

Bioactive Compounds: Characterization And Mechanistic Research Examining the Opportunities and Difficulties in the Development of Antimicrobial and Antiviral Agents based on Plants

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Abstract: The rising prevalence of drug-resistant diseases necessitates the rapid identification and isolation of novel bioactive components from medicinal plants via standardized contemporary analytical methods. Compounds obtained from medicinal plants may provide innovative and direct strategies against harmful microorganisms. This study examines the antimicrobial properties of plant-derived compounds, their putative modes of action, and their chemical efficacy. The emphasis is placed on the present issues and future outlook regarding the antibacterial activity of medicinal plants. There are intrinsic problems associated with the antibacterial effectiveness of medicinal plant extracts. Optimized extraction methods, tailored to specific plant species, result in enhanced and selectively extracted chemicals. Antibacterial susceptibility assays for assessing the antibacterial efficacy of plant extracts may provide variable findings. The emphasis is placed on the existing obstacles, difficulties, and issues that must be addressed, as well as future possibilities about combination effects. The use of bioactive chemicals from medicinal plant extracts as suitable antimicrobials is crucial and should be enhanced using novel metabolomics methods to identify the most effective combinations. Comprehending the interactions among bioactive chemicals produced from medicinal plants will facilitate the creation of novel combination antimicrobial medicines.

Keywords: medicinal plants; bioactive compounds; antimicrobial combination effects; synergy; antagonism; metabolomics; challenges;

Introduction

Studies on therapeutic plant-derived mixes often concentrate on one or two bioactive chemicals (secondary metabolites) or explore the biological effects of complicated mixtures for which the bioactive components are unknown, ignoring the chemical composition entirely. Furthermore, the chemical complexity and diversity of medicinal plant extracts and bioactive chemicals may complicate study design [1-3]. A complex combination of bioactive chemicals that act at many sites has been discovered in recent research aimed at elucidating the mechanisms of action of traditionally used therapeutic plant extracts [4-6].

The great complexity and variety of therapeutic plant extracts make the scientific search for them difficult. Given that complex plant extracts rather than single bioactive molecules are often used in medicine, it may be crucial to comprehend how the active chemicals interact [6-8]. Research has shown that when single active molecules are used as opposed to combinations of bioactive chemicals, disease resistance is less likely to develop [9-11]. The combined action of physically and functionally varied active chemicals is how medicinal plants target microorganisms. Depending on the target microbial species, combined impacts may change [12,14]. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), traditional medicines made from medicinal plants continue to be beneficial for 80% of the poor world's population [13]. Approximately 374,000 plants are believed to exist worldwide [4], compared to 28,187 human-used medicinal species [5]. Additionally, the WHO has listed over 20,000 species of medical plants in its database [6] and identified medicinal plants as a possible

source of novel pharmaceuticals [7]. Regulations regarding medicinal plants have been created in more than 100 nations.

More than 30,000 antimicrobial molecules have been identified from plants, and over 1340 species have been shown to exhibit antimicrobial activity [8]. Furthermore, it has been calculated that between 14 and 28 percent of higher plant species have therapeutic properties, and that 74% of bioactive chemicals produced from plants were found via ethnomedical applications [9].

Efficient and well-validated data are needed to assess the effectiveness of potentially significant medicinal plants and demonstrate their antibacterial value. Therefore, the most pertinent studies regarding the validation of medicinal plants' antimicrobial activity, the underlying mechanisms of action, the mechanisms of bacterial resistance, the plant-derived chemical compounds that may be responsible for such activity, the challenges and future prospects of medicinal plant antimicrobial activity were critically analyzed in this review in order to obtain a more comprehensive perspective of the potential use of medicinal plant extracts as alternative solutions to combat drug resistance.

Methodology

Terminology of Combination Effects

Numerous studies were published to provide insightful criticism on the definition of combination effects in complex mixtures [10–12]. Despite the popularity of evaluating interactions among multiple bioactive compounds [15], providing a precise definition for the term synergy [16] remains challenging due to the presence of compounds about which we possess limited knowledge, whether chemically, pharmacologically, or quantitatively [17]. Interactions among various bioactive chemicals are often categorized as synergistic, additive, or antagonistic. Synergy transpires when the collective impact of compounds exceeds the aggregate of their separate effects. Synergy may occur when one molecule amplifies the therapeutic efficacy of another by modulating its absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion, or when all chemicals are individually inert but become active upon combination. Additive and non-interactive combinations signify that the cumulative impact of the two chemicals is a simple summation, but an antagonistic interaction yields an effect that is smaller than the total of the separate compounds' effects. The additive impact is not only the total of the effects of compounds A and B; rather, it is calculated from the separate effects using a complicated mathematical process. Antagonism is more easily defined as a diminished impact compared to what is anticipated [18] (Figure 1).

