A DISSERTATION ON

Antioxidant and antimycobacterial efficacy of extracts from different cyanobacterial strains and their phytochemical analysis

SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF BIOENGINEERING FACULTY OF ENGINEERING & INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

INTEGRAL UNIVERSITY, LUCKNOW

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE M.TECH (BIOTECHNOLOGY) IN BIOTECHNOLOGY

BY

 ADILA SALIM M.Tech Biotechnology (IV Semester/2nd year) Roll No: 2101361001

UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF

 Dr.Alvina Farooqui Professor and Head Department of Bioengineering

INTEGRAL UNIVERSITY, DASAULI, KURSI ROAD LUCKNOW- 226026

DECLARATION FORM

I, Adila Salim, a student of M.Tech Biotechnology IV Semester, Integral University have completed my six months dissertation work entitled "Antioxidant and antimycobacterial efficacy of extracts from different cyanobacterial strains and their phytochemical analysis" successfully from (Department of Bioengineering Integral University Lucknow) under the able guidance of Dr. Alvina Farooqui, Professor and Head, Department of Bioengineering.

I, hereby, affirm that the work has been done by me in all aspects. I have sincerely prepared this project report and the results reported in this study are genuine and authentic.

Name and Signature of Student with Date

Name and Signature of Course Coordinator with Date

Phone No.: +91(0522) 2890812, 2890730, 3296117, 6451039, Fax No.: 0522-2890809

Kursi Road, Lucknow-226026 Uttar Pradesh (INDIA)

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Ms. Adila Salim (Enrollment Number 2100103792) has carried out the research work presented in this thesis entitled "Antioxidant and antimycobacterial efficacy of extracts from different cyanobacterial strains and their phytochemical analysis" for the award of (M.Tech. Biotechnology) from Integral University, Lucknow under my supervision. The thesis embodies results of original work and studies carried out by the student himself and the contents of the thesis do not form the basis for the award of any other degree to the candidate or to anybody else from this or any other University/Institution. The dissertation was a compulsory part of her (M.Tech. Biotechnology) degree.

I wish her good luck and bright future.

Dr.Alvina Farooqui Professor and Head Department of Bioengineering Faculty of Engineering & Information Technology

CERTIFICATE BY INTERNAL ADVISOR

This is to certify that Ms. Adila Salim, a student of M.Tech Biotechnology (2nd Year/ 1V semester) Integral University has completed her six months dissertation work entitled "Antioxidant and antimycobacterial efficacy of extracts from different cyanobacterial strains and their phytochemical analysis" successfully. She has completed this work from (Department of Bioengineering, Integral University Lucknow) under the guidance of (Dr. Alvina Farooqui, Professor and Head, Department of Bioengineering). The dissertation was a compulsory part of her (M.Tech.Biotechnology) degree.

I wish her good luck and bright future.

 Dr.Alvina Farooqui Professor and Head Department of Bioengineering Faculty of Engineering & Information Technology

Kursi Road, Lucknow-226026 Uttar Pradesh (INDIA)

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Ms. Adila Salim a student of M.Tech. Biotechnology IV Semester, Integral University has completed her six months dissertation work entitled "Antioxidant and antimycobacterial efficacy of extracts from different cyanobacterial strains and their phytochemical analysis" successfully. She has completed this work from (Department of Bioengineering Integral University Lucknow) under the guidance of Dr. Alvina Farooqui. The dissertation was a compulsory part of her M.Tech Biotechnology.

I wish her good luck and bright future.

Dr. Alvina Farooqui Professor and Head Department of Bioengineering Faculty of Engineering Integral University Lucknow

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all I bow in reverence to the Almighty Allah for blessing me with strong will power, patience and confidence, which helped me in completing the present work. I take this opportunity to express my sincere thanks to Honorable Chancellor Prof S.W Akhtar and Vice Chancellor Prof. Javed Musarrat, Integral University, Lucknow for their constant support and guidance and providing all the necessary facilities throughout the training.

I also take this opportunity to convey my heartiest gratitude and indebtedness to Dr. Syed Nadeem Akhtar, Pro-Chancellor and Prof. Mohammad Haris Siddiqui, Registrar, Integral University. His concepts and encouragement have had a remarkable influence on my entire training.

I would like to express my special thanks to Dr. Alvina Farooqui (Professor and Head, Department of Bioengineering, Faculty of Engineering) for given me an opportunity to join the department laboratory and providing all the necessary facilities ever since I started my work.

I feel deeply obliged indebted to my supervisor, Dr. Alvina Farooqui, across the period of my dissertation, who has supported my constant endeavour, offered invaluable guidance to attain excellence in the topic, I choose as my dissertation project can't be expressed in words

I am elated with delight to avail this wonderful opportunity to express my sincere thanks to, Er. Suhail Ahmad, Er. Gyanendra Tripathi, Ms. Irum, Research scholars, IIRC-1 and my lab mates Ms. Simra Naeem Khan, Mr. Asif Siddiqui for their co-operation, affection, encouragement during my project pursuit.

My acknowledgement will be incomplete if I do not mention my parents $Mr.$ Salim Alam Lari and Mrs. Yasmin Sultana with whose blessing I was able to achieve my goal successfully. There are not sufficient words to express my feelings toward the I silently acknowledge my debtto the

I am very grateful to My Family members (Mr.Anish khan, Sarah Salim, Bushra Salim) for their support and guidance. Last but not least, my special thanks to everyone who wishes me well, without your blessings and profound affections, this effort would've been incomplete.

DATE: Adila Salim

TABLE OF CONTENT

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABBREVIATIONS

1. INTRODUCTION

Algae are prokaryotic or eukaryotic autotrophic and heterotrophic organisms. They have a capability to convert nitrogen and phosphorus from the environment for their growth with the help of light, $CO₂$, and water. The resulting biomass can then be fractionated into various bioproducts (Omett et al., 2014). Algae can exist as mixotrophs or facultative heterotrophs as well as using sunlight for photosynthesis (Li-Beisson et al., 2019). Algae have multiple reproductive strategies and can be unicellular organisms or have complex multicellularity (Brodie et al., 2017). Algae can be categeorized into micro and macro algae. Microalgae (microphytes) are represented by green (Chlorophyta), blue-green (Cyanobacteria), yellow- green (Ochrophyta Xanthophyta), and golden (Ochrophyta Chrysophyta) algae, as well as diatoms (Bacillaryophyta). Red algae (Rhodophyta), green algae (Chlorophyta), and brown algae (Ochrophyta) are all examples of macroalgae, or simple algae (Lee et al., 2020; Chia et al., 2018; Sudhakar et al., 2019; Hong et al., 2019; Andreeva et al., 2021). Algae are rich sources of biologically active compounds with antiviral, antitumor, and anti-inflammatory properties, and they are also causes for plant growth stimulators or antioxidant agents (Pirian et al., 2018). Two types of algae are known i.e., microalgae and macroalgae. Microalgae are tiny, 150 µm diameter, unicellular, prokaryotic algae, sometimes referred to as blue-green algae or cyanobacteria. Some of them are capable of heterotrophic and photogenic growth. They have a carbon and radiant energy metabolism, which is similar to the oxygenated photosynthesis of terrestrial plants (Wolkers et al., 2011). Macroalgae are eukaryotic, macroscopic, multicellular macroalgae are commonly referred to as seaweed. Species of macroalgae live in seawater, or seawater that is the lightest. Eukaryotic, macroscopic, multicellular macroalgae are commonly referred to as seaweed. The seawater that is the lightest is the habitat of the macroalgae species (Milledge *et al.*, 2014) like *Chlorophyceae* (green algae), Phaeophyceae (brown algae), and Rhodophyceae (red algae). The therapeutic potential of vaccines developed by microalgae (especially C. reinhardtii) are viable options for use as vaccine carriers because they are safe and contain a single chloroplast that expresses proteins at high levels.

