



## Lichens: A Resource Chest of Herbal Antimicrobial Compounds

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**ABSTRACT:** Lichens are the best suitable example of a self-supporting, ecologically obligate in nature and a composite organism consisting of a mycobiont and a phycobionts. The lichens can be broadly classified into Macrolichens and microlichens. Pharmacological and biochemical research on the lichen compounds have found special consideration by scientist over a period of time because of their high antimicrobial potential. Lichens synthesize numerous metabolites, the lichen substances, and these compounds are classified in following groups; viz., aliphatic lichen substances, aromatic lichen substances and carbohydrates. Bioprospection, meaning the possible role in the biological world, has been the main focus of the researchers dealing with medicinal and aromatic plants and their biological evaluation. Lichens have thus proved to be a excellent source of antibacterial and antifungal compounds.

**Keywords:** Mycobiont, Macrolichens, Pharmacological, Antimicrobial, Bioprospection, etc.

### I. INTRODUCTION

#### A. Lichens: A Composite Plant Group

Lichens are the best suitable example of a self-supporting, ecologically obligate in nature and a composite organism. They are a stable symbiotic association of distinct and dissimilar group of organism i.e. fungi and algae. In this association, the former is dominant in organization, while the photoautotrophic algal partner, either unicellular or filamentous is present extracellularly, and hence, is classified under Kingdom Fungi. Since 1983, the name of a lichen refers to its mycobiont (Voss *et al.*, 1983). About 21% of the total fungi present in nature, have ability to lichenize and establish symbiosis, and particularly, act as a mycobiont (Honegger, 1991). Hence, they form the largest mutualistic group among the fungal group, while only a few, about 40 genera have been known to be involved as photobiont in lichenization (Kirk *et al.*, 2008).

The lichens can be broadly classified into two types: **Macrolichens** (relatively larger forms and easily visible morphologically) consisting of the foliose, fruticose and squamulose forms; and **Microlichens** (crust like, attached to substratum, with microscopic morphology) consists of crustose disco-lichens, lirrillate, leprose forms, terricolous and folicolous types of lichens come under this category. The thalloid form of compact light-exposed vegetative bodies of lichens, constitute the

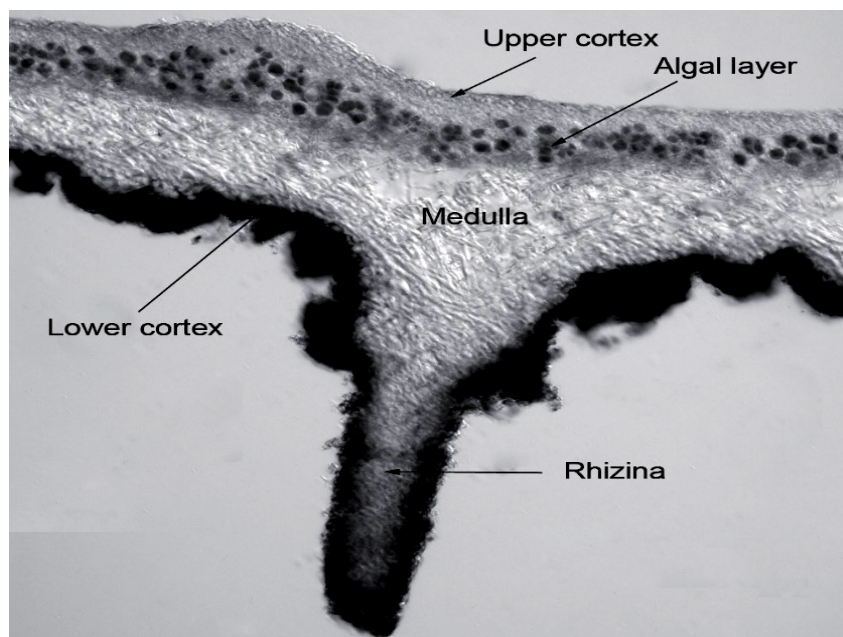
most complex and aesthetically pleasing morphologies evolved by fungi during the past 600 million years (Yuan *et al.*, 2005).

