



## Assessment of Antioxidant and Antifungal Capacity of Selected Drifted Brown Seaweeds.

K. Bhanumathi<sup>1</sup>, Ganeshan Petchidurai<sup>2\*</sup>, S. Tamilselvi<sup>1</sup>, S. Wincy<sup>2</sup>, R. Vana Padmavathi<sup>2</sup>, M. Sasirekhamani<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Head, Department of Zoology, Kamaraj College (Autonomous), Thoothukudi-628003, Tamil Nadu, India - 628 003, Affiliated to Manonmaniam Sundaranar University, Tirunelveli, 627012, Tamil Nadu, India, Email: banumadhul1978@gmail.com

<sup>2</sup>\*PG and Research Department of Zoology, Kamaraj College (Autonomous), Thoothukudi, Tamil Nadu, India - 628 003, Affiliated to Manonmaniam Sundaranar University, Tirunelveli, 627012, Tamil Nadu, Telephone number, Email: durai.s.m.m@gmail.com

<sup>3</sup>Assistant Professor, PG Department of Food Science and Nutrition Department, Holy Cross Home Science College, Thoothukudi, Affiliated to Manonmaniam Sundaranar University, Tirunelveli-627012, Tamil Nadu, India, Email: sasirekhamani@gmail.com

**\*Corresponding Author:** Ganeshan Petchidurai

\*PG and Research Department of Zoology, Kamaraj College (Autonomous), Thoothukudi, Tamil Nadu, India - 628 003, Affiliated to Manonmaniam Sundaranar University, Tirunelveli, 627012, Tamil Nadu, Telephone number, durai.s.m.m@gmail.com

### Abstract

Seaweeds, also known as marine macroalgae, are renewable biological resources found worldwide and possess various secondary metabolites. This study evaluated the phytochemicals, antifungal, and antioxidant activity of locally, and mass number of available seaweeds. Selected seaweeds were extracted using 70% methanol using heat methods. The GC-MS analysis of tested samples displayed, *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* extracts present 13 and 4 bioactive complexes. In *S. wightii* the alkaloid compound 2,3-Dicyano-5,6-diphenylpyrazine was found to be high, and Silicic acid or dihydrogen tetroxide disilicate riches in *S. marginatum*. Tested both samples presented high potential to antifungal activity with range from 9 to 74 % and 6 to 74% for *F. oxysporum* and *A. niger* respectively. Moreover, *F. oxysporum* is highly sensitive ( $\bar{x}$  = 74.66%,  $F_{25,4}$  = 561.219,  $p$  = 0.004) to drifted *S. marginatum*. Minimum inhibitory concentration obeyed *S. wightii* 395.75 (IC<sub>50</sub>), sufficient to inhibit 50% of *F. oxysporum*. In the DPPH method, higher concentration of *S. marginatum* ( $\bar{x}$  = 70.95±1.12,  $F_{25,4}$  = 449.853,  $p$  = 0.005) and *S. wightii* ( $\bar{x}$  = 63.96 ± 1.12,  $F_{25,4}$  = 397.90,  $p$  = 0.005) showed the significantly highest DPPH scavenging inhibition activity. In the Phosphomolybdenum method, *S. marginatum* extract noted significantly top topmost inhibition activity ( $\bar{x}$  = 92.71±1.17,  $F_{25,4}$  = 244.197,  $p$  = 0.003) while *S. wightii* exhibited slightly lower inhibition activity observed at ( $\bar{x}$  = 80.54±2.35,  $F_{25,4}$  = 159.80,  $p$  = 0.003). IC<sub>50</sub> value points to a higher antioxidant activity, IC<sub>50</sub> (287.64) value of *S. wightii* confirms that *S. wightii* has high antioxidant potential activity by total antioxidant assay methods when compared to *S. marginatum*. The present findings suggested that drifted seaweeds can be considered as a biological waste and used as a pharmacological activity.

**Keywords:** Drifted seaweeds; antifungal; antioxidant; *F. oxysporum*; *A. niger*

### INTRODUCTION

The coastal marine areas contain some of the world's most diverse and productive biological systems. India has an extensive coastal of 8129 km with Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) (Nammalwar *et al.*, 2009). The Tamil Nadu and Puducherry coastline is around 1076 km in length and constitutes around 15% of India's total coastline. Shoreline of Tamil Nadu encompasses dissimilar natures of vegetation, like mangroves and their associates—scrub jungles, aquatic vegetation, and coastal dune vegetation (Nisha Thomas *et al.*, 2023). This vegetation has an enormous kind and numbers of animals, insects, coral reefs, seagrass and seaweeds, which play a critical role in maintaining the marine ecosystem, as we as human beings and seashore terrestrial animals.

Seaweeds are simple, primitive plants without a root and shoot system, popularly termed as Sea vegetables and widely distributed in the oceans from the tidal level to considerable depths, and floating freely with attached to rocky substrate with a holdfast (Petchidurai *et al.*, 2019). Based on their pigments, seaweeds are broadly categorized into 3 types, viz. Brown algae (Phaeophyta), Green algae (Chlorophyta), and Red algae (Rhodophyta). Seaweeds are rich in a lot of macro and micro nutrients, carbohydrates, proteins, minerals, and vitamins (Kirtankumar *et al.*, 2016). Brown seaweeds are abundantly available in our country, followed by green and red seaweeds (Bagavan Reddy *et al.*, 2023). The Gulf of Mannar, located in the southern part of Tamil Nadu, has a rich diversity of all three seaweed groups. Intertidal and subtidal rocks extend up to 1 m deep, and they support abundant growth of *Sargassum*, *Acanthophora*, and *Hypnea* species (Jha *et al.*, 2009).

Seaweed is a staple food in Japan and China since time ages. The green seaweeds *Enteromorpha*, *Ulva*, *Caulerpa*, and *Codium* are utilized exclusively as the source of food. These are often eaten as fresh salads or cooked as vegetables along with rice. *Porphyra* (Nori), *Laminaria* (Kombu), and *Undaria* (Wakame) are used for making fish and meat dishes as well as soups and accompaniments. Seaweeds contain more than 60 trace elements; their concentration is greatly higher than in terrestrial plants, and they also encompass vitamins, proteins, essential amino acids, iodine, bromine, antibiotics, and several bioactive substances. They are also used as feed for livestock, poultry, fish, and prawns, and as manure for many plantation crops. Agar-agar, agarose, and carrageenan are commercially valuable substances extracted from red seaweeds and find extensive use in many industries like food, confectionery, pharmaceutical, biomedical, dairy, textile, paper, and paint industries as gelling, stabilizing, and thickening agents (Janet Rani *et al.*, 2013; Meenakshisundaram Ganesan *et al.*, 2019; Manickavasagam *et al.*, 2019).

*Aspergillus* is a common filamentous environmental fungus; there are approximately 200 species, less than 20 of which are pathogenic to humans. Aspergillosis is an opportunistic mycosis, causing the disease under immunocompromised situations of the host or when humans and animals are exposed to an overwhelming number of infectious spores of the fungus. Certain occupational groups, such as poultry farmers, gardeners, and agricultural workers, etc seem to be more susceptible to aspergillosis (Mahendra Pal, 2020). *A. niger* has been associated with otomycosis (Araiza *et al.*, 2006) caused to cutaneous infections (Loudon *et al.*, 1996) and pulmonary disease.

*Fusarium oxysporum* (*F. oxysporum*) is a pathogenic soil-borne ascomycete fungus affecting many plants in the world by causing fusarium wilt, which is a lethal vascular syndrome in plants (Flood Julie, 2006). There are over 100 host-specific species of *F. oxysporum* of which are widely distributed around the world. Commercially, *F. oxysporum* strains infect, cause disease symptoms, and kill a wide range of plants, for instance, the Solanaceae group comprising tomatoes, potatoes, peppers, and eggplants. The fungal pathogen affects the plants by producing macro and micro conidia, finally entering to human being (Chung Gait Fee, 2018).

In humans, *Fusarium* spp. Causes a variety of infections, which are highly dependent upon the portal of entry and the immune status of the host (Nucci *et al.*, 2015), in immunocompetent people, it is the most common etiological agent of superficial infections such as keratitis and onychomycosis, but it can appear in other organs causing infections such as peritonitis in patients receiving dialysis (Gaur *et al.*, 2010), thrombophlebitis, arthritis (Gradon *et al.*, 1990), osteomyelitis (Sierra-Hoffman *et al.*, 2005), endophthalmitis (Ahearn *et al.*, 2008; Proença-Pina *et al.*, 2010), fungemia (Dananché *et al.*, 2015), sinusitis (Macêdo *et al.*, 2008) and pneumonia (Poignon *et al.*, 2020) in severely immunocompromised patients, locally invasive or disseminated infections are more frequent and are usually associated with positive blood cultures (Nucci and Anaissie, 2007). The species that are most commonly involved in human infection are *F. solani*, followed by *F. oxysporum*, *F. verticillioides*, and *F. moniliforme* (Cighir *et al.*, 2023).