Vaccines (Yan et al., 2016; Specht and Mayfield, 2014). Therefore, the microalgae have been reported to be a viable alternative to plant hosts. In a related study, Dermutas et al. inserted the gene of the HPV16T E7 protein into the genome of the chloroplast of C. reinhardtii expressing the E7GGG protein for therapeutic vaccines. Therefore, it has been reported that the microalgae represent a viable alternative to plant hosts (Demurtas et al., 2013). Nowadays, most monoclonal antibodies are produced in Chinese hamster ovary cell lines and are very expensive and carry the risk of contamination with human pathogens. Because of their advantages, microalgae are considered effective alternative host cells. These eukaryotic microorganisms are superior to bacterial cells in post-translational modification of human recombinant proteins. In addition, they are preferred over other eukaryotic hosts because of their high growth rate, convenience of handling, and ease of cultivation. In a study produced a monoclonal IgG antibody in engineered Phaeodactylum tricornutum against the Marburg virus nucleoprotein, which is a major cause of hemorrhagic fever in West Africa (Hempel et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2016). Tuberculosis (TB) is the most common human infectious disease, causing morbidity and numerous deaths world-wide. Tuberculosis (Accessed on March 03, 2023) Mycobacterium tuberculosis a bacterium, is the principal cause of this dangerous illness. Tuberculosis primarily affects the lungs, but can also affect the central nervous, lymphatic, and circulatory systems (Kumar *et al.*, 2007; Golden and Vikram, 2005). The process of diagnosing active contagious tuberculosis primarily involves radiological techniques, such as chest X-rays, but also includes microscopic examination and microbiologyical cultures of body fluids, such as multiple sputum cultures. The process of diagnosing active contagious tuberculosis primarily involves radiological techniques such as chest x-rays. This also includes microscopic examination and microbiological culture of body fluids such as blood vessels. B. several sputum cultures .For latent tuberculosis, but in which the bacteria present in the body remain dormant and do not cause symptoms, diagnosis is based on the Mantoux tuberculin skin test and/or interferon gamma release tests (IGRAs) of blood samples (Jacob et al., 2009). Prevention of TB mainly includes screening programs and vaccination such as Bacillus Calmette Guérin (BCG) (Mainous and Pomeroy, 2012). According to WHO reports -

1.6 million Persons worldwide (including 187 000 HIV-positive individuals) died from TB in 2021. TB is the second most lethal infectious disease in the world, after COVID-19, and is the 13th greatest cause of death globally (behind HIV and AIDS).About 10.6 million tuberculosis (TB) infections were reported worldwide in 2021. 6,400,000 males, 3,400,000 women, and 1.2,000,000 kids. TB affects people of all ages and from all countries. TB, however, is treatable and preventable.The pathogen of Mycobacterium tuberculosis, a small aerobic, immotile bacillus, is the main cause of tuberculosis (Niederweis *et al.*, 2010). Mycobacterial outer membranes: in search of proteins (Nicas et al., 2005). Mycobacterium tuberculosis and its very closely related seven species of mycobacteria (together form the classic Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex (Niederweis et al., 2010).The infectious dose of tuberculosis is very small and inhaling less than 10 bacteria can cause infection (Madison, 2001; Nical *et al.*, 2005). The drug used for tuberculosis is Isoniazid (INH) is an antibiotic used for the initial treatment of active Mycobacterium tuberculosis (TB) infection. Infection Active TB infection may present with fever, chills, night sweats, coughs, hemoptysis, and/or weight loss. There are four CDC-recommended multidrug therapies that include INH for drug- sensitive strains .Strains The therapies consist of an initial phase of 2 months followed by a continuation phase of either 4 or 7 months (Blumberg et al .,2003).Isoniazid can also be used to treat latent tuberculosis infection, but rifampin-based therapies have recently replaced isoniazid as a recommendation. Isoniazid can also be used to treat latent tuberculosis infection, but rifampin-based therapies have recently replaced isoniazid as a recommendation. Rifampin-based therapies have shown similar efficacy with shorter treatment durations and better completion rates. Rifampinbased therapies have shown similar efficacy with shorter treatment durations and better completion rates (Huaman and Sterling, 2019). The mechanism of action of Isoniazid has been the main drug used to treat tuberculosis since 1952. It is a prodrug activated by catalase peroxidase KatG, which generates a variety of radicals and adducts that inhibit the production of the mycolic acids that make up the Mycobacterium cell wall. This activity makes INH a potent bactericidal agent. It also appears to work synergistically

With other species produced by KatG and other drugs used to treat tuberculosis (Chakraborty and Rhee, 2015). However, mutations in the genes katG, inhA, kasA and ahpC can lead to resistance to isoniazid therapy. This resistance develops more rapidly in Mycobacterium tuberculosis when treated with isoniazid monotherapy alone. The present study was designed to elucidate the antioxidant and antimycobacterial potential of extracts from different cyanobacterial strains. The results will enable the researchers and scientist to explore the therapeutic potential of cyanobacterial extract towards the development of drugs against tuberculosis.

OBJECTIVES

- 1. Screening of cyanobacterial strains.
- 2. To check phytochemical property and antioxidant activity of selected cyanobacterial strains.
- 3. To elucidate the antimycobacterial activity of cyanobacterial strains.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Cyanobacteria

Cyanobacteria come from the color of the bacteria. In 1995 Edondson discovered cyanobacteria in the lake and Stainer first classified cyanobacteria in 1997 as Earth's oldest organism (fossil record - 3.5 billion years). Cyanobacteria are the only bacteria that can photosynthesize using light energy. Cyanobacteria are oxygenated photosynthetic prokaryotes that are found in soil and some of them can fix themselves in atmospheric nitrogen (Malik et al., 2001; Philipose, 1960; Vijaykumar et al., 2005; Muthukumar et al., 2007).

2.1.1 Classification of cyanobacteria

Kingdom: Monera

Division:Eubacteria

Class:cyanobacteria

Examples- Nostoc sp., Spirulina sp., Azolla sp. (Song et al., 2005)Cyanobacteria play an important role in maintaining and building up soil fertility, increasing temperature, biosorbent dosage and size, initial solute concentration, etc. (Vijayaragavan, 2008). Cyanobacteria, commonly known as blue, green, algae, are not actually eukaryotic algae. They are gram-negative prokaryotes, perform oxygenic photosynthesis and also fix atmospheric nitrogen.They are ubiquitous in ponds, lakes, streams, rivers and wetlands. They can easily live in harsh conditions such as hot springs, hypersaline water, cold temperatures, and arid deserts (Singh, 2014). Cyanobacteria can survive in a temperature range of 45-70 degrees Celsius (Castenholz, 1978) and a pH of less than 4-5 (Pfennig, 1969, 1974) with an optimal range of 7.5-10 (Fogg, 1956). Cyanobacteria induce soil aggregation and water permeability and are very useful in improving the quality of poorly structured soils in arid or subarid areas (Rogers and Burns, 1994). Cyanobacteria produce a variety of biologically active compounds with antibacterial, antifungal, antialgal, and antiviral potential (Teuscher et al., 1992; Dahms et al., 2006). Cyanobacteria produce a wide range of anti-algal compounds that inhibit the growth of pathogens by interfering with their metabolic and physiological activities (Dahms *et al.*, 2006). Cyanobacteria have the ability to remediate a wide range of environmental toxins, including pesticides (Megharaj et al., 1994) crude oil (Sokhoh et al., 1992; Al-Hasan et al., 1998), and sewage naphthalene (Cerniglia et al., 1980a, b)

phenanthrene (Narro et al., 1992), phenol and catechol (Shashirekha et al., 1997), heavy metals (Singh *et al.*, 2011b) and xenobiotics (Megharaj *et al.*, 1987) either by accumulation or degradation.Some species of cyanobacteria survive in mixotrophic and heterotrophic conditions and as consortia with other microorganisms (Subashchandrabose et al., 2011) The production of cyanotoxins, such as microcystins, anatoxins, and saxitoxins, as well as other bioactive substances by cyanobacteria is also well documented (Kurmayer et al., 2016). Cyanobacteria can be employed as natural biofertilizers and contribute to higher production in a variety of agricultural and environmental circumstances (Song and Mårtensson et al., 2005). Cyanobacteria produce a variety of protein biomolecules such as phycobiliproteins, phycoerythrin, phycocyanin, and allopycocyanin, which are used as coloring pigments in foods, cosmetics, and as fluorescers in clinical or research centers (Parmar et al., 2016).Cyanobacteria can be used in a variety of applications including biopolymers and biodegradable plastics (Philip et al., 2020) medicinal and bioactive substances (Singh *et al.*, 2005). Algae fall into three primary classes i.e. Chlorophyceae, Phaeophyceae and Rhodophyceae (Table 1).

2.2. Applications of cyanobacteria in various fields

2.2.1. Pharmaceutical

Studies on biomedical natural products have so far focused only on cyanophyta (blue- green algae) and *pyrrophyta* (dinoflagellates); most metabolites have been isolated from cyanobacteria (Moore, 1996; Beltron and Nielan, 2000). Cyanobacteria are considered to be a rich source of secondary metabolites with potential biotechnological applications in the pharmacological field. Recently, the production of bioactive compounds with commercial and medicinal applications has also increased interest in the study of these organisms. Natural products from marine cyanobacteria are used for drug discovery. Cyanobacterial metabolites exhibit interesting and exciting biological activities including antimicrobial immunosuppressive, anticancer, anti-HIV, antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, anti-inflammatory, anti-Malaria, antiprotozoal, antituberculosis, antiviral, antitumor activities (Gademann and Portmann, 2008). The Anticancer Drugs from Cyanobacteria Are Lyngbya.Bouilloni, The bioactive compounds of Lyngbya.bouilloni are Apratoxins F And G And its function Is HCT-116 Colon Cancer Cells (Leusch H Et Al., 2001).The bioactive compounds of Lyngbya.majuscula Aurilide band its function is h-460 lung cancer (Nogle et al.,

2005) and the bioactive compound Symloca sp. is Belamide a and its function is hct-116 colon cancer (Macmillan et al., 1538). The effects of bioactive substances in the body may promote good health. They are being researched for the purpose of preventing diseases including heart disease, cancer, and others.

