

Elephantorrhiza Elephantina: Phytochemistry, Pharmacology and its Traditional Applications –A Brief Review

Jyoti Swrup, Kavya Gour, Preeti Aneja *.

Abhilashi College of Pharmacy
Ner Chowk Mandi H.P. (175008) India

Date of Submission: 20-04-2025

Date of Acceptance: 30-04-2025

ABSTRACT:- Elephantorrhiza elephantina, or Elephant's Root, a significant plant, holds substantial value in traditional medicine, food, and as a water source for local communities. This review describes current knowledge regarding its phytochemistry, pharmacology, and traditional applications. The plant has garnered increasing research interest due to its extensive ethnomedicinal uses across southern Africa and world, where it is employed to treat ailments such as wounds, gastrointestinal and dermatological disorders, sexual dysfunction, and STIs, and in ethnoveterinary practices. Phytochemical investigations have revealed a rich array of bioactive compounds, including anthocyanidins, flavonoids, tannins, and triterpenoids, which are responsible for its reported anthelmintic, antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, and antioxidant properties. Ongoing research aims to elucidate the mechanisms of action of these compounds and explore the potential for developing novel medicinal agents and other applications for this valuable plant resource. This review documents the botany, traditional uses, phytochemistry, and pharmacological properties of E. elephantina, highlighting advancements and discussing perspectives for future research to promote a better understanding and sustainable utilization of this species.

I. INTRODUCTION:-

Elephantorrhiza Elephantina (Burch.) Skeels are members of the small, purely African genus, represented by nine species of the continent [1]. Elephantorrhiza Elephantina is a type of genus, meaning the common name Elephantorrhiza Elephant Wurzel, and is most descriptive in the large underground tribe common to most members of this genre [2]. Four species of this genus are: E. Burkei Benth., E. Elephantina, E. Goetzei (damage) damage and E. Sobraticosa Schinz are considered medicinal plants in South Africa [3,4]. Elephantorrhiza Elephantina is an important plant resource in South Africa,

where it provides food and medicine to the indigenous people, and the bark of the massive rhizome is a popular source of sunburn and coloring materials [5,6]. Subterranean rhizomes, often called roots, are one of South Africa's main herbal medicines. Because of its popularity as a herbal medicine, E. Elephantina is sold as a herbal medicine in the Botswana and Zimbabwean herbal medicine market [7], Eastern Cape Provinces of South Africa [8, 9], Northern Cape Provinces [10], Limpopo Provinces [11], and Northern Cape Provinces [12]. According to Dold and Cocks, the average price of E. Elephantina per kg in Oshana is \$3.60 USD and 108.80 kg per year. E, as there is a high demand for seeds as a herbal medicine and the harvest is primarily aimed at rhizomes. Elephantina has been recorded in the Red Data List of Lesotho as data used for herbivore use [13] as treatment for grassland and intestinal disorders. Van Wyke [14] is E. We listened to Elephantina as an important plant species, thereby potentially identifying roots that were potentially identified in over-the-counter drug formulations as antioxidants, skin diseases, skin diseases, perforated ulcers, perforated ulcers, and alopecia in male models in South Africa. In South Africa, E. Elephantina is used as a traditional treatment for a wide range of diseases, including diarrhea and Ruhr, stomach disease, skin diseases and acne, hemorrhoids, germs, and perforated peptic ulcers [15]. Rhizomes or bark from Elephantina is crushed by a little water. Apply the resulting paste to a tan to tan and dye the reddish color [16]. The young buds of E. Elephantina are eaten by cows, and his seeds have a sweet taste, followed by a burning sensation, and are often roasted in South Africa as a coffee substitute. Applications, chemical constituents, and biological activity with E. Elephantina over the past 30 years. Unfortunately, no comprehensive review of these important plant species in South Africa has been published. This review documented biology, traditional uses, phytochemistry and pharmacological properties. Therefore, E. Advances in traditional use, botany, phytochemistry, pharmacology, and safety by Elephantina have been systematically

checked in this study. Furthermore, the perspectives of future research on elephantina are discussed in the hope that this article will provide a better understanding of plant species.



Figure No.-: 1.1 Elephantorrhiza Elephantina

II. METHODOLOGY OF REVIEW:-

Literature research was conducted between March 2016 and January 2017 using electronic search engines such as Google and Google Scholar, as well as publishing websites such as Elsevier, Science Direct, Biomed Central (BMC), and PubMed. Databases and literature sources were selected based on topics treated (i.e. biological activity, ethnobotany, ethnopharmacology, pharmacology, plantchemical assets, therapeutic value) and geographical reporting (South Africa). The following keywords were used to search for sources of literature: *Acacia Elephantina*, *Elephantorrhiza burchellii*, *Elephantorrhiza Elephantina*, dwarf Elephants Wurzel, Eland's Bean, Elde Wattle, Elephants Foot. Other literature sources included articles published in international journals, reports from international, regional and national organizations, meeting discussions, books, papers, websites and other gray literature. References were also identified by searching the library collections of the National Botanical Gardens and Botanical Gardens (SRGH), Harare, Zimbabwe and Fort Hare University in South Africa.

III. SPECIES DESCRIPTION:-

Elephantorrhiza Elephantina was recorded in South Africa, namely Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Swaziland, Lesotho and South Africa. *Elephantorrhiza Elephantina* is usually widely popular and often sociable, forming

large spots in hot and arid areas of grasslands and open peeling. The synonym for *E. Elephantina* is *Acacia Elephantina* Burch. *Elephantorrhiza Burchellii* Benth. *Elephantorrhiza Elephantina* is a shrub, which is an annual stem up to 90 cm from the bottom of the wood in the longitudinal wooden edge, and is a shrub up to 90 cm at the bottom of the rhizome, often thickened to 8°C. Its leaves are undoubtedly composed, almost naked with petioles up to 8 cm [17]. The leaves consist of two four pairs of pinna in the lower lobe and seven pairs in the upper part, with axial length of up to 10 cm. The leaves are up to 55 pairs per earworm, linear to elongate in shape, 45 mm long, 0.50–2.50 mm wide, with an asymmetric base, acute tip, and usually mucosal fluid. *Elephantorrhiza Elephantina* inflorescences are x-fossas that are usually confined to the lower part of the trunk, usually solitary or grouped. The flowers are bisexual, with reddish brown glands at the base and free petals that are slightly connected to the base. The petals have a linear smell, with a yellow colour of 24 mm long and about 1 mm wide. Stamens are 10 free filaments, up to 6.50 mm. The fruit is a pod that is 5–21 cm long, 3 cm wide, reddish brown, coloured, prominently manufactured, often swollen, compressed, straight or slightly curved on the seeds.

IV. VERNACULAR NAMES OF 'ELEPHANTORRHIZA ELEPHANTINE' :-

Elephantorrhiza Elephantina is known for its geographical outbreak region through several local names (Table 1). In the literature review, *E. Elephantina*, a native *E. Elephantina*, was revealed (Table 1). Locals rarely call plant species that they don't use [18]. This list of popular names means that South African locals are actively interested in *E. Elephantina*. South Africa has the most common names, followed by Botswana (7), Namibia (5), and four names Zimbabwe, with the remaining countries having one or two names (Table 1). Local names often describe some distinctive features of plant species or part of the plant. For example, Elands Bean (Eland is an Indigenous Gazelle speech). Elandsboontjie; erands wattle; elephant feet. Elephant root; or the unjust route of the d star (Table 1). *Elephantorrhiza Elephantina* is commonly referred to as the "Elandsboontjie" of Africans in South Africa and is called English by Elander Bean and Eland of the British in Namibia and South Africa. Another common English name, the roots of the elephant's feet refer to large, long

rhizomes or roots of species up to 8 m long . The common name for the root of a dwarf is compared to the closely related species *E. goetzei*, also

known as the "elephant root." It refers to the height of the Elephantina.

