

Medicinal Plants of Himalayan Forests



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1 Introduction

Plants play a vital role in our diet and are an excellent reservoir of proteins, carbohydrates, antioxidants, vitamins, and other important components required for our existence (Vella 1990). Among such important components, secondary metabolites have received increasing attention, as they contain medicinal values with huge therapeutic significance, besides being major contributors to health care improvements (Eloff 1998). Such secondary metabolites are often named active compounds or phytochemicals and display renowned biological effects, such as antimicrobial, antioxidant, antitumor, antidiabetic, antinociceptive, cardioprotective, and immunomodulatory properties, among others. Indeed, the increasing importance on the use of herbal preparations and medicinal plant is that they have low or even no side effects when compared to synthetic drugs and are simultaneously more potent against several diseases and disorders.

From time immemorial, a variety of indigenous and cultivated plants have been exploited for their therapeutic properties, and globally they are analyzed for the assessment of their efficiency as a result of increasing demand by the worldwide population by plant-based medicine. The World Health Organization (WHO) has reported that the business of medicinal plants and herbal medicine and the demand for herbal raw material is increasing annually at a growth rate of almost 15% (Neupane and Lamichhane 2020). However, it is expected that the global market of medicinal or pharmaceutical products extracted from plant sources will surpass \$111 billion by the year 2023 (Sofowora et al. 2013; Neupane and Lamichhane 2020). Hence, the research for identifying new species of medicinally important plants and the search for biologically active compounds from them is in progressing phase, due to which the demand for these medicinal plants has increased a lot in the market.

The forest richness of the Himalayan region is inexhaustible with exceptional medicinal flora and incredible economic significance (Pandey 2007). Flora from the Himalayan region is used by native communities for different reasons, including food, fuel, and medicinal purposes (Detwiler and Hall 1988; Bhat et al. 2020). A huge range of Himalayan plants has been cited by researchers around the world, with multiple therapeutic virtues underlined as well as their major role in traditional medicinal systems of different countries.

Currently, numerous herbal medicines and their active components have been used directly or indirectly in the modern medical system. A plethora of biologically important active compounds has been isolated from plant species found in the Himalayan region. Among such active compounds, linoleic acid, quercetin, gallic acid, ascorbic acid, piperine, myricetin, curcumin, taxol, palmitic acid, cinnamaldehyde, nerolidol, taxiresinols, amarogentin, swertiamarin, mangiferin, hesperidin, picroliv, and apocynin have been extracted and/or isolated at considerable amounts from a variety of plants, including *Anogeissus latifolia*, *Justicia adhatoda*, *Curcuma longa*, *Punica granatum*, *Piper nigrum*, *Aegle marmelos*, *Rhododendron arboreum*, *R. campanulatum*, *Podophyllum hexandrum*, *Saussurea obvallata*, *Taxus*

wallichiana, *Pinus roxburghii*, *Swertia chirayita*, *Picrorhiza kurroa*, etc., to whom excellent therapeutic activities have been attributed, such as antimicrobial, anticancer, anti-inflammatory, antiproliferative, antioxidant, antiatherogenic, antiasthmatic, antifungal, antidiabetic, immunomodulatory, anti-HIV, anti-Parkinson, and anti-hepatitis effects (Rajeshkumar and Kuttan 2001; Juyal et al. 2014; Painuli et al. 2015; Kumar and Van Staden 2016; Painuli and Kumar 2016; Painuli et al. 2016; Semwal 2017; Adnan et al. 2019; Semwal and Painuli 2019; Soni and Grover 2019). In this sense, this chapter aims to address the important medicinal plants from the forests of the Himalayas and their traditional uses, promising bioactive molecules along with therapeutic potential.

2 From Himalayan Mountain Diversity to New Drug Sources

The Himalaya, a crescent-shaped continuous belt of mountain system located in Asia, is known to be the highest and youngest mountain range worldwide. It extends over about 2500 km from Nanga Parbat in the west to Namja Barwa in the east, ranging up to 350 km of width in the west to 150 km in the east. This mountain belt is mainly distributed across the territories of five countries, namely, Pakistan, India, Nepal, China, and Bhutan (Roy and Purohit 2018). From west to east, the Himalayan belt is sectioned into three well-defined regions: western, eastern, and central Himalayan. With a complex and diverse geological pattern in terms of hydrology, environment, erosion, and mass movement, in the Himalayan belt, there is a marked climate variation at different zones, drifting from the tropical climate at the bottom and everlasting snow at the top of the mountain, with regional ecosystem transformations depending on elevation. In fact, both altitudinal and climatic variations make the Himalayan vegetation extremely rich and broadly distributed in forests and grasslands (Hajra and Rao 1990). Himalaya forest systems vary markedly in their topography, soils, rainfall, and weather, harboring rare and valuable flora and fauna. The variation in Himalayan vegetation ranges from tropical deciduous forests at the lower altitude to temperate forest at middle altitude, while at higher altitudes, coniferous forest, subalpine, and alpine forests are found, ranging from alpine grasslands and meadows to scrublands and permanent snowline.

Among the wide plant biodiversity of the Himalayan forest, which includes medicinal, aromatic, and wild edible plants, orchids, ferns and fern allies, bamboos, and ornamental plants (Hajra and Rao 1990), with increasing elevation, the flora shows even greater diversity profile (Manish and Pandit 2018; Bhat et al. 2020). The major plant species in the Himalayan tropical and subtropical forests include *Acacia catechu*, *A. procera*, *Albizia lebbeck*, *Bombax ceiba*, *Careya arborea*, *Dalbergia sissoo*, *Duabanga grandiflora*, *Garuga pinnata*, *Gmelina arborea*, *Haldina cordifolia*, *Kydia calycina*, *Mesua assamica*, *M. ferrea*, *Oroxylum indicum*, *Pinus roxburghii*, *Quercus lamellose*, *Semecarpus anacardium*, *Shorea robusta*, *Terminalia tomentosa*, and *T. bellirica*; however, in the Himalayan temperate forest, species like *Abies delavayi*, *A. densa*, *A. pindrow*, *Acer* spp., *Berberis* spp., *Cedrus deodara*,

Larix griffithii, *Lithocarpus pachyphyllus*, *Magnolia* spp., *Picea smithiana*, *Prinsepia utilis*, *Quercus cerris*, *Q. lamellose*, *Rhododendron* spp., and *Tsuga dumosa* predominate (Manish and Pandit 2018). In the shrubby region, *Artemisia*, *Berberis*, *Cotoneaster*, and *Ephedra* species are major elements, while in subalpine and alpine zones, *Aconitum heterophyllum*, *Aster albescens*, *Anemone*, *Berberis*, *Cotoneaster*, *Geranium*, *Iris*, *Juniperus*, *Lloydia*, *Potentilla*, *Primula*, and *Rhododendron* dominate (Srivastava et al. 2017; Manish and Pandit 2018). Table 1 enumerates the list of some Himalayan plants along with their distribution.

3 Traditional Uses of Himalayan Plants

The traditional system of medicine (TSM) comprises folk knowledge-based medicines, exercises, manual techniques, and spiritual healing along with other medical aspects developed over generations by several communities for diagnosis and prevention of a plethora of diseases. According to the WHO, “the traditional medicine is the sum total of the knowledge, skills, and practices based on theories, beliefs and experiences indigenous to different cultures, whether explicable or not, used in health maintenance as well as prevention, diagnosis, improvement or even treatment of physical and mental illness” (Che et al. 2017). TSM uses natural compounds, extracted from herbs, animals, organic matter, and minerals, for preventing or curing diseases, with medicinal plants being used for preparing a plethora of herbal drug formulations. TSM, including Ayurveda, Yoga, Unani, Naturopathy, Siddha, Homeopathy, and Chinese medicine system (TCM) used Himalayan medicinal plants as a leading source for efficient and effective herbal drug formulation. Among all, the Ayurvedic medicinal system is the oldest system of medicine developed and is in practice since 1500 BC (Ravishankar and Shukla 2007). These different TSMs are practiced in India, Nepal, Srilanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, and Tibet, among other places (Rosenberg 2012; Samal and Dehury 2016).

Among the renowned plant species that play important roles in these TSM, *Andrographis paniculate*, *Artemisia maritime*, *Asparagus racemosus*, *Bacopa monnieri*, *Barbarea vulgaris*, *Berberis vulgaris*, *Cedrus deodara*, *Curcuma longa*, *Datura innoxia*, *Dioscorea deltoidea*, *Equisetum arvense*, *Girardinia heterophylla*, *Ocimum sanctum*, *Paeonia emodi*, *Picrorrhiza kurroa*, *Pinus gerardiana*, *Podophyllum hexandrum*, *Rheum emodi*, *Rhododendron arboreum*, *Saussurea obvallata*, *Terminalia chebula*, *Tulipa gesneriana*, and *Withania somnifera* are the most widely recognized (Kurup 2002; Khare 2008; Gautam and Bhadauria 2009). These herbal plants exhibit numerous biological properties and have been used to treat high blood pressure, migraine, parasitic and fungal infections, fever, skin problems, cancer, stomach ache, uterine infection, inflammation, microbial infection, stress, fatigue, liver, and kidney problems (Joshi and Joshi 2013; Chaudhury and Rafei 2002). Some of these traditionally important plants and their traditional uses are mentioned in Table 2.

