



Medicinal plant raw materials and phytopreparations in the therapy of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract

D.I. Shishkalov¹, V.V. Artemyeva¹, I.N. Zilfikarov^{1,2}, E.V. Avdeeva³, V.A. Kurkin³

¹ Maykop State Technological University,
191 Pervomayskaya Str., Maykop, Russia, 385000

² All-Russian Scientific Research Institute of Medicinal and Aromatic Plants,
7 Grin Str., Bldg. 1, Moscow, Russia, 117216

³ Samara State Medical University,
89 Chapayevskaya Str., Samara, Russia, 443099

E-mail: hitmanapp@mail.ru

Received 10 Oct 2025

After peer review 01 Dec 2025

Accepted 20 Jan 2026

The aim. To analyze and summarize modern scientific data on the use of medicinal plant raw materials as a source of biologically active substances and herbal medicines (phytopreparations) in the therapy of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract.

Materials and methods. The search for scientific data was carried out in international scientific electronic databases Google Scholar, Science Direct, PubMed, elibrary.ru and cyberleninka.ru. Publications for the period from 2010 to 2025 were studied. This review includes 446 sources of scientific information.

Results. Chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract (CIDKUT) are becoming an increasingly important problem and require special attention. Modern medicine and pharmacy have a variety of official medicinal plant raw materials (MPRMs) at their disposal, which are a source of biologically active substances (BASs) and phytopreparations for the treatment and prevention of kidney diseases. In addition, new promising plant objects are being actively studied. The presented results of preclinical phytochemical and pharmacological, as well as clinical studies, reliably indicate the presence of a significant influence of the identified BASs, in particular, components of essential oils and phenolic compounds, on the main links of pathogenesis and on the development of diuretic, anti-inflammatory, uroseptic, litholytic and antilithogenic effects. All of the above stimulates the development of new combined phytopreparations, for which various approaches have been noted in their standardization, the choice of methods for analyzing leading and related BAS.

Conclusion. The review examines and analyzes the current state of research in the field of using MPRM as a source of BASs of phytopreparations in the treatment of CIDKUT. It is shown that key classes of BAS of terpenoid and phenolic nature have anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, diuretic, litholytic and antilithogenic effects. A number of promising non-pharmacopoeial types of MPRMs have been identified: true bedstraw herb, annual sunflower roots, rosehip roots, angelica rhizomes and roots, cranberry fruits, which have extensive empirical experience in folk medicine, as well as the results of laboratory chemical and preclinical studies.

Keywords: chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract; biologically active substances; components of essential oils; phenolic compounds; single-component phytopreparations; combined phytopreparations; phytotherapy; diuretic activity; antibacterial activity; anti-inflammatory activity; litholytic activity; antilithogenic activity; promising sources of phytopreparations

Abbreviations: CIDKUT — chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract; PMs — pathogenic microorganisms; MPRMs — medicinal plant raw materials; BASs — biologically active substances; MP — medicinal product.

For citation: D.I. Shishkalov, V.V. Artemyeva, I.N. Zilfikarov, E.V. Avdeeva, V.A. Kurkin. Medicinal plant raw materials and phytopreparations in the therapy of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract. *Pharmacy & Pharmacology*. 2026;14(1):31-80. DOI: 10.19163/2307-9266-2026-14-1-31-80

© Д.И. Шишкалов, В.В. Артемьева, И.Н. Зилфикаров, Е.В. Авдеева, В.А. Куркин, 2026

Для цитирования: Д.И. Шишкалов, В.В. Артемьева, И.Н. Зилфикаров, Е.В. Авдеева, В.А. Куркин. Лекарственное растительное сырье и фитопрепараты в терапии хронических инфекционно-воспалительных заболеваний почек и мочевыводящих путей. *Фармация и фармакология*. 2026;14(1):31-80. DOI: 10.19163/2307-9266-2026-14-1-31-80

Лекарственное растительное сырье и фитопрепараты в терапии хронических инфекционно-воспалительных заболеваний почек и мочевыводящих путей

Д.И. Шишкалов¹, В.В. Артемьева¹, И.Н. Зилфикаров^{1,2}, Е.В. Авдеева³, В.А. Куркин³

¹ Федеральное государственное бюджетное образовательное учреждение высшего образования «Майкопский государственный технологический университет», 385000, Россия, Республика Адыгея, г. Майкоп, ул. Первомайская, д. 191

² Федеральное государственное бюджетное научное учреждение «Всероссийский научно-исследовательский институт лекарственных и ароматических растений», 117216, Россия, г. Москва, ул. Грина, д. 7, стр. 1

³ Федеральное государственное бюджетное образовательное учреждение высшего образования «Самарский государственный медицинский университет» Министерства здравоохранения Российской Федерации, 443099, Россия, г. Самара, ул. Чапаевская, д. 89

E-mail: hitmanapp@mail.ru

Получена 10.10.2025

После рецензирования 01.12.2025

Принята к печати 20.01.2026

Цель. Проанализировать и обобщить современные научные данные о применении лекарственного растительного сырья как источника биологически активных веществ и лекарственных средств растительного происхождения (фитопрепаратов) в терапии хронических инфекционно-воспалительных заболеваний почек и мочевыводящих путей.

Материалы и методы. Поиск научных данных осуществляли в международных электронных базах Google Scholar, Science Direct, PubMed, elibrary.ru и cyberleninka.ru. Основной массив научных публикаций охватывал оригинальные статьи за период с 2010 по 2025 гг. В настоящий обзор включено 446 источников научной информации.

Результаты. Хронические инфекционно-воспалительные заболевания почек и мочевыводящих путей (ХИВЗПМП) становятся все более актуальной проблемой и требуют особого внимания. В арсенале современной медицины и фармации имеется разнообразное официальное лекарственное растительное сырье (ЛРС), являющееся источником биологически активных веществ (БАВ) и фитопрепаратов для терапии и профилактики заболеваний почек. Кроме того, активно изучаются новые перспективные растительные объекты. Представленные результаты доклинических фитохимических и фармакологических, а также клинических исследований достоверно указывают на наличие существенного влияния выявленных БАВ, в частности, компонентов эфирных масел и фенольных соединений на основные звенья патогенеза и на развитие диуретического, противовоспалительного, уросептического, литолитического и антилитогенного эффектов. Все указанное стимулирует разработку новых комбинированных фитопрепаратов, для которых отмечены различные подходы в их стандартизации, выборе методов анализа ведущих и сопутствующих БАВ.

Заключение. В обзоре рассмотрено и проанализировано современное состояние исследований в области применения ЛРС как источника БАВ фитопрепаратов в терапии ХИВЗПМП. Показано, что ключевые классы БАВ терпеноидной и фенольной природы обладают противовоспалительным, антибактериальным, диуретическим, литолитическим и антилитогенным эффектами. Выделен ряд перспективных нефармакопейных видов ЛРС: подмаренника настоящего трава, подсолнечника однолетнего корни, шиповника корни, дудника лекарственного корневища и корни, клюквы плоды, имеющие обширный эмпирический опыт применения в народной медицине, а также результаты лабораторных химических и доклинических исследований.

Ключевые слова: хронические инфекционно-воспалительные заболевания почек и мочевыводящих путей, биологически активные вещества, компоненты эфирных масел, фенольные соединения, однокомпонентные фитопрепараты, комбинированные фитопрепараты, фитотерапия, диуретическая активность, антибактериальная активность, противовоспалительная активность, литолитическая активность, антилитогенная активность, перспективные источники фитопрепаратов

Список сокращений: ХИВЗПМП — хронические инфекционно-воспалительные заболевания почек и мочевыводящих путей; ПМ — патогенные микроорганизмы; ЛРС — лекарственное растительное сырье; БАВ — биологически активные вещества; ЛП — лекарственный препарат.

INTRODUCTION

The widespread prevalence of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract (CIDKUT) with a tendency towards exacerbation presents a significant medical and social problem [1, 2]. The

growing resistance of pathogenic microflora to actively and sometimes incorrectly used antibacterial drugs, the disability of the population, and the associated annual state expenditures on healthcare significantly contribute to the urgency of this issue [3–5].

Globally, the number of cases of chronic kidney diseases associated with infectious and inflammatory processes has exceeded 850 million [6], and urinary tract diseases — 404 million [7]. In the Russian Federation, 16,403,234 cases of CIDKUT were registered in 2023, which is 778,487 more than in 2022 [8]. However, the majority of CIDKUT cases remain “in the shadows” and are unaccounted for, due to patients not seeking medical attention; only 1/3 of the total number of people with CIDKUT are registered. This is mainly due to the age of patients, financial situation, use of self-treatment methods, and ignoring symptoms. The progression of pathological conditions and the lack of competent treatment can lead to severe consequences, such as renal failure (acute or chronic) with irreversible structural and functional changes in organs, leading to subsequent disability and significant financial costs for rehabilitation [9]. It has been established that a number of pathogenic microorganisms (PMs), including *Escherichia coli*, *Proteus mirabilis*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, can migrate into the seminal tubules of men, causing a decrease in reproductive function. The course of the infectious process can lead to prostatitis and the development of erectile dysfunction. A similar mechanism operates in women — bacterial infection, penetrating the ovaries, disrupts the process of egg formation [10]. The problem under consideration negatively affects the demographic situation in the country [11].

The issue of CIDKUT causes concern within the medical community. The diseases are of particular significance due to the tendency of pathologies to recur and become chronic, and their treatment is associated with difficulties caused by the formation of resistant pathogenic microflora [12, 13]. Women more frequent in this group of diseases, experiencing at least one episode of CIDKUT in their lifetime [14, 15]. Furthermore, the prevalence of chronic pyelonephritis among women of various age categories has been recorded: 17 to 20 years — 12 %, 21 to 30 years — 34 %, 31 to 40 years — 12 %, 41 to 50 years — 24.0 %, and over 50 years — 18.0 % [16].

In patients with comorbidities, such as diabetes mellitus, due to the development of general and localized immune dysfunction, the ability of microorganisms to adhere to the urothelium surface increases. The use of selective sodium-glucose cotransporter inhibitors for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus stimulates glucose excretion in the urine, making it a substrate for the proliferation of pathogenic flora [17, 18]. Conditions that contribute to

the development of these diseases also include active sexual life, poor hygiene or lack thereof, hospital-acquired infections, as well as past or persistent infections, dehydration, unbalanced nutrition, and other lifestyle aspects [19, 20].

The main approaches in the treatment of CIDKUT include antibiotic therapy, particularly with drugs from the fluoroquinolone (ciprofloxacin), glycopeptide (vancomycin), penicillin (ampicillin), phosphonic acid derivative (fosfomycin), and nitrofurane (furagin, furadonin) groups. Phytotherapy also holds a special place in the comprehensive treatment of urological diseases [21, 22]. The therapeutic potential of phytotherapy lies in its ability to simultaneously achieve antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, diuretic, and antispasmodic effects to varying degrees, as well as to minimize side effects observed with classical antibacterial therapy, such as disruption of intestinal microflora, fungal infections, and toxic organ damage [23]. The use of medicinal plant raw materials (MPRMs) as a source of biologically active substances (BASs), as well as single-component and combined phytopreparations, significantly expands treatment possibilities, especially in cases requiring long-term treatment of chronic diseases where the use of chemotherapeutic agents has limitations [24]. Issues concerning the use of plant-based preparations are widely discussed by various research teams [25–28], whose conclusions allow phytotherapy to be positioned as a valuable addition in the acute phase of infectious and inflammatory processes or even as a sole alternative to synthetic drugs for primary and secondary prevention, and sometimes for the treatment of chronic urological diseases [29].

This review examines research results reflected in scientific literature concerning the application of MPRMs as a source of BASs and botanicals used in CIDKUT. In analyzing the materials, we have touched upon the experience of using medicinal plants in folk and official drugs, the phytochemical composition of MPRMs and botanicals, and considered preclinical and clinical studies of preparations, among other aspects.

THE AIM. To analyze and summarize current scientific data on the use of medicinal plant raw materials as a source of biologically active substances and plant-derived medicinal products (phytopreparations) in the therapy of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

For the analysis of research status in the field of CIDKUT therapy, scientific information was searched

in international electronic databases: Google Scholar, Science Direct, PubMed, elibrary.ru, and cyberleninka.ru. The main body of scientific publications pertained to the period from 2010 to 2025 and primarily included original articles. Where appropriate, scientific materials from earlier periods were used.

Search queries were formulated using keywords and phrases in Russian and English and included: "acute and chronic infectious diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract infections"; "official plant sources of medicinal products"; "phytochemical studies of plant sources"; "phytotherapy of infectious diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract"; "diuretic activity of biologically active substances"; "antibacterial activity of biologically active substances"; "pharmacological studies of biologically active substances"; "essential oils"; "phenolic compounds"; "single-component and combined phytopreparations"; "promising sources of phytopreparations for the treatment of infectious diseases of the kidney and urinary system".

As a result of the initial search, over 2000 publications were identified. During the screening stage, irrelevant publications (based on titles and abstracts), works duplicating the main content of publications, and those not corresponding to the investigated nosology were excluded. Consequently, a body of sources comprising 446 scientific information sources was formed.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the scientific literature dedicated to CIDKUT, a significant place is occupied by issues of etiology, pathogenesis, and mechanisms of pharmacotherapy, particularly phytotherapy using plant BASs.

Chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract

CIDKUT are often associated with an ascending route of pathogen entry, usually due to the proliferation of pathogenic and opportunistic microorganisms [30] in the lower urinary tract (urethra, bladder) with subsequent spread of infection to the upper tract (ureters, kidneys) [31]. According to the progression of CIDKUT, several types of disease course are distinguished:

1. Uncomplicated infection — occurs in patients without concomitant urinary tract diseases, which responds to therapy with the main group of antibiotics;
2. Complicated infection — occurs in patients

with concomitant urinary tract pathologies (urolithiasis, bladder reflux);

3. Unresolved infection — a state opposite to uncomplicated infection, which does not respond to antibiotic treatment;
4. Recurrent infection (relapse) — a stage of urinary tract infection characterized by persistent bacterial or fungal infection. At this stage, the person is reinfected with the same uropathogen after a certain period, for example, two weeks after treatment of an unresolved CIDKUT [32].

Among patient visits to a urologist, 60 % of all cases are due to cystitis, about 20% are related to pyelonephritis [33–35], and 20% are due to urolithiasis [35–37]. These pathologies develop due to bacterial and/or fungal contamination of the urinary system by the following pathogens: *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, *Staphylococcus aureus* [19, 38, 39], *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [40, 41], *Candida albicans* [42], *Citrobacter* spp., *Serratia* spp. [43]. In most cases, *Escherichia coli* (33.8 %), *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (11.8 %), *Enterococcus faecalis* (10.3 %), and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (12.7 %) are identified in urine cultures [44–46]. The bacterial uropathogens causing diseases are mainly Gram-negative, which, during adhesion and further colonization of the urinary tract, penetrate the bladder and kidneys, leading to acute manifestations of diseases with subsequent relapses and chronification of infectious and inflammatory processes.

Many PMs become resistant to most known antibiotic classes [47]. Pathogens, in the process of their life activity, produce specific enzymes — β -lactamases or carbapenemases, which cause resistance to certain groups of antibacterial drugs — penicillins, cephalosporins, and broad-spectrum carbapenems. Resistance to aminoglycosides and sulfonamides is also growing [48–50]. Currently, fluoroquinolones are the only class of antibiotics with a relatively high sensitivity index towards bacteria of the *Enterobacteriaceae* family. In particular, *Escherichia coli* shows resistance to amoxicillin at 38%, trimethoprim and sulfamethoxazole at 18.1 %; resistance to ciprofloxacin, cefotaxime, nitrofurantoin, and fosfomycin at 1.8 %. *Enterococcus faecalis* demonstrates the highest level of resistance to most antibacterial drugs used in urology [51, 52].

A brief characteristic of some CIDKUT is presented in Table 1; urolithiasis is included due to its association with infectious and inflammatory processes.

Table 1 — Brief characteristic of kidney and urinary tract diseases

Disease characteristic	Diseases	
	Pyelonephritis	Urolithiasis
Definition	Infectious and inflammatory disease of the bladder mucosa [53, 54].	Disease associated with the formation of calculi in the organs of the urinary system [79–80].
Etiology	PMs: <i>Proteus</i> spp., <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> , <i>Staphylococcus</i> spp., <i>Enterobacter</i> spp., <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> [55–57].	1. Metabolic disorders; 2. Increased concentration of lithogenic substances; 3. Fluctuations in urine pH; 4. CIDKUT; 5. Anatomical changes in the urinary system [37, 81, 82].
Pathogenesis	1. Colonization by uropathogens: distal urethra, periurethral and vaginal areas [69]; 2. Adhesion of PMs to the urothelium: penetration into the bladder, migration to the upper urinary tract; 3. Penetration of PMs into the muscular layer: impaired urination → development of pyelovenous reflux; 4. Penetration of PMs into the kidney parenchyma and pyelocaliceal system: development of acute inflammatory process.	No single pathological pattern for the development of urolithiasis. Leading hypothesis: Randall's plaque formation [83, 84, 85]: 1. Process initiation: formation of primary urolith; 2. Urolith formation: deposition of calcium salts in the lumen of collecting ducts; 3. Ulcer formation: destruction of the urothelial lining; 4. Plaque formation: calcification of the ulcer surface; 5. Crystalloid adsorption: detachment of the urolith → migration to the pyelocaliceal system [86, 87].
Disease course	Acute and chronic (recurrent form) [53, 60].	Chronic with recurrent episodes (renal colic) [88, 89].
Clinical presentation	Acute cystitis: 1. Frequent and painful urination (worsening over time); 2. Pyuria; 3. Hematuria; 4. Lower abdominal pain. Chronic cystitis: 1. Recurrences; 2. Alkaline urine reaction; 3. Leukocyturia; 4. Hematuria; 5. Bacteriuria [53, 58, 61]; 6. Morphological “triad of chronic cystitis” [62].	Main symptoms: 1. Nausea and vomiting; 2. Pain in the costovertebral angle; 3. Elevated serum levels: nitrogen, urea, creatinine, and C-reactive protein; 4. Urine: pyuria, hematuria, and crystalluria, pH 5.0–6.5 [90, 91].
Risk groups and factors	Women: 1. Age: reproductive age — 5 %; menopausal period — 10–15 %; elderly age — 15–20 % [60]; 2. Anatomical feature: proximity of genitourinary organs to the lower gastrointestinal tract; 3. Social factors: poor hygiene, active sexual life [63, 64]; 4. Provoking factors: hypothermia, spicy food, stress [62, 65, 66].	General: 1. Age: 20 to 50 years (13 % and 7 %); 2. Unbalanced diet: overly salty food, insufficient water intake, excess animal protein and citrates; diseases associated with stone formation; 3. Metabolic disorders: hyperparathyroidism, nephrocalcinosis, vitamin A and D deficiency; 4. Anatomical features: presence of a single kidney, heredity; 5. Urinary system pathologies: ureteral obstruction, pelvic diverticula and cysts, vesicoureteral reflux [81, 92, 93]

Note: PMs — pathogenic microorganisms; CIDKUT — chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract.

In the context of phytotherapy possibilities, asymptomatic bacteriuria requires more detailed consideration. This is a condition (not considered a disease) in which bacteria are detected in the bladder or kidneys at a concentration of $\geq 10^5$ CFU/mL of urine, with the absence of clinical symptoms [94–96]. Asymptomatic bacteriuria occurs in 2.7 % of women aged 15 to 24 years and increases to 20–50 % in women over 80 years. In men, its prevalence is significantly lower but increases with age from 6 % to 20 %. Asymptomatic bacteriuria is also widespread in long-term care facilities, where its incidence ranges from 25 % to 50 % among patients [97]. Specifically, it is detected in patients with prolonged bladder catheterization (for 4 weeks) [19, 98].

It was previously reported that asymptomatic bacteriuria is a clinically dangerous condition requiring diagnosis and treatment. In the 1950s, it was first diagnosed using urine culture. With the advent of new diagnostic methods, it was found that pregnant women with a high incidence of pyelonephritis often had asymptomatic bacteriuria that was not treated. Further development and refinement of screening methods, as well as long-term patient follow-up, allowed asymptomatic bacteriuria to be reclassified as a condition not requiring treatment. Treatment of asymptomatic bacteriuria with antimicrobial drugs did not reduce the incidence of symptomatic infections. It was also reported that therapy increased the risk of developing pyelonephritis [94, 99].

There is still debate regarding the use of antibiotics for treating asymptomatic bacteriuria. Some studies suggest that antibiotic use and lack of treatment do not affect the development of CIDKUT. Antibiotic therapy only led to the appearance of a significant number of side effects [100]. A study by U. Lindberg et al. found that children with asymptomatic bacteriuria who did not receive antibiotic treatment had significant advantages over children who were treated with antibacterial agents [101]. In a study by L.A. Petty et al. among 2733 hospitalized adult patients diagnosed with asymptomatic bacteriuria, 82.7 % were prescribed antimicrobial drugs. In most cases, therapy did not yield positive results, and in some cases, it could even be harmful, causing side effects. As a result, the duration of hospitalization increased by 37 % without noticeable improvement in clinical indicators [96, 102]. It was also

found that 15 % of patients treated for asymptomatic bacteriuria experienced symptomatic CIDKUT recurrences accompanied by the development of acute pyelonephritis [103].

Other studies indicate that pregnant women should be screened for asymptomatic bacteriuria in the first trimester of pregnancy and undergo treatment if positive [97]. Antimicrobial therapy for asymptomatic bacteriuria during pregnancy reduces the risk of pyelonephritis, low birth weight, and premature birth. Some data suggest that the presence of asymptomatic bacteriuria in a person protects the body from developing PM infections [104]. The authors investigated the possibility of preventing CIDKUT recurrences using a vaccine (administered into the urinary tract) with an avirulent strain of *Escherichia coli* 83972. A placebo-controlled study proved that the strain reduces the frequency of CIDKUT recurrences.

Subsequently, programs for the rational use of antibacterial agents were developed, which revealed that antibiotic therapy for asymptomatic bacteriuria is one of the important factors in the development of PMs resistance to antimicrobial drugs [98, 102]. In this regard, the use of antibacterial BASs from medicinal plants can be a promising strategy in the development of medicinal products and their clinical application.

The presented information serves as a fundamental basis for the development of new plant-derived medicinal products (MPs) for the treatment of CIDKUT. The shortcomings of traditional antibiotic therapy have been identified, and the potential for using phytopreparations for preventing disease recurrence and treating specific patient categories is emphasized. Thus, the outlined provisions allow for the integration of scientific knowledge with practical clinical tasks.

Plant sources of medicinal products for the treatment of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract

Among the wide variety of medicinal plants used in medicine as sources of BASs for treating kidney and urinary tract diseases, MPRMs containing primarily essential oil and phenolic compounds are leading. These BASs possess diuretic, antiseptic, anti-inflammatory [25, 105, 106], litholytic, and antilithogenic effects [107–109], which fully align

with the etiology and pathogenesis of the diseases presented in Table 1.

Studies have shown that flavonoids and anthocyanins effectively eliminate the key causes of CIDKUT, as they possess anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and angioprotective properties [110].

Diuretic activity is formed by phenolic compounds and essential oil components. Essential oils have a vasodilatory effect on renal vessels, improving their blood circulation and increasing hydrostatic pressure in the glomerular capillaries. As a result, glomerular filtration increases, which, in turn, increases diuresis [111, 112]. The diuretic effect of phenolic carboxylic acids is due to the "osmotic effect": upon entering the renal tubules, phenolic acid glucuronides create high osmotic pressure, significantly reducing the reabsorption of water and sodium ions. Water excretion occurs without disrupting the ionic balance (potassium-sparing effect) [113, 114]. A diuretic effect can also be observed during the accelerated elimination of xenobiotics, as well as toxins formed in the body during diseases.

The antibacterial properties of essential oil components are due to their ability to perforate and thus damage the lipid envelope of the bacterial cell wall. Terpenes act on the outer membrane, making it permeable, disrupting osmotic pressure, and leading to lysis of the microorganism's cell [115, 116].

The antibacterial activity of phenolic compounds, using catechin as an example, was studied by A. Fathima and J.R. Rao using models to assess activity against *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus subtilis*. The study showed that catechin increases bacterial membrane permeability and causes oxidative damage to bacterial liposomes [117].

One of the most important properties of natural BASs is anti-adhesive activity, which manifests as disruption of microbial adhesion (attachment to the urothelium surface), preventing biofilm formation, thereby hindering PMs proliferation [118]. For example, A-type proanthocyanidins, due to the presence of an ester bond between C2→O→C7' atoms in their molecular structure, connecting two flavan-3-ol structural units, are inhibitors of microbial type I and P fimbriae [119].

To enhance anti-adhesive activity, an additional component, D-mannose, is included in

phytopreparations. It is a monosaccharide, an epimer of glucose, and participates in biochemical processes (e.g., protein N-glycosylation). Excess D-mannose is excreted unchanged by the kidneys. The anti-adhesive effect of D-mannose is due to its competitive interaction with mannose-sensitive fimbriae of pathogenic microorganisms, which prevents the adhesion of bacteria with mannosylated proteins on the surface of the human urinary tract [120, 121]. Clinical studies confirm the effectiveness of this approach. A group of women ($n = 103$) with acute recurrent CIDKUT took 2 g of D-mannose for 6 months. Relapses occurred in only 14.6% of women ($p < 0.0001$) [122].

The antilithogenic effect of phenolic compounds has been demonstrated in several studies. In an *in vivo* experiment, catechin contributed to a reduction in the number of crystals formed by a mixture of melamine and cyanuric acid in the kidneys and prevented nephrotoxicity [123]. Rutin and curcumin in the "ethylene glycol model" of urolithiasis normalize calcium and oxalate levels [124]. In a group of rats treated with quercetin and hyperoside (quercetin-3-O-galactoside), the amount of calcium oxalate crystalline deposits significantly decreased [125]. When hydroxycinnamic acids, caffeic and rosmarinic acids, were used in experiments, it was found that caffeic acid regulates biochemical parameters and reduces calcium oxalate deposition in the kidneys [126]. Rosmarinic and caffeic acids at concentrations from 0.03 to 0.3 mg/mL reduced the amount of monohydrate and dihydrate forms of calcium oxalate crystals formed in urine [127].

In many countries, medicinal products (MPs) whose efficacy in treating kidney and urinary system diseases has been confirmed by numerous scientific studies are widely used. Sources of MPRMs used for creating such phytopreparations include common bearberry (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.) of the *Ericaceae* family, common uva-ursi (*Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* L.) of the *Ericaceae* family, silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.) of the *Betulaceae* family, downy birch (*Betula pubescens* Ehrh.) of the *Betulaceae* family, knotgrass (*Polygonum aviculare* L.) of the *Polygonaceae* family, Siberian oregano (*Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth.) of the *Lamiaceae* family, common horsetail (*Equisetum arvense* L.) of the *Equisetaceae* family, tropical wormwood (*Aerva lanata* (L.) Juss.)

of the *Amaranthaceae* family [27, 128, 129], Canada goldenrod (*Solidago canadensis* L.) of the *Asteraceae* family [130], garden lovage (*Levisticum officinale* Koch.) of the *Apiaceae* family [131], rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.) of the *Lamiaceae* family [132, 133], common juniper (*Juniperus communis* L.) of the *Cupressaceae* family [134–136], blue cornflower (*Centaurea cyanus* L.), Georgian madder (*Rubia iberica* (Fish. ex DC). C. Koch) of the *Asteraceae* family, wild strawberry (*Fragaria vesca* L.) of the *Rosaceae* family, dyers' madder (*Rubia tinctorum* L.) of the *Rubiaceae* family, bicolor lespedeza (*Lepedeza bicolor* Turcz.) of the *Fabaceae*¹ family, and others. Let's consider some of them from the perspective of their contained BASs and corresponding spectrum of activity.

Common bearberry (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.)

Common bearberry (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.) is a perennial evergreen shrub of the genus *Vaccinium* L. of the *Ericaceae* Juss. family [137].

Vaccinium vitis-idaea is a rich source of phenolic compounds: phenol glycosides, flavonoids, proanthocyanidins, and phenylpropanoids [138]. The leading compounds in the leaves of common bearberry (*Vaccinii vitis-idaeae folia*) are simple phenols (phenol glycosides): hydroquinone in the form of arbutin [129, 139]. The authors analyzed the phenolic compounds of 10 different cultivated varieties of *V. vitis-idaea*. Arbutin was the leading compound in all varieties of *V. vitis-idaea*, with a content ranging from 36.059±1472.12 µg/g to 56.968 ± 2325.73 µg/g dry raw material (41–78 % of the total phenolic compounds) [140].

Ethanol extract of bearberry leaves exhibits anti-adhesive and antibacterial activity, established by agar diffusion and serial dilution methods on *Staphylococcus aureus* strains. Destruction of the formed microbial biofilm was noted; the leaf extract solution at a concentration of 0.01% inhibited biofilm formation in 69.9% of cases and promoted biofilm destruction in 62.5 % of cases [141]. A study of the antibacterial activity of a 60% aqueous-alcoholic extract showed significant efficacy against *Escherichia coli* but minimal antimicrobial activity against *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa [142]. When investigating the antibacterial and antifungal activity of an aqueous solution of dry extract on cultures of PMs *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, and *Candida albicans*, inhibition of bacterial growth zones of 12 mm, 10 mm, and 24 mm, respectively, was recorded. *Candida albicans* was resistant to the aqueous extract solution [143].

Common bearberry leaves are part of preparations such as "Leaves of Common Bearberry", filter bag No. 20, and "Brsniver®" collection, filter bag No. 20 (JSC "Krasnogorsklekredstva", Russia), which are used as diuretic, anti-inflammatory, and antiseptic agents for infectious diseases of the urinary system — cystitis and pyelonephritis [129].

Common uva-ursi (*Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* L.)

Common uva-ursi (*Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* L.), or bearberry, is a perennial evergreen shrub of the genus *Arctostaphylos* L. of the *Ericaceae* Juss. family. The leading compounds in the leaves of common uva-ursi (*Arctostaphylos uvae-ursi folia*), like bearberry, are simple phenols (phenol glycosides): hydroquinone in the form of arbutin [144, 145]. The arbutin content in *A. uva-ursi* leaves (summed with methylarbutin and free hydroquinone) ranged from 8 % to 25 %. In a single-component phytopreparation produced by Fito-Bot LLC, the arbutin content was determined spectrophotometrically as 9.1 ± 1.04 %, and by high-performance liquid chromatography — 8.7 ± 0.91 % [146].

BASs of common uva-ursi leaves possess anti-adhesive action [147]. The combined use of dry extract with low doses of ciprofloxacin reduced the adhesiveness index and adhesion coefficient. In the absence of treatment with dry *A. uva-ursi* extract, adhesion indicators increased [148]. It is known that BASs of common uva-ursi inhibit the growth of Gram-negative PMs: *Escherichia coli*, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*; Gram-positive: *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, as well as pathogenic yeast *Candida albicans* [149].

In a study by V.A. Kurkin et al. on the effect of individual substances isolated from *A. uva-ursi* leaves on the excretory function of mongrel rats, it was found that 1,3,6-tri-O-galloylglucose at a dose of 10 mg/kg,

¹ Biologically active compounds of medicinal plants as a source of diuretics: a monograph; Kurkin VA, Pravdivtseva OE, Kurkina AV, Zaitseva EN, Tsibina AS. SamSMU; Samara: JSC "Polygraphic association "Standard"; 2024. 86 p. Russian

after intragastric administration for 4 hours, stimulated diuresis by 34 %, with a daily diuresis of 75 %. Arbutin at a dose of 20 mg/kg stimulated daily diuresis by only 31 %. A decoction of leaves (at a dose of 100 mg/kg) stimulated daily diuresis by 74 % [150].

Upon single intragastric administration of a decoction of *A. uva-ursi* leaves to male and female white mongrel rats, a dose-dependent diuretic effect was observed, manifesting 24 hours after administration. At a dose of 50 mg/kg, no significant excretion of water and electrolytes was recorded over 4 and 24 hours of the experiment; at a dose of 100 mg/kg, a slight decrease in diuresis was observed in the experimental group compared to the control after 4 hours; at a dose of 100 mg/kg over 24 hours, a significant increase in indicators was found — water excretion by 74% compared to the control, sodium and potassium excretion by 68 %, and creatinine by 75 % ($p < 0.05$) [151].

Leaves of common uva-ursi are part of phytopreparations such as “Leaves of Common Uva-ursi” pack 50 g, collection “Fito-nefrol®” 50 g, “Urological Collection” filter bag No. 20, collection “Bруснивер-Т®” filter bag No. 20 (JSC “Krasnogorsklekredstva”, Russia) [129]. All uva-ursi drugs are used as diuretic, anti-inflammatory, and antiseptic agents for infectious diseases of the urinary system [150].

Silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.)

and downy birch (*Betula pubescens* Ehrh.)

Silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.) and downy birch (*Betula pubescens* Ehrh.) are trees of the genus *Betula* L. of the *Betulaceae* Gray. family [152].

The main pharmacologically active substances in birch leaves (*Betulae folia*) are flavonoids, and in birch buds (*Betulae gemmae*) — essential oil components. The leading compounds are the flavonol hyperoside (quercetin-3-O-galactoside) and the tricyclic sesquiterpene α -copaene, respectively. Quercetin and myricetin glycosides constitute 1–3% of all flavonols present in *Betula* leaves, calculated as hyperoside. Among them are the aglycone quercetin, quercetin-3-O-glucuronide, and isoquercitrin (quercetin-3-O-glucoside) [153], quercetin-3-O-glucuronide, quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside, and myricetin-3-O-galactoside. *B. pendula* and *B. pubescens* buds are a rich source

of essential oil, with quantities ranging from 0.5 % to 3.8 %. The main components of the buds are sesquiterpenes — α -copaene (11.8%), germacrene D (11.4 %), δ -cadinene (10.8 %), aromadendrene (6.25 %), and β -caryophyllene (3.4 %). The component composition of the leaf essential oil is represented by monoterpenes, among which α -pinene (2.22 %) and bornyl acetate (2.74 %) are leading [154–156].

