Chapter 14

Comparative study on bioactive compounds of leaves of Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus, and Callistemon viminalis with current prospects

Sunil Kumar Jha¹ & Priyanka Kumari^{2*}

¹Assistant Professor, M.Sc. Biotechnology Department, University Department of Botany, Ranchi University, Ranchi, Jharkhand, India.

²Research scholar, University Department of Botany, Ranchi University, Ranchi, Jharkhand, India.

*Corresponding author email: satyasupriya17551@gmail.com

DOI- https://10.5281/zenodo.10023876

https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9232-3557

Co-author- https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9112-3185

Received:-

03th September, 2023

Accepted:-

20th October, 2023

Published:-

(online)

27th October, 2023

ABSTRACT:- Plants are considered a good source for the exploration and discovery of new pharmaceutical compounds as well as medicines. It can be a potential drug for humans as it acts as an intermediate for the synthesis of useful medicines. Plants possess various Phytochemicals with several bioactivities such as antiinflammatory, antioxidant, and anticancer.

Therefore, the phytochemical characteristics of medicinal plants need to be studied. Some such medicinal plants are Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus, and Callistemon viminalis. The Study revealed the presence of major bioactive compounds like Alkaloids, Carboxylic acids, Carbohydrates, Phenols, etc. in the three plants. Flavonoids are absent from the leaves of Catharanthus roseus. Steroids were absent only from the Catharanthus roseus. Tannin was absent from the Callistemon viminalis leaves. Saponins were absent from Carica papaya and Callistemon viminalis. Quinones were absent from the Carica papaya and Catharanthus roseus. The FTIR technique has been used to monitor and understand the chemical and surface chemistry of leaf extracts of these three plants.

Citation: Jha, S.K. & Kumari P. (2023). Comparative study on bioactive compounds of leaves of Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus, and Callistemon viminalis with current prospects. Advances in Bioscience: Exploring Frontiers of Discovery, Vol. 1, ISBN: 978-93-5913-645-5. pp. 197-214. https://10.5281/zenodo.10023876

The present study can be used for large-scale pharmaceutical and commercial production of drugs from these important medicinal plants.

Keywords:- Bioactive Compounds, Ftir, Tlc, Medicinal Plants

INTRODUCTION

Plants are considered a unique source of structure of high phytochemical diversity, many of them possessing interesting biological activities and medicinal properties. In the context of the worldwide spread of different diseases such as AIDS, chronic diseases, and a variety of cancers, an intensive search for new lead compounds for the development of novel pharmacological therapeutics is extremely important. With this view in mind, extensive studies are being carried out to know the bioactive compounds of the plants present in nature. Carica papaya L. also known as papaya belongs to the family Caricaceae and has nutritional and medicinal value worldwide. It is a herbaceous plant that grows well in the tropics and can reach up to 10m high¹. Papaya fruits are consumed either raw or in processed forms such as jelly, candy, jam, and pickles². In the tropics and subtropics, where it is frequently grown, the plant has long been regarded as an ethnomedicine^{3,4}. Papaya seeds and leaves were linked to the improvement of diabetic mellitus, hepatic and renal problems, fertility, hyperglycemias, amoebic dysentery, and current anticancer activity⁵⁻⁸. Phytochemicals found in papaya seeds and leaves include phytosterols, tocopherols, flavonoids, alkaloids, and carotenoids, all of which have medicinal value for a variety of illnesses^{2,7-12}. Catharanthus roseus (L) is a perennial plant that belongs to the Apocynaceae family. It is commonly seen in tropical countries and is native to Madagascar and Southern Asia¹³. The plant has spread all over tropical and subtropical parts of India and grows wild all over the plains and lower foothills in the northern and southern hills of India¹⁴. Also 'the Periwinkle' is a logo/ symbol of hope for cancer patients used by the National Cancer Council of Malaysia¹⁵. Catharanthus roseus (L) is an important medicinal plant cultivated by common names, which is named based on its flower colors, Pink: Rosea, White: Alba. It is an herbaceous plant or an evergreen subshrub growing to 32 to 80 cm in height. It has glistening, dark green leaves and flowers all summer long. The flowers appear pale pink with a purple "eye" in their centers. Erect/accumbent suffrutex, to 1m,