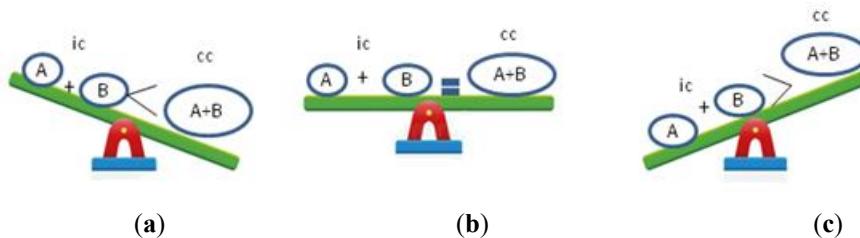


Figure 1: Combination effects of bioactive compounds: (a) synergistic effect; (b) additive effect; (c) antagonistic effect; ic: individual compounds; cc: combined compound [2].

Antimicrobial Activity of Medicinal Plant Extracts

There have been reports of a variety of biological activities, including antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, and antioxidant properties, in extracts obtained from medicinal plants. There may be substantial therapeutic utility in the treatment of resistant microbial strains using antimicrobial chemicals derived from medicinal plants, since these compounds may limit the development of bacteria, fungus, viruses, and protozoa via different pathways than currently employed antimicrobials [19]. While not all of these active chemicals are effective as antibiotics on their own, those that exhibit both antibacterial and antibiotic resistance-modifying properties may be useful in the fight against bacteria that have developed resistance to antibiotics. Because they are less likely to cause adverse effects and develop resistance than manufactured medications, chemically complex substances offer enormous therapeutic promise. In the same way that bacteria may develop resistance to antibiotics, they can also develop resistance to therapeutic plants when just one active component with a particular target is used [20].

Nevertheless, more investigation into the mechanisms of resistance is necessary due to the paucity of literature on bacteria acquiring resistance in plants. There is a correlation between the synergistic impact of the active chemicals in medicinal plant extracts and their efficacy in inhibiting bacterial growth [21]. Synergism is a result of a number of effects, including the development of multi-target mechanisms, the presence of compounds that can suppress bacterial resistance mechanisms, changes in pharmacokinetics or physicochemistry leading to improvements in bioavailability, solubility, and resorption rate, toxicity reduction, and the neutralization of negative effects. Medicinal plants' chemical complexity and multi-targeted nature are their therapeutic benefits, but they can make compound identification challenging [22]. In addition, the antibacterial action is enhanced when medicinal plant extracts include mixtures of components rather than individual ones. A more potent antimicrobial than an antibiotic could be possible by the integration of non-specific action mechanisms. Furthermore, research has shown that antimicrobials originating from plants do not always cause resistance. As of now, it is unclear whether or not these new antibiotics will face the same level of resistance as current ones. The medicinal plant *Hypericum acmosepalum* contains an endophytic fungus that contains compounds such as hyperenone A, hypercalin B, hyperphorin, and emodin. These compounds have antibacterial activity against various bacteria and fungi, including resistant strains of *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Salmonella enterica*, *Escherichia coli*, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, *Aspergillus niger*, and *Candida albicans* [23]. Ellagophyllene, spathulenol, α -farnesene, E-caryophyllene, germacrene D, terpenes, and a novel kind of acylphloroglucinol are among the several essential oil constituents found in *Hypericum olympicum*. The most potent antimicrobial effects were shown against *Salmonella enteritidis* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in the crude methanol extract of *Hypericum olympicum*, while the extract exhibited broad-spectrum action against several other bacteria [24]. Resins found in nature, mostly in medicinal plants, have antimicrobial and antiprotozoal properties. Particularly effective against *Streptococcus pyogenes* strains was the propolis extract higher in flavonoids, including pinocembrin and galangin. *Streptococcus mutans* was the microbe tested for in the Korean propolis antibacterial study. The antimicrobial chemical diaporthalasin, produced by the marine sponge fungus *Diaporthaceae* sp., was effective against both regular *Staphylococcus aureus* and MRSA [25]. Research has shown that certain aromatic medicinal plants, including fennel, peppermint, thyme, and lavender, can produce essential oils that contain volatile substances like phenylpropanoids, monoterpenes, and sesquiterpenes. These oils have the ability to inhibit the growth of both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, as well as fungi and viruses [26].