Cyanobacteria are a source of multiple secondary metabolites/bioactive compounds (i.e. PUFAs, PBPs, cartenoids and various enzymes, vitamins (Ghosh et al., 2016) and have great potential to be used as pharmacological agents in various diseases (Dunalp et al., 2007; Gademann and Portmann, 2008; Tan, 2007).

2.2.2. Applications of cyanobacteria in cosmetics

Cyanobacteria produce components that could be of interest for the cosmetic industry (personal care products) (Borowitzka, 1999).Cosmetics are products aimed at improving the structure, morphology and appearance of the skin, with the help of auxiliary substances and active ingredients adapted to different skin types (normal, oily, combination, sensitive, etc).Cosmeceuticals, although a term that is not officially recognized, are defined as cosmetic products containing biological ingredients that are said to have medicinal or drug- like benefits (Mourelle *et al.*, 2015).

2.2.3. Biotechnological application of cyanobacteria

Other uses of cyanobacteria extracts include their use in scientific research experiments. For example, phycobiliproteins have fluorescent properties that can be used for flow cytometry and in immunoassay techniques (Amadu *et al.*, 2021). These bioactive compounds include terpenoids such as terpenes, diterpenes, and sesquiterpenes.These organic compounds are widespread in cyanobacteria and used as natural ingredients in flavors and perfumes.Such applications are recently gaining ground in the therapeutic and pesticide industries (Singh et al., 2017). The rapid development of molecular tools for whole genome sequences encourages the use of omics technologies, i.e.; H. Transcriptomics, proteomics, and systems biology approaches to manipulate metabolic pathways to produce valuable products Among these, the most widely used fluorescent probe is phycoerythrin, used in biomedical research (Singh et al., 2020). Microorganisms have been found to contain a variety of storage substances, such as lipid, polyphosphate, sulfur polyamino acids, and glycogen. Polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) are lipids that a wide range of microbes accumulate in the presence of ample carbon sources (Anderson and Dawes, 1990). PHA is a crystalline thermoplastic with properties comparable to polypropylene (Doi, 1990).PHA is also a biocompatible material and is being studied for its

application in the biomedical and biopharmaceutical field .The PHA granules can be stained with Nile blue a (Ostle and Holt, 1982). According to many studies (Vincenzini et al., 1990; Stal 1992; Arino et al., 1995; Carr 1996), the majority of known cyanobacteria that can manufacture PHAs often accumulate PHAs in amounts that are less than 6% by weight of their cell dry weight (CDW). Poly(3 hydroxybutyrate) [P(3HB)] is the most common type of PHA synthesized by most bacteria.The production of PHA is based on a readily available and free source of carbon and energy (sunlight).

2.3. Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis (TB) is a potentially fatal lung infection caused by the bacteria Mycobacterium tuberculosis World Health Organization (WHO). As a result, it necessitates immediate attention. However, tuberculosis is treatable and avoidable, thus ongoing research into natural bioactive substances, particularly those derived from endophytes, is helping to find new, better-tolerated treatments for the disease. At a minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of 0.78 g/ml, Gliocladium sp. Polyols 3 and 4 were able to be produced by MR41 and demonstrated inhibitory effects on Mycobacterium tuberculosis.(Uc-Cachón et al., 2019) Phomoenamide, abyssomicin, tenuazonic acid, and phomonitroester are other substances with possible antituberculosis properties.A variety of endophytic fungi, including but not limited to Fusarium oxysporum strain (KT166447) and Colletotrichum gleosporoides strain (KT166445), were found to be present on the Glycyrrhiza glabra L. plant grown in the Kashmir Himalayas. These fungi showed strong inhibitory potentials against Mycobacterium tuberculosis strain H37Rv, (Shah et al., 2016).

The development of drug resistance to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* is a major problem with anti-tuberculosis drugs. Anti-TB drugs are a double-edged sword. While initially destroying the pathogenic bacteria, they later develop resistance and become ineffective against the disease. Global surveillance of TB drug resistance has become a major threat to TB control programs in many countries (Irene and Mark, 2014). Poorly managed TB care is the primary cause of the problem known as anti-TB drug resistance. Resistance to tuberculosis drugs is a phenomenon largely due to poorly managed tuberculosis care. Problems include improper drug prescribing practices by providers, poor drug quality or irregular drug supply, and patient non-compliance with therapy. Multidrug-resistant / extensively drug-resistant. TB MDR/XDR-TB is essentially a man-made probe Mycobacterium MDR-TB is caused by strains of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* that are resistant to

both rifampicin and isoniazid, with or without resistance to other drugs Extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis (XDR-TB) is a rare form of MDR-TB that is resistant to both rifampicin (RIF) and isoniazid (INH) or any other. Although TB is a major cause of morbidity around the world, little is known about how it affects people's health and quality of life (James et al., 2015). The mainstay of TB treatment is the use of antibiotics, which are the most efficient substances against Mycobacterium tuberculosis that is actively growing. The unusual structural and chemical makeup of the Mycobacterium's cell wall makes it difficult for drugs to enter and complicates treatment. Drugs First-line medications like isoniazid (INH), rifampicin (RIF), pyrazinamide (PZA), and ethambutol (EMB) are often administered for a 2-month initial phase before being continued for a total of 4 months with INH and RIF. This is the most widely used conventional chemotherapeutic regimen for the treatment of TB. Due to high rates of resistance, streptomycin, a bactericidal antibiotic that affects polypeptide synthesis, is no longer regarded as a first-line treatment (Hobby and Lenert, 1957; Dover and Geoffrey, 2011). Second line Drugs when treating TB under unique circumstances like extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis (XDR-TB) or multidrug-resistant tuberculosis (MDR-TB), second-line medications are frequently employed. Second-line drugs (SLDs) come in a variety of categories and are used to treat tuberculosis. The second-line medications differ from the first-line medications in that they could be ineffective compared to the first-line medications (such as p-aminosalicylic acid), might have harmful side effects (such as cycloserine), or might not be available in many poor nations (such as fluoroquinolones) (Dover and Geoffrey, 2011; Kolyva and Karakousis, 2012). The poor administration of chemotherapy, which makes the treatment more complicated, lengthens it, and increases its adverse effects, is a factor in drug resistance, which is particularly significant in TB. Regardless of susceptibility or resistance to other medications, Mycobacterium tuberculosis strains that are resistant to both isoniazid and rifampicin are considered to have multidrug resistance. Directly observed treatment, short-course (DOTS) Plus MDR-TB is concerning because it has a high risk of mortality, but DOTS Plus allows for the management of drug resistance with additional first- or second-line medications (Kaona, 2004).

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS
3.1 Materials Used
3.1.1 Instrument used

3.1.1 Instrument used

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS
3.1 Materials Used
3.1.1 Instrument used
Various instruments used during the research work are in listed in table 3.
Table 3: Instruments required for the fulfillment of the research. Various instruments used during the research work are in listed in table 3.

Table 3: Instruments required for the fulfillment of the research.

3.1.2. Chemicals used

All of the chemicals were of the analytical variety and were obtained from HiMedia.

S.No	Chemical name	Chemical Formula	Company
1.	Sodium nitrate	NaNO ₃	HIMEDIA
2.	Potassium hydrogen phosphate	K_2HPO_4	HIMEDIA
3.	magnesium sulfate	MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	HIMEDIA
	heptahydrate		
4.	Citric acid	CaCl ₂ .2H ₂ O	HIMEDIA
$\overline{5}$.	Ammonium ferric citrate	(NH ₄) ₅ [Fe]	HIMEDIA
		$(C_6H_4O_7)_2$.	
6.	EDTA	$C_{10}H_{16}N_2O_8$	HIMEDIA
7.	Sodium carbonate	Na ₂ CO ₃	HIMEDIA
8.	Trace elements	H_3BO_3	HIMEDIA
9.	Manganese(II) chloride	MnCl ₂ .4H ₂ O	HIMEDIA
	tetrahydrate		
10.	Zinc sulphate	ZnSO4.7H ₂ O	HIMEDIA
11.	Sodium molybdate	$Na2MoO4.2H2O$	HIMEDIA
12.	Copper(II) sulphate	CuSO ₄ .5H ₂ O	HIMEDIA
13.	Cobalt(II) nitrate	$Co(NO3)2.6H2O$	HIMEDIA
14.	Sulfuric acid	H ₂ SO ₄	HIMEDIA
15.	Hydrochloric Acid	HC1	HIMEDIA

Table 4: Chemicals used in the research

3.1.3. Glasswares used

Various glass wares used during the work are in listed in table 5.

Table 5: Glassware used in the research.

3.2. Methods

3.2.1. Cyanobacterial strains selection

Cyanobacteria cultures of Plectonema boryanum, Anabeana sp. was obtained from the Department of Botany, University of Allahabad and Department of Biological Sciences, Allahabad Agricultural Institute Deemed University, Allahabad. The strains were maintained in the cyanobacterial culture chamber at Integral University in Lucknow Department of Bioengineering.

