of compound. On the other hand, in the HeLa cell infection assay, 26 almost completely inhibited the infection of trypomastigotes to HeLa cells at $1 \mu g/ml$ (6.5 μM), and 24 and 25 inhibited the infection by 63% and 88% at $1\mu g/ml$ (6.0 and 6.5 µM), respectively. However, they did not inhibit the proliferation of amastigotes in infected $cells.^{17}$ Another monoterpene hydroperoxide (1R,4S)-1-hydroperoxy-p-menth-2-en-8-ol acetate (27), isolated from Laurus nobilis (L. nobilis) L. (Lauraceae), also showed trypanocidal activity against epimastigotes of T. cruzi with MLC of 1.4 µM (Fig. 2, Table 2). In a HeLa cell infection assay at $1 \mu g/ml$ (4.4 μM), 27 inhibited the infection of trypomastigotes to HeLa cells and the proliferation of amastigotes in HeLa cells by 98 % and 83 %, respectively.¹⁸⁾

Sesquiterpenes

Sesquiterpene hydroperoxides, (1S, 4R, 7R, 8aS)-1.2.4.5.6.7.8.8a-octahydro-1.4-dimethyl-7-(1-methylethenyl)-4-azulenyl hydroperoxide (28), (1S,3aS,7R,8aS)-1,2,3,5,6,7,8,8a-octahydro-1-methyl-4-methylene-7-(1-methylethenyl)-3a(1H)-azulenyl hydroperoxide (29) and [(15,7R,8aS)-1,2,3,5,6,7,8,8a-octahydro-1-methyl-7-(1-methylethenyl)-4-azulenyl]methyl

Fig. 2. Structures of Mono- and Sesquiterpenes with Trypanocidal Activity

Table 2.	Trypanocidal Activity of Mono	 and Sesquiterpenes 	against Epimast	igotes (epi) and	Trypomastigotes
	(trypo) of T. cruzi				

Compound	MLC	$C^{(a)}$ IC ₅₀ or IC ₉₀	ο (μM)
ascaridole $(22)^{17}$	MLC	23.0	(epi)
(-)-(2S,4S)-p-mentha-1(7),8-dien-2-hydroperoxide (23) ¹⁷	MLC	1.2	(epi)
(-)- $(2R,4S)$ -p-mentha-1(7),8-dien-2-hydroperoxide (24) ¹⁷⁾	MLC	1.6	(epi)
(-)- $(1R,4S)$ -p-mentha-2,8-dien-1-hydroperoxide (25) ¹⁷⁾	MLC	3.1	(epi)
(-)- $(1S,4S)$ -p-mentha-2,8-dien-1-hydroperoxide (26) ¹⁷⁾	MLC	0.8	(epi)
$(1R,4S)$ -1-hydroperoxy- <i>p</i> -menth-2-en-8-ol acetate $(27)^{18}$	MLC	1.4	(epi)
(1S,4R,7R,8aS)-1,2,4,5,6,7,8,8a-octahydro-1,4-dimethyl-7-	MLC	0.8	(epi)
$(1-methylethenyl)$ -4-azulenyl hydroperoxide $(28)^{19}$			
(1 <i>S</i> ,3a <i>S</i> ,7 <i>R</i> ,8a <i>S</i>)-1,2,3,5,6,7,8,8a-octahydro-1-methyl-4-methylene-	MLC	1.7	(epi)
7-(1-methylethenyl)-3a(1 <i>H</i>)-azulenyl hydroperoxide (29) ¹⁹⁾			
[(1 <i>S</i> ,7 <i>R</i> ,8 <i>aS</i>)-1,2,3,5,6,7,8,8 <i>a</i> -octahydro-1-methyl-7-(1-methylethenyl)-	MLC	1.7	(epi)
4-azulenyl]methyl hydroperoxide (30) ¹⁹⁾			
15-deoxygoyazensolide $(31)^{20}$	lysis	100.0	(trypo)
dehydrozaluzanin C $(32)^{21}$	IC ₉₀	10.0-200.0	(trypo)
dehydrocostuslactone (33) ¹⁸⁾	MLC	6.3	(epi)
zaluzanin D (34) ¹⁸⁾	MLC	2.5	(epi)
helenalin (36) ²²⁾	IC_{50}	0.7	(trypo)
mexicanin I $(37)^{22}$	IC_{50}	1.9	(trypo)

a) Minimum lethal concentration against T. cruzi.