Nowadays, microbes are increasingly developing resistance against antibiotics and fungicides in use. Therefore, a large library of novel compounds is required to combat these drug-resistant microbes. Since natural products from seaweeds offer a rich source of bioactive molecules, the present work was intended to evaluate the antifungal efficiency of organic solvent extracts of the most dominant drifted marine algal species. Seaweeds have been widely used as food (Bonotto, 2016) as they are the chief source of vitamins and minerals (Hoppe, 2016). The extracts and their products are effective nutritional supplements (Gross, 2016). Apart from the nutritional support, it has also been used against various biological diseases like antimicrobial, antiviral, antifungal, antiallergic, anticoagulant, anticancer, antifouling, and antioxidant activities (Pooja, 2014). The marine brown alga, i.e. *Sargassum wightii*, has anti-tumor, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and antibacterial activities (Cotas, 2020; Farghali, 2023).

Antioxidants are inhibitors of the process of oxidation, even at relatively small concentrations, and thus have diverse physiological roles in the body. Antioxidant constituents of the plant material act as radical scavengers and help in converting the radicals to less reactive species. A variety of free radical scavenging antioxidants are found in dietary sources like fruits, vegetables, and tea etc (Sulekha Mandal *et al.*, 2009). Antioxidant compounds play an important role against various diseases (e.g., chronic inflammation, atherosclerosis, cancer, and cardiovascular disorders) and ageing processes (Kohen and Nyska, 2002), which explains their considerable commercial potential in medicine, food production, and the cosmetic industry. Moreover, interest in employing antioxidants from natural sources is considerably enhanced by consumer preference for natural products and concern about the potential toxic effects of synthetic antioxidants (Safer and al-Nughamish, 1999).

In the past, several investigators have found that seaweeds have antioxidant, antifungal, antimicrobial, antiviral, insecticidal activity, repellent activity, etc. Nevertheless, Petchidurai *et al.* (2023) testified drifted brown seaweeds tannin hold insecticidal acidity. To date, no one has initiated research on drifted seaweeds that possess antioxidant and antifungal potential. When compared to the other two types of marine algae, brown algae are the rich source of secondary metabolites, abundance numbers, availability, drifting ability of seaweeds. Based on these motives, I have selected drifted brown seaweeds *Stoechospermum marginatum* (*S. marginatum*) for my research to test antifungal activity against *Aspergillus niger* (*A. niger*) and *Fusarium oxysporum* (*F. oxysporum*) and antioxidant activity.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Seaweed collection and preparation

Seaweed species, *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* were collected from Manapadu in November 2023 (8.3765° N, 78.0563°E), Tuticorin district of Tamil Nadu. The collected seaweeds were washed twice in seawater, tap water, and distilled water to

remove debris and sand. They were dried in the shade for two weeks and then partially powdered with a domestic blender (Preethi, XL7, ATK product, India) and stored for further processing.

### Seaweed extraction (Heat method)

Drifted seaweeds were extracted from *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* by the heat methods (water bath) according to the methodology of Vanimakhal and Balasubramanian (2016) with little modifications. In the former, partially powdered seaweeds (100 g) were suspended in 250 ml of 70% Methanol containing 0.01% ascorbic acid in an airtight conical flask and kept in a water bath at 50 °C (Technico) for 24 hours. The samples were filtered and air dried in a laminar airflow chamber. After that, the crude extract was placed in a hot air oven (Technico) at 50 °C for 1 hour.

### GC-MS analysis

Crude extract is GC-MS analysis Using a Perkin-Elmer GC System 7820A, MSD 5977E and gas chromatograph interfaced to a mass spectrometer (GC-MS) equipped with an Elite-I, fused silica capillary column (30mm X 0.25mm DB-5, composed of 100% Dimethyl poly siloxane), drifted brown algal crude extracts were subjected to GC-MS analysis. An electron ionization device with an ionizing energy of 70 eV was employed for GC-MS detection. With an injection volume of 2 µl and a split ratio of 10:1, helium gas (99.999%) was utilized as the carrier gas. The injector temperature was 100 °C, while the ion source temperature was 270 °C. With pieces ranging in size from 45 to 450 Da, mass spectra were recorded at a scan rate of 70 eV and 0.5 seconds. The GC ran for 36 minutes in total. Software called TurboMass was used to handle mass spectra and chromatograms, and it was used to calculate the relative percent amount of each component by comparing its average peak area to the total areas (Monrroy *et al.*, 2020).

The components of the test materials' names, molecular weights, and structures were determined using the National Institute of Standards and Technology's (NIST's) database.

### Anti-fungal activity

The Agar Well Diffusion Method (Alvarez Benito, 1990) was used to measure the antifungal action. For the growth inhibition investigations, sterile Petri plates (9 cm in diameter and 1 cm in height) containing 20 ml each of sterile potato dextrose agar (PDA) were prepared. *F. oxysporum* and *A. niger* conidia were added to the prepared PDA medium and poured in Petri dish and inoculated at normal room temperature ( $27 \pm 2$  °C). After the solidification, a sterile cork borer was used to create wells (5 mm) under aseptic circumstances. Different amounts of the tested drifting brown algae *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* (100, 200, 400, and 800 mg), and a positive control was fluconazole, were added to the corresponding wells. As a negative control, sterile double-distilled water. For each concentration, three replications were kept. The culture was kept in the BOD incubator at  $27 \pm 2$  °C (Kemi, India). Using an antibiotic susceptibility ruler, a definite zone of inhibition was observed after 72 hours of incubation. The following formula was used to calculate the test extract's relative percentage inhibition against the positive control (Yousif *et al.*, 2015)

Percentage inhibition =  $(C-T) \times 100/C$

Where,

C = colony diameter (mm) of the control.

T = colony diameter (mm) of the test plate.

### Antioxidant activity

#### DPPH Radical Scavenging Capacity

Inspected the capability of drifted seaweeds extracts to scavenge the DPPH free radical (1, 1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl) technique, method described by Yen and Chen (1995). Two mL of the test drifted seaweeds *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* extract from every concentration (100, 200, 400, and 800 mg) were mixed with 2 mL of a 0.16 mM DPPH methanol solution. The absorbances were measured at 517 nm after the liquid was vortexed and kept in the dark for 30 min. The antioxidant activity was expressed as an inhibition percentage of DPPH radical (% inhibition).

#### Total antioxidant assay (Phosphomolybdenum method)

The total antioxidant activity was evaluated by the phosphomolybdenum method described by Prieto *et al.* (1999). 1.0 ml of the drifted seaweeds *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* extract from every concentration (100, 200, 400, and 800 mg) was mixed with 1.0 ml of the standard reagent solution (0.6M sulphuric acid, 28 mM sodium phosphate, and 4 mM ammonium molybdate) in a test tube. The capped tubes are incubated in a thermal block at 95°C for 90 min. After cooling to room temperature, the absorbance was measured at 695 nm against a reagent blank.

Percentage of antioxidant activity calculated using the formula

% Antioxidant activity =  $\text{Sample Absorbance} / \text{Standard Absorbance} \times 100$

### Statistical analysis

Data are presented as the mean of six replicates  $\pm$  Standard Error (SE). The attained data were examined statistically using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Probability levels for both antifungal and antioxidant activity were expressed at  $p \leq 0.05$  levels of significance.

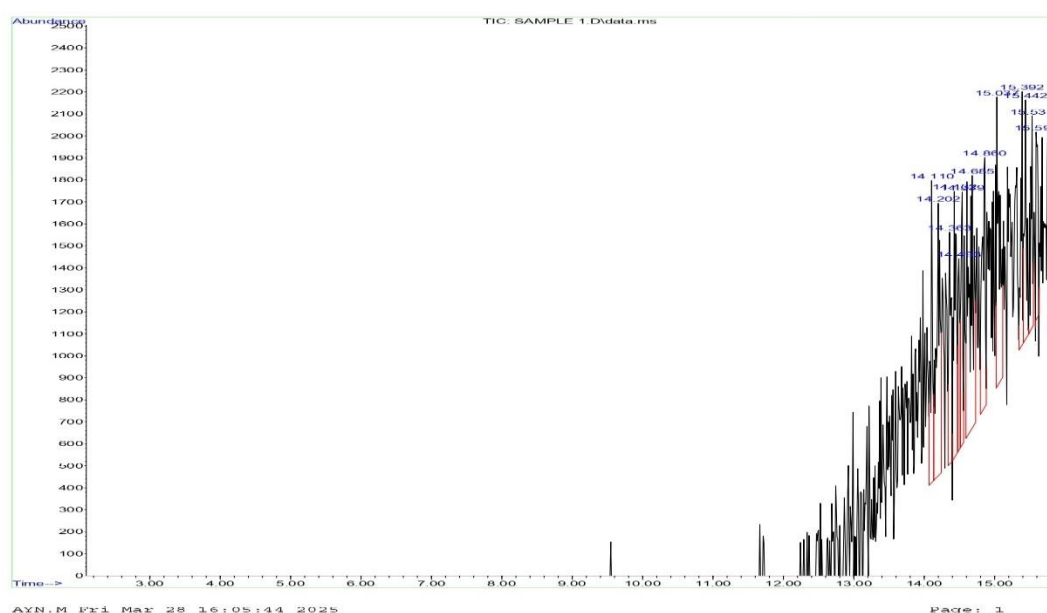
**RESULT****GC-MS**

GC-MS investigation of drifted seaweeds *S. wightii* 70 % carbinol crude extract, existing 13 bioactive complexes, whereas *S. marginatum* has 4 biochemical complexes as shown in Figs 1 and 2. The names of the biochemicals present in the drifted crude extract and their molecular weight, and molecular formula of also given in Table 1.