Table 1. Vernacular names of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina*.

Vernacular name(s), ethnic group or geographical region in brackets	Country	References
Elephant's foot (English), chizezana, mosibe, mosidi, mositsane, mositsane tjizezana, motshijane (Setswana)	Botswana	[21–23]
Mositsane (Sotho)	Lesotho	[24]
Xivurayi (Changana), dwarf elephant's root (English)	Mozambique	[25]
Elandsboontjie (Afrikaans), eland's bean (English), gerbwürzel (German), ll an̄gāb (Khoekhoegowab), omundjoze (Otjiherero)	Namibia	[26]
Baswortel, elandsboontjie, leerbossie, looiersboontjie, olifantwortel (Afrikaans), dwarf elephant's root, eland's bean, eland's wattle, elephant's foot, (English), lešhitšana, mosehlana, mošitšana, motshitshane (Sepedi), gwejobomvu, mositsane (Sotho, Tswana), intolwane (Swazi), intolwane, xixuvari (Xhosa), intolwane, intolwanu (-enkulu), ugweje, umdabu (Zulu)	South Africa	[4, 8, 11, 17, 20, 27–33]
Intolwane (Swazi)	Swaziland	[34]
Elephant-root (English), intolwane encinyane (Ndebele), chizezepasi, mupangara (Shona)	Zimbabwe	[20, 35]

V. ETHNOMEDICINAL USES OF ELEPHANTORRHIZA ELEPHANTINE:-

E. Elephantina rhizomes, roots, leaves and tribes have a variety of medical properties and have been reported to be used in the treatment or treatment of different human and animal complaints and diseases in the areas of South Africa (Table 2). A total of 42 or 14 human and animal complaints and illnesses, *E. Treated* with plant drugs made from *Elephantina* (Table 2). These reports are *E. It* comes from all countries. *Elephantina* is a native speaker. The country with the highest ethnomical purpose is South Africa, based on 25 literature documents, followed by

Lesotho, with 10 uses and two literary sets. Botswana is a record of Mozambique and Zimbabwe with nine uses and four literary data sets, five uses and two literary records, and Namibia and Swaziland, respectively. *Elephantorrhiza Elephantina* is primarily used to treat gastrointestinal tract disorders (21 quotes in six countries), followed by veterinarians (14 quotes in two countries), skin diseases (6 quotes from South Africa), pain (5 quotes in five countries), and information and impotence (5 quotes in four countries). These records show a high degree of consensus for major diseases and symptoms (Table 2), indicating high intercultural practices among *E. elephantinas* across the distribution area.

Table 2. Ethnomedicinal uses of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* in southern Africa.

Use	Plant part(s) used and preparation	Country of practice	References
Abdominal pains	Rhizome, root decoction taken orally	Lesotho; Zimbabwe	[3, 24]
Acne	Rhizome, root infusion applied externally	South Africa	[15, 36–38]

Anemia	Root decoction taken orally	Mozambique	[25]
Aphrodisiac	Root decoction taken orally	Zimbabwe	[3]
Bleeding	Root decoction applied on affected body part	Lesotho	[39]
Bloody diarrhoea in children	Root powder wiped around anus	Botswana	[40, 41]
Blood pressure	Rhizome decoction taken orally	South Africa	[12]
Breast cancer	Rhizome decoction taken orally	Lesotho	[24]
Chest pains	Roots taken as emetics	South Africa	[42]
Cleans blood	Rhizome decoction taken orally	Lesotho	[24]
Cleaning the womb after abortion	Rhizome decoction taken orally	Botswana; South Africa	[36, 40, 41]
Clearing air canal	Rhizome decoction taken orally.	South Africa	[12]
Constipation, heartburn, indigestion, loss of appetite, stomach ailments, vomiting	Ingredient of a herbal mixture known as “Sejeso” (Ingwe brand) which also includes <i>Alepidea amatymbica</i> Eckl. & Zeyh., <i>Hypoxis obtusa</i> Burch. ex Ker Gawl., <i>Pentania prunelloides</i> (Klotzsch & Eckl. & Zeyh.) Walp., deionized water and potassium sorbate as preservative	South Africa	[43]
Diarrhoea	Leaf, rhizome, root, stem decoction taken orally	Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland	[15, 28, 29, 32, 34, 38, 44–46]
Diarrhoea	Rhizome mixed with root of <i>Acokanthera oblongifolia</i> Benth. & Hook.f. ex B.D. Jacks	South Africa	[44]
Dysentery	Root decoction taken orally	South Africa	[15, 38, 46]
Earache	Rhizome decoction taken orally	Botswana	[41]
Eczema	Roots and rhizome used in combination with <i>Pentania prunelloides</i> to treat eczema	South Africa	[36, 37]
Erectile dysfunction	Rhizome, root decoction taken orally	Botswana, South Africa	[21, 31, 47]
Fever	Roots taken as emetics	Mozambique, South Africa	[25, 42]
Fever	Rhizome decoction taken orally mixed with <i>Pentania prunelloides</i>	Zimbabwe	[43]
Haemorrhoids	Rhizome, root decoction taken orally	Lesotho, South Africa	[15, 24, 38, 48]
Herpes	Rhizome decoction taken orally	Lesotho	[24]
HIV/AIDS opportunistic diseases	Rhizome decoction taken orally mixed with roots of <i>Boscia albitrunca</i> (Burch.) Gilg & Gilg-Ben., <i>Peltophorum africanum</i> Sond. and <i>Plectranthus ciliatus</i> E. Mey.	South Africa	[49]
Itching	Rhizome decoction taken orally	South Africa	[12]
Infertility in women	Rhizome, root decoction taken orally	Lesotho, Zimbabwe	[3, 24]
Intestinal disorders	Rhizome, root decoction taken orally	Lesotho, South	[15, 24, 38, 39]

		Africa	
Kidney failure	Rhizome decoction taken orally	South Africa	[12]
Love charms	Roots taken as emetics	South Africa	[42]
Menstrual problems	Root, stem decoction taken orally	Botswana, South Africa	[40, 44]
Pain killer	Root decoction taken orally	Mozambique	[25]
Peptic ulcers	Root decoction taken orally	South Africa	[4]
Rheumatic heart conditions	Root decoction taken orally	South Africa	[4]
Rheumatic heart conditions	Root decoction taken orally	South Africa	[4]
Sexually transmitted infections	Rhizome decoction taken orally	Botswana, Mozambique	[41, 45]
Shingles	Rhizome decoction taken orally	South Africa	[50]
Shingles	Root decoction taken orally in combination with <i>Cladostemon kirkii</i> (Oliv.) Pax & Gilg (roots), <i>Drimia delagoensis</i> (Baker) Jessop (bulb), <i>Sarcophyte sanguinea</i> Sparm. subsp. <i>piriei</i> (Hutch.) B. Hansen (bark) and <i>Ranunculus multifidus</i> Forssk. (whole plant)	South Africa	[51]
Sores	Rhizome decoction taken orally	South Africa	[50]
Sores	Root decoction taken orally in combination with <i>Cladostemon kirkii</i> (root), <i>Drimia delagoensis</i> (bulb), <i>Ficus sur</i> Forssk. (bark), <i>Ranunculus multifidus</i> (whole plant), <i>Sarcophyte sanguinea</i> subsp. <i>piriei</i> and <i>Senecio serratuloides</i> DC. (leaves)	South Africa	[51]
Stomach ailments	Roots taken as emetics	Lesotho, South Africa	[24, 42]
Stomach ailments	Rhizome decoction taken orally mixed with <i>Acokanthera oblongifolia</i> root or <i>Pentanisia prunelloides</i>	South Africa; Zimbabwe	[43, 44]
Sunburn	Underground parts used to treat sunburn	South Africa	[15, 38]
Syphilis	Root decoction taken orally	Lesotho, South Africa	[15, 24, 38, 39]
Tonsillitis	Rhizome boiled and extract taken orally	South Africa	[12]
Tuberculosis	Rhizome decoction taken orally	Lesotho	[24]
Ethnoveterinary medicine			
Appetite stimulant	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[27]
Black quarter	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[27, 30]
Cough	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[52]
Diarrhoea	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[30, 48, 52]
Dysentery in cattle and horses	Root decoction	South Africa	[48]
Ectoparasites in	Root decoction	South Africa	[33]

goats (mites, ticks)			
Gastrointestinal parasites	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[30]
Gall sickness	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[30]
Heartwater	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[27, 52]
Mange	Root decoction given to cows	South Africa	[53]
Pneumonia	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[52]
Retained placenta in cattle	Rhizome decoction	Botswana, South Africa	[22, 30]
Tonic	Rhizome decoction	South Africa	[27]

