

# Antiviral Plants and Phytoconstituent Emerging Hope in Post Pandemic Era

Anuj Sanjay Bagul<sup>1</sup>, Dr. Babita More<sup>2</sup>, Dr. Rupali Tasgaonkar<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Final Year B. Pharmacy Student, Yadavrao Tasgaonkar Institute of Pharmacy, Bhivpuri Road, Maharashtra, India.

<sup>2</sup>Associate Professor, Yadavrao Tasgaonkar Institute of Pharmacy, Bhivpuri Road, Maharashtra India.

<sup>3</sup>Principal & Professor, Yadavrao Tasgaonkar Institute of Pharmacy, Bhivpuri Road, Maharashtra India

**Abstract**—The international COVID-19 pandemic has escalated the need for novel and effective antiviral treatments from natural sources, as the shortcomings of current synthetic medications, including emerging resistance and unwanted harmful side effects, has become clearer. Medicinal plants have long been acknowledged as rich sources of phytochemicals, such as flavonoids, alkaloids, terpenoids, and phenolic compounds, to name a few, that have been shown to exhibit diverse antiviral activity, with many acting in remarkably resilient ways across various viral families. The bioactive metabolites of medicinal plants have the potential to curtail viral entry, replication, and assembly, as well as simultaneously modulate host immune responses, providing a approach to combating viral infectious agents. Evidence from traditional systems of medicine, as well as modern pharmacological studies, continues to uncover the broad-spectrum potential of plants against viral pathogens including SARS-CoV-2, HIV, hepatitis viruses, and influenza. Clinical and preclinical studies, as well as molecular docking and in silico analysis, provide numerous lines of evidence for the therapeutic potential of plant-derived compounds specifically for their ability to subvert viral pathogenesis. Molecular docking studies and pharmacological studies also provide insights into the mechanisms or ways these bioactive metabolites affinity or interact with viral proteins, providing a rationale for drug development. In addition to this, many of these natural compounds also have fewer side effects compared to conventional antiviral agents, making them potential options for long-term use or in combination with other therapy. A growing body of evidence shows that ethnopharmacology and modern virology may work together to discover plant-derived antiviral agents to combat current and future health threats.

**Index Terms**—Antiviral medicinal plants  
Phytoconstituents Phytochemical Herbal Antiviral

**Plant-derived antivirals, post-pandemic era, COVID-19, Viral infections, Secondary metabolites Flavonoids, Alkaloid Terpenoids, Polyphenols Drug discovery, Alternative and complementary medicine**

