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Review

Research progress of small-molecule natural medicines for the treatment of ischemic stroke



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ABSTRACT

Stroke is the second leading cause of disability and mortality worldwide, imposing a substantial socioeconomic burden on individuals and healthcare systems. Annually, approximately 14 million people experience stroke, with ischemic stroke comprising nearly 85% of cases, of which 10% to 20% involve large vessel occlusions. Currently, recombinant tissue plasminogen activator (tPA) remains the only approved pharmacological intervention. However, its utility is limited due to a narrow therapeutic window and low recanalization rates, making it applicable to only a minority of patients. Therefore, there is an urgent need for novel therapeutic strategies, including pharmacological advancements and combinatory treatments. Small-molecule natural medicines, particularly those derived from traditional Chinese herbs, have demonstrated significant therapeutic potential in ischemic stroke management. These compounds exert multiple neuroprotective effects, such as antioxidation, anti-inflammatory action, and inhibition of apoptosis, all of which are critical in mitigating stroke-induced cerebral damage. This review comprehensively examines the pathophysiology of acute ischemic stroke (AIS) and highlights the recent progress in the development of small-molecule natural medicines as promising therapeutic agents for cerebral ischemic stroke.

1. Introduction

Strokes are classified into two major categories: ischemic and hemorrhagic¹. Ischemic strokes constitute approximately 85% of all stroke cases, while hemorrhagic strokes account for the remaining 15%². Hemorrhagic strokes are predominantly caused by chronic hypertension and the rupture of atherosclerotic plaques, with secondary causes including vascular malformations, tumors, and hemorrhagic transformation of ischemic stroke or venous thrombosis³. Ischemic stroke, on the other hand, results primarily from reduced cerebral blood flow due to arterial occlusion, although venous occlusion in cerebral veins or sinuses can also contribute to tissue ischemia and neuronal injury. Neurological deficits following stroke typically involve hemiparesis, sensory impairments, balance disturbances, and ptosis². Given that ischemic stroke is the most prevalent form, this review focuses on ischemic cerebral infarction and the emerging role of small-molecule natural compounds in its treatment.

Ischemic stroke has three primary etiologies: (1) cerebrovascular atherosclerosis and plaque rupture, responsible for approximately 50% of cases; (2) lacunar infarctions due to small vessel disease, causing 25% of cases; and (3) cardiogenic embolism, which accounts for 20%⁴. Additionally, vascular inflammation and other less common factors contribute to the occurrence of ischemic stroke. Extensive research has highlighted three major mechanisms of neuronal injury during ischemia: 1) direct

neuronal necrosis due to oxygen and glucose deprivation; 2) excessive generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) during reperfusion, which exacerbates oxidative stress and neuronal injury; and 3) ischemia-induced inflammation, which exacerbates neuronal apoptosis and extends the zone of tissue damage⁵⁻⁷.

The principal therapeutic goal in managing ischemic stroke is to restore cerebral blood flow by recanalizing occluded vessels and preventing the progression of tissue injury in the ischemic penumbra. The ischemic penumbra, a region of hypoperfused but salvageable tissue surrounding the infarct core, is highly vulnerable to irreversible damage if reperfusion is not achieved promptly. The focus of acute ischemic stroke (AIS) treatment is thus centered on preserving the penumbra by mitigating pathophysiological processes such as oxidative stress, inflammation, and apoptosis. Recent advancements in the development of small-molecule therapeutic agents have opened new avenues for the treatment of ischemic stroke, providing a promising foundation for novel treatment strategies⁸⁻¹¹. This review aims to explore the underlying pathogenesis of ischemic stroke and assess the clinical and experimental progress in utilizing small-molecule natural drugs as therapeutic agents for ischemic stroke.

2. Pathophysiology of ischemic stroke

Ischemic stroke results in a sudden and significant reduction of cerebral blood flow, which diminishes the supply of oxygen and glucose to neurons, tissues highly dependent on these substrates for survival. The loss of neurons directly compromises brain function, leading to significant neurological deficits. There-

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fore, protecting neurons from ischemic injury and promoting their regeneration are essential therapeutic goals. Strategies for neuroprotection include mitigating neuronal injury, promoting repair, and fostering neurogenesis. For example, the natural product 4,10-aromadendranediol has been shown to induce neurogenesis in neurons through activation of the ERK signaling pathway¹². Several interrelated mechanisms drive neuronal death following ischemic stroke, including excitotoxicity², oxidative¹³ and nitrosative stress, and inflammatory responses¹⁴. These factors not only damage neurons but also compromise the function of glial cells and endothelial cells, creating a deleterious feedback loop that accelerates neurodegeneration. The integrity of the blood-brain barrier (BBB) is crucial for maintaining central nervous system (CNS) homeostasis, and its disruption following ischemic stroke exacerbates brain injury¹⁵. A variety of protein molecules are involved in maintaining the integrity of BBB, such as occludin, claudins, ZO proteins, and JAM proteins¹⁶. In addition, BBB interaction with immune cells is involved in neuroprotection and neuronal injury as well as pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory responses. In conclusion, ischemic stroke is driven by a multifactorial pathophysiology. Understanding these complex processes is critical for developing targeted interventions. Therefore, elucidating the pathogenesis of ischemic stroke supports the development of effective treatments based on these natural compounds (Fig. 1).

