

OPEN ACCESS

The effect of activated charcoal and multi-walled carbon nanotubes on the growth, rosmarinic and caffeic acid content, total phenol, total flavonoid and antioxidant activity of *Satureja rechingeri* calluses

Hassan Esmaeili¹, Javad Hadian^{1*}, Mohammad Hossein Mirjalili¹, Hassan Rezadoost²

¹Department of Agriculture, Medicinal Plants and Drug Research Institute, Shahid Beheshti University, G.C., Tehran, Iran ²Department of Phytochemistry, Medicinal Plants and Drug Research Institute, Shahid Beheshti University, G.C., Tehran, Iran

Article published on May 23, 2015

Key words: *Satureja rechingeri*, Rosmarinic acid, Multi-walled carbon nanotubes, Activated charcoal, Antioxidant activity.

Abstract

Satureja rechingeri belongs to the Lamiaceae family and is native to Iran. The plant produces high amounts of phenolic compounds, especially rosmarinic acid. The effects of multi-walled carbon nanotubes with a carboxyl functional group (MWCNT-COOH) and activated charcoal (AC) on the growth, rosmarinic and caffeic acid content, total phenol, total flavonoid and antioxidant activity of *S. rechingeri* calluses were evaluated. MWCNT-COOH and AC were able to increase the amount of fresh and dry weight compared to control in a wide range (25-500 μ g/ml). The maximum amount of rosmarinic acid was observed in concentrations of 100 μ g/ml MWCNT-COOH and 250 μ g/ml AC. Positive correlations between antioxidant activity and total phenol content and rosmarinic acid content were observed. These data underline the role of rosmarinic acid as a potent antioxidant in plants.

*Corresponding Author: Javad Hadian 🖂 javadhadian@gmail.com

Introduction

Satureja rechingeri Jamzad belongs to the Lamiaceae family and is native to Iran. This plant is distinguished with yellow flowers, dense white villous hairs and a dense covering of punctate glands on both leaf surfaces (Jamzad, 1996). The plant produce large amounts of phenols mainly rosmarinic acid (Hadian *et al.*, 2014). It has been considered for domestication to supply the demand of industry.

Nanotechnology may be able to create many new materials and devices with a vast range of applications in biology, medicine (Bruches et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2002; Mah et al., 2000; Panatarotto et al., 2003; Nam et al., 2003; Ma et al., 2003), electronics (Wang et al., 2009), biomaterials (Balasundaram et al., 2006), energy production, and agriculture (Bouwmeester et al., 2009; Nair et al., 2010; Sharon et al., 2010; Emamifar et al., 2010). Research on the effect of nanoparticles on plants is at a primary stage and whether they are harmful or helpful to plants is questionable. It has been confirmed in some plant species that nanoparticles are safe at low concentrations and are capable of encouraging photosynthesis and nitrogen metabolism and can thus ameliorate the growth of the plant (Zheng et al., 2005; Klaine et al., 2008). Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) may have possibly single or multiple layers of carbons established in a cylinder (Li et al., 1996; Philip et al., 2000). CNTs behave as fibers, with its properties very different from bulk carbon or graphite (Philip et al., 2000). Multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) which consist of multiple rolled layers (concentric tubes) of grapheme. Several experiments have recently been performed to understand the interaction between carbon nanotubes and biological systems. For example, water soluble carbon nanotubes (wsCNTs) increased growth rate in every part of gram (Cicer arietinum) plant including the roots, shoots and also branches. Khodakovskaya et al. (2012) proved that multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) have the ability to enhance the growth of tobacco cells in a wide range of concentrations (5-500 µg/mL). They also showed that activated charcoal (AC) increases cell growth only in low concentrations but its influence on cell growth was lower than that of MWCNT.

The positive effects of low doses of MWCNTs on germination, dehydrogenase activity, cell elongation, root growth and biomass production has been confirmed (Khodakovskaya *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2012).

In this study, for the first time, the effect of carbon nanotubes and activated charcoal on the growth rate of *S. rechingeri* calluses, and the amount of rosmarinic acid and caffeic acid in the calluses were evaluated. Due to low solubility of carbon nanotubes in water, it used carbon nanotubes with carboxyl functional group.