## I. INTRODUCTION

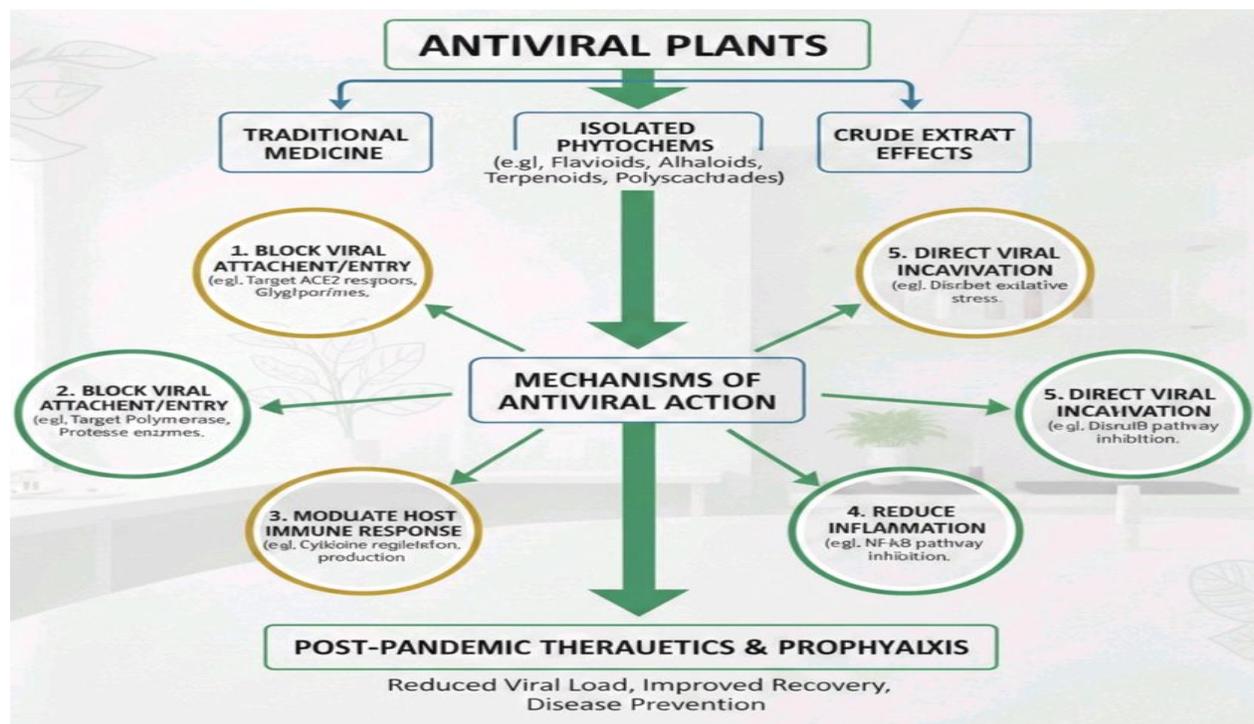
The rise of viral afflictions similar to COVID-19 has exposed critical vulnerabilities in the current antiviral medicine development frame and healthcare structure (1). Conventional antiviral drugs frequently face challenges, including the emergence of medicine-resistant viral strains, limited diapason of exertion, and adverse side effects that circumscribe their broad operation (2). In discrepancy, medicinal plants offer vast budgets of structurally different phytochemicals with essential antiviral parcels (3). Historically, factory-grounded remedies have played abecedarian places in combating contagious conditions encyclopedically, as proved across colorful traditional systems like Ayurveda, Traditional Chinese Medicine, and indigenous ethnomedicinal practices (4). The phytomedicine is fueled by the recognition that phytochemicals can target multiple viral and host-cell mechanisms contemporaneously, reducing the threat of resistance development (5). Phytoconstituents similar to flavonoids, alkaloids, terpenoids, polyphenols, and polysaccharides have been linked as top agents with antiviral effects (6). These composites parade a broad range of bioactivities, including direct virucidal action, inhibition of viral replication enzymes, leakage of viral entry into host cells, and modulation of vulnerable responses (7). Ultramodern scientific tools, similar to high-outturn webbing, molecular docking simulations, and cell-culture-

grounded antiviral assays, have validated the efficacy of multitudinous plant excerpts and insulated phytochemicals against different contagions like SARS-CoV-2, HIV, influenza, herpesvirus, dengue, and hepatitis contagions (8). Similar evidence not only enhances our mechanistic understanding but also paves the way for the phytochemical-driven development of new antiviral rectifiers (9). To maximize clinical translatability, understanding phytochemical bioavailability, toxicity, and synergistic relations within complex plant matrices is essential (10).

## II. MECHANISMS OF ANTIVIRAL ACTION

Antiviral phytochemicals employ multifaceted mechanisms to intrude with the viral life cycle, frequently targeting multiple stages contemporaneously to inhibit viral propagation (13). One major antiviral strategy involves precluding viral attachment and entry into host cells. Terpenoids similar to unsolid acid and botulinic acid interfere with the commerce of viral envelope proteins with cellular receptors, thereby blocking contagion internalization (14). Flavonoids like quercetin and catechins inhibit viral neuraminidases and other surface enzymes critical for entry and release