Jha, S.K. & Kumari P. (2023). Comparative study on bioactive compounds of leaves of Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus, and Callistemon viminalis with current prospects. usually with white latex. Stems are green, often permeated with purple or red. Traditionally, leaves of Catharanthus roseus (L) are used as medicine for the treatment of diseases^{16,17}. Alkaloid-like vinblastine produced from Catharanthus roseus (L) is used in anti-tumor activity and for other wide pharmaceutical use¹⁸. For its capacity to relieve pain, C. roseus (L) can develop contemporary chemotherapeutic agents¹⁹. Callistemon viminalis belongs to the family Myrtaceae, consists of 34 species, and is known for its brush-like flower also called a bottlebrush. Callistemon viminalis, also known as weeping bottlebrush, is a small tree or shrub that is native to Australia. It typically reaches a height of around 4 meters in temperate areas²⁰⁻²². *C. viminalis*, also known as the weeping willow or the crack willow, is commonly planted as a farm tree for forestry plantations or for ornamental purposes. It is also often used for weed control due to its fast growth and dense foliage ^{20,23}. *C. viminalis*, also known as the weeping willow, is indeed used in traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) for treating haemorrhoids^{24,25}. In Jamaica, the hot drink locally known as 'tea' is made from the plant C. viminalis and has been traditionally used for treating gastroenteritis, diarrhea, and skin infections^{26,27}. These are the Phytochemicals, a chemical derived from plants that helps in treating several diseases and the term indicates the number of secondary metabolites found in plants. Overall, phytochemical screening assays play a crucial role in the initial evaluation of plant extracts for their potential medicinal properties. They provide valuable information about the presence of bioactive compounds, allowing researchers to prioritize extracts for further investigation and potential development of new drugs or therapeutic agents. After obtaining the crude extract or active fraction from plant material, phytochemical screening is performed with the appropriate test protocol as shown in Tables 1 and 2 to get an idea regarding the type of phytochemicals existing in the extract mixture or fraction. FTIR has also proven to be a valuable tool for the characterization and identification of compounds or functional groups (chemical bonds) present in an unknown mixture of plant extract^{28,29}. In addition, FTIR spectra of pure compounds can produce molecular information called molecular "fingerprints". For most usual plant compounds, the spectrum of an unknown compound may be diagnosed with the aid of using the evaluation of a library of recognized compounds. FTIR spectroscopy is

a powerful analytical technique that uses infrared radiation to identify and characterize chemical compounds. The technique is based on the principle that different chemical bonds absorb specific frequencies of infrared radiation, resulting in characteristic absorption spectra. The development of the imaging of tissues using infrared spectroscopy is a recent advancement in the field. Infrared spectroscopy is a technique that uses the absorption of infrared light by molecules to identify and analyze their chemical composition. By applying this technique to biological tissues, researchers have been able to create images that provide valuable information about the molecular structure and composition of the tissues. Another test method, Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) can also be employed for bioactive compound analysis. TLC is also used to support the identity of a compound in a mixture when the Rf of a compound is compared with the Rf of a known compound. Another test that can be done is the thin-layer chromatography (TLC) test. In this test, the plant extract is applied as a spot on a TLC plate and then developed using a suitable solvent system. The different phytochemicals present in the extract will separate and form distinct spots on the plate. These spots can be visualized by spraying with a suitable reagent or by exposing the plate to UV light. This method has also been utilized to confirm the purity and identity of isolated compounds.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Collection and preparation of methanolic extract from plant leaves

The plant material was collected from the local areas of Ranchi, Dangratoli, and Morabadi. The plant was identified as *Carica papaya*, *Catharanthus roseus* and *Callistemon viminalis* at the University Department of Botany, Ranchi University, Ranchi. The fresh plant leaves were washed 2-3 times under running tap water, then once with distilled water and was air dried. It was kept in a hot air oven for 3 days. It was homogenized to fine powder by using an electric grinder and was kept in air-tight bottles for further use. A 5g powder sample was added in 50ml acetone and distilled water, it was kept for shaking in an orbital shaker for 72hrs at room temperature. After incubation, the extract was filtered with Whatman filter paper into a clean petri plate for the solvent to evaporate. After evaporation, the plates were weighted. Residual concentrates were dissolved in 5 ml of DMSO. The extracts were

Jha, S.K. & Kumari P. (2023). Comparative study on bioactive compounds of leaves of *Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus*, and *Callistemon viminalis* with current prospects. collected in screw-capped bottles. The extracts were used for antifungal activity, antibacterial activity, or phytochemical test.

Table 1: Method of extract preparation from plant materials.

	Maceration
Solvents	Methanol, Ethanol or a mixture of alcohol and water
Temperature (°C)	Room temperature
Pressure applied	Not applicable
Time required	3-4 days
Volume of solvent required (ml)	Depending on the sample size
Reference	[30,31,32,33]

Fourier transforms infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy a popular technique today, due to its unique combination of sensitivity, flexibility, specificity and robustness. It is a widely practiced analytical instrumental technique in science that can handle solid, liquid, and gaseous samples. To organize FTIR samples, liquid samples can be placed between two plates of sodium chloride. One drop of the sample is sufficient to create a thin film between the plates. Solid samples can be milled with potassium bromide (KBr) and then compressed into the thinnest pellet, which can be analyzed. Otherwise, solid samples may be dissolved in a solvent that include methylene chloride, and the solution is then placed onto a single salt plate. The solvent is then evaporated off, leaving a thin film of the original material on the plate.

