ORIGINAL ARTICLES

Department of Molecular and Medical Virology¹, Ruhr University, Bochum; Institute of Pharmaceutical Biology and Biotechnology², Heinrich-Heine University, Düsseldorf, Germany; Division of Pharmaceutical Microbiology, Department of Pharmaceutics³, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria; Vietnamese Academy of Science and Technology, Institute of Chemistry⁴, Hanoi, Vietnam

Potential anti-respiratory syncytial virus lead compounds from Aglaia species

C. O. Esimone^{1, 3}, G. Eck², T. N. Duong⁴, K. Überla¹, P. Proksch², T. Grunwald¹

Received March 20, 2008, accepted April 18, 2008

Prof. C.O. Esimone, Division of Pharmaceutical Microbiology, Department of Pharmaceutics University of Nigeria, Nsukka 410001, Enugu State, Nigeria coesimone@yahoo.com

Pharmazie 63: 768–773 (2008) doi: 10.1691/ph.2008.8563

Although the global prevalence of respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) infection, especially among infants and young children is on the increase, there are only limited therapeutic options for treatment of this disease. Therefore, the search for novel antiviral inhibitors of RSV has become more intensive. In a pilot screening of eighteen compounds from various Aglaia species for anti-RSV activity, we identified dammarenolic acid (ignT1), aglaiol (dupT1) and niloticin (cucT1) as potential anti-RSV compounds, with ignT1 being the most potent. Methylation of ignT1 results in a complete loss of anti-RSV activity. Time of addition studies reveal that both ignT1 and dupT1 target the RSV replication at a post-entry stage, although ignT1 was more potent. Dammarenolic acid (ignT1) was also more cytotoxic than aglaiol (dupT1). By carrying out parallel anti-RSV screening with aphidicolin (a highly cytotoxic diterpenoid) and ignT1, we showed that although aphidicolin was more cytotoxic than ignT1, it had virtually no anti-RSV activity. Therefore, dammarenolic acid, aglaiol and niloticin demonstrate potent anti-RSV activity that should be explored further in the current search for anti-RSV therapeutic agents.

1. Introduction

Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), which belongs to the Pneumovirus genus of the Paramyxoviridae family, is the major cause of acute virus-induced lower respiratory tract disease among infants and young children in both developing and developed countries (Chanock and Parrott 1965; Glezen et al. 1986; Kim et al. 1973; Robertson et al. 2004; Selwyn 1990). Recent studies have also identified RSV as the most common virus in the middle-ear-fluid of children suffering from acute otitis media (Heikkinen et al. 1999; Moyse et al. 2000) and as a significant aetiologic agent in the elderly (Falsey et al. 1992; Mathur et al. 1980; Treanor and Falsey 1999), immunosuppressed patients (such as bone marrow transplant patients) (Englund et al. 1988; Garcia et al. 1997; Martin et al. 1988) and even healthy adults (Dowell et al. 1996; Falsey and Walsh 2000; Murry and Dowell 1997).

Presently, only aerosolized ribavarin (Virazole) and a humanized monoclonal antibody (Synagis) have been clinically approved as treatment and prophylactic options respectively for RSV infection (Prince 2001). However, these are neither cost-effective nor simple to administer (Kneyber et al. 2000). Moreover, the clinical use of ribavarin has been associated with toxicity, which may further limit its future applicability (Lafeuillade et al. 2001; Seetharama and Narayana 2005). Therefore, the development of new anti-RSV agents is most desirable.

Recently, a number of small-molecule inhibitors of RSV infection demonstrating potent in vitro and/or in vivo properties have been described (Cianci et al. 2004, 2005 Huntley et al. 2002; Kimura et al. 2000; Sudo et al. 2001). One of the most advanced of these compounds, BMS-433771 was sequentially developed from a lead compound (SP-78) (Cianci et al. 2005) and thus aptly demonstrates the usefullness of suitable lead compounds in the search for new chemotherapeutic agents.

Since medicinal plants have consistently served as suitable lead sources for potent antiviral agents (Cowan 1999; De Clercq 2000; Jassim and Naji 2003; Vlietinck and Vanden Berghe 1991), we decided to focus on a series of compounds derived from Aglaia species in our search for agents effective against the human respiratory syncytial virus.