**Table 1.** List of biochemicals identified using GC-MS for a methanolic extract of drifted brown seaweeds.

S. n	Compound name	RT	RA	RT %	Molecular formula	Molecular weight
<b><i>S. wightii</i></b>						
1	9-Octadecenamide (z),	14.114	24956	6.89	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>35</sub> NO	531.9
2	2-(Acetoxymethyl)-3-(methoxycarbonyl)biphenylene	14.199	42961	11.87	C <sub>17</sub> H <sub>14</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	282.29
3	Phenol, 2,6-dichloro-4-nitro	14.360	24161	6.67	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>3</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> NO <sub>3</sub>	208.00
4	2(1H)-Pyrimidinone, 5-chloro-4,6-diphenyl	14.435	31731	8.77	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>11</sub> ClN <sub>2</sub> O	282.72
5	1,3,5-Triazine, 2-chloro-4,6-bis(methylthio)	14.492	14611	4.04	C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>6</sub> ClN <sub>3</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	207.7
6	2-Methyl-6-(5-methyl-2-thiazolin-2-ylamino)pyridine	14.540	21344	5.90	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>13</sub> N <sub>3</sub> S	101.17
7	2,3-Dicyano-5,6-diphenylpyrazine	14.681	55425	15.31	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>10</sub> N <sub>4</sub>	282.3
8	Phenol, 2,4-dichloro-6-nitro	14.861	34642	9.57	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>3</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> NO <sub>3</sub>	208.00
9	Phenol, 4-[2-(5-nitro-2-benzoxazolyl) ethenyl]	15.041	39171	10.82	C <sub>19</sub> H <sub>12</sub> N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	240.21
10	Quinoline, 2-chloro-6-methoxy-4-methyl	15.390	17571	4.85	C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>10</sub> ClNO	207.65
11	Cyclopentanecarboxylic acid, 3-methylene-2,2-dimethyl-5-[(E)-1-propenyl]-, methyl ester	15.438	21725	6.00	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>28</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	154.21
12	4-[N-Methylpiperazino]-5-nitro veratrole	15.532	17520	4.84	C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>20</sub> N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	309.06
13	Purine-2,6-dione, 8-(3-ethoxypropylamino)-1,3-dimethyl-3,9-dihydro	15.599	16181	4.47	C <sub>21</sub> H <sub>29</sub> N <sub>5</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	399.5
<b><i>S. marginatum</i></b>						
1	Silicic acid or dihydrogen tetroxide disilicate	17.825	229901	36.5	H <sub>8</sub> O <sub>8</sub> Si <sub>2</sub>	192.23
2	Tris(tert-butyldimethylsilyloxy)	19.464	204058	32.4	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>45</sub> AsO <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>3</sub>	871.302
3	2-Ethylacridine	19.753	172192	27.3	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>13</sub> N	207.27
4	2-Methyl-7-phenylindole	20.534	23436	3.7	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>13</sub> N	2178587

In retraction percentage of biochemical range between 4.47 % to 15.31% and 3.7% to 36.5% at *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum*, respectively. In *S. wightii*, the alkaloid compound 2,3-Dicyano-5,6-diphenylpyrazine was found to be high with values of 15.31 %. After that, 2-(Acetoxymethyl)-3-(methoxycarbonyl) biphenylene was found to be existing in high quantity (Fig. 1 and Table 1). Alternatively, in *S. marginatum* are majorly presented in Silicic acid (36.5%), Tris (tert-butyldimethylsilyloxy) (32.4%). Before the help of GC-MS and HPLC, Petchidurai *et al.* (2024) reported drifted brown algae crude extract have an active chemical complex, Moreover, El-Sheekh *et al.* (2020) recognized several phytochemicals and fatty acids in brown algae *C. myrica*, *S. cinereum*, and *P. boergesenii*.



**Fig. 1.** GC-MS analysis of methanolic extract of drifted seaweeds *S. wightii*

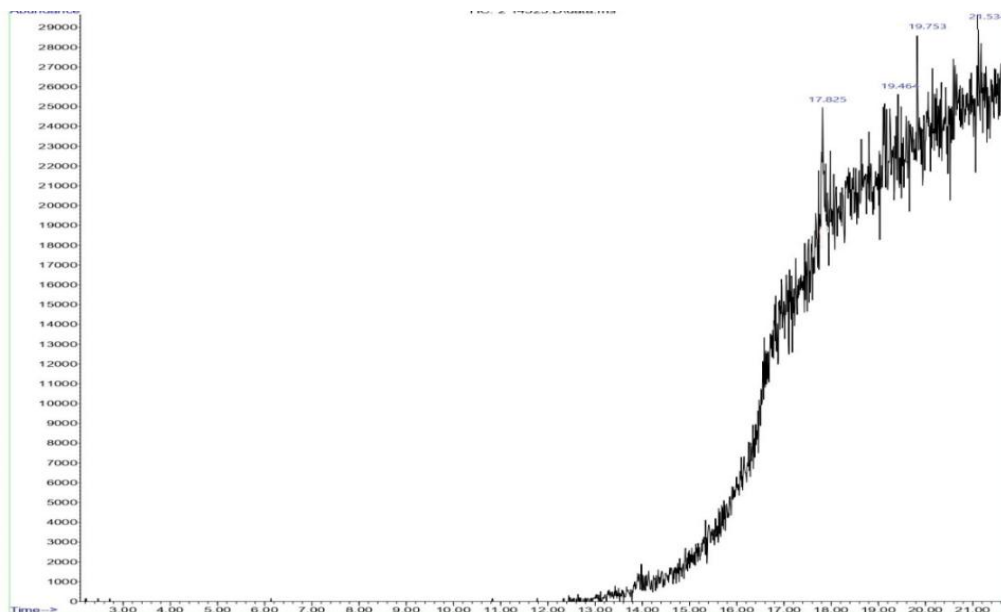


Fig. 2. GG-MS analysis of the methanolic extract of drifted seaweeds *S. marginatum*

In nature, terrestrial plants and seaweeds contain silicic acid to enhance crop yield, quality, plant growth, root growth, promote resilience to abiotic stresses like heat and drought, work against pests, reduce insect pest populations, and reduce plant accumulation of toxic heavy metals (Rao *et al.*, 2023). Generally, Marine algae particularly need Si for such as diatoms, hence silica uptake (silicic acid) in place of the surrounding seawater by plasma membrane (transporters) transporting system of their cells (Martin-Jézéquel, 2000) mainly in case of green algae *Cladophora glomerata* (Moore and Traquair, 1976) and the brown algae *Padina gymnospora* cell wall (Salgado *et al.*, 2005; Hiroyuki *et al.*, 2021). This indicates that the occurrence of drifted brown algae *S. marginatum* may contribute to an increased level of silicic acid in the extract because of its natural content. As a result, this feature may increase the potential uses of the extract in, for instance, agriculture or environmental science.

Current GC-MS investigation displayed that the quality and quantity of bioactive complex are not the same in two seaweeds, because of the factors such as modifications in geographical setting, season, and salinity, temperature, extraction methods, time, extraction technique, solvent concentration, and solvent polarity (Nawaz *et al.*, 2020).

