

Research Article

Evaluation of Antioxidant, Antimicrobial, and Cytotoxic Activities and Correlation with Phytoconstituents in Some Medicinal Plants of Nepal

Keshav Ranabhat ¹, Kamal Prasad Regmi ¹, Sarwesh Parajuli ², Ranjita Thapa ¹,
Arjun Prasad Timilsina ¹, Saurav Katuwal ¹, Shantel Fleming ³, Akkal Dev Mishra ¹,
Khaga Raj Sharma ¹ and Bishnu P. Regmi ³

¹Central Department of Chemistry, Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

²Budhanilkantha School, Kathmandu, Nepal

³Department of Chemistry, Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University, Tallahassee, FL 32307, USA

Correspondence should be addressed to Khaga Raj Sharma; khagaraj_sharma33@yahoo.com and Bishnu P. Regmi; bishnu.regmi@fam.u.edu

Received 19 August 2022; Accepted 25 October 2022; Published 18 November 2022

Academic Editor: Beatriz P. P. Oliveira

Copyright © 2022 Keshav Ranabhat et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Traditional herbal medicines have been consumed in Nepal and other parts of the eastern hemisphere since ancient times. Many of these plants reportedly have been effective against ailments as well. This study aims to analyze the phytochemical constituents from the extracts of ten such plants and evaluate their antimicrobial, cytotoxicity, and antioxidant properties. In addition, the study aims to study the correlation of cytotoxicity and antioxidant activities with the total phenolic, flavonoid, and tannin contents. The plants investigated were *Oroxylum indicum*, *Kalanchoe pinnata*, *Phragmites vallisoria*, *Ehretia acuminata*, *Cirsium wallichii*, *Ampelocissus tomentosa*, *Dichrocephala integrifolia*, *Boeninghausenia albiflora*, *Cynoglossum zeylanicum*, and *Clerodendrum serratum*. Phytochemical analyses were performed to evaluate secondary metabolites, such as glycosides, flavonoids, terpenoids, saponins, alkaloids, and fats. The total phenolic contents of the extracts ranged from 14.94 to 229.89 mg GAE/g, the total flavonoid contents varied from 66.67 to 900 mg QE/g, and the total tannin contents were 42 to 168 mg GAE/g. The results of the antioxidant studies showed that the highest antioxidant activity was exhibited by the extract of *A. tomentosa* (IC₅₀ = 7.89 µg/mL) followed by *E. acuminata* (IC₅₀ = 24.82 µg/mL) and *C. serratum* (IC₅₀ = 32.91 µg/mL). The extracts from *P. vallisoria* and *A. tomentosa* exhibited substantial antimicrobial activity. The extracts of *A. tomentosa* and *B. albiflora* showed lethality against brine shrimp with LC₅₀ values of 33.11 µg/mL.

1. Introduction

Despite modern medical advances, people in the eastern hemisphere have traditional medicines ingrained in their culture. Traditional medicines are of choice in certain societies because of their ease of access, cost-effectiveness, and in some cases, lack of awareness of modern health facilities. It is generally agreed that traditional medicines carry fewer adverse effects in such parts of the world [1, 2]. Nepal is a Himalayan nation with great biodiversity owing to its

topographical, geographical, and climatic variations in a small land area coverage [3]. More than 700 plant species in Nepal have been reported to possess therapeutic potential. These plants are found to be distributed among ethnic groups based on geography. Such communities have been using these medicinal plants to treat human maladies and some of such practices are part of Ayurveda [4]. Medicinal plants have been shown to contain antioxidant, anticancer, antibacterial, antiviral, and anti-inflammatory agents. Flavonoids and other phenolic compounds found in the leaves, fruits, barks, stems,

and roots of medicinal plants are natural phytochemicals that have led to their therapeutic applications in the treatment of many ailments [5]. Numerous degenerative diseases, including atherosclerosis, cancer, and gastric ulcers, are caused mainly by oxidative stress, which is carried on by oxygen-free radicals. Many antioxidants that actively scavenge oxygen can be found in medicinal plants [6]. Disease prevention and treatment are made possible by the phytochemicals, such as phenolics, flavonoids, anthocyanins, terpenoids, and tannins found in medicinal plants [7]. Numerous medicinal plants have been identified as valuable sources of natural antimicrobial agents as potential alternatives to traditional treatment for bacterial infections [8].

Oroxylum indicum (family Bignoniaceae) is native to the Indian subcontinent, and the major chemical constituents of this species are chrysin, baicalein, scutellarein, aloe emodin, and tetuin [9]. *Kalanchoe pinnata* (family Crassulaceae) is widely distributed in tropical and subtropical regions. It is used for the treatment of periodontal diseases, cheilitis, ear infection, and dysentery [10]. *Phragmites vallatoria* is a grass plant that belongs to the family Poaceae and is primarily used for treating wound healing, diabetes, arthritis, and rheumatism [11]. *Ehretia acuminata* (family Boraginaceae) is traditionally used to treat dysentery [12]. Likewise, *Clerodendrum serratum* (family Lamiaceae) is native to tropical Africa and Southern Asia, and this plant has been used as a traditional medicine to treat asthma, infectious disorders, and other inflammatory diseases [13]. Studies on the roots of *Ampelocissus* sp. have revealed constituents that possess inhibitory activities against cancer cells [14]. Similarly, *Cynoglossum zeylanicum* is distributed widely throughout Nepal at 900–3500 m, common in open places and on uncultivated land, and it is found to contain alkaloids such as echinatine, isoechinatine, neocorromandaline, cynaustaline, lactodine, viridinate [15, 16].

Hence, the main aim of the study was to analyze phytochemicals and the biological activities of ten medicinal plants collected from various locations in Nepal. In addition, the study is focused on correlating the composition of phytochemicals with antioxidant and cytotoxic activities using principal component analysis (PCA).

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Chemicals. Most of the chemicals and solvents were of the analytical grade. Gallic acid and 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) were purchased from Molychem and Hi-Media (India), respectively. Quercetin, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), methanol, acetone, and other solvents were purchased from Fisher Scientific (India), E. Merck, and Qualigens.

2.2. Collection and Identification of the Plants. Medicinal plants were collected from different parts of Nepal. *Oroxylum indicum* (Linn) Vent, *Kalanchoe pinnata* (Lam.) Pers and *Ehretia acuminata* were collected from Bardiya, Nepal, while *Clerodendrum serratum* (L.) Moon was collected from Banke National Park, Nepal, and *Phragmites vallatoria* (L.) Poit from Kirtipur, Kathmandu. Likewise, *Cirsium wallichii*,

Ampelocissus tomentosa, *Dichrocephala integrifolia*, *Boeninghausenia albiflora*, and *Cynoglossum zeylanicum* were collected from Parbat, Nepal. The local names, scientific names, parts of medicinal plants used, and their ethnomedicinal usage are shown in Table 1. The taxonomic identification of the collected plants was conducted by the National Herbarium, Godavari, and the Central Department of Botany, Tribhuvan University, Nepal. Figure 1 shows the chemical structure of some secondary metabolites of the plants under study obtained through the literature survey.