Qualitative test

Table 2: Phytochemical screening assay of secondary metabolites

Secondary metabolite	Name of test	Methodology	Result(s)	Ref.
Alkaloid	Dragendorff's test	Spot a drop of extract on a small piece of percolated TLC plate. Spray the plate with Dragendorff's reagent.	Orange spot	34
	Wagner test	To the 2ml filtrate, add 1% HCl + steam. Then, add 1ml of the solution with 6 drops of Wagner's reagent.	Brownish-red precipitate	35
	TLC method 1	The solvent system used in this case is a mixture of chloroform, methanol, and 25% ammonia in a ratio of 8:2:0.5. After the TLC plate is developed, spots can be visualized by spraying it with Dragendorff's reagent.	Orange spot	36
	TLC method 2	Wet the powdered test samples with diluted NH4OH and extract with EtOAc for 24hrs at room temperature. Separate the organic phase from the acidified filtrate and basify with NH4OH (pH 11-12). Extract with chloroform (3X), evaporate, and use for chromatography. Separate alkaloid spots using chloroform and methanol (15:1) solvent mixture. Spray spots with Dragendorff's reagent.	Orange spot	37

Advances in Bioscience: Exploring Frontiers of Discovery, Vol. I,

F1 · 1	Ict. 1	4 1 1 2 2 1 6 4 1 1: 4 4 1	I D: 1 1 1	0.4
Flavonoid	Shinoda test	Add 2-3ml of methanolic extract, along	Pink-red or red colorationof the	34
		with a piece of magnesium ribbon and 1ml of concentrated hydrochloric acid.	solution	
1	TLC method	Extract 1g of powdered test samples with	The color and	37
	1 EC Miculou	10ml of methanol in a water bath at 60°C	hRf values of	57
		for 5 minutes. Condense the filtrate by	these spots can be	
		evaporation, then add a mixture of water	recorded under	
		and EtOAc in a 10:1 ratio and mix well.	ultraviolet	
		Keep the EtOAc phase for	(UV254nm) light	
		chromatography. Separate the flavonoid		
		spots using a solvent mixture of		
Į		chloroform and methanol in a 19:1 ratio.		
	NaOH test	The extract should be treated with dilute	A yellow solution	38
		NaOH, followed by the addition of dilute	with NaOH turns	
		HCl	colorless with	
Dl1	Dl 1 t t	The contract will assess a construction the	dilute HCl The blue	34
Phenol	Phenol test	The extract will appear as a spot on the filter paper. Add a drop of	coloration of the	34
		phosphomolybdic acid reagent and	spot	
		expose it to ammonia vapors.	l spot	
Pyrrolizidine		Prepare a 1ml oxidizing agent by	Peaks were	39-
alkaloid		combining 0.01ml of 30% w/v hydrogen	compared withthe	41
		peroxide stabilized with tetrasodium	GC-MS library	
		pyrophosphate (20mg/ml) and diluting it	ĺ	
		to 20 ml with isoamylacetate. Add this	1	
		oxidizing agent to 1ml of plant extract and		
		mix well using a vortex. Then, add 0.25ml		
		of acetic anhydride to the mixture. Heat		
		the sample at 60°C for 50-70 minutes and		
		allow it to cool to room temperature. Next,		
		add 1ml of Ehrlich reagent to the cooled sample and place the test tubes in a water		
		bath at 60°C for 5 minutes. Measure the		
		absorbance at 562nm. To confirm the		
		results of the screening method, use the		
		method of Holstege et al. (1995).		
Reducing	Fehling test	Mix 25ml of diluted sulphuric acid (H ₂ SO ₄)	Brick red	42
sugar		with 5ml of water extract in a test tube.	precipitate	
		Boil the mixture for 15 minutes, then let it		
		cool. Neutralize the solution with 10%		
		sodium hydroxide until it reaches pH 7.		
ļ		Finally, add 5ml of Fehling solution.		
	Molisch test	To 2ml of extract 2ml of Molisch reagent	The violet color	
		was added. 1ml of conc. sulphuric acid	ring at the	
		was added along the side wall of the test tube in a slanting position.	junction	
1	Starch test	To 1ml of extract 1ml of iodine was	Blue- Black color	
1	Cuncii test	added dropwise.	form	
1	Cellulose test	To 1ml of extract 1ml of iodine was	Dark brown-red	
		added dropwise. Then dropwise 1ml of	color form	
		sulphuric acid was added.		
Saponin	Frothing test	Mix 0.5ml of filtrate with 5ml of distilled	Persistence of	43
_	/Foam test	water, shake thoroughly.	frothing	
	TLC method	To extract the test samples, reflux 2 grams	The colour	37
		of powdered samples with 10 ml of 70%	(yellow) and hRf	
		EtOH for 10 minutes. Condense the filtrate	values of these spots	
		and enrich it with saturated n-BuOH. Mix	were recorded by	
		thoroughly and retain the butanol.	exposing the	
		Condense the butanol and use it for	chromatogram tothe	
1		chromatography. Separate the saponins using a solvent mixture of chloroform,	iodine vapours	l
1		glacial acetic acid, methanol, and water (in		
		a ratio of 64:34:12:8). Expose the		
1		chromatogram to iodine vapors.		

