

International Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology ISSN: 2326-7267 Vol. 4 (2), pp. 001-007, February, 2015. Available online at www.internationalscholarsjournals.org © International Scholars Journals

Author(s) retain the copyright of this article.

Full Length Research Paper

Antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory properties of *Gunnera perpensa* (Gunneraceae)

Mpumelelo Nkomo¹, Benedicta N. Nkeh-Chungag²*, Learnmore Kambizi¹, Eugene Jamot Ndebia² and Jehu E. Iputo²

¹Botany Department, Walter Sisulu University, PBx 1, Mthatha 5117, South Africa.

²Department of Physiology, Faculty of Health Sciences, Walter Sisulu University, Mthatha 5117, South Africa.

Accepted 16 October, 2014

Gunnera perpensa, which belongs to the Gunneraceae family, is used in folk medicine to relieve rheumatoid pain, facilitate childbirth and for healing wounds. In this study, the antinociceptive and antiinflammatory properties of this plant extracts were evaluated using the abdominal constriction, hotplate, formalin, hyperalgesia and fresh egg albumin-induced inflammation. The extracts were administered orally at the test doses of 150 and 200 mg/kg prior to the above-mentioned assays. Both extracts produced significant (P < 0.05, P < 0.01) inhibition of thermal nociception induced by hot plate respectively. Chemical nociception induced by intraperitoneal and sub plantar injections of acetic acid and formalin respectively, were significantly (P < 0.05, P < 0.01) reduced by the extracts in a dose independent manner. The extracts also showed significant antihyperalgesia and anti inflammatory properties (P < 0.05, P < 0.01) respectively. Our findings suggest that *G. perpensa* possesses both antinociceptive and anti inflammatory activity supporting its traditional use for pain management.

Key words: Gunnera perpensa, hot plate, writhing, formalin, inflammation, pain.

INTRODUCTION

South Africa has an abundance of medicinal plants, used in the treatment of various diseases on an empirical basis (Hutchings and van Staden, 1994; Hutchings et al., 1996; Jäger et al., 1996; Salie et al., 1996; McGaw et al., 1997).

The management of pain is a daily challenge in modern medicine, despite the currently available wide range of analgesics. Medicinal plants are believed to be an important source of new chemical substances with potential therapeutic effects on pain (Gupta et al., 2006; Farnsworth, 1889). *Gunnera perpensa* is widely used by the rural population in South Africa for the treatment of several diseases including dysmenorrhoea. Aqueous decoctions of this plant, relieve rheumatoid pain, facilitate childbirth and are believed to treat female infertility (Hutchings et al., 1996). A decoction of the rhizomes of

Abbreviations: GPAE, *Gunnera perpensa* aqueous extract; GPME, *Gunnera perpensa* methanolic extract.

G. perpensa is applied as a dressing for wounds and psoriasis (Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962, Grierson and Afolayan, 1999).

Previous studies have showed that *G. perpensa* has both antibacterial and antioxidant properties, as well as stimulate fibroblast growth in wound healing (Steenkamp et al., 2004). Drewes et al. (2005) showed that Z-venusol, a phenylpropanoid glucoside and two new, simple, 1,4 benzoquinones isolated from *G. perpensa* had antibac-terial activity as well as contracted both ileal and uterine smooth muscles. However, up to date, there is no scien-tific validation of the use of this plant in the management of pain.

This study investigated the analgesic and antiinflammatory activity of aqueous and methanolic extracts of *G. perpensa* using several experimental animal moleds of pain to validate its traditional uses.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material

^{*}Corresponding author. E-mail: bnkehchungag@wsu.ac.za. Tel: +27 47 502 2794. Fax: +27 47 502 2758.

2008, 40 Km North East of Lusikisiki (Eastern Cape- South Africa). The plant material was taxonomically identified by Dr Kathleen Immelman of the Kie herbarium at Walter Sisulu University. A voucher specimen (Nkomo 01) has been deposited in the herbarium for future reference.

