Anti-Inflammatory Effect of Ethanolic Leaves Extract of Sansevieria trifasciata and Sansevieria liberica in Swiss Mice, (Mus musculus)

Diligent Oboho*¹, Essien Asuquo², Affiong Edeke³, Akwaowo Nelson⁴, Sulaimon Aina⁶, Ebere Ogbuke⁵ and Finnian Udoukpo²

> ¹Department of Animal and Environmental Biology, University of Uyo, Akwa Ibom State Nigeria.

²Department of Botany and Ecological Studies, University of Uyo Akwa Ibom State Nigeria.

> ³Department of Chemical Sciences, Topfaith University Mkpatak, Akwa Ibom State Nigeria.

⁴Department of Animal Sciences, Federal Polytechnic Ugep, Cross River State Nigeria.

⁵Department of Biological Sciences, Godfrey Okoye University, Enugu State Nigeria.

⁶Department of Zoology and Environmental Biology Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria.

Email: diligentoboho@uniuyo.edu.ng

Abstract

The aim of this study was to examine the anti-inflammatory properties of Sansevieria trifasciata, also known as mother-in-law tongue, and Sansevieria liberica ethanolic leaf extract on mice, (Mus musculus). In a

^{*}Author for Correspondence D. Oboho et al., DUJOPAS 10 (1b): 303-311, 2024

scientific setting, plant powder was extracted using 70% ethanol over a 72-hour period. Using the test animals, the extracts' median lethal dose (LD₅₀) was established. The soluble portion of the extracts was given at working doses of 10, 20, and 30% of the LD₅₀ to the corresponding experimental animal groups (i.e low, middle, and high dosages accordingly). Findings from Sansevieria trifasciata and S. liberica's phytochemical screening indicated the existence of secondary metabolites like terpenes, alkaloids, cardiac glycosides, and tannins. When given intraperitoneally, the LD₅₀ of S. trifasciata and S. liberica were 387.30 and 353.55 mg/kg, respectively. The plant extracts' soluble fraction was given intraperitoneally (i.p.) by injection as well as orally. The phlogistic egg-albumin-induced inflammation significantly decreased (p<0.05) according to the results. However, the development of a strong anti-inflammatory drug with low toxicity and an improved therapeutic index may come from the isolation of these bioactive components.

Keywords: Anti-inflammatory, phytochemicals, mice, Sansevieria trifasciata, Sansevieria liberica

INTRODUCTION

Living tissues use the inflammatory process as a defense mechanism in response to injury, infections, stress, poisonous chemicals, and cell damage (Yoo *et al.*, 2021). According to Cheng *et al.* (2018), it is a complicated reaction that resolves stimuli and starts the healing process. Chronic inflammation may progress and lead to chronic inflammatory illnesses if acute inflammation is not managed (Cheng *et al.*, 2018, Fang *et al.*, 2014).

Steroids, opioids, and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are recognized and commonly used to treat disorders linked to inflammation or to control symptoms of inflammation (Slater *et al.*, 2010). Nevertheless, because of their negative effects, doctors continue to use them cautiously and with prudence. Millions of individuals worldwide suffer from various diseases, with pain and inflammation being among their most prevalent symptoms (Raghav *et al.* 2006, Rang *et al.* 2011).

Traditional medicine practitioners, mostly in developing countries like Nigeria, have employed herbal medications to treat a variety of diseases, including pain and inflammation, even though there are efficient orthodox pharmaceuticals used to alleviate similar manifestations (Martini-Bettolo, 1980). It is deeply ingrained in Nigerian culture for the people to rely on traditional healers and plant remedies, particularly in rural areas, to meet their medical needs.

