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Review Article

Plants used in *Ayurveda* for *Jwara* or fever: A review of their antiviral studies

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ABSTRACT

Two of the earliest treatises in *Ayurveda*, the '*Charaka Samhita*' and the '*Sushruta Samhita*', describe numerous medicinal plants used in the treatment of *Jwara* (fever). Systematic studies carried out on these plants registered for '*Jwara*' are of high significance in antiviral drug development.

This article is a comprehensive review of the antiviral studies on medicinal plants listed for 'Jwara' in 'Charaka-Sushruta Samhitas', their antiviral entities and modes of action.

The botanical names of the medicinal plants used for 'Jwara' were elucidated from their Sanskrit names in 'Charaka-Sushruta Samhitas' and their subsequent interpretations. Antiviral studies on these plant species and their constituents were compiled from the literature retrieved from Scopus, PubMed, Google Scholar and other databases. Antiviral activities against various viruses were evaluated based on $EC_{50}/IC_{50}/LC_{50}$ values, high percent inhibitions and molecular docking parameters displayed by their extracts, secondary metabolites, short peptides, polyphenols, anthocyanins and polysaccharides. Their modes of action were also evaluated.

Strikingly, in antiviral studies very low $EC_{50}/IC_{50}/LC_{50}$ and high percent inhibitions were demonstrated by medicinal plants widely used as traditional medicines, vegetables, foods and flavours. Secondary metabolites (including essential oils), anthocyanins, polyphenols, short peptides and polysaccharides in these plants illustrated antiviral activities by hampering membrane permeability, cellular functions and replication cycle of harmful viruses.

Medicinal plants used for fever in *Ayurveda* could be used as natural sources of lead molecules for antiviral drug development. Antiviral activities displayed by these plants are justifying the ancient wisdom traditionally demonstrated over centuries.

1. Ayurveda and 'Jwara'

Plants have been used for treatment of viral diseases in various traditional systems of medicine [1–3]. India has one of the oldest folk traditions; and the earliest references to the use of medicinal herbs are found in the Sanskrit literature [4,5]. The main literary sources of the Vedic era (1500 - 500 BCE) are the four Vedas: 'Rig Veda', 'Yajur Veda', 'Sama Veda' and 'Atharva Veda'. Rig Veda, Yajur Veda and Atharva Veda recorded 67, 82 and 288 medicinal plants, respectively. 'Ayurveda' (considered as 'Upa Veda' of 'Atharva Veda') describes the properties of plant based drugs and their uses. The earliest treatise on 'Ayurveda', 'Charaka Samhita' ('Compendium of Charaka', ~900 BCE) written by Charaka is a great reference to diseases and medical procedures listing

341 plants and their products. 'Sushruta Samhita' ('Compendium of Sushruta', \sim 600 BCE) which was written by Sushruta, a surgeon and teacher of 'Ayurveda', is a more comprehensive and authoritative work of 'Ayurveda' that contains illustrations of 1120 diseases, 700 healing plants and 121 preparations [5–9].

Ayurveda is focused on disease prevention and promotion of good health, by adopting a proper life style and assuming measures that rejuvenate the cells of the body [9,10]. It is based on the concepts of five elements ('Panchabhuta') viz., 'Vayu' (air), 'Jala' (water), 'Prithvi' (earth), 'Teja' (fire), 'Akasha' (space), which constitute the physical universe including the human body, and three 'doshas' (meaning 'fault' or 'defect') viz., 'Vata', 'Pitta' and 'Kapha' (Tridoshas), which broadly refer to the functions of motion, digestion and cumulation [11–13]. In

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other words, *Tridoshas* are the three psychobiological dimensions or biological rhythms harmonizing the functioning of the human body. The imbalance between the three 'doshas' leads to diseases. The dominance of 'Vata' dosh causes neurological disorders, manifested by poor blood circulation, anxiety, memory loss and related symptoms. 'Pitta' imbalance gives rise to stomach troubles and variation in 'Kapha' results in cholesterol related diseases. A disparity between 'Kapha' and 'Vata' doshas results in fever ('Jwara'). High 'Kapha' in the body contributes to cold and high 'Vata' lowers the digestive fire which results in indigestion, chills, and fatigue [12,13]. Ayurveda provides medicines of herbal origin to balance the 'doshas', aiming to cure the diseases [14,15]. 'Jwara', since it affects throughout the life, is considered as the 'lord of diseases'. Ayurveda also describes 'Jwara' as the most dominant among diseases, affecting mind, body and the senses. High body temperature is regarded as the main characteristic of 'Jwara' (fever) [16,17].

2. 'Jwara': plants in Charaka-Sushruta Samhitas

Lifestyle disorders, stress, or incorrect nutrition cause the imbalance, leading to a dysfunctional system of digestion. Otherwise, toxins in the small and large intestines putrefy and spread to the entire body, and exposure to viruses leads to infection and fever. Several medicinal plants are mentioned in Ayurveda for fever-like symptoms. In this article, Sanskrit names of plants recorded in 'Charaka Samhita' and 'Sushruta Samhita' for treatment of 'Jwara' (fever) are listed and their taxonomic names (including synonyms) were derived from various references. Tables S1 and S2 are listing these Sanskrit (alphabetically) and botanical names. There are 210 and 139 identified plant species listed for the healing of 'Jwara' in 'Charaka Samhita' and 'Sushruta Samhita', respectively (Tables S1 and S2). The botanical identifications of the medicinal plants mentioned under 'Jwara' are inconsistent due to their scribal variations and multiple species identities or synonyms [16]. On excluding repetitions, the total number plant species listed for 'Jwara' in the two Samhitas is 250 (Tables S1 and S2).

These medicinal plants listed for 'Jwara' are widely used as cure for fever and other diseases in various traditional systems of medicine [5–8]. In recent decades systematic phyto, biochemical, pharmacological and in silico studies elucidated the chemical entities and antiviral potentials of several of these medicinal plants. This article is the first comprehensive review of the antiviral studies on these traditionally used medicinal plants, their bioactive entities and underlying action mechanisms. The literature review of this article was last updated in September 2024.

3. Search strategy

Each plant species listed in Tables S1 and S2 was rigorously searched using the terms "botanical name" and "antiviral" in web-based resources such as Google Scholar, Scopus and PubMed, and retrieved data were analyzed. Synonyms of "botanical names" in Tables S1 and S2 were also searched for antiviral studies. These terms were searched in full texts of articles, including their title and abstract, and no date restrictions were applied. Full text of articles were obtained from open access resources (journals, databases), local libraries and from original authors of the studies.

4. Antiviral studies

We found antiviral studies only for 80 of these 250 species (Table 1, Table S3). Most of these plants subjected to antiviral studies are common edible species such as vegetable, cooking spices, aromatic spices and traditional medicines. The various examples are *Acorus calamus* L. (common name: sweet flag), *Aegle marmelos* (L.) Corrêa (wood apple), *Alpinia galanga* (L.) Willd (galangal), *Aerva lanata* (L.). Juss. (Kapurimadhuri), *Alhagi maurorum* Medik (camel thorn), *Alstonia scholaris* (L.). R.Br. (Indian devil tree), *Andrographis paniculata* (Burm.

f.) Nees (green chireta), Asparagus racemosus Willd. (shatawari), Azadirachta indica A. Juss. (neem), Barleria prionitis L. (porcupine flower), Boswellia serrata Roxb. ex Colebr (Indian frankincense), Centipeda minima (L.). A.Braun & Asch (spreading sneezeweed), Cinnamomum cassia (L.). J.Presl (Chinese cinnamon), Cissampelos pareira L. (velvetleaf), Cynodon dactylon (L.) Pers. (Bermuda grass), Citrus medica L. (ganapati narakam), Clitoria ternatea L. (blue pea or butterfly pea), Cocos nucifera L. (coconut palm), Coriandrum sativum L. (coriander), Cucumis melo L. (muskmelon), Curcuma longa L. (turmeric), Cymbopogon citratus (DC.) Stapf (lemon grass), Cyperus rotundus L. (nut grass), Eclipta prostrata (L.) L. (false daisy), Ficus benghalensis L. (banyan), Garcinia indica (Thouars) Choisy (kokum), Glycyrrhiza glabra L. (licorice or sweetwood), Hemidesmus indicus (L.) R. Br. ex Schult. (Indian sarsaparilla), Holarrhena pubescens Wall. ex G.Don (Indrajao), Hordeum vulgare L. (barley), Jasminum officinale L. var. grandiflorum (jasmine), Justicia adhatoda L. (adalodakam), Michelia champaca L. (champa), Mangifera indica L. (mango), Marsdenia tenacissima (Roxb.) Moon (devil's tongue), Momordica dioica Roxb. ex Willd (spiny gourd), Mucuna pruriens (L.). DC. (velvet bean), Nelumbo nucifera Gaertn. (sacred lotus), Nymphaea alba L. (white water lily), Ocimum basilicum L. (basil), Ocimum sanctum L. (holy basil or tulsi), Oroxylum indicum (L.) Kurz (Indian trumpet tree), Phyllanthus emblica L. (Indian gooseberry or amla), Phyllanthus niruri L. (gale of the wind, keezhanelli), Piper longum L. (Indian long pepper or pippali), Piper nigrum L. (black pepper), Piper retrofractum Vahl (Javanese long pepper or Balinese long pepper), Plumbago zeylanica L. (white leadwort), Pongamia pinnata (L.) Pierre (malapari or karanja tree), Punica granatum L. (pomegranate or anar), Putranjiva roxburghii Wall. (lucky bean tree), Ricinus communis L. (castor bean), Rubia cordifolia L. (Indian madder), Rhus parviflora Roxb. (small flowered poison sumac), Solanum nigrum L. (black nightshade), Sphaeranthus indicus L. (East Indian globe thistle), Swertia chirata Buch.-Ham. ex Wall. (kiratatikta, chirayata), Terminalia chebula Retz. (chebulic myrobalan), Thespesia populneoides (Roxb.) Kostel. (Indian tulip tree), Tinospora sinensis (Lour.) Merr (Malabar gulbel), Trachyspermum ammi (L.). Sprague (ajwain, ajowan), Vitis vinifera L. (grape), Withania somnifera (L.) Dunal (ashwagandha or winter cherry), Zingiber officinale Roscoe (ginger), Ziziphus jujuba Mill. (Indian jujube, Indian plum)) (Table 1, Table S3). The systematic studies listed in Table 1, Table S3 are investigations on the antiviral activities of plant extracts, fractions, secondary metabolites, essential oils, short peptides, polysaccharides and their mechanisms of action. A notable number of studies attempted molecular docking and other in silico techniques towards determining the antiviral potential of molecules (ligands) of these plants traditionally used for 'Jwara' in Ayurveda (Table 1, Table S3). The most promising antiviral leads discovered in in-vitro/invivo and in silico studies and their structures are listed in Table 1 and Fig. 1, respectively.