of contagions (15). Following entry, the viral replication phase represents another high target. Alkaloids—similar to berberine and emetine—hibit viral RNA-dependent RNA polymerases and reverse transcriptase, effectively halting viral genome replication (16). Also, several phytochemicals act as protease impediments; for example, curcumin and catharanthine inhibit the main viral proteases vital for recycling viral polyproteins (17). These conditions lead to significant reductions in viral cargo in cell culture and animal models (18). Beyond direct antiviral conduct, numerous phytochemicals modulate host vulnerable responses. Polyphenols and flavonoids parade immunomodulatory parcels by suppressing immune cytokines like interleukin-6 and excrecence necrosis factor-nascence while enhancing antiviral interferons (19). This cytokine modulation is molecularly critical in conditions like COVID-19, where cytokine storms drive pathology (20). Also, antioxidant parcels of phytochemicals cover cells from oxidative stress caused by viral infections, maintaining cellular integrity (21). Importantly, whole plant excerpts frequently profit from community among multiple bioactive that ply reciprocal antiviral effects and reduce toxicity threat (22).

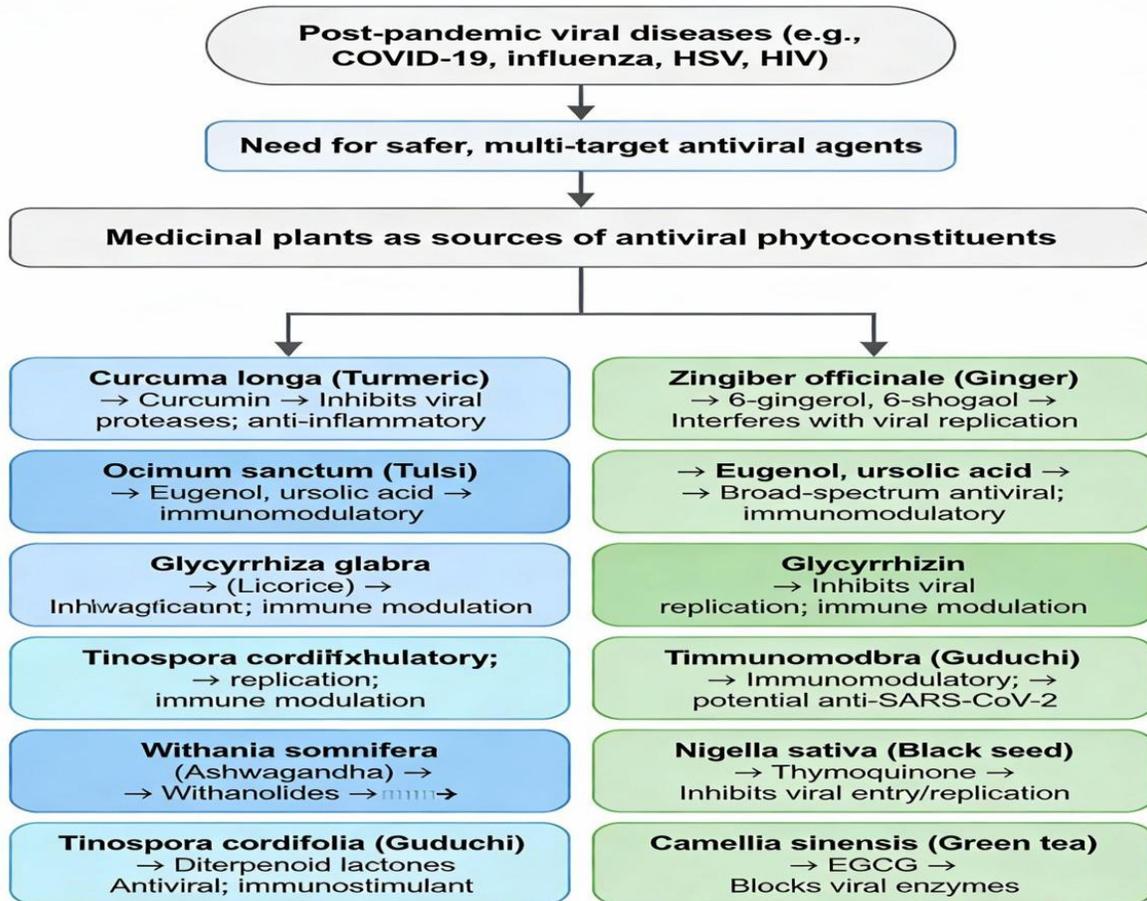


III. ANTIVIRAL PLANTS AND PHYTOCONSTITUENTS

A host of medicinal plants are characterized by an abundance of antiviral phytochemicals, some of which exhibit antiviral efficacy against key viruses of clinical significance (25). *Andrographis paniculata*, commonly used in traditional Asian medicine, contains the diterpenoid andrographolide, which inhibits the replication of respiratory viruses, including influenza and SARS-CoV-2, by inhibiting viral RNA synthesis and immune responses in the host (1).

Additionally, *Glycyrrhiza glabra* (licorice) contains glycyrrhizin, a saponin that is studied as an antiviral for herpes simplex viruses, hepatitis viruses, and SARS-CoV, as it inhibits early events of viral replication and signaling cascades triggered by immune cells in the host (2). *Zingiber officinale*

(ginger) possesses direct antiviral activity against human respiratory syncytial virus and influenza viruses, with compounds such as gingerol acting as virucidal agents and immune stimulants (3). *Sambucus nigra* (elderberry) has been shown, in clinical trials with humans, to contain flavonoids and phenolic acids that inhibited the influenza virus hemagglutinin and altered production of pro-immune cytokines to lessen the severity of the infection in individuals (4). *Phyllanthus amarus* has demonstrated antiviral effects against the hepatitis B virus through two mechanisms: inhibition of the viral DNA polymerase and stimulation of immune response (5). *Carissa edulis* was noted for its anti-herpes effects due to the presence of polyphenolic phytochemicals (6). *Citrus limon* has limonene and *Hedyotis scandens* has iridoid glycosides, which have broad-spectrum antiviral activity against enteroviruses and hepatitis viruses (7).