Extract preparation

Rhizome samples of *G. perpensa* were chopped, air dried and ground to powder. 50 g portions of each dried plant were shaken separately in methanol and water for 24 h on an orbital shaker. The extracts were filtered using a Buchner funnel and Whatman No. 1 filter paper, with the methanol filtrates concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure at a maximum of 40°C using a rotating evaporator to afford a brownish paste yielding 17 g of crude methanolic extract. The aqueous filtrates were freeze- dried, yielding an 8.4 g brown powder (Taylor et al., 1996; Koduru et al., 2006).

Animals

Two month old Swiss mice (30 - 40 g) and Wistar rats (200 - 250 g) were obtained from the South African Vaccine Products-Johannesburg and kept in the Department of Physiology and Animal holding facility.

The animals were housed with a 12 h light/dark cycle and fed standard rat chow and tap water *ad libitum.* 12 h before each experiment animals would receive only water. The experiments reported in this study were carried out in accordance with current ethical guidelines for the investigation of experimental pain in conscious animals (Zimmermann, 1983). Ethical clearance for this study was obtained from the Walter Sisulu University Ethics Committee Ref No: Ethics 0009-07.

Writhing assay

The writhing test was carried out as described by Gaertner et al. (1999). Groups of mice (n = 5) were pre-treated orally with *G. perpensa* aqueous extract (GPAE) (150 and 200 mg/kg), *G. perpensa* methanolic extract GPME (150 and 200 mg/kg), Aspirin (100 mg/kg), Morphine (10 mg/kg) and distilled water. The writhing episodes were induced by an intraperitoneal injection of a 0.6% acetic acid solution (0.25 ml /animal) 30 min after the pre-treatment. The number of writhes/contortions was counted during the first 20 min after acetic acid injection.

Hot plate assay

The hot plate test was carried out as described by Wilson et al. (2003). Groups of mice (n = 5) were treated orally with GPAE (150 and 200 mg/kg) and GPME (150 and 200 mg/kg), Aspirin (100 mg/kg), Morphine (10 mg/kg) and distilled water. Mice were placed on a hot plate (Bibby Sterilin, UK) maintained at $55 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C and the reaction latency (in seconds) for licking of hind paw or jumping noted.

The mice which reacted within 15 s and which did not show large variation when tested on four separated occasions were selected for studies. Recordings were taken before treatment with the different drugs and 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 h post treatment. Results were expressed as the difference between the baseline reaction latency and the reaction latency at recorded times.

Formalin assay

The formalin test was carried out as described by Santos and

Calixto, (1997). Groups of mice (n = 5) were treated orally with GPAE and GPME (150 and 200 mg/kg), Aspirin (100 mg/kg), Morphine (10 mg/kg) and distilled water. Formalin (1%) was injected into the sub-plantar region of the right hind paw of the animals 30 min post- treatment. The number of times paw was licked/bitten within the time frames of 0 - 5 min (neurogenic phase) and 15 - 30 min (inflammatory phase) after formalin administration was counted.

Inflammatory pain assay

The inflammatory pain assay was carried out as described by Ferreira et al. (2001) with modifications. Groups of rats (n = 5) were treated orally with GPAE and GPME (150 and 200 mg/kg), Indomethacin (10 mg/kg) and distilled water. Rats received subplantar injections of 0.2 ml of carrageneen in the right hind paw 30 min post-treatment. Mechanical stimulation was performed using von Frey filament (Ugo Basile, Dynamic plantar Anesthesiometer, 37450).

The rats were placed on a mesh-wire floor within individual plastic cubicles and were allowed to acclimatize for 30 min. The plantar surface of the hind paw was probed by an electronic von Frey probe ranging from 0.01 - 58 g. Each monofilament was applied with sufficient force to cause them to bend. Animals responded to pain by a brisk withdrawal or flinching of the tested paw. Baseline measurements were performed before carrageneen injecttion while post-treatment measurements were carried out 1, 2, 3, 4 and 24 h after treatment.

Albumin inflammatory pain assay

The albumin- induced hind paw edema model was used in the determination of anti-inflammatory activity. Six groups of 5 rats each were allotted to different treatment groups. Groups of animals were treated orally with one of the following: GPAE (150 and 200 mg/kg) GPME (150 and 200 mg/kg) indomethacin (100 mg/kg) and an equal volume of distilled water, 30 min after pre-treatment, edema was induced by injection of fresh egg albumin (0.1 ml, 50% v/v in saline) into sub plantar tissue of the right hind paw. Measurements were made immediately before injection of the phlogistic agents and at 30 min, 1, 2 and 3 h after albumin injection using the Ugo Basile 7140 plethysmometer. Percentage inhibition of inflammation was calculated as described by Ahmed et al. (1993) and Okoli et al. (2006).