Mechanisms of Resistance to Antimicrobial Agents

The widespread use and abuse of antibiotics have resulted in the development of multidrug resistance (MDR) in several harmful bacteria. Antimicrobial resistance is a multifaceted worldwide public health issue, mostly resulting from resistance genes and their subsequent impacts. These characteristics may be inherited, acquired from different pathogens, or arise from random changes in bacterial DNA. Neither a singular nor simplistic approach can adequately restrict the growth and proliferation of infectious organisms that develop resistance to existing antimicrobial agents. The present deficiency of novel antimicrobials to substitute those rendered ineffective necessitates an urgent effort to preserve the efficacy of existing medications [27]. Bacteria may exhibit resistance to antibacterial drugs via many pathways, which are elaborated upon individually below (Figure 1).

Efflux Pump

Due to the efflux pump's (EP) function, the antibacterial drug is expelled from the bacterium at a rate greater than its diffusion time, resulting in an intrabacterial concentration much lower than the effective value. Bacterial protein synthesis processes are often carried out uninterrupted by lowering the intrabacterial concentration of EP-mediated inhibitors of protein synthesis systems such ribosomes. Many harmful Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and fungi, including *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, and *Candida albicans*, are resistant to antibiotics via the mechanism of EPs. The high levels of intrinsic and acquired antibiotic resistance often seen in Gram-negative bacteria are caused by a combination of factors, including the action of EPs and lower drug absorption caused by the multi-membranar layer.

Consequently, it is commonly considered that an effective strategy for fighting microbial infections is to use EP inhibitors in conjunction with antibacterial medicines.

Structural Modification of Porins

The influx of antibiotics is primarily regulated by porins, which are proteins that create water-filled open channels facilitating the passive transport of molecules across lipid bilayer membranes. Variations in porin structure lead to changes in membrane permeability, serving as a mechanism to evade antibacterial agents. This form of antibacterial resistance is commonly observed in Gram-negative pathogens, including *Acinetobacter* spp. and *Pseudomonas* spp.

Alteration of Target Sites

Alteration of the drug-binding site constitutes a further resistance mechanism, wherein the antibacterial agent fails to interact with the designated bacterial site, leading to a significant decrease in the agent's antibacterial efficacy. An illustration of this mechanism is vancomycin resistance in vancomycin-resistant enterococci, wherein van HAX genes encode a novel enzymatic pathway that facilitates structural modifications by transitioning from the amide linkage in the D-Ala-D-Ala peptidoglycan structure to the ester linkage in the D-Ala-D-Lac structure, thereby diminishing the antibiotic-binding affinity.

Synergistic Interactions between Compounds and Antibiotics

The integration of antibiotics with activity-enhancing phytochemicals is a crucial approach in the evolving landscape of antimicrobial therapies. Some medicinal herbs can deactivate antibiotic resistance mechanisms. This capability arises from the synergy of therapeutic plant components and antibiotics, whose efficacy would be diminished in their absence. Furthermore, substances have significant efficacy just when used in conjunction with an antibiotic. Identifying the specific chemical in an extract responsible for the synergistic interaction is challenging. Moreover, several chemicals exhibit synergistic action via other routes, alongside their intrinsic antimicrobial properties attributed to "polyvalent" effects [49].

Essential Oils

Essential oils and their bioactive constituents are classified as secondary metabolites capable of interacting with antibiotics. A study examined a combination of five essential oils (EOs) with seven antibiotics; the synergistic impact of peppermint, cinnamon bark, and lavender EO in conjunction with piperacillin and meropenem shown substantial efficacy against several strains of *Escherichia coli*.

