



# Bioscene

**Bioscene**  
**Volume- 21 Number- 03**  
**ISSN: 1539-2422 (P) 2055-1583 (O)**  
[www.explorebioscene.com](http://www.explorebioscene.com)

## Natural Management of Myositis: Anti-Inflammatory Plants and Their Benefits

**Ashok Kumar B.S.**

Department Pharmacognosy, R.L. Jalappa College of Pharmacy, Sri Devaraj Urs Academy of Higher Education and Research, Tamaka, Kolar, Karnataka, India.

---

---

**Abstract:** Myositis is an inflammatory muscle disease characterized by muscle weakness, pain, and swelling, which can significantly impact a patient's quality of life. While conventional treatments such as corticosteroids and immunosuppressants are commonly used, they often come with adverse side effects and limitations. There is growing interest in natural remedies, particularly medicinal plants with anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and immune-modulating properties, as complementary therapies for managing myositis. This manuscript explores the potential benefits of several medicinal plants, including turmeric (*Curcuma longa*), ginger (*Zingiberofficinale*), Boswellia (*Boswelliaserrata*), willow bark (*Salix alba*), devil's claw (*Harpagophytumprocumbens*), ashwagandha (*Withaniasomnifera*), and green tea (*Camellia sinensis*). The anti-inflammatory compounds in these plants, such as curcumin, gingerol, boswellic acids, salicin, harpagosides, withanolides, and epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG), may help reduce muscle inflammation, pain, and oxidative stress in patients with myositis. This review highlights the current evidence supporting the use of these plants, their mechanisms of action, and their potential role as part of an integrative approach to managing myositis.

**Keywords:** Myositis, Corticosteroids, Anti-inflammatory, Medicinal plants.

---

---

### Introduction:

Myositis is a group chronic inflammatory muscle diseases, including dermatomyositis, polymyositis. Myositis characterized by muscle inflammation, weakness, and pain (Dalakas, 2015). The causes of myositis are not known, but believed to involve environmental factors, autoimmune mechanisms, and genetic predispositions (Mammen, 2010). Myositis is managed by using of immunosuppressants, corticosteroids, and other pharmacological agents which will reduce inflammation and modulate the immune response (Rider & Miller, 2010). However, these treatments often cause significant side effects, such as infections, osteoporosis, and gastrointestinal issues (Marie & Moerschel, 2014), necessitating the exploration of alternative and complementary therapies.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in alternative therapies for managing myositis, particularly medicinal plants (Panahi et al., 2016). Medicinal plants contain Bioactive compounds with antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and immunomodulatory properties that may help to improve overall muscle

function by reduce alleviate pain, and muscle inflammation (Gupta et al., 2013). Several medicinal plants, such as turmeric, ginger, Boswellia, willow bark, devil's claw, ashwagandha, and green tea, have been used traditionally for their therapeutic effects in treating inflammatory and autoimmune conditions (Aggarwal et al., 2007; Black et al., 2010; Siddiqui, 2011; Vlachojannis et al., 2009; Chrubasik et al., 2003; Sandhu et al., 2010; Cabrera et al., 2006). Emerging scientific evidence suggests that these medicinal plants may also offer significant benefits in managing myositis.

This manuscript aims to review the current understanding of the role of these medicinal plants in the natural management of myositis, highlighting their bioactive compounds, mechanisms of action, and potential therapeutic benefits. By integrating these natural remedies into the management plan, patients may experience reduced symptoms, fewer side effects, and an overall improvement in quality of life.

### **Medicinal Plant used for the management of Myositis:**

#### **1. Turmeric:**

*Curcuma longa* L., commonly known as turmeric, belongs to the family Zingiberaceae, renowned for its aromatic plants and includes other economically and medicinally significant species. The rhizomes of *Curcuma longa* are extensively utilized due to their rich content of bioactive compounds. These include non-volatile curcuminoids such as curcumin, demethoxycurcumin, and bisdemethoxycurcumin, along with volatile mono- and sesquiterpenoids (Itokawa et al., 2008; Lobo et al., 2009).

Turmeric's pharmacological properties are diverse, encompassing antiproliferative, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, antidiabetic, hypocholesterolemic, anti-thrombotic, antihepatotoxic, antidiarrheal, carminative, diuretic, antirheumatic, hypotensive, antimicrobial, antiviral, antioxidant, larvicidal, insecticidal, antivenomous, and antityrosinase effects (Wilson et al., 2005; Reanmongkol et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2010; Angel et al., 2014). Among these, the antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties of curcumin, the principal bioactive compound in turmeric, have been extensively researched.

Curcumin exhibits potent antioxidant effects due to its unique chemical structure, which includes carbon-carbon double bonds, a  $\beta$ -diketo group, and phenyl rings with hydroxyl and *o*-methoxy groups (Wright, 2002; Priyadarsini et al., 2003). These structural features enable curcumin to neutralize free radicals through hydrogen and electron donation mechanisms, as demonstrated in studies utilizing laser flash photolysis and pulse radiolysis (Jovanovic et al., 1999; Nardo et al., 2008). Curcumin scavenges various reactive oxygen species (ROS), such as superoxide radicals, hydrogen peroxide, and nitric oxide radicals, and inhibits lipid peroxidation (Ak&Gulcin 2008). Additionally, it enhances the activity of antioxidant enzymes like superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), and glutathione peroxidase (GPx), and upregulates glutathione levels by increasing

the activity of glutathione transferase (Menon & Sudheer, 2007). Curcumin also inhibits ROS-generating enzymes, including lipoxygenase (LOX), cyclooxygenase (COX), and xanthine oxidase, functioning as a chain-breaking antioxidant due to its lipophilic nature (Priyadarsini et al., 2003).

Curcumin's anti-inflammatory potential is also well-documented. It inhibits pro-inflammatory transcription factors such as nuclear factor kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) and activator protein-1 (AP-1), which are pivotal in initiating and sustaining inflammatory responses (He et al., 2015). Curcumin reduces the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, including tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ), interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 $\beta$ ), interleukin-2 (IL-2), interleukin-6 (IL-6), interleukin-8 (IL-8), macrophage inflammatory protein-1 alpha (MIP-1 $\alpha$ ), monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), C-reactive protein (CRP), and prostaglandin E2 (PGE2) (Panahi et al., 2014a). Additionally, it down-regulates inflammatory enzymes such as 5-lipoxygenase (5-LOX) and cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), and inhibits the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathways and nitric oxide synthase (NOS) (Panahi et al., 2014b; He et al., 2015). These actions underline curcumin's potential as a therapeutic agent for managing chronic inflammatory diseases.

