



## Bio-Prospecting of Medicinal Plants for Novel Drug Leads: Ethnopharmacology-Guided Discovery Pipelines, Metabolomics-Enabled Dereplication, and Translational Validation Frameworks for Next-Generation Natural Product Therapeutics

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### Abstract

The escalating global burden of antimicrobial resistance, complex oncological disorders, and chronic inflammatory diseases necessitates innovative therapeutic discovery strategies beyond conventional synthetic chemistry platforms. Medicinal plants represent an underexploited reservoir of structurally diverse bioactive compounds with validated ethnopharmacological foundations, yet their translation into clinically viable drug leads remains constrained by methodological inefficiencies, rediscovery of known metabolites, and reproducibility challenges. This article delineates contemporary bio-prospecting pipelines that integrate ethnopharmacology-guided selection, advanced metabolomics-enabled dereplication, and rigorous translational validation frameworks to accelerate the identification of novel phytochemical leads. The systematic workflow encompasses strategic plant selection through chemotaxonomic and traditional knowledge integration, optimized extraction and bioassay-guided fractionation protocols, high-resolution analytical characterization via LC-MS/MS molecular networking and NMR spectroscopy, and mechanistic pharmacological profiling across antimicrobial, anticancer, and anti-inflammatory targets. Critical emphasis is placed on early ADMET screening, cytotoxicity assessment, and lead optimization strategies to ensure translational readiness. Emerging technologies including artificial intelligence-driven compound prediction, automated fractionation platforms, and multi-omics integration are revolutionizing dereplication efficiency and hit-to-lead conversion rates. Sustainable sourcing frameworks, intellectual property considerations, and reproducibility standardization remain paramount for ethical and scalable natural product drug discovery, positioning medicinal plant bio-prospecting as a cornerstone strategy for next-generation therapeutic innovation.

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### 1. Introduction

Medicinal plants have historically served as foundational sources for pharmaceutical development, contributing approximately 25-50% of currently marketed drugs either as direct natural products, semi-synthetic derivatives, or pharmacophore templates for synthetic analogs <sup>[1, 2]</sup>. The structural complexity and chemical diversity inherent to plant secondary metabolites—encompassing alkaloids, terpenoids, phenolic compounds, and polyketides—offer privileged scaffolds that frequently exhibit superior target selectivity and biological activity compared to combinatorial chemistry libraries <sup>[3, 4]</sup>. Contemporary drug discovery faces unprecedented challenges including the emergence of multidrug-resistant pathogens, the molecular

heterogeneity of cancer, and the inadequacy of existing therapeutics for chronic inflammatory and neurodegenerative disorders [5, 6]. These clinical imperatives coincide with a recognition that synthetic-only discovery pipelines, despite advances in high-throughput screening and computational design, have yielded diminishing returns in identifying truly novel chemical entities [7, 8].

The rationale for intensified medicinal plant bio-prospecting extends beyond chemical diversity to encompass evolutionary optimization, wherein plant metabolites have been refined over millions of years to interact with specific biological targets, often demonstrating multi-target modulation and synergistic mechanisms [9, 10]. Furthermore, ethnopharmacological validation—the systematic documentation and scientific investigation of traditional medicine practices—provides hypothesis-driven selection criteria that dramatically increase the probability of identifying bioactive constituents compared to random screening approaches [11, 12]. However, historical natural product discovery has been plagued by high rediscovery rates of known compounds, resource-intensive isolation procedures, supply chain limitations, and challenges in translating complex mixtures into standardized therapeutic entities [13, 14].

Modern bio-prospecting paradigms address these limitations through integration of cutting-edge analytical technologies, omics-based dereplication strategies, and systematic translational validation frameworks [15, 16]. The convergence of high-resolution mass spectrometry, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy, molecular networking algorithms, and artificial intelligence-enabled structure prediction enables rapid identification and prioritization of novel chemical scaffolds while minimizing expenditure on known metabolites [17, 18]. Concurrently, advances in bioassay miniaturization, mechanistic target validation, and early absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity (ADMET) profiling facilitate evidence-based progression from crude extracts to optimized drug leads [19, 20]. This article provides a comprehensive overview of contemporary medicinal plant bio-prospecting workflows, emphasizing the integration of ethnopharmacology, analytical chemistry, pharmacological validation, and translational assessment to accelerate the discovery of next-generation natural product therapeutics.

## 2. Strategic Approaches to Medicinal Plant Bio-prospecting

### 2.1. Ethnopharmacology-Guided Selection Versus Random Screening

The selection strategy employed in medicinal plant bio-prospecting fundamentally determines the efficiency and success probability of subsequent discovery efforts [21]. Ethnopharmacology-guided approaches leverage centuries or millennia of empirical traditional medicine knowledge to identify plants with documented therapeutic applications, thereby providing a biological activity hypothesis prior to chemical investigation [22, 23]. Meta-analyses demonstrate that ethnopharmacologically selected plants exhibit bioactivity hit rates of 25-50% compared to 5-10% for randomly selected species, representing a five- to ten-fold improvement in screening efficiency [24, 25]. This enhanced probability derives from the evolutionary selection pressure exerted by traditional use, wherein ineffective remedies are progressively eliminated from cultural pharmacopeias while

consistently efficacious preparations are retained and refined [26].