Reproduction of rhizomes or root meat in E. Elephantina is used to relieve abdominal pain in Lesotho and Zimbabwe [24] and South Africa [42] and is applied to open wounds to stop bleeding [39]. In South Africa, E. Elephantina roots and rhizomes are cooked in water for the treatment of acne and other skin diseases [36°3]. & Zeyh.)Walp. It is used to treat eczema [36, 37]. Roots or rhizome decoction of E. elephantina is taken orally as remembered for various ailments and diseases including anemia in Mozambique [25], Blood Pressure, Clearing Air Canal, Ectile dysfunction, Haemorrhoids, ITching, Kidney Failure, Intestinal Disorders, Menstrual Disorders, Peptic Ulcers, Rheumatic Conditions, Shingles, Sores, Syphilis, Flexural Conflanks in South Africa [4, 12, 15, 31, 38, 44, 47, 48, 50]. Botswana, E rhizome or root powder Elephantina is used as a treatment for early menstruation of children, earaches, erectile dysfunction, and sexually transmitted diseases to wipe off the anus of children with bloody diarrhea and to clean the uterus after abortion. In Lesotho, E. The rhizomes of elephantina are used to clean the blood as a treatment for breast cancer, herpes, infertility, intestinal disorders, stomach problems, syphilis and tuberculosis [24, 39]. E. Elephantina leaves, Rhizom, and Root Cups have been used as treatments for diarrhea and Ruhr in Mozambique [45] and South Africa [15, 28, 29, 32, 38, 44, 46]. In South Africa, E. The rhizomes of Elephantina are mixed with Acokanthera oblongifolia Benth. &hook.F. Ex B.D. Jax's root as a treatment for South African diarrhea and stomach complaints [44]. In Mozambique, E. The root cup of ElephantinaOral is assumed as an analgesic [25] and sexually transmitted disease [45]. The rhizome of E. Elephantina is mixed with the roots of Pentanisia Pruneloides and is orally considered a treatment for fever and stomach disease in Zimbabwe [43]. Elephannorrhiza Elephantina is an ingredient in herbal mix made up of Alepidea Amatymbica Eckl, such as "Sejeso" (Ingwe® brand). & Zeyh. , Hypoxys Obtusa Burch. Ex Ker

Gawl. , Pentanisia Pruneloides, Entorsion water, and adsorbent potassium adsorbents as preservatives as treatments for constipation, heartburn, digestive disorders, loss of appetite, loss of stomach disease, and vomiting [43]. According to Semenya et al. [49], E. The rhizome of Elephantina is Boscia albetrunca (Burch.) Gilg & Gilg-ben. , has the roots of Peltophorum african sond. Plectranthus Ciliatus E. Mey Mixed. As a treatment for HIV/AIDS -Port -insionist. Study by De Wet et al. [51] showed that root cooking with E. Elephantina in combination with Cladostemon Kirkii (Olive) Pax & Gilg (Roots), Drimia delagoensis (Baker) Jessop (Lightburn), and Sarcophyte sanguinea Sparm is carried out. SSP. Piriei (Hutch.) B. Hansen (bark) and Ranunculus Multifidusforsk. (Whole plant) As a treatment for shingles. Study by De Wet et al. [51] also showed the roots of E. Elephantina in combination with Cladostemon Kirkii (root), Drimia delagoensis (Glühbirne), and Ficus sur forssk. (Rinde), Ranunculus multifidus (Ganze pflanze), Sarcophyt sanguinea ssp. Piriei und Senecio serratuloides dc. (Leaf) As a treatment for pain. E. Elephantina rhizome decoction is widely used by small farmers in Botswana and South Africa as a placenta maintained as placenta medicine for cattle breeding placenta medicine and for placenta medicine for other animals such as goats, horses, pigs, and magicians like pastors. -darm -darten, gallenkrankheit, herzwasser, meige, Lungenentzündungund ektoparasiten [22, 23, 27, 30, 33, 48, 52, 53]. Die Jungen Triebe von E. Elephantina can be eaten by South African cows and wildlife [6]. In Namibia, E. Elephantina pods are eaten by both humans and animals [26].

VI. PHYTOCHEMISTRY:-

Some classes of phytochemicals in several classes, including anthocyanidins, anthratinones, esters, fatty acids, phenolic compounds, flavonoids, glycosides, polysitels, saponins, sugars, tannins, triteroids, E. Isolated from rhizome extracts from

Elephantina. The considerable pharmacological possibilities of *E. Elephantina* have been documented through the detection, separation, and purification of natural products through advances in field-technological search as attenuated total reflection, Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy chromatography chromatography electron spray ion ionization mass spectroscopy (LC-ESI-MS), gas chromatography massconrome (LC-ESI-MS), and gas chromatography maspractrome (LC-ESI-MS). (NMR) For structural education of new and complex connections (Table 3). With advanced studies via ATR, LC-ESI MS, FTIR, GC-MS, and NMR spectroscopy, the researchers have shown that *E. We* have a better understanding of the correlation between the molecular structure and biological activity of natural connections. *Elephantina* and its importance as a herbal medicine. Compounds isolated from *E. Elephantina* are documented and listed in Table 3. Their structure is shown in Figure 1. Aakueta. [41] The following connections from the *n*-butanol rhizome extract from *E* were insulated. *Elephantina*: Dihydrocaempferol 1, Kaempferol 2, (â)-Catechin 3, Ethyl gallate 4, Gallic acid 5, 2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)ethanol 6, 4-hydroxybenzoic acid 7, ethyl-1-D-galanoside 8, and quelside 3-O²-D-glucopyranoside 9. Phytochemical examination of *E. Elephantina* Rhizomes by Mthembu [57] showed the presence of several phenolic compounds, including catechin 3, gallic acid 5,

quercetin 3-O-D-glypyriside 9, methylgarat 11, Oral, authors 11, îstoster 11, π -sittoster 11, and venom ost11. 3-O-Gallo-3,3², 5,5², 7-Pentaydroxyflavon 12, Taxifolin-3²-O²-D-glucoside 14. Especially recently, Msimanga et al. [55] insulated the following connections from the Hexwurzel extract from *E. Elephantina*: Hexadecanoic 15, 9,12-Octadecadienoic 16, 9-Octadecenoic 17, Octadecanoic acid 18, Butanedioic acid 19, Benzoic acid 20, 3-phenyl-2-propenoic acid 21, Non-anedioic acid 23, Methylpentadecanoate 25, Methylpentadecanoic acid 23, Hexadecanoate 26, 3,5-di-tert-butyl-4-hydroxy-phenylpropionic acid 27, CIS-10-heptadecenoic acid 28, 30, CIS-5, 8, 8, 8, 11, 17-eicosapenta - Hexacosanoic acid 35, methyloctacosanate 36. *E. Ephantina*, The Mpofu et al. [54] showed the presence of Anthraquinon 38, triterpenoid olenololic acid 39, diosgenin 40, rhamnose 41, glucuronic acid 42, and arabinosis 43. *Elephantina* Rhizome Extracts, Mpofu et al. [56] Isolated Kaempferol 2, epicatechin 14, glucuronic acid 42, arabinosis 43, epigallocatechin galat 44, quercetin 45, and epicatechin galat 46. The major phytochemical compounds isolated from *E-Elphantina* are primarily separated from fatty acids). (26.09%) and Ester (13.04%) and the remaining connection contributions are less than 10%. See Table 3.

