



## OPEN ACCESS

## EDITED BY

Rajeev K. Singla,  
West China Hospital, Sichuan University, China

## REVIEWED BY

Smith B. Babiaka,  
University of Tuebingen, Germany  
U.G. Chandrika,  
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka  
Jitendra Pandey,  
University of Hawaii at Manoa, United States

## \*CORRESPONDENCE

Dan Wan,  
✉ 350232252@qq.com  
Yanmei Peng,  
✉ 271853145@qq.com

†These authors have contributed equally to this work

RECEIVED 11 November 2024

ACCEPTED 03 February 2025

PUBLISHED 21 February 2025

## CITATION

Jiang S, Wang M, Kaur A, Jiang L, Cai Y, Luo J, Li M, Wang H, Wan D and Peng Y (2025) *Ehretia* genus: a comprehensive review of its botany, ethnomedicinal values, phytochemistry, pharmacology, toxicology and clinical studies. *Front. Pharmacol.* 16:1526359. doi: 10.3389/fphar.2025.1526359

## COPYRIGHT

© 2025 Jiang, Wang, Kaur, Jiang, Cai, Luo, Li, Wang, Wan and Peng. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License \(CC BY\)](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). The use, distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) and the copyright owner(s) are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.

# *Ehretia* genus: a comprehensive review of its botany, ethnomedicinal values, phytochemistry, pharmacology, toxicology and clinical studies

Sai Jiang<sup>1†</sup>, Mengyun Wang<sup>2†</sup>, Amanpreet Kaur<sup>3</sup>, Lin Jiang<sup>2</sup>, Yuan Cai<sup>1</sup>, Jiangyi Luo<sup>2</sup>, Minxi Li<sup>1</sup>, Hongxing Wang<sup>4</sup>, Dan Wan<sup>1\*</sup> and Yanmei Peng<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institute of Innovative Traditional Chinese Medications, Hunan Academy of Chinese Medicine, Changsha, China, <sup>2</sup>TCM and Ethnomedicine Innovation and Development International Laboratory, Innovative Material Medical Research Institute, School of Pharmacy, Hunan University of Chinese Medicine, Changsha, China, <sup>3</sup>Department of Chemistry, School of Sciences, IFTM University, Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh, India, <sup>4</sup>Forestry Bureau of Hengnan County, Hengyang, China

**Background:** The *Ehretia* genus, comprising 66 species in the Boraginaceae family, has a history of ethnomedicinal use for various ailments. This review focuses on the botany, traditional uses, phytochemistry, pharmacology, toxicology, clinical studies, cultivation, and commercial potential of the *Ehretia* genus, with the goal of enhancing current research and applications.

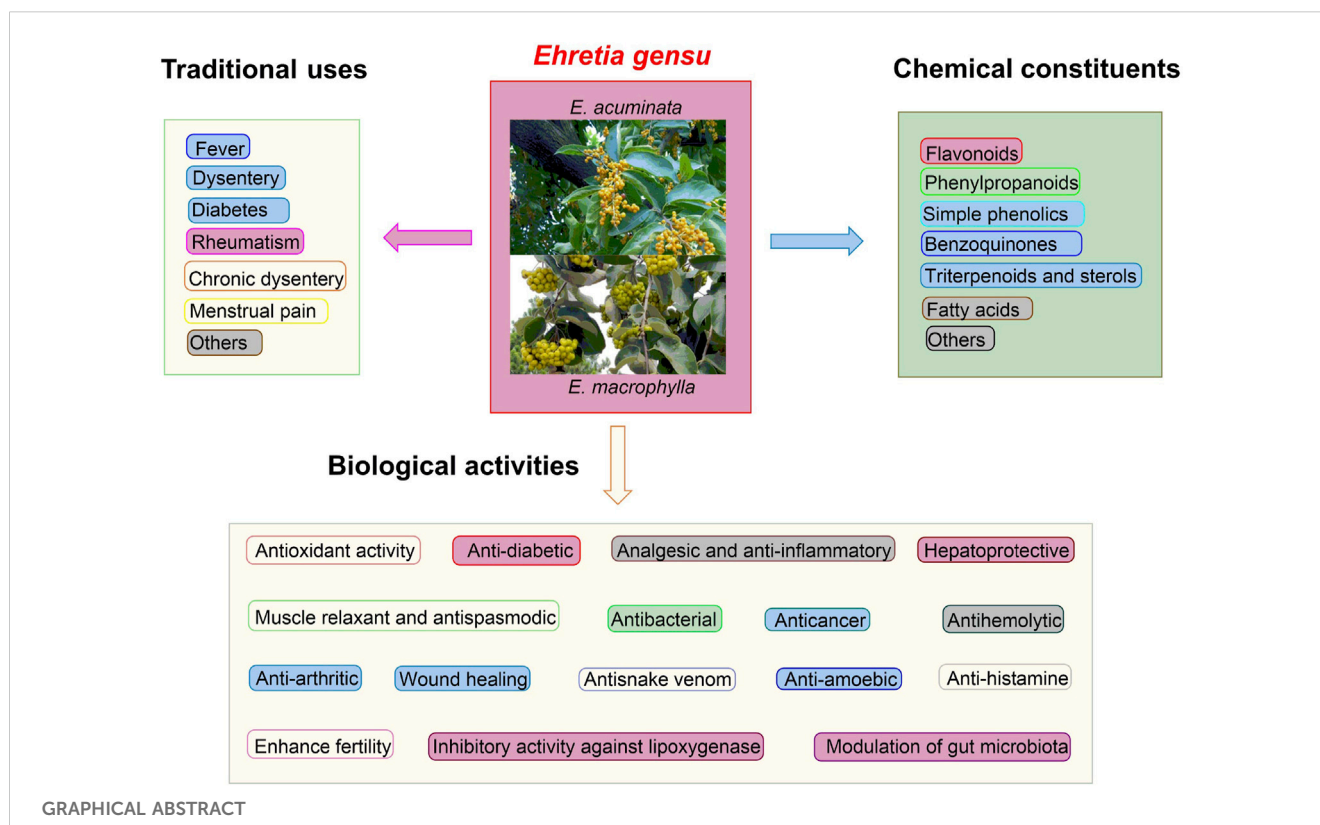
**Methods:** Literatures related to *Ehretia* species were compiled using keywords such as “*Ehretia*,” “traditional use,” “chemical constituents,” and “bioactivity” from scientific databases, including “China Knowledge Resource Integrated Databases (CNKI),” “Flora of China,” “Google Scholar,” “Hunan Library,” “Plants of the World Online,” and “Web of Science” and so on.

**Results:** From 1980 to August 2024, only 101 compounds have been identified within this genus, primarily consisting of flavonoids, phenylpropanoids, phenolics, benzoquinones, triterpenoids, and fatty acids, with phenylpropanoids being the main components. Extracts and compounds from *Ehretia* species exhibited various bioactivities, including antioxidant, hepatoprotective, analgesic, anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, and anticancer effects, etc.

**Conclusion:** Research on the *Ehretia* genus is limited, with many species remaining underexamined in terms of phytochemistry and pharmacology. Few active compounds have been isolated and assessed for biological activities, and there is a lack of investigation into their mechanisms of action. Despite its documented uses, *Ehretia* species remains less explored scientifically than other Boraginaceae genera, presenting significant research opportunities. Further comprehensive studies are necessary to deepen our understanding of this diverse genus and validate its therapeutic potential.

## KEYWORDS

*Ehretia* genus, traditional uses, phytochemistry, pharmacology, clinical studies



## 1 Introduction

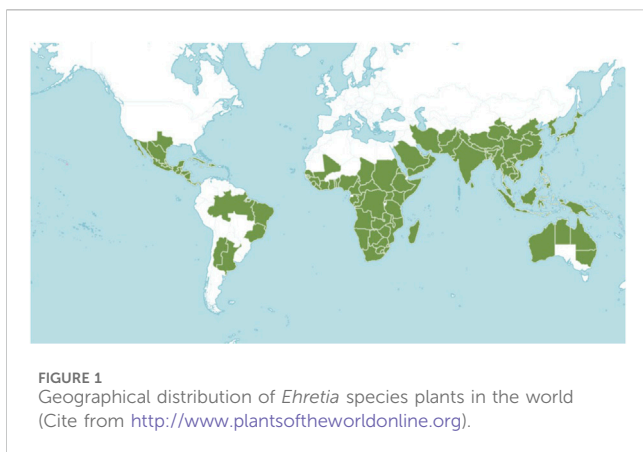
The *Ehretia* genus, comprising 66 accepted species, belongs to the Boraginaceae family and is primarily distributed across tropical Asia, Africa, Australia, North and South America (<http://www.plantsoftheworldonline.org>). These plants exhibit wide adaptability and strong stress resistance, thriving in warm, moist environments with deep, fertile, well-drained soil (pH 5.5–6.5) and an annual average temperature above 10°C. *Ehretia* species grow in various habitats, from tropical forests to dry regions, showcasing resilience compared to less adaptive genera like *Myosotis* (Mandal and Joshi, 2014; Retief and Van Wyk, 2001; Shukla and Kaur, 2018). The genus includes only tree or shrub species (<http://www.iplant.cn/>). Various parts of the *Ehretia* plants—roots, leaves, flowers, barks, fruits, and heartwoods—are used in herbal medicine and consumed as food (Li et al., 2010a; Lim et al., 2023; Hadjichambis et al., 2008; Zara et al., 2012). In folklore, *Ehretia* species were employed as ethnomedicine to treat a variety of cough, inflammation, swellings and syphilis, et al. (Iqbal et al., 2005). Notably, some species such as *Ehretia corylifolia*, *E. longiflora*, *E. macrophylla*, *E. thyriflora*, and *E. tsangii* are recognized for their antipyretic and detoxifying properties in traditional Chinese medicine (Zeng and Zeng, 1994). The bitter tea known as “Kudingcha” in Chinese has historically been made locally using the leaves of *E. thyriflora* (He and Liu, 1992). “Tsaang gubat” also known as *E. microphylla*, is presently included in the Philippine National Formulary and is recognised by the Department of Health as one of the top therapeutic plants recommended in the nation (Legaspi and Bagoisan, 2020).

According to literatures, more than 100 compounds have been identified from *Ehretia* genus. These compounds including flavonoids, phenylpropanoids, simple phenolics, benzoquinones, triterpenoids, fatty acids and so on (Chien et al., 2012; Le et al., 2021; Li et al., 2009; Yamamura et al., 1995; Yoshikawa et al., 1995). The extracts and compounds of *Ehretia* species exhibited a range of bioactivities, such as antioxidant, anti-diabetic, hepatoprotective, analgesic, anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, anticancer, antihemolytic, anti-arthritic, wound healing effects, etc (Harne et al., 2021; Jan et al., 2023; Kaur et al., 2019; Kaur et al., 2022; Memon et al., 2022; Panja et al., 2020; Rangnathrao and Shanmugasundaram, 2019; Waheed et al., 2019).

To date, only two review articles focus on the genus *Ehretia*, with the most recent one occurring 6 years ago (Li et al., 2010a; Shukla and Kaur, 2018). This review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the botany, ethnomedicinal values, phytochemistry, pharmacology, toxicology, clinical studies, cultivation, and commercial value of the genus *Ehretia* (Mitsi and Echeverría, 2024). Due to the genus’s diversity, only species with proven medicinal characteristics will be highlighted. Additionally, this review addresses the limitations of current research and suggests directions for future studies, offering insights to guide upcoming research on *Ehretia* species.

## 2 Ethnomedicinal uses of genus *Ehretia*

The Flora Reipubae Popularis Sinicae categorizes all plants in the genus *Ehretia* as either trees or shrubs (Table 1) (Editorial



Committee of the Flora of China, 1985). This genus is predominantly found in southern Asia, China, Africa, North and South America (Figure 1). In China, twelve species and one variant are identified, primarily in provinces south of the Yangtze River, with additional occurrences in southern Gansu, Henan, Shaanxi, and Qinghai. It is only known that 12 species of the genus are utilized in traditional medicine (Table 2). Rich folklore medical applications for *Ehretia* plants include treatments for syphilis, eczema, stomach disorders, cough, diarrhea, and chest pains (Arenas et al., 2013; Mncwangi et al., 2012; Torane et al., 2011; Waheed et al., 2019). The *Ehretia* genus also contributes significantly to forest ecosystems as a source of food for birds and insects due to its fleshy drupes and nectar-rich flowers. Unlike invasive or fast-spreading members of Boraginaceae (e.g., *Heliotropium indicum*), *Ehretia* species are generally regarded as ecologically harmonious, adding to their conservation importance.

Among the earliest species in the *Ehretia* genus is *E. acuminata*, which has been traditionally used to treat fever, tongue sores, diarrhea, and other ailments in China and India (Choudhury et al., 2012; Shukla et al., 2019b; Wang and Huang, 2005). The leaves of *E. thyrsoiflora* (syn. *E. acuminata*) serve as one of the sources for Kudingcha, a bitter tea popular in southern China (Li et al., 2009). In Nigeria, folk medicine utilizes the leaves of *E. anacua* to cure diabetes (Abimbola et al., 2021). *E. asperula*, endemic to northern Vietnam, has a history of use in treating cancer, liver cirrhosis, and hepatitis (Hoang et al., 2021; Le et al., 2021). The small tree *E. cymose* is predominantly found in the secondary jungles and savannas of Africa. Its fruits are black, ovoid to spherical, measuring 2–6 mm in length, and the leaves are oval in shape (Sarkodie et al., 2015). In several parts of Ethiopia, the leaves of *E. cymose* are traditionally employed to treat feverish illnesses, rheumatism, headaches, and measles (Figure 2) (Alemayehu et al.,

2015; Ashagrie et al., 2023; Fassil and Gashaw, 2019; Ogundajo et al., 2016).

Folk medicine for alleviating swelling often utilizes the bark of *E. dicksonii* (Xu et al., 2022). For respiratory conditions such as sphenitis, amygdalitis, and coughs, the fruit of *E. macrophylla*—identified as the same species as *E. dicksonii*—along with herbal tea, serves as traditional remedies (Deng et al., 2020; Liu, 2003). *E. laevis*, a deciduous shrub native to tropical regions of Asia and Australia, is recognized for its significant therapeutic value in traditional medicine (Velappan and Thangaraj, 2014). In Uttarakhand and other sub-Himalayan regions of India, the herbal medicine is used to treat jaundice (Rangnathrao and Shanmugasundaram, 2019). Its utilization can be traced back to ancient medical systems, including Ayurveda and Siddha (Sharma et al., 2021). The plant uses its inner bark for sustenance and nutrition. This plant's leaves can be used to cure headaches, skin conditions, and ulcers. This plant's fruit is frequently used to treat lung and spleen ailments, urinary tract issues, astringent, deworming, diuretic, analgesic, and expectorant conditions (Joshi and Wagh, 2019).

*Carmona retusa* (syn. *E. microphylla*) is a striking shrub reaching heights of 1.5–4.0 m, characterized by its glossy, coarse, dark green leaves. In addition to medicinal uses, certain species like *E. microphylla* are also cultivated for ornamental purposes and bonsai (Aarathi et al., 2014; Mageswari and Karpagam, 2015; Mageswari et al., 2012). *E. microphylla* is particularly significant in the Philippines and India, especially within the Ayurvedic and Siddha medical traditions (Chopra et al., 1956; Selvanayagam et al., 1996). A leaf infusion serves as a tea alternative and cough suppressant for conditions involving bloody discharge and diarrhea (Ali et al., 2019; Yuvaraja et al., 2021). In Siddha Materia Medica, it is used to treat leprosy, sexually transmitted infection-related dermatitis, chronic dysentery, infertility, and toxic diarrhea in children (Kudera et al., 2021). Additionally, the root acts as an antidote for vegetable poisoning and treats syphilis and cachexia (Aarathi et al., 2014).