2.1. Neuroexcitotoxicity

The brain is the most metabolically active organ in the body, relying on mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation to sustain its high ATP demand. During ischemia, the interruption of ATP production results in a rapid energy deficit, which severely impairs the function of the Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase pump. This disruption causes membrane depolarization, promoting the efflux of potassium ions and the influx of sodium ions. In addition, the failure of Ca²⁺-ATPase pumps results in a significant rise in intracellular Ca²⁺ levels. Elevated intracellular Ca²⁺ activates calcium-dependent enzymes, including proteases, lipases, and DNases, which leads to cell death in the ischemic core. One of the key contributors to ischemic brain injury is neuroexcitotoxicity, driven by excessive glutamate release². In the CNS, there are several glutamate receptors involved in the regulation of neuroexcitatory toxicity. Glutamate is an important major factor in neuroexcitatory toxicity, and neurons and astrocytes are two major players in glutamate metabolism. Glutamate binds to its receptors to transmit action signals^{17, 18}. Activation of glutamate receptors leads to prolonged membrane depolarization and a massive influx of Ca²⁺ into neurons, which also greatly promotes neuronal excitatory toxicity after ischemia-reperfusion (I/R)¹⁹. The resultant calcium overload further exacerbates neuronal injury and promotes widespread neurodegeneration. Astrocytes play a critical role in mitigating neuroexcitotoxicity by regulating extracellular glutamate levels. Astrocytes maintain low synaptic glutamate concentrations, preventing excessive receptor activation. Research by Zhang et al. demonstrated that astrocytes can significantly protect cortical neurons from glutamate-induced acute damage in ischemic conditions²⁰. Therefore, maintaining glutamate homeostasis in the extracellular space is essential for preventing excitotoxicity and reducing neuronal injury.

2.2. Oxidative stress

During ischemia, multiple mechanisms contribute to the excessive generation of ROS and reactive nitrogen species (RNS), including glutamate-mediated excitotoxicity, elevated intracellular Ca²⁺ levels, mitochondrial dysfunction, and the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Increased Ca²⁺ influx triggers the open-

ing of the mitochondrial permeability transition pore (MPTP) and the release of cytochrome C, which accelerates ROS production²¹. Due to their high oxygen demand, abundant polyunsaturated lipid content, and limited endogenous antioxidant defenses, neurons are particularly vulnerable to oxidative damage. Excess ROS accumulation leads to widespread protein oxidation, lipid peroxidation, mitochondrial DNA damage, and the activation of signaling cascades that promote inflammation, apoptosis, and necrosis²². ROS and RNS production is concentrated in the ischemic penumbra. Inhibition of ROS production is beneficial for preserving neuronal viability in this area²³. Several antioxidant defense mechanisms are activated in response to oxidative stress, including pathways regulated by nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2). Under oxidative stress, Nrf2 dissociates from its cytoplasmic inhibitor, Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (KEAP1), and translocates to the nucleus, where it induces the expression of antioxidant response elements. Enhancing Nrf2 activity by modulating its interaction with KEAP1 offers a promising approach to bolstering cellular antioxidant defenses²⁴. Mitochondria, the primary source of intracellular ROS²⁵, are particularly susceptible to damage under sustained oxidative stress. Disruptions in the electron transport chain cause electron leakage, leading to the generation of superoxide, a major byproduct of mitochondrial respiration²⁶. Protecting mitochondrial function is essential for reducing ROS production and mitigating neuronal injury.

2.3. Immunoinflammation

The immune system plays a pivotal role in the pathophysiological progression of stroke. The excessive inflammatory response caused by stroke includes increased levels of inflammatory cells, cytokines, and chemokines in the circulating blood. Damaged or dead cells release endogenous dangerous molecules through damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), which activate the innate immune system by interacting with pattern recognition receptors (PRRs). These DAMPs, such as adenosine, histones, heat shock proteins, and high mobility group box-1 (HMGB1), are recognized by pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) on immune cells. Activation of these receptors triggers intracellular signaling pathways, such as the NF- κ B pathway, leading to the initiation of a robust inflammatory cascade. Once activated, the innate immune system recruits a variety of peripheral and central immune cells, including neutrophils, microglia, macrophages, and lymphocytes^{27, 28}. These immune cells secrete pro-inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, and interferons, which amplify the inflammatory response within the brain. The increased expression of adhesion molecules such as P-selectin, E-selectin, ICAM-1, ICAM-2, and VCAM-1 on endothelial cells facilitates the adhesion and infiltration of leukocytes across the blood-brain barrier, further promoting inflammation and exacerbating neuronal injury²⁹.

2.3.1. Microglia-mediated inflammation

The initial inflammatory response after ischemic injury is mediated by the activation of microglia, the resident immune cells of the CNS. Microglia rapidly detect ischemic injury, transitioning into a phagocytic state in which they release a variety of cytotoxic and/or cytoprotective substances. During ischemia, activated microglia release pro-inflammatory cytokines, including tumor necrosis factor α (TNF- α), interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), and interleukin-6 (IL-6). However, sustained or excessive microglial activation can shift this balance toward a harmful inflammatory response, ultimately exacerbating neuronal damage and increasing the risk of cell death. Microglial activation in ischemic stroke is regulated by several key receptors, with toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) playing a central role. TLR4 is expressed on microglia³⁰, and experimental evidence has shown that inhibiting TLR4 signi-