Being the pioneering species in any ecological system, lichen help to create a suitable habitat and niche for other plants (such as bryophytes, pteridophytes etc.) in early successional stages to render growth in that proximity. Here, lichens occupy an epiphytic habitat on substrate trees and other plant parts, lead to excessive biomass about, several hundred kg/ha (Coxson & Nadkarni, 1995). From microscopic observations, lichens differentiate varieties of tissues including cortex (a tissue covering and protecting thallus and consisting of gathered and adhered hyphae), algal layer (a tissue in which algae in thallus is surrounded and supported by hyphae), medulla (a basic tissue of thallus consisting of loosely entangled hyphae) and rhizine (a tissue projecting on the under-side surface and sticking the thallus on a carrier), which are the structural characteristics of lichens (Yamamoto *et al.*, 1990). Many lichens are highly extreme-tolerant which allows them to live as pioneers in the alpine zone and other cold environments. Life under these conditions correlates with the production of a variety of compound classes.

Pharmacological and biochemical research on the lichen compounds went through a phase of extraordinary development as stated in a review of the Culberson and Culberson (2001).

These giants are well known for establishing novel methods of chemical analysis of the lichen secondary compounds, documentation of the known secondary metabolites, their chemical profile, structure, formula and even their application (Culberson, 1972, 1974; Culberson and Kristinsson, 1970; Culberson 1963a, b; Culberson and Culberson, 1956; Culberson and

Culberson, 1958; Brodo *et al.*, 2008). However, scope for advancement is present in science; as such the field of lichenology is also not aloof; as considerable changes have come over years and lots of molecular investigation have come apart to bring this field a long way.



**Fig. 1.** Transverse section of a lichen thallus showing the hyphal upper and lower cortex and the medullary algal layer (Source: Zambare and Christopher (2012)).

#### A. Lichens secondary metabolites: Production and distribution

Lichens synthesize numerous metabolites, the “lichen substances,” which comprise amino acid derivatives, sugar alcohols, aliphatic acids, macrocyclic lactones, mono-cyclic aromatic compounds, quinones, chromones, xanthones, dibenzofuranes, depsides, depsidones, depsones, terpenoids, steroids, carotenoids and diphenyl ethers (Clix *et al.*, 1984; Fiedler *et al.*, 1986). Lichen compounds are classified in following groups by Asahina and Shibata (1971) and Dayan & Romagni (2001): (1) aliphatic lichen substances (including acids, zeorin compounds, polyhydric alcohols); (2) aromatic lichen substances (including pulvic acid derivatives, depsides, depsidones, quinones, xanthone derivatives, diphenyleneoxide derivatives, nitrogen containing compounds, triterpenes, tetrionic acids); and (3) carbohydrates (polysaccharides).

The more complex secondary compounds mainly which are of diverse class of terpenoids, alkaloids, depsides, depsidones, anthraquinones, etc are produced by a different mechanism and are produced as a result of the

various biochemical changes in the intermediates of the metabolic cycles of the lichen which serve as a starting fuel. There are three major cycles, which are followed for the production of these secondary metabolites:

#### (a) Sikhimic acid pathway

#### (b) Mevalonic acid pathway

#### (c) Acetate- polymalonate pathway.

The acetate- polymalonate pathway is the major pathway, through which majority of the secondary metabolites are produced (Culberson and Elix, 1989; Huneck, 2001). These include primarily the lichen acids, mainly the primary  $\beta$ - orcinol derivatives, depsides, tridepsides, tetradepsides, depsidones, benzofurans, aryls, usnic acid and derivatives, polylphenolics, xanthones, anthraquinones etc. The malonyl CoA and acetyl CoA serve as the precursor compounds. The Sikhimic acid is responsible for the production of pulvinic acid derivatives, variety of disaccharides, polysaccharides, etc from the precursors such as amino acids specially phenylalanine, polyols, which are produced as an intermediates in the primary metabolism.

