1	"Original Article submitted to BioRxiv"										
2	Secondary metabolites and the antimicrobial potential of five different Coleus species in										
3	response to salinity stress										
4	Divya Kotagiri, Khasim Beebi Shaik, Viswanatha Chaitanya Kolluru*										
5	Department of Biotechnology, GITAM Institute of Technology, GITAM University,										
6	Visakhapatnam, 530045, Andhra Pradesh, India.										
7											
8											
0											
9											
10											
11	*Corresponding Author										
12	Dr. K.V.Chaitanya										
13	Associate Professor										
14	Department of Biotechnology,										
15	GITAM Institute of Technology,										
16	GITAM University,										
17	Visakhapatnam- 530045.										
18	INDIA										
19	Tel: +91-891-2840246										
20	Fax: +91-891-2790399										
21	Email: viswanatha.chaitanya@gmail.com										

22 Abstract

23 Salinity is one of the major abiotic stresses that affects the growth and productivity of plants. The presence of soluble salts at high concentration near the root system restricts the uptake of water 24 25 by plants. Plants grown under saline conditions possess higher amounts of secondary metabolites compared with those grown under normal conditions. The use of traditional medicine to treat 26 infectious diseases is increasing day by day throughout the world. Developing novel drugs with 27 antimicrobial potential from the source of medicinal plants is receiving attention to replace the 28 use of synthetic drugs and to combat the growth of multi-drug resistant strains. Thus screening of 29 30 medicinal plant extracts is carried out to evaluate their antimicrobial potency. The present study aimed at determining the secondary metabolites and antimicrobial potential of leaf, stem and root 31 ethanol and chloroform extracts of five different Coleus species; C.aromaticus, C.amboinicus, 32 C.barbatus, C.forskohlii and C.zeylanicus subjected to salinity stress. The up regulation in the 33 content of plant bioactive compounds along with the antimicrobial activities of ethanol and 34 chloroform extracts under the influence of salinity stress have been observed during the study in 35 Coleus. The leaf, stem and root extracts of all the five Coleus species showed good anti-36 microbial activity against the tested pathogenic strains. The leaf extracts of Coleus showed 37 higher inhibitory activity compared to the stem and root extracts. Ethanol extracts showed higher 38 anti-microbial activity ranging from 1.5-100 mg/ml compared with the chloroform extracts 39 ranging from 0.97-250 mg/ml respectively. The study revealed that the increased antimicrobial 40 41 activity with increasing salinity might be due to the up regulation of secondary metabolites. The 42 leaf, stem and root extracts of *Coleus* showed effective antimicrobial activity against the pathogenic strains even under saline conditions is due to the up regulation of secondary 43 44 metabolites which provides a scope of developing novel drugs to treat infectious diseases.

45	Keywords:	Salinity,	antimicrobial,	bioactive	compounds,	minimum	inhibitory	concentration,
46	Coleus							
47								
48								
49								
50								
51								
52								
53								
54								
55								
56								
57								
58								
59								
60								
61								
62								

63 Introduction

64 Infections caused by various bacterial and fungal pathogens are becoming a major threat to public health of the growing population in the developing countries. Usage of improper and 65 66 synthetic medicines, mismanagement and maladministration of antibiotics along with the 67 microbial mutations is leading to the development of multi-drug resistant pathogenic strains 68 along with the side effects, enabling to search for the novel compounds with resistance to the emerging new strains (Thuy et al. 2016). Apart from the misuse of antibiotics, multi-drug 69 resistant strains acquire resistance by several mechanisms like target site modification, metabolic 70 71 inactivation and the efflux pumps expression leading to the antibiotic efflux (Yala et al. 2001; 72 Hooper 2001). The emergence of new pathogens accounting for many infectious diseases along 73 with the antibiotic resistance and increasing failure of chemotherapy is the largest causes of death in tropical countries. Unavailability of vaccines for most of these diseases enables the 74 75 discovery of novel natural antibacterial agents for efficient treatment against infectious diseases. 76 Plants synthesize a variety of secondary metabolites with potential anti-inflammatory, 77 antimicrobial and antioxidant properties. The different parts of the plant like leaf, root, stem, 78 flower, fruit, twigs etc. can be used as antimicrobial agents due to the presence of secondary metabolites (Sevvedneiad et al. 2010). Secondary metabolites such as flavonoids, alkaloids, 79 tannins and phenolic compounds provide protection against bacteria, fungi, viruses and insects 80 used for the discovery and the development of novel drugs (Ghazghazi et al. 2015). The search 81 82 of the plants with the efficient antioxidative defense system as well as capable of producing 83 secondary metabolites with strong antimicrobial properties is being received much attention as a 84 replacement for synthetic drugs. Since ancient times, plants with effective medicinal values have been used as the promising sources for the treatment of various ailments due to the presence of 85

phytochemicals with therapeutic properties, which are the cheapest and safe alternative sources(Odeja et al. 2015).

Plants are frequently subjected to a variety of harsh environmental stresses such as scarcity of 88 water, extreme temperatures, high soil salinity, herbivore attack, and pathogen infection 89 90 diminishing their productivity (Sewelam et al. 2016). Salinity refers to the presence of different salts like sodium chloride, calcium sulphates, magnesium and bicarbonates in water and soil 91 (Ouda 2008). Due to excessive use of fertilizers, irrigation with low quality water and 92 desertification, cultivated soils are getting more saline worldwide (Ramadoss et al. 2013). Soil 93 94 lands with high level of salt concentrations induces physiological and metabolic changes in 95 plants affecting their seed germination, growth, development, yield and also decreases the rate of 96 respiration and photosynthesis in plants. The uptake of water and absorption of essential nutrients by plants is restricted due to the presence of soluble salts exerting high osmotic 97 98 pressure which ultimately affects the growth of plants (Tester and Devenport 2003). In addition 99 to the growth and yield, the composition of bioactive compounds present in the aromatic and 100 medicinal plants is affected by salinity (Gil et al. 2002). The increased levels of plant secondary 101 metabolites such as phenols, flavonoids, tannins, alkaloids etc... under the influence of increased salt concentrations as a part of defence mechanism have been reported (Kate 2008). The 102 preliminary screening of phytochemicals gives an idea about the type of compounds produced by 103 104 plants and their quantification both under normal and saline conditions will be useful in 105 extracting the compounds of interest in pure form followed by the identification of those metabolites in order to detect their significance in human health. 106

Medicinal plants are good sources of various secondary metabolites belong to the class of natural
anti-oxidants useful in curing many diseases and as free radical scavengers (Wong et al. 2006,

109 Adom et al. 2005). The presence of bioactive compounds is mainly responsible for anti-110 inflammatory and antioxidant properties of medicinal plants can be used as potential chemo preventives. Secondary metabolites or plant bioactive compounds are low molecular weight 111 112 compounds distributed largely in plants play a major role in the adaptation of plants to different environmental changes and in overcoming stress constraints also used in neutralizing free 113 114 radicals. The colour, smell, flavour and the defence mechanism against pathogens in plants is 115 due to the presence of phytochemicals (Aziagba et al. 2017). The phenolic components such as 116 flavonoids, phenolic acids and phenolic diterpenes are mainly responsible for antioxidative 117 activity in medicinal plants due to redox properties involved in neutralizing free radicals, decomposing peroxides, quenching singlet and triplet oxygen (Lee et al. 2004; Ksouri et al. 118 2007). The concentration of bio-active compounds produced by plants depends mainly upon the 119 120 growth conditions and especially under stress conditions influence the metabolic pathways leads to the accumulation of related natural compounds possess activity to scavenge reactive oxygen 121 species (ROS). The common response observed in salt-stressed plants are the generation of ROS, 122 123 highly reactive responsible in damaging cell structures, nucleic acids, lipids and proteins (Vaidyanathan et al. 2003). Plants possess medicinal value with anti-inflammatory and anti-124 125 microbial activities; acquire resistance to stress induced ROS is due to the presence of several 126 bio-active compounds (Foyer et al. 1994).

The presence of phenolic compounds in medicinal plants is responsible for antimicrobial, antiinflammatory, anti-thrombotic, vasodilatory, cardio protective and anti-allergic properties (Balasundram et al. 2006). The synthesis and accumulation of polyphenols are stimulated in response to salinity stress resulting in considerable variations in their quantity and quality. Flavonoids are one of the important classes of plant secondary metabolites protects plants from

132 harmful UV rays and also from herbivores capable of transferring electrons to free radicals and 133 to chelate and activate the enzymes with anti-oxidant properties inhibits free radical producing enzymes. The biological properties such as anti-viral, anti-malarial and the cholesterol synthesis 134 135 inhibition are due to the presence of terpenoids (Indumathi et al. 2014). Thus the salt stressed medicinal plants can be used for economic purposes as they are a potential source of bioactive 136 compounds (Valifard et al. 2014). The major phytoconstituents of Coleus reported so far are 137 flavonoids, glycosides, phenolic and volatile compounds, but the quantitative analysis of 138 139 secondary metabolites during salinity stress are less explored.