Table 1 Some popular Himalayan plants and their distribution

Species name	Family	Distribution
<i>Aconitum heterophyllum</i> (Brühl) Stapf	Ranunculaceae	Pakistan, India, Nepal
<i>Aconitum heterophyllum</i> Wall. ex Royle	Ranunculaceae	Pakistan, India, Nepal
<i>Allium carolinianum</i> DC.	Amaryllidaceae	Afghanistan, India, China, Pakistan, Nepal
<i>Allium rubellum</i> M. Bieb.	Amaryllidaceae	Asia, Europe
<i>Anoectochilus roxburghii</i> (Wall.) Lindl.	Orchidaceae	China, Tibet, Japan, Sri Lanka, India, Nepal
<i>Arisaema propinquum</i> Schott	Araceae	Pakistan, India, Nepal, Tibet
<i>Aster falconeri</i> (C.B. Clarke) Hutch.	Asteraceae	Arctic, Africa, Asia, America
<i>Atropa acuminata</i> Royle ex Lindl.	Solanaceae	Afghanistan, Iran, Pakistan, India
<i>Begonia picta</i> Sm.	Begoniaceae	China, India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Myanmar
<i>Berberis aristata</i> DC.	Berberidaceae	Asia, Europe, and America
<i>Berberis lyceum</i> Royle	Berberidaceae	India, Pakistan, Nepal
<i>Bombax ceiba</i> L.	Malvaceae	Asia, Africa, Australia
<i>Calanthe davidii</i> Franch.	Orchidaceae	China, India, Japan, Nepal, Taiwan, Vietnam
<i>Calanthe plantaginea</i> Lindl.	Orchidaceae	India, Nepal, Bhutan
<i>Cardiocrinum giganteum</i> (Wall.) Makino	Liliaceae	India, Pakistan, Nepal
<i>Cicer microphyllum</i> Benth.	Leguminosae	India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Nepal, Tibet, Bhutan
<i>Colchicum luteum</i> Baker	Colchicaceae	Afghanistan, Turkestan, Pakistan, India
<i>Cymbidium iridioides</i> D. Don	Orchidaceae	Bhutan, India, Myanmar, Nepal, North Vietnam
<i>Cymbidium lowianum</i> (Rchb.f.) Rchb.f.	Orchidaceae	India, China, Japan, Indonesia, Australia
<i>Dactylorhiza hatagirea</i> (D. Don) Soó	Orchidaceae	India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Nepal, Tibet, Bhutan
<i>Dendrobium heterocarpum</i> Wall. ex Lindl.	Orchidaceae	India, Nepal, Bhutan, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, Pakistan
<i>Dendrocalamus strictus</i> (Roxb.) Nees	Poaceae	India, Peninsula, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Thailand
<i>Dioscorea deltoidea</i> Wall. ex Griseb.	Dioscoreaceae	China, Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan, India, etc.
<i>Elaeagnus rhamnoides</i> (L.) A. Nelson	Elaeagnaceae	Asia, Europe
<i>Eremurus himalaicus</i> Baker	Xanthorrhoeaceae	Afghanistan, India, Pakistan, Nepal
<i>Euryale ferox</i> Salisb.	Nymphaeaceae	India, Europe, China, Japan
<i>Fraoaria nubicola</i> Lindl. ex Lacaita	Rosaceae	China, Nepal, India, Myanmar
<i>Gentiana kurroo</i> Royle	Gentianaceae	Pakistan, India, Nepal

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Species name	Family	Distribution
<i>Hedychium spicatum</i> Sm.	Zingiberaceae	Pakistan, India, Nepal
<i>Hypericum hookerianum</i> Wight & Arn.	Hypericaceae	India, Pakistan, China, Nepal, Bangladesh.
<i>Myrica esculenta</i> Buch.-Ham. ex D Don	Myricaceae	India, Nepal, China, Japan, Pakistan, Singapore
<i>Nardostachys jatamansi</i> (D.Don) DC.	Caprifoliaceae	Afghanistan, China, Tibet, Nepal
<i>Nasturtium officinale</i> R.Br.	Brassicaceae	Asia, Europe, Africa
<i>Nymphaea nouchali</i> Burm. F.	Nymphaeaceae	India, Africa
<i>Nymphoides peltata</i> (S.G. Gmel.) Kuntze	Menyanthaceae	China, India, Nepal
<i>Picrorhiza kurroa</i> Royle	Scrophulariaceae	Pakistan, India, Nepal
<i>Pinus gerardiana</i> Wall. ex D.Don	Pinaceae	Afghanistan, India, China, Pakistan, Nepal
<i>Podophyllum hexandrum</i> Royle	Berberidaceae	India, Afghanistan, China, Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan
<i>Primula denticulata</i> Sm.	Primulaceae	Bhutan, India, Myanmar, Nepal, China, Pakistan
<i>Rheum webbianum</i> Royle	Polygonaceae	India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Nepal, Tibet, Bhutan
<i>Rhodiola imbricata</i> Edgew.	Crassulaceae	China, India, Nepal, Pakistan
<i>Rhododendron arboreum</i> Sm.	Ericaceae	India, Nepal, China, Bhutan, Sri Lanka, Pakistan
<i>Rubus ellipticus</i> Sm.	Rosaceae	China, Nepal, India, Philippines
<i>Saussurea costus</i> (Falc.) Lipsch.	Asteraceae	India, Pakistan, China
<i>Saussurea obvallata</i> (DC.) Edgew.	Asteraceae	India, Pakistan, China, Tibet, Nepal
<i>Sinopodophyllum hexandrum</i> (Royle) T.S.Ying	Berberidaceae	Afghanistan, India, China, Pakistan, Nepal
<i>Taxus baccata</i> L.	Taxaceae	Asia, Europe, America, Iran
<i>Urtica dioica</i> L.	Urticaceae	Africa, America, Asia, Australasia, Europe
<i>Valeriana hardwickii</i> Wall.	Valerianaceae	Afghanistan, India, Pakistan, Myanmar
<i>Valeriana jatamansii</i> Jones	Valerianaceae	Afghanistan, Bhutan, China, India, Pakistan

On the other hand, the TCM system was written around 100 or 200 BC, and the Chinese Materia Medica was published in 1977 (Yuan et al. 2016). Regarding the most frequently used Himalayan medicinal plants in TCM, *Aquilaria sinensis*, *Berberis purpurascens*, *Cistanche salsa*, *Coptis omeiensis*, *Coptis teeta*, *Cordyceps sinensis*, *Dendrobium* spp., *Dioscorea deltoidea*, *Dioscorea ipponica*, *Dioscorea zingiberensis*, *Dracaena cochinchinensis*, *Ephedra sinica*, *Epimedium brevicornum*, *Erigeron breviscapus*, *Eucommia ulmoides*, *Fritillaria* spp., *Gastrodia alata*, *Gentiana macrophylla*, *Gentiana scabra*, *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, *Homalomena*

