

Prostaglandin A₂: an agent of chemical defense in the Caribbean gorgonian *Plexaura homomalla*

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ABSTRACT: The Caribbean gorgonian *Plexaura homomalla* contains levels of prostaglandin A₂ (PGA₂) which are 1 million times higher than those of most other organisms. In many sections of the Caribbean, *P. homomalla* produces 15(S)-PGA₂, which has the same configuration at carbon 15 as mammalian prostaglandins. 15(S)-PGA₂ possesses potent biological activity. In Florida and other areas, however, *P. homomalla* synthesizes large amounts of 15(R)-PGA₂, which has a different configuration at carbon 15. 15(R)-PGA₂ is inactive in several prostaglandin bioassays. The function of these compounds in the gorgonian is unknown. Both 15(R) and 15(S)-PGA₂ may serve, however, as a chemical defense against predatory fish. Laboratory studies demonstrate that oral doses of 15(R)-PGA₂ produce vomiting in killifish *Fundulus heteroclitus*. Killifish quickly learn to avoid food items containing 15(R)-PGA₂. Experiments performed underwater at Curaçao show that both 15(R) and 15(S)-PGA₂ produce vomiting in yellowhead wrasses *Halichoeres garnoti*. Wrasses also learn to avoid food which contains either 15(R) or 15(S)-PGA₂. Oral doses of prostaglandins produce nausea and vomiting in a wide range of organisms. Thus, the PGA₂ of *P. homomalla* probably can serve as an effective defense against most predatory reef fish.

INTRODUCTION

The Caribbean sea whip *Plexaura homomalla* (Coelenterata: Octocorallia: Gorgonacea) contains levels of prostaglandin A₂ (PGA₂) which are 1 million times higher than those of most other organisms. Prostaglandins – fatty-acid derivatives with highly potent, hormone-like activity – have been found in nanogram amounts in a great variety of animal tissues (Christ and van Dorp, 1972; Nomura and Ogata, 1976). In *P. homomalla*, however, PGA₂ (Fig. 1a) and its 15-acetate, methyl ester comprise 1 to 2 % of the gorgonian's wet tissue weight (Schneider et al., 1977). Levels as high as 5 to 8 % have been reported (Dominguez et al., 1980). Other Caribbean gorgonians do not contain large amounts of prostaglandins (Schneider et al., 1977). The function of these massive amounts of PGA₂ in *P. homomalla* is unknown.

Some colonial reef invertebrates may be chemically defended against predators (Vermeij, 1978; Bakus, 1981; Coll et al., 1982). Predation by fish in coral reef environments is intense (Bakus, 1981 and references therein). Gorgonians and other colonial marine organisms are common members of coral reef communities, but they are rarely eaten by fish (Randall, 1967; Bakus,

1981). Many gorgonians contain large amounts of chemical compounds which have no obvious function in the organisms which produce them (Ciereszko and Karns, 1973; Tursch et al., 1978; Fenical, 1982). Tissue extracts or purified compounds from gorgonians often

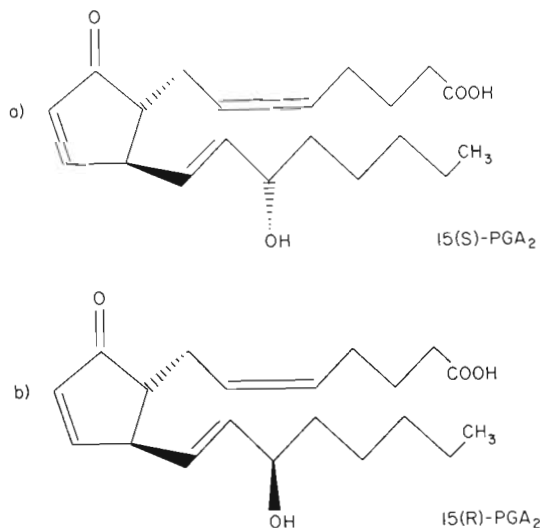


Fig. 1. (a) 15(S)-PGA₂; (b) 15(R)-PGA₂, which has a different configuration at carbon 15