140 The presence of bio-active compounds in the leaf, stem and root extracts of *Coleus* possessing the property of antimicrobial activity have potential to damage ROS and the activity of free 141 142 radicals, helps to maintain proper health by combating infectious diseases. The presence of ROS can react readily and oxidize various biomolecules like lipids, carbohydrates, DNA and proteins, 143 144 mainly responsible for the human diseases such as ulcers, inflammation, autoimmune disorders 145 and viral infections (Surh and Ferguson 2003). Medicinal plants are used in many countries to 146 treat diseases as they are rich sources of compounds possessing antimicrobial property. More 147 than 80% of world population depend on traditional medicine for their health care needs reported by WHO (World health organization) (Malleswari et al. 2017). Depending upon the type of 148 solvent used, plant extracts can be administered to the patients either as raw or tisanes, nebulisate 149 150 and as tinctures. Medicinal plants with secondary metabolites are capable of inducing specific 151 physiological actions on the human body (Joshi and Parle 2006) and are a source of antioxidant (Nahak and Sahu 2010; Pandey and Madhuri 2010) and antimicrobial compounds 152 (Maragathavalli et al. 2012; Sharma et al. 2012). 153

154 Genus Coleus is a perennial branched aromatic herb that belongs to the family of 155 "Lamiaceae" can be grown indoor as well as outdoor possesses biological activity against 156 various infectious diseases and a number of pharmacological effects. Five Coleus species 157 considered for the study and cultivated are C.aromaticus, C.amboinicus, C.forskohlii, C.barbatus and C.zeylanicus. Coleus aromaticus possess antioxidant and anti-microbial properties and the 158 leaves are used to treat cholera, diarrhoea, malarial fever, halitosis, convulsions, epilepsy, 159 160 asthma, cough, flatulence, bronchitis, hepatopathy, anorexia, cephalagia, otalgia, dyspepsia, colic, hiccough, and strangury (Warrier et al. 1995). Coleus forskohlii is an aromatic herb grown 161 162 under tropical to temperate conditions produces diterpenoid from its tuberous root called forskolin. It is used to treat painful urination, hypertension, insomnia, convulsions, eczema, 163 respiratory disorders and congestive heart failure. It also possesses therapeutic features of curing 164 165 asthma, psoriasis and cancer. Forskolin is used to prevent blood clotting helps in nerve regeneration, activates adenylate cyclase enzyme and to reduce the intraocular pressure in 166 167 glaucoma. The root extracts of *Coleus forskohlii* is used to treat eczema and skin infections, also 168 used to kill worms in the stomach. C.forskohlii used widely for curing several disorders like intestinal disorders, respiratory disorders, heart diseases, asthma, bronchitis, convulsions, 169 insomnia, burning sensation, epilepsy and constipation (Ammon and Muller 1985). C.forskohlii 170 171 is found to be effective in treating obesity, congestive heart failure, hypertension, psoriasis, glaucoma, asthma, depression and cancer metastasis. Apart from the medicinal value of this 172 173 plant, forskohlii also contains essential oils used in the food industries as flavouring agents and 174 as an anti-microbial compound (Chowdhary and Sharma 1998). C.amboinicus is considered as carminative, lactagogue, analgesic, anti-septic and anti-pyretic. The leaf extracts of 175 176 *C.amboinicus* is used to treat headache, toothache, bites, burns and also effective against malaria

177 parasite. C.barbatus is a perennial, succulent branched fleshy herb grows up to the height of 15-178 40 cm between 1000-2600 m altitudes above sea level used as a stimulant in the treatment of cough. The aerial parts of the plant have cytotoxic, anti-tumour and diuretic activities, also used 179 180 in the treatment of gums and teeth disorders. The major active compounds present in this plant were diterpenes, triterpenes, tormentic acid, α - amyrin and the flavones 3,7 dimethyl quercetin, 181 sitosterol and kumatakinin. Coleus zeylanicus has astringent and stomachic properties used in the 182 treatment of fever, common cold, asthma, dysentery, diarrhoea, vomiting, burning sensation, 183 small pox, eye diseases, worm diseases, chronic ulcers, dental diseases and thirst. The different 184 185 parts of the plant like leaf, root and stem are rich in medicinal value. In the present study, efforts have been made to evaluate the antimicrobial potential of Coleus leaf, root and stem ethanol and 186 chloroform extracts under normal and saline conditions. 187

188 Materials and methods

189 Coleus plants & salinity stress treatment

Five Coleus species, aromaticus, amboinicus, zeylanicus, forskohlii and barbatus were 190 191 propagated in the GITAM University botanical garden in 12 inch pots under 720 minutes natural photoperiod [Irradiance (400-700 nm) of 1600-1800 μ mols m⁻² s⁻¹] with day/night temperatures 192 193 of 30°C/23°C with an approximate air humidity of 60%. The pots were arranged in rows 1 m 194 apart and the plants were irrigated daily. Three months old plants with uniform growth were selected for this study. *Coleus* plants of all varieties were then separated into four groups, namely 195 control (0), mild (100 mM), moderate (200 mM) and severe (300 mM). Control plants were 196 watered daily and salt-stressed plants were treated with 250 ml of 100, 200 and 300 mM Nacl 197 198 solutions twice a day for a period of 1 week. Third or fourth leaf from the top of the plant was 199 collected for all the experiments.

200 Quantitative estimation of secondary metabolites

201 Estimation of Phenols

Phenols estimated spectrophotometrically using Folin-Ciocalteau reagent which gives a blue 202 203 colour complex measured at 650 nm. 0.5 g tissue was homogenized in 80% ethanol and centrifuged for 20 min at 10,000×g. The extracts were pooled together after repeated extraction 204 with 80% ethanol and allowed to dry. The residue obtained was dissolved in 5 ml of distilled 205 206 water. 2 ml of the aliquot was made up to 5 ml with distilled water and 0.5 ml of 1N Folin-Ciocalteau reagent and 2 ml of 20% Na₂CO₃ were added and incubated in a boiling water bath 207 208 exactly for 1 minute. After cooling, absorbance of the samples was measured at 650 nm (Malick and Singh 1980). 209

210 Estimation of Flavonoids

Flavonoids were estimated according to Chang et al. 2002. 0.5 grams of plant material were added to 5 ml of 8% methanol and extracted for 48 h by shaking at room temperature and centrifugation at 10,000×g for 20 min. To 0.5 ml of extract, 1.5 ml of methanol, 0.1 ml of 10% aluminium chloride, 0.1 ml of 1 M potassium acetate and 2.8 ml of distilled water were added and incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes. Absorbance of the samples measured at the wavelength of 415 nm.

217 **Estimation of Tannins:**

Tannins were estimated according to Polshettiwar et al. 2007 by the addition of 0.5 g *Coleus* tissue to 25 ml of distilled water and incubated at 100° C for 30 minutes, centrifuged at $10,000 \times$ g for 20 min. To 1 ml of extract, 1 ml of Folin-Denis reagent and 2 ml of sodium carbonate solutions were added and the volume was made up to 5 ml with distilled water, incubated at

room temperature for 30 minutes and the absorbance was measured at 700 nm. Tannic acid wasused as a standard for the preparation of calibration curve.

224 Estimation of Anthraquinones

Anthraquinone content in the *Coleus* was determined by adding 0.05 g of dried tissue in 50 ml of distilled water extracted by shaking for 16 h. The contents were incubated at 70°C and 50 ml of 50% methanol was added and filtered. Absorbance of the filtrate was measured at 450 nm. Calibration standards were prepared using alizarin and purpurin at a concentration of 0.01 mg per 1 ml (Soladoye and Chukwuma 2012).

230 Estimation of Alkaloids

Alkaloid content was estimated by adding 100 mg of dried *Coleus* tissue to 40 ml of 95% ethanol 231 232 refluxed for about half an hour and then filtered. The volume of the filtrate was adjusted to 50 233 ml with 95% ethanol and subjected to evaporation. The residue obtained was treated with 3 ml of 1N Hcl and allowed to stand for 2 h hydrolysis. 3 ml of 1N NaOH was added, followed by the 2 234 ml concentrated acetic acid and the volume being adjusted to 10 ml with distilled water. 1 ml of 235 this solution was made up to 5 ml with 20% acetic acid and added to 5 ml of acetate buffer, 1 ml 236 of 0.05% methyl orange and 5 ml chloroform. After few minutes chloroform layers are 237 withdrawn, added with a pinch of Na₂SO₄ and the absorbance was measured at 420 nm. 238 Solasodine was used as standard for calibration (Muthumani et al. 2010). 239

240 Estimation of Terpenes:

Terpenes were estimated spectrophotometrically by adding 10 ml of petroleum ether to 1 gram of leaf, stem and root powder and extracted with shaking for 15 min. The extract was filtered and the absorbance was measured at 420 nm (Mboso et al. 2013).

244 Estimation of Steroids:

Estimation of steroids was done by adding 2 ml of 4N H_2SO_4 , 2 ml of 0.5% FeCl₃ and 0.5 ml of 0.5% potassium hexa cyanoferrate to 1 ml of methanolic extract. The contents were incubated at 70°C for 30 min, allowed to cool and made up to the volume of 10 ml with distilled water. Absorbance of the samples was measured at 780 nm (Narendra et al. 2013).

249 **Estimation of Saponins:**

Saponins were estimated according to Brunner 1984. 1 g of fine powdered sample was weighed 250 251 accurately and added to 100 ml of isobutyl alcohol and extracted with shaking for 5 h and then filtered. To the filtrate, 20 ml of 40% saturated magnesium carbonate solution was added and 252 again subjected to filtration through a filter paper; a clear colourless filtrate was obtained. To 1 253 ml of the filtrate, 2 ml of 5% FeCl₃ solution was added and the volume made up to 50 ml with 254 distilled water. The contents were allowed to stand for 30 minutes at room temperature to 255 develop a deep red colour and the absorbance of the samples was measured at 380 nm. A 256 calibration curve was prepared using dioxgenin concentrations ranging from 0-100 µg. 257

258 Estimation of Cardiac glycosides:

1 g of *Coleus* tissue powder was added to 10 ml of 70% alcohol and extracted for 2-3 h followed by the filtration. 4 ml of the filtrate was added to 5 ml of 12.5% lead acetate and the volume made up to 50 ml with distilled water. The solution was again filtered and 5 ml of 4.77% disodium hydrogen orthophosphate was added to 25 ml of filtrate resulting in the formation of precipitate removed by a third round of filtration. A 5 ml of freshly prepared Buljet's reagent was added to 5 ml of clear solution obtained after filtration and incubated at room temperature for 1 h. The absorbance of the samples was measured at 595 nm and the calibration curve was prepared using 0.02% Digitoxin dissolved in chloroform-methanol at the ratio of 1:1 v/v (Elolemy et al. 1994).

268 Estimation of Lignins:

Estimation of lignins was done by weighing 100 mg of dry *Coleus* tissue and 1 ml of 72% sulphuric acid was added, incubated at 30°C for 1h with occasional stirring. 28 ml of distilled water was added and the beaker was incubated at 120°C for 1 h. The contents were filtered and the residue obtained after filtration was dried overnight at 105°C and determined the weight (AIR) whereas the filtrate obtained measured at 205 nm (ASL) (Kent et al. 1988).

