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Tuybia Bilal

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

Tahir Mushtaq

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

Peerzada Ishtiyak Ahmad

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

SA Gangoo

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

Benatul Behar

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

Bilkees Ayoob

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

Saima Farooq

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

Irtizah Mushtaq

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

Corresponding Author

Tahir Mushtaq

Faculty of Forestry, Sher-e-Kashmir,
University of Agricultural Sciences
and Technology of Kashmir,
Benhama, Ganderbal, Jammu and
Kashmir, India

Botanicals their use as antimicrobial, antifungal and anti insecticides

Tuybia Bilal, Tahir Mushtaq, Peerzada Ishtiyak Ahmad, SA Gangoo, Benatul Behar, Bilkees Ayoob, Saima Farooq and Irtizah Mushtaq

Abstract

Botanicals are naturally occurring chemicals extracted or derived from plants or minerals used as natural therapies. Thus, sound management of insect pest by other natural insecticides has more interest and is eco-friendly to nature with less reduced negative effects on the environment. Based on the physiological activity, there are six groups of botanical insecticides, namely; repellents, feeding deterrents/antifeedants, toxicants, natural grain protectants, chemosterilants/reproduction inhibitors and insect growth, and development inhibitors. These natural botanicals have many advantages over synthetic ones and may be more cost-effective as a whole, considering the environmental cost of chemical alternatives. There is increasing both in the industry and in the scientific research for aromatic and medicinal plants because of their potential applications in medicine and plant disease control measure. The antimicrobial, antifungal and anti insecticidal properties of plant essential oils are well established against wide spectra of organisms such as fungi, bacteria and insects. These properties are mainly due to many active phytochemicals including vitamins, flavonoids, terpenoids, essential oils etc and hence they are of great importance in food industry and offer the possibility to substitute natural for synthetic preservation and other natural products.

Keywords: Botanicals, anti insecticides, antimicrobial, antifungal

Introduction

Plants are naturally God gifted for the synthesis of medicinal compound their isolation from medicinal plants and the characterizations of the active compound they contain provide a great help in the preparation of new drugs to treat many diseases and have a high therapeutic value (Huie, 2000) [36]. The plant extract, which is also called natural product, provided a great help in a new discovery in the area of chemical diversity because of the unknown availability either as standardized extract or as pure compound (Cos *et al.*, 2006) [15]. According to pharmaceutical studies, approximately 10 to 20% of plants are used in a positive way in health care to treat harmful diseases such as cancer (Nacz *et al.*, 2006) [50]. The classical example is reported on the bark of yew tree, which mainly contains taxol and is used in ovarian cancer and breast cancer (Cos *et al.*, 2006) [15]. Isolation or extraction of medicinal plants mainly produced one or several substances that are responsible for any activity and are closely related to each other (Kibwage *et al.*, 2006) [41]. Plants are the main source of drugs in modern medicinal system, folk medicinal system, traditional medicinal system, food supplement, and for synthetic drug (Hammer *et al.*, 1999) [29].

According to the report of the World Health Organization, about 80% people used traditional medicine for primary health care treatment. In Asia, plants as medicine show long history with human involvement in the environment. Herbal medicines contain different types of novel and unique substances to treat infectious and chronic diseases (Duraipandiyar *et al.*, 2006) [21]. The tradition of using plant products to treat a number of diseases starts with the beginning of human civilization earliest document shedding light on the use of medicinal plants is Hindu Culture, written between 4500 and 1600 BC (Rastogi *et al.*, 2002) [71]. The use of traditional medicine or natural products is oldest as with the human civilization medicine from plants has therapeutic properties and history write that from long time the main source of drug was plants, minerals, and animal products (De Pasquale, 1984) [17]. The synthetic chemical drugs show bad health-related side effects, microbial resistance man tend to ethnopharmacognosy obtained thousands of phytochemical from plant with less or, no side effect, safe and mainly effective with many biological activities such as analgesic, antimicrobial, wound-healing, antioxidant, anticancer, antidiarrheal activities (De Pasquale, 1984) [17].

