

Conspicuous Elicitation Potential of Chitosan and Salicylic Acid on the Production of Valuable Compounds in the Callus Culture of *Alcea rosea*

Yawar Abbas^{1*}, Masooma Jawad Hussain¹, Gohar Zaman¹, Hasnat Tariq¹, Zain Asif¹ Aneeza Rafiq¹, Marya Nawaz Malik², Rhuma Nisar², Humaira Fatima² and Bilal Haider Abbasi¹

¹Department of Biotechnology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad 45320, Pakistan

²Department of Pharmacy, Quaid-I-Azam University, Islamabad 45320, Pakistan

Citation: Abbas Y, Masooma Jawad H, Zaman G, et al. Conspicuous Elicitation Potential of Chitosan and Salicylic Acid on the Production of Valuable Compounds in the Callus Culture of *Alcea rosea*. *J Altern Complement Integra Med* 2024; 1(1): 42-50.

Received: 10 November, 2024; **Accepted:** 06 December, 2024; **Published:** 10 December, 2024

***Corresponding author:** Abbas Y, Department of Biotechnology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad 45320, Pakistan, E-mail: ayawar@bs.qau.edu.pk

Copyright: © 2024 Abbas Y, et al., This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

ABSTRACT

All across the world, *Alcea rosea* is valuable for its many applications as an antioxidant, antibacterial and anticancer agent. As per established literature, for the sustainable (environmentally, economically and socially responsible) production of plant biomass and its phytochemical content, a variety of biotechnological techniques must be used. Elicitation has been demonstrated to be an extremely effective method for increasing the generation of secondary metabolites in a variety of in vitro cultures. In this study, callus cultures were exposed to various doses of chitosan and salicylic acid as elicitors. Enhancing biomass accumulation and secondary metabolite contents were the major goal. Maximum biomass accumulation for chitosan (FW: 308.25 g/L; DW: 14.75 g/L) was shown at a concentration of 10 mg/L, but for salicylic acid (FW: 281.25 g/L; DW: 14.23 g/L), the maximum biomass was seen at a substantial amount of 40 mg/L. In comparison to control and S.A-treated cultures, calli were grown on MS media supplemented with chitosan (15 mg/L) demonstrated the highest total phenolic and total flavonoid contents and production (TPC: 8.59 µg GAE/mg, TPP: 137.44 µgGAE/mg; TFC: 15.17 µg QE/mg, TFP: 242.76 µg QE/mg). With regard to antioxidant tests, cultures treated with SA (40mg/L) were detected 80.9 percent and showed the highest degree of DPPH activity as compared to CHT (15mg/L) which was detected 75.4% and control (49.4 percent). Furthermore, callus culture treated with CHT (15 mg/L) (185.3 µg AAE/mg; 168.8 µg AAE/mg) and salicylic acid (50 mg/L) (169.1 µg AAE/mg; 99.2 µg AAE/mg) revealed the highest TRP and TAC, respectively. According to the HPLC results, production was determined to be best in callus cultures made from salicylic acid as opposed to chitosan cultures and control. Salicylic acid 60 mg/L and salicylic acid 50 mg/L, which are 12 and 7-folds greater than the control (0.26 µg/mg) respectively, both increased the overall synthesis of secondary metabolites in the cultures cultivated under those conditions (total production: 3.23 µg/mg and 1.92 µg/mg, respectively). By using HPLC, catechins, which are well-known to have substantial antioxidant and anti-cancer capabilities, were also measured. Salicylic acid cultures showed optimal catechin concentrations (1.25 µg/mg), which are nearly 4 times higher than the control (0.21 µg/mg). Comparing emodin (0.51 µg/mg) to salicylic acid and control, it was the compound that was most accumulated in chitosan-derived cultures. The results showed both elicitors were very effective to increase biomass accumulation and polyphenol content in *Alcea rosea* callus cultures.

Keywords: *Alcea Rosea*, Chitosan, Salicylic Acid, Callus Culture, Phenolics, Flavonoids, TAC, TRP, Elicitation.

Abbreviations: TDZ: Thidiazuron; NAA: μ -Naphthalene acetic acid; DPPH: 2, 2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl; DW: Dry weight; FW: Fresh weight; TFC: Total flavonoid content; TPC: Total phenolic content; TAC: Total antioxidant capacity; TRP: Total reducing potential

1. Introduction

Pharmaceutical medications are intrinsically linked to medicinal plants and the vast majority of people in the world depend on them for their health. Interest in using plant cell and tissue culture to produce commercially significant medicinal components has grown recently¹. Among various medicinal plants, *Alcea rosea* (L), commonly known as garden Hollyhock, is a potential medicinal species that belongs to the Malvaceae family.

Alcea rosea (L.) is native to China, southern Europe and the Middle East. The Mediterranean and Central Asia. Expectorant, cooling, diuretic and emmenagogue were all traditional uses of *A. rosea*. Flowers are employed as an anti-inflammatory, febrifuge, demulcent and astringent ingredient in decoctions. Ulcers are treated with the roots of this plant. Inflammation of the kidneys and uterus can be treated with flowers as well as roots (Shah et al., 2011). Antimicrobial, cardiovascular, urolithiasis prevention, antiestrogenic, cytotoxic and immunomodulating properties were among the therapeutic properties of *Alcea rosea*.

A. rosea's pharmacological properties are attributed to a variety of phytochemical components. Mucilages (high molecular weight acidic polysaccharides with 1.3 to 1.6 million Dalton) were identified in *Alcea rosea* flowers and foliage. Glucuronic acid, galacturonic acid, rhamnose and galactose were found in these mucilages. Proteins, alkaloids, flavonoids and minerals were also present²⁻⁴.

Its therapeutic formulations, on the other hand, are made from wild plants, so unrelated components may be present in these commercial medicines. Instead of using whole plants, recent technologies based on tissue culture technology provide options for effective phytochemical production⁵. Tissue culture techniques have been widely recognized for their ability to produce concentrated amounts of metabolites⁶. Because of totipotency, practically every cell in an in vitro culture contains the entire genetic material and is capable of producing a wider spectrum of chemicals than parental plants. As a result, growing biotechnology and genetics trends have highlighted the use of in vitro culture techniques as model systems for plant pathology, physiology, biochemistry and production of medicinally important secondary metabolites in breeding and genetics⁷.

Therefore, this method can be utilized to produce phytochemicals that are either expensive to handle or difficult to obtain⁸. However, using in vitro culture technology, the primary issues connected with sustainable plant production are reduced contents, high variations and insufficient processes⁹.

An increasingly common alternative for the synthesis of medicinally useful chemicals that are either produced in small quantities in wild plants or challenging to chemically synthesize in plant in vitro culture¹⁰. These compounds are difficult to be created chemically or are expensive. Phytochemicals, biologically active compounds found in plants, are what give them their therapeutic properties. Plants respond to various conditions by producing phytochemicals¹¹⁻¹³. In response to internal and external stimuli, plants naturally create phytochemicals, although either in small amounts or only in certain parts of the plant¹⁰. There is still a production challenge even though plant cell and tissue culture is a good long-term manufacturing approach. For instance, elicitors can be used to

help with the challenges, which is a practical way to increase the yield of these medications¹⁴.

