

Anti-Inflammatory Activity of Herbal Formulations and Natural Bioactive Compounds

Arjun Yadav¹, Ansh Uplawdiya², Nidhi Saxena³, Nilesh Jain⁴, R.B. Goswami⁵
^{1,2,3,4,5}*Sagar Institute of Research Technology & Science-Pharmacy, Bhopal*

Abstract—Inflammation is a complex biological response triggered by tissue injury, microbial invasion, oxidative stress, or immune dysregulation. Although inflammation serves as a protective mechanism, chronic inflammation is associated with several pathological conditions including arthritis, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, neurodegenerative disorders, inflammatory bowel disease, and cancer [1,2]. Herbal formulations and plant-derived bioactive compounds have gained increasing scientific attention because of their anti-inflammatory potential with comparatively fewer adverse effects than synthetic drugs [3]. Various phytoconstituents such as flavonoids, alkaloids, tannins, terpenoids, saponins, glycosides, and phenolic compounds exhibit anti-inflammatory activity through inhibition of inflammatory mediators including cyclooxygenase (COX), lipoxygenase (LOX), tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), interleukins, nitric oxide (NO), and nuclear factor-kappa B (NF- κ B) pathways [4,5]. This review summarizes the anti-inflammatory activity of herbal formulations, mechanisms involved, experimental evaluation methods, recent advancements, therapeutic applications, and future prospects.

Index Terms—Anti-inflammatory activity, Herbal formulations, Phytochemicals, Cytokines, NF- κ B, Cyclooxygenase, Natural products.

I. INTRODUCTION

Inflammation is a protective physiological process initiated by the immune system in response to harmful stimuli such as pathogens, toxins, physical injury, or damaged cells [6]. The inflammatory response includes vascular dilation, increased permeability, leukocyte migration, and release of inflammatory mediators such as prostaglandins, histamine, cytokines, and reactive oxygen species [7]. Acute inflammation is beneficial and necessary for tissue repair; however, persistent or chronic inflammation contributes to several chronic diseases including

rheumatoid arthritis, asthma, obesity, Alzheimer's disease, diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular disorders, and cancer [8,9].

Synthetic anti-inflammatory drugs such as non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and corticosteroids are widely used in clinical practice. However, prolonged use of these drugs may produce adverse effects including gastric ulceration, renal toxicity, cardiovascular complications, osteoporosis, and immunosuppression [10]. Therefore, there is a growing interest in natural remedies and herbal medicines as safer alternatives for inflammatory disorders [11].

Medicinal plants contain diverse secondary metabolites that demonstrate significant anti-inflammatory activity through modulation of inflammatory signaling pathways [12]. Traditional systems of medicine such as Ayurveda, Siddha, Unani, and Traditional Chinese Medicine have utilized herbs for centuries to manage inflammatory diseases [13]. Several herbal extracts including Aloe vera, Curcuma longa, Zingiber officinale, Azadirachta indica, Ocimum sanctum, Boswellia serrata, and Withania somnifera have shown promising anti-inflammatory effects in experimental and clinical studies [14,15].

The anti-inflammatory effects of herbal formulations are mainly attributed to suppression of inflammatory enzymes, reduction of oxidative stress, inhibition of cytokine release, stabilization of lysosomal membranes, and prevention of leukocyte infiltration [16]. Due to increasing evidence supporting the efficacy of phytomedicines, natural anti-inflammatory agents are becoming important therapeutic candidates in modern pharmaceutical research [17].

II. PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF INFLAMMATION

Inflammation involves a coordinated series of cellular and biochemical events activated after tissue damage

or infection [18]. The inflammatory process is characterized by redness, swelling, pain, heat, and loss of function. These clinical manifestations occur due to vasodilation, increased blood flow, and migration of inflammatory cells to the affected tissues [19]. The inflammatory response can be divided into two major stages:

2.1. Acute Inflammation

Acute inflammation is a short-duration response occurring within minutes or hours after injury [20]. Neutrophils are the primary immune cells involved during this phase. Chemical mediators such as prostaglandins, histamine, serotonin, bradykinin, and leukotrienes are released, resulting in edema and pain [21].