Systematic ethnopharmacological research requires rigorous documentation methodologies including structured interviews with traditional healers, herbalists, and indigenous communities, coupled with botanical authentication through voucher specimen deposition in recognized herbaria [27, 28]. Critical parameters include preparation methods (decoction, infusion, maceration, poultice), dosage regimens, route of administration, and traditional indications, all of which inform extraction solvent selection and bioassay design [29]. However, ethnopharmacological data must be interpreted with appropriate skepticism regarding placebo effects, misattribution of efficacy, and cultural influences on symptom reporting [30]. Validation through controlled bioassays remains essential to confirm traditional claims and identify the specific molecular mechanisms underlying observed therapeutic effects [31].

### 2.2. Chemotaxonomic and Ecology-Driven Prioritization

Chemotaxonomy—the classification and selection of plants based on their characteristic secondary metabolite profiles—represents a complementary strategy that exploits phylogenetic relationships to predict the presence of specific compound classes [32, 33]. Families such as Apocynaceae (alkaloids), Asteraceae (sesquiterpene lactones), and Lamiaceae (terpenoid phenolics) exhibit characteristic chemotypes that can guide targeted bio-prospecting efforts toward desired pharmacophores [34, 35]. Advanced chemotaxonomic approaches integrate metabolomics data across related species to identify chemotypes associated with enhanced bioactivity, enabling predictive selection of underexplored taxa within bioactive lineages [36].

Ecological prioritization considers environmental stress factors, plant-insect interactions, and geographical distribution patterns that influence secondary metabolite production [37]. Plants subjected to high herbivore pressure, extreme climatic conditions, or competitive ecological niches frequently evolve enhanced chemical defense systems comprising potent bioactive compounds [38, 39]. Geographic hotspots of biodiversity, particularly tropical and subtropical regions, harbor disproportionately high concentrations of chemically diverse species with novel metabolite profiles [40]. Integration of ecological metadata with chemotaxonomic predictions and ethnopharmacological data enables multi-parameter prioritization algorithms that optimize species selection for discovery campaigns [41].

### 2.3. Sustainable Sampling and Ethical Frameworks

The implementation of sustainable collection practices and equitable benefit-sharing mechanisms is both an ethical imperative and a practical necessity for long-term bio-prospecting programs [42, 43]. The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) and the Nagoya Protocol establish international legal frameworks requiring prior informed consent from source countries and indigenous communities, along with fair distribution of benefits arising from commercial utilization of genetic resources and traditional knowledge [44, 45]. Compliance necessitates formal access and benefit-sharing (ABS) agreements that specify material transfer terms, intellectual property rights, royalty arrangements, and capacity-building commitments [46]. Sustainable sampling protocols prioritize non-destructive harvesting methods, collection from abundant populations,

cultivation of endangered species, and establishment of germplasm repositories to prevent biodiversity depletion [47, 48]. Phytochemical variation across growing seasons, developmental stages, and plant organs necessitates systematic sampling designs that capture metabolomic diversity while minimizing ecological impact [49]. Implementation of good collection practices (GCP) ensures reproducibility through standardized documentation of collection site coordinates, environmental conditions, phenological stage, and voucher specimen archiving [50].

### 3. Extraction, Fractionation, and Lead-Enrichment Workflows

#### 3.1. Solvent Selection and Extraction Optimization

The extraction process represents the critical first step in liberating bioactive metabolites from plant matrices, with solvent selection profoundly influencing the chemical composition and biological activity of resulting extracts [51, 52]. Solvent polarity must be matched to target compound classes, with non-polar solvents (hexane, dichloromethane) preferentially extracting lipophilic terpenoids and alkaloids, intermediate-polarity solvents (ethyl acetate, chloroform) recovering moderately polar phenolics, and polar solvents (methanol, ethanol, water) isolating glycosides and highly polar metabolites [53, 54]. Sequential extraction using solvents of increasing polarity enables comprehensive metabolite recovery while maintaining chemical class separation for downstream bioassay-guided fractionation [55].

Extraction parameters including temperature, duration, solid-to-solvent ratio, and particle size significantly affect yield and metabolite profile [56]. Elevated temperatures accelerate extraction kinetics but risk thermal degradation of labile compounds, necessitating optimization studies to balance efficiency with chemical integrity. Advanced extraction technologies including ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE), microwave-assisted extraction (MAE), and supercritical fluid extraction (SFE) offer enhanced efficiency, reduced solvent consumption, and selective metabolite targeting compared to conventional maceration or Soxhlet methods. UAE employs acoustic cavitation to disrupt cellular structures and enhance mass transfer, while MAE utilizes dielectric heating for rapid, volumetric energy deposition. SFE using supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> provides tuneable selectivity through pressure and temperature modulation, enabling clean extraction of thermolabile metabolites without organic solvent residues.

#### 3.2. Fractionation Strategies and Bioassay-Guided Workflows

Following initial extraction, crude extracts typically contain hundreds to thousands of individual metabolites, necessitating systematic fractionation to isolate bioactive constituents and reduce chemical complexity for analytical characterization. Liquid-liquid partitioning using immiscible solvent pairs (e.g., water/ethyl acetate, water/n-butanol) provides rapid, scalable separation based on differential partition coefficients, effectively segregating lipophilic and hydrophilic metabolites. Solid-phase extraction (SPE) cartridges packed with reverse-phase (C18), normal-phase (silica), or mixed-mode sorbents enable selective retention and elution of specific compound classes through sequential solvent gradients.