can kill or stun fish when applied externally in large amounts (Tursch et al., 1978; Bakus, 1981; Coll et al., 1982). There have been very few studies, however, on the effects of orally-delivered marine secondary compounds, even though the defensive chemicals of a gorgonian or other colonial marine invertebrate would presumably be delivered orally to predators. Lucas et al. (1979) noted that oral doses of starfish saponins, which are very toxic when added to water surrounding fish (Mackie et al., 1975), had no apparent effect when eaten, although they seemed to be distasteful to fish. Green (1977) force-fed small pieces of sponges to the labrid fish *Halichoeres bivittatus* and found that some sponge species were harmless, while others quickly killed the fish. Other studies have demonstrated that some marine natural products are distasteful, but have not reported adverse physiological effects produced by ingestion of the compounds (Tursch et al., 1978; Paul et al., 1980; Ayer and Anderson, 1982).

Prostaglandins can produce nausea, diarrhea, and vomiting when given orally to mammals (Lee et al., 1973; Smith and Mason, 1974). If oral doses of PGA_2 are also toxic to fish, then this compound could deter potential predators of *Plexaura homomalla*. In Florida and several other areas of the Caribbean, however, colonies of *P. homomalla* contain large amounts of the 15(R) isomer of PGA_2 , and only traces of the more typical 15(S)- PGA_2 (Weinheimer and Spraggins, 1969; Light and Samuelsson, 1972; Schneider et al., 1977). 15(R)- PGA_2 has a different configuration at carbon 15 than 'mammalian' 15(S)- PGA_2 (Fig. 1), and is inactive in several prostaglandin bioassays. 15(S)- PGA_2 is highly active in the same assays (Nakano, 1969; Nakano and Kessinger, 1970; Spraggins, 1972). Both '15(R)' and '15(S)' variants of *P. homomalla*, however, appear to be equally immune to fish predation (Gerhart, own obs.). This implies that both PGA_2 isomers effectively reduce fish predation, or that the prostaglandins of *P. homomalla* are not important chemical defense agents.

To test the hypothesis that prostaglandin A_2 is used as a chemical defense in *Plexaura homomalla*, I performed experiments to determine the effects of orally-delivered 15(R) and 15(S)- PGA_2 on fish.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preliminary toxicology. I tested an aqueous extract of *Plexaura homomalla* tissue for toxicity, using a method employed by Bakus (1974, 1981). Colonies of *P. homomalla* were collected in the Florida Keys and kept frozen until use. A crude aqueous extract was prepared by homogenizing 5 g of frozen tissue in 20 ml of distilled water, and then centrifuging the homogenate for

15 min at $10,000 \times g$ to remove spicules and fragments of tissue. The supernatant was decanted into a beaker containing 100 ml of fresh water. A goldfish was then added to the beaker, and the time until death of the fish was recorded. As a control, other goldfish were placed in 100 ml of fresh water containing no octocoral extract. In this experiment I made no effort to distinguish which toxins in the extract were responsible for the death of the fish.

Oral doses of gorgonian lipid extract to killifish: Pellet choice experiment. I performed this experiment to determine whether a lipid extract of *Plexaura homomalla* tissue had any adverse effects when delivered orally to fish. I collected colonies of *P. homomalla* from the Florida Keys and kept the tissue frozen until its use. The frozen tissue was extracted with 95 % ethanol, the ethanol was removed *in vacuo*, and the remaining aqueous slurry extracted with ethyl acetate. The organic phase was partitioned against 1N HCl and NaCl, and then dried over Na_2SO_4 and filtered. Removal of the solvent *in vacuo* gave a dark brown, viscous oil, which contained approximately 30 % 15(R)- PGA_2 by weight. This procedure was used by Schneider et al. (1977) as a preliminary step in the purification of PGA_2 from *P. homomalla* tissue.