3.2.2. Culturing and maintenance of cyanobacterial strains

The maintenance of pure culture (test organism) was done in culture room at a temperature of $25 \pm$ 5°C. BG11 medium with pH 7.0 was used for the optimum growth of the culture (Kuhl and Lorenzen, 1964; Rippka and Herdman, 1993), under the 75μ molm⁻²s⁻¹ photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) with 12:12 hours of photoperiod. The manual shaking of cultures was done for two to four times a day. The growth of the selected cultures was studied by plotting growth curve. 3.2.3. Growth curve

The cultures were centrifuge at 8000rpm for 10 minutes at 4ºC. Pellets were then collected in a petriplate and supernatant was discarded. Afterwards the collected biomass was dried at 60ºC and was stored in an airtight glass container. The cultures were maintained at desired growth parameters and optical density (OD) was recorded at 660nm each day and a graph was plotted (Miron *et al.*, 2003).

3.2.4. Biomass collection

The cultures were treated to 12 hour light and dark cycles that were alternated. The cultures were filtered and centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 10 min at 4ºC. The biomass media were collected. After those pellets were collected in a petriplate and then supernatant was discarded. The harvested biomass was then dried and kept in an airtight container (M et al., 2008).

3.2.1. Extraction and yield %

The extraction was done via maceration method (Ngu *et al.*, 2021). (1:50 ratio) 1g of dried algal biomass in 50 ml of solvents respectively (methanol and ethyl acetate) was taken in a flask and was kept on shaker for 48 hrs at 37ºC temperature. Afterwards, the cocktail was centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 20 minutes at 4ºC. After filtration Pellet was discarded and the supernatant was dried at room temperature.

The resulted extract was collected and stored at

-20ºC. Afterwards the extraction yield% was calculated with the below given formula-

$[Extraction yield\% = amount of crude extract/ amount of dried biomass*100]$

3.2.2. Phytochemical analysis of cyanobacterial crude extracts

The many qualitative chemical assays can be used to determine an extract's profile for its bioactive components. Using the techniques described in the literature. The produced extracts made with methanol and ethyl acetate were examined for the presence of alkaloids, saponins, tannins, steroids, flavonoids, glycosides, proteins, amino acids, and reducing sugars (Srinivasan et al., 2017; Pant et al., 2017).

3.2.2.1. Test for Alkaloids: (Dragendorff's test)

Procedure: An orange-red precipitate was produced after adding 1 mL of Dragendorff's reagent to 2 mL of extract, proving the presence of alkaloids.

3.2.2.2. Test for flavonoids (Alkaline reagent test)

Procedure: The presence of flavonoids is shown by the test solution developing a bright yellow when a few drops of sodium hydroxide solution are added, which then turns colorless after adding a few drops of diluted acid are added.

3.2.2.3. Test for terpenoids (Salkowoski test)

Procedure: The presence of terpenoids is shown by the development of a reddish brown coloring at the interface following the addition of strong sulfuric acid and 0.4 ml of chloroform to 0.1 g of the extract.

3.2.2.4. Test for tannins

Procedure: Filtered, 0.1 g of the extract was heated in 2 ml of water/DMSO before being combined with a few drops of 0.1% ferric chloride. It was then examined for a brownish green or blue-black coloring.

3.2.2.5. Test for glycosides

Procedure: The development of a brown ring at the interface after the addition of 2 ml of glacial acetic acid containing one drop of ferric chloride solution, followed by the addition of 1 ml of concentrated sulfuric acid to 0.5 mg of extract diluted with 5 ml of water, is indicative of the presence of cardiac glycosides.

3.2.2.6. Test for phenols

Procedure: When 50 mg of the extract were dissolved in 5 ml of distilled water and a few drops of a neutral 5% ferric chloride solution were added, the development of a dark green hue was considered a sign that phenolic chemicals were present.

3.2.2.7. Test for carbohydrates

Procedure: Add 2-3 drops of the iodine reagent to 1 ml of the prescribed solution in the test tube. Wait a while if a blue, reddish purple or reddish brown color appears to indicate the presence of carbohydrates.

3.2.3. Antioxidant Assay -2, 2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH)

Diphenyl picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), a stable free radical, is one of the most often used Techniques (Blois, 1958) devised this approach with the goal of determining the antioxidant activity similarly by employing a stable free radical called DPPH $(C_{18}H_{12}N_5O_6, MW = 394.33)$.

The test is based on the assessment of the antioxidants' ability to scavenge it.

The method of Brand-Williams, Cuvelier, and Berset (1995) that was slightly modified to measure the radical scavenging activity of extracts is detailed here. To make extract solutions, 0.025 g of dry extract was dissolved in 10 ml of methanol. Even after being treated for five minutes in an ultrasonic bath, acetone and ethyl acetate extracts did not completely dissolve in methanol; as a result, only the soluble portion was used for further analysis. Every day, prior to UV measurements, a solution of DPPH in methanol (610-5 M) was produced. In disposable microcuvettes with a 1 cm path length, three ml of this solution was combined with 77 (38 or 19) in further experiments) ml of extract solution (the final mass ratio of the extracts with DPPH was around 3:1, 1.5:1, and 0.75:1). The samples were held at room temperature in the dark for 15 minutes and the reduction in absorbance was then measured. Daily preparation and measurement of the absorption of a blank sample containing the same volume of methanol and DPPH solution. Three duplicates of the experiment were performed. The following formula was used to determine the amount of radical scavenging activity:

% Inhibition = $[(A_B-A_A)/A_B] \times 100$

Where:

 A_B —absorption of blank sample (t=0 min); A_A —absorption of tested extract solution ($t=15$ min).

3.2.4. Antimycobacterial effect of the crude cyanobacterial extracts

3.2.4.1. Collection of Mycobacterium smegmatis strain

The non-pathogenic (smegmatis MC^2) *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* strain was purchased from MTCC (Microbial Type Culture Collection and Gene Bank Chandigarh). And the strain was then maintained in our lab for further experiments.

3.2.3.1. Media preparation (Middle brook media)

Add 2.08gm middle brook media with 400 ml of distilled water and add 0.2% of 0.8ml glycerol the media also. After that pH was maintained upto 6.8 ± 2 . Afterwards the media was autoclaved at $2PC$, 15 PSI for 20 minutes (Finegold *et al.*, 1990).

3.2.3.2. Maintenance of the *Mycobacterium smegmatis* strain (pouring streaking)

For the maintenance of the culture the strain was revived in broth and on agar plated. For broth inoculation 6 test-tubes were taken in which 5 ml of autoclaved middle brook media in each test-tube. With the help of a sterile inoculating loop the culture was inoculated ineach test-tube and kept it in the incubator at 37° C for 7 days (Lembi and Waaland, 1991). For streaking method: agar was mixed in the above left Middlebrook media and autoclaved. The autoclaved agar media was poured on the sterile petril plates and kept to get solidifies. These plates were then streaked with the help of sterile loop and kept at 37° Cfor 7 days.

3.2.3.3. Staining of Mycobacterium smegmatis and microscopy Acid FastStaining.

This method of staining is to stain *Mycobacterium smegmatis* strains. Bacteria acquire pink colour after staining (Coherency and Berger, 2013; Fitzgerald et al., 2015; Murray, 2015). The procedure used is obtained from Dzodanu et al., 2019.

Table6: Dyes and chemicals used in acid fast staining method.

Procedure: The procedure is given below-

View under microscope

3.2.3.4. Resazurin Microtitre Assay (REMA)
The REMA plate assay was performed according to (Taneja, N. K and Tyagi; J. S.,
2007; Martin *et al.*, 2016; Martin, 2003). A sterile flat-bottom 96-well plate 100 µl
of broth in The REMA plate assay was performed according to (Taneja, N. K and Tyagi; J. S., 2007; Martin et al., 2016; Martin, 2003). A sterile flat-bottom 96-well plate 100 µl of broth in each well was used. 30µl culture was added. For every isolate, a sterile control and a growth control were also present. All perimeter wells received sterile water addition to prevent evaporation throughout the incubation. The plate was covered, bagged up, and incubated to 37 °C for 7 days. 30 µl of the resazurin solution were added to each well after the first 7 days of incubation, and the plate was then re-incubated overnight. Reduction in resazurin levels and thus a shift from blue to pink denotes bacterial growth. The least inhibitory concentration (MIC) was established as the lowest concentration of the medicine that prevented this change in color from blue to pink, which indicated the development of bacteria. When the growth control well became pink, it signified that the isolate was growing properly, and when it didn't, it meant that there were no contaminants present. The following medication concentration ranges were employed: $3.1\n-200 \mu g/ml$.

Figure 1: Growth curve of *Plectonema boryanum* at the absorbance of 660nm

The graph shown above is a growth curve of *Plectonema boryanum* at optical density (OD) 660nm which shows all growth phases. At $2nd$ day the log phase started and ends upon $8th$ day from where the stationary phase was started. The stationary phase from $8th$ to $12th$ day and after that decline phase was achieved.