Bioassay-guided fractionation (BGF) integrates biological activity testing with systematic chemical separation to track bioactive metabolites through progressive purification stages.

The workflow begins with crude extract screening to identify active samples, followed by primary fractionation (e.g., liquid-liquid partitioning or column chromatography) and bioassay testing of resulting fractions to localize activity. Active fractions undergo iterative sub-fractionation using increasingly selective separation techniques—typically progressing from vacuum liquid chromatography (VLC) to medium-pressure liquid chromatography (MPLC) to high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)—with bioassay monitoring at each stage to guide isolation efforts toward bioactive constituents. This approach dramatically reduces the chemical space requiring detailed characterization and ensures that isolation efforts focus on pharmacologically relevant metabolites rather than abundant but inactive components.

#### 3.3. Quality Control and Reproducibility Challenges

Phytochemical variability arising from genetic polymorphism, environmental conditions, harvesting practices, and post-harvest processing represents a fundamental challenge for reproducible natural product discovery. Inter-batch variation in metabolite composition can result in inconsistent bioactivity profiles that complicate hit validation and lead optimization. Implementation of rigorous quality control protocols including fingerprinting analysis via high-performance thin-layer chromatography (HPTLC) or LC-MS, quantification of marker compounds, and bioassay standardization is essential to ensure batch-to-batch consistency. Cultivation under controlled conditions, selection of defined chemotypes, or progression to pure isolated compounds mitigates variability concerns but sacrifices potential synergistic effects present in standardized extracts.

### 4. Analytical Characterization and Dereplication Technologies

#### 4.1. LC-MS/MS Molecular Networking and Metabolite Annotation

Liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) has emerged as the cornerstone analytical platform for comprehensive metabolite profiling in medicinal plant extracts. The technique combines chromatographic separation with mass-to-charge ratio ( $m/z$ ) determination and fragmentation pattern analysis, enabling simultaneous detection and structural characterization of hundreds to thousands of metabolites in a single analysis. High-resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) instruments including quadrupole time-of-flight (Q-TOF) and Orbitrap systems provide mass accuracy below 5 parts per million (ppm), facilitating unambiguous molecular formula assignment and differentiation of isobaric compounds.

Molecular networking represents a transformative advancement in natural product dereplication, organizing MS/MS spectra based on fragmentation pattern similarity to visualize chemical relationships across complex metabolomes. The computational workflow, implemented through platforms such as Global Natural Products Social Molecular Networking (GNPS), clusters structurally related metabolites into network nodes connected by edges representing spectral similarity scores. This approach enables rapid identification of compound families, detection of analogs and derivatives, and annotation through spectral library matching against reference databases. Integration with *in silico* fragmentation prediction tools (e.g., MetFrag,

MAGMa) extends annotation capabilities to compounds lacking reference standards. Feature-based molecular networking (FBMN) incorporates chromatographic peak shapes and retention time alignment to improve quantitative accuracy and reduce false-positive spectral matches.

#### 4.2. NMR-Based Structure Elucidation and Purity Assessment

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy provides definitive structural information through analysis of nuclear spin interactions, enabling complete structure elucidation of isolated natural products. One-dimensional  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra reveal the number and chemical environment of hydrogen and carbon atoms, while two-dimensional experiments including COSY (correlation spectroscopy), HSQC (heteronuclear single quantum coherence), and HMBC (heteronuclear multiple bond correlation) establish connectivity patterns and spatial relationships. Advanced techniques such as NOESY (nuclear Overhauser effect spectroscopy) determine stereochemistry through through-space interactions, while cryoprobe technology and microcoil NMR reduce sample requirements to sub-milligram quantities.

The primary advantage of NMR for natural product discovery lies in its quantitative nature and capacity for absolute structural determination independent of reference standards. Unlike mass spectrometry, which provides molecular weight and fragmentation patterns requiring interpretive inference, NMR data directly reveal atomic connectivity and stereochemistry, facilitating unambiguous characterization of novel compounds. However, NMR sensitivity limitations necessitate isolation of pure compounds in sufficient quantities (typically 1-10 mg), representing a potential bottleneck in high-throughput discovery workflows. Integration of LC-MS-based dereplication to prioritize novel metabolites for NMR characterization optimizes resource allocation and accelerates structure elucidation timelines.

#### 4.3. Dereplication to Prevent Rediscovery of Known Compounds

Dereplication—the rapid identification and elimination of known metabolites from further investigation—represents a critical efficiency measure in natural product discovery, preventing wasteful expenditure of resources on compounds with established structures and biological activities. Effective dereplication requires integration of analytical data (UV spectra, retention time, accurate mass, MS/MS fragmentation, NMR chemical shifts) with comprehensive natural product databases including Dictionary of Natural Products (DNP), MarinLit, COCONUT, and UNPD. Multi-tier dereplication strategies employ progressively higher-resolution techniques, beginning with UV-vis spectral libraries and accurate mass matching, proceeding through MS/MS fragmentation comparison, and culminating in NMR database searching for compounds advancing to isolation.