hydroperoxide (**30**), were isolated as the trypanocidal constituents of *Pogostemon cablin* (Labiatae), as shown in Fig. 2. The MLCs of 28–30 against epimastigotes of *T. cruzi* were 0.84 μ M (**28**), 1.7 μ M (**29**), and 1.7 μ M (**30**) (Table 2). However, the activity levels of the corresponding alcohols of **28–30** were very weak (> 200 μ M). Thus the trypanocidal activity of the sesquiterpene hydroperoxides is ascribable to the hydroperoxy function.¹⁹ On the other hand, several sesquiterpene lactones having an α , β -unsaturated γ -lactone moiety have shown trypanocidal activity. The structures and trypanocidal activity of these compounds are exhibited in Fig. 2 and Table 2. 15-Deoxygoyazensolide (**31**) lyses trypomastigotes of *T. cruzi* at 100 μ M,²⁰⁾ dehydrozaluzanin C (**32**) showed an IC₅₀ value in the range of 10–200 μ M against 15 strains of epimastigotes of *T. cruzi*.²¹⁾ De-

Fig. 3. Structures of Diterpenes with Trypanocidal Activity

hydrocostus lactone (33) and zaluzanin D (34), isolated with 27 from L. nobilis, exhibited trypanocidal activity against epimastigotes of T. cruzi with MLCs of 6.3 and 2.5 µM. Compound 33 also inhibited the infection of HeLa cells by trypomastigotes and inhibited the proliferation of amastigotes in HeLa cells by 74 % and 75 %, respectively, at $1 \mu g/ml$ (4.3 μM), whereas **34** weakly inhibited proliferation and did not inhibit infection at 1 ug/ml $(3.4 \,\mu\text{M})$.¹⁸⁾ Brengio *et al.* reported that the trypanocidal effect of dehydrocouledine (35) was irreversible but could be blocked by the presence of reducing substances such as thiol compound.²³⁾ This suggested that the trypanocidal activity of this group of compounds depends on covalent bond formation of the α , β -unsaturated γ -lactone moiety with nucleophiles that are essential for the life of the parasite. Trypanosomes are known to be sensitive to oxidative stresses. As a defense against these stresses, they use trypanothione (1,8-bis-glutathionyl spermidine), whose counterpart in mammalian cells is glutathione. α,β -Unsaturated γ -lactones will react with -SH groups of trypanothione and of enzymes involved in the trypanothione cycle,²⁴⁾ thus inactivating the defense system and exposing the parasite to oxidative damage.¹⁸⁾ Helenalin (36) and mexicanin I (37), which also have an α,β -unsaturated γ -lactone moiety, exhibited IC₅₀ values of 0.7 and 1.9 µM, respectively, against trypomastigotes of T. cruzi.²²⁾ However, Jimenez-Ortiz et al. reported that 36 and 37 are deleterious for epimastigotes of T. cruzi and that their mechanism of action is different from that of the related lactone (35).²⁵⁾

Diterpenes

Previously, the trypanocidal activity of several types of diterpenes has been reported. Da Costa et al. reported that kaurane diterpenes, (-)-ent-kaur-16-en-19-oic acid (38), (-)-kaur-16en-19-ol (39), (-)-trachyloban-19-oic acid (40), and (-)-kauran-16- α -ol (41), were effective against trypomastigotes of T. cruzi with IC₅₀ values of 1.7, 0.7, 1.7, and 1.7 mM, respectively (Fig. 3, Table 3).^{26, 27)} Cassane diterpenes, 18-hydroxycassan-13,15-diene (**42**), 6β,18-dihydroxycassan-13,15diene (43), 6\beta-hydroxy-18-acetoxycassan-13,15diene (44), 18-acetoxy-13,15-diene-19-cassanoic acid (45), and 6β , 13β -dihydroxy-18-acetoxycassan-14(17),15-diene (46), were also reported to show trypanocidal activity against trypomastigotes and amastigotes of T. cruzi with IC₅₀ values in the range of 11.5-104 µM and 16.6-35.8 µM, respectively (Fig. 3, Table 3). $^{28)}$