BASs of *B. pendula* and *B. pubescens* leaves and buds possess antibacterial and diuretic actions. The antimicrobial activity of dry aqueous and methanolic extracts of *B. pendula* leaves and buds was investigated by scientists from Bosnia and Herzegovina on test cultures of *Bacillus subtilis*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Ciprofloxacin and penicillin were used as standard drugs. The results showed that the aqueous leaf extract inhibited *Staphylococcus aureus* growth by 13.4 mm; the methanolic leaf extract — by 12.0 mm; the aqueous bud extract — by 10.2 mm; the methanolic bud extract — by 11.2 mm; ciprofloxacin — by 19.5 mm. Extracts against *Bacillus subtilis* showed the following activity: methanolic bud extract — 11.0 mm; aqueous bud extract — 8.0 mm; penicillin — 32.0 mm. When tested against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, the following zones of growth inhibition were established: methanolic bud and leaf extracts — 11.6 mm and 11.0 mm, respectively; ciprofloxacin — 28.0 mm. *Escherichia coli* showed resistance to all tested samples [157].

An aqueous extract of *B. pendula* leaves at concentrations of 0.20 mg/mL and 0.25 mg/mL was investigated for anti-inflammatory activity. The extract inhibited prostaglandin activity by 23 ± 2 % and reduced platelet-activating factor activity in exocytosis by 76 ± 4 % [158]. A decrease in the secretion of interleukins IL-6 and IL-8 was also confirmed [159].

A standardized leaf extract containing hyperoside (0.53 %), quercetin-3-O-glucuronide (0.36 %), myricetin-3-O-glucoside (0.32 %), and chlorogenic acid (0.28 %) exhibits diuretic activity. The extract was administered orally at doses of 25 mg/kg and 50 mg/kg to male and female Sprague Dawley albino rats, and diuresis was measured over 24 hours for 3 days. The control group received placebo. At a dose of 50 mg/kg, the urine volume increased by 15.4 % compared to the control. Analysis of Na^+ and

K⁺ excretion over 24 hours was performed only in the group receiving the extract at a dose of 50 mg/kg. No statistically significant differences were found between the group receiving the extract at 25 mg/kg and the control group over 24 hours ($p > 0.05$). Excretion for Na⁺ was 0.13 ± 0.04 mmol/L and 0.16 ± 0.05 mmol/L, respectively, and for K⁺ was 0.18 ± 0.03 mmol/L and 0.20 ± 0.05 mmol/L, respectively. Under experimental conditions, *B. pendula* leaf extract has a weak diuretic effect [160].

Birch buds are part of the phytopreparation "Birch Buds" pack 50 g; birch leaves are part of several phytopreparations — "Birch Leaves" filter bag No. 20, "Phytolysin®", capsules No. 40, and "Phytolysin®", paste for preparing oral suspension (Herbapol, Poland). Preparations from birch MPRMs are used for the treatment of kidney and bladder diseases as diuretic, antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, antispasmodic, and antilithogenic agents [129].

Knotgrass (*Polygonum aviculare* L.)

Knotgrass (*Polygonum aviculare* L.), or *Polygonum*, is an annual herbaceous plant of the genus *Polygonum* L. of the *Polygonaceae* Juss. family [161].

The main pharmacologically active substances in knotgrass herb (*Polygoni avicularis herba*) are flavonoids. The leading compound is the flavonol avicularin (quercetin-3-O- α -arabinofuranoside). Studies of 70% ethanol extracts from raw materials from various growing regions found that avicularin dominates in the Republic of Khakassia — 4.9 mg/g, in the Irkutsk region — 2.0 mg/g, and in the Altai Republic — 2.2 mg/g of air-dry raw material. In the Republic of Buryatia, quercetrin is dominant — 2.4 mg/g, hyperoside and juglanin — 2.1 mg/g in the Transbaikalian Territory [162]. In *P. aviculare herba* from the Volgograd, Rostov, and Voronezh regions, the sum of flavonoids calculated as avicularin is 2.5 %, 1.33 ± 0.03 %, and 1.61 ± 0.03 %, respectively [163, 164]. In South Korea, it was found that the maximum concentration of the sum of flavonoids is contained in the ethyl acetate fraction — 208.9 mg/g. The dominant compounds are avicularin, myricetin, quercetin, kaempferol, and their glycosides — myricitrin, isoquercitrin, and juglanin [165]. From an aqueous extract in Poland, the following were isolated: myricetin-3-O- β -D-glucuronide, quercetin-3-O- β -D-glucuronide, isorhamnetin-3-O- β -D-glucuronide [166].

The chronic toxicity of dry extract was studied in male and female rats with daily administration for one month at doses of 0.15 mL/kg and 1.5 mL/kg. Control animals received 35 % ethanol at a dose of 1.5 mL/kg. The extract did not exert toxic effects on the rats' bodies with prolonged administration and did not cause pathomorphological changes in organ systems. A slight tendency towards accelerated blood clotting time was noted [167].

The antimicrobial and antifungal activity of aqueous and organic extracts of the plant was tested on clinical isolates of *Escherichia coli*, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Salmonella typhi*, *Salmonella paratyphi*, *Shigella flexneri*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, *Aspergillus flavus*, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, *Aspergillus niger*, and *Candida albicans*. The chloroform extract showed the greatest effect (*Proteus mirabilis* — 28 mm and *Escherichia coli* — 27 mm), and the aqueous extract (*Bacillus subtilis* — 25 mm and *Proteus mirabilis* — 24 mm) [168].

C.H. Jang et al. investigated the anti-inflammatory effect of a dry ethanol extract (extractant — 70 % ethanol). The BASs of the extract at doses of 33.3 μ g/mL, 100 μ g/mL, and 200 μ g/mL affected the transcription factor NRF2, regulating HO-1 (heme oxygenase-1) levels, and reducing cyclooxygenase-2 levels. A dose of 200 μ g/mL reduced IL-1 β levels to approximately 1 pg/mL and demonstrated almost 40% inhibition of IL-6 levels. Myricitrin, avicularin, myricetin, quercetin, and kaempferol inhibit NF- κ B activity [169]. BASs of ethanol extract from *P. aviculare* leaves at doses of 500 mg/kg have an inhibitory effect on the acute phase of inflammatory paw edema in rats induced by carrageenan [170].

An aqueous extract was studied for its ability to mitigate the consequences of oxalate nephrolithiasis induced by ethylene glycol and ammonium chloride in male Wistar albino rats. Animals received the extract at doses of 100 mg/kg and 400 mg/kg for 28 days (starting from the 14th day of ethylene glycol administration); the prophylactic group received the extract at the same dosage (from the beginning of ethylene glycol administration). According to the study results, in the prophylactic ($p < 0.001$) and therapeutic ($p < 0.001$) groups, the number of calcium oxalate concretions decreased compared to the control group [171].

V.V. Mantatov et al. established the prostatoprotective activity of a dry extract (extractant — 40 % ethanol) in sexually mature male Wistar rats. A decoction of the “Brusniver®” collection was used as a comparison drug. Experimental animals were administered the extract intragastrically at a dose of 200 mg/kg once daily throughout the experiment; the decoction of the “Brusniver®” collection was administered in a volume of 10 mL/kg body weight; the control group received purified water. In a model of chronic prostatitis, it was found that *P. aviculare* extract exerts a pronounced prostatoprotective effect, characterized by normalization of the morphofunctional state of the rat prostate gland, by suppressing the inflammatory process and regulating lipid peroxidation induction. A decrease in malondialdehyde concentration and an increase in catalase activity in rat serum indicate a pronounced antioxidant effect in the experimental group (40 % less compared to the control). On the 14th day, a decrease in blood erythrocyte sedimentation rate by 45 %, the number of leukocytes in blood and prostate secretion by 23 % and 27 %, respectively, and malondialdehyde concentration in serum by 21 % were observed compared to the control data. On the 21st day of the experiment, no signs of inflammatory reaction in the prostate were detected, and all blood parameters normalized [172].

Knotgrass herb is part of botanicals such as “Knotgrass (Sporish) Herb” pack 50 g, “Knotgrass (Sporish) Herb” filter bag No. 20, “Phytolysin®”, capsules No. 40, and “Phytolysin®”, paste for preparing oral suspension (Herbapol, Poland). Knotgrass preparations are used for the treatment of kidney and bladder diseases as diuretic, antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, antispasmodic, and antilithogenic agents [173, 174].

Siberian oregano (*Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth.)

Siberian oregano (*Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth.), or kidney tea, is a perennial herbaceous plant of the genus *Orthosiphon* Benth. of the *Lamiaceae* Lindl. family [161].

The main pharmacologically active substances in Siberian oregano leaves (*Orthosiphonis staminei folia*) are phenylpropanoids. The leading compound is the phenylpropanoid rosmarinic acid — an ester of

caffeic acid and 3,4-dihydroxyphenyl lactic acid. In an infusion of *O. stamineus* leaves grown in Germany, the amount of rosmarinic acid was $243 \pm 22 \mu\text{g/mL}$ [175]. The rosmarinic acid content varies from 17.43 mg/kg to 931.44 mg/kg in raw materials. Polymethoxylated flavone derivatives are also found among the components [176, 177], such as sinensetin, isosinetin, eupatorin, salvigenin, 6,7,4'-tetramethoxyflavone, 5-hydroxy-6,7,3,4'-tetramethoxyflavone, 6-hydroxy-5,3'-trimethoxyflavone, and 5,6,7,3'-tetramethoxy-4'-hydroxy-8-C-prenylflavone [178, 179]. The content of polymethoxylated flavones in raw materials ranges from 0.5 % to 0.7 %. Sinensetin and its isomer isosinetin are leading among this group of flavonoids, with contents ranging from 122.98 mg/kg to 469.54 mg/kg and from 50.60 mg/kg to 419.07 mg/kg of dry raw material, respectively [180]. The concentration of sinensetin in an extract obtained by maceration was $0.42 \pm 0.006 \%$, and in an extract obtained by Soxhlet apparatus — $0.30 \pm 0.006 \%$ [181]. In 12 samples from different regions of Indonesia, the sinensetin content ranged from 0.0238 mg/g to 0.1533 mg/g [182].

An aqueous extract of Siberian oregano herb, containing rosmarinic, chicoric, and caffeic acids, was tested for antiproliferative activity in mice. It was found that administration of the extract at a dose of 750 mg/kg for 4–7 days reduced the bacterial load in the urinary tract of mice. The extract exhibits dose-dependent anti-adhesive activity, reducing *fimH* gene expression but activating *fliC* gene expression in *Escherichia coli* strains NU14 and UT189 [183].

An aqueous extract of Siberian oregano was tested for anti-adhesive activity. Twenty healthy volunteers participated in the experiment, taking an infusion of *O. stamineus* leaves 4 times a day for 7 days. Urine samples were collected on days 1 (pre-infusion control), 3, 6, and 8. The study results showed that the samples had an anti-adhesive effect with strong *fliC* gene expression [175].

The toxicity of Siberian oregano extracts was also studied. N.R. Abdullah et al. determined the acute toxicity of a standardized extract containing 0.15 %, 0.21 %, and 0.05 % sinensetin, eupatorin, and 3'-hydroxy-5,6,7,4'-tetramethoxyflavone, respectively, at a dose of 5000 mg/kg in Sprague Dawley albino rats for 14 days. No cases of toxicity or death were

recorded. The extract did not affect general behavior, food/water intake, relative organ weight, hematology, or clinical biochemistry. The LD⁵⁰ was >5000 mg/kg body weight of the rat [184]. Under similar experimental conditions, M.F. Yam et al. investigated a dry methanolic extract (extractant 50% methanol) for 14-day acute and 28-day subchronic toxicity (at doses of 1250 mg/kg, 2500 mg/kg, and 5000 mg/kg), and R. Pariyani et al. investigated aqueous, aqueous-alcoholic (extractant 50 % ethanol), and alcoholic extracts at a dose of 5000 mg/kg. As a result, none of the investigated extracts showed toxic effects [185, 186]. H. Muhammad et al. investigated the chronic toxicity of a dry aqueous extract at doses of 250, 500, 1000 and 2000 mg/kg in male and female Sprague Dawley albino rats for 60 days. No cases of toxicity or death were recorded. It was found that erythrocyte, hematocrit, hemoglobin, and platelet levels were significantly higher in the group receiving the extract at a dose of 2000 mg/kg. According to the authors, this may be related to erythropoiesis stimulation, which requires further study [187].

Scientists from Malaysia investigated the diuretic activity of *O. stamineus* leaf BASs by administering a methanolic extract to Sprague Dawley albino rats at a dose of 2000 mg/kg for 7 days. Hydrochlorothiazide (at a dose of 10 mg/kg) was used as a standard drug. In the first 8 hours after extract administration, Na⁺ and K⁺ excretion ($p < 0.05$ and < 0.01 , respectively) comparable to hydrochlorothiazide was observed. Additional administration of the extract at a dose of 500 mg/kg enhanced diuresis from day 3 to day 7 ($p < 0.01$) and Na⁺ and K⁺ excretion ($p < 0.05$ and < 0.01 , respectively) on days 2 and 7. The authors proposed a recommended dose for rats of 420 mg/kg. The extract at doses of 500 mg/kg, 1000 mg/kg, and 2000 mg/kg exhibited hypouricemic activity, reducing uric acid levels for 6 hours and demonstrating efficacy comparable to allopurinol [188]. The antihyperuricemic effect is due to the regulation of xanthine oxidase, adenosine deaminase activity, and urate transporters [189]. Y. Adam et al. administered an aqueous extract orally at doses of 5 and 10 mg/kg to Sprague Dawley albino rats, while control groups received furosemide (at a dose of 10 mg/kg). The extract demonstrated dose-dependent diuretic activity, selective K⁺ ion excretion in urine while maintaining normal Na⁺ and Cl⁻ excretion levels.

Extracts slightly increased serum urea and creatinine levels and blood glucose levels, but these indicators remained within normal limits [190].

R.M. Oktaviani et al. established the influence of a 70 % ethanol extract on the pharmacokinetic parameters of furosemide. Male Sprague-Dawley albino rats were administered a suspension of the test extract for 4 and 7 days, followed by administration of a furosemide suspension at a dose of 7.2 mg/200 g. After 4 days, the average urine volume in rats was 18.5 ± 1.0 mL (furosemide 15.7 ± 1.6 mL), and by day 7, it decreased to 16.2 ± 0.8 mL (furosemide 15.7 ± 1.6 mL). The authors concluded that the decrease in urine volume by day 7 was related to the distribution process and increased elimination rate of BASs. Thus, the 70% ethanol extract of Siberian oregano improves the pharmacokinetic parameters of furosemide ($p < 0.05$) [191].

The antilithogenic activity of an aqueous extract was compared with the drug "Cystone®" *in vitro*. The sum of BASs in the Siberian oregano extract inhibited the crystallization of calcium oxalate by 73.48% compared to the control, while the MP "Cystone®" inhibited it by 80.68 % [192]. M.B. Ambursa et al. studied the litholytic activity of a standardized aqueous extract containing 8.99 % of rosmarinic acid, 0.35 % of sinensetin, 0.45 % of eupatorin, and 0.3 % of 3-hydroxy-5,6,7,4-tetramethoxyflavone at concentrations of (1 mg/mL, 2 mg/mL and 4 mg/mL) on calculi obtained from patients who underwent stone removal procedures. The extract at a dose of 4 mg/mL showed a better effect in terms of lytic impact on calcium oxalate stones than a potassium citrate solution (70 % vs. 41 %) [193].

Leaves of Siberian oregano (kidney tea) are part of botanicals such as "Leaves of Siberian Oregano (Kidney Tea)" pack 50 g and "Leaves of Siberian Oregano (Kidney Tea)" filter bags 1.5 g ×20. Siberian oregano preparations are used for the treatment of kidney and bladder diseases as diuretic agents [194].

Common horsetail (*Equisetum arvense* L.)

Common horsetail (*Equisetum arvense* L.) is a perennial herbaceous plant of the genus *Equisetum* L. of the *Equisetaceae* Michx. ex DC. family.

The main pharmacologically active substances in common horsetail herb (*Equiseti arvensis herba*)

are flavonoids, among which the leading one is the flavonol quercetin. In a 50 % aqueous-alcoholic extract obtained from *E. arvense herba*, the flavonoid content was 1.67 ± 0.07 % calculated as quercetin [195]. A dry ethanol extract (extractant — 70 % ethanol) from raw material harvested in Uzbekistan contained 2.283 mg of quercetin, 0.508 mg of rutin, and 0.375 mg of gallic acid [196]. A methanolic extract from horsetail herb harvested in Iraq contained 179.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of total flavonoids, including luteolin — 100.6 $\mu\text{g/mL}$; kaempferol-3-O-glucoside — 42.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$; kaempferol — 26.6 $\mu\text{g/mL}$; quercetin — 9.9 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ [197]. The component composition of aqueous and ethanol extracts from raw material harvested in Turkey was as follows (calculated as dry raw material): rutin (14.383 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), chicoric (21.313 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), salicylic (9.639 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), 4-hydroxybenzoic (1.535 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), and vanillic acids (2.32 $\mu\text{g/kg}$); quercetin (32.995 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), epicatechin (24.97 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), rutin (6.236 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), gallic (0.95 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), p-coumaric (5.974 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), chicoric (39.984 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), and cinnamic acids (1.769 $\mu\text{g/kg}$), respectively [198].

From raw material harvested in the Khanty-Mansiysk Autonomous Okrug, luteolin, luteolin-7-O- β -D-glucopyranoside, and luteolin-4-O- β -D-glucopyranoside were isolated from the ethyl acetate fraction of the alcoholic extract [199]. In raw material from Pakistan, the methanolic extract identified quercetin, apigenin, luteolin, kaempferol-3-O-glucoside, isoquercitrin, apigenin-4'-O-glucoside, kaempferol-6''-O-acetylgenistin, daidzein-4',7-diglucoside (puerarin), tricin-6''-O-acetylglycitin, 4',5-dihydroxy-7-methoxyflavone (genkwanin), myricetin-7-O-methylchrysin, trans-ferulic acid, dihydroactinidiol, 2',4'-dihydroxy-4-prenyloxichalcone, pinolenic acid, 4-(sec-butoxy)benzoic acid, and 8-acetylharpagide [200]. From raw material harvested in South Korea, the dichloromethane:methanol fraction of the alcoholic extract yielded: luteolin-5-O- β -D-glucopyranoside (12.0 mg), kaempferol-3,7-di-O- β -D-glucopyranoside (3.4 mg), (Z)-3-hexenyl- β -D-glucopyranoside (2.5 mg), 4-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl caffeic acid (2.2 mg), (7S,8S)-threo-7,9,9'-trihydroxy-3,3'-dimethoxy-8-O-4'-neolignan-4-O- β -D-glucopyranoside (1.2 mg), 4-O-caffeoylshikimic acid (1.0 mg), clemastanin B (0.6 mg), and icariiside B2 (0.5 mg) [201].

The acute toxicity of methanolic and aqueous

extracts was studied in albino mice. As a result, none of the investigated extracts showed toxic effects. LD_{50} of extracts from *E. arvense herba* was > 5000 mg/kg [202].

When investigating the antibacterial activity of 96 % ethanol and methanolic extracts from the raw material, the following minimum inhibitory concentration (mg/mL) values were established: *Staphylococcus aureus* — 15.5 ± 0.56 , 20.58 ± 0.8 ; *Escherichia coli* — 12.58 ± 0.8 , 15.41 ± 0.52 ; *Enterococcus faecalis* — 5.42 ± 0.38 , 5.25 ± 0.43 ; *Streptococcus pyogenes* — 16.00 ± 1.30 , 17.5 ± 0.76 , respectively. At a concentration of 0.1 %, the ethanol extract reduced the biofilm formation process of *Staphylococcus aureus* by 95.90 %, and the methanolic extract — by 69.86 %. At a concentration of 0.05 %, the effect decreased to 77.8 % for the ethanol extract and to 69.38 % for the methanolic extract. At a concentration of 0.01 %, the ethanol extract reduced biofilm formation by 63.0 %, and the methanolic extract — by 48.72 % [203]; the 96 % ethanol extract showed antifungal activity against *Candida glabrata* (28.0 ± 0.57 mm), comparable to nystatin (22.6 ± 0.33 mm) [204].

In Brazil, the diuretic effect of a standardized dry extract (0.026 % flavonoids) was studied in a double-blind, randomized clinical trial involving 36 healthy male volunteers aged 20 to 55 years, with heights from 150 to 185 cm and weights from 50 kg to 90 kg. Participants were divided into three groups ($n = 12$) and alternately received the standardized dry extract (900 mg), placebo (corn starch, 900 mg), and hydrochlorothiazide (25 mg) for four consecutive days. The diuretic effect of the extract was assessed by monitoring the water balance of volunteers over 24 hours. The *E. arvense* extract exerted a diuretic effect (522.62 ± 463.03 mL) ($p < 0.05$) and was equivalent to hydrochlorothiazide (542.01 ± 935.37) ($p < 0.067$). The extract caused a significant decrease in creatinine ($p = 0.003$), uric acid ($p = 0.010$), Cl^- ($p = 0.042$), Mg^{+2} ($p = 0.044$), and phosphate ($p = 0.032$) levels. Rare minor side effects were reported; one volunteer complained of a severe headache [205].

Extract of common horsetail herb is part of complex herbal MPs: "Marelin®", film-coated tablets (ZAO "VIFITEKH", RF), "Phytolysin®", capsules No. 40, and "Phytolysin®", paste for preparing oral suspension (Herbapol, Poland), "Tonsilgon® N", film-coated tablets,

“Tonsilgon® N”, oral drops (Bionorica, Germany), “Polyhemastat®”, powder for local and external use (OOO “Tekhnopark-Tsentr”, RF), “Depuraflox®”, dry extract (Sanofi-Aventis, Germany), collection-powder “Arfazetin-E®” (JSC “Krasnogorsklekredstva”, RF), “Common Horsetail Herb” pack 50 g, “Common Horsetail Herb” filter bags 1.5 g × 20. Preparations of common horsetail are used for the treatment of kidney and bladder diseases, urolithiasis, and upper respiratory tract diseases as diuretic, antibacterial, hemostatic, and immunomodulatory agents [206, 207].

Aerva lanata (L.) Juss.

Aerva lanata (L.) Juss., or pol-pala, is a biennial herbaceous plant of the genus *Aerva* L. of the *Amaranthaceae* Juss. family.

The main BASs of *Aervae lanatae herba* are flavonoids, among which the dominant one is the flavonol rutin (quercetin-3-O-rutinoside). When obtaining a dry extract of *A. lanata* in Uzbekistan using various alcohol concentrations, the flavonoid content (calculated as rutin) was as follows: 96 % alcohol — 0.87 ± 0.01 %; 70 % alcohol — 0.98 ± 0.01 %; 50 % alcohol — 1.23 ± 0.02 %; 30 % alcohol — 1.32 ± 0.02 %; water — 1.36 ± 0.03 % [208]. An aqueous-alcoholic extract obtained from plants growing in India contained 4.34 ± 0.63 mg/g of total tannins calculated as tannin; total phenol content was 127.84 ± 1.50 mg/g calculated as gallic acid; total flavonoid content was 77.61 ± 3.78 mg/g calculated as rutin [209]. Additionally, kaempferol, quercetin, apigenin, betulin, cantin-6-one (indole alkaloid), vanillic, syringic, and ferulic acids were detected. From the ethyl acetate extract, cantin-6-one (3.275 g), rutin (0.697 g) were isolated, and from the methanolic extract, kaempferol (0.437 g) was isolated [210]. Uzbek scientists isolated vanillic, syringic, and ferulic acids from the butanol fraction of *Aerva* herb [211].

Indian scientists studied the possibility of using botanicals from *A. lanata herba* as a treatment for urolithiasis. I. Arthi et al. found that an aqueous extract at a dose of 500 mg/kg body weight of Wistar albino rats reduced ($p < 0.001$) the levels of major stone-forming components — calcium, oxalates, and phosphates in urine — to 2.09 ± 0.08 mg/dL, 3.03 ± 0.12 mg/dL, and 5.17 ± 0.04 mg/dL, respectively (“Cystone®” — 0.52 ± 0.03 mg/dL, 1.49 ± 0.05 mg/dL,

and 3.80 ± 0.08 mg/dL, respectively) and in the kidneys — to 2.61 ± 0.03 mg/dL, 4.27 ± 0.04 mg/dL, and 3.36 ± 0.07 mg/dL, respectively (“Cystone®” — 1.60 ± 0.07 mg/dL, 3.41 ± 0.06 mg/dL, and up to 2.51 ± 0.06 mg/dL). At a dosage of 1000 mg/kg, the results were lower [212]. B.M. Dinnimath et al. isolated quercetin and betulin from *A. lanata herba*, which showed diuretic and antilithogenic effects in an oxalate nephrolithiasis model induced by ethylene glycol administration in male Wistar rats. Urine volumes on days 14 and 28 in the control group were 9.47 ± 0.08 mL and 9.38 ± 0.09 mL, while in the other groups (before treatment) they were 12.65 ± 0.11 mL and 12.76 ± 0.10 mL. After administering quercetin to rats, urine volume increased from 12.76 ± 0.10 mL to 21.35 ± 0.20 mL and 21.50 ± 0.21 mL in rats receiving betulin. Microscopic urine analysis showed a significant decrease in calculus size ($p < 0.001$) with increased excretion of calcium, magnesium, oxalate, and phosphate ($p < 0.001$). A decrease in urea and creatinine levels was observed [213]. B. Mandal et al. studied the activity of ethyl acetate and methanolic extracts at doses of 32 and 200 mg/kg, respectively, and the “Cystone®” as a reference at a dose of 750 mg/kg from day 15 to 30. The experiment results showed: an increase in diuresis upon administration of methanolic extract — 7.85 ± 0.83 mL and ethyl acetate extract — 6.22 ± 0.59 mL compared to the control group — 5.07 ± 0.61 mL and the “Cystone®” group — 8.80 ± 0.78 mL ($p < 0.0001$); a decrease in oxalate, calcium, and uric acid levels (g/100 mg kidney weight) upon administration of methanolic extract — 5.42 ± 0.41 , 1.29 ± 0.21 , and 5.42 ± 0.72 , and ethyl acetate extract — 7.16 ± 0.55 , 1.36 ± 0.33 , and 5.22 ± 0.62 , respectively, compared to the control group — 10.51 ± 0.60 , 2.58 ± 0.30 , and 7.64 ± 0.80 , and the “Cystone®” — 3.68 ± 0.63 , 1.25 ± 0.16 , and 4.72 ± 0.66 , respectively ($p < 0.0001$) [214]. In an *in vitro* study, S.K. Sarma et al. found that the highest percentage of calcium oxalate calculus dissolution was observed with the “Cystone®” (98 %); ethyl acetate and methanolic extracts from *Aerva lanata herba* also showed significant activity (87 % and 78 %, respectively) [215].

When an ethanol extract from *Aerva lanata herba* was administered to Wistar albino rats, a direct dose-diuretic activity relationship was established: as the

dose increased from 200 mg/kg to 1600 mg/kg, urine volume increased from 0.46 ± 0.008 mL to 1.01 ± 0.03 mL ($p < 0.05$); control group — 0.40 ± 0.005 mL; furosemide (at a dose of 25 mg/kg) — 1.10 ± 0.01 mL ($p < 0.05$). Acute toxicity was not detected in the experiment [216]. Upon single intragastric administration of an infusion from the raw material to male and female white mongrel rats, a pronounced dose-dependent and temporary effect on kidney excretory function was observed; high doses had a predominantly inhibitory effect on renal excretion. Thus, the infusion at a dose of 50 mg/kg increased diuresis by 151 %, natriuresis by 56 %, kaliuresis by 39 %, and creatininuria by 81 % over 4 hours of the experiment compared to the control; at the same dose after 24 hours, a significant inhibition of diuresis by 65 %, natriuresis by 70 %, and kaliuresis by 71 % occurred; creatininuria changed insignificantly; a dosage of 100 mg/kg reduced sodium excretion by 53 %, potassium by 58 %, and creatinine by 49 % over 4 hours; the same dose after 24 hours led to a decrease in water excretion by 41 %, sodium by 58 %, and potassium by 47 % [151]. Considering the results, it was proposed to use a phytopreparation based on *A. lanata* as a standard preparation with a diuresis volume of 8.8 ± 1.1 mL for studying the diuretic activity of other plants, particularly dried juice from horseradish roots [217].

The antidiuretic effect was discussed in the study by N.S. Sundar et al. Wistar albino rats receiving 2-decyl-1-tetradecanol from *A. lanata* had a total urine volume of 1.30 ± 0.27 mL/kg compared to the control group's 1.32 ± 0.22 mL/kg per day, a decrease of 2 %. Upon administration of furosemide (at a dose of 10 mg/kg), urine excretion was 7.38 ± 0.53 mL, and upon combined administration of 2-decyl-1-tetradecanol (at a dose of 0.5 g/kg) with furosemide — 7.49 ± 0.48 mL. Biochemical analysis revealed: in animals receiving furosemide, urea (33.76 ± 2.9 mg/dL) and creatinine (1.22 ± 0.06 mg/dL) levels were reduced, while ALT and AST levels were elevated — 89.84 ± 7.5 and 127.75 ± 22.0 U/L, respectively; in animals receiving 2-decyl-1-tetradecanol (combined with furosemide), urea (35.26 ± 2.2 mg/dL), creatinine (0.98 ± 0.03 mg/dL), ALT — 66.18 ± 3.3 U/L, and AST — 139.70 ± 18.1 U/L; in the control group, urea (35.62 ± 2.4 mg/dL), creatinine (0.97 ± 0.14 mg/dL), ALT

(64.36 ± 4.2 U/L), and AST (139.10 ± 19.1 U/L). Upon administration of antidiuretic hormone (10 mg/kg), similar results were obtained. The authors also determined the LD₁₀₀ of *A. lanata herba* extract, which was 20.4 g/kg body weight of the rat [218].

An ethyl acetate extract showed efficacy against *Staphylococcus aureus* (20 mm), *Streptomyces griseus*, and *Bacillus subtilis* (18 mm); the ethanol extract showed better results against *Salmonella typhi* (25 mm), *Staphylococcus aureus* (23 mm), *Bacillus subtilis* (22 mm), *Escherichia coli* (22 mm), and *Streptomyces gresius* (21 mm) [219, 220].

Aerva lanata herba is part of phytopreparations such as “Aerva lanata Herb” pack 50 g, “Aerva lanata Herb” filter bags 1.5 g × 20. Drugs of *Aerva lanata* are used for kidney and bladder diseases as diuretic and anti-inflammatory agents [194].

Rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.)

Rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.) is a perennial evergreen shrub of the genus *Rosmarinus* L. of the *Lamiaceae* Lindl. family.

The main classes of BASs in rosemary leaves (*Rosmarini officinalis folia*) are essential oil components, including the main ones — the monocyclic monoterpene 1,8-cineole and bicyclic monoterpenes α -pinene and camphor, as well as phenylpropanoids, particularly rosmarinic acid. In 70 % alcoholic extracts of *R. officinalis* leaves harvested in the botanical garden of Pyatigorsk Medical Pharmaceutical Institute, catechin, epicatechin, quercetin, apigenin, rosmarinic acid (0.181–0.184 % calculated as dry raw material), caffeic, gallic, chlorogenic, and ferulic acids were found; in rosemary raw material from the Nikitsky Botanical Garden (Republic of Crimea), the sum of phenolic acids was 3.69 ± 0.12 % calculated as rosmarinic acid, and cinnamic acid was also identified [221, 222]. In rosemary leaf samples harvested in the USA, the content of rosmarinic acid was 14311.0 ± 636.4 μ g/g, luteolin-3'-acetyl-O-glucuronide — 1488.50 ± 47.58 μ g/g, luteolin-7-O-glucuronide — 1053.68 ± 68.83 μ g/g, sage acid — 819.93 ± 46.07 μ g/g, 12-methoxycarnosic acid — 982.78 ± 32.77 μ g/g, carnosic acid — 797.75 ± 32.70 μ g/g, carnosol — 698.78 ± 21.07 μ g/g, rosmadial — 588.64 ± 24.14 μ g/g, and rosmanol —

218.48 ± 11.70 µg/g [223]. In a methanolic extract from raw material grown in Egypt, the predominant compounds were naringenin — 2038 µg/g, ferulic acid — 2017.27 µg/g, catechin — 1094.63 µg/g, caffeic acid — 868.92 µg/g, gallic acid — 564.98 µg/g, syringic acid — 310.83 µg/g, rutin — 226.78 µg/g, and chlorogenic acid — 144.27 µg/g [224].

Rosemary leaf essential oil is a mobile liquid from colorless to light yellow with a strong specific camphor odor. The average yield of essential oil obtained from *R. officinalis* leaves varies from 1.0 % to 2.5 % depending on the plant's growing region: in the Krasnodar Territory (Russia) — 2.58 % [225]; in the Republic of Dagestan (Russia) — 2.36 % [226]; in Iraq — 1.5 % [227]. The main components of essential oil from rosemary leaves grown in the Republic of Crimea (Russia) are camphor 18.9–32.6 %, 1,8-cineole 14.2–22.9 %, α -pinene 8.3–12.0 %, linalool 8.2 % [228]; in Saudi Arabia — bornyl acetate 26.59 %, 1,8-cineole 17.38 %, camphor 10.42 %, borneol 9.78 %, β -caryophyllene 7.80 %, α -pinene 3.85 % [229]; in Algeria — camphor 41.2 %, camphene 18.1 %, α -pinene 17.4 % [230]; in the Republic of Dagestan (Russia) — α -pinene 40.93–47.51 %, verbenone 15.92 %, 1,8-cineole 9.06 %, camphor 4.39 %, limonene 4.33 % [226]; in Iraq — 1,8-cineole 53.63 %, camphor 37.32 %, borneol 3.66 %, β -linalool 0.84 % [227].

A 90 % methanolic extract of rosemary showed antibacterial activity against *Acinetobacter baumannii* and *Enterococcus faecalis* with inhibition zones at 100 mg/mL — 33 mm and 25 mm, at 50.0 mg/mL — 31 mm and 20 mm, at 20 mg/mL — 30 mm and 18 mm, at 12.5 mg/mL — 27 mm and 23 mm, respectively [227]. An infusion of rosemary leaves grown in India inhibited the growth zone of *Streptococcus pyogenes* by 4 mm and *Escherichia coli* by 5 mm; a methanolic extract inhibited the growth zone of *Escherichia coli* by 8 mm, *Staphylococcus aureus* by 10 mm, and *Streptococcus pyogenes* by 11 mm; an acetone extract showed activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, and *Escherichia coli*, slowing pathogen growth by 7 and 8 mm, respectively [231]. The antibacterial activity of a dry extract (extractant 96 % ethanol) of raw material from Jordan was tested against PMs isolated from the urine of 500 patients with CIDKUT. The extract demonstrated inhibition zones:

10 mm for *Enterococcus faecalis* and 16 mm for *Escherichia coli*. Minimum inhibitory concentration and minimum bactericidal concentration values of *R. officinalis* extract ranged as follows: *Escherichia coli* (4 and 8 mg/mL); *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (8 and 16 mg/mL); *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (16 and 32 mg/mL); *Enterococcus faecalis* (32 mg/mL and 64 mg/mL). Also, a concentration of 100 mg/mL reduced *Escherichia coli* biofilm formation by 70 % [232].