274 Acid-insoluble Residue (AIR)

$$AIR = \frac{m}{M} * 1000 mg/g$$

275 Where m= weight of the residue after drying

M = Oven dry weight of the sample before acid hydrolysis.

277 Acid-Soluble Lignin (ASL)

$$ASL = \frac{A * D * V}{a * b * M} * 1000 mg/g$$

278 Where A=Absorbance,

279 D=Dilution factor,

280 V=Volume of the filtrate,

- 281 a=Extinction co-efficient of lignin,
- b=Cuvette path length and
- 283 M=Oven dry weight of the sample before acid addition.
- 284 Total Lignin Content = AIR+ASL.

285 **Preparation of extracts for anti-microbial activity**

Coleus leaves, root and stem samples were washed thoroughly under running tap water and then 286 with distilled water to remove the dirt and to reduce the microbial load. The plant materials were 287 air-dried under shade away from sunlight for 4-5 days, made into a fine powder using mortar and 288 289 pestle. Extracts were prepared using polar solvent ethanol and non-polar solvent chloroform at a 290 concentration of 10 g in 100 mL of solvent, allowed for the extraction of secondary metabolites with vigorous shaking for 48-72 h. The extracts were filtered and concentrated using Rota-291 evaporator which can be further diluted to the required concentration in DMSO used for 292 293 assessing their anti-microbial activities by studying minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) against bacterial strains Escherichia coli (MTCC 1652), Staphylococcus aureus (MTCC 3160), 294 Pseudomonas aeruginosa (MTCC 1688), Bacillus cereus (MTCC 430) and fungal strains 295 296 Aspergillus niger (MTCC 282), Aspergillus flavus (MTCC 873), Fusarium oxysporum (MTCC 6659) and Rhizopus stolonifer (MTCC 2591) obtained from Microbial Type Culture Collection 297 Centre, Institute of Microbial Technology (IMTECH), Chandigarh, India. 298

299 Preparation of Inoculum

The colonies of test organisms grown overnight were inoculated into 0.85% normal saline and the turbidity adjusted to 0.5 Mc Farland using the standard which is equal to 1.5×10^8 CFU/ml. It was further diluted to obtain the final inoculum of 5×10^5 CFU/ml.

303 Determination of antimicrobial activity by minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) 304 method

MIC was performed as per Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute guidelines using Coleus 305 306 extracts against bacterial and fungal pathogens in a 96 well u-bottomed microtitre plates using p-307 iodonitrotetrazolium violet as an indicator dye. The ethanol and the chloroform extracts of Coleus was serially diluted from the concentration of 500 mg/ml to 0.02 mg/ml and then added 308 with the final inoculum of 5×10^5 CFU/ml. The anti-microbial compound and the final inoculum 309 were in the ratio of 1:1 (v/v). Each test performed in triplicate with positive and negative 310 311 controls. After the addition of inoculum, plates were sealed with aluminium foil and incubated at 312 37°C for 24 h in the case of bacterial cultures and for 48 h at 28°C for fungal cultures respectively in an incubator. At the end of incubation period, the wells were added with 40 µL of 313 314 0.2 mg/ml p-iodonitrotetrazolium violet dye and incubated for 30 minutes for the colour development. Presence of bacterial or fungal growth is indicated by a change in the colour of the 315 316 medium to red, whereas no colour change indicates the absence of growth of the organism and the least concentration where there is no growth is considered as an MIC value of that particular 317 compound against bacterial and fungal strains used. Ampicillin and Fluconazole were used as 318 319 standards.

320 Statistical analysis

Results mentioned are reported as the mean \pm standard error (SE) values of five independent experiments, conducted on five different plants in each experiment. SE values were calculated directly from the data according to standard methods (Taylor 1982). Data analysis was carried

out using the SPSS package. Mean values were compared by Duncan's multiple range test and
 P-values which are less than or equal to 0.05 were considered as statistically significant.

326 **Results**

Quantitative determination of ten different secondary metabolites namely phenols, flavonoids, 327 328 tannins, lignins, alkaloids, steroids, cardiac glycosides, anthraquinones, terpenes and saponins 329 were carried out in leaf, stem and root samples of *Coleus* species (Fig. 1-10). The range of 330 secondary metabolites in leaf, stem and root of *Coleus* species was found to be 0.75-3.82 mg/g for phenols, 0.3-0.95 mg/g for flavonoids, 0.88-2.62 mg/g for tannins, 0.11-2.4 mg/g for cardiac 331 glycosides, 0.14-0.94 mg/g for anthraquinones, 11.4-31% for lignins, 3.91-6.2 mg/g for steroids, 332 333 0.9-3.82 mg/g for saponins, 2.3-9.2 mg/g for alkaloids and 123-315 mg/g for terpenes. The 334 concentration of bioactive compounds varies among the species and within the species under saline conditions. The amount of plant bioactive compounds increased with the increasing 335 336 concentration of NaCl up to the optimum level and the amount decreased with the increasing 337 concentrations of NaCl beyond the optimum level. In the present study, the content of secondary metabolites in *Coleus* has increased under mild (100 mM), moderate (200 mM) and severe (300 338 339 mM) salinity treatment (Fig. 1-10). Thereafter, decrease in the level of secondary metabolites at 340 the concentration above 300 mM NaCl is noticed and the experiment was designed considering 341 the salinity treatment up to a concentration of 300 mM NaCl. The maximum increase in the level of bio-active compounds was observed at a concentration of 300 mM NaCl. The content of 342 terpenes was found to be higher in all the five *Coleus* species compared to other bioactive 343 344 compounds. The concentration of the majority of the secondary metabolites were found to be 345 high in leaf samples of *Coleus* followed by stem and root, whereas few bioactive compounds were high in stem compared to leaf and root of Coleus species. 346

347 The effect of salt stress on anti-microbial activity of five different Coleus species, namely 348 C.aromaticus, C.barbatus, C.amboinicus, C.forskohlii and C.zeylanicus ethanol and chloroform 349 extracts against four bacterial strains Escherichia coli, Bacillus cereus, Staphylococcus aureus, 350 Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and four fungal strains Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus flavus, Rhizopus stolonifer and Fusarium oxysporum is depicted in Table 1-2. The leaf, stem and root extracts of 351 all the five *Coleus* species showed good anti-microbial activity against tested pathogenic strains 352 353 by inhibiting their growth. The leaf extracts of *Coleus* showed higher inhibitory activity against 354 tested strains followed by the stem and root extracts. Ethanol extracts showed high anti-microbial 355 activity ranging from 1.5-100 mg/ml compared with the chloroform extracts ranging from 0.97-250 mg/ml against tested bacterial and fungal pathogens respectively and the activity increased 356 with increasing salinity due to the up regulation of secondary metabolites whereas for few 357 358 species of *Coleus* against few tested strains, the activity remained to be the same as control 359 values. Bacillus cereus was highly susceptible bacterium whose activity was inhibited at a 360 concentration of 1.5 mg/ml and 0.97 mg/ml by Coleus forskohlii ethanol and chloroform extracts 361 whereas, A.niger was the highly susceptible fungus inhibited by Coleus zeylanicus and Coleus forskohlii leaf extracts at a concentration of 0.39 mg/ml respectively. Among the five different 362 Coleus species used in the study, C.forskohlii showed high anti-microbial activity both under 363 364 normal and saline conditions followed by C.zeylanicus.

365 **Discussion**

Medicinal plants produce a large number of secondary metabolites with several biological properties. The presence of polyphenols and their up regulation during stress play a key role in the plant defense mechanisms. An extensive study on phytoconstituents has been made in five different species of *Coleus* leaf, stem and root tissues subjected to salinity stress. The increase in

370 the content of phenolic compounds with increased salinity was observed during the study and our 371 data is supported by the findings of Valifard et al. (2014); reported the increased total phenolic 372 compounds in the leaf samples of medicinal, aromatic plant Saliva mirzayanii under salinity 373 stress. The increased total phenol under moderate salinity stress in the red pepper plant was reported (Navarro et al. 2006). In our present study, the increase in the content of secondary 374 375 metabolites is seen in leaf, stem and root samples of *Coleus* under salinity stress, whereas, the 376 concentration of secondary metabolites were found to be high in leaf of *Coleus* followed by stem 377 and root. The increase in the content of phenolic compounds with increased salinity in different 378 parts of the plant was reported (Muthukumarasamy et al. 2000). The growth of the plant during salinity stress is reduced due to the accumulation of toxic ions, Na⁺ and Cl⁻ (Marosz and Nowak 379 2008). The increase in the vacuolar volume mediates directional expansion causes primary plant 380 cell growth and also facilitates the osmotic adjustment essential for cellular development by 381 compartmentalization of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ (Shuji et al. 2002). By decreasing the leaf area, plant tries to 382 383 cope with the condition of abiotic stress thereby conserving the energy. The plant potassium 384 nutrition is disrupted by the sodium ions at the surface of root because of the similarity between potassium and the sodium ions; the uptake of potassium by root system is strongly inhibited. The 385 uptake of potassium by plants take place either by the high affinity or low affinity system, but 386 generally plants undergo high affinity potassium uptake system during salinity stress to maintain 387 appropriate potassium nutrition to maintain enzyme activities, cell turgor and membrane 388 389 potential as the deficiency leads to the reduced plant growth.