The mevalonic acid pathway gives rise to the production of terpenoids including diterpenoids, triterpenoids, sesquiterpenoids, carotenoids, sterols, etc from the precursor compounds including mainly acetyl CoA. These secondary compounds give these lichens a very characteristic smell, taste and colour; which

strengthen the base of chemotaxonomy. These compounds in lichen serve many purposes including self- protection through anti-herbivory (Lawry, 1989), anti-larval action (Emmerich *et al.*, 1993) or nematocidal action (Ahad *et al.*, 1991) and insecticidal action (Hesbacher *et al.*, 1995).

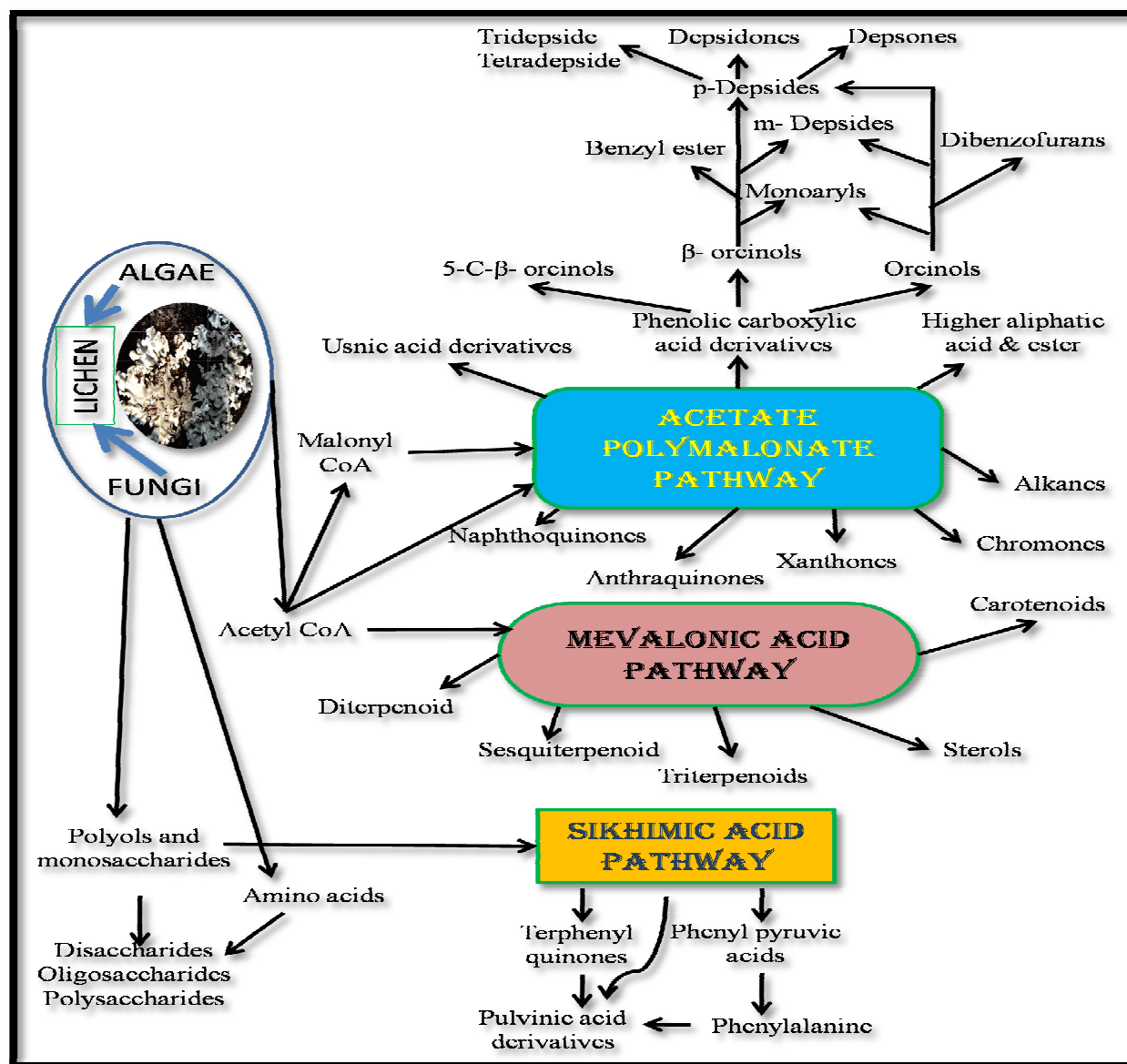


Fig. 2. Modified Secondary metabolite pathway and the resultant lichen compounds (Source: Nash, 2008; Stöcker-Wörgötter, 2008).