Table 2 Some popular medicinal plants and their traditional uses

Name of the species	Traditional uses	References
<i>Abrus cantoniensis</i> Hance	Chronic hepatitis, rheumatism, traumatic injury	Hong et al. (2015)
<i>Abutilon indicum</i> Linn. Sweet.	Paralysis, cough, chronic cystitis	Khare (2008)
<i>Acanthopanax trifoliatum</i> (L.) Merr.	Rheumatic arthritis, traumatic injury, sciatica, eczema	Hong et al. (2015)
<i>Aconitum heterophyllum</i> Wallich ex Royle	Stomach ache, fever	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Acorus calamus</i> L.	Diarrhea	Hong et al. (2015)
<i>Acorus calamus</i> L.	Skin wounds, cough, cold, roundworm, hookworm	Ambu et al. (2020)
<i>Adenanthera pavonina</i> Linn.	Diarrhea, paralysis, pulmonary affections	Khare (2008)
<i>Aesculus indica</i> (Colebr. ex Cambess) Hook.	Pregnancy food for ladies	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Ajuga bracteosa</i> Wall. ex Benth.	Stimulant, aperient, diuretic, blood purifier, fever	Khare (2008)
<i>Allium humile</i> Kunth	Breathing problem, stomach disease, jaundice	Bano et al. (2014)
<i>Amygdalus persica</i> Linn.	Cough, chronic bronchitis	Khare (2008)
<i>Angelica glauca</i> Edgew	Fever and cold	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Artemisia capillaris</i> Thunb.	Decoction, hepatitis, jaundice	Hong et al. (2015)
<i>Artemisia sieversiana</i> Ehrh.	Pneumonia, joints, boils, wounds, swelling	Bano et al. (2014)
<i>Asparagus racemosus</i> Willd	Immunoregulatory, tonic	Ojha et al. (2020)
<i>Astragalus psilocentros</i> Fisch	Teeth cleaning, stomach problems	Bano et al. (2014)
<i>Berberis asiatica</i> Roxb. ex DC.	Diabetes, Jaundice	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Berberis lycium</i> Royle	Eye disease	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Bergenia ciliata</i> (Haw.) Sternb.	Diarrhea, asthma, urinary problems, ophthalmia	Bano et al. (2014)
<i>Betula utilis</i> D. Don.	Rheumatism, dropsy, stones in the kidneys, eczema	Khare (2008)
<i>Cannabis sativa</i> L.	Paralysis, joint pain, piles	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Cedrus deodara</i> (Roxb.) Loud.	Astringent, antidiarrheal, febrifuge, skin disease	Khare (2008)
<i>Chenopodium album</i> L.	Rheumatism, swollen feet, sunstroke, sunburn	Bano et al. (2014)

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Name of the species	Traditional uses	References
<i>Chirita eburnea</i> Hance	Grinding, decoction	Hong et al. (2015)
<i>Citrus hystrix</i> DC.	Gastrointestinal	Ojha et al. (2020)
<i>Dactylorhiza hatagirea</i> (D.Don) Soo	Bleeding, wounds	Ojha et al. (2020)
<i>Dioscorea deltoidea</i> Wall	Cold, cough, joint pain, wounds, constipation, etc.	Semwal et al. (2021)
<i>Dioscorea opposita</i> Thunb.	Grinding, decoction, weakness, frequent urination	Hong et al. (2015)
<i>Eclipta prostrata</i> (L.)	Diarrhea, hematuria, hemoptysis, socioeconomic	Semwal et al. (2017)
<i>Ficus benghalensis</i> Linn.	Diabetes, dysentery, wounds	Khare (2008)
<i>Ficus palmate</i> Forsk.	Cuts, wounds	Ojha et al. (2020)
<i>Grewia optiva</i> Drummond ex Burret	Joint pain	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Hedychium spicatum</i> Buch. Ham. ex Smith	Respiratory, intestinal problems, purgative, laxative	Ojha et al. (2020)
<i>Hypericum sampsonii</i> Hance	Traumatic injury, pain, indigestion, chest congestion	Hong et al. (2015)
<i>Jasminum arborescens</i> Roxb.	Astringent, stomachic	Khare (2008)
<i>Juniperus excelsa</i> M. Bieb.	Kidney stone, rheumatism, respiratory disorders	Bano et al. (2014)
<i>Malva parviflora</i> L.	Abortion	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Myrica esculenta</i> Buch.-Ham. ex D. Don	Constipation, diarrhea, asthma, bronchitis	Ambu et al. (2020)
<i>Paeonia emodi</i> Wall. ex Royle.	Nervous affections, uterine diseases, blood purifier	Khare (2008)
<i>Paeonia officinalis</i> Linn	Antispasmodic, sedative, vasodilatory, hypotension	Khare (2008)
<i>Picrorhiza kurrooa</i> Royle ex Benth.	Joint pain, fever	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Podophyllum hexandrum</i> Royle	Dermatological	Ojha et al. (2020)
<i>Polygonum amplexicaule</i> D.Don	Wounds in the eyes	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Quercus leucotrichophora</i> A. Camus	Indigestion, diarrhea, asthma	Semwal et al. (2018)
<i>Rhaphidophora glauca</i> (Wall.) Schott	To promote pregnancy	Ambu et al. (2020)
<i>Rheum australe</i> D.Don	Fractured bone	Uniyal et al. (2006)

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Name of the species	Traditional uses	References
<i>Rhododendron arboreum</i> Smith	Nasal bleeding	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Rumex nepalensis</i> Sprengel	Anti-allergic	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Saussurea costus</i> (Falc.) Lipsch.	Joint pain	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Saussurea obvallata</i> (D.C.) Edgew	Paralysis, mental illness, cough, chronic cystitis	Semwal et al. (2020)
<i>Senecio chrysanthemoides</i> DC.	Rheumatic pain, wounds, sore throat	Bano et al. (2014)
<i>Swertia chirayita</i> (Roxb. ex Fleming)	Skin infection in children's	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Swertia petiolata</i> Royle	Ophthalmia, liver tonic, stomach inflammation	Bano et al. (2014)
<i>Taxus baccata</i> Linn.	Nervousness, epilepsy, asthma, chronic bronchitis	Khare (2008)
<i>Thalictrum foliolosum</i> DC.	Stomach pain, gastric trouble	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Viola betonicifolia</i> J.E. Smith	Antidote	Ojha et al. (2020)
<i>Viola pilosa</i> Blume	Fever, cold, cough	Uniyal et al. (2006)
<i>Zanthoxylum armatum</i> DC	Respiratory, gastrointestinal, spices, and condiments	Ojha et al. (2020)
<i>Zanthoxylum nitidum</i> (Roxb.) DC.	Ulcer, rheumatism, diarrhea, malaria, chronic gastritis	Hong et al. (2015)
<i>Zingiber officinale</i> Rosc	Cold, cough	Ojha et al. (2020)

occulta, *Panax ginseng*, *Panax pseudoginseng*, *Paris polyphylla* var. *yunnanensis*, *Picrorhiza scorophulariiflora*, *Psammosilene tunicoides*, *Rauwolfia yunnanensis*, *Rheum officinale*, *Salvia miltiorrhiza*, *Saussurea lappa*, *Sinopodophyllum emodi*, *Stephania epigaea*, *Stephania yunnanensis*, *Taxus chinensis*, and *Taxus wallichiana* are the most evident (Shengji et al. 2009). Indeed, the Himalayan flora has a long history in traditional or alternative treatments, and presently researchers are not only searching for new active components but also exploring the mechanism of action of many of these plant-derived extracts and even single components.

4 Plant-derived Bioactive Compounds

Bioactive compounds are essential and nonessential elements extracted from natural sources, especially from plants that help fulfill vital health requirements. Secondary metabolism produces these specialized compounds as a self-defense

mechanism, conferring protection against herbivores, insects, pathogen, pests, pathogens, and harsh environmental conditions (Egbuna et al. 2018). These secondary metabolites, also known as phytochemicals, phytoconstituents, or even active compounds, have microbicidal, insecticidal, and pesticidal effects and are also of huge interest for the production of several pharmaceutical drugs. Moreover, they also have numerous biomedical properties, such as antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, cardiovascular, anti-allergic, antihypertensive, and anticancer potentialities, being, therefore, a rich source of nutraceutical and pharmaceutical products (Hussein and El-Anssary 2018).

The Himalayan flora are known worldwide for their wide spectrum of biological activities, attributed to the presence of high-valued secondary metabolites (Semwal et al. 2020). The plant species at higher altitudes have high diversity and a significant amount of several phytoconstituents, as they face high radiations, low soil nutrients, moisture stress, harsh temperature, and other adverse environmental conditions (Pandey et al. 2018; Yang et al. 2018). At higher altitude, phytoconstituents also help in pollination and confer protection and defense against several biotic and abiotic stresses (Demasi et al. 2018), with this plant–environment interconnection being responsible for the unique mixture and composition of active compounds (Yang et al. 2018; Jurić et al. 2020).

Despite being put in the background for several years, today, there has been a growing interest in plant secondary metabolites over synthetic molecules because of several properties, such as low or no side effects, less toxicity, cost-effectiveness, and easy availability (Zeb et al. 2014). Many studies have suggested that natural compounds that are directly or indirectly isolated from plant origin actively participates in the formulation of effective and potent drugs. Currently, the field of synthetic chemistry is well developed yet, with more than 850 plant-derived active molecules being used in pharmaceutical formulations and with more than 100 plant-based compounds/molecules in the phase of clinical trials (Fowler 2006; Katiyar et al. 2012). Aspirin, ephedrine, colchicine, taxol, digoxin, camptothecin, atropine, and artemisinin are some of the plant-based active phytochemicals used in modern medicine (Jan and Abbas 2018; Calixto 2019).