Plants when exposed to abiotic stress like salinity stress, their growth will be reduced and generate a high oversupply of reduction equivalents. The massive amounts of NADPH⁺, H⁺ (strong reduction power) enhance the synthesis of compounds like alkaloids or phenols and

393 isoprenoids which are highly reduced. The massive generation of oxygen radicals and the 394 damage by photo-inhibition is prevented by the accumulated secondary metabolites or natural products of plants affected by stress (Xin et al. 2011). The enhanced levels of secondary 395 396 metabolites during salinity stress might be due to the inductions in enzymatic activity favouring 397 the production of different bioactive compounds. The presence of alkaloids in *Coleus* might be 398 responsible for anti-malarial, analgesic activity and its use in the treatment of stomach disorders. 399 Similar results of higher alkaloid content in the salinity treated plants of C.roseus compared to control plants were reported (Abdul et al. 2008). Tannins used to heal inflamed mucous 400 401 membrane and wounds due to its astringent property. Bioactive compounds like terpenes, steroids and saponins possess cardiac and hypertensive depressant activity. Terpenoids possess 402 anti-cancer properties, promotes apoptosis. The concentration of terpenoids was found to be high 403 in *Coleus* plant which might be the reason of anti-cancer potential. Similar range of 216.67 to 404 350 mg/g terpenoids were reported in Ocimum (Vimala et al. 2014). The presence of cardiac 405 glycosides found to be effective in congestive heart failure (Aboaba et al. 2001). Flavonoids are 406 407 one of bioactive compounds accumulate and trigger the synthesis of substances with defensive role. The anti-viral, anti-inflammatory and antioxidative properties of medicinal plants are due to 408 the presence of flavonoids, which are used to treat several conditions like diabetes, ulcers, 409 410 rheumatic fever and hypertension. Kidney disorders and stomach problems can be cured with the use of plant polyphenols (Vimala and Francis 2015). The presence and the composition of 411 412 different bioactive compounds in medicinal plants is controlled both at the environmental and 413 genetic level (Awika and Rooney 2004). The demand for the use of medicinal plants rich in phenolics in food industries is increasing because of their ability to improve the quality and 414 415 nutritional value of foods. These compounds contain hydroxyl groups which can degrade lipids

and scavenge free radicals (Naima Saeed et al. 2012). The laxative property of anthraquinones is generally used in pulp bleaching for production of paper as it is a building block for most of the dyes (Soladoye and Chukwuma 2012). The important role of conducting water in the stem of plants is done by lignins. From our study, it was observed that all the five *Coleus* species were tolerant to salinity stress, acquiring resistance to salinity by the accumulation of secondary metabolites thereby providing the osmotic balance to the plant and by protecting the cells, preventing the damage caused by the generation of oxygen radicals.

In recent years, a number of multi-drug resistant strains have developed by expressing resistant 423 424 genes due to the improper usage of antibiotics. To avoid this problem, there is a need to develop 425 new alternate drugs to eradicate the pathogenic population. Medicinal plant extracts with 426 antimicrobial activity can be used as a desirable tool to eradicate the population of pathogenic strains, particularly in the treatment of infectious, dreadful diseases and in food spoilage. The 427 428 initial step for the discovery of new drugs with antimicrobial potential is the screening of plant 429 extracts (Cseke et al. 2016). Among the different parts of the plant, leaf is considered to be one 430 of the highest accumulator regions for compounds used generally for therapeutic needs (Jagtap et 431 al. 2009). In the present study, control, mild, moderate and severe Nacl treated species of Coleus leaf, root and stem ethanol and chloroform extracts were tested against four bacterial strains and 432 four fungal strains, which have inhibited their growth. Antimicrobial activities of Coleus extracts 433 434 might be due the presence of various bioactive compounds exhibiting antiviral, antimicrobial, 435 anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties. Coleus leaf, stem and root extracts have shown effective antimicrobial activity against gram positive, gram negative and fungal strains used in 436 437 the study which indicates the presence of antimicrobial compounds exhibiting broad spectrum activity. The activity of microbial growth inhibition increased with increased salinity is due to 438

439 the up regulation of plant bioactive compounds. The difference in the antimicrobial activity of 440 leaf, stem and root extracts of *Coleus* is due to the difference in the composition and the concentration of phytochemicals present within a particular tissue. The effect of salt stress and 441 442 the type of solvent used for the extraction also influence the antimicrobial activity. The antimicrobial activity varies with the species to species or within the species is due to variations in 443 444 the secondary metabolite profiles and various other factors like climatic and environmental changes. The response of plants to produce one metabolite over the other is due to the effect of 445 different stress factors. The composition of plant secondary metabolites is altered due to the 446 447 difference in the level of carbon dioxide, altitude and the presence of pathogenic microbes and insects (William et al. 2016). The inhibitory effect of Coleus leaf, root and stem ethanol and 448 chloroform extracts on the tested bacterial strains ranged from 250-1.5 mg/ml, whereas, against 449 450 fungal strains MIC values ranged from 150-0.39 mg/ml respectively. Similar results of 451 antimicrobial activity of Coleus barbatus ethanol and chloroform extracts against the strains of 452 S.aureus and P.aeruginosa were reported by Abhishek et al. (2011). The inhibitory activity at a 453 concentration of 100 mg/ml against the strains of *E.coli* and *S.aureus* by *Moringa oleifera* leaf ethanol extract was reported by Ibrahim et al. (2015). Jacqueline et al. (2017) reported the 454 antifungal activity of Coleus species methanol extracts against the strains of Aspergillus, 455 456 Rhizopus, Mucor, Rodotorula, Geotricum, Brasidiobolus, Trichophyton, Microsporum, *Epidermophyton* and *Candida* support our study which states the antifungal potential of *Coleus* 457 extracts. The presence of secondary metabolites in Coleus species plays a major role in 458 459 protecting the plant from stress also responsible for the anti-microbial activity. It was believed that the extracts exhibit antimicrobial potential of causing damage to the nucleotides with 460 461 increased spatial division and by genetic material condensation (Thilagavathi et al. 2016). The

462 action of bioactive compounds on microbes might be due to the interference of bacterial cell wall 463 peptidoglycan biosynthesis and by inhibiting protein synthesis, nucleic acid synthesis, act as chelating agents, inhibiting the metabolic pathway, disrupting the peptide bonds and preventing 464 465 the microbes to utilize the available nutrients. The leaf extracts of *Coleus* showed potent inhibitory activity compared to stem and root might be due to the presence of number of 466 bioactive compounds with antimicrobial property. The secondary metabolites are generally 467 deposited in different parts of the plant in different proportions of an individual plant as the 468 production of phytochemicals in leaves is expected to be higher compared to the other parts of 469 470 the plant (Clarice et al. 2017). The growth and the metabolism of microorganisms are inhibited 471 by the interference of the active components present within a bio-active compound (Aboaba et al. 2006). Bacillus cereus was found to be the most susceptible bacterium inhibited at a 472 473 concentration of 0.97 mg/ml by Coleus forskohlii. Similar results of inhibitory activity on 474 Bacillus cereus were reported by Abdelaaty et al. (2017). The difference in the antimicrobial 475 activity between gram positive and gram negative strains is due to the difference in the 476 composition of the cell wall. The extracts penetrate through the mesh like peptidoglycan layer of gram-positive microorganisms, whereas the penetration of extracts in gram negative strains is 477 difficult as they possess outer lipopolysaccharide membrane. Coleus extracts effectively 478 479 inhibited gram negative strains responsible for several infectious diseases in humans, therefore *Coleus* plant is considered to have high therapeutic value can be used in developing novel 480 antimicrobial drugs to overcome the usage of conventional antibiotics. Many researchers have 481 482 reported the broad spectrum antimicrobial activity of flavonoids, alkaloids, polyphenols and tannins. The tannins act by forming complex with polysaccharides, inactivating the enzymes, 483 484 preventing microbial adhesion and precipitating the proteins (Prashant et al. 2017). From the

485 above results, the whole *Coleus* plant is a good source of terpenoids, flavonoids and other 486 secondary metabolites suggests the use of this herb in food and pharmaceutical industries. It was 487 clear that the *Coleus* extracts possess metabolites effective in killing pathogenic microbes which 488 can be used in the preparation of traditional medicine for therapy against several diseases.

489 **Conclusions**

490 From the above results, it was clear that all the five *Coleus* species are capable of surviving 491 during salinity stress up to the optimum levels of NaCl treatment with specific time period and with the up regulation of secondary metabolites possessing nutraceutical and pharmaceutical 492 value for the development of new anti-microbial drugs against multi-drug resistant pathogenic 493 494 strains to address unmet therapeutic needs. In addition, under salinity stress, an increase in the 495 content of different bioactive compounds appears to be involved in the response of Coleus to NaCl stress and their presence responsible for the anti-microbial, anti-oxidant and anti-496 inflammatory properties of this medicinal plant. Thus, this medicinal plant can be considered in 497 498 the development of new alternative traditional drugs in order to cure most dreadful diseases 499 caused by the multi-drug resistant strains.

500 Acknowledgements

501 Research lab of K.V. Chaitanya is funded by the grants from the University grants commission

502 (UGC), Govt. of India, 42-197/2013. Divya is thankful for the UGC research fellowship.

503 **References**

- 504 Abdelaaty A, Shahat, Elsayed A, Mahmoud, Abdullah A, Al-Mishari, Mansour S, Alsaid. 2017.
- 505 Antimicrobial activities of some Saudi Arabian Herbal plants. African Journal of 506 Traditional Complementary and Alternative Medicine. 14(2), 161-165.
- Abdul Jaleel C, Beemarao S, Ramalingam S, Rajaram P. 2008. Soil salinity alters growth,
 chlorophyll content, and secondary metabolite accumulation in *Catharanthus roseus*.
 Turkish Journal of Biology. 32, 79-83.
- Abhishek M, Rakshanda B, Prasad GBKS, Dua VK. 2011. *Coleus barbatus* as a Potent
 Antimicrobial Agent against Some Gastro-Intestinal Pathogens. Journal of Life Sciences.
 3(2), 137-140.
- Aboaba OO, Smith SI, Olide FO. 2006. Antimicrobial Effect of Edible Plant Extract on
 Escherichia coli 0157:H7. Pakistan Journal of Nutrition. 5, 325-327.
- Aboaba OO, Efuwape BM. 2001. Antibacterial properties of some Nigerian species. Biophysical
 Research Communications. 13, 183-188.
- Adom KK, Sorrells ME, Liu RH. 2005. Phytochemicals and antioxidant activity of milled
 fractions of different wheat varieties. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 53,
 2297-2306.
- Ammon HP, Muller AB. 1985. Forskolin: from an Ayurvedic remedy to a modern agent. Planta
 Medica. 6, 473-477.
- Awika JM, Rooney LW. 2004. Sorghum phytochemicals and their potential impact on human
 health. Phytochemistry. 65, 1199-1221.
- 524 Aziagba BO, Okeke CU, Ezeabara AC, Ilodibia CV, Ufele AN, Egboka TP. 2017. Determination
- 525 of the Flavonoid Composition of Seven Varieties of *Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp as 526 Food and Therapeutic Values. Universal Journal of Applied Science. 5(1), 1-4.