In Zimbabwe, various compounds from *E. obtusefolia* are utilized to cure infertility in women, menstrual cramps, stomach spasms, sore throats, and children's teething pain (Jan et al., 2023). *E. philippinensis*, endemic to low- and medium-altitude forests in the Philippines, is known for its stem bark and leaves that aid in treating certain inflammatory processes (Simpol et al., 1994). The small deciduous tree or shrub *E. rigida*, also known as the "puzzle bush," has its stems used medicinally by the Zulu people, and its fruit is edible (Steyn, 1998).

*E. tinifolia*, an evergreen tree native to Mexico and the United States, can grow up to 25 m. Its small, round, fragrant yellow fruit is commonly consumed, while the bark aids wound recovery, and the flowers and leaves can alleviate symptoms of bloody vomiting (Hadjichambis et al., 2008; Pío-León et al., 2012b; Lim et al., 2023; Pío-León et al., 2012a). In conclusion, various

TABLE 1 Morphological features of *Ehretia* genus (Flora of China).

| Part   | Features  |
|--------|---|
| Leaf   | Leaves petiolate, entire or serrate at margin   |
| Flower | Inflorescences corymbose or paniculate-cymose. Calyx 5-lobed. Corolla white or pale yellow, tubular or tubular-campanulate, rarely funnellform, 5-lobed; lobes spreading or reflexed. Filaments usually exserted; anthers ovate to oblong or linear. Ovary ovoid, 2-loculed, each locule with 2 ovules. Style terminal, 2-cleft; stigmas 2, capitate or elongated |
| Fruit  | Drupes yellow, orange, black, or pale red, subglobose, glabrous, endocarp divided at maturity into 2 2-seeded or 4 1-seeded pyrenes   |

TABLE 2 Record of the traditional uses of some *Ehretia* species (<http://www.plantsoftheworldonline.org>).

| Accepted name  | Synonym name  | Common name   | Traditional use  | References  |
|--|---|---|--|---|
| <i>Ehretia acuminata</i> R.Br                                      | <i>Ehretia thyrsoflora</i> var. <i>latifolia</i> Nakai<br><i>Ehretia serrata</i> Roxb.<br><i>Ehretia ovalifolia</i> Hassk | Kudingcha (China)<br>Puna (Pakistan); Koda;<br>Pudila; Nara | To cure fever, sores on tongue, dysentery  | Choudhury et al. (2012) and Wang and Huang (2005)   |
| <i>Ehretia anacua</i> (Terán and Berland.) I.M.Johnst              | <i>Gaza anacua</i> Terán and Berland  |   | To treat diabetes  | Neuwinger (2000)  |
| <i>Ehretia asperula</i> Zoll. and Moritzi                          | <i>Ehretia hanceana</i> Hemsl   |   | To cure hepatitis, liver cirrhosis, and cancer   | Hoang et al. (2021) and Le et al. (2021)  |
| <i>Ehretia cymosa</i> Thonn  | <i>Ehretia thonningiana</i> Exell   | Game (Amharic); Hulaga; Ulaga; Garmi (Afan Oromo)           | To cure rheumatism, headache, measles and febrile illness  | Alemayehu et al. (2015), Ashagrie et al. (2023), Fassil and Gashaw (2019), and Ogundajo et al. (2016) |
| <i>Ehretia dicksonii</i> Hance ( <i>Ehretia macrophylla</i> Wall.) |   | Cukangsu (China)  | To cure sphaeritis, amygdalitis, and coughs  | Deng et al. (2020), Liu (2003), and Xu et al. (2022)  |
| <i>Ehretia aspera</i> Willd  | <i>Ehretia laevis</i> Roxb<br><i>Bourreria aspera</i> (Willd.) G.Don  | Chamror (Punjab); Kuptaa; Datarangi (Maharashtra)           | To cure headaches, and ulcers, anthelmintic, diuretic, demulcent, expectorant, astringent and nosh   | Joshi and Wagh (2019)   |
| <i>Ehretia microphylla</i> Lam                                     | <i>Ehretia buxifolia</i> var. <i>microphylla</i> (Lam.) DC<br><i>Carmona microphylla</i> (Lam.) G.Don                     |   | To treat bloody discharge and dysentery, leprosy, eczema due to venereal diseases, chronic dysentery, infertility and toxic diarrhea in children | Ali et al. (2019), Kudera et al. (2021), and Yuvaraja et al. (2021)                                   |
| <i>Ehretia obtusifolia</i> Hochst. ex ADC                          | <i>Ehretia aspera</i> var. <i>obtusifolia</i> (Hochst. ex A.DC.) Parmar   |   | To cure sore throat, teething pains in infants, menstrual pain, abdominal pains and infertility in women   | Jan et al. (2023)   |
| <i>Ehretia philippinensis</i> ADC                                  |   |   | To treat certain inflammatory processes  | Simpol et al. (1994)  |
| <i>Ehretia tinifolia</i> L   | <i>Ehretia campestris</i> Salisb  |   | To treat urinary track disorder by reducing uric acid  | Lim et al. (2023) and Pio-León et al. (2012a)   |
| <i>Ehretia rigida</i> (Thunb.) Druce                               | <i>Capraria rigida</i> Thunb<br><i>Freylinia rigida</i> (Thunb.) G.Don  | Cape lilac  | To treat infertility, headache, abdominal pains, chest pains, pain, skin cuts, sprained joints, newborn baby infections                          | Maroyi (2023)   |

*Ehretia* species are primarily employed for diverse ailments in Asian countries, indicating a substantial potential for bioactive compounds. Consequently, these species warrant further biological and chemical investigation.

### 3 Phytochemistry

One hundred and one compounds were identified from *Ehretia* genus, including flavonoids, phenylpropanoids, simple phenolics, benzoquinones, triterpenoids, sterols, fatty acids and other compounds (Figures 3–9). These compounds have been identified in a variety of *Ehretia* species, including the fruit, roots, leaves, and bark (Table 3). Certain chemicals exhibited numerous bioactivities both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

#### 3.1 Flavonoids

Flavonoids and their derivatives comprise the primary compounds of the *Ehretia* species. More than 16 compounds, including flavonoids and its glucoside (1–13, 15), a flavanonol (14) and a flavanol (16) have been identified from leaves of *E. thyrsoflora*, *E. Asperula*, *E. ovalifolia* and

fruits of *E. macrophylla*. Flavonoid glycosides comprise a diverse range of sugars, including glucose (Glc), galactose (Gla), arabinose (Ara) and rhamnose (Rha). Compounds 9–11 and 14 have two different sugars. Ovalifolin (15) is a new isopentenyl flavonoid got from *E. ovalifolia* leaves (Khattab et al., 2001). (+)-Catechin hydrate (16) is a flavanol identified from the fruit of *E. macrophylla* (He, 2018). Each of them contains only hydroxyl groups and lacks methoxyl groups on their aromatic rings.

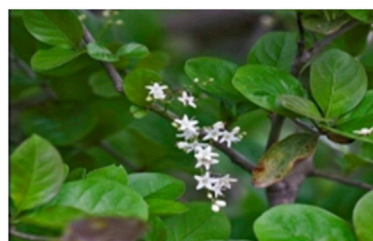
#### 3.2 Phenylpropanoids

This genus is rich in phenylpropanoids (17–37), which usually show C<sub>6</sub>-C<sub>3</sub> carbon skeleton. The compounds can be categorized into phenylpropionic acids and lignans and got from the fruit, leaves and bark of *Ehretia* species. Compounds 17–22 are the simple phenylpropionic acids. Ehretiate (23) is a new *trans*-icosanyl sinapate that has been isolated from the root of *E. longiflora* (Chien et al., 2012). Rosmarinic acid (27) is an ester of caffeic acid and 3,4-dihydroxyphenyllactic acid that possesses a diverse range of activities (Ijaz et al., 2023; Petersen, 2013; Petersen and Simmonds, 2003). The Labiatae and Boraginaceae family contain the greatest concentration of rosmarinic acid





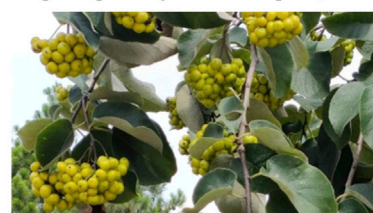
*E. acuminata* (photo by Kaur Amanpreet)



*E. aspera* (photo by Kaur Amanpreet)



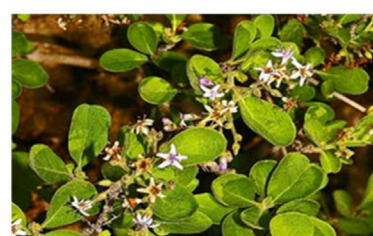
*E. cymose* (photo by M. Alawfi.)



*E. macrophylla* (photo by Qingsheng Liao)



*Ehretia obtusifolia* (photo by M. Alawfi.)



*E. rigida* (photo by Alfred Maroyi)

FIGURE 2 The pictures of fruits, leaves and flowers of some *Ehretia* species plants.

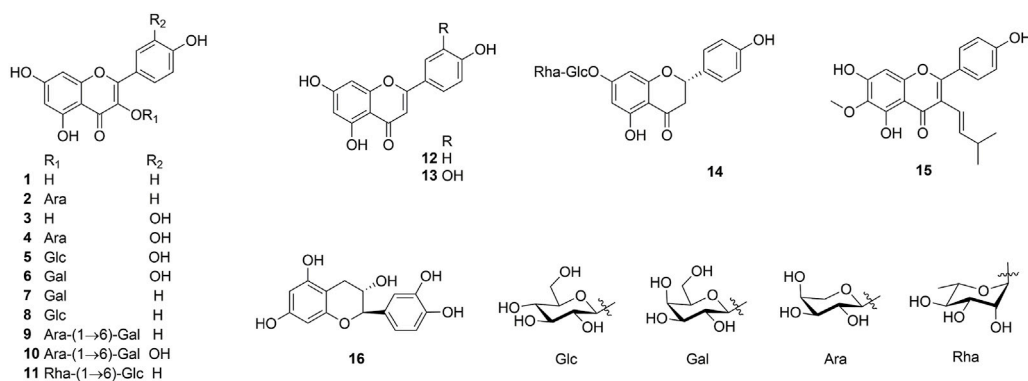


FIGURE 3 The structure of flavonoids from *Ehretia* species.

(Dresler et al., 2017). Three novel compounds were obtained from the dried whole plant of *E. obtusifolia*: *trans*-4-hydroxycyclohexyl-2-*O*-*p*-coumaroyl  $\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside (24), methyl 2-*O*-feruloyl-1 $\alpha$ -*O*-vanillactate (25) and caffeic anhydride (29); Ehletianol C (34), buddlenol B (35) and ethyl lithospermate (36) are lignans containing 3 phenylpropanes (Le et al., 2021; Yoshikawa et al., 1995). Four phenylpropanes connected by C-C and C-O-C bonds combine to generate the lignan known as lithospermic acid B (37) (Li et al., 2009).

### 3.3 Simple phenolics

The novel phenolic compounds, called ehletianols A and B (38 and 39), were separated from the bark of *E. ovalifolia* and contain two sugars (Yoshikawa et al., 1995). Simple phenolics with carboxyl or ester groups are compounds 40–44. The root of *E. longiflora* yielded ehretiamide (45), a novel phenolic containing acetyl group (Chien et al., 2012). Ehretioside B (46) is a new phenolic which connected with a cyanomethylene acid group (Simpol et al., 1994).

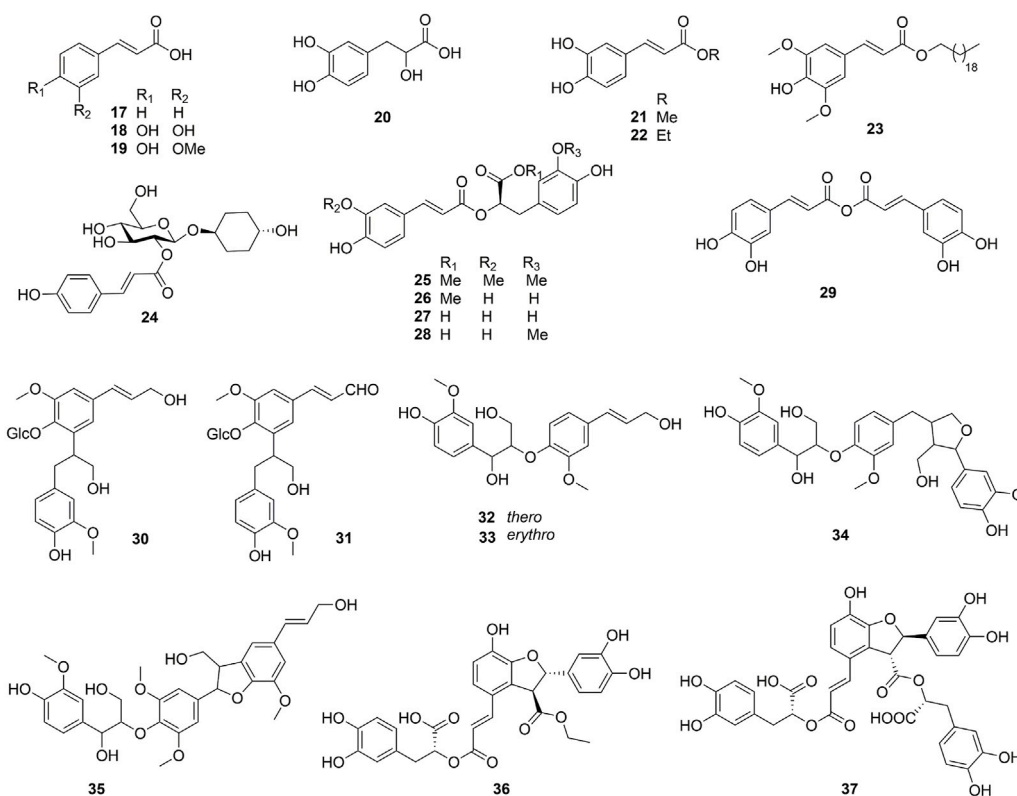


FIGURE 4  
The structure of phenylpropanoids from *Ehretia* species.

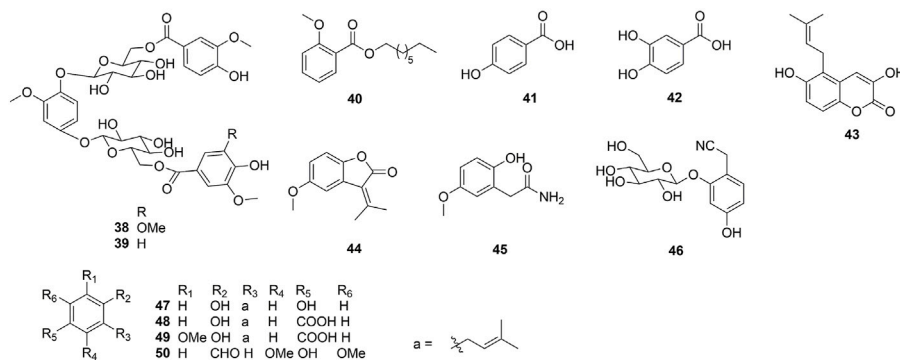


FIGURE 5  
The structure of simple phenolics from *Ehretia* species.

Simple phenolics containing an isopentene or aldehyde group include prenylhydroquinone (47), 4-hydroxy-3-prenylbenzoic (48), proglobeflowery acid (49) (Chien et al., 2012).