This image presents a flow-chart overview of viral conditions during the COVID-19 period and after. It starts with viral infections affecting humans and highlights COVID-19 as a major complaint, describing its causes, symptoms, severe effects, and forestallment styles. (32) The map also includes other common viral conditions similar as respiratory infections (influenza, common cold wave, RSV), vector-borne conditions (dengue, chikungunya, Zika), and habitual viral conditions like hepatitis B, hepatitis C, and HIV/ AIDS. It further explains the part of antiviral plants in complaint operation by boosting immunity, reducing viral cargo, and controlling inflammation, leading to bettered complaint control, forestallment, and overall health support alongside modern drug. (33)

#### IV. ESCALATION OF ANTIVIRAL RESISTANCE DUE TO GLOBAL DRUG DEPENDENCE

The COVID-19 epidemic has unnaturally reshaped the global geography of antiviral therapy. The unknown scale of antiviral consumption during and after the epidemic revealed critical sins in current antiviral medicine development, distribution, and long-term sustainability (26). Although synthetic antivirals similar as remdesivir, favipiravir, molnupiravir, and protease inhibitors played a pivotal role in reducing complaint inflexibility, their wide and prolonged use has raised concerns regarding remedial limitations, resistance development, adverse effects, and Economic burden. These challenges emphasize the critical need to

explore indispensable and reciprocal antiviral strategies, roleiculary factory- deduced antiviral agents with broad- diapason exertion (30).

#### Global Challenges in Antiviral Therapy in the Post-Pandemic Period

One of the most significant consequences of expansive antiviral use in the post-COVID period is the accelerated emergence of antiviral resistance. Contagions, particularly RNA contagions, retain high mutation rates and adaptive capabilities that enable them to shirk single-target antiviral curatives (27). nonstop exposure to antiviral Drugs has wielded strong picky pressure, performing in resistant viral variants that compromise treatment efficacy. Reports of reduced responsiveness to generally used antivirals have boosted concerns about future epidemic preparedness. In discrepancy, phytoconstituents frequently act on multiple viral targets contemporaneously, reducing the probability of resistance development and making them seductive campaigners for long-term antiviral intervention (29).

