

LETTER TO THE EDITOR**Phytotherapeutic options for the treatment of COVID-19:
A concise viewpoint**

In December 2019 in Wuhan city of China, a novel coronavirus emerged which was provisionally named as 2019-nCoV responsible for causing the Coronavirus Disease-2019 (COVID-19). As of May 2020, the WHO reported more than 4 million positive cases of COVID-19 all over the world.

Currently, no vaccine exists for the treatment of COVID-19 and limited therapeutic options are available (Li & De Clercq, 2020). For centuries, traditional medicines have been used to cure several diseases including viral infections (Ahmad et al., 2020). The phytotherapy-based approach to find new drugs have contributed as several plant species are a great source of modern medicines (Yaseen et al., 2019). Similarly, plant-derived active compounds have been studied as viral inhibitors for many years (Serkedjieva, Manolova, Zgórnjak-Nowosielska, Zawilińska, & Grzybek, 1990). This study was aimed to briefly describe the potential use of ethno-medicinal research in searching new therapeutic options against COVID-19 and other coronaviruses and to provide some important directions to researcher for planning future studies. We have summarized various medicinal plants and their reported antiviral activities in Table 1. There is the possibility that studies on plant-derived compounds listed in Table 1 have been not carried according to more recent scientific qualitative standards for plant-derived products (Heinrich et al., 2020). For example, there is the possibility that high concentrations or doses have been used. The antiviral activities of medicinal plants have been mostly derived from laboratory studies (as clinical data are limited) and referred to multicomponent preparation of traditional medicines (Liu, Zhang, He, & Li, 2012). Similarly, the qualitative standards for reporting clinical trials in herbal medicine are not as rigorous as in the conventional pharmaceutical field (Williamson, Liu, & Izzo, 2020). In a study in 2012, it was reported that traditional herbal remedies along with Western medicines could help to improve symptoms, absorptions of pulmonary infiltrations, life-quality, and decrease corticosteroids uses in SARS patients (Liu et al., 2012).

The Traditional Chinese Medicines (TCM) were highly considered by Government of China in their campaign against COVID-19. To evaluate the safety and efficacy of treatments for COVID-19 patients, China launched more than 300 clinical trials on March 1, 2020. Among

the total treatments, 16.5% (50 trials) were linked to the use TCM where 4.6% (14 cases) were linked to examine the combine use of Western medicine and TCM. Among the trials of TCM, 22 (7.3%) were launched to evaluate the efficacy of self-made herbal preparations including QingYi-4, Xin Guan-1 Formula and Xin Guan-2 Formula. The commercially available TCM products like Lian Hua Qing Wen capsules and Tan Re Qing injections were also studied in 14 (4.6%) trials (Yang et al., 2020). The therapeutic effects of TCM herbal remedies for the treatment of SARS coronavirus have also been published (Luo et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2020). Regardless the complex formulation of TCM, herbs such as *Scutellaria baicalensis* and *Glycyrrhiza glabra* were available in tested TCM preparations. The extracted baicalin and glycyrrhizin compounds from the mentioned herbs have in vitro evidences of anticoronaviral activity (Chen et al., 2004). The anti-coronavirus TCM remedies included plants such as *Lonicerae japonicae*, *Saposhnikovia divaricate*, *Forsythia Vahl*, and *Atractylodis macrocephalae* (Luo et al., 2020). This could identify new directions for future research.

For the treatment of coronavirus infections, two different research streams could be possibly followed to search useful phytotherapeutic compounds. One option is the herbal remedies that have potential preventive effects especially boosting the immune responses, that is, *Echinacea purpurea* and *Astragalus membranaceus* (Block & Mead, 2003). Astragals has been used in TCM herbal formulation against SARS (Liu et al., 2012). Immunomodulatory properties of polysaccharides and *Uncaria tomentosa* (from medicinal mushrooms) could also be used. The second option is the herbal remedies with therapeutic effects that have different antiviral mechanism of action. Regardless the etiology, clinical studies have proposed extract from plants, such as *Pelargonium sidoides* and *Sambucus nigra* to treat the infection of respiratory system (Agbabiaka, Guo, & Ernst, 2008; Hawkins, Baker, Cherry, & Dunne, 2019; Kalus et al., 2009). The anti-coronaviral activities of polyphenols and pelargonium has also been studied (Michaelis, Doerr, & Cinatl Jr, 2011; Weng et al., 2019). A set of compounds such as quercetin, kaempferol, and cryptotanshinone have been identified with anti-SARS-CoV action (Zhang, Wu, Zhang, Deng, & Peng, 2020). Active compounds derived from medicinal plants has different antiviral mechanisms, such as viral pentation inhibition, replication inhibition or inhibiting the SARS-3CLpro activity (Yang et al., 2020). Such studies can expand the area of plant-based products to be investigated in future experiments. Similarly, the phytotherapy can be useful in the management or prevention the adverse effects of conventional drugs (Yang et al., 2020).