Jha, S.K. & Kumari P. (2023). Comparative study on bioactive compounds of leaves of *Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus*, and *Callistemon viminalis* with current prospects.

Steroid	Liebermann-	Added 1 ml of methanolic extract, then	1 1	34
Steroid	Burckhardt test	1 ml of chloroform, 2-3 ml of acetic anhydride, 1 to 2 drops of concentrated	The dark green color appears	34
		sulphuric acid stepwise in a tube.		
		To 1ml of extract, add 2ml acetic	Blue or	44
		anhydride and 2ml concentrated H ₂ SO ₄ .	Green color	
	TLC method	Extract 2 grams of powdered test samples with 10ml methanol in a water bath at 80°C for 15 minutes. Use the condensed filtrate for chromatography. Separate the sterols using a solvent mixture of chloroform, glacial acetic acid, methanol, and water in a ratio of 64:34:12:8. Record the color and hRf values of the spots under visible light after spraying the plates with an isoaldehyde-sulphuric acid reagent and	The color (Greenish blackto Pinkish black) and hRf values of these spots can be recorded under visible light	37
		heating at 100°C for 6 min.		
Tannin	Braemer's test	Add 10% alcoholic ferric chloride to 2-3ml of methanolic extract (1:1) for clarification.	Dark blue or greenish-greycolor	34,35, 43
Terpenoid	Liebermann- Burckhardt test	Add 1ml of chloroform and 2-3ml of acetic anhydride to 1ml of methanolic extract. Then, add 1 to 2 drops of concentrated sulphuric acid.	The Pink or red coloration	34
	Salkowski test	5ml extract was added with 2ml of chloroform and 3ml of concentrated sulphuric acid H_2SO_4 .	The Reddish- brown color of the interface	44
Quinones	Chloroform- Ammonia Test	Added 1ml of Concentrated sulphuric acid and 5ml of chloroform in a few ml of hot extract and kept in a boiling water bath. From that 2ml was taken and 1ml of 10% ammonia was added and shaken well.	pink-red layer indicates, anthracene derivative.	
Anthraqui- nones	Borntrager's test	In 5ml of extract, 10% ferric chloride was added and 1ml of Concentrated HCl was added. Cool and filter it. Then filtrate was shaken with diethyl ether and strong ammonia was added.	Formation of pink and deep red color	

Quantitative test

1. Total Phenolic Content

In order to determine the total phenolic content (TPC), the method described by Hinneburg et al. in 2006 was followed, with some modifications. 1 ml of diluted sample was added to 0.5 ml of Folin-Ciocalteau reagent and kept aside for 5 minutes. 2 ml of 20% Na2CO3 was then added to the reaction solution. The above solution was then kept for incubation in a boiling water bath for a few hrs. Absorbance was measured at 760nm using a 1cm cuvette UV-1800 spectrometer [Shimadzu, Japan]. Gallic acid [0-800mg/L] was used to produce a standard calibration curve. The total phenolic content was expressed in mg of gallic acid equivalent [GAE]/100ml of extract.

Plant name	Test 1	Test 2
Carica рарауа	1.426	1.61
Catharanthus roseus	1.612	1.711
Callistemon viminalis	1.745	1.839

2. Determination Of Total Flavonoid Content

The total flavonoid content in the extracts was determined using the aluminum chloride colorimetric assay. A stock solution of quercetin was prepared by dissolving 4 mg of quercetin in 1 ml of methanol, resulting in a concentration of 4 mg/L.

To create various concentrations for the calibration curve, the stock solution was diluted serially. The concentrations used were 0.25 mg/ml, 0.50 mg/ml, 0.75 mg/ml, and 1 mg/ml.

In each test tube, 1 ml of quercetin solution at each concentration was added. After 5 minutes, 0.3 ml of 10% AlCl3 was added to the test tube. After 6 minutes, 2 ml of 1N NaOH was added to the mixture. The volume of the mixture was then made up to 10 ml by immediately adding 4.4 ml of distilled water. The total flavonoid content was expressed as quercetin equivalents using a linear equation based on the calibration curve. The absorbance of the mixture was measured at 510 nm using a spectrophotometer.