*B. Bioprospective values of lichens with special reference to their Antimicrobial potential*

Bioprospection, meaning the possible role in the biological world can be defined as harvesting of novel compounds for the various medicinal and pharmacological uses. The term is more commonly used by the commercial sector. The treasure chest of

active secondary compounds has compelled the scientists to find and explore the lichens. The day to day increase in the resistivity of the pathogens towards the synthetic antibiotics and other important drugs has led to the emergence of herbal therapy; which may be costly at a time but is reliable and not at all harmful.

But the slow growing nature of lichens has been the reason for the major setback in exploring lichens which is known for more than 1000 secondary metabolites of which 80% are unique to lichens only and are not reported yet from any other natural source.

The lichens in the tropical and the sub-tropical regions of the country are exposed to some of the very challenging climatic conditions along with the various biotic and abiotic factors, which determine the growth of the thallus. These mainly include the rainfall, the bark chemistry, the temperature and the presence of the various other competing microorganisms in their niche; which may be sometimes pathogenic. Hence, it is much healthier chance that a unique array of secondary metabolites, which may play a role in their own defense mechanism, may be present in these lichens (Galloway, 1992). Lichens, especially the foliose and fruticose types have been well known for their lichen acids, which exhibit exceptionally good antibacterial and antifungal efficacy (Oksanen, 2006). Traditionally, *Cetraria islandica* (L.) was used to treat mild inflammation of the oral and pharyngeal mucosa, dyspepsia, and loss of appetite. In the European folk medicine, *Cetraria islandica* (L.) was used in cancer treatment (Chevallier, 1996). The lichen substances are a unique array of secondary metabolites including the lichen acids such as sekikaic acid, protocetraric acid, lecanoric acid, usnic acid etc. and their various anomeric, optical or isomeric derivatives and forms (Fiedler *et al.*, 1986). Various studies have limited their interest in lichen chemistry and focused on the identification and characterization of lichen compounds of various class and types from the natural thallus as well as the *in vitro* metabolized lichen compounds (Nash, 2008; Stöcker- Wörgötter, 2008; Culberson and Elix, 1989). These compounds are unique in their origin because of the composite nature of the thalli and the intermediates utilized in their synthesis. The lichen acids also are of great importance as they form the basis of the micro crystallization test and colour test for identification of lichens and thus are of taxonomic relevance in chemotaxonomy of lichens (Culberson, 1969; Fehrer *et al.*, 2008; Nelsen and Gargas, 2008; Nordin *et al.*, 2007).

Burkholder reported for the first time the presence of antibiotic substances in lichens (Burkholder *et al.*, 1944). Several lichen metabolites were found to be active against Gram-positive organisms (Lauterwein *et al.*, 1995). The anti-mycobacterial activity of lichen compounds was reported against non-tubercular species of *Mycobacterium* (Ingolfsdottir *et al.*, 1998). The well-known antibacterial topical drug in the market sold

under the names of “USNO” and “EVOSIN” throughout the European countries has usnic acid as one of the major constituent (Dayan and Romagni, 2001). Usnic acid, a very active lichen compound is used in pharmaceutical preparations. Usnic acid and vulpinic acid (produced by mycobiont) are cell division regulators of autotrophic partner of lichen symbiosis-the photobiont (Backor *et al.*, 1998). Lichen extracts have cytotoxic activity in different degrees. The aqueous extract of *P. polydactyla* and the ethanol extract of the *R. farinacea* exhibited potent antibacterial activities (Karagöz *et al.*, 2009). Anthraquinones also constitute a major part of the secondary metabolites in lichens (Cohen and Towers, 1995; Cohen *et al.*, 1996); exhibiting antiviral activity against HIV. Hypericin, in particular is of great pharmaceutical importance because of its dramatic antiretroviral activity (Lavie *et al.*, 1995).