Secondary metabolites are majorly classified into four main groups, such as alkaloids, terpenes, terpenoids, and polyphenolic compounds. Glycosides, tannins, and saponins are part of them, given their specific structure. Alkaloids are well-studied plant metabolites with remarkable anticancer, antimalarial, antihypertensive, anti-asthmatic, antimicrobial, analgesic, and vasodilatory activities (Roberts and Wink 1998; Raymond et al. 2010; Cushnie et al. 2014). Terpenes and terpenoids are major constituents of plant essential oil and exhibit great anti-inflammatory, anticancer, and antimicrobial activities (Trombetta et al. 2005; Salminen et al. 2008). Polyphenols are a vast group of phytochemicals, which include flavonoids, phenolic acids, isoflavonoids, lignans, curcuminoids, and tannins, possessing immense biomedical potentialities like anticancer, antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antidiabetic, neuroprotective, and anti-allergic effects, among others (Huang et al. 2010; Ghasemzadeh and Ghasemzadeh 2011; Ferrazzano et al. 2011; Egbuna et al. 2018).

4.1 Alkaloids

Alkaloids are a group of naturally occurring organic compounds obtained from bacteria, plants, and fungi that contain at least one nitrogen atom in their heterocyclic ring (Mueller-Harvey and McAllan 1992). Ancient records have shown that alkaloids have been used for medicinal purposes since 4000 BC and are probably the first natural compounds (e.g., morphine) extracted from plants (Rao et al. 1978; Roberts and Wink 1998). Indeed, the therapeutic use of poppy and opium by Persians, Egyptians, Arabs, Greeks, and Sumerians has been mentioned in various ancient manuscripts.

Although they are known for their exceptional biomedical properties, several alkaloids with high toxic effects have been reported to cause death in minor amounts. For example, the evaluation of active compounds from *Kopsia* genus leads to the revelation of various classes of alkaloids, with antitumor, anti-leishmania, and anti-mitotic properties (Chen et al. 2012). Thus, based on their heterocyclic ring, alkaloids are classified as pyrrolidine alkaloids, pyridine alkaloids, pyrrolidine–pyridine alkaloids, pyridine–piperidine alkaloids, quinoline alkaloids, and isoquinoline alkaloids (Jan and Abbas 2018). These groups are comprised of medicinally important alkaloids, including hygrine, isopelletierine, piperine, coniine, nicotine, myosmine, quinine, taxol, hyoscyamine, scopolamine, papaverine, morphine, codeine, narcotine, and heroine (Saxena et al. 2013). Moreover, some alkaloids, including anabaine and nicotine, have insecticidal properties, while others like tetrahydropalmatine, isoquinoline, zephyrantine, berberine, palmatine, atropine, scopolamine, atropine, quinine, colchicine, ephedrine, hyoscyamine, morphine, taxol, emetine, and naryclasine glucoside have a long history of medicinal applications and are pharmacologically important (Bribi 2018; Jan and Abbas 2018; Badri et al. 2019).

In general, various therapeutic activities have been reported to alkaloids, such as anticancer, antihyperglycemic, antimalarial, anti-asthmatic, vasodilatory, anti-arrhythmic, cholinomimetic, and analgesic effects (Roberts and Wink 1998; Sinatra et al. 2010; Russo et al. 2013; Kittakoop et al. 2014; Cushnie et al. 2014), with Himalayan plants, like *Aconitum balfourii*, *Aconitum heterophyllum*, *Atropa belladonna*, *Berberis asiatica*, *Camellia sinensis*, *Cinchona officinalis*, *Colchicum luteum*, *Corydalis govaniana*, *Datura innoxia*, *Dicentra canadensis*, *Ephedra gerardiana*, *Eupatorium cannabinum*, *Rauwolfia serpentina*, *Saussurea lappa*, *Taxus baccata*, *Thalictrum foliolosum*, *Valeriana dubia*, *Vinca rosea*, and *Withania somnifera* being extremely rich sources of such class of biologically active molecules (Khare 2008; Sharma and Gaur 2012; Chhetri 2014).

4.2 Terpenes and Terpenoids

Terpenes and terpenoids are one of the most common and diverse groups of plant secondary metabolites, with around more than 22,000 compounds occurring in all plant sorts (Adeyemi 2011). Briefly, terpenes are simple hydrocarbons consisting of

five-carbon isoprene units, assembled in thousands of different ways. On the other hand, terpenoids are modified terpenes with different functional groups and oxidized methyl group present or absent at several locations (Tiwari and Rana 2015; Perveen and Al-Taweel 2018). They are the main constituents of essential oils (Joshi et al. 2016), namely, sesquiterpenes, saponins, iridoids, cardiogenic heterosides, alpha-terpineol, γ -terpinene, terpinolene, and terpinen-4-ol (Joshi et al. 2016). Organoleptically, terpenes, and terpenoids are responsible for the aroma and flavoring properties of plants, with compounds like linalool, caryophyllene, menthol, and geraniol being widely renowned for it. They also possess a broad range of pharmacological and biological properties, such as anti-inflammatory, antiparasitic, antioxidant, anticancer, antiviral, antimicrobial, insecticidal, and antihyperglycemic effects (Zhu et al. 2003; Trombetta et al. 2005; Salminen et al. 2008; Hanuš and Hod 2020). Himalayan flora, namely *Abies pindrow*, *Achillea millefolium*, *Achyranthes bidentata*, *Aconitum chasmanthum*, *Aconitum ferox*, *Aconitum palmatum*, *Adiantum capillus-veneris*, *Andrographis paniculata*, *Artemisia maritima*, *Artemisia vestita*, *Baliospermum montanum*, *Blumea balsamifera*, *Bridelia montana*, *Bupleurum flacutum*, *Callicarpa macrophylla*, *Caltha palustris*, *Cedrus deodara*, *Cetraria islandica*, *Cimicifuga racemosa*, *Curcuma angustifolia*, *Daphne oleoides*, *Delphinium denudatum*, *Euonymus tingens*, *Eupatorium cannabinum*, *Galium aparine*, *Inula racemosa*, *Juniperus communis*, *Kalanchoe integra*, *Madhuca butyracea*, *Nardostachys jatamansi*, *Perilla frutescens*, *Picea smithiana*, *Quercus incana*, *Rhododendron arboreum*, *Rhododendron campanulatum*, *Rhododendron cinnabarinum*, *Roylea cinerea*, and *Saussurea lappa*, are well recognized for their rich contents in terpenes and terpenoids, with multiple applications in chemical, cosmetic, and pharmaceutical industries (Khare 2008; Painuli et al. 2015; Painuli et al. 2016; Rawat et al. 2019).

4.3 Phenolic Compounds

Polyphenols are widely known for their excellent antioxidant properties and ability to enhance the function of endogenous antioxidants, vitamins, and enzymes to prevent oxidative stress-induced damages by the high amount of reactive oxygen species (ROS). This group of biologically active molecules is considered to have chemical features related to phenolic substances and is composed of various subgroups, namely, phenolic acids, flavonoids, phytoalexins anthocyanins, lignin, tannins, and furanocoumarins (Tsao 2010; Singla et al. 2019). Synthesized by malonic and shikimic acid pathways occurring in plants, there are over 8,000 known structures of phenolics of which more than 4,000 are recognized as flavonoids (Bravo 1998; Harborne and Willians 2000; Cheynier 2005). Polyphenols possess a wide range of biological activities, including antioxidant, antiaging, anticancer, anti-inflammatory, anti-atherosclerotic, anti-apoptotic, cardioprotective, and neuroprotective abilities (Han et al. 2007; Soto-Hernández et al. 2017), with the major groups responsible for such effects being phenolic acids and flavonoids.

Himalayan flora is also a rich source of secondary metabolites and particularly has high contents of polyphenols. Many studies have proved that plant species from higher altitudes contain high and diverse polyphenolic forms. Among the Himalayan plants, *Aegle marmelos*, *Ampelocissus latifolia*, *Artemisia sp.*, *Berberis asiatica*, *Bergenia ciliate*, *Dendrobenthamia capitata*, *Fagopyrum esculentum*, *Ficus palmata*, *Ficus subincisa*, *Grewia optiva*, *Hippophae rhamnoides*, *Hypecoum leptocarpum*, *Hypericum perforatum*, *Leea asiatica*, *Meconopsis aculeata* Royle, *Morus alba*, *Morus serrata*, *Nardostachys jatamansi*, *Paris polyphylla*, *Pinus Species*, *Podophyllum hexandrum*, *Potentilla fulgens*, *Prunus cerasoides*, *Pyracantha crenulata*, *Reinwardtia indica*, *Rubus ellipticus*, *Satyrium nepalense*, *Saussurea obvallata*, *Taxus wallichiana*, *Viburnum mullaha*, *Vitis jacquemontii*, *Ziziphus mauritiana*, *Ziziphus nummularia*, and *Vaccinium glaucoalbum* have been reported to have high polyphenolic content with rich biological activities (Prakash et al. 2007; Kaur et al. 2009; Ratan and Kothiyal 2011; Singh et al. 2015; Kundu et al. 2016; Feng et al. 2017; Mishra et al. 2018; Mohd et al. 2018; Painuli et al. 2018; Bahukhandi et al. 2019; Semwal and Painuli 2019; Singh et al. 2019; Rawat et al. 2019; Belwal et al. 2020; Gauchan et al. 2020; Tewari et al. 2020).