Statistical analysis

The software package, GraphPad InStat 3 was used for data analyses. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett's test was used for data analyses. Results are reported as mean \pm SEM. p < 0.05 was considered significant.

RESULTS

Writhing assay

The response to acetic acid-induced writhing was signifycantly (p < 0.05) reduced by both extracts and reference drugs. Figure 1 shows that aqueous GPAE reduced acetic acid-induced abdominal contractions in a dose dependent manner with the higher dose producing significant results (p < 0.05). On the other hand, both doses of the methanolic extracts significantly (p < 0.01)

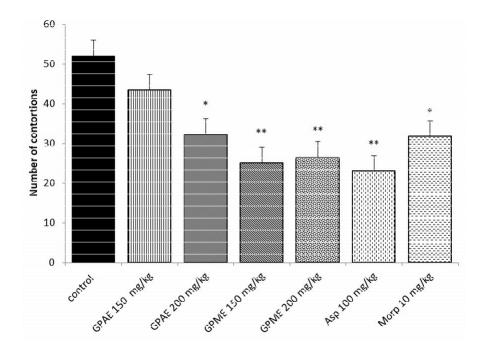


Figure 1. Antinociceptive effect of *G. perpensa* on acetic -acid induced abdominal contractions in mice. The values represent the means \pm SEM. n=5; *p< 0.05; **p< 0.01, significantly different compared to control. Asp, Aspirin; Morp, Morphine.

•
•

	Dose (mg/kg)	1 h	2 h	3 h	4 h	5 h
Control		1.2	1	- 0.6	- 0.2	- 1.2
GPAE	150	8.3 ± 0.9**	12.5 ± 1.6**	12.75 ± 1.0**	11.0 ± 1.4	9.0 ± 0.9**
GPAE	200	5.6 ± 1.2	8.2 ± 0.4**	12.2 ± 0.8**	$9.0 \pm 0.6^{**}$	9.0 ± 0.3**
GPME	150	8.6 ± 1.2	9.6 ± 1.4*	11.4 ± 1.8**	15.0 ± 2.1**	12.4 ± 2.2**
GPME	200	8.4 ± 1.0	8.6 ± 1.3**	17.0 ± 0.8**	19.0 ± 0.7**	12.0 ± 0.6**
Aspirin	100	4.4 ± 0.5	11.0 ± 2.3**	11.6 ± 1.4**	11.6 ± 1.0**	11.0 ± 1.1**
Morphine	10	7.2 ± 0.6*	7.2 ± 1.3*	7.4 ± 1.4**	$5.6 \pm 0.8^{*}$	8.0 ± 0.6

Values are mean \pm SEM (n = 5). These values were obtained by computing the difference between the latency at given times post treatment and the baseline latency. Experimental groups were compared with the control (*P < 0.05 and **P<0.01).

inhibited acetic acid-induced writhing. These results were comparable with results obtained with aspirin. The analgesic effects of GPAE (200 mg/kg) were similar to the effects of morphine (p < 0.05).

Hot plate assay

As shown in Table 1, GPAE and GPME produced signifycant (p < 0.05; p < 0.01) analgesic activity respectively from the 2nd till the 5th hour post treatment compared to to controls. Aspirin (100 mg/kg) and morphine (10 mg/kg) also showed significant (p < 0.01; p < 0.05) analgesic effects although the effects of morphine had an earlier onset.

Formalin assay

The formalin-induced pain occurred in the characteristic two phases. The first phase also known as the neurogenic phase occurred during the first 5 min followed by a relative pain-free period. 10 min after formalin injection, the second phase known as the inflammatory phase started and lasted beyond 30 min post injection. The extracts of *G. perpensa* significantly (p < 0.01) inhibited the second phase of the formalin-induced pain response though these extracts failed to inhibit the first phase (Figure 2).

