



ISSN (E): 2320-3862

ISSN (P): 2394-0530

www.plantsjournal.com

JMPS 2023; 11(1): 11-24

© 2023 JMPS

Received: 09-10-2022

Accepted: 14-12-2022

Vishal Paul

Reliance Industries Ltd,
Jamnagar, Gujarat, India

Alok Varshney

Reliance Industries Ltd, RCP,
Thane-Belapur Road, Ghansoli,
Navi Mumbai, Maharashtra,
India

Rajesh Nandru

Reliance Industries Ltd, RCP,
Thane-Belapur Road, Ghansoli,
Navi Mumbai, Maharashtra,
India

Shivbachan Kushwaha

Reliance Industries Ltd,
Jamnagar, Gujarat, India

Venkatesh Prasad

Reliance Industries Ltd, RCP,
Thane-Belapur Road, Ghansoli,
Navi Mumbai, Maharashtra,
India

Santanu Dasgupta

Reliance Industries Ltd, RCP,
Thane-Belapur Road, Ghansoli,
Navi Mumbai, Maharashtra,
India

Corresponding Author:

Shivbachan Kushwaha
Reliance Industries Ltd,
Jamnagar, Gujarat, India

Essential oils and extracts of commonly used medicinal plants to fight against emerging and re-emerging infectious diseases including COVID-19

Vishal Paul, Alok Varshney, Rajesh Nandru, Shivbachan Kushwaha, Venkatesh Prasad and Santanu Dasgupta

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.22271/plants.2023.v11.i1a.1506>

Abstract

Introduction: In recent years, many infectious diseases are emerging as a pandemic. COVID-19 is one of the major challenges for mankind at present. The third wave of SARS-CoV-2 outbreak has already started hitting the world and new variants has also started spreading. At present, patients with severe COVID-19 are treated with antiviral drugs for controlling viral infection and supportive treatment with anti-inflammatory and antibacterial drugs to control hyper inflammatory response and secondary infection respectively. Antioxidant drugs are also gaining importance in COVID-19 patient's supportive care. Many herbal preparations are known and have been proven for their health benefits such as immune-modulatory, anti-viral, anti-inflammatory, anti-microbial and Antioxidant roles.

Methods: Four herbal plants of household use were selected for the study namely garlic, cloves, cinnamon and eucalypts. Research data was collected for all the plants for their immune-modulatory, anti-viral, anti-inflammatory, anti-microbial and Antioxidant roles and presented comprehensively in the preparation of this manuscript.

Results: Essential oils and extracts of medicinal plants such as garlic, cloves, cinnamon and eucalypts have all those characteristics required to prevent as well as control infection and supportive care which is important in the fight against COVID-19.

Discussion: There is relevance in the treatment strategy for COVID-19 and medicinal properties of plant extracts which make these medicinal plants as a potential alternative to pharmacological agents for immunity boost up, treatment and management of viral pandemics including COVID-19 outbreak.

Keywords: Medicinal plants, Immunity booster, coronavirus, COVID-19

Introduction

The coronavirus (CoV) is the causative agent of COVID-19. Coronaviruses are large enveloped viruses (Wu *et al.* 2020) ^[100] belong to the family Corona viridae, sub family Corona viridae grouped in to Alpha (α), Beta (β), Gamma (γ), and Delta (δ) genera based on their serological characteristics (Lim *et al.* 2016) ^[84]. All the coronaviruses which have infected humans were reported from α (Human CoV-NL63, Human CoV-229E) and β (Severe Acute Respiratory-Syndrome (SARS) CoV, Middle Eastern Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) CoV and Human CoV-OC43) genera's only (Lu *et al.* 2020) ^[87]. The coronaviruses from β genera have generally caused severe epidemic in the past (SARS and MERS) and COVID-19 also belongs to the β genera of virus SARS-CoV-2 (Yang and Wang, 2020) ^[54].

The COVID-19 is a lower respiratory tract infection with flu-like symptoms similar to the SARS and MERS diseases such as sore throat, cough, fever, body aches and loss of taste or smell in some cases. The second wave of SARS-CoV-2 outbreak has already started hitting countries worldwide. People with poor immunity were found to be more vulnerable to the disease (Das *et al.* 2020) ^[25].

The symptoms of diseases are not visible in some asymptomatic individuals however; they act as potential source of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Historical evidences indicate that human was affected by several viral epidemics, killing billions of people worldwide. The SARS-CoV-2 is also causing extensive mortality all over the globe (>2 million so far). The effective treatment is very much essential, and the scientific community is engaged in extensive search for drugs. Remdesivir has been recommended by WHO for treatment of COVID-19 patients and many other antiviral drugs and combinations are under evaluation.

According to WHO ~80% of the people in many developing countries depend on conventional plant sources for various primary health needs (Bennerman *et al.* 1983; Mahady, 2001)^[10, 91] and even the roots of modern medicine lies in the traditional herbal medicinal plants as a source of active compounds. With the advancement of technological resources, various natural plant resources have been explored as antiviral agents (Ganjhu *et al.* 2015)^[37]. Indian Ayurveda is one of the oldest and systematic medical practice with historical evidences back to 5000 years old. The published literature of Ayurveda mentions several healing plants for infection control and immunity improvement. Advanced research has suggested that primary and secondary metabolites of plants are the active compounds of various herbal medicines with known health benefits including immunity development against various infectious diseases and having antiviral as well as antimicrobial properties. Compounds or supplements of various medicinal plants have the tendency of enhancing immunity, antiviral activity, antibacterial activity, anti-inflammatory activity and antioxidant activities, which are supportive factors in fight against COVID-19 infection prevention as well as treatment. In this review we have discussed about the uses of common traditional plants like garlic, cloves, cinnamon and eucalypt in Indian households. Here, we have described the medicinal

properties of these medicinal plants as a potential alternative to pharmacological agents for management of COVID-19 outbreak.

Pharmacological properties of Medicinal plant and COVID-19

Patients with severe COVID-19 are treated with antiviral and antibacterial drugs. As COVID-19 patients develop a systemic hyper-inflammatory response that leads to lung injury and multisystem organ dysfunction. Thus, combining an antiviral with an anti-inflammatory agent may treat the viral infection as well as dampen the potentially injurious inflammatory response that is a consequence of the infection (Iwasaki *et al.* 2004)^[60]. Potential treatment strategies that are currently in the testing phase against SARS-CoV-2 include antivirals drugs and drugs that can reduce inflammation by suppressing the pro-inflammatory cytokines or corticosteroids that decrease the cytokines storm, ACE-2 inhibitor (Fantini *et al.* 2020)^[33] SARS-CoV-2 specific siRNAs (Hasan *et al.* 2020)^[48], immunomodulatory (Misra *et al.* 2020)^[103] and anti-oxidant drugs. Here we indicate briefly various pathophysiological aspects which need to be addressed for the prevention and treatment of COVID-19 as shown in fig.1 below.

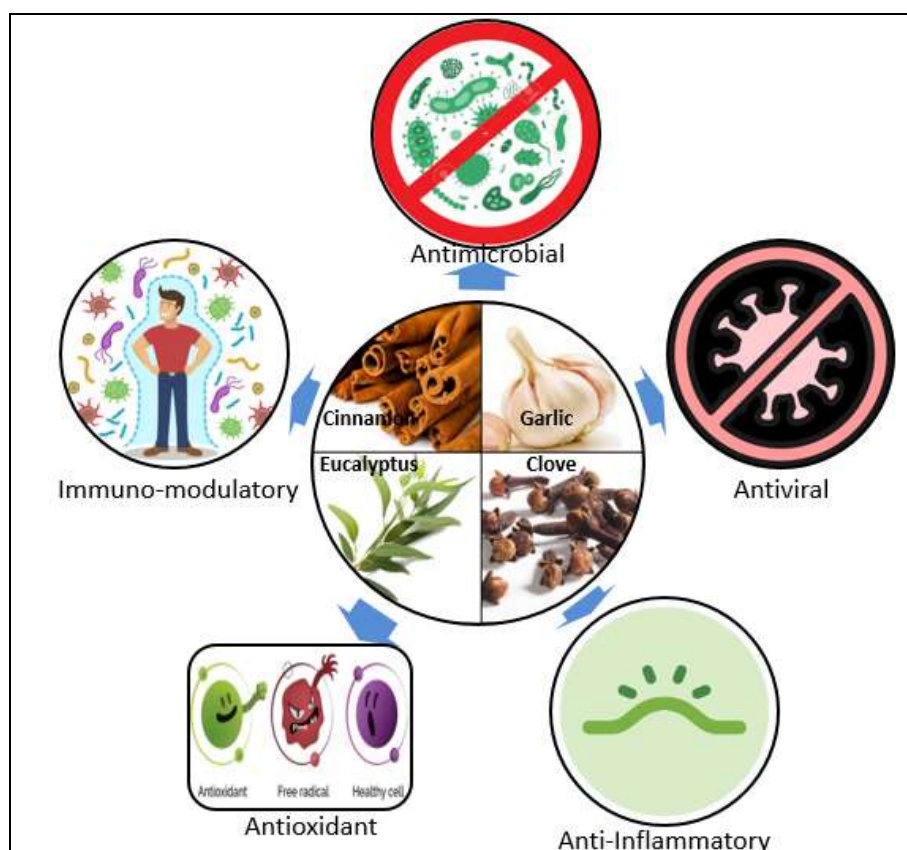


Fig 1: Various properties exhibited by medicinal plants (Clove, cinnamon, garlic and eucalypts) which can control the pathophysiological aspects which need to be addressed for prevention and treatment of COVID-19. (Please include colours)

Viral infection: SARS-CoV-2 binds to host cell through the ACE2 receptor (Li *et al.* 2003a)^[81] and after endocytosis and subsequent uncoating, the components of SARS-CoV-2 use host cells machinery to produce new viruses. Finally, SARS-CoV-2 releases virions to the host cell by exocytosis, during this process, the viral replication can be inhibited at different stages by repositioned antiviral drugs.

Inflammation: A study showed that almost all COVID-

19 positive patients have lung abnormalities. Abnormal and overactive inflammatory responses to SARS-CoV-2 are proposed to be the major causes of disease severity and death in COVID-19 patients (Xu *et al.* 2020; Zhou *et al.* 2020)^[151, 160] This hyper-inflammatory state is associated with increased levels of circulating cytokines, profound lymphopenia, and substantial mononuclear cell infiltration in the lungs and other organs including heart, spleen, lymph nodes, and kidneys. The systemic cytokine profiles observed in patients showed

increased production of cytokines such as IL-6, IL-7, IL-8 and tumour necrosis factor (TNF) and many other pro-inflammatory cytokines (Merad and Martin, 2020) [101]. Controlling this overactive inflammatory response in time is necessary to save the COVID-19 patients.

Immunomodulation: It refers to any processes that alter the immune system either by enhancing (immunostimulation) or suppressing its function. While immunostimulation occurs by activating inactive components of the immune system or expansion of their activity, whereas reduction of the efficacy of immune responses described as immunosuppression. Immunostimulation helps in the prevention of infection by SARS-COV-2 and also in controlling the infection at an early stage. In severe cases, Covid-19 is known to cause hyper immunostimulation causing abnormal and overactive inflammatory responses. In severely infected patients, immunosuppression can be beneficial in diminishing inflammatory responses (Gea-Banacloche *et al.* 2020). There are multiple immunomodulators under evaluation for the treatment of COVID-19. The COVID-19 treatment guidelines panel of WHO have recommended the use of Dexamethasone (or other corticosteroids) with or without Remdesivir for the therapeutic management of patients with COVID-19 but the use of other immunomodulators like Interferons and kinase inhibitors is limited to a clinical trial (WHO interim guidelines 27 Dec 2020).