2.2. Chronic Inflammation

Chronic inflammation persists for weeks, months, or years and is associated with tissue destruction and fibrosis [22]. Macrophages, lymphocytes, and plasma cells predominate during chronic inflammation. Persistent production of cytokines including TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, and interferon-gamma contributes to chronic inflammatory diseases [23]. Oxidative stress also plays a major role in chronic inflammation. Excessive production of reactive oxygen species damages lipids, proteins, and DNA, thereby aggravating inflammatory conditions [24].

III. MECHANISM OF ANTI-INFLAMMATORY ACTIVITY OF HERBAL COMPOUNDS

Herbal bioactive compounds exert anti-inflammatory activity through multiple molecular mechanisms [25].

3.1. Inhibition of Cyclooxygenase and Lipoxygenase Pathways

Cyclooxygenase enzymes catalyze the synthesis of prostaglandins responsible for pain and inflammation [26]. Herbal constituents such as curcumin, eugenol, and gingerols inhibit COX-2 activity and reduce prostaglandin synthesis [27]. Similarly, inhibition of lipoxygenase suppresses leukotriene production and inflammatory responses [28].

3.2. Suppression of Cytokine Production

Inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 are major mediators of chronic inflammation [29]. Flavonoids and polyphenols reduce cytokine expression and modulate immune responses [30].

3.3. Inhibition of NF- κ B Signaling

NF- κ B is an important transcription factor regulating inflammatory gene expression [31]. Several phytochemicals inhibit activation of NF- κ B and thereby suppress inflammatory mediator production [32].

3.4. Antioxidant Activity

Oxidative stress contributes significantly to inflammation [33]. Herbal antioxidants neutralize free radicals and protect tissues against oxidative damage [34]. Phenolic compounds, flavonoids, and tannins demonstrate strong antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects [35].

3.5. Stabilization of Lysosomal Membranes

Certain herbal extracts stabilize lysosomal membranes and prevent release of inflammatory enzymes from neutrophils [36]. This mechanism helps reduce tissue injury and edema.

IV. IMPORTANT MEDICINAL PLANTS WITH ANTI-INFLAMMATORY ACTIVITY

Medicinal Plant	Major Active Constituents	Mechanism of Action	Therapeutic Applications
Aloe vera	Aloin, Acemannan	Inhibits prostaglandin synthesis	Wound healing, dermatitis
Curcuma longa	Curcumin	NF- κ B inhibition, antioxidant action	Arthritis, inflammatory disorders
Zingiber officinale	Gingerols, Shogaols	COX and LOX inhibition	Pain and joint inflammation
Boswellia serrata	Boswellic acids	Leukotriene inhibition	Osteoarthritis, asthma
Ocimum sanctum	Eugenol, Rosmarinic acid	Cytokine suppression	Respiratory inflammation
Azadirachta indica	Nimbidin, Azadirachtin	Immunomodulatory effect	Skin inflammation

Withania somnifera	Withanolides	Reduction of inflammatory cytokines	Stress and inflammatory diseases
Camellia sinensis	Catechins	Antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects	Cardiovascular protection

The anti-inflammatory efficacy of these plants has been confirmed through various in vitro and in vivo studies [37,38].

V. EVALUATION METHODS FOR ANTI-INFLAMMATORY ACTIVITY

Evaluation of anti-inflammatory activity involves several experimental models and biochemical assays [39].

5.1. In Vitro Methods

5.1.1. Protein Denaturation Assay

Protein denaturation is associated with inflammatory disorders. Herbal extracts that inhibit protein denaturation are considered to possess anti-inflammatory activity [40].

5.1.2. Membrane Stabilization Assay

The membrane stabilization method evaluates the ability of herbal extracts to stabilize erythrocyte membranes against hypotonicity-induced lysis [41].

5.1.3. Nitric Oxide Inhibition Assay

Activated macrophages produce nitric oxide during inflammation. Herbal compounds capable of suppressing nitric oxide production demonstrate anti-inflammatory effects [42].

5.2. In Vivo Methods

5.2.1. Carrageenan-Induced Paw Edema

This is one of the most commonly used experimental models for evaluating acute anti-inflammatory activity in laboratory animals [43]. Reduction in paw swelling indicates anti-inflammatory potential.

5.2.2. Cotton Pellet Granuloma Method

This model is used to evaluate chronic inflammation and granuloma formation [44].

5.2.3. Formalin-Induced Inflammation

Formalin-induced inflammation helps evaluate both neurogenic and inflammatory pain responses [45].