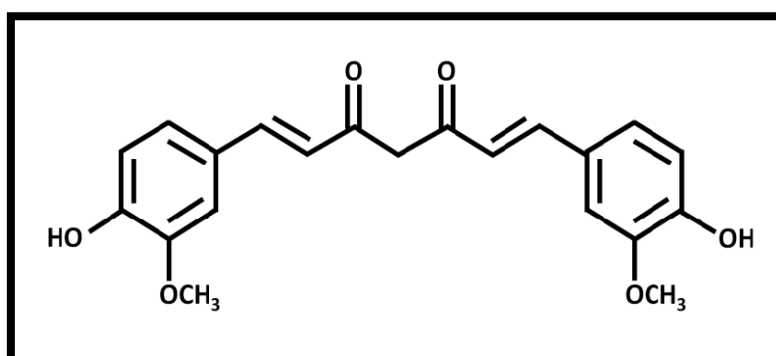


Figure 1: Curcumin

## 2. Ginger:

*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe is a widely used spice with a long history of medicinal use, dating back thousands of years. It is well-regarded in both complementary and alternative medicine, and various regulatory authorities have classified ginger as a safe herbal supplement (Vemuri et al., 2017). Traditionally, ginger has been used to treat numerous ailments, including fevers, colds, headaches, nausea, and digestive issues. It is also valued for its antibacterial, antiviral, and anti-emetic properties (Dugasani et al., 2010; Konmun et al., 2017; Lashgari et al., 2022).

Ginger contains over 200 bioactive compounds, with its primary constituents being tannins, anthocyanins, terpenes (such as  $\alpha$ -zingiberene and  $\beta$ -bisabolene), and phenolic compounds, including gingerols, paradols, shogaols, and zingerone (Semwal et al., 2015; Mao et al., 2019). Among these, gingerols, particularly 6-gingerol, are the main pungent compounds responsible for many of ginger's

pharmacological properties. Research has shown that gingerols exhibit various beneficial effects, such as anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antimicrobial, anti-cancer, and anti-diabetic properties (Liang et al., 2018; Embuscado, 2015; Hitomi et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018a; Lashgari et al., 2022).

Ginger's anti-inflammatory properties are one of its most widely studied benefits. Gingerols have been found to inhibit important inflammatory pathways, such as the nuclear factor kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) and phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI3K)/Akt signaling pathways, which play key roles in the inflammatory process (Guleria et al., 2022; Zahoor et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). By suppressing NF- $\kappa$ B activation, ginger increases anti-inflammatory cytokines and decreases pro-inflammatory cytokines, producing effects similar to non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) (Kumar et al., 2013; Aziz et al., 2015; Deng M. et al., 2022).

Ginger has been a significant component in Ayurvedic and traditional Chinese medicine for its anti-inflammatory effects. Studies dating back to the 1970s revealed that ginger can suppress prostaglandin biosynthesis, confirming its potential in treating inflammation-related conditions. These findings solidify ginger's role as a valuable natural remedy for managing inflammatory diseases (Mao et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2022).

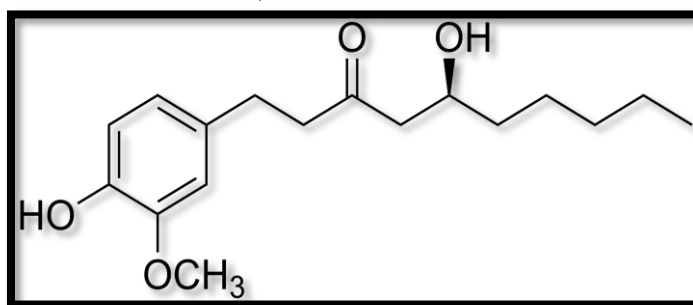


Figure 2: Gingerol

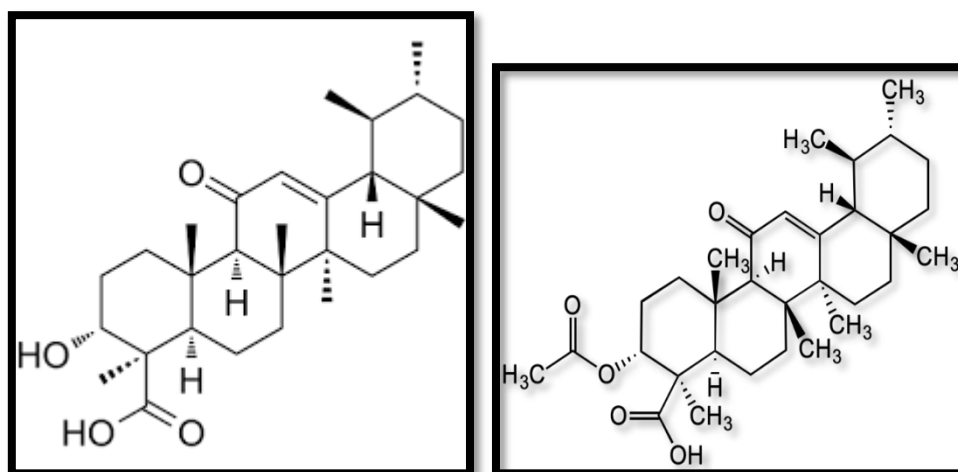
### 3. *Boswelliaserrata*:

*Boswelliaserrata* Roxb., a member of the Burseraceae family, is native to India and parts of Southeast Asia. This tree has been utilized for centuries in traditional medicine, religious rituals, and incense production. It produces an oleo-gum resin known as frankincense, renowned for its potent anti-inflammatory properties. The resin is harvested by making incisions in the tree's bark, allowing the sap to ooze out and harden into a gum. This resin contains a rich array of bioactive compounds, predominantly boswellic acids (BAs), which are responsible for its significant therapeutic effects, particularly in reducing inflammation (Basch et al., 2004; Majeed et al., 2021).