Elicitation, which includes different physiological and molecular components, is the process by which plants manufacture chemical defense as a stress response¹⁵. Both biotic and abiotic classifications apply to them¹⁶.

In contrast to biotic elicitors, which are biological substances or agents like chitosan, chitin, polysaccharides, yeast extracts, etc.^{17,18}, abiotic elicitors are non-biological in nature or origin and are further classified into physical, hormonal and chemical factors (light, osmotic stress, salinity, drought stress, thermal stress, salicylic acid and gibberellic acid)^{19,20}.

Elicitation reduces time and yield in low-volume cultures, making it one of the most popular and economical methods for induction and boosting secondary metabolite output²¹. However, several variables, such as elicitor concentration, elicitor specificity, nutritional content, elicitor exposure time and culture age, can have an impact on elicitation²²⁻²⁴.

Salicylic acid (SA), a potent plant signaling chemical, is involved in both disease resistance and growth responses²⁵. by stimulating the production of defense-related molecules, SA activates a defense mechanism²⁶. When apply exogenously, it imitates the interaction between the pathogen and the host and causes the expression of genes and enzymes necessary for the creation and catalysis of phenylpropanoid metabolites^{27,28}. SA has been routinely used as an abiotic elicitor to enhance BAIs in plant cell culture systems^{28,29}.

In plant cell culture, the successful elicitation of target secondary metabolites by signal components has been observed³⁰. Chitosan functions as a signal molecule in a range of plant cell cultures, triggering physiological and metabolic responses³¹. Chitosan, the second renewable source of carbon after lignocellulosic biomass, is a non-toxic biopolymer created from the alkaline deacetylation of chitin, a crucial component of fungi and arthropod cell walls³². Secondary metabolites like flavonoids, lignin and polyphenols are produced as a result of chitosan, which is found in a wide variety of plant species. It also induces plant defense enzymes^{33,30,34}. Additionally, it was demonstrated that utilizing chitosan might be one method for reducing the negative impacts of abiotic and biotic stresses³⁵.

Hence, the present study aimed to inspect the potential effects of SA and CHT as an elicitor for the increase of biomass yield and enhancement of secondary metabolites including total phenolic, flavonoids and polyphenols in the callus culture of *Alcea rosea*.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Germination of Seeds and Calllogenesis

Alcea rosea seeds were acquired from the Quaid-e-Azam University, Islamabad's Plant Cell Culture Laboratory (PCCL) seed bank. The seeds were first treated with alcohol and $HgCl_2$, then three times with autoclaved dH_2O ³⁶. The pH of the culture medium was set to 5.65 to 5.68 prior to autoclaving. After seeds were inoculated into flasks, they were incubated at a temperature of 25 ± 2 °C for 8/16 h (dark/light) with a light intensity of $40 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. As tissue culture had previously been optimized by³⁷, leaf explants (derived from in vitro plantlets) were cultivated on MS media fortified with 1 NAA and 0.1 TDZ for the callus

culture (Hasnat et al., 2022). After inoculation media flask with leaf explants, the flasks were then shifted to the culture room having optimum conditions for callus growth.

2.2. Elicitor Preparation

In order to prepare the elicitors, the method of khan et al., 2019 was used. CHT (chitosan) was dissolved in 0.1M acetic acid and then stirred for 5 hours at 60 °C temperature. 1mM Salicylic acid was dissolved in distilled water and stirred for 5 hours for proper mixing of salicylic acid¹⁶. Various concentrations of chitosan (0, 1, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 30 mg/L) and salicylic acid (0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50 and 60 mg/L) were used in MS (Murashige and Skoog) media along with 1 mg/L NAA and 0.1 mg/LTDZ and 30 g/L sucrose for elicitation experiments. Each flask was inoculated with approx. 0.5 grams of callus. A triplet was used for each concentration and then placed for 28 days in the growth room.

2.3. Sample Extraction

Calli were extracted from the cultured media on Whitman filter paper after 28 days and dried at room temperature for 20 minutes to eliminate any extra moisture adhered to the callus. In order to serve drying purposes, the study established the weight of fresh calli while keeping it at 48°C for 24 hours. Using a motor and pestle, dried calli were crushed into a fine powder.

To prepare the extract, 0.1 g of callus dry powder and 0.5 ml of methanol were mixed and vortexed for 5 minutes, followed by 30 minutes of sonication with a sonicator (USC1200TH) and finally 15 minutes of centrifugation at 12,000 rpm³⁹.

2.4. Total Phenolic Content (TPC)

The assay was carried out in a 96-well plate. In each well of a 96-well plate, a 20 µL of sample from each extract's 4 mg/ml stock solution was added. A 90 µL of FC reagent was then added. After 30 minutes of incubation at 37°C, 90 µL of sodium bicarbonate was added to each well on the plate. The optical density of the sample extracts was measured at 630 nm using a microplate reader. To create a calibration curve, gallic acid was used as a positive control in two-fold serial dilutions (2.5, 5, 10, 20, 40 µg/ml) and methanol as a negative control. The experiment's findings were represented as µg of gallic acid equivalent (GAE) per milligram of the extract.

2.5. Total Flavonoid Content (TFC)

The 96-well plate was used to conduct the assay. An aliquot of 20 µL from the test extracts (4 mg/ml) was added to each well, then 160 µL of distilled water, 10 µL of potassium acetate and 10 µL of aluminum chloride. The absorbance of the test extracts at a wavelength of 415 nm was assessed using a microplate reader after 30 minutes of incubation at room temperature. The calibration curve for this test was developed using quercetin at different doses (2.5, 5, 10, 20 and 40 µg/ml) as the positive control and methanol as the negative control. The results were calculated using the formula µg of extract/g quercetin equivalent (QE)/mg.

2.6. Total Reducing Power (TRP)

The reducing power of the extracts was computed using a potassium ferricyanide colorimetric test. A 250 µL potassium ferricyanide (1 percent w/v in distilled water) was combined with 200 µL of phosphate buffer (0.2 M, pH 6.6) and an aliquot of 100 mL of each test extract (4 mg/ml methanol) before being incubated at 50 °C for 20 minutes in a water bath. Each test chemical was mixed with 200 µL of trichloroacetic acid (10

percent w/v in distilled water) and the mixture was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature. The 50 µL of 0.1 percent w/v FeCl3 in distilled water on a 96-well plate were then added to the 150 µL of supernatant. The absorbance was then determined at 630 nm. Methanol acted as the negative control and ascorbic acid (1 mg/ml) served as the positive control. Ascorbic acid equivalent (AAE) was used to measure each sample's reducing power, which is given as µg AAE/mg (i.e. µg ascorbic acid equivalent per mg).

