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A study on ethnomedicinal uses and phytochemistry of bryophytes; especially focusing on anticancer properties

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Abstract

Bryophytes, a relatively overlooked group of terrestrial plants, have long been utilized in traditional medicine for their therapeutic properties. Their unique morphology and physiology have made them valuable to various indigenous cultures for treating a wide range of health conditions. Bryophytes are noted for their diverse bioactive compounds, including alkaloids, flavonoids, terpenoids, and polyphenols, which contribute to their medicinal efficacy. These plants exhibit several therapeutic effects, such as anti-inflammatory, analgesic, antimicrobial, and antifungal properties. Research indicates that bryophytes possess a broad spectrum of pharmacological activities, including antioxidant, antitumor, and immunomodulatory effects. Extracts and isolated metabolites from bryophytes have demonstrated cytotoxicity against various cancer cell lines, with some compounds showing selective action against cancer cells. Additionally, the high antioxidant content of bryophytes may offer protective benefits against oxidative stress-related diseases, such as cancer, diabetes, and cardiovascular conditions. This review aims to provide a thorough examination of the current literature on the phytochemical composition, therapeutic uses, and pharmacological activities of bryophytes.

Keywords: Bryophytes, phytochemical, anti-cancerous, anti-apoptotic, cytotoxic activity, pharmacological activity

Introduction

Bryophytes, commonly referred to as the 'amphibians of the plant kingdom,' occupy an intermediate taxonomic position between thallophytes (algae) and pteridophytes. This group is subdivided into three primary categories: Bryophyta, which includes approximately 14,000 species of mosses; Marchantiophyta, comprising around 6,000 species of liverworts; and Anthocerotophyta, which consists of approximately 300 species of hornworts (Hallingbäck, T., & Hodgetts, N. (2000) [20]. Status Survey and Conservation Action Plan for Bryophytes. Mosses, Liverworts, and Hornworts. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland., n.d.). Bryophytes are found in a diverse range of habitats globally, from arid deserts to frigid polar regions, though they are typically absent from marine environments. As photosynthetic, nonvascular plants, bryophytes are notably characterized by their lack of true roots, stems, and leaves. Instead, they possess simple structures called rhizoids, which anchor the plants to the substrate and facilitate the absorption of water and nutrients from the surrounding environment (Glime, 2007)^[16]. Ecologically, bryophytes play a significant role by providing a buffering system for other plant species. Their utility extends to various applications, including serving as indicators of environmental changes, controlling soil erosion, detecting heavy metals in air pollution, acting as aquatic bioindicators, and assessing levels of radioactivity (Harris, 2008) [21]. Additionally, bryophytes provide materials for seed beds, fuel, medicinal substances, and food sources. They also contribute to nitrogen fixation, promote moss gardening, aid in waste treatment, and are used in construction, clothing, furnishing, and packaging. Moreover, bryophytes facilitate genetic engineering and enhance soil conditioning and cultivation (Glime, 2007)^[16]. Bryophytes are recognized for their ability to accumulate soluble phenylpropanoids, including flavonoids and lignans. Flavonoids, a class of secondary plant metabolites, are

known for their antioxidant and UV-protective properties. Lignans, another type of secondary metabolite, are structurally related to lignin and exhibit antitumor and antiinflammatory effects (Xie et al., 2010). Research indicates that bryophytes can synthesize a diverse range of flavonoids and lignans, and the accumulation of these compounds may contribute to their environmental adaptation (Charron & Quatrano, 2009) ^[10]. For example, certain bryophytes have been observed to accumulate flavonoids in response to UV radiation, which can damage their delicate tissues (Asakawa et al., 1982)^[4]. Additionally, some bryophytes produce lignans as a defensive strategy against herbivores and parasites. Bryophytes represent a diverse and complex group of plants capable of synthesizing a broad spectrum of phytochemical compounds. Mosses, for instance, produce polyphenolic compounds such as catechin and quercetin, in addition to terpenoids and alkaloids. Liverworts, another subgroup of bryophytes, are known for their production of various acyclic and cyclic diterpenes, as well as bis(bibenzyls) and other phenolic compounds (Asakawa, 2007; Asakawa et al., 1982) ^[3, 4]. These phytochemicals exhibit a range of biological activities and fulfill various ecological functions. For example, the polyphenolic compounds in mosses may possess antioxidant and antimicrobial properties, while the diterpenes in liverworts may function as insecticides or provide protection against UV radiation. The alkaloids synthesized by hornworts may exhibit antimicrobial or insecticidal properties, whereas the phytosterols present in these plants may contribute to growth and development (K. Kumar et al., 2000; P. Kumar & Chaudhary, 2010) ^[33, 34]. The extensive diversity of phytochemical compounds in bryophytes underscores their remarkable adaptability to diverse environmental conditions. This diversity not only highlights the ecological importance of bryophytes but also suggests their potential for applications in medicine, agriculture, and other fields