In a model of oxalate nephrolithiasis in Sprague-Dawley albino rats, the antilithogenic activity of an ethanol extract from rosemary leaves at a dosage of 200 mg/kg was established, which on the 35th day of the experiment reduced serum creatinine levels — 4.80 ± 1.360 mg/dL, urea — 24.51 ± 1.097 mg/dL, uric acid — 4.46 ± 1.003 mg/dL, calcium — 3.92 ± 0.026 mg/dL, and protein in urine — 1.30 ± 2.001 mg/dL ($p < 0.01$) compared to the control of 6.97 ± 1.370 mg/dL, 28.18 ± 1.096, 6.28 ± 0.072, 4.03 ± 1.009, and 7.83 ± 0.930 mg/dL, and the standard drug "Cystone[®]" — 4.82 ± 0.098 mg/dL, 24.47 ± 1.027 mg/dL, 4.38 ± 0.860 mg/dL, 3.73 ± 0.039 mg/dL, and 1.27 ± 1.021 mg/dL ($p < 0.01$), respectively. Administration of the extract contributed to a reduction in the amount of substances responsible for stone formation [233]. The extract at a dose of 200 mg/kg demonstrated a diuretic effect, and at a dose of 400 mg/kg — an antipyretic effect in Wistar rats [234]. A dry methanolic extract at a dose of 100 mg/kg exerted a nephroprotective effect in Wistar albino rats, binding to nickel chloride and protecting kidney tissue from oxidative damage [235].

When investigating the antispasmodic activity of a dry aqueous extract at doses of 150 µg/mL, 300 µg/mL, 600 µg/mL, and 1200 µg/mL on isolated smooth muscle fragments of the urinary bladder of male Sprague Dawley albino rats, it was found that the extract does not possess myogenic activity towards spasms of rat bladder smooth muscle induced by acetylcholine and potassium chloride [236]. Studies of the essential oil show that its anti-inflammatory activity arises from the inhibition of NF- κ B transcription and suppression of the arachidonic acid cascade [237].

Rosemary leaf extract is part of botanicals such as "Kanefron[®] N", film-coated tablets, and "Kanefron[®] N", oral drops (Bionorica, Germany) [238] and their

analogues. Rosemary drugs are used in the therapy of kidney and urinary tract diseases as diuretic, antispasmodic, antibacterial, and anti-inflammatory agents [239].

Garden lovage (*Levisticum officinale* Koch.)

Garden lovage (*Levisticum officinale* Koch.) is a perennial herbaceous plant of the genus *Levisticum* Hill. of the *Apiaceae* Lindl. family.

The main classes of BASs in garden lovage rhizomes and roots (*Levistici officinalis rhizomata et radices*) are essential oil, containing phthalide (Z)-ligustilide, and furanocoumarins, among which pimpinellin dominates. The component composition of coumarins was studied in methanolic extracts of dried and fresh roots of 3-year-old *L. officinale* cultivated in the Republic of Bashkortostan (Russia). Psoralen, bergapten, imperatorin, osthol, umbelliferone, aesculin, isopimpinellin, isobergapten, angelicin, xanthotoxin, isoimperatorin, peucedanin, and vaginol-8-O-glucoside (apterin) were identified in the lovage raw material. The total coumarin content in fresh and dried roots varied from 1739 to 2902 µg/g (variety Gerakl) and from 15.12 to 24.46 mg/g (variety Lider), respectively. The leading furanocoumarins were apterin, xanthotoxin, isopimpinellin, and pimpinellin, with contents ranging from 197 µg/g to 357 µg/g, from 152 µg/g to 352 µg/g, from 486 µg/g to 863 µg/g, from 904 µg/g to 1296 µg/g, and from 1.53 µg/g to 4.11 mg/g, from 1.40 µg/g to 3.75 mg/g, from 4.83 µg/g to 7.80 mg/g, and from 7.36 µg/g to 11.26 mg/g, respectively.

Significant differences in coumarin content in fresh and dried lovage roots were found during raw material storage at different temperature regimes (in a cool place and at room temperature) in an experiment [240].

In Iran, from the ethyl acetate extract of lovage rhizomes and roots, furanocoumarins bergapten, isogosferol, oxypeucedanin, oxypeucedanin hydrate, and imperatorin; the phenylpropanoid ferulic acid; and the polyacetylene (polyine) falcariindiol were isolated individually [241]. In studies by Russian scientists, a 96 % ethanol extract showed a total coumarin content of 6.67 % calculated as angelicin and dry raw material [242], and in the initial raw material — 0.213 ± 0.009 % calculated as psoralen and dry raw material [243].

The yield of essential oil obtained from dried *L. officinale* rhizomes and roots varies from 0.11 % to 1.80 % [244]. The main components in the essential oil from raw material grown in the Republic of Moldova are α-terpinyl acetate — 30.99 %, β-phellandrene — 22.39 %, (Z)-ligustilide — 11.18 %, β-myrcene — 8.65 %, sabinene — 3.39 %, with the first identification of 6-butylcyclohepta-1,4-diene — 0.56 % and 7-formyl-4-methylcoumarin — 0.15 % [245]; in the essential oil from raw material grown in Iran, terpinyl acetate — 21.1–42.1 %, Z-β-ocimene — 13–28.1 %, neocnidilide — 4.8–11.6 %, Z-ligustilide — 0.8–5.8 %, and pentylcyclohexadiene 2.2–2.4 % [246]; in the essential oil from raw material grown in France and Belgium — phthalide isomers (Z)-3-butylidenephthalide and (Z)-ligustilide — 73.2–82.6 %; in the essential oil from raw material grown in Scotland — β-phellandrene — 48.9 %, phenylacetaldehyde — 17.2 %; in the essential oil from raw material grown in the Netherlands, α-terpinyl acetate — 38.2 %; in the essential oil from raw material grown in Estonia, (E)-ligustilide — 52.4–70.9 %, pentylcyclohexadiene — 12.3 %, β-phellandrene — 11.3 % [244].

Phthalides 7-methoxy-3-propylidenephthalide, 5-hydroxybutylidenephthalide, and 7-hydroxybutylidenephthalide, isolated from *L. officinale*, exhibit antibacterial activity. Minimum inhibitory concentration studies showed varying sensitivity of PMs to 7-hydroxybutylidenephthalide, which ranges as follows: *Escherichia coli* (16 µg/mL), *Staphylococcus aureus* (64 µg/mL), and *Enterococcus faecium* (128 µg/mL). 5-Hydroxybutylidenephthalide demonstrated moderate activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* (128 µg/mL) and *Escherichia coli* (256 µg/mL). The lowest activity was observed with 7-methoxy-3-propylidenephthalide with a minimum inhibitory concentration of > 256 µg/mL against all strains [248]. The essential oil of Iranian origin, containing terpinyl acetate 21.1–42.1 %, Z-β-ocimene 13–28.1 %, neocnidilide 4.8–11.6 %, Z-ligustilide 0.8–5.8 %, and pentylcyclohexadiene 2.2–2.4 %, exhibits antibacterial activity against strains of *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Enterococcus faecium*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* with minimum inhibitory concentration values of 32 mg/mL [246].

In *in vivo* studies, a dry ethanol extract (extractant

70 % ethanol) showed that diuresis induced by the extract (at a dosage of 975 mg/kg) was 6.37 ± 1.16 mL ($p < 0.01$) compared to the hydrochlorothiazide group (at a dosage of 4.6 mg/kg) of 9.4 ± 1.36 mL ($p < 0.01$) and the control group of 2.12 ± 0.55 mL [252].

Extracts of garden lovage rhizomes and roots are part of botanicals such as “Phytolysin”, capsules No. 40, and “Phytolysin”, paste for preparing oral suspension (Herbapol, Poland), “Kanefron® N”, film-coated tablets, and “Kanefron® N”, oral drops (Bionorica, Germany), and their analogues [253]. Lovage preparations are used for the treatment of kidney and bladder diseases as diuretic, antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, antispasmodic, and antilithogenic agents [105, 254].

Canada goldenrod (*Solidago canadensis* L.)

Canada goldenrod (*Solidago canadensis* L.) is a perennial herbaceous plant of the genus *Solidago* L. of the *Asteraceae* L. family.

The main BASs of Canada goldenrod herb (*Solidago canadensis herba*) are flavonoids. The most significant compound is the flavonol rutin (quercetin-3-O- β -rutoside) [255]. In a dry alcohol-ether extract from *S. canadensis* inflorescences, aglycones — quercetin, kaempferol, and isorhamnetin, and their glycosides quercetin-3-O- β -D-rutoside (rutin), quercetin-3-O- β -D-glucoside (isoquercitrin), quercetin-3-O-6"-acetylglucoside, quercetin-3-O- β -D-rhamnoside; kaempferol-3-6"-acetyl- β -glucoside, kaempferol-3-O- α -L-rutoside (nicotiflorin), kaempferol-3-6"-O-acetyl- β -glucoside; isorhamnetin-3-O- α -L-rhamnopyranoside were found [256]. From the butanol fraction of an 80 % ethanol extract of *S. canadensis herba* (Russian raw material samples), 4 individual compounds were isolated: quercetin-3-O- β -D-6"-acetyl-glucopyranoside (8.2 mg); quercetin-3-O-rutinoside (rutin) (6.93 mg); quercetin (3.34 mg); and isorhamnetin-3-O- β -D-rutinoside (narcissin) (3.02 mg) [257]. In a 70 % ethanol extract of raw material from the Tver region, chicoric, caffeic, chlorogenic, quinic, and ferulic acids were identified. The total content of hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives was $(1.16 \text{ g} \pm 10.7 \text{ mg})/100 \text{ g}$, with caffeic acid being dominant $(0.6 \text{ g} \pm 12.3 \text{ mg})/100 \text{ g}$, calculated as dry raw material [258].

The component composition of essential oil from *Canada goldenrod herba* was also studied; its basis

consists of monoterpene (49.02 %) and sesquiterpene (24.26 %) hydrocarbons, monoterpene (7.13 %) and sesquiterpene (6.03 %) alcohols, esters, and monoterpene carbonyl compounds (3.88 %). In the essential oil obtained from Egyptian raw material, the main components were germacrene D (9.86–29.47 %), α -pinene (3.38–29.17 %), γ -cadinene (0.39–20.36 %), myrcene (2.98–13.74 %), and limonene (4.81–11.47 %) [259]; in the essential oil of goldenrod herb from Slovakia, the main components are germacrene D (34.9 %), limonene (12.5 %), α -pinene (11.6 %), β -elemene (7.1 %), and bornyl acetate (6.3 %) [260].

The minimum inhibitory concentration against PMs was studied for the essential oil obtained from a Romanian raw material sample containing α -pinene (27.89 %), germacrene D (13.17 %), limonene (12.28 %), and bornyl acetate (5.76 %). It ranged from 1.41 mg/mL to 2.81 mg/mL for Gram-positive PMs and from 2.81 mg/mL to 22.5 mg/mL for Gram-negative PMs. Adhesion to the substrate was prevented only in Gram-positive bacterial strains and some yeasts (*Candida albicans* and *Candida famata*) at concentrations from 0.70 mg/mL to 2.81 mg/mL. The microbial adhesion index of the essential oil ranged from 0.19 % to 82.48 %. When testing antimicrobial and antifungal activities, the following values were obtained: *Candida utilis* — resistant; *Candida albicans* — 7.67 ± 0.47 mm; *Acinetobacter baumannii* — 7.67 ± 0.47 mm; *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* — 8 ± 0.82 mm; *Klebsiella pneumoniae* — 8 ± 0.82 mm; *Escherichia coli* — 8.33 ± 0.47 mm; *Candida famata* — 8.33 ± 0.47 mm; *Enterococcus faecalis* — 10.67 ± 0.47 mm; *Bacillus subtilis* — 21.5 ± 0.41 mm; *Staphylococcus aureus* — 22.67 ± 0.47 mm [261].

Upon analysis of scientific literature on the diuretic activity of *S. canadensis herba* botanicals, a deficit of scientific data was found. In studies by P.M. Abdel Baki et al., the diuretic activity of essential oil and standardized dry extract from *S. canadensis* inflorescences was studied (total phenolic compounds in the ethanol fraction — 9.38 ± 0.004 g calculated as gallic acid, and flavonoids in the aqueous extract — 39.75 ± 0.005 g calculated as rutin per 100 g of dry extract, respectively). Diuretic activity was calculated relative to furosemide (at a dose of 20 mg/kg, it showed equivalent activity). Results: 70 % ethanol

extract (at a dose of 400 mg/kg) exhibited the highest diuretic activity (91 % of furosemide activity) and was higher than spironolactone and “Cystinol®” (59 % and 74 % of furosemide activity, respectively); the ethyl acetate fraction of the ethanol extract (400 mg/kg) showed moderate effect values (58 % of furosemide activity); the aqueous extract (400 mg/kg) showed lower diuretic activity (46 % of furosemide activity); the essential oil (400 mg/kg) showed the lowest efficacy (31 % of furosemide activity) [262].

Extract of Canada goldenrod herb is part of complex herbal MPs — “Marelin®”, film-coated tablets (ZAO “VIFITEKH”, Russia), “Phytolysin®”, capsules No. 40, “Phytolysin®”, paste for preparing oral suspension (Herbapol, Poland), “ProstaNorm®”, film-coated tablets (JSC “PharmVILAR”, Russia). Goldenrod preparations are used for the treatment and prevention of kidney, bladder, and prostate diseases as diuretic, antispasmodic, anti-inflammatory, and lithokinetic agents [263].

Common juniper (*Juniperus communis* L.)

Common juniper (*Juniperus communis* L.) is a perennial shrub of the genus *Juniperus* L. of the *Cupressaceae* Gray. family.

The main group of BASs in common juniper fruits (*Juniperi communis fructus*) is essential oil. The dominant component is the bicyclic monoterpene α -pinene (from 31.0 % to 49.0 %) [264]. Monoterpene hydrocarbons constitute the main group of essential oil components (73.5–93.7 %) [265]. In the essential oil from juniper fruits collected in India, the component composition is represented by monoterpene hydrocarbons, including α -pinene (14.31–27.37 %), D-limonene (15.80–29.70 %), β -myrcene (4.12–14.23 %); sesquiterpene alcohols, including β -elemene (0.77–3.65 %) and germacrene D (0.20–6.15 %); sesquiterpenoid hydrocarbons, including α -cadinol (5.63 %) and α -bisabolol (0.95–6.71 %) [266]. In an essential oil sample from fruits collected in Portugal, 97 compounds were identified, constituting (99.2–99.9 %) of the total oil, with high content of α -pinene (41.6 %), β -pinene (27.6 %), and limonene (6.4 %). A commercial essential oil sample contained a lower amount of α -pinene (31.1 %) [267]. Essential oil from juniper fruits growing in northern Iran included sabinene (36.8 %), α -pinene (20 %), limonene

(10.6 %), germacrene D (8.2 %), and myrcene (4.8 %) as main components [268]. Analysis of the volatile organic compound composition of essential oil from different regions of Russia (Saratov, Moscow, Leningrad, Novosibirsk regions) showed that elevated concentrations of main components were found in the Novosibirsk region: α -pinene (59.81 %), β -pinene (14.84 %), α -limonene (2.50 %), β -caryophyllene (2.20 %), terpinene-4-ol (2.0 %), α -terpineol (1.73 %), o-cymene (1.72 %), camphene (1.70 %), and longifolene (1.14 %) [269].

The diuretic effect of *J. communis* botanicals is due to the ability of essential oil components (terpinene-4-ol, etc.) to irritate the urothelium of the renal glomeruli, promoting increased diuresis [270], which explains the contraindications for individuals with acute inflammatory kidney diseases [271].

In studies, a 10 % infusion of dried juniper fruits, juniper essential oil (0.1 % aqueous solution), and terpinene-4-ol (0.01 % aqueous solution) effectively stimulated diuresis in rats from the 2nd day without electrolyte loss, with the infusion showing the greatest diuretic activity on the second (+43 %) and third days (+44 %) [272]. An aqueous extract from juniper fruits at doses of 500 mg/mL, 1000 mg/mL, and 2000 mg/mL *in vitro* reduced the weight of calculi consisting of calcium oxalate (50 %), calcium phosphate (20 %), ammonium magnesium orthophosphate (10 %), and ammonium (20 %) from 1458 mg to 1162 mg, 1124 mg, 1136 mg, 1144 mg, 1096 mg, 1126 mg, and 1130 mg, respectively [273].

Dry hexane, chloroform, ethyl acetate, methanolic, and aqueous extracts (aqueous solutions in 1 % dimethyl sulfoxide) at a dose of 10 μ L were tested for antibacterial activity against PMs *Acinetobacter baylyi*, *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Proteus vulgaris*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Staphylococcus aureus*. All tested extracts were moderate inhibitors of bacterial growth. The most susceptible bacterial species to all extracts was *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Proteus* spp. were very sensitive to all extracts except the hexane extract. Methanolic, aqueous, and ethyl acetate extracts inhibited the growth of *Acinetobacter baylyi* and *Staphylococcus aureus*, while *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were inhibited only by methanolic and aqueous extracts. The ethyl acetate extract

demonstrated the highest activity against the growth of *Proteus mirabilis*, *Proteus vulgaris*, and *Staphylococcus aureus*. The ethyl acetate extract was an effective inhibitor of bacterial growth with minimum inhibitory concentration values < 1000 µg/mL against several bacterial species [274]. Essential oil from Romanian juniper fruits exhibits strong antifungal activity against *Aspergillus niger* (20.33 mm) and antibacterial activity against *Micrococcus luteus* (22.66 mm) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (17.33 mm), with lower efficacy against Gram-negative bacteria such as *Escherichia coli* (7 mm), which showed resistance to ampicillin. *Candida albicans* demonstrated resistance to the essential oil [271].

Dyers' madder and Georgian madder (*Rubia tinctorum* L.)

Dyers' madder (*Rubia tinctorum* L.) and Georgian madder (*Rubia iberica* (Fish. ex DC). C. Koch) are perennial herbaceous plants of the genus *Rubia* L. of the *Rubiaceae* Juss. family.

The main group of BASs in madder rhizomes and roots (*Rubiae rhizomata* et radices) are anthraquinones, among which the dominant and most active component is ruberythric acid (alizarin-2-xylosylglucoside). Madder rhizomes and roots are a source for obtaining "Madder Extract", tablets (JSC "Pharmcenter VILAR", ZAO "VIFITEKH", Russia), "Urocistenal", oral drops (OOO "Pharmamed", Russia), and others.

Madder rhizome and root extract possesses diuretic, antispasmodic, and stone-dissolving effects on phosphate calculi, promoting their excretion from the kidneys and urinary tract. The litholytic (stone-dissolving) effect of anthraquinones from madder is explained by complex formation with calcium and magnesium cations, which are components of loose-structure renal stones, primarily of phosphate nature. Extractive substances from madder rhizomes and roots help reduce the tone and increase the peristalsis of the renal pelvis and ureters, promoting the movement and excretion of calculi from the body.

Experimental studies have established that a renal stone weighing 20 mg decreased by 5 mg after 15-day exposure to a 5 % madder extract solution. The stone turned red and acquired a loose structure. During the study, the effect of dry madder extract on diuresis under water load in rats was evaluated.

Single administration of the extract (at a dose of 100 mg/kg) caused a 114 % increase in diuresis. With 12-fold administration of the extract (at a dose of 100 mg/kg) over 14 days, the following dynamics were observed: on the first day, diuresis increased by 40 %, and by the eighth day — by 55 %.

Clinical studies have demonstrated the efficacy of the extract in nephrolithiasis. In patients with calculi of various localization (kidneys, ureters, and bladder), taking the extract at 2 tablets 3 times a day for 15–25 days contributed to: a decrease in pain intensity and an increase in the excretion of sand and small calculi. After completing the course of treatment and surgical removal of large stones from the renal pelvis, no recurrences were observed within 6 months. Administration of the extract for one month contributed to an improvement in urine composition, a decrease in pyuria, and the disappearance of erythrocytes².

Official medicinal products for the treatment and prevention of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract

In most recommendations in global medical practice, antibiotic therapy is considered the primary and standard method for preventing CIDKUT recurrences [275]. For example, the recommended first-line empirical antibiotic therapy for acute uncomplicated bacterial cystitis in healthy non-pregnant women includes a 5-day course of nitrofurantoin, a single dose of fosfomycin, or a 5-day course of pivmecillinam [29, 276].

Plant-derived drugs are widely used as auxiliary, and less commonly, as primary agents in the comprehensive treatment and prevention of CIDKUT [277]. Combined MPs registered under the trade names "Kanefron® N", "Cystone®", "Phytolysin®", "Urolesan®", "Urohol®", "Rovatinex®", "Fito-nefrol®", and "Brusniver®" have gained the widest distribution [278, 279]. The active components of the listed MPs allow for the desired pharmacological effects, including improved renal blood flow, suppression of PMs, and increased diuresis, consequently leading to improved urodynamics of the urinary tract [280].

² Medicinal preparations from plants (VILAR's experience): a scientific publication; Vechkanova SA, Kolchir VK, Sokolskaya TA, Voskoboinikova IV, Bykov VA. Moscow: MADRID; 2009. 432 p. Russian

Medicinal products of the “Kanefron® N” series

The therapeutic effect of the “Kanefron® N” series of MPs (Bionorica SE, Germany) is achieved through the combination of BASs from a mixture of MPRMs — herb of centaury (*Centaurei herba*), roots of garden lovage (*Levistici officinalis radices*), and leaves of rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis folia*). “Kanefron® N” series MPs are used in three dosage forms — as film-coated tablets containing either a mixture of powdered MPRMs or a total extract from the MPRM mixture in one formulation, and as a solution (drops) containing an extract from the MPRM mixture in another. “Kanefron® N” series MPs possess diuretic, antispasmodic, antibacterial, and anti-inflammatory activity and are used in the treatment of acute and chronic kidney and bladder infections (pyelonephritis and cystitis), as well as urolithiasis [281].

In studies on rats with cystitis, it was found that “Kanefron® N” series MPs reduce the intensity of the inflammatory process and hyperalgesia. Researchers attribute these effects to the inhibition of prostaglandin E2 and leukotriene B4 biosynthesis [282]. “Kanefron® N” series MPs selectively inhibited NF-κB cytokines, responsible for the immune response in inflammatory reactions, positioning them as immunomodulators. The study authors also found that “Kanefron® N” series MPs exhibit RIPK1 inhibitor properties — a protein involved in cell apoptosis, which is of particular significance in inflammatory processes caused by uropathogens [283].

In primary healthcare, treatment with “Kanefron® N” allows avoiding additional antibiotic load in most patients with acute recurrent cystitis and chronic pyelonephritis [284].

Several studies on the use of “Kanefron® N” series MPs in combination with traditional MPs have proven that “Kanefron® N” effectively reduces inflammation, improves renal microcirculation, and lowers pro-inflammatory cytokine levels [285, 286]. The combination of “Kanefron® N” + “Furamag®” (furazidin) significantly reduces the number of relapses in the long term [287, 288]. The combination of “Kanefron® N” + “Flamax Forte®” (ketoprofen) achieves efficacy without the use of antibacterial agents [289].

Studies confirm the safety of “Kanefron® N” series MPs regarding the fetus. During the first trimester of pregnancy, “Kanefron® N” did not exert a teratogenic

effect on the fetus or affect the general condition of newborns [290]. Therapy in women of reproductive age suffering from acute recurrent cystitis shows a decrease in the frequency of relapses, as well as cases of bacteriuria and pyuria. The use of MP “Kanefron® N” reduces the risk of bacterial resistance to antibiotics [291]. In the treatment of asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnant women, in the group treated with the classical antibiotic therapy regimen (fosfomycin 3 g single dose or cefixime 400 mg once daily for 7 days or amoxicillin-clavulanate (500 + 125 mg) three times daily for 7 days), cystitis occurred in one patient, and pyelonephritis in three; in the group receiving therapy with the plant-based preparation, the outcome was more favorable — one case of cystitis and no cases of pyelonephritis [292].

In the treatment of chronic pyelonephritis, 6 months after completing treatment with “Kanefron® N”, patients showed no bacteriuria, leukocyturia, lumbar pain, or elevated temperature. In the second group, the situation was as follows: patients retained leukocyturia and bacteriuria. Thus, the second group of patients showed slower recovery and retained some symptoms even six months after the start of treatment [293]. A comparison of the efficacy of monotherapy with “Kanefron® N” and ciprofloxacin revealed that with phytotherapy for 30 days, the probability of recurrence within a year was 5 %, while with antibiotic use, this indicator reached 12.5 %. Side effects were not identified with phytotherapy, whereas they were observed in 18.8% of cases in classical therapy [294].

The efficacy of “Kanefron® N” series MPs was also studied in Phase III clinical trials. In the group of patients using “Kanefron® N”, it was found that 238 patients (83.5 %) did not require additional antibiotic therapy ($p < 0.0014$). During the study, 13 patients (4.0 %) experienced side effects in the form of gastrointestinal dyspeptic disorders, while in the group receiving fosfomycin antibiotic therapy, there were 22 such cases (6.6 %). In the group using fosfomycin, one patient experienced an exacerbation of chronic pancreatitis, and one case (0.3 %) of mild pyelonephritis was recorded. In 5 patients (1.5 %) in the group using “Kanefron® N”, pyelonephritis was detected — in 4 patients in a mild form and in 1 in a moderate form. The authors attribute this to the

fact that 3 episodes of pyelonephritis occurred on the same day and 1 episode the next day, which may indicate that the disease could have developed without diagnostic signs [295, 296].

During the study of the efficacy of monotherapy with “Kanefron® N” series preparations, it was found that they demonstrated high efficacy in treating acute cystitis. Fifty-one women participated in the study, with “Kanefron® N” ensuring complete recovery in 22 patients from the main group (88.5 %), and the risk of recurrence was recorded in two (7.7 %) [297].

The State Pharmacopoeia of the Russian Federation, 15th ed. (pharmacopoeial articles: GPhM.3.4.0028.22 “Centaury Herb + Garden Lovage Rhizomes and Roots + Common Rosemary Leaves Liquid Extract, Oral Solution” and GPhM.4.0027.22 “Centaury Herb + Garden Lovage Rhizomes and Roots + Common Rosemary Leaves, Tablets”) regulates the quality of MPs comprising the “Kanefron® N” series, as well as its analogues — “Nephrosten®” (ZAO “Evalar”, Russia), “Kanefit®” (ZAO “VIFITEKH”, Russia), Phytofron® (JSC “PharmVILAR”, Russia), etc.

Medicinal products of the “Phytolysin®” series

“Phytolysin®” series MPs (Herbapol, Poland) are produced in two dosage forms — capsules for oral administration and paste for preparing oral suspension. “Phytolysin®” is a combined MPs containing a mixture of extractive substances or thick extracts of curly parsley roots, fenugreek seeds, knotgrass herb, creeping wheatgrass rhizomes, birch leaves, common horsetail herb, garden lovage rhizomes and roots, common goldenrod herb, and dry outer scales of onion bulbs. The composition has diuretic, anti-inflammatory, and antispasmodic effects and promotes reduced crystallization [105, 254]. “Phytolysin®” series preparations help reduce clinical symptoms of infectious diseases, normalize diuresis, and increase urine pH, which directly affects the level of stone-forming substances. With prolonged use, they reduce the number of urolithiasis recurrences [298] by enhancing uric acid excretion [299]. Comprehensive therapy of acute and recurrent chronic cystitis with “Phytolysin®” series preparations allowed for the relief of major infection manifestations within 3–4 days. Patients reported no recurrences for six months after therapy [300]. Combined antibacterial therapy using

“Phytolysin®” in conjunction with fosfomycin achieved sterile urine cultures in patients after three months of treatment [301].

Medicinal products of the “Urolesan®” series

“Urolesan®” series MPs (OOO “ART-PHARM”, Russia) are available in three dosage forms — capsules for oral administration, solution (drops) for oral administration, and syrup. An analogue of “Urolesan®” is “Urohol®”, oral drops (ZAO “VIFITEKH”, Russia). The active components of the MPs are Siberian fir needle essential oil, peppermint leaf essential oil, wild carrot seed liquid extract, common hop cone liquid extract, common oregano herb liquid extract, and castor bean seed fixed oil. The drop form of the preparation contains ethanol (60 % to 80 % vol.).

In clinical studies ($n = 195$), it was found that when “Urolesan®” series MPs were prescribed, positive dynamics in relieving acute cystitis symptoms were achieved in 82.6 % of cases in capsule form and 80.9 % in drop form [302].

The litholytic activity of “Urolesan®” series MPs was established. Ninety-five patients diagnosed with urolithiasis participated in the study. The size and average density of concretions in patients were (7.4 ± 0.5) mm and (767 ± 25) Hounsfield units, respectively. Patients were divided into a control group ($n = 40$) and a group receiving treatment with “Urolesan®” for 1 month. As a result, in the “Urolesan®” group, a reduction in concretion size and density to (6.2 ± 0.3) mm and (623 ± 20) units, respectively, was observed. Results in the control group were as follows: stone size and density 7.2 ± 0.3 mm and 754 ± 22 units, respectively [303].

The possibility of using “Urolesan®” series MPs was also studied in pediatric practice. Sixty-three children aged 5 to 15 years diagnosed with “chronic complicated pyelonephritis and secondary hyperoxaluria” participated in the study. Patients were divided into two groups: Group 1 received “Urolesan®” syrup according to the instructions for use in combination with antibiotic therapy and furazidin in prophylactic dose; Group 2 received antibiotic therapy in combination with furazidin in prophylactic dose and did not receive “Urolesan®”. As a result, general urine analysis parameters normalized in both groups, with Group 1 showing improvements 2–3 days earlier.

Normalization of oxalate excretion and urine pH after one month of therapy was recorded in 25 (78.1 %) patients (in the control group, 19–61.3 %), and serum uric acid levels were 1.2–1.5 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ compared to baseline. Asymptomatic bacteriuria was observed in only one patient in Group 1 and four in Group 2. Relapses were absent in 30 patients (93.7 % of cases) in Group 1 and 25 (80.6 %) patients in Group 2. During therapy, botanicals were well tolerated. Two patients experienced a mild allergic rash while taking “Urolesan®” [304, 305].

“Brusniver®” herbal collection

The herbal collection “Brusniver®” (JSC “Krasnogorsklekredstva”, Russia) consists of the following components: common bearberry leaves — *Vaccinii vitis-idaeae folia* (50 %), St. John’s wort herb — *Hyperici herba* (20 %), rosehip fruits — *Rosae fructus* (20 %), three-part beggar-ticks herb — *Bidentii tripartitae herba* (10 %). The collection in the form of infusion and decoction exhibits antimicrobial, pronounced anti-inflammatory, and mild diuretic activity.

The bacteriostatic effect of an aqueous extract from the “Brusniver®” collection was studied using the double serial dilution method. *In vitro* experiments showed that the extract from the collection had antimicrobial and antifungal activity against a range of pathogenic microorganisms, including Gram-positive *Staphylococcus aureus* 209-P; Gram-negative bacteria *Escherichia coli* M-17, *Proteus vulgaris* H-3137, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 44; yeast-like and mold fungi *Microsporum lanosum*, *Candida albicans* 1755. During the study, the effect of the infusion from the collection on diuresis in rats was evaluated. The infusion was administered at a dose of 1000 mg/kg and exerted a diuretic effect in experiments with 5-hour diuresis, increasing urine output by 11.9 %.

The efficacy of combined therapy in patients ($n = 31$) with various nosological forms of CIDKUT (pyelonephritis, urolithiasis, urethritis, prostatitis, and cystitis) was studied in clinical trials using an infusion from the “Brusniver®” collection in combination with broad-spectrum antibacterial drugs (cephalosporins, aminoglycosides, semi-synthetic penicillins). The therapy demonstrated a positive effect in 26 patients (83.8 %)³.

³ Ibid.

Official medicinal products for the treatment and prevention of urolithiasis

Medicinal products “Rovatinex®”, enteric-coated capsules

Currently, terpenes derived from plant raw materials are successfully used in medicine [306]. Terpene-based preparations possess antispasmodic, diuretic, anti-inflammatory, and lithokinetic actions [307]. An example of such a preparation is “Rovatinex®” [308]. The active substances of “Rovatinex®” (Rova Pharmaceuticals Ltd, Ireland) are anethole, borneol, camphene, and cineole, which exert diuretic, anti-inflammatory, and antibacterial effects; pinene enhances renal blood flow; fenchone initiates antispasmodic effect [309]. “Rovatinex®” is a drug of choice for lithokinetic therapy of calculi of various chemical etiologies, as well as in the complex therapy of chronic pyelonephritis [21, 310].

In *in vivo* studies, it was demonstrated that upon administration of “Rovatinex®”, patients experienced a decrease in leukocyturia, and daily diuresis increased, which facilitated the effective passage of calculi. Stone migration after extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy and administration of “Rovatinex®” in the control group was observed on days 1–5 [309]. Urine pH was also normalized, which directly affects the reduction of urolithiasis recurrences. Course administration of “Rovatinex®” was not accompanied by complications or side effects [311–313].

In a study by W.N. Jaffal, the lithokinetic activity of “Rovatinex®” and tamsulosin after extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy was investigated. Patients were divided into groups: Group A, consisting of 28 patients, served as the control group; Group B, consisting of 28 patients, received tamsulosin capsules 0.4 mg once daily; Group C, consisting of 28 patients, received “Rovatinex®” one capsule three times a day before meals. Clinical success was defined as the presence of residual calculi with a diameter of 4 mm or less. Clinical success was achieved in: 23 % of patients in Group A; 48 % in Group B; 44 % in Group C. After 8 weeks, the following dynamics were observed: Group A — 46 %; Group B — 80 %; Group C — 76 %. No complications were observed during treatment, except for hematuria, which was noted in 26 % of patients in Group A, 8 % in Group B, and 12 % in Group C [314].