#### Limitations of Current Antivirals Against Emerging and Re-Emerging Contagions

Most being antiviral drugs, they are contagion-specific and warrant broad-diapason efficacy, limiting their utility against recently emerging viral pathogens. The post-pandemic period has witnessed increased outbreaks of viral infections similar to influenza variants, monkeypox, dengue, Zika, and viral hepatitis, for which effective antiviral options remain limited or absent (26). The incapability of current antiviral channels to fleetly respond to emerging pitfalls highlights a major gap in global health security. Medicinal plants, known for their different bioactive composites, offer a force of broad-diapason antiviral agents capable of inhibiting viral entry, replication, assembly, and release across multiple viral families (29).

#### Long-term safety and toxicity concerns of synthetic antivirals

Extended use of conventional antiviral drugs has been associated with colorful adverse effects,

including hepatotoxicity, nephrotoxicity, mitochondrial dysfunction, and vulnerable dysregulation (28). Post-COVID cases suffering from long-term complications or pre-existing comorbidities are particularly susceptible to these side effects. Likewise, the long-term safety biographies of several repurposed antivirals remain deficiently understood. In discrepancy, antiviral plants used in traditional drug systems similar to Ayurveda, Traditional Chinese Medicine, and Unani have a long history of mortal use, suggesting fairly favorable safety biographies when neatly formalized and cured (29).

#### Economic Burden and Inequitable Global Access to Antiviral Drugs

The swell in global antiviral demand during the epidemic significantly strained healthcare budgets and pharmaceutical supply chains. High product costs, patent restrictions, and dependence on transnational pharmaceutical companies have confined access to antiviral specifics in low- and middle-income countries (31). This inequitable distribution has emphasized the need for locally sourced, cost-effective antiviral dothers.

Medicinal plants, which are extensively available and renewable, represent a sustainable option for developing affordable antiviral curatives that can be integrated into public healthcare systems, particularly in resource-limited regions (31).

#### Immunomodulatory and Supportive Role of Antiviral Phytoconstituents

Beyond direct antiviral exertion, numerous factory-deduced composites parade immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory, and antioxidant parcels that are molecularly salutary in post-viral recovery (28). Phytoconstituents similar to flavonoids, polyphenols, and terpenoids can modulate host vulnerable responses, reduce cytokine storm effects, and enhance ingrained immunity. This binary antiviral-immunomodulatory action is especially applicable in the post-COVID period, where vulnerable dysregulation and patient inflammation are common clinical enterprises (29).

## V. CLINICAL EVIDENCE AND THERAPEUTIC APPLICATIONS

Several antiviral phytochemicals are at clinical evaluation, indicating evidence of safety and efficacy in human subjects (11). *Andrographis paniculata*-preparations have demonstrated positive efficacy indications in early clinical trials in HIV, and upper respiratory tract infections (12).

Standardized forms of elderberry extracts have demonstrated statistically significant decreases in the intensity and duration of inflammation which were supported by randomized controlled trials (13).

Additional clinical studies of licorice extract formulations have shown efficacy against viral hepatitis and safety, which was acceptable to researchers for viral agents (14). Ginger supplements have immunity supportive benefits in viral respiratory infections (15).

These early indications of successful clinical application indicate translational potential for useful phytochemicals when standardized and dosed appropriately (16).

Nonetheless, further limitations exist because many utilized phytochemicals do not have adequate randomized controlled data indicating the requisite safety and efficacy for the FDA, or equivalent regulatory entity (17).

Research is ongoing which examine dosing regimens, optimizing batch-to-batch quality or composition, and improving bioavailability, which are essential to success in clinical use (18).

Similarly, the use of antiviral phytochemicals has demonstrated efficacy in uses through complementary and alternative medicine practices in geographic regions which limited access to synthetic antivirals, thus implying potential for public health of scalable impact (19).

Future directed clinical research should include well designed multicenter studies incorporating phytochemical and standard antiviral combination therapy (20).