(Lubaina *et al.*, 2014) ^[39]. Future research should focus on further elucidating the mechanisms behind their phytochemical synthesis and exploring novel applications of these compounds in various industries.

Methodology

A comprehensive literature review was undertaken to investigate the pharmacological properties, phytochemistry, and therapeutic potential of bryophytes. This review involved an extensive analysis of scientific articles and journals sourced from esteemed databases such as Scopus, Web of Science, PubMed, Google Scholar, ScienceDirect, ResearchGate, and Dlad4. The search utilized specific "antitumor," terms. including "anticancer." "antiproliferative," and "therapeutic uses of bryophytes." To assess the toxicity of various bioactive compounds, electronic databases such as ProTox-II, IMPPAT, and Molinspiration were consulted. Table 1 summarizes the ethnomedicinal properties of bryophytes, while Table 2 outlines the anticancer compounds identified in these plants, including CID (Chemical Identifier) numbers as listed in PubChem. Figure 2 illustrates the molecular structures of these anticancer bioactive compounds, and Table 3 presents their toxicity profiles.

Bryophytes and Ethnobotany

Bryophytes, including mosses, liverworts, and hornworts, have been used in traditional medicine, cuisine, and crafts for centuries. Despite their historical use, scholarly attention to their ethnobotanical applications, especially in healthcare, has been limited, likely due to a perception of minimal impact on human health. Approximately 136 bryophyte species are documented for ethnobotanical use globally. This review highlights their medicinal applications in Chinese, Indian, and Native American traditions. Factors such as low biomass production and species identification challenges contribute to their limited medicinal use.

However, in regions with substantial bryophyte biomass, such as colder and tropical climates, their use is more prominent. For example, traditional Chinese medicine utilizes around 40 bryophyte species, with Conocephalum conicum and Marchantia polymorpha used in ointments for skin conditions. Sphagnum teres treats eye disorders, and Haplocladium microphyllum is used for respiratory and urinary conditions. Polytrichum commune has antipyretic, diuretic, and hemostatic properties, while Plagiochasma appendiculatum is used in India for skin ailments. Bryophytes, such as those producing Sphagnol, are also recognized for treating skin disorders. Their role in forming Shilajit, a traditional medicine, underscores their healing properties. Ethnobotanical research has significantly contributed to discovering new pharmaceutical agents. For instance, Fontinalis antipyretica exhibits antiproliferative and antimicrobial activities, while Polytrichum juniperinum shows antibacterial properties. Additionally, Marchantia polymorpha has antiviral and antifungal activities