Bacterial co-infections: Viral-bacterial co-infections are one of the biggest medical concerns, resulting in increased mortality rates in COVID-19. So far there has been limited research on bacterial superinfections in COVID-19 patients. Although highly variable, bacterial co-infection in patients with severe influenza has been reported to be as high as 20–30% (Rice *et al.* 2012; Shah *et al.* 2016; Langford *et al.* 2020) [121, 125, 76] and is associated with more severity of illness, increased use of healthcare resources as well as increased risk of death (Martín-Loeches *et al.* 2011) [96]. While antibiotics are not effective in treating COVID-19, they are prescribed to patients where COVID-19 is suspected or documented for a variety of reasons. This includes difficulty in ruling out bacterial co-infection on presentation, and possibility of bacterial secondary infection while course of the illness. During the Influenza pandemic, patients with bacterial superinfection increase in mortality and There are several

guidelines to use empirical antibiotics in patients with severe COVID-19. (Alhazzani *et al.* 2020; WHO interim guidelines 27 Dec 2020) [3].

Reactive oxygen species: Clinical features of the disease COVID-19 include overproduction of reactive oxygen species. Reactive oxygen species induce oxidative stress responses and contribute to acute lung injury (Khomich *et al.* 2018) [68]. This introduces possible treatment strategy involving anti-oxidant therapy. Antioxidants that can safely react with free to terminate the chain reaction or neutralize it. Multiple clinical trials are underway to evaluate the role of antioxidants in the COVID-19 treatment. A randomized clinical trial Study to evaluate antioxidant therapy for moderate to severe COVID-19 with or without comorbidities is being funded by Obafemi Awolowo University (NCT04466657) (<https://clinicaltrials.gov/>). This is a supportive care type of clinical trial. Another randomized clinical trial with Anti-inflammatory/Antioxidant oral nutrition supplementation on the cytokine storm and progression of COVID-19 (NCT04323228) is recruiting individuals and being funded by King Saud University (<https://clinicaltrials.gov/>). The compounds present in foodstuffs play a vital role in human life, acting as health-protecting agents. Antioxidants from medicinal plants have received rapid consideration against various diseases (Suhaj, 2006) [137].

Historically, the human pharmaceutical arsenal is significantly indebted to nature and in particular to natural products obtained from traditional medicinal plants, fungi and bacteria (Luo *et al.* 2014) [90]. To date, natural products and compounds derived therefrom command a substantial market share, comprising 49% of anti-infectives approved in the past 30 years (Newman *et al.* 2012) [109]. These compounds from medicinal plants considered as bioactive natural products and may ultimately developed as drugs. In food, they would be defined as phytonutrients without therapeutic claims but with significant health benefits that can be used in disease prevention (Wolfender *et al.* 2011) [149]. In the upcoming sections of this review, we will discuss in detail about antiviral, antibacterial, immunomodulatory, anti - inflammatory and antioxidant properties of clove, garlic, cinnamon and eucalypts essential oils and extracts are mentioned in Table 1.

Table 1: Medicinal properties of various parts of medicinal plants like cloves, garlic, cinnamon and eucalypts.

| S no. | Name of plants (Vernacular name) | Scientific name & (Family) | Medicinal properties | References | Useful part |
|-------|----------------------------------|--|--|---------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 | Cloves (Laung, Lavang) | <i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> (Myrtaceae) | Antiviral, Antibacterial (Bacteriostatic, bactericidal), immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, anti-viral, antimycotic, anti-carcinogenic, anaesthetic and analgesic properties. | Pulikottil and Nath, 2015 [119] | Dried Buds, Oil |
| 2 | Garlic (Lahsun) | <i>Allium sativum</i> (Amaryllidaceae) | Antibacterial, antiparasitic, immunomodulatory, lipid metabolism, cardiovascular-protective, anti-oxidant, cardioprotective, anticarcinogenic, and anti-inflammatory activity | Arreola <i>et al.</i> 2015 [4] | Bulblets/ Cloves of Bulbs |
| 3 | Cinnamon (Dalchini) | <i>Cinnamomum verum</i> (Lauraceae) | Antiviral, antimicrobial and antifungal, Anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, wound healing, gynaecological, digestive and respiratory systems, | Unlu <i>et al.</i> 2010 [144] | Bark, leaves |
| 4 | Eucalypts (Nilgiri) | <i>Eucalypts globulus</i> (Myrtaceae) | Antiviral, antibacterial, immunomodulatory, antiinflammatory and antioxidant | Dhakad <i>et al.</i> 2018 [27] | Leaves |

Clove (Vernacular name: Laung, Lavang):

Syzygium aromaticum (Clove) belongs to the family Myrtaceae is a tropical evergreen tree with 8-12 meters in height and large leaves (Cortés-Rojas *et al.* 2014) [24]. This

plant is native to Indonesia but also grown extensively in India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. The small reddish brown dried flower bud is the usable part of this tree. The Leaves and flower buds of this tree have numerous oil glands on their

under-surfaces which makes it aromatic. The flowers are harvested in bud stage (1.5- 2.0 cm long). These flower buds are picked up at green stage with slightly cylindrical base and a ball like unopened corolla. These green buds are sun dried till they turn brown. Once dried they have a refreshing fragrance (Williamson, 2003) [148]. The essential oil of flower buds is an aromatic oil that is used widely as a flavoring agent or as an herbal oil.

Chemical composition: Clove are one of the major botanical sources of phenolic compounds. Essential oil in the clove was found up to 18%, with eugenol as the major and main bioactive compound with ~90% of the oil and 5% to 15% is β -cariofileno and eugenol acetate (Jirovetz *et al.* 2006) [61]. Around 9.38 to 14.65 g/100 g of fresh plant material is Eugenol (Neveu *et al.* 2010) [108]. α -humulen is another important compound found in the essential oil of clove with up to 2.1% concentrations. Gallic acid (Phenolic acids) is the compound found in higher concentrations with 0.78 g/100 g fresh weight (Shan *et al.* 2005) [126] whereas gallic acid derivatives are present in higher concentrations 2.38 g/100 g (Shan *et al.* 2005) [126]. Flavonoids, kaempferol, quercetin and their derivatives (glycosylated) are also found in lower concentrations. Other volatile compounds present in lower concentrations in clove essential oil are β -pinene, limonene, farnesol, benzaldehyde, 2-heptanone and ethyl hexanoate (Jirovetz *et al.* 2006) [61].

Antimicrobial properties: Eugenol, a phenylpropene compound, which is the major constituent of CEO has strong biological and antimicrobial activities. Eugenol has antimicrobial, antifungal, antiviral, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and anticancer properties (Han and Parker, 2017a) [45]. Clove oil is used as an antiseptic in oral infections (Meeker *et al.* 1988; Shapiro *et al.* 1994) [98, 127]. The antimicrobial and anti-inflammatory properties of eugenol could be used for the treatment of oral and periodontal diseases (Pulikottil and Nath, 2015) [119]. It is also used traditionally as an antimicrobial agent in food (Lee and Shibamoto, 2001; Nuñez *et al.* 2001; Huang *et al.* 2002) [79, 112, 53]. It was also found effective against *L. monocytogenes* and *S. Enteritidis* (Smith-Palmer *et al.* 2001) [133]. It is well known that both eugenol and other phenolic compounds of clove essential oil can react with cell membrane phospholipids changing their permeability and denature proteins, inhibiting a great number of bacteria (Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria), yeast and molds (Chaib *et al.* 2007) [16].

Anti-inflammatory properties: the anti-inflammatory activity of Eugenol in human gingival fibroblast and pulp cells is proven (Koh *et al.* 2013) [72]. CEO has showed strong activity in inhibiting the proliferation of dermal fibroblasts in humans (Han and Parker, 2017a) [45]. It has shown significant inhibition of the several proinflammatory biomarkers such as vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1), interferon c-induced protein 10 (IP-10), interferon-inducible T-cell a chemoattractant (I-TAC), and monokine induced by c interferon (MIG) (Han and Parker, 2017a) [45]. Anti-inflammatory mechanisms of clove key constituents on the specific immune system components have only recently begun to be studied in detail (Yogalakshmi *et al.* 2010; Bachiega *et al.* 2012; Grespan *et al.* 2012) [156, 7, 40].

Antiviral properties: The antiviral activity of eugenin was tested against herpes virus strains and was found effective at 5

$\mu\text{g/mL}$, and it was found that eugenin inhibited the viral DNA polymerase and thereby inhibited viral DNA synthesis (Kurokawa *et al.* 1998) [74]. Cloves were also found effective against Herpes Simplex Virus-1 (HSV 1) and Herpes Simplex Virus-2 (HSV 2) (Benencia and Courrges, 2000; Tragoolpua and Jatisatienr, 2007) [9, 140]. Additionally, Eugenol of *S. aromaticum* was also highly active in inhibiting replication of the hepatitis C virus (Hussein *et.al.*, 2000) [55]. Aqueous extracts of *S. aromaticum* (L.) also showed strong anti HSV-1 activity when combined with acyclovir (Kurokawa *et al.* 1995) [75].

Antioxidant properties: Recently, the US Department of Agriculture in collaboration with Universities and private companies created a database with the polyphenol content and antioxidant activity of different kinds of foods. Based on this database, Pérez-Jiménez *et al.* (2010) [117] classified the 100 richest dietary sources of polyphenols where clove showed higher content of polyphenols and antioxidant compounds. Another study also showed a high correlation between the polyphenols content and the antioxidant activity (Shan *et al.* 2005) [126]. Clove (buds) was the spice presenting higher antioxidant activity and polyphenol content, tetraethylammonium chloride 168.6 mmol of Trolox/100g dried weight and 14.4 of gallic acid (equivalents/100g of dried weight) respectively. The major types of phenolic compounds found were phenolic acids (gallic acid), flavonol glucosides, phenolic volatile oils (eugenol, acetyl eugenol) and tannins. The huge potential of clove was highlighted as a free radical scavenger and as a commercial source of polyphenols. Gülçin *et al.* (2012) [164] compared the antioxidant activity of clove oil and synthetic antioxidants in terms of the scavenging of the DPPH radical and found decreased in the following order: clove oil > BHT > α -tocopherol > butylated hydroxyanisole > Trolox. Ethanol and aqueous extracts of clove at concentrations of 20 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 40 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and 60 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ showed inhibitions up to 95% when tested as metal quelants, superoxide radical capture and scavenging of the DPPH radical. The powerful antioxidant activity of both extracts may be attributed to the strong hydrogen donating ability, metal chelating ability and scavenging of free radicals (Gülçina *et al.* 2004) [42].

Immunomodulatory: The major ingredients of clove essential oil have been shown to be eugenol followed by eugenyl acetate, tanene, thymol, and β -cariophyllene (El-Ghorab and El-Massry, 2003) [31]. These components are known to modulate immune responses even though the mechanisms of action is not known (Choi *et al.* 2007) [122]. Effects of the clove extract on macrophage cytokine formation or release were mainly dose-related and bi-phasic for IL-6 and TNF α , while effects on IL-12 were mostly unremarkable. The data from previous studies suggest a narrow immunomodulatory effect from clove components. Further studies using different doses with pure eugenol on various target cell types may give a clearer picture for medicinal purposes.

