



Biological activities of secondary metabolites from *Turbinaria triquetra* (Phaeophyceae), *Hypnea cornuta* (Florideophyceae), and *Ulva prolifera* (Ulvophyceae) methanolic extracts

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ABSTRACT

With respect to the potential natural resource in the marine environment, marine macroalgae or seaweeds are recognized to have health impacts. Three endemic marine algae, *Turbinaria triquetra* (brown algae), *Hypnea cornuta* (red algae), and *Ulva prolifera* (green algae) that are found in abundance in the Red Sea were collected. Antioxidant, anti-microbial, anti-cancer, anti-inflammatory, anti-diabetic, and anti-acetylcholinesterase activities of methanolic extracts of these algae were *in-vitro* evaluated. Fatty acids and their esters from the extracts were determined using GC-MS. Extracts of *T. triquetra* exhibited the highest antioxidant activity with a DPPH radical scavenging IC₅₀ value of 1695.12±0.13 µg/ml and a ferric reducing power (EC₅₀) value of 574.71±0.15 mg/ml. The anti-diabetic and anti-acetylcholinesterase activities of *H. cornuta* extract were the highest, with IC₅₀ values of 19.89 ± 0.03 µg/ml and 16.97 ± 0.03 µg/ml, respectively. Interestingly, all extracts exhibited anti-colon cancer activity (CACO), with IC₅₀ values of 378.3±0.02, 276.88±0.08, and 274.32±0.05 µg/ml for *U. prolifera*, *H. cornuta*, and *T. triquetra* extracts, respectively. Moreover, the IC₅₀ values to human gingival normal fibroblast cell lines were 783.37±0.07, 692.7±0.01, and 124.36±0.03 µg/ml, respectively. These findings highlight the potential of these seaweed species for cultivation as a sustainable and safe source of therapeutic compounds for treating human and fish diseases.

INTRODUCTION

With the increase in the spread of diseases and the harmful effects of synthetic medicines, exploring traditional medicine has become crucial. Finding a natural compound to treat different conditions as medicine or a supporting agent becomes a big

challenge. As a result, it is preferable to search for a novel, potent natural component derived from marine macroalgae (**Pushpa Bharathi *et al.*, 2019**). Many marine algae have a unique chemical structure and characteristics that are not present in terrestrial organisms (**Khotimchenko *et al.*, 2020**). Due to their ability to establish a defensive mechanism by releasing secondary metabolites, many species of macroalgae can grow in their habitats in extreme conditions (**Olasehinde *et al.*, 2019**).

Macroalgae can be categorized according to nutrient and chemical composition into red algae (Rhodophyta), brown algae (Phaeophyta), and green algae (Chlorophyta) (**Rajasulochana *et al.*, 2009**). Alkaloids, polyketides, cyclic peptides, polysaccharides, phlorotannins, diterpenoids, sterols, fatty acids, vitamins, minerals, quinones, lipids, and glycerols are among the biologically active secondary compounds developed by marine algae. These compounds demonstrate anti-microbial, anti-oxidant, anti-cancer, anti-helminthic, anti-inflammatory, anti-aging, and cancer-cytotoxic agents (**Al-Saif *et al.*, 2014**). As a result, they have recently attracted much attention (**Rashedy *et al.*, 2021**).

Antibiotic discovery and its improvement are among modern science and technology's most powerful and influential accomplishments in the fight against infectious diseases (**Chanda *et al.*, 2010**). Because of the indiscriminate use of antibiotics, pathogenic bacteria have become resistant to the most commonly used antibiotics (**Lavanya *et al.*, 2011**). Since several algal extracts and active constituents exhibited anti-gram positive and negative-bacterial activity, the isolation of marine natural products with antibacterial activities has received much attention in the last century (**Siddhanta *et al.*, 1997**).

The ultimate objective of marine natural product drug development research is to discover compounds and extracts that can prevent the formation of free radicals and consequently quench the oxidative stress processes to reduce human diseases, such as neurological disorders, male infertility, heart disease, diabetes, inflammation, aging and cancer (**El Feky *et al.*, 2022**). A wide variety of plants, fungi, and algae are recognized as essential sources of natural antioxidants (**Ebrahimzadeh *et al.*, 2018**). Marine macroalgae are rich in phenolic and polyphenolic metabolites, including flavonoids and catechins, which have strong antioxidant properties capable of removing free radicals, scavenging reactive oxygen species, and inhibiting lipid peroxidation (**Vijayraja & Jeyaprakash, 2019**).