2.7. Total Antioxidant Capacity (TAC)

Using a phosphomolybdenum-based method, the test sample's overall antioxidant capacity was ascertained. The TAC reagent (0.6 M sulfuric acid, 28 mM sodium phosphate and 4 mM ammonium molybdate) was mixed with 900 µL of test extract (4 mg/ml methanol) and 100 µL of test extract. Methanol served as the negative control. The reaction mixture was then heated to 95 degrees Celsius and placed in a water bath for 90 minutes. After reaching 95 degrees Celsius, the reaction mixture was submerged in water for 90 minutes. The absorbance of the test and standard solutions was assessed at 630 nm after cooling. The antioxidant activity was calculated as the ascorbic acid µg equivalents per milligram of dry weight (µg AAE/mg of DW).

2.8. DPPH Free Radical Scavenging Assay

The compounds' antioxidant capacity was tested using the stable free radical 2, 2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH). A 10 µL of plant extract (4 mg/ml methanol) and 190 µL of DPPH solution (9.6 mg/100 methanol) were combined in order to achieve the reaction mixture's final concentrations of 200 µg/ml. The absorbance at 517 nm was measured using a microplate reader after 30 minutes of incubation at 37°C. To calculate the percentage of free radical scavenging activity, the study uses the formula below.

$$\text{Free Radical Scavenging Activity} = 1 - \frac{\text{As}}{\text{Ac}} * 100$$

Where, As and Ac, respectively, stand for the absorbance of the sample and the adverse control. Ascorbic acid was utilized as a positive control in the test, which was carried out in three iterations.

2.9. High-Performance Liquid Chromatography Analysis

Shimadzu HPLC system with controller (SCL-10AVP), degasser (DGU-14A), low-pressure mixer (FCV-10ALVP), pump (LC-10AT VP) in combination with 3D-PDA detector (SPD-M10A VP) and a software (LC solution) was employed to perform the RP-HPLC based analysis of polyphenols (total 13). Agilent Zorbax C8 (5 m; 4.6 250 mm) column was utilized. The binary gradient system was used to detect the polyphenols, employing mobile phase A (methanol: water: acetic acid: acetonitrile) in a ratio of (10:85:1:5) and mobile phase B (acetonitrile: methanol: acetic acid) in a ratio (40: 60: 1). At 1.2 ml/min, the flow rate was changed. 50 l was the injection volume. Furthermore, the gradient volume of the mobile phase B was 0-75 percent in the first 0–30 min, 75–100 percent in the next 0–31 min, 100 percent in the next 0–35 min and 0–36 min. The column underwent a 10-minute reconditioning process before the new sample was injected. Methanol was present in each standard at a concentration of 50 g/ml and the sample was made by dissolving 100 l in 1 ml of methanol. Polyphenol concentrations were calculated by comparing the UV absorption spectra and the retention duration of the sample to the reference.

2.10. Statistical Analysis

Each of the aforementioned trials was carried out in duplicate, synchronized and twice. To formalize statistical analysis, the mean value was determined in each experiment and the standard error was calculated (Microsoft Excel Program). All figures were created using the Origin program (8.5).

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. Effects of Chitosan and Salicylic Acid on Biomass Accumulation

Throughout the course of a plant's life cycle, salicylic acid is engaged in the regulation of vital biochemical and physiological parameters (Rivas-San Vicente and Plasencia, 2011). However, CHT has an impact on plant signal transduction pathways like Nitric oxide (NO) signals and phenylalanine ammonia lyase and it may assist regulate gene expression due to its intimate connection with chromatin. CHT and SA, as well as plant endogenous enzymes like SOD that aid in the deactivation of ROS's negative effects, are necessary for the increased production of phenolic and flavonoid chemicals³⁹.

Biomass accumulation (fresh and dry weights) of *A. rosea* was examined after applying different concentrations of CHT (1, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30 mg/L) and SA (10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60 mg/L) along with control having no elicitors. On the 28th day of inoculation, callus culture was harvested. In comparison to control, there was an increase in biomass production. In the case of Salicylic acid, the maximum biomass accumulation (fresh weight 281.25 g/L and dry weight 14.75 g/L) was seen with the 40 mg/L scales. At 60 mg/L of SA, the lowest result (157.25 g/L) was noted. The higher SA concentrations were revealed to prevent callus proliferation. This might be as a result of stress put on by increased SA concentrations⁴⁰.

Increased SA concentrations dramatically stress growth of cell, according to Bulgakov et al. (2002), causing less biomass to accumulate in *Rauwolfia cordifolia* callus culture. SA had only minimal influence on cell proliferation and biomass accumulation in callus cultures of grape and *Rosa* hybrid⁴¹⁻⁴³.

Salvia miltiorrhiza cell cultures' proliferation was observed to be modestly reduced by SA treatment in previous work (Li et al., 2003). The growth of *Rubia cordifolia* callus cultures was likewise found to be significantly constrained by raising the SA levels in the media⁴⁴. The current research is in agreement with previous reports⁴⁵.

In the case of Chitosan, the maximum biomass accumulation (308.25 g/L) was observed at the CHT (10 mg/L) and the lowest (165.91 g/L) value was recorded at CHT (30 mg/L). (Figure 1, Figure 2 and Figure 3) Based on the amount, CHT may have a negative impact on the growth of biomass, although this effect is counter balanced by the nutritional advantages of CHT^{46,47}.

The application of chitosan causes increased biomass accumulation, as it has the capacity to increase hydration and nutrition uptake by managing the osmotic pressure inside the cell^{48,49}. Different in vitro culture approaches for diverse plant species, including callus culture of flax⁵⁰ and *Fagonia indica*, as well as cell suspensions of different species of Basil⁴⁸ and red sage (*Salvia miltiorrhiza*)⁵¹, have all been proven to increase the formation of biomass.

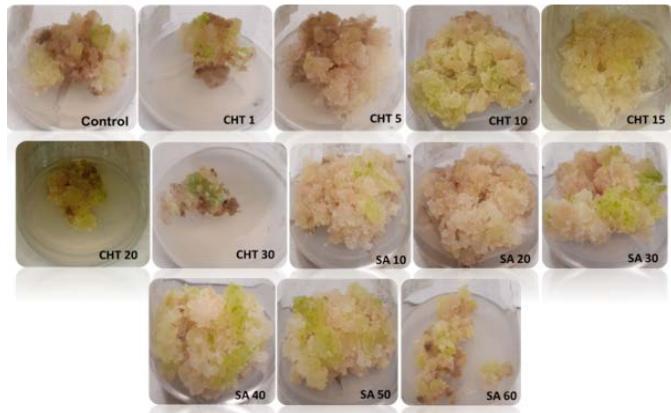


Figure 1: Morphology of *A. rosea* callus cultures grown in different concentration of CHT and SA.

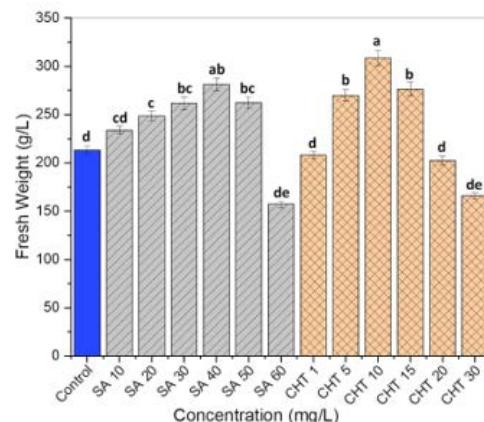


Figure 2: Fresh weight of *A. rosea* callus cultures, grown in different concentration of CHT and SA. Values are the mean \pm SD of 3 independent replicates. The different letters deficit the statistical differences among various experimental conditions ($p<0.05$).