Sansevieria trifasciata and S. liberica are two plants that are used by practitioners of traditional medicine to cure a variety of diseases. According to Acevedo-Rodriguez and Stong (2005), these plants are native to tropical Africa. They are succulent plants with sturdy creeping rhizomes, leaves that are either one or two together, linear oblanceolate, stiffly erect, 30-100×3 cm, and transversely banded with contrasting green and whitish zones (Acevedo-Rodriguez and Stong (2005). Because it has been discovered that this species is among the most effective at purifying the air by eliminating toxins like formaldehyde that are present in homes and offices, it is frequently used as an indoor pit plant and is highly valued in the nursery industry (Wolverton *et al.*, 1989). According to Osabohien and Egboh (2008) and Adeyemi *et al.* (2009), traditional medicine in Nigeria uses the leaves and roots of *S. liberica* to cure a variety of conditions, including asthma, gonorrhea, dermatitis, abdominal aches, colic, diarrhea, piles, sexual weakness, and foot sores.

Plants and their extracts have attracted a lot of interest in the last century as a potential new source for anti-inflammatory medicinal uses that are not invasive (Pountos *et al.*, 2011, Otimenyin, 2018). There are three phases to the progression of edema: the initial phase, when histamine and serotonin are released; the plateau period, when kinin and other substances sustain edema; and the accelerating phase, when prostaglandin release occurs (Amri *et al.*, 2018). More research should be carried out on their phytochemical components and pharmacological properties.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plants Collection *Sansevieria trifasciata* and *S. liberica* fresh leaves were obtained from Itak village (5°12'37"N7'47'38"E) in Ikono Local Government Area of Akwa Ibom State. The taxonomist (Professor Margaret Bassey) at the University of Uyo's Department of Botany and Ecological Studies verified the authenticity of the leaves. For future reference, voucher specimens with the numbers UUH/3788 and UUH/3789 were placed in their herbarium.

Experimental Animals

Fifty six (56) swiss mice (14-34g) of both sexes were obtained and kept in the Animal House of Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, Faculty of Pharmacy of University of Uyo. The animals were housed in standard wooden cages, acclimatized for the period of 28 days (four weeks). The mice were maintained on standard pellet feed, water at libitum, good light conditions and ambient temperature prior to the experiment.

Plant powder and Extract preparation

Following collecting, the plant leaves were cleaned, cut into pieces, and allowed to air dry until they reached a consistent weight. The dried plants were ground into a fine powder using a powerdriven blender (Braum Multiquick Immersion Hand Blender, B White Mixer MR 5550CA, Germany), weighed (187.3g and 283.3g, respectively), and stored in an airtight container until needed. Next, following the guidelines provided by Santana *et al.*, 2013; Mukhtar and Huda, 2005; Fatope *et al.*, 1999, the ethanolic leaf extracts were made. This required soaking 50 g of the powder in 50% ethanol at room temperature for a duration of 48 to 72 hours. To obtain the extracts, filtrate was then evaporated using a rotatory evaporator.

Determination of LD₅₀

After injecting carrageenan, the hind paw's diameter was assessed at an hour of 1.5, 3 and 6. Paw edema was assumed to be indicated by increases in the right hind paw's linear circumference. The difference between the injected right hind paw's linear circumference at time t (Ct) and zero time (Co) was used to measure the percentage increase in edema (%IO).

$$\% IO = Ct - Co/Co \times 100$$

Using the Amri *et al.* (2018) technique, the percentage suppression of the inflammatory response caused by carrageenan was computed:

% inhibition =
$$IOc - IOt/IOc \times 100$$

Where IOc and IOt represent the mean increase in paw circumference in control and treated groups, respectively.

Using the approach of Lorke (1983), the extract was injected interperitoneally (i.p.) into the animal. The animals were divided into four groups, each with three animals, and given varied

doses of 1 g of the extracts, which was weighed and diluted in 10mL of distilled water. The extracts were given to the animals at a dosage of 3000 and 2000 mg/kg, respectively, while they were housed in separate cages. After the first day's dosage, the animals were observed for symptoms of acute toxicity, and all of them perished within 24 hours. Toxins were administered to two (2) groups of four (4) mice each, corresponding to 800 and 500 mg/kg of extract, respectively. Within 24 hours after the second day's injection, they were all dead, and they were all being watched for signs of acute toxicity. Thirdly, three (3) members of each of the four (4) groups were given injections of 300 and 100 mg/kg. All of the animals did, however, survive after being monitored for indicators of acute toxicity and mortality within a day, which was calculated from 300 and 500 mg/kg for each plant, respectively.