The most prominent boswellic acids include 11-keto- $\beta$ -boswellic acid (KBA) and 3-O-acetyl-11-keto- $\beta$ -boswellic acid (AKBA), which are known for their strong anti-inflammatory effects. These compounds primarily inhibit the enzyme 5-lipoxygenase (5-LO), a key player in the production of leukotrienes. Leukotrienes

are inflammatory mediators that play a central role in conditions such as asthma, rheumatoid arthritis, and inflammatory bowel disease (Weber et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2018). By blocking the 5-LO pathway, boswellic acids help reduce the formation of these pro-inflammatory molecules, thereby alleviating inflammation. In addition to 5-LO inhibition, AKBA also modulates several important signaling pathways, including the nuclear factor kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) and Nrf2/HO-1 pathways. These pathways regulate the production of inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ) and interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 $\beta$ ). By down-regulating these pathways, AKBA reduces the levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, effectively limiting inflammation and oxidative stress (Park & Kim 2011; Xiong et al., 2019; Mini et al., 2021).

Moreover, other boswellic acids, such as  $\beta$ -boswellic acid ( $\beta$ BA), exhibit anti-inflammatory effects by inhibiting enzymes like serine protease cathepsin G and microsomal prostaglandin E synthase (mPGES). Cathepsin G plays a role in tissue degradation and inflammation, while mPGES is involved in producing prostaglandin E2 (PGE2), another key mediator of inflammation (Majeed et al., 2021; Rall et al., 1996; Gilbert et al., 2020). Variations in *Boswellia* extract compositions can affect their anti-inflammatory potency. Interestingly, some extracts, despite having lower AKBA content, demonstrate higher biological activity, suggesting that other boswellic acids such as KBA and  $\beta$ BA may also significantly contribute to reducing inflammation (Mini et al., 2021).



**Figure 3:** 11-keto- $\beta$ -boswellic acid (KBA) and 3-O-acetyl-11-keto- $\beta$ -boswellic acid (AKBA)

#### 4. Willow bark

Willow bark, scientifically known as *Salix*, has been widely used for its anti-inflammatory properties for over 3500 years (Moninari et al., 2019). Ancient civilizations such as those in Egypt, South America, Greece, and China used it to treat pain and fever (Moninari et al., 2019; Levesque & Lofont 2000). Its most famous active compound, salicin, was a precursor to modern aspirin and plays a

central role in its anti-inflammatory effects (Buchner & Ueber Das 1828). However, the therapeutic action of willow bark cannot be attributed solely to salicin.

The anti-inflammatory effects of willow bark are largely due to its ability to inhibit cyclooxygenase (COX) enzymes, particularly COX-2, which are involved in prostaglandin synthesis. This inhibition reduces the production of prostaglandins, which are key mediators of inflammation and pain (Gerhardt et al., 1853). Aspirin, derived from salicin, works similarly by blocking the COX enzyme, leading to pain relief and reduced inflammation (Tanasecu et al., 2000). However, unlike aspirin, the entire willow bark extract contains other compounds such as polyphenols and flavonoids that further enhance its anti-inflammatory action (OketchRabah et al., 2019).

Research has shown that willow bark extract can reduce levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ), and prevent the nuclear translocation of NF- $\kappa$ B, a transcription factor that regulates inflammation (Bonaterro et al., 2010). These mechanisms contribute to its overall anti-inflammatory effect (Ishikado et al., 2013). In addition, willow bark has been demonstrated to inhibit the enzyme lipoxygenase, which is another key player in the inflammatory pathway (Schmid et al., 2001). By targeting multiple pathways, willow bark can reduce inflammation in conditions like osteoarthritis and rheumatoid arthritis (Vlachoiannis et al., 2011; Shara&Stohs 2015).

Flavonoids and polyphenols found in willow bark also contribute to its anti-inflammatory potential. These compounds are known to scavenge free radicals and reduce oxidative stress, which plays a role in chronic inflammation (Schmid et al., 2001). By neutralizing oxidative damage, these components help to maintain cellular integrity and prevent further inflammatory responses (Nieman et al., 2013).

The effectiveness of willow bark in treating inflammatory conditions has been the subject of several studies, with results showing its ability to relieve pain and inflammation in osteoarthritis, rheumatoid arthritis, and other inflammatory conditions (Biegert et al., 2004)

While salicin derivatives in willow bark are metabolized into salicylic acid, the concentration of salicylates in the blood after willow bark administration is often too low to produce the same effects as aspirin (Nieman et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the broader range of active compounds in willow bark, including its polyphenols and flavonoids, supports its therapeutic efficacy in reducing inflammation through mechanisms beyond COX inhibition.

Overall, willow bark's anti-inflammatory properties stem from its multi-faceted approach to inhibiting pro-inflammatory pathways, reducing oxidative stress, and providing relief from inflammation and pain. This makes it a valuable natural remedy in managing chronic inflammatory conditions, although further research is needed to fully understand its clinical efficacy (Schmid et al., 2001; Nieman et al., 2013).



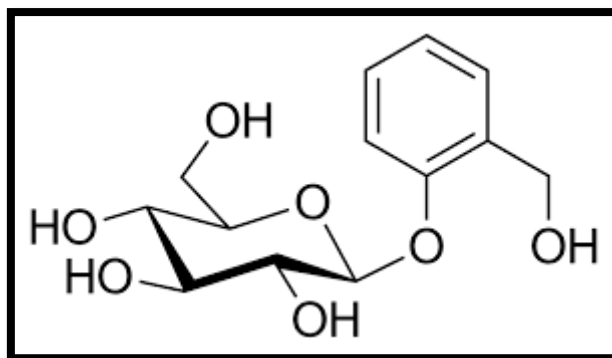


Figure 4: Salicin

### 5. Harpagophytum procumbens

Harpagophytum procumbens is commonly called as Devil's claw and native to the arid regions of southern Africa, particularly the Kalahari Desert, Namibia, and Madagascar. It thrives in dry, sandy environments, and is recognized for its distinctive "claw-like" fruits, which give the plant its name. The plant belongs to the Pedaliaceae family and is valued primarily for its tuberous roots, which have been used for centuries in traditional African medicine due to their medicinal properties (Milen et al., 2013).

Traditionally, Devil's claw has been employed to address various health concerns, including digestive issues, loss of appetite, fever, menstrual irregularities, and inflammation. It was also historically used to assist childbirth and treat more severe conditions like syphilis (Joshi et al., 2020; Steenkamp & Steenkamp, 2019). Topically, the plant's ointments were applied to heal sores, sprains, and boils, while internally, it was consumed as a bitter tonic for its reputed anti-inflammatory and digestive benefits (Mncwangi et al., 2012).