According to the report of the World Health Organization, 12 mega biodiversity countries nearly have 20,000 medicinal plants (Sasidharan, 2010)^[76].

Botanicals

Plant extracts are commonly referred to as plant botanicals and are the secondary plant metabolites synthesized by the plant for the protective purposes. Botanicals are also commonly used to maintain health and prevent diseases. Some botanicals such as:

1. Immune active botanicals: Such as echinacea strengthen and tone immune functions.
2. Antioxidant botanicals: Such as green tea, prevent cancer, slow aging, and maintain cardiovascular functions.
3. Botanicals such as st. John's wort alleviate common psychological symptoms such as insomnia, anxiety, or mild depression. It has also been used in combination with black cohosh to relieve mood symptoms associated with menopause.

4. Valerian can also help with insomnia, and kava can help reduce anxiety
5. Botanicals such as ginger treat or prevent a variety of gastrointestinal problems from nausea to constipation.

Antimicrobial

The word antimicrobial was derived from the Greek words anti (against), micro (little) and bios (life) and refers to all agents that act against microbial organisms. Antimicrobial agent is a general term that is mainly concerned with antibiotics, antibacterial, antifungals, antivirals and antiprotozoans. Antimicrobial agents are drugs, chemicals or other substances that are capable of acting by two modes either kill (microbiocidal) or slow the growth of microbes (microbiostatic). Antimicrobial medicines can be classified according to the microorganisms they act primarily against. For example, antibacterials are used against bacteria and antifungals are used against fungi.

Table 1: Some important medicinal plant extracts compounds with antimicrobial activity

Botanical name	Family	compounds	Reference
<i>Ocimum basilicum</i>	Lamiaceae	Essential oils	Wan <i>et al.</i> , 1998 ^[97]
<i>Piper nigrum</i>	Piperaceae	Piperine	Ghoshal <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[27]
<i>Berberis vulgaris</i>	Berberidaceae	Berberine	Omulokoli <i>et al.</i> , 1997 ^[60]
<i>Vaccinium spp.</i>	Ericaceae	Fructose	Ofek <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[54]
<i>Matricaria chamomilla</i>	Asteraceae	Anthemic acid	Bose, 1958 ^[11]
<i>Allium sativum</i>	Amaryllidaceae	Allicin	Naganawa <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[51]
<i>Hydrastis canadensis</i>	Ranunculaceae	hydrastine	Freiburghaus <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[25]
<i>Camellia sinensis</i>	Theaceae	Catechin	Vijaya <i>et al.</i> , 1995 ^[94]
<i>Lawsonia</i>	Lythraceae	Lawson	Suresh <i>et al.</i> , 1997 ^[87]
<i>Melissa officinalis</i>	Lamiaceae	Tannins	Wild, 1994 ^[99]
<i>Olea europaea</i>	Oleaceae	Hexanal	Kubo <i>et al.</i> , 1995 ^[45]
<i>Allium cepa</i>	Amaryllidaceae	Allicin	Vohora <i>et al.</i> , 1973 ^[96]
<i>Curcuma longa</i>	Zingiberaceae	Curcumin	Apisariyakul <i>et al.</i> , 1995 ^[5]
<i>Artemisia dracunculul</i>	Asteraceae	Caffeic acids, tannins	Wild, 1994 ^[99]