Materials and methods

Materials

MWCNTs-COOH were purchased from Neutrino company in Iran (purity:> 95 %, OD 10-20nm, Length \sim 30µm and COOH content 2wt%). Also activated carbon was purchased from Merck company with absorption >30% (nitric acid <10%, Fe <1000ppm and zn <200ppm).

Preparation of calluses

For callus induction of *S. rechingeri*, homogeneous explants were placed in B5 culture medium supplemented with 0.1 mg/l IBA. For maintenance of the calluses and further tests, B5 medium was supplemented with 5 mg/l BA and 1mg/l IBA. An equal amount of initial callus (inoculum), 3g, was placed in each experimental glass.

Experiments with the established calluses

The established calluses were treated with the media supplemented with MWCNTs or activated carbon in the concentrations of 25, 50, 100, 250 and 500 μ g/mL in 4 replications (glasses). The experimental glasses were kept in the dark condition at 22-24 °C in a growth chamber for 1 month.

Methanolic extract preparation

After 1 month, Calluses were dried in the freeze dryer. Extraction procedure was performed according to Baskan *et al.* (2007). 500 mg of powder of each individual was suspend in 10 mL of MeOH and mixed vigorously. Extraction was performed by sonic and then the extracts were filtered and stored at 4 ° C until analysis.

Determination of caffeic acid and rosmarinic acid by HPLC

The separation of phenolic acids was performed on a Knauer liquid chromatography apparatus consisting of a 1000 smartline pump, a 5000 smartline manager solvent organizer and a 2800 smartline photo-diode array detector. Injection was performed through a 3900 smartline autosampler injector equipped with a 100 μ l loop. The temperature control of the column was made with a jet stream 2 plus oven (Knauer, advanced scientific instrument, Berlin, Germany). The column, a Eurospher 100-5 C18, $(250 \times 4.6 \text{ mm})$ was maintained at 25 C. The solvents used for separation were 0.02% TFA in water (v/v) (eluent A) and 0.02% TFA in methanol (v/v) (eluent B). The gradient used was: 0-5 min, linear gradient from 0% to 20%, 5-10min, 20% to 25% B; 10-20 min, linear gradient from 25% to 30% B; 20-35 min, linear gradient from 30% to 45%, maintained at 90% B until 60 min. The flow rate was 0.5 ml min⁻¹. Detection wavelength was 330 nm. The sample injection volume was 20 µl. The chromatographic peaks of rosmarinic acid and caffeic acid were confirmed by comparing their retention times and UV spectra with those of standard their reference standards. Working solutions were injected into the HPLC and peak area responses were obtained. Standard graphs were prepared by plotting concentration versus area. Quantification was carried out from integrated peak areas of the samples using the corresponding standard graph.

Determination of total phenolic compound

The total phenols of these extracts were determined with folin-ciocalteu reagent at 760 nm (Lister and

Wilson, 2001). Totally, 250 μ l of each methanolic extract (50 μ g/ μ l) was introduced into test tubes and 1.25 ml of diluted folin-ciocalteu reagent (1:10 with distilled water) and 1 ml of 7.5% sodium carbonate were added to the extracts. All the tubes were allowed to stand for 30 minutes in a dark place at room temperature. Gallic acid was used as standard. The absorbance was read at 760 nm and all the measurements were performed three times. Total phenol values are expressed in terms of gallic acid equivalents (mg/kg or μ g/mg of dry mass of extract).

Determination of total flavonoids

Flavonoid contents of the extracts were determined by a colorimetric method described by Zhishen *et al.* (1999) with some modifications. 250 µl of the extracts ($50\mu g/ µl$) were mixed with 2ml distilled water and 0.15 ml of a 15% NaNO₂ solution. After 6 minutes, 0.15 ml of a 10% AlCl₃ solution was added. After 6 minutes, 2 ml of a 4 % NaOH solution was added to the mixture, which was adjusted to 5 ml with distilled water. The solution was mixed well and the absorbances were measured at 510 nm 15 minutes later. Rutin was used as standard and the results were expressed as mg of rutin equivalents per gram of the extract.