Aglaia represents the largest genus within the family Meliaceae and contains more than 100 species (Bohnenstengel et al. 1999; Pannell 1992). It is a woody small or medium-sized tree found mostly in Southeast Asia. Extracts or pure compounds from the various species have been shown to display diverse biological activities ranging from anti-proliferation, anti-inflammatory, fungicidal, bactericidal, anthelminthic and antiviral activity (Bohnenstengel et al. 1999; Lipipun et al. 2003; Perry 1980; Poehland

et al. 1987). Although Aglaia species are traditionally used in Southeast Asia and Indo-China for the treatment of various diseases, including ailments related to lower respiratory tract infection and inflammation (Lipipun et al. 2003; Perry 1980), antiviral screening with Aglaia species has essentially been limited to Herpes Simplex Virus types 1 and 2 (Lipipun et al. 2003; Poehland et al. 1987). Given that RSV infection has a strong bearing with inflammation of the lower respiratory tract, we decided to explore various compounds from these species for possible anti-RSV activities in vitro.

2. Investigations and results

The anti-RSV and cytotoxic activity of 18 pure compounds isolated from various species of the genus Aglaia was evaluated in HEp-2 cells. A summary of these activities, including the source from which the compounds were isolated is presented in the Table.

Amongst the 18 compounds screened, only ignT1 (dammarenolic acid), dupT1 (aglaiol) and cucT1 (niloticin) ex-

Fig. 1: Structural formulae of anti-RSV compounds isolated from Aglaia spp.

A): ignT1 (Dammarenolic acid, isolated from the bark of Aglaia ignea)

B): dupT1 (Aglaiol, isolated from the leaves of Aglaia duppereana) C): cucT1 (Niloticin, isolated from the twigs of Aglaia cucculata)

hibited selective anti-RSV activity. The structural formulae of these compounds are presented in Fig. 1. IgnT1 (isolated from the bark of Aglaia ignea) exhibited the strongest activity against RSV followed by dupT1 (isolated from the leaves of Aglaia duppereana); cucT1 (isolated from the twigs of *Aglaia cucculata*) exhibited only moderate anti-RSV activity. Interestingly, methylation of ignT1 to yield the methyldammarenolate (ignT1A) resulted in a complete loss of anti-RSV (Fig. 2, Table). Also, apart from ignT1, all other compounds isolated from the bark of A. ignea (ignT2-T5) had no anti-RSV activity. Generally, the bioactive compounds inhibited RSV infectivity in a dose-dependent manner (Figs. 2 and 3).

In order to determine the stage in the RSV infection cycle that is targeted by ignT1 or dupT1, a time of addition experiment was carried out. For this, ignT1 $(3 \mu g/ml)$ or dupT1 (20 μ g/ml) were added simultaneously (0 h) or 2 and 4 h after infection to the Hep-2 cells. Infected cells were detected by immunocytochemistry and the percentage of infected cells relative to infected, but untreated control cultures was determined. Significant inhibition of virus replication was observed even when ignT1 or dupT1 was added 4 h after infection (Fig. 4). The activity of ignT1 at all time points was significantly more potent than that of dupT1. These results suggest that ignT1 and dupT1, although to a lesser extent, interfere with a post-

Fig. 2: Inhibition of RSV infectivity by dammarenolic acid (ignT1) but not by the methyldammarenolate (ignT1A)

Various concentrations of ignT1 (A) or ignT1A (B) were preincubated with RSV (long strain) for 30 minute at 37° C before transducing Hep2 cells to achieve a MOI of 0.01. The anti-RSV activities of the compounds (A) were determined 48 h latter via an immunocytochemical technique for RSV-induced plaque detection. Toxicity of the compounds to the cell lines incubated with same $concentrations$ of the compounds (\blacksquare) was evaluated in parallel using the MTT method. The results are expressed as percentage of the activity (plaque forming units for the antiviral evaluation and cell viability for the cytotoxicity evaluation) of cells cultured in the absence of the compounds. The mean and the standard deviation of at least triplicate observations are given

^a Concentration of compound (μ g/ml) that inhibits RSV infectivity by $\frac{1}{50\%}$
^b Concentration of compound (μ g/ml) that inhibits viability of target cells (HEp2) by 50%
^c Selectivity index (SI) = TC₅₀/IC

Experiments were performed at least thrice

Experiments were performed at least thrice

Experiments were performed at least thrice

Fig. 3: Inhibition of RSV infectivity by aglaiol (dupT1) and niloticin (cucT1)