Fig 1: Medicinal Usage of Bryophytes

S.no	Species name	Family	Bioactive compound	Pharmacological activity	Reference
1	Polytrichum pallidisetum	Polytrichaceae.	Pallidisetin A, Pallidisetin B	Anti-inflammatory, cytotoxic agent	(Ivanova <i>et al.</i> , 2007) ^[24]
2	Bazzanianovaezelandiae	Lophoziaceae.	Naviculyl caffeate	As cytotoxic agent	(Burgess et al., 2000) [9]
3	Taxiphyllum taxirameum	Pylaisiaceae	phenols	Homeostasis and wound healing	(Asakawa <i>et al.</i> , 2013) [5]
4	Fissidens nobilis	Fissidentaceae	Terpenoids	Hairfall treatment	(Azuelo et al., 2011) [6]
5	Rhodobryum roseum	Bryaceae	Phenols and Flavinoids	Nervous disorder treatment	(G. Pant & Tewari, 1989) ^[43]
6	Targionia hyphophylla	Targioniaceae	Alkaloids	Antibacterial	(Rycroft et al., 2001) ^[45]
7	Philonotis sp	Bartramiaceae	Triterpenoid, saponins	Antidotal, antipyretic agent	(Asakawa, 2007) ^[3]
8	Plagiochasma intermedlum	Aytoniaceae	Neomarchantin A, Riccardin C	Antifungal activity	(Xie et al., 2010)
9	Reboulia hemisphaerica	Aytoniaceae	Marchantiaquinone	Antifungal and anti-platelet medication	(Wei <i>et al.</i> , 1995)
10	Hypnum cupressiforme	Hypnaceae	cupressuflavone	Used as an antimicrobial and antifungal agent	(Veljić et al., 2009)
11	Rhodobryum giganteum	Bryaceae	P-hydroxycinnamic acid,7–8 dihydroxy-coumarin	Antidiuretic properties and cardiovascular properties	(Ding, 1982) ^[13]
12	Targionia sp.	Targioniaceae	11- dihydrodehydrocostuslactone	Antifungal agent	(Remesh & Manju, 2009) ^[44]
13	Marchantia palmate	Marchantiaceae	Marchantin A	To treat Boils and abscesses.	(G. Pant & Tewari, 1989) ^[43]
14	Radula sp.	Radulaceae	Perrottetin E, Radulanin K	Antimicrobial activity	(Veljić et al., 2009)
15	Herbertus aduncus	Herbertaceae	(-)-Alpha-herbertenol, (-)-beta -herbertenol	Antifungal agent	(Xie et al., 2010)

Table 1: Summary of different phytochemicals and therapeutic activities of bryophytes