### Antifungal activity

70% methanolic extract of drifted *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* crude extract confirmed antagonistic to pathogenic fungus by agar well diffusion techniques, , pathogenicity ability was evaluated with various concentrations (100, 200, 400, 800 mg) of extracts. The results suggest that tested samples have high fungicidal action than the positive control (Fluconazole) against both *A. niger* and *F. oxysporum*. In addition, the pathogenicity action is potentially increased when the tested two sample doses are increased (Table 2). Tested both samples presented high potential to antifungal activity with range from 9 to 74 % and 6 to 74% for *F. oxysporum* and *A. niger* respectively. Moreover *F. oxysporum* being highly sensitive ( $\bar{x}$  = 74.66%,  $F_{25,4}$  = 561.219,  $p$  = 0.004) to drifted *S. marginatum* when compared *S. marginatum* treated *A. niger* ( $\bar{x}$  = 68.66%,  $F_{25,4}$  = 138.591,  $p$  = 0.005) as well as *S. wightii* crude treated *F. oxysporum* ( $\bar{x}$  = 70.50±2.60;  $F_{25,4}$  =144. 85;  $p$  = 0.005) and *A. niger* ( $\bar{x}$  = 70.16±2.40;  $F_{25,4}$  = 272.52;  $p$  = 0.004) at concentration of 800. Whereas the positive control Fluconazole showed 15% and 17% antifungal activity for *F. oxysporum* and *A. niger* respectively (Table 2). When compared to two tested materials and two pathogen, Output of Minimum inhibitory concentration obeyed *S. wightii* 395.75 (IC<sub>50</sub>) sufficient to 50% inhibitory of *F. oxysporum* when compared to *A. niger* (Fig. 3 and Table 3).

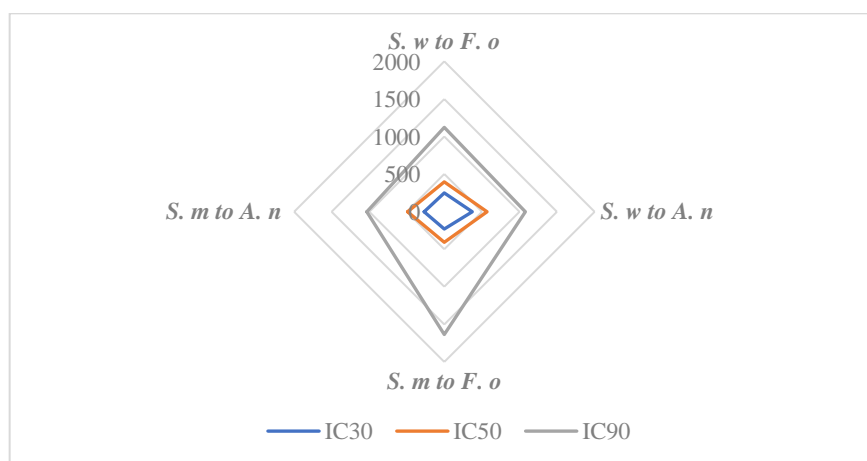
Table 2. Antifungal efficacy of methanolic extract of selected drifted brown seaweeds against the pathogen.

Seaweeds	Con	$\bar{x} \pm S. E$	DF	F	Sig	$\bar{x} \pm S. E$	DF	F	Sig
	<i>F. oxysporum</i>				<i>A. niger</i>				
<i>S. marginatum</i>	100	09.00±0.90 <sup>gF</sup>	25,4	561.219	0.093	09.50±0.76 <sup>gF</sup>	25,4	138.591	0.56
	200	28.50±1.54 <sup>eD</sup>			0.069	20.33±1.83 <sup>eE</sup>			0.011
	400	45.50±1.72 <sup>dC</sup>			0.013	44.66±1.50 <sup>cC</sup>			0.007
	800	74.66±1.33 <sup>aA</sup>			0.004	68.66±4.56 <sup>bB</sup>			0.005
Fluconazole		15.00±1.35				17.00±073			
<i>S. wightii</i>	100	13.83±1.10 <sup>fF</sup>	25,4	144.85	0.103	06.83±0.90 <sup>gG</sup>	25,4	272.52	0.256
	200	28.16±1.70 <sup>eD</sup>			0.083	18.50±1.05 <sup>eE</sup>			0.026
	400	51.00±2.51 <sup>cB</sup>			0.043	39.00±1.89 <sup>dC</sup>			0.005
	800	70.50±2.60 <sup>bA</sup>			0.005	70.16±2.40 <sup>aA</sup>			0.004
Fluconazole		13.83±1.10				17.00±073			

Same (<sup>abcd</sup>) lowercase letter in a column shows significance at 0.05% among the algae, and upper case (<sup>ABCD</sup>) latter shows the significance at 0.05% between pathogens.

**Table 3.** Probit analytical data, chi-square, and significance) against pathogen growth by well diffusion assay.

Pathogen	R <sup>2</sup>	Y	Chi-Square	Sig
<i>S. marginatum</i>				
<i>F. oxysporum</i>	0.990	$Y = -5.6 + 23.15X$	1.190	0.552
<i>A. niger</i>	0.992	$Y = -5.35 + 1.99X$	0.727	0.695
<i>S. wightii</i>				
<i>F. oxysporum</i>	0.992	$y = 19.285x - 7.34$	6.877162	0.009
<i>A. niger</i>	0.958	$y = 21.049x - 19$	4.763	0.029



**Fig. 3.** LC data for drifted seaweeds extract against pathogen growth.

#### Antioxidant activity

##### DPPH method

Chemicals that undergo reduced oxidation reactions are named for their antioxidant activity, the activity expressed as a percentage of inhibition. Antioxidant activity of drifted seaweeds (different concentrations 100, 200, 400, and 800 mg) was determined by the DPPH method, as the outcome showed that antioxidant reduction activity was noticeably increased when the extract dose was increased, as given in Table 4. Higher concentration of *S. marginatum* ( $\bar{x} = 70.95 \pm 1.12$ ,  $F_{25,4} = 449.853$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ) and *S. wightii* ( $\bar{x} = 63.96 \pm 1.12$ ,  $F_{25,4} = 397.90$ ,  $p < 0.005$ ) showed significantly highest DPPH scavenging inhibition activity.  $IC_{50}$  is shown in Table 5, The  $IC_{50}$  value indicates *S. marginatum* has highly reduced antioxidant activity compared to *S. wightii* and needs 372.42 mg *S. marginatum* crude extract for 50% inhibition activity by the DPPH method (Fig. 4).

##### Phosphomolybdenum method

In the same way, the antioxidant inhibition percentage was verified by the Phosphomolybdenum method. Similarly to DPPH, Phosphomolybdenum correspondingly exhibited dose depended antioxidant activity inhibition percentage as showed in Table 4 and fig. 4. 800 mg drifted seaweeds *S. marginatum* extract noted significantly top most inhibition activity ( $\bar{x} = 92.71 \pm 1.17$ ,  $F_{25,4} = 244.197$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ) while *S. wightii* exhibited slightly low inhibition activity observed at ( $\bar{x} = 80.54 \pm 2.35$ ,  $F_{25,4} = 159.80$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ).  $IC_{50}$  value showed in the table,  $IC_{50}$  points to *S. marginatum* 489.33 mg needed for 50% inhibition activity, while *S. wightii* 287.64 mg offered for 50% reduction activity (Table 5). When compared to both antioxidant methods and both tested materials, *S. marginatum* showed high potential antioxidant radical scavenging activity at both methods.

**Table 4.** Antioxidant potential of selected drifted brown seaweeds' crude extract.

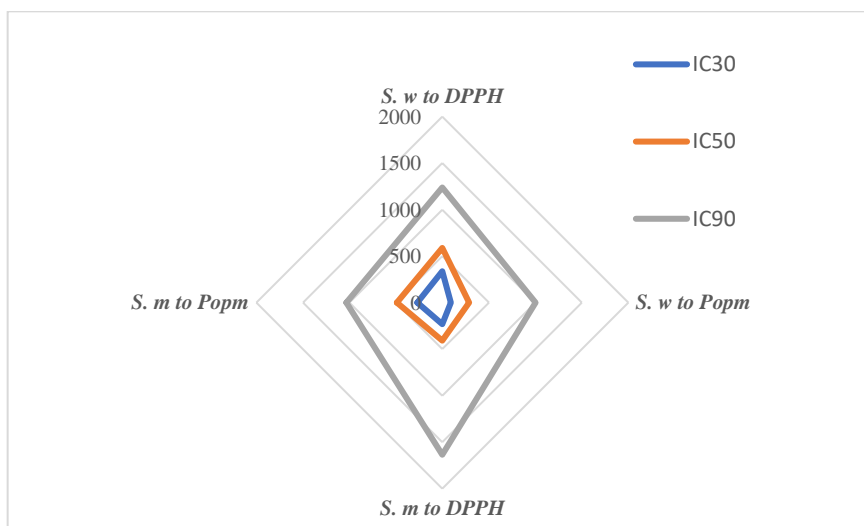
Methods	Con	X	DF	F	Sig	X	DF	F	Sig
		<i>S. marginatum</i>				<i>S. wightii</i>			
DPPH	100	14.69±0.80 <sup>dG</sup>	25,4	449.853	0.073	11.85±1.06 <sup>dH</sup>	25,4	397.90	0.730
	200	29.93±1.90 <sup>cE</sup>			0.005	21.18±1.16 <sup>cF</sup>			0.050
	400	55.66±1.10 <sup>bC</sup>			0.005	42.09±1.28 <sup>bD</sup>			0.005
	800	70.95±1.12 <sup>aA</sup>			0.005	63.96±1.12 <sup>aB</sup>			0.005
Phospho molybdenum	100	41.43±0.40 <sup>dH</sup>	25,4	244.197	0.008	32.23±1.03 <sup>dI</sup>	25,4	159.80	0.077
	200	55.05±1.00 <sup>cE</sup>			0.005	44.30±1.65 <sup>cG</sup>			0.055
	400	78.93±0.57 <sup>bC</sup>			0.005	63.60±1.40 <sup>bD</sup>			0.005
	800	92.71±1.17 <sup>aA</sup>			0.003	80.54±2.35 <sup>aB</sup>			0.003



Same (<sup>abcd</sup>) lowercase letter in a column shows significance at 0.05% among the methods and uppercase case (<sup>ABCD</sup>) letter shows the significance at 0.05% between algae.