Table 2: List of plants having antifungal activity

Botanical name	Family	compounds	Reference
<i>Simmondsia chinensis</i>	Simmondsiaceae	Glucosides	Abbassy <i>et al.</i> , 2007 ^[11]
<i>Thymus zygis sub sp. sylvestris,</i>	Lamiaceae	Carvacrol	Gonçalves <i>et al.</i> , 2010 ^[28]
<i>C. biebersteinii</i>	Asteraceae	Camphor, 1,8-cineole, piperitone, borneol and α -terpineol, n-ecosane, n-heneicosane, n-tricosane, linoleic acid	Kordali <i>et al.</i> , 2009 ^[42]
<i>Larrea tridentata</i>	Zygophyllaceae	lignans, methyl-nordihydroguaiaretic acid and nordihydroguaiaretic acid	Vargas-Arispuro <i>et al.</i> , 2005 ^[93]
<i>Aloe vera</i>	Asphodelaceae	Crude extracts	Jasso de Rodríguez <i>et al.</i> , 2005 ^[38]
<i>Catharanthus roseus</i>	Apocynaceae	5-hydroxy flavones	Roy & Chatterjee, 2010 ^[73]
<i>Salvia officinalis</i>	Lamiaceae	essential oil	Pinto <i>et al.</i> , 2007 ^[66]
<i>Punica granatum</i>	Punicaceae	polyphenolic extracts	Osorio <i>et al.</i> , 2010 ^[61]
<i>Bulnesia sarmientoi</i>	Zygophyllaceae	bulnesol, hanamyol	Rodilla <i>et al.</i> , 2011 ^[72]
<i>Piper longum</i>	Piperaceae	Eugenol, piperine, piperlongumine and piperettine)	Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2001 ^[46]
<i>Datura metel</i>	Solonaceae	Enzymes, peroxidase, β -1,3-glucanase and chitinase	Devaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2009 ^[18]
<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>	Fabaceae	Crude extracts	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2008 ^[2]
<i>Cassia sp</i>	Fabaceae	cassia oil	Feng <i>et al.</i> , 2008 ^[23]
<i>Hypericum perforatum</i> and <i>Hypericum tomentosum</i>	Hypericaceae	α -pinene, allo-aromadendrene, germacrene-D, n-octane, α -selinene and β -selinene. Menthone, n-octane, β caryophyllene, α -pinene, lauric acid and β -pinene	Hosni <i>et al.</i> , 2008 ^[33]
<i>Allium sativum</i>	Amaryllidaceae	essential oil	Pyun and Shin 2006 ^[69]
<i>Cymbopogon flexuosus</i>	Poaceae	essential oil	Pattnaik <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[62]
<i>Cymbopogon martini</i>	Poaceae	essential oil	Pattnaiket <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[62]
<i>Mentha piperita</i>	Lamiaceae	essential oil	Pattnaiket <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[62]
<i>Pelargonium graveolens</i>	Geraniaceae	essential oil	Pattnaiket <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[62]
<i>Pimpinella anisum</i>	Apiaceae	essential oil	Kosalec <i>et al.</i> , 2005 ^[43]
<i>Piper angustifolium</i>	Piperaceae	essential oil	Tirillini <i>et al.</i> , 1996 ^[90]

<i>Salvia officinalis</i>	Lamiaceae	essential oil	Hili <i>et al.</i> , 1997 ^[32]
<i>Salvia sclarea</i>	Lamiaceae	essential oil	Pitarokili <i>et al.</i> , 2002 ^[67]
<i>Tagetes patula</i>	Asteraceae	essential oil	Romagnoli <i>et al.</i> , 2005
<i>Thymbra capitata</i>	Lamiaceae	essential oil	Salgueiro <i>et al.</i> , 2004 ^[75]
<i>Lavandula angustifolia</i>	Lamiaceae	essential oil	D'Auria <i>et al.</i> , 2005 ^[16]
<i>Dictamnus dasycarpus</i>	Rutaceae	Dictamnine	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 1998 ^[103]
<i>Ficus septic</i>	Moraceae	Antofine, Ficuseptine	Baumgartner <i>et al.</i> , 1990 ^[9]
<i>Olea europaea</i>	Oleaceae	Hexanal, E-2-Hexanal, E-2-Heptanal, Nonanal and E-2-Octenal	Battinelli <i>et al.</i> , 2006
<i>Eupatorium riparium</i>	Oleaceae	Methylripariochromene A	Bandara <i>et al.</i> , 1992 ^[7]
<i>Zingiber officinale</i>	Zingiberaceae	Gingerenone A	Endo <i>et al.</i> , 1990 ^[22]
<i>Coleonema pulchellum</i>	Rutaceae	Precolpuchol	Brader <i>et al.</i> , 1997 ^[12]
<i>Bidens cernua</i>	Asteraceae	Cernuol	Smirnov <i>et al.</i> , 1998 ^[86]
<i>Cistus incanus</i>	Cistaceae	Geraniol	Chinou <i>et al.</i> , 1994 ^[14]
<i>Thymus pulegioides</i>	Lamiaceae	Carvacrol, p-Cymene and γ - Terpinene	Pinto <i>et al.</i> , 2006 ^[65]
<i>Calycodendronmilnei</i>	Rubiaceae	Isopsychotridine E, Hodgkinsine A, Quadrigemine C, Quadrigemine H, Psychotridine E, Vatine, VatineA, Vatamine, Vatamidine,	Saad <i>et al.</i> , 1995 ^[74]