Plant name	Test 1	Test 2
Carica рарауа	-	-
Catharanthus roseus	-	-
Callistemon viminalis	0.941	1.155

OBSERVATIONS

Table 3. Phytochemical Screening assay of Secondary metabolites of Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus, Callistemon viminalis

Test	С.рарауа	C.roseus	C.viminalis
Phenol	+	+	+
Flavonoid	-	1	+
Steroid	+	ı	+
Bayer's	+	+	+
Tannin	+	+	-
Carbohydrate	+	+	+
Saponins	-	+	-
Alkaloids	+	+	+
Quinones	-	+	+
Coumarin	-	-	+
Carboxylic group	+	+	+

Jha, S.K. & Kumari P. (2023). Comparative study on bioactive compounds of leaves of *Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus*, and *Callistemon viminalis* with current prospects.



Fig 1: Carica papaya

Fig 2: Catharanthus roseus

Fig 3: Callistemon viminalis



Fig 4: Showing the homogenized fine plant leaves powder

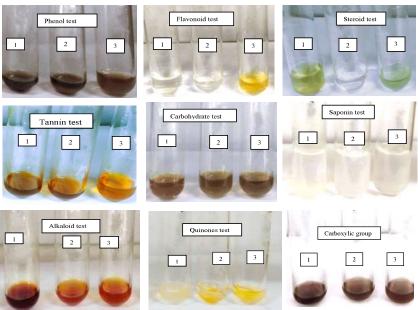


Fig 5: Above plates show different phytochemical screening assay test, as in Table 3. The number (1, 2, 3) represents the three plant extracts test i.e. *Carica papaya*, *Catharanthus roseus*, and *Callistemon viminalis* respectively

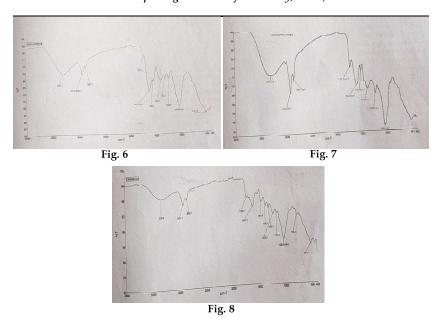


Fig. 6-8: Showing FTIR test on C. papaya, C. roseus, and C. viminalis plants.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This study aims to present evidence-based information on Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus and Callistemon viminalis leaf functional bioactivities. Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus, and Callistemon viminalis is a plant of diverse ethnomedicinal value. C. papaya shows the presence of alkaloids, phenol, tannins, carbohydrates, steroids, etc and C. roseus shows the presence of alkaloids, Quinones, carbohydrates, tannins, phenol, saponins and carboxylic groups. Similarly, C. viminalis showed the presence of bioactive compounds like alkaloids, quinines, carbohydrates, steroids, flavonoids, phenols, and carboxylic groups. These leaves of *C. papaya* extracts showed the absence of Flavonoids, saponins, and quinones. C. roseus showed the absence of Flavonoid and steroids whereas Callistemon viminalis leaf extract showed the absence of tannin and saponins (Table 3). Pharmaceutical companies in the production of valuable drugs can use these bioactive compounds. These drugs from C. papaya can be used for the treatment of some diseases like hyperglycemia, fertility-related complications, inflammation, hypertension, and anticarcinogenic activities. C. roseus leaves are antitumors, pain-relieving, antioxidant, and anticancerous. The

Jha, S.K. & Kumari P. (2023). Comparative study on bioactive compounds of leaves of Carica papaya, Catharanthus roseus, and Callistemon viminalis with current prospects. phytochemical screening of *C. viminalis* leaf extracts showed the presence of glycosides, flavonoids, alkaloids, proteins, carbohydrates, phenol, etc. has the potential biological activities. The bioactive compounds show antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, anti-platelet aggregation, allelopathic, anti-quarum sensing, hemolytic, anthelmintic, insecticidal, and antioxidant activities (Figure 5 and Table 3). Medicinal plants play a vital role in human health care, about 80% of the world population relies on the use of traditional medicine, concomitantly based on plant materials. The antimicrobial activity was found in this present study. The Secondary preliminary phytochemical screening revealed the presence of Alkaloids, Saponins, Steroids, Tannins, Flavonoids, Proteins, and Carbohydrates in Leaves. Several studies provide support for the plant's traditional and alternative use against various diseases and infections of these three plants^{3,4,14,16,17,22}. Carica papaya has been studied and its bioactive compounds have been found to have various beneficial effects including anticancer, gastroprotective, antioxidant, antifungal, antiparasitic, hypoglycemic, antimicrobial, contraceptive, and hepatorenal-protective activities^{5,6}. C. papaya leaves are rich in macro and micronutrients for eg. Proteins, carbohydrates, and alkaloids making them good alternative energy sources that may complement the undernourished populations. Similarly, C. roseus has been discovered to be an important medicinal plant for the creation of novel pharmaceuticals as most of the bacterial pathogens were improving resistance against many of the available anti-microbial drugs. Major alkaloids like vincristine, vinblastine, catharanthamine, and vincoline were found. Other alkaloids i.e. deoxyvinblastine, leurosine, pleurosin, leurocristine, leurosidine, vincolinine, vinacardine, and roseadine were also isolated. Plants have been justified to be valuable natural resources for active chemotherapeutic agents and suggest a broad spectrum of action with a greater emphasis on preventive action⁴⁵. FTIR (Fourier Transform Infrared) techniques are widely used in the field of membrane application to analyze and evaluate the properties and performance of membranes in various applications. This paper provides an overview of FTIR spectroscopy and its application in the biological field. It discusses the fundamental concepts related to FTIR and highlights the latest research in this area. The technique distinguishes the three selected plant samples at the molecular level (Figure 6 - 8). In recent studies, C.