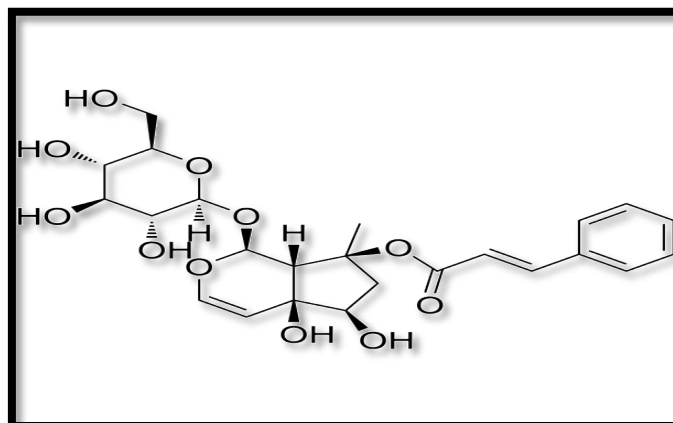
The plant contains a wide range of bioactive compounds, such as amino acids, carbohydrates, iridoids, flavonoids, and phytosterols (Muzila et al., 2018; Mncwangi et al., 2012; Pretorius et al., 2022). Notably, its tubers are rich in iridoid glycosides like harpagoside, as well as terpenoids, glycosides, and acetylated phenolics. These compounds have been explored in drug development due to their medicinal value (Sahib et al., 2019).

Devil's claw has shown significant anti-inflammatory, analgesic, antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, and anticancer properties, making it a promising alternative to non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) for managing inflammatory conditions and degenerative rheumatic diseases (Akhtar & Haqqi, 2012; Mundy & Ncube, 2014). It has also been used for treating blood disorders, fevers, sprains, and various rheumatic conditions (Shedayi et al., 2014), and is marketed as a dietary supplement for arthritis relief (Mariano et al., 2020).

The primary active compound, harpagoside, is an iridoid glycoside with potent anti-inflammatory and analgesic effects. Both harpagoside itself and extracts from Harpagophytum procumbens have been demonstrated to have anti-rheumatic properties. The European Pharmacopoeia stipulates that commercial Devil's claw



products must contain at least 1.2% harpagoside to ensure therapeutic effectiveness (Milen et al., 2013).



**Figure 5:** Harpagoside

## 5. *Camellia sinensis*

Green tea, a popular beverage made from the leaves of *Camellia sinensis*, contains high levels of bioactive polyphenols, including catechins, flavones, and flavonols. These phenolic compounds make up approximately 30% of green tea's dry weight, with catechins accounting for about 15% and flavonols 0.4% (Graham 1992; Peterson et al., 2005). The flavonols and flavones in green tea include myricetin, quercetin, apigenin, and kaempferol, which primarily exist as glycosides (Peterson et al., 2005; Monobe et al., 2015). The content and composition of these compounds can vary depending on the tea cultivar (Wu et al., 2012; Jian et al., 2015).

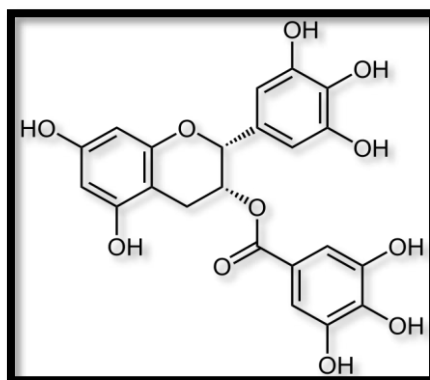
Flavonols have been shown to exhibit several health benefits, including anticancer properties, by inhibiting the growth of cancer cells, reducing angiogenesis, and promoting apoptosis (Lea et al., 2015). In addition to their anticancer effects, flavonols have antioxidative and antihyperlipidemic properties, which have been demonstrated in various studies (Semwal et al., 2016; Nomura et al., 2016). Regular consumption of green tea has been linked to an increase in plasma antioxidant capacity (Rietveld & Wiseman 2003), and flavonol supplementation has shown positive effects on cardiometabolic risk factors, such as reducing levels of triacylglycerol, total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein (LDL), fasting plasma glucose, and blood pressure, while increasing high-density lipoprotein (HDL) levels (Menezes et al., 2017).

Flavonol glycosides, which are present in green tea, generally have weaker antioxidative effects compared to their aglycone counterparts (Plumb et al., 1999). Green tea has also been studied for other health-promoting functions, including weight regulation, protection against ultraviolet radiation, maintenance

of bone mineral density, and its antibacterial, antihypertensive, antifibrotic, and neuroprotective activities (Cabrera et al., 2006; Khan & Mukhtar 2007).

Inflammation is a critical factor in many health conditions, and the anti-inflammatory effects of green tea and its catechins, particularly (-)-epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG), have been widely researched. EGCG is the most active catechin in green tea and has shown powerful anti-inflammatory effects. For example, EGCG can reduce the production of interleukin-8 (IL-8) in airway epithelial cells, which helps reduce respiratory inflammation (FerroeroMiliani et al., 2007). This is achieved by inhibiting neutrophil recruitment and preventing the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS). EGCG also blocks IL-1 $\beta$ -induced activation of NF- $\kappa$ B, a key transcription factor in inflammatory processes (Bogdanski et al., 2012).

Additionally, EGCG has been found to down-regulate the JAK1/2 tyrosine kinase pathway, which reduces the expression of pro-inflammatory genes induced by interferon-gamma (IFN- $\gamma$ ) in vascular endothelial cells (Park 2012). These findings highlight the potent anti-inflammatory properties of green tea, making it a promising natural agent for managing inflammation and related diseases. discuss only anti-inflammatory.



**Figure 5:** Epigallocatechin-3-gallate

### **Conclusion:**

The exploration of medicinal plants such as turmeric, ginger, Boswellia, willow bark, devil's claw, ashwagandha, and green tea offers promising potential as complementary therapies for managing myositis. These plants contain bioactive compounds like curcumin, gingerol, boswellic acids, salicin, harpagosides, withanolides, and EGCG, which exhibit anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and immune-modulating properties. Current evidence suggests that these compounds can reduce muscle inflammation, pain, and oxidative stress, thereby improving symptoms and possibly enhancing the quality of life for patients with myositis. While more rigorous clinical trials are needed to confirm these benefits, integrating such natural remedies with conventional treatments may offer a

holistic approach to managing this debilitating condition, minimizing the adverse effects of standard therapies and providing a more sustainable long-term management strategy.