Two new norditerpene aldehydes, (2E)-rel-(-)-2-[(1'R,2'R,4'aS,8'aS)-decahydro-2',5',5',8'atetramethylspiro[furan-2(3H),1'(2'H)-naphthalen]-5-ylidene]-acetaldehyde (**47**), and (2E)-rel-(-)-2-[(1'R,2'R,4'R,4'aS,8'aS)-4'-(acetyloxy)decahydro-2',5',5',8'a-tetramethylspiro[furan-2(3H),1'(2'H)naphthalen]-5-ylidene]-acetaldehyde (**48**), and five known diterpenes, vitexifolin E (**49**), vitexifolin F (**50**), vitexilactone (**51**), 6-acetoxy-9-hydroxy-13(14)-labden-16,15-olide (**52**), and previtexilactone (**53**), which were isolated from *Vitex trifolia* (Verbenaceae), exhibited trypanocidal activity with MLCs against epimastigotes of *T. cruzi* (Fig. 3). The MLCs of **47–53** against epimastigotes of *T.*

Compound		MLC ^{a} or IC ₅₀ (μ M)		
(-)- <i>ent</i> -kaur-16-en-19-oic acid (38) ^{26,27)}	MLC	1.7 mM	(epi)	
(-)-kaur-16-en-19-ol (39) ²⁶⁾	MLC	0.7 mM	(epi)	
$(-)$ -trachyloban-19-oic acid $(40)^{26}$	MLC	1.7 mM	(epi)	
(-)-kauran-16-a-ol (41) ²⁶⁾	MLC	1.7 mM	(epi)	
18-hydroxycassan-13,15-diene (42) ²⁸⁾	IC ₅₀	48.6/17.4	(trypo/ama)	
6β ,18-dihydroxycassan-13,15-diene (43) ²⁸⁾	IC_{50}	56.0/16.6	(trypo/ama)	
6β -hydroxy-18-acetoxycassan-13,15-diene (44) ²⁸⁾	IC_{50}	11.5/25.9	(trypo/ama)	
18-acetoxy-13,15-diene-19-cassanoic acid (45) ²⁸⁾	IC_{50}	104.0/ND ^{b)}	(trypo/ama)	
6β , 13 β -dihydroxy-18-acetoxycassan-14(17), 15-diene (46) ²⁸⁾	IC ₅₀	16.5/35.8	(trypo/ama)	
(2 <i>E</i>)- <i>rel</i> -(-)-2-[(1' <i>R</i> ,2' <i>R</i> ,4'a <i>S</i> ,8'a <i>S</i>)-decahydro-2',5',5',8'a-	MLC	11.0	(epi)	
tetramethylspiro[furan-2(3H),1'(2'H)-naphthalen]-5-				
ylidene]-acetaldehyde (47) ²⁹⁾				
$(2E)\-rel\-(-)\-2\-[(1'R,2'R,4'R,4'aS,8'aS)\-4'\-(acetyloxy)deca-hydro-$	MLC	36.0	(epi)	
2',5',5',8'a-tetramethylspiro[furan-2(3H),1'(2'H)-				
naphthalen]-5-ylidene]-acetaldehyde (48) ²⁹⁾				
vitexifolin E $(49)^{29)}$	MLC	34.0	(epi)	
vitexifolin F $(50)^{29)}$	MLC	34.0	(epi)	
vitexilactone (51) ²⁹	MLC	66.0	(epi)	
6-acetoxy-9-hydroxy-13(14)-labden-16,15-olide (52) ²⁹⁾	MLC	66.0	(epi)	
previtexilactone (53) ²⁹⁾	MLC	> 265.0	(epi)	
komaroviquinone (54) ¹³⁾	MLC	0.4	(epi)	
cyclocoulterone (55) ¹³⁾	MLC	20.0	(epi)	
dracocequinone A (56) ¹³⁾	MLC	12.5	(epi)	
dracocequinone B (57) ¹³⁾	MLC	25.0	(epi)	
dracocephalone A $(58)^{13}$	MLC	200.0	(epi)	
komarovinone A $(59)^{13}$	MLC	> 200.0	(epi)	
komarovispirone (60) ¹³⁾	MLC	23.0	(epi)	
5-epi-icetexane (61) ³⁰⁾	IC_{50}	6.5	(epi)	

Table 3. Trypanocidal Activity of Diterpenes against Epimastigotes (epi), Trypomastigotes (trypo), and Amastigotes (ama) of *T. cruzi*

a) Minimum lethal concentration against T. cruzi. b) Not determined.