papaya, *C. roseus*, and *C. viminalis* leaves bioactive compounds, molecular information, and confirmed safety profiles as nutraceutical food are being represented.

CONCLUSION

The medicinal plant is the most exclusive source of life-saving drugs for the majority of the world's population. They continue to be an important therapeutic aid for alleviating the ailments of humankind. In the present study, the phytochemical characteristics of medicinal plants tested were summarized. The result revealed the presence of medicinally active compounds in plants which is responsible for many pharmacological activities. It was seen alkaloids, carboxylic groups, quinones, and carbohydrates were present in the plants. Steroids and coumarins were absent from Catharanthus roseus. The plant studied here can be seen as a source of useful drugs. It also justifies the folklore medicinal uses and claims about the therapeutic values of these plants as curative agents. A positive result in phytochemical analysis supports the use of plants for therapeutic purposes. The identified classes from the analysis can be modified to enhance their biological activities. Bioactive compounds found in plant material are complex mixtures, making their separation and determination challenging. To isolate these compounds, a combination of chromatographic techniques and other purification methods is often required.

REFERENCES

- 1. Tona, L., Kambu, K., Ngimbi, N., Cimanga, K., & Vlietinck, A.J. (1998). Antiamoebic and phytochemical screening of some Congolese medicinal plants. *J. Ethnopharmacol.*, 61(1): 57-65.
- 2. Tan C. X., Tan S. T., & Tan S. S. (2020). An overview of papaya seed oil extraction methods. *Int. J. Food Sci. & Technol.*, 55(4), 1506-1514.
- 3. Ali, A., Devrajan, S., Waly, M., Essa, M. M., & Rahman. M. (2011). "Nutritional and medicinal value of papaya (Carica papaya L.)," in Natural Products and Bioactive Compounds in Disease Prevention. (pp. 34-42). Nova Science Publishers.
- 4. Singh, S. P., Mathan, S. V., Dheeraj A., Tailor, D., Singh R. P., & Acharya, A. (2019). Anticancer Effects and Associated Molecular Changes of *Carica papaya* Against Prostrate Cancer. *The American Association for Cancer Research*, 79(13), 3004-3004.

- 5. Nakamura, Y., Yoshimoto, M., Murata, Y., Shimoishi, Y., Asai, Y., Park, E. Y., Sato, K., & Nakamura, Y. (2007). Papaya seed represents a rich source of biologically active isothiocyanate. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 55(11), 4407-4413. DOI: 10.1021/jf070159w
- Archampong, T. N., Asmah, R. H., Richards, C. J., Martin, V. J., Bayliss, C. D., Batao, E., David, L., Beleza, S., & Carriho, C. (2019). Gastro-duodenal disease in Africa: literature review and clinical data from Accra, Ghana. World J. Gastroenterol., 25(26). 3344-3358.
- Juarez-Rojop, I. E., Diaz-Zagoya, J. C., Ble-Castillo, J. L., Miranda-Osorio, P. H., Castell-Rodriguez, A. E., Tovilla-Zarate, C. A., Rodriguez-Hernandez, A., Aguilar-Mariscal, H., Ramon-Frias, T., & Bermudez-Ocana, D. Y. (2012). Hypoglycemic effect of *Carica papaya* leaves in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. BMC Complement. *Altern. Med.*, 12, 236. DOI: 10.1186/1472-6882-12-236
- 8. Wang, X., Contreras, M. D. M., Xu, D., Xing, C., Wang, L., & Yang, D. (2020). Different Distribution of free and bound phenolic compounds affects the oxidative stability of tea seed oil: a novel perspective on lipid antioxidation. *LWT*, *5*(85), 1450-1461. DOI: HTTP://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841-15019
- 9. Olcum, M., Tastan, B., Ercan, I., Eltutan, I. B., & Genc, S. (2020). Inhibitory effects of phytochemicals on NLRP3 inflammasome activation: a review. *Phytomedicine*, 75. DOI:10.1016/j.phymed.2020.153238
- Doan, M. T. N., Huynh, M. C., Pham, A. N. V., Chau, N. D. Q., & Le P. T. K. (2020). Extracting seed oil and phenolic compounds from papaya seeds by ultrasound-assisted extraction method and their properties. *Chem. Eng. Trans.*, 7, 493-498.
- 11. Singh, S. P., Kumar, S., Tomar, M. S., Singh, R. K., Verma, P. K., Kumar, A., Kumar, S., & Acharya, A. (2019). Aqueous extract of *Carica papaya* leaf elicits the production of TNF-á and modulates the expression of cell surface receptors in tumorassociated macrophages. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Res. Commun.*, 12 (4), 115-1122. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.21786/bbrc/13.4/35
- 12. Odhong, C., Wahome, R. G., Vaarst, M., Nalubwama, S. W., Kiggundu, M., Halb, N., Githigia, S. (2014). *In vitro* anthelmintic