16	Pellia endiviifolia	Pelliaceae	Sacculatal, Polygodial, Eudesmanolides	Skin disorder, Microbial	(Asakawa <i>et al.</i> , 2013) [5]
17	Frullania muscicola	Frullaniaceae	3-hydroxy-4'-	Antifungal activites	Lou <i>et al</i> 2002) [38]
17	Глинани тизсисона	Tunamaceae	methoxybibenzyl	Antifungai activites	Lou <i>et ut.</i> , 2002) ^{e 3}
18	Riccardia marginata	Aneuraceae	benzyl	Anti-microbial activity	
19	Radula complanate	Radulaceae	3,5-dihydroxy-4-(2, 3-epoxy- 3-methyl butyl) bibenzyl	Antimicrobial activity	(Veljić et al., 2009)
20	Chandonanthus hirtellus	Scapaniaceae	Alpha -bisabolene, anastreptene, chandonanthone, setiformenol and barbylicopodin	Antioxidant properties	(Komala <i>et al.</i> , 2010) ^[32]
21	Reboulia hemisphaerica	Rebouliaceae	Benzoquinone	Hemostasis promotes wound healing.	(Wei et al., 1995)
22	Frullania tamarisci	Frullaniaceae	Tamariscol, frullanolide	Antiseptic activity	(Lou et al., 2002) ^[38]
23	Cratoneuron filicinum	Cratoneuronaceae	Terpenoids, acetogenins	Cardiovascular disease	(G. Pant & Tewari, 1989) ^[43]
24	Philonotis Fontana	Philonotaceae	Alcohol, amides, aromatic amines	Treat heat burns.	Remesh & Manju, 2009) ^[44]
25	Oreas martina	Aneuraceae	Glycosides, fatty acids, terpenoids	Treats epilepsy, haemostasis, and neurological diseases.	(Asakawa <i>et al.</i> , 2013) [5]
26	Ditrichum pallidum	Ditrichaceae	Phenols, fatty acids	Treats for convulsions	(G. Pant & Tewari, 1989) ^[43]
27	Weisia viridula	Weisiaceae	Phenols	Antimicrobial activity	(Asakawa <i>et al.</i> , 2013) ^[5]
28	Plagiochasma appendiculantum	Plagiochasmaceae	Alkaloids, flavonoids, carbohydrates, saponins	It heals skin disorders.	(Asakawa <i>et al.</i> , 2013) [5]
29	Dumortiera hirsuta	Dumortiaceae	Riccardin D	As antibiotics and anticancer drugs.	(Azuelo et al., 2011) ^[6]
30	Leptodictyum riparium	Hypnaceae	Phenolic compounds	It is used to treat uropathy.	(G. Pant & Tewari, 1989) ^[43]
31	Rhodobryum roseum	Bryaceae	Flavonoids and phenols	Used to treat cardiovascular diseases and nervous disorders.	(G. Pant & Tewari, 1989) ^[43]
32	Fissidens nobilis	Fissidentaceae	Terpenoids	Treatment of hair loss	(Azuelo et al., 2011) ^[6]
33	Taxiphyllum taxirameum	Pylaisiaceae	Phenols	Haemostasis, external wound therapy	(Asakawa <i>et al.</i> , 2013) [5]
34	Mnium cuspidatum	Mniaceae	Saponarin, flavonoids	used to treat nose bleeding	(G. Pant & Tewari, 1989) ^[43]
35	Marchantia polymorpha	Marchantiaceae	Marchantin E, Marchantin A	Anticancer, antipyretic, and antibacterial activity	(Beike <i>et al.</i> , 2010, 2010) ^[7]
36	Marchantia papillate	Marchantiaceae	Bibenzyl, Riccardin C, Fatty acids, steroids	Anti-inflammatory, treat inflammation caused by fire, and antibacterial, treat blisters.	Karpiński& Adamczak, 2017) ^[28]
37	Marchantia linearis	Marchantiaceae	Flavonoid	Antifungal agent	(Xie et al., 2010)
38	Marchantia convoluta	Marchantiaceae	Flavonoid	Antiviral (hepatitis B), anti- inflammatory, and cytotoxic	(Chen & XIAO, 2005) [11]
39	Marchantia polymorpha	Marchantiacea-e	Plagiochin E	Antifungal, macrocyclic bis (bibenzyl) against Candida albicans	(Xie et al., 2010)
40	Marchantia paleacea	Marchantiacea-e	Flavonoids, saponins	Antimicrobial activity	(Siregar <i>et al.</i> , 2021) ^[49]
41	Asterella angusta	Asterellaceae	Alkaloids, coumarins, flavonoids	Antibacterial, antifungal agent	(Khurram <i>et al.</i> , 2011) [29]
42	Entodon myurus	Entodontaceae	Entodonin	Antibacterial agent	(Singh et al., 2011) ^[48]
43	Bryum argenteum	Bryaceae	Bryomycin	Used as an Anti-fungal remedy	(Frahm, 2004) ^[15]
44	Plagiochasma appendiculatum	Rebouliaceae	Plagiochasmic acid	To treat boils, and blisters.	(K. Kumar <i>et al.</i> , 2000) ^[33]
45	Haplocladium microphyllum	Thuidiaceae	haplocladin	To cure bronchitis, tonsillitis, pneumonia, and fever.	(Ding, 1982) ^[13]
46	Weisia viridula	Pottiaceae	weisiolide	Relieving cold and fever symptoms.	(G. P. Pant, 1998) ^[42]
47	Trichosteleum papillosum	Sematophyll-aceae	Trichostelone	Rheumatism	(Boom, 1996) ^[8]
48	Timmiella sp.	Pottiaceae	Timmielactone.	Anti-inflammatory	(E. S. Harris, 2008a) ^[21]
49	Thuidium cymbifolium	Thuidiaceae	Thuidine, Thuidiumol	To address burn injuries.	(E. S. Harris, 2008a) ^[21]
50	Tetraplodon mnioides	Splachnaceae	Tetraplodonin	i of ephepsy, sedative, and	(E. S. Harris, 2008a) ^[21]
	1 en aproach miniciaes	1		stroke therapy	

52	Meteoriella soluta	Pterobryaceae	Meteoriellin	It calms and may alleviate external, gastrointestinal, and lung bleeding.	(Ding, 1982) ^[13]
53	Leucodon secundus Leucodontaceae		Leucodone,	Head, neck, and abdominal pain	(Negi, 2020) ^[41]
54	Dendropogonella rufescens	Cryphaeaceae	Dendropogone	Pulmonary and renal health, Diabetes-related vision problems, Post-delivery pain, appetite stimulant	(Hernández-Rodríguez & López-Santiago, 2022) ^[23]