Abbreviations: ADV, Aleutian disease virus; CMV, Cytomegalovirus; CVB, Coxsackie B virus; CXV, Cactus X virus; ESV, Espíritu Santo virus; HBV, Hepatitis B virus; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; HSV, Herpes simplex virus; JEV, Japanese encephalitis virus; KSHV, Kaposi sarcoma herpes virus; PV, polio virus; RSV, respiratory syncytial virus; SARS-CoV, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus; VHSH, viral hemorrhagic septicemia virus; VSV, vesicular stomatitis virus; VV, vaccinia virus; VZV, varicella zoster virus.

TABLE 1 Medicinal plants and reported antiviral compounds

| S. No. | Plant name | Family | Active compounds | Effective against virus | References |
|--------|---------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1 | <i>Plantago major</i> L. | Plantaginaceae | Caffeic acid, chlorogenic acid | HSV-I, HSV-II, ADV-III, and ADV-II | Nazarizadeh, Mikaili, Moloudizargari, Aghajanshakeri, & Javaherypour, 2013; Samuelsen, 2000 |
| 2 | <i>Solanum torvum</i> | Solanaceae | Torvanol-A, Torvanol-H | HSV-I | Ikeda et al., 2000 |
| 3 | <i>Euphorbia jokini</i> | Euphorbiaceae | Diterpenes, putranjivain A | HSV-II | Cheng et al., 2004 |
| 4 | <i>Cassia javanica</i> | Caesalpinaceae | Ent-epiafel-echin(4a-8) epiafelzechin(EEE.S) | HSV-II | Kashiwada et al., 1990 |
| 5 | <i>Melaleuca alternifolia</i> | Myrtaceae | Isoborneal | HSV-I | Hammer, Carson, & Riley, 2002 |
| 6 | <i>Phyllanthus amarus</i> | Phyllanthaceae | Elgic acid | HBV | Blumberg, Millman, Venkates, & Thyagarajan, 1990 |
| 7 | <i>Bohmeria nivea</i> | Urticaceae | | HBV | Chang, Huang, Yuan, Lai, & Hung, 2010 |
| 8 | <i>Camellia sinensis</i> | Theaceae | Tannic acid, theaflavin 3 gallate, theaflavin-33-gallate | HIV, HCV, influenza | Oh et al., 2013 |
| 9 | <i>Dryopteris crassirhizoma</i> | Dryopteridaceae | Kampferol | HIV | Min, Tomiyama, Nakamura, & Hattori, 2001 |
| 10 | <i>Paeonia lactiflora</i> | Paeoniaceae | Penta- <i>o</i> -gallyl- β D-glucose | HBV | Lee, Lee, Jung, & Mar, 2006 |
| 11 | <i>Verbescum thapsiforme</i> | Scrophulariaceae | Iridoid, phenyl thanoid | HSV-I, influenza A and B, H7N | Zgorniak-Nowosielska, Grzybek, Manolova, Serkedjjeva, & Zawilńska, 1991 |
| 12 | <i>Radix glycyrrhiza</i> | Fabaceae | Glycyrrhizin | Influenza, SARS-CoV | Fang et al., 2007; Yang, Islam, Wang, Li, & Chen, 2020 |
| 13 | <i>Aesculus chinensis</i> | Sapindaceae | Flavonoids | RSV, influenza, rubella | Liu, Wang, Lee, Wang, & Du, 2008; Wei et al., 2004 |
| 14 | <i>Melia azedarach</i> | Meliaceae | Mellicine, cinnamoyl dihydroxymeliacarpin | HSV-I and HSV-II, Junin virus, Sindbis virus, VSV, poliovirus, pseudorabies virus, tacaribe virus | Andrei, Coto, & de Torres, 1985; Andrei, Damonte, de Torres, & Coto, 1988; Andrei, Lampuri, Coto, & De Torres, 1986; Castilla, Barquero, Mersich, & Coto, 1998 |
| 15 | <i>Humulus lupulus</i> | Cannabaceae | Xanthohumol | HSV and HIV | Wang, Ding, Liu, & Zheng, 2004 |
| 16 | <i>Melissa officinalis</i> | Lamiaceae | Citral a, citral b, citronellal, monoterpenes, aldehydes, lemon balm oil | HSV | Cohen, Kucera, & Herrmann, 1964 |
| 17 | <i>Prunella vulgaris</i> | Lamiaceae | Rosmarinic acid, phenol like apigenin, luteolin derivatives | HIV | Yao, Wainberg, & Parniak, 1992 |
| 18 | <i>Geum japonicum</i> | Rosaceae | Ursolic acid, maslinic acid | CMV | Yukawa et al., 1996 |
| 19 | <i>Ocimum basilicum</i> | Lamiaceae | Ursolic acid (HSV-I), apigenin (HSV-II) | HSV-I and HSV-II | Yucharoen, Anuchapreeda, & Tragoolpua, 2011 |
| 20 | <i>Glycyrrhiza glabra</i> | Fabaceae | Glycyrrhizic acid | VV, HSV, VSV, VZV, SARS-COV, KSHV, HIV-1 HIV-II, and influenza virus | Fiore et al., 2008 |
| 21 | <i>Stephania cepharantha</i> | Menispermaceae | Cepharathine | HSV-I, CVB-3, HIV, SARS-CoV | Ma et al., 2002 |
| 22 | <i>Stylogne cauliflora</i> | | Oligophenols are involved in antiviral activity | HCV | M Patil, Masand, & Prakash Gupta, 2016 |