Later, in a study by H.R. Mohammed et al., the efficacy of “Rovatinex®” was confirmed. Four weeks

after taking "Rovatinex®" ($n = 30$), 8 (13.3 %) patients had complete disappearance of calculi, compared to the control group (1 patient — 6.7 % in the control group). After eight weeks — in 53.3 % of patients (33.3 % in the control group) ($p > 0.05$). After twelve weeks, in 93.3 % of cases in the group receiving medicine "Rovatinex®", complete stone clearance was observed compared to the control group (80 %) ($p > 0.05$) [315].

Medicinal product "Cystone®", tablets

"Cystone®" (Himalaya Drug Co., India) includes the following active components: extract of two-lobed stem flowers, extract of saxifrage tongue stem, extract of heart-leaved madder stem, extract of couch grass rhizomes, extract of rough-fruited cinquefoil seeds, extract of bracteate onosma herb, extract of ash-colored vernonia, powder of silicate of lime, and powder of purified mumijo [316]. 192 patients participated in clinical studies. The study showed that in 107 (64.84 %) patients, "Cystone®" promoted stone dissolution (lysis); in 10 (6.06 %) patients, stone size decreased; in 17 (10.3 %) patients, size did not change; in 31 (18.78 %) patients, stone size increased [317, 318]. The use of "Cystone®" in combination with hydrochlorothiazide did not enhance the efficacy of monotherapy with the plant-based drug in treating and eliminating urinary tract stones [319].

Medicinal products containing madder extract

Extracts from madder rhizomes and roots (see subsection "Dyers' madder and Georgian madder") are part of many herbal collections and combined MPs with urolithic activity. The most well-known among them are "Cystenal", oral drops, "Madder Extract", 250 mg tablets, and "Marelin®", film-coated tablets.

"Marelin®" is a combined MPs (ZAO "VIFITEKH", Russia), which includes extracts of dyers' madder rhizomes and roots, Canada goldenrod herb, common horsetail herb, lily of the valley cardiac glycoside sum, kelling furanocoumarin, and salicylamide. The preparation has diuretic properties, enhances the peristalsis of the renal pelvis and ureter musculature. It is used as a remedy for treating kidney stone disease [25, 320].

In studies conducted by V.V. Ivanov, the clinical efficacy of "Marelin®" was investigated. It was found

that over six years of therapy, 30 patients in the main group (100 people) receiving therapy with "Marelin®" experienced recurrent relapses. In the control group (also 100 people), which did not receive treatment with the botanicals, relapses occurred in 70 people [321].

Promising sources of plant-based medicinal products for the treatment of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract

The current state of the Russian pharmaceutical market is characterized by the prevalence of domestic monopreparations. In the segment of multicomponent plant-based MPs, approximately 70 % are represented by foreign products [322, 323]. Under these conditions, the search for new sources of BASs among non-official domestic plant raw materials, and the expansion of the range of medicinal products with a full technological production cycle within the country, leading to a reduction in imports of drugs and raw materials from other countries, become particularly significant. This is especially important for ensuring national security and supply stability. Competitive Russian drugs can be in demand on the international market, contributing to increased exports and strengthening the position of the Russian Federation in the international pharmaceutical market.

True bedstraw (*Galium verum* L.)

True bedstraw (*Galium verum* L.) is a perennial herbaceous plant of the genus *Galium* L. of the *Rubiaceae* Juss. family [324].

Currently, true bedstraw is not an official MPRMs source. Data on the plant's use in folk medicine should be considered. The above-ground part of *G. verum* is used for epilepsy seizures and psychoses. In Serbia, *G. verum* is used as a tonic, antiscorbutic, and sedative agent. Several other properties have been noted: diaphoretic, diuretic, and antispasmodic; it is also used for treating skin diseases [325].

True bedstraw herb (*Galii veri herba*) has attracted the scientific community's attention as a promising source of BASs in the last decade. In a study by I.L. Shynkovenko et al., the chromatographic profile of an alcoholic extract of *G. verum* (extractant 96% ethanol) was studied. Seven saponins belonging to the ursane type (ursolic, euscaphic, tormentic acids, and uvaol), oleanane type (oleanolic acid), and lupane

type (betulin and lupeol) were detected, with lupane-type saponins predominating (2.50 mg/mL), and lupeol being the dominant compound (1.60 mg/mL) [326].

In *G. verum herba*, iridoid glycosides — derivatives of asperuloside and loganin — were identified [327]: asperuloside, asperulosidic acid, diacetyl-asperulosidic acid, 10-diacetylasperulosidic acid, 6-O-epi-acetylscandoside, daphylloside, diacetyl-daphylloside, loganin, 10-hydroxylloganin, monotropein, scandoside, seco-galioside, geniposidic acid, 10-hydroxymoronoside [328, 329]. The sum of iridoids calculated as asperuloside in *G. verum herba* growing in Estonia was 40.8 ± 2.9 mg/g [330]. L.Ö. Demirezer et al. isolated and identified 7 iridoid glycosides individually, such as asperuloside, asperulosidic acid, diacetyl-asperulosidic acid, monotropein, 6-O-epi-acetylscandoside, daphylloside, and diacetyl-daphylloside [331].

Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry was used to establish the profile of volatile organic compounds. In a study by I. Ciotlaus et al., it was found that the volatile organic compounds of the dry herb extract were mainly aldehydes — 35.48 %, monoterpenes — 35.48 %, alcohols — 11.96 %, sesquiterpenes — 3.71 %, acetates — 3.14 %, and others — 10.11 %. The main composition of fresh herb was represented by monoterpenoids (73.57 %). Fifty compounds were identified, among which the dominant components were linalool — 30.08 % and eucalyptol — 13.87 % [332]. K. Antoniuk et al. conducted a study of the essential oil of *G. verum herba* growing in Poland. The analysis yielded 2.60 mL/kg of essential oil, in which 71 components were identified, with the predominant compounds being palmitic acid — 10.87 %, anethole — 8.39 %, menthol — 5.28 %, and linoleic acid — 4.91 %. Carvone, β -ionone, phytol, menthone, estragole, linalool, and β -farnesene were present in smaller quantities [333].

One of the dominant groups of BASs in the above-ground part of *G. verum* are phenolic compounds [334–336]. In ethanol (35 %, 50 %, 60 %, 70 %, and 100 %) and methanol (70 %, 80 %, and 100 %) extracts, the following BASs were identified: gallic acid, caffeic, chlorogenic, neochlorogenic, 3,5- and 4,5-dicaffeoylquinic, vanillic, coumaric, ferulic acids, umbelliferone, and flavonoids: catechin, kaempferol, quercetin, quercitrin, isoquercitrin, rutin, hyperoside, luteolin, apigenin-7-O-rutinoside, isorhamnetin-3-O-

glucoside [326, 328, 337]. When studying aqueous, alcoholic (96 %), and aqueous-alcoholic extracts of various concentrations (20 % and 60 %), it was found that all extracts contained chlorogenic acid and rutin; the alcoholic extract also contained cynaroside and quercetin; the aqueous extract and 20 % aqueous-alcoholic extract contained polysaccharides [338].

The content of phenolic compound classes in 20 %, 60 %, and 96 % extracts of *G. verum herba* was also determined. Hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives, flavonoids, and polyphenolic compounds were determined in the obtained extracts. It was found that the 20 % extract contained 3.1 % hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives, 0.24 % flavonoids, and 2.9 % polyphenolic compounds; the 60 % extract contained 4.13 % hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives, 0.16 % flavonoids, and 3.84 % polyphenolic compounds; the 96 % extract contained 2.7 % hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives, 0.18 % flavonoids, and 2.9 % polyphenolic compounds [339]. The dominant components (in $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry extract) in the alcoholic extract of dry extract (1 mg/mL) were: chlorogenic acid (15.561 ± 778), cynaroside (9612 ± 288), isoquercitrin (6873 ± 206), and quercetin (179.1 ± 53.7) [340]. The quantitative composition of phenolic compounds in *G. verum herba* was determined in terms of leading compounds. According to the authors [324], the content of flavonoid substances in raw material sources is as follows: from the Russian Federation — 23.4 mg/g (hyperoside); in Ukraine and the Republic of Belarus — 4.18 mg/g and 130.7 mg/g, respectively (rutin) [336, 339, 343]; from Romania, Estonia, and Croatia — 6.88 $\mu\text{g/g}$, 7.3 mg/g, and 23.11 mg/g, respectively (quercetin) [330, 337, 342]. The content of polyphenol substances calculated as gallic acid was as follows: raw material from Romania, Moldova, Estonia, and the Republic of Belarus — 1.97 mg/g [337], 26.21 mg/g [343], 27.2 mg/g [333], and 119.5 mg/g [341], respectively. Analysis of the data indicates a lack of standardization in approaches to the quantitative assessment of phenolic compounds in *G. verum herba*. However, a trend towards using quercetin and gallic acid as standard substances for assessing flavonoid and polyphenol content is observed.

An aqueous extract of the herb, administered intragastrically to male and female white mice and rats, showed no acute or chronic toxicity. No animal

died during the experiment. Thus, the aqueous extract of *G. verum*, according to the classification of chemical substances by hazard level, belongs to hazard class IV — slightly hazardous substances (GOST 12.1.007.76) [344].

A.L. Zayko and T.A. Bryukhanova studied the effect of *G. verum* extracts on kidney excretory function. Wistar albino rats were used in the experiment. Animals received aqueous (1:1) and alcoholic extracts (20 %, 60 %, and 96 %). A decoction of common horsetail herb (1:10) served as a comparison drug. The results showed that the 60 % aqueous-alcoholic extract had the highest diuretic activity compared to the comparison drug (2.13 ± 0.09 mL of urine excreted after 2 hours and 3.86 ± 0.11 mL after 4 hours), with 1.89 ± 0.04 mL of urine excreted after 2 hours and 3.80 ± 0.07 mL after 4 hours [345]. An infusion of *G. verum herba* (1:10) was studied for antilithogenic activity using an oxalate (ethylene glycol) nephrolithiasis model. The infusion was administered enterally at 1 mL/day to male Wistar rats. No formation of new calculi and slowed growth of existing ones were detected. Stone size decreased by 64 % [346].

Phenolic compounds of *G. verum herba* exhibit anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, and antioxidant effects [347, 348]. The herb infusion affected the exudation phase. The effect reached statistically significant results after the first hour and peaked at two hours. Inflammation reduction was recorded at 37 %, which is one and a half times higher than the activity indicators of the control group [349]. Alcoholic extracts also showed the ability to reduce pro-inflammatory IL-8 and IL-6 levels [350].

The antifungal activity of an ethyl acetate-alcoholic (8:2) fraction of *G. verum herba* against 10 *Candida* species was studied, showing a decrease in the order: *C. famata*, *C. intermedia* ATCC 14439, *C. intermedia* Y-59, *C. rugosa*, *C. tropicalis* F-195, *C. tropicalis* 195, *C. albicans*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. utilis*, and *C. glabrata*. The antifungal activity of *G. verum* was at the level of the antifungal drug fluconazole [351]. The authors studied the antimicrobial activity of aqueous, alcoholic (96 %), and aqueous-alcoholic extracts of *G. verum herba* at various concentrations (20 % and 60 %) against PMs: *Proteus vulgaris*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Bacillus subtilis*. The extracts were

active against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative microorganisms. However, Gram-negative *Proteus vulgaris* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* showed the least sensitivity to all extracts. The extracts exhibited only bacteriostatic activity against these microorganisms [338]. This is discussed in the studies by A.D. Semenescu et al. and A. Ohindovschi et al. Gram-negative bacterial strains, due to their more complex cell wall structure, are resistant to extracts from *G. verum herba* [352, 353].

The effect of an alcoholic extract of *G. verum herba* on the regenerative processes of the skin of laboratory mice was studied. The alcoholic extract of the herb activated the skin regeneration process compared to the control group, stimulating phagocytosis, promoting fibroblast proliferation, new vessel formation (neoangiogenesis), and growth of new granulation tissue [354, 355].

Annual sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.)

Annual sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.), or sunflower, is an annual herbaceous plant of the genus *Helianthus* L. of the *Asteraceae* Bercht. family. The seeds of the plant contain up to 52% fatty oil, phospholipids, and unsaturated fatty acids. Therefore, *H. annuus* is widely used as an oilseed crop in the food industry as a rich source of fatty oil [356]. In folk medicine, the roots of annual sunflower (*Helianthi annui radices*) are used, from which extracts are applied as anti-inflammatory, choleric, and diuretic agents. A decoction of *H. annuus radices* is taken for the treatment of diabetes mellitus, cholelithiasis, and urolithiasis [357].

The use of *H. annuus radices* as a source of BASs for the production of botanicals with diuretic and litholytic activities is promising [358]. The pharmacological activities of *H. annuus* roots are attributed to the presence of water-soluble polysaccharides, namely the polyfructosan inulin [356], which reaches 5.99 ± 0.13 % [359]. Phenolic compounds were also identified in the roots of *H. annuus* growing in the Foothill regions of the Stavropol Territory, including hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives: chlorogenic, neochlorogenic, caffeic, and ferulic acids; flavonoids: rutin, hyperoside, luteolin-7-glucoside, apigenin, dihydroquercetin, naringenin; coumarin; polyphenolic compounds: tannin, gallic and ellagic acids, epicatechin, and epigallocatechin gallate [360].

V.V. Melik-Husseinov et al. analyzed the solubility of stones *in vitro*, showing that a calculus immersed for 14 days in a 10 % aqueous suspension of dry alcoholic extract of *H. annuus radices* decreased by 12.6 %. Samples immersed in a 10 % decoction of *H. annuus radices* decreased by 11.8 %. The control stone sample immersed in purified water decreased by 7.4 %. The *in vitro* study confirmed the *in vivo* litholytic activity study in male Wistar rats with an ethylene glycol nephrolithiasis model. The decoction also increased kidney excretory function by 2.3 times, confirming the diuretic activity of *Helianthi annui radices* BASs [361].

Rosehip (*Rosa* L.)

Rosehip (*Rosa* L.) is a perennial shrub of the genus *Rosa* L. of the *Rosaceae* Juss. family. Plants of the genus *Rosa* L. have long been used in official medicine. Rosehip fruits (*Rosae fructus*) are used as raw material, containing organic acids, vitamins, carotenoids, flavonoids, fatty oil, etc. [362]. *Rosa* L. fruits are raw material for obtaining “Holosas”, which has a choleric effect. Authors of publications propose using dog rose roots (*Rosae caninae radices*) as a promising source of BASs and phytopreparations with diuretic activity [363, 364]. *Rosa canina* L. is a plant widely distributed in the North Caucasus region [365, 366]. Currently, epicatechin, 4-hydroxybenzoic, gallic, syringic, p-coumaric, and ellagic acids, as well as the flavonoid naringenin, have been identified in the roots of *R. canina* L. by high-performance liquid chromatography. Spectrophotometric methods determined that the total content of phenolic compounds in dried rosehip roots reaches 12.73 % [367].

In an experiment, the diuretic activity of dry extracts from dog rose roots was studied in Wistar rats. A 2.0 mL solution of dry 70 % alcoholic extract was administered intragastrically at doses of 50.0 mg/kg and 100.0 mg/kg. According to the study results, diuretic activity was observed within the first two hours. The maximum effect at both studied doses occurred at the end of the 1st hour of observation and was 56 % (at a dose of 50.0 mg/kg) and 76 % (at a dose of 100.0 mg/kg) of the total diuresis. The final cumulative diuresis in the experimental groups over 5 hours was almost 2.5 times higher than the control group's result [363, 364, 368].

Garden Angelica (*Angelica archangelica* L.)

Garden Angelica (*Angelica archangelica* L.), or angelica, is a perennial herbaceous plant of the genus *Angelica* L. of the *Apiaceae* Lindl. family. In Chinese medicine, it is called “female ginseng” due to the presence of phytoestrogens [369]. Benedictine monks used angelica as a universal antidote — “Theriac”. In Rus', *A. archangelica* was cultivated in apothecary gardens at monasteries and peasant farms. *A. archangelica* is used as a diaphoretic, diuretic, antiseptic, and antidepressant agent. Additionally, it helps normalize digestion. It is used to treat anorexia, migraines, bronchitis, chronic fatigue, and menstrual cycle disorders [370].

Rhizomes and roots of garden angelica (*Angelicae archangelicae rhizomata et radices*) are included in the pharmacopoeias of Great Britain, Germany, Austria, and also in the European Pharmacopoeia [371]. The pharmacological action of *A. archangelica* botanicals is attributed to the components of essential oil and coumarins [372].

The essential oil obtained from *A. archangelica rhizomata et radices* is a yellow liquid with a fresh herbaceous and slightly pungent odor with earthy and woody undertones [373]. The essential oil content in the underground part of *A. archangelica* varies significantly depending on the plant's growing region. For example, in the Republic of Bashkortostan — 0.82 % [374], in the vicinity of Mount Ozren, Serbia — 0.10 % [375]. Indian scientists tracked the dynamics of essential oil increase with increasing altitude: in the high-altitude plant physiology research center in Pothivas (2200 m) — 0.28 %; Tungnath, Rudraprayag (3300 m) — 0.33 %; Dayara, Uttarkashi (3500 m) — 0.35 % [376].

The geographical factor influences not only the content but also the component composition of the essential oil of *A. archangelica rhizomata et radices*. A study by A. Forycka et al. showed that the essential oil of Romanian, Finnish, and Serbian *A. archangelica* contains 62 to 122 components [377]. In domestic raw material from the Kemerovo region, 75 components were detected [378], and from Serbia — 88 compounds. However, the composition of dominant components remains unchanged. Monoterpenes constitute the largest part of the essential oil composition [379, 380]. In the essential

oil of *A. archangelica* growing in the Republic of Bashkortostan, sesquiterpenoids predominate, being 2.6 times more numerous than monoterpenoids [374].

Depending on the leading component, several types of essential oil can be distinguished, with β -phellandrene, α -pinene, sabinene, and myrcene dominating, with β -phellandrene content — 24.78–28.18 %, α -pinene — 14.52–18.14 %, α -phellandrene — 9.61–14.35 %. Essential oil from northern European regions is characterized by a high level of α -pinene — 65.3 %, α -phellandrene — 5.9–15.4 %, and δ -3-carene — 15.3 %, while in southern samples, its level is the lowest: 0–0.2 %; in the east and northeast, the leading component is α -pinene — 15.7 to 20.8 %; in the northeast, high concentrations of β -phellandrene — 13.5–16.9 %, δ -3-carene — 15.4–16.9 %, limonene — 8.0–9.0 %, sabinene — 5.0–7.5 % were noted, while the concentration of the latter in the east was higher: 5.9–14.85 %; in the southeast, the data are as follows: β -phellandrene — 13.8–18.5 %, α -pinene — 11.4–15.0 %, δ -3-carene — 10.8–11.9 %, α -cymene — 6.8–10.6 %, and α -phellandrene — 5.9–8.6 % [377, 381, 382]. The dominant components of Siberian subspecies *A. archangelica* are limonene (30.47 %) and α -pinene (23.6 %) [383].

The essential oil composition changes during storage depending on the raw material preparation (whole or ground). In a study conducted over 2.5 months, it was found that by the end of the storage period, the content of monoterpenes in whole raw material was 66.7–72.5 %, with α -pinene (15.7–19.4 %), as well as 3-carene, D-limonene, and β -phellandrene being the leading components. Studying ground raw material showed a 70 % decrease in monoterpenes, and α -pinene, 3-carene, and limonene decreased by 3.5–4 times [384].

From *A. archangelica rhizomata et radices*, the following were isolated and identified: prenylated coumarins — osthol, umbelliprenin, imperatorin, isoimperatorin, fellopterin [385]; hydroxycoumarins — umbelliferone; furanocoumarins — angelicin, bergapten, xanthotoxin, oroselone, methoxsalen, xanthotoxol, archangelicin, pimpinellin, isopimpinellin [386–388]. The total coumarin content in the rhizomes and roots of *A. archangelica* collected in Bashkiria was 1.09 %, with dominant components being angelicin, methoxsalen, bergapten, osthol, and oroselone [389, 390].

Essential oil containing monoterpenes β - and α -phellandrene (268 mg/g and 208 mg/g, respectively), α -pinene (111 mg/g), sabinene (87 mg/g), p-cymene (84 mg/g), 3-carene (74 mg/g) exhibits strong antifungal activity (inhibition zone 22–28 mm) against *Aspergillus niger* and *Penicillium venetum*; moderate activity (inhibition zone 15–21 mm) against *Candida albicans* and *Cladosporium cladosporioides*; moderate antibacterial activity (inhibition zone 15–21 mm) against *Staphylococcus aureus*; no antibacterial effect (inhibition zone less than 7 mm) was established against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [373, 376]. Essential oil containing α -pinene (29.7 %), δ -3-carene (14.2 %), phellandrene, and limonene (13.2 % each) has the following minimum inhibitory concentration values: 14.2 μ L/mL for *Staphylococcus aureus* and 28.4 μ L/mL for *Escherichia coli*. The minimum bactericidal concentration is 56.8 μ L/mL and 113.6 μ L/mL, respectively [375, 390].

The possibility of using coumarins as antibacterial agents is actively being investigated. Hexane, dichloromethane, and methanol extracts, and the coumarin osthol, were tested for antimicrobial activity against Gram-positive (*Staphylococcus aureus* and *Micrococcus luteus*), Gram-negative (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) PMs; and antifungal activity against the *Candida albicans* strain. The results showed that osthol coumarin possessed the highest antibacterial and antifungal activity against all tested strains. Along with osthol, the hexane extract also exhibited these activities — against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Micrococcus luteus*, and *Candida albicans* strains with minimum inhibitory concentrations of 2.5 μ g/mL and 0.625 μ g/mL, respectively. The methanol extract showed only antifungal activity [391, 392]. A solution of dry methanolic extract of *A. archangelica* roots and rhizomes, containing bergapten, xanthotoxin, imperatorin, and angelicin, inhibited the growth zone of *Escherichia coli* strain by 210 mm compared to the reference drug cefixime (220 mm); and 200 mm for *Staphylococcus aureus* strain compared to vancomycin (260 mm). All tested strains were also resistant to the aqueous extract solution of *A. archangelica rhizomata et radices* [393].

The extract of *A. archangelica* exhibits antispasmodic activity on intestinal smooth muscle spasms induced by acetylcholine (muscle tone increased by 63.4 ± 1.44 %). Upon administration

of *A. archangelica* extract, a decrease in tone was observed by $53.3 \pm 1.29\%$ [394]. Methanolic extract of *A. archangelica* at doses of 100 mg/kg, 200 mg/kg, and 400 mg/kg also helps reduce pain and improve motor activity in rats with fibromyalgia induced by reserpine at a dose of 0.5 mg/kg [395].

Bergapten, one of the furanocoumarins in *A. archangelica*, exhibits antifibrotic effects in a model of renal fibrosis induced by unilateral ureteral obstruction. Bergapten demonstrated a reduction in fibronectin and α -SMA expression in the damaged kidneys of mice with unilateral ureteral obstruction, thereby reducing fibrotic changes in the tissues. Bergapten also showed a nephroprotective effect associated with ferroptosis inhibition [396]. *A. archangelica* essential oil reduces the production of the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-6 in cultures of human umbilical vein endothelial cells [397].

It is known that furanocoumarins exhibit various toxic effects, including changes in liver metabolism — the “grapefruit effect”. They inhibit enzymes of the cytochrome P450 family and its isoforms (CYP3A4, CYP2C9), leading to increased bioavailability of medicinal and toxic substances in the body [398, 399]. The amount of bergapten required for inhibition (IC_{50}) of CYP2C9 and CYP3A4 ranges from 9.92 μ M to 50.00 μ M and from 24.92 μ M to 77.50 μ M, respectively.

Human contact with furanocoumarins combined with short-wave (280–315 nm) and long-wave ultraviolet radiation (315–400 nm) causes phytophotodermatitis. In the past, substances were added to sunscreens based on the hypothesis that psoralen causes melanogenesis, thereby reducing the harmful effects of ultraviolet radiation (UV). Studies conducted in the 1980s showed that such products caused erythema on human skin and were responsible for tumors in hairless albino mice [400].

Cosmetic products contain plant-derived components (essential oils and extracts) containing furanocoumarins as fragrance ingredients. Cold-pressed bergamot essential oil contains 22079 ppm furanocoumarin, grapefruit 8879 ppm, lemon 6103 ppm, and bitter orange 2585 ppm [401]. In the European Union, limits for furanocoumarin content in cosmetic products have been established. The addition of furanocoumarins to products is prohibited unless they are part of essential oils and extracts. The total amount of furanocoumarins should not exceed

1 mg/kg per kg^{-1} of product used for body sun protection and skin tanning products. In Switzerland, the level should be less than 1 mg/kg in all products exposed to sunlight [402].

The toxic effect of furanocoumarins is due to their ability to intercalate DNA and interact with pyrimidine bases, leading to disruption of transcription and replication processes. They integrate into DNA, forming non-covalent bonds with pyrimidine bases (even before light exposure). Upon UV light exposure, photons activate furanocoumarins, leading to the formation of covalent bonds and photoadducts [403]. Linear (psoralen derivatives) and non-linear (angelicin derivatives) furanocoumarins differ in the severity of their photosensitizing effect. Non-linear ones exhibit less pronounced photocytotoxic and photogenotoxic activity. Angelicin, interacting with cell DNA, can form only mono-adducts with pyrimidine bases of one DNA strand under UV light. Psoralen, due to its linear structure, under the influence of double bonds at positions 3,4 of the coumarin ring and 4',5' of the furan cycle, cross-links double bonds at positions 5,6 of the pyrimidine bases of two DNA strands, forming di-adducts. Cells damaged by angelicin are capable of restoring their DNA structure, making it less toxic compared to psoralen [401, 404].

Studies on the toxicity of individual furanocoumarins are currently lacking, and data obtained from studies of 8-methoxypsoralen and 5-methoxypsoralen are used for their assessment. However, as a rule, furanocoumarins in plant objects occur as complex mixtures, and due to this, an overestimation of toxic effects may occur if 8-methoxypsoralen is used as a general toxic equivalent. The toxicity of the sum of furanocoumarins can be significantly higher or lower than the toxicity of each coumarin separately [405].

The highest phototoxicity is observed in the following order (decreasing): 8-methoxypsoralen, 5-methoxypsoralen, trimethylpsoralen, 4',5',8-trimethylpsoralen, bergapten, and angelicin. Not all furanocoumarins exert effects with the same degree of toxicity under identical conditions combined with UV irradiation. In studies of local phototoxicity of methanolic solutions of these furanocoumarins *in vivo* on Hanford miniature pigs irradiated with UV light, toxic effects were observed at doses of 100 and 1000 ppm and no effect at doses of 1 ppm and 10 ppm (0.02 μ g/cm²) with irradiation of

10 J/cm². In experiments on Hartley albino guinea pigs, it was found that with UV irradiation of 13 J/cm², toxicity was observed at a dose of 10 ppm and no effect at a dose of 5 ppm.

There is also data from studies on volunteers: after irradiation with sunlight and an arc xenon lamp for 30 minutes, a minimal effect was detected at a dosage of 100 ppm and no effect at 50 ppm. When using water baths (3750 ppm), gels, and creams (25 ppm to 100 ppm) with irradiation doses (0.25–7.0 J/cm²) and an exposure of 15 minutes, the intensity of erythema formed was greater with the gel. The minimum sensitivity threshold was 25 ppm for the gel and 100 ppm for creams and baths. A dosage of 5 ppm is considered the threshold, while 50 ppm is the concentration for 100 % erythema formation on human skin. It is evident that the concentration of furanocoumarins is only half of the overall picture, while UV light exposure plays an equally, if not more, significant role.

In animal photocarcinogenicity studies, an inverse correlation was found between furanocoumarin dose and UV dose affecting the formation of tumors ≥ 1 mm: at a dose of 5 ppm, 500 J/cm² of UV irradiation was required; for 15 ppm, 400 J/cm²; for 50 ppm, 230 J/cm²; for 100 ppm, 140 J/cm²; and for 250 ppm, 100 J/cm² [401].

Therefore, when developing instructions for use for MPs containing furanocoumarins, it is necessary to calculate and indicate the predicted exposure to UV light that the consumer may experience, which can lead to photodermatitis. Consumer awareness will allow them to minimize excessive sun exposure and avoid toxic effects during the course of therapy.

Cranberry (*Vaccinium* L.)

Cranberry (*Vaccinium macrocarpon* Ait.) and common cranberry (*Vaccinium oxycoccus* L.) are considered promising sources of BASs for the development and production of MPs aimed at treating and preventing chronic inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract [406].

Large cranberry (*V. macrocarpon* Ait.) and common cranberry (*V. oxycoccus* L.) are perennial evergreen dwarf shrubs of the genus *Vaccinium* L. of the *Ericaceae* Juss. family [407, 408].

Cranberry species have been used by humans for a long time: in culinary arts, medicine, and the

chemical industry. Iroquois and Chippewa Indians used *V. macrocarpon* fruits as a laxative and for “blood purification”. Cranberry fruits were also used to treat fever and stomach spasms. In Russia, fruits were used to treat scurvy and dissolve stones. They were used as agents with antipyretic, expectorant, diuretic, and anti-inflammatory effects [409]. In Karelian folk medicine, juices, morses, decoctions, and tinctures were made from cranberry fruits to treat skin, cold, genitourinary diseases, and scurvy [410].

In scientific medicine, large cranberry fruits (*Vaccinii macrocarponis fructus*) and common cranberry fruits (*Vaccinii oxycocci fructus*) are sources of phenolic compounds (proanthocyanidins, phenylpropanoids, flavonoids), which determine their pharmacological activity [411]. Analysis of phenolic compounds in *V. oxycoccus* fruits revealed the following order of decreasing quantitative content: flavan-3-ols (41.5–52.2 %); flavonols (18.6–30.5 %); anthocyanins (8.0–24.4 %); phenolic acids (5.0–12.1 %) [412]. In *V. oxycoccus fructus* growing in Latvia, the following BAS content was found: flavonols were 2079.44 ± 102.99 µg/g, and anthocyanins — 6993.79 ± 350.22 µg/g [413].

R. Šedbarė et al. determined the content of phenolic and triterpene compounds in *V. oxycoccus* MPRMs growing in two wetland sites (oligotrophic, eutrophic, and mesotrophic types) located 250 km apart. Comparing the BAS content of *V. oxycoccus fructus*, the concentration of anthocyanins varied 12-fold (8352 µg/kg vs. 698 µg/kg); flavonols — more than 5-fold (2811 µg/kg vs. 518 µg/kg); proanthocyanidins — 3.3-fold (3038 µg/kg vs. 919 µg/kg); chlorogenic acid — 72-fold (1224 µg/kg vs. 17 µg/kg); triterpene compounds — 1.6-fold (6542 µg/kg vs. 4060 µg/kg). The harvest time also plays a role — fruits collected in October in the oligotrophic zone contain 2.7 times lower flavonols than in cranberry samples from the same site collected in late August. For anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins, the opposite trend was observed: fruits collected in October contained twice the amount of BASs as fruits collected in August. The chlorogenic acid content remained stable and was independent of temporal factors, maintaining a high level regardless of fruit ripeness. In the same study, scientists proposed the following BASs as markers for confirming the authenticity of cranberry fruits: chlorogenic acid, anthocyanins

(cyanidin-3-galactoside, cyanidin-3-arabinoside, peonidin-3-galactoside, peonidin-3-arabinoside, cyanidin-3-glucoside, and peonidin-3-glucoside), flavonols (myricetin-3-galactoside and quercetin-3-galactoside) [414].

Currently, in *V. oxycoccus fructus*, the following flavonoids have been identified: hyperoside, myricetin-3-O-galactoside, quercetin-3-galactoside, quercetin-3- α -L-arabinofuranoside, quercetin 3-rhamnoside; anthocyanins: cyanidin-3-O-galactazide, peonidin-3-O-galactoside, peonidin-3-O-arabinoside, cyanidin-3-O-arabinoside, peonidin-3-O-galactoside, and peonidin-3-O-arabinoside; triterpene compounds: ursolic and oleanolic acids [413, 415]; phenylpropanoids: chlorogenic, p-coumaric, rosmarinic, and p-hydroxybenzoic acids, and the content of substances was determined: quercetin (0.39 mg/100 g); myricetin (0.23 mg/100 g); chlorogenic acid (0.42 mg/100 g), p-hydroxybenzoic acid (0.41 mg/100 g); rosmarinic acid (0.12 mg/100 g); p-coumaric acid (0.27 mg/100 g) [416]. It was established that chlorogenic acid is the dominant hydroxycinnamic acid in the fruits of *V. macrocarpon* and *V. oxycoccus* [417, 418].

In the study by V.Yu. Ermakova et al., it is proposed to use peonidin-3-arabinoside as a marker compound for the identification of *V. macrocarpon* and *V. oxycoccus fructus*. The content of anthocyanidins in *V. oxycoccus fructus* from the Moscow and Tver Regions was also determined: 0.17 % and 0.21 % (1.31 % and 1.58 % of absolutely dry raw material mass), respectively. In fruits of *V. macrocarpon* of foreign origin, the content was 0.27 % (1.64 % of absolutely dry raw material mass) [419].

Promising directions for studying the pharmacological activity of *V. macrocarpon* and *V. oxycoccus fructus* BASs are anti-adhesive and antibacterial activities [420].

The pharmacological effect of *V. macrocarpon* and *V. oxycoccus fructus* BASs lies in the ability of polyphenolic compounds [421, 422], such as A-type proanthocyanidins, to inhibit microbial adhesion to the urothelium [423]. A-type proanthocyanidins inhibit type I and P fimbriae, which are used for the attachment of pathogenic *Escherichia coli* to the urothelium, biofilm formation, and subsequent colonization [424, 425]. It is also known that A-type proanthocyanidins can weaken the reservoir of pathogenic *Escherichia coli* in the

gastrointestinal tract and suppress the inflammatory cascade. A similar result was obtained for *Candida albicans* strains [426, 427].