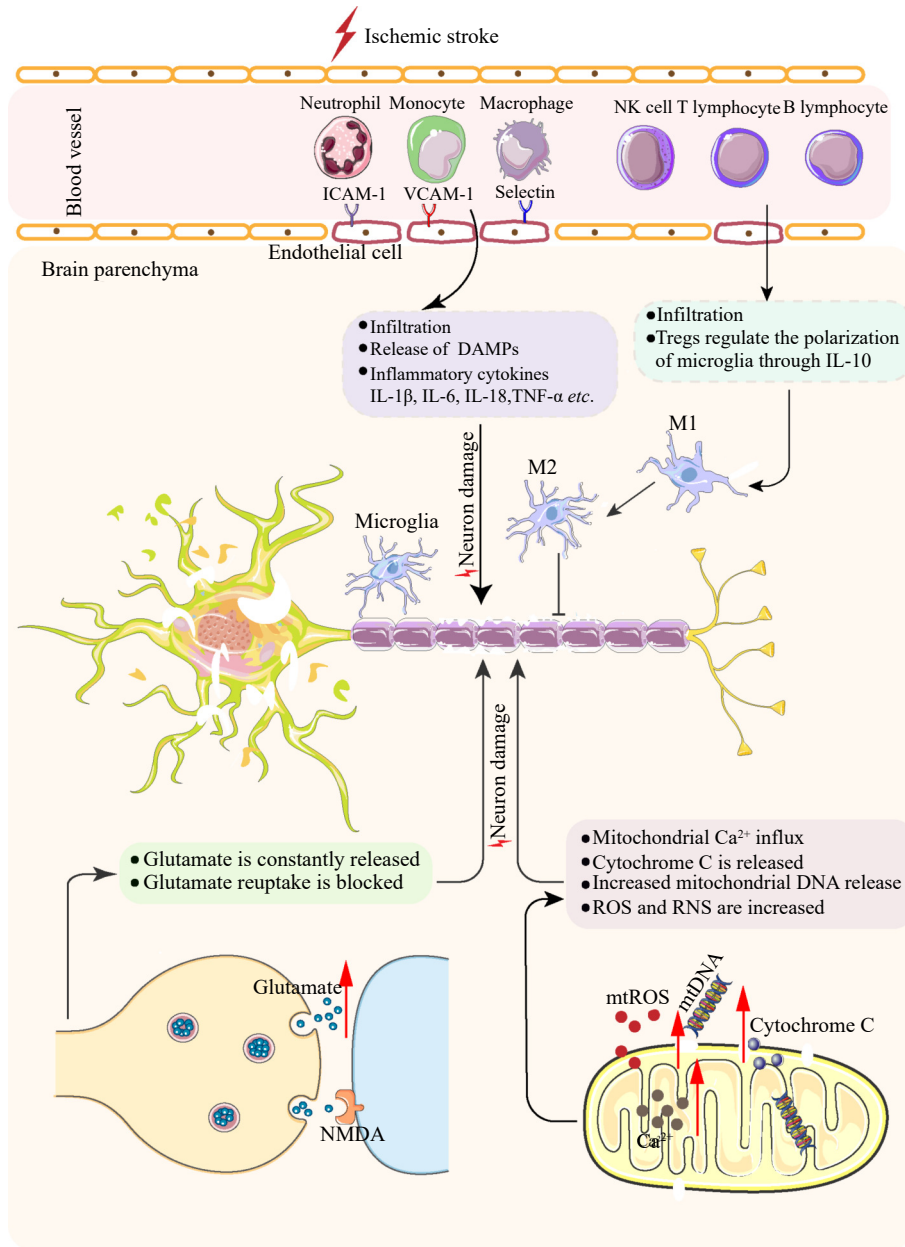


Fig. 1 The pathophysiological mechanism of ischemic stroke. During cerebral I/R injury, endothelial cells are activated and express selectin, ICAM-1, and VCAM-1, which contribute to peripherally infiltrated immune cells. With the breakdown of the BBB, neutrophils, monocytes, and macrophages migrate to the brain parenchyma and regulate the inflammatory response by releasing inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-18, and TNF- α . Tregs interact with microglia in the ischemic brain and regulate the polarization of microglia from the M1 phenotype to the M2 phenotype through IL-10. During the pathological process of ischemic stroke, glutamate release is increased, reuptake is hindered, and glutamate binding with its receptor *N*-methyl-D-aspartic acid (NMDA) results in a sustained excitatory signal. Reperfusion injury exacerbated mitochondrial Ca²⁺ influx excess, MPTP opening, and cytochrome C and mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) release, which promote ROS and RNS production. These events finally promote neuronal damage in ischemic stroke.

ificantly limits LPS-induced activation of microglia and production of ROS^{31,32}. Notably, microglial activation is highly dynamic, with an early M2-like phenotype transitioning chronologically to the pathological M1 subgroup³³.

2.3.2. Leukocyte-mediated inflammation

Immediately after ischemic stroke, innate immune responses are initiated. Necrotic cells resulting from focal cerebral ischemia release DAMPs, which activate resident brain immune cells, such as microglia, and are also released into the bloodstream. This signaling cascade recruits peripheral immune cells to the brain, contributing to both acute injury and subsequent tissue repair processes³³. A key step in leukocyte recruitment is the increased expression of endothelial adhesion molecules, including intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) and vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1). These molecules serve as ligands for leuko-

cyte integrins, promoting the adhesion and transmigration of immune cells across the BBB, leading to its breakdown. This disruption allows for further infiltration of immune cells, exacerbating inflammation and neuronal injury. Neutrophils are among the first responders to the ischemic brain. Upon infiltration, neutrophils release a host of cytotoxic substances, including elastase, matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9), cathepsin G, reactive oxygen species (ROS), RNS, and pro-inflammatory cytokines like interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β). Neutrophils also form neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs), structures that amplify tissue damage and inflammation³⁴. Monocytes and bone marrow-derived macrophages (MDMs) are normally absent from the brain parenchyma, but during the acute phase of stroke, their numbers in circulation rise significantly, largely driven by the CXCL12/CXCR4 axis. Between days 3 and 5 of the subacute phase MDMs with a pro-inflammatory phenotype accumulate at the infarct site. By day 7,

these MDMs undergo a phenotypic shift to a reparative state, aiding tissue regeneration³⁵. In summary, targeting endothelial cell activation and regulating leukocyte infiltration are critical strategies for mitigating stroke-induced damage.