Table 3. Phytochemical compounds isolated from rhizomes or roots of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina*.

Phytochemical compounds	Extrects	Method of compound characterization	References
Ethyl gallate 4	n-butanol	GC-MS	[54]
Butanedioic acid 19	Hexane	GC-MS	
Benzoic acid 20	Hexane	GC-MS	[41]
3-phenyl-2-propenoic acid 21	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Methyl pentadecanoate 24	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Methyl hexadec-9-enoate 25	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Methyl hexadecanoate 26	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Cis-10-Heptadecenoic acid 28	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Methyl heptadecanoate 29	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Methyl octadecanoate 30	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Cis-5,8,11,14,17-eicosapenta-enoic acid 31	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Eicosanoic acid 32	Hexane	GC-MS	[55]
Kaempferol 2	Ethanol, n-butanol	GC-MS, LC-ESI-MS	
Glycoside			[41]
Ethyl-1-O- β -D-galactopyranoside 8	n-butanol	GC-MS	[41, 56]

Phenolic compounds			
2-(3,4-Dihydroxyphenyl) ethanol 6	n-butanol	GC-MS	[41]
Catechin 3	Chloroform, methanol, n-butanol	GC-MS, NMR	
Gallic acid 5	Chloroform, methanol, n-butanol	GC-MS, NMR	[41]
4-Hydroxybenzoic acid 7	n-butanol	GC-MS	[41, 57]
Quercetin 3-O-β-D-glucopyranoside 9	Chloroform, methanol, n-butanol	GC-MS, NMR	[41, 57]
Epigallocatechin gallate 44	Ethanol	LC-ESI-MS	[41]
Quercetin 45	Ethanol	LC-ESI-MS	[41, 57]
Epicatechin gallate 46	Ethanol	LC-ESI-MS	[56]
Methyl gallate 10	Chloroform, methanol	NMR	[56]
3-O-Galloyl-3,3',5,5',7-pentahydroxyflavone 12	Chloroform, methanol	NMR	[56]
Taxifolin-3'-O-β-D-glucoside 13	Chloroform, methanol	NMR	[57]
Epicatechin 14	Chloroform, ethanol, methanol	FTIR, LC-ESI-MS, NMR	[57]
Phytosterols			[57]
β-Sitosterol 11	Chloroform, methanol	NMR	[56, 57]
Saponin			
Diosgenin 40	Chloroform, methanol	LC-ESI-MS	[57]
Sugar			
Rhamnose 41	Chloroform, methanol	LC-ESI-MS	[54]
Glucuronic acid 42	Chloroform, ethanol, methanol	LC-ESI-MS	
Arabinose 43	Chloroform, ethanol, methanol	LC-ESI-MS	[54]
Triterpenoid			[54, 56]
Oleanolic acid 39	Chloroform, methanol	LC-ESI-MS	[54, 56]
Anthraquinone			
Anthraquinone 38	Chloroform, methanol	LC-ESI-MS	[54]

VII. PHARMACOLOGICAL ACTIVITIES:-

7.1. Anthelmintic Activity:-

Maphosa et al. [58] There is a hinged macroscopic aqueous extract by rots of eggs and larvae eggs and larvae egg roots using 10 mg/kg and 0.5°C/kit/kit and negative water and negative water. Elephannorrhiza Elephantina had 100% egg ruts at a concentration of just 2.5 mg/ml. It was

tested at a lowest concentration of 0.63 mg/ml. Elephantina inhibited egg hatching by 96%, comparable to albendazole at the same concentration [58]. Elephannorrhiza Elephantina completely inhibited larval development at a concentration of 1.25 mg/ml [58]. This study by Maphosa et al. [58] showed that egg inhibition and larval development were significantly increased than the concentration of elephantina root extract.

In another study, Maphosa and Masika [59] examined the effectiveness of *E. Elephantina* root extract of *Elephantina*-goat-magen-worm-worm natural mixed infections and natural mixed infections from coccidia species that were not administered in barba (11.36% albendazole) at 10 mg/kg. In this study, *E. Elephantina* reduced *Triturus* Eggs on days 3 and 6 at a dose of 250 mg/kg. In this study, *E. Elephantina* also showed that *Elephantina* is a highly effective *Elephantina*. At 500 mg/kg. A reduction in the number of extracts administered by *E. Elephantina* for mixed gastrointestinal parasite infections indicates that this type has the properties of angelmin, indicating that the use of ethnic dealers against gastrointestinal parasites provides goat reliability. In another study, Maphosa and Masika [60] used bioactivity tests using albendazole and distilled water as positive or negative checks for adult *Haemonchus contortus*, *E. Elephantina*. We evaluated the crent bone activity of aqueous, hexane and ethyl root extracts by *Elephantina*. The aqueous and ethyl acetate fractions showed high motility inhibition after 6 hours of exposure at concentrations above 2.50 mg/mL, and the hexane fraction showed motility inhibition at concentrations above 5 mg/mL. After 30 hours of exposure, all ions, namely aqueous, hexane, ethyl acetate, and albendazole (over counter drugs), inhibition of mortality with significantly different mortality indicators [60]. All previously performed by the Anthelmin assessment [58,60] identified the root anhelmin activity of *E. Elephantina*, which was commonly used in South Africa as anthelmine tool for small-scale farmers in South Africa.

7.2. Antibacterial Activity:-

Aaku et al. [41] *E. Elephantina* using biological techniques (TLC) with thin layer chromatography (TLC) using chloranphenicol or miconazole as positive and negative controls. The antibacterial activity of 70% ethanol and N-butanol lysom extracts by *Elephantina* was evaluated. Both extracts showed activity against subspecies, *E. coli*, *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, and *Staphylococcus aureus*, for loads below 15¼g. Under the compounds in washing, only ethyl-garat 4 and brave acid 5 showed activity against subspecies and *Staphylococcus aureus* for loads below 50 euros. Similar results were made by Cueva et al. [66] We evaluated the effects of pure phenolic compounds such as catechin 3, ethylgarat 4, gyalcinic acid 5, and epicatechin 14 to inhibit potential atomischiogenic growth. These authors have found that non-flavonoid compounds such as ethylgarat 4

and galic acid 5 are more active than flavonoids such as catechin 3 and epicatechin 14. [28] Bacteria causing gastrointestinal infections, namely *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Shigella* Disorders, *Shigella dysenteri*, *Shigella fencerteri*, *Shigella flexeris flexery*, *Shigella flexery* and *Shigella flexery*, *Shigella dygella dygella dygellad*, *Shigella dygellad* and *Shigella dysenteri*, *Shigella dygella dysenteri*, *Shigella dygella dysenteri*, *Shigella dygella dyssys*, The extracts were determined by microplat dilution tests. Mathaben et al. [28] used 10 microliters with dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) per negative control, and used paines (5 mm diameter) of nalidixic acid (30 mg), erythromycin (15°), and cotrimoxazole (25°) as positive controls. Microphone activity against pathogens was 0.08-0.63 mg/ml, with the highest inhibition being shown for *Shigella Flexneri* with microphone values between 0.08-0.16 mg/ml [28]. Mukanganyama et al. [21] Evaluated the antibacterial activity of ethanol root extracts by *E. Elephantina* is *Elephantina* against *Staphylococcus aureus* in cereus, subtilis, *E. coli*, *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, and *Staphylococcus aureus* using agar diffusion tests. This species exhibited antibacterial properties against all tested microorganisms, and the authors investigated minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICS) against *Mycobacterium aurum* and *E. Elephantina* showed specific activity at a MIC value of 1.25 mg/mL [21].