Cancer is a severe global public health challenge; therefore, several trials are performed to discover cancer-fighting therapeutic compounds extracted from natural sources such as marine algae. Numerous studies have found that algal extracts exhibit anti-proliferative action *in-vitro* and tumor-inhibiting activities *in-vivo*. Several studies indicate that compounds isolated from algae, such as bromophenols, fucoidan, flavonoid, laminarin, carotene, and steroids could have anticancer activity (**Saadaoui *et al.*, 2020**). This study evaluated the antioxidant, anti-microbial, anti-cancer, anti-inflammatory, anti-diabetic, and anti-acetylcholinesterase activities of the methanolic extracts of *T. triquetra*, *H. cornuta*, and *U. prolifera* that were abundant in the coastal region of the Red Sea in Egypt.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Algae collection

Three algae species, *Turbinaria triquetra* (J. Agardh) Kützing, 1849; *Hypnea cornuta* (Kützing) J. Agardh, 1851, and *Ulva prolifera* O.F. Müller, 1778 were harvested from the tidal zone of the Red Sea shore at Hurghada between latitude 27°28.15'N and longitude 33°77.13'E, Egypt. The seaweed species were identified under microscope according to their morphological characteristics with taxonomic references following the descriptions of Aleem (1978). About 0.5kg of each alga was washed with water, shade dried, and powdered in a mixer grinder.

Preparation of algal extracts

One hundred grams from each algal powder was macerated in 400mL methanol for 48h. The solvent was filtrated and concentrated at 40°C under pressure in a rotatory evaporator. The extracts were then kept at -20°C for subsequent study (Patra *et al.*, 2008).

Gas chromatography-mass spectrometer (GC-MS) analysis

GC-MS Agilent 7890A-5975C was utilized for the separation of different bioactive constituents. A capillary column (0.25 mm×30 mm×0.25 µm film thickness) was used. The temperature of the oven was kept at 70°C for 2min before being steadily increased from 20°C/min to 305°C and held there for 1.0 min. As a carrier gas, 1.2 mL/min helium gas was utilized, and the injected sample volume for the GC-MS analysis was 1.0µL (Annegowda *et al.*, 2013). Based on the retention time, bioactive chemicals from algal extracts were identified. The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) database was used to interpret the mass spectrum of the GC-MS.

Determination of total phenolic content

The total phenolic contents were estimated using the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent following the method of Singleton *et al.* (1999). A 0.1 mL aliquot of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent was added to 0.1 mL reconstituted extract. A 2.0 mL saturated sodium carbonate (2%) was added to the mixture after 15 min. For 30 min, the mixture was left to remain at room temperature. TPC was determined using a spectrophotometer (Labo America, USA) at 760nm with gallic acid as a reference. The linear regression equation generated from the standard gallic acid calibration curve ($y = 0.0054x - 0.1$) was used to calculate TPC as milligrams of gallic acid equivalent per gram sample. Each sample was evaluated in triplicate.

Determination of total flavonoid content

The total flavonoid contents were determined using a modified colorimetric method described in the study of Sakanaka *et al.* (2005). A 1.0 mL of the sample and 4.0 mL of water were mixed in a flask. A 0.75mL of 5% sodium nitrite and 0.150mL of 10% of aluminum chloride were added to the mixture. After 5min at room temperature, 0.5mL of 1 M sodium hydroxide was added. A UV/VIS spectrophotometer (PG Instrument Ltd., UK) was used to measure the absorbance at 510nm. The results were expressed as

milligram catechol equivalent per gram sample from the standard catechol calibration curve ($y = 0.0101x + 0.0275$).

DPPH radical scavenging activity

The DPPH assay of **Brand-Williams *et al.* (1995)** was used to assess free radical scavenging activity of extracts. Ascorbic acid was used as a standard with different ranges (5-200 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) to generate the standard curve. The absorbance was measured at 517nm using a spectrophotometer. The activity of DPPH radical scavenging was determined as mg ascorbic acid equivalent (AAE)/g dry sample. The following equation was used to calculate the percent of DPPH radical-scavenging activity:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{DPPH radical scavenging activity (\% inhibition)} \\ & = \frac{\text{Abs}_{\text{control}} - \text{Abs}_{\text{sample}}}{\text{Abs}_{\text{control}}} \times 100 \end{aligned}$$

Ferric reducing power activity

The ferric reducing power was measured using a spectrophotometric method reported in the work of **Ferreira *et al.* (2007)**. The extracts reduced potassium ferricyanide to potassium ferrocyanide, which reacts with ferric chloride to form a ferric-ferrous complex. The absorbance of the generated complex was measured at 700 nm utilizing ascorbic acid as a standard. The extract concentration producing 0.5 of absorbance (EC_{50}) was established from the graph of absorbance versus extract concentration.

Anti-inflammatory activity

The percentage of hemolysis was performed in 2ml microtubes following the method described in the study of **Farias *et al.* (2013)** and was calculated as follows:

$$\% \text{ hemolysis} = \frac{\text{Abs}_{\text{test}}}{\text{Abs}_{\text{pc}}} \times 100$$

Where, Abs_{test} = Abs 540 of the 1% cell suspension treated with sample test and Abs_{pc} = Abs 540 of the 1% cell suspension treated with distilled water.