## VI. FUTURE PROSPECTS

The integration of classical knowledge of botany and the latest developments in technology offers a significant opportunity for moving antiviral phytochemicals forward (21).

High-throughput screening techniques combined with molecular docking and AI-designed drug development methods provide a faster way to identify and optimize bioactive candidate phytochemicals (22).

Nanotechnology formulations, such as lipid nanoroleicles and polymeric nanoemulsions, enhance phytochemical solubility, stability, and delivery to target bioavailability barriers (23).

Ethnobotanical research is continually discovering new antiviral compounds, from hotspots of biodiversity all around the globe, that can fill existing therapeutic gaps for viruses (24).

Collaborations in multidisciplinary research are expected to drive research from pharmacognosy to virology and medicinal chemistry, forward-translationally to the clinic (25).

Regulatory implications remain, but growing interest in natural products for pandemic preparedness is forcing change on policies that hinders clinical research and development to support plant derived antivirals clinical validation and commercialization (1).

Most exciting is the combination of phytochemicals with standard drug regimens to develop multi-targeting antiviral therapies to manage infectious disease (2).

Investments into product development consistency, regulatory science, and infrastructure can realize the therapeutic potential of antiviral plants (3).

## VII. CHALLENGES

Exciting advances, the development of antiviral phytochemicals is fraught with challenges (4).

The heterogeneity of phytochemicals due to species variations, agronomic practices, and extraction methodologies is an obstacle to reproducibility and quality assurance (5).

A number of phytochemical compounds suffer from poor aqueous solubility, instability, and rapid metabolism, resulting in limited bioavailability in humans (6).

In addition, a lack of large-scale, well-designed clinical studies limits our ability to make definitive statements about efficacy and safety, limiting development of these agents into clinical practice when regulatory bodies consider their suitability for incorporation into clinical guidelines (7).

Further, ethical and legal complications associated with bioprospecting, such as intellectual property rights and fair benefit sharing with indigenous populations, are barriers to equitable development and commercialization of the phytochemical (8).

Additionally, the complex stepwise mixtures and botanical preparations in plant extracts further complicate the identification of active (effective) chemicals in extracts and/or biologicals (9).

Addressing these challenges will require pharmacologic standardization, novel delivery systems, available clinical trials, and transparent regulatory mechanisms (10).

### VIII. CONCLUSION

Antiviral plants and their phytochemical constituents represent a strong opportunity to supplement traditional antiviral drug development with safer, more affordable, and broad-spectrum therapies (11). There is emerging molecular and clinical evidence that supports the application of phytochemical antiviral agents into modern medical practices related to emerging viral infections (12). Translating to clinical practice requires synergistic work in the areas of plant product standardization, development of bioavailability, pharmacokinetics, and rigorous clinical trial (13). The threat of viral epidemics to human health is likely to continue, and capitalizing on antiviral phytochemicals can provide sustainable and effective alternatives to synthetic drugs (14). Ongoing support for this multidisciplinary and integrative research area is necessary for pandemic readiness and vaccine-independent control of infectious diseases on a global scale (15).