7.3. Antifungal Activity:-

As a negative controller. Mabona et al. [61] We discovered a variety of antifungal activities of aqueous and diclomethanol/methanol (1â1) leaf, root and rhizome extracts.

Aaku et al. [41] *E. Elephantina* using TLC bioautography technology as a positive or negative check for chloramphenicol and miconazole. The antifungal activity of 70% ethanol and N-butanol rhizome extracts by *Elephantina* was evaluated. Both extracts showed activity against *Candida dermatosis* against a type of load of <15. These results support traditional use of *E. Elephantina* in the treatment of fungal infections associated with gastrointestinal infections. Mukanganyama et al. [21] We evaluated the antifungal activity of the root ethanolx tract by *E. elephantina* against *Candida albicans* and *Candida mycoderma* using agar diffusion tests. This species exhibited antifungal properties against both tested microorganisms, and the authors examined minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) for

Candida albicans and *E. Elephantina* zeigte eine gewisse Aktivität mit Wert von 1,25 mg/ml [21]. Mabona et al. [61] We evaluated the antifungal activity of aqueous and dichromethane/methanol (1:1) using microtitre plate dilution techniques for skin-related pathogens such as amphotericin B, *Candida albicans*, *Microsporum canis*, and *Trichophyton mentagrophytes* and *Mentha piperita*. *Elephantina* extracts were extracted. (DMSO cytotoxic activities were presented for *canis* (0.50 mg/ml), *Candida albicans* (1.00 mg/ml) and *Trichophyton mentagrophytes* (1.00 mg/ml) by micromethanol/methanol leaf, root and rhizome extracts. Water root extracts of *Pentanisia Prunellifolia* (1:1) with *E. Elephantina* showed synergistic interactions with the sum of fractional inhibitory concentrations (FIC) ranging from 0.31 to 0.38 mg/ml for *Candida* sterilization. Synergistic interactions found in *Pentanisia Prunellifolia* and *E.*, and *E. Elephantina* by Mabona et al. [61] These two types are often used in combination as herbal medicines for the treatment of skin infections, and therefore examine their antifungal effects. Similarly, Nciki et al. [50] used microtitre dilution techniques for dermatologically related pathogenic *albicans*, *Microsporum canis* and *Trichophyton* Be. The antifungal activity of aqueous and dichromethanol (1:1) root extracts by *Elephantina* was evaluated. The best antifungal results were performed by dichromethane/methanol extract against *Candida albicans* with a microdilution value of 130 µg/mL, *Microsporum canis* (microdilution value of 250 µg/mL) and 250 µg/mL with *Trichophyton mentagrophytes* with a microdilution value of microdilution. Nciki et al. [50] evaluated only the antifungal activity of the root extract, but Mabona et al. [61] Antifungal roots, leaves, rhizomes evaluated according to *E. Elephantina*. There are also differences in the best antifungal results documented in these two studies. According to Mabona et al. [61] The best antifungal activity is observed with microdilution values of 0.50 mg/ml by dichromethane/methanol leaf, root, and rhizome extracts, but Nciki et al. [50] was demonstrated by dichromethane/methanol extract against *Candida albicans* at a MIC value of 130 µg/mL. Overall, Nciki et al. [50] and Mabona et al. [61] forms the scientific basis for the traditional use of *E. Elephantina* as a Chinese herbal medicine for several South African skin infections, including acne [15, 36–38], eczema [36, 37], itching [12], wounds [50, 51], sunburn [15, 38].

7.4. Anti-Inflammatory and Antinociceptive Activities:-

. Aqueous extracts from *Elephantina* reduced the formation of carrageenan and histamine-induced edema, resulting in a wiping of the acetic acid test and a reduction in leakage of the formalin test [62]. According to Maphosa et al. [62] Root extract of *E. Elephantina* reduced pain even more than indomethacin, a potent inhibitor of prostaglandins (PG) synthesis, than controls. This indicates that plant species have potent anti-inflammatory and anti-classification activities. The anti-inflammatory activity exhibited by root extracts with *E. Elephantina* is Mishchenko et al. [72] showed cell cultures isolated from *Rubia Cordifolia* L. isolated from Anthraquinone 38. These results support the traditional use of species in a variety of inflammatory diseases and diseases, from microbial infections to wounds and wounds that lead to cell damage and pain.

7.5. Antiplasmodial Activity:-

Clarkson et al. [63] Parasite-dehydrogenase (PLDH)-antigen and chloroquine-diphosphate (phazigama) were used to assess the aqueous, dichromethane and dichromethane/methanol (1) leaf and root extracts of *E. elephantina* leaf and root extracts against *Plasmodium falciparum* *falciparum*. Dichromethane/methanol (1:1) leaf and root extracts showed weak activity at IC₅₀ values of 26 and 28 µg/mL, while aqueous extracts of both leaf and root bone showed >100 µg/mL root [62]. *E. Elephantina* is often used as a traditional treatment of fever in Mozambique [25], South Africa [42], and Zimbabwe [43]. Possible explanation is *E. Elephantina* instead of having direct antiparasitic activity, *Elephantina* acts as an antipyretic or immunologic to alleviate symptoms of the disease [73]. Alternatively, pioneering active ingredients can be present in *E-Elephantina*

7.6. Antioxidant Properties:-

Mpov et al. [54] used the DPPH radical catcher method with percentage inhibition values of circles and duh in the range of 33-72% in both methanol and water extracts, *E. Elephantina*. The antioxidant properties of *Elephantina* were evaluated. This was due to Mpoh et al. [54] showed that more extractable antioxidants, including methanol, are present as solvents compared to water. The antioxidant activity proven by the *E. Elephantina*-Rhizom extract is likely due to the presence of flavonoids and phenols [74]. The antioxidant

properties shown by *E. Elephantina* are the complex gallstones 4, separated from ethanol extracts by *Acacia nilotica* wild ex del. It is located in Ethilgarat 4. Sub. Indica (Benth.) Brennan leaves exhibited antioxidant activity [75] in some of - Vitro -Assays.

7.7. Antirickettsial and Antibabesial:-

Cells in thin cultures are calculated by fusion of the extent of residual infection. Antibiotics used as controls, Imidocarb and Diminzen showed efficacy and showed EC50 values of 0.08 or 0.30 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. Similarly, *E. The Elephantina* Aceton Rhizoma Extract showed activity at 100 $^{\circ}\text{g/ml}$. Acetone rhizome extract from *E Elephantina* showed significant activity against mites transmitted diseases that are problematic for cows of South African farmers [64]. Using Antibabias and Anti-rickettsi-Vitro test systems, *E. Elephantina*-Rhizom extracts were evaluated. Naidoo et al. [64] Using cell culture-based antibacterial tests exposed to *Babesia* Cavalli culture *E. Elephantina* and effectiveness were used by assessing the degree of inhibition using a color change method and the proportion of parasitized naidoo et al. [65] is an in-vitro-hrlichia-reminantium culture system, *E. We* evaluated the anti-ricket attitude of *Blattasetone's* attitude by *Elephantina. ehrlichia-reminantium* cultures were incubated with acetone extracts from leaves and results were compared to those received on oxytetracycline and untreated checks. *Elephantorrhiza Elephantina* had antitonic activity with an EC50 value of 111.40 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and an EC90 value of 228.90 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. The EC50 and EC90 values for oxytetracycline were 0.29 and 0.08 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. These results are *E. We* show that *Elephantina-Blatteplatte* extracts may inhibit *Ehrlichia* parasites with similar mechanisms.