I dissolved enough unflavored gelatin in distilled water to give a 6 % solution, added 0.10 g of the lipid extract to 10 ml of the gel, and stirred the mixture thoroughly to disperse the extract through the gel. I also added 0.25 g of commercial flaked fish food to the mixture to make it more appealing to fish. I pipetted 50 μl aliquots of the mixture into the wells of a plastic microtiter plate, and chilled the plate to set the gelatin. The aliquots were removed from the plate and quartered just before feeding them to fish. Each quarter of an aliquot was referred to as a 'pellet'. Thin-layer chromatography, using the A-IX solvent system of Hamberg and Samuelsson (1966), demonstrated that the pellet-making process did not cause conversion of the 15(R)- PGA_2 to the 15(S) form. The levels of lipid in these pellets were approximately 5 times lower, on a percentage weight basis, than the levels found in *Plexaura homomalla* tissue. I also made control pellets which contained no gorgonian lipid extract.

I presented a series of 12 control or 12 gorgonian extract pellets to killifish *Fundulus heteroclitus* which had been acclimated to 30 ‰ artificial seawater for at least 2 wk. Ten fish were used in each treatment. To reduce potential variation between replicates, only male fish (sexed by color pattern) collected from a single location in Stony Brook Harbor, New York, were used as test organisms. Fish were fed commercial flaked fish food until their use in the experiment. At the start of each trial of the experiment, a killifish was isolated in a 1 l glass aquarium and allowed to adjust

to its new surroundings for several minutes. Each fish was trained to eat gelatin by offering it 4 control pellets. The fish was then offered a series of 12 pellets containing lipid extract of *Plexaura homomalla*, or 12 control pellets. The fish was given 1 min to accept or reject each pellet. I recorded whether the fish ate the pellet, mouthed and rejected it, or ignored it. Rejected pellets were removed as quickly as possible to reduce any diffusion of octocoral toxins into the water. After offering each fish 12 gelatin pellets, I presented it with two small pieces of white shrimp to determine whether the fish had become satiated.

Oral doses of 15(R)-PGA₂ to killifish: (a) Pellet choice experiment. In this experiment I purified PGA₂ from the gorgonian lipid extract described above. (It should be noted that *P. homomalla* stores its prostaglandins as 15-acetate, methyl diesters, which may have different activity than the free acid. The gorgonian tissue contains an esterase, however, which hydrolyzes the esters when the tissue is disturbed [Schneider et al., 1977]. For this reason, I used the free acid in these experiments.) The purification was performed by 'flash chromatography' on a silica gel column (Still et al., 1978), employing the solvent conditions outlined by Schneider et al. (1977). Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) in the A-IX solvent system (Hamberg and Samuelsson, 1965) indicated that the isolated 15(R)-PGA₂ was very pure. The purified material was identified as 15(R)-PGA₂ on the basis of its physical characteristics, its TLC behavior relative to authentic 15(S)-PGA₂, and its IR and NMR spectral properties. No 15(S)-PGA₂ could be detected in the purified 15(R)-PGA₂ by TLC.

I added 20 mg of purified 15(R)-PGA₂ (delivered in 100 μ l of ethanol) to 10 ml of 6 % gelatin (as prepared above), thus giving 0.1 mg of 15(R)-PGA₂ per 50 μ l aliquot. I fed the fish a series of 12 pellets, using the procedure described in the preceding paragraph, to determine whether 15(R)-PGA₂ affected the acceptance rate of the pellets by fish. I then repeated the experiment, using control pellets which contained ethanol but no 15(R)-PGA₂.

Oral doses of 15(R)-PGA₂ to killifish: (b) Vomiting experiment. During the pellet choice experiment, I observed vomiting in one third of the fish which had ingested octocoral compounds. To pursue this observation further, I fed killifish doses of 0.1 to 0.2 mg of 15(R)-PGA₂ in gelatin, or an equivalent amount of control gelatin. Each fish was closely watched for 25 min after it swallowed the gelatin. I noted any unusual behavior of the fish during this time.