2.3.3. T cell-mediated inflammation

The adaptive immune system contributes to both neuroinflammation and tissue repair following ischemic stroke. Peripheral immune cells, including T cells, B cells, natural killer (NK) cells, and dendritic cells (DCs), infiltrate the brain in response to ischemic injury, affecting both acute and chronic phases of stroke³⁶. T cells enter the brain within the first week post-ischemia, with different subsets playing distinct roles in stroke pathology. Pro-inflammatory T cell subtypes, such as CD4⁺ Th1 and Th17 cells, aggravate stroke damage by expanding infarct size and promoting neuroinflammation through cytokines like interferon- γ (IFN- γ) and interleukin-17 (IL-17)³³. For instance, depletion of CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ T cells in experimental models has been shown to significantly reduce infarct volume, highlighting their pathological role³⁷. Conversely, regulatory T cells (Tregs) exert a protective effect by limiting excessive neuroinflammation. Tregs secrete anti-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-10, which suppresses pro-inflammatory responses and facilitates tissue repair³⁸. Zhou et al. demonstrated that Tregs directly interact with microglia, shifting their activation from a pro-inflammatory M1 phenotype to a reparative M2 phenotype *via* IL-10 signaling, thereby promoting neuroprotection³⁹. This microglial polarization is crucial for reducing neuronal injury and fostering recovery. T cells also patrol the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), where they search for CNS-specific antigens and trigger localized immune responses. During inflammation, these interactions, particularly in secondary lymphoid tissues, affect T cell trafficking, leading to increased BBB permeability^{40,41}. Understanding the role of T cells in ischemic stroke is vital for the development of targeted therapies.

3. Clinical application of natural medicines

Thrombolytic therapy remains the cornerstone of treatment for ischemic stroke and cerebral infarction. The fundamental objective of thrombolysis is to restore cerebral perfusion by using pharmacological thrombolytic agents or mechanical devices to recanalize occluded vessels, thereby promoting partial recovery of brain function and neurological outcomes. Time from stroke onset to intervention is the most critical determinant of treatment efficacy in AIS⁴². Recent advancements in intravenous thrombolysis and mechanical thrombectomy for large vessel occlusions have significantly reduced mortality and disability rates in AIS patients. Intravenous thrombolytic therapy is most effective when administered within 4.5 h of stroke onset. However, a substantial proportion of patients present with conditions such as proximal arterial occlusion, delayed admission beyond 4.5 h, recent major surgeries, or active bleeding, rendering them ineligible for systemic thrombolytic therapy. For these patients, mechanical thrombectomy has become the preferred treatment option, particularly in cases of large artery occlusion confirmed *via* clinical or imaging evaluations⁴³. Mechanical thrombectomy offers distinct advantages over intravenous thrombolysis, including an extended treatment window of up to 24 h and superior recanalization rates. This broader therapeutic window allows for treatment in a greater number of patients. Nevertheless, pre-hospital delays, especially in low- and middle-income countries, remain a significant obstacle to timely intervention. Addressing these delays and developing new therapeutic approaches to extend the treatment window for AIS are critical unmet needs in stroke management. In recent years, natural medicines have shown considerable promise in the treatment of ischemic stroke, particularly for their potential to address these therapeutic ga-

ps⁴⁴. We have summarized the clinical application of several natural medicines in the table (Supplementary Table 1).

4. Research of natural medicines in the treatment of ischemic stroke

Natural medicines have a long-standing tradition in the treatment of cerebral ischemia and remain a key area of research for developing novel therapeutic strategies for ischemic stroke. Over the years, extensive theoretical knowledge has been accumulated regarding their pharmacological effects. Numerous herbal extracts have been shown to exert therapeutic effects in stroke by modulating mechanisms such as anti-inflammation, antioxidation, neurogenesis promotion, and preservation of BBB integrity. Representative compounds include salvianolic acid A⁴⁵, astragaloside IV⁴⁶, ginkgolide B^{47,48}, and nordihydroguaiaretic acid³². The nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) pathway is a central regulator of inflammatory responses. NF- κ B controls the transcription of genes responsible for inflammation, apoptosis, and cell survival. Research by Liu et al. confirmed that Kudiezi Injection (KDZ), a traditional Chinese medicine formulation, exerts potent anti-inflammatory effects by inhibiting the TLR4/NF- κ B signaling pathway, which significantly mitigates brain injury in acute focal ischemia⁴⁹. In addition, Chinese herbal preparations such as Jieyudan⁵⁰, Di-Tan Decoction (DTD)^{9,51,52}, and Danshen Decoction⁵³ have shown promising clinical efficacy in managing stroke symptoms and enhancing recovery. Screening active ingredients from traditional Chinese medicine is an essential strategy for discovering novel therapeutic agents. This review mainly introduces and discusses the research progress on several representative active compounds from natural sources that hold the potential for treating ischemic stroke (Fig. 2).