Garlic (Vernacular name: Lahsun)

Allium sativum (Garlic) belongs to the family Amaryllidaceae. The long cylindrical leaves of garlic plant arise from a short hard stem just above the bulb or emerge from a pseudo stem made of overlapping leaf sheaths. The bulb is covered with membranous scales and encloses up to 20 edible bulblets called cloves. Flower stalks sometimes arise bearing tiny

bulbils and sterile blossoms. Garlic is usually grown as an annual crop and is propagated by planting cloves, top bulbils or, through seeds. The most usable part of this plant is cloves and sometimes the inflorescence and leaves. Garlic is originated from central Asia and then spread to the whole Africa, Europe. It has been used by humans for 7,000 years as medicinal and culinary purposes.

Chemical composition: Chemistry of the *Allium* has been dominated by many sulfur-containing compounds that give it a characteristic flavor. However, a variety of other components, including non-sulfur compounds, work synergistically to provide various health benefits. Intact garlic cloves generally contain nonvolatile sulfur-containing compounds. The major sulfur-containing compounds in intact garlic are γ -glutamyl-S-allyl-L-cysteines and S-allyl-L-cysteine sulfoxides (alliin). Processed garlic and garlic essential oil contains a wider variety of organosulfur volatiles than the intact garlic clove (Harunobu, 2006) [47]. Crushed garlic contains volatiles such as DAS (diallyl sulfide), DADS (diallyl disulfide), diallyl trisulfide, methylallyl disulfide, methylallyl trisulfide, 2-vinyl-4H-1, 3-dithiin, 3-vinyl-4H-1, 2-dithiin, and (E,Z)-ajoenes. The major sulfides in garlic essential oil contains 57% DAS, 37% allylmethyl-, 6% dimethyl mono- to hexasulfides (Lawson *et al.* 1991) [77].

Antimicrobial Properties: Allicin, is the main biologically active component of freshly crushed garlic, which is formed by enzymatic conversion of alliin to allicin. Allicin can be easily disintegrated at ambient temperature for longer time and gets converted in to stable compounds. 2-propenesulfenic acid and tioacrolein are the two key molecules obtained from garlic, which gets converted into greater molecules such as diallyl trisulfide and dithiin (Fujisawa *et al.* 2008; Guo *et al.* 2012) [36, 43]. Garlic is a potential antibiotic and effective against the bacteria resistant to antibiotics. In 1970's, scientists tested the garlic extract on 10 resistant bacterial and yeast species and found effective against *Salmonella*, *S. aureus*, *Mycobacterium* and *Proteus* species (Bergner and Rocklin, 1995) [11]. Alcoholic garlic extract was found much more stable and effective than the aqueous extract. Tests shown that allicin is sole responsible for antimicrobial activity of garlic, and it was three times more effective on Gram-positive bacteria than Gram-negative bacteria. These results may be attributed to the 10 times higher membrane lipid content in gram-negative *E. coli* than gram positive *S. aureus*. The antibacterial effects of aqueous extract of Ethiopian garlic (*A. sativum* L.) extracts on 30 different species of *S. aureus* have proven antimicrobial property (Deresse, 2010) [26].

Anti-inflammatory: Macrophages represent the usual source for an oxidative burst in immune responses as well as for inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS). iNOS expression can be upregulated by pro-inflammatory cytokines, LPS and hypoxia. iNOS expression can be downregulated by anti-inflammatory cytokines TGF β and IL10, the tumor suppressor gene p53 and NO (nitric oxide) itself (Kleinert *et al.* 2003) [71]. Stimulation of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL10 was observed in LPS-stimulated human whole-blood cultures by garlic extracts while monocyte production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNF α , IL1 α , IL6, IL8, T-cell IFN γ , IL2 and TNF α) was significantly suppressed (Hodge *et al.* 2002) [50]. This was repeated on LPS-stimulated human placental explants and garlic extract was found to stimulate

the production of anti-inflammatory cytokines and inhibiting the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (Makris *et al.* 2005) [92]. In a study on activated macrophages, it was found that garlic oil derivatives suppressed the production of NO and prostaglandin E2 (PGE₂) and bring about an anti-inflammatory effect (Chang *et al.* 2005) [18]. The anti-oxidative effects of garlic have been linked to the maintaining intracellular glutathione level and removal of peroxides where inhibition of NF κ B activation seems to be central to these effects (Ide *et al.* 2001) [59]. In an experimental study, compounds like DADS, DAS, and alliin from garlic were found to considerably reduced inflammation during dengue infection (Hall *et al.* 2017) [44].

Antiviral properties: Flavonoids present in garlic are found to have strong anti-viral activity. Phytochemicals present in garlic has been observed to block protein production and DNA replication in the viruses (Castrillo and Carrasco, 1987; Vrijen *et al.* 1987; Zandi *et al.* 2011) [14, 145]. Garlic extract have been proven to minimize influenza A and B viral infections (Fenwick and Hanley 1985) [35]. Garlic is also effective against cytomegalovirus (Meng *et al.* 1993; Nai-Lan *et al.* 1993), rhinovirus, HIV, HSV-1 (Tsai *et al.* 1985) [141], HSV-2 (Weber *et al.* 1992) [146], viral pneumonia and rotavirus. Common cold virus considerably minimizes by garlic (Josling, 2001) [62]. Garlic also exhibited strong inhibitory effects against the poultry virus, Infectious Bronchitis Virus (IBV), which significantly affect the poultry industry (Shojai *et al.* 2016) [130]. Chemicals like Ajoene, allyl alcohol, and diallyl disulfide in garlic can act as an antiviral against HIV (Shoji *et al.* 1993; Tatarintsev *et al.* 1992) [131, 139]. Organosulfur compounds like allicin, diallyl trisulfide, and ajoene are the main chemicals which impart antiviral property to garlic (Hughes *et al.* 1989; Weber *et al.* 1992) [54, 146].

Antioxidant Properties: Garlic was found to have antioxidant properties. Ide investigated and found clear supportive data that AGE and SAC significantly prevent membrane damage, loss of cell viability, and lipid peroxidation in bovine pulmonary artery endothelial cells (PAECs) exposed to oxidized LDL (Ide *et al.* 1997). According to Yamasaki *et al.* (1997) [152] and Wei and Lau, (1998) [147], AGE suppresses hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) and superoxide molecule production and also significantly increases the activities of superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase, and glutathione peroxidase. It was observed that these chemicals affected the oxidative stress response mechanism (Hall *et al.* 2017) [44].

Immunomodulatory properties: Intrinsic and extrinsic factors are responsible for Immune regulation however diet *al.so* plays a significant role in the immune system for its proper functioning and response (Lin and Karin, 2007) [86]. Immunity boosting properties of garlic are well known for ages. Numerous compounds have been detected in Aged Garlic Extract (AGE) that have the potential to affect immunity, including the lectin family, which is known to interact with pathogen recognition receptors on immune cell surfaces (Huysamen and Brown, 2009; Kingeter and Lin, 2012) [56, 70]. Na-fructosyl arginine and Fructo-oligosaccharide are aged garlic compounds that have structures resembling pathogen-associated molecular patterns, with the potential to interact with immune cells (Chandrashekar *et al.* 2011) [17]. Nutrition scientists from the University of Florida published a

report in the journal clinical nutrition in 2012, proving that dietary uptake of Garlic/extract could reduce the severity of cold and flu symptoms faster as compared with those who did not take garlic. The scientists guessed that the garlic extract could have worked by boosting immunity. Scientists examined the effects of AGE on lymphocytes, the $\gamma\delta$ -T cell could reduce the severity of cold and flu symptom (Nantz *et al.* 2012) [107]. Studied on a group of 120 people in extreme Cold and Flu season and found that the people on AGE intake had less Flu/cold symptoms in comparison (Percival 2016) [116].

Cinnamon

Cinnamomum aromaticum and *Cinnamomum zeylanicum* (CZ) are two main varieties of the inner bark of tropical evergreen tree cinnamon (Soliman *et al.* 2012) [134]. Cinnamon is obtained by peeling the outer side of the trees bark and allowing the inner side of the trees bark to dry and coil up into its usual cinnamon quills. Characteristic flavour of Cinnamon makes it useful as excitement in cooking. *C. true* cinnamon or Ceylon cinnamon. Coumarin content is one main important difference between the cassia cinnamon and 'true' cinnamon. Coumarin content in CZ seems to be very small to be good for consumption on a regular basis (Lungarini *et al.* 2008) [89]. Cinnamon is also used as the Ayurveda medicine in the treatment of many diseases along with those of the respiratory, gynecological and digestive systems.

Chemical composition: Bark is the main useful part of the cinnamon tree, which contains around 65-80% Cinnamaldehyde and 5-10% Eugenol. Cinnamon tree leaves contain 1-5% Cinnamaldehyde and 70-95% Eugenol. Root bark contains 60% Camphor. Fruit contains *trans*- 42-54% Cinnamyl acetate and 9-14% caryophyllene. The key constituents of cinnamon essential oil are cinnamaldehyde and *trans*-cinnamaldehyde (Cin), which contribute to various biological activities and the fragrance (Yeh *et al.* 2013). Essential oil extracted from *C. zeylanicum* named (E)-cinnamaldehyde is a major-constituents and it has an antityrosinase activity (Marongiu *et al.* 2007) [95] similar to cinnamaldehyde (Chou *et al.* 2013) [23].

Antimicrobial properties: Antibacterial activities of several *C. zeylanicum* bark extracts, obtained with different organic solvents (acetate, acetone and methanol) were tested *in vitro* by the disk-diffusion method against various bacteria (*Enterobacter cloacae*, *Klebsiella pneumonia*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Corynebacterium xerosis*, *Bacillus megaterium*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* *Streptococcus faecalis*). The antibacterial activity was in the range of 7 to 18 mm zone of inhibition for 30 μ L, suggestive of high antibacterial activity (Keskin and Toroglu, 2011) [67]. A study showed that the ethanolic extract of stem bark of *C. zeylanicum* exhibited antibacterial activity against methicillin resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) (Mandal *et al.* 2011) [94]. The extract, which showed a zone of inhibition of 22 to 27 mm was found to be bactericidal after 6 hrs of incubation. Authors concluded that *C. zeylanicum* could be considered value in the treatment of infection and a source of molecule for the development of potential antimicrobial agents against MRSA bacteria (Mandal *et al.* 2011) [94]. Cinnamon bark essential oil was tested for antibacterial activity (expressed as MIC) against several pathogenic bacterial strains (*Salmonella typhi*, *Salmonella paratyphi* A, *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and *Bacillus licheniformis*),

tested sample showed excellent activity against all the selected bacterial strains (MIC values ranged from 2.9 to 4.8 mg/mL). The analysis revealed the presence of *t*-cinnamaldehyde (which was the most abundant substance, corresponding to 4.3%), eugenol (0.32%) and minor components such as cuminaldehyde, and γ -terpinene (Mandal *et al.* 2011) [94].