Morphine on the other hand, significantly (p < 0.01) attenuated the pain responses in both the neurogenic and inflammatory phases, while aspirin (100 mg/kg) like

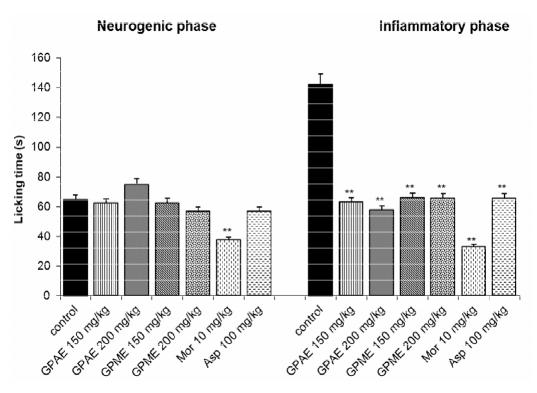


Figure 2. Antinociceptive effect of *G. perpensa* on formalin-induced pain. The values represent the means \pm SEM (n=5). **P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.01, significantly different compared to control. Asp, Aspirin; Morp, Morphine.

the extracts had a significant (p < 0.01) analgesic effect only on the inflammatory phase. The effect of morphine on the inflammatory phase was significantly (p < 0.05) better than the inhibitory effects of both extracts and aspirin.

Hyperalgesia assay

As shown in Figure 3, the administration of *G. perpensa* significantly (P < 0.05) reduced mechanical hyperalgesia induced by carrageneen 1 and 2 h post treatment in a non-dose dependent fashion. Indomethacin showed significant inhibition of carrageneen-induced hyperalgesia from 1 to 4 h post- treatment. However, beyond the 4th hour after treatment none of the drugs showed protective effects against this model of inflammatory pain.

Albumin-induced inflammation assay

The anti-inflammatory activity of GPAE and GPME against acute paw inflammation induced by egg albumin is summarized in Table 2. The higher doses of both GPAE and GPME significantly (p < 0.01) inhibited albumin-induced inflammation and had an earlier onset compared to the lower doses whose effects were delayed (1 h post treatment). Indomethacin on the other hand had

an earlier onset of anti-inflammatory effect which was still significant after the third hour.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we evaluated the analgesic and antiinflammatory effect of the aqueous and methanolic extracts of G. perpensa. Both extracts of G. perpensa demonstrated analgesic activities which were not dosedependent. In the acetic acid- induced writhing test, both doses of GPME significantly reduced abdominal contortions. These results were similar to those induced by aspirin. However, only the 200 mg/kg of the GPAE had significant analgesic effects on this model of pain. Although morphine significantly reduced acetic acidinduced pain, yet its effects were weaker compared to the effects of aspirin and GPME. The acetic acid-induced writhing is a visceral pain model which is generally used for screening plants and new agents for analgesic properties (Gene et al., 1998; Tjolsen and Hole, 1997). It is able to determine antinociceptive effects of compounds at dose levels that might appear inactive in other methods like the tail-flick test (Bentley et al., 1981).

However, it has been shown that the acetic acidinduced writhing test is a non-specific nociceptive model (Collier et al., 1968; Bighetti et al., 1999; Sánchez-Mateo

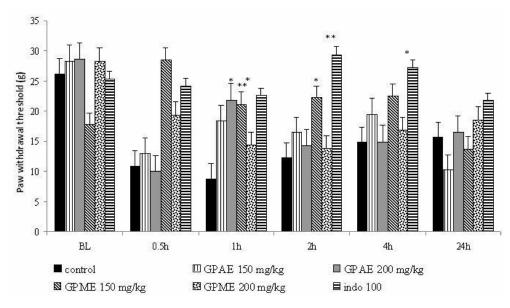


Figure 3. Antinociceptive effect of *G. perpensa* on inflammatory pain induced by carrageneen. The values represent the means \pm SEM.; *n*=5; **P* < 0.05; "**P" < 0.01; significantly different compared to control. Indo, indomethacin; BL, baseline.