4.1. Research of natural medicines in neuroprotection

Over recent decades, research has elucidated multiple mechanisms of neuronal death in AIS, including apoptosis, necroptosis, autophagic cell death, and ferroptosis⁵⁴. Targeting key proteins involved in these cell death processes can enhance neuronal survival and regeneration. Many herbal medicines have been traditionally used to treat stroke, with growing evidence supporting their neuroprotective effects across various pathological conditions. Advances in proteomics and network pharmacology have helped to clarify the molecular targets and regulatory mechanisms of active compounds and traditional Chinese medicinal formulations, providing a stronger scientific basis for their application in treating ischemic brain injury⁵⁵. Here, we discuss key pharmacological effects and molecular mechanisms of several representative natural compounds that exhibit neuroprotective properties.

4.1.1. Astragaloside IV (AST)

AST is one of the primary bioactive components of *Astragalus membranaceus* var. *mongholicus* and *A. membranaceus*⁵⁶. AST exerts multiple beneficial effects on brain protection, including anti-ischemic, anti-oxidative, and anti-apoptotic actions. The brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) is a critical neurotrophic factor involved in neurogenesis and neuronal survival⁵⁷. Ni et al. demonstrated that AST improves neurobehavioral outcomes and promotes neurogenesis in middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO) rat models by regulating the BDNF-TrkB signaling pathway⁵⁸. In addition, angiogenesis is crucial for brain repair following ischemic stroke⁵⁹, and the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B/mammalian target of rapamycin (PI3K/Akt/mTOR) pathway plays a significant role in this process⁶⁰. AST has been shown to promote angiogenesis by activating the PI3K/Akt/mTOR signaling pathway, enhancing long-term recov-

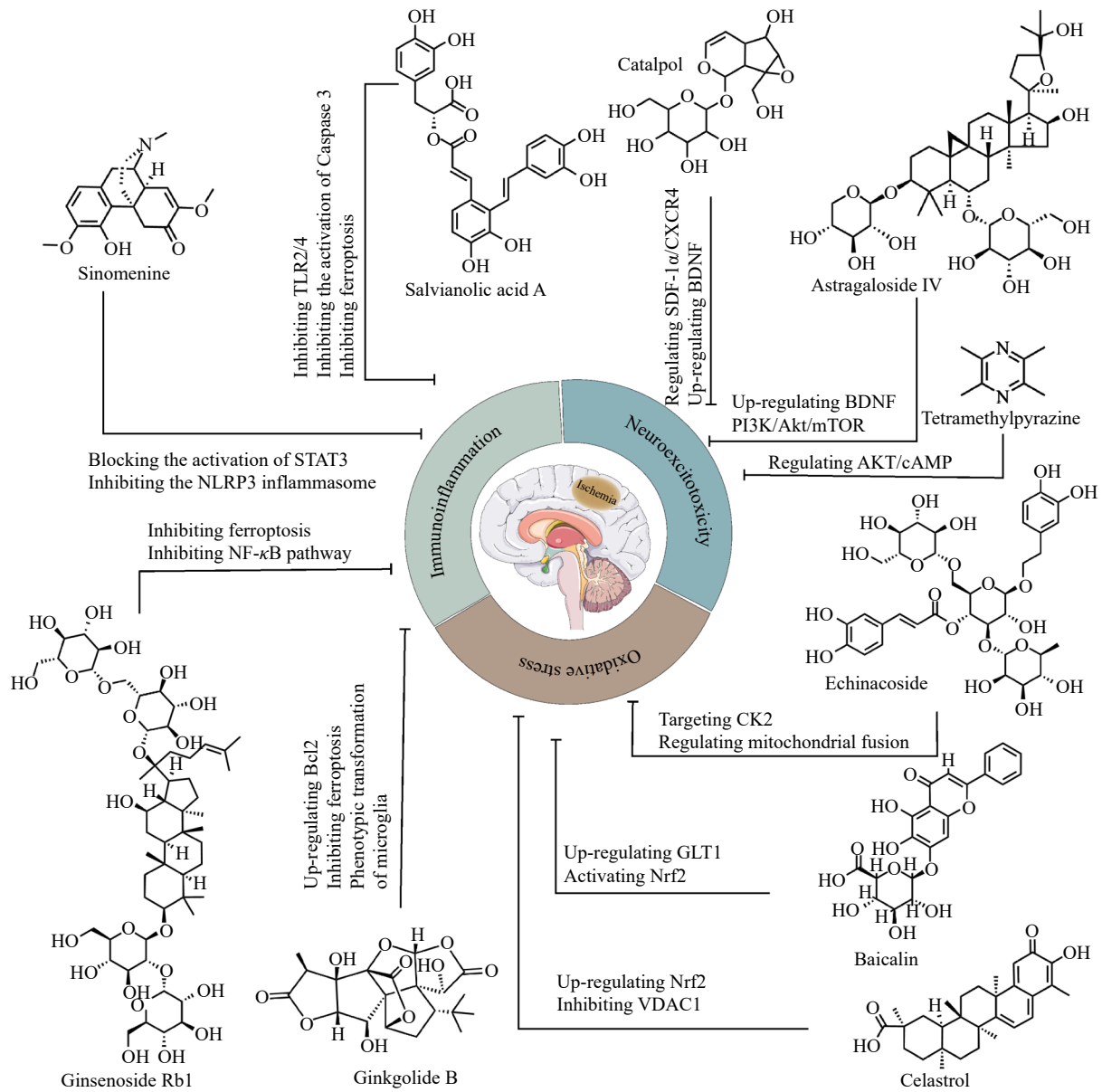


Fig. 2 The pathological mechanism of stroke and the chemical structure formula of natural medicines. VDAC1: voltage-dependent anion-selective channel protein 1; TLR2/4: toll-like receptor 2/4; SDF-1 α : stromal cell-derived factor 1 alpha; CXCR4: CXC chemokine receptor 4; PI3K: phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; Akt: protein kinase B; mTOR: mammalian target of rapamycin; cAMP: cyclic adenosine monophosphate; NF- κ B: nuclear factor kappa B; GLT1: glutamate transporter 1; Nrf2: nuclear factor-erythroid factor 2; Bcl2: B-cell lymphoma-2; CK2: casein kinase 2.