Anti-inflammatory properties: Several studies have shown the anti-inflammatory activities of cinnamon (Li *et al.* 2003b; Matu and Staden, 2003) [82, 97] and its essential oil (Tung *et al.* 2008, 2010) [143, 142]. Several flavonoid compounds have been isolated from cinnamon (e.g. gossypin, gnaphalin, hesperidin, hibifolin, hypolaetin, oroxindin, and quercetin) that have anti-inflammatory activities (Cho *et al.* 2013; Stoner *et al.* 2013) [21, 135]. Anti-inflammatory properties of cinnamon have been proven using an animal model with induced inflammation is suppressed by *trans*-cinnamaldehyde (Chen *et al.* 2016) [19]. Anti-inflammatory activity of cinnamaldehyde has been described in another study (Mendes *et al.* 2016) [99]. The cinnamon (*C. zeylanicum*) bark essential oil (CBEO) inhibitory effect on highly inflamed skin suggests that cinnamaldehyde and CBEO may be promising molecules in the wound healing. CBEO has also shown significant inhibition of inflammatory cytokinesis showing Anti-inflammatory activity (Han and Parker, 2017b) [165]. A recent study reported that 2'-hydroxycinnamaldehyde exhibited an inhibitory effect on the production of nitric oxide by inhibiting the activation of the NF- κ B, indicating the anti-inflammatory activity (Lee *et al.* 2005) [80]. The ethanolic extract also showed anti-inflammatory activity by reducing the activation of Src/spleen-tyrosine-kinase- (Src/Syk-) mediated NF- κ B (Youn *et al.* 2008; Yu *et al.* 2012) [157, 158]. Various compounds contained in *C. ramulus* also showed anti-inflammatory effects by suppressing the expression of iNOS, COX-2, and NO production in the central nervous system (CNS), suggesting, *C. ramulus* could be a potential source for medication of inflammation-mediated neurodegenerative diseases (Hwang *et al.* 2009) [57].

Antiviral properties: Cinnamon has been used as a medicine around the world because of its health benefits. *Trans*-cinnamaldehyde of cinnamon could inhibit influenza A/PR/8 virus transmission *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Hayashi *et al.* 2007) [49]. In another study, incubation of virus with Cinnamon bark extract before influenza infection showed 45% reduced infectivity at 500 μ g/ml concentration. Hence, it is speculated that cinnamon components possibly blocked viral entry. In addition, treatment of cells with cinnamon after viral entry also showed up to 45% reduction of infection at 500 μ g/ml concentration. This could be due to inhibition viral replication by inhibiting certain pathways essential for replication. Extract of cinnamon cassia bark was found highly effective against replication of HIV virus, by effectively controlling cell atrogenicity in HIV infected MT-4 cells (Premanathan *et al.* 2000) [118].

Antioxidant properties: Cinnamon bark contains procyanidins and catechins (Nonaka *et al.* 1983; Peng *et al.* 2008; Tanaka *et al.* 2008) [111, 115, 138]. These procyanidins extracted from cinnamon possess antioxidant activities (Peng *et al.* 2008; Tanaka *et al.* 2008) [115, 138]. various extracts of cinnamon (ether, aqueous, and methanol) have shown considerable antioxidant activities (Mancini- Filho *et al.* 1998) [93]. A study on rats reported that the administration of

the 10% *C. verum* bark powder for 90 days produced antioxidant activities (Dhuley *et al.* 1999) ^[29]. A research group reported that cinnamon oil potentially exhibits SOD like activity (Kim *et al.* 1995) ^[69]. Aqueous and alcoholic extract in 1:1 ration, significantly inhibited fatty acid oxidation and lipid peroxidation (Shobana *et al.* 2000) ^[129]. Studies reveal that, different flavonoids isolated from cinnamon have antioxidant properties (Okawa *et al.* 2001) ^[113]. In a study, the major compounds present in cinnamon were investigated for antioxidant activity. Eugenol and the essential oil were effective antioxidants (Chericoni *et al.* 2005) ^[20]. In a comparative study among 26 spices, cinnamon showed the highest antioxidant activity (Shan *et al.* 2005) ^[126]. Another study examined the effectiveness of a mixture of spices with 1 g/100 g cinnamon bark, showed a significant antioxidant activity as compared with control (Suganthi *et al.* 2007) ^[136]. Research showed that cinnamaldehyde possesses possible inhibitory activity against the production of nitric oxide. The highest activities were reported as 81.5%, 71.7%, at 1.0, and 0.5 µg/µL, respectively (Lee *et al.* 2002) ^[78]. Lin *et al.* (2003) ^[85] reported the antioxidant activity of ethanolic and hot water extracts of the dry bark of *C. cassia*, where ethanolic extract exhibited 96% inhibition, compared to the natural antioxidant α -tocopherol (93.7%). Overall, cinnamon exhibited higher antioxidant activities compared to that of other dessert spices (Murcia *et al.* 2004) ^[104].

Immunomodulatory properties: The immunomodulatory effects of cinnamon were studied using different experimental studies. Mice orally administered the bark extracts at doses of 10 and 100 mg/kg and levamisole (2.5 mg/kg p.o.) was used as standard drug. The low dose of cinnamon bark (10 mg/kg p.o.) produced increase in serum immunoglobulins levels 100 mg/ kg p.o. decreased *Pasteurella multocida*-induced mortality by 17%, and increased serum antibody titer values. The research showed that cinnamon at high dose increases both humoral immunity and cell-mediated immunity, however at low dose only humoral immunity gets activated. Cinnamon at the higher dose showed protection against viral challenge as in levamisole. Cinnamaldehyde from cinnamon bark is reported to inhibit lymphocyte proliferation and NF-B stimulation (Koh *et al.* 1998; Reddy *et al.* 2004) ^[73, 120]. Though the exact immunostimulant component of cinnamon is not known, studies confirm that the high dose has immunostimulant activity (by S.R. Niphade *et al.* 2009) ^[110].

Eucalypts

Eucalypts is a genus which includes more than 700 species in the Myrtaceae family. Plants in the genus *Eucalypts* have bark that is either smooth, fibrous, hard or stringy, leaves with oil glands. Most of the eucalypts species are native to Australia and few of them are native of nearby islands. *Eucalypts* is being grown in many countries worldwide for timber, pulpwood or essential oils. Fast growth makes eucalypts a suitable for windbreaks and erosion control and additionally it is an economically important tree (Seely, 2017) ^[123]. *Eucalypts* have attracted attention because of desirable traits such as fast-growth, oil production for cleaning and as a natural insecticide. *Eucalypts* oil has many uses in fragrances, insect repellence and antimicrobial activity. *Eucalypts* trees release secondary metabolite compounds which inhibit other plant species from growing in vicinity. Aromatherapists have adopted eucalypts oils for a wide range of purposes (Nanko *et al.* 2005) ^[106]. *Eucalypts* oil is used for in very small quantities in food supplements, especially sweets, cough drops,

toothpaste, and decongestants. *Eucalypts globulus* is the principal source of eucalypts oil worldwide.

Chemical composition: essential oils of many *Eucalypts* species (*E. globulus*, *E. maideni*; *E. astrengens*; *E. cinerea*; *E. leucoxylon*; *E. lehmani*; *E. sideroxylon*; *E. bicostata*) was studied and found to contain α -pinene, 1,8-cineol and pinocarveol-trans for all *Eucalypts* species studied. The 1,8-cineol was found as a major compound in all studied species. The essential oil composition of the *Eucalypts* species from the region of Bizerte showed that all of them contained 1,8-cineole, the highest content was obtained from *E. maideni* (83.59%) followed by *E. cinerea* and *E. lehmani* (respectively 79.18% and 49.07%). Though, the studied species were from the same region, they had shown differences in the levels of some compounds. This may be due to genetic effects. Essential oils extracted from species from Aindraham arboretum (*E. sideroxylon* and *E. bicostata*) had same level of 1,8 cineole and the species from Korbous arboretum (*E. lehmani*) had the lowest level of 1,8-cineole (49.07%) but the highest level of α -pinene (26.35%). Ben jemâa *et al.* (2012) reported that GC and GC-MS analyses showed that chemical composition varied with Tunisian *Eucalypts* species and seasons. The five essential oils contained 1,8-cineole, α -pinene, and α -terpineol as major common compounds. The essential oils of twenty *Eucalypts* species harvested from North West and North of Tunisia were studied and the authors identified, by GC and GC/MS, eighteen major compounds and the main ones were 1,8-cineol followed by α -pinene, p-cymene, borneol, cryptone, spathulenol, viridiflorol and limonene. Authors showed that 1,8-cineol was the major molecule followed by trans-pinocarveol and α -terpineol from the class of oxygenated monoterpenes. The second major class of compounds found was oxygenated sesquiterpenes. Borneol, spathulenol, viridiflorol and globulol were the oxygenated sesquiterpenes found in the eucalypts oil. The third major class of compounds found in eucalypts was the monoterpene hydrocarbons constituted by a high level of α -pinene, p-cymene and limonene (Elaissi *et al.* 2011) ^[30].

Antimicrobial properties: Bacteriostatic and bactericidal effects both are exhibited by Blends of *Eucalypts globulus*, *Daucus carota*, *Rosmarinus officinalis* and *Cinnamomum zeylanicum* against all Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria tested, with MBCs stretching from <0.01% to 6% v/v and MICs stretching from 0.01% to 3% v/v (Brochot *et al.* 2017) ^[13]. Many gram-positive bacteria like *Bacillus subtilis*, *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis* and *Staphylococcus aureus* has significant sensitivity to EO (Ashour, 2008) ^[5]. In a case report, inhalation of EO vapours by a tuberculosis patient for about ten days resulted in relieving the symptoms like breathing difficulty, reduction in the body temperature and sputum culture was negative (Sherry *et al.* 2004). In an *Eucalypts* plant different parts also have antifungal activity against major fungal species like *Aspergillus flavus*, *Candida albicans* and *Aspergillus niger* (Ashour, 2008) ^[5]. Oyedeji *et al.* (2009) ^[114] showed significant antibacterial activity on gram-positive and gram-negative and antifungal activity on *Candida albicans* with essential oils of five varieties of *Eucalypts* from Nigeria. Various scientists tested essential oils of *Eucalypts* by Simeon method (Simeon, 1976) and reported antimicrobial activity against bacteria as well as fungi (Beylier and Givaudan, 1979. Gilles *et al.* 2010) ^[12, 39].

Anti-inflammatory properties: One study has demonstrated that pre-treatment of LPS/ IFN- γ stimulated cells with *E.*

globulus extracts leads to a significant reduction in nitric oxide levels in the medium without affecting cell viability. This effect is mediated (a) by inhibition of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) mRNA expression and/or (b) by NO scavenging. Study has proven that EO has anti-inflammatory effect by reducing the inflammations caused lipopolysaccharide, without any side effects (Serafino *et al.* 2008) [124]. Major EO component 1,8-cineole significantly showed anti-inflammatory effect by inhibiting the IL-1B (74%), TNF-A (99%), thromboxane B2 (91%) and leukotriene B4 (47%) (Juergens *et al.* 1998) [64]. Anti-inflammatory effect of alfa-pinene showed by reducing the activity of NF-kB (Zhou *et al.* 2004) [161]. 300 mg/Kg of EO used for treating the bronchitis and lowering the infiltration of inflammatory cells (Lu *et al.* 2004) [88]. Thus, these findings indicate that *E. globulus* extracts may be useful anti-inflammatory drugs in some respiratory pathologies, in line with their traditional use. *E. globulus* also showed No scavenging activity, which could be due to their phenolic components.