5. Antiviral leads

Table 1 is listing the entities of lead plants, which showed strong antiviral activities, indicated by very low $EC_{50}/IC_{50}/LC_{50}$ values, high % inhibitions and molecular docking (binding) parameters. *P. granatum* (pomegranate) rind water extract exhibited potent antiviral properties against HSV-1 and acyclovir-resistant HSV with EC_{50} values 0.56 and 0.02 μg/mL [18]. Ethanolic extract of *P. granatum* leaves treated on Vero cells infected with Zika virus-strains MR766 and HSV-2 showed antiviral activity (EC_{50} s 11.40, 3.29 μg/mL) [19]. Two fractions isolated from *N. alba* (white water lily) acetone extract restricted HCV NS3 gene expression in transfected target cells (EC_{50} s 37, 20 μg/mL) [20]. *C. citratus* (lemon grass) volatile oil, its nanoparticle and its hydrogel encapsulated nanoparticle showed EC_{50} s in HSV-1 inhibition as 11.59, 1.32 and 0.32 μg/mL, and their EC_{50} s against HSV-2 were 6.69, 1.34 and 0.33 μg/mL, respectively [21].

 Table 1

 Antiviral activity studies of medicinal plants listed for Jwara in Charaka Samhita and Susruta Samhita.

Sl. No.	Botanical name ^a	No.	Virus	Assay	Activity
[A] S	Secondary compound Acorus calamus L.	ls 1	Dengue virus type 2 (DENV2)	Cytopathic inhibition (plaque, time-addition), lactate dehydrogenase assays	Tatanan A (1) isolated from <i>A. calamus</i> ethanol extract showed strong anti-DENV activity in DENV2-infected BHK-21 cells by alleviating
2.	Alpinia galanga (L.) Willd.	1	Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1)	Quantification of HIV-1 p24 antigen in cell culture supernatant by ELISA	CPE (EC ₅₀ 3.9 µM) [22] 1'S-1'-acetoxychavicol acetate (ACA, 2) isolated from the methanol extract of <i>A. galanga</i> rhizome inhibited HIV-1 replication. ACA (2) at 4 µM completely inhibited the export of RevNES fusion protein from the
3.	Andrographis paniculata (Burm. f.) Nees	1	Herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1)	Plaque reduction assay	nucleus [23] Neoandrographolide (3) isolated from <i>A.</i> paniculata leaf ethanol extract showed the highest rate of anti-herpes activity on virus
		2	SARS-CoV-2	Plaque forming assay, qRT-PCR	infected Vero cells (IC ₅₀ 7.97 μg/mL) [24] Calu-3 and Vero E6 cells infected with SARS- CoV-2 treated with <i>A. paniculata</i> extract or andrographolide (4) for 48 h displayed dose- dependent inhibition of SARS-CoV-2 infection (IC _{50S} : Extract 0.036 μg/mL, andrographolide (4) 0.034 μM) [25]
		3	Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)	Cytopathic inhibition assay	Andropanolide B (5) and andrographiside (6) isolated from 95% ethanolic extract of A. paniculata aerial parts showed significant reduction in CPE (IC $_{50}$ s: Andropanolide B (5) 25 μ g/mL, andrographiside (6) 30 μ g/mL)
4.	Barleria prionitis L.	1	Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV-A2 strain)	Cytopathic inhibition assay	[26] 3:1 combination of 6- <i>O-trans-p</i> -coumaroyl-8- <i>O</i> -acetylshanzhiside methyl ester (7) and 6- <i>O-cis-p</i> -coumaroyl-8- <i>O</i> -acetylshanzhiside methyl ester (8) isolated from the methanol soluble fraction of dichloromethane-isopropanol (1:1) extract of <i>B. prionitis</i> whole plant displayed significant anti-RSV activity (EC ₅₀ 2.46 μg/mL) [27]
5.	Boswellia serrata Roxb. ex Colebr.	1	Chikungunya virus (CHIKV-E2/E1), vesicular stomatitis virus G (VSV-G)	Pseudotyped lentiviral vector assays (CHIKV-E2/E1 and VSV-G pseudotyped vectors, luciferase assay (AAV-2 based vectors with CHIKV-luci, VSV-luci), immunofluorescence microscopy	Acetyl-11-keto-β-boswellic acid (ABA, 9) displayed strong activity against CHIKV-E2/E1 and VSV-G pseudotyped vectors (IC_{50} s: CHIKV-E2/E1 6.75 μM, VSV-G 5.97 μM). 293T cells infected with CHIKV-luci or VSV-luci in presence of ABA (9) displayed significant decrease in viral infection (IC_{50} s: CHIKV-lu
6.	Centipeda minima (L.) A.Braun & Asch.	1	Influenza virus A/Puerto Rico/8/34H1N1 (PR8)	CPE reduction, time of addition assays (co- and post-treatment assays)	4.51 μ M, VSV-luci 2.30 μ M) [28] Brevilin A (10) isolated from the supercritical extract of <i>C. minima</i> whole plant has demonstrated potent anti-influenza activity against the PR8 strain. It was found to be effective after virus entry into the cells and it displayed strong antiviral activity (IC ₅₀ 1.8 \pm
		2	Influenza A virus	Cytopathic reduction assay	0.6 μ M, Selectivity index (SI) value 13.5) [29] Brevilin A (10) showed strong anti-influenza activity against various strains of viruses, including PR8, H1N1 (FM1), H3N2, and H9N2, (EC ₅₀ s: 2.96 \pm 1.10, 1.60 \pm 1.14, 3.28 \pm 1.09, and 2.07 \pm 1.12 \pm 1.00 (10)
7.	Curcuma longa L.	1	Influenza virus strains A/Chicken/Korea/ O1310/2001 (H9N2) and A/Sw/Kor/ CAH1/04 (H1N1, KCTC 11165BP)	Influenza virus A (H1N1 and H9N2) neuraminidase inhibition, novel H1N1 (WT) and oseltamivir-resistant novel H1N1 (H274Y) neuraminidase inhibition assays	and $2.07 \pm 1.12 \mu\text{M})$ [30] Curcumin (11), demethoxy curcumin (12) and bisdemethoxy curcumin (13) isolated from the ethanol extract of <i>C. longa</i> dried rhizomes showed strong inhibition of neuraminidases of H1N1 and H9N2 viral strains (IC ₅₀ s: H1N1 6.18 ± 0.64 to 40.17 ± 0.79 µg/mL, H9N2 3.77 ± 0.75 to 31.82 ± 1.33 µg/mL); 1,5-bis (4-hydroxyphenyl)-1,4-pentadiene-3-one (14) showed IC ₂₋₅ of 6.18 and 3.77 µg/mL against
		2	Herpes simplex virus 1-strain KOS (HSV-1 strain KOS)	Cytopathic inhibition assay	showed IC ₅₀ s of 6.18 and 3.77 μg/mL against influenza A H1N1 and H9N2 [31] Curcumin (11) and its derivatives, gallium-curcumin and cu-curcumin, on testing their effects on replication of HSV-1 in Vero cells showed significant antiviral activity (IC ₅₀ s: curcumin (11) 33.0 μg/mL, gallium-curcumin 13.9 μg/mL, cu-curcumin 23.1 μg/mL; SI values: curcumin 14.6, gallium-curcumin 18.4, cu-curcumin 14.1) [32]
		3	Influenza virus A/PR/8/34 (H1N1)	Cytopathic inhibition, determination of cytokines and chemokines by qRT-PCR and	Bisabola-3,10-dien-2-one (15), 4-(6-methyl-4-oxohept-5-en-2-yl)cyclohex-2-en-1-one (16) (continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Sl. No.	Botanical name ^a	No.	Virus	Assay	Activity
				bio-plex assays, proteomics and Western blotting, bioinformatic analysis	and 1,4-epidioxybisabola-2,10-dien-9-one (17) displayed significant inhibition of influenza virus-A/PR/8/34 (H1N1) replication in MDCK cells (IC ₅₀ s: Bisabola-3,10-dien-2-one (15) 23.1 μ g/mL, 4-(6-methyl-4-oxohept-5-en-2-yl)cyclohex-2-en-1-one (16) 11.4 μ g/mL, 1,4-epidioxybisabola-2,10-dien-9-one (17)
8.	Eclipta prostrata (L.) L.	1	Fish nodavirus, grouper nervous necrosis virus (GNNV)	MTT, cytopathic inhibition assays, RT-PCR	16.8 µg/mL) [33] Dasyscyphin C (18) from <i>E. prostrata</i> treated with nodavirus infected SIGE cells showed viral inhibition (IC ₅₀ : 20 µg/mL) [34]
9.	Garcinia indica (Thouars) Choisy	1	HIV-1	HIV-1 RT-associated RNase H inhibition and RDDP inhibition assays, molecular docking study (OEDocking tool kit, OpenEye toolkit 2020.2.0)	Garcinol (19) showed significant inhibition of the wild-type HIV1-RNase H (IC ₅₀ 6.6 ± 2.1 μ M) [35]
10.	Glycyrrhiza glabra L.	1	Hepatitis C virus (HCV)	Quantitative real time-PCR, transfection studies, Western blot	Glycyrrhizin (20) displayed dose-dependent antiviral activity in Huh-7 cells infected with HCV (IC ₅₀ : $14\pm2~\mu g$). Cells treated with 10 IU of IFN-alpha 2b and 10 $\mu g/mL$ of glycyrrhizin (20) displayed synergistic effect with 95% reduction in viral titer [36]
11.	Hemidesmus indicus (L.) R. Br. ex Schult.	1	HIV-1	In vitro HIV-1 reverse transcriptase (RT)- associated ribonuclease H (RNase H) inhibition, HIV-1 RT-associated RNA- dependent DNA polymerase (RDDP), cellular α-glucosidase inhibition assays	$\it H.$ indicus dried root powder decoction and lupeol (21) showed significant activity (IC ₅₀ s: 2.9 μM, 11.6 μM). The root powder decoction showed strong inhibition of RDDP (IC ₅₀ 7.5 μM) [37]
12.	Jasminum officinale L. var. grandiflorum	1	Hepatitis B virus (HBV-transfected human HepG2 cell line), duck hepatitis B virus (DHBV)	ELISA for extracellular hepatitis B antigen (HBeAg) and hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), dot blot analysis, DHBV challenged duckling model	Oleuropein (22) inhibited HBsAg secretion from HBV transfected HepG2 2.2.15 cells dose-dependently (IC_{50} 23.2 μ g/mL) [38]
		2	Hepatitis B virus (HBV), duck hepatitis B virus (DHBV)	ELISA for extracellular hepatitis B antigen (HBeAg) and hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), dot blot analysis, DHBV challenged duckling model	HBV transfected HepG2 2.2.15 cells treated with 8-epi-kingiside (23) displayed significant reduction of HBsAg secretion dosedependently (IC ₅₀ : 19.4 μg/mL) [39]