Table 2. Effects of G	. perpensa on rat	right hind paw volume.
-----------------------	-------------------	------------------------

	Dose (mg/kg)	0.5 h	1 h	2 h	3 h
Control		-	-	-	-
GPAE	150	40.0 ± 12.5	56.4 ± 3.9**	59.2 ± 12.2*	42.6 ± 14.3
GPAE	200	59.2 ± 5.2**	$54.4 \pm 4.6^{**}$	29.6 ± 10.9	11.7 ± 11.2
GPME	150	20.0 ± 10.3	44.6 ± 3.1**	42.2 ± 8.4	51.2 ± 12.1
GPME	200	51.6 ± 10.0**	49.0 ± 10.9**	51.0 ± 9.5	50.6 ± 11.3
Indo	10	43.2 ± 7.7*	67.9 ± 5.3**	59.7 ± 9.7*	59.3 ± 9.2*

Values are mean \pm SEM (n = 5). Experimental groups were compared with control (*P < 0.05 and **P<0.01) Indo: Indomethacin. Percentage inhibition of inflammation was thus calculated: inhibition of inflammation (%) = 100 × [1- (a-x)/(b-y)], where *a* = mean paw volume of treated rats at various time after egg albumin injection; *x* = mean paw volume of treated rats before egg albumin injection; *b* = mean paw volume of control rats at various time after egg albumin injection; *y* = mean paw volume of control rats before albumin injection.

et al., 2006). Generally, this test is used to elucidate peripheral activity of drugs. The intra-abdominal injection of acetic acid induces the release of prostaglandins as well as cytokines which may be the cause of visceral pain. (Deraedt et al., 1980; Ikeda et al., 2001). *G. perpensa* extracts may be acting by inhibiting the release of these mediators. However, the results of this writhing alone were unable to ascertain whether the antinociception was central or peripheral.

The hot-plate test was used to assess the central antinociceptive properties of *G. perpensa*. Both doses of GPAE and GPME significantly increased the reaction time to thermal stimulation. The GPME extracts like aspirin, had a later onset of analgesic effects which lasted beyond the 5th hour post treatment. Under-standably, the effects of morphine had an earlier onset

which was similar to the effects of the lower dose of GPAE. The hot plate test is used to distinguish between peripheral and central acting analgesic agents (Ramabadran et al., 1989). Our results are suggestive of central acting antinociceptive effects of GPAE and GPME.

The formalin test is believed to resemble clinical pain more closely in comparison with other tests that employ mechanical or thermal stimuli (Tjolsen and Hole, 1997). This test induced a biphasic response in all animals. Neither of the extracts nor aspirin affected the pain intensity in the first phase although morphine significantly attenuated pain behaviour in this phase. However, during the inflammatory phase both doses of GPAE and GPME significantly reduced pain. Aspirin and morphine were also effective against this phase of inflammatory pain, the effects of morphine were significantly greater. The first phase of the formalin- induced pain is due to direct chemical stimulation of nociceptors whose effects are transmitted via C fibers, which can be suppressed by opioid analgesic drugs such as morphine (Sayyah et al., 2004). On the other hand, the late phase is inflammatory and thus sensitive to the NSAIDs such as aspirin (Hunskaar and Hole, 1987; Rosland et al., 1990; Young et al., 2005). The late phase, results from the action of inflammatory mediators in the peripheral tissues, such as prostaglandins, serotonin, histamine and bradykinin, as well as functional changes in the neurons, which promote facilitation of synaptic transmission at the spinal level (Franca et al., 2001; Garcia et al., 2004). To verify the effect of G. perpensa on the late phase of the formalin test, the analgesic efficiency was investigated on inflamematory pain tests induced by carrageneen and albumin respectively. In the hyperalgesia test, the GPAE and GPME significantly increased paw withdrawal latencies during the first and second hours post carrageneen injection thus confirming previous results which showed that these extracts inhibited inflammatory pain. The analgesic effects of indomethacin, however, were significant from the first hour through the fourth hour post treatment. Carrageenan induced acute inflammatory pain results from the sensitization of primary sensory nociceptive neurons. Tissue injury around these neurons causes the release of primary mediators which lower the nociceptor threshold and increase neuronal membrane excitability thus increasing the perception of pain (Cunha et al., 2005).