In-vitro anti-inflammatory activity of extracts was estimated by the human red blood corpuscles (HRBCs) membrane-stabilizing method (**Anandarajagopal, 2013**). The percentage membrane stabilization was calculated by using the following formula:

$$\% \text{ Protection} = 100 - \left(\frac{\text{OD}_{\text{test}}}{\text{OD}_{\text{control}}} \times 100 \right)$$

Antimicrobial activity

Agar well diffusion assay of **Kadaikunnan *et al.* (2015)** was used for detecting the activity of the extract against five microbial species *Klebsiella pneumonia* (ATCC700603), *E. coli* (ATCC25922), *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC25923), *Streptococcus pyogenes* (EMCC1772), and *Candida albicans* (EMCC105), which

obtained from the city of Scientific Research and Technological Applications, using 100 μ l of the inoculums (1×10^8 CFU/ml).

Anti-cancer activity

The cytotoxicity of the algal extracts was determined using the methyl thiazolyl tetrazolium (MTT) assay following the method of **Abd El Hafez et al. (2022)**. Algal extracts were tested against colon human cancer cells (CACO) and normal human gingival fibroblast cell lines after dissolved in 10% DMSO. Cell lines were provided as a gift from the Faculty of Medicine, Alexandria University, Egypt.

Anti-diabetic activity

The inhibitory effect of algal extracts on α -glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.20) activity was determined according to the method described by **Abd El Hafez et al. (2021)**, with a slight modification. A 100mL aliquot, each extract (1.0 mg/mL) as a test, organic solvents as a control, and dist.H₂O as a blank, was diluted with 2.5mL of 0.1M phosphate buffer with a pH 7.4. An equivalent amount (100 mL) of the purified enzyme was added, thoroughly mixed, and the reaction mixture was incubated in a water bath at 30°C for 5min. Afterward, 500mL of PNPG (5 mM) was added, and the reaction was allowed to continue for 15min. The reaction was then stopped with 2mL of 1M Na₂CO₃, and the generated color was spectrophotometrically measured at 400nm. The released n moles of p-nitrophenol/min were used to establish a unit of enzyme activity.

$$\% \text{ Inhibition} = (1 - \text{Absorbance of the test well} / \text{Absorbance of the untreated (control)}) \times 100$$

Anti-acetylcholinesterase activity

The activity of acetylcholinesterase (AChE) was determined *in-vitro* following the method of **Ellman et al. (1961)**. A mixture of 20mL purified AChE enzyme, and 20mL extract (test) or organic solvent (control) was incubated for 45min at 37°C in phosphate buffer with a volume of 130 mL (0.1 M pH 7.4). Subsequently, 5 mL of ACTI (75 mM) substrate was added, mixed thoroughly, and incubated at 37°C for 15min. After that, 60 mL of DTNB (0.32 mM) was added and allowed to sit for 5min. The specific activity was estimated after measuring the absorbance at 405nm.

Statistical Analysis

All data collected were analyzed using one-way (ANOVA) by SPSS (n=3) and ($P < 0.05$) indicated a significant difference. Significant means were compared by Duncan post-hoc multiple comparison test.

RESULTS

GC-MS analysis

As shown in Fig. (1), the fatty acids and fatty acid esters components of the *U. prolifera*, *H. cornuta*, and *T. triquetra* extracts were identified by comparing their mass spectra to those of standard compounds stored in the GC-MS library. Table (1) highlights some significant chemicals that found in each algal extract, which may be involved in the

biological activities of these algae, in addition to other secondary metabolites such as phenolics and flavonoids.