5 Biological Activities

At present, the earth's population exceeds 7 billion and is continuously increasing at the rate of 1.05% per year, and as a consequence, humans have directly or indirectly influenced almost all parts of the planet (Vitousek et al. 1997; Lindahl and Grace 2015). The rise in anthropogenic activities not only influences the planet's environment but also triggers human health problems (Myers and Patz 2009). There are a number of factors, like food and water scarcity, climate change, globalization, urbanization, among others, that are a root cause of diseases and disorders in humans. According to the WHO Report in 2016, ischemic heart disease, stroke, respiratory infections, cancer, diabetes, and tuberculosis are some of the diseases with highest mortality rates. The factors responsible for such disorders can be intrinsic (e.g., genetic disorders, malfunctioning of the immune system, and hormonal imbalance) and extrinsic (e.g., radiations, harmful chemicals, bacteria, viruses, and fungi). Presently, in our day-to-day life, we are more exposed to these external factors, especially harmful radiations, chemicals, and mutated pathogens, like multi-drug resistance bacteria and viruses, like severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS), due to which we suffer from deadly diseases.

The Himalayan region is one of the major habitats for medicinally important plant species for millennia. Dhar (2002) reported that the Himalayan region has a rich biodiversity, with around 21 vegetation types, 11 forest formations, and 10 forest types. The diverse climatic and geological conditions of the Himalayas are responsible for different types of flora and active compounds found in them,

accountable for multiple medicinal properties. As previously referred, Himalayan plant species have remarkable antioxidant, anticancer, antimicrobial, antidiabetic, antiparasitic, analgesic, neuroprotective, antihepatotoxic, antihypertensive, anti-inflammatory, antiallergic, and anti-stress abilities (Khare 2008; Joshi et al. 2016). For example, *Aconitum heterophyllum* possesses antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, alexipharmic, antifatulent, and analgesic effects, while the diterpenoid alkaloid isolated from the plant shows antioxidant and anticholinesterase properties (Ahmad et al. 2017; Paramanick et al. 2017). On the other hand, *Arctium lappa* is reported to possess anticancer, hepatoprotective, antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory, and antihuman immunodeficiency virus (HIV) properties (Chan et al. 2011; Gao et al. 2018). *Atropa acuminata* ethanol extract has revealed anti-arthritic effects, while the plant-derived phytoconstituents possess anticholinergic, antimicrobial, and anti-inflammatory activities and have wide medicinal uses in cardiology, gastroenterology, and ophthalmology (Rahman et al. 2018). *Berberis aristata* is reported to have antidiarrheal, hepatoprotective, antimicrobial, anticancer, antidiabetic, antiplatelet activating factor (paf), cardiogenic, and anti-inflammatory effects (Potdar et al., 2012). *Dioscorea deltoidea* is used for its prominent therapeutic effects in solving female reproductive system problems, central nervous system (CNS) and skin diseases, autoimmune diseases, oncology, cardiovascular system, bones and joint diseases, and metabolic disorders (Dangwal and Chauhan 2015). *Hedychium spicatum* holds anti-inflammatory, anti-asthmatic, anti-allergic, analgesic, antiulcer, hepatoprotective, antihyperglycemic, anticancer, and cytotoxic effects (Rawat et al. 2018). *Nardostachys jatamansi* is reported to possess antifungal, hepatoprotective, CNS, anticonvulsant, neuroprotective, anti-Parkinson's, and antidiabetic activities (Purnima and Kothiyal 2015). *Picrorhiza kurroa* has antioxidant, antimicrobial, hepatoprotective, antimutagenic, and anticancer activities (Masood et al. 2015). Podophyllotoxin is an active compound from *P. hexandrum* used in the synthesis of the anticancer drugs etoposide and teniposide (Giri and Narasu 2000). *Rhododendron arboreum* possesses antioxidant, adaptogenic, anti-inflammatory, antinociceptive, hepatoprotective, antidiabetic, cardioprotective, antimicrobial, and immunomodulatory activities (Popescu and Kopp 2013; Painuli et al. 2018). *Swertia chirayita* exhibits a broad range of bio-medicinal properties, like antiviral, antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, antioxidant, and antimicrobial effects (Kumar and Van Staden 2016). In addition, *Artemisia*, *Cinnamomum*, *Cymbopogon*, *Junipers*, *Nepeta*, *Origanum*, and *Valeriana* species are some other important plant genus from the Himalayan region with a wide range of polyphenols and with significant biomedical activities (Joshi et al. 2016). Different biological applications of the plants are presented in Fig. 1.

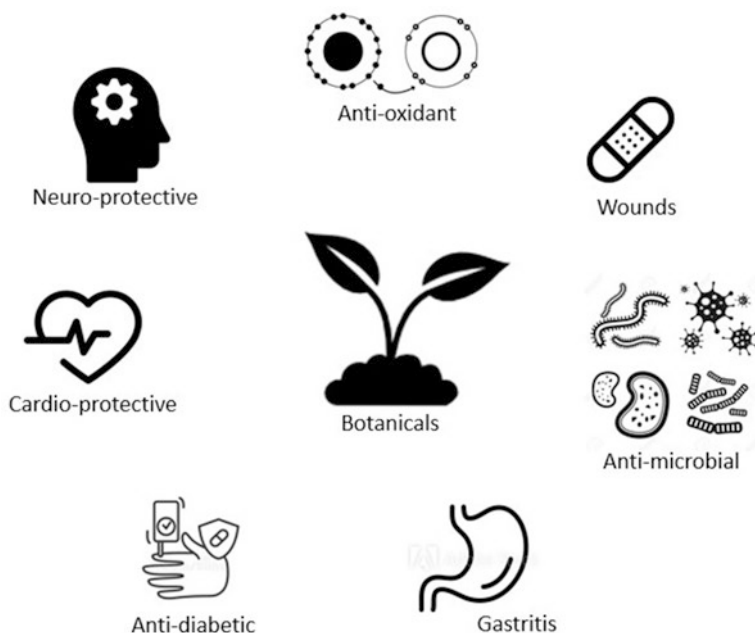


Fig. 1 Different biological applications of the plants

6 Pharmacological Effects of Himalayan Plant-derived Phytochemicals

6.1 Anticancer Activity

Cancer is considered the second major cause of mortality worldwide. Broadly, it not only affects the mental and physiological status of individuals but also has a huge social impact on the worldwide economy. Cancer therapy seems to be difficult, as most existing drugs and treatments are not very potent in conferring complete protection against the disease. The major steps involved in anticancer drug development are to assess both safety and efficacy in human models through clinical trials. Despite the huge amount of molecules with promising potential, from these studies, normally consisting of 4 phases (Phase I, II, III, and IV), unfortunately only one of every 5000–10,000 anticancer drugs get approval from the FDA, and only 5% of oncology drugs enter the phase I clinical trial (Paul et al. 2010; Petsko 2010; Shibue and Weinberg 2017; Bedard et al. 2020). Thus, the developmental cost of synthetic anticancer agents is extremely high; however, it can be reduced by introducing plant-based anticancer agents. Plant-derived active compounds have been detected to be effective in experimental and clinical trials against cancer. For example, the compound genistein (isoflavone) extracted from legumes and used for the treatment of various diseases including breast cancer, osteoporosis, obesity, and menopause

reveals to be safe and effective at low cost (Zhang et al. 2020). In addition, Vincristine (*Catharanthus roseus*), Vinblastine (*Catharanthus roseus*), 5-Fluorouracil (*Withania somnifera*), Paclitaxel (*Taxus brevifolia*), Bullatacin (*Annona squamosa*), Theabrownin (*Camellia sinensis*), Solamargine (*Solanum nigrum*), Psoralidin (*Psoralea corylifolia*), Kaempferol galactoside (*Bauhinia variegata*), Skimmianine (*Aegle marmelos*), Podophyllotoxin (*Podophyllum hexandrum*), and Plumbagin (*Plumbago zeylanica*), among others, are some important anticancer phytochemicals extracted from plant species found in the Himalayan region (Ashraf 2020). **Table 3** lists the anticancer effects of some Himalayan plants.

6.2 Neuroprotective Activity

Neurodegenerative diseases comprise an anomalous group of disorders that are described by continuous declining or worsening of the peripheral nervous system or CNS structure and function. These neurodegenerative diseases are basically age dependent (Heemels 2016), with Alzheimer's disease (AD) and Parkinson's disease (PD) being the most common, despite Huntington's disease (HD), amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), spinocerebellar ataxias, and frontotemporal dementia being increasingly diagnosed.