The amalgamation of *Origanum compactum*, *Chrysanthemum coronarium*, *Melissa officinalis*, *Thymus willdenowii*, Boiss, and *Origanum majorana* essential oils with gentamycin, tobramycin, imipenem, and ticarcillin exhibited synergistic effects in certain instances; however, antagonistic interactions were also observed against various bacterial strains. A recent research evaluated essential oils derived from *Laurus nobilis* L. and *Prunus armeniaca* L. for their potential synergistic antibacterial and antifungal effects in conjunction with three antibiotics: fluconazole, ciprofloxacin, and vancomycin. The essential oil from *Laurus nobilis* exhibited the most significant antibacterial action, with minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) ranging from 1.39 to 22.2 mg/mL for bacteria and from 2.77 to 5.55 mg/mL for yeasts. Among the 32 interactions assessed, 23 (71.87%) shown complete synergy, while nine (28.12%) indicated moderate synergy. The primary essential oils from *Laurus nobilis* (eucalyptol, α -terpinyl acetate, and methyl eugenol) had the most significant synergistic impact with all tested drugs, with FIC index values ranging from 0.266 to 0.75 for bacteria and from 0.258 to 0.266 for yeasts [28-32].

A further research reveals that combinations of *Eucalyptus camaldulensis* Eos with three conventional antibiotics (gentamicin, ciprofloxacin, and polymyxin B) demonstrate synergy, even in some re-sensitized multi-drug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* strains. The identified MICs for the essential oils of *Eucalyptus camaldulensis* ranged from 0.0005 to 0.002 mg/mL. Combining two *Eucalyptus camaldulensis* Eos with ciprofloxacin demonstrated synergy against two of three tested multi-drug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* bacteria, yielding a FIC index value of less than 0.5 [33]. The bioactive components of Eos, namely thymol and carvacrol, shown synergistic effects with penicillin against *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella typhimurium*. Furthermore, carvacrol shown synergistic effects when combined with ampicillin and nitrofurantoin against

Klebsiella oxytoca, with FIC index values of 0.375 and 0.15, respectively, but thymol exhibited no activity. Carvacrol had the highest minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values of 2.5 mg/mL against *Klebsiella oxytoca* [34]. Eugenol shown synergy with ampicillin against *Streptococcus cricetus* and *Streptococcus gordonii*, as well as with gentamicin against *Streptococcus sanguinis* and *Porphyromonas gingivalis*. The MIC for eugenol ranged from 0.1 to 0.8 mg/mL, and when combined with ampicillin, the MIC decreased by more than 4–8-fold in all tested bacteria, indicating synergy as indicated by the FIC value of 0.375–0.5 [35]. The antibacterial and streptomycin-modifying properties of *Thymus glabrescens* essential oil were also examined. The primary constituents of this essential oil were geraniol, geranyl acetate, and thymol. The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for *Thymus glabrescens* essential oil (EO) was determined to range from 2.508 to 5.0168 mg/mL. All combinations examined between drugs and streptomycin mostly exhibited antagonistic interactions. Interactions between geraniol and thymol showed a predominant additive impact (FIC index 0.76 to 1.09) [36].

Alkaloids

A natural alkaloid with antibacterial action against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria is 1,4-naphthoquinone. 4-Naphthoquinone has MIC values between 0.0078 and 0.125 mg/mL. When it comes to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), 1,4-naphthoquinone and imipenem, cefotaxime, and cefuroxime all work together synergistically (FIC index 0.5). However, when it comes to MRSA cultured in the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC), the only combination that showed a synergistic effect was 1,4-naphthoquinone and cefotaxime, with a FIC index of 0.5. The FIC index for the combination of 1,4-naphthoquinone and cefuroxime was determined to be 8.5, whereas the FIC index for the additive combination with imipenem was 1.063 [37].

Identifying the Bioactive Substances Causing Synergistic Effects

To discover bioactive compounds and enhance the efficiency of therapeutic plant extract combinations, it is essential to separate and describe the bioactive molecules responsible for the biological identity, whether they exhibit synergistic, additive, or antagonistic effects, and to ascertain their quantities. The data that has to be integrated for the effective discovery of bioactive compound combinations comprise chemical bioactivity data, gene expression data, targets, and pathway annotations, and gene–protein interaction networks [38].

Metabolomics (the complete analytical technique for the identification and quantification of secondary metabolites in a biological system) is a key tool for standardization and quality control in medicinal plants [39]. Metabolomics combines advanced analytical technology (mass spectrometry (MS) paired with different chromatographic separation techniques) with the use of statistical and multi-variant methodologies for data interpretation. Because of the vast number of bioactive chemicals and the wide changes in abundance, there is no single technique available to examine the full number of the chemical compounds [40].