VI. ROLE OF PHYTOCHEMICALS IN ANTI-INFLAMMATORY ACTIVITY

Phytochemicals are naturally occurring bioactive compounds found in medicinal plants. Their anti-inflammatory properties are associated with multiple pharmacological mechanisms [46].

6.1. Flavonoids

Flavonoids inhibit inflammatory enzymes and reduce oxidative stress [47]. Quercetin, kaempferol, and rutin are important flavonoids with potent anti-inflammatory activity.

6.2. Alkaloids

Alkaloids exhibit immunomodulatory and analgesic effects [48]. Several alkaloids inhibit cytokine release and inflammatory mediator synthesis.

6.3. Tannins

Tannins possess astringent, antioxidant, and anti-inflammatory properties [49]. They prevent tissue damage by scavenging free radicals.

6.4. Terpenoids

Terpenoids inhibit inflammatory pathways and suppress leukocyte migration [50]. Boswellic acid and limonene are examples of anti-inflammatory terpenoids.

6.5. Saponins

Saponins reduce inflammatory edema and modulate immune responses [51].

VII. THERAPEUTIC APPLICATIONS OF ANTI-INFLAMMATORY HERBAL FORMULATIONS

Herbal anti-inflammatory formulations are widely used in pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries [52].

7.1. Arthritis Management

Herbal preparations containing curcumin, boswellic acid, and ginger extracts are beneficial in osteoarthritis and rheumatoid arthritis [53].

7.2. Skin Disorders

Anti-inflammatory herbs are used in eczema, psoriasis, dermatitis, acne, and wound healing [54]. Aloe vera and neem formulations are commonly utilized in dermatological products.

7.3. Gastrointestinal Disorders

Herbal medicines help reduce inflammation associated with gastric ulcers and inflammatory bowel diseases [55].

7.4. Respiratory Disorders

Tulsi, ginger, and licorice exhibit anti-inflammatory effects useful in asthma and bronchitis [56].

7.5. Neuroinflammatory Disorders

Natural antioxidants and anti-inflammatory phytochemicals may help reduce neuroinflammation associated with Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases [57].

VIII. ADVANTAGES OF HERBAL ANTI-INFLAMMATORY AGENTS

1. Lower incidence of adverse effects compared to synthetic drugs [58].
2. Multifunctional therapeutic effects including antioxidant and immunomodulatory activities [59].
3. Better patient compliance due to natural origin [60].
4. Cost-effective and easily accessible [61].
5. Suitable for long-term management of chronic inflammatory conditions [62].

IX. LIMITATIONS AND CHALLENGES

Despite promising therapeutic potential, herbal anti-inflammatory agents face several challenges [63].

1. Variability in phytochemical composition.
2. Lack of standardization.
3. Limited clinical trials.
4. Poor bioavailability of certain phytoconstituents.
5. Possibility of herb-drug interactions.
6. Inadequate quality control measures.

Advanced drug delivery systems such as nanoparticles, liposomes, phytosomes, and nanoemulsions are being developed to improve stability and bioavailability of herbal compounds [64].

X. RECENT ADVANCES IN HERBAL ANTI-INFLAMMATORY RESEARCH

Recent pharmaceutical research focuses on isolation of novel phytoconstituents and development of evidence-based herbal medicines [65]. Nanotechnology-based herbal formulations have shown improved therapeutic efficacy and targeted delivery [66]. Molecular docking and computational studies are also being employed to identify potential anti-inflammatory phytochemicals [67].

Clinical studies have demonstrated beneficial effects of curcumin, boswellic acid, and green tea polyphenols in inflammatory disorders [68]. Combination therapy involving herbal extracts and conventional drugs may reduce drug dosage and side effects [69].

XI. FUTURE PROSPECTS

The future of herbal anti-inflammatory therapy appears promising due to increasing global interest in natural medicines [70]. Standardization of herbal formulations, large-scale clinical trials, and advanced pharmacokinetic studies are necessary to establish their safety and efficacy [71]. Integration of traditional knowledge with modern scientific approaches may lead to development of novel anti-inflammatory drugs [72].

Research on synergistic interactions among phytochemicals and application of biotechnology in medicinal plant cultivation are expected to enhance therapeutic outcomes [73]. Personalized herbal medicine and targeted drug delivery systems may further revolutionize anti-inflammatory therapy in the future [74].