Measurement of free radical-scavenging activity (DPPHassay)

The free radical-scavenging activity was measured by the DPPH assay described by Blois (1958). Different volumes of the extracts (2, 10, 40, 60, 80) were added to 96-well plates and allowed to be dried at room temperature. Then 187 μ l of MeOH and 63 μ l of DPPH solution in MeOH (final concentration of 0.2 mM) were added. The mixtures were shaken and allowed to stand for 45 minutes in a dark place at room temperature. The absorbance was measured at 517 nm. The ability of the extracts to scavenge the DPPH radical was calculated using the following equation: inhibition% = (Ac-As)/Ac*100 where As is the absorbance of the sample, and Ac is the absorbance of the mixture of 187 μ l MeOH and 63 μ l DPPH solution as control. BHT was used as standard and the results were expressed in BHT equivalent capacity.

Results and discussion

One month after callus incubation with MWCNT-COOH and AC, fresh and dry weight of callus, the amount of caffeic acid and rosmarinic acid, total phenolics, total flavonoids and antioxidant activity in methanolic extract of callus were measured. Changes in fresh and dry weight of the callus are showed in Fig. 1. As can be seen, MWCNT-COOH and AC were able to increase the amount of fresh weight and dry weight compared with control. This suggests that MWCNT-COOH and AC not only increase the absorption of water by the callus but also increase cell division. It has been proven that expression of genes related to cell division were in the highest level when the cells were treated with MWCNTs (Khodakovskaya et al., 2012). The effect of AC on callus growth may be attributed to the adsorption of inhibitory materials in the culture medium (Horner et al., 1977; Fridborg et al., 1978; Theander et al., 1988; Weatherhead et al., 1978), decrease in the phenolic oxidation or brown exudate accumulation (Carlberg et al., 1983; Liu et al., 1993; Teixeria et al., 1994), regulation of medium pH for morphogenesis (Owen et al., 1991) and the creation of an environment that simulates soil dark conditions for the plant (Dumas et al., 1995). Also 5hydroxymethyl-furfural (a growth inhibitory chemical) produced during autoclaving from dehydration of sucrose will be removed by AC (Pan et al., 1998).

Table 1. Total phenol, total flavonoid and antioxidant activity in MeOH extracts of callus exposed to AC and MWCNT-COOH.

| Treatment | Total phenol ± STD μ(g galic acid in ml) | Total Flavonoid± STD (μg rutin in ml) | $IC_{50\pm}$ STD |
|-----------|--|---------------------------------------|------------------|
| AC=25 | 35.21 ± 0.04 | 233.33 ± 0.05 | 21.97 ± 1.2 |
| AC=50 | 37.63 ± 0.03 | 235.41 ± 0.7 | 14.8 ± 0.81 |
| AC=100 | 45.38 ± 0.1 | 289.58 ± 0.8 | 10.9 ± 0.7 |
| AC=250 | 37.3 ± 0.06 | 437.5 ±1.11 | 9.1 ± 0.3 |
| AC=500 | 32.96 ± 0.08 | 314.58 ± 0.45 | 18.99 ±0.68 |
| Control | 36.63 ± 0.05 | 366.66 ± 0.56 | 18.95 ± 0.56 |
| CNT=25 | 32.55 ± 0.11 | 147.91±0.35 | 20.97 ± 0.9 |
| CNT=50 | 41.85 ± 0.2 | 364.58 ± 0.95 | 9 ±0.45 |
| CNT=100 | 42.63 ± 0.03 | 345.83 ± 0.46 | 8.04 ± 0.78 |
| CNT=250 | 35.8 ± 0.05 | 254.16 ±0.75 | 13.08 ± 1.3 |
| CNT=500 | 48.38 ± 0.06 | 308.33 ±0.39 | 10.24 ± 0.91 |

These data are consistent with the data obtained by Khodakovskaya *et al.* (2012) and Villagarcia *et al.* (2012), and disagree with some previous results (Lin *et al.*, 2009; Tan *et al.*, 2009). That different results have been obtained about the impact of carbon nanotubes on plant growth is attributable to several factors such as type of plant and medium, chemical and physical properties of nanotubes, the dose used, culture conditions and the duration that the plant was exposed to nanotubes.

AC and MWCNT-COOH both enhanced rosmarinic acid compared to control. Also carbon nanotubes indicated a further increase in the amount of rosmarinic acid in comparison with activated charcoal. AC concentrations up to 250 μ g/ml and MWCNT-COOH concentrations up to 100 μ g/ml, increased the amount of rosmarinic acid (Fig. 2).