Figure 2: Growth curve of *Anabaena* sp. at the absorbance of 660nm

The graph shown above is a growth curve of *Anabaena* sp. at optical density (OD) 660nm which shows all growth phases. At $2nd$ day the log phase started and ends upon $8th$ day from where the stationary phase was started. The stationary phase is from $8th$ to $12th$ day and after that decline phase was achieved. According to Shamim *et al.*, 2020 the stationary phase of the cyanobacterial strain 8 to 12 days and after that decline phase starts.

4.1.3. Biomass Collection

The results shown in the above table conclude the amount of biomass collected of both the strains (*Plectonema boryanum* and *Anabaena* sp.) suspended in 1 liter of their respective media i.e. BG-11 (Positive and Negative). The biomass collected of the Plectonema borvanum strain was $0.6854g/L^{-1}$ and from Anabaena sp. strain was $0.47g/L^{-1}$. According to study by Yusoff, 2015; the cultivation of microalgae with nutrient source for the biodiesel production. IIRC, in the preliminary study, a correlation between the optical density of algal extracts and biomass weight was predetermined. The microalgae biomass (g/L) collected dry weight (g/L) = 0.3793 .

4.1.4 Extraction yield and yield %

Figure 3: Methanolic and ethyl acetate extracts of Plectonema boryanum (a) and Anabaena sp. (b)

Table 8: Extraction yield of cyanobacterial strains in different solvents

Extract of Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp. was 0.118 g and 0.058 g. Extraction efficiencies for ethyl acetate extracts of Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp. were calculated to be 18.1 and 5.8% respectively. 11.8% and 6.7%. The extraction yield of the algal biomass is 3.4, 3.46, and 5.23 which is very much less in quantity. According to the (Ebrahimzadeh et al., 2018) the maximum extraction yield of microalgae ethyl acetate extract was 5.15 %. The results suggested that yield percentage of the methanolic and ethyl acetate extracts of Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp. The highest extraction yield was obtained in the ethyl acetate extract of Plectonema boryanum.

 Figure 4: Percentage yield of dried crude extracts (methanolic and ethyl acetate) of Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp.

4.1.5. Phytochemical Test

Table 9 indicates the presence of different bioactive compounds in the cyanobacterial extracts where + represents the presence of respective bioactive compound and $-$ represents the absence of that compound $[+$ denotes the presence of low intensity of colour, $+$ denotes presence of moderate intensity of colour, $++$ high intensity of colour and $-$ denotes no colour change (negative results). The colour intensity denotes the concentration of the compounds.

Table 9: Phytochemical test of the cyanobacterial extracts

Similarly in a study, the presence of common phytochemical constituents such as alkaloids, tannins, saponins, terpenoids, steroids, phenolic compounds and glycosides was tested qualitatively as per the methodology of Ahmad and Beg (2001). The bioactive compounds found in the extract of microalgae have alkaloids, terpenoids, steroids, phenolic compounds and glycosides. While in ethyl acetate extract there is absence of alkaloids.

4.1.6. Fourier transforms infrared analysis (FTIR)

Figure 5: FTIR analysis of methanol extract of Plectonema boryanum

Figure 6: FTIR analysis of ethyl acetate extract of Plectonema boryanum

Figure 7: FTIR analysis of methanol extract of Anabaena sp.

Figure 8: FTIR analysis of ethyl acetate extract of Anabaena sp.

S.No	Wavelength	Functional groups	
$\mathbf{1}$	3000-3600	$-OH$	
$\overline{2}$	2500-3000	$-O-CH3$	
3	1400-1700	$N-H$	

Table 10: Interpretation of FTIR results

4.1.7 DPPH Assay

In the present work we observed pronounced antioxidant activity in a crude extract of cyanobacteria Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp.). Similar to this abd El-Baky and Athukorela et al 2008 reported for the antioxidant potential is well documented. Ethyl acetate extract of displayed Plectonema boryanum greater antioxidant potential (31.5% inhibition of (DPPH) than the positive control Ascorbic acid (28% inhibition) at 20 μ gml⁻¹ followed by methanol extract of Anabaena sp. (25%).

4.1.3 Antimycobacterial activity

4.1.3.1 Mycobacterium smegmatis colonies

Growth of Mycobacterium smegmatis in Middle-Brook media (Figure 11)

Figure 9: Plate showing colonies of *Mycobacterium smegmatis*.

4.1.3.1 Microscopic view of Mycobacterium smegmatis strain

The microscopic view of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* strain was taken at 10X (Figure 12).

Figure 10: Microscopic view of Mycobacterium smegmatis

4.1.3.2 Resazurin Microtitre Assay (REMA)

REMA Assay for methanolic extract of Plectonema boryanum Figure 11: 96 well plate showing inhibition of *Mycobacterium smegmatis*

Figure 11:96 well plate showing inhibition of Mycobacterium smegmatis strain at different concentration of methanolic extract of Plectonema boryanum.

 Figure 12: Inhibition percentage of methanolic extract of Plectonema boryanum.

The results suggested that the inhibition percentage of methanolic extract of Plectonema boryanum in which S1-S7 are the respective concentrations of methanolic extract $(3.1 \,\mu\text{g/ml}$ to 200 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (Fig 10). The inhibition % increases on moving from less concentration to high concentration. The IC_{50} is between S6 to S7 $(100-200\mu\text{g/ml})$ concentration and the minimum inhibitory (MIC) concentration is at $100\mu\text{g/ml}.$

- $C₃₁$ $6.2 - 12.5$ 25 60 100 24 ъP
- REMA Assay for ethyl acetate extract of Plectonema boryanum \bullet

Figure 13: 96 well plate showing inhibition of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* strain at different concentration of ethyl acetate extract of Plectonema boryanum

Figure14: Inhibition percentage of ethyl acetate extract of

Plectonema boryanum.

The results suggested that the inhibition percentage of ethyl acetate extract of Plectonema boryanum in which S1-S7 are the respective concentrations of ethyl acetate extract $(3.1\mu g/ml$ to 200 $\mu g/ml$) (Figure 11). The inhibition % increases on moving from less concentration to high concentration. The IC_{50} is between S5 to S6 (100-200 µg/ml) concentration and the minimum inhibitory (MIC) concentration is at 50 μ g/ml.

REMA Assay for methanolic extract of Anabaena sp. \bullet

Figure15: 96 well plate showing inhibition of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* strain at different concentration of methanolic extract of Anabaena sp.

The results suggested that the inhibition percentage of methanolic extract of The results suggested that the inhibition percentage of methanolic extract of *Anabaena* sp.in which S1- S7 are the respective concentrations of methanolic extract (3.1 μ g/ml to 200 μ g/ml) (Fig 12). The inhibition % i extract $(3.1\mu g/ml$ to 200 $\mu g/ml$) (Fig 12). The inhibition % increases on moving from less concentration to high concentration. The IC_{50} is between S6 to S7 (100-200µg/ml) concentration and the minimum inhibitory (MIC) concentration is at 100µg/ml.

REMA Assay for ethyl acetate extract of Anabaena sp.

Figure 17: 96 well plate showing inhibition of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* strain different concentration of ethyl acetate extract of Anabaena sp.

Figure 18: Inhibition percentage of ethyl acetate extract of *Anabaena* sp.

The results suggested that the inhibition percentage of ethyl acetate extract of Anabaena sp. in which S1-S7 are the respective concentrations of ethyl acetate extract $(3.1\mu g/ml \text{ to } 200 \mu g/ml)$ (Fig 13). The inhibition % increases on moving from less concentration to high concentration. The IC_{50} is between S6 to S7 (100-200µg/ml) concentration and the minimum inhibitory (MIC) concentration is at 200µg/ml. The MIC of methanolic extract of Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp.is 100µg/ml And the MIC of Ethyl acetate extract of Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp.50 and 200µg/ml. According to Spavieri et al., 2010 The MIC of algal extract was 64µg/ml.

Table 12: Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations of methanolic and ethyl acetate extracts of Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp.

		Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC)	
Cyanobacterial strains	Solvents extract		
		$(\mu g/ml)$	
Plectonema boryanum	Methanol	100	
Plectonema boryanum	Ethyl acetate	50	
Anabaena sp.	Methanol	100	
Anabaena sp.	Ethyl acetate	200	

5. CONCLUSION

The present study gives an insight about the antioxidant and antibacterial potential of Plectonema boryanum and Anabaena sp. extracts . The results concluded that among the two strains, the crude extract of Plectonema boryanum with ethyl acetate has a maximum antimicrobial and antioxidant activity of $50\mu\text{g/ml}$ and 31.5% respectively. The FTIR results detected the presence of high number of hydroxyl groups that reflects the presence of large number of alkaloids bioactive compounds. Owing to this high efficiency the cyanobacterial extracts can be further purified and used for the development of antimicrobial drug.