However, the issue of low bioavailability of A-type proanthocyanidins has been discussed recently [428, 429]. There is an opinion that their pharmacological activity is due to the formation of a large number of metabolites [430, 431], including sulfated metabolites of pyrogallol, valerolactone, benzoic, and phenolic acids; glucuronidated metabolites of flavonols and cinnamic acids. In particular, the metabolic composition included 2,3-dihydroxybenzoic, isoferulic, α -hippuric, benzoic, 4-hydroxyphenylacetic acids, as well as catechol-O-sulfate, 4-methylcatechol-O-sulfate, and 4-O-sulfates of ferulic and vanillic acids [432]. The experiment showed that over time (from 4 to 8 hours), the content of A-type proanthocyanidin metabolites increased in urine samples, and the content of *Escherichia coli* decreased [433].

A solution of a thick ethanol extract of *V. macrocarpon* in dimethyl sulfoxide solution exhibited antibacterial activity. The sensitivity of *E. coli* to *V. macrocarpon* extract BASs at a dosage of 100 mg/mL varied in the order: *Staphylococcus aureus* (90 %), *Enterococcus sp.* (85 %), *Proteus vulgaris* (75 %), and *Escherichia coli* (60 %). It was also found that the antibacterial effect of *V. macrocarpon* extract is dose-dependent. For example, *Escherichia coli* showed an increase in the inhibition zone from 12 mm (at an extract concentration of 12.5 mg/mL) to 25 mm (at an extract concentration of 100 mg/mL). Similarly, for *Proteus vulgaris*, the inhibition zone increased from 13 mm to 26 mm [434].

The use of products based on *V. macrocarpon* and *V. oxycoccus fructus* reduced the risk of CIDKUT recurrences in women, children, and patients with indwelling catheters by 32 %, 45 %, and 51 %, respectively [435–437].

In a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study of cranberry extract chewing gum containing cyanidin-3-galactoside, cyanidin-3-glucoside, peonidin-3-arabinoside, peonidin-3-galactoside, peonidin-3-glucoside, myricetin, myricetin-3-O-galactoside, myricetin-3-O-rhamnoside, quercetin, quercetin-3-O-galactoside, quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside, benzoic, chlorogenic, 3,4-dihydroxybenzoic, and p-coumaric acids, and placebo gum, anti-adhesive activity of BAS metabolites against P-type fimbriae of *Escherichia*

coli was established. Anti-adhesive properties were attributed to metabolites of catechol, valerolactone, α -hippuric, benzoic, vanillic, phenylsulfonic, and 3,4-dihydroxyphenylsulfonic acids present in urine [438].

Additionally, the efficacy of BASs obtained from different raw material processing methods is being investigated. A.B. Howell et al. compared the efficacy of juice and powder from whole cranberry fruits and found that juice from cranberry fruits had the highest activity due to containing the soluble form of A-type proanthocyanidins [439].

Products derived from *V. macrocarpon* and *V. oxycoccus fructus* (capsules [440–442] and juice [443, 444]) are recommended for the treatment and prevention of CIDKUT recurrences. To reduce the number of CIDKUT episodes, it is recommended to take dry cranberry extract at a dosage of at least 36 mg daily, which reduces the risk of recurrence by 18 %. Analysis of the results showed a significant reduction in CIDKUT risk only when the extract was taken for a course of at least 12–24 weeks [445]. In a clinical study of the efficacy of *V. macrocarpon fructus* juice (proanthocyanidin content — 0.56 %) in preventing CIDKUT recurrences in women with two or more CIDKUT episodes per year, it was found that cranberry juice consumption did not have a statistically significant effect [446].

In conclusion, despite the ambiguous results of studies, cranberry can be used as an additional component in phytocompositions. For its use as a standalone agent, more in-depth and prolonged pharmacological research is needed.

CONCLUSION

This review analyzes the current state of research in the application of MPRMs as sources of BASs and botanicals used in the therapy of chronic infectious and inflammatory diseases of the kidneys and urinary tract. Among the plant BASs used for this purpose, phenolic compounds, including simple phenols, anthraquinones, and flavonoids, possessing anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, antioxidant, and antilithogenic properties, are of particular importance. Phenylpropanoids with diuretic, anti-inflammatory, antilithogenic, and immunomodulatory actions; coumarins with antispasmodic and antibacterial activity; proanthocyanidins with anti-adhesive action; and terpenoids and essential oils with antibacterial, antifungal, diuretic, and anti-inflammatory properties are also significant.

The herb of true bedstraw, roots of annual sunflower, roots of dog rose, rhizomes and roots of garden angelica, and fruits of large cranberry and common cranberry are promising for further research and development of new drugs. These plants have extensive empirical use in folk medicine, as well as reliable results from phytochemical and preclinical studies. The need to expand the nomenclature of domestic plant-derived drugs based on official and promising raw material sources necessitates improving approaches to drugs' standardization and substantiating the development of new drugs from the perspective of phytopharmacology and the interrelationships between the chemical composition of phytocompositions, the structure of natural compounds, and their activity.

FUNDING

This study did not have financial support from third-party organizations.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTION

Denis I. Shishkalov — conceptualization, search and analysis of scientific literature, data systematization and generalization, formation of the main sections of the draft, writing—original draft, writing—review & editing; Vera V. Artemyeva — writing — original draft, writing—review & editing, working in databases, compiling a references; Ifrat N. Zilfikarov — structures of the work, administration, conceptualization, writing—review & editing; Elena V. Avdeeva — writing—review & editing, data analysis; Vladimir A. Kurkin — writing—review & editing. All authors confirm that their authorship meets the international ICMJE criteria (all authors made a significant contribution to the development of the concept, conduct of the study and preparation of the article, read and approved of the final version before the publication).

REFERENCES

- Korolev S, Zenkov I. Medical and social aspects of urinary disorders in a megapolis. *Social Aspects of Public Health*. 2013;33(5):8. EDN: RJDQSL
- Zagaglia C, Ammendolia MG, Maurizi L, Nicoletti M, Longhi C. Urinary tract infections caused by Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* Strains — New Strategies for an Old Pathogen. *Microorganisms*. 2022;10(7):1425. DOI: 10.3390/microorganisms10071425
- Aringazina AM, Narmanova OZh, Nuskabaeva GO, Tagaeva ZhA, Mendybaev ES. Chronic kidney disease: prevalence and risk factors (literature review). *Health Risk Analysis*. 2020;(2):164–74. DOI: 10.21668/health.risk/2020.2.18
- Azarenkova OV, Zaparyi SP, Achkasov EE. The Main Trend in the formation of general disability due to diseases of the genitourinary system of the adult population in Moscow, the Central Federal District and the Russian Federation for 2014-2019. *Bulletin of the Russian Society of Professionals in Medical and Social Expertise, Rehabilitation and Rehabilitational Industry*. 2021;(1):36–42. DOI: 10.17238/issn1999-2351.2021.1.36-42 EDN: QSEZPR
- Verigina NB. Figures of disability among the adult population of the Russian Federation in dynamics over 2012–2018 (INFORMATION ANALYSIS PRODUCT). *Medico-sotsialnye problemy invalidnosti*. 2019;(2):16–29. EDN: PLOZWE
- Jager KJ, Kovesdy C, Langham R, Rosenberg M, Jha V, Zoccali C. A single number for advocacy and communication-worldwide more than 850 million individuals have kidney diseases. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2019;34(11):1803–5. DOI: 10.1093/ndt/gfz174
- Yang X, Chen H, Zheng Y, Qu S, Wang H, Yi F. Disease burden and long-term trends of urinary tract infection: A worldwide report. *Front Public Health*. 2022;(10):888205. DOI: 10.3389/fpubh.2022.888205
- Deev IA, Kobayakova OS, Starodubov VI, Aleksandrova GA, Golubev NA, Oskov Yul, Polikarpov AV, Shelepova EA. Morbidity of the entire Russian population in 2023. *Statistical materials, etc.-Moscow: TSNIOIZ*. 2024. 154 p. DOI: 10.21045/978-5-94116-159-1-2024. Russian
- Iskenderova BE, Musabekova ZhA, Kalioldanova DK, Mursalimova AT, Ginayatova LA. Epidemiological aspects of diseases of the genitourinary system. *Medicine. Sociology. Philosophy. Applied research*. 2022;(3):4–6. EDN: NKFVML
- Jawad RA, Kareem AA. The impact of urogenital tract infectious bacteria on male fertility. *Medical Journal of Babylon*. 2024;21(2):476–80. DOI: 10.4103/MJBL.MJBL_75_24
- Baytilenov BS. Diseases of the genitourinary system as an urgent health problem (literature review). *Science, Education and Culture*. 2017;(9(24)):98–101. EDN: ZXOXJZ. Russian
- Yarets Y, Shevchenko N, Starovoitov A, Rusalenko M. Chronic urinary tract infections: The condition of the problem. *Medical and Biological Problems of Vital Activity*. 2015;(2(14)):18–23. EDN: WJBQZB
- Yakovlev SV. New Concept of Rational Use of Antibiotics in Outpatient Practice. *Antibiotics and Chemotherapy*. 2019;64(3-4):47–57. DOI: 10.24411/0235-2990-2019-10017
- Kaur R, Kaur R. Symptoms, risk factors, diagnosis and treatment of urinary tract infections. *Postgrad Med J*. 2021;97(1154):803–12. DOI: 10.1136/postgradmedj-2020-139090
- Plekhanov AN, Dambaev AB. Urinary tract infections: epidemiology, etiology, pathogenesis, risk factors, diagnosis (review). *Acta Biomedica Scientifica*. 2016;1(1):70–4. DOI: 10.12737/21490
- Yarmukhamedova SH, Vafoeva NA, Normatov MB. Clinical features of chronic pyelonephritis in women. *Young scientist*. 2020;(28 (318)):65–7. EDN: ZDCMMB. Russian
- Elgaytarova SS, Borodina LV. Urinary tract infections and diabetes mellitus. *Bulletin of the Young Scientist*. 2019;8(1):31–7. EDN: CGXOJF
- Sturov NV, Popov SV, Mamporia NK, Mager AA. Urinary tract infections in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus with pharmacological glucosuria. *Ter Arkh*. 2020;92(11):106–9. DOI: 10.26442/00403660.2020.11.000581
- Sahu R, Sahoo RK, Prusty SK, Sahu PK. Urinary Tract Infection and its Management. *Systematic Reviews in Pharmacy*. 2018;10:42–8. DOI: 10.5530/srp.2019.1.7
- Storme O, Tirán Saucedo J, Garcia-Mora A, Dehesa-Dávila M, Naber KG. Risk factors and predisposing conditions for urinary tract infection. *Ther Adv Urol*. 2019;11:1756287218814382. DOI: 10.1177/1756287218814382
- Volnykh IYu, Danilov VV, Besedin SV. Problems of correcting the functional state of the lower urinary tract after surgical treatment of urinary incontinence in women. *Pacific Medical Journal*. 2016;(1(63)):19–22. EDN: VPKWPB
- Plekhanov AN, Dambaev AB. On modern approaches to therapy of urinary tract infections. *Bulletin of the Buryat Scientific Center of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences*. 2016;(1(21)):141–8. EDN: WHGXWJ
- Shishkalov DI, Zilfikarov IN, Artemieva VV. Authentication of “Canephon® N” tablets by “Microscopic Features” indicator. Current trends in the development of health-saving technologies: Proceedings of the XII International Scientific Conference of Young Scientists, Moscow, 05-06 December 2024; Moscow: All-Russian Scientific Research Institute of Medicinal and Aromatic Plants; 2024. P. 294–300. EDN: ALBDJK. Russian
- Lyashchuk YuO, Ivanishchev KA, Romanov KI. Side effects of antibiotic therapy on macroorganisms. *ACHIEVEMENTS OF UNIVERSITY science 2018: collection of articles of the International Scientific and Practical Competition: at 3 parts, Penza, March 05, 2018. Volume Part 1; Penza: “Science and Enlightenment” (IP Gulyaev G.Yu.)*; 2018. P. 192–5. EDN: YSKBUZ. Russian
- Kurkin VA, Pravdivtseva OE, Zaitseva EN, Dubishchev AV, Tsibina AS, Kurkina AV, Pervushkin SV, Zhdanova AV. Terpenoids and phenolic compounds as biologically active compounds of medicinal plants with diuretic effect. *Pharmacy & Pharmacology*. 2023;11(6):446–60. DOI: 10.19163/2307-9266-2023-11-6-446-460 EDN: PMMVUM
- Zakharova IN, Kasjanova AN. Possibilities of modern medicinal herbal remedies in the treatment of diseases of the urinary system in children (literature review). *Pediatrics. Consilium Medicum*. 2019;2:73–8. DOI: 10.26442/26586630.2019.2.190448 EDN: FBSSMB
- Das S. Natural therapeutics for urinary tract infections-a review. *Futur J Pharm Sci*. 2020;6(1):64. DOI: 10.1186/s43094-020-00086-2

28. Feyisa K, Feyisa W, Girma T, Kemal T. Traditional medicinal plants used for the treatment of urological and urogenital diseases in Ethiopia: a Review. *Pharmacognosy Journal*. 2022;14(3):722–33. DOI: 10.5530/pj.2022.14.92
29. Loubet P, Ranfaing J, Dinh A, Dunyach-Remy C, Bernard L, Bruyère F, Lavigne JP, Sotto A. Alternative Therapeutic Options to Antibiotics for the Treatment of Urinary Tract Infections. *Front Microbiol*. 2020;11:1509. DOI: 10.3389/fmicb.2020.01509
30. Piñeiro Pérez R, Cilleruelo Ortega MJ, Ares Álvarez J, Baquero-Artigao F, Silva Rico JC, Velasco Zúñiga R, Martínez Campos L, Carazo Gallego B, Conejo Fernández AJ, Calvo C; Grupo Colaborador de Infección Urinaria en Pediatría; Grupo colaborador de infección urinaria en pediatría. Recommendations on the diagnosis and treatment of urinary tract infection. *An Pediatr (Engl Ed)*. 2019;90(6):400.e1–400.e9. Spanish. DOI: 10.1016/j.anpedi.2019.02.009
31. Shirokova VV, Semeykina PV. Urinary tract infections in pediatrics. Problems of medicine and Biology: Scientific literature reviews and articles: proceedings of the International Scientific and Practical Conference of Young Scientists; 2023. P. 333–339. Russian
32. Yang SBF. Pathophysiology of UTIs. In female urinary tract infections in clinical practice. Springer International Publishing; 2020. P. 1–10. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-030-27909-7
33. Karpov EI. Urinary tract infections in outpatient practice. *Therapy*. 2017;(3(13)):89–95. EDN: YQZFIL
34. Rasner PI, Vasil'ev AO, Pushkar' DYU. Inflammatory disorders of urinary system. *RMJ*. 2016;24(23):1553–61. EDN: XRMANT
35. Tsareva AV. Acute and recurrent cystitis. Difficult patient. *Russian Medical Inquiry*. 2021;5(3):130–3. DOI: 10.32364/2587-6821-2021-5-3-130-133 EDN: VDZHEY
36. Zaitsev AV, Kasyan GR, Kharchilava RR. Chronic pyelonephritis. *Urologiia*. 2016;(3-S3):11–7. EDN: WGNBHZ
37. Kaprin AD, Apolikhin OI, Sivkov AV, Anokhin NV, Gadzhiev NK, Malkhasyan VA, Akopyan GN, Prosyannikov MYu. The incidence of urolithiasis in the Russian Federation from 2005 to 2020. *Experimental and Clinical Urology*. 2022;15(2):10–7. DOI: 10.29188/2222-8543-2022-15-2-10-17 EDN: EATILC
38. Flores-Mireles AL, Walker JN, Caparon M, Hultgren SJ. Urinary tract infections: epidemiology, mechanisms of infection and treatment options. *Nat Rev Microbiol*. 2015;13(5):269–84. DOI: 10.1038/nrmicro3432
39. Baimakhanova B, Sadanov A, Trenochnikova L, Balgimbaeva A, Baimakhanova G, Orasymbet S, Tleubekova D, Amangeldi A, Turlybaeva Z, Nurgaliyeva Z, Seisebayeva R, Kozhekenova Z, Sairankyzy S, Shynykul Z, Yerkenova S, Turgumbayeva A. Understanding the Burden and Management of Urinary Tract Infections in Women. *Diseases*. 2025;13(2):59. DOI: 10.3390/diseases13020059
40. Zhou Y, Zhou Z, Zheng L, Gong Z, Li Y, Jin Y, Huang Y, Chi M. Urinary Tract Infections Caused by Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*: Mechanisms of Infection and Treatment Options. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2023;24(13):10537. DOI: 10.3390/ijms241310537
41. Armbruster CE, Smith SN, Johnson AO, DeOrnellas V, Eaton KA, Yep A, Mody L, Wu W, Mobley HLT. The Pathogenic Potential of *Proteus mirabilis* Is Enhanced by Other Uropathogens during Polymicrobial Urinary Tract Infection. *Infect Immun*. 2017;85(2):e00808-16. DOI: 10.1128/IAI.00808-16
42. Behzadi P, Behzadi E, Ranjbar R. Urinary tract infections and *Candida albicans*. *Cent European J Urol*. 2015;68(1):96–101. DOI: 10.5173/ceju.2015.01.474
43. Khilkevich EG. Possibilities of phytotherapy for urinary tract infection in obstetric practice. *Obstetrics and Gynecology*. 2011;(5):115–9. EDN: PFTUPF
44. Barkanova ON, Vekilyan MA, Rebrova EV, Shepeleva YuB. The level of antibiotic resistance of causative agents of calculous pyelonephritis in the urological department of Volgograd in 2013. *Bulletin of VolGUMU*. 2016;(4(60)):96. Russian
45. Asadi Karam MR, Habibi M, Bouzari S. Urinary tract infection: Pathogenicity, antibiotic resistance and development of effective vaccines against Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*. *Mol Immunol*. 2019;108:56–67. DOI: 10.1016/j.molimm.2019.02.007
46. Bobyntsev YaI, Fedoseeva VV, Frolova EY. Current microbiological portrait of acute and chronic pyelonephritis. Youth Science and Modernity: Proceedings of the 85th International Scientific Conference of Students and Young Scientists dedicated to the 85th anniversary of KSMU, Kursk, April 23–24, 2020; Volume Part I. Kursk: Kursk State Medical University; 2020. P. 472–5. EDN: KIGMYM. Russian
47. Bader MS, Loeb M, Brooks AA. An update on the management of urinary tract infections in the era of antimicrobial resistance. *Postgrad Med*. 2017;129(2):242–58. DOI: 10.1080/00325481.2017.1246055
48. Zowawi HM, Harris PN, Roberts MJ, Tambyah PA, Schembri MA, Pezzani MD, Williamson DA, Paterson DL. The emerging threat of multidrug-resistant Gram-negative bacteria in urology. *Nat Rev Urol*. 2015;12(10):570–84. DOI: 10.1038/nrurol.2015.199
49. Kaur L. Plants and urinary tract infections: a critical review. *J Biodivers Conservation*. 2024;8(3):45–58.
50. Pezzani MD, Antinori S. Introduction to Urinary Tract Infections: An Overview on Epidemiology, Risk Factors, Microbiology and Treatment Options. In: Tonolini, M. (eds) *Imaging and Intervention in Urinary Tract Infections and Urosepsis*. Springer; 2018. P. 7–16. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-68276-1_2
51. Alekova S, Koycheva R. Bacterial uropathogens and their antimicrobial resistance profile among children in outpatient medical settings. *Vopr. prakt. pediatri*. (Clinical Practice in Pediatrics). 2024;19(4):126–33. DOI: 10.20953/1817-7646-2024-4-126-133 EDN: GPKZFP
52. Rossignol L, Vaux S, Maugat S, Blake A, Barlier R, Heym B, Le Strat Y, Blanchon T, Hanslik T, Coignard B. Incidence of urinary tract infections and antibiotic resistance in the outpatient setting: a cross-sectional study. *Infection*. 2017;45(1):33–40. DOI: 10.1007/s15010-016-0910-2
53. Apolikhina IA, Teterina TA. Diagnosis and treatment of cystitis in women of reproductive age. *Obstetrics and Gynecolog*. 2019;(S6):26–8. EDN: QTMRMF
54. Styazhkina SN, Ivanov SL, Sharipov DI. Clinical case of exacerbation of chronic. *Modern Science*. 2021;(2-2):228–30. EDN: IAOTNI
55. Lemtyugov MB, Simchenko NI, Knyazyuk AS, Berezovskaya VE, Khodzhakuliev SR, Zubareva AV. Features of treatment of chronic recurrent cystitis in women. Infections in obstetrics and gynecology. Modern diagnostic and treatment options: Proceedings of the Republican scientific and practical conference with

- international participation, Gomel, March 27, 2025; Minsk: Gomel State Medical University; 2025. P. 65–7. EDN: UBCTFW. Russian
56. Lemtyugov MB, Simchenko NI. Clinical and morphological characteristics of chronic recurrent cystitis in women. VI Polessky Urological Foru: collection of materials, Gomel, June 09-10, 2022; Gomel State Medical University, Department of Urology; Simchenko NI, Knyazyuk AS, Povelitsa EA, editors; Strotsky AV, Nitkin DM, Nechiporenko AN, reviewers; Gomel: Gomel State Medical University Educational Institution; 2022. – P. 34–6. EDN: SOEOCC. Russian
 57. Abramovich AA, Styazhkina SN, Sokolov AV, Agafonova AV, Zinnatullina ZH. Current problems of pyelonephritis in modern conditions. Medical & pharmaceutical journal “Pulse”. 2019;21(8):42–6. DOI: 10.26787/nydha-2686-6846-2019-21-8-42-46 EDN: YFOLVS
 58. Khodyreva LA, Zaitsev AV, Bernikov AN, Kupriyanov YuA, Stroganov RV, Arefieva OA. Acute and recurrent cystitis. What do we know? RMJ. 2020;28(11):69–74. EDN: QEYXGV
 59. Yakovets EA, Monastyreva KA, Chudnovets IYu, Trutnev VP. Comparative evaluation of treatment effectiveness in patients with chronic recurrent cystitis complicated by urinary tract infection. Pharmacology & Pharmacotherapy. 2023;(1):66–9. DOI 10.46393/27132129_2023_1_66 EDN: FTEZBQ
 60. Notov KG, Novikova EG, Feofilov IV, Erkovich AA, Sevryukov FA, Notov IK, Mitrofanov IM, Selyatitskaya VG. Clinical assessment of the severity of chronic cystitis in women of different age groups. Journal of Siberian Medical Sciences. 2019;(2):94-105. DOI: 10.31549/2542-1174-2019-2-94-105 EDN: RCEXAJ
 61. Khalilova UA, Skvortsov VV, Ismailov IYa, Lugovkina AA, Proleiskaya NA, Kalinchenko EI. Renal colic. Meditsinskaya Sestra. 2018;20(6):6–11. DOI: 10.29296/25879979-2018-06-02 EDN: XWPBJZ
 62. Lemtyugov MB, Simchenko NI, Zinovkin DA. Clinical and Morphologic Features of the Course of Chronic Recurrent Cystitis in Women. Reproductive health. Eastern Europe. 2024;14(6):760–70. DOI: 10.34883/PI.2024.14.6.004 EDN: APNHM
 63. Teterina TA, Apolikhina IA, Ivanova EA. Anatomical and functional features of the female urethra: postcoital cystitis. Medical Opponent 2021; 3(15):35–42. EDN: IKZITW
 64. Silchuk NA, Nechiporenko AN, Korsak VE, Kniazuk AS. Chronic recurrent postcoital cystitis: A modern view on the problem. Journal of the Grodno State Medical University. 2022;20(4):374–9. DOI: 10.25298/2221-8785-2022-20-4-374-379 EDN LUCIOC
 65. Korabelnikov AS, Pryanichnikova MB, Zimichev AA. Chronic cystitis. What is hidden behind this diagnosis? Problems of diagnosis, treatment and prevention of inflammatory specific and nonspecific diseases of the genitourinary organs: Proceedings of the interregional Scientific and practical innovation Conference, Samara, December 15, 2017; Nizamova RS, editor; Samara: IP Nikiforov; 2017:8–12. EDN: YTZYVF. Russian
 66. Romikh VV, Zakharchenko AV, Borisenko LYu, Panteleev VV, Romikh FD. Urodynamic disorders of the lower urinary tract and their nature in a group of women suffering from chronic recurrent cystitis. Urological bulletin. 2017;7(S):90–1. EDN: YQAAQD
 67. Grigor'ev NA, Zaitsev AV, Kharchilava RR. Acute pyelonephritis. Urologiia. 2016;(3-53):4–10. EDN: WGNBHP
 68. Stjazhkina S, Chernova M, Hasanova S, Isupova V. The structure of the incidence of pyelonephritis. Problems of modern science and education. 2016;(33(75)):109–11. EDN: XACKDB
 69. Kruticov ES, Shurygina OYu. Urinary tract infections (etiology, pathogenesis, epidemiology, risk factors, diagnosis). Lecture. I part. Tavrichesky medical and Biological bulletin. 2016;19(4):124–30. EDN: XVIMXR
 70. Sharapatov Y, Turgunov Y, Lavrinenko A. Pathogenic mechanisms of acute obstructive pyelonephritis. Open access macedonian journal of medical sciences. 2021;9(F):124–8. DOI: 10.3889/oamjms.2021.5876
 71. Durdona DA, Islamova ZI. The impact of chronic pyelonephritis on health, early diagnosis and preventive measures. Eurasian Journal of Medical and Natural Sciences. 2025;5(4):134–41. DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.15222934
 72. Golubeva YaV. Clinical features of patients with acute pyelonephritis. Problems and prospects of modern medicine development: collection of scientific articles of the XIV Republican Scientific and Practical Conference with international participation of students and young scientists: in 6 volumes, Gomel, 05–06 May 2022; Gomel State Medical University. Volume 1. Gomel: Gomel State Medical University Educational Institution; 2022. P. 53–54. EDN: HEUKNE
 73. Khasanova ZI. Pyelonephritis. Diagnostics. Modern principles of antibacterial therapy. Atsenna. 2020;(75):4–9. EDN: PYPLBD
 74. Vasilevich DM. Acute purulent pyelonephritis: a literature review. Part I. diagnostics. Journal of the Grodno State Medical University. 2025;23(1):5–12. DOI: 10.25298/2221-8785-2025-23-1-5-12
 75. Ademola BL, Atanda AT, Aji SA, Abdu A. Clinical, morphologic and histological features of chronic pyelonephritis: An 8-year review. Niger Postgrad Med J. 2020;27(1):37–41. DOI: 10.4103/npmj.npmj_109_19
 76. Kaprin AD, Kostin AA, Popov SV. The strategy of antimicrobial therapy of acute uncomplicated pyelonephritis from the position of etiological data. Issled Prakt Med. 2015;2(3):59–63. DOI: 10.17709/2409-2231-2015-2-3-59-63 EDN: UJDPQL
 77. Enikeev DV, Spivak LG. Gestational pyelonephritis: modern diagnostic and treatment. Consilium Medicum. 2016;18(7):49–54. EDN: XAAAMT
 78. Garagashev GG, Berdichevsky VB, Boldyrev AL. Acute pyelonephritis according to the materials of the Department of urology GBUZ TO “OKB No. 2” Tyumen. Academic Journal of Western Siberia. 2020;16(5(88)):50–1. EDN: VHQZRP. Russian
 79. Rapoport LM, Tsarichenko DG, Saenko VS, Frolova EA. Urate nephrolithiasis. Polyclinic doctor's Handbook. 2016;(2):52–6. EDN: WAZFMF
 80. Nazarov TKh, Akhmedov MA, Rychkov IV, Trubnikova KE, Nikolaev VA, Tursunov AI. urolithiasis: etiopathogenesis, diagnosis and treatment. Andrology and Genital Surgery. 2019;20(3):43–51. DOI: 10.17650/2070-9781-2019-20-3-43-51 EDN: WTAHPR

81. Bilai SI, Dovbysh MA, Bilai IM. Urolithiasis: urgency of this matter and prospects for its development. Bulletin of Vitebsk State Medical University. 2016;15(5):19–26. DOI: 10.22263/2312-4156.2016.5.19 EDN: WZHPQJ
82. Allam EAH. Urolithiasis unveiled: pathophysiology, stone dynamics, types, and inhibitory mechanisms: a review. Afr J Urol. 2024;30:34. DOI: 10.1186/s12301-024-00436-z
83. Baketin PS, Mollaev RA, Mazurenko DA, Grigoryev VE, Gadzhiev NK, Obidnyak VM, Pisarev AV, Tagirov NS, Malkhasyan VA, Petrov SB, Popov SV. Pathogenic variants of urolithiasis. Pediatrician. 2017;8(1):95–105. DOI: 10.17816/PED8195-105 EDN: YHGQCI
84. Van de Perre E, Bazin D, Estrade V, Boudierlique E, Wissing KM, Daudon M, Letavernier E. Randall's plaque as the origin of idiopathic calcium oxalate stone formation: an update. Comptes Rendus. Chimie, Microcrystalline pathologies. Clinical issues and nanochemistry. 2022;25:373–91. DOI: 10.5802/crchim.102
85. Letavernier E, Bazin D, Daudon M. Randall's plaque and kidney stones: Recent advances and future challenges. Comptes Rendus. Chimie. 2016;19(11-12):1456–60. DOI: 10.1016/j.crci.2014.12.005
86. Mendelyan SS, Prosyannikov MYu, Petrov IM. Modern aspects of pathogenesis of urolithiasis. Medical Science and Education in the Urals. 2016;17(4(88)):129–33. EDN: YLPFHC
87. Khan SR, Canales BK, Dominguez-Gutierrez PR. Randall's plaque and calcium oxalate stone formation: role for immunity and inflammation. Nat Rev Nephrol. 2021;17(6):417–33. DOI: 10.1038/s41581-020-00392-1
88. Frolova EA, Tsarichenko DG, Saenko VS, Rapoport LM. Urate urolithiasis: pathogenesis and possibilities of conservative therapy. Urologia. 2018;(5):146–52. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2018.5.146-152 EDN: YTBVZZ
89. Grigor'ev NA, Semenyakin IV, Malkhasyan VA, Gadzhiev NK, Rudenko VI. UROLITHIASIS. Urologia. 2016;(2-S2):37–69. EDN: VXCKXF
90. Kim HJ, Oh SH. Comprehensive prediction of urolithiasis based on clinical factors, blood chemistry and urinalysis: UROLITHIASIS score. Sci Rep. 2023;13(1):14885. DOI: 10.1038/s41598-023-42208-9
91. Magomedov DK, Pryanichnikova MB, Tagojonov ZF, Rizoiev KhKh, Teleeva GI, Zamuddinov MF, Zaimudinov BM. Features of the clinical picture of urolithiasis in dependence of size, location and chemical structure of concrements in military servants. Bulletin of the Academy of Medical Sciences of Tajikistan. 2018;8(4(28)):449–58. DOI: 10.31712/2221-7355-2018-8-4-449-458 EDN: WUELNT
92. Bhaggamma T, Haripriya B, Bandarapalle K, Ganesh K, Vyshnavi K, Tejaswi D. Urolithiasis: a clinical review. International Journal of Clinical Pharmacokinetics and Medical Sciences. 2022;2(3):115–24. DOI: 10.26452/ijcpms.v2i3.331
93. Zhurunova MS, Dautova MB. Urolithiasis. International Journal of Applied and Fundamental Research. 2016;(6-5):977–977. EDN: WAPCNH. Russian
94. Nicolle LE. The Paradigm Shift to Non-Treatment of Asymptomatic *Bacteriuria*. Pathogens. 2016;5(2):38. DOI: 10.3390/pathogens5020038
95. Zakharova IN, Osmanov IM, Mumladze EB, Machneva EB, Tambieva EV, Mekburzaeva GB. Asymptomatic bacteriuria: change of the common opinion. Medical Council. 2017;(19):162–7. DOI: 10.21518/2079-701X-2017-19-162-167 EDN: ZQTLBH
96. Petty LA, Vaughn VM, Flanders SA, Malani AN, Conlon A, Kaye KS, Thyagarajan R, Osterholzer D, Nielsen D, Eschenauer GA, Bloemers S, McLaughlin E, Gandhi TN. Risk Factors and Outcomes Associated With Treatment of Asymptomatic *Bacteriuria* in Hospitalized Patients. JAMA Intern Med. 2019;179(11):1519–27. DOI: 10.1001/jamainternmed.2019.2871
97. Luu T, Albarillo FS. Asymptomatic Bacteriuria: Prevalence, Diagnosis, Management, and Current Antimicrobial Stewardship Implementations. Am J Med. 2022;135(8):e236–E244. DOI: 10.1016/j.amjmed.2022.03.015
98. Nicolle LE, Gupta K, Bradley SF, Colgan R, DeMuri GP, Drekonja D, Eckert LO, Geerlings SE, Köves B, Hooton TM, Juthani-Mehta M, Knight SL, Saint S, Schaeffer AJ, Trautner B, Wullt B, Siemieniuk R. Clinical Practice Guideline for the Management of Asymptomatic Bacteriuria: 2019 Update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. Clin Infect Dis. 2019;68(10):e83–e110. DOI: 10.1093/cid/ciy1121
99. Kass EH, Finland M. Asymptomatic infections of the urinary tract. J Urol. 2002;168(2):420–424.
100. Zalmanovici Trestioreanu A, Lador A, Sauerbrun-Cutler MT, Leibovici L. Antibiotics for asymptomatic bacteriuria. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2015;4(4):CD009534. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD009534.pub2
101. Lindberg U, Claesson I, Hanson LA, Jodal U. Asymptomatic bacteriuria in schoolgirls. VIII. Clinical course during a 3-year follow-up. J Pediatr. 1978;92(2):194–9. DOI: 10.1016/s0022-3476(78)80003-1
102. Colgan R, Jaffe GA, Nicolle LE. Asymptomatic Bacteriuria. Am Fam Physician 2020;102(2):99–104
103. Hansson S, Jodal U, Norén L, Bjure J. Untreated bacteriuria in asymptomatic girls with renal scarring. Pediatrics. 1989;84(6):964–8.
104. Wullt B, Svanborg C. Deliberate Establishment of Asymptomatic Bacteriuria-A Novel Strategy to Prevent Recurrent UTI. Pathogens. 2016;5(3):52. DOI: 10.3390/pathogens5030052
105. Malkoch AV, Filatova NN. Urinary tract infection and the role of phytopreparations in its complex therapy. The attending physician. 2015;(3):82. EDN: TJWXND. Russian
106. Rebrov BA. Management of recurrent urinary tract infections. University Clinic. 2017;(3-1(24)):165–9. EDN: ZWUIJP
107. Gaibullayeva A, Kariev S. Possibilities of using medicinal plants for urolithiasis. Journal of Problems of Biology and Medicine. 2018;(4(104)):25–8. Russian
108. Kariev S. Herbal diuretics for the treatment of urolithiasis. Bulletin of the Doctor Journal. 2022;(1):51–7. Russian
109. Kochkarov MH, Shevchenko AM. mineral and plant origin drugs for the treatment and prevention of urolithiasis. Pharmacy & Pharmacology. 2015;(6):5–11. DOI: 10.19163/2307-9266-2015-3-6(13)-5-11. EDN: VKAXAZ
110. Shevandova AA, Ametova LO, Sorokina LE, Medzhitov AL, Bychkov ME, Fomochkina II. Chronic kidney disease on the background of metabolic syndrome: A comprehensive look at pathophysiology, diagnosis and treatment prospects. 2024;14(3):86–95. DOI: 10.29039/2224-6444-2024-14-3-86-95 EDN: BDIQXF