The involvement of Phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL) in RA biosynthesis has been supported in several previous studies by an increase in the PAL activity preceding the RA accumulation induced by fungal (or yeast) elicitors and methyl jasmonate (MJ) in cell cultures of the Boraginaceae and Lamiaceae species (Mizukami *et al.*, 1992; Sumaryono *et al.*, 1991; Mizukami *et al.*, 1993; Szabo *et al.*, 1999). Yan *et al.* (2006) indicated that yeast extract and Ag⁺ induced biosynthesis of RA and phenolic compounds in the *Salvia miltiorrhiza* hairy roots and this

Since these carbon materials express a number of

genes, they may increase the expression of genes involved in the biosynthesis of rosmarinic acid and

caffeic acid. The mechanism of elicitation by AC and

MWCNT-COOH should be further investigated.

increase correlated with the tyrosine aminotransferase (TAT) activity.

It appears that AC and MWCNT-COOH as elicitors cause rosmarinic acid and caffeic acid to increase.

Table 2. Correlations among traits.

| IC 50 | Total flavonoid | Total phenol | RA content | CA content | |
|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|------------|------------|---|
| CA content | 1 | | | | _ |
| RA content | 0.363 | 1 | | | |
| Total phenol | 0.291 | 0.693* | 1 | | |
| Total flavonoid | -0.67 | 0.701* | 0.33 | 1 | |
| IC 50 | -0.328 | -0.94** | -0.74** | -0.59 | 1 |

*.Correlation Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

**.Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Total phenol, total flavonoid and antioxidant activity of MeOH extracts of callus after one month of treatment with AC and MWCNT-COOH (Table 1) were measured. Then, the correlation between these traits with the amount of rosmarinic acid and caffeic acid were studied (Table 2).



Fig. 1. Fresh and dry weight of calluses exposed to activated charcoal (AC) and multi-wall carbon nanotubes with carboxyl functional group (MWCNT-COOH).

Sloley *et al.* (2000) showed that the free-radical scavenging capacity of extracts of leaves and flowers of *Hypericum perforatum* correlated with the content of several flavonoids including quercetin and hyperoside. It has also been shown that there is a linear correlation between total phenolic content and ORAC (oxygen radical absorbance capacity) capacity of blackberry fruits and leaves (Wang and Lin, 2000). In this study, a positive correlation between

antioxidant activity and total phenol content was observed. In addition, a stronger positive correlation between the antioxidant activity and rosmarinic acid content was found. These data underline the role of rosmarinic acid as a potent antioxidant in plants.



Fig. 2. Rosmarinic acid and caffeic acid (g) contents in 100 g dry weight of callus after one month of treatment with activated charcoal (AC) and multi-wall carbon nanotubes with carboxyl functional group (MWCNT-COOH).

Since the first characteristic of the influence of stress on plants is growth reduction, the nanotubes and activated carbon at these concentrations cannot act as tension materials because they have a positive effect on callus growth. It showed that the AC and MWCNT-COOH can act as elicitors enhancing rosmarinic acid. These materials may increase primary metabolites such as amino acids tyrosine and phenylalanine which in turn increase the synthesis of rosmarinic acid. To further understand the process of increasing secondary metabolites such as rosmarinic acid and caffeic acid treated with AC and MWCNT-COOH it is required to have further studies at molecular level. On the other hand, the safety of nanotubes is still debated. However, since secondary metabolites are used, they can be used to increase the production of secondary metabolites in tissue culture conditions even if the nanotubes are not safe. However, their use in soil must be safe for the ecosystem and the environment.

References

Balasundaram G, Sato M, Webster TJ. 2006. Using hydroxyapatite nanoparticles and decreased crystallinity to promote osteoblast adhesion similar to functionalizing with RGD. Biomaterials **27**, 2798-2805.

Blois MS. 1958. Antioxidant determination by use of stable free radicals. Nature **181**, 1199-2000.

Bouwmeester H, Dekkers S, Noordam MY, Hagens WI, Bulder AS, de Heer C, ten Voorde SECGS, Wijnhoven WP, Marvin HJP, Sips AJ. 2009. Review of health safety aspects of nanotechnologies in food production. Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology **53**, 52-62.