13.	Marsdenia tenacissima (Roxb.) Moon	1	HIV-1 (transfected to SupT1 cells)	HIV inhibition (luciferase assay)	Marstenacisside D7 (24) and marstenacisside E6 (25) showed 81.3% and 80.9% inhibition of HIV-1, respectively [40]
14.	Nelumbo nucifera Gaertn.	1	HIV-1 (IIIB isolate)	p24 antigen ELISA assay	Liensinine (26), neferine (27) and isoliensinine (28) showed strong anti-HIV-1 activity (EC $_{50}$ s < 0.8 μ g/mL), and nuciferine (29) showed anti-HIV activity at EC $_{50}$ 0.8 μ g/mL [41]
15.	Ocimum basilicum L.	1	Herpes virus (HSV-1, 2), adenovirus (ADV-3, 8, 11), hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) and hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg), coxsackievirus B1 (CVB1), enterovirus 71 (EV71)	XTT, anti-HBV assays	Ursolic acid (30) showed the strongest activity against HSV-1 (EC ₅₀ : 6.6 μ g/mL; selectivity index (SI) 15.2), ADV-8 (EC ₅₀ : 4.2 μ g/mL; SI 23.8), CVB1 (EC ₅₀ : 0.4 μ g/mL; SI 251.3) and EV71 (EC ₅₀ : 0.5 μ g/mL; SI 201). Apigenin (31) demonstrated the highest activity against HSV-2 (EC ₅₀ : 9.7 μ g/mL; SI 6.2), ADV-3 (EC ₅₀ : 11.1 μ g/mL; SI 5.4), hepatitis B surface antigen, HBsAg (EC ₅₀ : 7.1 μ g/mL; SI 2.3) and hepatitis B e antigen, HBeAg (EC ₅₀ : 12.8 μ g/mL; SI 1.3). Linalool (32) showed strongest activity against ADV-11 (EC ₅₀ : 16.9 μ g/mL; SI 10.5) [42]
16.	Phyllanthus emblica L.	1	Coxsackie virus B3 (CVB3)	Cytopathic inhibition assay	Phyllaemblicin B (33) and phyllaemblicin C (34) exhibited strong anti-CVB3 activity (CC ₅₀ s: 50.2 μg/mL, 67.7 μg/mL; IC ₅₀ 7.8 μg/mL, 11.0 μg/mL) [43]
17.	Phyllanthus niruri L.	1	Duck hepatitis B virus (DHBV)	Fluorescence quantitative PCR (FQ-PCR)	Treatment of HepG2.2.15 cells with niranthin (35) at various concentrations for 4 days resulted in significant reduction of HBsAg and HBeAg secretion in a dose-dependent manner (IC ₅₀ s: 15.6 μM, 25.1 μM) [44]
		2	Human hepatitis B virus	MTT assay, determination of HBsAg and HBeAg, FQ-PCR, short-term toxicity assay	In human HBV-transfected liver cell line HepG2.2.15, nirtetralin B (36) suppressed the secretion of HBV antigens dose-dependently (IC ₅₀ s: 17.4 μ M (HBsAg), 63.9 μ M (HBeAg)) [45]
18.	Punica granatum L.	1	Herpes simplex virus-2 (HSV-2)	Cytopathic inhibition assay, docking analysis (docking server software tool, drug likeness by PreADMET online web based software)	Punicalagin (37) isolated from the ethanolic extract of <i>P. granatum</i> fruit peel at 31.25 µg/mL displayed 100% anti HSV-2 activity. In docking analysis with the protein targets of HSV-2, punicalagin (37) showed significant inhibition of the protein targets with a low binding energy of –11.97 kcal/mol [46] (continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Table	1 (continued)				
Sl. No.	Botanical name ^a	No.	Virus	Assay	Activity
		2	Human herpes virus-3 (HHV3) (Chickenpox and herpes Zoster)	Cytopathic inhibition assay, docking analysis (with discovery Studio version 4.0 and drug likeness by ADMETSAR software)	P. granatum leaf aqueous extract showed significant anti-HHV3 activity. MIC values of the aqueous extract on HHV-3 from Chickenpox and herpes Zoster were 15.62 and 31.25 μg/mL, respectively. In docking analysis apigenin (31), isoquercetin (38) and luteolin (39) displayed binding energies of −318.30, −220.01 and −219.61 kcal/mol, respectively [47]
		3	HIV-1	RNase H polymerase independent cleavage, Homogeneous time-Resolved Fluorescence (HTRF) IN LEDGF-dependent assays	Punicalagin (37), punicalin (40) and ellagic acid (41) displayed strong inhibition of HIV-1 RT-associated RNase H function (IC ₅₀ s: 0.12 μ M, 0.18 μ M, 1.4 μ M) and HIV-1 integrase LEDGF-dependent activities (IC ₅₀ s: 0.065 μ M, 0.09 μ M, 0.075 μ M) in vitro. Luteolin (39) and apigenin (31) showed inhibition of RNase H and IN functions (IC ₅₀ s: 3.7–22 μ M), whereas luteolin-7-O-glucoside (42) displayed selective inhibition of HIV-1 IN [48]
19.	Rubia cordifolia L.	1	Hepatitis B virus (HBV)	HBsAg enzyme immunoassay (EIA)	Furomollugin (43) and mollugin (44) significantly suppressed the secretion of hepatitis B surface antigen (IC ₅₀ s: 2.0 μg/mL, both) [49]
20.	Swertia chirata BuchHam. ex Wall.	1	Human immunodeficiency virus-1 (HIV-1), HIV-2, Simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV)	Viral protein R (Vpr) expression assay	Chloroform extract of <i>S. chirata</i> whole plant, bellidifolin (45) and oleanolic acid (46) at 10 µM dose showed 128, 116 and 168% inhibition of Vpr expression [50]
21.	Terminalia chebula Retz.	1	Herpes simplex virus-2 (HSV-2)	Plaque reduction (direct, post infection, attachment and penetration of viral assays)	Ethanolic extract (50%) from <i>T. chebula</i> fruits, chebulagic acid (47) and chebulinic acid (48) showed significant direct HSV-2 inhibitory activity (IC ₅₀ s 0.01 μg/mL, 1.41 μg/mL, 0.06 μg/mL) on Vero cells. Extract and compounds strongly inhibited the binding of HSV-2 to Vero cells dose-dependently (IC ₅₀ s: 0.48 μg/mL, 1.66 μg/mL, 0.29 μg/mL) [51]
		2	Hepatitis C virus (HCV)	HCV protease inhibition assay	Casuarinin (49), pentagalloyl glucose (50) and chebulagic acid (47) isolated from <i>T. chebula</i> fruit methanol extract showed significant HCV protease inhibitory activity (IC ₅₀ s: 9.6 μM, 10.6 μM, 5.2 μM) [52]
		3	HIV-1	HIV-1 integrase, reverse transcriptase inhibition assays	Gallic acid (51) and three galloyl glucoses (1,3,6 tri- <i>O</i> -galloyl-β-D-glucopyranose (52), 1,2,3,4,6-penta- <i>O</i> -galloyl-β-D-glucopyranose (53), chebulagic acid (47)) isolated from the ethyl acetate fraction of <i>T. chebula</i> fruit aqueous extract displayed HIV-1 integrase inhibitory activity (IC ₅₀ 13.7–19.7 μM), while in reverse transcriptase inhibitory assay chebulagic acid (47) only showed significant inhibitory action (IC ₅₀ 20.6 μM) [53]
22.	Zingiber officinale Roscoe	1	Rhinovirus IB (RVIB)	Plaque reduction assay	β-Sesquiphellandrene (54) isolated from Z. officinale rhizomes when treated on HeLa cells infected with RVIB displayed significant activity (IC ₅₀ 0.44 μM) [54]
23.	Ziziphus jujuba Mill.	1	Influenza A/PR/8 virus	Cytopathic inhibition assay (SRB method), influenza A/PR/8 virus challenged C57BL/6 mice model	Betulinic acid (55) isolated from <i>Z. jujuba</i> roots treated on A549 human lung adenocarcinoma epithelial cell infected with A/PR/8/34 virus displayed 98% inhibition at 50 μM and 30% inhibition at 10 μM [55]
		2	Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV)	Cytopathic inhibition assay	Jubanine H (56) and nummularine B (57) isolated from the methanol extract of <i>Z. jujuba</i> roots displayed inhibition of PEDV in Vero cells (EC ₅₀ s: 4.49 μM, 6.17 μM) [56]
[B] S 24.	Secondary compound Alpinia galanga (L.) Willd.	ls (in si	lico) SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (using MOE 2010, ChemDraw software, PDB resources)	Galangin (58) showed strong inhibitory activity against SARS-CoV-2 protease domain (6LU7), spike glycoprotein (6LXT) and RBD-ACE2 (6VW1) with Gibbs free energies –12.96, –7.89, –7.60 kcal/mol, respectively. Docking scores of 1'S-1'-acetoxychavicol acetate (ACA) (2) to these three protein targets were –9.94, –6.05 and –6.16 kcal/mol, respectively [57]
25.	Alstonia scholaris (L.) R.Br.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (using algorithms in LibDock protocol of BIOVIA discovery Studio and Auto Dock Vina)	Akuammicine N-oxide (59) of <i>A. scholaris</i> showed inhibition of main protease of SARS- CoV-2 with highest M ^{pro} binding energy (continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Table .	l (continued)				
Sl. No.	Botanical name ^a	No.	Virus	Assay	Activity
26.	Andrographis paniculata (Burm.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (using autodock vina, drug databank resources), molecular dynamics	(binding energy -8.4 kcal/mol, Libdock score 147.92 kcal/mol) [58] Neoandrographolide (3) displayed significant binding affinity to 3CLpro, PLpro, RdRp and
	f.) Nees	2	Dengue virus (DENV-2 TR-1751)	simulation (using CHELPG approach) RT-PCR, molecular docking (using Auto Dock	spike-ACE2 complex (binding free energy: -31.4, -28.5, -17.1, -23.9 kcal/mol) [59] Andrographolide (4) showed 97.2% inhibition
				V4.2.6 software)	at 15.62 µg/mL of maximum nontoxic dose (MNTD) against DENV-2. Andrographolide (4) showed significant interaction with DENV-2-NS5 receptor protein at Tyr89, Met116, Met116, Met116 and Ser12 residues (total binding energy: -7.35 kcal/mol) [60]
		3	Zika virus (ZIKV)	Molecular docking studies (using AutoDock 4.2.6, MetaPocket 2.0, SWISS ADME website, pkCSM prediction database)	Bisandrographolide A (60) (-11.7 kcal/mol), andrographolide (4) (-10.2 kcal/mol) and andrographiside (6) (-9.7 kcal/mol) showed significant binding affinities to NS2B-NS3 protease [61]