2.3. Preparation of Extract. The plants were properly cleaned with water, dried in the shade at room temperature avoiding direct sunshine, and then crushed. Using the Soxhlet extractor and polar solvents (ethanol and methanol), the powder of different plants was extracted, and then, the extracts were concentrated under reduced pressure in a rotatory evaporator until a solid mass was obtained. The extracted plant material was kept in a sealed vial at 4°C until further analysis. The percentage yield of different plant extracts was calculated using the following formula:

$$\% \text{ Yield} = \frac{\text{Dry weight of extract}}{\text{Dry weight of sample}} \times 100\%. \quad (1)$$

2.4. Phytochemical Screening. Phytochemical analyses of plant extracts were performed based on the procedure adopted from Sasidharan et al. [27], Pal et al. [28], and Yadav and Agrawala [29]. Mainly those tests were conducted to determine glycosides, flavonoids, alkaloids, phenolic compounds, terpenoids, steroids, carbohydrates, saponins, tannins, fixed oils, and fats in the extracts.

2.5. Determination of Total Phenolic Contents. The total phenolic contents (TPCs) in the plant extracts were determined by using the Folin-Ciocalteu colorimetric method, which is based on an oxidation-reduction reaction as described by Sengul et al. [30]. At first, 1 mL of plant extract (10 mg/mL in methanol) was added with 5 mL of 1 : 10 Folin-Ciocalteu Reagent (FCR) and 4 mL of 7% aqueous Na₂CO₃ in a 10 mL test tube. Then, the obtained blue mixture was thoroughly agitated and incubated in the dark at room temperature for 30 minutes. Following that, an untreated blank containing all reagents except gallic acid was used to measure the absorbance at 760 nm. Gallic acid was used for the standard calibration curve and TPCs were expressed in milligrams of gallic acid equivalent per Gram of dry weight of the extract (mg GAE/g).

2.6. Determination of Total Flavonoid Contents. The total flavonoid contents (TFCs) of plant extracts were determined using aluminum chloride colorimetric assay, a method developed by Hassan et al. [31]. Quercetin was used for the standard calibration curve, and TFCs were expressed in milligrams of quercetin equivalent per Gram of dry weight of the extract (mg QE/g).

TABLE 1: Description of the selected medicinal plants.

Scientific name	Local name	Family	Part used	Traditional usage	References
<i>O. indicum</i>	Tatelo	Bignoniaceae	Bark	Used to treat diarrhea, dysentery, diaphoretic, asthma, and rheumatism	[17]
<i>K. pinnata</i>	Patharchur	Crassulaceae	Leaves	Used to treat urinary bladder stones, and headaches	[18]
<i>P. vallatoria</i>	Nalkot	Poaceae	Roots	Used for antidiabetic, wound healing, and rheumatoid arthritis	[19]
<i>E. acuminata</i>	Arjun	Boraginaceae	Leaves	Used as an antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory agent, and diarrhea treatment	[20]
<i>C. serratum</i>	Vawarment	Lamiaceae	Roots	Used for the treatment of rheumatism, asthma, and other inflammatory diseases	[21]
<i>C. wallichii</i>	Thakailo	Compositae	Roots	Used for the treatment of gastric troubles	[22]
<i>A. tomentosa</i>	Purene	Vitaceae	Vines	Used externally for cuts and wounds	[23]
<i>D. integrifolia</i>	Hachhyun jhar	Asteraceae	Leaves	Used for treating sinusitis and migraine	[24]
<i>B. albiflora</i>	Uruse jhar	Rutaceae	Leaves and small twigs	Used as a pain killer and against fever	[25]
<i>C. zeylanicum</i>	Kanike kuro	Boraginaceae	Leaves	Used for treating indigestion	[26]

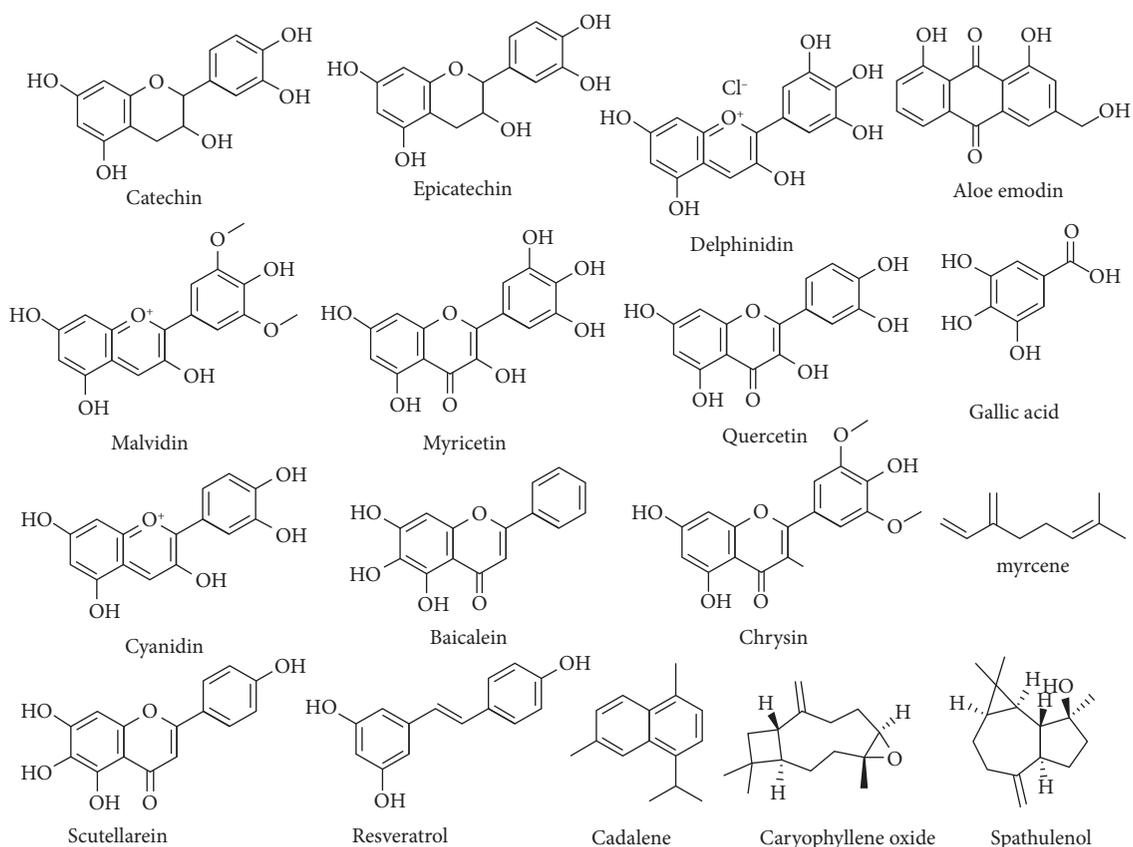


FIGURE 1: Chemical structure of some secondary metabolites present in the collected plants.