Molecular networking-based dereplication exploits structural similarity relationships to annotate novel analogs of known compound classes, enabling informed decisions about pursuing structural variants versus investing in entirely unprecedented scaffolds. Automated annotation workflows incorporating machine learning-based spectral prediction and substructure analysis accelerate dereplication throughput, though manual validation remains essential to prevent false-negative annotations that could result in discarding genuinely

novel bioactive metabolites. The inherent tension between aggressive dereplication to maximize novelty and cautious approaches to avoid missing bioactive analogs with improved pharmacological profiles necessitates context-dependent threshold setting based on discovery program objectives.

### 5. Screening, Pharmacological Validation, and Mechanistic Profiling

#### 5.1. Phenotypic Versus Target-Based Screening Paradigms

The selection between phenotypic and target-based screening fundamentally shapes the discovery trajectory and translational potential of identified leads. Target-based approaches evaluate compound interactions with specific biomolecular targets (enzymes, receptors, ion channels) implicated in disease pathophysiology, offering mechanistic clarity and facilitating structure-activity relationship (SAR) optimization. High-throughput biochemical assays including fluorescence polarization, time-resolved fluorescence resonance energy transfer (TR-FRET), and surface plasmon resonance (SPR) enable rapid screening of large compound collections against purified target proteins. However, target-based screening may overlook compounds requiring metabolic activation, fail to account for cellular permeability limitations, and neglect synergistic multi-target mechanisms characteristic of many natural products.

Phenotypic screening evaluates compound effects in physiologically relevant cellular or organismal systems without prior knowledge of molecular targets, capturing complex biological responses including pathway modulation, off-target effects, and pharmacokinetic considerations. Cell-based assays employing disease-relevant models—such as cancer cell viability, pathogen inhibition, or inflammation reporter systems—provide integrated assessments of compound efficacy while maintaining biological context. Phenotypic hits subsequently undergo target deconvolution through chemoproteomics, gene expression profiling, or small molecule affinity purification to elucidate mechanisms of action. Historical analyses demonstrate that phenotypic screening has contributed disproportionately to first-in-class drug discoveries, particularly for complex diseases with incompletely understood molecular pathology.

#### 5.2. Disease-Relevant Bioassay Platforms

##### 5.2.1. Antimicrobial and Antiparasitic Screening

The escalating threat of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) has revitalized interest in plant-derived antimicrobials with novel mechanisms of action. Standardized microbroth dilution assays following Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines determine minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values against ESKAPE pathogens (*Enterococcus faecium*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Enterobacter* species) and priority fungal pathogens including *Candida auris* and *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Time-kill kinetics, biofilm inhibition assays, and resistance development studies provide mechanistic insights beyond static MIC determination. Antiparasitic screening against neglected tropical disease pathogens—including *Plasmodium falciparum* (malaria), *Trypanosoma* species (sleeping sickness, Chagas disease), and *Leishmania* species (leishmaniasis)—employs parasite culture systems with fluorescence-based or luminescence-based viability endpoints.

### 5.2.2. Anticancer Screening Cascades

Cancer cell line panels representing diverse tissue origins and molecular subtypes enable identification of preferential cytotoxicity profiles that inform therapeutic positioning. The National Cancer Institute (NCI-60) cell line panel, while resource-intensive, provides comprehensive multi-cancer screening with established benchmarking data. Mechanism-specific assays evaluate apoptosis induction (Annexin V/propidium iodide staining, caspase activation), cell cycle arrest (flow cytometry), and proliferation inhibition (MTT, alamarBlue, sulforhodamine B assays) to delineate cytotoxic versus cytostatic mechanisms. Three-dimensional spheroid cultures and patient-derived xenograft models offer improved predictive validity compared to monolayer cultures, though at increased complexity and cost.

### 5.2.3. Anti-inflammatory and Immunomodulatory Assays

Inflammatory cascade modulators are identified through enzyme inhibition assays (cyclooxygenase-2, lipoxygenase, phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>), cytokine production assays (TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6 quantification via ELISA), and transcription factor activity reporters (NF- $\kappa$ B, AP-1 luciferase constructs). Cellular models including lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-stimulated macrophages, activated microglia, or inflamed endothelial cells recapitulate pathophysiological inflammatory responses. Advanced platforms incorporating primary human immune cells (peripheral blood mononuclear cells) or complex co-culture systems provide physiological relevance at the expense of reduced throughput and increased variability.

### 5.3. Hit Confirmation and Selectivity Profiling

Initial screening hits require rigorous validation to eliminate artifacts arising from assay interference, compound aggregation, or redox cycling. Orthogonal assay confirmation using alternative detection methods or complementary endpoints reduces false-positive rates attributable to optical interference, luciferase inhibition, or fluorescence quenching. Dose-response curve generation across 8-10 concentrations enables determination of IC<sub>50</sub> (half-maximal inhibitory concentration) or EC<sub>50</sub> (half-maximal effective concentration) values with associated confidence intervals, providing quantitative potency metrics for lead prioritization. Selectivity assessment through counter-screening against non-diseased cells, off-target proteins, or alternative signaling pathways distinguishes specific modulators from promiscuous inhibitors or general cytotoxins. The selectivity index (SI), calculated as the ratio of cytotoxicity IC<sub>50</sub> to target-specific IC<sub>50</sub>, quantifies the therapeutic window and predicts tolerability. Values exceeding 10 indicate favorable selectivity profiles, while SI values below 2-3 suggest limited translational potential absent extensive optimization. Pan-assay interference compounds (PAINS)—structural motifs associated with promiscuous reactivity—should be flagged through computational filters, though blanket exclusion may eliminate genuinely bioactive natural products exhibiting PAINS-like features.