		4	Swine flu virus (H1N1 virus)	Molecular docking studies (using Autodock4.2, CASTp & Q-Site finder, ModWeb online server, NCBI PubChem compound database)	Andrographolide (4) displayed strong inhibition of neuraminidase (A/Blore/NIV236/2009(H1N1)) by structural conformation changes in the 150 loop (binging energy: -10.88 kcal/mol, total intermolecular energy: -12.07 kcal/mol, bioactivity value (Ki): 10.59 nmol/L) [62]
27.	Asparagus racemosus Willd.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (using Schrodinger Glide SP module, PDB IDs, AMBER18 software package, ligands parameterized with ANTECHAMBER)	MM-GBSA based binding free energy calculations with respect to SARS-CoV-2 spike receptor showed maximum with asparoside-D (61) ($\Delta G_{\rm bind}$ of -66.49 kcal/mol) followed by asparoside-C (62) ($\Delta G_{\rm bind}$ -62.61 kcal/mol), and SARS-CoV-2 NSP15 endoribonuclease bound to compounds showed maximum free energy with asparoside-C (62) ($\Delta G_{\rm bind}$ -51.42 kcal/mol), followed by asparoside-F (63) ($\Delta G_{\rm bind}$ - 55.30 kcal/mol) and asparoside-D (61) ($\Delta G_{\rm bind}$ -72.46 kcal/mol) [63]
28.	Azadirachta indica A. Juss.	1	Hepatitis C virus (HCV)	Molecular docking (MOE software with LigX option)	3-Deacetyl-3-cinnamoyl-azadirachtin (64) displayed strong affinity to bind the active site of NS3/4 protease (minimum S-score: -29.20) [64]
29.	Boerhavia diffusa L.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (Auto dock tool, Lamarckian genetic algorithm, RCSB protein databank, ADME studies; drug likeness prediction by ADME ^a T using pkCSM pharmacokinetics tool)	Biorobin (65), bioquercetin (66) and boerhavisterol (67) are strong inhibitors of SARS-CoV-2 main proteases (binding energy: 8.17 kcal/mol, - 7.97 kcal/mol, - 6.77 kcal/ mol) [65]
30.	Boswellia serrata Roxb. ex Colebr.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (Autodock 4.2 for docking analysis, ADME determined by Swiss ADME tool)	Euphane (68), ursane (69), α-amyrin (70) and 2,3-dihydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid (71) showed significant Mpro inhibition (binding energies: -10.47 kcal/mol, -10.41 kcal/mol, -9.99 kcal/mol, -9.72 kcal/mol) [66]
31.	Citrus medica L.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (Schrodinger suite, protein preparation wizard in the Maestro software, PDB resources)	(-9.94) showed highest glide score, and neohesperidin (73) (-9.94) showed highest glide score, and neohesperidin (73) (-60.95 kcal/mol) and hesperidin (74) (-59.87 kcal/mol) displayed highest binding free energies, respectively, on SARS-CoV-2 protein targets like spike protein and ACE-2 [67]
32.	Cocos nucifera L.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (MOE software)	Jezonofol (75) isolated from <i>C. nucifera</i> endocarp showed the highest potency towards PLpro (binding energy: -60.7 kcal/mol) [68]
33.	Cyperus rotundus L.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (g LibDock module, discovery Studio, protein data Bank resources, molecular dynamics simulation by GROMACS version 2019.4, ADMET prediction by pkCSM tool)	Lupeol (21) exhibited maximum affinity to the target protein with a CDOCKER energy of -70.04 kcal/mol. In ADMET analysis, β-amyrin (76) and stigmasta-5,22-dien-3-ol ^b (77) demonstrated superior anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity [69]
34.	Glycyrrhiza glabra L.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (AutoeDock Vina, drug likeness prediction and ADMET properties prediction by OSIRIS property explorer and admetSAR webserver)	Glycyrrhizic acid [©] (20) from <i>G. glabra</i> in docking evaluation against the main protease (Mpro-PDB ID-6Y2E) of SARS-CoV-2 showed strong inhibition (binding affinity: -8.0 kcal/mol). Glabridin (78) exhibited binding energy of -7.3 kcal/mol [70]
35.	Justicia adhatoda L.	1	SARS-COV-2	COVID-19 docking Server	Anisotine (79) showed highest inhibitory activity on protease and RdRp with binding energies of -7.8 and -9.2 kcal/mol, respectively. Vasicoline (80) exhibited (continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Sl. No.	Botanical name ^a	No.	Virus	Assay	Activity
					significant inhibition of RdRp with binding energy of –8.5 kcal/mol but it displayed only moderate inhibition of protease with binding energy of –7.0 kcal/mol [71]
		2	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (AutoDock Vina, PubChem database server, RCSB protein data Bank, Swiss ADME online server, Schrodinger suite for MM-GBSA analysis)	Anisotine (79) showed significant inhibition against SARS-CoV-2 Mpro (binding energy: –7.9 kcal/mol) [72]
		3	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (AutoDock, Schrodinger, Biovia Computer aided drug design approach, PDB resources)	Adhatodine (81) and vasnetine (82) showed significant binding affinity against SARS-CoV-2 target proteins (binding energy: -9.60 kJ/mol, -8.78 kJ/mol) [73]
36.	Michelia champaca L.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (AutoDock software, RSCB Protein Data Bank, PubChem resources)	Taraxerol (83), taraxerone (84), ferulic acid (85) and gallic acid (51) in molecular docking analysis with ACE2 receptor displayed their capability to bind the active sites of the receptor protein (binding energy: -9.6 kcal/mol, -9.4 kcal/mol, -6.2 kcal/mol, -5.6 kcal/mol) [74]
37.	Mimosa pudica L.	1	Herpes simplex virus type I (HSV-1)	Molecular docking (Autodock Vina, discovery Studio 3.5 Visualizer, online databases: PubMed, PubChem, PDB)	Orientin (86) and isovitexin (87) displayed significant binding with HSV-1 thymidine kinase protein (docking score: -7.9 kcal/mol, -7.7 kcal/mol) [75]
38.	Momordica dioica Roxb. ex Willd.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (with AutoDock 4.2.6, AutoDock Vina, PubChem database, metaPocket server, SwissADME software), <i>in vitro</i> protein inhibition assay	Oleanolic acid (46) showed highest affinity to main SARS-CoV-2 protease (-8.5 kcal/mol), RdRp (-8.3 kcal/mol), spike protein with ACE2 receptor (-8.5 kcal/mol) and MERS-CoV with hDPP4 receptor (-8.2 kcal/mol). In <i>in vitro</i> protein inhibition assay, Mpro-3CL protease, DPP4, recombinant spike S1 & S2 (S-ECD) protein and RdRp were incubated with 0.005–1 mM of catechin (88), quercetin (89), hederagenin (90) and oleanolic acid (46); quercetin (89) displayed highest inhibition of main protease (IC50: 0.062 μ M) and spike protein (IC50: 0.052 μ M), and catechin (88) displayed highest inhibition of RdRp (IC50: 0.712 μ M) and DPP4 protein (IC50: 0.032 μ M) [76]
39.	Oroxylum indicum (L.) Kurz	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (with Autodock Vina, discovery Studio 2020 Client and PyMol softwares, ADME analysis by pkCSM, protein data bank, PubChem database)	Molecular docking analysis of selected ligands from <i>O. indicum</i> with the main protease of SARS-CoV-2 displayed significant binding affinity with Mpro (binding energy: Baicalein-7-O-diglucoside (91) –9.1 kcal/mol, chrysin-7-O-glucuronide (92) –8.6 kcal/mol, oroxindin (93) –8.1 kcal/mol, scutellarein (94) –8.0 kcal/mol) [77]
40.	Piper longum L.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (Auto Dock Vina software, Pyrx docking software, PDB database, Biovia discovery Studio Visualizer software, PubChem, ADMET property analysis by SWISS-ADME software)	I-Asarinin (95) displayed best binding affinity score of -10.8 kcal/mol against SARS-CoV-2 papain-like protease [78]
		2	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (AutoDock program version 4.2, Autodock tools (ADT) version 1.5.6, PDB database)	Piperundecalidine (96) showed high binding energy of -9.54 kcal/mol against SARS-CoV-2 main protease (Mpro) [79]
41.	Piper nigrum L.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking	Piperine (97) showed high binding affinity (-7.0 kcal/mol) to the RNA-binding pocket of the nucleocapsid [80]
42.	Terminalia chebula Retz.	1	Hepatitis C virus (HCV NS3/4A)	Molecular docking and network pharmacology (AutoDock Vina, STRING and Reactome pathway databases, Cytoscape 3.6.1, MolSoft, ADVERpred, PreADMET)	Chebulagic acid (47) and 1,2,3,4,6-pentagalloyl glucose (50) displayed significant HCV NS3/4A inhibitory activity (binding energy: -8.6 kcal/mol, -7.7 kcal/mol) [81]
43.	Tinospora sinensis (Lour.) Merr.	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking analysis (Autodock-Pyrx tool, AutoDock Vina, NCBI Pubchem database)	In docking analysis with SARS-CoV-2 main protease, isocolumbin (98) from <i>T. sinensis</i> displayed significant inhibition of the main protease (binding energy: –8.6 kcal/mol) [82]
44.	Vigna mungo (L.) Hepper	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (AutoDock Vina, PyMOL, discovery Studio, Pubchem, PDB)	In molecular docking analysis of V. mungo ligands against the SARS-CoV-2 3C-like protease, kievitone (99), glycinol (100), isoferreirin (101), stigmasterol (77) ^b , β-sitosterol (102), and campesterol (103) displayed binding energies as -7.9, -7.5, -7.4, -7.9, -7.3 and -7.5 kcal/mol, respectively [83]