Anti-viral properties: Significant antiviral activity is found in different secondary plant metabolites like tannins, saponins, lignans, flavonoids, alkaloids, thiophenes, polyines, phenolic acids and other sugars against different viruses (Chiang *et al.* 2003; Palomino *et al.* 2002) [162, 163]. In Eucalypts, essential oils, phenylpropanoids and erpenes are the main biologically active components (Astani *et al.* 2010; Dhifi *et al.* 2016) [6, 28]. The *E. torelliana* crude methanolic extracts of Ec were found to be active against human enteroviruses: Coxsackievirus B, Echovirus 6, Poliovirus type I (Adeniyi *et al.* 2015) [2]. Significant activity has been shown by the aqueous extract of the Eucalypts fruit against HSV-1 whereas little anti-HSV-1 activity shown by the ethanolic extracts (Ju *et al.* 2011) [63]. EO has significantly impacted on herpes simplex virus type 1 by reducing 96% of viral replication activity. EO has shown plaque reduction for mumps virus (Cermelli *et al.* 2008) [15]. Antiviral activity shown by the *E. globulus* and *C. zeylanicum* Eos on HSV1 and H1N1 (Astani *et al.* 2010) [6]. Vimalanathan and Hudson, 2014) Significant reduction of viral units for HSV1 and H1N1 with reduction more than 99.99% (>4 log) with 80% and 40% AB1 after 60 min and a reduction more than 99% (>2 log) was observed with 1% AB1 with a 60-min contact time for H1N1 (Brochot, *et al.* 2017) [13]. Antiviral activity is strongly shown by the Ec ethanolic extract against different members of the herpes viruses' family (VZV, HSV-1 and HSV-2). Between the MeOH fraction of Ec and ACV (acyclovir) there is found to be 80% strong cooperative antiviral activity of EC. Significantly the viral infection inhibition (~75%) was observed when the cells treated with both 0.1 µg/ml of Ec fraction mixture and 0.01µg/ml ACV mixture (Abu-Jafar and Huleihel, 2017) [1]. Antiviral activity of EO is mild against enveloped viruses like simplex virus and mumps virus (Cermelliet *al.* 2008) [15].

Antioxidant: The free radical scavenging activity of the different concentrations of the leaf oil (10, 20, 40, 60 and 80% (v/v) in DMSO) of *E. globulus* increased in a concentration dependent fashion. In DPPH method, the oil in 80% (v/v) concentration exhibited $79.55 \pm 0.82\%$. In nitric oxide radical scavenging assay method, it was found that 80% (v/v) concentration exhibited $81.54 \pm 0.94\%$ inhibition. It was concluded that leaf oil is potent inhibition of free radicals (Mishra *et al.* 2010) [102]. The antioxidant activity against

DPPH, ABTS and B-carotene bleaching methods of the methanolic extract is 75.6, 81.60 and 60.40% at 50 µg/ml respectively, and is increased to 90.24, 94.8 and 71.6% respectively on doubling the extract concentration to 100 µg/ml. However, petroleum ether extract used to show an antioxidant activity lower than methanolic extract at 50 and 100 µg/ml when compared to BHT as a synthetic standard and ascorbic acid as a natural standard (ranged from 78 to 87%). The obtained data clearly shows that the ABTS method recorded the highest antioxidant activity (94.8%), at the extract concentration of 100 µg/ml, which exceeds that of the standard BHT (84.6%), ascorbic acid (87%) and petroleum ether extract at the same concentration (22.84%). The dose response curves of promising sample (Crude methanolic extract) was analysed, suggesting that there is a positive correlation between the concentration of the sample (5-50 µg/ml) and the antioxidant activity against DPPH radical (12-70%) (El-Moein *et al.* 2012) [32]. These results went parallelly with Lim *et al.* who reported that dichloromethane fraction from methanol extract exhibited the strongest antioxidant activity in red blood cell haemolysis and lipid peroxidation assays (Lim *et al.* 2011) [83].

Immunomodulatory: in a study, *E. globulus* essential oil (EO) had shown stimulated phagocytic activity in cultured human monocyte-derived macrophages (MDMs), independently of LPS treatment (Serafino *et al.* 2008) [124]. The effects on phagocytic activity of eucalypts (*E. globulus*) EO were investigated by Serafino *et al.* (2008) [124]. EO was also studied by administering in drinking water of immuno-competent rats with and without immunosuppression induced by 5-fluorouracil (5-FU). A EO treatment study in rats had shown significantly increased circulating monocytes and their phagocytic activity in comparison with untreated controls rats (Sadlon *et al.* 2010) [122]. EO treatment also showed inhibition of 5-FU induced myelotoxicity simultaneously restoring the phagocytic ability of monocytes and MDMs (Sadlon *et al.* 2010) [122]. Eucalypts globulus EO treatment also induced the primary antibody response in broiler chickens but the secondary antibody response did not differ significantly (Farhadi *et al.* 2017) [34]. Data from Various *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies demonstrate marked immunomodulatory properties of both eucalypts oil and its active ingredient, i.e. eucalyptol on monocytes and macrophage recruitment in response to lung infections and inflammation. These studies had shown release of pro-inflammatory cytokines from monocytes and macrophages. (Sadlon and Lamson, 2010; Juergens *et al.* 2020) [122, 65]. Eucalyptol is also known to have mucolytic and bronchodilatory properties (Juergens *et al.* 2020) [65]. Taken together, data from both preclinical and clinical trials point towards the promising therapeutic potential that resides in eucalypts oil and its active constituent, i.e. eucalyptol in the prevention and treatment of COVID-19. Therefore, further studies are urgently warranted in this regard.

Conclusion

There is a paucity of availability of effective treatment for COVID-19, hence there is a crucial requirement of antiviral agent. Although there is no specific drug developed for SARS-COV-2, already known antivirals Remdesivir is recommended by WHO as primary drug along with immunomodulatory, antibacterial and anti-inflammatory drugs (dexamethasone) as supportive therapy. Antibiotics are recommended for ruling out bacterial *co-infection* and

possibility of bacterial *secondary infection* during the course of the illness. Clinical features of the disease (COVID-19) comprise oxidative stress induced acute lung injury. This presents antioxidant therapy as a potential treatment strategy. In sum, primarily the immunity of an individual has to be strongly active to avoid infection and if infection has occurred, the treatment has to be a combinatorial approach of antiviral, anti-inflammatory, antibacterial and antioxidant medicines.

As discussed in this manuscript Many traditional medicinal plants which are easily available in household like clove, garlic, cinnamon and eucalypts have been studied scientifically and proven to have antiviral, anti-inflammatory, anti-microbial and anti-oxidant properties in their essential oils and/or extracts. Clove has Eugenol as a major constituent which has strong antimicrobial activities. Eugenol has antimicrobial, antifungal, antiviral, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory properties. Garlic is also well known for ages for its Immunity boosting properties. Compounds like DADS, DAS, and alliin from garlic extract have been shown to have immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory, antiviral and antibacterial properties. Cinnamon has been used as medicine around the world and reported that trans-cinnamaldehyde of cinnamon could inhibit influenza virus propagation whereas bark essential oil has antibacterial activity against several pathogenic bacterial strains. To date, there are several flavonoid compounds have been isolated from cinnamon which have anti-inflammatory activities. The eucalypts essential oils, phenylpropanoids and terpenes are the main biologically active components having strong antiviral activity against HSV-1, HSV-2, H1N1, VZV, simplex virus and mumps virus. Major EO component 1,8-cineole significantly showed anti-inflammatory effect by inhibiting the IL-1B, TNF-A, thromboxane B2, and leukotriene B4. Bacteriostatic and bactericidal effects are exhibited by various *Eucalypts* sp. essential oil whereas methanol extract exhibited the strongest antioxidant activity and marked immunomodulatory properties.

Inclusion of these essential oils and/or preparations in day to day life as spices or decoction could help us with all their combinatorial medicinal properties to fight against COVID-19 as well as emerging infectious disease in today's environment. Scientific community should look at these plants and their extracts as a potential source of therapeutic agents not only for COVID-19 but for various emerging pathogens.

Declarations of interest: none

References

1. Abu-Jafar A, Huleihel M. Antiviral activity of *Eucalypts camaldulensis* leaves ethanolic extract on herpes viruses infection. Int. J. Clin. Virol. 1, 2017, 001-009. <https://doi.org/10.29328/journal.ijcv.1001001>.
2. Adeniyi BA, Ayepola OO, Adu FD. The antiviral activity of leaves of *Eucalypts camaldulensis* (Dehn) and *Eucalypts torelliana* (R. Muell). Pak. J. Pharm. Sci. 2015;28:1773-1776. Ref: <https://goo.gl/haPqTW>.
3. Alhazzani W, Möller MH, Arabi YM, Loeb M, Gong MN, Fan *et al.* Surviving sepsis campaign: guidelines on the management of critically ill adults with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). Crit. Care Med. 2020;48:e440-e469.
4. Arreola R, Quintero-Fabián S, Flores-Gutiérrez EO, Reyes-Grajeda JP, Carrera-Quintanar L, Ortuño-Sahagún D. Immunomodulation and Anti-Inflammatory Effects of Garlic Compounds. J. Immunol. Res. 2015, 401630.
5. Ashour HM. Antibacterial, antifungal, and anticancer activities of volatile oils and extracts from stems, leaves, and flowers of *Eucalypts sideroxylon* and *Eucalypts torquata*. Cancer Biol. Therap. 2008;7(3):399-403. <https://doi.org/10.4161/cbt.7.3.5367>.
6. Astani A, Reichling J, Schnitzler P. Comparative Study on the Antiviral Activity of Selected Monoterpenes Derived from Essential Oils. Phytother. Res. 2010;24(5):673-679. Ref: <https://goo.gl/2MQqoB>.
7. Bachiega TF, De Sousa JP, Bastos JK, Sforcin JM. Clove and eugenol in non-cytotoxic concentrations exert immunomodulatory/anti-inflammatory action on cytokine production by murine macrophages. J. Pharm. Pharmacol. 2012;64(64):610-616.
8. Ben Jemâa JM, Haouel S, Bouaziz M, Khouja ML. Seasonal variations in chemical composition and fumigant activity of five *Eucalypts* essential oils against three moth pests of stored dates in Tunisia. J. Stored Prod. Res. 2012;48:61-67. Doi: 10.1016/j.jspr.2011.10.001.
9. Benencia F, Courrges MC. *In vitro* and *in vivo* activity of eugenol on human herpesvirus. Phytother. Res. 2000;14(7):495-500.
10. Bennerman R, Burton J, Chen WC. Medicinal plants and primary health care: an agenda for action. In: Traditional medicine and health care coverage; Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; c1983.
11. Bergner P, Rocklin CA. antibiotic and immune properties. Medic Herbalism. 1995;199:1.
12. Beylier MF, Givaudan SA. Bacteriostatic activity of some Australian essential oils. Perfum. Flavor. 1979;4:23-25.
13. Brochot A, Guilbot A, Haddioui L, Roques C. Antibacterial, antifungal, and antiviral effects of three essential oil blends. Microbiol. Open. 2017;6(4):e459. 10.1002/mbo3.459.
14. Castrillo JL, Carrasco L. Action of 3-methylquercetin on polio virus RNA replication. J. Virol. 1987;61(10):3319-3321.
15. Cermelli C, Fabio A, Fabio G, Quaglio P. Effect of eucalypts essential oil on respiratory bacteria and viruses. Curr. Microbiol. 2008;56(1):89-92.
16. Chaib K, Hajlaoui H, Zmantar T, Kahla-Nakbi ABM, Mahdouani K, Bakhouf A. The chemical composition and biological activity of clove essential oil, *Eugenia caryophyllata* (*Syzygium aromaticum* L. *Myrtaceae*): a short review. Phytother. Res. 2007;21(6):501-506.
17. Chandrashekar PM, Prashanth KVH, Venkatesh YP. Isolation, structural elucidation and immunomodulatory activity of fructans from aged garlic extract. Phytochem. 2011;72(2-3):255-264.
18. Chang HP, Chen YH. Differential effects of organosulfur compounds from garlic oil on nitric oxide and prostaglandin E2 in stimulated macrophages. Nutrition. 2005;21(4):530-536.
19. Chen YF, Wang YW, Huang WS, Lee MM, Wood WG, Leung YM, *et al.* Trans-cinnamaldehyde, an essential oil in cinnamon powder, ameliorates cerebral ischemia-induced brain injury via inhibition of neuroinflammation through attenuation of iNOS, COX-2 expression and NFκ-B signaling pathway. Neuro. Mole. Med. 2016;18:322-333. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12017-016-8395-9>.