2.7. Determination of Total Tannin Contents. The total tannin contents (TTCs) were determined using the Folin and Ciocalteu methods, which are procedures developed by Tamilselvi et al. [32]. Before adding 0.5 mL of 10% FCR, 0.1 mL of the sample extract solution (10 mg/mL in methanol) was mixed with 7.5 mL of distilled water. This mixture was added with 1 mL of 35% sodium carbonate solution followed by diluting with 10 mL of distilled water. Thus,

obtained blue-colored mixture was thoroughly agitated and incubated in the dark at room temperature for 30 minutes. Following that, an untreated blank containing all reagents except gallic acid was used to detect absorbance at 725 nm. The calibration curve was created using the absorbance values at various gallic acid concentrations. The total tannin contents were calculated similarly to the total phenolic and total flavonoid contents.

2.8. Calculation of TPCs, TFCs, and TTCs. The concentration of flavonoids, phenolics, and tannins was determined by using calibration curves, which were generated by plotting the concentration of the standards on the x -axis and absorbance on the y -axis. The data were linearly fitted, and the coefficient of determination (R^2) was found to be between 0.9753 and 0.9997.

2.9. Determination of the Antioxidant Activity. The antioxidant activity of the ten plant extracts and the standard (ascorbic acid) was evaluated by following the methodology of Alabri et al. [33] and Shyur et al. [34], which is based on the ability of 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) to scavenge free radicals. Different concentrations of the plant extracts (15–500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) and control ascorbic acid (15–500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) were prepared in methanol. Then, 1 mL of 0.1 mM DPPH solution was added to 1 mL of plant extract. The tubes were briskly shaken for even mixing and incubated in the dark at room temperature for 30 minutes. Methanol was taken to collect the baseline on the spectrophotometer (UV-spectrophotometer 1800). The absorbance of the samples was measured at 517 nm. The DPPH free radical scavenging activity was calculated in terms of percentage inhibition as follows:

$$\% \text{ Inhibition} = \frac{A_o - A_s}{A_o} \times 100\%, \quad (2)$$

where, A_o is the absorbance of the control (ascorbic acid) and A_s is the absorbance of the sample.

2.10. Determination of Antimicrobial Activity. The plant extracts were tested for antimicrobial activity using the agar well diffusion method. The Gram-positive bacterial strains, including *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC25923 and *Bacillus cereus* ATCC11778, and Gram-negative bacterial strains, including *Escherichia coli* ATCC 15922 and *Salmonella typhimurium* ATCC 14028, were grown in nutrient agar media. Using a sterile cork borer (6 mm), wells were created on agar plates and correctly labeled. With the aid of a micropipette, 40 μL of the plant extract's working solution (10 mg/mL) was then added to the appropriate wells. In a different well, the solvent DMSO was also tested for its activity as a control. A 50 mg/mL neomycin solution was employed as a positive control. Plant extracts were then allowed to diffuse through the media by leaving the plates with the lid closed for 30 minutes, and the plates were incubated at 37°C. The plates were examined for the zone of inhibition (ZoI) around the wells after incubating for 18–24 hours.

2.11. Brine Shrimp Bioassay. The brine shrimp bioassay for each methanolic extract was carried out by following procedures used by Olowa and Nuñez [35]. New-born brine shrimp larvae were utilized in the brine shrimp bioassay for biological screening. A table lamp (100 watts) was used to illuminate for 48 hours while maintaining a temperature of 30°C to facilitate the hatching of brine shrimps (*Artemia salina*) using roughly 50 mg of brine shrimp eggs in a beaker.

After hatching, active nauplii that were free of eggshells were collected from the hatching chamber's brighter area and used for the toxicity test. Then, 10 mature brine shrimps were added to test tubes containing different concentrations of plant extracts as shown in Table 2, and the survivors were counted after 24 hours.

2.12. Statistical Analyses. Statistical analyses of the data were carried out using R (version 4.2.1) and R Studio (version 2022.07.1). The variables on which analyses were performed are TPC, TFC, TTC, IC_{50} (for antioxidant activity), and LC_{50} (for cytotoxicity). The correlation was investigated and principal component analysis was performed as well. To find a suitable method for correlation (e.g., Pearson, Kendall, Spearman), a test of normality was deemed necessary. Initially, the Shapiro-Wilk normality test, and for validation, the Anderson-Darling normality test were conducted on the variables TPC, TFC, TTC, IC_{50} , and LC_{50} , to check for normality, skewness, and kurtosis. If the data were found to be normally distributed Pearson product-moment correlation was evaluated, or else Kendall rank correlation was evaluated. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed to reduce the dimensionality of the dataset, by producing new uncorrelated variables and selecting the leading two that bring the most variance to the data.

3. Results

3.1. Phytochemical Screening. The highest extract yield was obtained from the leaves of *B. albiflora* (35.07%), and the lowest yield was obtained from the bark of *O. indicum* (9.23%). Table 3 shows the results of the phytochemical analysis of methanol extracts from ten different plants. Glycosides, flavonoids, phenolic compounds, terpenoids, and tannins were found in all extracts. Alkaloids were present in all extracts except in *K. pinnata*. Likewise, steroids and saponins were present in all extracts except in *C. wallichii*.

3.2. Total Phenolic Contents. The total phenolic contents were estimated by employing gallic acid as a standard in the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent assay for each plant extract. On using the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent, plant extracts generate a blue complex that can be detected at 760 nm by a visible-light spectrophotometer. Different concentrations of gallic acid, i.e., 125, 250, 500, and 1000 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ were used to generate a calibration curve. The phenolic contents of ten medicinal plants were found between 14.94 and 229.89 mg GAE/g (Table 4). The phenolic content of *A. tomentosa* was found to be maximum, i.e., 229.89 mg GAE/g.

3.3. Total Flavonoid Contents. For the determination of total flavonoid contents, quercetin was used for constructing the standard calibration curve. The absorption was taken at 510 nm with 125, 250, 500, and 1000 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ of quercetin. The total flavonoid contents of the ten plants were found between 66.67 and 900 mg QE/g (Table 4). Here, *E. acuminata* was found to contain the maximum amount of flavonoids

TABLE 2: The number of survived brine shrimp nauplii after treatment with plant extracts and their percentage mortality.