ery and reducing histological damage in ischemic models⁶¹. Mitochondrial dysfunction, a major contributor to neuronal death²⁶, is closely associated with ischemic injury. AST has also been shown to protect mitochondrial function by preserving hexokinase II (HK-II), which prevents the opening of the mPTP⁶², thereby promoting neuronal survival⁶³.

4.1.2. Tetramethylpyrazine (TMP)

TMP, an alkaloid derived from *Ligusticum chuanxiong* Hort⁶⁴, has been widely studied for its neuroprotective effects in ischemic stroke. TMP exerts its effects through antioxidant activity⁶⁵, anti-inflammatory actions⁶⁶, and preservation of the BBB integrity⁶⁷. However, TMP has limited clinical application due to its rapid metabolism, short half-life, and poor bioavailability^{64,68}. To address these limitations, Nie et al. synthesized a derivative, tetramethylpyrazine nitron (TBN), with improved pharmacokinetics⁶⁹. Guo et al. demonstrated that TBN enhances BDNF expression by activating the AKT/cAMP response element-binding (CREB) pathway, leading to reduced cerebral infarct volume, im-

proved neurogenesis, and enhanced functional recovery in MCAO models⁷⁰.

4.1.3. Catalpol

Catalpol, an iridoid glucoside isolated from *Rehmannia glutinosa*, exhibits potent neuroprotective properties⁷¹. One of its key mechanisms of action involves the chemokine stromal cell-derived factor 1 alpha (SDF-1 α) and its receptors, CXCR4 and CXCR7, which play essential roles in brain homeostasis and neurogenesis⁷². Zhang et al. found that catalpol promotes neurogenesis and angiogenesis through the SDF-1 α /CXCR4 pathway, contributing to neuroprotection⁷³. Moreover, catalpol increases brain levels of BDNF and enhances the formation of new neurons, further supporting neural recovery after stroke⁷⁴.

4.2. Research of natural medicines in antioxidation

Oxidative stress plays a central role in the pathogenesis of ischemic stroke⁷⁵. Vascular recanalization beyond the time win-

dow produces large quantities of ROS and RNS. Overproduction of ROS and RNS initiates a cascade of cellular signaling events that compromise the integrity of the BBB, promote brain edema, trigger inflammatory responses, and induce neuronal death. Previous studies have shown that ROS levels increase significantly after cerebral I/R in experimental models, and inhibiting ROS production can effectively reduce cerebral infarct volume^{76, 77}. Thus, targeting signaling pathways involved in ROS/RNS production represents a promising therapeutic approach for ischemic stroke. This section highlights several key natural antioxidant compounds that have demonstrated neuroprotective effects by mitigating ROS/RNS-mediated injury in ischemic stroke.

4.2.1. Baicalin

Baicalin, a natural flavonoid extracted from the root of *Scutellaria baicalensis*, has been extensively studied for its wide range of pharmacological properties, including antitumor⁷⁸, antiviral⁷⁹, anti-inflammatory⁸⁰, antioxidant⁸¹ effects. Baicalin has demonstrated the ability to protect the BBB and reduce ischemic brain injury⁸². During cerebral I/R, the reverse transmission in the mitochondrial electron transport chain leads to succinate dehydrogenase activation, which in turn results in excessive ROS production. ROS accumulation degrades glutamine synthetase in astrocytes, a key enzyme involved in glutamate metabolism. Song et al. confirmed that baicalin significantly reduces oxidative stress and preserves glutamine synthetase levels, thereby protecting neurons from I/R and the subsequent loss of glutaminase^{83, 84}. Termination of glutamate neurotransmission via glutamate transporter 1 (GLT1) is essential to maintain low glutamate concentration in extracellular space and avoid excitatory toxicity⁸⁵. Zhou et al. confirmed that baicalin upregulates GLT1 via activation of the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway, thus protecting neonatal rat brains from hypoxic-ischemic injury⁸⁶. Moreover, baicalin activates the Nrf2 signaling pathway, which is key in modulating the cellular antioxidant response. Upon oxidative stress, Nrf2 dissociates from Keap1 and translocates to the nucleus, where it binds to antioxidant response elements (AREs) to promote the transcription of antioxidant genes⁸⁷. Wang et al. reported that baicalin alleviates lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced BBB damage by activating the Nrf2-mediated antioxidant pathway, further emphasizing its neuroprotective potential⁸⁸.