### 3.4 Benzoquinones

Seven benzoquinones dimeric prenylbenzoquinone moieties were identified in the aerial portions of *E. microphylla*, the root bark of *E. buxifolia*, and the root of *E. longiflora*. The absolute configuration of three novel compounds-microphyllone (51),

ehretianone (56) and ehretiquinone (57)-was determined using X-ray crystallographic analysis (Agarwal et al., 1980; Chien et al., 2012; Selvanayagam et al., 1996). Compounds 52–55 are the congeners of microphyllone (51) (Yamamura et al., 1995).

### 3.5 Triterpenoids and sterols

To now, only 3 types of triterpenoids (ursulane type, oleanane type and lupinane type) were reported from the *Ehretia* genus. These are all common triterpenoids, except for

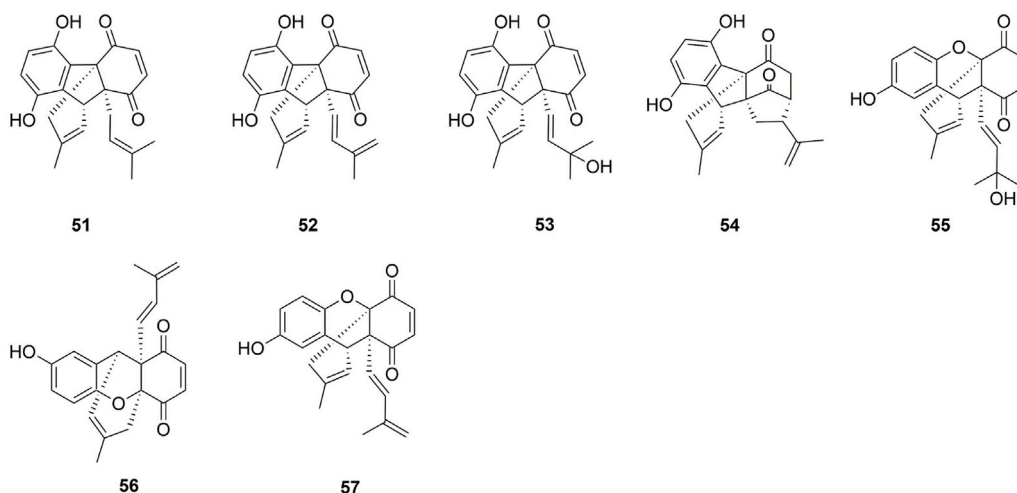


FIGURE 6  
The structure of benzoquinones from *Ehretia* species.

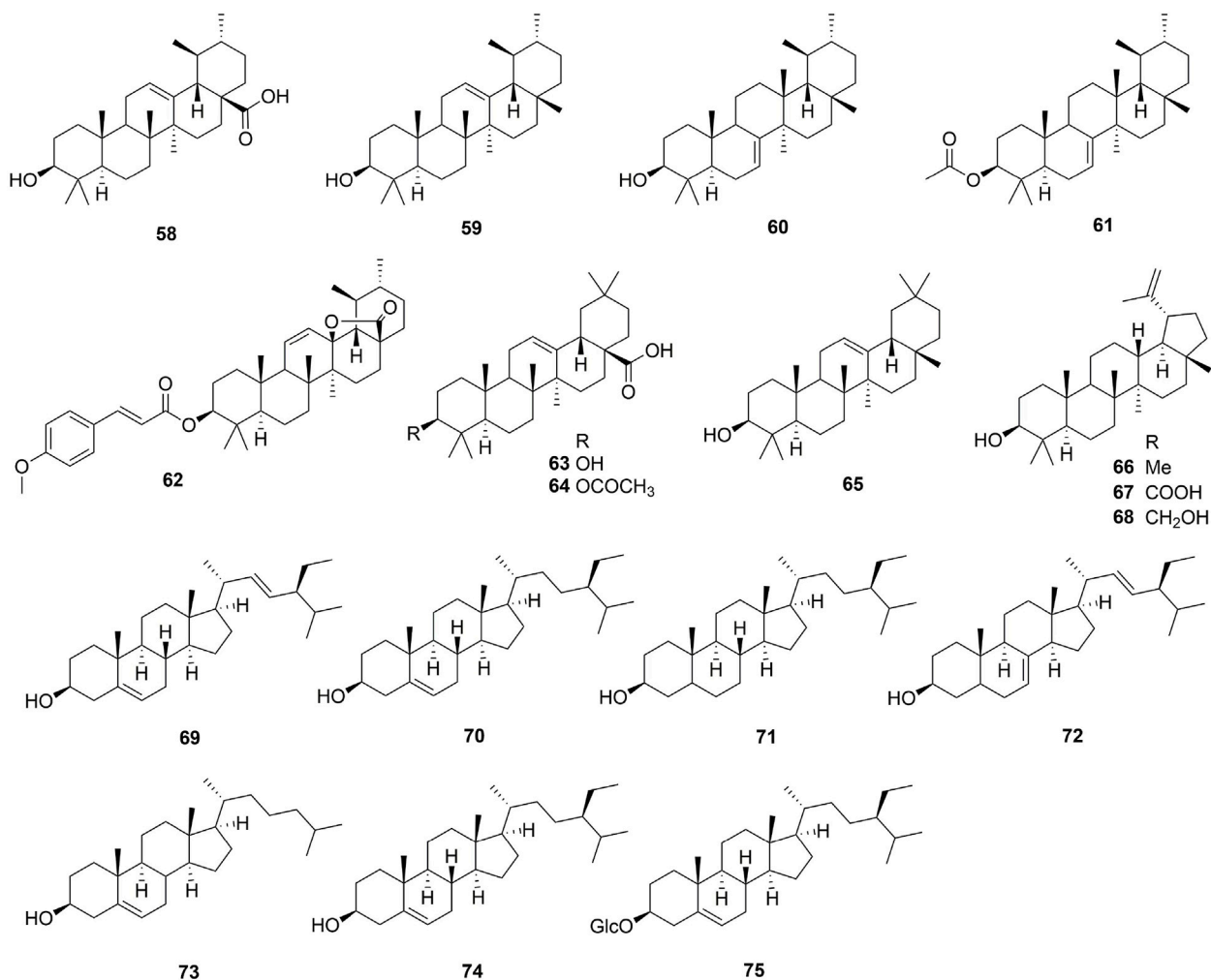


FIGURE 7  
The structure of triterpenoids and sterols from *Ehretia* species.

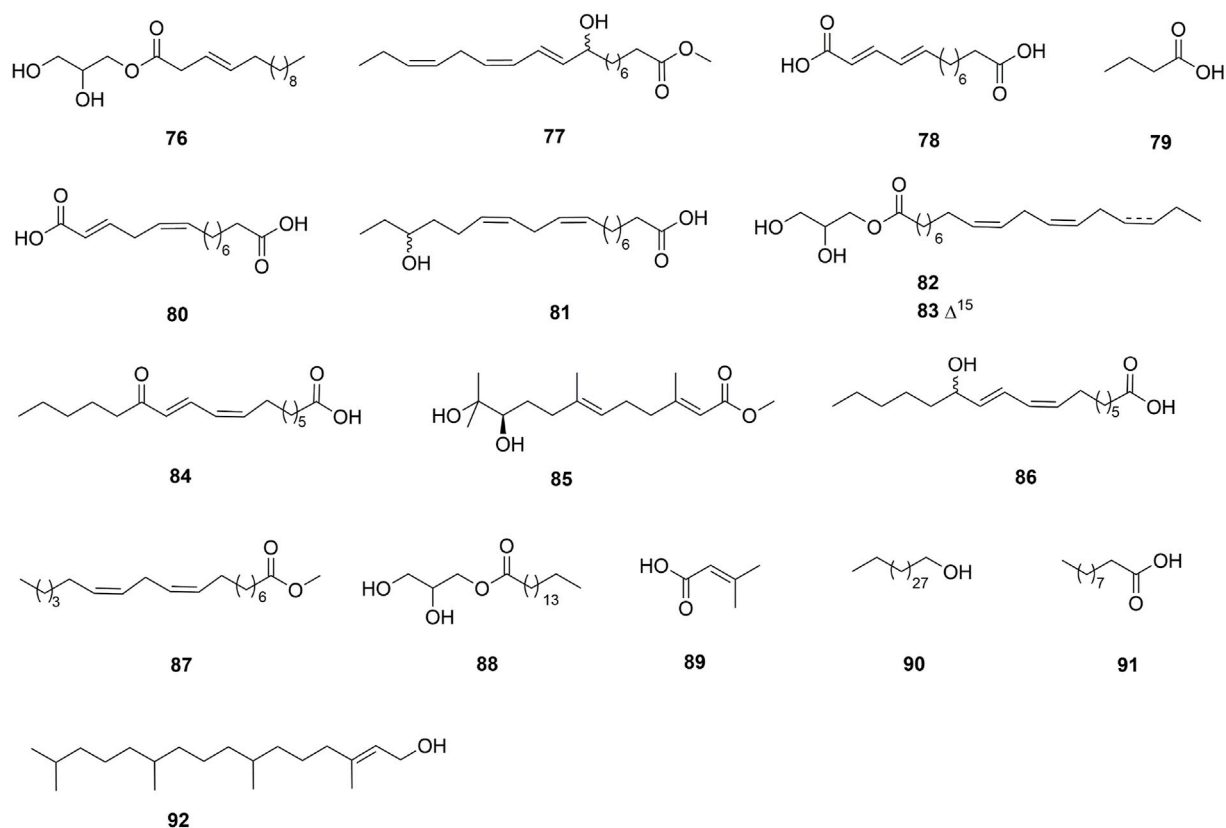


FIGURE 8  
The structure of fatty acids from *Ehretia* species.

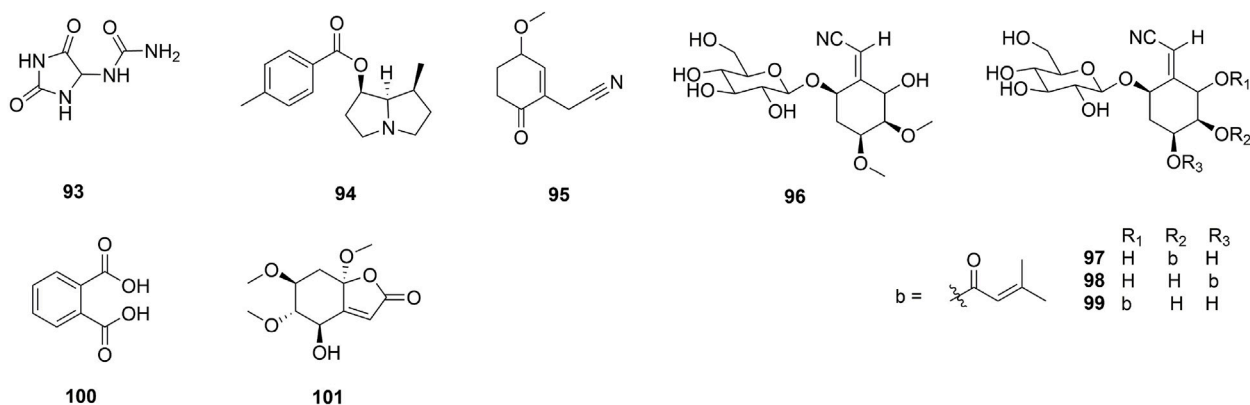


FIGURE 9  
The structure of other compounds from *Ehretia* species.

ehretiolide (62) (Chien et al., 2012). Ehretiolide (62) is a new ursulane type triterpenoid containing the O-(*E*)-4'-methoxycinnamoyl and lactone groups. Additionally, the GC-MS detected every sterol with the exception of the daucoster (75), which was determined by TLC (Li et al., 2010b).

### 3.6 Fatty acids

This genus has been observed to contain 17 fatty acids. Fatty acid esters make up the majority of these molecules, with fatty alcohols making up the minority.



TABLE 3 Compounds from different parts of *Ehretia* genus by different identification methods.

| No.                     | Compounds   | Species  | Parts used                               | Identification methods                                       | Ref.  |
|-------------------------|---|--|--|--|---|
| <b>Flavonoids</b>       |   |  |  |  |   |
| 1                       | Kampferol   | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2008)  |
| 2                       | Kampferol 3-O- $\alpha$ -D-arabinoside  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2008)  |
| 3                       | Querceti  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i><br><i>E. macrophylla</i>  | Leaves<br>Fruit                          | 1D NMR; ESIMS<br>HPLC  | Li et al. (2008)<br>He, (2018)  |
| 4                       | Querceti 3-O- $\alpha$ -D-arabinoside   | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2008)  |
| 5                       | Isoquercetrin   | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2009)  |
| 6                       | Hyperoside  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2009)  |
| 7                       | Trifolin  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2009)  |
| 8                       | Astragalin  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i><br><i>E. asperula</i>   | Leaves<br>Leaves                         | 1D NMR; ESIMS<br>HPLC  | Li et al. (2009)<br>Le et al. (2021)                                      |
| 9                       | Kaempferol 3-O-arabinosylgalactoside  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2009)  |
| 10                      | Quercetin 3-O-arabinosylgalactoside   | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2009)  |
| 11                      | Kaempferol 3-rutinoside   | <i>E. asperula</i>   | Leaves                                   | HPLC   | Le et al. (2021)  |
| 12                      | Apigenin  | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Khattab et al. (2001)   |
| 13                      | Luteolin  | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Khattab et al. (2001)   |
| 14                      | Naringin  | <i>E. macrophylla</i>  | Fruit                                    | HPLC   | He (2018)   |
| 15                      | Ovalifolin  | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D, 2D NMR; HRESIMS  | Khattab et al. (2001)   |
| 16                      | (+)-Catechin hydrate  | <i>E. macrophylla</i>  | Fruit                                    | HPLC   | He (2018)   |
| <b>Phenylpropanoids</b> |   |  |  |  |   |
| 17                      | Cinnamic acid   | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2009)  |
| 18                      | Caffeic acid  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i><br><i>E. asperula</i><br><i>E. macrophylla</i>                          | Leaves<br>Leaves<br>Fruit                | 1D NMR; ESIMS<br>HPLC<br>1D NMR, HRLCMS                      | Li et al. (2009)<br>Le et al. (2021)<br>Lu, (2016)                        |
| 19                      | Ferulic acid  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2009)  |
| 20                      | $\alpha$ -Hydroxydihydrocaffeic acid  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2009)  |
| 21                      | Caffeic acid methyl ester   | <i>E. macrophylla</i>  | Fruit                                    | 1D NMR, HRLCMS   | Lu (2016)   |
| 22                      | Ethyl caffeate  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS  | Li et al. (2010b)   |
| 23                      | Ehretiate   | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                                     | 1D, 2D NMR; HRESIMS  | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| 24                      | <i>trans</i> -4-Hydroxycyclohexyl-2-O- <i>p</i> -coumaroyl $\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside | <i>E. obtusifolia</i>  | Whole plant                              | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS  | Iqbal et al. (2005)   |
| 25                      | Methyl 2-O-feruloyl-1 $\alpha$ -O-vanillactate  | <i>E. obtusifolia</i>  | Whole plant                              | 1D NMR; HRFABMS  | Iqbal et al. (2005)   |
| 26                      | Methyl rosmarinatate  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i><br><i>E. asperula</i><br><i>E. macrophylla</i><br><i>E. obtusifolia</i> | Leaves<br>Leaves<br>Fruit<br>Whole plant | 1D NMR; HRTOFMS<br>HPLC<br>1D NMR, HRLCMS<br>1D NMR; HRFABMS | Li et al. (2008)<br>Le et al. (2021)<br>Lu, (2016)<br>Iqbal et al. (2005) |
| 27                      | Rosmarinic acid   | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i><br><i>E. asperula</i><br><i>E. macrophylla</i><br><i>E. obtusifolia</i> | Leaves<br>Leaves<br>Fruit<br>Whole plant | 1D NMR; ESIMS<br>HPLC<br>1D NMR, HRLCMS<br>1D NMR; HRFABMS   | Li et al. (2009)<br>Le et al. (2021)<br>Lu (2016)<br>Iqbal et al. (2005)  |
| 28                      | Clinopodic acid B   | <i>E. asperula</i>   | Leaves                                   | HPLC   | Le et al. (2021)  |
| 29                      | Caffeic anhydride   | <i>E. obtusifolia</i>  | Whole plant                              | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS  | Iqbal et al. (2005)   |
| 30                      | Icariside E <sub>5</sub>  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i><br><i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Leaves<br>Bark                           | 1D NMR; ESIMS<br>1D NMR; FABMS                               | Li et al. (2009)<br>Yoshikawa et al. (1995)                               |