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| S. No. | Plant name | Family | Active compounds | Effective against virus | References |
|--------|-----------------------------------|----------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 23 | <i>Pithecellobium clypearia</i> | Leguminosae | 7-ogalloyltricitrifavan 7,4-di-ogalloylricetifavan | HSV-I, HSV-II, Junin virus, HBV, tataribe virus | Leung et al., 2006; Li, Leung, Yao, Ooi, & Ooi, 2006 |
| 24 | <i>Humulus lupulus</i> | Cannabaceae | Xanthohumol | HIV | Wang et al., 2004 |
| 25 | <i>Melissa officinalis</i> | Labiatae | Citral a, citral b, citronellal, monoterpenes, aldehydes, lemon balm oil | HSV | Allahverdiyev, Duran, Ozguven, & Koltas, 2004 |
| 26 | <i>Prunella vulgaris</i> | Ericaceae | Rosmarinic acid, phenol like apigenin, luteolin derivatives | HSV-I | Xu, Lee, White, & Blay, 1999 |
| 27 | <i>Geum japonicum</i> | Rosaceae | Triterpenes | HIV | Xu, Zeng, Wan, & Sim, 1996 |
| 28 | <i>Ocimum basilicum</i> | Lamiaceae | Ursolic acid (HSV-I), apigenin (HSV-II) | HSV-I and HSV-II | Yucharoen et al., 2011 |
| 29 | <i>Olea europea</i> | Oleaceae | Oleuropein, leaf extract | VHSV | Antunes et al., 2017 |
| 30 | <i>Glycine max</i> | Leguminosae | | ADV-I, CXV-B1 | Müller et al., 2007 |
| 31 | <i>Lycoris radiata</i> | Amaryllidaceae | Lycorine and alkaloids; 2-methoxy-6-ethyloduline, 2-methoxy-6-omethyloduline, trispherine | SARS-CoV, influenza | He et al., 2013 |
| 32 | <i>Blumea laciniata</i> | Asteraceae | Polyphenols | RSV | Li, Ooi, Wang, But, & Ooi, 2004 |
| 33 | <i>Geranium sanguineum</i> | Geraniaceae | Polyphenols | RSV, influenza | Chattopadhyay et al., 2009 |
| 34 | <i>Phyllanthus nanus</i> | Euphorbiaceae | | HBV | Lam et al., 2006 |
| 35 | <i>Ardisia chinensis</i> | Primulaceae | Phenolics | HBV | Leung et al., 2006 |
| 36 | <i>Alisma orientalis</i> | Alismataceae | 25-anhydroanisol, 13b,17b-epoxyalisol, alisol b-23-acetate, alisol F24 acetate, alisol F | HBV | Jiang et al., 2006 |
| 37 | <i>Acacia nilotica</i> | Fabaceae | Silybin, oxymatrine | HCV | Rehman, Ashfaq, Riaz, Javed, & Riazuddin, 2011 |
| 38 | <i>Nerium indicum</i> | Apocynaceae | Caffeoylquinic acid, quercetin, luteolin-5o-rutinosid | Influenza, HIV, HSV | Farahani, 2014; Kitazato, Wang, & Kobayashi, 2007 |
| 39 | <i>Elephantopus scabe</i> | Asteraceae | Polyphenols | RSV | Li, 2005 |
| 40 | <i>Eleutherococcus senticosus</i> | Araliaceae | Ethanolic extract of roots | HRV, RSV, influenza virus A | Glatthaar-Saalmüller, Sacher, & Esperester, 2001 |
| 41 | <i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> | Myrtaceae | Eugenin | HSV-I, EBV | Carvalho, Andrade, de Sousa, & de Sousa, 2015; Kurokawa et al., 1998 |
| 42 | <i>Azadiracta indica</i> | Meliaceae | Aqueous extract of leaves, azadiractin | Dengue virus | Parida, Upadhyay, Pandya, & Jana, 2002 |
| 43 | <i>Momordia charantia</i> | Cucurbitaceae | Lectin MA30 | Influenza | Ahmad, Javed, Rao, & Husnain, 2016 |
| 44 | <i>Euphorbia segetalis</i> | Euphorbiaceae | Lupenone | HSV-I and HSV-II | Álvarez, Habtemariam, & Parra, 2015 |