Table 1 (continued)

Table	1 (continued)				
Sl. No.	Botanical name ^a	No.	Virus	Assay	Activity
45.	Vigna radiata (L.) R.Wilczek	1	SARS-CoV-2	Ligand molecular docking studies	Naringin (104) and neohesperidin (73) showed strong inhibition against SARS-CoV-2 3C-like protease (binding energy: -7.8 kcal/
46.	Withania somnifera (L.) Dunal	1	SARS-CoV-2	Virtual screening, in silico evaluation	mol, -8.3 kcal/mol) [83] Withanolides A (105) and B (106) showed binding energies of -10.13 and -10.21 kcal/ mol with human ACE2 receptor and -9.78 and -9.4 kcal/mol with SARS-CoV spike glycoprotein [84]
47.	Zingiber officinale Roscoe	1	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking (discovery Studio Visualizer, Autodock 4.2, Cygwin, PDB database, ADME analysis with SwissADME software)	In molecular docking analysis gingeronone A (107) from Z. officinale demonstrated significant inhibition of the SARS-CoV-2 target proteins (6LU7, 7JTL) (binding energy: -4.8 kcal/mol, -7.65 kcal/mol) [85]
		2	SARS-CoV-2	Molecular docking and dynamics (Maestro Schrödinger 2020-3 software), SARS-CoV-2 3CL protease <i>in vitro</i> inhibition assay	In molecular docking studies, spinasterone (108) from Z. officinale displayed highest binding energy of -87.41 kcal/mol against SARS-CoV-2 3CL protease. In in vitro SARS-CoV-2 3CL protease inhibition assay, 24-methylcholesta-7-en-3β-on (109) showed 75% inhibition of the 3CL protease (binding energy: -68.80 kcal/mol) [86]
[C] I 48.	Extracts Alhagi maurorum Medik.	1	Foot and mouth disease virus (FMDV)	Cytopathic inhibition assay	Methanol extract (80%) of <i>A. maurorum</i> aerial parts displayed potent cytopathic effect (CPE) at 3 μg/mL against FMDV infected RBK cells [87]
49.	Andrographis paniculata (Burm. f.) Nees	1	Dengue virus –1 (DENV-1)	Cytopathic inhibition, plaque inhibition assays	Methanolic extract of <i>A. paniculata</i> aerial parts at its MNTD (20 μg/mL) and ½MNTD displayed anti-DENV-1 inhibitory activity (inhibition of CPE formation) in HepG2 cells [88]
50.	Cinnamomum cassia (L.) J.Presl	1	Human respiratory syncytial virus (HRSV)	Plaque reduction, viral syncytium assays, Western blot analysis of viral fusion protein synthesis	Hot water extract of dried twigs of <i>C. cassia</i> showed strong antiviral activity against HRSV infection in HEp-2 and A549 cells, near-completely inhibiting plaque formation at 30 µg/mL (IC ₅₀ s: HEp-2 cells 7.2 µg/mL, A549 cells 6.8 µg/mL) [89]
51.	Cissampelos pareira L.	1	DENV-1 (Nauru Island, U88535), DENV-2 (new Guinea C, AF038403), DENV-3 (H87, M93130), DENV-4 (Dominica, M14931)	Plaque reduction assay, plaque reduction neutralization test (pre-incubation test), DENV-2 challenged AG129 mouse model	Antiviral activity of alcoholic extract of <i>C. pareira</i> aerial parts (cipa) was highest against DENV-2 (IC ₅₀ : 1.97 μg/mL) and DENV-4 (IC ₅₀ : 1.23 μg/mL), while DENV-1 and DENV-3 showed relatively low activity (IC ₅₀ s: DENV-1 11.11 μg/mL, DENV-3 3.17 μg/mL) [90]
		2	Dengue virus, SARS-CoV-2	TaqMan Real-time RT-PCR assay	Whole plant aqueous extract showed 98% inhibition of SARs-COV-2 replication in infected Vero cell cultures [91]
52.	Cocos nucifera L.	1	Acyclovir-resistant herpes simplex virus type 1 (ACVr-HSV-1)	Cytopathic inhibition assay, quantification of viral titre	Fraction II demonstrated selective toxicity to HEp-2 cells and higher antiviral activity than the crude water extract of coconut husk fiber (virucidal Index: HEp-2 cells 1.0, 1.81; Vero cells 3.25 and 3.0) [92]
53.	Curcuma longa L.	1	Dengue virus (DENV-2)	Antiviral focus assay, DENV-2 infected Huh7it- 1 cells challenged ddY mice model	C. longa extract (containing 19% curcuminoids) treated on DENV-2 before infecting the Huh7it-1 cells showed inhibition of DENV-2 concentration dependently, and 100% viral inhibition was observed at 80 μg/mL (IC ₅₀ : 17.91 μg/mL) [93]
		2	Hepatitis C virus (HCV)	Anti-HCV activity by virus titration and immunostaining, docking analysis (using ChemBioOffice program Ultra 11.0, Molegro virtual docking ver 5.5 program ver 5.5)	C. domestica (synonym) rhizome ethanol extract showed strong anti-HCV activity (IC ₅₀ : 1.68 µg/mL) [94]
		3	Polio virus	Cytopathic inhibition (pre/post infection) assay, determination of virus-induced syncytia	C. longa methanol extract inhibited polio virus at the maximum non-toxic concentration (MNTC) of 0.03 μ g/mL (IC ₅₀ : 0.07 μ g/mL, SI: 2.16) [95]
54.	Nelumbo nucifera Gaertn.	1	Herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1), TK-HSV-1 strain	Plaque reduction, electrophoretic mobility shift assays, PCR, Western blot	Ethanolic extract (NN, 100 μg/mL) of N. nucifera seeds, its fraction (NN–B, 50 μg/mL) and subfraction (NN–B-5, 50 μg/mL) displayed significant anti-HSV-1 activity in HeLa cells. Sub-fraction showed dose dependent anti-HSV activity (IC ₅₀ : 21.3 μg/mL) [96]
55.	Phyllanthus niruri L.	1	Hepatitis C virus (HCV)	Anti-hepatitis C activity assay	P. niruri ethanol extract evaluated for its anti-HCV activity in Huh 7it-1 cells revealed strong inhibition (IC $_{50}$: 4.14 µg/mL) [97]
					(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Sl. No.	Botanical name ^a	No.	Virus	Assay	Activity
56.	Punica granatum L.	1	Influenza virus A/Puerto Rico/8/34 (H1N1; PR8)	Cytopathic inhibition (MTT), hemagglutination assays	Crude ethanolic extract of <i>P. granatum</i> peel, it ethyl acetate and n-butanol fractions treated on MDCK cells infected with influenza virus (H1N1) showed strong antiviral activity (IC ₅₀)
		2	Mosquito-borne Mayaro virus	Plaque inhibition, immunofluorescence assays, transmission electron microscopy (TEM)	6.45 μg/mL, 5.60 μg/mL, 6.07 μg/mL) [98] P. granatum ethanol extract and its fraction containing punicalagin (37) treated on Vero cells infected with Mayaro virus displayed significant antiviral activities (IC ₅₀ s: 12.3 μg,
		3	Adenovirus type 5	Cytopathic inhibition (MTT) assay	mL, 29.9 μg/mL) [99] Ethanol extract of <i>P. granatum</i> dried peels treated on HeLa cells infected with adenoviru (type 5) displayed complete inhibition of CP
		4	Arthropod-borne Mayaro virus (MAYV)	Plaque inhibition, virus yield inhibition assay	at 30 μg/mL (IC ₅₀ : 18.6 ± 6.7 μg/mL) [100] Ethanol extract of <i>P. granatum</i> shell and punicalagin (37) treated on Vero cells infected with MAYV displayed significant antiviral with the control of th
		5	Herpes simplex virus-1 (HSV-1), aciclovir- resistant HSV (HSV-ACR)	Plaque reduction assay	activity (IC ₅₀ s: 12.3 µg/mL, 28.2 µg/mL) [101 <i>P. granatum</i> rind extract (PRE) exhibited poter antiviral properties against HSV-1 and aciclovir-resistant HSV (EC ₅₀ s: 0.56 µg/mL,
		6	Zika virus (strains MR766 and HPF2013), herpes simplex virus-2 (HSV-2), vaccinia virus (VACV)	Plaque reduction, immunofluorescence, binding, time-of-addition assays	0.02 μg/mL) [18] Leaf ethanolic extract of <i>P. granatum</i> treated o Vero cells infected with Zika virus-strains MR766 and HSV-2 showed antiviral activity (EC ₅₀ s: 11.40 μg/mL, 3.29 μg/mL). In plaque reduction assays on Vero cells infected with ZIKV- MR766 and HPF2013 strains ellagic aci
57.	Thespesia populneoides (Roxb.) Kostel.	1	Herpes simplex virus-1 & 2, vaccinia, vesicular stomatitis, coxsackie, respiratory syncytical, feline corona, feline herpes, parainfluenza, reo virus-1, sindbis, punta toro viruses	Cytopathy inhibition assay	(41) displayed anti-ZIKV activity (EC ₅₀ s: 0.8 μM, 46.23 μM) [19] Methanolic extract of <i>T. populneoides</i> flowers displayed significant antiviral activity on HeI cells infected with vesicular stomatitis, coxsackie and respiratory syncytical viruses
58.	Vitis vinifera L.	1	SARS-CoV-2, HSV-1	Plaque inhibition, gene expression assays	(EC ₅₀ : 20 μg/mL) [102] V. vinifera leaf extract at 10 μg/mL inhibited both HSV-1 and SARS-CoV-2 replication in the early stages of infection on Vero cells (ATCC CCL-81) by directly blocking the proteins enriched on the viral surface [103]
[D] I 59.	Polysaccharide fract Cucumis melo L.	ions 1	Herpes simplex virus 1 (HSV-1)	Plaque reduction assay (MTT assay)	Sulfated derivative of pectin extracted from
	Gicanis meto E.	1	Tierpes simplex virus 1 (113v-1)	riaque reduction assay (with assay)	C. melo pulp (SPCm) exhibited antiviral activity against ACV-sensitive (KOS) and ACV resistant (AR-29) strains of HSV (IC $_{50}$ s: 6 µg/mL, 12 µg/mL) [104]
60.	Hordeum vulgare L.	1	Human influenza A/H3N2 virus (A/ Novosibirsk/RII-27192S/2020 (H3N2) strain)	In vitro microinhibition (MTT), hemagglutination (HA) inhibition assays	Polysaccharide rich fraction from the brans of H. vulgare (HVWP) showed significant inhibition of viral growth in MDCK cells (IC ₅ : 23.73 µg/mL) [105]
61.	Nelumbo nucifera Gaertn.	1	HIV-1	RT inhibitory activity against a purified recombinant HIV-1 RT using the cell-free RT colorimetric kit	Macromolecular polysaccharide-protein complex obtained from <i>N. nucifera</i> rhizomes inhibited RT and HIV-1 3'-processing (IC ₅₀ s: 33.7 μM, 5.28 μM) [106]
[E] P 62.	Peptide fraction Mucuna pruriens (L.) DC.	1	Hepatitis C virus (HCV)	Cytopathic inhibition assay	Peptide fraction (5–10 kDa) obtained from <i>M pruriens</i> beans treated on human hepatoma ce line (HEp-2) infected with HCV displayed significant antiviral activity (IC ₅₀ : 19.40 μg/mL) [107]
[F] E 63.	essential oils, constit Cymbopogon citratus (DC.) Stapf	tuents 1	Herpes simplex virus (HSV-1, HSV-2)	HSV-1 and HSV-2 titer reduction	C. citratus volatile oil, its nanoparticle and it hydrogel encapsulated nanoparticle showed antiviral activity on Vero cells (EC $_{50}$ 8, HSV-1 11.59 μ g/mL, 1.32 μ g/mL, 0.32 μ g/mL; EC $_{50}$ 6.69 μ g/mL, 1.34 μ g/mL, 0.33 μ g/ml
64.	Ocimum basilicum L.	1	Hepatitis C virus (HCV)	Plaque reduction assay	[21] MDBK cells infected with HCV treated with camphor (110) and 1,8-cineole (111) isolate from <i>O. basilicum</i> showed significant anti-HC activity (SI values: 13.88, 9.05) [108]

Additional references for [74], [79], [95], [100], [108], [113] are Supplementary Information: [102], [128], [69], [141], [116], [155], respectively.