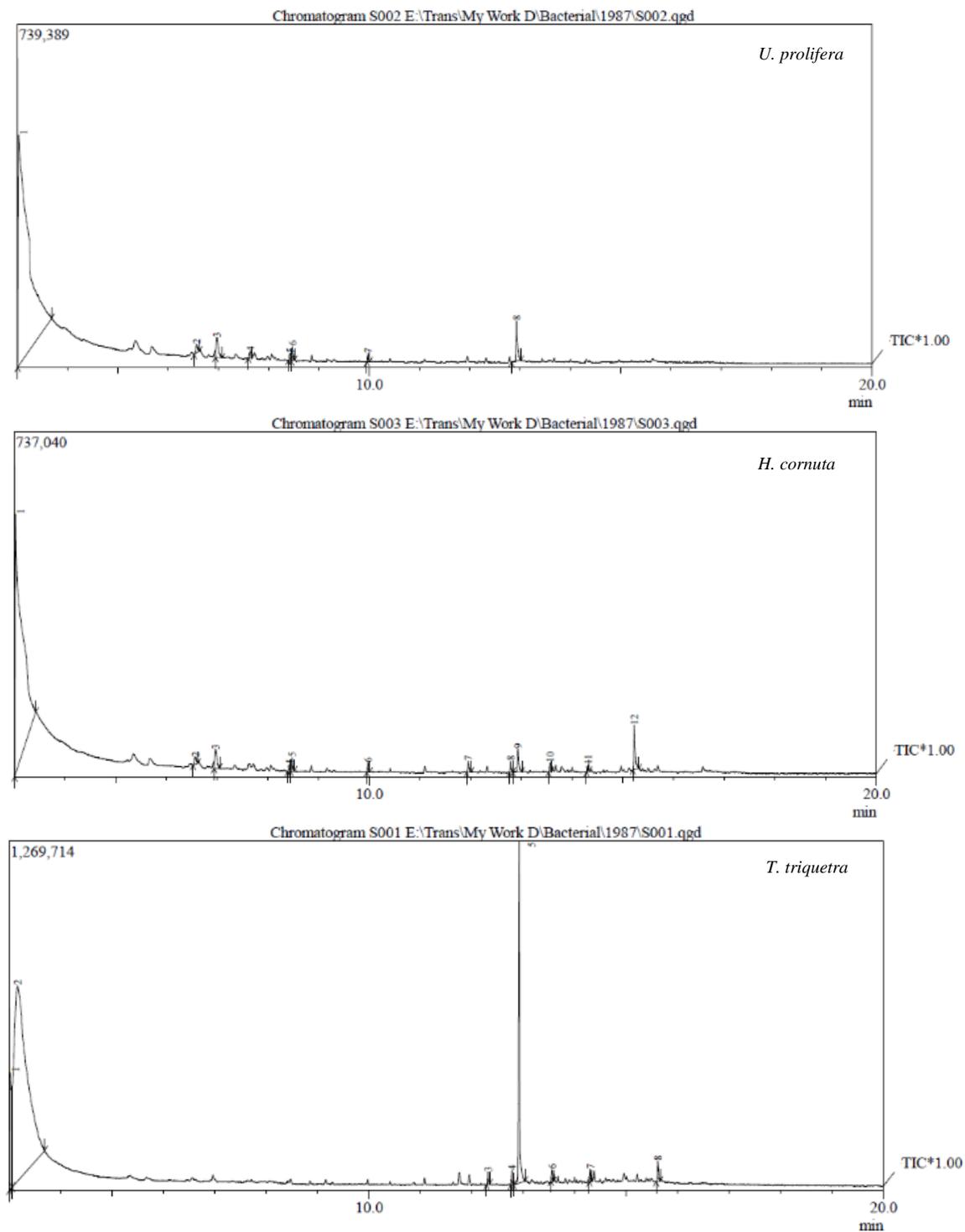


Fig. 1. Chromatogram of the three algal methanol extracts as investigated by GC-MS chromatography.

Table 1. The bioactive compounds identified by GC-MS that found in all the algal extracts.

Compound Name	Molecular Formula	Molecular Weight (m/z)
Cyanic acid, 2-methylpropyl ester	C ₅ H ₉ NO	99
Acetic acid, isopropyl ester	C ₅ H ₁₀ O ₂	102
Cyclopenta[c]furo[3',2':4,5]furo[2,3-h][1]benzopyran-11(1H)-one, 2,3,6a,9a-tetrahydro-1,3-dihydroxy-4-methoxy	C ₁₇ H ₁₄ O ₇	330
3-Isoxazolecarboperoxoic acid, 4,5-dihydro-5-phenyl-, 1,1-dimethylethyl ester	C ₁₄ H ₁₇ NO ₄	263
4,8-Diacetyl-4H,8H-di[1,2,5]oxadiazolo[3,4-b:3,4-E]pyrazine	C ₈ H ₆ N ₆ O ₄	250
N-Acetyl-N-(acetyloxy) acetamide	C ₆ H ₉ NO ₄	159
N-Acetylacetamide	C ₄ H ₇ NO ₂	101
n-Nonyl iodide	C ₉ H ₁₉ I	254
3-Methylbenzoic acid, 2,4,6-trichlorophenyl ester	C ₁₄ H ₉ C ₁₃ O ₂	314
m-Toluic acid, Cyclobutyl ester	C ₁₂ H ₁₄ O ₂	190
p-Mentha-1,3,8-triene	C ₁₀ H ₁₄	134
n-Tridecane	C ₁₃ H ₂₈	184
1,2-Benzenedicarboxylic acid, diethyl ester	C ₁₂ H ₁₄ O ₄	222
Phthalic acid, 4-bromophenyl ethyl ester	C ₁₆ H ₁₃ BrO ₄	348
Ethyl 4-nitrophenyl ester	C ₁₆ H ₁₃ NO ₆	315
2,6,10,14-Tetramethylheptadecane	C ₂₁ H ₄₄	296
n-Hexadecanoic acid methyl ester	C ₁₇ H ₃₄ O ₂	270
n-Tridecanoic acid methyl ester	C ₁₄ H ₂₈ O ₂	228
1,2-Benzenedicarboxylic acid, bis(2-methylpropyl) ester	C ₁₆ H ₂₂ O ₄	278