527	Balasundram N, Sundram K, Samman S. 2006. Phenolic compounds in plants and agri industrial
528	by-products: antioxidant activity, occurrence, and potential uses. Food Chemistry. 99,
529	191-203.
530	Brunner JH. 1984. Direct spectrophotometric determination of Saponins. Analytical Chemistry.
531	34, 1314-1326.
532	Chang C, Yang M, Wen H, Chern J. 2002. Estimation of total flavonoid Content in propolis by
533	two complementary colorimetric methods. Journal of Food and Drug analysis. 10, 178-
534	182.
535	Chowdhary AR, Sharma ML. 1998. GC-MS investigations on the essential oil from Coleus
536	forskohlii Briq. Indian perfumer. 42, 15-16.
537	Clarice P, Mudzengi, Amon M, Musa T, Chrispen M, Joan V, Burumu, Tinyiko H. 2017.
538	Antibacterial activity of aqueous and methanol extracts of selected species used in
539	livestock health management. Pharmaceutical Biology. 55(1), 1054-1060.
540	Cseke LJ, Kirakosyan A, Kaufman PB, Warber S, Duke JA, Brielmann HL. 2016. Natural
541	products from plants. CRC Press.
542	El-olemy MM, Al-muhtadi FJ, Afifi AFA. 1994. Experimental Phytochemistry. A laboratory
543	manual. 21-27.
544	Foyer CH, Lelendais M, Kunert KJ. 1994. Photooxidative stress in plants. Physiologia
545	Plantarum. 92, 696-717.
546	Ghazghazi H, Chedia A, Moufida W, Faten T, Abderrazak M, Brahim H. 2015. Chemical
547	composition of <i>Ruta chalepensis</i> leaves essential oil and variation in biological activities.
548	Journal of Essential Oil Bearing Plants. 18, 3.

549	Gil A, De La Fuente EB, Lenardis AE, Loopez Pereira M, Suaorez SA, Bandoni A, Van Baren
550	C, Di Leo Lira P, Ghersa CM. 2002. Coriander essential oil composition from two
551	genotypes grown in different environmental conditions. Journal of Agricultural Food
552	Chemistry. 50, 2870-2877.
553	Hooper DC. 2001. Emerging mechanisms of fluoroquinolone resistance. Emerging Infectious
554	Diseases Journal. 7, 337-341.
555	Ibrahim SA, Idris AN, Abayomi S, Fatima Y, Auwal AA, Ismail AH. 2015. Phytochemical
556	Screening and Antimicrobial Activities of Ethanolic Extracts of Moringa oleifera Lam on
557	Isolates of Some Pathogens. Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science. 7; 4.
558	Indumathi C, Durgadevi G, Nithyavani S, Gayathri PK. 2014. Estimation of terpenoid content
559	and its antimicrobial property in Enicostemma litorrale. International Journal of Chem
560	Tech Research. 6(9), 4264-4267.
561	Jacqueline ET, Christian UI. 2017. Evaluation of Anti-fungal Activity of Coleus Species
562	Extracts. International Journal of Current Research in Biosciences and Plant Biology.
563	4(1), 131-138.
564	Jagtap NS, Khadabadi SS, Ghorpade DS, Banarase NB, Naphade SS. 2009. Antimicrobial and
565	antifungal activity of Centella asiatica (L.) Urban, Umbeliferae. Research Journal of
566	Pharmacy and Technology. 2(2), 328-330.
567	Joshi H, Parle M. 2006. Cholinergic basis of memory improving effect of Ocimum tenuiflorum
568	Linn. Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Science. 68(3), 364-365.
569	Kate VV. 2008. Physiological and biochemical studies in some medicinal plants: Tribulus
570	terrestris L. and Pedalium murex L. Ph. D. Thesis submitted to Shivaji University,
571	Kolhapur, Maharashtra, India.

- 572 Kent T, Kirk, John R, Obst. 1988. Lignin Determination. Methods in Enzymology. 161, 87-110.
- 573 Ksouri R, Megdiche V, Debez A, Falleh H, Grignon C, Abdelly C. 2007. Salinity effects on
- polyphenol content and antioxidant activities in leaves of the halophyte *Cakile maritime*.
 Plant Physiology and Biochemistry. 45, 244-249.
- 576 Lee JC, Lee KY, Kim J, Na CS, Jung NC, Chung GH, Jang YS. 2004. Extract from Rhus
- 577 *verniciflua* stokes is capable of inhibiting the growth of human lymphoma cells. Food 578 and Chemical Toxicology. 42(9), 1383-1388.
- 579 Malick CP, Singh MB. 1980. In: Plant Enzymology and Histoenzymology. Kalyani Publishers.
 580 286.
- Malleswari D, Mohd KM, Rana K, Bagyanarayana G. 2017. Antibacterial and Antifungal
 Activity of Leaf, Stem and Root Extracts of *Costus Igneus*. Research Journal of
 Pharmaceutical, Biological and Chemical Sciences. 8; 2314.
- Maragathavalli S, Brindha S, Kaviyarasi NS, Annadurai BB, Gangwar SK. 2012. Antimicrobial
 activity in leaf extract of Neem (*Azadirachta indica* Linn.). International Journal of
 Science and Nature. 3(1); 110-113.
- 587 Marosz A, Nowak J.S. 2008. Effect of salinity stress on growth and macro elements uptake of
 588 four tree species. Dendrobiology. 59, 23-29.
- Mboso OE, Eyong EU, Odey MO, Osakwe E. 2013. Comparative phytochemical screening of
 Ereromastax speciosa and *Ereromastax polysperma*. Journal of Natural Product and
 Plant Resources. 3, 37-41.
- Muthukumarasamy M, Gupta SD, Pannerselvam R. 2000. Enhancement of peroxidase,
 polyphenol oxidase and superoxide dismutase activities by tridimefon in NaCl stressed
 Raphanus sativus L. *Biology of Plant.* 43, 317-320.

- Muthumani P, Meera R, Sweetlin, Devi P. 2010. Phyto Chemical Investigation and
 Determination of Crude Alkaloidal Content (Solasodine) in *Solanum Leave Dunal* (Dry
 and Fresh Berries). International Journal of Pharmaceutical & Biological Archives. 1,
 350-354.
- Nahak G, Sahu RK. 2010. *In-vitro* antioxidative activity of *Azadirachta indica* and *Melia azedarach* leaves by DPPH scavenging assay. Natural Science. 8(4), 22-28.
- Naima S, Muhammad RK, Maria S. 2012. Antioxidant activity, total phenolic and total flavonoid
 contents of whole plant extracts *Torilis leptophylla L*. BMC Complementary and
 Alternative Medicine. 12, 221.
- Narendra D, Ramalakshmi N, Satyanarayana B, Sudeepthi P, Hemachakradhar K, Pavankumar
 raju N. 2013. Preliminary Phytochemical Screening, Quantitative estimation and
 Evaluation of anti-microbial activity of *Alstoniamacrophylla* Stem bark. International
 Journal of Science Inventions Today. 2, 31-39.
- Navarro JM, Flores P, Garrido C, Martinez V. 2006. Changes in the contents of antioxidant
 compounds in pepper fruits at ripening stages, as affected by salinity. Food Chemistry.
 96, 66-73.
- Odeja O, Grace O, Christiana EO, Elias EE, Yemi O. 2015. Phytochemical Screening,
 Antioxidant and Antimicrobial activities of *Senna occidentalis* (L.) leaves Extract.
 Clinical Phytoscience. 1, 6.
- Ouda SAE, Mohamed SG, Khalil FA. 2008. Modelling the effect of different stress conditions on
 maize productivity using yield-stress model. International Journal of Natural and
 Engineering Sciences. 2, 57-62.

- 617 Pandey G, Madhuri S. 2010. Pharmacological activities of *Ocimum sanctum* (Tulsi): A Review.
- International Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences Review and Research. 5(1); 61-66.
- Polshettiwar SA, Ganjiwale RO, Wadher SJ, Yeole PG. 2007. Spectrophotometric estimation of
- total tannins in some Ayurvedic eye drops. Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Science.69, 574-576.
- Prashant A, Mehta JP. 2017. A review on antimicrobial and Himalayan medicinal plants.
 Environment Conservation Journal. 18; 49-62.
- Ramadoss D, Lakkineni VK, Bose P, Ali S, Annapurna K. 2013. Mitigation of salt stress in
 wheat seedlings by halo tolerant bacteria isolated from saline habitats. Springer Plus. 2,
 1-7.
- Sewelam N, Kemel K, Peer MS. 2016. Global plant stress signalling: Reactive oxygen species at
 the cross-road. Frontiers of Plant Science. 7, 187.
- Seyyednejad SM, Motamedi H. 2010. A review on native medicinal plants in Khuzestan, Iran
 with antibacterial properties. International Journal of Pharmaceutics. 6, 551-60.
- Sharma A, Meena A, Meena R. 2012. Antimicrobial activity of plant extract of *Ocimum tenuiflorum*. International Journal of Pharma Tech Research. 4(1); 176-180.
- Shuji Y, Ray AB, Paul MH. 2002. Salt stress tolerance of plants. JIRCAS Working Report. 2533.
- Soladoye MO, Chukwuma EC. 2012. Quantitative phytochemical profile of the leaves of *Cissus populnea Guill. & Perr. (Vitaceae)* An important medicinal plant in central Nigeria.
- 637 Scholars Research Library. Archives of Applied Science Research. 4, 200-206.
- Surh YZ, Ferguson LR. 2003. Dietary and medicinal antimutagens and anticarcinogens.
 Molecular mechanisms and chemopreventive potential-highlight of a symposium.