XII. CONCLUSION

Inflammation is a fundamental biological response that plays an essential role in protecting the body against harmful stimuli, infections, and tissue injury. However, prolonged or uncontrolled inflammatory responses are strongly associated with the development and progression of numerous chronic disorders such as rheumatoid arthritis, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes mellitus, asthma, inflammatory bowel disease, neurodegenerative disorders, and cancer. Due to the limitations and adverse effects associated with long-term use of synthetic anti-inflammatory drugs,

considerable scientific attention has shifted toward herbal medicines and plant-derived bioactive compounds as safer and more effective therapeutic alternatives [75].

Herbal formulations contain a wide variety of phytoconstituents including flavonoids, alkaloids, tannins, terpenoids, saponins, glycosides, and phenolic compounds that exhibit significant anti-inflammatory activity through multiple mechanisms of action. These natural compounds act by inhibiting cyclooxygenase and lipoxygenase pathways, suppressing pro-inflammatory cytokines, modulating NF- κ B signaling, reducing oxidative stress, stabilizing lysosomal membranes, and preventing leukocyte migration to inflamed tissues [76]. The multi-targeted pharmacological actions of herbal drugs make them highly beneficial in the management of both acute and chronic inflammatory conditions.

Medicinal plants such as *Curcuma longa* (turmeric), *Zingiber officinale* (ginger), *Boswellia serrata*, *Aloe vera*, *Ocimum sanctum* (tulsi), *Azadirachta indica* (neem), and *Withania somnifera* (ashwagandha) have demonstrated promising anti-inflammatory effects in various experimental and clinical investigations. These herbal agents not only reduce inflammation but also provide antioxidant, immunomodulatory, analgesic, wound healing, and protective effects against tissue damage [77]. Such multifunctional therapeutic properties increase their pharmaceutical and clinical significance.

Modern scientific advancements have further enhanced the potential of herbal anti-inflammatory therapy. Novel drug delivery systems including nanoparticles, liposomes, phytosomes, nanoemulsions, transdermal systems, and controlled-release formulations have improved the bioavailability, stability, and therapeutic efficacy of phytoconstituents. In addition, molecular docking studies, pharmacogenomics, and biotechnology-based approaches are helping researchers identify new plant-derived anti-inflammatory compounds with better safety profiles and targeted actions [78].

Despite their immense therapeutic promise, herbal medicines still face several challenges such as lack of standardization, variability in phytochemical composition, insufficient toxicological evaluation, poor reproducibility of results, limited clinical trials, and inadequate regulatory guidelines. Therefore,

extensive pharmacological studies, quality control measures, and evidence-based clinical investigations are essential to establish the efficacy, safety, and reproducibility of herbal formulations on a global scale.

In conclusion, herbal medicines and natural bioactive compounds represent a valuable and promising source of anti-inflammatory agents for future pharmaceutical development. Their comparatively lower toxicity, broad therapeutic potential, cost-effectiveness, and long history of traditional use make them attractive alternatives to conventional synthetic drugs. Continued interdisciplinary research integrating traditional medicinal knowledge with modern pharmaceutical technology may lead to the discovery of novel, effective, and safer anti-inflammatory therapies for the prevention and treatment of inflammatory disorders worldwide [79].

REFERENCES

- [1] R. Medzhitov, "Origin and Physiological Roles of Inflammation," *Nature*, vol. 454, pp. 428–435, 2008.
- [2] L. Ferrero-Miliani, O. H. Nielsen, P. S. Andersen, and S. E. Girardin, "Chronic Inflammation: Importance of NOD2 and NALP3 in Interleukin-1 β Generation," *Clinical and Experimental Immunology*, vol. 147, pp. 227–235, 2007.
- [3] M. H. Pan, C. S. Lai, and C. T. Ho, "Anti-Inflammatory Activity of Natural Dietary Flavonoids," *Food & Function*, vol. 1, pp. 15–31, 2010.
- [4] J. B. Calixto, M. M. Campos, M. F. Otuki, and A. R. S. Santos, "Anti-Inflammatory Compounds of Plant Origin," *Planta Medica*, vol. 70, pp. 93–103, 2004.
- [5] S. C. Gupta, S. Patchva, and B. B. Aggarwal, "Therapeutic Roles of Curcumin," *AAPS Journal*, vol. 15, pp. 195–218, 2013.
- [6] V. Kumar, A. K. Abbas, and J. C. Aster, Robbins and Cotran Pathologic Basis of Disease, 9th ed. Elsevier, 2015.
- [7] C. N. Serhan and J. Savill, "Resolution of Inflammation," *Nature Immunology*, vol. 6, pp. 1191–1197, 2005.
- [8] P. Libby, "Inflammatory Mechanisms in Atherosclerosis," *Nature*, vol. 420, pp. 868–874, 2002.