Various concentrations of dupT1 (A) or cucT1 (B) were preincubated with RSV (long strain) for 30 min at 37 °C before transducing Hep2 cells to achieve a MOI of 0.01. The anti-RSV activities of the compounds (A) were determined 48 h latter via an immunocytochemical technique for RSV-induced plaque detection. Toxicity of the compounds to the cell lines incubated with same concentrations of the compounds (\Box) was evaluated in parallel using the MTT method. The results are expressed as percentage of the activity (plaque forming units for the antiviral evaluation and cell viability for the cytotoxicity evaluation) of cells cultured in the absence of the compounds. The mean and the standard deviation of at least triplicate observations are given

Fig. 4: Kinetics of RSV inhibition by ignT1 (A) and dupT1 (B) RSV (long strain) was added simultaneously with 3μ g/ml of ignT1 or $10 \mu\text{g/ml}$ of dupT1, or added 2 and 4 h post infection to HEp2 cells. Two days after infection, virus titer (expressed as percentage of the plaque forming units of cells cultured in the absence of the compounds) was determined by a modified plaque reduction assay, employing an immunocytochemical technique (black bars). The cytotoxicity of the drugs was determined in parallel using the MTT method (gray bars). The mean and the standard deviation of triplicate observations are given

Fig. 5: Comparative analysis of the cytotoxicity and inhibition of RSV infectivity by ignT1 and aphidicolin

For the RSV inhibition studies, various concentrations of Dammarenolic acid (ignT1), DAM $($ $\blacktriangle)$ or Aphidicolin, APH $($ ^{$\blacklozenge)$} were preincubated with RSV (long strain) for 30 minute at 37 °C before transducing HEp2 cells to achieve a MOI of 0.01. The anti-RSV activities of the compounds were determined 48 h latter via an immunocytochemical technique for RSV-induced plaque detection. Toxicity of DAM, DAM TOX (\triangle) or APH, APH TOX (\heartsuit) to the cell lines was evaluated in parallel using the MTT method. The results are expressed as percentage of the activity (plaque forming units for the antiviral evaluation and cell viability for the cytotoxicity evaluation) of cells cultured in the absence of the compounds. The mean and the standard deviation of at least triplicate observations are given

entry step of RSV replication. Cell viability was unaffected by dupT1, but reduced to 50% by ignT1 at the concentrations that exhibited post-entry inhibition. Therefore, to find out whether the antiviral effect of ignT1 was cell mediated, we carried out parallel anti-RSV screening with aphidicolin (a diterpene which strongly inhibits cellular DNA polymerase and hence cell proliferation) and ignT1 (Fig. 5). Although aphidicolin inhibited cell viability slightly more than ignT1, it demonstrated no anti-RSV activity (Fig. 5). Therefore, ignT1 exhibit specific anti-RSV effect that is not cell mediated.

3. Discussion

The primary focus of the present study was to identify Aglaia-derived compounds with anti-RSV activity for possible development as therapeutic agents. Based on this preliminary screening study, the potential applicability of three Aglaia-derived compounds (dammarenolic acid, aglaiol and niloticin) as anti-RSV agents has been demonstrated. These compounds, phytochemically designated as triterpenes, are amenable to unlimited structural mordifications and thus represent potential anti-viral lead compounds. Traditionally, triterpenes have served as leads for the development of potent chemotherapeutic agents, including anti-cancer and anti-HIV agents (Aiken and Chen 2005; Curreli et al. 2005; Dargan and Subak-Sharpe 1992; Fujioka et al. 1994; Nishino et al. 1988). For instance, after the identification of the triterpenes, betulinic acid and dihydrobetulinic acid, by Lee, Fujioka and colleagues as the antiviral compounds present in the leaves of Syzigium claviflorum (Fujioka et al. 1994), several synthetic modifications, especially at the C3 and C28 positions of the betulinic acid scaffold has resulted in the generation of anti-HIV compounds with increased potency and diverse modes of action (Aiken and Chen 2005; Evers et al. 1996; Kanamoto et al. 2001). Therefore, it is possible that structural modification of these Aglaia-derived compounds could also lead to the generation of more potent anti-RSV compounds.