Bruchez M, Moronne M, Gin P, Weiss S, Alivisatos AP. 1998. Semiconductor nanocrystals as fluorescent biological labels. Science **281**, 2013-2016.

Carlberg I, Glimelius K, Eriksson T. 1983. Improved culture ability of potato protoplasts by use of activated charcoal. Plant Cell Reports **2**, 223–5.

Dumas E, Monteuuis O. 1995. In vitro rooting of micropropagated shoots from juvenile and mature Pinus pinaster explants—influence of activated charcoal. Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult **40**, 231–5.

Emamifar A, Kadivar M, Shahedi M, Soleimanian-Zad S. 2010. Evaluation of nanocomposite packaging containing Ag and ZnO on shelf life of fresh orange juice. Innovative Food Science and Emerging Technologies **11**, 742-748.

Fridborg G, Pedersen M, Landstrom LE, Eriksson T. 1978. The effect of activated charcoal on tissue cultures: adsorption of metabolites inhibiting morphogenesis. Physiologia Plantarum **43**, 104–6.

Horner M, McComb JA, McComb AJ, Street HE. 1977. Ethylene production and plantlet formation by Nicotiana anthers cultured in the presence and absence of charcoal. Journal of Experimental Botany **28**, 1366–72.

Jamzad Z. 1996. *Satureja rechingeri* (Labiatae) – a new species from Iran. Naturhistorisches Museum Wien **98**, 75–77.

Khodakovskaya M, Dervishi E, Mahmood M, Xu Y, Li ZR, Watanabe F, Biris AS. 2009. Carbon nanotubes are able to penetrate plant seed coat and dramatically affect seed germination and plant growth. ACS Nano **3**, 3221–3227.

Khodakovskaya MV, de Silva K, Biris AS, Dervishi E, Villagarcia H. 2012. Carbon nanotubes induce growth enhancement of tobacco cells. ACS Nano 27, 2128-35.

Klaine SJ, Alvarez PJ, Batley GE, Fernandes TF, Handry RD, Lyon DY, Manendra S, McKaughlin MJ, Lead JR. 2008. Nanomaterials in the Environment: Behavior, Fate Bioavailability, and Effects. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry 27, 1825–1851.

Li WZ, Xie SS, Qian LX, Chang BH, Zou BS, Zhou WY, Zhao RA, Wang G. 1996. Large-Scale Synthesis of Aligned Carbon Nanotubes. Science 274, 1701-1703.

Lin C, Fugetsu B, Su Y, Watari F. 2009. Studies on toxicity of multi-walled carbon nanotubes on Arabidopsis T87 suspension cells. Journal of Hazardous Materials 170(2-3), 578-583.

Lister E, Wilson P. 2001. Measurement of total phenolics and ABTS assay for antioxidant activity (personal communication). Crop Research Institute, Lincoln, New Zealand. 235-239.

Liu MSC. 1993. Plant regeneration in cell suspension culture of sugarcane as affected by activated charcoal, medium composition and tissue culture. Taiwan Sugar, 18-25.

Ma J, Wong H, Kong LB, Peng KW. 2003. Biomimetic processing of nanocrystallite bioactive apatite coating on titanium. Nanotechnology 14, 619-623.

Mah C, Zolotukhin I, Fraites TJ, Dobson J, Batich C, Byrne BJ. 2000. Microsphere-mediated delivery of recombinant AAV vectors in vitro and in vivo. Molecular Therapy 1, S239.

Mizukami H, Ogawa T, Ohashi H, Ellis B.E. 1992. Induction of rosmarinic acid biosynthesis in lithospermum erythrorhizon cell suspension cultures by yeast extract. Plant Cell Reports 11, 480-483.

Mizukami H, Tabira E, Ellis BE. 1993. Methyl jasmonate-induced rosmarinic acid biosynthesis in lithospermum erythrorhizon cell suspension cultures, Plant Cell Reports 12, 706-709.

Nair R, Varghese SH, Nair BG, Maekawa T, Yoshida Y, Kumar DS. 2010. nanoparticulate material delivery to plants. Plant Science 179, 154-163.