Bioactive Molecule Identification Techniques

The predominant technique for identifying bioactive chemicals is bioassay-guided fractionation. This approach involves the separation of extracts by various chromatographic methods, followed by the assessment of fractions for biological activity, with the procedure repeated until bioactive substances are found and defined. To prevent the separation of recognized bioactive compounds, structural assessment procedures must be implemented to exclude samples containing known bioactive compounds by high-resolution mass spectrometry, UV spectroscopy, nuclear magnetic resonance, and tandem mass spectrometry molecular networking [41].

Approaches to Bioactive Compound Identification via Metabolomics

Fractionation methods primarily emphasize the most readily separable molecules within a mixture, rather than those exhibiting biological activity [42]. Consequently, several endeavors were undertaken to find and isolate bioactive substances by integrating the chemical and biological features of the analyzed materials. Bioactive chemicals were found using mass spectrometry (MS), gas chromatography (GC), and biological data. The integration of MS and GC serves as a significant analytical instrument for the separation of compounds and the identification of their chemical structures [43]. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy is one of the three primary analytical techniques in metabolomics, alongside GC–MS and LC–MS, used for profiling and

detecting metabolites in complicated mixtures, such as plant extracts [44]. NMR-based metabolomics was effectively used to identify the antibacterial actions of diverse substances [45] and to characterize plant secondary metabolites [46]. The NMR methodology combined with multivariate data analysis identified compounds from medicinal plants that contribute to antiviral activity [47], indicating actinobacteria and their compounds as potential agents against phytopathogenic bacteria [48], and demonstrating the antimicrobial mechanism of organic acids on *Salmonella enterica* strains [49].

Analysis of Bioactive Substances and Their Interactions

Identifying several bioactive compounds that may interact synergistically, additively, or antagonistically to influence biological activity is a significant difficulty in the examination of therapeutic plant extracts. Another problem with extracts is that their increased complexity is more prone to be linked with various forms of interaction [50].

A further problem is identifying the bioactive chemicals that provide antibacterial activity in complex combinations and their potential interactions. Applying bioassay-guided fractionation is challenging because the activity of the mixture arises from several unidentified bioactive chemicals, frequently exhibiting low potency. Considering these limitations, it is imprudent to research just one or two bioactive components in an extract. Complete identification of primary chemicals in some therapeutic plants is occasionally achievable. Nevertheless, in other instances, some bioactive molecules may remain unisolated [51]. A variety of reasons were suggested, which may be summarized as follows: (1) The quality of ethnopharmacological studies is substandard; (2) preclinical laboratory methodologies frequently diverge from local practices; (3) a complete mixture is requisite for therapeutic efficacy if synergy is present or presumed; (4) whole plant material containing specific bioactive compounds may safeguard other compounds from degradation; (5) bioactive compounds may not have been fully characterized, despite some known chemistry, due to insufficient plant material processing or fractionation techniques; (6) degradation of bioactive compounds may occur during fractionation; and (7) inadequate biological models may be selected to demonstrate activities.

Obstacles Facing the Antimicrobial Activity of Medicinal Plants

Use of Antimicrobials from Medicinal Plant Extracts

Medicinal plant extracts provide antimicrobial properties that are natural, safer than synthetic options, readily accessible in local communities, cost-effective, easy to administer, and capable of providing significant therapeutic advantages and more economical therapy. Moreover, extracts from medicinal plants may serve as a viable alternative therapy in instances of significant side effects and medication resistance [52].

The existing proportion of licensed antibacterial agents derived from medicinal plants fails to fully represent the potential of these compounds for future use as antimicrobial medicines. There are inherent limitations associated with the use of plant natural extracts as antimicrobial medicines.

Recent investigations indicate that therapeutic plant components must be used cautiously in the lack of reliable information about their efficacy [53]. Well-controlled, double-blind toxicological and clinical trials demonstrating their effectiveness and safety are few [54].

The use of medicinal plants has been linked to the adulteration of important chemicals, inadequate cultivation and collecting practices, absence of uniformity in preparation, and suboptimal storage conditions, all of which adversely impact the discovery of novel antimicrobials [55]. The season of harvest, place of cultivation, plant sections used, and processing methods might influence the concentrations and actions of different chemicals in extracts. The comparison of various literature data on the antibacterial activity of plant extracts may be troublesome owing to the variability in composition influenced by local temperature and environmental variables [56]. Rainfall and humidity vary among geographical regions, potentially altering the content and synthesis of chemicals in the same species of medicinal plant cultivated in various areas. Furthermore, global climate change presents an additional problem that alters meteorological conditions, hence threatening the composition and manufacturing of compounds, even within same geographical regions.