(Continued on following page)

TABLE 3 (Continued) Compounds from different parts of *Ehretia* genus by different identification methods.

| No.                              | Compounds  | Species  | Parts used                       | Identification methods                            | Ref.  |
|----------------------------------|--|--|----------------------------------|---|---|
| 31                               | Ehletianol D   | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Bark                             | 1D, 2D NMR; FABMS                                 | Yoshikawa et al. (1995)   |
| 32                               | 1-(4-Hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)-2-[2-methoxy-4-[1-( <i>E</i> ) propen-3-ol]-phenoxy]-propane-3-diol ( <i>erythro</i> ) | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Bark                             | 1D NMR; FABMS                                     | Yoshikawa et al. (1995)   |
| 33                               | 1-(4-Hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)-2-[2-methoxy-4-[1-( <i>E</i> ) propen-3-ol]-phenoxy]-propane-1,3-diol ( <i>threo</i> ) | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Bark                             | 1D NMR; FABMS                                     | Yoshikawa et al. (1995)   |
| 34                               | Ehletianol C   | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Bark                             | 1D, 2D NMR; FABMS                                 | Yoshikawa et al. (1995)   |
| 35                               | Buddlenol B  | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Bark                             | 1D NMR; FABMS                                     | Yoshikawa et al. (1995)   |
| 36                               | Ethyl lithospermate  | <i>E. asperula</i>   | Leaves                           | HPLC  | Le et al. (2021)  |
| 37                               | Lithospermic acid B  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i><br><i>E. asperula</i>                                   | Leaves<br>Leaves                 | 1D NMR; ESIMS<br>HPLC                             | Li et al. (2009)<br>Le et al. (2021)  |
| <b>Simple phenolics</b>          |  |  |                                  |   |   |
| 38                               | Ehletianol A   | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Bark                             | 1D, 2D NMR; FABMS                                 | Yoshikawa et al. (1995)   |
| 39                               | Ehletianol B   | <i>E. ovalifolia</i>   | Bark                             | 1D, 2D NMR; FABMS                                 | Yoshikawa et al. (1995)   |
| 40                               | 2-Methoxyl benzoic acid octyl ester  | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                           | 1D NMR; ESIMS                                     | Li et al. (2010b)   |
| 41                               | <i>p</i> -Hydroxy benzoic acid   | <i>E. thyrsoiflora</i>   | Leaves                           | 1D NMR; ESIMS                                     | Li et al. (2008)  |
| 42                               | Protocatechuic acid  | <i>E. macrophylla</i>  | Fruit                            | 1D NMR, HPLC/MS                                   | Lu (2016)   |
| 43                               | Ehreticoumarinl  | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                             | 1D, 2D NMR; HRESIMS                               | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| 44                               | Ehretilactone A  | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                             | 1D, 2D NMR; HRESIMS                               | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| 45                               | Ehretiamide  | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                             | 1D, 2D NMR; HRESIMS                               | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| 46                               | Ehretioside B  | <i>E. philippinensis</i>   | Bark                             | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                               | Simpol et al. (1994)  |
| 47                               | Prenylhydroquinone   | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                             | 1D NMR; ESIMS                                     | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| 48                               | 4-Hydroxy-3-prenylbenzoic acid   | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                             | 1D NMR; ESIMS                                     | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| 49                               | Proglobeflowery acid   | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                             | 1D NMR; ESIMS                                     | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| 50                               | Syringaldehyde   | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                             | 1D NMR; ESIMS                                     | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| <b>Benzoquinones</b>             |  |  |                                  |   |   |
| 51                               | Microphyllone  | <i>E. microphylla</i>  | Aerial parts                     | 1D, 2D NMR; ESIMS, X-ray                          | Agarwal et al. (1980)   |
| 52                               | Dehydromicrophyllone   | <i>E. microphylla</i>  | Aerial parts                     | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                               | Yamamura et al. (1995)  |
| 53                               | Hydroxymicrophyllone   | <i>E. microphylla</i>  | Aerial parts                     | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                               | Yamamura et al. (1995)  |
| 54                               | Cyclomicrophyllon  | <i>E. microphylla</i>  | Aerial parts                     | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                               | Yamamura et al. (1995)  |
| 55                               | Allomicrophyllone  | <i>E. microphylla</i>  | Aerial parts                     | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                               | Yamamura et al. (1995)  |
| 56                               | Ehretianone  | <i>E. buxifolia</i>  | Root Bark                        | 1D, 2D NMR; ESIMS; X-ray                          | Selvanayagam et al. (1996)  |
| 57                               | Ehretiquinone  | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                             | 1D NMR; HRESIMS; X-ray                            | Chien et al. (2012)   |
| <b>Triterpenoids and sterols</b> |  |  |                                  |   |   |
| 58                               | Ursolic acid   | <i>E. microphylla</i>  | Aerial parts                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                                     | Yamamura et al. (1995)  |
| 59                               | $\alpha$ -Amyrin   | <i>E. Asperula</i><br><i>E. laevis</i><br><i>E. cymosa</i><br><i>E. rigida</i> | Leaves<br>Bark<br>Leaves<br>Bark | HPLC<br>1D NMR; FABMS<br>1D NMR<br>1D NMR, HREIMS | Le et al. (2021)<br>Dan and Dan (1982)<br>Chaluma et al. (2018)<br>Steyn (1998) |
| 60                               | Bauerenol  | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Bark                             | 1D NMR; FABMS                                     | Dan and Dan (1982)  |

(Continued on following page)

TABLE 3 (Continued) Compounds from different parts of *Ehretia* genus by different identification methods.

| No.                | Compounds  | Species  | Parts used               | Identification methods           | Ref.  |
|--------------------|--|--|--------------------------|----------------------------------|---|
| 61                 | Bauerenyl acetate  | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Bark                     | 1D NMR; FABMS                    | Dan and Dan (1982)  |
| 62                 | Ehretiolide  | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D, 2D NMR; HRESIMS              | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 63                 | Oleanolic acid   | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 64                 | O-Acetyloleanolic acid   | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 65                 | $\beta$ -Amyrin  | <i>E. Asperula</i><br><i>E. cymosa</i><br><i>E. rigida</i> | Leaves<br>Leaves<br>Bark | HPLC<br>1D NMR<br>1D NMR, HREIMS | Le et al. (2021)<br>Chaluma et al. (2018)<br>Steyn (1998) |
| 66                 | Lupeol   | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Bark                     | 1D NMR; FABMS                    | Dan and Dan (1982)  |
| 67                 | Betulinic acid   | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Bark                     | 1D NMR; FABMS                    | Dan and Dan (1982)  |
| 68                 | Betulin  | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Bark                     | 1D NMR; FABMS                    | Dan and Dan (1982)  |
| 69                 | Stigmasterol   | <i>E. buxifolia</i>  | Root Bark                | GC-MS                            | Selvanayagam et al. (1996)                                |
| 70                 | Campesterol  | <i>E. buxifolia</i>  | Root Bark                | GC-MS                            | Selvanayagam et al. (1996)                                |
| 71                 | Stigmastanol   | <i>E. buxifolia</i>  | Root Bark                | GC-MS                            | Selvanayagam et al. (1996)                                |
| 72                 | $\alpha$ -Spinasterol  | <i>E. buxifolia</i>  | Root Bark                | GC-MS                            | Selvanayagam et al. (1996)                                |
| 73                 | Cholesterol  | <i>E. buxifolia</i>  | Root Bark                | GC-MS                            | Selvanayagam et al. (1996)                                |
| 74                 | $\beta$ -Sitosterol  | <i>E. thyriflora</i><br><i>E. buxifolia</i>                | Leaves<br>Root Bark      | TLC<br>GC-MS                     | Li et al. (2010b)<br>Selvanayagam et al. (1996)           |
| 75                 | Daucoster  | <i>E. thyriflora</i>                                       | Leaves                   | TLC                              | Li et al. (2010b)   |
| <b>Fatty acids</b> |  |  |                          |                                  |   |
| 76                 | Tetradecenoic acid, 2,3-dihydroxypropyl ester  | <i>E. thyriflora</i>                                       | Leaves                   | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Li et al. (2010b)   |
| 77                 | (10 <i>E</i> ,12 <i>Z</i> ,15 <i>Z</i> )-9-Hydroxy-10,12,15-octadecatrienoic acid methyl ester | <i>E. dicksonii</i>  | Leaves                   | 1D, 2D NMR; HREIMS               | Dong et al. (2000)  |
| 78                 | (9 <i>E</i> ,11 <i>E</i> )-13-oxo-9,11-tridecadienoic acid                                     | <i>E. dicksonii</i>  | Leaves                   | 1D, 2D NMR; HREIMS               | Dong et al. (2000)  |
| 79                 | Butyric acid   | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Leaves                   | TLC                              | Torane et al. (2009)                                      |
| 80                 | (9 <i>Z</i> ,11 <i>E</i> )-13-oxo-9,11-tridecadienoic acid                                     | <i>E. dicksonii</i>  | Leaves                   | 1D NMR; HREIMS                   | Dong et al. (2000)  |
| 81                 | (9 <i>Z</i> ,12 <i>Z</i> ,14 <i>E</i> )-16-Hydroxy-9, 12, 14-octadecatrienoic acid             | <i>E. dicksonii</i>  | Leaves                   | 1D, 2D NMR; HREIMS               | Dong et al. (2000)  |
| 82                 | (9 <i>Z</i> ,12 <i>Z</i> )-2,3-Dihydroxypropyl octadeca-9,12-dienoate                          | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 83                 | (9 <i>Z</i> ,12 <i>Z</i> ,15 <i>Z</i> )-2,3-Dihydroxypropyl octadeca-9,12,15-trienoate         | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 84                 | (9 <i>Z</i> ,11 <i>E</i> )-13-oxo-9,11-ocatadecadienoic acid                                   | <i>E. dicksonii</i>  | Leaves                   | 1D NMR; HREIMS                   | Dong et al. (2000)  |
| 85                 | (+)-(2 <i>E</i> ,6 <i>E</i> )-Methyl-10,11-dihydroxy-3,7,11-trimethyl-2,6-dodecadienoate       | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 86                 | (9 <i>Z</i> ,11 <i>E</i> )-13-Hydroxy-9,11-octadecadienoic acid                                | <i>E. dicksonii</i>  | Leaves                   | 1D NMR; HREIMS                   | Dong et al. (2000)  |
| 87                 | Methyl linoleate   | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 88                 | 2,3-Dihydroxypropyl palmitate  | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 89                 | 3-Methylbut-2-enoic acid   | <i>E. longiflora</i>                                       | Root                     | 1D NMR; ESIMS                    | Chien et al. (2012)                                       |
| 90                 | 1-Triacontanol   | <i>E. rigida</i>   | Bark                     | 1D NMR, HREIMS                   | Steyn (1998)  |
| 91                 | Decanoic acid  | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Leaves                   | GC-MS                            | Velappan and Thangaraj (2014)                             |

(Continued on following page)

TABLE 3 (Continued) Compounds from different parts of *Ehretia* genus by different identification methods.

| No.    | Compounds   | Species  | Parts used                     | Identification methods                           | Ref.   |
|--------|---|--|--------------------------------|--|--|
| 92     | Phytol  | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Leaves                         | GC-MS  | Velappan and Thangaraj (2014)                              |
| Others |   |  |                                |  |  |
| 93     | Allantoin   | <i>E. thyrsoflora</i><br><i>E. microphylla</i><br><i>E. rigida</i> | Leaves<br>Aerial parts<br>Bark | 1D NMR; ESIMS<br>1D NMR; ESIMS<br>1D NMR, HREIMS | Li et al. (2010b)<br>Agarwal et al. (1980)<br>Steyn (1998) |
| 94     | 7- <i>O</i> -( <i>p</i> -methoxybenzoyl)-retronecanol | <i>E. aspera</i>   | Leaves                         | 1D NMR; ESIMS                                    | Suri et al. (1980)   |
| 95     | Ehretine  | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                           | 1D, 2D NMR; HRESIMS                              | Chien et al. (2012)  |
| 96     | Simmondsin  | <i>E. philippinensis</i>   | Bark                           | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                              | Simpol et al. (1994)                                       |
| 97     | Ehretioside A1  | <i>E. philippinensis</i>   | Bark                           | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                              | Simpol et al. (1994)                                       |
| 98     | Ehretioside A2  | <i>E. philippinensis</i>   | Bark                           | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                              | Simpol et al. (1994)                                       |
| 99     | Ehretioside A3  | <i>E. philippinensis</i>   | Bark                           | 1D, 2D NMR; HRFABMS                              | Simpol et al. (1994)                                       |
| 100    | Phthalic acid   | <i>E. laevis</i>   | Leaves                         | GC-MS  | Velappan and Thangaraj (2014)                              |
| 101    | Ehretilactone B                                       | <i>E. longiflora</i>   | Root                           | 1D, 2D NMR; HRESIMS                              | Chien et al. (2012)  |

Note: NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; HRESIMS, high resolution electrospray ionization mass spectroscopy; ESIMS, electron ionization mass spectrometry; FABMS, Fast-atom-bombardment Mass Spectrometry; GC-MS, Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry; TLC, Thin-layer chromatography; X-ray, X-ray crystallography.

### 3.7 Others

A derivative of hydantolurea, allantoin (93) was isolated from *E. thyrsoflora* leaves, *E. microphylla* aerial parts, and *E. rigida* bark (Agarwal et al., 1980; Li et al., 2010b; Steyn, 1998). A novel pyrrolizidine, 7-*O*-(*p*-methoxybenzoyl)-retronecanol (94) has been isolated from *E. aspera* leaves (Suri et al., 1980). Ehretine (95) is a new alkaloid which having a cyclohex-2-en-1-one moiety (Chien et al., 2012). Simmondsin (96), ehretioside A1 (97), ehretioside A2 (98), ehretioside A3 (99) are four cyanoglucosides which were isolated from *E. philippinensis* bark (Simpol et al., 1994).