AD is a progressive and irreversible brain disorder that gradually damages the memory and thinking skills and eventually results in inability to perform simple tasks. PD is characterized by a continuous loss of dopamine resulting in movement disorder, rigidity, and tremor, as well as neuron demise in cholinergic and catecholaminergic nuclei. Sparreboom et al. (2004) reported that a huge population of Australia, Europe, and North America are using plant-derived medicines for treating such conditions. Although many modern medicines are available in the market for neurodegenerative diseases, plant-based drugs have also left their promising impression in this field. In fact, among the Himalayan flora, *Artemisia absinthium*, *Bergenia ciliate*, *Centella asiatica*, *Crocus sativus*, *Curcuma longa*, *Elaeagnus umbellata*, *Lindera neesiana*, *Myrica esculenta*, *Panax ginseng*, *Swertia chirayita*, *Valeriana officinalis*, and *W. somnifera* are some examples of plants with remarkable neuroprotective abilities (Table 4).

6.3 Antidiabetic Activity

Diabetes is a chronic metabolic disease with a huge public health impact (Modak et al. 2007; Osadebe et al. 2014) that results from either insulin dysfunction or insulin deficiency in the body. Currently, there are three major types of diabetes, type I, type II, and gestational diabetes, which are responsible for sickness and premature fatality rate (Cade 2008). Indeed, diabetes is considered as a fifth leading cause of death in the twenty-first century, and as per data, more than 2.8% of the world's

Table 3 In vitro and in vivo anticancer effects of plants from the Himalayan region

Plant species and used part	Used Doses	% Inhibition	Used model (In vitro, In vivo)	References
<i>Aconitum heterophyllum</i> Wall.; (Roots, Areal part)	50 ^a	12–65, 4–36	In vitro (A-549, MCF-7, MiaPaca, HCT-116)	Mushtaq et al. (2017)
<i>Albizia lebbek</i> (L.) Benth.; (Leaves)	12.5–200 ^a	6–88	In vitro (HT-29, MCF-7)	Aditya et al. (2014)
<i>Annona squamosa</i> L.; (Seed)	33.8 ^a	50	In vitro (KB cells)	Biba et al. (2013)
<i>Annona squamosa</i> L.; (Seed)	0.25–13 ^a	50	In vitro (A-549, HeLa, MCF-7, Hep G2)	Chen et al. (2012)
<i>Arisaema flavum</i> (Forssk.) Schott; (Whole plant)	500 ^a	1.2–83	In vitro (MCF-7)	Nisa et al. (2011)
<i>Arnebia euchroma</i> (Royle) I.M. Johnst.; (NA)	2.7–6.8 ^a	50	In vitro (A-549, Bel-7402, MCF-7, LLC)	Xiong et al. (2009)
<i>Artemisia argyi</i> H. Lév. & Vaniot; (Leaves)	10 ^a	75	In vitro (HeLa)	Lee et al. (2005)
<i>Asclepias curassavica</i> L.; (Areal parts)	0.02–0.69 ^a	50	In vitro (HepG2)	Li et al. (2009)
<i>Azadirachta indica</i> A. Juss.; (Leaves)	250–500 ^b	85	In vivo (Swiss male mice)	Paul et al. (2011)
<i>Azadirachta indica</i> A. Juss.; (Leaves)	10 ^a	30–60	In vitro (MCF-7)	Bibi et al. (2012)
<i>Berberis lycium</i> Royle; (Areal part)	50 ^a	9–81	In vitro (A-549, MCF-7, MiaPaca, HCT-116)	Mushtaq et al. (2017)
<i>Butea monosperma</i> (Lam.) Taub.; (Flowers)	0.1–10 ^a	50	In vitro (Huh7, HepG2, AML12 [CRL 2254])	Choedon et al. (2010)
<i>Butea monosperma</i> (Lam.) Taub.; (Flowers)	100–400 ^b	80	In vivo (Transgenic mouse model [X15-myc])	Choedon et al. (2010)
<i>Carissa spinarum</i> L.; (Fruits)	200–500 ^a	65–99	In vitro (MCF-7)	Sahreem et al. (2013), Nisa et al. (2013)
<i>Centella asiatica</i> (L.) Urb.; (Whole plant)	10–82 ^a	25–95	In vitro (MCF-7)	Babykutty et al. (2009)
<i>Centella asiatica</i> (L.) Urb.; (Whole plant)	50 ^b	50	In vivo (Swiss male mice)	Jayashree et al. (2003)
<i>Dianthus superbus</i> L.; (Aerial Parts)	20.5–200 ^a	50	In vitro (Bel-7402, HepG2, HeLa)	Yu et al. (2007)
<i>Euonymus hamiltonianus</i> Wall.; (Berries, areal part)	50 ^a	22–81, 10–75	In vitro (A-549, MCF-7, MiaPaca, HCT-116)	Mushtaq et al. (2017)
<i>Euphorbia wallichii</i> Hook.; (Roots, areal part)	50 ^a	24–62, 27–84	In vitro (A-549, MCF-7, MiaPaca, HCT-116)	Mushtaq et al. (2017)

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Plant species and used part	Used Doses	% Inhibition	Used model (In vitro, In vivo)	References
<i>Ficus carica</i> L.; (Roots)	50 ^a	16–87	In vitro (A-549, MCF-7, MiaPaca, HCT-116)	Mushtaq et al. (2017)
<i>Ligustrum lucidum</i> L.; (Berries)	50 ^a	1–34	In vitro (A-549, MCF-7, MiaPaca, HCT-116)	Mushtaq et al. (2017)
<i>Semecarpus anacardium</i> L. f.; (Kernels)	0.1–5.9 ^a	50	In vitro (CEM, CEM/VLB, MCF-7, MCF-10 A, SW620, SW620Ad300)	Nair et al. (2009)
<i>Semecarpus anacardium</i> L. f.; (Oil)	0.1–100 ^a	10–90	In vitro (HL-60, K-562, MCF-7, HeLa)	Chakraborty et al. (2004)
<i>Solanum americanum</i> Mill.; (Fruits)	1.25–100 ^a	16–80	In vitro (HeLa Vero, SMMC-7721, HepG2, MCF-7)	Patel et al. (2009), Ding et al. (2012), Son et al. (2003)
<i>Syzygium cumini</i> (L.) Skeels; (Fruits)	100 ^a	25–70	In vitro (AML)	Afify et al. (2011)
<i>Taxus wallichiana</i> Zucc.; (Stem bark)	0.063–50 ^a	50–90	In vitro (MCF-7, MDA-MB-231, HEK-293, COLO-320, CaCO ₂)	Reddy et al. (2009)
<i>Taxus wallichiana</i> Zucc.; (Stem bark)	10 ^b	60–100	In vitro (Virgin female Sprague Dawley rats)	Reddy et al. (2009)
<i>Viburnum grandiflorum</i> Wall. ex DC.; (Berries)	50 ^a	1–19	In vitro (A-549, MCF-7, MiaPaca, HCT-116)	Mushtaq et al. (2017)
<i>Viscum album</i> L.; (Aerial)	50 ^a	5–21	In vitro (A-549, MCF-7, MiaPaca, HCT-116)	Mushtaq et al. (2017)
<i>Xanthium strumarium</i> L.; (Roots)	0.161–0.434 ^a	13.55–67.93	In vitro (MCF-7, SKMEL cell)	Milton et al. (2013)
<i>Xanthium strumarium</i> L.; (Roots)	20–400 ^b	73–92	In vivo (Swiss male mice)	Milton et al. (2013)

^aIndicates µg/mL^bIndicates mg kg⁻¹ day⁻¹

population is suffering from diabetes, and it is expected that the number of cases will raise to more than 5.4% by 2025 (Mukesh and Namita 2013; Kazi 2014). Pharmacotherapy, diet therapy, and insulin therapy are the most common modern therapeutic strategies for such conditions. Although modern treatments are available, complete treatment and prevention of diabetes still seem impossible due to some disadvantages, including side effects, drug resistance, and even drug-related toxicity (Kooti et al. 2016). Therefore, plant-based drugs have been highly recommended for the treatment of such affections (Kooti et al. 2015). Phytochemicals, like flavonoids, alkaloids, terpenoids, and glycosides, have shown interesting anti-diabetic effects (Afrisham et al. 2015), with some Himalayan plants revealing an interesting potential (Table 5).