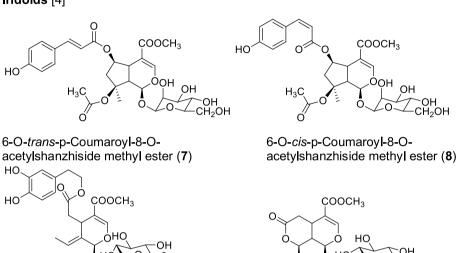
^a The plant names in this article have been checked with http://www.theplantlist.org.

^b Stigmasterol (77) and stigmasta-5,22-dien-3-ol (77) are structurally similar.

 $^{^{\}rm c}\,$ Glycyrrhizic acid (20) and glycyrrhizin (20) are similar.

Monoterpenes [3]

Iridoids [4]



Oleuropein (22)

8-epi-Kingiside (23)

Sesquiterpenes [8]

Brevilin A (10)

4-(6-Methyl-4-oxohept-5-en-2-yl) cyclohex-2-en-1-one (16)

Bisabola-3,10-dien-2-one (15)

1,4-Epidioxybisabola-2,10-dien-9-one (**17**)

Fig. 1. Structures of antiviral lead molecules from medicinal plants listed for Jwara in Charaka Samhita and Susruta Samhita.

Fig. 1. (continued).

Andrographiside (6)

Rhizome hexane extract of *A. calamus* (sweet flag) displayed notable inhibition of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase activity *in vitro* (IC50 32.96 µg/mL) [109]. *A. indica* (neem) seed kernel alcohol extract (fourth fraction) showed DPV inhibitory activity in CPE (cytopathic effect) inhibition assay (IC50 10.9 µg/mL) [110]. Hot water extract of dried twigs of *C. cassia* (Chinese cinnamon) demonstrated significant antiviral activity against HRSV infection in HEp-2 and A549 cells, near-completely inhibiting plaque formation at 30 µg/mL (IC50s 7.2 and 6.8 µg/mL, respectively) [89]. Antiviral activity of the alcoholic extract of *C. pareira* (velvet leaf) aerial parts (Cipa extract) was highest against DENV-2 and

Andropanolide B (5)

DENV-4, (IC $_{50}$ s 1.97, 1.23 µg/mL), while against DENV-1 and DENV-3 the extract showed higher IC $_{50}$ s (11.11 and 3.17 µg/mL, respectively); additionally, the Cipa extract was effective against a DENV-3 variant (IC $_{50}$ 12.0 µg/mL) [90]. Sulfated derivative of pectin (SPCm) extracted from the pulp of *C. melo* (muskmelon) exhibited antiviral activity against both ACV-sensitive (KOS) and ACV-resistant (AR-29) strains of herpes simplex virus, with IC $_{50}$ s of 6.0 and 12.0 µg/mL, respectively [104]. *C. longa* (turmeric) extract (containing 19% curcuminoid) treated on DENV-2 before infecting to the Huh7it-1 cells showed inhibition of DENV-2 concentration dependently, and 100% viral inhibition was

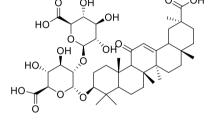
Bisandrographolide A (60)

OH OH

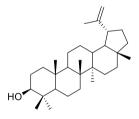
Isocolumbin (98)

Triterpenes [15]

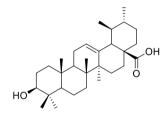
Acetyl-11-keto-β-boswellic acid (9)



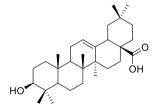
Glycyrrhizin (20)#



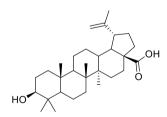
Lupeol (21)



Ursolic acid (30)



Oleanolic acid (46)



Betulinic acid (55)

Fig. 1. (continued).

observed at 80.0 µg/mL (IC $_{50}$ 17.91 µg/mL) [93]. Ethanol extract of *C. domestica* (synonym *C. longa*) rhizomes showed significant inhibition of HCV replication on Huh 7it cells (IC $_{50}$ 1.68 µg/mL) [94]. *C. longa* methanol extract inhibited polio virus at MNTC (maximum non-toxic concentration) of 0.03 µg/mL (IC $_{50}$ 0.07 µg/mL) [95]. Polysaccharide rich fraction from *H. vulgare* (barley) brans showed notable inhibition of viral growth in MDCK cells (IC $_{50}$ 23.73 µg/mL) [105]. Protein fractions of *M. pruriens* (velvet bean) seeds treated on human hepatoma cell line infected with HCV displayed anti-HCV activity in the peptide fraction of 5–10 kDa (IC $_{50}$ 19.40 µg/mL) [107]. Ethanolic extract (100 µg/mL) of *N. nucifera* (sacred lotus) seeds, its fraction (50 µg/mL) and subfraction

(50 µg/mL) displayed anti-HSV-1 activity in HeLa cells; the sub-fraction showed dose dependent anti-HSV activity (IC $_{50}$ 21.3 µg/mL) [96]. Antioxidant macromolecular component (polysaccharide-protein complex) obtained from *N. nucifera* rhizomes inhibited RT and HIV-1 3'-processing (IC $_{50}$ s 33.7 and 5.28 µM, respectively) [106]. *P. niruri* (gale of the wind) ethanol extract evaluated for its anti-HCV activities in Huh 7it-1 cells demonstrated strong inhibition against HCV (IC $_{50}$ 4.14 µg/mL) [97]. *P. zeylanica* (white leadwort) 90% ethanol extract and its ZnONPs (zinc oxide nanoparticles) on treatment in Vero cells challenged with HSV-1 showed significant anti-herpetic activity (IC $_{50}$ s 54.6 and 23.17 µg/mL, respectively) [111]. Crude ethanolic extract of *P. granatum*

3-Deacetyl-3-cinnamoyl-azadirachtin (64)

Ursane (69)

2,3-Dihydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid (71)

Taraxerol (83)

Euphane (68)

 α -Amyrin (70)

β-Amyrin (**76**)

Taraxerone (84)

Hederagenin (90)

Fig. 1. (continued).

Steroids [13]

Marstenacisside D7 (24)

Marstenacisside E6 (25)

Asparoside-D (61)

Fig. 1. (continued).

(pomegranate) peel, its ethyl acetate and n-butanol fractions treated on MDCK cells infected with influenza virus A (H1N1) displayed antiviral activity with IC50 values of 6.45, 5.60 and 6.07 µg/mL, respectively [98]. P. granatum ethanol extract and its fraction containing punicalagin (37, ellagitannin) treated with Vero cells infected with Mayaro virus displayed antiviral activities with IC50s 12.3 and 29.9 µg/mL, respectively [99]. Ethanol extract of P. granatum dried peels treated on HeLa cells infected with adenovirus (type 5) showed complete inhibition of the CPE at 30.0 μ g/mL (IC₅₀ 18.6 μ g/mL) [100]. Again, the ethanol extract of P. granatum shell and punicalagin (37) treated on Vero cells infected with MAYV displayed significant activity with IC50 values of 12.3 and 28.2 μ g/mL, respectively [101]. HIV-1_{NL4.3}, when pretreated with aqueous and 50% ethanolic extracts of R. parviflora (small flowered poison sumac) leaves mixed with TZM-bl, showed dose dependent inhibition in HIV-1 infection (IC₅₀s 15.0 and 26.0 μg/mL, respectively); in CEM-GFP assay, IC₅₀ values of the aqueous and 50% ethanolic extracts were 65.0 and 29.0 μg/mL, respectively [112]. S. indicus (East Indian globe thistle) leaf aqueous extract treated on infected MT-4 cells showed inhibition of HIV-1 replication with an IC50 of 52.35 $\mu g/mL$ [113]. Ethanolic extract (50%) of T. chebula (chebulic myrobalan) fruits, chebulagic acid (47) (benzopyran tannin) and chebulinic acid (48)

(ellagitannin) showed direct HSV-2 inhibitory activity on Vero cells (IC $_{50}$ s 0.01, 1.41, 0.06 µg/mL); the extract and the two compounds inhibited the binding of HSV-2 to Vero cells dose-dependently with very low IC $_{50}$ values of 0.48, 1.66, and 0.29 µg/mL, respectively [51]. Methanolic extract of *T. populneoides* (Indian tulip tree) flowers displayed strong activity on HeLa cells infected with vesicular stomatitis, coxsackie and respiratory syncytical viruses with EC $_{50}$ values of 20.0 µg/mL [102].

The oxygenated monoterpene, linalool (32) (*O. basilicum*, basil), showed strongest activity against AVD-II (BCC-1/KMC cells, EC₅₀ 16.9 μ g/mL) [42]. Brevilin A (10) (sesquiterpene lactone, *C. minima*, spreading sneezeweed) showed strong anti-influenza activity against various strains of viruses, including PR8, H1N1 (FM1), H3N2, and H9N2, with very low EC₅₀s 2.96, 1.60, 3.28, and 2.07 μ M, respectively [30]. Tatanan A (1, sesquilignan, *A. calamus*, sweet flag) demonstrated anti-DENV activity with a low EC₅₀ of 3.9 μ M [22]. Ursolic acid (30) (triterpenoid, *O. basilicum*) showed strongest activities against HSV-1 (EC₅₀ 6.6 μ g/mL), ADV-8 (EC₅₀ 4.2 μ g/mL), CVB1 (EC₅₀ 0.4 μ g/mL) and EV71 (EC₅₀ 0.5 μ g/mL) [42]. Two iridoid glycosides, 6-*O-trans-p*-coumaroyl-8-*O*-acetylshanzhiside methyl ester (7) and 6-*O-cis-p*-coumaroyl-8-*O*-acetylshanzhiside methyl ester (8), from *B. prionitis*

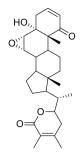
Asparoside-C (62)

Asparoside-F (63)

Fig. 1. (continued).