Time-of-addition studies revealed that both ignT1 and dupT1 inhibit RSV replication at a post-entry stage, with ignT1 being significantly more potent than dupT1. This post-entry inhibition of viral replication could suggest that the inhibitors target any of the viral replicative enzymes, possibly the RNA polymerase. This is partly consistent with the reported biological activity of triterpenoids, many of which have been shown to be broad spectrum DNA polymerase inhibitors (Mizushina et al. 2000; Sun et al. 1996). However, a specific target for the inhibitors can only be defined with much precision after thorough enzyme inhibition studies (which were not the focus of the present study).

Based on the observed cytotoxic effect of ignT1 on the target cell line, one might be tempted to conclude that the observed potent antiviral effect is cellularly mediated. However, a reference plant derived diterpenoid compound (aphidicolin), which was at the concentration used about twice as cytotoxic as ignT1 demonstrated virtually no anti-RSV activity. Although this does not completely rule out the possibility of the involvement of other cellular components (e.g. cellular RNA polymerases), the high selectivity index of ignT1 for the RSV inhibition (about 29) further points to a specific antiviral effect. Besides, ribavarin which is the only currently approved anti-RSV therapeutic agent exhibits much more toxicity resulting from its effect on cellular RNA and DNA polymerases (Lafeuillade et al. 2001; Prince 2001; Seetharama and Narayana 2005).

We also observed that methylation of ignT1 resulted in a complete loss of anti-RSV as well as cytotoxicity. This remarkable loss of activity could be related to an interaction of the polar carboxylic group of dammarenolic acid with a potential target molecule of the virus. In the case of the methylated derivative this group is chemically masked and hence the interaction is nullified. However, this hypothesis needs to be further confirmed.

Given that the present need for novel anti-RSV compounds is dire, it would be worthwhile to further explore these Aglaia-derived compounds (dammarenolic acid, aglaiol and niloticin) as lead sources from which more potent anti-RSV compounds could be developed. Most of the substances at the advanced stages of development are mainly fusion (entry) inhibitors. Therefore, ignT1 and dupT1, with post-entry inhibitory activities may represent novel plant-derived post-entry anti-RSV agents.

4. Experimental

4.1. Virus and cell

All tissue culture reagents were obtained from Invitrogen (Karlsruhe, Germany). Respiratory Syncytial Virus (RSV) long strain was obtained from Brunhilde Schweiger of Robert Koch Institut of Berlin, Germany. Monolayer cultures of HEp-2 cells were grown in D-5, consisting of Dulbecco's modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) with high glucose, 2 mM L-glutamine (Glu) and supplemented with 5% v/v heat-inactivated foetal calf serum (FCS) and a mixture of penicillin (100 U/ml) and streptomycin (100 µg/m) ml) (Pen-Strep). Stocks of the RSV long strain were propagated on 85% confluent HEp-2 monolayers in DMEM supplemented with 2% FCS, Pen-Strep, and Glu. Cells were infected at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.01 and viral titers were determined 48 h post-infection by immunostaining using RSV-antigen-specific monoclonal antibodies as previously described (Ternette et al. 2007).

4.2. Plant compounds

The compounds used in this study have been isolated from various species of the genus Aglaia (see Table). Details on the isolation and spectroscopic structure elucidation will be reported elsewhere.

4.3. Plaque reduction immunocytochemical assay

The anti-viral effect of the compounds against RSV was evaluated by a modified plaque reduction assay, employing an immunocytochemical technique for plaque detection. HEp-2 cells were plated in triplicates into 96 well plates at 6000 cells/well and incubated over-night. The compounds were first solubilized in DMSO and various concentrations were prepared in D-5 such that the final DMSO concentration did not exceed 0.5% . These various concentrations were pre-incubated with equal volumes of the virus $(200 \mu l)$ for 30 min at 37 °C. Culture medium from the cell monolayers was replaced with 100 µl of the above virus/drug mixtures in triplicates (MOI of 0.01) and incubated for 48 h at 37 °C +5% CO₂. Control wells contain virus alone at the same MOI in D-5 (containing 0.5% DMSO) but without drugs.