111. De Souza JM, Rodrigues MVP, Cirqueira RT, Alves MJQDF, Lordelo EP, De Oliveira CF, Pietro RCLR. Evaluation of antimicrobial, hypotensive and diuretic effect of *Eugenia uniflora* extracts. *Mundo Da Saude*. 2018;42(2):269–75. DOI: 10.15343/0104-7809.20184202269282
112. Maksimov VA, Yarovoy SK, Alexandrov NS, Maksudov RR. The place of phytotherapy in the treatment of urolithiasis. *Urologiia*. 2012;(3):58–61. EDN: PFIHER. Russian
113. Grigoryan ZG, Lokshin KL. Application of Kanefron® used in urological practice. *RMJ*. 2013;21(18):924–9. EDN: QZUTIV. Russian
114. Xie YH, Zhou LJ, Luo JL, Gong JH, Huang LP. Isolation and identification of the structure of chemical components *Rubus chingii* Hu. *Lishenzhen Med Mater Res*. 2013;24(04):786–7. DOI: 10.3969/j.issn.1008-0805.2013.04.008
115. Fisher K, Phillips C. Potential antimicrobial uses of essential oils in food: is citrus the answer? *Trends in Food science & Technology*. 2008;19(3):156–64. DOI: 10.1016/j.tifs.2007.11.006
116. Zengin H, Baysal AH. Antibacterial and antioxidant activity of essential oil terpenes against pathogenic and spoilage-forming bacteria and cell structure-activity relationships evaluated by SEM microscopy. *Molecules*. 2014;19(11):17773–98. DOI: 10.3390/molecules191117773
117. Fathima A, Rao JR. Selective toxicity of Catechin-a natural flavonoid towards bacteria. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2016;100(14):6395–402. DOI: 10.1007/s00253-016-7492-x
118. Tache AM, Dinu LD, Vamanu E. Novel insights on plant extracts to prevent and treat recurrent urinary tract infections. *Appl Sci*. 2022;12(5):2635. DOI: 10.3390/app12052635
119. Rozhdestvensky DA, Boki V. Clinical pharmacology of cranberry proanthocyanidins: a modern view on the treatment of urinary tract infections. *International reviews: clinical practice and health*. 2014;(4(10)):149–60. EDN: SWKYVT. Russian
120. Kuz'min IV, Slesarevskaya MN, Al-Shukri SH. D-mannose for prevention and treatment of lower urinary tract infection: pathogenetic basics and clinical results. *Urologiia*. 2020;(4):131–8. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2020.4.131-138 EDN: AVR LGV
121. Ioannou P, Baliou S. The Molecular Mechanisms and Therapeutic Potential of Cranberry, D-Mannose, and Flavonoids against Infectious Diseases: The Example of Urinary Tract Infections. *Antibiotics (Basel)*. 2024;13(7):593. DOI: 10.3390/antibiotics13070593
122. Kranjčec B, Papeš D, Altarac S. D-mannose powder for prophylaxis of recurrent urinary tract infections in women: a randomized clinical trial. *World J Urol*. 2014;32(1):79–84. DOI: 10.1007/s00345-013-1091-6
123. Li X, Wu G, Shang P, Bao J, Lu J, Yue Z. Anti-nephrolithic potential of catechin in melamine-related urolithiasis via the inhibition of ROS, apoptosis, phospho-p38, and osteopontin in male Sprague-Dawley rats. *Free Radic Res*. 2015;49(10):1249–58. DOI: 10.3109/10715762.2015.1061187
124. Ghodasara J, Pawar A, Deshmukh C, Kuchekar B. Inhibitory effect of rutin and curcumin on experimentally-induced calcium oxalate urolithiasis in rats. *Pharmacognosy Res*. 2010;2(6):388–92. DOI: 10.4103/0974-8490.75462
125. Zhu W, Xu YF, Feng Y, Peng B, Che JP, Liu M, Zheng JH. Prophylactic effects of quercetin and hyperoside in a calcium oxalate stone forming rat model. *Urolithiasis*. 2014;42(6):519–26. DOI: 10.1007/s00240-014-0695-7
126. Yasir F, Wahab AT, Choudhary MI. Protective effect of dietary polyphenol caffeic acid on ethylene glycol-induced kidney stones in rats. *Urolithiasis*. 2018;46(2):157–66. DOI: 10.1007/s00240-017-0982-1
127. Moser JC, Cechinel-Zanchett CC, Mariano LNB. Diuretic, natriuretic and Ca²⁺- sparing effects induced by rosmarinic and caffeic acids in rats. *Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia*. 2020;30(4):588–92. DOI: 10.1007/s43450-020-00075-9
128. Pastushenkov AL, Beshpalova NV. Herbs and the botanical materia medica containing biologically active agents making primary impact on the diuresis. Clinical, pathophysiological and phytotherapeutic aspects of the human urinary system. *Clinical Pathophysiology*. 2020;26(1):19–27. EDN: GWRLWC
129. Kortieva AG, Mildzikhova KT. Overview of drugs and plants with a diuretic effect. Young scientists in solving urgent problems of science: Proceedings of the XII International Scientific and Practical Conference, Vladikavkaz, December 08-10, 2022; Vladikavkaz: Vesta; 2022. P. 168–71. EDN: MOWLKX
130. Lysiuk R, Gudź N, Darmohray R, Yezerska O. Herbal substances for treatment of urological and nephrological diseases. *Recept*. 2016;19(2):235–9. EDN: VXVVXF
131. Bencheikh N, Elbouzidi A, Kharchoufa L, Ouassou H, Alami Merrouni I, Mechchate H, Es-Safi I, Hano C, Addi M, Bouhrim M, Eto B, Elachouri M. Inventory of Medicinal Plants Used Traditionally to Manage Kidney Diseases in North-Eastern Morocco: Ethnobotanical Fieldwork and Pharmacological Evidence. *Plants (Basel)*. 2021;10(9):1966. DOI: 10.3390/plants10091966
132. Gatea Kaabi SA, Abdulrazaq RA, Rasool KH, Khassaf SA. Western herbal remedies for Urinary Tract infections. *Arch Urol Res*. 2020;4(1):049–060. DOI: 10.17352/aur.000019
133. Saleh RH, Omran AM, AlHilla RSA. Traditional plants that are utilized to treat urinary tract infections: A review. *Maaen Journal for Medical Sciences*. 2023;2(1):1. DOI: 10.55810/2789-9136.1012
134. Fazly Bazzaz B, Darvishi Fork S, Ahmadi R, Khameneh B. Deep insights into urinary tract infections and effective natural remedies. *Afric J Urolog*. 2021;27(6):1–13. DOI: 10.1186/s12301-020-00111-z
135. Jovanović A, Drobac M, Vidović B, Pavlović D, Krajnović D, & Tadić, I. Herbal products versus antibiotics for urinary tract infections-analysis of patient attitudes. *Journal of Herbal Medicine*. 2024;46:100892. DOI: 10.1016/j.hermed.2024.100892
136. Popov E, Georgieva R, Slavov C. Phytotherapeutica in common urological conditions in Western integrative medicine: a narrative review. *Longhua Chinese Medicine*. 2022; 5:33. DOI: 10.21037/lcm-21-38
137. Isakova EA, Sereda LN, Tsvetov NS. Evaluation of the antibiotic activity of aqueous ethanol extract from the leaves of *Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L. obtained by ultrasonic extraction. Achievements and prospects of creating new herbal medicines: Proceedings of the International Scientific and Practical Conference, Moscow, June 15–16, 2023. – Moscow: All-Russian Scientific Research Institute

- of Medicinal and Aromatic Plants; 2023. P. 52–6. DOI: 10.52101/9785870191102_52 EDN: ZTYPLT. Russian
138. Shamilov AA, Bubenchikova VN, Chemikov MV, Pozdnyakov DI, Garsiya ER. *Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.: Chemical contents, pharmacological activities. *Pharmaceutical Sciences*. 2020;26(4):344–62. DOI: 10.34172/PS.2020.54
 139. Kurkin VA, Ryazanova TK, Platonov IA, Pavlova LV. Determination of arbutin in *vaccinium vitis-idaea* L. Leaves. *Pharmaceutical Chemistry Journal*. 2017;51(4):281–4. EDN: YLEIDJ
 140. Raudone L, Vilkickyte G, Pitkauskaitė L, Raudonis R, Vainoriene R, Motiekaityte V. Antioxidant Activities of *Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L. Leaves within Cultivars and Their Phenolic Compounds. *Molecules*. 2019;24(5):844. DOI: 10.3390/molecules24050844
 141. Kryvtsova MV, Salamon I, Koscova J, Spivak MY. Antibiofilm forming, antimicrobial activity and some biochemical properties of *Vaccinium vitis idaea* leaf and berry extracts on *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Biosystems Diversity*. 2020;28(3):238–42. DOI: 10.15421/012031
 142. Maslov O, Komisarenko M, Ponomarenko S, Osolodchenko T, Kolisnyk S, Golik M. The investigation prospect application of alcohol-water extract of lingonberry as antimicrobial, anti-fungi and antioxidant pharmaceutical. *Chemical Bulletin of Kazakh National University*. 2024;112(3):4–11. DOI:10.15328/cb1366
 143. Kletsko LI, Vinogradov VV, Tolochko VO, Suntsov AO, Bazhenov DA. The use of flavonoids in the treatment of diseases of mycotic and bacterial etiology. VI Luga scientific readings. Modern scientific knowledge: theory and practice: proceedings of the International Scientific Conference, St. Petersburg, May 22, 2018; St. Petersburg: A.S. Pushkin Leningrad State University; 2018. P. 139–42. EDN: XYWFYT
 144. Kurkin VA, Ryazanova TK, Platonov IA, Pavlova LV. Quantitative determination of arbutin in the leaves of *Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* (L.) Spreng. *Chemistry of Plant Raw Material*. 2015;(1):95–100. DOI: 10.14258/jcprm.201501410 EDN: UILSRF
 145. Berezina EV, Brilkina AA, Veselov AP. The content of phenolic compounds in *Vaccinium vitis-idaea* and *Oxycoccus palustris* (Ericaceae) during different vegetation periods. *Vegetation Resources*. 2015;51(1):88–100. EDN: TDQDZX
 146. Antonova NP, Prokhvatilova SS, Shefer EP, Kalinin AM, Morgunov IM, Golomazova TA, Legonkova US. Determination of arbutin in herbal medicinal products. *Regulatory Research and Medicine Evaluation*. 2021;11(2):121–9. DOI: 10.30895/1991-2919-2021-11-2-121-129 EDN: UMHRSRG
 147. Ivanov VV, Saganov VP. Influence of phytotherapy on bacterial adhesiveness by chronic pyelonephritis and chronic cystitis patients. *Modern Science: actual problems of theory and practice*, a series "Natural and Technical Sciences. 2017;(1):75–9. EDN: XXBSOF
 148. Ivanov VV, Saganov VP. Influence of phytotherapy on bacterial adhesion in patients with chronic cystitis. *BSU bulletin*. 2015;(12):159–63. EDN: UMMYGP
 149. Deutch Charles E. Use of *Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* extracts for the treatment of urinary tract infections. *Eur J Med Plants*. 2025;36(3):62–87. DOI: 10.9734/ejmp/2025/v36i31264
 150. Kurkin VA, Zaitseva EN, Ryazanova TK, Dubishchev AV. The influence of individual compounds isolated from *Arctostaphylos Uva-Ursi* leaves on the excretory function of rat kidney. *Éksperimentalnaya i Klinicheskaya Farmakologiya*. 2019;82(1):11–5. DOI: 10.30906/0869-2092-2019-82-1-11-15 EDN: OACTJB
 151. Zaitseva EN, Kurkina AV, Kurkin VA, Pravdivtseva OE, Dubishchev AV. comparative study of the diuretic activity of aqueous extracts from medicinal plants containing flavonoids. *Pharmacy*. 2013;(7):33–5. EDN: RNNIZX
 152. Toplicean I, Datcu AD, Ianuş R. Bioactive compounds, properties and toxicity of *Betula* spp. -a review. *Annals of West University of Timisoara: Series of Biology*. 2022;25(2):89–98.
 153. Efthimiou I, Vlastos D, Triantafyllidis V, Eleftherianos A, Antonopoulou M. Investigation of the Genotoxicological Profile of Aqueous *Betula pendula* Extracts. *Plants (Basel)*. 2022;11(20):2673. DOI: 10.3390/plants11202673
 154. Vladimirov MS, Nikolić VD, Stanojević LP, Nikolić LB, Tačić AD. Common birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.): Chemical composition and biological activity of isolates. *Advanced technologies*. 2019;8(1):65–77.
 155. Isidorov VA, Nazaruk J, Stocki M, Bakier S. Secondary metabolites of downy birch buds (*Betula pubescens* Erch.). *Z Naturforsch C J Biosci*. 2021;77(3-4):145–55. DOI: 10.1515/znc-2021-0036
 156. Isidorov VA, Stocki M, Vetchnikova L. Inheritance of specific secondary volatile metabolites in buds of white birch *Betula pendula* and *Betula pubescens* hybrids. *Trees*. 2019;33(5):1329–44. DOI: 10.1007/s00468-019-01861-2
 157. Duric K, Kovac-Besovic E, Niksic H, Sofic E. Antibacterial activity of methanolic extracts, decoction and isolated triterpene products from different parts of birch, *Betula pendula*, Roth. *Journal of Plant Studies*. 2013;2(2):61. DOI: 10.5539/jps.v2n2p61
 158. Rastogi S, Pandey MM, Kumar Singh Rawat A. Medicinal plants of the genus *Betula*--traditional uses and a phytochemical-pharmacological review. *J Ethnopharmacol*. 2015;159:62–83. DOI: 10.1016/j.jep.2014.11.010
 159. Popowski D, Kruk A, Pawłowska KA, Dolzko D, Korczak M, Piwowarski JP, Roszko M, Granica S. Evaluating birch leaf tea as a functional herbal beverage: Beneficial impact on the urinary tract, and metabolism in human organism. *Food Res Int*. 2024;189:114481. DOI: 10.1016/j.foodres.2024.114481
 160. Peron G, Yerkassymova A, Zengin G, Dall'Acqua S. Investigating Systemic Metabolic Effects of *Betula alba* Leaf Extract in Rats via Urinary Metabolomics. *Metabolites*. 2025;15(7):471. DOI: 10.3390/metabo15070471
 161. Nagaslaeva OV, Nikolaeva GG. A remedy with anti-inflammatory, diuretic and hypo-azothemic effects. Young scientists and pharmacy of the XXI century: proceedings of the fifth Scientific and practical conference of graduate students and young scientists, Moscow, December 15, 2017; Moscow: All-Russian Scientific Research Institute of Medicinal and Aromatic Plants; 2017. P. 99–104. EDN: OGAIZE. Russian
 162. Petruk AA, Vysochina GI. PolygonumaviculareL. (Polygonaceae) phenol compounds in geographically distant populations. *Proceedings of Universities. Applied Chemistry and Biotechnology*. 2019;9(1):95–101. DOI: 10.21285/2227-2925-2019-9-1-95-101
 163. Arutyunova VV, Timoshina TI, Tserenova AB. Comparative study of the flavonoid fraction of bird's knotweed and common knotweed. *Current issues of modern science:*

- theory, methodology, practice, innovation: A collection of scientific articles based on the materials of the IV International Scientific and Practical Conference, Ufa, December 30, 2020; Ufa: Scientific Publishing Center "Bulletin of Science; 2020. P. 238–43. EDN: DMYKFG. Russian
164. Selivanova YA, Slivkin AI, Vervikina AA, Dyakova NA. The study of flavonoids accumulation by the herb *Polygonum aviculare* of the synanthropic flora of the Rostov Region. *Aspirantskiy Vestnik Povolzh'ya*. 2022;22(4):58–62. DOI: 10.55531/2072-2354.2022.22.4.58-62 EDN: AFLKZL
 165. Nugroho A, Kim EJ, Choi JS, Park HJ. Simultaneous quantification and peroxynitrite-scavenging activities of flavonoids in *Polygonum aviculare* L. herb. *J Pharm Biomed Anal*. 2014;89:93–8. DOI: 10.1016/j.jpba.2013.10.037
 166. Granica S, Czerwińska ME, Żyżyńska-Granica B, Kiss AK. Antioxidant and anti-inflammatory flavonol glucuronides from *Polygonum aviculare* L. *Fitoterapia*. 2013;91:180–8. DOI: 10.1016/j.fitote.2013.08.026
 167. Narzulloeva GYu, Sadullaev SA, Saidalieva FA. Study of chronic toxicity of dry extract of bird's knotweed. *Bulletin of the YUKMA*. 2022;4(98):50–50. Russian
 168. Salama HM, Marraiki N. Antimicrobial activity and phytochemical analyses of *Polygonum aviculare* L. (*Polygonaceae*), naturally growing in Egypt. *Saudi J Biol Sci*. 2010;17(1):57–63. DOI: 10.1016/j.sjbs.2009.12.009. Erratum in: *Saudi J Biol Sci*. 2010;17(2):185.
 169. Jang CH, Chung YC, Lee A, Hwang YH. Hydroethanolic Extract of *Polygonum aviculare* L. Mediates the Anti-Inflammatory Activity in RAW 264.7 Murine Macrophages Through Induction of Heme Oxygenase-1 and Inhibition of Inducible Nitric Oxide Synthase. *Plants (Basel)*. 2024;13(23):3314. DOI: 10.3390/plants13233314
 170. Joriya A, Kumar J, Singh A. Anti-inflammatory effect of *Polygonum aviculare* L. ethanolic leaf extract in rodent modes of acute and chronic inflammation: involvement of possible mechanisms. *World J Pharm Res*. 2024;13(24):752–62. DOI: 10.20959/wjpr202424-34671
 171. Saremi J, Kargar Jahromi H, Pourahmadi M. Effect of *Polygonum Aviculare* L. on Nephrolithiasis Induced by Ethylene Glycol and Ammonium Chloride in Rats. *Urol J*. 2018;15(3):79–82. DOI: 10.22037/uj.v0i0.3815
 172. Mantatov VV, Bashelkhanov IS. Research of pharmacotherapeutic effectiveness of extract of *Polygonum aviculare* L. of experimental chronic prostatitis. *Bulletin of the East Siberian Scientific Center of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Medical Sciences*. 2011;4-2(80):263. EDN: ONYAYJ
 173. Mercureva GU, Khaziev RSh, Kamaeva SS, Muravyeva MM. The influence of extragent on the quality composition of flavonoids extracted from *Polygonum aviculare*. Health is the foundation of human potential: problems and solutions. 2013;8(2):99–999. EDN: RVZAJH. Russian
 174. Sergeeva AA. Market analysis of preparations based on bird's knotweed and pepper knotweed. A new word in science and education: proceedings of the International (correspondence) Scientific and Practical Conference, Neftekamsk, November 21, 2023; Neftekamsk: The World of Science (IP Vostretsov Alexander Ilyich); 2023. P. 251–6. EDN: RMTOWJ. Russian
 175. Deipenbrock M, Scotti F, Mo B, Heinrich M, Hensel A. Seven-day Oral Intake of *Orthosiphon stamineus* Leaves Infusion Exerts Antiadhesive Ex Vivo Activity Against Uropathogenic *E. coli* in Urine Samples. *Planta Med*. 2023;89(8):778–89. DOI: 10.1055/a-1585-6322
 176. Olah NK, Radu L, Mogoşan C, Hanganu D, Gocan S. Phytochemical and pharmacological studies on *Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth. (*Lamiaceae*) hydroalcoholic extracts. *J Pharm Biomed Anal*. 2003;33(1):117–23. DOI: 10.1016/s0731-7085(03)00227-9
 177. Ashraf K, Sultan S, Adam A. *Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth. is an Outstanding Food Medicine: Review of Phytochemical and Pharmacological Activities. *J Pharm Bioallied Sci*. 2018;10(3):109–18. DOI: 10.4103/jpbs.JPBS_253_17
 178. Deipenbrock M, Hensel A. Polymethoxylated flavones from *Orthosiphon stamineus* leaves as antiadhesive compounds against uropathogenic *E. coli*. *Fitoterapia*. 2019;139:104387. DOI: 10.1016/j.fitote.2019.104387
 179. Amzad Hossain M, Mizanur Rahman SM. Isolation and characterisation of flavonoids from the leaves of medicinal plant *Orthosiphon stamineus*. *Arabian Journal of Chemistry*. 2015;8(2):218–21. DOI: 10.1016/j.arabjc.2011.06.016
 180. Abdul Aziz AH, Putra NR, Kong H. Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction of sinensetin, isosinensetin, and rosmarinic acid from *Orthosiphon stamineus* leaves: Optimization and Modeling. *Arabian Journal for Science and Engineering*. 2020;45(9):7467–76. DOI: 10.1007/s13369-020-04584-6
 181. Faramayuda F, Riyanti S, Suryani Sudijana JA, Guntina RK, Ismail NK. The effect of different extraction method and validation of the HPLC method for sinensetin quantification in cat whiskers (*Orthosiphon aristatus* Blume Miq.). *Current Chemical Biology*. 2025;19(3):220–34. DOI: 10.2174/0122127968385340250630183912
 182. Kartini K, Putri RE, Budiono R. Quantification of sinensetin in *Orthosiphon stamineus* from various phytogeographical zones in Indonesia. *Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science*. 2023;13(3):183–91. DOI: 10.7324/JAPS.2023.80035
 183. Sarshar S, Brandt S, Asadi Karam MR, Habibi M, Bouzari S, Lechtenberg M, Dobrindt U, Qin X, Goycoolea FM, Hensel A. Aqueous extract from *Orthosiphon stamineus* leaves prevents bladder and kidney infection in mice. *Phytomedicine*. 2017;28:1–9. DOI: 10.1016/j.phymed.2017.02.009
 184. Abdullah NR, Ismail Z, Ismail Z. Acute toxicity of *Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth standardized extract in Sprague Dawley rats. *Phytomedicine*. 2009;16(2–3):222–6. DOI: 10.1016/j.phymed.2007.04.013
 185. Pariyani R, Safinar Ismail I, Azam AA, Abas F, Shaari K, Sulaiman MR. Phytochemical screening and acute oral toxicity study of Java tea leaf extracts. *BioMed Res Int*. 2015;2015:742420. DOI: 10.1155/2015/742420
 186. Yam MF, Lim CP, Fung Ang L, Por LY, Wong ST, Asmawi MZ, Basir R, Ahmad M. Antioxidant and toxicity studies of 50% methanolic extract of *Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth. *Biomed Res Int*. 2013;2013:351602. DOI: 10.1155/2013/351602
 187. Muhammad H, Omar MH, Isa ML, Thani NSIA, Rasid ENI, Awang N. Male reproductive toxicity studies of *Orthosiphon stamineus* aqueous extract in Sprague Dawley rats. *Journal of Medicinal Plants Studies*. 2018;6(5):07–14.

188. Arafat OM, Tham SY, Sadikun A, Zhari I, Haughton PJ, Asmawi MZ. Studies on diuretic and hypouricemic effects of *Orthosiphon stamineus* methanol extracts in rats. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 2008;118(3):354–60. DOI: 10.1016/j.jep.2008.04.015
189. Xu WH, Wang HT, Sun Y, Xue ZC, Liang ML, Su WK. Antihyperuricemic and nephroprotective effects of extracts from *Orthosiphon stamineus* in hyperuricemic mice. *J Pharm Pharmacol.* 2020;72(4):551–60. DOI: 10.1111/jphp.13222
190. Adam Y, Somchit MN, Sulaiman MR, Nasaruddin AA, Zuraini A, Bustamam AA, Zakaria ZA. Diuretic properties of *Orthosiphon stamineus* Benth. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 2009;124(1):154–8. DOI: 10.1016/j.jep.2009.04.014
191. Oktaviani RM, Sari SP, Harahap Y. Effect of 70% ethanol extract of *Orthosiphonis stamineus* benth leaves on the pharmacokinetic parameters of furosemide in male white rats. *International Journal of Applied Pharmaceutics.* 2017;9:54–8. DOI: 10.22159/ijap.2017.v9s1.28_33
192. Marzuki WNASW, Muhammad N, Sairi NH, Rahim NFA, Talip BA, Abdullah N, Bakar MFA. Phytochemical analysis and in-vitro antiurolithiatic properties of selected malaysian herbs. *Journal of Advanced Research in Fluid Mechanics and Thermal Sciences.* 2019;64(1):152–9.
193. Ambursa MB, Rahman MNG, Sulaiman SA, Zakaria AD, Mohamed Daud MA, Zakaria Z, Zahari Z, Wong MP. An In vitro Study of *Orthosiphon stamineus* (Misai Kucing) Standardized Water Extract as a Chemolytic Agent in Urolithiasis. *J Pharm Bioallied Sci.* 2021;13(4):373–9. DOI: 10.4103/jpbs.jpbs_526_21
194. Yudakova TV, Sharakhova EF. Herbal preparations as agents of urolithiasis metaphylaxis: opinion of pharmaceutical specialists and sales data. Proceedings of the X final and I interregional scientific and practical conference of the Scientific Society of Young Scientists, Innovators and Students (NOMUIS) with international participation, May 21–23, 2025; ASMU, Barnaul; 2025;4(31):401–6. Russian
195. Labkovskaya MB, Shmygareva AA, Kurkin BA. Modification of the Method for the Quantitative Determination of Flavonoids in Horsetail Grass (*Equisetum Arvense* L.)". *Traditional Medicine.* 2024;(1(73)):45–9. DOI: 10.54296/18186173_2024_1_45 EDN: STAEQQ
196. Abdugapparov F. Identification of flavonoids and phenolic compounds in *Equisetum arvense* L. by HPLC. *Universum: Chemistry and Biology.* 2025;(6-2(132)):11–3. EDN: TBYVXP
197. Ismail AM, Al-Khasreji TO, Maulood BK. Flavonoids content in methanolic extract of *Equisetum arvense* L. (Horsetail) from Kurdistan region – Iraq. *Journal of Biotechnology Research Center.* 2020;14(1):47–51. DOI: 10.24126/jobrc.2020.14.1.588
198. Ataseven S, Misirli D, Uzar F, Türkan, NN. Determination of phenolic compound composition of water and ethanol extracts of horsetail (*Equisetum arvense*). *Bütünleyici Ve Anadolu Tibbi Dergisi.* 2021;2(2):3–9.
199. Bonacheva VM, Drenin AA, Botirov EKh. Flavonoids from *Equisetum arvense* L. and *Lathyrus pratensis* L. Chemistry of plant raw materials. 2014;(3):195–9. EDN TGUFEF
200. Zia-Ur-Rehman, Gurgul A, Youn I, Maldonado A, Wahid F, Che CT, Khan T. UHPLC-MS/MS-GNPS based phytochemical investigation of *Equisetum arvense* L. And evaluation of cytotoxicity against human melanoma and ovarian cancer cells. *Saudi J Biol Sci.* 2022;29(6):103271. DOI: 10.1016/j.sjbs.2022.03.021
201. Jeong SY, Yu HS, Ra MJ, Jung SM, Yu JN, Kim JC, Kim KH. Phytochemical Investigation of *Equisetum arvense* and Evaluation of Their Anti-Inflammatory Potential in TNF α /INF γ -Stimulated Keratinocytes. *Pharmaceuticals (Basel).* 2023;16(10):1478. DOI: 10.3390/ph16101478
202. Roumili I, Cheniti W, Baghiani A, Charef N, Arrar L. HPLC Analysis, acute toxicity and assessment of antioxidant and anti-inflammatory capacity of different extracts of *Equisetum arvense*. *South Asian Journal of Experimental Biology.* 2022;12(3):318–26. DOI: 10.38150/sajeb.12(3).p318-326
203. Kryvtsova APM, Koščová J, Kohuch T, Savenko M. Antimicrobial, antibiofilm-forming properties of *Equisetum arvense* L. shoot extracts. *Current Perspectives on Medicinal and Aromatic Plants.* 2021;4(1):50–7. DOI: 10.38093/cupmap.953083
204. Eren A, İnci Ş, Kirbağ, S. The antimicrobial and antioxidant effects of *Equisetum arvense* extracts. *Turkish Journal of Science and Technology.* 2024;19(2):373–8. DOI: 10.55525/tjst.1444667
205. Carneiro DM, Freire RC, Honório TC, Zoghaib I, Cardoso FF, Tresvenzol LM, de Paula JR, Sousa AL, Jardim PC, da Cunha LC. Randomized, Double-Blind Clinical Trial to Assess the Acute Diuretic Effect of *Equisetum arvense* (Field Horsetail) in Healthy Volunteers. *Evid Based Complement Alternat Med.* 2014;2014:760683. DOI: 10.1155/2014/760683
206. Botirov EK, Bonacheva VM, Kolomiets NE. Chemical composition and biological activity of metabolites of the genus *Equisetum*. *Chemistry of plant raw material.* 2021;(1):5–26. DOI: 10.14258/jcprm.2021017760 EDN: EWTHJH
207. Boeing T, Tafarelo Moreno KG, Gasparotto Junior A, Mota da Silva L, de Souza P. Phytochemistry and Pharmacology of the Genus *Equisetum* (*Equisetaceae*): A Narrative Review of the Species with Therapeutic Potential for Kidney Diseases. *Evid Based Complement Alternat Med.* 2021;2021:6658434. DOI: 10.1155/2021/6658434
208. Abdullabekov VN, Abdullabekova NA, Boshkaeva AK, Telman MT. Dry extract from herba woolly. *Scientific Journal of Medical Science and Biology.* 2025;3:181–96. Russian
209. Mandal B, Madan S, Ahmad S. In vitro inhibition of calcium oxalate nucleation by extract-based fractions of aerial parts and roots of *Aerva lanata* (Linn.) Juss. ex Schult. *Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences.* 2017;79(6). DOI: 10.4172/pharmaceutical-sciences.1000313
210. Dr Venkatesh K Bhovi, Karunsagar KM, Melinmath Sulochana P. Exploring the phytochemical composition and Ethnomedicinal attributes of *Aerva Lanata*: A comprehensive study. *Int Res J Plant Sci.* 2024;15(1):01. DOI: 10.14303/irjps.2024.01
211. Yuldashev AA. A phytochemical study of woolly Erva grass growing in Uzbekistan. *Pharmaceutical science and practice: Problems, achievements, F 24 prospects for development: Materials of the conference with international participation, Kharkiv, March 24–25, 2016; Kh.: Nfau.* 2016. – P. 144–5. Russian
212. Arthi I, Ravichandiran V, Sampath Kumar KP, Subburaju T. Antiurolithiatic effect of *Aerva lanata* LINN extract on