Table 4 Bioactive compounds with neuroprotective effects

S.N	Neuroprotective bioactive compounds	References
1	6-MSITC	Morrone et al. (2018)
2	Berberine	Velmurugan et al. (2018), Yuan et al. (2019)
3	Caffeine	Hussain et al. (2018), Pohl and Lin (2018)
4	Cannabidiol	Watt and Karl (2017)
5	Catechin	Hajjalyani et al. (2019)
6	Curcumin	Khazdair et al. (2019), Manzinea et al. (2019)
7	Delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol	Maurya and Velmurugan (2018)
8	Epigallocatechin-3-gallat	Manzinea et al. (2019)
9	Galantamine	Hussain et al. (2018), Libro et al. (2016)
10	Hesperidin	Hajjalyani et al. (2019)
11	Huperzine A	Hussain et al. (2018), Libro et al. (2016)
12	Huperzine A	Wang et al. (2005)
13	Isorhynchophylline	Hussain et al. (2018)
14	Moringin	Libro et al. (2016)
15	Morphine	Hussain et al. (2018), Libro et al. (2016)
16	Nicotine	Libro et al. (2016), Hussain et al. (2018)
17	Physostigmine	Omar et al. (2017), Hussain et al. (2018)
18	Piperine	Hussain et al. (2018)
19	Quercetin	Hajjalyani et al. (2019)
20	Resveratrol	Colica et al. (2018), Wang et al. (2018)
21	Rosmarinic acid	Fachel et al. (2019)
22	Sulforaphane	Libro et al. (2016), Pohl and Lin (2018)

6.4 Antimicrobial Activity

Worldwide, the burden of infectious diseases is increasing at a frightening rate, causing death in millions (Bhutta et al. 2014). To fight such infectious diseases, many modern medicines have become available in the market, but along with their therapeutic activity, severe side effects have also been reported. In addition, currently, an increasing amount of multidrug-resistant microorganisms (MDRM) have become a key matter of concern. Therefore, it becomes an urgent and important need to develop powerful and safe drugs against microbial diseases at the right time.

Worldwide, many research groups are showing greater interest in developing antimicrobial drugs from plant source as they are more effective against microbial infections and have been safer for both humans and the environment, along with that where existing antibiotics showed no or less activity against multidrug resistance microorganisms (MDRM), plant-based drugs naturally boost immunity and show promising activity against MDRM (Subramani et al. 2017). A wide range of phyto-constituents, such as phenols, flavonoids, tannins, quinine, and coumarins, have been reported with significant antimicrobial activities (Cushnie and Lamb 2005; Kurhekar 2016; Cueva et al. 2010; Al-Majedy et al. 2017; Scalbert 1991; Antika

Table 5 Himalayan plant species with antidiabetic potential

S.N	Species name	References
1	<i>Ampelopsis grossedentata</i> (Hand.-Mazz.)	Wan et al. (2017)
2	<i>Centella asiatica</i> (L.) Urb.	Abas et al. (2016)
3	<i>Coptis chinensis</i> Franch.	Gu et al. (2010)
4	<i>Curcuma longa</i> L.	Tranchida et al. (2015)
5	<i>Gardenia jasminoides</i> J. Ellis	Shen et al. (2016)
6	<i>Zanthoxylum armatum</i> DC.	Khan et al. (2020)
7	<i>Acacia catechu</i> (L.f.) Willd.	Rao et al. (2015)
8	<i>Acacia modesta</i> Wall.	Jawla et al. (2011)
9	<i>Acanthopanax senticosus</i> (Rupr. & Maxim.)	Saito et al. (2016)
10	<i>Allium sativum</i> L.	Sudha et al. (2011)
11	<i>Aloe vera</i> (L.) Burm.f.	Rashidi et al. (2013)
12	<i>Amaranthus cruentus</i> L.	Kunyanga et al. (2012)
13	<i>Angelica sinensis</i> (Oliv.) Diels	Zhi (2009)
14	<i>Artemisia parviflora</i> Roxb. ex D.Don	Ahuja et al. (2011)
15	<i>Artemisia princeps</i> Pamp.	Yamamoto et al. (2011)
16	<i>Artemisia gmelinii</i> Weber ex Stechm.	Yuan et al. (2010)
17	<i>Primula denticulate</i> Sm.	Singh et al. (2014)
18	<i>Abrus precatorius</i> L.	Joshi (2011)
19	<i>Astragalus membranaceus</i> (Fisch.) Bunge	Fu et al. (2014)
20	<i>Berberis aristata</i> DC.	Khan et al. (2016)
21	<i>Berberis vulgaris</i> L.	Rahimi-Madiseh et al. (2017)
22	<i>Butea frondosa</i> Roxb.	Kumar and Malik (2012)
23	<i>Butea monosperma</i> (Lam.) Taub.	Rao et al. (2015)
24	<i>Citrus sinensis</i> (L.) Osbeck	Shakthi Deve et al. (2014)
25	<i>Curcuma longa</i> L.	Sukandar et al. (2015)
26	<i>Dioscorea opposita</i> Thunb.	Xie and Du (2011)
27	<i>Embelia ribes</i> Burm.f.	Ratnasooriya et al. (2011)
28	<i>Ficus amplissima</i> Sm.	Arunachalam and Parimelazhagan (2013)
29	<i>Ficus racemosa</i> L.	Trinh et al. (2016)
30	<i>Zaleya decandra</i> (L.) Burm.f.	Meenakshi et al. (2010)
31	<i>Viola odorata</i> L.	Rao et al. (2015)
32	<i>Ocimum sanctum</i> L.	Upadhyay (2017)
33	<i>Paeonia lactiflora</i> Pall.	Yoon et al. (2014)
34	<i>Rheum emodi</i> Wall.	Arvindekar et al. (2015)
35	<i>Solanum nigrum</i> L.	Sohrabipour et al. (2014)
36	<i>Swertia chirayita</i> (Roxb.) Buch.-Ham.	Kar et al. (2003)
37	<i>Syzygium jambolanum</i> (Lam.) DC.	Baliga et al. (2013)
38	<i>Taxus baccata</i> L.	Rao et al. (2015)
39	<i>Terminalia arjuna</i> (Roxb. ex DC.)	Rafe (2017)
40	<i>Tinospora cordifolia</i> (Willd.) Miers	Kar et al. (2003)
41	<i>Vaccinium bracteatum</i> Thunb.	Qian et al. (2017)

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

S.N	Species name	References
42	<i>Withania coagulans</i> (Stocks) Dunal	Maurya et al. (2008)
43	<i>Withania somnifera</i> (L.) Dunal	Jonathan et al. (2015)
44	<i>Zanthoxylum armatum</i> DC.	Thakur et al. (2016)
45	<i>Zanthoxylum humile</i> Watern.	Pamhidzai and Isaac (2013)

et al. 2020). Moreover, from a long back, the Himalayan region communities have been using native plant species to treat different microbial diseases from which some important species are mentioned in Table 6.

6.5 Antioxidant Activity

Recently, more interest has arisen toward natural antioxidants and their role in human health maintenance and disease prevention. Briefly, in healthy individuals, antioxidants regulate the homeostasis between free radicals' production and scavenging; however, antioxidants depletion results in higher production of free radicals triggering oxidative stress, which ultimately leads to several disturbances in the whole organism. As a matter of fact, oxidative stress is responsible for oxidation at both cell and molecular levels and further leads to cells/tissues damage being associated with a plethora of diseases, like neurodegenerative, metabolic, osteoarticular, cardiovascular and immune system disorders, and even cancer (Jonah 2013).

The Himalayan medicinal plants are highly acknowledged for their nutritional phytoconstituents and antioxidant effects. Indeed, phytoconstituents, like flavonoids, lignans, catechins, phenols, coumarins, isocatechins, isoflavones, and anthocyanins, have been widely recognized for their antioxidant properties (Prior 2003; Cai et al. 2004).