Experimental Design

The work was designed to have about 8 groups of 3 mice in each group, with a total of twentyfour (24) mice used for the experiment. However, group I served as negative control for both plants, group II served as positive group for both the standard drug (Ibuprofen 40mg given at 0.1ml orally), group III was for low doses for two different groups of the different extract, group IV was for middle doses for different groups of different extract while group V was for high doses for different groups of the different extracts.

Induction of Inflammation

Egg albumin was the phlogistic substance employed in this investigation (Akah and Nwaniba, 1924). This test involved twenty-four (24) albino mice weighing between 14 and 40 grams. Eight groups, each consisting of three mice, were created from the mice. The animals were dehydrated and denied nourishment for a full day prior to and throughout the experiment. To cause the inflammation, 0.1 milliliters of fresh, undiluted egg albumin were utilized.

The increase in the hind paw's linear circumference following a sub-planter injection of fresh egg albumin was used to quantify acute inflammation. The difference in paw circumference between the control group and the group that received the phlogistic drug between 0.5 and 5 hours later was used to measure edema.

Group I served as negative control group of which nothing was given
Group II was a positive control with the administration of ibuprofen 40 mg/m standard drug
Group III had *S. trifasciata* extract was given the low dose of 39 mg/kg
Group IV had *S. trifasciata* extract given at middle dose of 77 mg/kg
Group V had *S. trifasciata* extract given at high dose of 116 mg/kg
Group VI had *S. liberica* extract given at low dose of 35 mg/kg
Group VII had *S. liberica* extract given at the middle dose of 71 mg/kg
Group VII had *S. liberica* extract given at high dose of 106 mg/kg.
After the oral medication delivery and extraction, the animals in each group were given 0.1 ml of fresh, undiluted egg albumin (i.p.) thirty minutes later. Using a stopwatch and digital Veneer calipers, the linear circumference of the paw was measured every hour for five hours.

Statistical Analysis

The mean ±SEM and significant difference between the control and treated groups were reported in the results. Two-way analysis of variance, or ANOVA, was used to analyze the variations

amongst the groups. The Least Significant Difference (LSD) was used to differentiate the mean differences. A significance threshold of p=0.05 was applied to the likelihood.

RESULTS

Phytochemical screening of the ethanolic extract of *S. trifasciata* and *S. liberica* showed the presence of flavonoids, alkaloids, Tannins, phenols, streroids, cardiac glycosides, and saponins which might be responsible for the distinct anti-inflammatory activities (Table 1).

Table 1: Qualitative	e phytochemical	analysis of	the differe	ent extracts	of S .	trifasciata	and S
liberica							
	0 . 10 . 1		0 111 1				

	S. trifasciata	S. liberica	Test		
Anthraqunones	+	-	Borntrager		
Steroids/terpenes	+	+	Liebermann-Burchard		
Cardiac glycoside	+	+	Keller-kiliani,		
			Salkowsiki		
Saponin	+	+	Frothing, Fehling		
			solution, Na ₂ Co ₃		
Tannins and Phenols	+	+	Ferric Chloride, Pb		
			acetate		
Flavonoids	+	-	NaOH, Mayer, Wagner		
Alkaloids	+	+	NaOH, Shinda		
Phlobatannins	+	-	Dragendoff, Mayer,		
			Wagner		

+= Present - = Absent

Table 2: Strength of the different extracts at LD_{50} of 387.3 and 353.55mg/kg and the number of Animal

Extract's strength (mg/kg)		
	Animal	
	S. trifasciata	S. liberica
3000mg/kg	3/3	3/3
2000mg/kg	3/3	3/3
800mg/kg	3/3	3/3
500mg/kg	0/3	0/3
300mg/kg	0/3	0/3
100mg/kg	0/3	0/3

Tables 3 and 4 illustrate the amount of paw edema in each treatment group. The findings demonstrate that giving mice 3000 mg/kg of extract considerably reduced the amount of paw edema for 30 minutes, 60 minutes, 180 minutes, 240 minutes, and 300 minutes after treatment. Paw edema was significantly controlled by extracts applied between 30 and 60 minutes, and at 30 and 60 minutes, paw edema was inhibited by 100 mg/kg. The extract's effect on hind paw edema caused by egg albumin was comparable to that of ibuprofen, with the least amount of action observed at 100 mg/kg.