## 6. Translational Readiness: Safety, ADMET, and Lead Optimization

### 6.1. Early Safety and Cytotoxicity Profiling

Preclinical safety assessment begins with *in vitro* cytotoxicity screening against non-malignant cells including human dermal fibroblasts, peripheral blood mononuclear cells, or

hepatocytes to establish baseline tolerability thresholds. Concentration-dependent toxicity profiles inform selectivity index calculations and identify maximum tolerated concentrations for subsequent mechanistic studies. Specialized toxicity endpoints include mitochondrial dysfunction (oxygen consumption rate, ATP production), reactive oxygen species generation, membrane integrity disruption (lactate dehydrogenase release), and genotoxicity (Ames test, micronucleus assay, comet assay).

*In vivo* toxicology studies in rodent models following Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) guidelines assess acute toxicity (single-dose LD<sub>50</sub> determination), repeat-dose toxicity (14-day and 28-day studies), and organ-specific toxicity through clinical chemistry, hematology, and histopathology endpoints. These studies identify target organs of toxicity, establish no-observed-adverse-effect levels (NOAEL), and inform first-in-human dose calculations. Natural product-specific considerations include potential for immunogenicity (protein conjugate formation), endocrine disruption (estrogenic/androgenic activity), and phototoxicity for compounds with UV-absorbing chromophores.

### 6.2. ADMET Screening and Developability Assessment

Absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity (ADMET) properties fundamentally determine whether pharmacologically active compounds can achieve sufficient exposure at target sites to elicit therapeutic effects. Early ADMET profiling employs parallel artificial membrane permeability assays (PAMPA) and Caco-2 cell monolayer permeability to predict intestinal absorption following oral administration. Compounds exhibiting permeability coefficients below  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  cm/s typically demonstrate poor oral bioavailability requiring formulation strategies or alternative delivery routes.

Metabolic stability assessment in liver microsomal preparations or hepatocyte cultures predicts *in vivo* clearance rates and identifies metabolic soft spots requiring structural optimization. Cytochrome P450 (CYP) inhibition and induction profiling across major isoforms (CYP3A4, CYP2D6, CYP2C9, CYP2C19, CYP1A2) evaluates drug-drug interaction potential. Plasma protein binding determination informs free drug fraction calculations essential for pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic modeling. Efflux transporter substrate assessment (P-glycoprotein, breast cancer resistance protein) identifies compounds susceptible to active efflux that limits central nervous system penetration or promotes hepatobiliary elimination.

Physicochemical profiling includes aqueous solubility measurement across physiological pH ranges, lipophilicity determination (log P or log D), and ionization constant (pK<sub>a</sub>) assessment. Lipinski's Rule of Five parameters (molecular weight <500 Da, log P <5, hydrogen bond donors <5, acceptors <10) provide coarse developability predictions, though natural products frequently violate these guidelines while maintaining favorable pharmacokinetics through active transporter-mediated absorption. Beyond Rule-of-Five (bRo5) compounds require specialized formulation approaches including nanoparticle encapsulation, prodrug strategies, or parenteral delivery.

### 6.3. Lead Optimization and Chemical Modification Strategies

Lead optimization transforms bioactive natural products into drug candidates through rational structural modifications that

enhance potency, selectivity, pharmacokinetics, and drug-like properties while maintaining synthetic feasibility. Semi-synthesis approaches leverage natural product scaffolds as starting materials for chemical derivatization, preserving complex stereochemistry and core architecture while introducing functional group modifications to modulate properties. Common transformations include esterification or etherification of hydroxyl groups to enhance lipophilicity, glycosylation to improve solubility and pharmacokinetics, and halogenation or alkylation to fine-tune receptor binding interactions.

Structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies systematically correlate structural modifications with biological activity changes to identify pharmacophore elements essential for activity versus modulatable peripheral regions. Computational approaches including molecular docking, molecular dynamics simulations, and quantitative SAR (QSAR) modeling guide optimization strategies by predicting the impact of proposed modifications on target binding and ADMET properties. Total synthesis enables preparation of unnatural analogs inaccessible through semi-synthesis, though the complexity and cost of synthesizing intricate natural product scaffolds often limits this approach to high-value leads.

Scaffold simplification strategies identify minimal pharmacophore structures retaining bioactivity while reducing molecular complexity, improving synthetic accessibility, and enhancing physicochemical properties. Bioisosteric replacement—substitution of functional groups or structural motifs with alternatives exhibiting similar electronic and steric properties—enables property optimization without abolishing activity. Prodrug approaches temporarily mask problematic functional groups to improve absorption or distribution, with subsequent *in vivo* enzymatic or chemical conversion regenerating the active parent compound at target sites.

## 7. Challenges and Future Perspectives

### 7.1. Reproducibility and Phytochemical Variability

Phytochemical variation represents a persistent challenge that distinguishes natural product discovery from synthetic chemistry and recombinant biologics development. Genotypic diversity across populations, phenotypic plasticity in response to environmental conditions, seasonal fluctuation in metabolite production, and developmental stage-dependent biosynthetic profiles generate substantial inter-sample and inter-batch variation. This variability complicates reproducibility in early discovery, introduces uncertainty in supply chain reliability, and creates regulatory challenges for standardization and quality control.