## 4 Biological activity

### 4.1 Antioxidant activity

The ethyl acetate (EA) extracts from the bark of *E. acuminata* exhibited potent antioxidant activity, with IC<sub>50</sub> values of 22 µg/mL, 26 µg/mL, and 140 µg/mL for ABTS, DPPH, and NO radical scavenging assays, respectively (Table 4). In comparison, the standard ascorbic acid (AA) had IC<sub>50</sub> values of 28 µg/mL, 30 µg/mL, and 175 µg/mL, respectively. This suggests that the bark of this plant possesses significant health benefits due to its antioxidant properties, as supported by previous research (Kaur et al., 2019). The EA extract from the fruit of *E. acuminata* also demonstrated strong free radical scavenging capacity, as reported by Shukla group, with IC<sub>50</sub> values of 40 µg/mL, 50 µg/mL, and 380 µg/mL for ABTS, DPPH, and NO assays, respectively. For the same assays, the standard AA had IC<sub>50</sub> values of 23 µg/mL, 27 µg/mL, and

230 µg/mL, respectively (Shukla et al., 2019b). Notably, the EA extract from the leaves of *E. acuminata* exhibited the highest antioxidant activity, with IC<sub>50</sub> values of 90 µg/mL, 99 µg/mL, and 250 µg/mL for ABTS, DPPH, and NO assays, respectively (Shukla et al., 2019a). *In vitro* antioxidant and radical scavenging assays conducted on *E. serrata* fruits and leaves revealed that the EA fraction of the leaf extract exhibited the highest activity. This is attributed to its high phenolic content. Additionally, the EA fraction of the fruit extract showed the highest lipid peroxidation value, followed by the leaf fraction. Significant free radical scavenging potential was also observed in the chloroform (CH) and 1-butanolic fractions of the leaf extract (Zara et al., 2012). R28 cells were used to evaluate the protective effects of phytochemicals and ethanolic extracts from *E. asperula* leaves against oxidative stress-induced retinal cell loss and excitotoxicity. The results indicated that both 70% and 95% ethanolic leaf extracts enhanced cell viability under these conditions. Furthermore, methyl rosmarinic acid (26) and rosmarinic acid (27) were particularly effective in preventing retinal cell death and increasing ROS levels in cells exposed to glutamate/BSO-induced excitotoxicity/oxidative stress. These findings suggest that *E. asperula* leaves may have therapeutic potential for treating retinal degeneration (Le et al., 2021).

The high phenolic content of *E. macrophylla* peel extracts is a key factor contributing to their remarkable antioxidant activity, as evidenced by PSC and ORAC values of 859.85 ± 70.32 µmol vit. C equiv./g and 2877.01 ± 163.80 µmol trolox equiv./g, respectively (Lu, 2016). According to Huma, there was a notable reduction in DPPH after 60 min (94.1%) in the stem bark extract of *E. serrata* and 30 min (85.01%) in the fruit extract of *E. obtusifolia* at the dosage level of 1,000 µg/mL (Huma, 2019). Pío-León research group

TABLE 4 Bioactivities attributed to the species of *Ehretia* genus.

| Bioactivities        | Species               | Parts used            | Extract and/or compounds   | Results   | Reference                               |
|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--|---|---|
| Antioxidant          | <i>E. acuminata</i>   | Bark                  | EA extract   | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 22, 26, and 140 µg/mL for ABTS, DPPH, and NO radical scavenging activity <i>in vitro</i>   | Kaur et al. (2019)                      |
|                      |                       | Leaves                | EA extract   | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 90, 99, and 250 µg/mL for ABTS, DPPH, and NO radical scavenging activity <i>in vitro</i>   | Shukla et al. (2019a)                   |
|                      |                       | Fruit                 | EA extract   | IC <sub>50</sub> values for the ABTS, DPPH, and NO assays were 40, 50, and 380 µg/mL <i>in vitro</i>  | Shukla et al. (2019b)                   |
|                      | <i>E. serrata</i>     | Leaves                | EA extract   | ABTS (TEAC 1.76 ± 0.004 µmol), DPPH (EC <sub>50</sub> 120.499 µg/mL), FRAP (270.44 ± 1.00 µmol of ascorbic acid equivalent, AAE), Phosphomolybdate (156.92 ± 4.63 µg/mL of AAE) <i>in vitro</i> | Zara et al. (2012)                      |
|                      | <i>E. asperula</i>    | Leaves                | Methyl rosmarinic acid (26)  | Under the condition of glutamate/BSO-induced cytotoxicity, 26 (100 µM) significantly improved the survival rate of R28 cells  | Le et al. (2021)                        |
|                      |                       |                       | Rosmarinic acid (27)   | Under the condition of glutamate/BSO-induced cytotoxicity, 27 (33 µM) significantly improved the survival rate of R28 cells   |   |
|                      | <i>E. macrophylla</i> | Peels                 | Frozen acetone extract   | PSC and ORAC values of 859.85 ± 70.32 µmol vit. C equiv./g, DW, 2877.01 ± 163.80 µmol trolox equiv./g <i>in vitro</i>   | Lu (2016)                               |
|                      |                       | Fruit                 | Polyphenols  | Showed significant free radical scavenging ability: DPPH (EC <sub>50</sub> = 0.32 ± 0.03 mg/mL), and TEAC (4,134 ± 9.7 µM TE/g dry extract)   | Deng et al. (2020)                      |
|                      |                       |                       | Methyl rosmarinate (26)  | ORAC, PSC, and CAA values (wash) were 28,976.58 ± 3,589.36 µmol TE/g DW, 32,139.75 ± 3,979.76 µmol EVC/g DW, and 317.77 ± 36.69 µmol QE/100µmol, respectively                                   | He (2018)                               |
|                      | <i>E. serrata</i>     | Stem bark             | Methanolic extract   | Exhibited significant (94.1%) DPPH inhibition at dose level 1,000 µg/mL after 60 min  | Huma (2019)                             |
|                      |                       | Fruit                 | Methanolic extract   | Exhibited significant (85.01%) DPPH inhibition at dose level 1,000 µg/mL after 60 min   |   |
|                      | <i>E. tinifolia</i>   | Fruits                | Methanolic extract   | DPPH, 303.8 mg EVC/100 g f.w.; ABTS, 84.1 mg EVC/100 g f.w. (EVC means equivalents of vitamin C) <i>in vitro</i>  | Pío-León et al. (2012b)                 |
|                      | <i>E. laevis</i>      | Flowers               | Hydroalcoholic (70%) extract   | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 56.5 and 478.8 µg/mL for DPPH, and NO radical scavenging activity <i>in vitro</i>  | Rangnathrao and Shanmugasundaram (2019) |
|                      | <i>E. microphylla</i> | Aerial parts          | CH and EA extracts   | Significantly decreased CAT, SOD, GSH and GPx levels <i>in vivo</i>   | Yuvaraja et al. (2021)                  |
|                      | <i>E. cymosa</i>      | Leaves                | Methanol extract   | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 0.47, 0.49, and 0.55 mg/mL for DPPH, ABTS and -OH radical scavenging activity <i>in vitro</i>  | Ogundajo and Ashafa (2017)              |
| EA extract           |                       |                       | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 0.61 and 1.68 mg/mL for metal chelating and superoxide anion scavenging activity <i>in vitro</i>                      |   |   |
| Whole plant          |                       | 70% Ethanolic extract | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 0.489 µg/mL for DPPH radical scavenging activity <i>in vitro</i> (BHT and AA was 0.403 and 0.032 µg/mL, respectively) | Sarkodie et al. (2015)  |   |
| <i>E. longiflora</i> | Root                  | Ehretiquinone (57)    |  | Chien et al. (2012)   |   |

(Continued on following page)



TABLE 4 (Continued) Bioactivities attributed to the species of *Ehretia* genus.

| Bioactivities                   | Species               | Parts used             | Extract and/or compounds   | Results   | Reference                   |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|--|---|-----------------------------|
|                                 |                       |                        |  | Inhibitory effects on <i>N</i> -formyl methionyl leucyl phenylalanine (fMLP)-induced superoxide production (IC <sub>50</sub> = 0.36 ± 0.03 μM)  |                             |
| Anti-diabetic                   | <i>E. acuminata</i>   | Bark                   | CH extract   | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 260 and 265 μg/mL for α-amylase and α-glycosidase inhibitory activity, respectively (Acarbose with IC <sub>50</sub> values of 40.25 and 38.45 μg/mL, respectively)   | Kaur et al. (2022)          |
|                                 |                       | Leaves                 | CH extract   | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 43.35 and 42.90 μg/mL for α-amylase and α-glycosidase inhibitory activity, respectively  | Shukla et al. (2021)        |
|                                 | <i>E. anacua</i>      | Leaf                   | Aqueous extract  | Treating alloxan-induced rats with 50, 100 and 200 mg/kg bw extract caused a significant decrease in the blood glucose level  | Abimbola et al. (2021)      |
|                                 | <i>E. cymosa</i>      | leaves                 | Methanol and EA extracts   | Against α-amylase (2.11 and 2.75 mg/mL) and α-glucosidase (0.66 and 0.60 mg/mL), respectively   | Ogundajo and Ashafa, (2017) |
|                                 |                       | Whole plant            | 70% ethanolic extract  | Different doses of the extract administered (30 mg/kg, 60 mg/kg and 90 mg/kg) gave statistically significant reduction in FBGL of the rats (streptozotocin induced)   | Sarkodie et al. (2015)      |
|                                 | <i>E. macrophylla</i> | Fruit                  | Polyphenols  | Suppressing the activities of α-glucosidase and α-amylase, increasing glucose consumption, glycogen accumulation, and GYS2, and reducing the effects of G6Pase and PEPCK  | Deng et al. (2020)          |
|                                 | <i>E. tinifolia</i>   | Fruit                  | Polyphenols  | Against α-amylase (0.17 mg/mL) and α-glucosidase (5 mg/mL), respectively  | Monroy-García et al. (2021) |
| Analgesic and anti-inflammatory | <i>E. laevis</i>      | Leaves                 | Methanol extract   | The herbal hydrogel HEL3 exhibited an impressive 78.75% and 79.51% inhibition, respectively, compared to the standard (indomethacin), which exhibited an inhibition of 80.24% and 81.12% at 360 min in carrageenan induced rat paw edema method and formalin induced rat paw edema method | Memon et al. (2022)         |
|                                 | <i>E. tinifolia</i>   | Whole plant            | Methanol extract   | Inhibited the LPS-induced production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, including TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6  | Lim et al. (2023)           |
|                                 | <i>E. acuminata</i>   | Leaves                 | PE and EA extracts   | Highest potential was shown by EA extract (IC <sub>50</sub> 290 μg/mL) and lowest in PE extract (IC <sub>50</sub> 750 μg/mL) using spectrophotometric method  | Shukla et al. (2021)        |
|                                 |                       | Bark                   | EA and ethanol extracts  | Showed significant anti-inflammatory effects (evaluated with the egg albumin of hen <i>in vitro</i> ) with IC <sub>50</sub> values of 170 and 172 μg/mL, respectively   | Kaur et al. (2022)          |
|                                 | <i>E. dicksonii</i>   | Fresh leaves and twigs | (10E, 12Z, 15Z)-9-hydroxy-10, 12, 15-octadecatrienoic acid methyl ester (77) | Demonstrated a 43% inhibitory effect on TPA-exposed inflammation in the ears of mouse when administered at a dose of 500 μg   | Dong et al. (2000)          |
|                                 |                       |                        | Compounds 78, 80, 81, 86 and 84  | Exhibited potent activity with, IE <sub>500</sub> μg of 32%, 19%, 39%, 63%, and 79%, respectively   |                             |
|                                 | <i>E. cymosa</i>      | Leaves                 | 80% methanol extract   | 80% methanol extract, aqueous, ethyl acetate and chloroform fractions of <i>E. cymosa</i> demonstrated significant analgesic and anti-inflammatory activities, evaluated using acetic acid-induced writhing and hot plate tests, carrageenan-induced paw edema and                        | Ashagrie et al. (2023)      |

(Continued on following page)

TABLE 4 (Continued) Bioactivities attributed to the species of *Ehretia* genus.

| Bioactivities                     | Species               | Parts used   | Extract and/or compounds                       | Results   | Reference                               |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------|--|---|---|
|                                   |                       |              |  | cotton-pellet-induced granuloma models, respectively  |   |
|                                   | <i>E. macrophylla</i> | Fruit        | EA and CH extracts                             | The EA and CH fractions showed potent anti-inflammatory activity (LPS stimulation of RAW264.7 cells model), with an IC <sub>50</sub> value of 19.10 ± 0.31 µg/mL and 19.48 ± 0.25 µg/mL for inhibiting NO release   | He (2018)                               |
|                                   |                       |              | Methyl caffeate and methyl rosmarinate         | Two compounds notably reduced the levels of TNF-α, IL-1β, and iNOS at 2 µg/mL and 1.25 µg/mL, respectively  |   |
|                                   | <i>E. laevis</i>      | Leaves       | CH, methanolic, and aqueous extracts           | These extracts showed significant anti-inflammatory activity by reducing paw volume at different doses  | Jyothirmai et al. (2016)                |
|                                   | <i>E. obtusifolia</i> | Stem bark    | Methanolic extract                             | Highly significant analgesic effect at all dose level 100 mg/kg, 200 mg/kg and 300 mg/kg over 60 min  | Huma (2019)                             |
| Hepatoprotective                  | <i>E. laevis</i>      | Flowers      | 70% hydroalcoholic and EA extract              | Demonstrated substantial dose-dependent protection against alterations in serum ASAT, ALAT, ALP, and TP at oral doses of 100 and 200 mg/kg  | Rangnathrao and Shanmugasundaram (2019) |
|                                   | <i>E. microphylla</i> | Aerial parts | CH and EA extracts                             | CH and EA extracts significantly shielded rats from liver toxicities caused by paracetamol. SGOT, SGPT, and ALP levels, as well as triglyceride and total cholesterol levels, were elevated in rats with liver injury caused by paracetamol   | Yuvaraja et al. (2021)                  |
| Muscle relaxant and antispasmodic | <i>E. acuminata</i>   | Bark         | Water, ethanol, and chloroform extracts        | These extracts also showed antispasmodic (11 ± 1, 9 ± 1, and 11 ± 1), analgesic (10 ± 1, 16 ± 1, and 11 ± 1), and muscle relaxant (6 ± 1, 5 ± 1, and 5 ± 1) potential at 300 mg/kg  | Jan et al. (2023)                       |
|                                   | <i>E. obtusifolia</i> | Stem bark    | Methanolic extract                             | Exhibited highly significant results at dose of 200 and 300 mg/kg in swiss albino mice  | Huma (2019)                             |
| Antibacterial                     | <i>E. serrata</i>     | Leaves       | Methanolic extract                             | Exhibited antimicrobial activity against all the tested microorganisms including <i>Azospirillum lipoferum</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , <i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i> and <i>Enterococcus</i> sp. with ZOI ranged from 10.3 to 29.0 mm. Additionally, both the methanolic extract and its sub-fractions exhibited MIC values ranging from 0.8 to 5.1 mg/mL against the tested bacteria | Waheed et al. (2019)                    |
|                                   |                       |              |  | Exhibited a substantial antibacterial zone (7 mm) at a dosage level of 1,000 µg/mL, in contrast to the reference drug's (31.5 mm)   | Huma (2019)                             |
|                                   | <i>E. longiflora</i>  | Root         | Prenylhydroquinone (47) and ehretiquinone (57) | Showed antitubercular activity against <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i> strain H37Rv with MIC values of 25.0 and 26.2 µg/mL, respectively  | Chien et al. (2012)                     |
|                                   | <i>E. acuminata</i>   | Leaf         | Ethanol extract                                | Exhibited the most extensive zone of inhibition (12–18 mm) against a variety of food poisoning bacteria ( <i>L. monocytogenes</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>E. coli</i> and <i>P. aeruginosa</i> )  | Shukla et al. (2021)                    |
|                                   | <i>E. cymosa</i>      | Whole plant  | 70% Ethanolic extract                          | Showed inhibitory activity against <i>P. aeruginosa</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , <i>B. subtilis</i> and <i>S. aureus</i>  | Sarkodie et al. (2015)                  |
| Anticancer                        | <i>E. laevis</i>      | Leaves       | Aqueous extract                                | The nanoparticles (synthetic silver nanoparticles, which had a spherical form and a diameter of 25–35 nm) exhibited a median lethal concentration of 12.7 µg/mL   | Panja et al. (2020)                     |

(Continued on following page)

TABLE 4 (Continued) Bioactivities attributed to the species of *Ehretia* genus.