- effects of crude aqueous extracts of Tephrosia vogelii, tephrosia villosa and *Carica papaya* leaves and seeds. *Afr. J. Biotechnol., 13* (52), 4667-4672. DOI: https://doi.org/10.5897/AJB 2014-140-48
- 13. Sharma SK. "Medicinal Plants used in Ayurveda". New Delhi: Rashtriya Ayurveda Vidhyapeeth, Ministry of health and Family welfare, Govt. of India (1998):193.
- 14. Kumar, A., Singhal, K. C., Sharma, R. A., Govind K. V., & Kumar, V. (2012). Analysis of Antioxidant activity of *Catharanthus roseus* L. and its Association with Habitat Temperature, *Asian J. Exp. Biol. Sci.* 706-713.
- 15. The Wealth of India-Raw Materials New Delhi (1985). Publication and Information directorate, Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, *3*, 391-395.
- 16. Sain, M., & Sharma, V. (2013). *Catharanthus roseus* (l). A Review of potential Therapeutics properties. *Int. J. Pure App. Biosci.*, 1(6):139-142.
- 17. Shaikh S. G, Pathak H. C, Kumawat V. S, & Kothule S. R.(2020). Phytochemical analysis of *Catharanthus roseus* (L) G. Don. *IJSDR*. 5(5), 314-318.
- 18. Jain, S. K. (1981). Observation on Ethnobotany of the Tribal's Central India in (Ed.) LC. 193-198.
- 19. Jain, S. K. (1968). *Medicinal plants*, National Books Trust of India Publication, New Delhi.
- 20. Spencer, R. D., Lumley, P. F., Callistemon, P. F. & Harden, G. J. (1991). Flora of New South Wales, (Ed.), 2, New South Wales University Press, Sydney, Australia, 168-173.
- 21. Wrigley, J. W., & Fagg, M. (1993). Bottlebrushes, paperbarks and tea trees and all other plants in the *Leptospermum alliance*. Angus & Robertson, Sydney, Australia, 352.
- 22. Goyal, P.K., Jain, R., Jain, S., & Sharma, A. A. (2012). Review on Biological and phytochemical investigation of plant genus *Callistemon. Asian Pac J Trop Biomed*, 2(3), S1906-S1909. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/S2221-1691(12)605191-x
- 23. Wheeler, G. S. (2005). Maintenance of a narrow host range by *Oxypos vitiosa*: a biological control agent of Melaleuca. *Biochem*