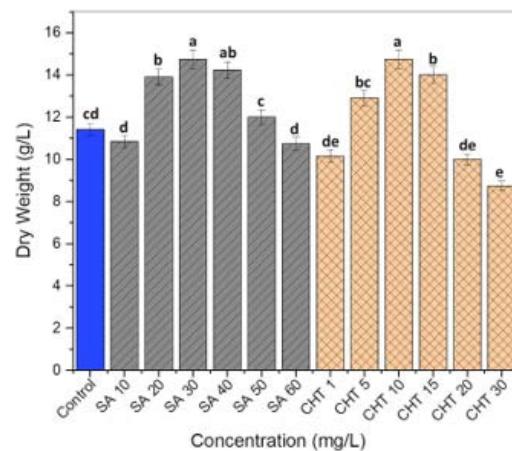


Figure 3: Dry weight of *A. rosea* callus cultures, grown in different concentration of CHT and SA. Values are the mean \pm SD of 3 independent replicates. The different letters deficit the statistical differences among various experimental conditions ($p<0.05$).

3.2. Effects of Chitosan and Salicylic Acid on Total Phenolic and Flavonoids Contents

Low molecular weight compounds like flavonoids and phenols serve vital roles in plant physiology and growth. They are the most discussed classes of chemicals due to their immense

potential for acting as signaling molecules, offering defense against pathogenic attacks and controlling essential biochemical processes, such as antioxidant activity⁵².

In the present study, phenolics and flavonoid contents were investigated in chitosan and salicylic acid derived cultures. Callus grown on MS media supplemented with chitosan (15 mg/L) showed maximum TPC, TPP, TFC and TFP (TPC: 8.59 µg GAE/mg, TPP: 137.44 µGAE/mg; TFC: 15.17 µgQE/mg TFP: 242.76 µgQE/mg) as compared to control (TPC: 3.05 µgGAE/mg, TFC: 7.48 µgQE/mg, TPP: 39.78 µgGAE/mg, TFP: 97.45 µgQE/mg) as shown in (Figure 4 and Figure 5).

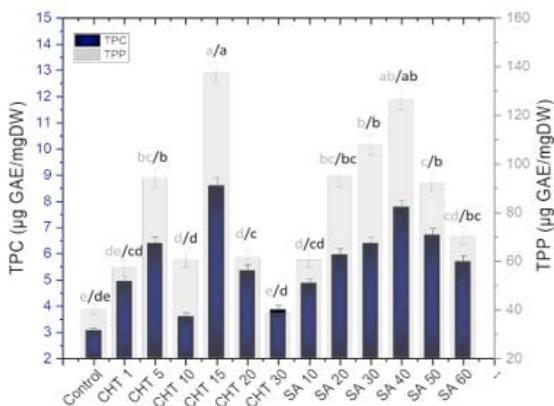


Figure 4: TPC and TPP of *A. rosea* callus cultures grown in different concentration of CHT and SA. Error bar represents the means deviation of triplicates. Values are the mean \pm SD of 3 independent replicates. The different letters deficit the statistical differences among various experimental conditions ($p<0.05$).

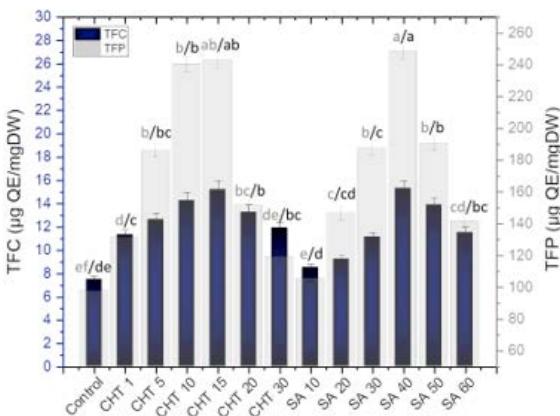


Figure 5: TFC and TFP of *A. rosea* callus cultures grown in various concentration of CHT and SA. Error bar represents the means deviation of triplicates. Values are the mean \pm SD of 3 independent replicates. The different letters deficit the statistical differences among various experimental conditions ($p<0.05$).

The increased production of phenolic and flavonoids may be due to CHT's ability to mimic naturally occurring fungal pathogenicity and therefore, induce plant defense mechanisms. Chitosan causes a number of defense responses, such as an increase in cytosolic H^+ and Ca^{2+} , activation of MAP-kinases, callose apposition, oxidative burst, hypersensitivity response (HR) and the synthesis of phytoalexins, jasmonate, abscisic acid (ABA) and proteins associated with disease (PR). CHT's effects on plant signal transduction pathways like phenylalanine ammonia-lyase and nitric oxide signals may also help control gene expression⁵³.

The synthesis of phenolic and flavonoids under different salicylic acid applications on callus cultures of *A. rosea* was also studied. When compared to the control, salicylic acid (40 mg/L) significantly increased the accumulation of TPC (7.77 mg/g), TPP (126.36 mg/L) and (TFC: 15.30 gGAE/mg TFP: 248.75 gGAE/mg). The stimulation of PAL activity and metabolic pathways are potential explanations for the enhanced TPC buildup. A series of substantial branch phenols are created as the yield increases⁵⁴. For instance, it was discovered that production was biomass-dependent and a positive association between phenolic and flavonoid production as well as biomass accumulation was noticed.

Similar findings have been made by other studies that have found that SA has a positive effect on flavonoid production in a number of plant species, which is consistent with the study findings^{55,56}. In these investigations, elevated expression of the genes and enzymes required for the synthesis of flavonoids was linked to the accumulation of flavonoids, which may also be the scenario in the present instance.

The augmented production of phenolic and flavonoid molecules, as well as plant endogenous enzymes like SOD that aid in the deactivation of ROS's damaging effects, are all facilitated by CHT and SA. Additionally, SA treatment enhances PAL activity, which results in increased phenolic compound accumulations⁵⁷.

3.3. Antioxidant Assays (DPPH, TAC, TRP)

When plants are under stress, they produce a significant amount of ROS, which damages essential organic molecules and restricts the growth and development of plants⁵⁸. However, plants contain a wonderful defense mechanism that utilizes low molecular weight antioxidant substrates and an antioxidant enzyme system to mitigate the detrimental effects caused by ROS⁵⁹.

One of the most popular types of these chemicals that act as free radical scavengers are phenolic compounds. Antioxidant assays including DPPH, TAC and TRP were used to evaluate antioxidant activity. Due to its high sensitivity, moderate clarity and practicability, the DPPH test is a widely used technique for assessing the antioxidant potential of the products derived from plant cells. The existence of both ET- and/or HAT-based pathways for antioxidant activity is thought to be detectable by DPPH (2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyle), which is then used to calculate the %age of free radicals that the sample is able to scavenge⁶⁰.