**Table 5.** Probit analytical data (chi-square and significance) of drifted seaweeds extract to antioxidant activity.

Pathogen	R <sup>2</sup>	Y	Chi-Square	Sig
<i>S. marginatum</i>				
DPPH	0.940	Y = -4.68+1.82x X	0.698	0.705
Phosphomolybdenum	0.997	Y = -4.09+1.89x X	1.708	0.426
<i>S. wightii</i>				
DPPH	0.972	Y = 17.724x - 9.54	4.281	0.039
Phosphomolybdenum	0.992	Y = 16.423x 14.11	2.072713	0.150



**Fig. 4.** LC data for drifted seaweeds extract for the antioxidant assay.

## DISCUSSION

Prior, Manivannan *et al.* (2011) noticed that brown seaweeds *Turbinaria conoides*, *Padina gymnospora*, and *Sargassum tenerrimum* have significant antifungal effects. Alike, Sujatha *et al.* (2014) stated that *Sargassum myricocystum* significantly reduced the growth by 61.44% for *Rhizoctonia solani*. GC-MS identification exhibited that the *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* extracts have more content of phenolic compounds, terpenoids, alkaloids, flavonoids, etc. The GC-MS identification of *S. wightii* conformed that 2,3-Dicyano-5,6-diphenylpyrazine and 2-(acetoxymethyl)-3-(methoxycarbonyl)biphenylene are predominantly existing at verified samples, that compound may responsible for antifungal activity to *F. oxysporum* and *A. niger*. Rozaini Mohd Zohdi *et al.* (2025) report confirmed that the 2-(acetoxymethyl)-3-(methoxycarbonyl) biphenylene, and hexamethylcyclotrisiloxane form *Heterotrigena itama* can reduce the growth of *Bacillus subtilis*, *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Enterococcus faecium*, *Micrococcus luteus*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Streptococcus mutans*. The biological, chemical, and physical factors like habitat, extraction time, stages of seaweeds, extraction method, metabolites which is present, extracting solvent, etc, may be influenced by the antifungal action of seaweeds (Vimala & Poonghuzhali, 2017; Nofal *et al.*, 2022).

In *S. marginatum*, the antifungal activity may be responsible to Silicic Acid or Tris (tert-butyldimethylsilyloxy), 2-Ethylacridine, because of more content (based on GC-MS result) present in drifted seaweed 70% methanol crude extract. Study of Sharma *et al.* (2021) support this finding, according to Sharma finding silicic acid inhibited 50 % growth of *Alternaria alternata*, *Alternaria macrospora*, *Alternaria solani*, *Cercospora arachidicola*, *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, *Corynespora cassiicola*, *Curvularia lunata*, *Bipolaris sorokiniana*, *Mycosphaerella fragariae*, *Mycosphaerella musicola*, *Phoma obscurans*, *Phyllosticta arachidis-hypogaeae* and *Pyricularia oryzae*.

More amount of flavonoid, phenolic compounds may switch the antifungal action of seaweeds as compared to red and green algae (Ambika and Sujatha, 2014; Ambika and Sujatha, 2015). These findings may agree with that opinion. Other than flavonoid and phenolic compounds, phytochemical compounds that consist of steroids, alkaloids, terpenoids, glycosides, amino acids, and oils in brown algae may contribute to the antimicrobial efficacy against human pathogens (Bansemir *et al.*, 2006; Rupapara *et al.*, 2015; Sheikh *et al.*, 2018). Seaweed extracts not only inhibit antifungal action, which also improves plant resistance to pests, nematodes, pest and fungal disease, improve the plant growth, yield, and quality crop plant (Pardee *et al.*, 2004; Jayaraj *et al.*, 2008; Sujatha *et al.*, 2014; Negara *et al.*, 2021).

Fungal pathogen causes a broad spectrum of human disease, including mycotoxicosis, (Dignani and Anaissie, 2004), immunocompromised (Fourie *et al.*, 2011), sinusitis, otitis, kerati-tis, endophthalmitis, pericarditis, endocarditis, os-teomyelitis, stomatitis, sinus granuloma (fungusball) besides central nervous system infection, skin infection, and wound infection (Alrajhi *et al.*, 2001; Myoken *et al.*, 2003) and affected numbers of economical important crop like tomato, eggplant and pepper, cotton root or stem rots, cankers, vascular wilts, fruit or seed rots, and leaf diseases.

(Ekwomadu *et al.*, 2023). This finding helps to accredit that drifted brown seaweeds *S. wightii* and *S. marginatum* have strong antifungal activity and suggests using antifungal agents.

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are produced inside the cells of living organisms during metabolism (Sharifi-Rad *et al.*, 2020), and oxidation leads to some health disorders like cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, neurodegenerative diseases, cancer, structural deformities of mitochondrial DNA level, functional modification of enzymes, and cellular constructions (Sharifi-Rad *et al.*, 2020). Seaweeds have outstanding antioxidant capacity and have been tested with various in vitro antioxidant systems (Arif Nisha Syad *et al.*, 2013). In the same manner, this study was designed with drifted seaweeds brown *S. marginatum* and *S. wightii* extract tested their antioxidant inhibition activity by two methods.

Chemically, antioxidant compounds are documented as electron donors, electron-compounds, but in the case of biological, antioxidants are ingredients that can offset or reduce harmful oxidants through transferring electrons to a target oxidant compound (Nazirah *et al.*, 2023). In the world wide several synthetic antioxidants are used, and they have exhibited some toxic and mutagenic effects, hence, we need naturally occurring antioxidants. Seaweeds offered many naturally occurring antioxidant substances (Devi *et al.*, 2008). Prior findings of Angelina Lee Mei Ling *et al.* (2013), Ashour *et al.* (2021), Farghl *et al.* (2021) also obeyed brown seaweed extract notably (60.9, 70, and 72.48%) inhibited antioxidant activity (DPPH assay) respectively for the reason of the high amount of phenolic complex present in brown seaweeds.

This outcome showed that drifted seaweed *S. marginatum* and *S. wightii* have noteworthy antioxidant activity in both DPPH and Phosphomolybdenum methods, activity inhibited by biological substances present in the tested samples. Compared to the drifted *S. marginatum* and *S. wightii* extracts to normal seaweeds extract, drifted *S. marginatum* extract inhibition activity (70.95%) is slightly higher (66.2%) inhibition activity than normal *S. marginatum* extract (Palanivel *et al.*, 2017). Both tested drifted seaweeds hold many antioxidant compounds similar to fresh ones, but in this GC-MS analysis of drifted *S. marginatum*, drifted seaweeds are rich in silicic acid content and other biochemical compounds. Silicic acid and other biochemical may be in authority to antioxidant inhibition activity in both assays for the reason that of hydrogen donating ability of seaweeds extract (Conforti *et al.*, 2005) by method of increasing significant level of antioxidant defence enzymes like SOD, APX, POD, GR, and GSH (Rao *et al.*, 2023). In earlier Petchidurai *et al.* (2019) confirmed that drifted seaweeds have more content of phenolic compounds. In addition, some investigators (Cahyana *et al.*, 1992; Yan *et al.*, 1996; Yan *et al.*, 1999) found that seaweeds' phenolic compounds displayed potential antioxidant activity. That biochemical alteration reactive oxygen species (ROS) to non-toxic compounds, avoiding their harmful effect like ischemia, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, cancer (Farghl *et al.*, 2021), tumours, blood vessel narrowing, premature ageing (Rani, 2017).