6. REFERENCES

1. Ometto, F., Quiroga, G., Pšenička, P., Whitton, R., Jefferson, B., & Villa, R. (2014). Impacts of microalgae pre-treatments for improved anaerobic digestion: thermal treatment, thermal hydrolysis, ultrasound and enzymatic hydrolysis Water research, 65, 350-361.

2.Li-Beisson, Y., Thelen, J. J., Fedosejevs, E., & Harwood, J. L. (2019).The lipid biochemistry of eukaryotic algae. Progress in Lipid Research, 74, 31-68.

3.Brodie, J., Chan, C. X., De Clerck, O., Cock, J. M., Coelho, S. M., Gachon, C., ... & Bhattacharya, D. (2017).The algal revolution Trends in plant science, 22(8), 726-738.

4. Lee, X. J., Ong, H. C., Gan, Y. Y., Chen, W. H., & Mahlia, T. M. I. (2020).State of art review on conventional and advanced pyrolysis of macroalgae and microalgae for biochar, bio-oil and bio-syngas production Energy Conversion and Management, 210, 112707.

5. Chia, S. R., Ong, H. C., Chew, K. W., Show, P. L., Phang, S. M., Ling, T. C., ... & Chang, J. S. (2018). Sustainable approaches for algae utilisation in bioenergy production.Renewable energy, 129, 838-852.

6. Sudhakar, M. P., Kumar, B. R., Mathimani, T., & Arunkumar, K. (2019) A review on bioenergy and bioactive compounds from microalgae and macroalgaesustainable energy perspective. Journal of Cleaner Production, 228, 1320-1333.

7. Hong, Y., Chen, W., Luo, X., Pang, C., Lester, E., & Wu, T. (2017) Microwave enhanced pyrolysis of macroalgae and microalgae for syngas production Bioresource technology, 237, 47-56.

8. Andreeva, A., Budenkova, E., Babich, O., Sukhikh, S., Dolganyuk, V., Michaud, P., & Ivanova, S. (2021). Influence of carbohydrate additives on the growth rate of microalgae biomass with an increased carbohydrate content Marine drugs, 19(7), 381.

9. Pirian, K., Jeliani, Z. Z., Sohrabipour, J., Arman, M., Faghihi, M. M., & Yousefzadi, M. (2018). Nutritional and bioactivity evaluation of common sea weed species from the Persian Gulf. Iranian Journal of Science and Technology, Transactions A: Science, 42, 1795-1804.

10. Wolkers, H., Barbosa, M. J., Kleinegris, D. M., Bosma, R., Wijffels, R. H., & Harmsen, P. F. H. (2011). Microalgae: the green gold of the future? Large-scale sustainable cultivate on of microalgae for the production of bulk commodities Wageningen UR-Food & Biobas.

11. Milledge, J. J., Smith, B., Dyer, P. W., & Harvey, P. (2014). Macroalgaederived biofu el: a review of methods of energy extraction from seaweed biomass Energies, 7(11), 7194-7222.

12. Yan, N., Fan, C., Chen, Y., & Hu, Z. (2016).The potential for microalgae as bioreactors to produce pharmaceuticals. International journal of molecular sciences, 17(6), 962; Specht,

E. A., & Mayfield, S. P. (2014) Algae-based oral recombinant vaccines Frontiers in Microbiology, 5, 60.

13. Demurtas, O. C., Massa, S., Ferrante, P., Venuti, A., Franconi, R., & Giuliano, G. (2013). A Chlamydomonas-derived Human Papillomavirus 16 E7 vaccine induces specific tumor protection PloS one, 8(4), e61473.

14. Hempel, F., Maurer, M., Brockmann, B., Mayer, C., Biedenkopf, N., Kelterbaum, A & Maier, U. G. (2017). From hybridomas to a robust microalgalbased production platform: molecular design of a diatom secreting monoclonal antibodies directed against the Marburg virus nucleoprotein Microbial cell factories, 16, 1-10.

15. Fu, W., Chaiboonchoe, A., Khraiwesh, B., Nelson, D. R., Al-Khairy, D., Mystikou, A., & Salehi-Ashtiani, K. (2016). Algal cell factories: approaches, applications, and potentials. Marine Drugs, 14(12), 225.

16 .Kumar, P., Schelle, M. W., Jain, M., Lin, F. L., Petzold, C. J., Leavell, M. D., & Bertozzi, C. R. (2007). PapA1 and PapA2 are acyltransferases essential for the biosynthesis of the *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* virulence factor sulfolipid-1 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 104(27), 11221-11226; Golden, M. P. & Vikram, H. R. (2005).

Extrapulmonary tuberculosis: an overview American family physician, 72(9), 1761-1768.

17. Jacob, J. T., Mehta, A. K., & Leonard, M. K. (2009). Acute forms of tuberculosis in adults. The American journal of medicine, 122(1), 12-17.

18. Mainous III, A. G., & Pomeroy, C. (2001). Management of antimicrobials in

infectious diseases (Vol. 349). Humana Press.

19. Niederweis, M., Danilchanka, O., Huff, J., Hoffmann, C., & Engelhardt, H. (2010). Mycobacterial outer membranes: in search of proteins. Trends in microbiology, 18(3), 109-116.

20. Nicas, M., Nazaroff, W. W., & Hubbard, A. (2005). Toward understanding the risk of secondary airborne infection: emission of respirable pathogens. Journal of occupational and environmental hygiene, $2(3)$, $143-154$.

21.Okeke, C. B., Chigbu, N. M., & Durojaye, O. A. Samuel Cosmas, Evalde Ngabonzima, Bazil Ekuh Ewane 2, Chibueze Kelechi Ene.

22. Madison, B. M. (2001). Application of stains in clinical microbiology. Biotechnic & Histochemistry, 76(3), 119-125.

23. Blumberg, H. M., Burman, W. J., Chaisson, R. E., Daley, C. L., Etkind, S. C., Friedman, L. N. & Vernon, A. A. (2003). The infectious diseases society. American thoracic society/centers for disease control and prevention/infectious diseases society of America: treatment of tuberculosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med, 167(4), 603-62.

24. Huaman, M. A., & Sterling, T. R. (2019). Treatment of latent tuberculosis infection—an update. Clinics in chest medicine, 40(4), 839-848.

25. Chakraborty, S., & Rhee, K. Y. (2015). Tuberculosis drug development: history and evolution of the mechanism-based paradigm. Cold Spring Harbor perspectives in medicine, $5(8)$.

26. Malik, F. R., Ahmed, S., & Rizki, Y. M. (2001). Utilization of lignocellulosic waste for the preparation of nitrogenous biofertilizer. Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences, 4(10), 1217-1220.

27. Philipose, M. T. (1960).Freshwater phytoplankton of inland fisheries. In Proceeding of the symposium on Algology (Vol. 279, p. 291); Vijaykumar, S., Thajuddin, N., & Manoharan, C. (2005). Role of cyanobacteria in the treatment of dye industry effluent. Pollution Research, 24(1), 6.

28. Muthukumar, C., Muralitharan, G., Vijayakumar, R., Panneersevam, A., & Thajuddin, N. (2007). Cyanobacterial biodiversity from different freshwater ponds of Thanjavur, Tamilnadu (India). Acta botanica malacitana, 32, 17-25.

29. Song, T., Mårtensson, L., Eriksson, T., Zheng, W., & Rasmussen, U. (2005). Biodiversity and seasonal variation of the cyanobacterial assemblage in a rice paddy field in Fujian, China. FEMS Microbiology Ecology, 54(1), 131-140.

30. Vijayaraghavan, K., & Yun, Y. S. (2008). Bacterial biosorbents and biosorption. Biotechnology advances, 26(3), 266-291.

31. Singh, J. S. (2014). Cyanobacteria: a vital bio-agent in eco-restoration of degraded lands and sustainable agriculture. Climate Change and Environmental Sustainability, 2(2), 133- 137.

32. Castenholz, R. W. (1978). The biogeography of hot spring algae through enrichment cultures: With 5 figures and 1 table in the text. Internationale Vereinigung für Theoretische und Angewandte Limnologie: Mitteilungen, 21(1), 296-315.

33. Pfennig, N. (1974). Rhodopseudomonas globiformis, sp. n., a new species of the Rhodospirillaceae. Archives of Microbiology, 100, 197-206.

34. Fogg, G. E. (1956). The comparative physiology and biochemistry of the blue-green algae. Bacteriological reviews, 20(3), 148-165.

35. Rogers, S. L., & Burns, R. G. (1994). Changes in aggregate stability, nutrient status, indigenous microbial populations, and seedling emergence, following inoculation of soil with Nostoc muscorum. Biology and Fertility of Soils, 18, 209-215.

36. Teuscher, E., Lindequist, U., & Mundt, S. (1992). Blue-green algae, sources of natural active agents. Pharm. Ztg. Wiss, 137, 57-69.

37. Dahms, H. U., Ying, X., & Pfeiffer, C. (2006). Antifouling potential of cyanobacteria: amini-review. Biofouling, 22(5), 317-327.