Research on the anti-inflammatory properties of *S. trifasciata* and *S. liberica* in hind paws induced by egg albumin Oedema in mice showed that these plants had anti-inflammatory qualities by decreasing hind paw oedema in a dose-dependent way; yet, these plants take longer to start

working than ibuprofen. This study represents the acute anti-inflammatory effects of the *S. trifasciata and S. liberica* extract in which innate immune cells form the first line of immune defense and regulate activation of adaptive immune responses (Jung *et al.*, 2020). As an acute inflammation turns chronic, the majority of its characteristics worsen (Hong *et al.*, 2020). These include diapedesis, the movement of neutrophils past the capillary wall into the infected tissue, and vasodilation, the expansion of blood vessels that results in an increase in blood flow. As a common inflammatory model for increasing capillary permeability and leukocyte infiltration, hind paw edema partially implicated substance.

Accordingly, the hypothesized mechanism of *S. trifasciata* and *S. liberica* may decrease the release of substance P or counteract its activity in the inflammatory process. Bradykinin and substance P are released during the first phase, which is also referred to as the neurogenic phase. Vasodilation and plasma exudation were brought on by the release of nitric oxide, which was triggered by substance P, a neurotransmitter in the central nervous system (Mainka *et al.*, 2021). Thus, neurogenic inflammation may be the subject of *S. trifasciata* and *S. liberica's* anti-inflammatory qualities.

Table 3: Effect of S. trifasciata leaf extract on egg-albumin induced hind paw Oedema in Mice

	Water	Standard drug	Low dose	Middle dose	High dose
Initial egg	1.893 ^a ±0.0554	1.937 ^a ±0.0481	1.970°±0.0058	1.987°±0.039	2.0833a±0.0167
albumin	0.893 ^b ±0.0556	0.088b±0.0061	0.073a±3.3333	0.019a±0.0053	0.028a±0.0041
30 mins	2.88°±0.179	3.227°±0.1073	3.147 ^b ±0.0153	3.187 ^b ±0.1278	3.420 ^b ±0.0700
60 mins	2.5067d±0.1297	3.070°±0.0513	2.797 ^b ±0.0753	2.903b±0.0067	3.1266 ^a ±0.1683
120 mins	2.5067°±0.0433	2.817 ^a ±0.1468	2.620 ^b ±0.0476	2.683ª±0.0353	2.8533a±0.1842
180 mins	2.703°±0.0617	2.567 ^b ±0.1301	2.580 ^b ±0.0757	2.693 ^a ±0.0481	2.7167 ^a ±0.0996
240 mins	2.637°±0.0584	2.470 ^b ±0.0874	2.510 ^b ±0.0873	2.537 ^a ±0.0263	2.7067 ^a ±0.0768
300 mins	22.61 ^d ±0.0472	2.337 ^b ±0.0328	2.463 ^b ±0.0088	2.440°±0.0058	2.5067 ^a ±0.0811

Table 4: Effect of S.	<i>liberica</i> leaf extract on	egg-albumin induced	hind par	w Oedema in Mice
I WOIC IN LITCOU OF ON	meet fear extract on		i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	

		88			
	Water	Standard drug	Low dose	Middle dose	High dose
Initial egg	1.893 ^a ±0.0554	1.937 ^a ±0.0481	1.184 ^a ±0.1322	2.050 ^a ±0.0289	1.997 ^a ±0.041
albumin	0.893 ^b ±0.0556	0.088b±0.0061	0.006a±0.0007	0.018a±0.0023	0.025a±0.003
30 mins	2.88c±0.179	3.227 ^a ±0.1073	2.833a±0.0731	3.233a±0.0384	3.034b±0.038
60 mins	2.5067a±0.1297	3.070 ^b ±0.0513	2.793 ^a ±0.151	2.943a±0.1753	3.017 ^a ±0.114
120 mins	2.5067a±0.0433	2.817°±0.1468	2.533 ^a ±0.0353	2.730 ^a ±0.1572	2.780 ^b ±0.117
180 mins	2.703 ^a ±0.0617	2.567°±0.1301	2.660 ^a ±0.0199	2.703 ^a ±0.1074	2.603 ^b ±0.129
240 mins	2.637 ^a ±0.0584	0.0872c±2.463	2.463 ^b ±0.0219	2.557 ^b ±0.1198	2.657 ^b ±0.135
300 mins	22.61ª±0.0472	2.337°±0.033	2.460 ^b ±0.0500	2.477 ^b ±0.0219	2.390c±0.061