- Syst Ecol, 33(4), 365-383. https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaarsfacpub
- 24. Ji, D. (2009). Traditional Chinese medicine pills for treating haemorrhoid. CN 101352524 A 20090128.
- 25. Islam, M. R., Ahamed, R., Rahman, M. O., Akbar, M. A., Al-Amin, M., Alam, K. D., et al. (2010). *In vitro* antimicrobial activities of four medicinally important plants in Bangladesh. *Eur J Sci Res*, 39 (2), 199-206.
- 26. Cowan, M. M. (1999). Plant products as antimicrobial agents. *Clin Microbiol Rev, 12* (4), 564-582.
- 27. Elliot, W. R., Jones, D. L. (1982). *Encyclopedia of Australian plants*, vol. 2, Lothian Publishing Company, Australia.
- Eberhardt, T. L., Li, X., Shupe, T. F., & Hse, C. Y. (2007). Chinese Tallow Tree (Sapium Sebiferum) utilization: Characterization of extractives and cell-wall chemistry. Wood Fiber Sci., 39, 319-324.
- 29. Hazra, K. M., Roy R. N., Sen S. K., & Laska, S. (2007). Isolation of antibacterial pentahydroxy flavones from the seeds of *Mimusops elengi* Linn. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.*, 6 (12): 1446-1449.
- 30. Phrompittayarat, W., Putalun, W., Tanaka, H., Jetiyanon, K., Wittaya-areekul, S., & Ingkaninan, K. (2007). Comparison of various extraction methods of *Bacopa monnier*. *Naresuan Univ. J.*, 15(1), 29-34.
- 31. Sasidharan, S., Darah, I. & Jain K. (2008). *In Vivo* and *In Vitro* toxicity study of Gracilaria changii. *Pharm. Biol., 46,* 413–417. DOI: http://doi.org/10.1080/138802008020558667
- 32. Cunha, I. B. S., Sawaya, A. C. H. F., Caetano, F. M., Shimizu, M. T., Marcucci, M. C., Drezza, F. T., Povia, G. S., & Carvalho, P. O. (2004). Factors that influence the yield and composition of Brazilian propolis extracts. *J. Braz. Chem. Soc.*, 15, 964–970. DOI: http://doi.org/10.1590/30103-50532004000600026
- 33. Woisky, R. G., & Salatino, A. (1998). Analysis of propolis: some parameters and procedures for chemical quality control. *J. Apicult. Res.*, *37*, 99–105.
- 34. Kumar, G. S., Jayaveera, K. N., Kumar, C. K. A., Sanjay, U. P., Swamy, B. M. V., & Kumar, D. V. K. (2007). Antimicrobial effects

- of Indian medicinal plants against acne-inducing bacteria. *Trop. J. Pharm. Res., 6, 717-723.*
- 35. Chanda, S. V., Parekh, J., & Karathia, N. (2006). Evaluation of antibacterial activity and phytochemical analysis of *Bauhinia variegate* L. bark. *Afr. J. Biomed. Res.*, *9*, 53-56. DOI: 10.4314/ajbr.v9il.48773
- 36. Tona, L., Kambu, K., Ngimbi, N., Cimanga, K., & Vlitinck, A. J. (1998). Antiamoebic and phytochemical screening of some Congolese medicinal plants. *J. Ethnopharmacol.*, *61*, 57-65. DOI: 10.1016/s0378-8741(98)00015-4
- 37. Mallikharjuna, P. B., Rajanna, L. N., Seetharam, Y. N., & Sharanabasappa, G. K. (2007). Phytochemical studies of *Strychnos potatorum* L.f.- A medicinal plant. *E-J. Chem.*, *4*, 510 518. DOI:10.1155/2007/687859
- 38. Onwukaeme, D. N., Ikuegbvweha, T. B. and Asonye, C. C. (2007). Evaluation of phytochemical constituents, antibacterial activities and effect of exudates of *Pycanthus angolensis* Weld Warb (Myristicaceae) on corneal ulcers in rabbits. *Trop. J. Pharm. Res.*, 6, 725-730. DOI: 10.4314/tjpr.v6i2.14652
- 39. McGaw, L. J., Steenkamp, V., & Eloff, J. N. (2007). Evaluation of *Athrixia* bush tea for cytotoxicity, antioxidant activity, caffeine content and presence of pyrolizidine alkaloids. *J. Ethnopharmacol.*, 110, 16-22. DOI: 10.1016/j.jep.2006.08.029
- 40. Mattocks, A. R. (1967). Spectrophotometric determination of unsaturated pyrrolizidine alkaloids. *Anal. Chem., 39,* 443–447. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1021/ac60248
- 41. Holstege, D. M., Seiber, J. N., & Galey, F. D. (1995). Rapid multiresidue screen for alkaloids in plant material and biological samples. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 43, 691–699. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1021/jf00051a025
- 42. Akinyemi, K. O., Oladapo, O., Okwara, C. E., Ibe, C. C., & Fasure, K. A. (2005). Screening of crude extracts of six medicinal plants used in South-West Nigerian unorthodox medicine for anti-methicilin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* activity. BMC Complement. *Altern. Med.*, *5*, 6. DOI: 10.1186/1472-6882-5-6.

- 43. Parekh, J., & Chanda, S. V. (2007). *In vitro* antimicrobial activity and phytochemical analysis of some Indian medicinal plants. *Turk. J. Biol.*, *31*, 53-58.
- 44. Edeoga, H. O., Okwu, D. E., & Mbaebie, B. O. (2005). Phytochemical constituents of some Nigerian medicinal plants. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.*, *4*, 685-688. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.5897/AJB2005.000-3127
- 45. Patil, P. J., & Ghosh, J. S. (2010). "Antimicrobial activity of Catharanthus roseus- A Detailed Study". British Journal of Pharmacology and Toxicology, 1(1), 40-44.

Advances in Bioscience: Exploring Frontiers of Discovery, Vol. I,