20. Chericoni S, Prieto JM, Iacopini P, Cioni P, Morelli I. *In vitro* activity of the essential oil of *Cinnamomum zeylanicum* and eugenol in peroxynitrite-induced oxidative processes. J. Agric. Food Chem. 2005;53(12):4762–4765.
21. Cho N, Lee KY, Huh J, *et al.* Cognitive-enhancing effects of *Rhus verniciflua* bark extract and its active flavonoids with neuroprotective and anti-inflammatory activities. Food Chem. Toxicol. 2013;58:355–361.
22. Choi CY, Park KR, Lee JH, *et al.* Isoeugenol suppression of inducible nitric oxide synthase expression is mediated by downregulation of NF- κ B, ERK1/2, and p38 kinase. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 2007;576(1-3):151–159.
23. Chou ST, Chang WL, Chang CT, Hsu SL, Lin YC, Shih Y. *Cinnamomum cassia* Essential Oil inhibits α -MSH-induced melanin production and oxidative stress in murine B16 melanoma cells. International J. Mol. Sci. 2013;14(9):19186–19201.
24. Cortés-Rojas DF, de Souza CR, Oliveira WP. Clove (*Syzygium aromaticum*): a precious spice. Asian Pac. J. Trop. Biomed. 2014;4:90–96. Doi: 10.1016/S2221-1691(14)60215-X. PMID: 25182278; PMCID: PMC3819475.
25. Das A, Da M, Ghosh S. Impact of nutritional status and anemia on COVID-19: Is it a public health concern? Evidence from National Family Health Survey-4 (2015–2016), India. Public Health. 2020;185:93–94.
26. Deresse D. Antibacterial effect of garlic (*Allium sativum*) on *Staphylococcus aureus*: An *in vitro* study. Asian J. Med. Sci. 2010;2(2):62–5.
27. Dhakad AK, Pandey VV, Beg S, Rawat JM, Singh A. Biological, medicinal and toxicological significance of Eucalypts leaf essential oil: a review. J. Sci. Food Agric. 2018;98(3):833–848. Doi: 10.1002/jsfa.8600. Epub 2017 Sep 11. PMID: 28758221.
28. Dhifi W, Bellili S, Jazi S, Bahloul N, Mnif W. Essential Oils' Chemical Characterization and Investigation of Some Biological Activities: A Critical Review. Medicines (Basel). 2016;3(4):25. Ref: <https://goo.gl/7WX1ck>.
29. Dhuley JN. Anti-oxidant effects of cinnamon (*Cinnamomum verum*) bark and greater cardamom (*Amomum subulatum*) seeds in rats fed high fat diet. Ind. J. Exp. Biol. 1999;37:238–242.
30. Elaissi A, Hadj-Salah K, Mabrouk S, Khouja ML, Chemli R, Harzallah-Skhiri F. Antibacterial activity and chemical composition of 20 Eucalypts species'essential oils. Food Chem. 2011;129:1427–34. Doi: 10.1016/j.foodchem.2011.05.100.
31. El-Ghorab KF, El-Massry. Free radical scavenging and antioxidant activity of volatile oils of local clove [*Syzygium aromaticum* L.] and Cinnamon [*Cinnamomum zeylanicum*] isolated by supercritical fluid extraction, J. Essential Oil Bearing Plants. 2003;6(1):9–20.
32. El-Moein NM, Mahmoud EA, Shalaby EA. Antioxidant Mechanism of Active Ingredients Separated from Eucalypts globulus. Organic Chem. Curr. Res. 2012;1:106. Doi:10.4172/2161-0401.1000106.
33. Fantini J, Di Scala C, Chahinian H, Yahi N. Structural and molecular modelling studies reveal a new mechanism of action of chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine against SARS-CoV-2 infection. Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents. 2020;55(5):105960.
34. Farhadi D, Karimi A, Sadeghi G, Sheikahmadi A, Habibi M, Raei A, *et al.* Effects of using eucalypts (*Eucalypts globulus* L.) leaf powder and its essential oil on growth performance and immune response of broiler chickens. Iran. J. Vet. Res. 2017;18(1):60–62.
35. Fenwick GR, Hanley AB. The genus *Allium*. Crit Rev. Food Sci. Nutr. 1985;22:199–377.
36. Fujisawa H, Suma K, Origuchi K, Kumagai H, Seki T, Ariga T. Biological and chemical stability of garlic-derived allicin. J. Agric. Food Chem. 2008;56:4229–4235. Doi: 10.1021/jf8000907.
37. Ganjhu RK, Mudgal PP, Maity H, Dwarha D, Devadiga S, Nag S, Arunkumar G. Herbal plants and plant preparations as remedial approach for viral diseases. Virus. 2015;26(4):225–236. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13337-015-0276-6>.
38. Gea-Banacloche JC. Immunomodulation. In: Runge M.S, Patterson C, Editors. Principles of Molecular Medicine. Humana Press; Totowa, NJ, USA: 2006, 893–904.
39. Gilles MJ, Zhao M, Agboola S. Chemical composition and antimicrobial properties of essential oils of three Australian Eucalyptus species. Food Chem, 2010, 119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.07.021>.
40. Grespan R, Paludo M, Lemos HP, *et al.* Anti-arthritis effect of eugenol on collagen-induced arthritis. Experimental model. Biol. Pharm. Bul. 2012;35(10):1818–1820.
41. Dr. Rajiv Nehra, Dr. Dwijendar Nath. Hepatic response in COVID-19. Int. J. Adv. Biochem Res. 2021;5(2):01–04. DOI: 10.33545/26174693.v.i.65
42. Gülçina İ, Şatb İG, Beydemir Ş, Elmastaşç M, Küfrevioğlu Öİ. Comparison of antioxidant activity of clove (*Eugenia caryophyllata* Thunb) buds and lavender (*Lavandula stoechas* L.). Food Chem. 2004;87(3):393–400.
43. Guo JJ, Kuo CM, Chuang YC, Hong JW, Chou RL, Chen TI. The effects of garlic-supplemented diets on antibacterial activity against *Streptococcus iniae* and on growth in orange-spotted grouper, *Epinephelus coioides*. Aquacult. 2012;33:364–365. doi: 10.1016/j.aquaculture.2012.07.023.
44. Hall A, Troupin A, Londono-Renteria B, Colpitts TM. Garlic organosulfur compounds reduce inflammation and oxidative stress during dengue virus infection. Viruses. 2017;9(7):159.
45. Han X, Parker TL. Anti-inflammatory activity of clove (*Eugenia caryophyllata*) essential oil in human dermal fibroblasts. Pharmac. Biol. 2017a;55(1):1619–1622.
46. Maurya NK, Yadav MS. Food security in COVID-19 pandemics in India. Int. J. Agric. Nutr. 2022;4(2):17–20. DOI: 10.33545/26646064.2022.v4.i2a.65
47. Harunobu A. Clarifying the Real Bioactive Constituents of Garlic. J. Nutr. 2006;136(3):716S–725S.
48. Hasan U, Kylie P, Montazeri AH, Haddadi A. Prospects for RNAi Therapy of COVID-19. Front. Bioeng. Biotechnol, 2020, 8. DOI10.3389/fbioe.2020.00916, ISSN=2296-4185.
49. Hayashi K, Imanishi N, Kashiwayama Y, *et al.* Inhibitory effect of cinnamaldehyde, derived from *Cinnamomi* cortex, on the growth of influenza A/PR/8 virus *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Antivir. Res. 2007;74(1):1–8.
50. Hodge G, Hodge S, Han P. *Allium sativum* (garlic) suppresses leukocyte inflammatory cytokine production *in vitro*: Potential therapeutic use in the treatment of inflammatory bowel disease. Cytometry. 2002;48(4):209–215.
51. <https://clinicaltrials.gov/>