Mitigation strategies include establishment of cultivated plant sources under controlled conditions, selection and propagation of defined chemotypes through clonal reproduction, and implementation of good agricultural and collection practices (GACP) to minimize uncontrolled variation. Molecular authentication using DNA barcoding (rbcL, matK, ITS regions) prevents species misidentification and adulteration. Metabolomic fingerprinting via LC-MS or NMR coupled with multivariate statistical analysis enables batch-to-batch quality assessment and release criteria specification. For complex mixtures or standardized extracts, progression to isolated pure compounds or defined multi-component compositions eliminates composition ambiguity while potentially sacrificing synergistic interactions.

### 7.2. Scale-Up and Sustainable Supply Challenges

Translation from milligram-scale discovery to kilogram-scale preclinical development and multi-kilogram clinical supply poses formidable challenges for plant-derived compounds. Wild harvesting at commercial scales risks species extinction for slow-growing or geographically restricted plants, necessitating agricultural cultivation, cell culture production, or total synthesis as sustainable alternatives. Cultivation requires agronomic optimization, crop protection strategies, and harvest timing refinement to maximize target metabolite yields while ensuring economic viability. Plant cell and tissue culture approaches enable controlled production in bioreactor systems, though secondary metabolite yields often fall below field-grown plant levels absent elicitation or metabolic engineering interventions.

Heterologous expression of biosynthetic pathways in microbial hosts (*Escherichia coli*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) or plant chassis (*Nicotiana benthamiana*) represents an emerging strategy for producing complex natural products through fermentation. Successful examples including artemisinin and cannabinoid biosynthesis in engineered yeast demonstrate feasibility, though pathway complexity and cofactor requirements limit applicability to relatively simple biosynthetic routes. Total synthesis or semi-synthesis from abundant natural precursors provides supply security for compounds amenable to efficient chemical synthesis, as exemplified by paclitaxel semi-synthesis from 10-deacetylbaccatin III.

### 7.3. Intellectual Property and Regulatory Considerations

Intellectual property protection for natural product-derived drugs navigates complex terrain involving compound novelty, formulation innovations, and method-of-use claims. While naturally occurring molecules generally lack patent eligibility as products of nature, isolated and purified compounds, synthetic derivatives, specific formulations, and therapeutic applications may qualify for patent protection depending on jurisdiction-specific criteria. Defensive publication strategies or trade secret protection represent alternatives for situations where patentability is uncertain or geographic coverage is limited.

Access and benefit-sharing obligations under the Nagoya Protocol require documentation of provenance, prior informed consent from source countries and indigenous communities, and equitable sharing of commercial benefits. Compliance necessitates early engagement with relevant authorities, transparent negotiation of mutually agreed terms, and ongoing benefit distribution throughout product development and commercialization. Traditional knowledge databases and defensive publication initiatives aim to prevent biopiracy while respecting indigenous intellectual contributions.

Regulatory approval pathways for botanical drugs vary across jurisdictions, with some authorities providing specific guidance for complex plant-derived products. The US FDA botanical drug guidance outlines requirements for characterization, manufacturing controls, and clinical development tailored to the unique challenges of botanicals. European Medicines Agency traditional herbal medicinal products directive offers a streamlined registration pathway for well-established traditional medicines, though novel therapeutic claims require full clinical evaluation. Quality-by-design principles emphasizing process analytical

technology and real-time release testing are increasingly applied to ensure batch-to-batch consistency of botanical products.

#### 7.4. Emerging Technologies and Future Directions

Artificial intelligence and machine learning algorithms are revolutionizing natural product discovery through applications including bioactivity prediction, spectroscopic structure elucidation, biosynthetic gene cluster identification, and retrosynthetic planning. Deep learning models trained on large compound-activity datasets predict biological properties from chemical structures, enabling *in silico* prioritization prior to experimental validation. Automated spectral interpretation tools accelerate dereplication and structure elucidation by matching experimental NMR and MS data against comprehensive databases and predicting spectra for hypothetical structures.

Multi-omics integration combines metabolomics, transcriptomics, genomics, and proteomics data to comprehensively characterize medicinal plant biosynthetic capabilities and regulatory mechanisms. Genome mining approaches identify cryptic biosynthetic gene clusters encoding novel natural products, while genome-scale metabolic network modeling predicts metabolite production under different conditions. CRISPR-based genome editing enables targeted metabolic engineering to enhance production of desired compounds or generate novel analogs through pathway recombination.

Automated fractionation platforms coupled with online bioassay monitoring and real-time analytical characterization promise to dramatically accelerate bioassay-guided isolation. Microfluidic devices enable miniaturized screening with sub-microliter sample volumes, while high-content imaging platforms extract rich phenotypic information from cellular responses. Digital natural product repositories aggregating spectroscopic, biological, and taxonomic data facilitate global collaboration and reduce duplicative rediscovery efforts. Integration of these technological advances with traditional ethnopharmacological knowledge and modern pharmacological validation frameworks positions medicinal plant bio-prospecting at the forefront of next-generation therapeutic innovation.