DISCUSSION

The extract's unique anti-inflammatory properties may be attributed to the phytochemicals found in *S. trifasciata* and *S. liberica*, which include cardiac glycosides, flavonoids, triterpenoids, alkaloids, phenols, and saponins (Neekhra *et al.*, 2017). According to Javan *et al.* (2000), flavonoids are helpful in acute inflammation because they work by preventing the release of arachidonic acid, which is essential for the synthesis of prostaglandin (Todera *et al.*, 1994; Owolabi *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, flavonoids have antioxidative activity through the inhibition of cyclooxygenase and lipoxygenase enzymes, which lowers prostaglandin and leukotriene levels, disruption of the arachidonic acid pathway, and decrease in capillary permeability (Tordera *et al.*, 1994). According to Lucetti *et al.* (2010) and Schmid *et al.* (2009), terpenoids may reduce the expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) in order to have their anti-inflammatory effects. Inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and cyclooxygenase (COX)-2 mRNA expression were both lowered in paw 264.7 cells and paw edema was considerably dose-dependently suppressed by *Streblus asper* (SA), a putative anti-inflammatory drug (Sripanidkulchai *et al.*, 2009). This study's findings about the impact of phenols on paw edema are consistent with those of earlier research by Jagan *et al.* (2000), Arts and Hollman (2005), and Singsai *et al.* (2020), which found that phenolic compounds inhibit the inflammatory process by blocking the lipoxygenase enzyme, which is involved in the conversion of arachidonic acid to inflammatory mediators and in the metabolism of arachidonic acid.

In their findings on the anti-inflammatory and associated activities of Syzygium cuminii seed extract, Nag-Chaudhuri et al. (1999) proposed that bradykinin, histamine, prostaglandin E1, and serotonin mediate carrageenan-induced rat paw oedema. It has been demonstrated that indomethacin inhibits cyclooxygenase, which in turn inhibits prostaglandin synthesis, which is how it exerts its anti-inflammatory effects (Rang et al. 2011). Additionally, it has been demonstrated that nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory medications may oppose mediators such capsaicin, bradykinin, and serotonin-some of which have been linked to paw oedema caused by carrageenan (Collier et al 1968). It is not unexpected that indomethacin reduced the rat right hind paw oedema caused by carrageenan in this investigation. Additionally, S. trifasciata reduced the oedema in the rat right hind paw caused by carrageenan, which may indicate that the plant species is likely influencing a variety of mediators to create its anti-inflammatory action. According to Gu et. al (2020) and Bruneton (1999), saponins have anti-inflammatory and analgesic effects. Thus, it's probable that saponins are also involved in S. trifasciata's antinociceptive and antiinflammatory properties in this investigation. The findings of this investigation are consistent with those of studies conducted by Muthusamy et al. (2010) and Nivedhitha et al. (2010), which discovered that an ethanolic extract of D. fastuosa roots exhibited anti-inflammatory activity when used as a standard medication to treat paw edema in rats caused by carrageenan.

CONCLUSION

Results generated in this study indicated that, the two plant species assessed have the potential to alleviate or control discomforting ailments like headache, earache, toothache, and inflammation. However, in order to better understand the anti-inflammatory mechanism of action of *S. trifasciata* and *S. liberica*, additional research is necessary.