52. <https://www.covid19treatmentguidelines.nih.gov/whats-new/>
53. Huang Y, Ho SH, Lee HC, Yap YL. Insecticidal properties of eugenol, isoeugenol and methyleugenol and their effects on nutrition of *Sitophilus zeamais* Motsch. J. Stored Prod. Res. 2002;38(5):403-412.
54. Hughes B, Murray B, North J, Lawson L. Antiviral Constituents from *Allium sativum*. Planta Medica. 1989;55:114.
55. Hussein G, Miyashiro H, Nakamura N, Hattori M, Kakiuchi N, Shimotohno K. Inhibitory effects of Sudanese medical plant extracts on hepatitis C virus (HCV) protease. Phytother. Res. 2000;14(7):510-516.
56. Huysamen C, Brown GD. The fungal pattern recognition receptor, Dectin-1, and the associated cluster of C-type lectin-like receptors. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 2009;290(2):121-128.
57. Hwang SH, Choi YG, Jeong MY, Hong YM, Lee JH, Lim S. Microarray analysis of gene expression profile by treatment of *Cinnamomi ramulus* in lipopolysaccharide-stimulated BV-2 cells. Gene. 2009;443(1-2):83-90.
58. Ide N, Lau BH. Garlic compounds protect vascular endothelial cells from oxidized low density lipoprotein-induced injury. J. Pharm. Pharmacol. 1997;49(9):908-911. doi: 10.1111/j.2042-7158.1997.tb06134.x. PMID: 9306260.
59. Ide N, Lau BH. Garlic compounds minimize intracellular oxidative stress and inhibit nuclear factor-kappa b activation. J. Nutr. 2001;131(3):1020S-1026S.
60. Iwasaki A, Medzhitov R. Toll-like receptor control of the adaptive immune responses. Nat. Immunol. 2004;5(10):987-995.
61. Jirovetz L, Buchbauer G, Stoilova I, Stoyanova A, Krastanov A, Schmidt E. Chemical composition and antioxidant properties of clove leaf essential oil. J. Agric. Food Chem. 2006;54(17):6303-6307.
62. Josling P. Preventing the common cold with a garlic supplement: a double-blind, placebo. Advances in Therapy. 2001;18(4):189-193.
63. Ju HQ, Wang SY, Pei Y, Xiang YF, Li S, et al. In vitro study on the anti-HSV-1 and HBV activities of extracts from the fruit of *Eucalypts maidenii*. Zhong Yao Cai. 2011;34(2):242-245. Ref: <https://goo.gl/6XJw8E>.
64. Juergens U, Stöber M, Vetter H. Inhibition of cytokine production and arachidonic acid metabolism by eucalyptol (1,8-cineole) in human blood monocytes *in vitro*. Euro. J. Med. Res. 1998;3:508-510.
65. Juergens LJ, Wort H, Juergens UR. New perspectives for mucolytic, anti-inflammatory and adjunctive therapy with 1,8-cineole in COPD and asthma: review on the new therapeutic approach. Adv. Ther. 2020;37(5):1737-1753. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12325-020-01279-0>.
66. Juergens UR, Dethlefsen U, Steinkamp G, Gillissen A, Repges R, Vetter H. Anti-inflammatory activity of 1,8-cineol (eucalyptol) in bronchial asthma: a double-blind placebo-controlled trial. Respiratory Med. 2003;97:250-256. ISSN 0954-6111, <https://doi.org/10.1053/rmed.2003.1432>.
67. Keskin D, Toroglu S. Studies on antimicrobial activities of solvent extracts of different spices. J. Environ. Biol. 2011;32(2):251-256.
68. Khomich OA, Kochetkov SN, Bartosch B. Redox biology of respiratory viral infections. Viruses. 2018;10(8):E392.
69. Kim SJ, Han D, Moon KD, Rhee JS. Measurement of superoxide dismutase-like activity of natural antioxidants. Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem. 1995;59(5):822-826.
70. Kingeter LM, Lin X. C-type lectin receptor-induced NF-kappaB activation in innate immune and inflammatory responses. Cell. Mol. Immunol. 2012;9(2):105-112.
71. Kleinert H, Schwarz PM, Forstermann U. Regulation of the expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase. Biol. Chem. 2003;384:1343-1364.
72. Koh T, Murakami Y, Tanaka S, Machino M, Sakagami H. Re-evaluation of anti-inflammatory potential of eugenol in IL-1b-stimulated gingival fibroblast and pulp cells. In Vivo. 2013;27(2):269-273.
73. Koh WS, Yoon SY, Kwon BM, Jeong TC, Nam KS, Han MY. Cinnamaldehyde inhibits lymphocyte proliferation and modulates T-cell differentiation. Int. J. Immunopharmacol. 1998;20(11):643-660.
74. Kurokawa M, Hozumi T, Basnet P, Nakano M, Kadota S, Namba T, et al. Purification and characterization of eugenin as an anti-herpesvirus compound from *Geum japonicum* and *Syzygium aromaticum*. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 1998;284(2):728-735.
75. Kurokawa M, Nagasaka K, Hirabayashi T, Uyama S, Sato H, Kageyama T, et al. Efficacy of traditional herbal medicines in combination with acyclovir against herpes simplex virus type 1 infection *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Antiviral Res. 1995;27(1-2):19-37.
76. Langford BJ, So M, Raybardhan S, Leung V, Westwood D, MacFadden DR, et al. Bacterial co-infection and secondary infection in patients with COVID-19: a living rapid review and meta-analysis. Clinical Microbiol. Infection. 2020;26(12):1622-1629.
77. Lawson LD, Wang ZJ, Hughes BG. Identification and HPLC quantitation of the sulfides and dialk(en)yl thiosulfonates in commercial garlic products. Planta Med. 1991;57(4):363-370.
78. Lee HS, Kim BS, Kim MK. Suppression effect of *Cinnamomum cassia* bark-derived component on nitric oxide synthase. J. Agricult. Food Chem. 2002;50(26):7700-7703.
79. Lee KG, Shibamoto T. Antioxidant property of aroma extract isolated from clove buds. Food Chem. 2001;74(4):443-448.
80. Lee SH, Lee SY, Son DJ, et al. Inhibitory effect of 2'-hydroxycinnamaldehyde on nitric oxide production through inhibition of NF-κB activation in RAW 264.7 cells. Biochem. Pharmacol. 2005;69(6):791-799.
81. Li W, Moore MJ, Vasilieva N, Sui J, Wong SK, Berne MA, et al. Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 is a functional receptor for the SARS coronavirus. Nat. 2003a;426(6965):450-454.
82. Li RW, David Lin G, Myers SP, Leach DN. Anti-inflammatory activity of Chinese medicinal vine plants. J. Ethnopharmacol. 2003b;85(1):61-67.
83. Lim JP, Park YS, Hong MW, Kim DK. Quantitative analysis of anthraquinones from the roots of Korean natural Rumex species plant. Kor. J. Pharm. 2011;42(4):297-301.
84. Lim Y, Ng Y, Tam J, Liu D. Human coronaviruses: a review of virus-host interactions. Diseases. 2016;4(3):26. doi: 10.3390/diseases4030026.
85. Lin CC, Wu SJ, Chang CH, Ng LT. Antioxidant activity of *Cinnamomum cassia*. Phytotherapy Res. 2003;17(7):726-730.
86. Lin WW, Karin M. A cytokine-mediated link between

- innate immunity, inflammation, and cancer. *J. Clin. Invest.* 2007;117(5):1175–1183.
87. Lu R, Zhao X, Li J, Niu P, Yang B, Wu H, *et al.* Genomic characterization and epidemiology of 2019 novel coronavirus: implications for virus origins and receptor binding. *Lancet.* 2020;395(10224):565–74. Doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30251-8,
 88. Lu XQ, Tang FD, Wang Y, Zhao T, Bian Ru-lian. Effect of Eucalypts globulus oil on lipopolysaccharide-induced chronic bronchitis and mucin hypersecretion in rats. *Zhongguo Zhong yao za zhi Zhongguo zhongyao zazhi. Chin. J. Chinese Materia. Medica.* 2004;29(2):168–71.
 89. Lungarini S, Aureli F, Coni E. Coumarin and Cinnamaldehyde in Cinnamon Marketed in Italy: a Natural Chemical Hazard?. *Food additives & contaminants. Part A, Chemistry, analysis, control, exposure & risk assessment.* 2008;25(11):1297–305. 10.1080/02652030802105274.
 90. Luo Y, Cobb RE, Zhao H. Recent advances in natural product discovery. *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.* 2014;30:230–237. doi: 10.1016/j.copbio.2014.09.002.
 91. Mahady GB. Global harmonization of herbal health claims. *J. Nutr.* 2001;131(3):1120S–1123S.
 92. Makris A, Thornton CE, Xu B, Hennessy A. Garlic increases IL-10 and inhibits TNF α and IL-6 production in endotoxin-stimulated human placental explants. *Placenta.* 2005;26(10):828–834.
 93. Mancini-Filho J, van-Koij A, Mancini DAP, Cozzolino, FF, Torres RP. Antioxidant activity of cinnamon (*Cinnamomum zeylanicum*, breyne) extracts. *Bollettino Chimico Farmaceutico.* 1998;137(11):443–447.
 94. Mandal S, Deb-Mandal M, Saha K, Pal NK. *In vitro* Antibacterial Activity of three Indian Spices against Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Oman Med.* 2011;26(5):319–323. Doi: 10.5001/omj.2011.80.
 95. Marongiu B, Piras A, Porcedda S, *et al.* Supercritical CO₂ extract of *Cinnamomum zeylanicum*: chemical characterization and antityrosinase activity. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2007;55(24):10022–10027.
 96. Martín-Loeches A, Sanchez-Corral E, Diaz RM, Granada R, Zaragoza C, Villavicencio, *et al.* Community-acquired respiratory coinfection in critically ill patients with pandemic 2009 influenza A (H1N1) virus. *Chest.* 2011;139(3):555–562.
 97. Matu EN, van Staden J. Antibacterial and anti-inflammatory activities of some plants used for medicinal purposes in Kenya. *J. Ethnopharmacol.* 2003;87(1):35–41.
 98. Meeker HG, Linke HAB. The antibacterial action of eugenol, thyme oil, and related essential oils used in dentistry. *Compend. Contin. Educ. Dent.* 1988;9:33–40.
 99. Mendes SJF, Sousa FIAB, Pereira DMS, *et al.* Cinnamaldehyde modulates LPS-induced systemic inflammatory response syndrome through TRPA1-dependent and independent mechanisms. *Int. Immunopharmacol.* 2016 May 1;34:60–70.
 100. Meng Y, Lu D, Guo N, Zhang L, Zhou G. Anti-HCMV effect of garlic components. *Virologica Sinica.* 1993;8:147–150.
 101. Merad M, Martin JC. Pathological inflammation in patients with COVID-19: a key role for monocytes and macrophages. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 2020;20(6):355–362.
 102. Mishra AK, Sahu N, Mishra A, Ghosh AK, Jha S, Chattopadhyay P. Phytochemical Screening and Antioxidant Activity of essential oil of Eucalypts leaf. *Pharmacognosy J.* 2010;2(16):25–28. ISSN 0975-3575, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0975-3575\(10\)80045-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0975-3575(10)80045-8).
 103. Misra DP, Agarwal V, Gasparyan AY, Zimba O. Rheumatologists' perspective on coronavirus disease 19 (COVID-19) and potential therapeutic targets. *Clin. Rheumatol.* 2020;39(7):2055–2062.
 104. Murcia MA, Egea I, Romojaro F, Parras P, Jiménez AM, Martínez-Tomé M. Antioxidant evaluation in dessert spices compared with common food additives. Influence of irradiation procedure. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2004;52(7):1872–1881.
 105. Nai-Lan G, Cao-Pei L, Woods GL, Reed E, Gui-Zhen Z, Li-Bi L, *et al.* Demonstration of antiviral activity of garlic extract against human cytomegalovirus *in vitro*. *Chin. Med. J.* 1993;106:93–96.
 106. Nanko H, Button A, Hillman D. *The World of Market Pulp.* Appleton, WI, USA: WOMP, LLC, 2005, 107–109. ISBN 978-0-615-13013-2.
 107. Nantz MP, Rowe CA, Muller CE, Creasy RA, Stanilka JM, Percival SS. Supplementation with aged garlic extract improves both NK and $\gamma\delta$ -T cell function and reduces the severity of cold and flu symptoms: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled nutrition intervention. *Clinic Nutri.* 2012;31(3):337–344.
 108. Neveu V, Perez-Jiménez J, Vos F, Crespy V, du Chaffaut L, Mennen L. Phenol-Explorer: an online comprehensive database on polyphenol contents in foods; c2010. Doi: 10.1093/database/bap024.
 109. Newman DJ, Cragg GM. Natural products as sources of new drugs over the 30 years from 1981 to 2010. *J. Nat. Prod.* 2012;75(3):311–335. Doi: 10.1021/np200906s.
 110. Niphade SR, Asad M, Chandrakala GK, Toppo E, Deshmukh P. Immunomodulatory activity of *Cinnamomum zeylanicum* bark. *Pharmaceu. Biol.* 2009;47(12):1168–1173, DOI: 10.3109/13880200903019234.
 111. Nonaka GI, Morimoto S, Nishioka I. Tannins and related compounds. Part 13. Isolation and structures of trimeric, tetrameric, and pentameric proanthocyanidins from cinnamon. *Journal of the Chemical Society, Perkin Transactions.* 1983;1(1983):2139–2145.
 112. Nuñez L, D'Aquino M, Chirife J. Antifungal properties of clove oil (*Eugenia caryophyllata*) in sugar solution. *Braz. J. Microbiol.* 2001;32:123–126.
 113. Okawa M, Kinjo J, Nohara T, Ono M. DPPH (1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl) radical scavenging activity of flavonoids obtained from some medicinal plants. *Biol. Pharma. Bulletin.* 2001;24(10):1202–1205.
 114. Oyediji O, Lawal OA, Shode F, Oyediji A. Chemical Composition and Antibacterial Activity of the Essential Oils of Molecules (Basel, Switzerland). 2009;14(6):1990–8. 10.3390/molecules14061990.
 115. Peng X, Cheng KW, Ma J, *et al.* Cinnamon bark proanthocyanidins as reactive carbonyl scavengers to prevent the formation of advanced glycation endproducts. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2008;56(6):1907–1911.
 116. Percival SS. Aged Garlic Extract Modifies Human Immunity. *The J. Nutri.* 2016;146(2):433S–436S, <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.115.210427>.
 117. Pérez-Jiménez J, Neveu V, Vos F, Scalbert A. Identification of the 100 richest dietary sources of polyphenols: an application of the phenol-explorer database. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2020;64(3):S112–S120.
 118. Premanathan M, Rajendran S, Ramanathan T, Kathiresan K, Nakashima H, Yamamoto N. A survey of some Indian