7.8. Toxicity:-

Despite the long-term use of *E. elephantina* as a herbal medicine in South Africa for the treatment of many human and animal diseases and complaints, this type is known to be harmful when used at excessive doses [3, 4, 48]. Root injection of *E. Elephantina* has a certain effect [48], and seeds have been severely stimulated and it has been reported that human death is suspected to be caused as a herbal medicine [4]. Hutchings et al. [4] Aqueous extracts of seeds corresponding to 0.75 g caused extensive necrosis upon injection and pulmonary edema when stained subcutaneously for gastroenteritis and pulmonary edema. Symptoms of

poisoning were indifference, loss of anorexia, and severe diarrhea, which occurred in the animal with fatigue within 24 hours. Postmortem examinations developed acute gastroenteritis with numerous bleeding and significant degeneration of the liver [4]. Janssen [16] reported that seeds of *E. elephantina* in sheep with a fatal dose of 250 g and rabbit (fatal dose of 5.50 g/kg) cause gastroenteritis and pulmonary edema. *Elephantina* using Wistar rats showed no physiological and behavior-related changes in the animals, and no dials were recorded [62]. In another study, Maphosa et al. [76] We evaluated the acute, subacute and chronic toxicity of oral extracts of *E. Elephantina* rooted extracts in male and female Wistar rats. Although the authors did not die, changes in body weight and hematological and serum biochemical parameters between control and treated animals were observed. In acute studies, Maphosa et al. [76] observed a decrease in respiratory rate at a high dose of 1600 mg/kg, and in subacute studies, *E. Elephantina* root extracts caused increased serum levels of leukocytes, monocytes, and creatinine at higher doses of 400 and 800 $^{\circ}\text{g/kg}$. In chronic toxicity, *E. Elephantina* Extracts caused an increase in lymphocytes and platelets, and changes in body and organ weights were also observed in both subacute and chronic toxicities. Maphosa et al. [76] We observed renal crystals with renal crystals and acute hepatitis with secondary elevated renal lonephritis, and intrarenal sediments (memory of oxalate crystals), but pulmonary sarcoma was found to be 400 $^{\circ}\text{C/kg}$, and secondary elevated renal lonephritis in animals receiving 800 mg/kg in a subacute toxicity test. In chronic toxicity studies, Maphosa et al. [76] observed splenic siderose, pulmonary granuloma, refractive crystal deposits, and associated renal lone nephritis. Mpov et al. [54], using only Garnellen-Paresis Test, *E. The* cytotoxic activity of *Elephantina* was evaluated. Chloroform-Rhizom Extract by *E. Elephantina* showed some biological activity with an LC50 value of 0.80 [54]. Based on previously performed toxicity assessments [54, 62, 76]. *Elephantina* is potentially toxic to certain doses, so it should be used with caution in herbal medicines.

VIII. CONCLUSION:-

Over the past decade, the gap in knowledge of medical plants has been limited in the past decade. This is from extensive research from a variety of scientists trying to understand the benefits of traditional medicines and the majority of the population still uses them as primary

healthcare choices. However, some studies have questioned whether appropriate research or guidelines have been asked to certify traditional medicines for formal inclusion in the health system. There is still no gap in understanding how plant extracts inhibit the various microorganisms exposed, and how they inhibit antidiabetic and antimalarial properties. The effects on mechanisms of action on antibacterial, antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory, anti-inflammatory, wound healing may lead to a better understanding of the medical properties of plant extracts and future product production.

Acknowledgement:- We would like to express my sincere gratitude to:

My supervisor 'Mrs.Preeti Aneja', for the guidance and support through the project. The department 'Abhilashi college of Pharmacy' for the necessary resource and facilities.

REFERENCES:-

- [1]. H. F. Glen, "Elephantorrhiza," in *Plants of Southern Africa: An Annotated Checklist*, G. Germishuizen and N. L. Meyer, Eds., Strelitzia 14, p. 508, National Botanical Institute, Pretoria, South Africa, 2003.
- [2]. E. Palmer and P. Pitman, *Trees for Southern Africa Covering all Known Indigenous Species in Republic of South Africa, South West Africa, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland*, A.A. Balkema, Cape Town, South Africa, 1972.
- [3]. M. Gelfand, S. Mavi, R. B. Drummond, and B. Ndemera, *The Traditional Medical Practitioner in Zimbabwe. His Principles of Practice and Pharmacopoeia*, Mambo Press, Gweru, Zimbabwe, 1985.
- [4]. A. Hutchings, A. H. Scott, G. Lewis, and A. Cunningham, *Zulu Medicinal Plants. An Inventory*, University of Natal Press, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa, 1996.
- [5]. A. Maroyi, "Phytochemical and ethnopharmacological review of Elephantorrhiza goetzei (Harms) Harms," *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Medicine*, vol. 10, no. 2, pp. 107–113, 2017.
- [6]. M. Coates Palgrave, Keith Coates Palgrave *Trees of Southern Africa*, Struik Publishers, Cape Town, South Africa, 2002.
- [7]. M. Mander, N. Diederichs, and N. Steytler, "Marketing of Medicinal Plants and Products," in *Commercialising Medicinal Plants: A Southern African Guide*, pp. 167–192, Sun Press, Stellenbosch, South Africa, 2005.
- [8]. A. P. Dold and M. L. Cocks, "The trade in medicinal plants in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa," *South African Journal of Science*, vol. 98, no. 11-12, pp. 589–597, 2002.
- [9]. D. F. S. Ah Goo, *The contribution of the trade in medicinal plants to urban livelihoods: A case study of the informal markets In Nelson Mandela Bay Municipality, Eastern Cape* [MSc dissertation], Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth, South Africa, 2012.
- [10]. V. L. Williams, K. Balkwill, and E. T. F. Witkowski, "A lexicon of plants traded in the Witwatersrand umuthi shops, South Africa," *Bothalia*, vol. 31, no. 1, pp. 71–98, 2001.
- [11]. T. E. Moeng, *An Investigation Into the Trade of Medicinal Plants by Muthi Shops and Street Vendors in the Limpopo Province, South Africa* [MSc dissertation], University of Limpopo, Sovenga, South Africa, 2010.
- [12]. C. M. Monakisi, *Knowledge and use of traditional medicinal plants by the setswana-speaking community of kimberley, Northern Cape of South Africa* [M.S. dissertation], Stellenbosch University, Cape Town, South Africa, 2007.
- [13]. S. Talukdar, "Lesotho," in *Southern African Plant Red Data Lists*, J. S. Golding, Ed., Southern African Botanical Diversity Network Report No. 14., pp. 21–30, Sabonet, Pretoria, South Africa, 2002.
- [14]. B.E. Van Wyk, "The potential of South African plants in the development of new medicinal products," *South African Journal of Botany*, vol. 77, no. 4, pp. 812–829, 2011.
- [15]. B.-E. van Wyk, B. van Oudtshoorn, and N. Gericke, *Medicinal Plants of South Africa*, Briza Publications, Pretoria, South Africa, 2013. 4747, 2017, 1, Downloaded from <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1155/2017/6403905>, Wiley Online Library on [01/04/2025]. See the Terms and Conditions