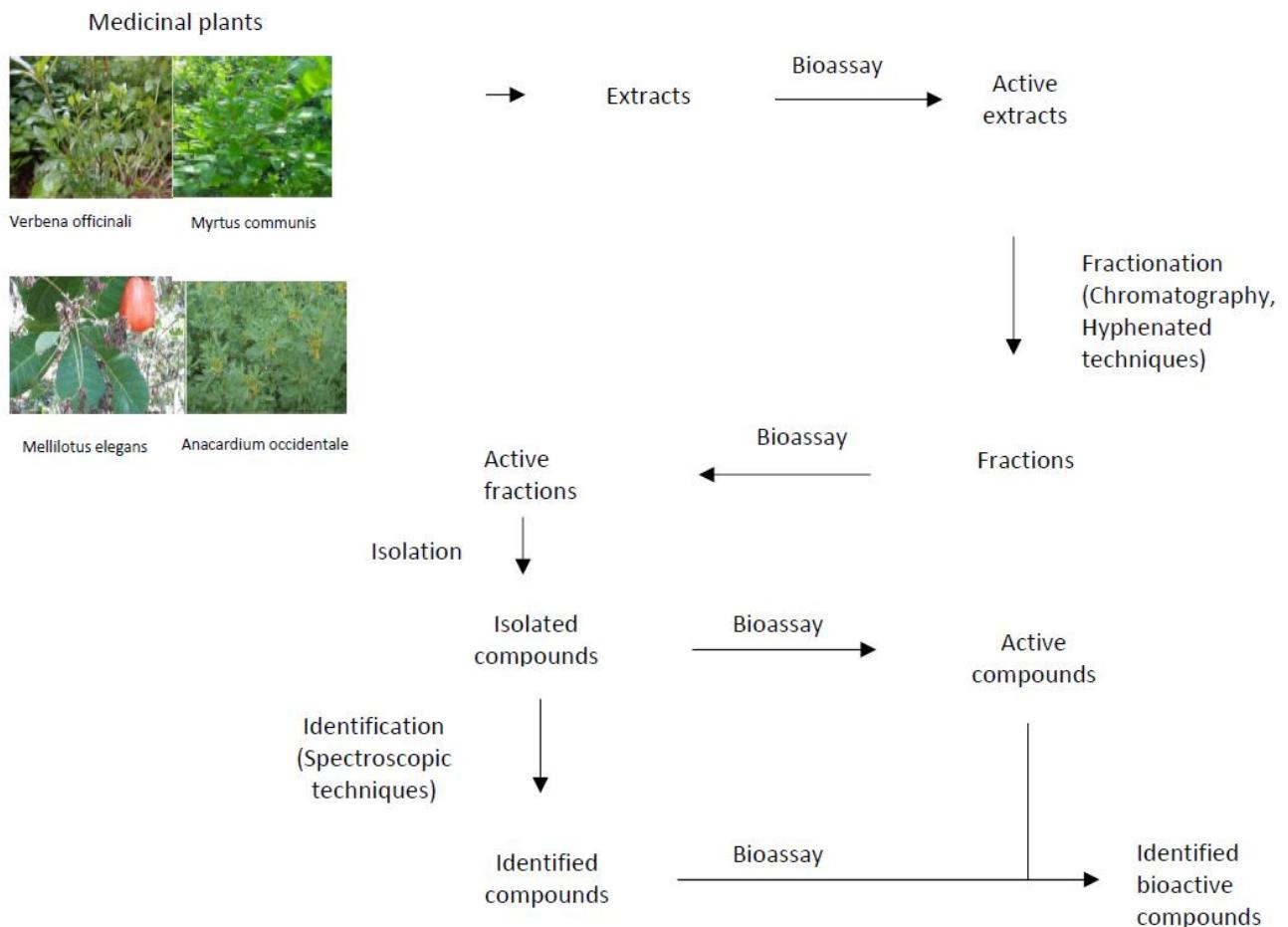


Figure 2. The process of discovering bioactive compounds[1]

It is challenging for scientists to delineate all the intricate interactions that may occur among the many chemicals present in a medicinal plant. The intricate nature of plant extracts presents a significant challenge, since these extracts include several components, making interpretation complex. The extraction of individual compounds exhibiting the requisite antibacterial properties may be labor-intensive and may need substantial quantities of plant material. The rediscovery of identical molecules from other sources also poses challenges. Consequently, standardization, stability, and quality control are achievable, if challenging. The potential to investigate a substantial number of unexamined chemicals may enhance the renewed interest in therapeutic plants [57].