After the 48 h incubation, the number of plaque forming units (pfu) in drug-treated and untreated HEp-2 cells was determined by immunocytochemical staining with a monoclonal antibody to the RSV-P protein (3C4) as described previously (Ternette et al. 2007). After removal of the supernatant, cells were fixed for 10 min with 80% ethanol, allowed to dry in air before re-hydrating with PBS-T (phosphate-buffered saline: 10 mM sodium phosphate, 150 mM NaCl, 0.05% v/v Tween 20, pH 7.2) for 5 min. Thereafter, cells were incubated with 1 : 250 dilution in PBS-T of3C4 antibody for $45-60$ min at 37 °C. After washing three times with PBS-T, cells were similarly incubated with the 2° antibody (peroxidase-conjugated rabbit antimouse IgG, P0260 (Dako, Germany) diluted 1 : 400 in PBS-T. Cells were again washed three times with PBS-T followed by incubation with the red-colour staining AEC substrate (10 ml phosphate citrate pH 5.0, 200 µl AEC and 10 µl hydrogen peroxide) for 30 min at 37 °C. Supernatants were discarded and 100 ul of water was added into each well. Reddish-brown plaques showing fused cells were enumerated microscopically. Each single value of the triplicates was expressed as percent of the mean of triplicates of control cultures (infected with same MOI of virus in the absence of the drugs) and the mean and standard deviation of the percent values was calculated for each triplicate.

4.4. Cytotoxicity

The cytotoxicity of test compounds to HEp-2 cells was always evaluated in parallel with the antiviral effect using the MTT assay. HEp-2 cells were similarly seeded onto a 96-well plate at a concentration of 6000 cells/well and a volume of 200 µL per well. Same concentrations of the test compounds used for the antiviral screening described above were applied to culture wells in triplicate. D-5 containing 0.5% DMSO was used as the "no-drug" control. After incubation at 37° C under 5% CO₂ for 2 days, a solution of MTT $(3 \text{ mg/ml}, 50 \mu l \text{ per well})$ was added to each well and further incubated at 37 °C + 5% CO_2 for 1 h to allow formazan production. After this time, medium was removed and 200 μ l 0.04 N HCl + 10% SDS was used to dissolve the resulting blue formazan crystals in living cells. The optical density was determined at 550 nm using a multi-well microtiter plate reader (Tecan, Austria). Each single value of the triplicates was expressed as percent of the mean of triplicates of the "no-drug" control cultures and the mean and standard deviation of the percent values was calculated for each triplicate. The concentration of 50% cellular toxicity (TC_{50}) of the test compounds was calculated by simple regression analysis.

4.5. Time-of-addition studies

Time-of-addition experiments were carried out with two of the compounds (ignT1 and dupT1) that displayed appreciable anti-RSV activity (selectivity index > 10). HEp-2 cells plated at a density of 6000 cells/well in 96-well plates were inoculated in triplicates with virus/drug mixture to achieve an MOI of approximately 0.01 (time zero) and incubated at 37 °C + CO2. Additionally, triplicate wells were also inoculated with same MOI of virus and incubated for 2 h (time 2 h.p.i) or 4 h (time 4 h.p.i) at 37° C $+5\%$ CO₂. After the designated incubation period, wells were washed with PBS and replaced with D-5 medium containing ignT1 (3 µg/ml) or dupT1 (20 μ g/ml). Control wells were replaced with 0.5% DMSO in D-5 medium (without drugs). Plates were further incubated at 37° C + 5% $CO₂$ for 48 h before estimation of plaque titer by the immunoflourescent technique described above. Cytotoxicity of the compounds to HEp-2 cells was estimated in parallel.

Acknowledgement: The Alexander von Humboldt-Stiftung Research Award to C.O. Esimone is gratefully acknowledged.