To determine whether any adverse reactions of the fish could be caused by chemicals leaking out of the pellets and into the water, I placed 8 killifish into individual beakers, each holding 200 ml of seawater

containing 7.5 mg of 15(R)-PGA₂. This level of PGA₂ was much higher than could have possibly been reached during the vomiting experiment.

In situ feeding experiment in Curaçao. To determine whether coral reef fish react to oral doses of prostaglandins in the same way as killifish, I fed doses of 15(R) or 15(S)-PGA₂ to yellowhead wrasses *Halichoeres garnoti*. This experiment was performed underwater, using SCUBA, on a coral reef near the Caribbean Marine Biological Institute at Piscaderabaai, Curaçao. I isolated 15(S) and 15(R)-PGA₂ from colonies of *Plexaura homomalla* collected in the Cayman Islands and the Florida Keys, respectively, using the procedures described above; 10.0 mg of 15(S)-PGA₂ or 9.1 mg of 15(R)-PGA₂, delivered in 50 μ l of methyl alcohol, was applied to pieces of fish. (The fish had been cooked thoroughly to denature any enzymes which could inactivate or modify the prostaglandins.) After application, I allowed the alcohol to evaporate from the pellet. Each 'pellet' was kept sealed in plastic wrap until it was offered to a wrasse. The dose of PGA₂ ingested by each fish was equivalent to consuming 0.5 to 1.0 g (wet weight) of *P. homomalla* tissue, since PGA₂ comprises at least 1 to 2 % of the wet weight of this gorgonian (Schneider et al., 1977; Dominguez et al., 1980). Since methyl alcohol has toxic properties, I also fed wrasses 'control pellets', which were made by applying 50 μ l of methanol to cooked fish and allowing the alcohol to evaporate. I recorded whether each pellet was eaten, mouthed and rejected, or ignored by the yellowhead wrasses. If a pellet was eaten, I observed the wrasse constantly for 10 min to determine if it behaved unusually.

RESULTS

Preliminary toxicology. The aqueous homogenate of gorgonian tissue was toxic to goldfish. Fish exposed to the homogenate died in an average time of 95.9 ± 6.45 min ($n = 10$). All control fish (9 of 9) survived at least 46 h, at which time the experiment was terminated.

Oral doses of gorgonian lipid extract to killifish: Pellet choice experiment. Killifish showed a strong aversion to gelatin pellets containing gorgonian lipid extract, but readily ate control pellets which contained no octocoral compounds (Table 1a). This difference was highly significant (G test, $p < 0.005$).

The lipid extract of *Plexaura homomalla* seemed to be distasteful to fish, for the number of fish which ate the first lipid extract pellet offered to them (6 of 10) was lower than the number of fish ingesting the first control pellet (10 of 10). This difference was significant at $p < 0.025$ (G test).

The proportion of killifish eating the gorgonian lipid

Table 1. (a) Acceptance and rejection of gelatin food pellets containing a lipid extract of *Plexaura homomalla*. (b) Acceptance and rejection of gelatin food pellets containing purified 15 (R)-PGA₂. Ten killifish were used in each treatment. In both experiments, the pellets containing octocoral compounds were eaten less frequently than the control pellets (G test, $p < 0.005$)

| | Eaten | Rejected |
|---------------------------------|-------|----------|
| (a) | | |
| Gorgonian lipid extract pellets | 16 | 104 |
| Control pellets | 118 | 2 |
| (b) | | |
| 15 (R)-PGA ₂ pellets | 32 | 88 |
| Control pellets | 119 | 1 |