Table 3: List of plants having anti insecticidal activity

Botanical name	Family	Mode of Action
<i>Azadirachta indica</i>	Meliaceae	
<i>Asparagus africanus</i>	Asparagaceae	Leaf is crushed, mixed with milk and taken one coffee cup every morning until the individual back to the malarious area. Leaf pounded and mixed with the leaf of Aloe species is drunk.
<i>Allium sativum</i>	Alliaceae	Crushing and applying the juice on the skin
<i>Discopodium penninervium</i> Hochst	Solanaceae	Fresh leaf is crushed and rubbed on the skin
<i>Ziziphus spinachristi</i>	Rhamnaceae	Leaf/root is added on fire and fumigates to eradicate flies
<i>Warburgia ugandensis</i>	Cannaleaceae	Aqueous extract show effect as larvicidal
<i>Verbascumsinaiticum</i> Benth	Scrophulariaceae	Fresh leaves powdered and mixed in water then apply topically
<i>Stephania abyssinica</i>	Menispermaceae	Placed on bed against bed pests
<i>Senna singueana</i>	Fabaceae	Fresh leaves are put with crops in order to prevent from destroying by wheels

Major groups of antimicrobial compounds from plants

Plants have an almost limitless ability to synthesize aromatic substances, most of which are phenols or their oxygen-substituted derivatives (Geissman, 1963) ^[26]. Most are secondary metabolites, of which at least 12,000 have been isolated, a number estimated to be less than 10% of the total (Schultes, 1978) ^[80]. In many cases, these substances serve as plant defense mechanisms against predation by microorganisms, insects, and herbivores. Some, such as terpenoids, give plants their odors; others (quinones and tannins) are responsible for plant pigment. Many compounds are responsible for plant flavor (e.g., the terpenoids capsaicin from chili peppers), and some of the same herbs and spices used by humans to season food yield useful medicinal compounds.

Alkaloids

Heterocyclic nitrogen compounds are called alkaloids. The first medically useful example of an alkaloid was morphine, isolated in 1805 from the opium poppy *Papaver somniferum* (Fessenden *et al.*, 1982) ^[24] the name morphine comes from the Greek Morpheus, god of dreams. Codeine and heroin are both derivatives of morphine. Diterpenoid alkaloids, commonly isolated from the plants of the Ranunculaceae, or buttercup family are commonly found to have antimicrobial properties (Omulokoli *et al.*, 1997) ^[60]. Solamargine, a glycol-alkaloid from the berries of *Solanum khasianum*, and other alkaloids may be useful against HIV infection (Sethi, 1979) ^[83] as well as intestinal infections associated with AIDS (McDevitt *et al.*, 1996) ^[49]. While alkaloids have been found to have microbiocidal effects (including against Giardia and Entamoeba species (Ghoshal *et al.*, 1996) ^[27], the major antidiarrheal effect is probably due to their effects on transit

time in the small intestine. Berberine is an important representative of the alkaloid group. It is potentially effective against trypanosomes and plasmodia (Omulokoli *et al.*, 1997) ^[60]. The mechanism of action of highly aromatic planar quaternary alkaloids such as berberine and harmaline is attributed to their ability to intercalate with DNA (Phillipson and Neill, 1987) ^[63].