Results obtained from the albumin test showed that all the extracts at all the doses exhibited inhibition of inflammation after one hour of albumin injection, while both 200 mg/kg doses began inhibition after 0.5 h while indomethacin showed significant inhibition of inflammation at all the time intervals studied. Indomethacin like the other NSAIDs prevents inflammation by inhibition of cyclooxygenase conversion of arachidonic acid into prostaglandins (Toshihiro et al., 2001). The plant extract could be acting by a similar mechanism to prevent albumin induced inflammation. Based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that GPAE and GPME extracts have both analgesic property and anti-inflammatory properties. These findings seem to justify the use of the plant in traditional medicine in the management of pain.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Walter Sisulu University Institutional Research grant and the National Research Foundation of South Africa.

REFERENCES

Ahmed MM, Qureshi S, Al-bekairi AM, Shah AH, Rao RM (1993).

- Antiinflammatory activity of *Caralluma tuberculata* alcoholic extract. Fitoterapia, 64: 359-362.
- Bentley GA, Newton SH, Starr J (1981). Evidence for an action of morphine and the enkephalins on sensory nerve endings in the mouse peritoneum. Br. J. Pharmacol., 73: 325-332.
- Bighetti EJB, Hiruma-Lima CA, Gracioso JS, Arm SB (1999). Antiinflammatory Pharm. Pharmacol., 51: 1447-53.
- Collier HOJ, Dinneen LC, Johnson CA, Schneider C (1968). The abdominal constriction response and its suppression by analgesic drugs in the mouse. Br. J. Pharmacol., 32: 295-310.
- Cunha TM, Verri Jr WA, Silva JS, Poole S, Cunha FQ, Ferreira SH (2005). A cascade of cytokines mediates mechanical inflammatory hypernociception in mice. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 102: 1755-1760.
- Deraedt R, Jouquey S, Delevallee F, Flauhaut M (1980). Release of prostaglandins E and F in an algogenic reaction and its inhibition. Eur. J. Pharmacol., 61: 17-24.
- Drewes SE, Khan F, van Vuuren SF, Viljoen AM (2005). Simple 1,4benzoquinones with antibacterial activity from stems and leaves of *Gunnera perpensa*. Phytochemistry 66: 1816-1816.
- Farnsworth NR (1989). Screening plants for new medicines. In *Biodiversity, Part II* Edited by: Wilson EO. National Academy Press, Washington., pp. 83-97.
- Ferreira J, Campos MM, Pesquero JB, Araújo RC, Bader M, Calixto JB (2001). Evidence for the participation of kinins in Freund's adjuvantinduced inflammatory and nociceptive responses in kinin B1 and B2 receptor knockout mice. Neuropharmacology, 41: 1006–1012.
- Franca DS, Souza ALS, Almeida KR, Dolabella SS, Martinelli C, Coelho MM (2001). B vitamins induce an antinociceptive effect in the acetic acid and formaldehyde models of nociception in mice. Eur. J. Pharmacol., 421: 157-164.
- Gaertner M, Muller L, Roos JF, Cani G, Santos ARS, Niero R, Calixto JF, Yunes RA, Delle-Monache F, Cechinel-Fehho V (1999). Analgesic triterpenes from *Sebastiania schottianan* roots. Phytomedicine, 6: 41-44.
- Garcia MD, Fernandez MA, Alvarez A, Saenz MT (2004). Antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory effect of the aqueous extract from leaves of *Pimenta racemosa* var. ozua (Mirtaceae). J. Ethnopharmacol., 91: 69-73.
- Gene RM, Segura L, Adzet T, Marin E, Inglesias J (1998). *Heterotheca inuloides*: anti- inflammatory and analgesic effects. J. Ethnopharmacol., 60: 157-162.
- Grierson DS, Afolayan AJ (1999). An ethnobotanical study of the plants used for the treatment of wound in the Eastern Cape, S. Afr. J. Ethnopharmacol. 67: 327-332.
- Gupta M, Mazumder UK, Gomathi P, Thamil SV (2006). Antiinflammatory evaluation of leaves of *Plumeria acuminata*. BMC Complementary Altern. Med., 6: 36.