References

- Aiken C, Chen CH (2005) Betulinic acid derivatives as HIV-1 antivirals. Trends Mol Med 11: 31–36.
- Bohnenstengel FI, Steube KG, Meyer C, Nugroho BW, Hung PD, Kiet LC, Proksch P (1999) Structure activity relationships of antiproliferative rocaglamide derivatives from Aglaia species (Meliaceae). Z Naturforsch 54: 55–60.
-
- Chanock RM, Parrott RH (1996) Acute respiratory disease in infancy and childhood: present understanding and prospects for prevention. Pediatrics 36: 21–39.
- Cianci C, Meanwell N, Krystal M (2005) Antiviral activity and molecular mechanism of an orally active respiratory syncytial virus fusion inhibitor. J Antimicrob Chemother 55: 289-292.
- Cianci C, Yu K, Combrink K, Sin N, Pearce B, Wang A, Civiello R, Voss S, Luo G, Kadow K, Genovesi EV, Venables B, Gulgeze H, Trehan A, James J, Lamb L, Medina I, Roach J, Yang Z, Zadjura L, Colonno R, Clark J, Meanwell N, Krystal M (2004) Orally active fusion inhibitor of respiratory syncytial virus. Antimicrob Ag Chemother 48: 413–422.
- Cowan MM (1999) Plant products as antimicrobial agents. Clin Microbiol Rev 12: 564–582.
- Curreli F, Friedman-Kien AE, Flore O (2005) Glycyrrhizic acid alters Kaposi sarcoma-associated herpesvirus latency, triggering p53-mediated apoptosis in transformed B lymphocytes. J Clin Invest 115: 642–652.
- Dargan DJ, Subak-Sharpe JH (1992) The antiviral activity of triterpenoid compounds. Semin Virol 3: 31–40.
- De Clercq E (2000) Current lead natural products for the chemotherapy of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection. Med Res Rev 20: 323– 349.
- Dowell SF, Anderson LJ, Gary HEJ, Erdman DD, Plouffe JF, File TMJ, Marston BJ, Breiman RF (1996) Respiratory syncytial virus is an important cause of community-acquired lower respiratory infection among hospitalized adults. J Infect Dis 174: 456–462.
- Englund JA, Sullivan CJ, Jordan MC, Dehner LP, Vercellotti GM, Balfour HH (1988) Respiratory syncytial virus infection in immunocompromised adults. Ann Intern Med 109: 203–208.
- Evers M, Poujade C, Soler F, Ribeill Y, James C, Lelievre Y, Gueguen JC, Reisdorf D, Morize I, Pauwels R, De Clercq E, Henin Y, Bousseau A, Mayaux JF, LePecq JB, Dereu N (1996) Betulinic acid derivatives: a new class of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 specific inhibitors with a new mode of action. J Med Chem 39: 1059–1068.
- Falsey AR, Treanor JJ, Betts RF, Walsh EE (1992) Viral respiratory infections in the institutionalized elderly: clinical and epidemiologic findings. J Am Geriatr Soc 40: 115–119.
- Falsey AR, Walsh EE (2000) Respiratory syncytial virus infection in adults. Clin Microbiol Rev 13: 371–384.
- Fujioka T, Kashiwada Y, Kilkuskie RE, Cosentino LM, Ballas LM, Jiang JB, Janzen WP, Chen IS, Lee KH (1994) Anti-AIDS Agents, 11. Betulinic acid and platanic acid as anti-HIV principles from Syzigium claviflorum and the anti-HIV activity of structurally related triterpenoids. J Nat Prod 57: 243–247.
- Garcia R, Raad I, Abi-Said D, Bodey G, Champlin R, Tarrand J, Hill LA, Umphrey J, Neumann J, Englund J, Whimbey E (1997) Nosocomial respiratory syncytial virus infections: prevention and control in bone marrow transplant patients. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 18: 412– 416.
- Glezen WP, Taber LH, Frank AL, Kasel JA (1986) Risk of primary infection and reinfection with respiratory syncytial virus. Am J Dis Child $140 \cdot 543 - 546$
- Heikkinen T, Thint M, Chonmaitree T (1999) Prevalence of various respiratory viruses in the middle ear during acute otitis media. New Engl J Med 340: 260–264.
- Huntley CC, Weiss WJ, Gazumyan A, Buklan A, Feld B, Hu W, Jones TR, Murphy T, Nikitenko AA, O'Hara B, Prince G, Quartuccio S, Raifeld YE, Wyde P, O'Connell JF (2002) RFI-641, a potent respiratory syncytial virus inhibitor. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 46: 841–847.
- Jassim SA, Naji MA (2003) Novel antiviral agents: a medicinal plant perspective. J Appl Microbiol 95: 412–427.
- Kanamoto T, Kashiwada Y, Kanbara K, Gotoh K, Yoshimori M, Goto T, Sano K, Nakashima H (2001) Anti-human immunodeficiency virus activity of YK-FH312 (a betulinic acid derivative), a novel compound blocking viral maturation. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 45: 1225– 1230.