Medicinal values of Indian lichen have a long historical backdrop. A component of spices as well as folklore drug *charilla*; *Parmelia* sp. and *Parmelia nepalense* have their usage as aphrodisiac treatment of toothache and sore throat (Lal & Upreti, 1995; Kumar & Upreti, 2001; Kumar *et al.*, 1996). While *Thamnolia vermicularis* (Schwartz) Ach. (Icmadophilaceae) from Western Himalayas, is used as antiseptic (Negi & Kareem, 1996); and *Heterodermia diademata* (Talyor) D.D. Awas., (Physciaceae) was used for cuts and wounds (Saklani & Upreti, 1992). Many reviews have discussed the pharmaceutical potential and biological activities of lichen substances (Huneck, 1999; Muller, 2001; Yamamoto, 2000; Boustie & Grube, 2005). The medicinal use of lichens can be traced back to the 18th dynasty (1700–1800 BC) when *Evernia furfuracea* (L.) Mann or (Parmeliaceae) was first used as a drug (Launert, 1981). Some lichens were claimed to be good for coughs, jaundice, rabies and restoring lost hair. On an overall basis, lichens can be regarded source of multifold utility herbal compound (Fig. 3).

### C. Lichen acids as a potential bactericidal compound

Pathogenic microbes are major threatening cause to human health and have currently been the most prevalent cause for institutional health care settings. The growing antibiotic resistance is an associated concern (Babita *et al.*, 2008). The rapidly increasing population has also increased the pollution at an alarming rate; thus several fatal bacterial, viral, protozoal, nematodal and fungal diseases have emerged which are somehow related to water, either for their dispersal or their growth.

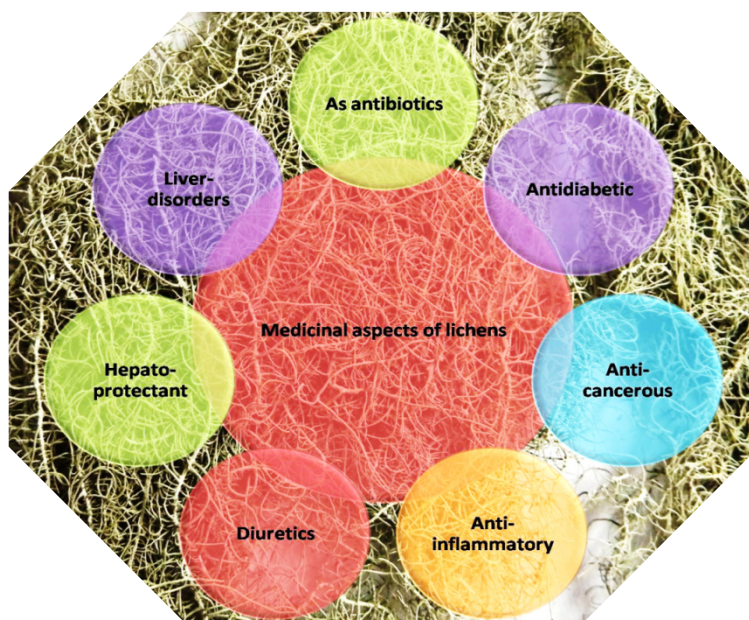


Fig. 3. Various aspects of medicinal properties of lichens.

Water borne diseases, in particular, diarrhoeal diseases alone cause 2.2 millions death per year of the total water related deaths counting for 3.4 millions (WHO, 2003). This death toll has only increased in the coming years and will move on to increase least effective measures for its prevention are taken on a global scale. Even our Indian Constitution gives us the Right to clean drinking water under the Article 21 and Article 39 (a) and 39 (b). The tropics and subtropical regions have the most favorable climatic conditions which suit for the spread of epidemics caused due to such diseases. Water borne bacterial diseases are amongst the most favorable cause in the tropical countries for disease epidemics.