Fig. 4. Structures of Diterpenes with Trypanocidal Activity

cruzi were 11 μ M (**47**), 36 μ M (**48**), 34 μ M (**49**), 34 μ M (**50**), 66 μ M (**51**), 66 μ M (**52**), and > 265 μ M (**53**) (Table 3).²⁹

On the other hand, two novel icetexanes, komaroviquinone (54) and cyclocoulterone (55), four new 20-norabietane diterpenes, dracocequinones A (56), B (57), dracocephalone A (58) and komarovinone A (59), and a new diterpene with a spiro-octahydroindene skelton (komarovispirone, 60) were isolated from *Dracocephalum komarovi* (Labiatae, Fig. 4).^{13, 31, 32)} The trypanocidal activities of the isolated compounds are summarized in

Fig. 5. Redox-cycling Scheme Showing the One-electron Reduction of 54 Catalyzed by TcOYE

Table 3. The MLCs of 55 (20 µM), 56 (12.5 µM), 57 (25 μ M), and 60 (23 μ M) are similar values, but higher than that of 54 $(0.4 \,\mu\text{M})$ under the same conditions. On the other hand, 59, which lacks the quinone moiety as does 58 ($200 \,\mu M$), did not show trypanocidal activity even at 200 µM. Several types of natural quinones have been reported to show trypanocidal activity, which has been ascribed in part to the production of a reactive oxygen species in the parasite.³³⁾ In fact, we found that 54 was reduced by T. cruzi old yellow enzyme (TcOYE) to its semiguinone radical, which subsequently generates superoxide anion radicals (Fig. 5). The komaroviquinone (54) reductase activity in trypanosoma lysates was completely immunoabsorbed by anti-TcOYE antibody. These results indicate that TcOYE is the main source of 54 reductase activity in T. cruzi, and this in turn implies that the trypanocidal activity of 54 is specifically due to its reduction by the parasite enzyme TcOYE.³⁴⁾ Therefore, the trypanocidal activity of 54, 56, and 57 may be due to the generation of a reactive oxygen species.

Furthermore, a novel icetexane diterpene, 5-epiicetexane (61, Fig. 4) obtained from Salvia gilliessi, was effective against epimastigotes of T. cruzi with IC₅₀ value of $6.5 \pm 0.75 \,\mu\text{M}$ (Table 3).³⁰ Thus, the trypanocidal activity of diterpenes (42-52, 55-57, 60, and 61) were in a similar range except for kaurane diterpenes (38-41). However, 54 showed more potent activity than the other diterpenes. Compound 54 at its high concentration $(3 \mu M)$ did not inhibit the intracellular growth of amastigotes within HeLa cells. However, 54 inhibited the survival of trypomastigotes more potently than that of epimastigotes with an IC₅₀ value of 9 nM and inhibited infection with trypomastigotes to HeLa cells with the same IC₅₀ value (9 nM). Furthermore, 54 showed selective toxicity between the parasite and HeLa cells, calculated to be about 2200-fold.³⁴⁾ These results clearly indicate that **54** is a good candidate for developing new antichagasic drugs.

OTHER COMPOUNDS

In our current study, fungal metabolites, isolated from Aspergillaceae, were identified as a new type of trypanocidal compounds. These compounds showed potent trypanocidal activity against amastigotes, epimastigotes, and trypomastigotes of *T. cruzi* in the μ M range (data not shown).³⁵⁾ Thus, further study is necessary to clarify the mechanisms of action of these compounds.

CONCLUSION

Despite many research efforts, currently there are no drugs in clinical trial for the treatment of Chagas' disease. However, the wide range of therapeutic targets under investigation should hasten the discovery of novel trypanocidal compounds that can be made into effective, widely available drugs. Although various natural products have been identified as trypanocidal compounds, there is little information that enables the identification of the mechanisms of action with most of these products. Further investigation is required, not only to identify trypanocidal compounds from natural medicines but also to reveal those compounds' mechanisms of action.

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