- Taylor JR. 1982. An Introduction to Error Analysis. The Study of Uncertainties in Physical
 Measurements. University Science Books, Sausalito, CA, USA.
- Tester M, Davenport R. 2003. Na+ tolerant and Na+ transport in higher plants. Annals of
 Botany. 91, 503-527.
- Thilagavathi S, Hariram N. 2016. *Coleus aromaticus* Benth Synthesis of Potentially
 Nanomedicine as High Nutritive Value of Human Health and Immunomodulator.
 International Journal of Science and Research Methodology. 4(4); 18-38.
- Thuy TV, Hyungrok K, Vu KT, Quang LD, Hoa TN, Hun K, In Seon K, Gyung JC, Jin-Cheol K.
 2016. In vitro antibacterial activity of selected medicinal plants traditionally used in
 Vietnam against human pathogenic bacteria. BMC Complementary and Alternative
 Medicine. 16; 32.
- Valifard M, Mohsenzadeh S, Kholdebarina B, Rowshanb V. 2014. Effects of salt stress on
 volatile compounds, total phenolic content and antioxidant activities of *Salvia mirzayanii*. South African Journal of Botany. 93, 92-97.
- Vimala G, Francis GS. 2015. Qualitative and quantitative determination of secondary
 metabolites and antioxidant potential of *ficus benghalensis* linn seed. International
 Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences. 7(7).
- Vimala V, Rebecca Mathew, P, Deepa S, Kalaivani T. 2014. Phytochemical analysis in *ocimum* accessions. International Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences. 6(1).
- Warrier PK, Nambiar VP, Ramankutty C. 1995. Indian Medicinal Plants. Orient Longman Ltd.,
 Madras.

661	William PCB, Raquel OR, Demetrio LV, Juliana JMP. 2016. Bioactive metabolite profiles and
662	antimicrobial activity of ethanolic extracts from Muntingia calabura L. leaves and stems.
663	Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine. 6(8), 682-685.
664	Wong CC, Li HB, Cheng KW, Chen F. 2006. A systematic survey of antioxidant activity of 30
665	Chinese medicinal plants using the ferric reducing antioxidant power assay. Food
666	Chemistry. 97, 705-711.
667	Xin ZL, Mei G, Shiqing L, Shengxiu L, Zongsuo L. 2011. Modulation of plant growth, water
668	status and antioxidative system of two maize (Zea mays L.) cultivars induced by
669	exogenous glycinebetaine under long term mild drought stress. Pakistan Journal of
670	Botany. 43, 1587-1594.
671	Yala D, Merad AS, Mohamedi D, Ouar Korich MN. 2001. Classification et mode d'action des
672	antibiotiques. Médecine du Maghreb. 91, 5-12.
673	
674	
675	
676	
677	
678	
679	
680	
681	
682	
683	

684 **Figure legends:**

Fig. 1. Quantitative determination of phenols in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ = 0.1, $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 2. Quantitative determination of flavonoids in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ =0.10, $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 3. Quantitative determination of tannins in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ = 0.28, $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 4. Quantitative determination of anthraquinones in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ =0.32, $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 5. Quantitative determination of alkaloids in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ = 0.46, $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 6. Quantitative determination of terpenes in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t (4) = 3.14, $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 7. Quantitative determination of steroids in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ = 0.92, $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 8. Quantitative determination of saponins in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ =0.4 , $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 9. Quantitative determination of cardiac glycosides in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t (4) =0.1, $p \square 0.05$).

Fig. 10. Quantitative determination of lignins in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ = 0.80, *p* \square 0.05).

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

Plant	Plant part	Strain name	MIC Val	MIC Values mg/ml			
species	-		Control		Moderate	Severe	
Coleus	Leaf	E.coli	100	100	100	100	
aromaticus		S.aureus	100	100	100	100	
		B.cereus	50	50	50	50	
		P.aeruginosa	100	100	100	100	
		A.niger	6.25	3.12	<u><</u> 1	<u><</u> 1	
		A.flavus	100	50	$\overline{50}$	50	
		F.oxysporum	50	50	3.12	3.12	
		R.stolonifer	50	25	<u><</u> 2	<u><</u> 2	
	Stem	E.coli	125	125	125	31.25	
		S.aureus	125	125	125	31.25	
		B.cereus	50	50	50	50	
		P.aeruginosa	125	125	125	125	
		A.niger	125	125	62.5	31.25	
		A.flavus	62.5	31.25	31.25	15.62	
		<i>F.oxysporum</i>	125	125	62.5	62.5	
		R.stolonifer	62.5	31.25	3.91	3.91	
	Root	E.coli	125	125	125	62.5	
		S.aureus	125	125	125	62.5	
		B.cereus	125	125	62.5	31.25	
		P.aeruginosa	125	125	125	125	
		A.niger	125	125	62.5	62.5	
		A.flavus	62.5	31.25	31.25	31.25	
		F.oxysporum	125	125	62.5	62.5	
		R.stolonifer	62.5	31.25	31.25	15.26	
Coleus	Leaf	E.coli	100	100	100	100	
amboinicus		S.aureus	25	25	25	25	
		B.cereus	100	100	100	50	
		P.aeruginosa	100	100	100	50	
		A.niger	100	50	50	50	
		A.flavus	100	100	100	100	
		F.oxysporum	100	100	50	50	
		R.stolonifer	100	50	25	25	
	Stem	E.coli	100	100	100	50	
		S.aureus	50	50	25	25	
		B.cereus	100	50	50	50	
		P.aeruginosa	250	125	125	62.5	
		A.niger	125	125	125	62.5	
		A.flavus	62.5	62.5	31.25	31.25	
		F.oxysporum	125	125	125	62.5	

723 **Table 1.** Anti-microbial activity of *Coleus* ethanol leaf, stem & root extracts in mg/ml.

		R.stolonifer	125	62.5	31.25	31.25
	Root	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 100 125 125 125 62.5 125 125 125	125 100 125 125 125 62.5 125 125 125	125 100 62.5 62.5 62.5 62.5 62.5 62.5 31.25	62.5 50 62.5 62.5 62.5 31.25 62.5 31.25 31.25
	Leaf	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	50 100 100 50 100 100 25 25	50 50 100 50 12.5 25 25 25	50 25 50 50 12.5 1.56 1.56
	Stem	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 125 125 125 62.5 62.5 125 125	125 125 125 125 62.5 31.25 62.5 62.5	62.5 125 125 125 31.25 31.25 62.5 31.25	62.5 62.5 125 15.62 31.25 31.25 15.62
	Root	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 125 125 125 125 62.5 125 62.5	125 125 125 62.5 125 31.25 125 62.5	125 125 62.5 31.25 62.5 31.25 125 31.25	62.5 125 62.5 31.25 62.5 31.25 62.5 15.62
Coleus forskohlii	Leaf	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum	25 12.5 1.5 100 6.25 12.5 12.5	25 12.5 1.5 50 6.25 3.125 1.56	12.5 12.5 1.5 50 3.12 0.78 1.56	1.56 6.25 1.5 25 0.39 0.39 1.56

		R.stolonifer	25	25	25	25
	Stem	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus	62.5 15.62 3.905	31.25 15.62 3.905	15.62 7.81 1.95	15.62 7.81 1.95
		P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum	125 7.81 15.62 15.62	125 7.81 15.62 15.62	125 3.905 7.81 7.81 21.25	125 1.95 1.95 7.81
	Root	R.stolonifer E.coli S.aureus	62.5 31.25 15.62	62.5 15.62 7.81	31.25 15.62 7.81	31.25 15.62 7.81
		B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger	3.905 62.5 15.62	1.95 62.5 7.81	1.95 62.5 3.905	1.95 31.25 1.95
		A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	15.62 15.62 31.25	15.62 15.62 31.25	7.81 15.62 31.25	1.95 7.81 31.25
Coleus zeylanicus	Leaf	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	$\begin{array}{c} 3.125 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 50 \\ 0.39 \\ 100 \\ 0.78 \\ 25 \end{array}$	3.125 100 100 50 0.39 100 0.78 25	3.125 100 50 50 0.39 100 0.78 25	3.125 100 50 50 0.39 100 0.78 12.5
	Stem	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	7.81 250 125 125 3.905 125 31.25 31.25	7.81 250 125 125 3.905 125 31.25 15.62	3.905 125 125 62.5 3.905 62.5 15.62 15.62	3.905 125 62.5 62.5 3.905 62.5 3.905 3.905
	Root	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	15.62 250 125 250 7.81 125 125 62.5	15.62 250 125 250 7.81 125 125 31.25	15.62 250 125 250 3.905 125 125 31.25	7.81 125 125 125 3.905 62.5 62.5 15.62

Plant	Plant part	Strain name	MIC Val	MIC Values mg/ml			
species	-		Control	Mild	Moderate	Severe	
Coleus	Leaf	E.coli	125	125	125	125	
aromaticus		S.aureus	62.5	62.5	62.5	31.25	
		B.cereus	125	62.5	31.25	31.25	
		P.aeruginosa	125	125	125	125	
		A.niger	62.5	<u><</u> 2	<u><</u> 2	<u><</u> 2	
		A.flavus	125	125	62.5	62.5	
		F.oxysporum	125	62.5	7.81	3.9	
		R.stolonifer	62.5	3.9	1.9	1.9	
	Stem	E.coli	125	125	125	125	
		S.aureus	125	125	62.5	62.5	
		B.cereus	125	125	62.5	62.5	
		P.aeruginosa	125	125	125	125	
		A.niger	62.5	31.25	31.25	7.81	
		A.flavus	62.5	31.25	31.25	7.81	
		F.oxysporum	125	62.5	62.5	15.62	
		R.stolonifer	125	62.5	3.9	3.9	
	Root	E.coli	125	125	125	125	
		S.aureus	250	125	125	62.5	
		B.cereus	125	125	125	62.5	
		P.aeruginosa	250	125	125	125	
		A.niger	125	62.5	31.25	7.81	
		A.flavus	125	125	62.5	31.25	
		F.oxysporum	125	62.5	31.25	15.62	
		R.stolonifer	125	125	31.25	3.9	
Coleus	Leaf	E.coli	125	125	125	125	
amboinicus		S.aureus	125	125	125	62.5	
		B.cereus	125	125	125	125	
		P.aeruginosa	125	62.5	62.5	62.5	
		A.niger	62.5	7.81	7.81	7.81	
		A.flavus	125	62.5	62.5	62.5	
		F.oxysporum	62.5	62.5	4	4	
		R.stolonifer	125	62.5	4	4	
	Stem	E.coli	125	125	125	62.5	
		S.aureus	125	125	62.5	31.25	
		B.cereus	125	125	125	62.5	
		P.aeruginosa	125	125	62.5	62.5	
		A.niger	62.5	31.25	31.25	15.62	
		A.flavus	62.5	62.5	31.25	31.25	
		F.oxysporum	125	62.5	15.62	7.81	

724 **Table 2.** Anti-microbial activity of *Coleus* chloroform leaf, stem & root extracts in mg/ml.