4.2.2. Celastrol (Cel)

Cel is a triterpenoid extracted from *Tripterygium wilfordii*⁸⁹. Hong et al. identified that Cel inhibits the degradation of Nrf2 by targeting the E3 ubiquitin ligase NEDD4, thereby enhancing antioxidant defenses, and reducing ROS production in astrocytes during ischemia⁹⁰. This regulation of Nrf2 stabilizes the cellular antioxidant response, reducing oxidative damage in the ischemic brain. Li et al. further revealed that Cel exerts its neuroprotective effects by interacting with the cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP)/exchange protein activated by the cAMP (EPAC-1) signaling pathway. Cel binds to EPAC-1, preventing its interaction with the voltage-dependent anion-selective channel protein 1 (VDAC1), which in turn blocks the opening of the mPTP. Interestingly, the neuroprotective effects of Cel were diminished in neuron-specific EPAC1 knockout models⁹¹, which preserves mitochondrial function and mitigates ischemia-induced neuronal death.

4.2.3. Echinacoside (ECH)

ECH, a natural phenylethanoid glycoside, was first isolated from *Echinacea angustifolia* DC.⁹² Mitochondria are the primary energy-producing organelles in cells. The regulation of mitochondrial homeostasis is thus of great significance for mitigating ischemic injury^{26, 93}. Mitochondria are highly dynamic organelles that undergo continuous cycles of fusion and fission, which are

essential for adapting to changes in the physiological environment. Mitochondrial fusion helps restore mitochondrial function by combining the components of damaged mitochondria⁹⁴. Zeng et al. demonstrated that ECH promotes mitochondrial fusion in PC12 cells and protects against oxygen-glucose deprivation/re-oxygenation (OGD/R)-induced injury. In a mouse model of MCAO, ECH was found to enhance mitochondrial fusion and reduce brain injury by targeting the casein kinase 2 α (CK2 α) subunit, thereby improving mitochondrial function⁹⁵. Mechanistically, ECH recruits basic transcription factor 3 (BTF3) to form a CK2 α /BTF3 complex, which promotes the nuclear translocation of β -catenin. This activates TCF/LEF transcription factors, leading to the up-regulation of mitofusin-2 (Mfn2), a key gene involved in mitochondrial fusion⁹⁵.

4.3. Research of natural medicines in anti-inflammation

Neuroinflammation plays a central role throughout the progression of ischemic stroke and is triggered by the release of DAMPs from injured or necrotic cells³³. These DAMPs activate various immune cells, which release inflammatory mediators that disrupt the integrity of the BBB, leading to brain edema and exacerbating neuronal injury⁹⁶. Inflammatory processes are mediated by multiple signaling pathways, such as the TLR/NF- κ B signaling pathway⁹⁷. Activation of receptors such as tumor necrosis factor receptors (TNFR), interleukin-1 receptors (IL-1R), and TLRs triggers a signaling cascade that ultimately activates I κ B kinase- β (IKK β), a key step in the classical NF- κ B pathway²⁴. Since NF- κ B is active in numerous immune cells, targeting this pathway represents a promising therapeutic strategy to modulate neuroinflammation in ischemic stroke.

4.3.1. Salviaolic acid A (SAA)

SAA is an active ingredient extracted from *Salviae miltiorrhizae* Bunge (Danshen). Ling et al. demonstrated that SAA attenuates cerebral edema and reduces ischemic injury in a rat model of I/R by inhibiting the TLR2/4-mediated inflammatory response, leading to decreased levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β) and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α)⁹⁸. In addition to its anti-inflammatory actions, SAA exerts neuroprotective effects through other mechanisms, including the regulation of Bcl-2 and the inhibition of caspase-3 activation. Yang et al. found that SAA improved cognitive function and reduced hippocampal damage in a transient middle cerebral artery occlusion (tMCAO) rat model, highlighting its broader neuroprotective role⁹⁹. Furthermore, SAA inhibits ferroptosis by activating the Akt/GSK-3 β /Nrf2 signaling pathway, as shown by Shi et al.¹⁰⁰. These findings suggest that SAA's multi-target effects may offer significant neuroprotective benefits in ischemic stroke.

4.3.2. Sinomenine (SN)

SN is an alkaloid extracted from *Sinomenium acutum*. The signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) pathway plays a critical role in regulating inflammation, and its activation is associated with increased expression of cytokines such as TNF- α and IL-6^{101, 102}. Qiu et al. demonstrated that SN inhibits the activation of STAT3 in primary astrocytes, which in turn reduces the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and alleviates cerebral infarction and neuronal apoptosis in a mouse model of MCAO¹⁰³. Studies have shown that Ca²⁺-permeable acid-sensing ion channels (ASIC) are proton-gated volt-independent ion channels prevalent in the nervous system¹⁰⁴, which can directly induce Ca²⁺ entry and provide additional Ca²⁺ entry pathways in ischemic neurons¹⁰⁵. Wu et al. confirmed that the pharmacological characteristics of SN involved in neuroprotection may include the co-inhibition of ASIC1a and L-type calcium channels¹⁰⁵. Inflammasome plays a key role in the initiation and development of

inflammation in the CNS, specifically NLRP3. Activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome promotes the release of several pro-inflammatory cytokines, including IL-1 β , IL-18, and TNF- α ¹⁰⁶. Qiu et al. confirmed that SN inhibited the NLRP3 inflammasome through the AMPK pathway and played a neuroprotective role in ischemic stroke¹⁰⁷.