In SA, the optimal DPPH activity was found (40mg/L) (80.9%) and CHT (15mg/L) (75.4%) in treated cultures as compared to control (49.4%) (Fig. 4.6). This is due to the fact that flavonoids and phenolics account for the majority of plants' antioxidant potential^{61,62}. According to a report, in order to defend cells from ROS, SA activated several antioxidant enzyme genes, including those for SODs, catalases and ascorbate peroxidases. Moreover, highest TRP and TAC was detected in callus culture treated with CHT (15mg/L) i.e. (185.3 µg AAE/mg; 168.8 µg AAE/mg) and salicylic acid (50mg/L) i.e. (169.1 µg AAE/mg; 11.1 µg AAE/mg), respectively and this could be aligned with higher secondary metabolite production (Figure 6, Figure 7 and Figure 8).

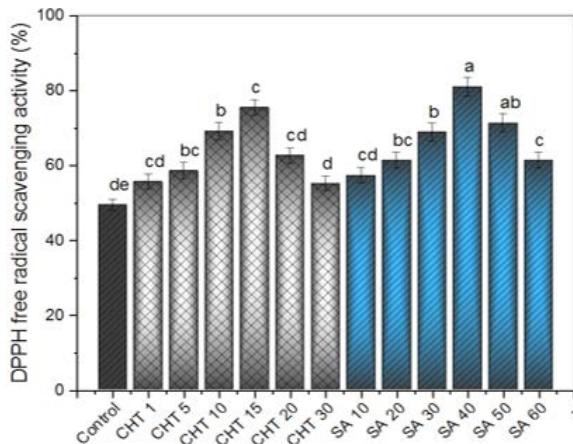


Figure 6: DPPH-FRSA activity of *A. rosea* callus cultures grown in various concentrations of CHT and SA. Error bar represents the means deviation of triplicates. Values are the mean \pm SD of 3 independent replicates. The different letters deficit the statistical differences among various experimental conditions ($p<0.05$).

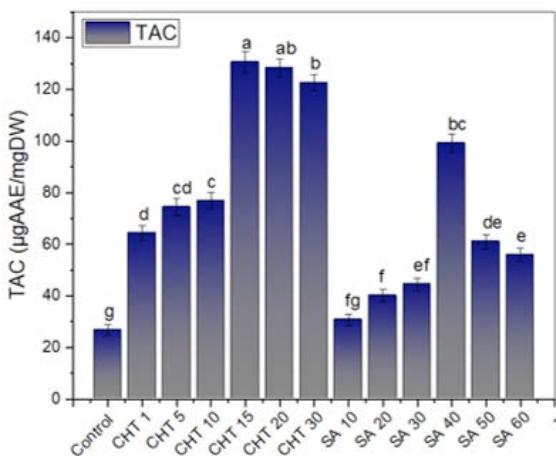


Figure 7: Total antioxidant capacity (TAC) of *A. rosea* callus cultures grown in various concentrations of CHT and SA. Error bar represents the means deviation of triplicates. Values are the mean \pm SD of 3 independent replicates. The different letters deficit the statistical differences among various experimental conditions ($p<0.05$).

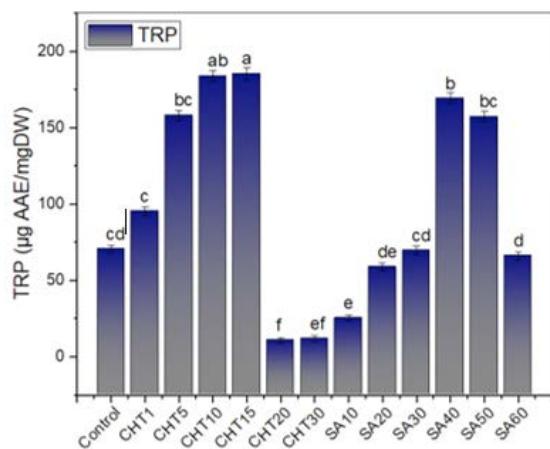


Figure 8: Total reducing power (TRP) of *A. rosea* callus cultures grown in various concentrations of CHT and SA. Error bar represents the means deviation of triplicates. Values are the mean \pm SD of 3 independent replicates. The different letters deficit the statistical differences among various experimental conditions ($p<0.05$).

3.4. Quantification of Polyphenols in *Alcea rosea* Callus Culture by RP-HPLC

A sophisticated method for evaluating secondary metabolites is HPLC. *A. rosea* callus cultures produced from chitosan and salicylic acid were measured in the current investigation for a total of 13 polyphenolics. The HPLC results demonstrate that the salicylic acid-derived callus cultures were found to yield the highest level of polyphenolics as compared to chitosan-derived cultures and control. The maximum amount of these chemicals could be produced in cultures that were grown in salicylic acid 60 mg/L (total production: 3.23 µg/mg) followed by salicylic acid 50 mg/L (total production: 1.92 µg/mg) which are 12 and 7 folds higher than control (0.26 µg/mg), respectively.

The production levels in salicylic acid 40 mg/L (1.67 µg/mg), chitosan 1 mg/L and chitosan 10 mg/L (1.72 µg/mg and 1.13 µg/mg, respectively) cultures were also found feasible while chitosan 30 mg/L and 20 mg/L cultures had the least impact on the generation of secondary metabolites (Table 1).

Table 1: RP-HPLC-based quantification of polyphenols in callus culture of *Alcea rosea*.