The determination of the antioxidant potential of plants, its derived extracts, and even isolated constituents can be analyzed by different in vitro (2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid [ABTS], 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl [DPPH], oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC), thiobarbituric acid reactive substances [TBARS], ferric reducing antioxidant power [FRAP] and Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity [TEAC] assays) and in vivo methods, with a series of medicinal plants already been studied by different research groups around the world. As some examples, the crude methanol extracts from *Bunium persicum* (seeds), *Dactylorhiza hatageria* (tubers), *Satyrrium nepalense* (tubers), *Viscum album* (fruits), and *Urtica dioica* (leaves) have revealed interesting antioxidant effects by the DPPH assay, with IC₅₀ values of 0.09, 0.21, 0.04, 0.42, and 0.14 mg/mL, respectively (Kawra et al. 2020). Also, the methanol extracts from *Trillium govanianum* rhizome, leaf, and stem showed maximum DPPH, ABTS, and FRAP activities with 16.06 milli molar ascorbic acid extract/gram fresh weight (mM

Table 6 Antioxidant and antimicrobial studies in different Himalayan regions

S.N	Plant species name	Antimicrobial profiling (ZOI)		Antioxidant profiling		References
1	<i>Acorus calamus</i> L.	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	6–10 ^a	NT		Rawat et al. (2016)
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	7 ^a			
		<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	6–9 ^a			
		<i>Escherichia coli</i>	6–9 ^a			
2	<i>Acorus calamus</i> L.	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	0.40 ^b	DPPH	01.61–02.16 ^d	Verma et al. (2021)
		<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	0.40 ^b	FRAP	76.76–91.68 ^c	
		<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	0.80 ^b			
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	0.40 ^b			
		<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	0.20 ^b			
3	<i>Bunium persicum</i> Boiss.	NT		DPPH	0.09 ^e	Kawra et al. (2020)
4	<i>Dactylorhiza hatagirea</i> (D.Don) Soó	NT		DPPH	0.21 ^e	Kawra et al. (2020)
5	<i>Ficus palmata</i> Forssk	NT		ABTS	114.03–265.14 ^f	Tewari et al. (2020)
				DPPH	80.97–175.08 ^f	
				FRAP	139.89–364.84 ^f	
				CUPRAC	228.86–344.64 ^f	
6	<i>Fraxinus micrantha</i> Lingelsh	<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i>	16 ^a	DPPH	43.93 ^d	Kumar and Sati (2020)
		<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	22 ^a	H ₂ O ₂	68.90 ^d	
		<i>Erwinia chrysanthemi</i>	19 ^a	FRAP	38.27 ^h	
		<i>Escherichia coli</i>	18 ^a			
		<i>Xanthomonas phaseoli</i>	11 ^a			
7	<i>Habenaria intermedia</i> D.Don	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	6–11 ^a	NT		Rawat et al. (2016)
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	6–9 ^a			
		<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	6–9 ^a			

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

S.N	Plant species name	Antimicrobial profiling (ZOI)		Antioxidant profiling		References
		<i>Escherichia coli</i>	6–11 ^a			
8	<i>Hedychium spicatum</i> Sm.	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	6–7 ^a	NT		Rawat et al. (2016)
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	0 ^a			
		<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	6–9 ^a			
		<i>Escherichia coli</i>	6–9 ^a			
9	<i>Origanum vulgare</i> L.	NT		DPPH	5.85–72.70 ^d	Bhatt et al. (2020)
				FRAP	45.7–266.0 ^d	
				Iron-chelating activity	51.4–146.0 ^d	
10	<i>Pinus gerardiana</i> Wall. ex D.Don	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	15–19 ^a	DPPH	54.8–71.2 ^d	Sharma et al. (2020)
		<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	20–25 ^a	NO ₂	18.7–76.3 ^d	
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	17–23 ^a			
		<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	17–23 ^a			
11	<i>Pinus roxburghii</i> Sarg.	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	15–18 ^a	DPPH	51.7–67.3 ^d	Sharma et al. (2020)
		<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	17–23 ^a	NO ₂	59.0–71.2 ^d	
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	17–20 ^a			
		<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	18–22 ^a			
12	<i>Pinus wallichiana</i> A.B.Jacks.	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	13–17	DPPH	58.4–69.8 ^d	Sharma et al. (2020)
		<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	15–22	NO ₂	62.0–73.0 ^d	
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	15–21			
		<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	15–21			
13	<i>Rhododendron arboreum</i>	NT		DPPH	91.67 ^c	Painuli et al. (2016)
				ABTS	96.65 ^c	
				FRAP	429.07 ^l	
				TRP	292.27 ^k	
14	<i>Rhododendron campanulatum</i>	NT		DPPH	91.27 ^c	Painuli et al. (2016)

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

S.N	Plant species name	Antimicrobial profiling (ZOI)		Antioxidant profiling		References
				ABTS	96.53 ^c	
				FRAP	378.73 ^j	
				TRP	283.26 ^k	
15	<i>Roscoea procera</i> Wall.	NT		ABTS	1.47 ⁱ	Rawat et al. (2017)
				DPPH	0.75 ⁱ	
				FRAP	1.01 ⁱ	
16	<i>Roscoea procera</i> Wall.	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	6–9 ^a	NT		Rawat et al. (2016)
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	6–10 ^a			
		<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	6–9 ^a			
		<i>Escherichia coli</i>	6–12 ^a			
	<i>Rubia cordifolia</i> L.	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	22–32 ^a	NT		Boominathan et al. (2020)
		<i>Escherichia coli</i>	21–32 ^a			
17	<i>Satyrium nepalense</i> D.Don	NT		DPPH	0.04 ^e	Kawra et al. (2020)
18	<i>Saussurea obvallata</i> (DC.) Edgew.	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	13.90–20.50 ^a	DPPH	29.25–82.88 ^c	Semwal and Painuli (2019)
		<i>Escherichia coli</i>	10.83–13.90 ^a	H ₂ O ₂	39.75–41.05 ^c	
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	12.83–20.43 ^a			
		<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	11.53–19.90 ^a			
		<i>Candida albicans</i>	13.90–14.57 ^a			
		<i>Candida glabrata</i>	15.43–15.90 ^a			
		<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	8.30–13.17 ^a			
19	<i>Tagetes minuta</i> L.	<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	3–8 ^a	NT		Walia et al. (2020)
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	3–11.33 ^a			
		<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	1.33–4.00 ^a			
		<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	0.50–1.00 ^a			
20	<i>Thalictrum foliolosum</i> DC.	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	13–20 ^a			Kumar et al. (2020)

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

S.N	Plant species name	Antimicrobial profiling (ZOI)		Antioxidant profiling		References
		<i>Candida albicans</i>	11–18 ^a			
		<i>Candida albicans</i>	11–19 ^a			
21	<i>Thymus linearis</i> Benth.	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	5–16 ^a	NT		Kumar et al. (2019)
		<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	3–21 ^a			
		<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	2–10 ^a			
		<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	4–25 ^a			
		<i>Candida albicans</i>	5–28 ^a			
		<i>Candida tropicalis</i>	6–25 ^a			
		<i>Candida glabrata</i>	8–24 ^a			
22	<i>Urtica dioica</i> L.	NT		DPPH	0.42 ^c	Kawra et al. (2020)
23	<i>Valeriana jatamansi</i> Jones	NT		ABTS	2.60–6.82 ^g	Jugran et al. (2020)
				DPPH	2.07–6.88 ^g	
				FRAP	3.64–14.75 ^g	
24	<i>Valeriana jatamansi</i> Jones	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	6–11 ^a	NT		Rawat et al. (2016)
		<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	6–8 ^a			
		<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>	6–9 ^a			
		<i>Escherichia coli</i>	6–9 ^a			
25	<i>Viscum album</i> L.	NT		DPPH	0.14 ^c	Kawra et al. (2020)
26	<i>Zanthoxylum armatum</i> DC.	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	15.72–17.04 ^a	NT		Phuyal et al. (2020)

NT not tested

^aZone of inhibition in mm^bMIC value^cPercent^dIC₅₀ value in µg/mL^eIC₅₀ value in mg/mL^fmg TE/g^gmM/100g AAE dw^hAAE/g dryⁱmM ascorbic acid equivalent/100 g dry weight^jµg TE/g^kµg AE/g

AAE/g fw), 4.39 mM AAE/g fw, and 2.17 mM AAE/g fw, respectively (Kundra et al. 2020). Moreover, Painuli et al. (2018) reported antioxidant effects of *Rhododendron arboreum* and *Rhododendron campanulatum* leaves aqueous and methanol extract by DPPH, FRAP, ABTS, and total reducing power assay. *Saussurea obvallata* leaves and flowers methanol and water extracts also displayed DPPH and H₂O₂ free radical scavenging activities (Semwal and Painuli 2019). Other plant extracts, such as *Acorus calmus* (rhizome), *Habenaria intermedia* (tuber), *Hedychium spicatum* (rhizome), *Roscoea procera* (rhizome), and *Valeriana jatamansi* (root), also revealed interesting antioxidant effects through DPPH, ABTS, and FRAP assays (Rawat et al. 2017). Few other antioxidant-rich Himalayan plant species are listed in Table 6.

7 Conclusion and Upcoming Perspectives

The Himalayan region is famous worldwide for its unique, diverse, valuable, and endemic flora and fauna. Several highly valuable medicinal plants have been documented from this region, and these plants play a notable role in the human health care system. Many research groups have been increasingly devoted to the study of the therapeutic applications of a plethora of plants as well as on phytoconstituents' identification and related mechanism of action. However, despite the advance stated so far, many phytochemicals remain to be identified, and the mechanism of action of many others against various diseases is still unclear; therefore, much research is needed in this regard. On the other hand, medicinal plants in the Himalayan region face erratic harvests due to the growing demand for essential oils, herbal preparations, and drug formulation due to which many important plants have been extinct and many are on the verge of extinction. Thus, exploring more data on such plant species and their respective properties is an important issue, while protection and sustainable conservation too.

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