#### 8. Conclusion

Medicinal plant bio-prospecting has evolved from empirical screening to sophisticated, technology-enabled discovery pipelines that integrate ethnopharmacological insight, cutting-edge analytical chemistry, rigorous pharmacological validation, and systematic translational assessment. The

strategic framework delineated in this article—encompassing evidence-based plant selection, optimized extraction and bioassay-guided fractionation, metabolomics-enabled dereplication, mechanistic target validation, and early ADMET profiling—addresses historical limitations that constrained natural product drug discovery while capitalizing on the unparalleled structural diversity and evolutionary optimization inherent to plant secondary metabolites.

Contemporary analytical platforms including LC-MS/MS molecular networking, high-field NMR spectroscopy, and comprehensive natural product databases enable rapid identification of novel chemical scaffolds while preventing wasteful rediscovery of known compounds. Advanced screening paradigms incorporating disease-relevant cellular models, target deconvolution strategies, and selectivity profiling ensure that identified leads possess genuine therapeutic potential. Early-stage safety and ADMET assessment, coupled with rational lead optimization through semi-synthesis and structure-activity relationship studies, position promising hits for efficient progression through preclinical development.

Critical challenges remain, including phytochemical variability, sustainable supply constraints, intellectual property complexities, and regulatory pathway uncertainties. However, emerging solutions—spanning agricultural optimization, biosynthetic pathway engineering, artificial intelligence-driven prediction, and multi-omics integration—provide increasingly sophisticated tools to address these obstacles. The convergence of traditional knowledge systems with modern drug discovery technologies exemplifies a productive integration of complementary paradigms, leveraging centuries of empirical medical practice as hypothesis-generating frameworks for mechanistic investigation.

Looking forward, the field is poised for transformative advances through implementation of automated discovery platforms, expansion of comprehensive spectral and biological activity databases, and application of machine learning to accelerate every stage from plant selection through lead optimization. As antimicrobial resistance, cancer molecular heterogeneity, and chronic inflammatory diseases continue to challenge existing therapeutic arsenals, medicinal plant bio-prospecting represents a scientifically validated, ethically grounded, and strategically essential component of global health innovation. The systematic integration of biodiversity conservation, equitable benefit-sharing, and cutting-edge translational science positions plant-based drug discovery as a sustainable pillar of pharmaceutical development for decades to come.

## 9. Figures

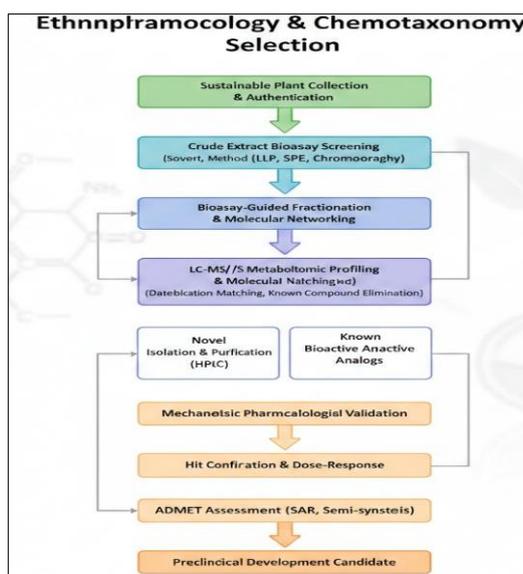


Fig 1: End-to-end bio-prospecting pipeline for medicinal plant-derived novel drug lead discovery

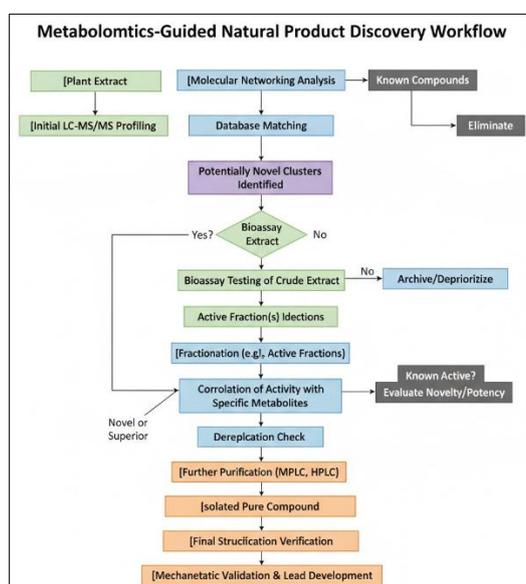


Fig 2: Integrated metabolomics and bioassay-guided fractionation workflow with dereplication checkpoints

## 10. Tables

Table 1: Comparative analysis of medicinal plant selection strategies

Selection Strategy	Methodology	Hit Rate	Advantages	Limitations
Ethnopharmacology-Guided	Selection based on documented traditional medicinal use; structured interviews with traditional practitioners	25-50%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High probability of bioactivity</li> <li>Hypothesis-driven approach</li> <li>Cultural validation</li> <li>Reduced screening load</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Geographic/cultural access barriers</li> <li>Potential efficacy misattribution</li> <li>Documentation challenges</li> <li>Ethical/IP considerations</li> </ul>
Chemotaxonomy-Based	Phylogenetic relationships and known family chemotypes guide species prioritization	15-30%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Predictable compound classes</li> <li>Exploits evolutionary patterns</li> <li>Targets underexplored taxa</li> <li>Integrates with databases</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Requires extensive taxonomic knowledge</li> <li>May miss novel chemotypes</li> <li>Phylogenetic classification uncertainties</li> </ul>
Ecology-Driven	Selection of plants from extreme environments or high herbivory pressure	10-25%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Targets enhanced defense chemistry</li> <li>Biodiversity hotspot focus</li> <li>Novel ecological niches</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Activity hypothesis less defined</li> <li>Collection logistics challenges</li> <li>Environmental permits required</li> </ul>
Random Screening	Unbiased selection without prior knowledge or hypothesis	5-10%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>No selection bias</li> <li>May identify unexpected bioactivities</li> <li>Broad taxonomic coverage</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Resource-intensive</li> <li>High failure rate</li> <li>Lacks prioritization rationale</li> </ul>