- [9] D. Furman, J. Campisi, E. Verdin et al., “Chronic Inflammation in Aging,” *Nature Medicine*, vol. 25, pp. 1822–1832, 2019.
- [10] J. L. Wallace, “NSAID Gastropathy and Enteropathy,” *Pharmacology Research*, vol. 65, pp. 234–241, 2012.
- [11] S. M. K. Rates, “Plants as Source of Drugs,” *Toxicon*, vol. 39, pp. 603–613, 2001.
- [12] E. Middleton, C. Kandaswami, and T. C. Theoharides, “Effects of Flavonoids on Immune Cells,” *Pharmacological Reviews*, vol. 52, pp. 673–751, 2000.
- [13] P. K. Mukherjee, *Quality Control of Herbal Drugs*. Business Horizons, 2002.
- [14] H. P. T. Ammon, “Boswellic Acids and Anti-Inflammatory Activity,” *Planta Medica*, vol. 72, pp. 1100–1116, 2006.
- [15] B. B. Aggarwal and K. B. Harikumar, “Potential Therapeutic Effects of Curcumin,” *International Journal of Biochemistry & Cell Biology*, vol. 41, pp. 40–59, 2009.
- [16] S. Kumar and A. K. Pandey, “Chemistry and Biological Activities of Flavonoids,” *Scientific World Journal*, vol. 2013, Art. no. 162750, 2013.
- [17] M. Ekor, “The Growing Use of Herbal Medicines,” *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, vol. 4, Art. no. 177, 2014.
- [18] C. Nathan, “Points of Control in Inflammation,” *Nature*, vol. 420, pp. 846–852, 2002.
- [19] A. K. Abbas and A. H. Lichtman, *Basic Immunology*. Elsevier, 2014.
- [20] R. S. Cotran, V. Kumar, and T. Collins, *Pathologic Basis of Disease*. Saunders, 1999.
- [21] E. Ricciotti and G. A. FitzGerald, “Prostaglandins and Inflammation,” *Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology*, vol. 31, pp. 986–1000, 2011.
- [22] L. Chen, H. Deng, H. Cui et al., “Inflammatory Responses and Inflammation-Associated Diseases,” *Oncotarget*, vol. 9, pp. 7204–7218, 2018.
- [23] T. Tanaka, M. Narazaki, and T. Kishimoto, “IL-6 in Inflammation,” *Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology*, vol. 6, Art. no. a016295, 2014.
- [24] S. Reuter, S. C. Gupta, M. M. Chaturvedi, and B. B. Aggarwal, “Oxidative Stress and Inflammation,” *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, vol. 49, pp. 1603–1616, 2010.
- [25] J. R. Vane and R. M. Botting, “Mechanism of Action of Anti-Inflammatory Drugs,” *International Journal of Tissue Reaction*, vol. 20, pp. 3–15, 1998.
- [26] W. L. Smith, D. L. DeWitt, and R. M. Garavito, “Cyclooxygenases,” *Annual Review of Biochemistry*, vol. 69, pp. 145–182, 2000.
- [27] R. Grzanna, L. Lindmark, and C. G. Frondoza, “Ginger in Inflammatory Disorders,” *Journal of Medicinal Food*, vol. 8, pp. 125–132, 2005.
- [28] O. Werz, “Inhibition of 5-Lipoxygenase Product Synthesis,” *Biochemical Pharmacology*, vol. 73, pp. 327–335, 2007.
- [29] C. A. Dinarello, “Proinflammatory Cytokines,” *Chest*, vol. 118, pp. 503–508, 2000.
- [30] M. Serafini, I. Peluso, and A. Raguzzini, “Flavonoids as Anti-Inflammatory Agents,” *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, vol. 69, pp. 273–278, 2010.
- [31] T. Lawrence, “The Nuclear Factor NF- κ B Pathway,” *Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology*, vol. 1, Art. no. a001651, 2009.
- [32] C. Jobin, C. A. Bradham, M. P. Russo et al., “Curcumin Blocks Cytokine-Mediated NF- κ B Activation,” *Journal of Immunology*, vol. 163, pp. 3474–3483, 1999.
- [33] S. K. Biswas, “Does the Interdependence Between Oxidative Stress and Inflammation Explain Chronic Diseases?” *Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity*, vol. 2016, Art. no. 5698931, 2016.
- [34] B. Halliwell, “Free Radicals and Antioxidants,” *The Lancet*, vol. 344, pp. 721–724, 1994.
- [35] C. Rice-Evans, “Flavonoid Antioxidants,” *Current Medicinal Chemistry*, vol. 8, pp. 797–807, 2001.
- [36] O. O. Oyedapo and A. J. Famurewa, “Anti-Protease and Membrane Stabilizing Activities,” *International Journal of Pharmacognosy*, vol. 33, pp. 65–69, 1995.
- [37] E. M. Choi and J. K. Hwang, “Anti-Inflammatory Effects of Medicinal Plants,” *Fitoterapia*, vol. 76, pp. 232–239, 2005.
- [38] J. N. Sharma, A. Al-Omran, and S. S. Parvathy, “Role of Nitric Oxide in Inflammatory Diseases,” *Inflammopharmacology*, vol. 15, pp. 252–259, 2007.
- [39] C. A. Winter, E. A. Risley, and G. W. Nuss, “Carrageenan-Induced Edema Model,”