- Kim HW, Arrobio JO, Brandt CD, Jeffries BC, Pyles G, Reid JL, Chanock RM, Parrot RH (1973) Epidemiology of RSV infection in Washington, D.C. Importance of virus in different respiratory tract disease syndromes and temporal distribution of infection. Am J Epidemiol 98: 216–225.
- Kimura K, Mori S, Tomita K, Ohno K, Takahashi K, Shigeta S, Terada M (2000) Antiviral activity of NMSO3 against respiratory syncytial virus infection in vitro and in vivo. Antivir Res 47: 41–51.
- Kneyber MCJ, Mou HA, Groot RD (2000) Treatment and prevention of respiratory virus infection. Eur J Pediatr 159: 339–411.
- Lafeuillade A, Hattinger G, Chadapaud S (2001) Increased mitochondrial toxicity with ribavirin in HIV/HCV coinfection. Lancet 357: 280–281.
- Lipipun V, Kurokawa M, Suttisri R, Taweechotipatr P, Pramyothin P, Hattori M, Shiraki K (2003) Efficacy of Thai medicinal plant extracts against herpes simplex virus type 1 infection in vitro and in vivo. Antivir Res $60:175-180$.
- Martin MA, Bock MJ, Pfaller MA, Wenzel RP (1988) Respiratory syncytial virus infections in adult bone marrow transplant recipients. Lancet i: 1396–1397.
- Mathur U, Bentley DW, Hall CB (1980) Concurrent respiratory syncytial virus and influenza A infections in the institutionalized elderly and chronically ill. Ann Intern Med 93: 49–52.
- Mizushina Y, Lida A, Ohta K, Sugawara F, Sakaguchi K (2000) Novel triterpenoids inhibit both DNA polymerase and DNA topoisomerase. Biochem J 350 : 757–763.
- Moyse E, Lyon M, Cordier G, Mornex JF, Collet L, Froehlich P (2000) Viral RNA in middle ear mucosa and exudates in patients with chronic otitis media with effusion. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 126: 1105–1110.
- Murry AR, Dowell SF (1997) Respiratory syncytial virus: not just for kids. Hosp Pract 15: 87–88.
- Nishino H, Nishino A, Takayasu J, Hasegawa T, Iwashima A, Hirabayashi K, Iwata S, Shibata S (1988) Inhibition of the tumor-promoting action of 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate by some oleanane-type triterpenoid compounds. Cancer Res 48: 5210–5215.
- Pannell CM (1992) A taxonomic monograph of the genus Aglaia Lour. (Meliaceae). Kew Bulletin Additional Series XVI, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew. HMSO, London, p. 1–379.
- Perry LM (1980) Medicinal plants of East and Southeast Asia. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Poehland BL, Carte BK, Francis TA, Hyland LJ, Allaudeen HS, Troupe N (1987) In vitro antiviral activity of dammar resin triterpenoids. J Nat Prod 50: 706–713.
- Prince GA (2001) An update on respiratory syncytial virus antiviral agents. Expert Opin Investig Drugs 10: 297–308.
- Robertson SE, Roca A, Alonso P, Simoes EAF, Kartasasmita CB, Olaleye DO, Odaibo GN, Collinson M, Venter M, Zhu Y, Wright P (2004) Respiratory syncytial virus infection: denominator-based studies in Indonesia, Mozambique, Nigeria and South Africa. Bull W.H.O. 82: 914–922.
- Seetharama RKS, Narayana K (2005) In vivo chromosome damaging effects of an inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase inhibitor: Ribavirin in mice. Indian J Pharmacol 37: 90-95.
- Selwyn BJ (1990) The epidemiology of acute respiratory tract infections in young children: Comparison of findings from several developing countries. Rev Infect Dis 12: S870–S888.
- Sudo K, Konno K, Watanabe W, Shigeta S, Yokota T (2001) Mechanisms of selective inhibition of respiratory syncytial virus by a benzodithiin compound (RD3–0028). Microbiol Immunol 45: 531–537.
- Sun HD, Qiu SX, Lin LZ, Wang ZY, Lin ZW, Pengsuparp T, Pezzuto JM, Fong HH, Cordell GA, Farnsworth NR (1996) Nigranoic acid, a triterpenoid from Schisandra sphaerandra that inhibits HIV-1 reverse transcriptase. J Nat Prod 59: 525–527.
- Ternette N, Tippler B, Uberla K, Grunwald T (2007) Immunogenicity and efficacy of codon optimized DNA vaccines encoding the F-protein of respiratory syncytial virus. Vaccine 25: 7271–7279.
- Treanor J, Falsey A (1999) Respiratory viral infections in the elderly. Antivir Res 44: 79–102.
- Vlietinck AJ, Vanden Berghe DA (1991) Can ethnopharmacology contribute to the development of antiviral drugs? J Ethnopharmacol 32: 141– 153.