**Table 2:** Key analytical and screening technologies used in medicinal plant bio-prospecting

Technology	Application	Key Advantages	Limitations	Typical Output
LC-MS/MS	Metabolite profiling, molecular networking, dereplication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High sensitivity and throughput</li> <li>Minimal sample requirement</li> <li>Fragmentation patterns for structural insight</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Requires ionization</li> <li>Co-elution challenges</li> <li>Database dependency</li> </ul>	Metabolite m/z, retention time, MS/MS spectra, network maps
NMR (1D/2D)	Complete structure elucidation, purity assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Definitive structural determination</li> <li>Quantitative</li> <li>Non-destructive</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Requires mg quantities</li> <li>Lower sensitivity vs MS</li> <li>Time-intensive</li> </ul>	Chemical shifts, coupling constants, 2D correlation maps
GC-MS	Volatile metabolite analysis, essential oils	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Excellent chromatographic resolution</li> <li>Extensive MS libraries</li> <li>Robust quantification</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Requires volatility/derivatization</li> <li>Thermal instability issues</li> </ul>	Compound identification, retention indices
High-Throughput Screening (HTS)	Large-scale bioactivity screening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Rapid testing (10<sup>3</sup>-10<sup>5</sup> samples)</li> <li>Miniaturized (96/384-well)</li> <li>Automated data handling</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Assay interference artifacts</li> <li>False-positive rates</li> <li>Limited mechanistic insight</li> </ul>	IC <sub>50</sub> /EC <sub>50</sub> values, hit lists
Phenotypic Assays	Cell-based disease models (cancer, infection, inflammation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Integrated biological context</li> <li>Captures multi-target effects</li> <li>Clinically relevant endpoints</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Mechanistic ambiguity</li> <li>Higher variability</li> <li>Deconvolution required</li> </ul>	Viability, pathway activation, cytotoxicity metrics
Target-Based Assays	Specific enzyme/receptor binding/inhibition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Mechanistic clarity</li> <li>SAR optimization enabled</li> <li>High reproducibility</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Misses cellular complexity</li> <li>Neglects permeability/metabolism</li> <li>Target selection bias</li> </ul>	Kd, Ki, IC <sub>50</sub> for specific targets

**Table 3:** Advantages, limitations, and technical bottlenecks in translating plant-derived hits into drug leads

Stage/Aspect	Advantages	Limitations	Technical Bottlenecks	Mitigation Strategies
Structural Complexity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Pre-validated biological activity</li> <li>Novel scaffolds vs synthetic libraries</li> <li>Multi-target potential</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Difficult/costly synthesis</li> <li>Multiple chiral centers</li> <li>Large molecular weight</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Total synthesis feasibility</li> <li>Analog generation challenges</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Semi-synthesis from natural precursors</li> <li>Scaffold simplification</li> <li>Biosynthetic engineering</li> </ul>
ADMET Properties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Evolved for oral bioavailability in some cases</li> <li>Transporter-mediated uptake</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Often beyond Ro5</li> <li>Poor aqueous solubility</li> <li>Metabolic instability</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Low permeability</li> <li>High clearance rates</li> <li>P-gp efflux</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Prodrug strategies</li> <li>Formulation development (nanoparticles)</li> <li>Chemical modification to improve properties</li> </ul>
Supply & Scale-Up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Renewable biological source</li> <li>Potential for cultivation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Wild harvest unsustainable</li> <li>Low natural abundance</li> <li>Seasonal variation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>kg-scale production</li> <li>Chemotype variability</li> <li>Long growth cycles</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Agricultural optimization</li> <li>Cell/tissue culture</li> <li>Heterologous biosynthesis</li> <li>Total synthesis</li> </ul>
Reproducibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Defined active constituents once isolated</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Batch-to-batch variation in extracts</li> <li>Environmental influences</li> <li>Genetic diversity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Standardization of complex mixtures</li> <li>QC across batches</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Clonal propagation</li> <li>Controlled cultivation</li> <li>Metabolomic fingerprinting</li> <li>Progression to pure compounds</li> </ul>
Intellectual Property	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Novel structures patentable</li> <li>Formulation/use patents possible</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Natural products may lack composition-of-matter protection</li> <li>ABS obligations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Prior art from traditional use</li> <li>Patentability criteria vary by jurisdiction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Strategic patent portfolio (methods, formulations, derivatives)</li> <li>Trade secrets</li> <li>Defensive publication</li> </ul>
Regulatory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Some botanical drug pathways available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Complex characterization requirements</li> <li>Lack of precedent for novel botanicals</li> <li>Variable international requirements</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Demonstrating batch consistency</li> <li>Clinical endpoint selection</li> <li>CMC documentation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Early regulatory consultation</li> <li>Quality-by-design approaches</li> <li>Comprehensive analytical characterization</li> </ul>

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