As the outcome showed, the tested methanolic extract materials *S. wightii* hold potential antioxidant activity in a dose-dependent manner due to the presence of active ingredients. The antioxidant inhibition activity was expressed as percentage. Concentration of tested materials required to cause 50% of the DPPH radical and total antioxidant activity is known as IC<sub>50</sub> (El-shafay *et al.*, 2021). A lower IC<sub>50</sub> value points to a higher antioxidant activity. In this study, the IC<sub>50</sub>-287.64 value of *S. wightii* is best activity by total antioxidant assay methods. In a prior study by Kang *et al.* (2014), it was reported that the methanolic extract of brown seaweeds has higher antioxidant reduction activity when compared to the methanolic extract of red seaweeds; these findings also supported this investigation. This study outcome accords with that of El-Manawy *et al.* (2019) and Ali *et al.* (2024), who stated that the lowest activity IC<sub>50</sub> with high antioxidant activity was recorded in the brown algae, then green and red algae.

Antioxidant activity of the tested *S. wightii* is triggered by secondary metabolites that are predominantly present in brown algae. GC-MS investigation proved, Pyrazine derivatives and phenolic active ingredients are rich in tested seaweeds in various amounts. Furthermore, solvent polarity considerably alters the extract yield, phenol solubility, and antioxidant activity of phenolic compounds in seaweeds (Nawaz *et al.*, 2020). Antioxidant activity is not only responsible for phenolic compounds, which may also be caused due to other non-phenolic compounds of *P. tetrastrum* (Souza *et al.*, 2012; Sobuj *et al.*, 2021). Pyrazine derivatives retain numerous significant pharmacological properties, antimycobacterial (Riccardi *et al.*, 2009), antibacterial, antifungal, antidiabetic, diuretic, anticancer (Abdul-Malik *et al.*, 2018), antiviral (Rusinov *et al.*, 2012), analgesic, and anti-inflammatory (Abdel-Mohsen, *et al.*, 2016 and Tambat *et al.*, 2022). *S. wightii* crude extract rich in pyrazine derivatives of 2,3-Dicyano-5,6-diphenylpyrazine and phenolic compound of 2-(acetoxymethyl)-3-(methoxycarbonyl)biphenylene, that biochemical may in authority for antioxidant inhibition activity in both methods. Mohammed and Al-Maliki (2014) and Brintha *et al.* (2021) find due to more amounts (2,3-Dicyano-5,6-diphenylpyrazine) and 2-(Acetoxymethyl)-3 (methoxycarbonyl) biphenylene from *Brassica oleracea* and *Manilkara zapota* caused antidiabetic and Antioxidant activity, respectively, in dose dose-dependent manner, that findings also support this study. Antioxidant inhibition activity of methanolic extract of *S. wightii* is caused by an H-donating property, allowing it to stop the oxidation process by transforming free radicals into stable compounds.

## CONCLUSION

The antifungal and antioxidant capacity of the brown seaweeds, *S. marginatum* and *S. wightii*, were investigated. The present study reveals that tested drifted seaweeds potentially reduced the pathogenic fungal growth and inhibited antioxidant activity properties, due to which biochemical compounds are present. Similar to normal seaweeds, drifted seaweeds contain a huge number of secondary metabolites, enhancing plant growth and being environmentally safe. Drifted seaweeds can be considered as biological waste. Hence, this study recommended to use seaweeds for their pharmacological activity. Further, this kind of study should be undertaken to purify and identify the bioactive compounds involved in phytopathogenic and antioxidant activities.



## References

1. Abdel-Mohsen, S. A.; El-Emary, T. I. and El-Kashef, H. S. (2016). Chem. Pharm. Bull., 64(5): 476–482.
2. Abdul-Malik, M. A.; Zaki, R. M.; Kamal El-Dean, A. M. and Radwan, S. M. (2018). J. Heterocycl. Chem., 55(8): 1828–1853.
3. Ahearn, D. G.; Zhang, S.; Doyle Stulting, R.; Schwam, B. L.; Simmons, R. B.; Ward, M. A.; Pierce, G. E and Crow, S. A. (2008). Fusarium Keratitis and Contact Lens Wear: Facts and Speculations. Medical Mycology., 46: 397–410.
4. Ali, A.A.; Ahmed, F.; Taher, H. S; Temraz, T. A. and Sami, M. (2024). Antimicrobial and antioxidant activities of some selected seaweeds species from the Western Coast of the Northern Egyptian Red Sea. Egyptian Journal of Aquatic Biology & Fisheries Zoology., 28(2): 609 – 630.
5. Alrajhi, A. A.; Enani, M.; Mahasin, Z. and Ak-Omran, K. (2001). Chronic invasive aspergillosis of paranasal sinuses in immunocompetent hosts from Saudi Arabia. American Journal of Medicine and Hygiene, 65:83-86.
6. Alvarez Benito, M. V. (1990), Manual de técnicas en microbiología clínica, Asociación. Española de Farmacéuticos Analistas, San Sebastián.
7. Ambika, S. and Sujatha, K. (2014), Comparative studies on brown, red and green alga seaweed extracts for their antifungal activity against *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. udum in Pigeon pea var. CO (Rg) 7 (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Mills.). Journal of Biopesticides., 7(2), 167 - 176.
8. Ambika. S. and Sujatha, K. (2015). Antifungal activity of aqueous and ethanol extracts of seaweeds against sugarcane red rot pathogen (*Colletotrichum falcatum*). Scientific Research and Essays., 10 (6): 232-235. 10.5897/SRE2015.6198.
9. Angelina Lee Mei Ling.; Suhaimi, Md.; Yasir, Patricia Matanjun. and Mohd Fadzelly Abu Bakar. (2013). Antioxidant activity, total phenolic and flavonoid contents of selected commercial seaweeds of Sabah, Malaysia. International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Phytopharmacological Research., 3(3): 234-238.
10. Araiza, J.; Canseco, P. and Bonifaz, A. (2006). Otomycosis: clinical and mycological study of 97 cases, Rev Laryngol Otol Rhinol (Bord.), 127: 251– 254.
11. Arif Nisha Syad.; Karutha Pandian Shunmugiah. and Pandima Devi Kasi. (2013). Antioxidant and anti-cholinesterase activity of *Sargassum wightii*. Pharmaceutical Biology., 51(11): 1401-1410, doi: 10.3109/13880209.2013.793721
12. Ashour, M.; Hassan, S. M.; Elshobary, M. E.; Ammar, G. A.; Gaber, A.; Alsanie, W. F and El Shenody. R. (2021). Impact of commercial seaweed liquid extract (TAM®) biostimulant and its bioactive molecules on growth and antioxidant activities of hot pepper (*Capsicum annuum*). Plants., 10(6):1045,
13. Bagavan Reddy, P.; Manoj Kumar Goud, P. and Das, A. (2023). Seaweed cultivation: Untapped potential of India. Indian Farming., 73(09): 03-06
14. Bansemir, A.; Blume, M.; Schroder, S. and Lindequist, U. (2006). Screening of cultivated seaweeds for antibacterial activity against fish pathogenic bacteria. Aqua culture., 252: 79-84,
15. Bonotto, S. (2016). List of multicellular algae of commercial use. In: Marine Algae in Pharmaceutical Science., 121-127.
16. Brintha, M.; Prabha, M. and Beena Lawrence. (2021). Screening and Characterization of bioactive principles from *Manilkara zapota* (L) P. Royen Fruits, Nat. Volatiles & Essent. Oils., 8(4): 8540-8557.
17. Cahyana, A. H.; Shut, Y. and Kinoshita, Y. (1992). Pyropheophytin as an antioxidative substance from the marine algae, *Arame (Eisenia bicyclis)*. Bioscience, Biotechnology and Biochemistry, 56: 1533-1535.
18. Chung Gait Fee. (2018). Effect of pests and diseases on oil palm yield. Palm Oil., 163-210.
19. Cighir, A.; Mare, AD.; Vultur, F.; Cighir, T.; Pop, S. D.; Horvath, K. and Man, A. (2023). *Fusarium* spp. in human disease: exploring the boundaries between commensalism and pathogenesis. Life., 13:1440.
20. Conforti, F.; Loizzo, M. R.; Statti, G. A.; Menichini, F. (2005). Comparative radical scavenging and antidiabetic activities of methanolic extract and fractions from *Achillea ligustica* ALL, Biological and Pharmaceutical Bulletin., 28(9):1791-1794.
21. Cotas, J.; Leandro, A.; Monteiro, P.; Pacheco, D.; Figueirinha, A.; Goncalves, A. M. M.; da Silva, G. J. and Pereira, L. (2020). Seaweed phenolics: from extraction to applications. Marine Drugs., 18: 384.
22. Dananche, C.; Cassier, P.; Sautour, M.; Gautheron, N.; Wegrzyn, J.; Perraud, M.; Bienvenu, A. L.; Nicolle, M. C.; Boibieux, A. and Vanhems, P. (2015). Fungaemia caused by *Fusarium proliferatum* in a patient without definite immunodeficiency. Mycopathologia, 179:135–140.
23. Devi, K. P.; Suganthi, N.; Kesika, P. and Karutha Pandian, S. (2008), Bioprotective properties of seaweeds: In vitro evaluation of antioxidant activity and antimicrobial activity against food borne bacteria in relation to polyphenolic content. BMC Complementary and Alternative Medicine., 8(38),
24. Dignani, M. C. and Anaissie, E. (2004). Human fusariosis. Clinical Microbiology and Infection., 10 (1): 67-75.
25. Ekwomadu, T. I. and Mwanza, M. (2023). *Fusarium* fungi pathogens, identification, adverse effects, disease management, and global food security: A review of the latest research. Agriculture., 13:1810,
26. El-Manawy, I. M.; Nassar, Z.; Fahmy, M. and Rashedy, H. (2019). Evaluation of proximate composition, antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of some seaweeds from the Red Sea coast, Egypt. Egypt. J. Aquat. Biol. Fish., 23(1): 317-329.
27. El-Shafay, S. E.; El-Sheekh, M.; Bases, E. and El-Shenody, R. (2021). Antioxidant, antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory and anticancer potential of some seaweed extracts. Food Sci. Technol., 42: e20521.