Pharmacological activity of bryophytes Anti-cancerous compounds

Bryophytes produce a wide range of secondary metabolites with significant biological activities, including cytotoxicity. Notably, bibenzyl compounds and their dimers, such as bis(bi)benzyls, exhibit diverse biological properties, including anti-cancer, antimicrobial, antioxidant effects, liver X receptor alpha (LXRa) activation, HIV prevention, and modulation of various enzymes like cyclooxygenase, lipoxygenase, tyrosinase, calmodulin, and microtubule polymerization. Secondary metabolites from bryophytes are recognized for their therapeutic potential, demonstrating potent radical scavenging, antimicrobial, and pro-apoptotic activities. Methoxylated bibenzyls, such as Brittonin A and Brittonin B from the liverwort Frullania inouei, show significant cytotoxicity with half-maximal inhibitory concentrations (ID50) between 11.3 and 49.6 µM against various human tumor cell lines, including KB, KB/VCR, K562, and K562/A02, and exhibit multi-drug resistance (MDR). Additionally, sesquiterpene lactones like eudesmanolides, germacranolides, and guaianolides from liverworts also show cytotoxic effects against KB nasopharyngeal carcinoma and P-388 lymphocytic leukemia cells. A variety of novel naturally occurring compounds from bryophytes exhibit significant cytotoxic and cytostatic properties. Prominent examples include 4-epiarbusculin, oxyfrullanolide, 8,α-acetoxyzaluzanin C, diplophyllin, epoxyfrullanolide, marchaintin A, riccardin B, and perrottetin E. Additionally, maytansinoid and 15methoxyansamitocin P-3, derived from moss species, have shown notable antitumor activity

A variety of novel compounds derived from bryophytes demonstrate significant cytotoxic and cytostatic properties. Key examples include 4-epiarbusculin, oxyfrullanolide, $8,\alpha$ - acetoxyzaluzanin C, diplophyllin, epoxyfrullanolide, marchaintin A, riccardin B, and perrottetin E. Additionally, maytansinoid and 15-methoxyansamitocin P-3, isolated from moss species, exhibit notable antitumor activity. Compounds such as Isoplagiochin A and B from Plagiochila fruticosa inhibit tubulin polymerization with IC50 values of 50 and 25 µg/ml, respectively. Lunularin from Dumortiera hirsuta shows moderate cytotoxicity against the HepG2 human liver cancer cell line with an IC50 value of 7.4 µg/ml and exhibits antimicrobial activity against Pseudomonas aeruginosa with a minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of 64 µg/ml. Plagiochin E from Marchantia polymorpha effectively reverses multidrug resistance and induces G2/M cell cycle arrest by downregulating specific cell cycle genes, enhancing cytochrome c release, nuclear fragmentation, and metacaspase activation, thus promoting apoptosis. Cyclic bis-bibenzyl compounds from Marchantia polymorpha, including Marchantin A, B, and C, exhibit notable biological activities; Marchantin C shows cytotoxic effects against P388 leukemia cells and pro-apoptotic effects on human glioma A172 cells. Paleatin B, an acyclic bis-bibenzyl from Marchantia paleacea var. diptera, demonstrates cytotoxicity against KB and P-388 cell lines and inhibits DNA polymerase β and cyclooxygenase with an IC50 of 45.2 µM. Ansamitocin P-3, from Claopodium crispifolium and Anomodon attenuatus, exhibits significant toxicity against A-549 and HT-29 human solid tumor cell lines. Additionally, Diplophyllin, an ent-eudesmanolide from Diplophyllum ablicans and D. taxifolium, shows substantial anticancer activity against human epidermoid carcinoma.

The table 2 provides molecular structures, CID numbers, and corresponding bioactivities of these anticancerous compounds.