#### References:

- Aggarwal, B. B., Sundaram, C., Malani, N., & Ichikawa, H. (2007). "Curcumin: The Indian Solid Gold." *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology*, vol. 595, pp. 1–75.
- Akhtar, N., & Haqqi, T. M. (2012). Current nutraceuticals in the management of osteoarthritis: A review. *Therapeutic Advances in Musculoskeletal Disease*, 4, 181–207.
- Ak, T., & Gulcin, I. (2008). "Antioxidant and radical scavenging properties of curcumin." *Chemico-Biological Interactions*, vol. 174, pp. 27–37.
- Angle L, W., Subhadhirasakul, S., Khaisombat, N., Fuengnawakit, P., Jantasila, S., & Khamjun, A. (2006). "Investigation of the antinociceptive, antipyretic and anti-inflammatory activities of *Curcuma aeruginosa* Roxb. extracts in experimental animals." *Songklanakarin Journal of Science and Technology*, vol. 28, pp. 999–1008.
- Angel, G. R., Menon, N., Vimala, B., & Nambisan, B. (2014). "Essential oil composition of eight starchy *Curcuma* species." *Industrial Crops and Products*, vol. 60, pp. 233–238.
- Aziz, D. M., Wsoo, M. A., & Ibrahim, B. M. (2015). Antimicrobial and antioxidant activities of extracts from medicinal plant ginger (*Zingiber officinale*) and identification of components by gas chromatography. *African Journal of Plant Science*, 9(10), 412–420.
- Black, C. D., Herring, M. P., Hurley, D. J., & O'Connor, P. J. (2010). "Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*) Reduces Muscle Pain Caused by Eccentric Exercise." *The Journal of Pain*, vol. 11, no. 9, pp. 894–903.
- Basch, E., Boon, H., Davies-Heerema, T., Foppa, I., Hashmi, S., Hasskarl, J., Kaptchuk, T. J., Smith, M., Sollars, D., & Szapary, P. (2004). *Boswellia*: an evidence-based systematic review by the natural standard research collaboration. *Journal of Herb Pharmacotherapy*, 4(3), 63–83.
- Biegert, C., Wagner, I., Lüdtkke, R., Kötter, I., Lohmüller, C., Günaydin, I., Taxis, K., & Heide, L. (2004). Efficacy and safety of willow bark extract in the treatment of osteoarthritis and rheumatoid arthritis: Results of 2 randomized double-blind controlled trials. *Journal of Rheumatology*, 31, 2121–2130.
- Bonaterra, G. A., Heinrich, E. U., Kelber, O., Weiser, D., Metz, J., & Kinscherf, R. (2010). Anti-inflammatory effects of the willow bark extract STW 33-I (Proaktiv®) in LPS-activated human monocytes and differentiated macrophages. *Phytomedicine*, 17, 1106–1113.

- Buchner, A. (1828). Ueber das Rigatellische Fiebermittel und übereine in der Weidenrinde entdeckte Alcaloidische Substanz. *Repertorium für die Pharmacie*, 29, 405–420.
- Bogdanski, P., Suliburska, J., Szulinska, M., Stepień, M., Pupek-Musialik, D., & Jablecka, A. (2012). Green tea extract reduces blood pressure, inflammatory biomarkers, and oxidative stress and improves parameters associated with insulin resistance in obese, hypertensive patients. *Nutrition Research*, 32, 421–427.
- Cabrera, C., Artacho, R., & Gimenez, R. (2006). Beneficial effects of green tea—A review. *Journal of the American College of Nutrition*, 25, 79–99.
- Chrubasik, S., Roufogalis, B. D., Wagner, H., & Chrubasik, C. (2003). "A Systematic Review of the Effectiveness of *Harpagophytum procumbens* (Devil's Claw) for Pain Relief." *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 17, no. 5, pp. 597–604.
- Dalakas, M. C. (2015). "Inflammatory Muscle Diseases." *New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 372, pp. 1734–1747.
- Deng, M., Yun, X., Ren, S., Qing, Z., & Luo, F. (2022). Plants of the genus *Zingiber*: A review of their ethnomedicine, phytochemistry and pharmacology. *Molecules*, 27, 2826.
- De Lima, V. B., Ribeiro, M. F., Carpilovsky, C. K., Carpilovsky, P. K., & Krause, L. M. F. (2020). Devil's claw: Action on the central nervous system. *Disciplinarum Scientia*, 21, 65–72.
- Diaz-Silveira, G. L., Deutsch, J., & Little, D. P. (2021). DNA Barcode Authentication of Devil's Claw Herbal Dietary Supplements. *Plants*, 10, 2005.
- Dugasani, S., Pichika, M. R., Nadarajah, V. D., Balijepalli, M. K., Tandra, S., & Korlakunta, J. N. (2010). Comparative antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects of [6]-gingerol, [8]-gingerol, [10]-gingerol and [6]-shogaol. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 127(2), 515–520.
- Embuscado, M. E. (2015). Spices and herbs: Natural sources of antioxidants—A mini review. *Journal of Functional Foods*, 18, 811–819.
- Ferrero-Miliani, L., Nielsen, O., Andersen, P., & Girardin, S. (2007). Chronic inflammation: Importance of NOD2 and NALP3 in interleukin-1 $\beta$  generation. *Clinical and Experimental Immunology*, 147, 227–235.
- Graham, H. N. (1992). Green tea composition, consumption, and polyphenol chemistry. *Preventive Medicine*, 21, 334–350.
- Gupta, S. C., Patchva, S., & Aggarwal, B. B. (2013). "Therapeutic Roles of Curcumin: Lessons Learned from Clinical Trials." *The AAPS Journal*, vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 195–218.
- Gerhardt, C. (1853). *Recherches sur les acides organiques anhydres*. *Annales de Chimie et de Physique*, 37, 285–342.