Polyphenols quantified (µg/mg Dry weight)													
Treatment	Conc.	Vanillic acid	Rutin	Catechin	Syringic acid	Coumeric acid	Emodine	Gentisic acid	Caffeic acid	Ferulic acid	Cinnemic acid	Luteolin	Apigenin
Control		0.016 \pm 0.0017	0.14 \pm 0.01	0.212 \pm 0.02	0.031 \pm 0.0018	0.003 \pm 0.0008	0.0 \pm 4.2 9 \pm 0.018	0.0 \pm 1.3 \pm 0.0012	0.027 \pm 0.0016	0.004 \pm 0.0006	0.006 \pm 0.0014	0.082 \pm 0.012	0.02 \pm 0.0017
	1	0.0 \pm 0.0 4 \pm 0.001	0.029 \pm 0.003	0.251 \pm 0.03	0.007 \pm 0.0012	0.013 \pm 0.0013	0.486 \pm 0.019	0.005 \pm 0.0009	0.012 \pm 0.0013	0.004 \pm 0.0006	0.028 \pm 0.0018	0.532 \pm 0.018	0.035 \pm 0.0018
	5	0.0003 \pm 0.0007	0.0 \pm 0.8 8 \pm 0.007	0.055 \pm 0.016	0.004 \pm 0.0011	0.009 \pm 0.0011	0.317 \pm 0.015	0.022 \pm 0.0015	Nd	0.0009 \pm 0.0004	0.0006 \pm 0.001	0.008 \pm 0.001	0.0009 \pm 0.001
	10	0.029 \pm 0.0018	0.097 \pm 0.008	0.267 \pm 0.03	0.025 \pm 0.0016	0.037 \pm 0.002	0.294 \pm 0.014	0.042 \pm 0.002	0.047 \pm 0.002	0.028 \pm 0.001	Nd	0.141 \pm 0.013	0.053 \pm 0.0019
	15	Nd	0.07 \pm 0.006	0.193 \pm 0.02	0.003 \pm 0.001	0.007 \pm 0.001	0.518 \pm 0.02	0.035 \pm 0.0018	0.004 \pm 0.0006	0.003 \pm 0.0005	0.008 \pm 0.0014	0.216 \pm 0.015	0.018 \pm 0.0016
	20	0.001 \pm 0.0009	0.039 \pm 0.004	0.089 \pm 0.018	0.016 \pm 0.0014	0.03 \pm 0.0018	0.115 \pm 0.011	0.031 \pm 0.0017	0.009 \pm 0.0011	0.004 \pm 0.0006	Nd	0.012 \pm 0.012	9E-04 \pm 0.001
Chitosan	30	0.001 \pm 0.0009	0.056 \pm 0.005	0.042 \pm 0.015	0.004 \pm 0.001	0.025 \pm 0.0017	0.118 \pm 0.011	0.011 \pm 0.0011	0.005 \pm 0.0007	0.002 \pm 0.0004	0.002 \pm 0.0012	0.024 \pm 0.013	0.002 \pm 0.0013
	10	0.004 \pm 0.001	0.018 \pm 0.002	0.087 \pm 0.018	0.035 \pm 0.002	0.016 \pm 0.0015	0.146 \pm 0.013	0.02 \pm 0.0014	0.045 \pm 0.0019	0.005 \pm 0.0007	0.008 \pm 0.0014	0.171 \pm 0.014	0.019 \pm 0.0016
	20	0.0 \pm 0.0 0 3 \pm 0.0007	0.02 \pm 0.002	0.184 \pm 0.02	0.009 \pm 0.0013	Nd	0.142 \pm 0.012	0.018 \pm 0.0013	0.03 \pm 0.0017	0.003 \pm 0.0005	0.008 \pm 0.0014	0.08 \pm 0.012	0.005 \pm 0.0014

	30	0 . 0 0 0 4 ±0.0007	0.034 0.004	0.028 0.014	0.007 0.0012	0.002 0.0007	0.156 0.013	0.005 0.0009	0.013 0.0013	0 . 0 0 0 8 ±0.0003	0.005 0.0013	0.044 0.011	0.004 0.0014
	40	0 . 0 0 0 4 ±0.0007	0.062 0.005	0.713 0.06	0.005 0.0012	0.021 0.0016	0.485 0.019	0.026 0.0016	0.006 0.0008	0 . 0 0 0 3 ±0.0002	0.011 0.0015	0.15 0.013	0.028 0.0017
	50	0.005 0.001	0.094 0.007	0.574 0.05	0.031 0.0018	0.027 0.0017	0.409 0.017	0.003 0.0007	0.007 0.0009	0.006 ± 0.0008	0.013 0.0016	0.32 0.016	0.018 0.0016
Salicylic acid	60	0.036 ± 0.002	0.12 ± 0.009	1.254 ± 0.08	0.002 ± 0.0009	0.011 ± 0.0012	0.368 ± 0.016	0.008 ± 0.001	0.008 ± 0.001	0.01 ± 0.0009	0.043 ± 0.002	0.75 ± 0.02	0.072 ± 0.002

In the present research work, the quantification of compounds through HPLC demonstrates that the optimal catechins concentrations (1.25 µg/mg) were found in salicylic acid-derived cultures as compared to the chitosan and is about 4 folds greater than control (0.21 µg/mg). Catechins have sufficient antioxidant and cancer-preventing properties. The most prevalent molecules in the callus cultures of *Uncaria elliptica* and *Fagopyrum esculentum* were epicatechin and epicatechin-3-O-gallate, respectively, according to recent investigations on the generation of catechins in vitro^{63,64}. However, on the contrary, enhanced catechins production was reported in chitosan-treated cultures than salicylic acid in *Fagonia indica*.

As for chitosan-derived cultures, the highest accumulated compound was emodin (0.51 µg/mg) as compared with salicylic acid and control. Emodin contains various medicinal properties including, anticancer, hepatoprotective, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant and antibacterial actions, according to newly available research⁶⁵.

These substances, for example, have significant pharmacological significance. According to earlier research, these metabolites have an anticancer effect by inhibiting intercellular communication, suppressing oncogenes, decreasing antioxidative forces, inducing apoptosis in a variety of cell lines and reducing antioxidative forces⁶⁶. Additionally, interactions between these polyphenolics and enzyme systems such as protein kinases and polymerases as well as cytochrome p540 have been discovered to have substantial anticancer properties⁶⁷.

4. Conclusions

As a consequence of the application of elicitors, the *A. rosea* callus cultures produced enhanced biomass and bioactive compounds. The callus cultures derived from CHT had increased concentrations of phenolics, flavonoids and antioxidant activity. Additionally, it was shown that the SA acid promoted the production of phytochemicals and biomass growth. SA-induced cultures produced metabolites more efficiently than CHT and control. According to the current findings, elicitors, particularly CHT, have a great potential for increasing polyphenolic chemicals in callus culture and producing biomass. From the aforementioned findings, it is implied that *A. rosea* callus cultures developed in different chitosan and concentrations of salicylic acid offer a consistent source for increased production of plant secondary metabolites with significant medicinal and industrial uses. The current research presents a competent protocol for high-frequency production of secondary metabolites that paves the way for elicitation of these metabolites in the cell suspension culture of *A. rosea* in the future. Without destroying the natural plant habitat, this method can be used while generating a larger mass of bioactive compounds in a short amount of time to address the rising demand for metabolites.

5. Author Contributions

Y.A performed experiments, TPC, TFC, DPPH, TAC and TRP activities. M.J.H assisted Y.A with major experiments and other biochemical assays. H.T, A.R and Z.A assisted Y.A in sample preparations. G.Z assisted Y.A with TPC, TFC and DPPH. M.N.M, R.N and H.F performed extraction for HPLC and conducted HPLC. B.H.A conceived the idea, supervised the

research and reviewed the paper critically.

6. Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

7. References

1. Hussain MJ, Abbas Y, Nazli N, Fatima S, Drouet S, Hano C, Abbasi BH. Root cultures, a boon for the production of valuable compounds: A comparative review. *Plants*, 2022;11: 439.
2. Classen B, Blaschek W. High molecular weight acidic polysaccharides from *Malva sylvestris* and *Alcea rosea*. *Planta medica*, 1998;64:640-644.
3. Dudek M, Matlawska I, Szkudlarek M. Phenolic acids in the flowers of *Althaea rosea* var. *nigra*. *Acta Poloniae Pharmaceutica*, 2006;63:207-211.
4. Azizov U, Mirakilova D, Umarova N, Salikhov S, Rakimov D, Mezhlumyan L. Chemical composition of dry extracts from *Alcea rosea*. *Chemistry of natural compounds*, 2007;43.
5. Alfermann A, Petersen M. Natural product formation by plant cell biotechnology. *Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture*, 1995;43:199-205.
6. Ravishankar G, Venkataraman L. Role of plant cell culture in food biotechnology: current trends, limitations and future prospects, 1993.
7. Gaj M. Factors influencing somatic embryogenesis induction and plant regeneration with particular reference to *Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh. *Plant Growth Regulation*, 2004;43:27-47.
8. Hussain MS, Fareed S, Saba Ansari M, Rahman A, Ahmad IZ, Saeed M. Current approaches toward production of secondary plant metabolites. *J of pharmacy and bioallied sciences*, 2012;4:10.
9. Matkowski A. Plant in vitro culture for the production of antioxidants a review. *Biotechnology advances*, 2008;26:548-560.
10. Kolewe ME, Gaurav V, Roberts SC. Pharmaceutically active natural product synthesis and supply via plant cell culture technology. *Molecular pharmaceutics*, 2008;5:243-256.
11. Ahmad I, Mahmood Z, Mohammad F. Screening of some Indian medicinal plants for their antimicrobial properties. *Journal of ethnopharmacology*, 1998;62:183-193.
12. Dubey N, Kumar R, Tripathi P. Global promotion of herbal medicine: India's opportunity. *Current science*, 2004;86:37-41.
13. Joshi B, Lekhak S, Sharma A. Antibacterial property of different medicinal plants: *Ocimum sanctum*, *Cinnamomum zeylanicum*, *Xanthoxylum armatum* and *Origanum majorana*. *Kathmandu university journal of science, engineering and technology*, 2009;5:143-150.

14. Teoh ES. Sources of medicinal orchids and conservation Medicinal orchids of Asia, 2016;691-727.
15. Gorelick J, Bernstein N. Elicitation: an underutilized tool in the development of medicinal plants as a source of therapeutic secondary metabolites. Advances in agronomy, 2014;124:201-230.
16. Khan T, Khan T, Hano C, Abbasi BH. Effects of chitosan and salicylic acid on the production of pharmacologically attractive secondary metabolites in callus cultures of *Fagonia indica*. Industrial Crops and Products, 2019;129:525-535.
17. Naik PM, Al-Khayri JM. Abiotic and biotic elicitors-role in secondary metabolites production through in vitro culture of medicinal plants. Abiotic and biotic stress in plants-recent advances and future perspectives, 2016;247-277.
18. Naik PM, Al-Khayri JM. Impact of abiotic elicitors on in vitro production of plant secondary metabolites: a review. Journal of advanced Research in Biotechnology, 2016;1:1-7.
19. Liang Z, Ma Y, Xu T, Cui B, Liu Y, Guo Z, Yang D. Effects of abscisic acid, gibberellin, ethylene and their interactions on production of phenolic acids in *Salvia miltiorrhiza* bunge hairy roots. PloS one, 2013;8:72806.
20. Liu Q, Li W, Guo T, Li D, Fan Z, Yan S. Efficient synthesis of a bisglycosyl kaempferol from *Fagonia taeckholmiana*. Chemistry letters, 2011;40:324-325.
21. Mulabagal V, Tsay HS. Plant cell cultures-an alternative and efficient source for the production of biologically important secondary metabolites. International journal of applied science and engineering, 2004;2:29-48.
22. Awad V, Kuvalekar A, Harsulkar A. Microbial elicitation in root cultures of *Taverniera cuneifolia* (Roth) Arn. for elevated glycyrrhizic acid production. Industrial Crops and Products, 2014;54:13-16.
23. Chodisetty B, Rao K, Gandi S, Giri A. Gymnemic acid enhancement in the suspension cultures of *Gymnema sylvestre* by using the signaling molecules-methyl jasmonate and salicylic acid. In Vitro Cellular and Developmental Biology-Plant, 2015;51:88-92.
24. Vasconsuelo A, Boland R. Molecular aspects of the early stages of elicitation of secondary metabolites in plants. Plant science, 2007;172:861-875.
25. Thulke O, Conrath U. Salicylic acid has a dual role in the activation of defence-related genes in parsley. The Plant Journal, 1998;14:35-42.
26. Molinari S. Salicylic acid as an elicitor of resistance to root-knot nematodes in tomato. Paper presented at the XV Meeting of the EUCARPIA Tomato Working Group 789, 2005.
27. Loc NH, Giang NT, Huy ND. Effect of salicylic acid on expression level of genes related with isoprenoid pathway in *centella* (*Centella asiatica* (L.) Urban) cells. 3 Biotech, 2016;6:1-7.
28. Yu ZZ, Fu CX, Han YS, Li YX, Zhao DX. Salicylic acid enhances jaceosidin and syringin production in cell cultures of *Saussurea medusa*. Biotechnology Letters, 2006;28:1027-1031.
29. Samet A, Piri K, Kayhanfar M, Hasanloo T. Influence of jasmonic acids, yeast extract and salicylic acid on growth and accumulation of hyoscyamine and scopolamine in hairy root cultures of *Atropa belladonna* L. International Journal of Agriculture: Research and Review, 2012;2:403-409.
30. Singh S. Enhancing phytochemical levels, enzymatic and antioxidant activity of spinach leaves by chitosan treatment and an insight into the metabolic pathway using DART-MS technique. Food chemistry, 2016;199:176-184.
31. Putalun W, Luealon W, De-Eknamkul W, Tanaka H, Shoyama Y. Improvement of artemisinin production by chitosan in hairy root cultures of *Artemisia annua* L. Biotechnology Letters, 2007;29:1143-1146.
32. Kurita K. Chitin and chitosan: functional biopolymers from marine crustaceans. Marine biotechnology, 2006;8:203-226.
33. Golkar P, Taghizadeh M, Yousefian Z. The effects of chitosan and salicylic acid on elicitation of secondary metabolites and antioxidant activity of safflower under in vitro salinity stress. Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture (PCTOC), 2019;137:575-585.
34. Cho M, No H, Prinyawiwatkul W. Chitosan treatments affect growth and selected quality of sunflower sprouts. Journal of food science, 2008;73:70-77.
35. Farouk S, Amany AR. Improving growth and yield of cowpea by foliar application of chitosan under water stress. Egyptian Journal of Biology, 2012;14:14-16.
36. Abbasi BH, Zahir A, Ahmad W, Nadeem M, Giglioli-Guivarc'h N, Hano C. Biogenic zinc oxide nanoparticles-enhanced biosynthesis of lignans and neolignans in cell suspension cultures of *Linum usitatissimum* L. Artificial cells, nanomedicine and biotechnology, 2019;47:1367-1373.
37. Tariq H andleeb A, Batool S, Ali U, Waqas M, Wahab A, Abbasi BH. Qualitative and quantitative analysis of high-value metabolites from callus culture of *Alcea rosea* L. Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture (PCTOC), 2024;157:68.
38. Zahir A, Abbasi BH, Adil M, Anjum S, Zia M. Synergistic effects of drought stress and photoperiods on phenology and secondary metabolism of *Silybum marianum*. Applied biochemistry and biotechnology, 2014;174:693-707.
39. El-Esawi MA, Elansary HO, El-Shanshorey NA, Abdel-Hamid AME, Ali HM, Elshikh MS. Salicylic Acid-Regulated Antioxidant Mechanisms and Gene Expression Enhance Rosemary Performance under Saline Conditions. Front Physiol, 2017;8:716.
40. Fazal H, Abbasi BH, Ahmad N, Ali SS, Akbar F, Kanwal F. Correlation of different spectral lights with biomass accumulation and production of antioxidant secondary metabolites in callus cultures of medicinally important *Prunella vulgaris* L. Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology, 2016;159:1-7.
41. Ali M, Kiani B, Mannan A, Ismail T, Mirza B. Enhanced production of artemisinin by hairy root cultures of *Artemisia dubia*. Journal of Medicinal Plants Research, 2012;6:1619-1622.
42. Obinata N, Yamakawa T, Takamiya M, Tanaka N, Ishimaru K, Kodama T. Effects of salicylic acid on the production of procyanidin and anthocyanin in cultured grape cells. Plant Biotechnology, 2003;20:105-111.
43. Ram M, Prasad K, Singh S, Hada B, Kumar S. Influence of salicylic acid and methyl jasmonate elicitation on anthocyanin production in callus cultures of *Rosa hybrida* L. Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture (PCTOC), 2013;113:459-467.
44. Bulgakov V, Tchernoded G, Mischenko N, Khodakovskaya M, Glazunov V, Radchenko S, Zhuravlev YN. Effect of salicylic acid, methyl jasmonate, ethephon and cantharidin on anthraquinone production by *Rubia cordifolia* callus cultures transformed with the *rolB* and *rolC* genes. J of biotechnology, 2002;97:213-221.
45. Sudha G, Ravishankar G. Influence of methyl jasmonate and salicylic acid in the enhancement of capsaicin production in cell suspension cultures of *Capsicum frutescens* Mill. Current science, 2003;1212-1217.
46. Ali M, Abbasi BH, Ihsan ul h. Production of commercially important secondary metabolites and antioxidant activity in cell suspension cultures of *Artemisia absinthium* L. Industrial Crops and Products, 2013;49:400-406.
47. Sivanandhan G, Arun M, Mayavan S, Rajesh M, Mariashibu TS, Manickavasagam M, Ganapathi A. Chitosan enhances withanolides production in adventitious root cultures of *Withania somnifera* (L.) Dunal. Industrial Crops and Products, 2012;37:124-129.