Antioxidant activity of algal extracts

The highest phenolic and flavonoid contents were demonstrated in extracts of *T. triquetra* (Table 2). The DPPH free radical scavenging activity assay revealed a reduction in the concentration of DPPH due to the scavenging ability of the different compounds present in the algal extracts. According to Table (3), *U. prolifera* extracts had the highest DPPH IC₅₀ value of 1695.12±0.13 µg/ml, while *T. triquetra* extracts had the lowest IC₅₀ value of 671.50±0.21 µg/ml. The highest DPPH scavenging activity was found in *T. triquetra* extracts, then *H. cornuta*, and finally, *U. prolifera* extracts. The *U. prolifera* extract had the highest ferric reduction capacity, then *H. cornuta* extracts and *T. triquetra* extracts using ascorbic acid as a reference at p<0.05 (Table 4).

Table 2. Total phenolic and total flavonoid contents of algal extracts.

Extracts	Total phenolic (mg/g)	Total flavonoid (mg/g)
<i>U. prolifera</i>	36.53±0.21 ^b	18.16±0.31 ^b
<i>H. cornuta</i>	32.49±1.32 ^c	18.78±0.70 ^b
<i>T. triquetra</i>	41.11±0.40 ^a	32.07±0.35 ^a

Reported values are the mean ± SD of three replicates. Means in the same column with different lowercase letters are significantly different at p<0.05.

Table 3. DPPH radical scavenging activity of algal extracts.

Extracts	DPPH (IC ₅₀) µg/ml
Ascorbic	5.41±0.01 ^a
<i>U. prolifera</i>	1695.12±0.13 ^d
<i>H. cornuta</i>	915.68±0.18 ^c
<i>T. triquetra</i>	671.50±0.21 ^b

IC₅₀ (µg/ml): inhibitory concentrations at which 50% of DPPH radicals are scavenged. Means in the same column with different lowercase letters are significantly different at p<0.05.

Methanol extract of *T. triquetra* demonstrated the highest contents for total phenolic and total flavonoid 41.11±0.40 mg/g and 32.07±0.35 mg/g, respectively, as well as DPPH radical scavenging activity (IC₅₀ value of 671.50±0.21 µg/ml, with 74.46 % inhibition at a concentration of 1000 µg/ml). The lowest flavonoid contents were 18.16±0.31 mg/g found in *U. prolifera* extract with the highest reducing power EC₅₀ of 574.71±0.15 mg/ml, whereas extracts of *H. cornuta* revealed the lowest phenolic contents 32.49±1.32 mg/g.

Table 4. Ferric reducing power of algal extracts.

Extracts	Reducing power EC ₅₀ (mg/ml)
Ascorbic	16.82±0.01 ^a
<i>U. prolifera</i>	574.71±0.15 ^d
<i>H. cornuta</i>	432.91±0.19 ^c
<i>T. triquetra</i>	265.96±0.11 ^b

Means in the same column with different lowercase letters are significantly different at p<0.05.

Anti-inflammatory activity of algal extracts

The hemolytic activity of algal extracts on human RBC hemolysis is shown in (Table 5). Extracts of *H. cornuta* exhibited the highest hemolytic level, whereas *U. prolifera* and *T. triquetra* extracts had the lowest hemolytic level (p<0.05). The anti-inflammatory activity of algal extracts at different concentrations (10, 40, 100, 400, and 600 µg/ml) are presented in (Table 6). The *H. cornuta* extract showed the lowest IC₅₀ value of 313.56±0.11 µg/ml, whereas extracts of *U. prolifera* and *T. triquetra* IC₅₀ values were 315.79±0.03 µg/ml and 333.33±0.01 µg/ml, respectively. The IC₅₀ value of the reference drug diclofenac was 336.29±0.18 µg/ml.

Table 5. Hemolytic activity of algal extracts.

Concentration ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	% of Hemolysis		
	<i>U. prolifera</i>	<i>H. cornuta</i>	<i>T. triquetra</i>
10	3.45 \pm 0.02	3.24 \pm 0.22	3.38 \pm 0.08
40	3.78 \pm 0.14	3.31 \pm 0.08	3.58 \pm 0.12
100	3.85 \pm 0.06	3.58 \pm 0.04	5.14 \pm 0.18
400	4.12 \pm 0.18	3.65 \pm 0.13	8.65 \pm 0.02
600	4.32 \pm 0.24	4.12 \pm 0.06	10.00 \pm 0.05
IC₅₀ ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	1298.25\pm0.11^b	1396.23\pm0.23^a	973.68\pm0.17^c

Reported values are the mean \pm SD of three replicates. Means in the same column with different lowercase letters are significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

Table 6. Anti-inflammatory activity of algal extracts.