REFERENCES

- Acevedo-Rodriguez, P. and Strong, M. T. (2005). Monocots and Gymnosperms of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands. Contribution from the United States National Herbarium. <u>http://botany.si.edu/Antilles/Prflora/Monocots</u>
- Adeyemi, O. O., Akindele, A. J. and Ogunleye, E. A. (2009). Evaluation of the Antidiarrhoeal effect of *Sanseviera liberica* Gerome and Labroy (Agavaceae) Roots; extract. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 123(3): 459-465
- Ahmadiani, A., Hosseiny, J. and Semnanian S. (2000). Antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory effects of *Elaeagnus angustifolia* fruit extract. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 72 (1-2): 287–292
- Amabeoku, G. J. and Kabatende, J. (2012). Actinocieptive and Anti-inflammatory Activities of leaf Methanol Extract of Cotyledon orbiculata L. (Crussulaceae). Advances in Pharmacological Sciences 1-6 doi:10.1155/2012/862625

- Amri, O., Zekhnini, A., Bouhaimi, A., Tahrouch, S. and Hatimi, A. (2018). Anti-inflammatory Activity of Methanolic Extract from *Pistacia atlantica* Desf. Leaves. *Journal of Pharmacognosy*, 10(1): 71-76
- Arts, I. C. and Hollman, P. C. (2005). Polyphenols and disease risk in epidemiologic studies. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 81(1): 317S–325S.
- Bruneton, J. (1999). *Pharmacognosy: Phytochemistry, Medicinal Plants*, Intercept, Paris, France, 2nd edition.
- Cheng, L., Deng, H. and Cui, H. (2018). Inflammatory responses and inflammation-associated diseases in organs," *Oncotarget*, 9 (6): 7204–7218.
- Collier, H. O., Dinneen, L. C., Johnson, C. A. and Schneider, C. (1968). The abdominal constriction response and its suppression by analgesic drugs in the mouse," *British Journal of Pharmacology*, 32(2):295–310.
- Fang, G., DelaFuente, M., 'Uwajit, P., 'Uwajit, C. and Hermoso, M. A. (2014). Chronic inflammation and cytokines in the tumor microenvironment," *Journal of Immunology Research*, Article ID 149185, 19
- Gu, I., Brownmiller, C., Stebbins, N. B., Mauromoustakos, A., Howard, L. and Lee, S. O. (2020). Berry Phenolic and Volatile Extracts Inhibit Pro-Inflammatory Cytokine Secretion in LPS-Stimulated RAW264.7 Cells through Suppression of NF-kappa B Signaling Pathway. *Antioxidants*, 9, 871
- Hong, S., Pangloli, P., Perumal, R., Cox, S., Noronha, L. E., Dia, V. P. and Smolensky, D. A. (2020). Comparative Study on Phenolic Content, Antioxidant Activity and Anti-Inflammatory Capacity of Aqueous and Ethanolic Extracts of Sorghum in Lipopolysaccharide Induced RAW 264.7 Macrophages. *Antioxidants*, 9, 1297.
- Javan, E., Kandaswami, C. and Theoharides, T. C. (2000). The effects of plant flavonoids on mammalian cells: implications for inflammation, heart disease, and cancer. *Pharmacological Reviews*, 52 (4): 673–751
- Jung, I., Kim, H., Moon, S., Lee, H. and Kim, B. (2020). Overview of *Salvia miltiorrhizaas* a Potential Therapeutic Agent for Various Diseases: An Update on Efficacy and Mechanisms of Action. *Antioxidants*, *9*, 857.
- Lucetti, D. L., Lucetti, E. C. and Bandeira, M. (2010). Anti-inflammatory effects and possible mechanism of action of lupeol acetate isolated from *Himatanthus drasticus* (Mart.) Plumel. *Journal of Inflammation*, 7 (1):60-68
- Mainka, M., Czerwinska, M. E., Osinska, E., Ziaja, M. and Bazylko, A. (2021). Screening of Antioxidative Properties and Inhibition of Inflammation-Linked Enzymes by Aqueous
- and Ethanolic Extracts of Plants Traditionally Used in Wound Healing in Poland. *Antioxidants*, 10, 698
- MartiniBettolo, G. B. (1980). Present aspects of the use of plants in traditional medicine. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 2(1): 5–7
- Muthusamy, P., Nivedhitha, M. and Jayshree, N. (2010). Analgesic and Anti-Inflammatory Activities of *Datura metel* Linn. Root in Experimental Animal Models. *Research Journal of Pharmaceutical Technology*, 3:897–899.
- Nag-Chaudhuri, A. K., Siddhartha, P., Gomes, A. and Siddhartha, B. (1990). Anti-inflammatory and related actions of *Syzygium cuminii* seed extract," *Phytotherapy Research*, 4(1): 5–10,