The main physico-chemical properties of water which determine its purity are turbidity (clarity), taste, odour, colour and pH. Water being a universal solvent and a key component of human body is the most suitable for disease dissemination. Biologically the water quality is determined by its BOD, COD, coliform count etc. Presence of the large amount of organic pollutant in the local vicinity has led to the emergence of water-borne bacterial diseases. These include some of the most fatal diseases such as fecal dysentery, diarrhoea, cholera, typhoid fever etc. caused by mainly *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella typhimurium*, *Shigella dysenteriae*, *Vibrio cholerae*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Streptococcus aureus*. The current disturbing element is the multi-drug resistant and biofilm forming bacterial population, which is day by day emerging as big problem for the medical industry as well as serving as death cause for the patients.

Regarding the bactericidal effects of lichen metabolites, they have mostly tested upon *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, *E. coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella*, *Candida*, *Salmonella*, *Yersinia* and *Proteus* sp. (Yilmaz *et al.*, 2004; Karagöz *et al.*, 2009; Martins *et al.*, 2010; Manojlovic *et al.*, 2010; Ranković *et al.*, 2010; Santiago *et al.*, 2010; Swathi *et al.*, 2010; Zambare *et al.*, 2010). Rankovic *et al.*, 2008; studied the antibacterial action of the lichen substances viz., physodic acid, usnic acid, atranorin and gyrophoric acid derived from the natural thalli of lichens *Hypogymnia physodes*, *Parmelia caperata*, *Physcia aipolia* and *Umbilicaria polyphylla* against gram positive and gram negative bacteria. *Parmelia caperata* derived usnic acid and atranorin isolated from *Physcia aipolia* showed excellent activity comparably better than the synthetic standards i.e., Streptomycin and Ketoconazole; 0.0037 mg/ml and 0.031 mg/ml against *Klebsiella pneumoniae*; a water borne bacterial pathogen, 0.0075 mg/ml and 0.031 mg/ml against *Bacillus mycoides* respectively. Antibacterial potential of parmelloid lichens is evident from studies on acetone extract of *Hypotrachyna cirrhata* and *Flavoparmelia caperata*, which was found to be effective against *Vibrio cholerae*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Salmonella typhimurium* (Pathak *et al.*, 2015). In a study on bactericidal activity of some lichen extracts along with its active secondary compounds concluded, high bactericidal activity of lichens in order; *Parmelia nilgherrensis* > *Parmelia sancti-angelii* > *Cladonia ochrochlora* (Vermaet *et al.*, 2011).

Of the entire active secondary compound; atranorin,  $\alpha$ -collatolic acid and hypoprotocetraric acid was found to be most active for all the bacterial strains tested whereas alectoronic acid, fumaroprotocetraric acid and protocetraric acid were found active but with high MIC range (Yilmaz *et al.*, 2004).

#### *D. Lichen acids as a potential fungicidal compound*

In day to day life, not only enterobacterial diseases are prevalent, but a variety of fungal infections come way. Skin being, one of the five senses of our body, and the foremost protective covering, is exposed to a variety of pathogenic microflora, including both bacteria and fungi. The chances of infection aggravate when there is any wound or skin is damaged. Fungal cutaneous generally produce boggy nodular swelling called kerion (Dias *et al.*, 2013). A group of filamentous keratinophilic fungi, viz., *Trichophyton*, *Microsporum*, and *Epidermophyton*, commonly known as dermatophytes, cause prevalent skin infection called as cutaneous mycoses (Peres, *et al.*, 2010). Dermatophytes produce specific enzymes which catalyze the fungal penetration into the host keratin rich tissues (O'Sullivan *et al.*, 1971; Padhye *et al.*, 1999). These pathogenic fungi associated with dermatophytoses, are a class of anamorphic fungus, globally are responsible for diseases such as tinea capitis, tinea corporis, tinea inguinalis, tinea manuum, tinea unguium, tinea faciei and tinea pedis (Wanget *al.*, 2006). Reports coming from different parts of the world, have time to time ascertained the occurrence of dermatophytes. Individuals from 16 European countries, involved in a study, shown 35%–40% effected from infection of the foot (tinea pedis) caused by dermatophytes (Burzykowski, *et al.*, 2003). The World Health Organization estimated that dermatophytes affect about 25% of the world population (Peres, *et al.*, 2010). Apart from wide prevalence, the dermatophytes have exhibited resistance against griseofulvin, terbinafine, and fluconazole (Peres, *et al.*, 2010; Stephenson, *et al.*, 1997; Wingfield, *et al.*, 2004; Smith, *et al.*, 1986; Orozco, *et al.*, 1998).