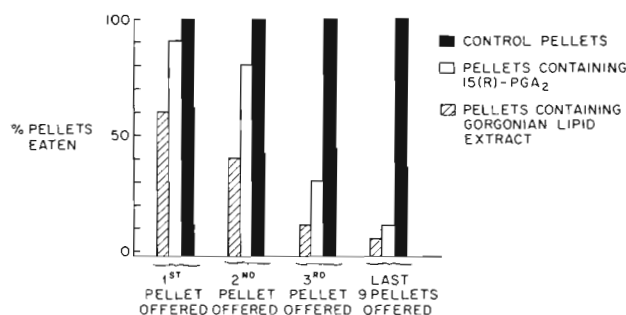


Fig. 2. Percentage of pellets eaten by fish as a function of time. Pellets were delivered in 1 min intervals

extract pellets decreased significantly as subsequent pellets were offered (G test, $0.05 > p > 0.025$; Fig. 2). This increased rate of rejection was not due to satiation of the fish, since rejection did not occur in fish presented with control pellets, and since fish which rejected gelatin pellets containing gorgonian compounds readily ate white shrimp at the end of the experiment (Table 2).

Oral doses of 15(R)-PGA₂ to killifish: (a) Pellet choice experiment. The results of these experiments were similar to those from experiments performed with gorgonian lipid extract. Killifish avoided pellets containing purified 15(R)-PGA₂ (Table 1b). The proportion of fish eating these pellets decreased significantly as subsequent pellets were offered (Fig. 2). The proportion of killifish which ate the first 15(R)-PGA₂ pellet offered to them (9 of 10), however, was not significantly different from the proportion of fish eating the first control pellet offered to them (10 of 10; G test, $p > 0.1$). Fish which rejected 15(R)-PGA₂ pellets still accepted white shrimp at the end of the experiment (Table 2).

Oral doses of 15(R)-PGA₂ to killifish: (b) Vomiting experiment. Killifish fed doses of 0.1 to 0.2 mg of 15(R)-PGA₂ behaved normally for 1 to 2 min, but then became hyperactive. Shortly thereafter, 80% (8 of 10)

Table 2. (a) Numbers of white shrimp accepted and rejected by killifish at the end of the gorgonian extract pellet choice experiments. (b) Acceptance and rejection of white shrimp at the end of the 15 (R)-PGA₂ pellet choice experiments. In both experiments, the frequencies for the treatments are not significantly different from the control frequencies (G test, $p > 0.1$)

| | # eaten | # mouthed and rejected | # ignored |
|---------------------------------|---------|------------------------|-----------|
| (a) | | | |
| Fish offered: | | | |
| Control pellets | 17 | 1 | 2 |
| Extract pellets | 16 | 0 | 4 |
| (b) | | | |
| Fish offered: | | | |
| Control pellets | 18 | 1 | 1 |
| 15 (R)-PGA ₂ pellets | 19 | 1 | 0 |

of the fish vomited a mass of gelatin fragments and stomach contents into the water. The average time to vomiting was 7.25 ± 1.47 min ($n = 8$). Fish fed an equivalent amount of control gelatin did not vomit (Table 3). In the control experiment, killifish placed in seawater containing 15(R)-PGA₂ did not vomit.

Table 3. Vomiting induced in killifish by oral doses of 15 (R)-PGA₂. Frequencies for each treatment are significantly different at $p < 0.005$ (G test)

| | Number of fish vomiting | Not vomiting |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|
| Fish fed: | | |
| 15 (R)-PGA ₂ | 8 | 2 |
| Control gelatin | 0 | 10 |

In situ feeding experiments in Curaçao. The results of these experiments paralleled the results obtained with killifish. Yellowhead wrasses which ingested 10 mg of 15(S)-PGA₂ all vomited within 10 min. Average time to vomiting was 1.52 ± 0.35 min ($n = 9$). None of the wrasses which ate control fish pellets vomited (Table 4). All wrasses which ingested 9.1 mg