48. Bautista-Baños S, Hernández-López M, Bosquez-Molina E, Wilson CL. Effects of chitosan and plant extracts on growth of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, anthracnose levels and quality of papaya fruit. *Crop Protection*, 2003;22:1087-1092.

49. Hien NQ. Radiation degradation of chitosan and some biological effects. *Radiation processing of polysaccharides*, 2004;1422:67.

50. Ahmad W, Zahir A, Nadeem M, Garros L, Drouet S, Renouard S, Abbasi BH. Enhanced production of lignans and neolignans in chitosan-treated flax (*Linum usitatissimum L.*) cell cultures. *Process Biochemistry*, 2019;79:155-165.

51. Zhao JL, Zhou LG, Wu JY. Effects of biotic and abiotic elicitors on cell growth and tanshinone accumulation in *Salvia miltiorrhiza* cell cultures. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*, 2010;87:137-144.

52. Ali G, Neda G. Flavonoids and phenolic acids: Role and biochemical activity in plants and human. *Journal of medicinal plants research*, 2011;5:6697-6703.

53. Iriti M, Faoro F. Chitosan as a MAMP, searching for a PRR. *Plant signaling & behavior*, 2009;4:66-68.

54. Dong J, Wan G, Liang Z. Accumulation of salicylic acid-induced phenolic compounds and raised activities of secondary metabolic and antioxidative enzymes in *Salvia miltiorrhiza* cell culture. *J Biotechnol*, 2010;148:99-104.

55. Ali MB, Hahn EJ, Paek KY. Methyl jasmonate and salicylic acid induced oxidative stress and accumulation of phenolics in *Panax ginseng* bioreactor root suspension cultures. *Molecules*, 2007;12:607-621.

56. Gu CS, Yang YH, Shao YF, Wu KW, Liu ZL. The effects of exogenous salicylic acid on alleviating cadmium toxicity in *Nymphaea tetragona* Georgi. *South African Journal of Botany*, 2018;114:267-271.

57. Valko M, Leibfritz D, Moncol J, Cronin MT, Mazur M, Telser J. Free radicals and antioxidants in normal physiological functions and human disease. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol*, 2007;39:44-84.

58. Younas M, Drouet S, Nadeem M, Giglioli-Guivarc'h N, Hano C, Abbasi BH. Differential accumulation of silymarin induced by exposure of *Silybum marianum L.* callus cultures to several spectres of monochromatic lights. *J Photochem Photobiol B*, 2018;184:61-70.

59. Moran JF, Becana M, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Frechilla S, Klucas RV, Aparicio-Tejo P. Drought induces oxidative stress in pea plants. *Planta*, 1994;194:346-352.

60. Abbasi BH, Khan MA, Mahmood T, Ahmad M, Chaudhary MF, Khan MA. Shoot regeneration and free-radical scavenging activity in *Silybum marianum L.* *Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture (PCTOC)*, 2010;101:371-376.

61. Fazal H, Abbasi BH, Ahmad N, Ali M. Elicitation of Medicinally Important Antioxidant Secondary Metabolites with Silver and Gold Nanoparticles in Callus Cultures of *Prunella vulgaris L.* *Appl Biochem Biotechnol*, 2016;180:1076-1092.

62. Fariz A, Arvind B, Chan LK, Gunawan I, Shaida FS. Effect of yeast extract and chitosan on shoot proliferation, morphology and antioxidant activity of *Curcuma manga* in vitro plantlets. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 2011;10:7787-7795.

63. Moumou Y, Vasseur J, Trotin F, Dubois J. Catechin production by callus cultures of *Fagopyrum esculentum*. *Phytochemistry*, 1992;31:1239-1241.

64. Trotin F, Moumou Y, Vasseur J. Flavanol production by *Fagopyrum esculentum* hairy and normal root cultures. *Phytochemistry*, 1993;32:929-931.

65. Dong X, Fu J, Yin X, Cao S, Li X, Lin L, Ni J. Emodin: A Review of its Pharmacology, Toxicity and Pharmacokinetics. *Phytother Res*, 2016;30:1207-1218.

66. Nabavi SM, Habtemariam S, Daglia M, Nabavi SF. Apigenin and Breast Cancers: From Chemistry to Medicine. *Anticancer Agents Med Chem*, 2015;15:728-735.

67. Middleton EM, Teramura AH. The role of flavonol glycosides and carotenoids in protecting soybean from ultraviolet-B damage. *Plant Physiol*, 1993;103:741-752.