Lichen acids have been found to be a good alternative for synthetic class of fungicides, especially the azoles, which are associated with high reoccurrence rate of the disease, even after the completion of the course medication. Report on extract of *Usnea orientalis* exhibited favorable antidermatophytic activity against tested pathogens, *E. floccosum*, whereas *T. mentagrophytes*, was found least susceptible (Pathak *et al.*, 2016). Other report on the acetone and methanol extracts of *Lasallia pustulata* (Umbilicariaceae), *Parmelia sulcata* and *Umbilicaria*

*crustulosa* manifested a very selective antifungal activity (Ranković *et al.*, 2007). Lichen *Cladia aggregata* (Swartz) Nyl. has been found active against commensal yeast, *Malassezia globosa*, *M. furfur* and *M. restricta*; which are responsible for causing PV (Ptyriasis Versicolor) and dandruff (Pandey *et al.*, 2013). A number of higher plants have been reported effective against *Malassezia* (Dikshit *et al.*, 2012); but none have comparable potentiality with lichens against *Malassezia*. Established results on the antifungal activity of *Everniastrum cirrhatum* with minimum fungicidal concentration (MFC) of as low as 60  $\mu$ L/ml against human pathogenic fungi (dermatophytes) viz., *Epidermophyton floccosum*, *Microsporum gypseum*, *M. canis*, *M. audouinii*, *Trichophyton rubrum*, *T. mentagrophytes*, *T. violaceum* and *T. tonsurans* have also been reported in the past (Shahi *et al.*, 2000). *Heterodermia leucomelos* was also found effective against human as well as plant pathogenic fungi (Shahi *et al.*, 2001). Broad spectrum antifungal properties at 80  $\mu$ L/ml were evident in the aqueous extract of *Parmelia cirrhatum* against some human and plant pathogens (Shahi *et al.*, 2003).

The phenolic compounds and their derivatives in lichen have been proved to be detrimental for pathogenic microbial fauna. These substances generally acidify the microbial cell wall and consequently, cause cytoplasm membrane rupture, inactivate or immobilize the enzymes, and interfere with physiological functions such as electrons transport, oxidative phosphorylation etc. (Randhir *et al.*, 2004; Vattam *et al.*, 2004 and Mueller *et al.*, 2001). In a study focusing on a large number of lichens and their cultured symbionts for their antibacterial and antioxidant activity, came to a conclusion that mycobiont and photobiont culture of *U. ghattensis* and *A. awasthii* have high antioxidative and antibacterial potential. The antioxidant activity was found to be 87% (ILP), 73% (FRS) for and 56% (ILP), 58% (FRS) for Both *U. ghattensis* and *A. awasthii* showed excellent antibacterial activity against *S. aureus*, *B. licheniformis*, *B. subtilis* and *B. megaterium* (Behera *et al.*, 2008). Dharmadhikari *et al.*, 2010; in their work on the foliose lichen *Parmelinella simplicicolor* isolated the mycobiont and confirmed the cultured thalli by SEM and also confirmed the presence of atranorin and salzinic acid by HPLC. They also worked upon the antibacterial activity of the natural thalli as well as cultured mycobiont and were found active against all the tested pathogens except cultured mycobiont extract was found inactive against *Streptococcus faecalis*.