- Guleria, A., Kamboj, A., Kaushal, J., Anupam, K., & Bhatnagar, A. (2022). A molecular insight into the significance of functional foods in better management of rheumatoid arthritis. *Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia*.
- Gilbert, S. F., Quinn, M. T., & McCormick, B. A. (2020). Role of leukocyte esterase and cathepsin G in human inflammatory disease. *Current Biology*, 30(7), 1067–1076.
- He, Y., Yue, Y., Zheng, X., Zhang, K., Chen, S., & Du, Z. (2015). "Curcumin, inflammation, and chronic diseases: how are they linked?" *Molecules*, vol. 20, pp. 9183–9213.
- Hitomi, S., Ono, K., Terawaki, K., Matsumoto, C., Mizuno, K., Yamaguchi, K., Tsuchiya, S., & Taga, Y. (2017). [6]-Gingerol and [6]-shogaol, active ingredients of the traditional Japanese medicine hangeshashinto, relieve oral ulcerative mucositis-induced pain via action on Na<sup>+</sup> channels. *Pharmacological Research*, 117, 288–302.
- Ho, S. C., & Chang, Y. H. (2018). Comparison of inhibitory capacities of 6-, 8-, and 10-gingerols/shogaols on the canonical NLRP3 inflammasome-mediated IL-1 $\beta$  secretion. *Molecules*, 23(2), 466.
- Itokawa, H., Shi, Q., Akiyama, T., Morris-Natschke, S. L., & Lee, K. H. (2008). "Recent advances in the investigation of curcuminoids." *Chinese Medicine*, vol. 3, pp. 11.
- Ishikado, A., Sono, Y., Matsumoto, M., Robida-Stubbs, S., Okuno, A., Goto, M., King, G. L., Keith Blackwell, T., & Makino, T. (2013). Willow bark extract increases antioxidant enzymes and reduces oxidative stress through activation of Nrf2 in vascular endothelial cells and *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, 65, 1506–1515.
- Jiang, H., Engelhardt, U. H., Thrane, C., Maiwald, B., & Stark, J. (2015). Determination of flavonol glycosides in green tea, oolong tea and black tea by UHPLC compared to HPLC. *Food Chemistry*, 183, 30–35.
- Joshi, K., Parrish, A., Grunz-Borgmann, E. A., Gerkovich, M., & Folk, W. R. (2020). Toxicology studies of aqueous-alcohol extracts of *Harpagophytum procumbens* subsp. *procumbens* (Burch.) DC. Ex Meisn. (Pedaliaceae) in female and male rats. *BMC Complementary Medicine and Therapies*, 20, 9.
- Jovanovic, S. V., Steenken, S., Boone, C. W., & Simic, M. G. (1999). "H-Atom Transfer is a Preferred Antioxidant Mechanism of Curcumin." *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, vol. 121, pp. 9677–9681.
- Khan, N., & Mukhtar, H. (2007). Tea polyphenols for health promotion. *Life Sciences Advances in Experimental Clinical Endocrinology*, 81, 519–533.
- Konmun, J., Danwilai, K., Ngamphaiboon, N., Sripanidkulchai, B., Sookprasert, A., & Subongkot, S. (2017). A phase II randomized double-blind placebo-controlled study of 6-gingerol as an anti-emetic in solid

tumor patients receiving moderately to highly emetogenic chemotherapy. *Medical Oncology*, 34(4), 69.

- Kumar, S., Saxena, K., Singh, U. N., & Saxena, R. (2013). Anti-inflammatory action of ginger: A critical review in anemia of inflammation and its future aspects. *International Journal of Herbal Medicine*, 1(4), 16–20.
- Lashgari, N. A., MomeniRoudsari, N., Khayatan, D., Shayan, M., Momtaz, S., Roufogalis, B. D., & Rahimi, R. (2022). Ginger and its constituents: Role in treatment of inflammatory bowel disease. *Biofactors*, 48(1), 7–21.
- Lea, M. A. (2015). Flavonol regulation in tumor cells. *Journal of Cellular Biochemistry*, 116, 1190–1194.
- Levesque, H., & Lafont, O. (2000). Aspirin throughout the ages: A historical review. *Revue de Medecine Interne*, 21(Suppl. S1), 8s–17s.
- Ley-Martínez, J. S., Ortega-Valencia, J. E., García-Barradas, O., Jiménez-Fernández, M., Uribe-Lam, E., Vencedor-Meraz, C. I., Delgado-Ochoa, D., Rodríguez-González, M. C., & Bravo-Cuellar, A. (2022). Active compounds in *Zingiberofficinale* as possible redox inhibitors of 5-lipoxygenase using an in silico approach. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 23, 6093.
- Liang, N., Sang, Y., Liu, W., Yu, W., & Wang, X. (2018). Anti-inflammatory effects of gingerol on lipopolysaccharide-stimulated RAW 264.7 cells by inhibiting NF- $\kappa$ B signaling pathway. *Inflammation*, 41(3), 835–848.
- Lin, C.-M., Sheu, S.-R., Hsu, S.-C., & Tsai, Y.-H. (2010). Determination of bactericidal efficacy of essential oil extracted from orange peel on the food contact surfaces. *Food Control*, vol. 21, pp. 1710–1715.
- Lobo, R., Prabhu, K. S., Shirwaikar, A., & Shirwaikar, A. (2009). *Curcuma zedoaria* Rosc. (white turmeric): a review of its chemical, pharmacological and ethnomedicinal properties. *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, vol. 61, pp. 13–21.
- Majeed, M., Nagabhushanam, K., Lawrence, L., Nallathambi, R., Thiyagarajan, V., & Mundkur, L. (2021). *Boswelliaserrata* extract containing 30% 3-acetyl-11-keto-boswellic acid attenuates inflammatory mediators and preserves extracellular matrix in collagen-induced arthritis. *Frontiers in Physiology*, 12, 735247.
- Mammen, A. L. Autoimmune Myopathies: Autoantibodies, Phenotypes, and Pathogenesis. *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, vol. 125, no. 2, 2010, pp. S193–S199.
- Mao, Q. Q., Xu, X. Y., Cao, S. Y., Gan, R. Y., Corke, H., Beta, T., & Li, H. B. (2019). Bioactive compounds and bioactivities of ginger (*Zingiberofficinale* Roscoe). *Foods*, 8(6), 185.
- Marie, I., & Moerschel, S. K. (2014). Treatment of Polymyositis and Dermatomyositis. *American Family Physician*, vol. 89, no. 3, pp. 237–245.
- Mariano, A., Di Sotto, A., Leopizzi, M., Garzoli, S., Di Maio, V., Gullì, M., Dalla Vedova, P., Ammendola, S., & Scotto d'Abusco, A. (2020). Antiarthritic



effects of a root extract from *Harpagophytum procumbens* DC: Novel insights into the molecular mechanisms and possible bioactive phytochemicals. *Nutrients*, 12, 2545.