Table 4. Vomiting induced in yellowhead wrasses by oral doses of 15 (R) and 15 (S)-PGA₂

| | # wrasses vomiting | # not vomiting |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|----------------|
| Fish fed: | | |
| 15 (S)-PGA ₂ (10.0 mg) | 9 | 0 |
| 15 (R)-PGA ₂ (9.1 mg) | 4 | 0 |
| Control pellets | 0 | 9 |

of 15(R)-PGA₂ (4 of 4) also vomited, with an average time to vomiting of 3.55 ± 2.66 min (Table 4). Times to vomiting for the 15(R)-PGA₂ and the 15(S)-PGA₂ treatments were not significantly different (Student's *t*-test, $0.1 > p > 0.05$).

Wrasses showed a significant aversion to food pellets treated with 15(S) or 15(R)-PGA₂ (Table 5a). This was due to fish rejecting PGA₂ pellets offered later in the trial. In all feeding trials, the wrasses ate the first 3 PGA₂-containing pellets offered to them. Subsequent PGA₂ pellets, however, were almost always avoided (Table 5b). Control pellets were always eaten by the wrasses.

Table 5. (a) Acceptance and rejection of pellets offered to yellowhead wrasses. Frequencies for both treatments are significantly different from the control frequencies (G test, $p < 0.01$). (b) Acceptance and rejection of food pellets by yellowhead wrasses. Numbers are broken down to show the percent acceptance of the first 3 pellets offered in a trial, and to show the percent acceptance of pellets offered subsequent to the first 3. In parentheses: number of pellets eaten over the total number of pellets offered

| | Eaten | Not Eaten |
|-------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| (a) | | |
| Pellets containing: | | |
| 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | 9 | 5 |
| 15 (R)-PGA ₂ | 4 | 3 |
| Control pellets | 11 | 0 |
| | % eaten, 1st 3 pellets in a trial | % eaten, subsequent pellets |
| (b) | | |
| Pellets containing: | | |
| 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | 100 % (8/8) | 16 % (1/6) |
| 15 (R)-PGA ₂ | 100 % (3/3) | 25 % (1/4) |
| Control pellets | 100 % (9/9) | 100 % (2/2) |

The numbers of 15(S)-PGA₂ fish pellets which were eaten, mouthed and rejected, or ignored, were not significantly different from the numbers for 15(R)-PGA₂ fish pellets (G test, $p > 0.5$) (Table 5a).

DISCUSSION

The results presented in this paper demonstrate that oral doses of 15(R)-PGA₂, at levels which could easily be delivered to fish feeding on *Plexaura homomalla*, induce vomiting in killifish (Family Cyprinodontidae). Oral doses of both 15(R) and 15(S)-PGA₂, again at levels which would be ingested by potential predators, cause vomiting in yellowhead wrasses (Family Labridae). Killifish and yellowhead wrasses are not closely related, nor are they found in similar habitats. Yet, both species vomit when they ingest PGA₂. Prostaglan-

Table 6. Data from a typical run of the *in situ* experiment with yellowhead wrasses

| Pellet # | Pellet type | Results |
|----------|-------------------------|--|
| 1 | 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | Eaten by a yellowhead wrasse, which vomited 4 times |
| 2 | Control | Eaten by a yellowhead wrasse. Fish showed no unusual behavior over the next 10 min |
| 3 | 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | Eaten by a yellowhead wrasse, which vomited twice |
| 4 | Control | Eaten by a yellowhead wrasse. No unusual behavior |
| 5 | 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | Eaten by a yellowhead wrasse, which vomited 3 times |
| 6 | Control | Eaten by a yellowhead wrasse. No unusual behavior |
| 7 | 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | Mouthed and rejected a total of 3 times by various yellowhead wrasses |
| 8 | 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | Mouthed and rejected by 1 yellowhead wrasse. Examined but not touched 6 times by various yellowheads |
| 9 | Control | Eaten by a yellowhead wrasse. No unusual behavior |
| 10 | 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | Ignored by several yellowheads |
| 11 | 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | Ignored |
| 12 | 15 (S)-PGA ₂ | Ignored |
| 13 | Control | Eaten by a yellowhead wrasse. No unusual behavior |

dins also induce vomiting in several distantly related species of mammals (Smith and Mason, 1974; Robert and Yankee, 1975). Thus, prostaglandins have emetic properties in a very wide range of organisms. The 15(S) and 15(R)-PGA₂ found in *P. homomalla*, therefore, can probably produce vomiting not only in killifish and yellowhead wrasses, but in fish in general.