Bryophytes Plant SPP.	Bioactive Compound	CID NO.	Medicinal uses	Reference
Polytrichum juniperinum	Ohioensin-A	442531	Anti-cancerous activity	(Zheng et al., 1989)
Dumortiera hirsute	Lunularin	181511	Anti-cancerous activity	(Asakawa et al., 2013) ^[5]
Diplophyllum spp.	Diplophyllin,	315677	Cytotoxic activity	(Asakawa et al., 2013) ^[5]
Porella spp.	Perottetianal A	13874392	Anticancer activity	(Dey & Mukherjee, 2015) ^[12]
	Porelladiolide	102117199	Anticancer activity	(Dey & Mukherjee, 2015) ^[12]
Plagiochila sp.	Plagiochilin A	10315867	Cytotoxic activity	(Asakawa <i>et al.</i> , 2013) ^[5]
	4E- dodecadienoate	5565651	Anticancer activity	(Toyota <i>et al.</i> , 1998) ^[50]
	Sacculatal	14285716		(Jones & Rose, 1975) ^[26]
	Poligodial	72503		(Toyota <i>et al.</i> , 1998) ^[50]
Marchantia polymorpha L	Marchantin A	442710	5-lipoxygenase inhibitory activity	(Asakawa et al., 2013) ^[5]
	Marchantin B	5319271	5-lipoxygenase inhibitory activity	(Asakawa et al., 1982) ^[4]
	Marchantin C	5319272	Cell cycle arrest	(Dey & Mukherjee, 2015) ^[12]
	Marchantin E	5319274	Inhibit tubulin polymerisation	(Asakawa et al., 1982) ^[4]
	Plagiochin E	16757518	Reverse of multi drug resistance	(Shi et al., 2008) ^[47]
	Marchantin M	90667793	Apoptosis	(HP. Liu et al., 2012) ^[36]
Conocephalum conicum	Germacranolide-s	10825511	Anti-cancerous activity	(Asakawa et al., 2013) ^[5]
	Bicyclogermacre-ne	13894537		(Asakawa, 1990) ^[2]
Frullania sp.	Costunolide	5281437	Cytotoxic activity	(Kim et al., 1996) ^[30]
	Germacradienol	16667385	Cytotoxic activity	(Kim et al., 1996) ^[30]

Table 2: List of Anti-Cancerous Compound of Bryophytes

Bazzania sp.	Cyclomyltaylyl-3-caffeate	101610238	Anticancer activity	(Hashimoto & Asakawa, 2000) ^[22]
	Viridiflorol	11996452	Cytotoxic activity	(Hashimoto & Asakawa, 2000) ^[22]
	Gumnomitrol	14100432	Anticancer activity	(Hashimoto & Asakawa, 2000) ^[22] ,
	Gymnollittol	14109432	Anticancer activity	(Scher et al., 2004) ^[46]
	5-Hydroxycalamenene	13993189	Anti-cancer activity	(Hashimoto & Asakawa, 2000) ^[22] ,
	3-11ydroxyearanienene	13773107	Anti-cancer activity	(Scher <i>et al.</i> , 2004) ^[46]
	7-Hydroxycalamenene	3015179	Cytotoxic activity	(Hashimoto & Asakawa, 2000) ^[22] ,
	/ Hydroxyediamenene	5015177	Cytotoxic activity	$(\text{Scher } et al., 2004)^{[46]}$
	Drimenol	3080551	Cytotoxic activity	,(Hashimoto & Asakawa, 2000) ^[22] ,
	Dimenor	5000551	Cytotonic activity	(Scher <i>et al.</i> , 2004) ^[46]
Pellia endivifolia	10,10'-Dihydroxyperrottetin	10253626	Cytotoxic activity	(Ivković et al., 2021) ^[25]
	10'-Hydroyyperrottetin F	101712208	Cytotoxic activity	(Ivković at al. 2021) ^[25]
	Perrottatin E	10646005	Cytotoxic activity	(Ivković et al. 2021)
D	New website Coffeete	5471270		$(100000 et at., 2021)^{[0]}$
Bazzania novaezelanalae	Naviculyi Carleate	54/12/9		$(Burgess et al., 2000)^{[2]}$
Clasmatocolea vermicularis	Diplophyllolide A	11053496		(Lorimer <i>et al.</i> , 1997) ^[37]
Porella perrottetiana	Tulipinolide	5281504		(Komala <i>et al.</i> , 2011) ^[31]
Chandonantus hirtellus	Anadensin	14707350		(Komala <i>et al.</i> , 2011) ^[31]
Lepidozia reptans	Lepidozin G	162641043	Apoptosis and Mitochondrial membrane distrupt.	(Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2021)
Heteroscyphus tener	Isomanool	15923774	Cell cycle arrest	(Lin et al., 2014) ^[35]
Jungermannia faurian	Jungermannenone A	101751159	Cell cycle arrest	(Y. Guo et al., 2016) ^[19]
	Jungermannenone B	102465605	Apoptosis	(Y. Guo et al., 2016) ^[19]
Frullania inouei	Brittonin A	353077	Inhibition of proliferation.	(DX. Guo et al., 2010) ^[18]
	Brittonin B	46933838	Apoptosis	(DX. Guo et al., 2010) ^[18]
Plagiochila	Isonlagiashin D	44124 460	Inhibition of tubulin	(Marita at $al = 2000$) [40]
Fruticose	Isopiagiociiii B	44154 409	polymerization	(Monta $et at., 2009)$ (13)
	Isoplagioshin A	11026 227	Inhibition of tubulin	(Morita <i>et al.</i> , 2009) ^[40]
	isopiagioenni A	11020 227	polymerization	