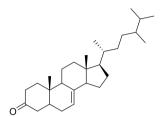
(porcupine flower) at 3:1 combination displayed significant anti-RSV activity (EC $_{50}$ 2.46 $\mu g/mL$) [27]. Three bisbenzylisoquinoline alkaloids, liensinine (26), neferine (27) and isoliensinine (28) (N. nucifera, sacred lotus), showed strong anti-HIV-1 activity with EC50s of <0.8μg/mL, and nuciferine (29) (aporphine alkaloid, N. nucifera) displayed anti-HIV activity with EC50 0.8 $\mu g/mL$ [41]. Cyclopeptide alkaloids, jubanine H (56) and nummularine B (57), isolated from the methanol extract of Z. jujuba (Indian jujube, Indian plum) roots displayed inhibition of PEDV in Vero cells with EC $_{50}$ values of 4.49 and 6.17 $\mu M,\,$ respectively [56]. Apigenin (31) (flavonoid, O. basilicum) showed high

Withanolide A (105)



Withanolide B (106)

Spinasterone (108)



24-Methylcholesta-7-en-3β-on (109)

Alkaloids [13]

Neferine (27)

Nuciferine (29)

Liensinine (26)

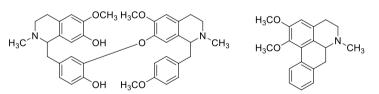


Fig. 1. (continued).

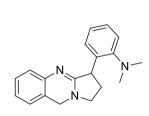
activity against HSV-2 (EC $_{50}$ 9.7 µg/mL), ADV-3 (EC $_{50}$ 11.1 µg/mL), hepatitis B surface antigen (EC $_{50}$ 7.1 µg/mL) and hepatitis B e antigen (EC $_{50}$ 12.8 µg/mL) [42]. Polyphenol, ellagic acid (41) (*P. granatum*, pomegranate), in plaque reduction assays on Vero cells infected with ZIKV-MR766 and HPF2013 strains displayed strong anti-ZIKV activity (EC $_{50}$ s 0.86 µM) [19]. Alstotides (As1 and As3; cystine knot-amylase inhibitors) from *A. scholaris* (Indian devil tree) showed EC $_{50}$ s 35.0 and 55.0 µM, respectively, against infectious bronchitis virus; As1 also showed moderate inhibition of DENV2 (EC $_{50}$ 90.0 µM) [114].

Isoliensinine (28)

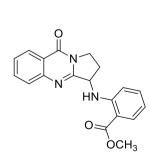
The sesquiterpene, β -sesquiphellandrene (54) (*Z. officinale*, ginger), displayed strong activity on HeLa cells infected with rhinovirus IB (IC $_{50}$ 0.44 μ M) [54]. Bisabolane-type sesquiterpenoids νiz ., bisabola-3, 10-dien-2-one (15), 4-(6-methyl-4-oxohept-5-en-2-yl)cyclohex-2-en-1-

Jubanine H (56)

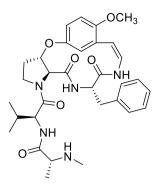
Akuammicine N-oxide (59)



Vasicoline (80)



Vasnetine (82)



Nummularine B (57)

Anisotine (79)

Adhatodine (81)

Piperundecalidine (96)

Fig. 1. (continued).

(IC $_{50}$ s 0.036 µg/mL and 0.034 µM, respectively) [25]. Again diterpenes, andropanolide B (5) and andrographiside (6) (*A. paniculata*), showed anti-RSV effects with IC $_{50}$ values of 25.0 and 30.0 µg/mL, respectively

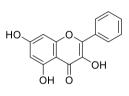
[26]. Norsesquiterpenoid glycosides, phyllaemblicin B (33) and phyllaemblicin C (34) ($P.\ emblica$, amla), exhibited strong anti-CVB3 activity with IC₅₀s 7.8 and 11.0 µg/mL, respectively [43].

Piperine (97)

Flavonoids [21]

Apigenin (31)

Luteolin (39)



Galangin (58)

Bioquercetin (66)

HO OH OH OH OH

Isoquercetin (38)

Luteolin-7-O-glucoside (42)

Biorobin (65)

Rhoifolin (72)

Fig. 1. (continued).

Acetyl-11-keto- β -boswellic acid (9) (triterpene, gum resin extract of *B. serrata*, Indian frankincense) inhibited transduction of cells with CHIKV-E2/E1 and VSV-G pseudotyped vectors with IC₅₀ values of 6.75 and 5.97 μM, respectively [28]. 293T cells infected with CHIKV-luci or VSV-luci in presence of acetyl-11-keto- β -boswellic acid (9) (*B. serrata*)

showed significant decrease in viral infection (IC $_{50}$ s 4.51 and 2.30 μ M, respectively) [28]. Lupeol (21) (pentacyclic triterpene) and the root powder decoction (*H. indicus*, Indian sarsaparilla) demonstrated strong activity against HIV–I RT RNase H with IC $_{50}$ s of 11.6 and 2.9 μ M, respectively [37]. Flavonol, quercetin (89), from *M. dioica* (spiny gourd)

Fig. 1. (continued).

displayed highest inhibition of SARS-CoV-2 main protease (IC $_{50}$ 0.06 μ M) and spike protein (IC $_{50}$ 0.05 μ M), and the polyphenol, catechin (88) (*M. dioica*), showed highest inhibition of RdRp (IC $_{50}$ 0.71 μ M) and DPP4 protein (IC $_{50}$ 0.03 μ M) [76]. Glycyrrhizin (20) (triterpene, *G. glabra*, licorice or sweetwood) displayed dose-dependent antiviral activity in Huh-7 cells infected with HCV; RT-PCR analysis showed 50% reduction in HCV at 14.0 μ g [36]. Beta-diketone derivatives, demethoxy curcumin (12), bisdemethoxy curcumin (13) and curcumin (11) (*C. longa*, turmeric), exhibited strong inhibitory activity against the neuraminidases from novel influenza H1N1 (WT) (IC $_{50}$ S 4.36, 6.95, 3.46 μ g/mL); 1,5-bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)-1,4-pentadiene-3-one (14) (phenolic compound, *C. longa*) showed IC $_{50}$ S of 6.18 and 3.77 μ g/mL against influenza

A H1N1 and H9N2, and curcumin (11) displayed IC $_{50}$ of 6.17 µg/mL against influenza A H9N2 strain expressed in 293T cells [31]. Curcumin (11) and its derivatives, gallium-curcumin and cu-curcumin ($C.\ longa$), on testing their effects on replication of HSV-1 in Vero cells displayed notable antiviral activity with IC $_{50}$ values of 33.0, 13.9, and 23.1 µg/mL, respectively [32]. Garcinol (19) (polyisoprenylated benzophenone derivative, $C.\ longe (C.\ l$

Phenolics [13]

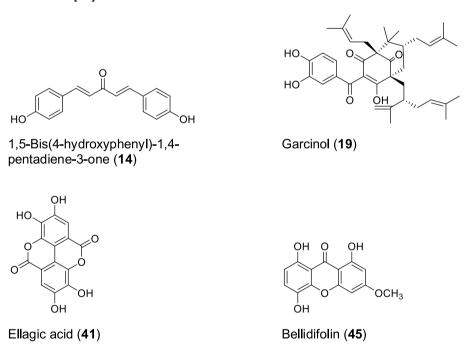


Fig. 1. (continued).

significant reduction of HBsAg secretion dose-dependently (IC $_{50}$ 19.4 µg/mL) [39]. Again, treatment of HepG2.2.15 cells with the dibenzylbutane lignin, niranthin (35) (*P. niruri*, gale of the wind), at various concentrations for 4 days resulted in dose-dependent reduction of HBsAg and HBeAg secretion, with IC $_{50}$ s of 15.6 and 25.1 µM, respectively [44]. Punicalagin (37), punicalin (40) (ellagitannins, *P. granatum*, pomegranate) and ellagic acid (41) displayed strong inhibition of HIV-1 RT-associated RNase H function (IC $_{50}$ s 0.12, 0.18 and 1.4 µM, respectively) and HIV-1 integrase LEDGF-dependent activities (IC $_{50}$ s 0.07,

0.09 and 0.08 μ M, respectively); luteolin (39) and apigenin (31) (flavonoids, *P. granatum*) showed inhibition of RNase H and IN functions with IC₅₀ values of 3.7–22.0 μ M [48]. Casuarinin (49) (ellagitannin, *T. chebula*, chebulic myrobalan), pentagalloyl glucose (50) (polyphenol, *T. chebula*) and chebulagic acid (47) (*T. chebula*) demonstrated significant HCV protease inhibitory activity with IC₅₀ values of 9.6, 10.6 and 5.2 μ M, respectively [52]. Naphthohydroquinones, furomollugin (43) and mollugin (44) (*R. cordifolia*, Indian madder), treated on Hep3B cells inhibited the secretion of hepatitis B surface antigen, with IC₅₀ values of

Fig. 1. (continued).

2.0 μ g/mL [49]. Two galloyl glucoses, (1,3,6-tri-*O*-galloyl- β -D-glucopyranose (52), 1,2,3,4,6-penta-*O*-galloyl- β -D-glucopyranose (53)), and chebulagic acid (47)), showed very good inhibitory activities against 3'-processing of HIV-1 integrase (IC₅₀s 13.7–19.7 μ M), while against reverse transcriptase, chebulagic acid (47) only showed

significant inhibitory action (IC50 20.6 μ M) [53].