		R.stolonifer	125	125	7.81	4
	Root	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 125 125 125 125 62.5 125 125	125 125 125 125 62.5 31.25 62.5 62.5	125 62.5 62.5 125 62.5 31.25 62.5 7.81	125 62.5 15.62 62.5 62.5 31.25 7.81 4
Coleus barbatus	Leaf	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 125 125 125 125 125 125 250 125	62.5 125 125 125 62.5 125 250 62.5	62.5 125 125 125 31.25 62.5 125 62.5	62.5 62.5 125 125 15.62 62.5 125 31.25
	Stem	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 125 250 125 62.5 62.5 250 125	125 125 125 125 62.5 31.25 125 31.25	62.5 62.5 125 125 31.25 31.25 125 31.25	62.5 62.5 125 125 15.62 31.25 125 7.81
	Root	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 250 125 250 125 62.5 250 125	125 125 125 250 62.5 31.25 62.5 125	31.25 125 62.5 250 62.5 31.25 31.25 31.25	31.25 62.5 62.5 250 15.62 15.62 31.25 7.81
Coleus forskohlii	Leaf	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 125 125 125 31.25 62.5 31.25 62.5	62.5 62.5 62.5 31.25 31.25 31.25 31.25 62.5	31.25 62.5 1.95 62.5 15.62 31.25 31.25 31.25	$1.95 \\ 15.62 \\ 0.97 \\ 31.25 \\ 0.48 \\ 15.62 \\ 31.25 \\ 15.62 \\ 15.62 \\$

	Stem	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 125 62.5 125 62.5 62.5 62.5 62.5 31.25	125 125 62.5 125 62.5 31.25 31.25 31.25 31.25	31.25 62.5 7.81 62.5 31.25 31.25 31.25 31.25 15.62	7.81 31.25 3.9 31.25 15.62 15.62 15.62 15.62
	Root	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 62.5 62.5 125 62.5 62.5 125 62.5	31.25 62.5 31.25 62.5 31.25 31.25 62.5 31.25 31.25	31.25 31.25 7.81 31.25 15.62 31.25 15.62 7.81	3.91 31.25 3.9 31.25 15.62 7.81 7.81 7.81
Coleus zeylanicus	Leaf	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	31.25 125 125 62.5 0.97 125 62.5 31.25	3.9 125 125 62.5 0.97 125 31.25 31.25	3.9 62.5 62.5 31.25 0.97 62.5 31.25 15.62	3.9 62.5 62.5 31.25 0.48 31.25 15.62 7.81
	Stem	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	62.5 125 125 125 31.25 31.25 31.25 62.5	31.25 62.5 125 62.5 15.62 125 31.25 31.25	3.9 62.5 125 31.25 15.62 31.25 15.62 31.25	3.9 31.25 62.5 31.25 0.97 31.25 15.62 15.62
	Root	E.coli S.aureus B.cereus P.aeruginosa A.niger A.flavus F.oxysporum R.stolonifer	125 125 125 250 62.5 62.5 62.5 62.5	62.5 125 125 125 31.25 62.5 62.5 31.25	31.25 62.5 62.5 125 15.62 62.5 31.25 15.62	31.25 62.5 62.5 62.5 0.97 62.5 15.62 15.62

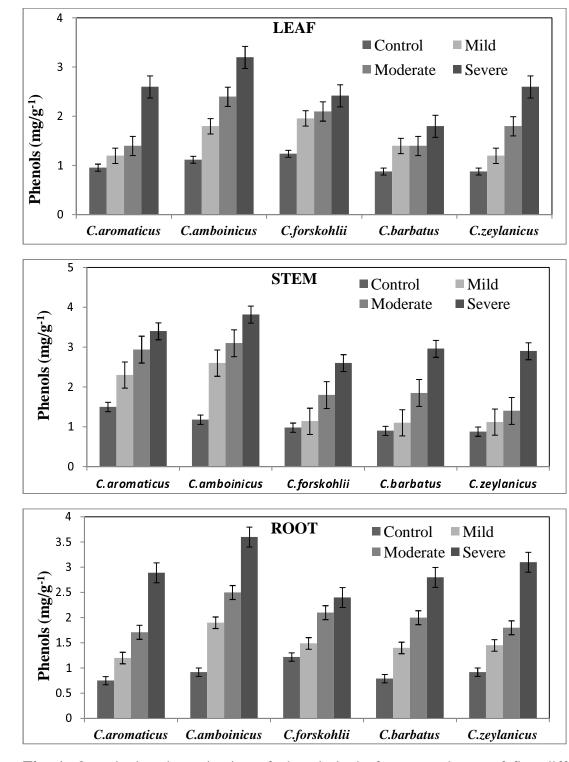


Fig. 1. Quantitative determination of phenols in leaf, stem and root of five different Coleus species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ = 0.1, $p \square 0.05$).

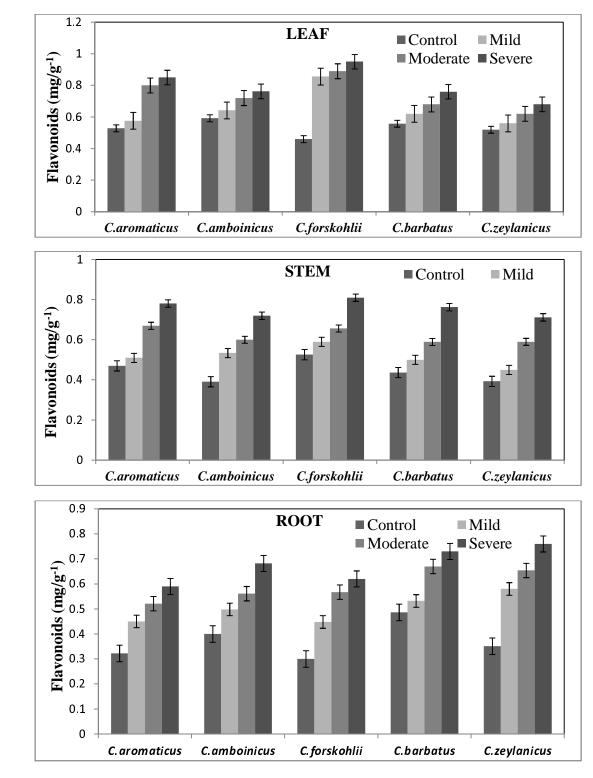
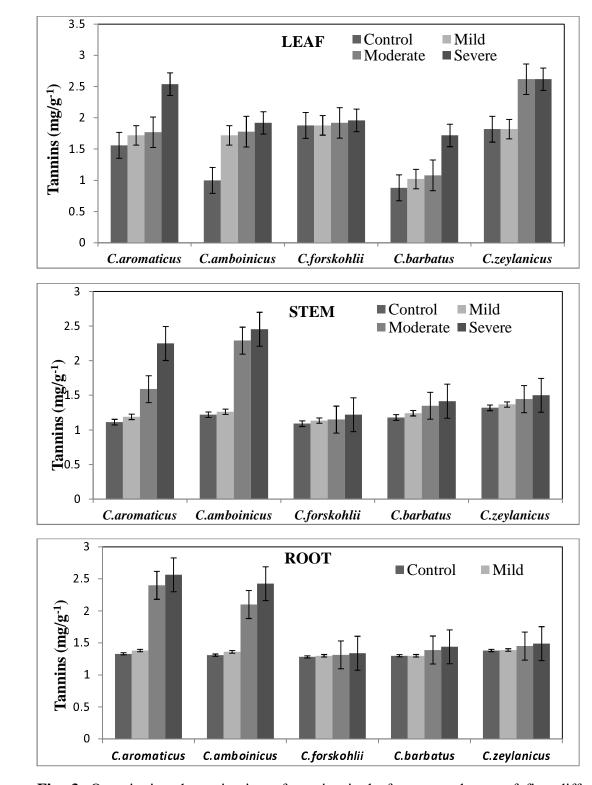


Fig. 2. Quantitative determination of flavonoids in leaf, stem and root of five different Coleus species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ =0.10, $p \Box 0.05$).

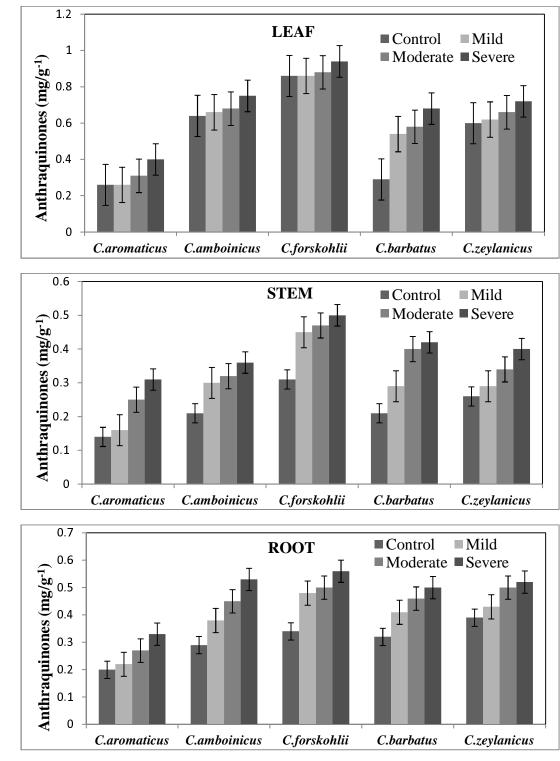




741Fig. 3. Quantitative determination of tannins in leaf, stem and root of five different742*Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five743independent determinations \pm SE, (t (4) = 0.28, $p \Box$ 0.05).