(Continues)


TABLE 1 (Continued)

| S. No. | Plant name | Family | Active compounds | Effective against virus | References |
|--------|--------------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| 45 | <i>Guazuma ulmifolia</i> | Malvaceae | Ethyl acetate extract | PV | Felipe et al., 2006 |
| 46 | <i>Argemone pilosa</i> | Rosaceae | Polyphenols | Influenza virus A and B | Shin, Lee, Park, & Seong, 2010 |
| 47 | <i>Punica granatum</i> | Lythraceae | Polyphenols | HSV-1, norovirus | Živković et al., 2018 |
| 48 | <i>Myrica rubra</i> | Myricaceae | Rodelphinidin-di-ogallate | HSV-1 | Cheng et al., 2003 |
| 49 | <i>Podophyllum peltatum</i> | Berberidaceae | Podohyllotoxin | Measles, HSV | Bedows & Hatfield, 1982 |
| 50 | <i>Psiadia dentate</i> | Asteraceae | 3-methylkaemfero | PV | Robin, Boustie, Amoros, & Girre, 1998 |
| 51 | <i>Loranthus yadoriki</i> | Loranthaceae | Camp B,C | Coxsackie virus | Wang, Yang, Huang, Wen, & Liu, 2000 |
| 52 | <i>Scutellaria baicalensis</i> | Lamiaceae | Isoscutellarein-8methyl ether (5,7,4trihydroxy-8methoxyflavone) | Influenza A | Nagai, Moriguchi, Suzuki, Tomimori, & Yamada, 1995 |
| 53 | <i>Poncirus trifoliata</i> | Rutaceae | Flavonoids, coumarins, and triterpenoid | Influenza | Heo et al., 2018 |
| 54 | <i>Dianella longifolia</i> | Asphodelaceae | Chrysophanic acid | PV | Semple, Pyke, Reynolds, & Flower, 2001 |
| 55 | <i>Calophyllum lanigerum</i> | Calophyllaceae | Calinone A-1, calonide B-4 | HIV-1 | Kashman et al., 1992 |
| 56 | <i>Curcuma longa</i> | Zingiberaceae | Curcumin, curcuminoids | HIV-1, HBV, influenza | Zorofchian Moghadamtousi et al., 2014 |
| 57 | <i>Dropteris crassirhizoma</i> | Dryopteridaceae | Dryocrassin ABBA, Extract, kaemferol acetylthamnoside | Dengue virus | Maryam et al., 2020 |
| 58 | <i>Scutellaria baicalensis</i> | Lamiaceae | Baicalin, isoscutellarein n-8-methylether, wagonin, oroxylin A | Influenza A and B, RSV, hepatitis B | Hour et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2002 |
| 59 | <i>Urtica dioica</i> | Urticaceae | n-acetylglucosamine | HIV-1, HIV-II, influenza A | De Clercq, 2000; Rajbhandari et al., 2009 |
| 60 | <i>Brazilian propolis</i> | Asteraceae | Moronic acid, kaemferol | HIV, influenza virus | Ito et al., 2001; Kai et al., 2014 |
| 61 | <i>Artemisia annua L.</i> | Asteraceae | friedelan3-β-ol, artemetin, and quercetageitin 6,7,3',4'-tetramethyl ether | SARS-CoV | Wang et al., 2007 |
| 62 | <i>Lycoris radiata</i> | Amaryllidaceae | Lycorine, glycyrrhizin | SARS-CoV | Shahrajabian, Sun, Shen, & Cheng, 2020 |
| 63 | <i>Glycyrrhiza uralensis</i> | Fabaceae | | HIV, RSV, SARS-CoV | Hoever et al., 2005; Ma et al., 2002 |

Abbreviations: ADV, Aleutian disease virus; CMV, Cytomegalovirus; CVB, Coxsackie B virus; CXV, Cactus X virus; HBV, Hepatitis B virus; HSV, Herpes simplex virus; KSHV, Kaposi sarcoma herpes virus; SARS-CoV, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus; PV, polio virus; RSV, respiratory syncytial virus; VHSV, viral hemorrhagic septicemia virus; VSV, vesicular stomatitis virus; VV, vaccinia virus.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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