Plant extract	Concentration ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)	Total number of surviving nauplii after 24 h	% Mortality
<i>O. indicum</i>	10	26	13
	100	24	20
	1000	20	33
<i>K. pinnata</i>	10	22	27
	100	14	53
	1000	9	70
<i>P. vallatoria</i>	10	25	17
	100	18	40
	1000	11	63
<i>E. acuminata</i>	10	23	23
	100	11	63
	1000	0	100
<i>C. serratum</i>	10	22	27
	100	12	60
	1000	7	77
<i>C. wallichii</i>	10	26	13
	100	20	33
	1000	10	67
<i>A. tomentosa</i>	10	20	33
	100	11	63
	1000	0	100
<i>D. integrifolia</i>	10	25	17
	100	22	27
	1000	7	77
<i>B. albiflora</i>	10	18	40
	100	14	53
	1000	0	100
<i>C. zeylanicum</i>	10	25	17
	100	18	40
	1000	3	90

TABLE 3: Phytochemical screening of medicinal plants collected in Nepal.

Plant extracts	Class of compounds									
	Glycosides	Flavonoids	Alkaloids	Phenolic compounds	Terpenoids	Steroids	Carbo-hydrates	Saponins	Tannins	Volatile oils and fats
<i>O. indicum</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>K. pinnata</i>	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>P. vallatoria</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
<i>E. acuminata</i>	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
<i>C. serratum</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
<i>C. wallichii</i>	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-
<i>A. tomentosa</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-
<i>D. integrifolia</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-
<i>B. albiflora</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
<i>C. zeylanicum</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+

“+” = Present and “-” = Absent.

(900 mg QE/g) followed by *A. tomentosa* (833.33 mg QE/g). The flavonoid contents of the other plants were found to be moderate, except those of *O. indicum*, *C. wallichii*, and *P. vallatoria*, which were found to be low.

3.4. Total Tannin Contents. For the determination of tannins, gallic acid was used for constructing the standard curve. The absorption was taken at 725 nm. Using

the Folin-Ciocalteu method, the total tannin contents of the plant extracts were determined and expressed in terms of gallic acid equivalents. Table 4 lists the total tannin contents of the plant extracts. The methanolic extract of all plants shows high tannin content. Notably, *E. acuminata*, *C. serratum*, *A. tomentosa*, *D. integrifolia*, *B. albiflora*, and *O. indicum* contain a high quantity of tannins at 150, 140, 168, 116, 114, and 116 mg GAE/g, respectively.

TABLE 4: Total phenolic contents, total flavonoid contents, total tannin contents, and antioxidant activity (IC₅₀ values of ten plant species and ascorbic acid).

Plant extracts	Total phenolic contents (mg GAE/g)	Total flavonoid contents (mg QE/g)	Tannin contents (mg GAE/g)	IC ₅₀ values ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)
<i>O. indicum</i>	70.11	66.67	116	147.39
<i>K. pinnata</i>	62.07	366.67	96	57.16
<i>P. vallatoria</i>	68.97	66.67	80	253.53
<i>E. acuminata</i>	163.22	900	150	24.83
<i>C. serratum</i>	97.70	766.67	140	32.91
<i>C. wallichii</i>	14.94	66.67	42	313.20
<i>A. tomentosa</i>	229.89	833.33	168	7.89
<i>D. integrifolia</i>	55.17	400	116	78.29
<i>B. albiflora</i>	103.45	200	114	137.75
<i>C. zeylanicum</i>	73.56	500	90	39.90
Ascorbic acid (control)	—	—	—	15.62

3.5. *Antioxidant Activity.* The antioxidant activities of the plant extracts were determined using the DPPH assay. The IC₅₀ value of the standard ascorbic acid was found to be 15.62 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Table 4). The free radical scavenging action of methanol extracts of plants are found to be in order as *A. tomentosa* (7.89 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *E. acuminata* (24.83 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *C. serratum* (32.29 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *C. Zeylanicum* (39.90 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *K. pinnata* (57.16 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *D. integrifolia* (78.29 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *B. albiflora* (137.75 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *O. indicum* (147.39 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *P. vallatoria* (253.53 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) > *C. wallichii* (313.20 $\mu\text{g/mL}$).

3.6. *Evaluation of Antimicrobial Activity.* Table 5 shows the antimicrobial activity, in terms of zone of inhibition, of the different plant extracts. *A. tomentosa* and *P. vallatoria* showed the best antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* and *B. cereus* with ZoI of 19 mm and 18 mm, respectively. These two plants also exhibited the highest inhibition against *E. coli* and *S. typhimorium* with ZoI 20 and 18 mm, respectively. Overall, the extracts showed more activity against Gram-negative bacteria than Gram-positive bacteria. Neomycin (50 mg/mL) was used as a positive control, while DMSO was used as a negative control. The presence of alkaloids and polyphenols in medicinal plant materials is likely to be responsible for antimicrobial activity [36].

3.7. *Brine Shrimp Bioassay for Toxicity Analysis.* The results of the brine shrimp bioassay displayed that *A. tomentosa*, *B. albiflora*, *E. acuminata*, *C. serratum*, and *C. zeylanicum* were bioactive with LC₅₀ values of 33.11, 33.11, 50.12, 63.09, and 107.15 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively. Table 6 summarizes the LC₅₀ values of the different plant extracts. The extract of *O. indicum*, whose LC₅₀ was found to be 63095.73 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, is not considered cytotoxic. Table 2 shows the number of survived brine shrimp nauplii after treatment with plant extracts and the percentage mortality.

3.8. Statistical Analyses

3.8.1. *Correlation.* As shown in Tables 7 and 8, both the Shapiro-Wilk test and the Anderson-Darling test have indicated that all data except LC₅₀ is normally distributed (having a *p*-value greater than 0.05).

TABLE 5: In vitro antimicrobial activity of plant extracts against different bacterial strains.

Plant extract (100 mg/mL)	Zone of inhibition (mm) (including 6 mm well size)			
	Gram-positive bacteria		Gram-negative bacteria	
	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>S. typhimorium</i>
<i>O. indicum</i>	16	14	12	13
<i>K. pinnata</i>	11	12	14	14
<i>P. vallatoria</i>	19	18	18	18
<i>E. acuminata</i>	13	12	16	16
<i>C. serratum</i>	16	15	17	17
<i>C. wallichii</i>	6	6	6	6
<i>A. tomentosa</i>	19	18	20	20
<i>D. integrifolia</i>	15	12	18	16
<i>B. albiflora</i>	16	12	16	14
<i>C. zeylanicum</i>	14	13	11	11
Neomycin (50 mg/mL)	32	27	30	32
DMSO	6	6	6	6

TABLE 6: LC₅₀ values of different plant extracts.