| Bioactivities           | Species                           | Parts used              | Extract and/or compounds                  | Results   | Reference                     |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------|
|                         |                                   |                         |   | and 14.5 µg/mL against HeLa, human cervical cancer cells, and MCF-7 human breast cancer cells, respectively   |                               |
|                         | <i>E. macrophylla</i>             | Fruit                   | EA and CH extracts                        | Exhibited significant anti-proliferation activity in tested dosage  | He, (2018)                    |
|                         |                                   |                         | Methyl caffeate (21)                      | Demonstrated stronger anti-proliferation effect on Caco-2 cells (EC <sub>50</sub> = 132.73 ± 18.19 µM) and HepG2 cells (EC <sub>50</sub> = 48.35 ± 0.61 µM)   |                               |
|                         | <i>E. microphylla</i>             | Leaves with flower buds | Ethanol extract                           | Exhibited a significant and highly selective antiproliferative effect on HT-29 (IC <sub>50</sub> value 130.89 ± 13.99 µg/mL) and Caco-2 (IC <sub>50</sub> value 52.49 ± 8.81 µg/mL) cells   | Kudera et al. (2021)          |
|                         |                                   | Leaves                  | CH extract                                | Displayed 85.55% and 77.93% inhibition against MCF-7 and A-549 cancer cells at 50 µg/mL, respectively   | Sharma et al. (2022)          |
|                         | <i>E. macrophylla</i>             | Fruit                   | Polyphenols                               | Free and bound extracts powerfully inhibited the proliferation of HepG2 cells in a dose-dependent manner  | Deng et al. (2020)            |
|                         | <i>E. tinifolia</i>               | Fruit                   | Polyphenols                               | IC <sub>50</sub> values of 0.99, 1.36 and 0.82 mg/mL for MCF-7, HeLa, and HT-29 cells, respectively   | Monroy-García et al. (2021)   |
| Antihemolytic           | <i>E. acuminata</i>               | Leaves                  | EA extract                                | Demonstrated the most potential for antihemolytic activity, with an IC <sub>50</sub> of 90 µg/mL  | Shukla et al. (2021)          |
|                         | <i>E. tinifolia</i>               | Fruits                  | Polyphenols                               | Shown to possess the effect of hemolysis inhibition (IC <sub>50</sub> = 58.55 ± 2.4 µg/mL)  | Monroy-García et al. (2021)   |
| Anti-arthritis          | <i>E. laevis</i>                  | Leaves                  | Methanolic extract                        | In mice, it (500 mg/kg) inhibited the rise in paw volume by 56%, paw edema to 60%, helped maintain the body weight, and regulated changes in hematological parameters   | Velappan and Thangaraj (2014) |
| Wound healing           | <i>E. laevis</i>                  | Fresh leaves            | Paste was prepared in mortar and pestle   | With healing times ranging from 7 days to a maximum of 66 days, it shows considerable healing properties in both infected and non-infected, chronic and fresh wounds  | Thakre et al. (2016)          |
|                         |                                   | Leaves                  | CH extract                                | Had the same wound healing property as Povidon Iodine ointment in animal model  | Harne et al. (2021)           |
|                         | <i>C. retusa (E. microphylla)</i> | root, stem, and leaves  | Alcoholic extract                         | Swiss albino mice were used for the evaluation of wound healing activity. The ointment prepared from different parts showed significant effectiveness in wound contraction and faster wound closure compared to the standard Nitrofurazone (0.2%) ointment  | Mageswari et al. (2012)       |
| Anti-amoebic            | <i>E. laevis</i>                  | Leaves                  | Create the synthetic silver nanoparticles | Treated for 72 h, it killed 70% ± 10.24% of <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> larvae at a dosage of 25 µg/mL. Within 8 h, the nanoparticles reduced Congo red by approximately 85% at a concentration of 200 µg/mL  | Panja et al. (2020)           |
| Lipoxygenase inhibitory | <i>E. dicksonii</i>               | Fresh leaves and twigs  | Compounds 77, 81, 84 and 86               | Exhibited inhibitory activity against soybean lipoxygenase at a concentration of 10 µg/mL   | Dong et al. (2000)            |
|                         | <i>E. obtusifolia</i>             | Whole plant             | Compounds 24–27 and 29                    | Compounds 24–27 and 29 demonstrated concentration-dependent inhibition of lipoxygenase, with K <sub>i</sub> values ranging from 0.85 to 57.6 µM. Compounds 26 and 27 were the most potent, having K <sub>i</sub> values of 0.85 µM and 1.0 µM, respectively | Iqbal et al. (2005)           |

(Continued on following page)

TABLE 4 (Continued) Bioactivities attributed to the species of *Ehretia* genus.

| Bioactivities                | Species                  | Parts used  | Extract and/or compounds  | Results   | Reference                  |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|---------------------------|---|----------------------------|
| Modulation of gut microbiota | <i>E. macrophylla</i>    | Fruit       | Polysaccharide (EWMFP)    | The effects on human gut microbiota were studied using an <i>in vitro</i> fermentation model simulating human colon micro-ecosystem. In comparison to inulin, EWMFP can alter gut microbial compositions differently and yields higher concentration of butyrate by the end of fermentation | Deng et al. (2020)         |
| Others                       | <i>E. buxifolia</i>      | Root bark   | Ehretianone (56)          | The antisnake venom effect of 56 was determined by calculating the LD <sub>50</sub> of <i>E. carinatus</i> venom in mice that was administered subcutaneously   | Selvanayagam et al. (1996) |
|                              | <i>E. philippinensis</i> | Bark        | Butanolic and EA extracts | Exhibited anti-histamine releasing activity   | Simpol et al. (1994)       |
|                              | <i>E. macrophylla</i>    | Whole plant | Powder                    | 1,000 mg/kg of powdered increased the levels of FSH, LH, and estradiol significantly in female Wistar albino rats   | Aarthi et al. (2012)       |

demonstrated that the antioxidant activity of *E. tinifolia* fruits was comparable to or higher than that of various tropical fruits, including guava, orange, and prickly pears. The 70% ethanolic extract of *E. laevis* flowers exhibited robust antioxidant effects, as shown by DPPH and NO reducing power assays (Rangnathrao and Shanmugasundaram, 2019). Compared to rodents subjected to paracetamol-induced toxicity, the CH and EA extracts of *E. macrophylla* significantly increased antioxidant parameters (CAT, SOD, GSH, and GPx) in rats (Yuvaraja et al., 2021). The methanol fraction of *E. cymosa* leaves exhibited significantly stronger ( $P < 0.05$ ) scavenging activities for DPPH (0.47 mg/mL), ABTS (0.49 mg/mL), and -OH radical (0.55 mg/mL) (Ogundajo and Ashafa, 2017). Two polyphenols found in *E. tinifolia* Linnaeus, TEAC ( $4,134 \pm 9.7 \mu\text{M TE/g dry extract}$ ) and DPPH ( $\text{EC}_{50} = 0.32 \pm 0.03 \text{ mg/mL}$ ), demonstrated significant free radical scavenging capacity (Deng et al., 2020). After extracting active compounds from the dry fruit of *E. macrophylla* using 70% ethanol, four distinct solvents (EA, n-butanol, CH, and PE) were used to remove the remaining contents. Methyl rosmarinate (26) showed strong anti-oxidation action, with ORAC, PSC, and CAA values of  $28,976.58 \pm 3,589.36 \mu\text{mol TE/g DW}$ ,  $32,139.75 \pm 3,979.76 \mu\text{mol EVC/g DW}$ , and  $317.77 \pm 36.69 \mu\text{mol QE/100}\mu\text{mol}$ , respectively. The EA fraction demonstrated strong antioxidant activity, with higher ORAC and PSC values compared to methyl caffeate (21) (He, 2018). Ehretiquinone (57), isolated from the root of *E. longiflora*, inhibited superoxide formation generated by N-formyl methionyl leucyl phenylalanine (fMLP) with an  $\text{IC}_{50}$  value of  $0.36 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{M}$  (Chien et al., 2012).

## 4.2 Anti-diabetic activity

The antidiabetic potential of various bark extracts of *E. acuminata* was evaluated *in vitro* using  $\alpha$ -amylase and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase inhibition assays. Among the tested extracts, only the CH extract demonstrated significant inhibitory activity against both enzymes, with  $\text{IC}_{50}$  values of  $43.35 \mu\text{g/mL}$  for  $\alpha$ -amylase and  $42.90 \mu\text{g/mL}$  for  $\alpha$ -glucosidase. These findings suggest that *E. acuminata* bark contains bioactive compounds with promising

antidiabetic property (Kaur et al., 2022). In a separate study, researchers investigated the effects of an aqueous extract of *E. anacua* leaves on alloxan-induced diabetic rats. Histological examination of pancreatic tissues revealed that blood glucose levels were significantly higher in diabetic rats compared to the control group. Treatment with the aqueous extract at doses of 50, 100, and 200 mg/kg reduced blood glucose levels and preserved pancreatic histoarchitecture. Microscopic examination of pancreatic tissue showed significant architectural damage in the alloxan-treated group, while the plant extract-treated group exhibited normal architecture. This indicates that the extract mitigates alloxan-induced toxicity. These results support the use of the extract as a dietary supplement with hypoglycemic and antidiabetic activities for functional foods (Abimbola et al., 2021). The bioactive compounds in *E. cymosa* leaves were also studied for their antidiabetic properties. Methanol and EA fractions exhibited statistically significant inhibition ( $P < 0.05$ ) against  $\alpha$ -amylase ( $\text{IC}_{50}$ : 2.11 mg/mL and 2.75 mg/mL, respectively) and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase ( $\text{IC}_{50}$ : 0.66 mg/mL and 0.60 mg/mL, respectively). Additionally, the methanol fraction inhibited  $\alpha$ -amylase through a competitive mechanism and  $\alpha$ -glucosidase through a noncompetitive mechanism. These findings suggest that *E. cymosa* leaves contain bioactive compounds with therapeutic potential for diabetes treatment (Ogundajo and Ashafa, 2017). Antihyperglycemic efficacy of a 70% ethanolic fraction of the whole *E. cymosa* plant was investigated *in vivo* using Sprague Dawley rats. Additional *ex vivo* experiments were performed to determine the modulatory effects on the absorption of glucose in the intestines. Irrespective of the dosage, the extract substantially decreased the fasting blood glucose level and equally reduced the amount of glucose absorbed by the rat intestinal sacs. The findings validate the conventional application of *E. cymosa* extract as a pharmaceutical treatment for diabetes in susceptible mice (Sarkodie et al., 2015). Phenolic compounds from *E. macrophylla* fruit exhibited effective hypoglycemic activity by inhibiting  $\alpha$ -glucosidase and  $\alpha$ -amylase, increasing glucose consumption and glycogen accumulation, and reducing G6Pase and PEPCK activity. Thus, *E. macrophylla* fruits have the potential to enhance human health as metabolites in functional foods, offering further health and economic benefits

(Deng et al., 2020). *E. tinifolia* extracts showed no inhibitory effect on lipase but selectively inhibited  $\alpha$ -glucosidase and  $\alpha$ -amylase (Monroy-García et al., 2021). Sequential Soxhlet extraction of *E. acuminata* leaves yielded both nonpolar and polar extracts, which were evaluated for antidiabetic potential using spectrophotometric analysis. The CH extract had the highest antidiabetic activity, with an  $IC_{50}$  ranging from 260 to 265  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  (Shukla et al., 2021).

### 4.3 Analgesic and anti-inflammatory activity

The volume of the paw edoema was substantially reduced in the carrageenan- and formalin-induced rat paw edoema methods when the paw edoema was generated by the herbal hydrogel containing the methanol extract of *E. laevis* leaves (HEL3). HEL3 exhibited 78.75% and 79.51% inhibition, respectively, compared to the standard indomethacin, which showed 80.24% and 81.12% inhibition at 360 min. HEL3 demonstrated potent anti-inflammatory and wound healing properties (Memon et al., 2022). The mechanisms underlying the anti-inflammatory properties of the methanol extract of *E. tinifolia* (ETME) were elucidated. ETME significantly increased total GSH levels and decreased pro-inflammatory cytokine and NO production. Additionally, ETME reduced the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , and IL-6 in response to LPS. The study's results suggest that ETME may be capable of protecting Kupffer cells from NF- $\kappa$ B and MAPKs, as well as LPS-induced oxidative stress and heightened inflammatory responses can be mitigated through the activation of the antioxidant pathway involving Nrf2 and HO-1 (Lim et al., 2023). The spectrophotometric technique was employed to evaluate the anti-inflammatory properties of the leaf extracts (PE, CH, EA, EOL, and aqua) of *E. acuminata*. Shukla group reported that the EA extract exhibited the most potent anti-inflammatory activity (Shukla et al., 2021). When tested *in vitro* with hen egg albumin, the EA and ethanol extracts of *E. acuminata* bark shown potent anti-inflammatory properties ( $IC_{50}$  values of 170  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  and 172  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , respectively). According to the findings, the bark of *E. acuminata* contains chemicals that show promise as probable anti-inflammatory agents (Kaur et al., 2022). Compound 77, extracted from *E. dicksonii*, demonstrated a 43% inhibitory effect on TPA-exposed inflammation in the ears of mouse when administered at a dose of 500  $\mu\text{g}$ . Compounds 78, 80, 81, 86 and 84 exhibited potent activity with,  $IE_{500 \mu\text{g}}$  of 32%, 19%, 39%, 63%, and 79%, respectively (Dong et al., 2000). Acetic acid-induced writhing and hot plate experiments, carrageenan-induced paw edoema, and cotton-pellet-exposed granuloma models were employed to evaluate the analgesic and anti-inflammatory properties of *E. cymosa* leaves. The findings of this investigation substantiate the conventional application of *E. cymosa* in the management of a diverse array of inflammatory and painful conditions. Specifically, the 80% methanol, aqueous, EA, and CH extracts of the plant demonstrated substantial analgesic and anti-inflammatory effects (Ashagrie et al., 2023). The four distinct solvents (EA, *n*-butanol, CH, and PE) were used to extract the compounds that were shown to be effective from the dried fruit of *E. macrophylla* after 70% ethanol was used. Strong anti-inflammatory activity was demonstrated by the EA and CH fractions, with  $IC_{50}$

values for preventing NO release of  $19.10 \pm 0.31 \mu\text{g/mL}$  and  $19.48 \pm 0.25 \mu\text{g/mL}$ , respectively.

Methyl caffeate and methyl rosmarinate, two compounds that were extracted from *E. macrophylla*, showed better anti-inflammatory properties than the other four fractions; these compounds notably reduced the levels of TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , and iNOS at 2  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  and 1.25  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , respectively (He, 2018). Jyothirmai group demonstrated that the CH, methanolic, and aqueous extracts of *E. laevis* exhibited significant anti-inflammatory efficacy by reducing paw volume at varying concentrations (Jyothirmai et al., 2016). With the exception of stem bark, *E. serrata* demonstrated a highly significant analgesic effect at all dose levels (100, 200, and 300 mg/kg) over a 60-min period. The stem bark of *E. obtusifolia* exhibited highly significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) results at all concentrations after 60 min. The anti-inflammatory effects of *E. serrata* and *E. obtusifolia* were found to be highly significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) at all concentrations, including 100 mg/kg, 200 mg/kg, and 300 mg/kg, after two and 3 h (Huma, 2019).