Hunskaar S, Hole K (1987). The formalin test in mice: dissociation

- between inflammatory and non-inflammatory pain. Pain 30: 103-114.
- Hutchings A, Scott AH, Lewis G, Cunningham AB (1996). Zulu Medicinal Plants: An Inventory University of Natal Press. Pietermaritzburg.
- Hutchings A, van Staden J (1994). Plants used for stress-related ailments in traditional Zulu, Xhosa and Sotho medicine: part 1 plants used for headaches. J. Ethnopharmarcol., 43: 89-124.
- Ikeda Y, Ueno A, Naraba H, Oh-ishi S (2001). Involvement of vanilloid receptor VR1 and prostanoids in the acid-induced writhing responses of mice. Life Sci., 69: 2911-2919.
- Jäger AK, Hutchings A, van Staden J (1996). Screening of Zulu medicinal plants for prostaglandin-synthesis inhibitors. J Ethnopharmacol., 52: 95-100.
- Koduru S, Grierson DS, Afolayan AJ (2006). Antimicrobial activity of Solanum aculeastrum. Pharm. Biol., 44: 283-286.
- McGaw LJ, Jäger AK, van Staden J (1997). Prostaglandin synthesis inhibitory activity in Zulu, Xhosa and Sotho medicinal plants. Phytother. Res., 11: 113-117.
- Okoli CO, Akah PA, Nwafor SV, Anisiobi AI, Ibegbunam IN, Erojikwe O (2006). Anti-inflammatory activity of hexane leaf extract of *Aspilia africana* C.D. Adams. J. Ethnopharmacol., 109: 219-225.
- Ramabadran K, Bansinath M, Turndorf H, Puig MM (1989). Tail immersion test for the evaluation of a nociceptive reaction in mice. Methodological consideration. J. Pharmacol. Methods, 21: 21-31.

- Rosland JH, Tjolsen, A, Maehle, B, Hole K (1990). The formalin test in mice: effect of formalin concentration. Pain, 42: 235-242.
- Salie F, Eagles PFK, Leng HMJ (1996). Preliminary antimicrobial screening of four South African Asteraceae species. J. Ethnopharmacol., 52: 27-33.
- Sánchez-Mateo CC, Bonkanka CX, Hernández-Pérez M, Rabanal RM (2006). Evaluation of the analgesic and topical anti -inflammatory effects of *Hypericum reflexum* L. fil. J. Ethnopharmacol. 107: 1-6.
- Santos AR, Calixto JB (1997). Further evidence for the involvement of tachykinin receptor subtypes in formalin and capsaicin models of pain in mice. Neuropeptides 31: 381-389.
- Sayyah M, Hadidi N, Kamalinejad M (2004). Analgesic and antiinflammatory activity of *Lactuca sativa* seed extract in rats. J. Ethnopharmacol. 92: 325-329.
- Steenkamp V, Mathivha E, Gouws MC, Van Rensburg CEJ (2004). Studies on antibacterial, antioxidant and fibroblast growth stimulation of wound healing remedies from South Africa. J. Ethnopharmacol. 95:353–357.
- Taylor RSL, Edel F, Manandhar NP, Towers GHN (1996). Antimicrobial activity of southern Nepalese medicinal plants. J. Ethnopharmacol. 50: 97-102.

- Tjolsen A, Hole K (1997). Animal models of analgesia. In: The Pharmacology of Pain. Verlag, Berlin, 130: 1–20.
- Toshihiro K, Uchida AIO, Koichiro N, Kenji H, Terunobu S (2001). Selective prostaglandin biosynthesis inhibition of zaltoprofen at the inflammatory site. Inflamm. Regen. 21: 235-241.
- Watt JM, Breyer-Brandwijk MG (1962). The Medicinal and Poisonous Plants of Southern and Eastern Africa, second ed. Livingstone, London.
- Wilson SG, Bryant CD, Lariviere WR, Olsen MS, Giles BE, Chesler EJ, Mogil JS (2003). The heritability of antinociception II: pharmacogenetic mediation of three overthe- counter analgesics in mice. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 305: 755-764.
- Young H, Luo Y, Cheng H, Hsieh W, Liao J, Peng W (2005). Analgesic and anti-inflammatory activities of [6]-gingerol. J. Ethnopharmacol. 96: 207-210.
- Zimmermann M (1983). Ethical guidelines for investigations of experimental pain in conscious animals. Pain 16: 109-110.