Concentration ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	Human RBCs membrane stabilization			
	<i>U. prolifera</i>	<i>H. cornuta</i>	<i>T. triquetra</i>	Diclofenac
10	96.55 \pm 0.07	96.76 \pm 0.05	96.62 \pm 0.12	95.18 \pm 0.14
40	96.22 \pm 0.03	96.69 \pm 0.12	96.42 \pm 0.02	94.24 \pm 0.05
100	96.15 \pm 0.11	96.42 \pm 0.02	94.86 \pm 0.07	92.31 \pm 0.02
400	95.88 \pm 0.08	96.35 \pm 0.09	91.35 \pm 0.04	91.28 \pm 0.03
600	95.68 \pm 0.12	95.88 \pm 0.03	90.00 \pm 0.02	89.21 \pm 0.08
IC₅₀ ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	315.79\pm0.03^b	313.56\pm0.11^c	333.33\pm0.01^a	336.29\pm0.18

Reported values are the mean \pm SD of three replicates. Means in the same column with different lowercase letters are significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

Anti-microbial activity of algal extracts

The inhibition zones of algal extracts against different microbial strains were measured as shown in Table (7). The *H. cornuta* extract demonstrated moderate activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*, whereas *U. prolifera* extract had the highest action against *Streptococcus pyogenes*. The antifungal activity of *H. cornuta* extract showed a limited inhibition zone against *Candida albicans* (12 \pm 0.02 mm). In the current investigation, methanol extracts of all the examined marine algae exhibited antibacterial activities against all tested bacteria. The *U. prolifera* and *H. cornuta* extracts demonstrated a considerable inhibition zone diameter against *Streptococcus pyogenes*, 45 \pm 0.12 and 25 \pm 0.14 mm, respectively.

Table 7. Anti-microbial activity of algal extracts.

Sample concentration %	Inhibition zone diameter (mm)*			MIC (mg/ml)
	0.1 mg/ml	0.05 mg/ml	0.025 mg/ml	
Gram-negative Bacteria				
<i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i> ATCC700603				
<i>H. cornuta</i>	ND	ND	ND	ND
<i>T. triquetra</i>	ND	ND	ND	ND
<i>U. prolifera</i>	20±0.05	19±0.02	10±0.04	0.025
<i>E. coli</i> ATCC25922				
<i>H. cornuta</i>	13±0.06	ND	ND	0.1
<i>T. triquetra</i>	ND	ND	ND	ND
<i>U. prolifera</i>	ND	ND	ND	ND
Gram-positive Bacteria				
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> ATCC25923				
<i>H. cornuta</i>	20±0.04	12±0.06	10±0.08	0.025
<i>T. triquetra</i>	12±0.07	11±0.01	10±0.02	0.025
<i>U. prolifera</i>	12±0.03	ND	ND	0.1
<i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i> EMCC1772				
<i>H. cornuta</i>	25±0.14	17±0.11	ND	0.05
<i>T. triquetra</i>	ND	ND	ND	ND
<i>U. prolifera</i>	45±0.12	37±0.16	28±0.08	0.025
Yeast				
<i>Candida albicans</i> EMCC105				
<i>H. cornuta</i>	12±0.02	ND	ND	0.1
<i>T. triquetra</i>	ND	ND	ND	ND
<i>U. prolifera</i>	ND	ND	ND	ND

*Diameter includes 5 mm well diameter.

ND; Not detected. MIC; Minimum inhibition concentration (mg/ml).

Anti-cancer activity of algal extracts

The IC₅₀ values for growth inhibition upon normal fibroblast cells and colon cancer (CACO) are given in (Table 8). The results indicated that *H. cornuta* was the safest and most potent anti-colon cancer extract, as it had the highest therapeutic index, while *T. triquetra* extract showed a therapeutic index lower than one, indicating its toxicity upon normal cells.

Table 8. Algal extracts activity against Colon cancer (CACO).

Extracts	Colon cancer (CACO) IC ₅₀ (µg/ml)	Normal fibroblast cells IC ₅₀ (µg/ml)	Therapeutic index
<i>U. prolifera</i>	378.3±0.02	783.37±0.07	2.068
<i>H. cornuta</i>	276.88±0.08	692.7±0.01	2.502
<i>T. triquetra</i>	274.32±0.05	124.36±0.03	0.543

Anti-diabetic activity of algal extracts

The three algal extracts exhibited remarkable α -glucosidase inhibition at all the concentrations examined (25, 50, 75, and 100 µg/ml). The inhibition effect was concentration-dependent, increasing as the concentration of the extract increased. The *U. prolifera* extract was the most effective inhibitor of α -glucosidase since it had the lowest IC₅₀ value of 15.71 ± 0.05 µg/ml, compared to acarbose, which inhibited α -glucosidase activity with an IC₅₀ value of 26.33 ± 0.02 µg/ml, as shown in Table (9).