### 4.4 Hepatoprotective activity

The hepatoprotective effect of the hydroalcoholic (70% ethanol) and EA fractions of *E. laevis* flowers were evaluated using Wistar rats. Both extracts demonstrated significant dose-dependent protection against alterations in serum aspartate ASAT, ALAT, ALP, and TP at oral doses of 100 and 200 mg/kg. Additionally, they provided dose-dependent protection against liver tissue modifications, such as necrosis, fatty degeneration, and lymphatic infiltration, induced by paracetamol. The EA fraction exhibited superior activity compared to the hydroalcoholic extract. These findings suggest that *E. laevis* extracts have promising potential as preventive treatments for liver damage (Rangnathrao and Shanmugasundaram, 2019). Similarly, the CH and EA extracts of *E. microphylla* significantly protected rats from paracetamol-induced liver toxicities. Elevated levels of SGOT, SGPT, ALP, triglycerides, and total cholesterol in paracetamol-induced liver injury were effectively reduced by pretreatment with *E. microphylla* extracts (CH and EA, 200 mg/kg), comparable to silymarin (100 mg/kg). In summary, *E. microphylla* extracts demonstrated substantial hepatoprotective benefits in the context of paracetamol-induced liver injury in rats. The hepatoprotective properties of *E. microphylla* may be attributed to the presence of flavonoids and phenolic compounds (Yuvaraja et al., 2021).

### 4.5 Muscle relaxant and antispasmodic activity

The bark extracts of *E. acuminata* exhibited concentration-dependent increases in intestinal motility in experimental animals. These extracts also demonstrated antispasmodic, analgesic, and muscle relaxant activities at 300 mg/kg, with no observed acute toxic effects in tested mice. Specifically, the antispasmodic activity was measured at  $11 \pm 1$ ,  $9 \pm 1$ , and  $11 \pm 1$ ; analgesic activity at  $10 \pm 1$ ,  $16 \pm 1$ , and  $11 \pm 1$ ; and muscle relaxant activity at  $6 \pm 1$ ,  $5 \pm 1$ , and  $5 \pm 1$ . This study provides significant



evidence supporting the pharmacological use of *E. acuminata* as an analgesic, antispasmodic, and muscle relaxant (Jan et al., 2023). Additionally, the methanolic extracts of the fruit, stem bark, and leaves of *E. serrata* and *E. obtusifolia* were evaluated for antispasmodic activity in Swiss albino rodents. The methanolic extract of the stem bark showed highly significant results ( $P < 0.01$ ) at concentrations of 200 and 300 mg/kg. *E. obtusifolia* exhibited enhanced smooth muscle relaxation at low doses. The highly significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) activities of the leaf (200 and 300 mg/kg), fruit (300 mg/kg), and stem bark extracts (all concentrations) scientifically validated their ethnopharmacological use as antispasmodic agents (Huma, 2019).

#### 4.6 Antibacterial activity

The antibacterial potential of phytoconstituents was examined by assessing their ability to disrupt bacterial cell permeability and inhibit bacterial growth. The methanolic extract of *E. serrata* leaves demonstrated effective antibacterial activity against five tested bacteria, with ZOI ranging from 10.3 to 29.0 mm. The MIC values ranged from 0.8 to 5.1 mg/mL (Waheed et al., 2019). The CH, methanolic, and aqueous extracts of *E. laevis* exhibited exceptional antibacterial efficacy against both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria, with the methanolic fraction showing the most potent activity (Jyothirmai et al., 2016). Two compounds, prenylhydroquinone (47) and ehretiquinone (57), were isolated from the methanolic fraction of *E. longiflora* root. These compounds exhibited antitubercular effect inhibit *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* strain H37Rv, with MIC values of 26.2 and 25.0  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , respectively (Chien et al., 2012). The ethanol extract of *E. acuminata* leaves exhibited the most extensive ZOI (12–18 mm) against various food poisoning bacteria (Shukla et al., 2021). The agar diffusion assay revealed that the 70% ethanolic fraction of the entire plant of *E. cymosa* inhibited *P. aeruginosa*, *E. coli*, *B. subtilis*, and *S. aureus* (Sarkodie et al., 2015). The extract exhibited inhibitory effect against *P. aeruginosa*, *E. coli*, *B. subtilis*, and *S. aureus* (Sarkodie et al., 2015). The methanolic extract of *E. serrata* leaves exhibited a substantial antibacterial zone (7 mm) at a dosage level of 1,000  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , in contrast to the reference drug's (31.5 mm). The leaf extract of *E. obtusifolia* exhibited a more potent antibacterial zone (7 mm) than the reference medication (30.2 mm) at a dosage level of 1,000  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  (Huma, 2019).

#### 4.7 Anticancer activity

The leaves of *E. laevis* were utilized to synthesize spherical silver nanoparticles with diameters ranging from 25 to 35 nm. These nanoparticles exhibited potent anticancer activity, demonstrating high stability in solution and significant cytotoxicity. Specifically, the median lethal concentrations ( $\text{LC}_{50}$ ) for HeLa and MCF-7 cells were 12.7  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  and 14.5  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , respectively (Panja et al., 2020). The effective compounds were extracted from *E. macrophylla* fruit by 70% ethanol, and then extracted with four different solvents. The EA and CH fractions exhibited significant anti-proliferation activity in tested dosage. Methyl caffeate (21) demonstrated stronger

anti-proliferation effect on Caco-2 cells ( $\text{EC}_{50} = 132.73 \pm 18.19 \mu\text{M}$ ), while  $\text{EC}_{50}$  value of methyl caffeate on HepG2 cells ( $\text{EC}_{50} = 48.35 \pm 0.61 \mu\text{M}$ ) (He, 2018). *E. microphylla* (extract of leaves with flower buds) showed a significant and highly selective antiproliferative effect on cancer cells (Kudera et al., 2021). At a concentration of 50  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , the CH extract of *E. microphylla* leaves inhibited MCF-7 and A-549 cancer cell lines by 85.55% and 77.93%, respectively. The DAPI staining method was employed to investigate the mechanism of cell death, which revealed alterations in nuclear morphology in MCF-7 cell lines in the form of distinct changes that were observed during the staining process (Sharma et al., 2022). The extract of the fruit of *E. macrophylla* showed dose-dependent antiproliferative activity, possibly influenced by the synergistic and additive effects of individual phenolics (Deng et al., 2020). Both *E. tinifolia* and *Sideroxylon lanuginosum* Michaux (Sapotaceae) exhibited antiproliferative activities against HeLa, HT-29 and MCF-7 cells (Monroy-García et al., 2021).

#### 4.8 Antihemolytic activity

The antihemolytic properties of the leaf extracts (PE, CH, EA, ethanol, and aqua) of *E. acuminata* were assessed using spectrophotometric technique. The EA extract demonstrated the most potential for antihemolytic activity, with an  $\text{IC}_{50}$  of 90  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  (Shukla et al., 2021). It was demonstrated that *E. tinifolia* polyphenols had the ability to reduce hemolysis ( $\text{IC}_{50} = 58.55 \pm 2.4 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ) (Monroy-García et al., 2021).

#### 4.9 Anti-arthritis activity

The methanolic extract of *E. laevis* leaves (500 mg/kg) in mice prevented paw edoema from increasing by 60% and by 56%, as per Velappan and Thangaraj (Velappan and Thangaraj, 2014).

#### 4.10 Wound healing activity

With healing times ranging from 7 days to a maximum of 66 days, *E. laevis* leaves show considerable healing properties in both infected and non-infected, chronic and fresh wounds. These properties become more effective as one ages. According to the study, the patient's immune status remained unaffected because no antibiotics were administered (Thakre et al., 2016). The study also showed that the CH fraction of the EtOH extract of *E. laevis* has the same wound-healing properties as Povidon iodine ointment in wistar rats (Harne et al., 2021). In 5% and 10% concentrations, the alcoholic extract ointment of *C. retusa* root, stem, and leaves would be able to stimulate wound healing activity. Swiss albino mice were employed to test the effectiveness of wound healing. The ointment prepared from different fraction showed significant effectiveness in wound contraction and faster wound closure compared to the standard Nitrofurazone (0.2%) ointment. As a result, the wound healing study demonstrated that *C. retusa* is available in facilitating wound closure (Mageswari et al., 2012).

## 4.11 Anti-amoebic activity

The leaves of Ampalaya (*Momordica charantia* L.) and Tsaang Gubat (*E. microphylla*) were processed to create a lyophilized aqueous extract. Against *Entamoeba histolytica*, tsaang gubat and ampalaya leaves did not show any anti-amoebic activity. In reality, they promoted the development of amoebae at all dose levels. The  $IC_{50}$  of the extracts of tsaang gubat and ampalaya leaves was greater than 500  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  at 24, 48, and 72 h. These findings contradict the conventional application of these herbal medicines to alleviate diarrhoea (Maramba-Lazarte et al., 2020). The leaves of *E. laevis* were used to create the synthetic silver nanoparticles, which demonstrated larvicidal activity and efficient methylene blue dye degradation. The nanoparticles were also extremely stable in solution and active. After being treated for 72 h, it killed  $70\% \pm 10.24\%$  of *Culex quinquefasciatus* larvae at a dosage of 25  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ . Within 8 h, the nanoparticles reduced Congo red by approximately 85% at a concentration of 200  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ . Furthermore, when exposed to sunlight, the produced nanoparticles may function as a water purifying agent (Panja et al., 2020).

## 4.12 Lipoygenase inhibitory activity

Compounds 77, 81, 84 and 86 isolated from the fresh leaves and twigs of *E. dicksonii* exhibited inhibitory effect against soybean lipoygenase at a concentration of 10  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  (Dong et al., 2000). Compounds 24–27 and 29 demonstrated concentration-dependent inhibition of lipoygenase, with  $K_i$  values ranging from 0.85 to 57.6  $\mu\text{M}$ . Compounds 26 and 27 were the most potent, having  $K_i$  values of 0.85  $\mu\text{M}$  and 1.0  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively. Compounds 25–27 and 29 exhibited noncompetitive inhibition, whereas compound 24 was classified as an uncompetitive inhibitor of lipoygenase (Iqbal et al., 2005).

## 4.13 Modulation of gut microbiota

A new polysaccharide called EWMFP was effectively isolated and identified from *E. macrophylla* fruit by Xu group. The impacts on the gastrointestinal microbiota of humans were investigated using an *in vitro* fermentation model that reproduces the micro-ecosystem of the human colon. With a molecular weight of 12.45 kDa, EWMFP is made up of four monosaccharides and is better than inulin at preserving microbial diversity. By the end of fermentation, EWMFP produces a higher concentration of butyrate than inulin and can modify the composition of gut microbes in a different way. Differing routes may lead to differing compositions of short chain fatty acids (SCFA) during fermentation between EWMFP and inulin. According to their research, EWMFP may have a new role as a prebiotic in controlling colonic health (Deng et al., 2020).

## 4.14 Other activities

Erhetianone (56), which was isolated from a methanolic preparation of the root bark of *E. buxifolia*, has been shown to have antisnake venom activity against the venom of *Echis carinatus*

in rodents. The antisnake venom effect of compound 56 was determined by calculating the  $LD_{50}$  of *E. carinatus* venom in mice that was administered subcutaneously (Selvanayagam et al., 1996). It was discovered that the butanolic and EA extracts of *E. philippinensis* bark exhibited anti-histamine releasing activity (Simpol et al., 1994). The objective of this work was to investigate the impact of *E. microphylla* on the quantity of ovarian surface follicles, relative weight of the ovaries and uterus, and folliculogenesis in female Wistar albino rats. Hematology required the removal of the uterus and ovaries. The findings show that 1,000 mg/kg of powdered *E. microphylla* increased the levels of FSH, LH, and estradiol significantly. Additionally, increased folliculogenesis was found along with increased ovarian and uterine weight. As a result, the results point to a noteworthy stimulating effect on female reproductive function that might improve adult female rats' fertility (Aarathi et al., 2012).

## 5 Toxicology

The alcoholic extract from *E. microphylla* leaves did not exhibit any chromosome-fragmentation generating activity in the mutagenicity or genotoxicity assays (Balboa and Sylianco, 1993; Legaspi and Bagaioisan, 2020). Only one report on acute oral toxicity for *E. laevis* adheres to the OECD recommendation of 423. All of the methanolic extracts from the fruits, stems, and foliage in this investigation were determined to be safe at a dosage of 2,000 mg/kg (Sharma et al., 2021; Velappan and Thangaraj, 2014). The safety and effectiveness of *E. laevis* and *E. microphylla* extracts and fractions for a range of illnesses are not adequately supported by the few and inadequate toxicity reports that are currently available. Moreover, there is a dearth of information in the literature regarding this genus's toxicity.

## 6 Clinical studies

The tsaang gubat tablets contains a 10% leaf aqueous extract that has been shown to be both safe and efficacious in the treatment of gastrointestinal and biliary colic pain. In a Phase II clinical trial conducted in Pila and Victoria, Laguna, the formulation was administered to five male patients who were diagnosed with acute colic due to lax bowel movements. The following effects were observed after the treatment: (1) all patients reported experiencing relief from intestinal spasms or colic, and (2) the onset of colic relief typically occurred 20–30 min after the dosage. Efficacy, tolerability, and acceptability of the tsaang gubat tablet at a dose of 150 mg/kg were comparable to those of dicycloverine at a dose of 0.5 mg/kg in Phase II clinical trials conducted at the Tarlac Provincial Hospital. The patients were 110 outpatients with acute mild, moderate, or severe biliary colic. The laboratory tests conducted subsequent to the administration of the tsaang gubat tablet did not reveal any abnormalities, and the patients reported no adverse effects (Legaspi and Bagaioisan, 2020). It has been registered with the Philippine Food and Drug Administration, is currently listed in the Philippine National Formulary and has been licensed to a limited number of local pharmaceutical enterprises.

## 7 Cultivation and commercial value

In recent years, there are more and more reports about the cultivation of this genus with the development and utilization of some plants of *Ehretia* genus. It is mainly divided into three cultivation methods. The first one is seed cultivation. The plant fruit begins in ripe and can be collected centrally when the fruit changes from green to orange-red or yellow. The fruit was peeled and stratified after harvest. The seeds are sprouted and sown when the soil thaws in the following spring. The other two methods are root and branch cottage (Huma, 2019; Zhou, et al., 2012). As a kind of Kudingcha, the leaves of *E. thyrsoiflora* have great commercial value as a health tea in China (Wang and Huang, 2005). Furthermore, Tupipa (the fruit of *E. macrophylla*) has been developed as a new food in Hengnan County, China, to promote local economic development and help rural revitalization. Up to now, the county planting area of more than 30,000 mus and the sales of Tupipa products reached 100 million yuan in 2023 (<http://lyj.hunan.gov.cn/>). *E. tinifolia* produces small, globe-shaped yellow drupes measuring up to 8 mm in diameter. These fruits have a sweet taste and have been utilized as both food and medicinal plants in various regions of Mexico and the United States (Monroy-García et al., 2021). *E. microphylla* is considered the most promising species for large-scale production and is used extensively in traditional Philippine medicine. Based on the findings of early experiments, recommendations were made on the cultivation, harvesting, and storage (where applicable) of vegetative propagation (Mageswari and Karpagam, 2015). Some plants of *Ehretia* genus are often used as herb medicine, food, street tree and yard planting, so the cultivation and commercial value of this genus have certain reference value.

## 8 Conclusion and perspectives

The biology, ethnopharmacology, phytochemistry, pharmacology, toxicity, clinical studies, cultivation and commercial value of the *Ehretia* genus were summarized in this paper. This genus is widely distributed across various regions, with some species being particularly diverse. It has been extensively utilized in traditional medicine and food practices. Although there are commonalities in medicinal applications, these vary significantly depending on the species and geographical location. In fact, *Ehretia* species are used to treat skin conditions, pain and inflammation, and digestive issues in many different countries. Numerous pharmacological activities, including the antioxidant, anti-diabetic, and anti-inflammatory characteristics, have been studied *in vivo* and *in vitro* in several species. While most studies have concentrated on crude extracts, certain active compounds have also been evaluated. There is evidence that flavonoids and phenylpropanoids have antioxidant properties.