### REFERENCES

- [1] Alam, M. A., Rahman, M. A., & Chowdhury, J. A. (2021). A review of medicinal plants with antiviral activity... *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 12, Article 732242, 1–22.
- [2] Mukhtar, M., et al. (2008). Antiviral capabilities of medicinal plants. *Virus Research*, 131(2), 111–120.
- [3] Hussain, H., et al. (2017). Medicinal plants as a source of anti-infective agents. *Natural Product Reports*, 34(12), 1925–1932.
- [4] Huang, C., et al. (2016). Traditional Chinese medicine in coronavirus infection. *International Journal of Biological Sciences*, 16(10), 1708–1717.
- [5] Jayakumar, T., et al. (2013). Pharmacology of *Andrographis paniculata*. *Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 2013, Article ID 846740, 1–16.
- [6] Calabrese, C., et al. (2000). Phase I trial of andrographolide in HIV. *Phytotherapy Research*, 14(5), 333–338.
- [7] Li, S. Y., et al. (2005). Natural compounds against SARS-CoV. *Antiviral Research*, 67(1), 18–23.
- [8] Chattopadhyay, D., & Naik, T. N. (2007). Antiviral activity of Indian medicinal plants. *Current Science*, 92(2), 181–188.
- [9] Lin, L. T., et al. (2014). Antiviral natural products and herbal drugs. *Journal of Traditional and Complementary Medicine*, 4(1), 24–35.
- [10] Chang, J. S., et al. (2013). Antiviral activity of ginger. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 145(1), 146–151.
- [11] Zakay-Rones, Z., et al. (2004). Elderberry extract in influenza. *Journal of International Medical Research*, 32(2), 132–140.
- [12] Notka, F., et al. (2004). *Phyllanthus amarus* and HBV. *Journal of Antiviral Research*, 62(1), 1–9.
- [13] Kaushik-Basu, N., et al. (2008). Coumestans as anti-HBV agents. *Antiviral Research*, 47(3), 211–217.
- [14] Behbahani, M., et al. (2013). *Ocimum basilicum* against HIV. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 17(6), e486–e492.
- [15] Panda, S. K., et al. (2017). *Butea monosperma* antiviral study. *Pathogens and Global Health*, 111(6), 304–311.
- [16] Benencia, F., & Courreges, M. C. (2000). Eugenol against HSV-1. *Phytotherapy Research*, 14(7), 495–500.
- [17] Tolo, F. M., et al. (2006). *Carissa edulis* against HSV. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 104(1–2), 92–99.
- [18] Wang, Q., et al. (2012). Anti-immune compounds from Chinese plants. *Phytotherapy Research*, 26(11), 1619–1627.
- [19] Zhou, Y., et al. (2020). Anti-influenza alkaloids. *Virus Research*, 276, Article 197832, 1–9.

- [20] El-Ansari, M. A., et al. (2020). Lignans inhibiting HIV-1 RT. *Phytomedicine*, 78, Article 153302, 1–8.
- [21] Wang, J., et al. (2013). Apiosylglucosides from *Hedyotis scandens*. *Fitoterapia*, 88, 1–6.
- [22] Battistini, C., et al. (2019). Citrus limon oil against HAV. *Antiviral Chemistry and Chemotherapy*, 27, 1–10.
- [23] Schwarz, S., et al. (2014). Kaempferol derivatives vs influenza. *Antiviral Research*, 103, 1–7.
- [24] Bellavite, P., & Donzelli, A. (2020). Hesperidin and SARS-CoV-2. *Phytotherapy Research*, 34(12), 3136–3140.
- [25] Nivetha, R., et al. (2021). In silico COVID-19 inhibitors from *Aegle marmelos*. *Journal of Biomolecular Structure and Dynamics*, 39(15), 5786–5795.
- [26] De Clercq E., Li G. Approved antiviral drugs over the past 50 years. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2016;29(3):695–747.
- [27] Hu Y. et al. Antiviral resistance in the COVID-19 era. *J Med Virol.* 2022;94:1234–1245.
- [28] Ghosh A.K. et al. Drug development efforts against SARS-CoV-2. *Chem Rev.* 2020;120:125–154.
- [29] Lin L.T., Hsu W.C., Lin C.C. Antiviral natural products and herbal medicines. *J Tradit Complement Med.* 2014;4:24–35.
- [30] Li S. et al. Natural products as potential SARS-CoV-2 inhibitors. *Pharmacol Res.* 2021;163:105282..
- [31] WHO. Access to COVID-19 tools (ACT) accelerator equity report. 2022.
- [32] World Health Organization (WHO). Coronavirus disease (COVID-19): Fact Sheet.
- [33] Mishra D., Kumar A., Tiwari A., Deepika & Chaturvedi P. (2023). Antiviral medicinal plants of India as a potential tool against COVID-19. *Journal of Medicinal Herbs and Ethnomedicine*, 9: 1–1