- Proceedings of the Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine, vol. 111, pp. 544–547, 1962.
- [40] Y. Mizushima and M. Kobayashi, “Interaction of Anti-Inflammatory Drugs with Serum Proteins,” *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, vol. 20, pp. 169–173, 1968.
- [41] R. Gandhisan, A. Thamarachelvan, and S. Baburaj, “Anti-Inflammatory Action of Plant Extracts,” *Fitoterapia*, vol. 62, pp. 82–83, 1991.
- [42] L. C. Green, D. A. Wagner, J. Glogowski et al., “Analysis of Nitrate and Nitrite,” *Analytical Biochemistry*, vol. 126, pp. 131–138, 1982.
- [43] R. Vinegar, W. Schreiber, and R. Hugo, “Biphasic Development of Carrageenan Edema,” *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, vol. 166, pp. 96–103, 1969.
- [44] K. F. Swingle and F. E. Shideman, “Phases of Inflammatory Response,” *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, vol. 183, pp. 226–234, 1972.
- [45] S. Hunskaar and K. Hole, “Formalin Test in Mice,” *Pain*, vol. 30, pp. 103–114, 1987.
- [46] J. B. Harborne and C. A. Williams, “Advances in Flavonoid Research,” *Phytochemistry*, vol. 55, pp. 481–504, 2000.
- [47] R. J. Nijveldt, E. van Nood, D. E. C. van Hoorn et al., “Flavonoids and Health,” *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, vol. 74, pp. 418–425, 2001.
- [48] T. P. T. Cushnie, B. Cushnie, and A. J. Lamb, “Alkaloids and Their Pharmacology,” *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, vol. 44, pp. 377–386, 2014.
- [49] A. E. Hagerman, *Tannin Chemistry*. Miami University Press, 2002.
- [50] K. H. Wagner and I. Elmadfa, “Biological Relevance of Terpenoids,” *Annals of Nutrition and Metabolism*, vol. 47, pp. 95–106, 2003.
- [51] S. G. Sparg, M. E. Light, and J. van Staden, “Biological Activities of Saponins,” *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 94, pp. 219–243, 2004.
- [52] J. Barnes, L. A. Anderson, and J. D. Phillipson, *Herbal Medicines*. Pharmaceutical Press, 2007.
- [53] Y. Henrotin, F. Priem, and A. Mobasher, “Curcumin in Osteoarthritis Management,” *Future Medicinal Chemistry*, vol. 5, pp. 975–993, 2013.
- [54] A. Surjushe, R. Vasani, and D. G. Saple, “Aloe Vera: A Short Review,” *Indian Journal of Dermatology*, vol. 53, pp. 163–166, 2008.
- [55] L. Langmead and D. S. Rampton, “Herbal Treatment in Gastrointestinal Diseases,” *Alimentary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, vol. 15, pp. 1239–1252, 2001.
- [56] P. Prakash and N. Gupta, “Therapeutic Uses of *Ocimum sanctum*,” *Indian Journal of Physiology and Pharmacology*, vol. 49, pp. 125–131, 2005.
- [57] S. Amor, F. Puentes, D. Baker, and P. van der Valk, “Inflammation in Neurodegenerative Diseases,” *Immunology*, vol. 129, pp. 154–169, 2010.
- [58] J. C. Tilburt and T. J. Kaptchuk, “Herbal Medicine Research and Global Health,” *BMJ*, vol. 337, Art. no. a111, 2008.
- [59] S. Li and B. Zhang, “Traditional Chinese Medicine Network Pharmacology,” *Chinese Journal of Natural Medicines*, vol. 11, pp. 110–120, 2013.
- [60] B. Patwardhan, A. D. B. Vaidya, and M. Chorghade, “Ayurveda and Natural Products,” *Current Science*, vol. 86, pp. 789–799, 2004.
- [61] World Health Organization, *Traditional Medicine Strategy 2014–2023*. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO, 2013.
- [62] S. Bent, “Herbal Medicine in the United States,” *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, vol. 23, pp. 854–859, 2008.
- [63] J. B. Calixto, “Efficacy and Safety of Herbal Medicines,” *Brazilian Journal of Medical and Biological Research*, vol. 33, pp. 179–189, 2000.
- [64] D. Yadav, S. Suri, A. A. Choudhary, and M. Sikender, “Novel Approaches in Herbal Drug Delivery,” *Journal of Pharmacy and Bioallied Sciences*, vol. 3, pp. 221–230, 2011.
- [65] A. G. Atanasov et al., “Discovery of Natural Products,” *Biotechnology Advances*, vol. 33, pp. 1582–1614, 2015.
- [66] S. H. Ansari, F. Islam, and M. Sameem, “Influence of Nanotechnology on Herbal Drugs,” *Journal of Advanced Pharmaceutical Technology & Research*, vol. 3, pp. 142–146, 2012.
- [67] E. Lionta, G. Spyrou, D. K. Vassilatis, and Z. Cournia, “Molecular Docking Techniques,” *Current Topics in Medicinal Chemistry*, vol. 14, pp. 1923–1938, 2014.
- [68] S. J. Hewlings and D. S. Kalman, “Curcumin: A Review of Its Effects,” *Foods*, vol. 6, Art. no. 92, 2017.