Flavones, flavonoids, and flavonols

Flavones are phenolic structures containing one carbonyl group (as opposed to the two carbonyls in quinones). The addition of a 3-hydroxyl group yields a flavonols (Fessenden *et al.*, 1982) ^[24]. Flavonoids are also hydroxylated phenolic substances but occur as a C6-C3 unit linked to an aromatic ring. Since they are known to be synthesized by plants in response to microbial infection (Dixon *et al.*, 1983) ^[19], it should not be surprising that they have been found *in vitro* to be effective antimicrobial substances against a wide array of microorganisms. Their activity is probably due to their ability to complex with extracellular and soluble proteins and to complex with bacterial cell walls, as described above for quinones. More lipophilic flavonoids may also disrupt microbial membranes (Tsuchiya *et al.*, 1996) ^[91].

Terpenoids and Essential Oils

The fragrance of plants is carried in the so called quinta essentia, or essential oil fraction. These oils are secondary metabolites that are highly enriched in compounds based on an isoprene structure. They are called terpenes, their general chemical structure is C₁₀H₁₆, and they occur as diterpenes, triterpenes, and tetraterpenes (C₂₀, C₃₀, and C₄₀), as well as hemiterpenes (C₅) and sesquiterpenes (C₁₅). When the compounds contain additional elements, usually oxygen, they

are termed terpenoids. Terpenoids are synthesized from acetate units, and as such they share their origins with fatty acids. They differ from fatty acids in that they contain extensive branching and are cyclized. Examples of common terpenoids are methanol and camphor (monoterpenes) and farnesol and artemisin (sesquiterpenoids). Artemisin and its derivative a-art ether, also known by the name qinghaosu, find current use as antimalarial (Vishwakarma, 1990) [95]. In 1985, the steering committee of the scientific working group of the World Health Organization decided to develop the latter drug as a treatment for cerebral malaria. It was reported that 60% of essential oil derivatives examined to date were inhibitory to fungi while 30% inhibited bacteria (Chaurasia and Vyas, 1977) [13]. The triterpenoid betulinic acid is just one of several terpenoids which have been shown to inhibit HIV. The mechanism of action of terpenes is not fully understood but is speculated to involve membrane disruption by the lipophilic compounds.

Quinones

Quinones are aromatic rings with two ketone substitutions. They are ubiquitous in nature and are characteristically highly reactive. These compounds, being colored, are responsible for the browning reaction in cut or injured fruits and vegetables and are an intermediate in the melanin synthesis pathway in human skin (Schmidt, 1988) [79]. Their presence in henna gives that material its dyeing properties (Fessenden *et al.*, 1982) [24]. The switch between diphenol (or hydroquinone) and diketone (or quinone) occurs easily through oxidation and reduction reactions. The individual redox potential of the particular quinone-hydroquinone pair is very important in many biological systems; witness the role of ubiquinone (coenzyme Q) in mammalian electron transport systems. Vitamin K is a complex naphthoquinone. Its ant hemorrhagic activity may be related to its ease of oxidation in body tissues (Harris, 1963) [30]. Hydroxylated amino acids may be made into quinones in the presence of suitable enzymes, such as a polyphenol oxidase (Thastrup *et al.*, 1985) [88].

Phenolics and Polyphenols

Simple phenols and phenolic acids. Some of the simplest bioactive phytochemicals consist of a single substituted phenolic ring. Cinnamic and caffeic acids are common representatives of a wide group of phenyl propane-derived compounds which are in the highest oxidation state. The common herbs tarragon and thyme both contain caffeic acid, which is effective against viruses (Wild, 1994) [99], bacteria (Thomson, 1978) [89], and fungi (Duke, 1985). Catechol and pyrogallol both are hydroxylated phenols, shown to be toxic to microorganisms. Catechol has two (2-OH) groups, and pyrogallol has three. The site(s) and number of hydroxyl groups on the phenol group are thought to be related to their relative toxicity to microorganisms, with evidence that increased hydroxylation results in increased toxicity (Geissman, 1963) [26]. In addition, some authors have found that more highly oxidized phenols are more inhibitory (Scalbert, 1991) [77]. The mechanisms thought to be responsible for phenolic toxicity to microorganisms include enzyme inhibition by the oxidized compounds, possibly through reaction with sulfhydryl groups or through more nonspecific interactions with the proteins (Mason and Wasserman, 1987) [48].