Synergistic interactions among chemicals in a complex combination provide distinct challenges, since the capability to investigate many compounds influencing potentially numerous biological targets has not yet been completely realized.

Facilitating access to therapeutic plant species may sometimes pose challenges, particularly in an international context. Regulations regarding plant collection and plant export/import vary according on the location of the study being undertaken [57].

New Antimicrobials Derived from Medicinal Plant Extracts: Overcoming Developmental Obstacles

The scientific examination of novel plant extracts is arduous due to their considerable complexity and variability [58]. Plant extracts can comprise hundreds or thousands of distinct compounds in varying concentrations, and identifying the compounds responsible for specific biological effects poses a considerable challenge [59]. Numerous challenges must be addressed to advance the development of novel antimicrobials capable of combating the escalating issue of antibiotic resistance. The transition from *in vitro* studies to *in vivo*

experiments and ultimately to human clinical trials has posed a significant challenge in the advancement of novel antimicrobials. In vivo research is necessary to elucidate the precise mechanisms of the chemical compounds in medicinal plants and to determine their potential as alternatives or supplements to current strategies for treating microbial diseases.

Only medicinal plant extracts that exhibit inhibitory effects on microorganism growth at low or moderate MIC values warrant significant attention, and further research may be conducted [60].

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Research Restrictions

Identifying the bioactive substances in complicated combinations that have biological effects may be tricky. Pulsed ultrafiltration mass spectrometry was used to address this constraint by screening mixtures, including medicinal plant extracts. Furthermore, these extracts may pose safety concerns owing to the variety of bioactive compounds present, particularly when used as antimicrobial agents; hence, a thorough analysis of the bioactive compounds and the identification of residue formation is necessary [64].

A constraint of bioassay-guided fractionation is that fractions during the isolation process may exist at very low concentrations, potentially rendering biological effects undetectable and hence neglected. This procedure is regarded as time-consuming, dangerous, and expensive. Synergy-directed fractionation would enable the discovery of many beneficial chemicals, including synergists. A disadvantage of synergy-directed fractionation is its predisposition towards readily isolable bioactive chemicals. This technique emphasizes the most bioactive fractions; nevertheless, it is unfeasible to identify all the bioactive molecules inside them owing to the intricacy of the fractions. Consequently, the discovered bioactive chemicals may constitute just a portion of those responsible for the activity of the complex combination [65].

Conclusions

The antibacterial activity of medicinal plants offers a promising solution to address the increasing challenges of antibiotic resistance. Consequently, there is an urgent need to find and extract novel bioactive chemicals from medicinal plants that remain insufficiently investigated. The extensive variety of these chemicals has shown therapeutic promise as antimicrobials and as regulators of antibacterial resistance.

The prospective use of novel bioactive chemicals remains problematic. It is crucial to highlight that comprehensive in vitro and in vivo evaluations are necessary to ensure the identification of effective and non-toxic antimicrobial phytochemicals. Exploiting the possible synergistic or antagonistic effects of chemicals within and across medicinal plant extracts is a significant challenge.

Employing biochemometrics to integrate bioassay data with chromatographic or spectrometric metabolite profiles might enhance the separation process of bioactive chemicals that may demonstrate significant biological activity.

The synergy of medicinal plant compounds is crucial regarding antimicrobial resistance, as it enhances understanding of their variety, adaptability, and complexity, beyond only the interactions of synergists and antimicrobials. Advancements in synergy research will elucidate the therapeutic efficacy of intricate combinations of plant bioactive chemicals and augment the potential for using novel antimicrobials.

Only by comprehending the interactions of bioactive chemicals produced from medicinal plants can we develop safe and effective formulations for treating infectious illnesses. Nonetheless, several problems and uncertainties,

particularly in assessing the processes, analyses, and functions of bioactive substances, must be addressed and resolved.

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