- ethylene glycol induced urinary calculi model in rats. *Int J Pharm Sci Rev Res.* 2012;17(2):46–50.
213. Dinnimath BM, Jalalpure SS, Patil UK. Antiuro lithiatic activity of natural constituents isolated from *Aerva lanata*. *J Ayurveda Integr Med.* 2017;8(4):226–32. DOI: 10.1016/j.jaim.2016.11.006
 214. Mandal B, Madan S, Ahmad S, Sharma AK, Ansari MHR. Antiuro lithiatic efficacy of a phenolic rich ethyl acetate fraction of the aerial parts of *Aerva lanata* (Linn) Juss. ex Schult. in ethylene glycol induced urolithic rats. *J Pharm Pharmacol.* 2021;73(4):560–72. DOI: 10.1093/jpp/rgaa071
 215. Sarma SK, Kumar AA, Vishnuvardhan S, Yamini C, Santhalahari C, Lahari C, Ejitha, M. Antiuro lithiatic activity on *Aerva Lanata*. *Journal of Advanced Zoology.* 2024;45(3):48–57.
 216. Sharma A, Swarnkar K Singhal V, Singhal Monit, Sharma A. A study on preliminary phytochemical and diuretic activity of flowers of *Aerva lanata*. *Int J Pharmacol Bio Sci.* 2011;5(1):47–51.
 217. Yushkov VV, Yushkova TA, Kulakov AV, Scherbinina JG. Pharmacological properties of phytomedicine of a horse-radish ordinary. *Journal of Ural Medical Academic Science.* 2008;(1(19)):12–5. EDN: SBNMKF
 218. Sundar NS, Dhasarathan P, Narayanan KR, Thenmozhi M. Screening of antidiuretic activity *Aerva lanata* extracts against furosemide exposed rodent models. *New Visions in Biological Science.* 2022;8:160–4. DOI: 10.9734/bpi/nvbs/v8/1697A
 219. Beg MA, Ragib A. Phytochemical screening and antimicrobial activity of *Aerva lanata* (Gorakh ganja). *Journal of Phytochemistry and Ayurvedic Heights.* 2023;8:65–71. DOI: 10.51129/ujpah-2022-34-1(8)
 220. Al-Ansari M, Al-Humaid LA, Vijayaraghavan P, Ravindran B, Chang SW, Agastian P, Rathi MA, Balamuralikrishnan B. Identification of phytochemical components from *Aerva lanata* (Linn.) medicinal plants and its in-vitro inhibitory activity against drug resistant microbial pathogens and antioxidant properties. *Saudi J Biol Sci.* 2019;26(6):1129–33. DOI: 10.1016/j.sjbs.2019.02.010
 221. Tokhsirova ZM, Popov IV, Popova OI. The study of phenolic compounds the leaves and shoots of rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.), introduced in botanical garden of pyatigorsk medical-pharmaceutical institute. *Chemistry of plant raw material.* 2018;(3):199–207. DOI: 10.14258/jcprm.2018033733 EDN: YABUXZ
 222. Nikitina AS, Feskov SA, Garsia ER, Shamilov AA, Nikitina NV. The study of phenolic compounds of the leaves of rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.) from the collection of Nikitsky botanical garden. *Plant Biology and Horticulture: theory, innovation.* 2018;146:201–4. DOI: 10.25684/NBG.scbook.146.2018.32 EDN: XRCBNZ
 223. Velamuri R, Sharma Y, Fagan J, Schaefer J. Application of UHPLC-ESI-QTOF-MS in phytochemical profiling of sage (*Salvia officinalis*) and rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis*). *Planta Medica International Open.* 2020;7(04):133-44. DOI: 10.1055/a-1272-2903
 224. Aamer HA, Al-Askar AA, Gaber MA, El-Tanbouly R, Abdelkhalek A, Behiry S, Elsharkawy MM, Kowalczewski PL, El-Messeiry S. Extraction, phytochemical characterization, and antifungal activity of *Salvia rosmarinus* extract. *Open Chemistry.* 2023;21(1):20230124. DOI: 10.1515/chem-2023-0124
 225. Stekolnikova YuS. The experience of growing subtropical plants of the *Lamiaceae* family in the Krasnodar Territory. Development, research and marketing of new pharmaceutical products: Collection of scientific papers, Pyatigorsk, March 18–19, 2022; Volume 77; Pyatigorsk: OOO “Advertising and Information Agency on KMV”; 2022. P. 74–5. EDN: YOGUAG. Russian
 226. Ermachenkov RE, Markov AL, Agaev MM, Aliev AM, Povydysh MN, Terninko II. Study of seasonal variations in the component composition of essential oil of rosemary of Dagestan origin. *Drug development & registration.* 2025;14(3):124–36. DOI: 10.33380/2305-2066-2025-14-3-2122 EDN: AGMWUF
 227. Tawfeeq AA, Mahdi MF, Abaas IS, Alwan AH. Phytochemical and antibacterial studies of leaves of *Rosmarinus officinalis* cultivated in Karbala, Iraq. *Al Mustansiriyah Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences.* 2017;17(2):86–94. DOI: 10.32947/ajps.v17i2.48
 228. Belopukhov SL, Khlypenko LA, Shevchuk OM, Feskov SA, Dmitriev LB, Dmitrieva VL. Accumulation dynamics and component composition of the essential oil of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. growing on the Crimea Southern Coast. *Izvestiya of Timiryazev Agricultural Academy.* 2017;(6):129–40. DOI: 10.26897/0021-342X-2017-6-129-140 EDN: YOKBOF
 229. Saleh A, Al Kamaly O, Alanazi AS, Noman O. Phytochemical analysis and antimicrobial activity of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. Growing in Saudi Arabia. *Experimental and Computational Approaches. Processes.* 2022;10(11):2422. DOI: 10.3390/pr10112422
 230. Hendel N, Sarri D, Sarri M, Napoli E, Palumbo Piccionello A, Ruberto G. Phytochemical Analysis and Antioxidant and Antifungal Activities of Powders, Methanol Extracts, and Essential Oils from *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. and *Thymus ciliatus* Desf. Benth. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2024;25(14):7989. DOI: 10.3390/ijms25147989
 231. Sinha M, Kumari D, Mishra U, Fatima B, Singh A. Phytochemical screening and antimicrobial study of *Rosmarinus officinalis*. *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry.* 2025;14(1):144–51. DOI: 10.22271/phyto.2025.v14.i1b.15232
 232. Husein N, Laban NA, Owais DT. Exploring the antimicrobial potential of *Rosmarinus officinalis* against urinary tract infection isolates in Amman, Jordan. *Iran J Microbiol.* 2025;17(3):460–469. DOI: 10.18502/ijm.v17i3.18829
 233. Sahu S, Sharma A. Evaluation of effect of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. on ethyleneglycol induced kidney stone in rats. *Journal of Drug Delivery and Therapeutics.* 2023;13(11):81–90. DOI: 10.22270/jddt.v13i11.6288
 234. Martínez MSM, Paz Naranjo JDL, Corral Salvadó A, Martínez Ruiz C. Actividad diurética y antipirética de un extracto fluido de *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. en ratas. *Revista Cubana de plantas medicinales.* 2004;9(1).
 235. Saker H, Boussekine S, Gasmi S, Benkhedir A, Benali Y, Bensouici C. Protective effect of *Rosmarinus officinalis* extract on the nephrotoxicity caused by nickel chloride in wistar rats. *Journal of Microbiology, Biotechnology and Food Sciences.* 2023;12(6):e9764. DOI: 10.55251/jmbfs.9764
 236. Şengül E, Çelebi F, Gelen V, Çınar A. The effects of *Rosmarinus officinalis* (Rosemary) aqueous extract on smooth muscle contractions in isolated rat urinary

- bladder. Atatürk Üniversitesi Veteriner Bilimleri Dergisi. 2017;17(2):130–6. DOI:10.17094/ataunivbd.347962
237. Borges RS, Ortiz BLS, Pereira ACM, Keita H, Carvalho JCT. *Rosmarinus officinalis* essential oil: A review of its phytochemistry, anti-inflammatory activity, and mechanisms of action involved. Journal of ethnopharmacology. 2019;229:29–45. DOI: 10.1016/j.jep.2018.09.038
 238. Safonova NV, Trofimova EO. Overview of the Russian Market of Herbal Products. Remedium. 2021;(3):11–22. DOI: 10.21518/1561-5936-2021-3-11-22 EDN: SIKUYI
 239. Popov AI, Popova TA. Monotherapy of chronic lower urinary tract infection in postmenopausal women with Kanefron H as an alternative to antibacterial therapy. Medical news.2017;(5):8–9. Russian
 240. Olennikov DN. Coumarins of lovage roots (*Levisticum officinale* Koch): LC-MS profile, quantification, and stability during postharvest storage. Metabolites. 2023;13(1):3. DOI: 10.3390/metabo13010003
 241. Esfahani HM, Farimani MM, Ebrahimi SN, Jung, JH, Aliahmadi A, Abbas-Mohammadi M, Miran M. Antibacterial components of *Levisticum officinale* Koch against multidrug-resistant *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. Pharmaceutical Sciences. 2020;26(4):441–7. DOI:10.34172/PS.2020.38
 242. Ovchinnikova SYa, Gubanova LB, Orlovskaya TV. Quantitative determination coumarin in rhizomes and roots of lovage drug. Modern problems of science and education. 2014;(1):359. EDN: SBKXMP
 243. Kubasova E, Korelskaya G, Sukhanov A, Krylov I, Kubasov R. Detection and quantitative determination of coumarins in the plant raw materials of the medicinal plant growing in arkhangel'sk oblast. International Research Journal. 2021;(10-1(112)):145–8. DOI: 10.23670/IRJ.2021.112.10.024 EDN: BSTHKM
 244. Raal A, Arak E, Orav A, Kailas T, Müürisepp M. Composition of the essential oil of *Levisticum officinale* WDJ. Koch from some European countries. Journal of Essential Oil Research. 2008;20(4):318–22. DOI: 10.1080/10412905.2008.9700022
 245. Ciocarlan A, Dragalin I, Aricu A, Lupaşcu L, Ciocarlan N, Popescu V. Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of the *Levisticum officinale* WDJ Koch essential oil. Chemistry Journal of Moldova. 2018;13(2):63–8. DOI: 10.19261/cjm.2018.514
 246. Miran M, Monsef Esfahani H, Moridi Farimani M, Ahmadi AA, Ebrahimi SN. Essential oil composition and antibacterial activity of *Levisticum officinale* Koch at different developmental stages. Journal of Essential Oil Bearing Plants. 2018;21(4):1051–5. DOI: 10.1080/0972060X.2018.1507759
 247. Gijbels MJ, Scheffer JJ, Baerheim Svendsen A. Phthalides in the essential oil from roots of *Levisticum officinale*. Planta Med. 1982;44(4):207–11. DOI: 10.1055/s-2007-971448
 248. Miran M, Monsef Esfahani H, Jung JH, Aliahmadi A, Skropeta D, Abbas-Mohammadi M, Nejad Ebrahimi S, Moridi Farimani M. Characterization and Antibacterial Activity of Phthalides from the Roots of the Medicinal Herb *Levisticum officinale* W.D.J. Koch. Iran J Pharm Res. 2020;19(2):182–6. DOI: 10.22037/ijpr.2020.112583.13839
 249. Średnicka-Tober D, Hallmann E, Kopczyńska K, Góralska-Walczak R, Barański M, Grycz A, Seidler-Łożykowska K, Rembiałkowska E, Kazmierczak R. Profile of Selected Secondary Metabolites and Antioxidant Activity of Valerian and Lovage Grown in Organic and Low-Input Conventional System. Metabolites. 2022;12(9):835. DOI: 10.3390/metabo12090835
 250. Ovchinnikova SYa, Orlovskaya TV. Quantitative determination of the amount of phenolic compounds in rhizomes and roots of lovage officinalis. International Journal of Applied and Fundamental Research. 2014;(5-1):148–9. EDN: SBZPCN
 251. Sahlabgi A, Lupuliasa D, Stoicescu I, Vlaia LL, Licu M, Popescu A, Scafa-Udrişte A, Ene R, Hîncu L, Lupu CE, Mititelu M. Determination of the phytochemical profile and antioxidant activity of some alcoholic extracts of *Levisticum officinale* with pharmaceutical and cosmetic applications. Separations. 2025;12(4):79. DOI: 10.3390/separations12040079
 252. Ovchinnikova SYa, Orlovskaya TV, Oganova MA. Study of the diuretic activity of the extract of rhizomes and roots of lovage officinalis. Scientific bulletin of Belgorod State University. Series: Medicine. Pharmacy. 2012;(10(129)):158–9. EDN: RBWMEN. Russian
 253. Ovchinnikova SYa, Orlovskaya TV. Study of antispasmodic activity of extract of rhizomes and roots of lovage officinalis. Scientific bulletin of Belgorod State University. Series: Medicine. Pharmacy. 2012;(4-1(123)):275–7. EDN: QJHDSL. Russian
 254. Neymark AI, Razdorskaya MV, Neymark BA. Complex treatment of chronic cystitis in women. Urologiia. 2016;(4):24–8. EDN: XBKEVZ
 255. Likhonov A, Oliynyk M, Pashkevych N, Churilov A, Kozyr M. The Role of Flavonoids in Invasion Strategy of *Solidago canadensis* L. Plants (Basel). 2021;10(8):1748. DOI: 10.3390/plants10081748
 256. Kelly AM, Oliveira TBD, Valverde SS. Determination of the metabolic profile of *Solidago canadensis* using UFLC-PDA-ESI-TOF. Rodriguésia. 2020;71:e01062019. DOI: 10.1590/2175-7860202071046
 257. Luzhanin VG, Whaley AK, Ponkratova AO, Grishukova EA, Suloev IS, Smirnov SN, Serebryakov EB. Isolation of Individual Compounds from the Terrestrial Parts of *Ononis Arvensis* L. and *Solidago Canadensis* L. Drug development & registration. 2021;10(1):83–9. DOI: 10.33380/2305-2066-2021-10-1-83-89. EDN: TJXAIE
 258. Suleymanova F, Nesterova O, Matyushin A. HPLC quantification of hydroxy-cinnamic and organic acids of Canadian goldenrod (*Solidago canadensis* L.). Pharmacog Journal Organic Acids. 2019;11(2):400–4. DOI: 10.5530/pj.2019.11.62
 259. El-Sherei M, Khaleel A, Motaal AA, Abd-Elbaki P. Effect of seasonal variation on the composition of the essential oil of *Solidago canadensis* cultivated in Egypt. Journal of Essential Oil Bearing Plants. 2014;17(5):891–8. DOI: 10.1080/0972060X.2014.901612
 260. Elshafie HS, Gruľová D, Baranová B, Caputo L, De Martino L, Sedlák V, Camele I, De Feo V. Antimicrobial Activity and Chemical Composition of Essential Oil Extracted from *Solidago canadensis* L. Growing Wild in Slovakia. Molecules. 2019;24(7):1206. DOI: 10.3390/molecules24071206
 261. Marinas IC, Oprea E, Buleandra M, Bleotu C, Badea IA, Anastasiu P, Lazar V, Gardus ID, Chifiriuc MC. Chemical,

- antimicrobial, antioxidant and anti-proliferative features of the essential oil extracted from the invasive plant *Solidago Canadensis* L. *Revista De Chimie*. 2020;71(7):255–64. DOI: 10.37358/RC.20.7.8243
262. Abdel Baki PM, El-Sherei MM, Khaleel AE, Abdel Motaal AA, Ibrahim Abdallah HM. Aquaretic Activity of *Solidago canadensis* L. Cultivated in Egypt and Determination of the Most Bioactive Fraction. *Iran J Pharm Res*. 2019;18(2):922–37. DOI: 10.22037/ijpr.2019.2390
263. Suleymanova FS, Nesterova OV, Matyushin AA. The historical background and prospects of canadian goldenrod (*Solidago canadensis* L.) Herb medicinal use. *The Journal of scientific articles "Health and Education Millennium"*. 2017;19(4):142–9. EDN: XUVKKZ
264. Fejér J, Grulová, D, Eliašová A, Kron I, De Feo V. Influence of environmental factors on content and composition of essential oil from common juniper ripe berry cones (*Juniperus communis* L.). *Plant Biosystems - An International Journal Dealing with All Aspects of Plant Biology*. 2018;152(1):1–9. DOI: 10.1080/11263504.2018.1435577
265. Chatzopoulou PS, Katsiotis ST. Headspace analysis of the volatile constituents from *Juniperus communis* L. berries (cones) grown wild in Greece. *Flavour and fragrance journal*. 2006;21(3):492–6. DOI: 10.1002/ffj.1615
266. Gupta A, Wairokpam B, Dwivedy AK, Rana TS, Meena B. Phytochemical variability in essential oils of *Juniperus communis* var. *saxatilis* populations grow wild in western Himalaya, India. *Journal of Essential Oil Bearing Plants*. 2024;27(3):1–19. DOI: 10.1080/0972060X.2024.2423773
267. Falcao S, Bacem I, Igrejas G, Rodrigues PJ, Vilas-Boas M, Amaral JS. Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of hydrodistilled oil from juniper berries. *Industrial Crops and Products*. 2018;124):878–84. DOI: 10.1016/j.indcrop.2018.08.069
268. Shahmir F, Ahmadi L, Mirza M, Korori SAA. Secretory elements of needles and berries of *Juniperus communis* L. ssp. *communis* and its volatile constituents. *Flavour and Fragrance Journal*. 2003;18(5):425–8. DOI: doi.org/10.1002/ffj.1243
269. Kornienko IV, Novikov OO, Pisarev DI, Malyutina AYU. Comparative analysis of the essential oil chemical composition of *Juniperus communis* L. cone from different regions of the Russian federation. *Research Result. Medicine and Pharmacy Series*. 2015;1(3):80–8. DOI: 10.18413/2313-8955-2015-1-3-80-88 EDN: VHYXEF
270. Oleinikova TA, Stepanova EF, Novikov OO, Kornienko IV. Investigation of the effectiveness of terpenoid extraction in the complex processing of juniper fruits (*Juniperus communis* L.). *Scientific Bulletin of Belgorod State University. Series: Medicine. Pharmacy*. 2015;(22(219)):154–7. EDN: VJGCQF. Russian
271. da Cruz PDSC, de Oliveira Filho AA, de Mendonça Soares A, de Oliveira SB, Araújo JBB. Avaliação do efeito antibacteriano do óleo essencial de *Juniperus communis* associado à cefalotina e à ampicilina contra cepas de *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Revista Multidisciplinar do Nordeste Mineiro*. 2024;4(1):1–16.
272. Gonçalves AC, Flores-Félix JD, Coutinho P, Alves G, Silva LR. Zimbro (*Juniperus communis* L.) as a Promising Source of Bioactive Compounds and Biomedical Activities: A Review on Recent Trends. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2022;23(6):3197. DOI: 10.3390/ijms23063197
273. Barzegarnejad A, Azadbakht M, Emadian O, Ahmadi M. Effect of some fractions of the extract of *Juniperus communis* fruit on solving kidney stones in vitro. *Journal of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences Sci*. 2014;23(110):146–52.
274. Fernandez Canizalez A, Cock I. The therapeutic properties of *Juniperus communis* L.: antioxidant capacity, bacterial growth inhibition, anticancer activity and toxicity. *Pharmacognosy Journal*. 2016;8(3):273–80. DOI: 10.5530/pj.2016.3.17
275. Dadgostar P. Antimicrobial Resistance: Implications and Costs. *Infect Drug Resist*. 2019;12:3903–10. DOI: 10.2147/IDR.S234610
276. Bader MS, Loeb M, Leto D, Brooks AA. Treatment of urinary tract infections in the era of antimicrobial resistance and new antimicrobial agents. *Postgrad Med*. 2020;132(3):234–50. DOI: 10.1080/00325481.2019.1680052
277. Glybochko PV, Grigoryan VA, Rudenko VI, Demidko YuL, Demidko LS. Features of treatment of recurrence of urate nephrolithiasis. *Therapy*. 2017;(4(14)):93–101. EDN: ZBMMDV
278. Sysina LYU, Goryainova SYU, Kurdyukova EA, Trapeznikova AS. Analysis of the assortment and demand for herbal diuretics in pharmacy organizations in Kursk. *Pharmacology of different countries: A collection of scientific papers based on the materials of the VI International Scientific and Practical Conference dedicated to the 89th anniversary of Kursk State Medical University and the Year of the Teacher and Mentor, Kursk, October 25-26, 2023; Kursk: Kursk State Medical University; 2023. P. 301–3. EDN: LCJFOA. Russian*
279. Safonova NV, Trofimova EO. Analysis of the market of products based on plant-based raw materials used in urology. *Remedium*. 2020;(7–8):34–41. DOI: 10.21518/1561-5936-2020-7-8-34-41 EDN: UYKSF
280. Saenko VS, Pesegov SV, Vovdenko SV. A modern view of the mechanisms of urinary stone formation and the principles of general metaphylaxis of urolithiasis. *Polyclinic Doctor's Handbook*. 2018;(1):33–8. EDN: TSVDVO
281. Zakharova IN, Kasjanova AN. Possibilities of modern medicinal herbal remedies in the treatment of diseases of the urinary system in children (literature review). *Pediatrics. Consilium Medicum*. 2019;(2):73–8. DOI: 10.26442/26586630.2019.2.190448 EDN: FBSSMB
282. Nausch B, Pace S, Pein H, Koeberl A, Rossi A, Küstle G, Werz O. The standardized herbal combination BNO 2103 contained in Canephron® N alleviates inflammatory pain in experimental cystitis and prostatitis. *Phytomedicine*. 2019;60):152987. DOI: 10.1016/j.phymed.2019.152987
283. Milosevic M, Magnutzki A, Braun T, Hussain S, Jakschitz T, Kragl M, Valovka T. Anti-inflammatory and cytoprotective polypharmacology of Canephron N reveals targeting of the IKK-NF-κB and p38-MK2-RIPK1 axes. *Biomed Pharmacother*. 2025;182:117747. DOI: 10.1016/j.biopha.2024.117747
284. Dudar IA, Shulyak AV, Loboda EN. The possibilities of phytotherapy in the treatment of urinary tract pathology at the primary stage of medical care. *Family medicine*. 2016;(3):42–6. Russian
285. Nejmark AI, Sul'dina AP, Batanina IA. Use of phytotherapy in combination treatment of chronic pyelonephritis. *Urologiya*. 2015;(1):14–8. EDN: TWQFMZ

286. Wawrysiuk S, Rechberger T, Kubik-Komar A, Kolodynska A, Naber K, Miotla P. Postoperative prevention of urinary tract infections in patients after urogynecological surgeries—nonantibiotic herbal (Canephron) versus antibiotic prophylaxis (Fosfomycin Trometamol): A parallel-group, randomized, noninferiority experimental trial. *Pathogens*. 2023;12(1):27. DOI: 10.3390/pathogens12010027
287. Popov AI, Popova TA. The role of Kanefron N in potentiating the antimicrobial properties of nitrofurans in the treatment of chronic recurrent cystitis in postmenopausal women. *International Reviews: Clinical Picture and Health*. 2015;(6):88–92. Russian
288. Kulchavenya EV, Neymark AI, Borisenko DV, Kapsargin FP. Acute uncomplicated cystitis: do we follow the guidelines? *Urologia*. 2018;(6):66–69. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2018.6.66-69 EDN: PNZTWF
289. Kulchavenya EV, Breusov AA, Brizhatyuk EV, Shevchenko SYu. Acute cystitis – do we always need antibiotics? *Urologia*. 2016;(1):25–8. EDN: VTRFEN
290. Medved VI. Safety of using Kanefron® It is used in the treatment of urinary tract infections during the first trimester of pregnancy. *Women's health*. 2016;(1(107)):81–5. EDN: WLUTHZ. Russian
291. Sabadash MYe, Shulyak OV. Canephron® N in the treatment of recurrent cystitis in women of childbearing age: a randomized controlled trial. *Family medicine*. 2020;(3(89)):24–8. DOI: 10.30841/2307-5112.3.2020.211389 EDN: GFGGUU
292. Lokshin KL. Comparative effectiveness of standard antibiotic therapy and Canephron N asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnant women. *Urologia*. 2018;(3):54–7. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2018.3.54-57 EDN: XUKNFR
293. Ivanova VV. The role of Kanefron in the treatment of patients with chronic pyelonephritis. *Generation of the Future: the view of young scientists – 2021: Collection of scientific articles of the 10th International Youth Scientific Conference, Kursk, November 11–12, 2021; Volume 2; Kursk: Southwest State University; 2021. P. 330–1. EDN: JBPQLQ. Russian*
294. Davidov MI, Bunova NYe. Comparative assessment of Canephron® n and ciprofloxacin as monotherapy of acute uncomplicated cystitis in women. *Mens Health*. 2019;(2(69)):79–85. DOI: 10.30841/2307-5090.2.2019.179984 EDN: QHQDHF
295. Wagenlehner FM, Abramov-Sommariva D, Höller M, Steindl H, Naber KG. Non-Antibiotic Herbal Therapy (BNO 1045) versus Antibiotic Therapy (Fosfomycin Trometamol) for the Treatment of Acute Lower Uncomplicated Urinary Tract Infections in Women: A Double-Blind, Parallel-Group, Randomized, Multicentre, Non-Inferiority Phase III Trial. *Urol Int*. 2018;101(3):327–36. DOI: 10.1159/000493368
296. Butler DSC, Wagenlehner F, Höller M, Abramov-Sommariva D, Steindl H, Naber KG. Phytotherapy (BNO 1045) of Acute Lower Uncomplicated Urinary Tract Infection in Women Normalizes Local Host Responses. *Urol Int*. 2023;107(8):778–84. DOI: 10.1159/000531206
297. Davidov MI, Voitko DA, Bunova NE. Treatment of acute uncomplicated cystitis in women with antibiotic allergy or intolerance. *Urologia*. 2019;(5):64–71. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2019.5.64-71 EDN: YFXMTZ
298. Saenko VS, Kapsargin FP, Pesegov SV, Troyakov VM. Experience in using Phytolysin in the integrated management of urinary tract infections and methapylactics of nephrolithiasis. *Urologia*. 2017;(3):16–21. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2017.3.16-21 EDN: ZAGTSV
299. Konstantinova OV, Yanenko EK, Prosyannikov MY, Katibov MI. Experience in using phytotherapy for the treatment of infection-induced urinary stones. *Medical Council*. 2018;(13):170–3. DOI: 10.21518/2079-701X-2018-13-170-173 EDN: XZOWSD
300. Alexandrov IV, Terentyev AV, Klymovich OA. Combined therapy of acute and recurrent cystitis in women. *Urologia*. 2022;(4):68–70. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2022.4.68-70 EDN: SXSXTH
301. MN Slesarevskaya, IV Kuz'min, SKh Al'-Shukri. NefroCAPS phytolysin in complex management of women with chronic recurrent cystitis. *Urologia*. 2018;(1):30–34. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2018.1.30-34 EDN: YRSGQH
302. Kamalov AA, Khodyreva LA, Dudareva AA. A Combination Therapy of Acute Uncomplicated Lower Urinary Tract Infections. *Effective Pharmacotherapy*. 2015;(18):32–6. EDN: UAYGLX
303. Ivanova VV. Clinical efficacy of Urolesan as a preoperative preparation for remote lithotripsy in patients with urolithiasis. *Youth and knowledge — a guarantee of success – 2021: Proceedings of the 8th International Youth Scientific Conference. In 3 volumes, Kursk, September 16–17, 2021; Volume 2; Kursk: Southwest State University; 2021. P. 207–08. EDN: RRQTVZ. Russian*
304. Kushnirenko SV, Mordovets EM, Tikhonenko NA, Markotenko OO, Gorokhovskaya TA, Vinogradova TN. Experience of the use of Urolesan® preparation in children with chronic complicated pyelonephritis and secondary hyperoxaluria. *Modern Pharmacotherapy*. 2016;(5(77)):102–6. EDN: UPHBDW
305. Shevchuk O, Kushnirenko S, Vozianov O, Kushnirenko O. Influence of phytotherapy on metabolic status and urine microbiota in patients with urolithiasis — calcium oxalate nephrolithiasis after shock wave lithotripsy. *Kidneys*. 2019;8(3):146–51. DOI: 10.22141/2307-1257.8.3.2019.176452 EDN: SGZGCD
306. Shaderkina VA, Shaderkin IA. Terpenes and their application in clinical practice. *Experimental and Clinical Urology*. 2019;(1):77–81. DOI: 10.29188/2222-8543-2019-11-1-77-80 EDN: AFNNJS
307. Kotov S, Nemenov AA, Boeva ID. Results of the application of the herbal complex Renotinx® in patients with urolithiasis in the early postoperative period. *Experimental and Clinical Urology*. 2020;13(4):35–41. DOI: 10.29188/2222-8543-2020-13-4-35-40
308. Yarovoy SK. Usage of vegetative terpenes in stone disease complex therapy and metaphylaxis. *Urology Reports*. 2013;3(3):22–7. EDN: RVTEBH
309. Rudenko VI, Perekalina AN, Kraev IG, Inoyatov JS. Rovatinex in the complex treatment of patients after remote lithotripsy. *Topical issues of urology: collection of scientific papers of the V Congress of Siberian Urologists with international participation, Krasnoyarsk, May 13–14, 2016; Krasnoyarsk: KASS Register; 2016. P. 209–11. EDN: WLTJHL. Russian*
310. Rudenko VI, Demidko YuL. The effectiveness of lithokinetic therapy using plant terpenes. *Pharmacology & Pharmacotherapy*. 2021;(2):54–9. DOI: 10.46393/2713-2129-2021-2-54-58 EDN: BTRXQI

311. Rudenko VI, Rapoport LM, Demidko YuL, Demidko LS, Inoyatov GS, Allenov SN. Clinical value of herbal terpenes after extracorporeal shock-wave therapy. *Urologiia*. 2019;(3):43–9. DOI: 10.18565/urology.2019.3.43-49 EDN: WHCNKB
312. Demidko YuL, Rudenko VI, Allenov SN, Inoyatov ZhSh, Uzhegov TA. Clinical Effectiveness of Rovatinex in the Complex Treatment of Calculous Pyelonephritis in the Postoperative Period. *Pharmacology & Pharmacotherapy*. 2022;(1):38–40. DOI: 10.46393/27132129_2022_1_38 EDN: AUARUV
313. Romics I, Siller G, Kohnen R, Mavrogenis S, Varga J, Holman E. A special terpene combination (Rowatinex®) improves stone clearance after extracorporeal shockwave lithotripsy in urolithiasis patients: results of a placebo-controlled randomised controlled trial. *Urol Int*. 2011;86(1):102–9. DOI: 10.1159/000320999
314. Jaffal WN. The effect of tamsulosin and combination of terpenes (Rowatinex) on the clearance of renal stone gravels after single session of extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy (ESWL). *Al-Anbar Medical Journal*. 2012;10(2):26–33. DOI: 10.33091/AMJ.0401022012
315. Mohammed HR, Arif IS, Najim HD, Abdulridha MK. Role of rowatinex in the treatment of renal stone after extracorporeal shock wave lithotripsy. *World Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*. 2015;4(11):1981–7.
316. Azarfar A, Rafiee Z, Ravanshad Y, Saber Moghadam N, Bakhtiari E. Effect of herbal formulation Cystone® on urolithiasis. *Jundishapur J Nat Pharm Prod*. 2020;15(3):e69246. DOI: 10.5812/jjnpp.69246
317. Khalid N, Sohail M, Malik MB, Noor H, Saifullah M, Akram M. Efficacy of Herbal Preparation (Cystone) in Management of Urinary Stone Disease. *Journal of Aziz Fatimah Medical & Dental College*. 2021;2(2):58–61. DOI: 10.55279/jafmdc.v2i2.103
318. Singh OI, Devi AB. Comparison of antiurolithiatic property of *Orthosiphon spiralis*, *Hedychium marginatum*, *Thunbergia alata* and Cystone: A herbal drug. *Int J Health Sci Res*. 2020;10(1):82–87.
319. Mehrabi S, Behnam P, Manzouri L, Mehrabi A. Comparison efficacy and side effects of combined cystone and hydrochlorothiazide with cystone monotherapy in treatment and passage of upper urinary stones; a randomized clinical trial. *J Renal Inj Prev*. 2019;8(3):211–5. DOI: 10.15171/jrip.2019.39
320. Rybalko MV, Kurkin VA, Shmygareva AA, Sankov AN. Determination of the totalanthracenederivatives in the preparation “*Rubiae tinctorii* extract” tablets. *Bulletin of Voronezh State University. Series: Chemistry. Biology. Pharmacy*. 2019;(3):81–6. EDN: KGCAAZ
321. Ivanova VV. The role of the drug Marelin in the treatment of urolithiasis. *Science of the young – the future of Russia: collection of scientific articles of the 6th International Scientific Conference of Promising developments of Young Scientists, Kursk, December 09–10, 2021; Volume 3; Kursk: Southwest State University; 2021. P. 279–80. EDN: CCSNWK. Russian*
322. Privalova EG. Herbal preparations for the treatment of diseases of the genitourinary system in the assortment of pharmacies in the Irkutsk region. *Innovative technologies in pharmacy: Collection of scientific papers, Irkutsk, June 14–15, 2019; Privalova EG, editor; Volume 6; Irkutsk: Irkutsk State Medical University; 2019. P. 285–92. EDN: ZVQCEX. Russian*
323. Safonova NV, Trofimova EO. Overview of the russian market of herbal products. *Remedium*. 2021;(3):11–22. DOI: 10.21518/1561-5936-2021-3-11-22 EDN: SIKUYI
324. Dul VN, Dargaeva TD, Pervova LI. A study on the selection of conditions for the analysis of the amount of flavonoids in the grass of the bedstraw (*Galium verum* L.). *Young scientists and pharmacy of the XXI century: proceedings of the third scientific and practical conference with international participation, Moscow, December 15, 2015; Moscow: All-Russian Scientific Research Institute of Medicinal and Aromatic Plants; 2015. P. 434–8. EDN: WDDFRT. Russian*
325. Marković MS, Pljevljakušić DS, Pančić AS, Rakonjac LB, Nikolić BM, Stankov JVP. Ethnobotanical use of plants from the genus *Galium* in the Pirot District. *Pirotski zbornik*. 2023;48:191–202. DOI: 10.5937/pirotzbor2348191M
326. Shynkovenko IL, Ilyina TV, Kovalyova AM, Goryacha OV, Golembiovskaya OI, Koshovyi OM. Saponins of the extracts of *Galium aparine* and *Galium verum*. *News of Pharmacy*. 2018;4(96):16–23. DOI: 10.24959/nphj.18.2225
327. Mitova MI, Anchev ME, Handjieva NV, Popov SS. Iridoid patterns in *Galium* L. and some phylogenetic considerations. *Z Naturforsch C J Biosci*. 2002;57(3-4):226–34. DOI: 10.1515/znc-2002-3-405
328. Kalso MA, Hijazi MA, El-Lakany A, Aboul-Ela M. Review on phytochemical constituents and pharmacological activities of genus *Galium*. *Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science*. 2024;14:046–056. DOI: 10.7324/JAPS.2024.195572
329. Bradic J, Petkovic A, Tomovic M. Phytochemical and pharmacological properties of some species of the Genus *Galium* L. *Galium verum* and *mollugo*. *Serbian Journal Clinical Research*. 2017;22(3):187–93. DOI: 10.1515/sjecr-2017-0057
330. Laanet PR, Saar-Reismaa P, Jõul P, Bragina O, Vaher M. Phytochemical screening and antioxidant activity of selected Estonian *Galium* species. *Molecules*. 2023;28(6):2867. DOI: 10.3390/molecules28062867
331. Demirezer LÖ, Gürbüz F, Güvenalp Z, Ströck K, Zeeck A. Iridoids, Flavonoids and monoterpene glycosides from *Galium verum* subsp. *Verum*. *Turkish Journal of Chemistry*. 2006;30(4):525–34.
332. Ciotlaus I, Fenesan M, Balea A. Analysis of volatile organic compounds from the Aerial parts of medicinal plant, *Galium verum*. *Rev Chim*. 2020;71(4):136–44. DOI: 10.37358/RC.20.4.8052
333. Antoniuk K, Szymański M, Dudek-Makuc M, Bylka W. Analiza olejku eterycznego z *Galium verum*. *Farm Pol*. 2021;77:608–14.
334. Orynbasarova KK, Daulbaeva AN, Abilova AA, Asan BM. Studying the biologically active substances of herbs of the *Galium verum*. *Bulletin of the Bashkir State Medical University*. 2019;(4):257–60. EDN: ISWCMB
335. Umarova GN, Lepekina IE. Qualitative characteristics of the chemical composition of the raw material of the bedstraw present. *Nauchnie Izvestiya*. 2022;(28):275–8. EDN: MYUQAE
336. Shinkovenko IL, Ilyina TV, Goryacha OV, Golembiovskaya OI, Komissarenko AM, Kovalyova AM. Phenolic compounds of the liquid extract of Lady's bedstraw herb (*Galium verum* L.). *Sciences and Pharmacy Practice 2018: book of abstracts 9th International Conference dedicated to the*