- Menon, V. P., & Sudheer, A. R. (2007). Antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties of curcumin. *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology*, vol. 595, pp. 105–125.
- Menezes, R., Rodriguez-Mateos, A., Kaltsatou, A., Gonzalez-Sarrias, A., Greyling, A., Giannaki, C., Andres-Lacueva, C., Milenkovic, D., Gibney, E. R., Dumont, J., et al. (2017). Impact of flavonols on cardiometabolic biomarkers: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled human trials to explore the role of inter-individual variability. *Nutrients*, 9, 117.
- Milen IG, Nina I, Kalina A, Petya D, Robert V. (2013). Harpagoside: from Kalahari Desert to Pharmacy Shelf. *Phytochemistry*, 92, 8–15.
- Minj, A., Mishra, A. K., Pandey, D., & Pandey, M. (2021). Boswelliaserrata and its components inhibit NF- $\kappa$ B activation and inflammation. *Phytotherapy Research*, 35(6), 3062–3070.
- Minj, A., Mishra, A. K., Pandey, D., & Pandey, M. (2021). Comparative antioxidant and anti-inflammatory potential of Boswelliaserrata extracts. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 278, 114291.
- Mncwangi, N. P., Chen, W., Vermaak, I., Viljoen, A. M., & Gericke, N. (2012). Devil's claw—A review of the ethnobotany, phytochemistry and biological activity of *Harpagophytum procumbens*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 143, 755–771.
- Monobe, M., Nomura, S., Ema, K., Matsunaga, A., Nesumi, A., Yoshida, K., Maeda-Yamamoto, M., & Horie, H. (2015). Quercetin glycosides-rich tea cultivars (*Camellia sinensis* L.) in Japan. *Food Science and Technology Research*, 21, 333–340.
- Montinari, M. R., Minelli, S., & De Caterina, R. (2019). The first 3500 years of aspirin history from its roots—A concise summary. *Vascular Pharmacology*, 113, 1–8.
- Mundy, P. J., & Ncube, S. F. (2014). Devil's claw—A natural substitute for diclofenac? *Vulture News*, 67, 43–47.
- Muzila, M., Ekholm, A., Nybom, H., Widén, C., & Rumpunen, K. (2018). *Harpagophytum* germplasm varies in tuber peel and pulp content of important phenylpropanoids and iridoids. *South African Journal of Botany*, 115, 153–160.
- Nieman, D. C., Shanely, R. A., Luo, B., Dew, D., Meaney, M. P., & Sha, W. (2013). A commercialized dietary supplement alleviates joint pain in community adults: A double-blind, placebo-controlled community trial. *Nutrition Journal*, 12, 154.



- Oketch-Rabah, H. A., Marles, R. J., Jordan, S. A., & Low Dog, T. (2019). United States Pharmacopeia safety review of willow bark. *Planta Medica*, 85, 1192–1202.
- Park, S. Y., & Kim, D. S. (2011). Discovery of natural products from *Boswelliaserrata* that inhibit NF $\kappa$ B activity. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 136(1), 207–212.
- Peterson, J., Dwyer, J., Bhagwat, S., Haytowitz, D., Holden, J., Eldridge, A. L., Beecher, G., & Aladesanmi, J. (2005). Major flavonoids in dry tea. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*, 18, 487–501.
- Pretorius, E., Mncwangi, N. P., Kabongo, R. M., Chen, W., Vermaak, I., van der Bank, M., & Viljoen, A. M. (2022). A quality control perspective on Devil's claw, *Harpagophytumprocumbens* and *H. zeyheri*: Phytochemical analysis and DNA barcoding. *South African Journal of Botany*, 146, 90–100.
- Nardo, L., Paderno, R., Andreoni, A., Másson, M., Haukvik, T., & Tønnesen, H. H. (2008). Role of H-bond formation in the photoreactivity of curcumin. *Spectroscopy*, vol. 22, pp. 187–198.
- Nomura, S., Monobe, M., Ema, K., Matsunaga, A., Maeda-Yamamoto, M., & Horie, H. (2016). Effects of flavonol-rich green tea cultivar (*Camellia sinensis* L.) on plasma oxidized LDL levels in hypercholesterolemic mice. *Bioscience, Biotechnology, and Biochemistry*, 80, 360–362.
- Panahi, Y., Badeli, R., Karami, G. R., & Sahebkar, A. (2016). Curcuminoids Modify Disease Activity in Myositis Patients: A Randomized Double-Blind Placebo-Controlled Trial. *Clinical Nutrition*, vol. 35, no. 2, pp. 303–309.
- Panahi, Y., Rahimnia, A. R., Sharafi, M., Alishiri, G., Saburi, A., & Sahebkar, A. (2014a). Curcuminoid treatment for knee osteoarthritis: a randomized double-blind placebo-controlled trial. *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 28, pp. 1625–1631.
- Panahi, Y., Khalili, N., Hosseini, M. S., Abbasinazari, M., & Sahebkar, A. (2014b). Lipid-modifying effects of adjunctive therapy with curcuminoids–piperine combination in patients with metabolic syndrome: Results of a randomized controlled trial. *Complementary Therapies in Medicine*, 22, 851–857.
- Park, H. J., Lee, J. Y., Chung, M. Y., Park, Y. K., Bower, A. M., Koo, S. I., Giardina, C., & Bruno, R. S. (2012). Green tea extract suppresses NF- $\kappa$ B activation and inflammatory responses in diet-induced obese rats with non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. *Journal of Nutrition*, 142, 57–63.
- Plumb, G. W., Price, K. R., & Williamson, G. (1999). Antioxidant properties of flavonol glycosides from tea. *Redox Report*, 4, 13–16.
- Priyadarsini, K. I., Maity, D. K., Naik, G. H., Kumar, M. S., Unnikrishnan, M. K., Satav, J. G., & Mohan, H. (2003). Role of phenolic O-H and methylene hydrogen on the free radical reactions and antioxidant activity of curcumin. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, 35, 475–484.