Plant extract	LC ₅₀ ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)
<i>O. indicum</i>	63095.73
<i>K. pinnata</i>	199.50
<i>P. vallatoria</i>	251.18
<i>E. acuminata</i>	50.12
<i>C. serratum</i>	63.09
<i>C. wallichii</i>	524.81
<i>A. tomentosa</i>	33.11
<i>D. integrifolia</i>	213.80
<i>B. albiflora</i>	33.11
<i>C. zeylanicum</i>	107.15

Such a phenomenon as seen in the case of LC₅₀ is common for cytotoxic assay data. Kendall rank correlation coefficient was evaluated for the data pairs due to the non-normality of LC₅₀ (Table 9).

The Kendall correlation rank coefficient has shown that a great number of pairs exhibit significant correlations. Only the correlations between LC₅₀ and TTC, and LC₅₀ and IC₅₀ are nonsignificant. Among significant correlations, LC₅₀ and

TABLE 7: Shapiro-Wilk test for normality.

	TPC	TFC	TTC	IC ₅₀	LC ₅₀
W	0.87039	0.88447	0.97758	0.85526	0.37185
p-value	0.101	0.1468	0.9509	0.06707	1.181e-07

TABLE 8: Anderson-Darling test for normality.

	TPC	TFC	TTC	IC ₅₀	LC ₅₀
A	0.65508	0.43735	0.18386	0.63846	3.1582
p-value	0.06074	0.2336	0.8803	0.06737	1.162e-08

TABLE 9: Kendall rank correlation coefficient.

	TPC	TFC	TTC	IC ₅₀	LC ₅₀
TPC		0.51 *	0.58 *	-0.60 *	-0.67 **
TFC	0.51 *		0.58 *	-0.83 **	-0.63 *
TTC	0.58 *	0.58 *		-0.58 *	-0.48 ^{ns}
IC ₅₀	-0.60 *	-0.83 **	-0.58 *		0.63 ^{ns}
LC ₅₀	-0.67 **	-0.63 *	-0.48 ^{ns}	0.63 ^{ns}	

^{ns}Nonsignificant; *significant within $\alpha=0.05$; ** significant within $\alpha=0.01$.

TPC, and IC₅₀ and TFC are highly statistically significant (i.e., within 99% C.I.).

3.8.2. Principal Component Analysis. The scree plot of the principal component analysis (Figure 2) shows that only two components have an eigenvalue greater or equal to 1. Therefore, for further analysis only principal components (PCs) 1 and 2 were considered as they account for the majority of variance in data as depicted.

Figure 3 shows that all the variables except IC₅₀ and LC50 are positively correlated to PC1. Additionally, only IC₅₀ and TFC are positively correlated to PC2.

Tables 10 and 11 provide the data of the principal component analysis.

4. Discussion

For the development of new drugs, plants constitute a significant source of potential drug molecules. The free radical scavenging molecules, including phenolic acids, flavonoids, tannins, and other substances that are present in many plants have been extensively studied [37]. The antioxidant properties of medicinal plants are primarily due to phenolic and flavonoid compounds [7]. They are present in both edible and nonedible plants and are responsible for anticancer, antibacterial, antiviral, anti-inflammatory, and antioxidant activities [38]. Flavonoids are secondary metabolites of plants and are known to have beneficial effects on human health, and more than 4000 flavonoids have been identified [39]. Studies have shown that tannins possess anticarcinogenic, antimutagenic, and antimicrobial properties [40]. They are also a unique group of plant phenolic compounds with anti-ischemic and endothelium-dependent vasorelaxant properties [41]. So, this study was focused on the investigation of

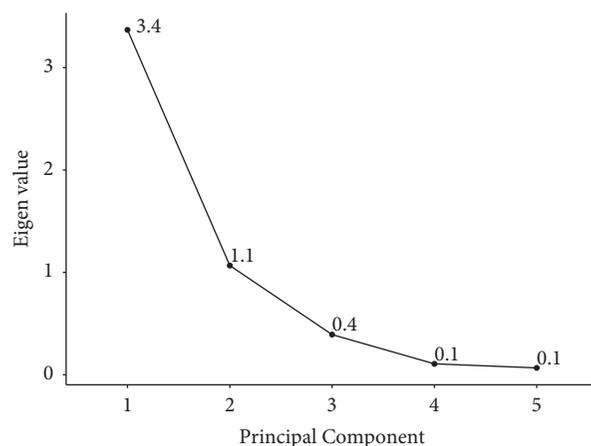


FIGURE 2: Scree plot of principal component analysis.

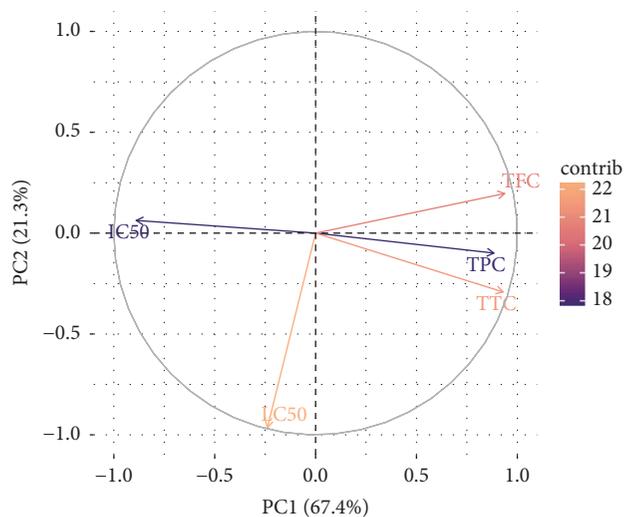


FIGURE 3: Principal component plot.

TABLE 10: Principal components.

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5
Standard deviation	1.835	1.033	0.626	0.326	0.258
Eigenvalue	3.369	1.067	0.392	0.106	0.066
Percentage of variance	67.37	21.34	7.84	2.12	1.33

TABLE 11: Factor loading data of variables with PC1 and PC2.

	PC1	PC2
TPC	0.482	-0.096
TFC	0.511	0.190
TTC	0.506	-0.282
IC ₅₀	-0.484	0.061
LC ₅₀	-0.130	-0.933

phytochemicals and biological activities of a number of Nepalese medicinal plants, namely, *O. indicum*, *K. pinnata*, *P. vallatoria*, *E. acuminata*, *C. serratum*, *C. wallichii*, *A. tomentosa*, *D. integrifolia*, *B. albiflora*, and *C. zeylanicum*. Phytochemical analysis showed positive for alkaloids, tannins, terpenoids, saponins, volatile oils, and

fats, and these phytochemicals have potential antioxidant activity. The methanol extract of plants showed strong antioxidant activity with IC_{50} values of 7.89, 24.83 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 32.29 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 39.90, and 57.18 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ for *A. tomentosa*, *E. acuminata*, *C. serratum*, *C. zeylanicum*, and *K. pinnata*, respectively.