Table 3: Assessment of Phytochemical Toxicity

S no.	Phytochemical Compound	Carcinogenicity	Immunotoxicity	Mutagenicity	Cytotoxicity
1	Ohioensin-A	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Active
2	Lunularin	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
3	Diplophyllin	Active	Active	Inactive	Inactive
4	Perottetianal A	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
5	Porelladiolide	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
6	PlagiochilinA	Active	Inactive	Active	Inactive
7	4E- dodecadienoate	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
8	Sacculatal	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
9	Poligodial	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
10	Marchantin A	Active	Active	Inactive	Inactive
11	Marchantin 8	Active	Active	Inactive	Inactive
12	Marchantin C	Active	Active	Inactive	Inactive
13	Marchantin	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
14	Germacranolide5	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
15	Bicyclogermacrene	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
16	Costunolide	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
17	Germacradienol	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
18	CyclomyltayIyl-3-caffeate	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
19	Viridiflorol	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
20	Gymnomitrol	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
21	*Hydroxycalamenene	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
22	7-Hydroxycalamenene	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
23	Orimenol	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
24	Naviculyl Caffeate	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
25	Diplophyllolide A	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
26	Tulipinolide	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
27	Anedensin	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
28	Lepidozin G	Active	Active	Inactive	Inactive
29	Isomanool	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
30	JungermannenoneA	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
31	JungermannenoneB	Inactive	Active	Inactive	Inactive
32	arittonin A	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive	Inactive
33	Brittonin 8	Active	Active	Inactive	Inactive
34	Isoplagiochin 8	Active	Active	Inactive	Inactive
35	Isoplegiochin A	Active	Active	Inactive	Inactive

Structure of secondary metabolites

The secondary structure of phytochemical compounds derived from bryophytes, along with their corresponding CID numbers, plays a crucial role in computational drug discovery and in silico analyses. The secondary structure refers to the three-dimensional conformation of a compound, which is vital for identifying potential binding sites and interactions with target proteins or enzymes. This structural information is essential for the development of new pharmaceuticals or the optimization of existing therapeutic agents. CID numbers serve as unique identifiers within the PubChem database, a key resource in drug discovery and development, enabling researchers to access detailed information about specific compounds. Accurate toxicity prediction is critical for evaluating potential safety concerns associated with a compound, thereby enhancing the drug development process and reducing the need for animal testing. These parameters are fundamental to virtual screening and molecular docking studies, providing essential data that supports the development and refinement of pharmaceutical agents.



Fig 2: Secondary Structure of Phytochemical Compounds

Discussion and conclusion

Bryophytes are widely distributed globally, yet their chemical composition is not fully understood, with most research focusing on mosses and liverworts. These plants exhibit significant chemical diversity, including terpenoids, phenolics, biflavonoids, and stilbenoid-bibenzyls. Natural products and their derivatives are pivotal in drug discovery. This article provides an in-depth review of anticancer phytochemical compounds found in bryophytes, detailing their structures, SMILES formats, and functional properties to aid in virtual screening and molecular docking studies. It also addresses traditional topics like ethnobryology and summarizes the pharmacological properties of various phytochemicals. Despite progress, many phytochemicals in bryophytes remain unexplored for medicinal use. Effective methods for extracting, analyzing, and confirming these compounds, including their therapeutic and bioactive properties, are crucial for future drug development. This includes in-silico drug design techniques and exploring novel bibenzyl compounds for advancing complementary medicine and developing nutraceuticals.

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