Other 15(R) prostaglandins are inactive when given intravenously, but active when given orally (Karim, 1973). This is due to acid-catalyzed conversion of the inactive (R) form to the active (S) form in low-pH gastric environments (Robert and Yankee, 1975). Killifish, however, possess basic intestinal tracts with a pH of about 8, and lack a stomach (Babkin and Bowie, 1928). Thus, since 15(R)-PGA₂ induces vomiting in killifish, acid-catalyzed conversion does not seem to be needed for this compound to be an effective emetic when given orally to fish.

Vomiting was produced in the fish by ingested PGA₂, and not by external PGA₂ in the surrounding water. This is demonstrated by the control experiments in the killifish vomiting experiment. In the *in situ*

experiment with yellowhead wrasses, the test fish was surrounded by an essentially infinite volume of water. Any PGA_2 leached from the pellet was diluted tremendously, making it highly unlikely that traces of external PGA_2 were responsible for the vomiting.

Both killifish and yellowhead wrasses began to reject food pellets which contained PGA_2 . This rejection behavior was not due to satiation of the fish, because the fish continued to accept control pellets (see Fig. 2 and Table 6). Nor is this behavior due to unpleasant taste of the prostaglandins, for the first prostaglandin pellets offered to fish were nearly always accepted and eaten. Rather, this phenomenon seemed to be a learned aversion which developed because the fish were made ill by the PGA_2 -containing food pellets. Yellowhead wrasses started to reject PGA_2 -containing fish pellets after the third pellet offered in the trial. There were more wrasses in the study area than the 3 which ate the pellets. When a fish vomited up a pellet, however, other fish often came in and ate the vomited fragments. I did not observe vomiting in any of these fish, but I did not closely follow their behavior. Many of the fish in the area were thus exposed to PGA_2 -containing food items after the first 3 pellets were eaten and vomited. The wrasses may have distinguished the PGA_2 pellets from the control pellets on the basis of color (PGA_2 pellets had a more yellowish tint), smell/taste, or a combination of these 2 characters.

Labrid fishes occasionally nip at gorgonians, including *Plexaura homomalla* (Randall, 1967; Kinzie, 1974; Gerhart, own obs.). This behavior may represent trial feedings on the gorgonian, or mucous feeding, or feeding on the epibenthic organisms occupying the colony. The stomachs of labrids, however, rarely contain gorgonian tissue. Labrids are omnivorous fish with dentition which allows them to feed on prey with hard skeletal elements (Randall, 1967). Thus, the spicules of gorgonians would probably not provide an effective defense against predation by these fish. Therefore, the protection provided by PGA_2 against predation by labrids may have ecological significance. Furthermore, a wide range of organisms learn to avoid prey which produce nausea and vomiting (Nicolaus et al., 1983 and references therein). Since prostaglandins probably can induce vomiting in many different species of fish, the PGA_2 of *P. homomalla* may provide this gorgonian with an effective chemical defense against a wide range of carnivorous reef fish.

Prior to this study, the observation that *Plexaura homomalla* contained large amounts of an apparently inactive prostaglandin derivative was perplexing. The results of these experiments, however, show that oral doses of either 15(R)- PGA_2 or 15(S)- PGA_2 can effectively discourage fish predation. This result supports

the hypothesis that the PGA_2 derivatives of *P. homomalla* function as a chemical defense against predatory fish.

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