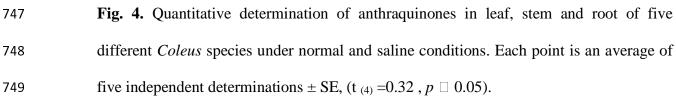
738

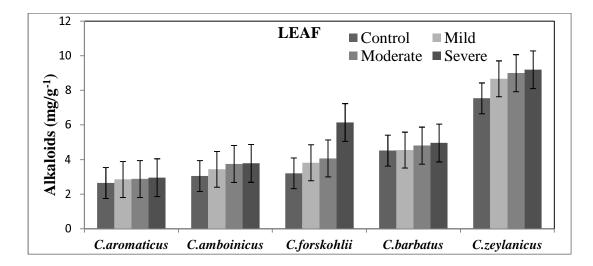
739

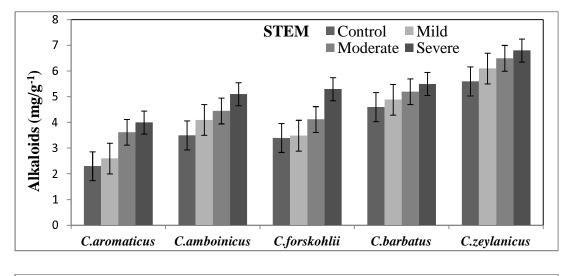


744









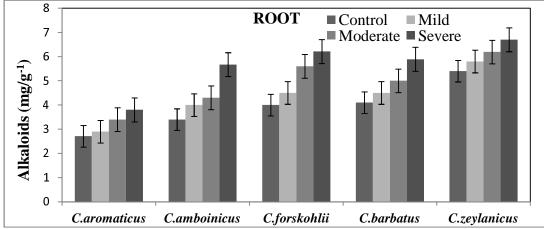
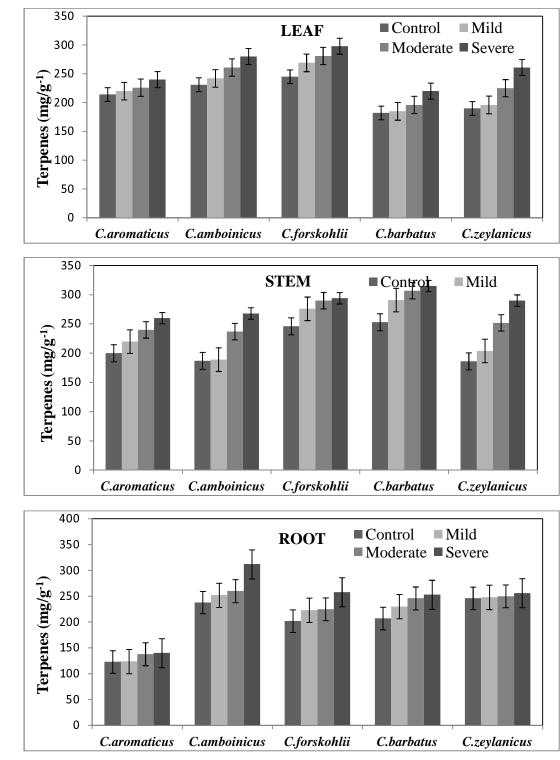




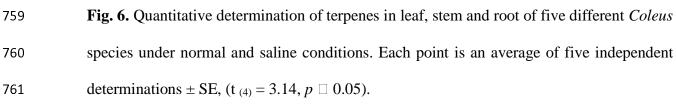
Fig. 5. Quantitative determination of alkaloids in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ = 0.46, $p \square$ 0.05).

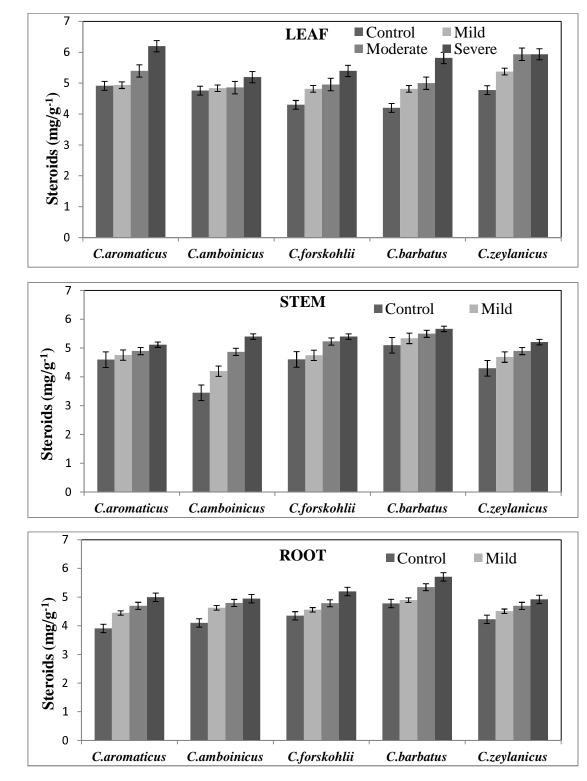
750



756



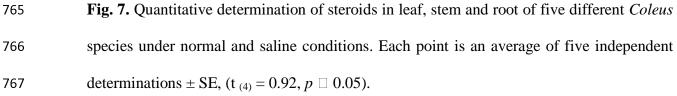












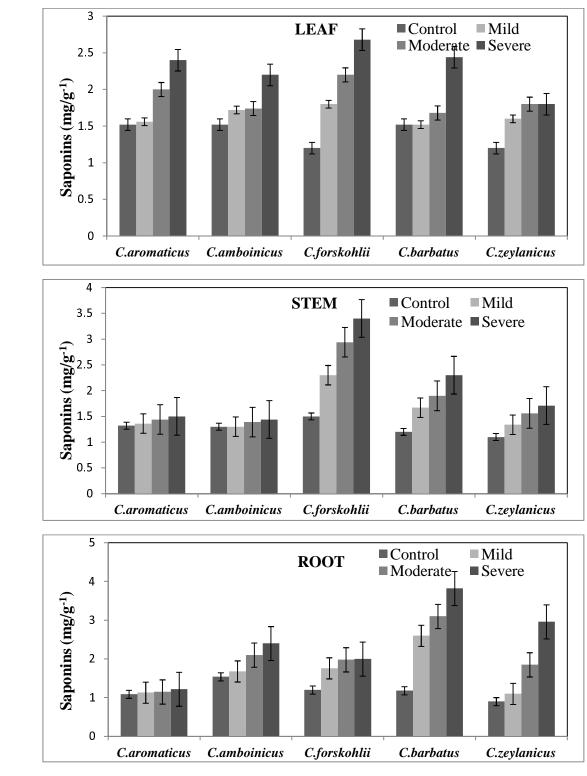








Fig. 8. Quantitative determination of saponins in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t ₍₄₎ =0.4, $p \square 0.05$).

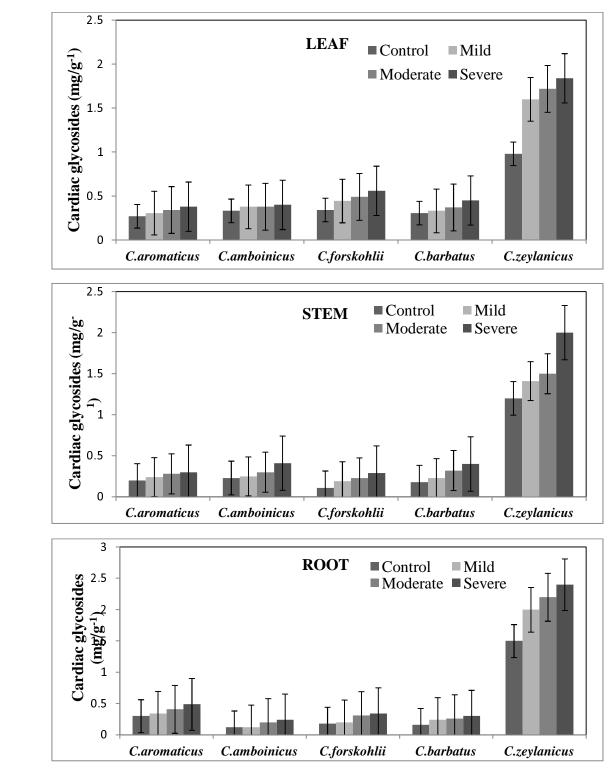






Fig. 9. Quantitative determination of cardiac glycosides in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t (4) =0.1, $p \square 0.05$).

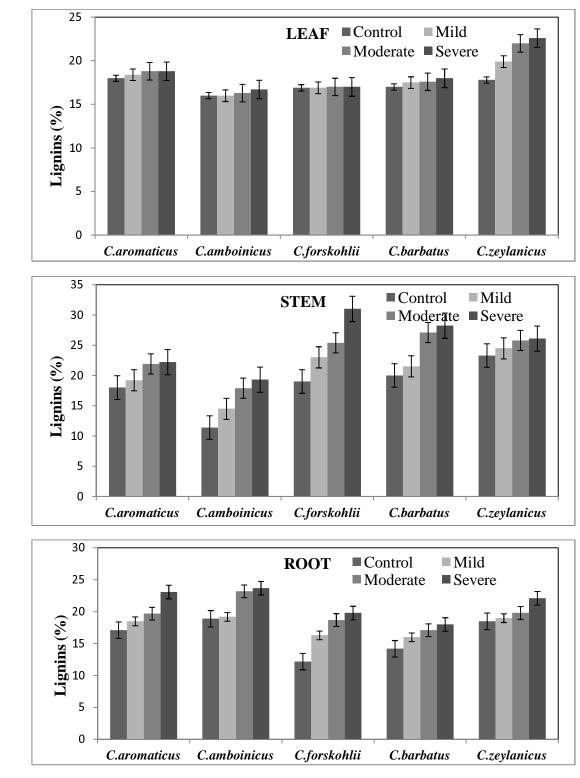






Fig. 10. Quantitative determination of lignins in leaf, stem and root of five different *Coleus* species under normal and saline conditions. Each point is an average of five independent determinations \pm SE, (t (4) = 0.80, $p \square 0.05$).