Nam JM, Thaxton CC, Mirkin CA. 2003. Nanoparticles-based bio-bar codes for the ultrasensitive detection of proteins. Science 301, 1884-1886.

Owen HR, Wengerd D, Miller AR. 1991. Culture

medium pH is influenced by basal medium, carbohydrate source, gelling agent, activated charcoal, and medium storage method. plant cell reports 10, 583-6.

Pan MJ, Van Staden J. 1998. The use of charcoal in in vitro culture-a review. Plant Growth Regulation **26**, 155–63.

Panatarotto D, Prtidos CD, Hoebeke J, Brown F, Kramer E, Briand JP, Muller S, Prato M, Bianco A. 2003. Immunization with peptidefunctionalized carbon nanotubes enhances virusspecific neutralizing antibody responses. Chemistry and Biology 10, 961-966.

Philip GC, Keith B, Masa I, Zettl A. 2000. Extreme Oxygen Sensitivity of Electronic Properties of Carbon Nanotubes, Science 287(5459), 1801-1804.

Sharon M, Choudhary A, Kumar R. 2010. Nano technology in agricultural diseases and food safety. Journal of Phytology 2(4), 83-92.

Sloley BD, Urichuk LJ, Ling L, Gu LD, Coutts RT, Pang PK, Shan JJ. 2000. Chemical and pharmacological evaluation of Hypericum perforatum extracts. Acta pharmacologica Sinica 21, 1145-1152.

Sumaryono W, Proksch P, Hartmann T, Nimtz M. 1991. Induction of rosmarinic acid accumulation in cell suspension cultures of Orthosiphon aristatus after treatment with yeast extract. Phytochemistry 30, 3267-3271.

Szabo E, Thelen A, Petersen M. 1999. Fungal elicitor preparations and methyl jasmonate enhance rosmarinic acid accumulation in suspension cultures of Coleus blumei. Plant Cell Reports 18, 485-489.

Tan X, Lin C, Fugetsu B. 2009. Studies on toxicity of multi-walled carbon nanotubes on suspension rice

cells. Carbon 47(15), 3479-3487.

Teixeria JB, Sondahl MR, Kirby EG. 1994. Somatic embryogenesis from immature inflorescences of oil palm. Plant Cell Reports **13**, 247–50.

Theander O, Nelson DA. 1988. Aqueous, high temperature transformation of carbohydrates relative to utilization of biomass. Advances in Carbohydrate Chemistry and Biochemistry **46**, 273–326.

Villagarcia H, Dervishi E, de Silva K, Biris AS, Khodakovskaya MV. 2012. surface Chemistry of Carbon Nanotubes Impacts the Growth and Expression of water channel protein in Tomato Plants. Small **8**, 2328–2334.

Wang S, Mamedova N, Kotov NA, Chen W, Studer J. 2002. Antigen/antibody immune complex from CdTe nanoparticle bioconjugates. Nano Letters 2, 817-822.

Wang X, Han H, Liu X, Gu X, Chen K, Lu D. 2012. Multi-walled carbon nanotubes can enhance root elongation of wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) plants. Journal of Nanoparticle Research **14**, 841–851. **Wang SY, Lin HS.** 2000. Antioxidant activity in fruits and leaves of blackberry, raspberry and strawberry varies with cultivar and developmental stage. Agricultural and Food Chemistry **48**, 140–146.

Wang Y, Mirkin CA, Park SJ. 2009. Nanofabrication Beyond Electronics. ACS Nano 26, 1049–1056.

Weatherhead MA, Burdon J, Henshaw GG. 1978. Some effects of activated charcoal as an additive to plant tissue culture media. Journal of plant physiology **89**, 141–7.

Yan Q, Shi M, Ng J, Wu JY. 2006. Elicitorinduced rosmarinic acid accumulation and secondary metabolism enzyme activities in *Salvia miltiorrhiza* hairy roots. Plant Science **170**, 853-85.

Zheng L, Hong F, Lu S, Liu C. 2005. Effect of Nano-TiO 2 on Spinach of Naturally Aged Seeds and Growth of Spinach. Biological Trace Element Research **104**, 83–91.

Zhishen J, Mengcheng T, Jianming W. 1999. The determination of flavonoid contents in mulberry and their scavenging effects on superoxide radicals. Food Chemistry **64(4)**, 555-559.