A previous study on *O. indicum* showed TPC of $118.84 \pm 0.62 \mu\text{g GAE/mg}$ and TFC of $81.42 \pm 0.62 \mu\text{g QE/mg}$, and antioxidant activity was reported as $9.42 \pm 0.04 \mu\text{g/mL}$ from methanol extract [42]. In our study, the TPC, TFC, and TTC for *O. indicum* were found to be 70.11 mg GAE/g, 66.67 mg QE/g, and 116 mg GAE/g, respectively, and antioxidant activity was found to be 147.39 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. The flavonoids, namely, baicalin, baicalein, and chrysin were isolated from *O. indicum* [43]. As reported in previous studies, *K. pinnata* showed TPC of $5.538 \pm 0.005 \text{ mg GAE/g}$, TFC of $0.242 \pm 0.001 \text{ mg QE/g}$, and TTC of $0.019 \pm 0.001 \text{ mg TAE/g}$ from ethanol extract, and antioxidant activity was reported as 37.28 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ from bark-stem extracts [44]. In our study, *E. acuminata* ($IC_{50} = 24.83 \mu\text{g/mL}$) and *C. serratum* ($IC_{50} = 32.29 \mu\text{g/mL}$) showed strong radical scavenging activity. The antioxidant activity of the methanolic extract of *C. serratum* in previous studies was reported as 0.125–1.0 mg/mL [45]. As reported, the methanolic extract of *B. albiflora* exhibited antioxidant activity with an IC_{50} value of 243.8 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and the ethanolic extract of this plant showed a TPC of 110.9 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and TFC of 42.8 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ [46]. While, in our study, *B. albiflora* showed a TPC of 103.45 mg GAE/g, TFC of 200 mg QE/g, and IC_{50} value of 78.29 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. Similarly, as reported methanolic extract of leaves of *C. wallichii* exhibited a TPC of $22.59 \pm 0.90 \text{ mg GAE/g}$ and TFC of $716.58 \pm 0.06 \text{ mg QE/g}$ [47]. In our study, *C. wallichii* showed the TPC and TFC of 14.94 mg GAE/g and 66.67 mg QE/g, respectively. The variations in the amounts of polyphenols, flavonoids, and tannins can be attributed to the fact that the content of phenolic compounds is impacted by various factors, including the geographical and climatic circumstances of the location where the sample are gathered, the extraction technique, solubility, and the kind of solvent used [48]. The presence of polyphenols, which are among the most active antioxidant components of plants and effective donors of hydrogen to the DPPH radical, was found to be related linearly with antioxidant activity. The majority of this activity is therefore attributable to the presence of polyphenols [49]. The plant extracts were biologically screened by using the brine shrimp bioassay. The ability to kill laboratory-cultivated brine shrimps is used in a brine shrimp lethality test to investigate the toxicity of medicinal plants [50, 51]. The method determines the LC_{50} values for different extracts [52], and the lower the LC_{50} value, the greater the toxicity. A previous study of cytotoxicity on *O. indicum* showed that LC_{50} value of 251.2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ [53], while *K. pinnata* exhibited an LC_{50} value of $51.88 \pm 0.52 \mu\text{g/mL}$ [54]. In our study, leaves of *E. acuminata* ($LC_{50} = 50.12 \mu\text{g/mL}$) and roots of *C. serratum* ($LC_{50} = 63.09 \mu\text{g/mL}$) were found to be highly active against brine shrimps among all selected plant extracts. *A. tomentosa* and *P. valleria* demonstrated the best antimicrobial activity against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria as determined by measuring the inhibitory zone surrounding

the agar well filled with a plant extract. The presence of numerous active components in the plants may be the cause of their antimicrobial activity. To isolate and characterize the bioactive components and create new antimicrobial drugs, more research in this area is required.

Despite the normal distribution exhibited by all variables apart from LC_{50} , Kendall's rank correlation was calculated instead of Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient. Kendall's correlation was thought to be a better fit because the variables lack a strict quantitative relationship. The use of Pearson's correlation can be found in the literature; however, it is not appropriate as a rank-based approach, which is a better model.

Based on correlations, a key takeaway is the highly significant negative correlation between LC_{50} and TPC, which demonstrates greater levels of lethality with the increase in TPC. Also, the highly significant negative correlation between IC_{50} and TFC demonstrates high TFC and decreases IC_{50} value. Hence, indicating the increased drug potency when TFC is increased. Furthermore, the significant negative correlation of TTC with IC_{50} and nonsignificant correlation with LC_{50} provides us the explanation that an increased level of TTC has an increase in drug potency due to a decrease in IC_{50} along with a lack of significant relationship with lethality.

Principal component analysis was conducted to break down this dataset for the reduction in dimensionality. Through the principal component analysis, five principal components were identified, but only two, which have an eigenvalue greater than 1, were chosen for further study as they contribute the most to the dataset [55]. These two principal components were responsible for 88.71% of the variance of data. Based on the factor loading score of the principal component analysis, it can be inferred that PC1 is primarily a measure of TFC and TTC, as these variables have a positive factor loading greater than 0.5. It is seen that a decrease in LC_{50} and IC_{50} shows an increase in PC1, this however is not statistically significant due to the factor loading score of less than 0.5. In the case of PC2, it appears that it is a measure of lethality, due to its strong negative correlation with LC_{50} .

5. Conclusions

Medicinal plants are abundant sources of diverse biologically active secondary metabolites, which provide ample opportunities for new drug leads. This study was focused on the evaluation of phytochemicals and biological activities of ten medical plants collected from different locations in Nepal. The study showed the great therapeutic potential of *A. tomentosa*, *E. acuminata*, *C. serratum*, and *K. pinnata* as antioxidant and antibacterial activities with high contents of tannins, phenolics, and flavonoids. Hence, extensive research can be carried out in these plants focusing on the bioassay-guided isolation of the active phytoconstituents followed by their *in vivo* studies to validate their traditional uses as well as to authenticate their candidacy in the future drug discovery process.

Abbreviations

DMSO:	Dimethyl sulfoxide
DPPH:	2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl-hydrate
FCR:	Folin-ciocalteu reagent
GAE/g:	Gallic acid equivalent per gram
IC ₅₀ :	Half-maximum inhibitory concentration
LC ₅₀ :	Lethal concentration 50%
TFC:	Total flavonoid content
TPC:	Total phenolic content
TTC:	Total tannin content
QE/g:	Quercetin equivalent per gram
ZOI:	Zone of inhibition.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Authors' Contributions

Keshav Ranabhat and Kamal Prasad Regmi performed research; Sarwesh Parajuli performed statistical analysis; Ranjita Thapa, Arjun Prasad Timilsina, and Sarwesh Parajuli wrote the manuscript; Shantel Fleming, Bishnu P Regmi, Akkal Dev Mishra, and Saurav Katuwal edited the manuscript; Bishnu P Regmi and Khaga Raj Sharma supervised the project. Keshav Ranabhat and Kamal Prasad Regmi contributed equally.