38. Megharaj, M., Madhavi, D. R., Sreenivasulu, C., Umamaheswari, A., & Venkateswarlu, K. (1994). Biodegradation of methyl parathion by soil isolates of microalgae and cyanobacteria. Bulletin of environmental contamination and toxicology, 53(2), 292-297.

39. Sorkhoh, N., Al-Hasan, R., Radwan, S., & Höpner, T. (1992). Self-cleaning of

the Gulf. Nature, 359(6391), 109-109.

40. Al-Hasan, R. H., Al-Bader, D. A., Sorkhoh, N. A., & Radwan, S. S. (1998). Evidence for n-alkane consumption and oxidation by filamentous cyanobacteria from oil contaminated coasts of the Arabian Gulf. Marine Biology, 130, 521-527.

41. Cerniglia, C. E., Van Baalen, C., & Gibson, D. T. (1980). Oxidation of biphenyl by the Cyanobacterium, Oscillatoria sp., strains JCM. Archives of Microbiology, 125, 203-207.

42. Narro, M. L., Cerniglia, C. E., Van Baalen, C. H. A. S. E., & Gibson, D. T. (1992). Metabolism of phenanthrene by the marine cyanobacterium Agmenellum quadruplicatum PR-6. Applied and environmental microbiology, 58(4), 1351- 1359.

43. Shashirekha, S., Uma, L., & Subramanian, G. (1997). Phenol degradation by the marine cyanobacterium Phormidium valderianum BDU 30501. Journal of Industrial microbiology and biotechnology, 19(2), 130-133.

44. Singh, J. S., Singh, D. P., & Dixit, S. (2011). Cyanobacteria: an agent of heavy metal removal. Bioremediation of pollutants. IK International Publisher, New Delhi, 223-243.

45. Megharaj, M., Venkateswarlu, K., & Rao, A. S. (1987). Influence of cypermethrin and fenvalerate on a green alga and three cyanobacteria isolated from soil. Ecotoxicology and environmental safety, 14(2), 142-146.

46. Subashchandrabose, S. R., Ramakrishnan, B., Megharaj, M., Venkateswarlu, K., & Naidu, R. (2011). Consortia of cyanobacteria/microalgae and bacteria: biotechnological potential. Biotechnology advances, 29(6), 896-907.

47. Kurmayer, R., Deng, L., & Entfellner, E. (2016).Role of toxic and bioactive secondary metabolites in colonization and bloom formation by filamentous cyanobacteria Planktothrix. Harmful algae, 54, 69-86.

48. Song, T., Mårtensson, L., Eriksson, T., Zheng, W., & Rasmussen, U. (2005). Biodiversity and seasonal variation of the cyanobacterial assemblage in a rice paddy field in Fujian, China. FEMS Microbiology Ecology, 54(1), 131-140.

49. Parmar, A., Singh, N. K., Kaushal, A., Sonawala, S., & Madamwar, D. (2011). Purification, characterization and comparison of phycoerythrins from three different marine cyanobacterial cultures. Bioresource technology, 102(2), 1795-1802.; Spolaore, P., Joannis Cassan, C., Duran, E., & Isambert, A. (2006). Commercial applications of microalgae Journal of bioscience and bioengineering, 101(2), 87-96.

50. Philip, S., Keshavarz, T., & Roy, I. (2007). Polyhydroxyalkanoates: biodegradable polymers with a range of applications. Journal of chemical technology & biotechnology: International research in process, Environmental & clean technology, 82(3), 233-247.;

51. Moore, R. E. (1996). Cyclic peptides and depsipeptides from cyanobacteria: a review. Journal of industrial microbiology, 16, 134-143; Beltran, E. C., & Neilan, B. A. (2000). Geographical segregation of the neurotoxin-producing cyanobacterium Anabaena circinalis. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 66(10), 4468-4474.

52. Gademann, K., & Portmann, C. (2008). Secondary metabolites from cyanobacteria: complex structures and powerful bioactivities. Current Organic Chemistry, 12(4), 326-341.

53. Leusch, H. (2001) Isolation of dolastatin 10 from the marine cyanobacterium Symploca sp. VP642 and total stereo-chemistry and biological evaluation of its analogue symplostatin 1. J. Nat. Prod., 64, 907-910.

54. Nogle, L. M., Okino, T., & Gerwick, W. H. (2001) Antillatoxin B, a Neurotoxic Lipopeptide from the Marine Cyanobacterium Lyngbya majuscule. Journal of natural products, 64(7), 983-985.

55. Salvador, L. A., Paul, V. J., & Luesch, H. (2010). Caylobolide B, a macrolactone from symplostatin 1-producing marine cyanobacteria Phormidium spp. from Florida. Journal of natural products, 73(9), 1606-1609.

56. MacMillan, J. B., Ernst-Russell, M. A., De Ropp, J. S., & Molinski, T. F. (2002). Lobocyclamides $A - C$, Lipopeptides from a cryptic cyanobacterial mat containing Lyngbyac onfervoides. The Journal of organic chemistry, 67(23), 8210-8215.

 57. Jain, R., Raghukumar, S., Tharanathan, R., & Bhosle, N. B. (2005). Extracellular polysaccharide production by thraustochytrid protists. Marine Biotechnology, 7, 184-192.

58. Raposo, M. F. D. J., Morais, A. M. M. B. D., & Morais, R. M. S. C. D. (2015). Carotenoids from marine microalgae: A valuable natural source for the prevention of chronic diseases. Marine drugs, 13(8), 5128-5155.

59. Xia, S., GAO, B., Li, A., Xiong, J., Ao, Z., & Zhang, C. (2014). Preliminary characterization, antioxidant properties and production of chrysolaminarin from marine diatom Odontella aurita. Marine Drugs, 12(9), 4883-4897.

60.Spolaore, P., Joannis-Cassan, C., Duran, E., & Isambert, A. (2006). Commercial applications of microalgae. Journal of bioscience and bioengineering, 101(2), 87-96.

60. Koller, M., Muhr, A., & Braunegg, G. (2014). Microalgae as versatile cellular factories for valued products. Algal research, 6, 52-63.

61. Hamed, I. (2016). The evolution and versatility of microalgal biotechnology: A review. Comprehensive reviews in food science and food safety, 15(6), 1104-1123.

62. Skulberg, O. M. (2000). Microalgae as a source of bioactive molecules experience from cyanophyte research. Journal of Applied Phycology, 12, 341-348.

63. Chang, H. (2004). Inventing temperature: Measurement and scientific progress. Oxford University Press.

64. Yokokawa, F., Asano, T., & Shioiri, T. (2000). Total synthesis of the antiviral marine natural product $(-)$ -hennoxazole A. Organic Letters, 2(26), 4169-4172.

67. Mitchell, M. L., & Stafford, E. (2000). Managerial decisions and stock price performance. The Journal of Business, 73(3), 287-329.

68. Burja, A. M., Banaigs, B., Abou-Mansour, E., Burgess, J. G., & Wright, P. C. (2001). Marine cyanobacteria—a prolific source of natural products. Tetrahedron, 57(46), 9347- 9377.

69. Li, S. Q., & Zhang, Q. H. (2001). Advances in the development of functional foods from buckwheat. Critical reviews in food science and nutrition, 41(6), 451-464.

70. Ghosh, A., Pratt, A. T., Soma, S., Theriault, S. G., Griffin, A. T., Trivedi, P. P., & Gohil, V. M. (2016). Mitochondrial disease genes COA6, COX6B and SCO2 have

overlapping roles in COX2 biogenesis. Human molecular genetics, 25(4), 660- 671.

71. Dunlap, W. C., Battershill, C. N., Liptrot, C. H., Cobb, R. E., Bourne, D. G., Jaspars, M., ... & Newman, D. J. (2007). Biomedicinals from the phytosymbionts of marine invertebrates: A molecular approach. Methods, 42(4), 358-376.

72. Gademann, K., & Portmann, C. (2008). Secondary metabolites from cyanobacteria: Complex structures and powerful bioactivities. Current Organic Chemistry, 12(4), 326-341; Tan, L. T. (2007). Bioactive natural products from marine cyanobacteria for drug discovery. Phytochemistry, 68(7), 954-979.

73. Borowitzka, M. A. (1995). Microalgae as sources of pharmaceuticals and other biologically active compounds. Journal of applied phycology, 7, 3-15.

74. Mourelle, M. L., Gómez, C. P., & Legido, J. L. (2017). The potential use of marine microalgae and cyanobacteria in cosmetics and thalassotherapy. Cosmetics, 4(4), 46.

75. [Algal World News.First algae-based ink is derived from spirulina instead of petrochemicals [Internet].2019 [cited 26 Dec 2020. Available at: http://news.algaeworld.org/2019/12/the-first-algae-based-ink-isderived- from spirulinainstead-of-petrochemicals/].

76. Amadu, A. A., Qiu, S., Ge, S., Addico, G. N. D., Ameka, G. K., Yu, Z., & Wang, S. (2021) . A review of biopolymer (Poly- β -hydroxybutyrate) synthesis in microbes cultivated on wastewater. Science of the Total Environment, 756, 143729.