4.3.3. Ginsenoside Rb1 (GsRb1)

GsRb1, a prominent bioactive component isolated from *Panax ginseng* root, has been widely recognized for its pharmacological properties^{8, 108}. Astrocytes are the most abundant glial cells that protect and support neuronal function. GsRb1 inhibits NADH dehydrogenase in mitochondrial complex I in astrocytes to block reverse electron transport-derived ROS produced by complex I, thereby exerting a neuroprotective effect¹⁰⁹. Ferroptosis, a form of regulated cell death, is a key driver of neuronal death in ischemic stroke. Targeting the molecular regulators of ferroptosis is conducive to neuronal survival¹¹⁰. Zhang et al. proved that GsRb1, like ferroptosis inhibitors, significantly restores antioxidant levels and inhibits ischemic brain damage in neonatal rats subjected to hypoxic-ischemic injury. Additionally, GsRb1 inhibits lipid oxidation and decreases inflammatory markers in the oxygen-glucose deprivation (OGD) model of PC12 cells *in vitro*¹¹¹. The PI3K/Akt signaling pathway regulates inflammation, oxidative stress, apoptosis, autophagy, and vascular endothelial homeostasis after cerebral ischemia¹¹². Liu et al. confirmed that GsRb1 inhibits amyloid-induced neuronal apoptosis and significantly increases neurite outgrowth in hippocampal neurons by upregulating the expressions of phosphorylated Akt and phosphorylated extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2). These effects are eliminated by inhibitors of the signaling proteins Akt and MEK, API-2, and PD98059¹¹³. Mitochondria play a key role in a variety of cellular processes, including ATP production, Ca²⁺ regulation, ROS production, and apoptosis. In ischemic stroke, the reduction in blood supply leads to mitochondrial dysfunction. The selective removal of damaged mitochondria, or mitophagy, is crucial for maintaining neuronal viability¹¹⁴. Li et al. reported that GsRb1 inhibits astrocyte pyroptosis by regulating mitochondrial phagocytosis and the NF- κ B pathway, thereby maintaining neuro-homeostasis by inhibiting inflammation and enhancing synaptic plasticity¹¹⁵.

4.3.4. Ginkgolide B (GB)

GB is a major bioactive component derived from *Ginkgo biloba*⁴⁷. Pre-clinical studies by Hui et al. have demonstrated that GB has a protective effect¹¹⁶. Ongoing clinical trials are investigating the efficacy and safety of GB-based formulations in the prevention and treatment of cerebrovascular diseases, such as ischemic stroke¹¹⁷. Cao et al. confirmed that GB prevents neuronal loss and significantly reduces apoptosis 72 h after MCAO in rats by up-regulating the expression of B-cell lymphoma-2 (Bcl2) and phosphorylated AMPK¹¹⁸. Nuclear receptor coactivator 4 (NCOA4) facilitates ferritinophagy, the autophagic degradation of ferritin through lysosomes, which promotes ferroptosis¹¹⁹. Yang et al. confirmed that GB can inhibit ferroptosis by disrupting the NCOA4-ferritin heavy chain 1 (FTH1) interaction, thus protecting against I/R injury¹²⁰. Additionally, Shu et al. demonstrated that GB promotes the shift of microglia/macrophages from the pro-inflammatory M1 phenotype to the anti-inflammatory M2 phenotype, so as to alleviate cerebral ischemic injury in mice and improve the neurological outcomes of mice¹²¹.

5. Conclusion

AS remains a leading cause of mortality and long-term disability, primarily due to its sudden onset and the challenges associated with timely medical intervention. Delays in hospital admis-

sion often prevent early thrombolytic therapy, worsening neurological damage and leading to poor prognosis. Chinese herbal medicine, with a long history in the prevention and treatment of ischemic stroke, offers significant potential for therapeutic development. Numerous studies have demonstrated that bioactive compounds and extracts from Chinese herbal medicine can protect against ischemic injury by preserving BBB integrity, reducing excitotoxicity, enhancing antioxidant and anti-inflammatory responses, and promoting neurogenesis and angiogenesis. However, several limitations that restrict the clinical application of natural products in stroke treatment: 1) One of the primary obstacles is the difficulty of many natural compounds in crossing the BBB. To address this, drug delivery systems such as liposomes, nanoparticles, and structural modifications of compounds have been explored. For instance, 9-aminoacridine (9-AA), a compound shown to alleviate ischemic brain injury in tMCAO and reperfusion rats, has limited bioavailability due to poor water solubility. The development of 9-AA-loaded liposomes (9-AA/L) significantly improved BBB permeability and brain tissue targeting, reducing infarct size and enhancing neurological recovery in a rat model of tMCAO¹²². 2) Despite promising preclinical findings, the molecular mechanism of action of natural products is not clear. Elucidating the structure-activity relationships (SARs) and precise mechanisms of action is essential for optimizing their therapeutic applications. The development of network pharmacology¹²³, RNA sequencing¹²⁴, proteomics, and bio-orthogonal chemistry¹²⁵ has significantly advanced the discovery of natural drug targets. For example, the SAR of the benzoxepane scaffold, a common motif in bioactive natural products, led to the identification of pyruvate kinase M2 (PKM2) as a key anti-inflammatory target through photoaffinity labeling (PAL)¹²⁶. 3) Chinese herbal medicines are often characterized by their multi-component, multi-target nature¹²⁷, which can both enhance their therapeutic potential and introduce challenges. A deeper understanding of SARs is necessary to refine these compounds for clinical use, minimizing side effects, and improving safety profiles. 4) Most preclinical studies on stroke employ young, healthy animal models, while the majority of clinical stroke patients are middle-aged or elderly and often have comorbidities such as hypertension and diabetes. These conditions can significantly alter drug efficacy, leading to a disparity between preclinical findings and clinical outcomes. Developing animal models that better mimic the clinical population is crucial for accurately assessing the efficacy of natural products in stroke therapy. This refinement in preclinical research is essential for advancing drug development and improving the translation of natural products from bench to bedside.

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Declaration of competing interest

These authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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