28. EL-Sheekh, M. M.; Mousa, A. S. H. and Farghl, A. A. M. (2020). Antibacterial efficacy and phytochemical characterization of some marine brown algal extracts from the red sea, Egypt. *Rom Biotechnol Lett.*, 25(1):1160-1169, doi - 10.25083/rbl/25.1/1160.1169
29. Farghali, M.; Mohamed, I. M. A.; Osman, A. I. and Rooney, D. W. (2023). Seaweed for climate mitigation, wastewater treatment, bioenergy, bioplastic, biochar, food, pharmaceuticals, and cosmetics. *A Review, Environmental Chemistry Letters.*, 21:97– 152.
30. Farghl, A. A. M.; Al-Hasawi, Z. M. and El-Sheekh, M. M. (2021), Assessment of antioxidant papacity and phytochemical composition of brown and red Seaweeds sampled off red sea coast. *Appl. Sci.*, 11: 11079, <https://doi.org/10.3390/app112311079>.
31. Flood Julie. (2006). A review of Fusarium wilt of oil palm caused by *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *Elaeidis*. *Phytopathology.*, 96(6): 660-662.
32. Fourie, G.; Steenkamp, E. T.; Ploetz, R. C.; Gordon, T. R. and Viljoen, A. (2011). Current status of the taxonomic position of *Fusarium oxysporum* form *aespecialiscubense* within the *Fusarium oxysporum* complex, *Infection, Genetics and Evolution.*, 11 (3): 533-542.
33. Gaur, S.; Rajgopal, A. and Ashbee, R. (2010). A successfully treated case of peritonitis due to *Fusarium dimerum*. *Journal of Infection.*, 61:86–88.
34. Gradon, J. D.; Lerman, A and Lutwick, L. I. (1990). Septic arthritis due to *Fusarium moniliforme*. *Clinical Infectious Diseases.*, 12: 716 – 717.
35. Gross, R.; Gross, U.; Ramirez, A.; Cuadra, K.; Collazos, C. and Feldheim, W. (2016). Nutritional tests with green alga *Scenedesmus* with healthy and malnourished persons. *Archiv für Hydrobiologie. Beihefte.*, 11:161-163.
36. Hiroyuki, M.; Toshiki, U. and Hajime, Y (2021). Extracellular silicate uptake and deposition induced by oxidative burst in *Saccharina japonica* sporophytes (Phaeophyceae). *Algal Research.*, 58:102369
37. Hoppe, H. A. (2016). Marine algae and their products and constituents in pharmacy. In: *Marine Algae in Pharmaceutical Science.*, 25-119.
38. Janet Rani, R.; Parthipan, B.; Sundar, Sk. and John Peter Paul, J. (2013). Seaweed diversity and distribution in the South-East Coast of Tamil Nadu, India. *IJBPAS*, 2(3): 675-682.
39. Jayaraj, J. A.; Wan, M. and Rahman Punja, Z. K. (2008). Seaweed extract reduces foliar fungal diseases on carrot. *Crop Protection.*, 27:1360–1366.
40. Jha, B.; Reddy, C. R. K.; Thakur, M. C. and Rao, M. U. (2019), Seaweeds of India: the diversity and distribution of seaweeds of the Gujarat coast. Springer, Dordrecht, Seaweed resources in India – current status of diversity and cultivation: prospects and challenges, pp. 198.
41. Kirtankumar, V.; Tandel Nilesh H.; Joshi Gauravkumar, M.; Tandel, M. and Patel. P.; Jitendrakumar, T. and Tandel. (2016). Seaweed cultivation in India, a new opportunity of revenue generation. *Advances in Life Sciences.*, 5(7): 2487-2491.
42. Kohen, R. and Nyska, A. (2002). Oxidation of biological systems: oxidative stress phenomena, antioxidants, redox reactions, and method for their quantification. *Toxicologic Pathology.*, 30: 620-650,
43. Loudon, K.W.; Coke, A. P.; Burnie, J. P., Shaw, A. J.; Oppenheim, B. A. and Morris, C. Q. (1996). Kitchens as a source of *Aspergillus niger* infection. *Journal of Hospital Infection.*, 32:191–198.
44. Macedo, D. P. C.; Neves, R. P.; Fontan, J.; Souza-Motta, C. M. and Lima, D. A. (2008). Case of invasive rhinosinusitis by *Fusarium verticillioides* (Saccardo) Nirenberg in an apparently immunocompetent patient. *Medical Mycology.*, 46:499–503.
45. Mahendra Pal. (2020). Aspergillosis: A life-threatening mycotic disease of humans and animals. *Archives of Animal Husbandry & Dairy Science.*,
46. Manickavasagam, S.; Bharathi, S. and Aanand, S. (2019). Overview of commercial and economic important seaweeds found in Indian coastal waters. *Aqua Star*, 25–28.
47. Manivannan, K.; Karthikaidevi, G.; Anantharaman, P. and Balasubramanian, T. (2011), Antimicrobial potential of selected brown seaweeds from Vedalai coastal waters, Gulf of Mannar. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine.*, 1:114-120.
48. Martin-Jezequel, V. (2000). Silicon metabolism in diatoms: implications for growth, *Journal of Phycology.*, 36: 821-840, 10.1046/j.1529-8817.2000.00019
49. Meenakshisundaram Ganesan.; Nitin Trivedi.; Vishal Gupta, S.; Venu Madhav, Chennur Radhakrishna Reddy. and Ira A Levine. (2019). Seaweed resources in India – current status of diversity and cultivation: prospects and challenges. *Botanica Marina.*, 62(5): 463–482.
50. Mohammed, K. A. and Al-Maliki, A. D. M. (2014). Effect of phenolic and alkaloid compounds extracted from *Brassica oleracea* var. capitata seed on glucose level in blood of alloxan-induced diabetes rabbits. *World Journal of Exerimental Biosciences*, 2(1): 24-29.
51. Monrroy, M.; Arauz, O. and Garcia, J. R. 2020, Active compound identification in extracts of *N. lappaceum* peel and evaluation of antioxidant capacity. *Journal of Chemistry.*,
52. Moore, L. F and Traquair, F. A. (1976). Silicon, a required nutrient for *Cladophora glomerata* (L) Kütz., (Chlorophyta). *Planta (Berl.)*, 128: 179-182, 10.1007/BF00390321.