**Table 1: Summarized data reflecting various dimensions of antimicrobial potential of lichens.**

S. no.	Lichen	Antimicrobial (Antibacterial- AB and Antifungal- AF) activity	Reference
1.	<i>Hypotrachyna cirrhatum</i> , (AB)	<i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	Pathak <i>et al.</i> , 2015
2.	<i>U. ghattensis</i> and <i>A. awasthii</i> (AB)	<i>S. aureus</i> , <i>B. licheniformis</i> , <i>B. subtilis</i> and <i>B. megaterium</i>	Behera <i>et al.</i> , 2008
3.	<i>Parmelinella simplicolor</i> (AB)	<i>Streptococcus faecalis</i>	Dharmadhikari <i>et al.</i> , 2010
4.	<i>Protousnea poeppigii</i> (AB)	<i>Leishmania amazonensis</i> , <i>L. brasiliensis</i> , <i>L. infantum</i>	Schmeda-Hirschmann <i>et al.</i> , 2008
5.	<i>Flavocetraria nivalis</i> <i>Flavocetraria cucullata</i> (AB)	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> and <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> biofilms	Francolini <i>et al.</i> , 2004
6.	Antarctic lichen species (AB)	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> and <i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Paudel <i>et al.</i> 2008
7.	<i>Xanthoria parietina</i> (AB)	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Ivanova <i>et al.</i> , 2000
8.	<i>Parmelia cirrhatum</i> (AF)	Plant pathogenic fungi	Shahi <i>et al.</i> , 2003
9.	<i>Ramalina conduplicans</i> , <i>Ramalina sinensis</i> , <i>Ramalina sp.</i> , <i>Umbilicaria proboscidea</i> (AF)	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i> , <i>Sclerotium cepivorum</i> , <i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> , <i>Phythium sp.</i> , <i>Botryosphaeria dothidea</i>	Oh <i>et al.</i> , 2006
10.	<i>Heterodermia sp.</i> (AF)	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i> , <i>Cercospora kikuchii</i> , <i>Collectotricum coccodes</i> , <i>Collectotricum gloeosporioides</i>	Hur <i>et al.</i> , 2003
11.	<i>Cladia aggregata</i> (AF)	<i>Malassezia globosa</i> and <i>M. furfur</i>	Pandey <i>et al.</i> , 2013
12.	<i>Everniastrum cirrhatum</i> (AF)	<i>Epidermophyton floccosum</i>	Shahi <i>et al.</i> , 2000
13.	<i>Heterodermia leucomelos</i> (AF)	<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i> , <i>Microsporum gypseum</i> , <i>Aspergillus sp.</i>	Shahi <i>et al.</i> , 2001
14.	<i>Usnea orientalis</i> (AF)	<i>Epidermophyton floccosum</i>	Pathak <i>et al.</i> , 2016
15.	<i>Lasallia pustulata</i> , <i>Parmelia sulcata</i> and <i>Umbilicaria crustulosa</i> (AF)	Plant pathogenic fungi	Ranković <i>et al.</i> , 2007
16.	<i>Cladonia furcata</i> , <i>Cladonia pyxidata</i> (AF)	<i>Collectotrichum acutatum</i> , <i>C. coccodes</i> , <i>C. gloeosporioides</i>	Jeon <i>et al.</i> , 2009
17.	<i>Usnea subfloridans</i> NS (AF)	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	Ekong <i>et al.</i> , 2008
18.	<i>Cladonia furcata</i> (AF)	<i>Candida albicans</i>	Ranković & Mišić, 2008
19.	<i>Parmotrema tinctorum</i> (AF)	<i>Cladosporium sphaerospermum</i>	Gomes <i>et al.</i> , 2002
20.	<i>Parmelia furfuracea</i> (AF)	<i>Fusarium moniliforme</i>	Khanuja <i>et al.</i> , 2007

## II. CONCLUSION

From the above examination and analysis of the facts and figures enumerated about the antimicrobial activity of the lichens with special reference to their antibacterial and antifungal activity; it can be concluded that lichens, though being a rare plant enigma, present an excellent example of herbal antimicrobials. They have vast potential vested in them, on which the pharmacy industry need to focus and work upon. The dual nature of the organism gives it a uniqueness in its physiological characters. The secondary metabolites, thus produced in them, are found only in lichens, and not any other group of plant. Thorough examination, in vitro screening, in vivo trials on animal models, double blind topical testing as well as organoleptic analysis can definitely lead to promising results for the pharmacological world.

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