Tannins

“Tannin” is a general descriptive name for a group of

polymeric phenolic substances capable of tanning leather or precipitating gelatin from solution, a property known as astringency. Their molecular weights range from 500 to 3000 and they are found in almost every plant part: bark, wood, leaves, fruits, and roots (Scalbert, 1991) [77]. They are divided into two groups, hydrolysable and condensed tannins. Hydrolysable tannins are based on gallic acid, usually as multiple esters with D-glucose; while the more numerous condensed tannins (often called proanthocyanidins) are derived from flavonoid monomers. Tannins may be formed by condensations of flavan derivatives which have been transported to woody tissues of plants. Alternatively, tannins may be formed by polymerization of quinone units (Geissman, 1963) [26]. This group of compounds has received a great deal of attention in recent years, since it was suggested that the consumption of tannin-containing beverages, especially green teas and red wines, can cure or prevent a variety of disorders (Serafini, 1994) [82]. Many human physiological activities, such as stimulation of phagocytic cells, host-mediated tumor activity, and a wide range of anti-infective actions, have been assigned to tannins (Haslam, 1996) [31]. One of their molecular actions is to complex with proteins through so-called nonspecific forces such as hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic effects, as well as by covalent bond formation (Haslam, 1996) [31].

Coumarins

Coumarins are phenolic substances made of fused benzene and a-pyrone rings (Kennedy and Thornes, 1997) [53]. They are responsible for the characteristic odor of hay. As of 1996, at least 1,300 had been identified (Hoult and paya, 1996) [34]. Their fame has come mainly from their antithrombotic Thastrup *et al.*, 1985) [88], anti-inflammatory (Piller, 1975) [64], and vasodilatory (Namba *et al.*, 1988) [52] activities. Warfarin is a particularly well-known coumarin which is used both as an oral anticoagulant and, interestingly, as a rodenticide (Keating and Kennedy, 1997) [53]. It may also have antiviral effects. Coumarins are known to be highly toxic in rodents and therefore are treated with caution by the medical community. However, recent studies have shown a “pronounced species-dependent metabolism”. So that many *in vivo* animal studies cannot be extrapolated to humans. It appears that toxic coumarin derivatives may be safely excreted in the urine in humans (Weinmann, 1997) [98].

Lectins and Polypeptides

Peptides which are inhibitory to microorganisms were first reported in 1942 (Balla *et al.*, 1942) [6]. They are often positively charged and contain disulfide bonds (Zhang and Lewis, 1997) [1]. Their mechanism of action may be the formation of ion channels in the microbial membrane or competitive inhibition of adhesion of microbial proteins to host polysaccharide receptors (Sharon and Ofek, 1986) [85]. Recent interest has been focused mostly on studying anti-HIV peptides and lectins, but the inhibition of bacteria and fungi by these macromolecules, such as that from the herbaceous *Amaranthus*, has long been known (Bolle *et al.*, 1996) [10]. Thionins are peptides commonly found in barley and wheat and consist of 47 amino acid residues. They are toxic to yeasts and gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria. Thionins AX1 and AX2 from sugar beet are active against fungi but not bacteria (Kragh *et al.*, 1995) [44]. Fabatin, a newly identified 47-residue peptide from fava beans, appears to be structurally related to g-thionins from grains and inhibits *E. coli*, *P.*

aeruginosa, and *Enterococcus hirae* but not *Candida* or *Saccharomyces*. The larger lectins molecules, which include mannose-specific lectins from several plants, MAP30 from bitter melon (Huang *et al.*, 1995), GAP31 from *Gelonium*

multiflorum and *jacalin* are inhibitory to viral proliferation (HIV, cytomegalovirus), probably by inhibiting viral interaction with critical host cell components.