- Rall, B., Doring, G., & Worlitzsch, D. (1996). Interaction between the human polymorphonuclear leukocyte and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in the cystic fibrosis lung: role of serine proteases. *Infection and Immunity*, 64(11), 4815–4821.
- Rall, B., Doring, G., & Worlitzsch, D. (2015). The role of proteases and oxidants in chronic lung disease. *Current Biology*, 25, 219–223.
- Rider, L. G., & Miller, F. W. (2010). Deciphering the Clinical Presentations of the Idiopathic Inflammatory Myopathies. *The Journal of the American Medical Association*, vol. 304, no. 2, pp. 183–190.
- Rietveld, A., & Wiseman, S. (2003). Antioxidant effects of tea: Evidence from human clinical trials. *Journal of Nutrition*, 133, 3285S–3292S.
- Schmid, B., Kötter, I., & Heide, L. (2001). Pharmacokinetics of salicin after oral administration of a standardised willow bark extract. *European Journal of Clinical Pharmacology*, 57, 387–391.
- Schmid, B., Lüdtke, R., Selbmann, H. K., Kötter, I., Tschirdewahn, B., Schaffner, W., & Heide, L. (2001). Efficacy and tolerability of a standardized willow bark extract in patients with osteoarthritis: Randomized placebo-controlled, double-blind clinical trial. *Phytotherapy Research*, 15, 344–350.
- Semwal, D. K., Semwal, R. B., Combrinck, S., & Viljoen, A. (2016). Myricetin: A dietary molecule with diverse biological activities. *Nutrients*, 8, 90.
- Shara, M., & Stohs, S. J. (2015). Efficacy and safety of white willow bark (*Salix alba*) extracts. *Phytotherapy Research*, 29, 1112–1116.
- Shedayi, A. A., Xu, M., & Gulraiz, B. (2014). Traditional medicinal uses of plants in Gilgit-Baltistan, Pakistan. *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, 8, 992–1004.
- Steenkamp, P. A., & Steenkamp, L. H. (2019). UPLC–MS profiling, identification of major peaks and comparison of *Harpagophytum procumbens* extracts from different locations. *South African Journal of Botany*, 124, 138–143.
- Samad, M. B., Mohsin, M. N. A., Razu, B. A., Hossain, M. T., Mahzabeen, S., Unnoor, N., Hoque, M. S., Alam, M. A., & Hossain, M. A. (2017). [6]-Gingerol, from *Zingiber officinale*, potentiates GLP-1 mediated glucose-stimulated insulin secretion pathway in pancreatic-cells and increases RAB8/RAB10-regulated membrane presentation of GLUT4 transporters in skeletal muscle to improve hyperglycemia in *Lepr<sup>db/db</sup>* type 2 diabetic mice. *BMC Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 17(1), 395.
- Sandhu, J. S., Shah, B., Shenoy, S., Chauhan, S., Lavekar, G. S., & Padhi, M. M. (2010). Effects of *Withania somnifera* (Ashwagandha) on Physical Performance and Cardiorespiratory Endurance in Healthy Young Adults. *International Journal of Ayurveda Research*, vol. 1, no. 3, pp. 144–149.

- Siddiqui, M. Z. (2011). *Boswellia Serrata*, A Potential Anti-inflammatory Agent: An Overview. *Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, vol. 73, no. 3, pp. 255–261.
- Smith, N. C., Christian, S. L., Taylor, R. G., Santander, J., & Rise, M. L. (2018). Immune modulatory properties of 6-gingerol and resveratrol in Atlantic salmon macrophages. *Molecular Immunology*, 95, 10–19.
- Tanasescu, S., Lévesque, H., & Thuillez, C. (2000). Pharmacology of aspirin. *Revue de Medecine Interne*, 21(Suppl. S1), 18s–26s.
- Vemuri, S. K., Banala, R. R., Subbaiah, G. P., Srivastava, S. K., Gurava Reddy, A. V., & Malarvili, T. (2017). Anti-cancer potential of a mix of natural extracts of turmeric, ginger and garlic: A cell-based study. *Egyptian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 4, 332–344.
- Vlachojannis, J. E., Cameron, M., & Chrubasik, S. (2009). A Systematic Review on the Effectiveness of Willow Bark for Musculoskeletal Pain. *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 23, no. 7, pp. 897–900.
- Vlachojannis, J., Magora, F., & Chrubasik, S. (2011). Willow species and aspirin: Different mechanism of actions. *Phytotherapy Research*, 25, 1102–1104.
- Wang, Q., Wei, Q., Yang, Q., Cao, X., Li, Q., Shi, F., & Zhang, Y. (2018). A novel formulation of [6]-gingerol: Proliposomes with enhanced oral bioavailability and antitumor effect. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 535(1–2), 308–315.
- Wang, W., Wang, X., Ye, B., & Bai, W. (2018). Anti-inflammatory activity of 3-acetyl-11-keto- $\beta$ -boswellic acid. *European Journal of Pharmacology*, 828, 97–104.
- Weber, C. C., Reising, K., Muller, W. E., Schubert-Zsilavec, M., & Abdel-Tawab, M. (2006). Modulation of P-glycoprotein-mediated drug transport by boswellic acids from *Boswelliaserrata*. *Planta Medica*, 72(6), 507–513.
- Wilson, B., Abraham, G., Manju, V. S., Mathew, M., Vimala, B., Sundaresan, S., & Nambisan, B. (2005). Antimicrobial activity of *Curcuma zedoaria* and *Curcuma malabarica* tubers. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 99(1), 147–151.
- Wright, J. S. (2002). Predicting the antioxidant activity of curcumin and curcuminoids. *Journal of Molecular Structure: THEOCHEM*, 591, 207–217.
- Wu, C., Xu, H., Heritier, J., & Andlauer, W. (2012). Determination of catechins and flavonol glycosides in Chinese tea varieties. *Food Chemistry*, 132, 144–149.
- Xiong, W., Zeng, Y., Wu, Q., & Jiang, S. (2019). Inhibition of TNF- $\alpha$  and NF- $\kappa$ B by boswellic acid attenuates inflammation in rheumatoid arthritis models. *International Immunopharmacology*, 71, 241–249.

- Zahoor, A., Yang, C., Yang, Y., Guo, Y., Zhang, T., Jiang, K., & Liu, M. (2020). 6-Gingerol exerts anti-inflammatory effects and protective properties on LTA-induced mastitis. *Phytomedicine*, 76, 153248.
- Zhang, M., Zhao, R., Wang, D., Wang, L., Zhang, Q., Wei, S., & Wang, Y. (2021). Ginger (*Zingiberofficinale*Rosc.) and its bioactive components are potential resources for health beneficial agents. *Phytotherapy Research*, 35(2), 711–742.
- Zhou, X., Münch, G., Wohlmuth, H., Afzal, S., Kao, M. T., Al-Khazaleh, A., & Greish, Y. (2022). Synergistic inhibition of pro-inflammatory pathways by ginger and turmeric extracts in RAW 264.7 cells. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 13, 818166.