Table 9. Anti-diabetic activity of algal extracts.

Extracts	(IC ₅₀) µg/ml
<i>Hypnea cornuta</i>	19.89 ± 0.03 ^b
<i>Turbinaria triquetra</i>	17.06 ± 0.08 ^c
<i>Ulva prolifera</i>	15.71 ± 0.05 ^d
Acarbose	26.33 ± 0.02 ^a

Reported values are the mean ± SD of three replicates. Means in the same column with different lowercase letters are significantly different at p<0.05.

Anti-acetylcholinesterase activity of algal extracts

The results of the three algal extracts revealed that they had an inhibiting impact on Acetylcholinesterase (AChE). The inhibitory effects increased as the extract concentration raise. The extract from *U. prolifera* was the most effective AChE inhibitor, with the lowest IC₅₀ value of 4.90 ± 0.01 µg/ml (Table 10).

Table 10. The anti-acetylcholinesterase activity of algal extracts.

Extracts	(IC ₅₀) µg/ml
<i>Hypnea cornuta</i>	16.97 ± 0.03 ^a
<i>Turbinaria triquetra</i>	12.58 ± 0.04 ^b
<i>Ulva prolifera</i>	4.90 ± 0.01 ^c

Reported values are the mean ± SD of three replicates. Means in the same column with different lowercase letters are significantly different at p<0.05.

DISCUSSION

Three macroalgae collected from Egyptian Red Sea shores, *T. triquetra* (brown algae), *H. cornuta* (red algae), and *U. prolifera* (green algae), were studied for their antioxidant, anti-microbial, anti-cancer, anti-inflammatory, anti-diabetic, and anti-acetylcholinesterase activities. Marine algae are a rich source of biologically active chemicals with therapeutic effects, and their potential use in treating and preventing chronic diseases requires further exploration (Abd El Hafez *et al.*, 2020, Alkhalaf, 2021). Because of the harsh conditions, where many macroalgae reside, powerful defensive mechanisms have evolved various sources of biologically active chemicals with structural and activity variations that differ from those existing in the terrestrial plants. Tetradecanoic acid, hexadecanoic acid, octadecanoic acid, and methyl ester were among the major constituents in many macroalgae species (Mohy El-Din and El-Ahwany, 2016).

Heptadecanes, derived from fatty acids, are one of the principal components of the marine green algae *Ulva pertusa* and are the signature impact compound of edible kelp (Yamamoto *et al.*, 2014). Similarly, Hexadecanoic acid and 9,12,15-octadecatrienoic acid (α -linolenic acid) have been isolated from *U. prolifera* monomer compounds (Gao *et al.*, 2020). It has been recorded that the brown algae *Padina pavonica* (Dictyotales) and *Hormophysa triquetra* (Fuciales) contain a high concentration of terpenes and sterols. Palmitic acid was the most abundant saturated fatty acid in *Hypnea cornuta*, while palmitoleic and stearic acids were the most abundant unsaturated fatty acids, according to (Zhuang *et al.*, 2012).

The activity of marine algae extracts can vary depending on the species, season, collection methods, extraction techniques, and solvents utilized. Screening for antioxidant activities in natural products is a rapidly growing area of research, and several antioxidant potentials have been tested using different methods. The DPPH test depends on the capability of the DPPH reagent to act as a stable radical to decolorize in the presence of antioxidants providing a quick, reliable, and low-cost method for determining the antioxidative potential of many natural products (Molyneux, 2004). Total phenolic and total flavonoid contents estimation can be used as a rapid screening test for the

antioxidant activity of algal extracts. Marine algae are well known for synthesizing many secondary metabolites for free radical stabilization. It has been proposed that antioxidant action can use a variety of mechanisms to stabilize free radicals (**de Almeida et al., 2011**).

According to (**Farasat et al., 2014**), the green algae *Ulva clathrate* had the highest antioxidant activity, followed by *U. intestinalis*, *U. linza*, and *U. flexuosa*. Algal antioxidant activity is regulated by many processes and compounds, including lipophilic scavengers (carotenoids), enzymatic scavengers (catalase, superoxide dismutase, and peroxidase), and polyphenols (**Heim et al., 2002**). Seaweeds are rich in phenolic compounds, which have been related to their anti-bacterial and antioxidant activity (**Yuan et al., 2005**).

The existence of compounds possessing anti-microbial, antioxidant, and anti-cancer properties found in the bioactive secondary metabolites of concentrated extracts of the marine brown algae *Turbinaria conoides* and *Eucheuma cottonii* red algae was described by (**Kalaivani et al., 2016**). The antioxidant capabilities of different algae species are attributable to the presence of flavonoids and polyphenols, and the concentration of these bioactive substances determines the intensity of antioxidant potential (**Zhang et al., 2019**).