- 100-th anniversary of independent Lithuania's pharmacy; 2018. P. 22. Russian
337. Badea GE, Stănăşel OD, Bassyouni M, Toderas M, Petrehele AIG, Ionaş CD. An investigation of chemical analysis and green applications of extracts from the yellow bedstraw (*Galium verum*) aerial part. Results in Chemistry. 2025;16:102378. DOI: 10.1016/j.rechem.2025.102378
 338. Shinkovenko IL, Ilyina TV, Goryacha OV, Kovalyova AM. The phytochemical profile and antibacterial activity of fluid extracts of *Galium verum* L. herb. News of Pharmacy. 2017;(4(92)):25–28. DOI: 10.24959/nphj.17.2189
 339. Shinkovenko IL, Kashpur NV, Ilyina TV, Kovalyova AM, Goryacha OV, Koshovyi OM, Kryvoruchko OV, Komissarenko AM. The immunomodulatory activity of ethanolic extracts from *Galium verum* L. herb. Ceska Slov Farm. 2018;67(3):101–6.
 340. Bradic J, Petrovic A, Kocovic A, Mitrovic S, Jakovljevic V, Lazarevic N, Bolevich S, Simanic I. Hypotensive and Cardioprotective Potential of Yellow Bedstraw Extract-Based Oral Liquid in Spontaneously Hypertensive Rats. Int J Mol Sci. 2024;25(15):8346. DOI: 10.3390/ijms25158346
 341. Gorbatshevich GI, Shadyro OI. Antioxidant activity of dry extracts of plants of the genus *Galium*. Modern achievements of chemical and biological sciences in preventive and clinical medicine: Proceedings of the All-Russian Scientific and Practical Conference with International Participation, St. Petersburg, December 03, 2020; Silin AV, Gaikova LB, editors; Volume Part 1; St. Petersburg: I.I. Mechnikov Northwestern State Medical University; 2020. P. 51–7. EDN JUGBUA. Russian
 342. Frišić M, Štibrčić Baglama M, Milović M, Hazler Pilepić KI, Maleš Ž. Content of bioactive constituents and antioxidant potential of *Galium* L. species. Croatica Chemica Acta. 2018;91(3):411–7. DOI: 10.5562/cca3379
 343. Ohindovschi A. The total content of polyphenols in species *Galium verum* L. Revista de Ştiinţe ale Sănătăţii din Moldova. 2022;29(3):479–9.
 344. Kuznetsova MI, Kuznetsov SV, Zaichikova SG, Bondar AA. Investigation of the toxicity of yellow bedstraw (*Galium verum*) aqueous extract. Pharmacy. 2018;67(6):52–60. DOI: 10.29296/25419218-2018-06-10. EDN: XYUWHR. Russian
 345. Zagayko AL, Briukhanova TO. A comparative study diuretic activity of *Galium verum* various extracts. Ukrainian Biopharmaceutical Journal. 2018;(1(54)):31–4. DOI: 10.24959/ubphj.18.158 EDN: UPSSYB
 346. Mazko ON, Makarova OG, Bobrov IP, Zharikova GV, Korenovsky YuV, Azarova OV, Kalnitsky AS. Experience of using the galium verum herb infusion for pharmacological correction of experimental oxalate nephrolithiasis. Bulletin of Medical Science. 2020;(1(17)):17–23. EDN: JQJHJN
 347. Ursan V, Ohindovschi A, Copoolovici L, Cojocaru-Toma M. Studiul chimic al substanţelor tanante din produse vegetale ale speciilor genului galium. Revista de stiinţe ale sănătăţii din Moldova. Moldovan Journal of Health Sciences. 2024;11(2):711.
 348. Layali I, Ebrahimzadeh MA, Joulaei M. Antioxidant properties of *Galium verum*. International Journal of Life Science and Pharma Research. 2016;6(3):31–7.
 349. Mazko ON, Makarova OG, Kiryakova VO, Pashkov AP. Anti-inflammatory activity of *Galium verum* herb infusion. Bulletin of Medical Science. 2017;(2(6)):11–3. DOI: 10.31684/2541–8475.2017.2(6).11–13. EDN: ZWTPVH
 350. Antoniak K, Studzińska-Sroka E, Szymański M, Dudek–Makuch M, Cielecka–Piontek J, Korybalska K. Antiangiogenic, Anti–Inflammatory and Antioxidant Properties of Bidens tripartite Herb, *Galium verum* Herb and Rumex hydrolapathum Root. Molecules. 2023;28(13):4966. DOI: 10.3390/molecules28134966
 351. Kashpur NV, Goryacha OV, Ilyina TV, Kovalyova AM, Volyansky AYU, Osolodchenko TP. The antifungal activity of lipophilic factions of galium species. Message 2. Clinical Pharmacy. 2012;16(1):48–51. EDN: WTQTUX
 352. Semenescu AD, Moacă EA, Iftode A, Dehelean CA, Tchiakpe–Antal DS, Vlase L, Vlase AM, Muntean D, Chioibaş R. Phytochemical and Nutraceutical Screening of Ethanol and Ethyl Acetate Phases of Romanian Galium verum Herba (Rubiaceae). Molecules. 2023;28(23):7804. DOI: 10.3390/molecules28237804
 353. Ohindovschi A, Cojocaru–Toma M, Ciobanu N, Ciobanu C, Benea A, Guranda D, Lozan–Tîrşu C. The study of the antioxidant and antibacterial activity of extract from *Galium verum* L. In Congresul Naţional de Farmacie. 2023. 120 p.
 354. Kuznetsova MI, Solovyova EA. The effect of alcohol extract of bedstraw on regenerative processes of the skin. Actual problems of veterinary medicine, animal science, biotechnology and expertise of raw materials and products of animal origin: Proceedings of the 4th Scientific and Practical Conference, Moscow, May 16, 2025; Moscow: Moscow State Academy of Veterinary Medicine and Biotechnology – MBA named after K.I. Scriabin; 2025. P. 215–6. EDN: PAWYHC. Russian
 355. Kuznetsova MI, Solovyova EA, Kuznetsov SV. Study of the effect of alcoholic extract of the present dodmarennik on regenerative processes. Agricultural science in ensuring food security and rural development: Proceedings of the VI International Scientific and Practical Conference: Lugansk, January 21, 2025; Lugansk: Lugansk State Agrarian University named after K.E. Voroshilov; 2025. P. 152. EDN: ZAQBPP. Russian
 356. Dyakova NA. Development and validation of method for isolation and quantitative determination of water-soluble polysaccharides from sunflower roots of one-year-old. Chemistry of Plant Raw Material. 2022;(4):59–66. DOI: 10.14258/jcprm.20220410906. EDN: FAPQQC
 357. D'yakova NA, Dronova AV. *Helianthus annuus* L. application and perspectives (review). Chemistry of Plant Raw Material. 2022;(2):35–50. DOI: 10.14258/jcprm.20220210658 EDN: KSYRNE
 358. Pshukov IV, Konovalov DA, Karpenko VA, Ligaj LV, Kuleshova SA. Phytochemical and pharmacological studying of roots of Common sunflower. Chemistry of Plant Raw Material. 2014;(2):189–94. EDN: STGQQT
 359. Karpenko VA, Ligaj LV, Pshukova IV. Determination of inulin content in annual sunflower roots. Development, research and marketing of new pharmaceutical products: A collection of scientific articles; Pyatigorsk: Pyatigorsk State Pharmaceutical Academy; 2011. P. 106–7. EDN: VUNSLV. Russian
 360. Melik-Gusseinov V, Gerasimenko S. Identification of the phenol compounds in the roots of *Helianthus annuus* L.

- (*Asteraceae*). Bulletin of the Moscow State Regional University. Series: Natural Sciences. 2013;(3):34–6. EDN: REIAMN
361. Melikguseynov VV, Gerasimenko SV, Timchenko LD, Piskov SI. The study of diuretic activity of Sunflower annual root (*Helianthus annuus*) extracts. Modern Problems of Science and Education. 2014;(4):517. EDN: STRSIJ
 362. Matvienko UA, Baldina AA, Durnova NA. Pharmacognostic analysis of fruits of *Rosa majalis* Herrm. (*R. cinnamomea* L.) and *Rosa rugosa* Thunb., growing in the territory of Saratov region. Herbarium. 2024;(4):40–6. DOI: 10.33380/3034-3925-2024-1-1-11
 363. Rekkandt SA, Kuleshova SA, Melik-Huseynov VV. Investigation of the diuretic effect of dry 70% alcohol extracts from rosehip root and burdock grass. Development, research and marketing of new pharmaceutical products: a collection of scientific papers; Pyatigorsk: Advertising and information Agency on KMW; 2020. Vol. 75. P. 88–91. Russian
 364. Rekkandt S, Melik-Guseynov V, Kuleshova S, Sherieva F. Study of diuretic action of cryopowders produced from wild rose roots and agrimonia grass. Bulletin of Moscow State Regional University. Series: Natural sciences. 2016;(2):73–7. DOI: 10.18384/2310-7189-2016-2-73-77. EDN: WBWHXT
 365. Vdovenko-Martynova NN, Kobilchenko NV, Blinova TI. Content of biologically active compounds in rose roots (*Rosa canina* L.) of north caucasus. Medical news of the North Caucasus. 2011;(2):51–2. EDN: NVYOLL
 366. Magomedova ZM, Gasanova MG. The study of the phytochemical composition of the rosehip. Bulletin of dagestan state university. Series 1: Natural sciences. 2016;31(2):54–9. EDN: WVORIR
 367. Macit M, Aras A, Çapanoğlu Güven E, Bakır S. Investigating the content and bioaccessibility of phenolic compounds in roots of *Rosa canina* L. and *Rosa pimpinellifolia* L. Yuzuncu Yil University Journal of Agricultural Sciences. 2023;33(2):163–73. DOI: 10.29133/yyutbd.1231881
 368. Melik-Huseynov VV, Rekkandt SA. Investigation of the diuretic effect of a mixture of dry 70% alcoholic extracts from rosehip root and burdock grass. Bulletin of Scientific Conferences. 2023;(9-3(97)):82–4. EDN: WDIKKG. Russian
 369. Bhat ZA, Kumar Dinesh, Shah MY. *Angelica archangelica* Linn. is an angel on earth for the treatment of diseases. International Journal of Nutrition, Pharmacology, Neurological Diseases. 2011;1(1):36–50. DOI: 10.4103/2231-0738.77531
 370. Kudashkina NV, Bashirova RM, Shakirova FA, Galkin EG, Mustafin AG. Biochemical rationale for the use of *Angelica archangelica* L. in the monastery. Traditional Medicine. 2015;(2(41)):41–3. EDN: UIWYDR
 371. Orlovskaya TV, Lozovitskiy DA, Belyaeva IA. *Angelica archangelica* L.: Chemical composition and applications. Modern problems of science and education. 2014;(3):724. EDN: SYZUQV
 372. Kaur A, Bhatti R. Understanding the phytochemistry and molecular insights to the pharmacology of *Angelica archangelica* L. (garden angelica) and its bioactive components. Phytother Res. 2021;35(11):5961–79. DOI: 10.1002/ptr.7206
 373. Korpinen RI, Välimaa AL, Liimatainen J, Kunnas S. Essential oils and supercritical CO₂ extracts of arctic *Angelica* (*Angelica archangelica* L.), marsh labrador tea (*Rhododendron tomentosum*) and common tansy (*Tanacetum vulgare*) – chemical compositions and antimicrobial activities. Molecules. 2021;26(23):7121. DOI: 10.3390/molecules26237121
 374. Bashirova R.M.1, Shakirova F.A.2, Kudashkina N.V.3, Galkin E.G.4, Mustaphin A.G. Essential oils roots of garden *Angelica* A. *Archangelica* Ural Region. Proceedings of the RAS Ufa Scientific Centre. 2014;(1):15–21. EDN: RXOUKZ
 375. Aćimović MG, Pavlović SD, Varga AO, Filipović VM, Cvetković MT, Stanković JM, Čabarkapa IS. Chemical Composition and Antibacterial Activity of *Angelica archangelica* Root Essential Oil. Nat Prod Commun. 2017;12(2):205–6. DOI: 10.1177/1934578X1701200216.
 376. Chauhan RS, Nautiyal MC, Cecotti R, Mella M, Tava A. Variation in the essential oil composition of *Angelica archangelica* from three different altitudes in Western Himalaya, India. Industrial Crops and Products. 2016;94(4):401–4. DOI: 10.1016/j.indcrop.2016.08.044
 377. Forycka A, Buchwald W. Variability of composition of essential oil and coumarin compounds of *Angelica archangelica* L. Herba Polonica. 2019;65(4):62–75. DOI:10.2478/hepo-2019-0027
 378. Shchipitsyna OS, Efremov AA. Component composition of essential oil of various vegetative parts of *Angelica officinalis* of the Siberian region. Chemistry of plant raw materials. 2010;(4):115–9. EDN: NCXHHH. Russian
 379. Jovan L, Aćimović M, Durović-Pejčev R, Lončar B, Vukić V, Pezo L, Roljević-Nikolić S, Vrbničanin S, Božić D. Linking weed control techniques to anti-inflammatory potential: Comparative analysis of *Angelica archangelica* L. root essential oil profiles. Industrial Crops and Products. 2024;216:118656. DOI: 10.1016/j.indcrop.2024.118656
 380. Holm Y, Solberg S, Hiltunen R. Variation in *Angelica archangelica* root essential oils. Planta Medica. 2009;75(09):52–6. DOI: 10.1055/s-0029-1234418
 381. Kerrola K, Galambosi B, Kallio H. Characterization of volatile composition and odor of *angelica* (*Angelica archangelica* subsp. *archangelica* L.) root extracts. J Agric Food Chem. 1994;2(9):1979–88. DOI: 10.1021/jf00045a028
 382. Nivinskienė O, Butkienė R, Mockutė D. The Chemical composition of the essential oil of *Angelica archangelica* L. roots growing wild in Lithuania. Journal of Essential Oil Research. 2005;17(4):373–7. DOI: 10.1080/10412905.2005.9698934
 383. Shchipitsyna OS. Comparative analysis of essential oil from the roots of the Siberian and European subspecies *Angelica archangelica*. Advances in current natural sciences. 2011;(5):126–127. EDN: NQXMT. Russian
 384. Nivinskienė O, Butkienė R, Mockutė D. Changes in the chemical composition of essential oil of *Angelica archangelica* L. roots during storage. Chemija (Vilnius). 2003;14(1):52–6.
 385. Orlovskaya TV, Lozovitskiy DA, Belyaeva IA. *Angelica archangelica* L.: chemical composition, application. Modern problems of science and education. 2014;(3):724–4. Russian
 386. Muller M, Byres M, Jaspars M, Kumarasamy Y, Middleton M, Nahar L, Sarker SD. 2D NMR spektroskopiske analize arhangelicina iz sjemenki

- biljke *Angelica archangelica*. Acta Pharmaceutica. 2004;54(4):277–85.
387. Eeva M, Rauha JP, Vuorela P, Vuorela H. Computer-assisted, high-performance liquid chromatography with mass spectrometric detection for the analysis of coumarins in *Peucedanum palustre* and *Angelica archangelica*. Phytochem Anal. 2004;15(3):167–74. DOI: 10.1002/pca.764
 388. Sigurdsson S, Ogmundsdottir HM, Gudbjarnason S. Antiproliferative effect of *Angelica archangelica* fruits. Z Naturforsch C J Biosci. 200;59(7–8):523–7. DOI: 10.1515/znc-2004-7-813
 389. Bashirova RM, Shakirova FA, Kudashkina NV. Coumarins of the roots and leaves of *Angelica archangelica* L. of the Ural region. Bulletin of the Bashkir University. 2013;18(4):1078–1080. Russian
 390. Ćimović M, Rat M, Pezo L, Lončar B, Pezo M, Miljković A, Lazarević J. Biological and chemical diversity of *Angelica archangelica* L. – case study of essential oil and its biological activity. Agronomy. 2022;12:1570. DOI: 10.3390/agronomy12071570
 391. Alloush M, Mallion C, Sarker SD, Rahman MM. Coumarins from the roots of *Angelica archangelica* and antibacterial activity against methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Dhaka University Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences. 2022;20(3):275–281. DOI: 10.3329/dujps.v20i3.59793
 392. Fraternali D, Flamini G, Ricci D. Essential oil composition of *Angelica archangelica* L. (*Apiaceae*) roots and its antifungal activity against plant pathogenic fungi. Plant Biosystems - An International Journal Dealing with All Aspects of Plant Biology. 2014;150(3):558–63. DOI: 10.1080/11263504.2014.988190
 393. Nemeth S, Pașca B, Teodorescu A, Coita I, Teaha D. Coumarins isolated from the dry roots of *Angelica archangelica* L. and their antibacterial activity. Analele Universității din Oradea, Fascicula: Ecotoxicologie, Zootehnie și Tehnologii de Industrie Alimentară. 2015;XIV:355–62.
 394. Grigoryan ER, Orlovskaya TV. Study of the effect of angelica extract on intestinal smooth muscle tone. Bulletin of BSU. Series: Medicine. Pharmacy. 2012;(10(129)):160–2. EDN: RBWMEX. Russian
 395. Kaur A, Singh N, Bhatti MS, Bhatti R. Optimization of extraction conditions of *Angelica archangelica* extract and activity evaluation in experimental fibromyalgia. J Food Sci. 2020;85(11):3700–10. DOI: 10.1111/1750-3841.15476
 396. Li L, Cai W, Zhang H, Tang J, Yang Y, Huang Y, Xi Q, Zhang R. Bergapten Ameliorates Renal Fibrosis by Inhibiting Ferroptosis. Phytother Res. 2025;39(3):1355–71. DOI: 10.1002/ptr.8425
 397. Fraternali D, Teodori L, Rudov A, Prattichizzo F, Olivieri F, Guidarelli A, Albertini MC. The *In Vitro* Activity of *Angelica archangelica* L. Essential Oil on Inflammation. J Med Food. 2018;21(12):1238–43. DOI: 10.1089/jmf.2018.0017
 398. Melough MM, Cho E, Chun OK. Furocoumarins: A review of biochemical activities, dietary sources and intake, and potential health risks. Food Chem Toxicol. 2018;113:99–107. DOI: 10.1016/j.fct.2018.01.030
 399. Wang Y, Zhang H, Jiang JM, Zheng D, Chen YY, Wan SJ, Tan HS, Tang LM, Xu HX. Hepatotoxicity induced by psoralen and isopsoralen from Fructus Psoraleae: Wistar rats are more vulnerable than ICR mice. Food Chem Toxicol. 2019;125:133–40. DOI: 10.1016/j.fct.2018.12.047
 400. Phucharoenrak P, Trachootham D. Bergapten, a Major Furocoumarin in Citrus: Pharmacological Properties and Toxicity. Molecules. 2024;29(3):713. DOI: 10.3390/molecules29030713
 401. Irizar A, Boislève F, Gautier F, Nash JF, Pfuhrer S, Ritacco G, Vey M, Wolf N, Cadby PA. Phototoxicity and skin damage: A review of adverse effects of some furocoumarins found in natural extracts. Food Chem Toxicol. 2025;200:115332. DOI: 10.1016/j.fct.2025.115332
 402. Kreidl M, Rainer M, Jakschitz T, Bonn GK. Determination of phototoxic furanocoumarins in natural cosmetics using SPE with LC-MS. Analytica chimica acta. 2020;1101:211–21. DOI: 10.1016/j.aca.2019.12.015
 403. Melough MM, Chun OK. Dietary furocoumarins and skin cancer: A review of current biological evidence. Food Chem Toxicol. 2018;122:163–71. DOI: 10.1016/j.fct.2018.10.027
 404. Mahendra CK, Tan LTH, Lee WL, Yap WH, Pusparajah P, Low LE, Tang SY, Chan KG, Lee LH, Goh BH. Angelicin-A Furocoumarin Compound With Vast Biological Potential. Front Pharmacol. 2020;11:366. DOI: 10.3389/fphar.2020.00366
 405. Wang Z, Zan K, Hu X-W, Kang S, Li H-L, Zuo TT, Jin HY, Ma SC. The simultaneous determination of nine furocoumarins in *Angelica dahurica* using UPLC combined with the QAMS approach and novel health risk assessment based on the toxic equivalency factor. Separations. – 2023;10(9):508. DOI: 10.3390/separations10090508
 406. Amin R, Thalluri C, Docea AO, Sharifi-Rad J, Calina D. Therapeutic potential of cranberry for kidney health and diseases. EFood. 2022;3(5):e33. DOI: 10.1002/efd.2.3
 407. Zhidkin RR, Matveeva TV. Phylogeny problems of the genus *Vaccinium* L. and ways to solve them. Ecological genetics. 2022;20(2):151–164. DOI: 10.17816/ecogen109142 EDN: PMZCQM
 408. Tundis R, Tenuta MC, Loizzo MR, Bonesi M, Finetti F, Trabalzini L, Deguin B. *Vaccinium* species (*Ericaceae*): from chemical composition to bio-functional activities. Applied Sciences. 2021;11(12):5655. DOI:10.3390/app11125655
 409. Smirnov A, Birukova N. Historical Experience and Prospects of Using Cranberry (*Oxycoccus*) in Medicine and Pharmacy. The Scientific Heritage. 2021;(66-1(66)):14–18. DOI: 10.24412/9215-0365-2021-66-1-14-18 EDN: GHAYAD
 410. Tatyana V. Pashkova. Aleksandra P. Rodionova. Healing properties of berry plants in Karelian folk medicine (based on field research). Finno-Ugric World. 2022;14(4):474–85. DOI: 10.15507/2076-2577.014.2022.04.474-485 EDN: OQZDDH
 411. Česonienė L, Daubaras R. Phytochemical composition of the large cranberry (*Vaccinium macrocarpon*) and the small cranberry (*Vaccinium oxycoccos*). Nutritional composition of fruit cultivars. 2016):173–94. DOI: 10.1016/B978-0-12-408117-8.00008-8
 412. Jurikova T, Skrovankova S, Mlcek J, Balla S, Snopek L. Bioactive Compounds, Antioxidant Activity, and Biological Effects of European Cranberry (*Vaccinium oxycoccos*). Molecules. 2018;24(1):24. DOI: 10.3390/molecules24010024

413. Liaudanskas M, Šedbarė R, Janulis V. Determination of Biologically Active Compounds and Antioxidant Capacity In Vitro in Fruit of Small Cranberries (*Vaccinium oxycoccos* L.) Growing in Natural Habitats in Lithuania. *Antioxidants* (Basel). 2024;13(9):1045. DOI: 10.3390/antiox13091045
414. Šedbarė R, Sprainaitytė S, Baublys G, Viskelis J, Janulis V. Phytochemical composition of cranberry (*Vaccinium oxycoccos* L.) fruits growing in protected areas of Lithuania. *Plants*. 2023;12(10):1974. DOI: 10.3390/plants12101974
415. Šedbarė R, Siliņa D, Janulis V. Evaluation of the phytochemical composition of phenolic and triterpene compounds in fruit of large cranberries (*Vaccinium macrocarpon* Aiton) grown in Latvia. *Plants*. 2022;11:2725. DOI: 10.3390/plants11202725
416. Arvinte O, Amariei S. Chemical composition of peatland small cranberry (*Vaccinium oxycoccus*) for potential use as functional ingredient. *Ukrainian Food Journal*. 2022;11:416–28. DOI: 10.24263/2304-974X-2022-11-3-7
417. Belova YA, Tritskiy VS, Shul'gau ZT, Gulyayev AY, Kriviykh EA, Kovalenko LV, Drenin AA, Botirov EK. The study of phenolic compounds of the berries of three species of plants of the genus *Vaccinium*, growing in the Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Area. *Chemistry of plant raw material*. 2020;(1):107–16. DOI: 10.14258/jcpm.2020014534 EDN: NIDJFY
418. Ermakova VYu, Nesterova OV, Kondrashov SV, Matveenko VN. Development of methods for identification and quantitative determination of hydroxy acids in the fruits of *Vaccinium oxycoccus* L. and *Vaccinium macrocarpon* Ait. *Bulletin of the Moscow University. Series 2: Chemistry*. 2021;62(1):49–53. EDN: ZBFPVS
419. Ermakova VYu, Luzin AA, Dobrokhotov DA, Nesterov GV, Avertseva IN, Reshetnyak VYu. Comparative analysis of the composition and quantitative content of anthocianins in the fruits of cranberries (*Vaccinium oxycoccus* L.) and large-fruited (*Vaccinium macrocarpon* Ait.). *Medical & pharmaceutical journal "Pulse"*. 2023;25(3):131–8. DOI: 10.26787/nydha-2686-6838-2023-25-3-131-138 EDN: KKZBDV
420. Nemzer BV, Al-Taher F, Yashin A, Revelsky I, Yashin Y. Cranberry: Chemical Composition, Antioxidant Activity and Impact on Human Health: Overview. *Molecules*. 2022;27(5):1503. DOI: 10.3390/molecules27051503
421. Selikhova MS, Burova NA, Syanova OYu. Postmenopausal cystitis and the role of cranberry polyphenols in its prevention. *Russian Journal of Woman and Child Health*. 2025;8(1):32–7. DOI: 10.32364/2618-8430-2025-8-1-5 EDN: YVQNEN
422. Sánchez-Patán F, Barroso E, van de Wiele T, Jiménez-Girón A, Martín-Alvarez PJ, Moreno-Arribas MV, Martínez-Cuesta MC, Peláez C, Requena T, Bartolomé B. Comparative *in vitro* fermentations of cranberry and grape seed polyphenols with colonic microbiota. *Food Chem*. 2015;183:273–82. DOI: 10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.03.061
423. Moskvina ZV, Boldyreva MN, Rossolovskaya KA, Spivak LG. The role of D-mannose and proanthocyanidins in cranberries in the prevention of recurrent urinary tract infections. *Experimental and Clinical Urology*. 2024;17(1):128–37. DOI: 10.29188/2222-8543-2024-17-1-128-136 EDN: CZCCPA
424. González de Llano D, Liu H, Khoo C, Moreno-Arribas MV, Bartolomé B. Some New Findings Regarding the Antiadhesive Activity of Cranberry Phenolic Compounds and Their Microbial-Derived Metabolites against Uropathogenic Bacteria. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2019;67(8):2166–74. DOI: 10.1021/acs.jafc.8b05625
425. Urena-Saborio H, Udayan APM, Alfaro-Viquez E, Madrigal-Carballo S, Reed JD, Gunasekaran S. Cranberry Proanthocyanidins-PANI Nanocomposite for the Detection of Bacteria Associated with Urinary Tract Infections. *Biosensors* (Basel). 2021;11(6):199. DOI: 10.3390/bios11060199
426. Basharat S, Khalid, A, Sohail A. Therapeutic effect of cranberry active components on E. coli urinary tract adhesions: A review. *MOJ Food Process Technol*. 2021;9(2):88–92. DOI: 10.15406/mojfpt.2021.09.00264
427. Jangid H, Shidiki A, Kumar G. Cranberry-derived bioactives for the prevention and treatment of urinary tract infections: antimicrobial mechanisms and global research trends in nutraceutical applications. *Front Nutr*. 2025;12:1502720. DOI: 10.3389/fnut.2025.1502720
428. Iannuzzo F, Piccolo V, Novellino E, Schiano E, Salviati E, Summa V, Campiglia P, Tenore GC, Maisto M. A Food-Grade Method for Enhancing the Levels of Low Molecular Weight Proanthocyanidins with Potentially High Intestinal Bioavailability. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2022;23(21):13557. DOI: 10.3390/ijms232113557
429. Serra A, Macià A, Romero MP, Valls J, Bladé C, Arola L, Motilva MJ. Bioavailability of procyanidin dimers and trimers and matrix food effects in *in vitro* and *in vivo* model. *Br J Nutr*. 2010;103(7):944–52. DOI: 10.1017/S0007114509992741
430. González de Llano D, Moreno-Arribas MV, Bartolomé B. Cranberry Polyphenols and Prevention against Urinary Tract Infections: Relevant Considerations. *Molecules*. 2020;25(15):3523. DOI: 10.3390/molecules25153523
431. Roussel C, Chabaud S, Lessard-Lord J, Cattero V, Pellerin FA, Feutry P, Bochar V, Bolduc S, Desjardins Y. UPEC Colonic-Virulence and Urovirulence Are Blunted by Proanthocyanidins-Rich Cranberry Extract Microbial Metabolites in a Gut Model and a 3D Tissue-Engineered Urothelium. *Microbiol Spectr*. 2022;10(5):e0243221. DOI: 10.1128/spectrum.02432-21
432. Feliciano RP, Boeres A, Massaccesi L, Istas G, Ventura MR, Nunes Dos Santos C, Heiss C, Rodriguez-Mateos A. Identification and quantification of novel cranberry-derived plasma and urinary (poly) phenols. *Arch Biochem Biophys*. 2016;599:31–41. DOI: 10.1016/j.abb.2016.01.014
433. Peron G, Pellizzaro A, Brun P, Schievano E, Mammi S, Sut S, Castagliuolo I, Dall'Acqua S. Antiadhesive Activity and Metabolomics Analysis of Rat Urine after Cranberry (*Vaccinium macrocarpon* Aiton) Administration. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2017;65(28):5657–5667. DOI: 10.1021/acs.jafc.7b01856
434. Jabbar Al Kaabi HK, Hmood BA. Antimicrobial activity of cranberry juice (*Vaccinium macrocarpon* L.) ethanol extract against uropathogenic bacteria. *Open Vet J*. 2025;15(2):813–9. DOI: 10.5455/OVJ.2025.v15.i2.30
435. Xia JY, Yang C, Xu DF, Xia H, Yang LG, Sun GJ. Consumption of cranberry as adjuvant therapy for urinary tract infections in susceptible populations:

- A systematic review and meta-analysis with trial sequential analysis. *PLoS One*. 2021;16(9):e0256992. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0256992
436. Fu Z, Liska D, Talan D, Chung M. Cranberry Reduces the Risk of Urinary Tract Infection Recurrence in Otherwise Healthy Women: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Nutr*. 2017;147(12):2282–8. DOI: 10.3945/jn.117.254961.
437. Singh I, Gautam LK, Kaur IR. Effect of oral cranberry extract (standardized proanthocyanidin-A) in patients with recurrent UTI by pathogenic *E. coli*: a randomized placebo-controlled clinical research study. *Int Urol Nephrol*. 2016;48(9):1379–86. DOI: 10.1007/s11255-016-1342-8
438. Liu H, Howell AB, Zhang DJ, Khoo C. A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled pilot study to assess bacterial anti-adhesive activity in human urine following consumption of a cranberry supplement. *Food Funct*. 2019;10(12):7645–52. DOI: 10.1039/c9fo01198f
439. Howell AB, Dreyfus JF, Bosley S, Krueger CG, Birmingham A, Reed JD, Chughtai B. Differences in P-Type and Type 1 Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* Urinary Anti-Adhesion Activity of Cranberry Fruit Juice Dry Extract Product and D-Mannose Dietary Supplement. *J Diet Suppl*. 2024;21(5):633–59. DOI: 10.1080/19390211.2024.2356592
440. Stonehouse W, Benassi-Evans B, Bednarz J, Vincent AD. Whole cranberry fruit powder supplement reduces the incidence of culture-confirmed urinary tract infections in females with a history of recurrent urinary tract infection: A 6-month multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2025;121(4):932–41. DOI: 10.1016/j.ajcnut.2025.01.022
441. Moro C, Phelps C, Veer V, Jones M, Glasziou P, Clark J, Tikkinen KAO, Scott AM. Cranberry Juice, Cranberry Tablets, or Liquid Therapies for Urinary Tract Infection: A Systematic Review and Network Meta-analysis. *Eur Urol Focus*. 2024;10(6):947–57. DOI: 10.1016/j.euf.2024.07.002
442. Foxman B, Cronenwett AE, Spino C, Berger MB, Morgan DM. Cranberry juice capsules and urinary tract infection after surgery: results of a randomized trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2015;213(2):194.e1-8. DOI: 10.1016/j.ajog.2015.04.003
443. Maki KC, Kaspar KL, Khoo C, Derrig LH, Schild AL, Gupta K. Consumption of a cranberry juice beverage lowered the number of clinical urinary tract infection episodes in women with a recent history of urinary tract infection. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2016;103(6):1434–42. DOI: 10.3945/ajcn.116.130542. Erratum in: *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2017;106(2):708. DOI: 10.3945/ajcn.117.161851
444. Colletti A, Sangiorgio L, Martelli A, Testai L, Cicero AFG, Cravotto G. Highly Active Cranberry's Polyphenolic Fraction: New Advances in Processing and Clinical Applications. *Nutrients*. 2021;13(8):2546. DOI: 10.3390/nu13082546
445. Xiong Z, Gao Y, Yuan C, Jian Z, Wei X. Preventive effect of cranberries with high dose of proanthocyanidins on urinary tract infections: a meta-analysis and systematic review. *Front Nutr*. 2024;11:1422121. DOI: 10.3389/fnut.2024.1422121
446. Gbinigie OA, Spencer EA, Heneghan CJ, Lee JJ, Butler CC. Cranberry Extract for Symptoms of Acute, Uncomplicated Urinary Tract Infection: A Systematic Review. *Antibiotics (Basel)*. 2020;10(1):12. DOI: 10.3390/antibiotics10010012

AUTHORS

Denis I. Shishkalov — graduate student of the Department of Pharmacy, lecturer of the Department of Medical and Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Maykop State Technological University. ORCID ID: 0000-0001-9558-5336. E-mail: hitmanapp@mail.ru

Vera V. Artemyeva — senior lecturer at the Department of Medical and Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Maykop State Technological University. ORCID ID: 0000-0001-8467-2899. E-mail: denis7radnet.ru@mail.ru

Ifrat N. Zilfkarov — Doctor of Sciences (Pharmacy), Professor of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Head of the Department of Medical and Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Maykop State Technological University; Chief Scientist, All-Russian Scientific Research Institute of

Medicinal and Aromatic Plants. ORCID ID: 0000-0002-8638-9963. E-mail: dagfarm@mail.ru

Elena V. Avdeeva — Doctor of Sciences (Pharmacy), Professor, Head of the Department of Pharmacology named after the Honored Scientist of the Russian Federation Professor A.A. Lebedev, Samara State Medical University. ORCID ID: 0000-0003-3425-7157. E-mail: e.v.avdeeva@samsmu.ru

Vladimir A. Kurkin — Doctor of Sciences (Pharmacy), Professor, Head of the Department of Pharmacognosy with Botany and the Basics of Phytotherapy, Samara State Medical University. ORCID ID: 0000-0002-7513-9352. E-mail: v.a.kurkin@samsmu.ru