- (<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions>) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine 17
- [16]. P. C. M. Jansen, "Elephantorrhiza elephantina," in *Plant Resources of Tropical Africa 3: Dyes and Tannins*, P. C. M. Jansen and D. Cardon, Eds., pp. 75-76, PROTA Foundation, Backhuys Publishers, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 2005.
- [17]. E. Schmidt, M. Lotter, and W. McClelland, *Trees and Shrubs of Mpumalanga and Kruger National Park*, Jacana Media, Johannesburg, South Africa, 2002.
- [18]. A. Maroyi, L. J. G. van der Maesen, and L. Gloriosa superba, "(Colchicaceae): Ethnobotany and economic importance," in *African Plant Diversity: Systematics and Sustainable Development: Proceedings of the 19th AETFAT Congress*, N. Beau, S. Dessein, and E. Robbrecht, Eds., vol. 50, pp. 408–416, Scripta Botanica Belgica, Antananarivo, Madagascar, 26–30 April 2010.
- [19]. O. N. Allen and E. K. Allen, *The Leguminosae*, University of Wisconsin Press, madison, wis, USA, 1981.
- [20]. A. Grobler, *Elephantorrhiza elephantina*, (Burch.) Skeels, National Herbarium, Pretori, 2010.
- [21]. S. Mukanganyama, A. N. Ntuny, F. Maher, M. Muzila, and K. Andrae-Marobela K, "Screening for anti-infective properties of selected medicinal plants from Botswana," *The African Journal of Plant Science and Biotechnology*, vol. 5, no. 1, pp. 1–7, 2011.
- [22]. J. C. Moreki, K. Tshireletso, and I. C. Okoli, "Potential use of ethnoveterinary medicine for retained placenta in cattle in Mogonono, Botswana," *Journal of Animal Production Advances*, vol. 2, no. 6, pp. 303–309, 2012.
- [23]. J. C. Moreki, "Documentation of ethnoveterinary practices used in family poultry in Botswana," *Veterinary World*, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 18–21, 2013.
- [24]. L. S. Kose, A. Moteetee, and S. van Vuuren, "Ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used in the Maseru district of Lesotho," *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 170, pp. 184–200, 2015.
- [25]. A. Ribeiro, M. M. Romeiras, J. Tavares, and M. T. Faria, "Ethnobotanical survey in Canhane village, district of Massingir, Mozambique: medicinal plants and traditional knowledge," *Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine*, vol. 6, article 33, 2010.
- [26]. *Tree Atlas of Namibia, Elephantorrhiza elephantina*: Omundjoze, 2017, <http://treeatlas.biodiversity.org.na/viewspc.php?nr=224>.
- [27]. D. Luseba and D. van der Merwe, "Ethnoveterinary medicine practices among Tsonga speaking people of South Africa," *Onderstepoort Journal of Veterinary Research*, vol. 73, no. 2, pp. 115–122, 2006.
- [28]. M. C. Mathabe, R. V. Nikovola, N. Lall, and N. Z. Nyazema, "Antibacterial activities of medicinal plants used for the treatment of diarrhoea in Limpopo Province, South Africa," *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 105, no. 1-2, pp. 286–293, 2006.
- [29]. J. R. Appidi, D. S. Grierson, and A. J. Afolayan, "Ethnobotanical study of plants used for the treatment of diarrhoea in the Eastern Cape, South Africa," *Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences*, vol. 11, no. 15, pp. 1961–1963, 2008.
- [30]. W. Beinart and K. Brown, *African Local Knowledge and Livestock Health: Diseases and Treatments in U.S*, African Studies Centre, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK, 2013.
- [31]. S. S. Semanya, A. Maroyi, M. J. Potgieter, and L. J. C. Erasmus, "Herbal medicines used by Bapedi traditional healers to treat reproductive ailments in the Limpopo Province, South Africa," *African Journal Traditional, Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, vol. 10, no. 2, pp. 331–339, 2013.
- [32]. S. A. Rankoana, "Sustainable use and management of indigenous plant resources: a case of Mantheding community in Limpopo Province, South Africa," *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, vol. 8, no. 3, article 221, 2016.
- [33]. M. Sanhokwe, J. Mupangwa, P. J. Masika, V. Maphosa, and V. Muchenje, "Medicinal plants used to control internal

- and external parasites in goats,” Onderstepoort Journal of Veterinary Research, vol. 83, no. 1, Article ID a1016, 7 pages, 2016.
- [34]. O. O. G. Amusan, “Some ethnoremedies used for HIV/AIDS and related diseases in Swaziland,” The African Journal of Plant Science and Biotechnology, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 20–26, 2009.
- [35]. H. A. Hyde, B. T. Wursten, P. Ballings, and M. Coates Palgrave, *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* (Burch.) Skeels. Flora of Zimbabwe: Species information: *Elephantorrhiza elephantina*, 2017, http://www.zimbabweflora.co.zw/speciesdata/species.php?species_id=126450.
- [36]. J. Pujol, *Natur Africa: The Herbalist Handbook*, Jean Pujol NaturaJ Healers Foundation, Durban, South Africa, 1990.
- [37]. T. Felhaber, *South African Traditional Healers’ Primary Health Care Handbook*, Kagiso, Cape Town, South Africa, 1997.
- [38]. N. Lall and N. Kishore, “Are plants used for skin care in South Africa fully explored?” *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 153, no. 1, pp. 61–84, 2014.
- [39]. A. Jacot Guillarmod, *Flora of Lesotho*, Cramer, Lehr, Germany, 1971.
- [40]. I. Hedberg and F. Staugard, *Traditional Medicinal Plants: Traditional Medicine in Botswana*, Ipeleng, Gabarone, Botswana, 1989.
- [41]. E. Aaku, M. Office, S. P. Dharani, R. R. T. Majinda, and M. S. Motswaiedi, “Chemical and antimicrobial studies on *Elephantorrhiza elephantina*,” *Fitoterapia*, vol. 69, no. 5, pp. 464–465, 1998.
- [42]. J. Gerstner, “A preliminary check list of Zulu names of plants,” *Bantu Studies*, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 131–149, 1939.
- [43]. S. Mpofu, D. Tantoh Ndinteh, S. F. van Vuuren, D. K. Olivier, and R. W. M. Krause, “Interactive efficacies of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* and *Pentania prunelloides* extracts and isolated compounds against gastrointestinal bacteria,” *South African Journal of Botany*, vol. 94, pp. 224–230, 2014.
- [44]. M. A. Bisi-Johnson, C. L. Obi, L. Kambizi, and M. Nkomo, “A survey of indigenous herbal diarrhoeal remedies of O.R. Tambo district, Eastern Cape Province, South Africa,” *African Journal of Biotechnology*, vol. 9, no. 8, pp. 1245–1254, 2010.
- [45]. S. O. Bandeira, F. Gaspar, and F. P. Pagula, “African ethnobotany and healthcare: emphasis on Mozambique,” *Pharmaceutical Biology*, vol. 39, no. 1, pp. 70–73, 2001.
- [46]. A. T. Bryant, *Zulu Medicine and Medicine-Men*, C. Struik, Cape Town, South Africa, 1966.
- [47]. S. S. Semanya and M. J. Potgieter, “Ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used by Bapedi traditional healers to treat erectile dysfunction in the Limpopo Province, South Africa,” *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, vol. 7, no. 7, pp. 349–357, 2013.
- [48]. J. M. Watt and M. G. Breyer-Brandwijk, *The Medicinal and Poisonous Plants of Southern and Eastern Africa: Pharmacological Effects and Toxicology in Man and Animals*, E. Livingstone, Edinburgh, UK.
- [49]. S. S. Semanya, M. J. Potgieter, and L. J. C. Erasmus, “Ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used by Bapedi healers to treat diabetes mellitus in the Limpopo Province, South Africa,” *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, vol. 7, no. 8, pp. 434–441, 2013. 4747, 2017, 1, Downloaded from <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1155/2017/6403905>, Wiley Online Library on [01/04/2025]. See the Terms and Conditions (<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/terms-and-conditions>) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License 18 Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine.
- [50]. S. Nciki, S. Vuuren, A. van Eyk, and H. de Wet, “Plants used to treat skin diseases in northern Maputaland, South Africa: antimicrobial activity and in vitro permeability studies,” *Pharmaceutical Biology*, vol. 54, no. 11, pp. 2420–2436, 2016.
- [51]. H. deWet, S. Nciki, and S. F. van Vuuren, “Medicinal plants used for the treatment of various skin disorders by a rural community in northern Maputaland, South