- [69] E. M. Williamson, "Synergy and Herbal Medicines," *Phytomedicine*, vol. 8, pp. 401–409, 2001.
- [70] B. B. Petrovska, "Historical Review of Medicinal Plants," *Pharmacognosy Reviews*, vol. 6, pp. 1–5, 2012.
- [71] O. F. Kunle, H. O. Egharevba, and P. O. Ahmadu, "Standardization of Herbal Medicines," *International Journal of Biodiversity and Conservation*, vol. 4, pp. 101–112, 2012.
- [72] D. S. Fabricant and N. R. Farnsworth, "Value of Plants in Drug Discovery," *Environmental Health Perspectives*, vol. 109, pp. 69–75, 2001.
- [73] R. Verpoorte, Y. H. Choi, and H. K. Kim, "Ethnopharmacology and Systems Biology," *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 100, pp. 53–56, 2005.
- [74] P. K. Mukherjee, M. Venkatesh, and V. Kumar, "Current Trends in Herbal Drug Research," *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 114, pp. 1–16, 2007.
- [75] B. B. Aggarwal and B. Sung, "Pharmacological Basis of Inflammation," *Trends in Pharmacological Sciences*, vol. 30, pp. 85–94, 2009.
- [76] H. P. T. Ammon, "Modulation of Inflammatory Pathways by Curcumin," *Planta Medica*, vol. 76, pp. 1590–1593, 2010.
- [77] J. C. Tilburt and F. G. Miller, "Herbal Medicine Ethics and Safety," *Mayo Clinic Proceedings*, vol. 82, pp. 1172–1178, 2007.
- [78] P. M. Barnes, B. Bloom, and R. L. Nahin, "Use of Complementary Medicine," *National Health Statistics Report*, no. 12, pp. 1–23, 2008.
- [79] D. J. Newman and G. M. Cragg, "Natural Products as Drug Sources," *Journal of Natural Products*, vol. 79, pp. 629–661, 2016.