References

- [1] A. Altemimi, N. Lakhssassi, A. Baharlouei, D. G. Watson, and D. A. Lightfoot, "Phytochemicals: extraction, isolation, and identification of bioactive compounds from plant extracts," *Plants*, vol. 6, no. 4, p. 42, 2017.
- [2] R Roy Choudhury, *Traditional Medicine in Asia*, World Health Organization, Regional Office for South-East Asia, New Delhi, India, 2002.
- [3] "Plants of Nepal," 2012, <https://cffn.ca/about-nepal/plants-of-nepal/>.
- [4] D. Kalauni and A. Joshi, "Status of medicinal and aromatic plant (MAPs) and socio-economic influence in Nepalese livelihood-a review research," *Acta Scientifica Agriculture*, vol. 2, pp. 123–130, 2018.
- [5] B. Mwatope, D. Tembo, I. Chikowe, E. Kampira, and C. Nyirenda, "Total phenolic contents and antioxidant activity of *Senna singueana*, *Melia azedarach*, *Moringa oleifera* and *Lannea discolor* herbal plants," *Scientific African*, vol. 9, Article ID e00481, 2020.
- [6] R. Al-Tohamy, S. S. Ali, K. Saad-Allah et al., "Phytochemical analysis and assessment of antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of some medicinal plant species from Egyptian flora," *Journal of Applied Biomedicine*, vol. 16, no. 4, pp. 289–300, 2018.
- [7] N. Tlili, W. Elfalleh, H. Hannachi et al., "Screening of natural antioxidants from selected medicinal plants," *International Journal of Food Properties*, vol. 16, no. 5, pp. 1117–1126, 2013.
- [8] M. Iwu, A. Duncan, and C. Okunji, "New antimicrobials of plant origin," *Perspectives on New Crops and New Uses*, ASHS Press, Alexandria, VA, USA, 1999.
- [9] A. Chaudhary, V. Singh, and V. Singh, "A review on the taxonomy, ethnobotany, chemistry and pharmacology of *Oroxylum indicum* vent," *Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, vol. 73, no. 5, pp. 483–490, 2011.
- [10] R. Milad, S. El-Ahmady, and A. N. Singab, "*Genus Kalanchoe* (Crassulaceae): a review of its ethnomedicinal, botanical, chemical and pharmacological properties," *European Journal of Medicinal Plants*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 86–104, 2014.
- [11] Vamsikrishna, D. R. Mopuri, B. Venkata Raman, and B. Meriga, "Anti diabetic efficacy of ethanolic extract of phragmites vallatoria on stz-induced diabetic rats," *International Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences*, vol. 4, pp. 118–120, 2011.
- [12] S. Choudhury, P. Sharma, M. D. Choudhury, and G. D. Sharma, "Ethnomedicinal plants used by Chorei tribes of Southern Assam, North Eastern India," *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Disease*, vol. 2, pp. S141–S147, 2012.
- [13] J. J. Patel, S. R. Acharya, and N. S. Acharya, "Clerodendrum serratum (L.) Moon.—a review on traditional uses, phytochemistry and pharmacological activities," *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 154, no. 2, pp. 268–285, 2014.
- [14] G. R. Pettit, V. J. R. V. Mukku, G. Cragg et al., "Antineoplastic agents. 558. *Ampelocissus* sp. cancer cell growth inhibitory constituents," *Journal of Natural Products*, vol. 71, no. 1, pp. 130–133, 2008.
- [15] A. El-Shazly and M. Wink, "Diversity of pyrrolizidine alkaloids in the boraginaceae structures, distribution, and biological properties," *Diversity*, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 188–282, 2014.
- [16] I. E. Jordon-Thaden and S. M. Louda, "Chemistry of cirsium and carduus: a role in ecological risk assessment for biological control of weeds?" *Biochemical Systematics and Ecology*, vol. 31, no. 12, pp. 1353–1396, 2003.
- [17] D. C. Deka, V. Kumar, C. Prasad et al., "Oroxylum indicum—a medicinal plant of North East India: an overview of its nutritional, remedial, and prophylactic properties," *Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science*, vol. 9, 2013.
- [18] D. Q. M. Aejazuddin, A. Tatiya, M. Khurshid, and S. Nazim, "The miracle plant (*Kalanchoe pinnata*): a phytochemical and pharmacological review," *International Journal of Research in Ayurveda and Pharmacy*, vol. 2, 2011.
- [19] G. R. M. Chelladurai and C. Chinnachamy, "Alpha amylase and alpha glucosidase inhibitory effects of aqueous stem extract of *Salacia oblonga* and its GC-MS analysis," *Brazilian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, vol. 54, no. 1, 2018.
- [20] A. Shukla, A. Kaur, and R. K. Shukla, "Evaluation of different biological activities of leaves of *Ehretia accuminata* R. Br.," *Indian Drugs*, vol. 58, no. 4, pp. 42–49, 2021.
- [21] M. Hasan, P. Gatto, and P. Jha, "Traditional uses of wild medicinal plants and their management practices in Nepal—a study in Makawanpur district," *International Journal of Medicinal and Aromatic Plants*, vol. 3, pp. 102–112, 2013.
- [22] S. K. Uniyal, K. Singh, P. Jamwal, and B. Lal, "Traditional use of medicinal plants among the tribal communities of Chhota Bhangal, Western Himalaya," *Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine*, vol. 2, no. 1, p. 14, 2006.
- [23] N. P. Manandhar, "An inventory of some herbal drugs of Myagdi district, Nepal," *Economic Botany*, vol. 49, no. 4, pp. 371–379, 1995.
- [24] N. P. Manandhar, "Medico botany of Gorkha district, Nepal—an elucidation of medicinal plants," *International Journal of Crude Drug Research*, vol. 28, no. 1, pp. 17–25, 1990.