- medicinal plants for anti-human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) activity. *Ind. J. Med. Res.* 2000;112:73-7.
119. Pulikottil SJ, Nath S. Potential of clove of *Syzygium aromaticum* in development of a therapeutic agent for periodontal disease. *A Rev. SADJ.* 2015;70(3):108-115.
 120. Reddy AM, Seo JH, Ryu SY, Kim YS, Kim YS, Min KR, *et al.* Cinnamaldehyde and 2-ethoxycinnamaldehyde as NF-B inhibitors from *Cinnamomum cassia*. *Planta Med.* 2004;70(9):823-827.
 121. Rice TW, Robinson L, Uyeki TM, Vaughn FL, John BB, Miller RR, *et al.* Critical illness from 2009 pandemic influenza A virus and bacterial coinfection in the United States. *Crit. Care Med.* 2012;40(5):1487-1498.
 122. Sadlon AE, Lamson DW. Immune-modifying and antimicrobial effects of Eucalypts oil and simple inhalation devices. *Altern. Med. Rev. J. Clin. Ther.* 2010;15(1):33-47.
 123. Seely O. Physical Properties of Common Woods. California State University, Dominguez Hills. Retrieved 8 September; c2017.
 124. Serafino A, Vallebona P, Andreola F, Zonfrillo M, Mercuri L, Federici M, *et al.* Stimulatory effect of Eucalypts essential oil on innate cell-mediated immune response. *BMC Immunol.* 2008;9(1):17. doi: 10.1186/1471-2172-9-17.
 125. Shah NS, Greenberg JA, McNulty MC, Gregg KS, Riddell J, Mangino JE, *et al.* Bacterial and viral co-infections complicating severe influenza: incidence and impact among 507 US patients, 2013-14. *J. Clin Virol.* 2016;80:12-19.
 126. Shan B, Cai YZ, Sun M, Corke H. Antioxidant capacity of 26 spice extracts and characterization of their phenolic constituents. *J. Agricult. Food Chem.* 2005;53(20):7749-7759.
 127. Shapiro S, Meier A, Guggenheim B. The antimicrobial activity of essential oils and essential oil components towards oral bacteria. *Oral Microbiol. Immunol.* 1994;9(4):202-208.
 128. Sherry E, Reynolds M, Sivananthan S, Mainawalala S, Warnke PH. Inhalational phytochemicals as possible treatment for pulmonary tuberculosis: Two case reports. *Am. J. Inf. Ctrl.* 2004;32(6):369-370.
 129. Shobana S, Naidu AK. Antioxidant activity of selected Indian spices. *Prostaglandins Leukotrienes and Essential Fatty Acids.* 2000;62(2):107-110.
 130. Shojai TM, Langeroudi AG, Karimi V, Barin A, Sadri N. The effect of *Allium sativum* (Garlic) extract on infectious bronchitis virus in specific pathogen free embryonic egg. *Avicenna J. Phytomed.* 2016;6(4):267-458.
 131. Shoji S, Furuishi K, Yanase R, Miyazaka T, Kino M. Allyl compounds selectively killed human immunodeficiency virus (type 1)-infected cells. *Avicenna J. Phytomed.* 1993;194(2):610-621.
 132. Simeon de Buochberg M. De l'activité antimicrobienne de l'huile essentielle de *Thymus vulgaris* L. et de ses constituants. Contribution à l'étude du mode d'action et des relations structure activité des antiseptiques phénolés. Thèse Doct. Etat Pharm. Montpellier; c1976.
 133. Smith-Palmer A, Stewart J, Fyfe L. The potential application of plant essential oils as natural food preservatives in soft cheese. *Food Microbiol.* 2001;18(4):463-470.
 134. Soliman MM, Attia HF, El-Shazly SA. Biomedical Effects of Cinnamon Extract on Obesity and Diabetes Relevance in Wistar Rats; c2012. DOI: 10.3923/ajbmb.2012.133.145.
 135. Stoner G, Wang L-S. Obesity, Inflammation and Cancer. Springer. In: Natural products as anti-inflammatory agents; 2013, 341-361.
 136. Suganthi R, Rajamani S, Ravichandran MK, Anuradha CV. Effect of food seasoning spices mixture on biomarkers of oxidative stress in tissues of fructose-fed insulin-resistant rats. *J. Med. Food.* 2007;10:149-153.
 137. Suhaj M. Spice antioxidants isolation and their antiradical activity: a review. *J. Food Composition Anal.* 2006;19:531-537.
 138. Tanaka T, Matsuo Y, Yamada Y, Kouno I. Structure of polymeric polyphenols of cinnamon bark deduced from condensation products of cinnamaldehyde with catechin and procyanidins. *J. Agricult. Food Chem.* 2008;56(14):5864-5870.
 139. Tatarintsev AV, Vrzhets PV, Ershov DE, Shchegolev AA, Turgiev AS, Karamov EV, *et al.* The ajoene blockade of integrin-dependent processes in an HIV-infected cell system. *Vestn. Ross. Akad. Med. Nauk.* 1992;1(11-12):6-10.
 140. Tragoolpua Y, Jatisatienr A. Anti-herpes simplex virus activities of *Eugenia caryophyllus* (Spreng.) (Bullock & S. G. Harrison) and essential oil, eugenol. *Phytother. Res.* 2007;21(12):1153-1158.
 141. Tsai Y, Cole LL, Davis LE, Lockwood SJ, Simmons V, Wild GC. Antiviral properties of garlic: *in vitro* effects on influenza B, herpes simplex and coxsackie viruses. *Planta Medica.* 1985;51(5):460-461.
 142. Tung YT, Chua MT, Wang SY, Chang ST. Anti-inflammation activities of essential oil and its constituents from indigenous cinnamon (*Cinnamomum osmophloeum*) twigs. *Bioreso. Technol.* 2008;99:3908-3913.
 143. Tung YT, Yen PL, Lin CY, Chang ST. Anti-inflammatory activities of essential oils and their constituents from different provenances of indigenous cinnamon (*Cinnamomum osmophloeum*) leaves. *Pharmaceut. Biol.* 2010;48(10):1130-1136.
 144. Unlu M, Ergene E, Unlu GV, Zeytinoglu HS, Vural N. Composition, antimicrobial activity and *in vitro* cytotoxicity of essential oil from *Cinnamomum zeylanicum* Blume (Lauraceae), *Food Chem. Toxicol.* 2010;48(11):3274-3280.
 145. Vrijnsen R, Everaert L, Van Hoof LM, Vlietinck AJ, Berghe DV, Boeye A. The poliovirus-induced shut-off of cellular protein synthesis persists in the presence of 3-methylquercetin, a flavonoid which blocks viral protein and RNA synthesis. *Antiviral Res.* 1987;7(1):35-42.
 146. Weber N, Andersen D, North J, Murray B, Lawson L, Hughes B. *In Vitro* Virucidal Effects of *Allium sativum* (Garlic) Extract and Compounds. *Planta Medica.* 1992;58(5):417-423.
 147. Wei Z, Lau BH. Garlic inhibits free radical generation and augments antioxidant enzyme activity in vascular endothelial cells. *Nutr. Res.* 1998;18(1):61-70.
 148. Williamson EM. *Potter's Herbal Cyclopaedia*. Saffron Walden: C.W. Daniel Company Limited; c2003.
 149. Wolfender JL, Eugster PJ, Bohni N, Cuendet M. Advanced methods for natural products discovery in the field of traceuticals. *Chimia.* 2011;65(6):400-406. Doi: 10.2533/chimia.2011.400.
 150. Wu C, Liu Y, Yang Y, Zhang P, Zhong W, Wang Y, *et al.* Analysis of therapeutic targets for SARS-CoV-2 and

- discovery of potential drugs by computational methods. *Acta Pharm Sin B*; c2020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsb.2020.02.008>.
151. Xu Z, Shi L, Wang Y, *et al*. Pathological findings of COVID-19 associated with acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Lancet Respir. Med.* 2020;8(4):420-422. doi:10.1016/S2213-2600(20)30076-X PubMed Google Scholar.
 152. Yamasaki T, Lau BHS. Garlic compounds protect vascular endothelial cells from oxidant injury. *Folia Pharmacol. JPN.* 1997;110:138-141.
 153. Yang D, Leibowitz JL. In: The structure and functions of coronavirus genomic 3' and 5' ends *Virus Res.* 2015;206:120-133.
 154. Yang P, Wang X. COVID-19: A new challenge for human beings. *Cell Mol Immunol.* 2020;17(5):555-557. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41423-020-0407-x>
 155. Yeh HF, Luo CY, Lin CY, Cheng SS, Hsu YR, Chang ST. Methods for thermal stability enhancement of leaf essential oils and their main Constituents from Indigenous Cinnamon (*Cinnamomum osmophloeum*). *J. Agricult. Food Chem.* 2013;61(26):6293–6298.
 156. Yogalakshmi B, Viswanathan P, Anuradha CV. Investigation of anti-oxidant, anti-inflammatory, and DNA-protective properties of eugenol in thioacetamide-induced liver injury in rats. *Toxicol.* 2010;268(3):204–212.
 157. Youn HS, Lee JK, Choi YJ, *et al*. Cinnamaldehyde suppresses toll-like receptor 4 activation mediated through the inhibition of receptor oligomerization. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 2008;75(2):494-502.
 158. Yu T, Lee S, Yang WS, *et al*. The ability of an ethanol extract of *Cinnamomum cassia* to inhibit Src and spleen tyrosine kinase activity contributes to its anti-inflammatory action. *J. Ethnopharmacol.* 2012;139(2):566–573.
 159. Zandi K, Teoh BT, Sam SS, Wong PF, Mustafa MR, Abu-Bakar S. Antiviral activity of four types of bioflavonoid against dengue virus type-2. *Viol. J.* 2011;8(1):560.
 160. Zhou F, Yu T, Du R, *et al*. Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: a retrospective cohort study. *Lancet.* 2020;395(10229):1054-1062. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30566-3 CrossRef PubMed Google Scholar.
 161. Zhou JY, Tang FD, Mao GG, Bian RL. Effect of alpha-pinene on nuclear translocation of NF-kappa B in THP-1 cells. *Acta Pharmacol. Sin.* 2004;25(4):480-484.
 162. Chiang WY, Chhajed D, Hess JD. Direct marketing, indirect profits: A strategic analysis of dual-channel supply-chain design. *Management science.* 2003 Jan;49(1):1-20.
 163. Palomino JC, Martin A, Camacho M, Guerra H, Swings J, Portaels F. Resazurin microtiter assay plate: simple and inexpensive method for detection of drug resistance in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy.* 2002 Aug;46(8):2720-2.
 164. Gülçin I, Elmastaş M, Aboul-Enein HY. Antioxidant activity of clove oil-A powerful antioxidant source. *Arab. J. Chem.* 2012;5(4):489-499.
 165. Han X, Parker TL. Anti-inflammatory Activity of Cinnamon (*Cinnamomum zeylanicum*) Bark Essential Oil in a Human Skin Disease Model. *Phytother. Res.* 2017b;31(7):1034-1038. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ptr.5822>.