53. Myoken, Y.; Sugata, T.; Fujita, Y.; Kyo, T.; Fujihara, M.; Kohara, T.; Katsu, M and Mikami, Y. (2003). Molecular epidemiology of invasive stomatitis due to *Aspergillus flavus* in patients with acute leukemia. *Journal of Oral Pathology and Medicine.*, 32: 215-218
54. Nammalwar, P.; Raja, S.; Thomson Jacob, C.; Babu, T. D. and Sathees, S. (2009). Marine biodiversity conservation and management in India. Indian youth science congress conference,
55. Nawaz, H.; Shad, M. A.; Rehman, N.; Andaleeb, H. and Ullah, N. (2020). Effect of solvent polarity on extraction yield and antioxidant properties of phytochemicals from bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) seeds. *Brazilian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences.*, 56: e17129.
56. Nazirah, M.; Evangeline Yvonne. S.; Mohd Hafiz, A. M. and Mohd Sani, S. A. (2023). Review of antioxidant potential from seaweeds - extraction, characterization, benefits and applications. *Food Research.*, 6(4): 58 – 64.
57. Negara, B. F. S. P.; Sohn, J. H.; Kim, J. S. and Choi, J.S. (2021). Antifungal and larvicidal activities of phlorotannins from brown Seaweeds. *Marine Drugs.*, 19: 223. [https://doi.org/ 10.3390/md19040223](https://doi.org/10.3390/md19040223).
58. Nisha Thomas.; Mohammed Razi.; Amal Kunjumon. and Alfiya Mol, M. S. (2023) Diversity of marine life in three different habitats along the Tuticorin coast, Gulf of Mannar. *International Journal of Zoology Studies*, 8(2):17 – 22
59. Nofal, A.; Azzazy, M.; Ayyad, S.; Abdelsalm, E.; Abousekken, M. S. and Tammam, O. (2022). Evaluation of the brown alga, *Sargassum muticum* extract as an antimicrobial and feeding additives. *Brazilian Journal of Biology.*, 84: e259721. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1519-6984.259721>
60. Nucci, F.; Nouer, S.; Capone, D.; Anaissie, E. and Nucci, M. (2015). Fusariosis seminars in Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine. *Care Med.*, 36: 706–714.
61. Nucci. M. and Anaissie, E. (2007). Fusarium Infections in Immunocompromised Patients. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews.* 20: 695–704.
62. Palanivel, R.; Thahira Banu Azeez. and Seethalakshmi Muthay. (2017). Nutrient content, phytonutrient composition, alpha amylase, alpha glucosidase inhibition activity and antioxidant activity of the *Stoechospermum marginatum* collected in pre monsoon season. *Turkish Journal of Agriculture - Food Science and Technology.*, 5(3): 275-280.
63. Pardee. K. I.; Ellis, P.; Bouthillier, M.; Gtowers, H. N. and French, C. J. (2004). Plant virus inhibitors from marine algae. *Canadian Journal of Botany.*, 82: 304-309.
64. Poignon, C.; Blaize, M.; Vezinet, C.; Lampros, A.; Monsel, A. and Fekkar, A. (2020). Invasive pulmonary fusariosis in an immunocompetent critically I patient with severe COVID19. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection.*, 26:1582–1584.
65. Pooja, S. (2014). Algae used as medicine and food a short review. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research.*, 6: 33–35.
66. Prieto, P.; Pineda, M. and Aguilar, M. (1999). Spectrophotometric quantitation of antioxidant capacity through the formation of a phospho molybdenum complex: Specific application to the determination of vitamin E, *Analytical Biochemistry*, 269: 337–341.
67. Proenca-Pina, J.; Ssi Yan Kai, I.; Bourcier, T.; Fabre, M.; Offret, H. and Labetoulle, M. (2010). *Fusarium* Keratitis and Endophthalmitis associated with lens contact wear. *International Ophthalmology.*, 30:103–107.
68. Rani, K. (2017). Role of antioxidants in prevention of diseases. *Journal of Applied Biotechnology and Bioengineering.*, 4(1): 495-496, [doi.org/10.15406/jabb.2017.04.00091](https://doi.org/10.15406/jabb.2017.04.00091).
69. Rao, D.; Yadav, S.; Choudhary, R.; Singh, D.; Bhardwaj, R.; Barthakur, S. and Yadav, S. K. (2023). Silicic and humic acid priming improves micro- and macronutrient uptake, salinity stress tolerance, seed quality, and physio-biochemical parameters in lentil (*Lens culinaris* spp. *culinaris*). *Plants*, 12: 3539,
70. Rozaini Mohd Zohdi.; Muhammad Amirul Adli.; Hannis Fadzillah Mohsin.; Shahida Muhamad Mokhtar.; Anis Low Muhammad Low.; Awang Hazmi Awang Junaidi. and Dzu Hendra Ja Jahrudin. (2023). GC-MS Analysis and antibacterial activity of ethanolic and water extracts of Malaysian *Heterotrigona itama* Propolis against selected human pathogenic bacteria. *Malaysian Applied Biology.*, 52(2):77-84
71. Rupapara, N. H., Joshi. and Vya, K. G. (2015). Evaluation of antimicrobial activity of crude extracts of seaweed *Sargassum johnstonii*. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences.*, 4: 300-304.
72. Rusinov, V. L.; Egorov, I. N.; Chupakhin, O. N.; Bela nov, E. F.; Bormotov, N. I. and Serova O. A. (2012). *Pharm. Chem. J.*, 45 (11): 655–659.
73. Safer, A. M. and Al-Nughamish, A. J. (1999). Hepatotoxicity induced by the anti- oxidant food additive, butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT), in rats: an electron microscopical study. *Histology and Histopathology.*, 14: 391 - 406.
74. Salgado, L. T.; Andrade, L. R. and Amado Filho, G. M. (2005). Localization of specific monosaccharides in cells of the brown alga *Padina gymnospora* and the relation to heavy metal accumulation. *Protoplasma.*, 225: 123-128,
75. Sharifi-Rad, M.; Kumar, N. V. A.; Zucca, P.; Varoni, E. M.; Dini, L. and Panzarini, E. (2020). Lifestyle, oxidative stress, and antioxidants: Back and forth in the pathophysiology of chronic diseases. *Frontiers in Physiology*, 11: 694.
76. Sharma, D.; Sangwan, S. and Jain, N. (2021). Antifungal activity of stabilized ortho silicic acid (OSA) against foliar plant pathogens. *Silicon.*, 13: 3807–3815.
- 77.
78. Sheikh, H.; El-Naggar, A. and Al-Sobahi, D. (2018). Evaluation of antimycotic activity of ex tracts of marine algae collected from red Sea Coast, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Biosciences and Medicines*, 6: 51-68,
79. Sierra-Hoffman, M.; Paltiyevich-Gibson, S.; Carpenter, J. L. and Hurley, D. L. (2005). *Fusarium osteomyelitis*: case report and review of the literature. *Scandinavian Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 37: 237–240.

80. Sobuj, M. K. A.; Islam, M.; Mahmud, Y. and Rafiquzzaman, S. M. (2021). Effect of solvents on bioactive compounds and antioxidant activity of *Padina tetrastromatica* and *Gracilaria tenuistipitata* seaweeds collected from Bangladesh. *Scientific Reports.*, 11(1): 1–13.
81. Souza, B. W.; Cerqueira, M. A.; Bourbon, A. I.; Pinheiro, A. C.; Martins, J. T.; Teixeira, J. A. (2012). Chemical characterization and antioxidant activity of sulfated polysaccharide from the red seaweed *Gracilaria birdiae*. *Food Hydrocolloids.*, 27(2): 287–292.
82. Sujatha, K.; Mahalakshmi, P. and K. Manonmani. (2014). Effect of antifungal activity of seaweed extracts against soil borne pathogens in pulses. *International Journal of Agriculture Innovations and Research.*, 3(1).
83. Sulekha Mandal.; Satish Yadav.; Sunita Yadav. and Rajesh Kumar Nema. (2009). Antioxidants: a review journal of *Chemical and Pharmaceutical Research.*, 1(1): 102 - 110.
84. Tambata, N.; Mulani, K.; Ahmad, A.; Shaikh, S. B. and Ahmed, K. (2022). Pyrazine derivatives—versatile scaffold. *Russian Journal of Bioorganic Chemistry.*, 48(5): 865–895.
85. Vanimakhal, R. R. and Balasubramanian, S. E. (2016), Phytochemical qualitative analysis and total tannin content in the aqueous extract of *Areca catechu* Nut. *Asian Journal of Biomedical and Pharmaceutical Sciences.*, 6(54): 07-09.
86. Vimala, T. and Poonghuzhali, T. V. (2017). In vitro antimicrobial activity of solvent extracts of marine brown alga, *Hydroclathrus clathratus* (C. Agardh) M. Howe from Gulf of Mannar. *Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science.*, 7: 157–162.
87. Yan, X. J.; Chuda, Y.; Suzuki, M. and Nagata, T. (1999). Fucoxanthin as the major antioxidant in *Hijikia fusiformis*. *Bioscience, Biotechnology and Agrochemistry.*, 63: 605-607.
88. Yan, X. J.; Li, X. C.; Zhou, C. X. and Fan, X. (1996). Prevention of fish oil rancidity by phlorotannins from *Sargassum kjellmanianum*. *Journal of Applied Phycology.*, 8: 201-203.
89. Yen, G. C. and Chen, H.Y. (1995). Antioxidant activity of various tea extracts in relation to their antimutagenicity. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry.*, 43: 27–32.
90. Yousif, D. Y. M.; Dwish, A. S. and Shafiq, S. A. (2015). Antifungal activity of algal spirogyra sp. against fungal *Fusarium oxysporum*. *World Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*, 4(1): 1620 – 1628.