- Africa,” *Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine*, vol. 9, article 51, 2013.
- [52]. D. van der Merwe, G. E. Swan, and C. J. Botha, “Use of ethnoveterinary medicinal plants in cattle by Setswana-speaking people in the Madikwe area of the NorthWest Province of South Africa,” *Journal of the South African Veterinary Association*, vol. 72, no. 4, pp. 189–196, 2001.
- [53]. A. P. Dold and M. L. Cocks, “Traditional veterinary medicine in the Alice district of the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa,” *South African Journal of Science*, vol. 97, no. 9-10, pp. 375–379, 2001.
- [54]. S. J. Mpofu, T. A. M. Msagati, and R. W. M. Krause, “Cytotoxicity, phytochemical analysis and antioxidant activity of crude extracts from rhizomes of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* and *Pentanisia prunelloides*,” *African Journal of Traditional, Complementary, and Alternative Medicines*, vol. 11, no. 1, pp. 34–52, 2014.
- [55]. H. Z. Msimanga, J. Fenstermacher, A. Levitz, I. Najimudeen, C. Phillips, and E. M. Wysocki, “Identification of compounds in hexane extracts of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* and their comparison with selected over the counter products,” *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, vol. 7, no. 5, pp. 198–208, 2013.
- [56]. S. J. Mpofu, T. A. M. Msagati, and R. W. M. Krause, “Flavonoids from the rhizomes of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* and *Pentanisia prunelloides*,” *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research*, vol. 9, no. 16, pp. 531–549, 2015.
- [57]. X. S. Mthembu, A phytochemical study of *Schefflera umbellifera* and *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* [M.S. Dissertation], University of Kwazulu Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa, 2007.
- [58]. V. Maphosa, P. J. Masika, E. S. Bizimenyera, and J. N. Eloff, “Invitro anthelmintic activity of crude aqueous extracts of *Aloe ferox*, *Leonotis leonurus* and *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* against *Haemonchus contortus*,” *Tropical Animal Health and Production*, vol. 42, no. 2, pp. 301–307, 2010.
- [59]. V. Maphosa and P. J. Masika, “In vivo validation of *Aloe ferox* (Mill). *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* Bruch. Skeels. and *Leonotis leonurus* (L) R. BR as potential anthelmintics and antiprotozoals against mixed infections of gastrointestinal nematodes in goats,” *Parasitology Research*, vol. 110, no. 1, pp. 103–108, 2012.
- [60]. V. Maphosa and P. J. Masika, “Anthelmintic screening of fractions of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* root extract against *Haemonchus contortus*,” *Tropical Animal Health and Production*, vol. 44, no. 1, pp. 159–163, 2012.
- [61]. U. Mabona, A. Viljoen, E. Shikanga, A. Marston, and S. van Vuuren, “Antimicrobial activity of southern African medicinal plants with dermatological relevance: from an ethnopharmacological screening approach, to combination studies and the isolation of a bioactive compound,” *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 148, no. 1, pp. 45–55, 2013.
- [62]. V. Maphosa, P. J. Masika, and B. Moyo, “Investigation of the antiinflammatory and antinociceptive activities of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* (Burch.) Skeels root extract in male rats,” *African Journal of Biotechnology*, vol. 8, no. 24, pp. 7068–7072, 2009.
- [63]. C. Clarkson, V. J. Maharaj, N. R. Crouch et al., “In vitro antiplasmodial activity of medicinal plants native to or naturalised in South Africa,” *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, vol. 92, no. 2-3, pp. 177–191, 2004.
- [64]. V. Naidoo, E. Zweygarth, J. N. Eloff, and G. E. Swan, “Identification of anti-babesial activity for four ethnoveterinary plants in vitro,” *Veterinary Parasitology*, vol. 130, no. 1-2, pp. 9–13, 2005.
- [65]. V. Naidoo, E. Zweygarth, and G. E. Swan, “Determination and quantification of the in vitro activity of *Aloe marlothii* (A. Berger) subsp. *marlothii* and *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* (Burch.) skeels acetone extracts against *Ehrlichia ruminantium*,” *Onderstepoort Journal of Veterinary Research*, vol. 73, no. 3, pp. 175–178, 2006.
- [66]. C. Cueva, S. Mingo, I. Munoz-González et al., “Antibacterial activity of wine

- phenolic compounds and oenological extracts against potential respiratory pathogens,” *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, vol. 54, no. 6, pp. 557–563, 2012.
- [67]. F. A. Hashem and M. M. Saleh, “Antimicrobial components of some cruciferae plants (*Diplotaxis harra* Forsk. and *Erucaria microcarpa* Boiss.),” *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 329–332, 1999.
- [68]. J. Yang, X. Hou, P. S. Mir, and T. A. McAllister, “Anti-*Escherichia coli* O157:H7 activity of free fatty acids under varying pH,” *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*, vol. 56, no. 3, pp. 263–267, 2010.
- [69]. M. Abhilash, “In silico analysis of cranberry proanthocyanidin epicatechin (4 β -8, 2 β -0-7) as an inhibitor for modelled afimbrial adhesin virulence protein of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*,” *International Journal of Pharma and Biological Sciences*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 1–7, 2010.
- [70]. R. Krause, E. Schwab, D. Bachhiesl et al., “Role of *Candida* in antibiotic-associated diarrhea,” *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, vol. 184, no. 8, pp. 1065–1069, 2001.
- [71]. A. Jouret-Mourin and K. Geboes, “Infectious colitis,” *Acta Endoscopica*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 167–183, 2002.
- [72]. N. P. Mishchenko, S. A. Fedoreev, V. M. Bryukhanov et al., “Chemical composition and pharmacological activity of anthraquinones from *Rubia cordifolia* cell culture,” *Pharmaceutical Chemistry Journal*, vol. 41, no. 11, pp. 605–609, 2007.
- [73]. J. D. Phillipson, C. W. Wright, G. C. Kirby, and D. C. Warhurst, “Tropical plants as sources of antiprotozoal agents,” in *Phytochemical Potential of Tropical Plants*, K. R. Downum, J. T. Romeo, and H. A. Stafford, Eds., pp. 1–40, Plenum Press, New York, NY, USA, 1993.
- [74]. A. R. Ndhlala, C. Mupure, K. Chitindingu et al., “Antioxidant potentials and degrees of polymerization of six wild fruits,” *Scientific Research and Essay*, vol. 1, no. 3, pp. 87–92, 2006.
- [75]. T. Kalaivani, C. Rajasekaran, and L. Mathew, “Free radical scavenging, cytotoxic, and hemolytic activities of an active antioxidant compound ethyl gallate from leaves of *Acacia Nilotica*(L.) wild. ex. delile subsp. *Indica* (Benth.) Brenan,” *Journal of Food Science*, vol. 76, no. 6, pp. T144-T149, 2011.
- [76]. V. Maphosa, P. J. Masika, and B. Moyo, “Toxicity evaluation of the aqueous extract of the rhizome of *Elephantorrhiza elephantina* (Burch.) Skeels. (Fabaceae), in rats,” *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, vol. 48, no. 1, pp. 196–201, 2010.