- Neekhra, S., Awasthi, H. and Singh, D. (2017). Potential therapeutic use of *Streblus asper*: a review. *International Journal of Research and Development in Pharmacy & Life Sciences*, 6(7): 2845–2849
- Nivedhitha, S.; Gobinath, M.; Muthusamy, P. and Rao, K. M. (2010). Studies on Anti-Inflammatory Activity of Root Extracts of *Datura fastuosa* (Linn). *Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*, *3*, 2686–2688.
- Otimenyin, S. O. (2018). Antiinflammatory medicinal plants. *Natural Products and Drug Discovery*, Elsevier, Amsterdam, Netherlands, pp. 411–431.
- Owolabi, O. O., James, D. B., Sani, I., Andongma, B. T., Fasanya, O. O. and Kure, B. (2018). Phytochemical analysis, antioxidant and anti-inflammatory potential of *Feretia apodanthera* root bark extracts," *BMC Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 18(1):12-19
- Pountos, I., Theodora Georgouli, T., Howard Bird, H. and Giannoudis, P. (2011). Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs: prostaglandins, indications, and side effects. *International Journal of Interferon, Cytokine and Mediator Research*, 3: 19–27.
- Raghav, S. K., Gupta, B., Agrawal, C., Goswami, K. and Das, H. R. (2006). Anti-inflammatory effect of *Ruta graveolens* L. in murine macrophage cells. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 104, (1-2): 234–239
- Rang, H. P., Dale, M. M., Ritter, J. M., Flower, R. J. and Henderson, G. (2011). *Pharmacology*, Elsevier Churchill Livingstone, Edinburgh, UK, 7th edition,
- Schmid, D., Gruber, M. and Woehs, F. (2009). Inhibition of inducible nitric oxide synthesis by *Cimicifuga racemosa* (Actaea racemosa, black cohosh) extracts in LPS-stimulated RAW 264.7 macrophages," Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology, 61(8):1089–1096
- Singsai, K., Charoongchit, P., Chaikaew, W., N., Pitsinee, B., Fhanjaksai, P. and Chaisatan, K. (2020). Antilipoxygenase and Antiinflammatory Activities of *Streblus asper* Leaf Extract on Xylene-Induced Ear Edema in Mice. *Advances in Pharmacological and Pharmaceutical Sciences*, Article ID 3176391, 5:1-5 doi.org/10.1155/2020/3176391
- Slater, D., Kunnathil, S., McBride, J. and Koppala, R. (2010). Pharmacology of nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs and opioids," *Seminars in Interventional Radiology*, 27(4): 400–411.
- South African Medicines Formulary (SAMF) (2010). Health and Medical Publishing Group of the South African Medical Association, Cape Town, South Africa, 9th edition.
- Sripanidkulchai, B., Junlatat, J., Wara-aswapati, N. and Hormdee, D. (2009). Anti-inflammatory effect of *Streblus asper* leaf extract in rats and its modulation on inflammation-associated genes expression in RAW 264.7 macrophage cells. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 124 (3):566–570
- Tordera, M., Ferrandiz, M. L. and Alcaraz, M. J. (1994). Influence of ´anti-inflammatory flavonoids on degranulation and arachidonic acid release in rat neutrophils. *Zeitschrift fur Natur-* ^{*⁻}</sup> <i>forschung C*, 49 (3-4): 235–240</sup>
- Yoo, T. K., Jeong, W. T., Kim, J. G., Ji, H. S., Ahn, M. A., Chung, J. W., Lim, H. B. and Hyun, T. K. (2021). UPLC-ESI-Q-TOF-MS-Based Metabolite Profiling, Antioxidant and Anti-Inflammatory Properties of Different Organ Extracts of Abeliophyllum distichum. Antioxidants, 10, 70.