Sulfated polysaccharides isolated from the marine algae *Gracilaria caudata* were found to reduce tissue damage by inhibiting inflammation in an *in-vivo* study (**da Silva et al., 2019**). Similarly, in LPS-stimulated cells, brown algae inhibited oxidative stress-induced inflammation (**Kim and Kim, 2010**). These findings clearly illustrate the anti-inflammatory ability of various marine algae species. In line with the previous studies, the methanolic algal extracts used in this investigation revealed a notable anti-inflammatory effect and were most likely obtained by inhibiting oxidative stress through free radical scavenging.

Our results were agreed with **Awad (2000)**, which reported that many *Ulva* extract products possess anti-bacterial activity, and most of these molecules are identified as fatty acids, hydroxyl unsaturated fatty acids, glycolipids, steroids, phenolic, and terpenoids. The anti-microbial activity of *Ulva* organic extract appears to be related to its lipophilic and phenolic content (**Abd El-Baky et al., 2008**).

The brown algae *Cystoseira mediterranea* and *Cystoseira usneoides* were highly active against *S. aureus* (**Moreau et al., 1984**). A similar observation was established by **Das et al. (2005)**, who studied methanol extracts of some algae and found that they had mild to high anti-bacterial activity. In disagreement with our findings, **Ibtissam et al. (2009)** found that methanol extracts of *Sargassum vulgare* had no antibacterial activity against *E. coli* and *S. aureus* growth.

This finding could be clarified by **Kantachumpoo and Chirapart (2010)**, who noticed that the crude extracts from most brown algae species lack anti-microbial activity. According to **Salvador et al. (2007)**, brown and red seaweeds harvested in the spring and

autumn inhibited microorganisms. Environmental factors are believed to affect the biological activities of marine algae (**Lobban and Harrison, 1994**). The action of marine algae toward microorganisms can be attributed to reproductive status and seasonality (**Ely *et al.*, 2004**). Other significant reasons include the extraction method and the harvesting period (**Edwards *et al.*, 2006**).

Soluble bioactive metabolites in the solvent might explain the lower and higher antimicrobial activity of organic extracts towards microorganisms (**El Feky *et al.*, 2022**). *Turbinaria ornata* and *Sargassum wightii* marine algae extracts demonstrated significant efficacy against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and could be exploited as a potential source of antimicrobial drugs in the pharmaceutical industry (**Vijayabaskar and Shiyamala, 2011**). In contrast to the current findings, **Wong and Cheung (2001)** reported that red seaweeds had weaker antibacterial activity than green seaweeds owing to the high phenolic content of green seaweeds.

In the current study, methanol extracts inhibited cell proliferation of human cancer cell lines at various doses. These findings agree with prior research that discovered anticancer effects in many algae species. Green, brown, and red algal bioactive lipids, were discovered to suppress the growth of MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells (**Lopes *et al.*, 2020**).

The red alga *Porphyridium sordidum* contains a heteropolysaccharide that is cytotoxic to MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells (**Nikolova *et al.*, 2019**). Similarly, cytotoxic and antitumor effects of numerous algae species against various cancer cell lines were reported (**Zandi *et al.*, 2010**). Many research has linked the anticancer potential of algae to their polyphenol and flavonoid content (**Aravindan *et al.*, 2015**). Furthermore, the anticancer benefits of polyphenols are related to their capability to lower oxidative stress, which is thought to play a vital role in carcinogenesis (**Alkhalaf, 2021**).

Polyphenols and polysaccharides derived from marine macroalgae exhibited remarkable anti-diabetic activity by interfering with the carbohydrate metabolism (**Zhao *et al.*, 2018**). Bioactive compounds extracted from edible marine algae are significant in glucose-induced oxidative stress regulation and the inhibition of starch digesting enzymes (**Unnikrishnan *et al.*, 2015**). The nature of the compounds found in the algal extracts of the present study is consistent with earlier research that found them to be effective inhibitors of α -glucosidases. Ethanolic extracts of *E. stolonifera* and *E. cava* marine algae had detectable AChE inhibitory activity as reported by (**Yoon *et al.*, 2008**), which is consistent with our findings. Seaweed extracts have also been tested against the AChE enzyme with positive results, according to Machado (**Machado *et al.*, 2015**).

CONCLUSION

The current study provides approximately data on the phytochemical constituents of three algal extracts for novel pharmaceutical compounds synthesis. Bioactive compounds found in algae are awaiting a significant breakthrough to be used as natural antioxidants in various food and pharmaceutical products. These algal extracts have antibacterial activity against bacterial infections, lending credence to their traditional use and implying a future role for these algae in combating microbial populations. Moreover, the algal extracts also exhibited significant anti-inflammatory, anti-diabetic, anti-acetylcholinesterase, and anti-tumor activities. The algal extracts examined in this study will require further fractionation and pharmacological evaluation to complete the preclinical investigations for their therapeutic uses in preventing and treating chronic diseases.

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