Hydroalcoholic extract of *C. pareira* (velvet leaf) whole plant showed 98% inhibition against SARS-CoV-2 *in vitro* [115]. Methanol extract (80%) of *A. maurorum* (camel thorn) aerial parts displayed potent CPE at 3.0 µg/mL in FMDV infected RBK cells [87]. Anti-CHIKV ethanolic

Jezonofol (75)

Phenylpropanoid [1]

Naphthoquinones [2]

Diarylheptanoids [3]

Bisdemethoxy curcumin (13)

Fig. 1. (continued).

fraction of *C. dactylon* (Bermuda grass) at 50 μ g/mL exhibited viral inhibitory activity (about 98%) by reduction in cytopathic effect [116]. *C. dactylon* ethanolic extract (20% extract, in the feed) showed highest protective activity of 91.1% against IMNV in *Penaeus vannamei* Boone (*Litopenaeus vannamei* Boone) [117]. Dichloromethane (25-10 μ g/mL) and 25% ethanol (50-25 μ g/mL) extracts of *H. pubescens* (Indrajao) stem bark displayed significant plaque reduction (90%) in HeLa Ohio cells infected with rhino virus type 2 [118]. Aqueous, ethanolic and aqueous-ethanolic extracts of *P. granatum* (pomegranate) leaves showed significant anti-HHV3 activity on cultured HEp-2 cells; MIC values of aqueous extract on HHV-3 from Chickenpox and Herpes Zoster were

15.62 and 31.25 μ g/mL, respectively [47]. *T. ammi* (ajowan) seed essential oil on pre-exposure to JEV showed 80% virus inhibition at 0.5 mg/mL in Vero cells [119].

Betulinic acid (55, pentacyclic triterpenoid) isolated from *Z. jujuba* (Indian plum) roots, at 10 and 50 μ M concentrations, treated on A549 human lung adenocarcinoma epithelial cells infected with A/PR/8/34 virus displayed 30% and 98% inhibition, respectively [55]. In luciferase assay, steroidal glycosides, marstenacisside D7 (24) and marstenacisside E6 (25) (*M. tenacissima*, devil's tongue), displayed 81.3 and 80.9% inhibition of HIV-1, respectively [40]. Phenylpropanoid, 1'S-1'-acetoxychavicol acetate (2) (*A. galangal*, galangal), at 4 μ M

Tannins [5]

Casuarinin (49)

Fig. 1. (continued).

completely inhibited the export of RevNES fusion protein from HIV-1 nucleus [23]. Punicalagin (37) isolated from the fruit peel ethanolic extract of P. granatum at 31.25 μ g/mL displayed 100% anti-HSV-2 activity, comparable to that of standard drug acyclovir [46].

Several reports in Table 1 and Table S3 are describing molecular docking analysis on the inhibitory effects of secondary metabolites (ligands) of the plants listed in 'Charaka Samhita' and 'Sushruta Samhita' for 'Jwara' on various viral targets (examples: Utomo et al., 2020; Shah et al., 2021; Ram et al., 2022) [57,58,77]. A handful of studies, prompted by the recent global outbreak, are also on SARS-CoV-2 virus (examples: Banerjee et al., 2021; Murugan et al., 2021; Sa-Ngiamsuntorn et al., 2021; Nedungadi et al., 2023; Patwardhan, 2023) [9,10,25,59,

120]

Phytochemicals in these lead plants showed varying levels of activities against a wide spectrum of pathogenic viruses. The structural groups of individual molecules of these medicinal plants with most significant antiviral activities (low EC_{50}/IC_{50} , high % inhibition) are flavonoids (21), triterpenes (15), alkaloids (13), phenolics (13), steroids (13), sesquiterpenes (8), diterpenes (6), tannins (5), iridoids (4), lignans (4), diarylheptanoids (3), monoterpenes (3), naphthoquinones (2), and phenylpropanoid (1) (Table 1, Fig. 1). Similarly, the most promising individual compounds obtained are tatanan A (1), 1'S-1'-acetoxychavicol acetate (2), neoandrographolide (3), andrographolide (4), andropanolide B (5), andrographiside (6), 6-*O-trans-p*-coumaroyl-8-

$$H_3CO$$
 H_3CO
 H_3CO
 OCH_3
 OCH_3

Tatanan A (1)

Lignans [4]

Niranthin (35)

Fig. 1. (continued).

O-acetylshanzhiside methyl ester (7), 6-O-cis-p-coumaroyl-8-O-acetylshanzhiside methyl ester (8), acetyl-11-keto-β-boswellic acid (9), brevilin A (10), curcumin (11), demethoxy curcumin (12), bisdemethoxy curcumin (13), bisabola-3,10-dien-2-one (15), 4-(6-methyl-4-oxohept-5-en-2-yl)cyclohex-2-en-1-one (16), 1,4-epidioxybisabola-2,10-dien-9one (17), dasyscyphin C (18), glycyrrhizin (20), lupeol (21), oleuropein (22), 8-epi-kingiside (23), marstenacisside D7 (24), marstenacisside E6 (25), liensinine (26), neferine (27), isoliensinine (28), ursolic acid (30), apigenin (31), linalool (32), phyllaemblicin B (33), phyllaemblicin C (34), niranthin (35), punicalagin (37), luteolin (39), punicalin (40), ellagic acid (41), furomollugin (43), mollugin (44), chebulagic acid (47), chebulinic acid (48), casuarinin (49), pentagalloyl glucose (50), 1,3,6-tri-O-galloyl- β -D-glucopyranose (52), 1,2,3,4,6penta-O-galloyl-β-D-glucopyranose (53), β-sesquiphellandrene (54), betulinic acid (55), jubanine H (56), nummularine B (57), catechin (88), and quercetin (89) (Fig. 1). The structures of these molecular entities are compatible in displaying antiviral activities due to their substitutions and functional groups. Compounds with more number of hydroxyl groups displayed higher antiviral activity. Methoxy substituted entities showed less antiviral activity than the ones with methyl groups. The relative position of functional groups is also a factor deciding the antiviral efficacy of these lead molecules. Aromatic phytochemicals (phenolic compounds) with methoxy group at second or sixth position displayed higher antiviral activity than compounds with methoxy substitution at third or fourth position of the aromatic ring [121,122]. In addition, modifications of the OH- or -COOH functional groups of phytochemicals also resulted in enhancement of their antiviral activities [123].

In these antiviral studies (Table 1), very low EC₅₀/IC₅₀/LC₅₀ and high percentage inhibitions were demonstrated by the active extracts and constituents of the medicinal plants, A. calamus, A. galanga, A. indica, A. lanata, A. maurorum, A. paniculata, A. scholaris, B. prionitis,

B. serrata, C. cassia, C. citratus, C. dactylon, C. longa, C. melo, C. minima, C. pareira, E. prostrata, G. glabra, G. indica, H. indicus, H. pubescens, H. vulgare, J. adhatoda, J. grandiflorum, M. dioica, M. pruriens, M. tenacissima, N. alba, N. nucifera, O. basilicum, O. sanctum, P. emblica, P. granatum, P. niruri, P. roxburghii, P. zeylanica, R. cordifolia, R. parviflora, S. indicus, T. ammi, T. chebula, T. populneoides, Z. jujuba, and Z. officinale. These plants are widely used as traditional medicines, vegetables, food and flavours for over centuries.

6. Natural products, antiviral drug development

Viral diseases are consistent threats to human life on Earth, and they cause considerable burden on public health and finance [124]. The World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations (UN) have emphasized the specific need for better management of viral diseases [125]. The COVID-19 pandemic has further highlighted the importance of new generation antiviral drugs, and in 2022 the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID), a wing of the National Institutes of Health (NIH), has awarded approx. \$ 577 million to set up nine Antiviral Drug Discovery (AViDD) Centers for Pathogens of Pandemic Concern [126]. The development of novel antiviral drugs is arduous and often unprofitable; the current strategy for the management of viral outbreaks is mostly through vaccines over antiviral treatments. Antiviral drugs are approved medicines that prevent virus multiplication. Now, there are 179 approved antiviral drugs derived from 88 unique structural entities. Moreover, thousands of antiviral agents are in preclinical and hundreds in clinical trials. It takes nearly 15 years and 2 billion USD to develop a new drug from an antiviral agent [124]. Antiviral drugs also display aftereffects such as drowsiness, nausea, vomiting, allergic reactions, insomnia, heart problems, and dependence; and many of them have been withdrawn due to these side effects [124].

Viral structure and replication are crucial factors deciding the design

of antiviral drugs. Nature has provided yet another source of antiviral agents, and almost 40% of the drugs available at the moment are directly or indirectly plant derivatives. Herbal remedies and extracted natural products often provide a significant source of unique antiviral drugs [127,128]. Plant based secondary metabolites (flavonoids, alkaloids, terpenoids, steroids, phenolics, iridoids, essential oils), anthocyanins, polyphenols, short peptides and polysaccharides have the capability to interfere with membrane permeability, cellular functions and replication cycle of viruses [127,129]. The antiviral activity of plant secondary metabolites and other active entities are determined through various assays such as cytotoxicity, cytopathic effect, and the capability to block viral spread between cells. The mechanistic approaches described in Table 1 and Table S3 are primarily based on the interference of viral entry and prevention of their replication. Medicinal plants listed for the treatment of 'Jwara' in 'Charaka Samhita' and 'Sushruta Samhita' are time tested and with proven effects in traditional practices. This review demonstrates that plants listed for fever in the ancient wisdom of Ayurveda and their molecular entities could serve as a repository for the design of antiviral agents [9].

7. Conclusions and future perspectives

Ayurveda and other traditional systems use an array of medicinal plants, and recently with the advances in phytochemistry, metabolomics and pharmacology, the molecular entities causing their medicinal effects and their mechanisms are being elucidated. Systematic studies on plants listed in the Samhitas of Charaka and Sushruta for treatment of 'Jwara' (fever) have resulted in promising leads against several viruses. Strikingly, of the 250 medicinal plants listed in these two earliest Ayurvedic treatises, only 80 were subjected to antiviral studies so far. Among these, the plants demonstrated excellent antiviral activities are widely used as foods, flavours, vegetables and in traditional medicines. This review is providing systematic mechanistic studies as evidences towards the traditional antiviral claims on these medicinal plants.

Secondary metabolites (including essential oils), anthocyanins, polyphenols, short peptides and polysaccharides of these medicinal plants are interfering cellular functions and replication cycles of viruses. These structural entities offer options of deriving their synthetic analogues and assessing their antiviral potentials. The promising molecular entities could be chosen for further investigations towards the development of antiviral agents. Moreover, this review emphasizes the need of antiviral studies on hitherto uninvestigated plants listed for the treatment of 'Jwara' in these two Samhitas.

Author contributions

AB: Literature survey, data curation, formal analysis, validation, writing - review and editing. ANS: data curation, formal analysis, validation, writing - review and editing. AJJ: data curation, formal analysis, validation, funding acquisition, writing - review and editing. SB: conceptualization, formal analysis, validation, writing - original draft, writing - review and editing. All authors approved the final version.

Declaration of generative AI in scientific writing

The authors have not used any AI tools for writing this manuscript

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial

interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaim.2024.101085.

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