77. Singh, R., Parihar, P., Singh, M., Bajguz, A., Kumar, J., Singh, S., & Prasad, S. M. (2017). Uncovering potential applications of cyanobacteria and algal metabolites in biology, agriculture and medicine: current status and future prospects. Frontiers in microbiology, 8, 515.

78. Singh, P. K., Kumar, A., Singh, V. K., & Shrivistava, A. K. (Eds.). (2020). Advances incyanobacterial biology. Academic Press.

79. Anderson, A. J., & Dawes, E. (1990). Occurrence, metabolism, metabolic role, and industrial uses of bacterial polyhydroxyalkanoates. Microbiological reviews, 54(4), 450-472.

80. Doi, Y., Kanesawa, Y., Kunioka, M., & Saito, T. (1990). Biodegradation of microbial copolyesters: poly (3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) and poly (3- hydroxybutyrateco-4-hydroxybutyrate). Macromolecules, 23(1), 26-31.

81. Ostle, A. G., & Holt, J. G. (1982). Nile blue A as a fluorescent stain for poly betahydroxybutyrate. Applied and environmental microbiology, 44(1), 238-241.

82. Vincenzini, M., De Philippis, R., Sili, C., & Materassi, R. (1990). Studies on Exopolysaccharide release by diazotrophic batch cultures of Cyanospira capsulata. Applied microbiology and biotechnology, 34, 392-396.

83. Stal, L. J. (1992). Poly (hydroxyalkanoate) in cyanobacteria: an overview. FEMS Microbiology Reviews, 9(2-4), 169-180.; Arino, O. (1995). A survey of structured cell population dynamics. Acta biotheoretica, 43(1-2), 3-25. Carr, M. H. (1996). Water on mars. New York: Oxford University Press.

84. Uc-Cachón, A. H., Gamboa-Angulo, M., Borges-Argáez, R., Reyes-Estebanez, M., Said-Fernández, S., & Molina-Salinas, G. M. (2019). Antitubercular activity of the fungus Gliocladium sp. MR41 strain. Iranian Journal of Pharmaceutical Research: IJPR, 18(2), 860.

85. Shah, A., Rather, M. A., Shah, A. M., Mushtaq, S., Hussain, A., Rasool, S, & Qazi, P. H. (2016). Evaluating the in vitro antituberculosis, antibacterial and antioxidant potential of fungal endophytes isolated from Glycyrrhiza glabra L. Annals of Phytomedicine, 5(2), 140- 146.

86. Irene Goetzke, B., & Spiller, A. (2014). Health-improving lifestyles of organic and functional food consumers. British Food Journal, 116(3), 510-526.

87. Hobby, G. L., & Lenert, T. F. (1957). The in vitro action of antituberculous agents against multiplying and nonmultiplying microbial cells. American Review of Tuberculosis and Pulmonary Diseases, 76(6), 1031-1048; Dover, L. G., & Coxon, G. D. (2011). Current status and research strategies in tuberculosis drug development: miniperspective. Journal of medicinal chemistry, 54(18), 6157-6165.

88. Kolyva, A. S., & Karakousis, P. C. (2012). Old and new TB drugs: mechanisms of action and resistance. Understanding Tuberculosis-New approaches to fighting against drugresistance.

89. Kaona, F. A., Tuba, M., Siziya, S., & Sikaona, L. (2004). An assessment of factors contributing to treatment adherence and knowledge of TB transmission among patients on TB treatment. BMC Public health, 4(1), 1-8.

90. Mitchison, D. A. 2004. The search for new sterilizing anti-tuberculosis drugs. Front Biosci.9:1059-1072.

 91. Kuhl, A., & Lorenzen, H. (1964). Hmdling and culturing of Chlorella. In Methods in cell biology (Vol. 1, pp. 159-187). Academic Press.; Rippka and Herdman, 1993.

92. Mirón, A. S., Garcia, M. C. C., Gómez, A. C., Camacho, F. G., Grima, E. M., & Chisti, Y. (2003). Shear stress tolerance and biochemical characterization of Phaeodactylum tricornutum in quasi steady-state continuous culture in outdoor photobioreactors. Biochemical Engineering Journal, 16(3), 287-297. .. Ngu, E. L., Ko, C. L., Tan, C. Y., Wong, K. H., Phang, S. M., & Yow, Y. Y. (2021). Phytochemical profiling and in vitro screening for neuritogenic and antioxidant activities of Spirulina platensis. Indian J Pharm Educ Res, 55(3), 812-822.

93. Srinivasan, V., Bhavan, P. S., Rajkumar, G., Satgurunathan, T., & Muralisankar, T. (2017). Dietary supplementation of magnesium oxide (MgO) nanoparticles for better survival and growth of the freshwater prawn Macrobrachium rosenbergii post larvae.Biological trace element research, 177, 196-208.

94.Pant, D. R., Pant, N. D., Yadav, U. N., & Khanal, D. P. (2017). Phytochemical screening and study of antioxidant, antimicrobial, antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory and analgesic activities of extracts from stem wood of Pterocarpus marsupium Roxburgh. Journal of Intercultural Ethnopharmacology, 6(2), 170.

95. Blois, M. S. (1958) Antioxidant determinations by the use of a stable free radical. Nature, 181(4617), 1199-1200.

96. Cuvelier and Berset (1995). 97. (Finegold, E.J., et al., (1990). Bailey and Scott's Diagnostic Microbiology. 8th Edition. The C.V. Mosby Co. St. Louis, Missouri. 2. American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, Va. U.S.A).

98. Lembi, C. A., & Waaland, J. R. (Eds.) (1988). Algae and human affairs Cambridge University Press.

99. Coherency CC and Berger BJ, 2013; Fitzgerald et al., 2015; Murray PR 2015.

100. Dzodanu, E. G., Afrifa, J., Acheampong, D. O., & Dadzie, I. (2019). Diagnostic yield of fluorescence and Ziehl-Neelsen staining techniques in the diagnosis of pulmonary tuberculosis: A comparative study in a district health facility. Tuberculosis Research and Treatment, 2019.

101. Taneja, N. K., & Tyagi, J. S. (2007). Resazurin reduction assays for screening of anti- tubercular compounds against dormant and actively growing Mycobacterium tuberculosis, Mycobacterium bovis BCG and Mycobacterium smegmatis. Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy, 60(2), 288-293.

102. Martin, R., Sunley, P., Gardiner, B., & Tyler, P. (2016). How regions react to recessions: Resilience and the role of economic structure. Regional studies, 50(4), 561-585.

; Martin, A., Camacho, M., Portaels, F., & Palomino, J. C. (2003). Resazurin microtiter assay plate testing of Mycobacterium tuberculosis susceptibilities to second-line drugs: rapid, simple, and inexpensive method. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy, 47(11), 3616-3619.

103. Chernecky, C. C., Waller, J. L., & Jarvis, W. R. (2013). In vitro study assessing the antibacterial activity of three silver-impregnated/coated mechanical valve needleless connectors after blood exposure. American journal of infection control, 41(3), 278-280; Fitzgerald, D. W., Murphy, F. E., Wright, W. M., Whelan, P. M., & Popovici, E. M. (2015, June). Design and development of a smart weighing scale for beehive monitoring. In 2015 26th Irish signals and systems conference (ISSC) (pp. 1-6). IEEE; Murray, P. R. (2015). The clinician and the microbiology laboratory. Mandell, Douglas, and Bennett's Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases, 191.

104. Shamim, A., Mahfooz, S., Hussain, A., & Farooqui, A. (2020). Ability of Alacclimatized Immobilized Nostoc muscorum to Combat Abiotic Stress and its Potentialas a Biofertilizer. J Pure Appl Microbiol, 14(2), 1377-1386.

105. Yusoff, M. I., Irwanto, M., Ibrahim, S., Nair, G., Hassan, S. I. S., & Fitra, M. (2015). Estimating Daily Solar Radiation Using Hargreaves Model in Eastern Malaysia. Applied Mechanics and Materials, 699, 564-569.

106.Rizwan Ullah Baig1 , Abeera Malik1 , Khadim Ali1 , Sehar Arif1 , Sadam

Hussain1 , Mazhar Mehmood1 , Kamran Sami1 ,Ali Nawaz Mengal, Mohammad Najam Khan1(2022) 1 Department of Chemical Engineering, Balochistan University of Information Technology, Engineering and Management Sciences Quetta, Pakistan.

107. Ebrahimzadeh, M. A., Khalili, M., & Dehpour, A. A. (2018). Antioxidant activity of ethyl acetate and methanolic extracts of two marine algae, Nannochloropsis oculata and

Gracilaria gracilis-an in vitro assay. Brazilian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, 54.

108. Spavieri, J., Allmendinger, A., Kaiser, M., Casey, R., Hingley-Wilson, S., Lalvani, A & Tasdemir, D. (2010). Antimycobacterial, antiprotozoal and cytotoxic potential of twenty-one brown algae (phaeophyceae) from British and Irish waters. Phytotherapy Research.