Table 4: List of plants, Family, Plant part used and Therapeutic uses in anti-microbial, anti-fungal and anti-insecticides

Scientific name	Family	Plant part used	Therapeutic uses	Earlier supported studies
<i>Arnebia benthamii</i>	(Boraginaceae)	Root, Leaves	Antimicrobial	Shamim <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Rumex dentatus</i>	(Polygonaceae)	Leaves, Roots	Antimicrobial	Nisa <i>et al.</i> , 2013
<i>Nepeta cataria</i>	(Lamiaceae)	Dried leaves and flowers	Antimicrobial	Bandh <i>et al.</i> , 2011 ^[8]
<i>Euphorbia helioscopia</i>	Euphorbiaceae	Above ground part	Antimicrobial	Lone <i>et al.</i> , 2013 ^[47]
<i>Euryale ferox</i>	(Liliaceae)	Seeds	Antimicrobial	Parray <i>et al.</i> , 2010
<i>Euphorbia wallichii</i>	(Euphorbiaceae)	Above ground part	Antimicrobial	Parray <i>et al.</i> , 2009
<i>Fumaria Indica</i>	(Fumariaceae)	Aerial parts	Antimicrobial	Khan <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Iris kashmiriana</i>	(Iridaceae)	Whole plant	Antimicrobial	Khan, 2015 ^[40]
<i>Chrysanthellum americanum</i>	(Asteraceae)	Leaf	Antifungal	Ofofile <i>et al.</i> , (2010) ^[55]
<i>Cocus nucifera</i>	(Asteraceae)	Coconut oil	Antifungal	Ogbilu <i>et al.</i> , (2007)
<i>Plumbago zeylanica</i>	(Plubagiaceae)	Leaf and root	Antifungal	Ogbebor and Adekunle (2005) ^[56]
<i>Vernoniaten oreana</i>	Compositae	Bark	Antifungal	Ogundare <i>et al.</i> , (2006) ^[6]
<i>Acalphya fimbriata</i>	Euphorbiaceae	Leaf	Antifungal	Adodo (2005) ^[3]
<i>Seena podocarpa</i>	(Leguminosae)	Leaf	Antifungal	Ogundare (2009) ^[58]
<i>Ageratum conyzoides</i>	(Asteraceae)	Leaf	Antifungal	Ogbebor and Adekunle (2005) ^[56]
<i>Azadirachta indica</i>	Meliaceae		Anti-insecticidal	Isman, (2006); Xu <i>et al.</i> (2010); Ahmad <i>et al.</i> , (2015) ^[37, 100]
<i>Chrysanthemum cinerariifolium</i>	Asteraceae	Flowers	Anti-insecticidal	Schleier and Peterson (2011) ^[78]
<i>Allium sativum</i>	Alliaceae	Blub	Anti-insecticidal	Yang <i>et al.</i> , (2010) ^[100]
<i>Lantana camara</i>	Verbenaceae	Leaves	Anti-insecticidal	Rajashekhar <i>et al.</i> , (2014) ^[70]
<i>Ocimum basilicum</i>	Lamiaceae	Leaves	Anti-insecticidal	Prajapati <i>et al.</i> , (2005); Martinez Velazquez <i>et al.</i> , (2011) ^[68, 72]
<i>Datura stramonium</i>	Solanaceae	Seeds	Anti-insecticidal	Senthilkumar <i>et al.</i> , (2009); Jawalkar <i>et al.</i> , (2016) ^[81]
<i>Tagetes minuta</i>	Asteraceae	Flowers and tender leaves	Anti-insecticidal	Amer and Mehlhorn (2006) ^[4]
<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	Solanaceae	Leaves	Anti-insecticidal	Isman (2006); Vanderborre <i>et al.</i> , (2010) ^[37]

Conclusion

- Medicinal plant antimicrobial activity is a new hope to combat the dangerous threats posed by increasing evidence of antimicrobial resistance.
- Antimicrobial activities of plant oils and extracts have formed the basis of many applications including raw and processed food preservation, pharmaceuticals, alternative medicine and natural therapies.
- It is concluded that medicinal plants can be used as antimicrobial agents in new drugs for therapy of infectious diseases in humans.
- Plant bioactive with antifungal activity can be considered as an option for development of new improved alternative formulations in antifungal therapy.

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