- [25] R. Sharma, D. S. Negi, W. K. P. Shiu, and S. Gibbons, "Characterization of an insecticidal coumarin from *Boenninghausenia albiflora*," *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 20, no. 7, pp. 607–609, 2006.
- [26] N. P. Manandhar, "A survey of medicinal plants of Jajarkot district, Nepal," *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 48, no. 1, pp. 1–6, 1995.
- [27] S. Sasidharan, Y. Chen, D. Saravanan, K. M. Sundram, and L. Yoga Latha, "Extraction, isolation and characterization of bioactive compounds from plants' extracts," *African Journal of Traditional, Complementary and Alternative Medicines*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 1–10, 2011.
- [28] T. Pal, T. Kumar, and T. Chatterjee, "Quantification of total flavonoid content and antioxidant activity in comparison to a reference flavonoid as in vitro quality evaluation parameter for assessing bioactivity of biomarkers in herbal extracts or formulations," *JPR:BioMedRx: An International Journal ISSN*, no. 11, pp. 757–766, 2013.
- [29] R. Yadav and M. Agarwala, "Phytochemical analysis of some medicinal plants," *Journal of Phytology*, vol. 3, 2011.
- [30] M. Sengul, H. Yildiz, N. Gungor, B. Cetin, Z. Eser, and S. Ercisli, "Total phenolic content, antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of some medicinal plants," *Pakistan Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, vol. 22, no. 1, pp. 102–106, 2009.
- [31] S. Hassan, A. A. B. Aqil, and M. Attimarad, "Determination of crude saponin and total flavonoids content in guar meal," 2013, <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Determination-of-crude-saponin-and-total-flavonoids-Hassan-Aqil/9df5b37d544e612477a12e15e5c6ebcbf6945dc>.
- [32] N. Tamilselvi, P. Krishnamoorthy, R. Dhamocharan, P. Arumugam, and E. Sagadevan, "Analysis of total phenols, total tannins and screening of phytocomponents in *Indigofera aspalathoides* (Shivanar vembu) vahl EX DC," 2012, <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Analysis-of-total-phenols-%2C-total-tannins-and-of-in-Tamilselvi-Krishnamoorthy/27241745fb28340912d7a077e366319e65eb4f41>.
- [33] T. H. A. Alabri, A. H. S. Al Musalami, M. A. Hossain, A. M. Weli, Q. Al-Riyami, and Q. Al-Riyami, "Comparative study of phytochemical screening, antioxidant and antimicrobial capacities of fresh and dry leaves crude plant extracts of *Datura metel* L." *Journal of King Saud University Science*, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 237–243, 2014.
- [34] L. Shyur, J. Tsung, J.-H. Chen, C. Chiu, and C. Lo, "Antioxidant properties of extracts from medicinal plants popularly used in Taiwan," 2005, <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Antioxidant-Properties-of-Extracts-from-Medicinal-Shyur-Tsung/a8fb1762981687557364e7d0f2053a8cc1aca31e>.
- [35] L. F. Olowa and O. M. Nuñez, "Brine shrimp lethality assay of the ethanolic extracts of three selected species of medicinal plants from Iligan City, Philippines," *International Research Journal of Biological Sciences*, vol. 2, p. 4, 2013.
- [36] L. Othman, A. Sleiman, and R. M. Abdel-Massih, "Antimicrobial activity of polyphenols and alkaloids in middle eastern plants," *Frontiers in Microbiology*, vol. 10, p. 911, 2019.
- [37] M. Michalak, "Plant-derived antioxidants: significance in skin health and the ageing process," *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, vol. 23, no. 2, p. 585, 2022.
- [38] H. Tapiero, K. D. Tew, G. Nguyen Ba, and G. Mathé, "Polyphenols: do they play a role in the prevention of human pathologies?" *Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy*, vol. 56, no. 4, pp. 200–207, 2002.
- [39] A. Sharma, P. Sharma, H. Singh Tuli, and A. K. Sharma, "Phytochemical and pharmacological properties of flavonols," in *ELS*, pp. 1–12, John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY, USA, 2018.
- [40] V. N. Hong, C. Rivière, Q. T. Hong et al., "Identification by LC-ESI-MS of flavonoids responsible for the antioxidant properties of *Mallotus* species from Vietnam," *Natural Product Communications*, vol. 6, no. 6, 2011.
- [41] F. Shahidi and P. Ambigaipalan, "Phenolics and polyphenolics in foods, beverages and spices: antioxidant activity and health effects—a review," *Journal of Functional Foods*, vol. 18, pp. 820–897, 2015.
- [42] P. Saha, P. R. Choudhury, S. Das, A. D. Talukdar, and M. D. Choudhury, "In vitro antioxidant activity of bark extracts of *Oroxylum indicum* (L) vent," *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research*, vol. 10, no. 8, pp. 263–266, 2017.
- [43] P. Sithisarn, P. Rojsanga, and P. Sithisarn, "Inhibitory effects on clinical isolated bacteria and simultaneous HPLC quantitative analysis of flavone contents in extracts from *Oroxylum indicum*," *Molecules*, vol. 24, no. 10, p. 1937, 2019.
- [44] C. A. Kendeson, M. L. Kagoro, and E. A. Adelakun, "Phytochemical and pharmacological evaluation of Nigerian *Kalanchoe pinnata* (Lam.) stem-bark," *Journal of Chemical Society of Nigeria*, vol. 46, no. 4, 2021.
- [45] A. J. Mohamed, "Antioxidant, antiangiogenic and vasorelaxant activities of methanolic extract of *Clerodendrum serratum* (Spreng.) leaves," *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, vol. 6, no. 3, 2012.
- [46] S. V. Siddhartha Pragyadeep, S. Srivastava, and A. K. S. Rawat, "Quantification of antioxidant polyphenols from *Boenninghausenia albiflora*," *Indo American Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*, vol. 7, 2017.
- [47] M. Ajajib, M. Anjum, S. Zahra, Z., N. Siddiqui, and Z. Malik, "Investigation of antimicrobial and antioxidant activities of *Cirsium wallichii* DC," vol. 62, pp. 6–3096, 2017.
- [48] M. Naczka and F. Shahidi, "Extraction and analysis of phenolics in food," *Journal of Chromatography A*, vol. 1054, no. 1–2, pp. 95–111, 2004.
- [49] N. Turkmen, Y. S. Velioglu, F. Sari, and G. Polat, "Effect of extraction conditions on measured total polyphenol contents and antioxidant and antibacterial activities of black tea," *Molecules*, vol. 12, no. 3, pp. 484–496, 2007.
- [50] A. S. Michael, C. G. Thompson, and M. Abramovitz, "*Artemia salina* as a test organism for bioassay," *Science*, vol. 123, no. 3194, p. 464, 1956.
- [51] S. Pisutthanan, P. Plianbangchang, N. Pisutthanan, S. Ruanruay, and O. Muanrit, "Brine shrimp lethality activity of thai medicinal plants in the family meliaceae," *Naresuan University Journal*, vol. 6, 2004.
- [52] S. A. Gadir, "Assessment of bioactivity of some sudanese medicinal plants using brine shrimp (*Artemia salina*) lethality assay," *Journal of Chemical and Pharmaceutical Research*, vol. 5, 2012.
- [53] M. R. Islam, A. A. Reza, M. S. Hossain, and M. K. Farhana, "In vitro evaluation of cytotoxic and thrombolytic activities of *Oroxylum indicum* (linn.)," *Bangladesh Pharmaceutical Journal*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 70–74, 2015.
- [54] K. A. A. Chowdhury, M. E. Huq, M. S. Ali et al., "Antioxidant, cytotoxic and thrombolytic activity of leaves of *Kalanchoe pinnata* (LAM.) PERS," *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry*, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 309–315, 2016.
- [55] H. F. Kaiser, "The application of electronic computers to factor Analysis," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 141–151, 1960.