In Asian countries, ethnic populations employ *E. leavis* as masticatories. Undiscovered wound-healing properties have been shown by *E. leavis*. The finest aspect is that it produces a lot of material without requiring the plant to be uprooted since its leaves are effective. Indian scientists have conducted several studies to enhance the germination of multifunctional trees such as *E. leavis*. To learn more about the characteristics of the genus *Ehretia*, molecular studies have also been conducted on a few species. *E. tinifolia* has recently been the subject of study that indicates beneficial responses against cardiovascular illnesses, atherosclerosis, and diabetes problems (Panja et al., 2020).

However, many questions remain regarding our comprehensive understanding of the *Ehretia* genus, necessitating further research. First, given their historical applications, certain species warrant more in-depth investigation. Notably, *E. microphylla* is extensively used in China, India, and the Philippines to treat gastrointestinal and biliary colic, diarrhea, spasms, and inflammation. Studies on this species' antispasmodic activity have revealed its antioxidant, hepatoprotective, antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, antidiabetic, anticancer, and wound-healing properties. These findings may lead to the discovery of novel bioactive compounds. Therefore, additional research should focus on traditionally used plants that have been overlooked but offer clear benefits. Second, despite limited documentation of traditional usage for most species within this genus, abundant resources allow for continued scientific exploration into these species.

Thirdly, despite the fact that extracts from a number of *Ehretia* species have shown strong activity, comparatively few of the chemicals causing these effects have been found in relation to the number of pharmacological investigations that have been carried out. For instance, *E. anacua* is said to exhibit strong anti-diabetic effects *in vivo*; yet, this plant's secondary compounds have not been found. Therefore, bio-guided isolation should be used to identify the bioactive compounds from these species. Moreover, there is a great chance of finding novel active chemicals in the genus *Ehretia* because of its high degree of endemism. Lastly, although systematic study is still lacking, research on this species focuses mostly on the investigation of its chemicals and biological activity. Establishing quality standards and conducting more complete investigations are vital for future studies to guarantee the integrity and efficacy of the findings pertaining to this genus. It is recommended to add techniques or approaches that can address these gaps in the future research (e.g., metabolomics, high-throughput screening, HPLC-MS). Furthermore, some of the literatures are not high-level papers, and the experimental data can only be used for reference.

In conclusion, further research is required because the phytochemistry and pharmacology of the *Ehretia* genus have not been thoroughly examined. To date, 101 compounds have been identified from this genus, with phenylpropanoids being the most active class. Rosmarinic acid showed different strong activity in this genus. Several species' medicinal potential has been highlighted by numerous biological investigations, providing a strong basis for further investigation. It is imperative that further research be carried out *in vivo* with suitable dosage levels and controls. To guarantee safety and effectiveness, the side effects connected to the effective doses should also be thoroughly assessed. Given the rich resource base and significant medical value of this genus, continued research is warranted. This paper contributes scientific value to the ongoing development of the genus.

## Author contributions

SJ: Writing—original draft, Writing—review and editing. MW: Writing—original draft. AK: Writing—review and editing. LJ: Investigation, Validation, Writing—review and editing. YC: Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing—review and editing. JL: Data curation, Writing—review and editing. ML: Investigation, Writing—review and editing. HW: Investigation, Writing—review and editing. DW: Conceptualization, Writing—review and editing. YP: Conceptualization, Writing—review and editing.

## Funding

The author(s) declare that financial support was received for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article. This work was financially supported by the key Research and Development Plan Project of Hunan province (2021SK2007), Natural Science Foundation of Hunan province (2024JJ8186).

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

## References

- Aarhi, V., Anbu, J., Nazeer Ahamed, K., Anjana, A., and Velpandian, V. (2012). Effect of *Ehretia microphylla* lamk on stimulation of reproductive function and ovarian folliculogenesis in rats. *Int. J. Pharm. Bio. Sci.* 3, 273–280.
- Aarhi, V., Shakila, R., Sasikala, E., and Pitchiahkumar, M. (2014). Pharmacognostical studies on *Ehretia microphylla* lamk. *Asian J. Trad. Med.* 9, 118–129.
- Abimbola, O. W., Ademola, O. J., and Olowande, F. T. (2021). Effect of administration of *Ehretia anacua* aqueous extract on blood glucose level in alloxan-induced diabetic rat. *World J. Adv. Res. Rev.* 11, 001–009. doi:10.30574/wjarr.2021.11.2.0068
- Agarwal, S. K., Rastogi, R. P., Van Koningsveld, H., Goubitz, K., and Olthof, G. J. (1980). The molecular structure of 4a, 5, 8, 8a-tetrahydro-11, 14-dimethoxy-7-methyl-4a-(3-methyl-2-butenyl)-5, 8a-o-benzo-1, 4-naphthoquinone. *Tetrahedron* 36, 1435–1438. doi:10.1016/0040-4020(80)85058-7
- Alemayehu, G., Asfaw, Z., and Kelbessa, E. (2015). Ethnobotanical study of medicinal plants used by local communities of minjar-shenkora district, North shewa zone of amhara region, Ethiopia. *J. Med. Plants Stud.* 3, 1–11.
- Ali, S. A., Sharief, N. H., and Mohamed, Y. S. (2019). Hepatoprotective activity of some medicinal plants in Sudan. *Evid-Based Compl. Alt. Med.* 2019, 2196315–2196316. doi:10.1155/2019/2196315
- Arenas, P. M., Molares, S., Aguilar Contreras, A., Doumecq, B., and Gabrielli, F. (2013). Ethnobotanical, micrographic and pharmacological features of plant-based weight-loss products sold in naturist stores in Mexico City: the need for better quality control. *Acta Bot. Bras.* 27, 560–579. doi:10.1590/s0102-33062013000300014
- Ashagrie, G., Abebe, A., and Umer, S. (2023). Analgesic and anti-inflammatory activities of 80% methanol extract and solvent fractions of *Ehretia cymosa* Thonn (boraginaceae) leaves in rodents. *J. Exp. Pharm.* 15, 63–79. doi:10.2147/JEP.S396769
- Balboa, J., and Sylianco, C. (1993). Antigenotoxic effects of drug preparations from lagundi, tsang gubat and ulasimang bato. *Philipp. J. Philipp. J. Sci.* 122, 1–14.
- Chaluma, S., Ruth, S., Gemechu, G., Hailemichael, T., Aman, D., Teshome, A., et al. (2018). Antibacterial triterpenoid from the leaves extract of *Ehretia cymosa*. *Ethiop. J. Sci. Sust. Dev.* 5, 42–53.
- Chien, Y. C., Lin, C. H., Chiang, M. Y., Chang, H. S., Liao, C. H., Chen, I. S., et al. (2012). Secondary compounds from the root of *Ehretia longiflora* and their biological activities. *Phytochemistry* 80, 50–57. doi:10.1016/j.phytochem.2012.04.013
- Chopra, R. N., Nayar, S. L., Chopra, I. C., Asolkar, L., and Kakkar, K. (1956). Glossary of Indian medicinal plants, New Delhi. *Counc. Sci. Ind. Res.* 55, 1–329.
- Choudhury, S., Sharma, P., Choudhury, M. D., and Sharma, G. D. (2012). Ethnomedicinal plants used by Chorei tribes of Southern Assam, North eastern India. *Asian pac. J. Trop. Dis.* 2, 141–147. doi:10.1016/s2222-1808(12)60140-6
- Dan, S., and Dan, S. S. (1982). Triterpenoids of the bark of *Ehretia laevis*. *Fitoterapia* 53, 51–52.
- Deng, N., Zheng, B. S., Li, T., Hu, X. D., and Liu, R. H. (2020). Phenolic profiles, antioxidant, antiproliferative, and hypoglycemic activities of *Ehretia macrophylla* Wall. (EMW) fruit. *J. Food Sci.* 85, 2177–2185. doi:10.1111/1750-3841.15185
- Dong, M., Oda, Y., and Hirota, M. (2000). (10E,12Z,15Z)-9-hydroxy-10,12,15-octadecatrienoic acid methyl ester as an anti-inflammatory compound from *Ehretia dicksonii*. *Biosci. Biotech. Bioch.* 64, 882–886. doi:10.1271/bbb.64.882
- Dresler, S., Szymczak, G., and Wójcik, M. (2017). Comparison of some secondary metabolite content in the seventeen species of the Boraginaceae family. *Pharm. Biol.* 55, 691–695. doi:10.1080/13880209.2016.1265986
- Fassil, A., and Gashaw, G. (2019). An ethnobotanical study of medicinal plants in chiro district, West Harare, Ethiopia. *Afr. J. Plant Sci.* 13, 309–323. doi:10.5897/ajps2019.1911
- Hadjichambis, A. C., Paraskeva-Hadjichambi, D., Della, A., Elena Giusti, M., De Pasquale, C., Lenzarini, C., et al. (2008). Wild and semi-domesticated food plant consumption in seven circum-Mediterranean areas. *Int. J. Food Sci. Nutr.* 59, 383–414. doi:10.1080/09637480701566495
- Harne, K., Tekade, P., and Thakre, R. (2021). Wound healing activity of various fractions from an extract of *Ehretia laevis* Roxb. (Khandu Chakka) leaves in animal model. *J. Adv. Sci. Res.* 2021, 100–104.
- He, L. L. (2018). *The separation and purification of effective constituent in fruit of Ehretia macrophylla Wall, and the bioactivity study*. South China Univ. Technol.
- He, Z. D., and Liu, Y. Q. (1992). Glycosides from *Ligustrum purpurascens*. *Acta Bot. Yunnanica* 14, 328–336.
- Hoang, T. L. H., Jang, D. C., Nguyen, Q. T., Na, W. H., Kim, I. S., and Vu, N. T. (2021). Biochar-improved growth and physiology of *Ehretia asperula* under water-deficit condition. *Appl. Sci.* 11, 10685. doi:10.3390/app112210685
- Huma, Z.-e. (2019). *Pharmacognostic evaluation of Ehretia serrata roxb. And Ehretia obtusifolia hocht. A. DC. Family Boraginaceae*. Univ. Peshawar.
- Ijaz, S., Iqbal, J., Abbasi, B. A., Ullah, Z., Yaseen, T., Kanwal, S., et al. (2023). Rosmarinic acid and its derivatives: current insights on anticancer potential and other biomedical applications. *Biomed. and Pharmacother.* 162, 114687. doi:10.1016/j.biopha.2023.114687
- Iqbal, K., Nawaz, S. A., Malik, A., Riaz, N., Mukhtar, N., Mohammad, P., et al. (2005). Isolation and lipoxygenase-inhibition studies of phenolic constituents from *Ehretia obtusifolia*. *Biomed. Pharmacother.* 2, 104–111. doi:10.1002/cbdv.200490161
- Jan, H. U., Saeed, A., Parveen, G., Mukhtar, N., Siraj, M., Sami, A., et al. (2023). Pharmacognostic study of *Ehretia acuminata* R. Br. *Proceed. Pakistan Acad.Sci.: B. Life environm. Sci.* 60, 267–272.
- Joshi, U. P., and Wagh, R. D. (2019). Phytochemical screening and HPTLC fingerprinting profile of bark extracts of *Ehretia laevis*. *Int. J. Pharm. Life Sci.* 10, 6075–6080. doi:10.53560/PPASB(60-2)743
- Jyothirmai, N., Nagaraju, B., and Kumar, J. S. (2016). Evaluation of anti-inflammatory and anti-bacterial activities of different solvent extracts of *Ehretia laevis* Roxb. *J. Pharm. Sci. Res.* 8, 715–720.
- Kaur, A., Shukla, A., and Shukla, R. K. (2019). Comparative evaluation of ABTS, DPPH, FRAP, nitric oxide assays for antioxidant potential, phenolic and flavonoid content of *Ehretia acuminata* R. Br. bark. *Int. Res. J. Pharm.* 9, 100–104. doi:10.7897/2230-8407.0912301
- Kaur, A., Shukla, A., and Shukla, R. K. (2022). *In vitro* antidiabetic and anti-inflammatory activities of the bark of *Ehretia acuminata* R. Br. *Indian J. Nat. Prod. Res.* 12, 538–543.
- Khattab, A. M., Grace, M. H., and El-Khrisy, E. A. (2001). A new flavone derivative from *Ehretia ovalifolia* leaves. *Die Pharm.* 56, 661–662. doi:10.56042/ijnpr.v12i4.29108
- Kudera, T., Fiserova, B., Korytkova, M., Doskocil, I., Salmonova, H., Tulin, E. E., et al. (2021). *In vitro* selective antibacterial and antiproliferative effects of ethanolic extracts from Cambodian and Philippine plants used in folk medicine for diarrhea treatment. *Front. Pharmacol.* 12, 746808. doi:10.3389/fphar.2021.746808
- Le, T. T., Kang, T. K., Do, H. T., Nghiem, T. D., Lee, W. B., and Jung, S. H. (2021). Protection against oxidative stress-induced retinal cell death by compounds isolated from *Ehretia asperula*. *Nat. Prod. Commun.* 16, 1934578X211067986. doi:10.1177/1934578x211067986
- Legaspi, C. L. B., and Bagoisan, D.-M. A. (2020). *Ehretia microphylla* tablet formulation for biliary and gastrointestinal colic: a review of its phytochemical constituents, pharmacologic activities and clinical researches. *Acta Med. Philipp.* 54, 80–85. doi:10.47895/amp.v54i1.1108

## Generative AI statement

The author(s) declare that no Generative AI was used in the creation of this manuscript.

## Publisher's note

All claims expressed in this article are solely those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of their affiliated organizations, or those of the publisher, the editors and the reviewers. Any product that may be evaluated in this article, or claim that may be made by its manufacturer, is not guaranteed or endorsed by the publisher.



- Li, L., Peng, Y., Xu, L. J., Li, M. H., and Xiao, P. G. (2009). Flavonoid glycosides and phenolic acids from *Ehretia thyriflora*. *Biochem. Syst. Ecol.* 36, 915–918. doi:10.1016/j.bse.2008.11.008
- Li, L., Peng, Y., Yao, X., Xu, L. J., Wulan, T. N., Liu, Y., et al. (2010a). Chemical constituents and biological activities of plants from the genus *Ehretia* Linn. *Chin. Herb. Med.* 2, 106–111.
- Li, L., Shi, R. B., Xu, L. J., Peng, Y., and Xiao, P. G. (2010b). Chemical constituents in leaves of *Ehretia thyriflora*. *China J. Chin. Mat. Med.* 35, 331–332. doi:10.3969/j.issn.1674-6384.2010.02.002
- Li, L., Xu, L. J., He, Z. D., Yang, Q. Q., Pen, Y., and Xiao, P. G. (2008). Chemical study on ethylacetate portion of *Ehretia thyriflora*, Boraginaceae species Kudingcha. *China J. Chin. Mat. Med.* 33, 2121–2123.
- Lim, J. S., Lee, S. H., Yun, H., Lee, D. Y., Cho, N., Yoo, G., et al. (2023). Inhibitory effects of *Ehretia tinifolia* extract on the excessive oxidative and inflammatory responses in lipopolysaccharide-stimulated mouse kupffer cells. *Antioxidants* 12, 1792–1809. doi:10.3390/antiox12101792
- Liu, R. H. (2003). Health benefits of fruit and vegetables are from additive and synergistic combinations of phytochemicals. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 78, 517S–520S–520S. doi:10.1093/ajcn/78.3.517S
- Lu, J. C. (2016). “Research on processes of *Ehretia macrophylla* wall,” in *Fruit and structural identifications of separated phenolic compounds*. South China Univ. Technol.
- Mageswari, S., and Karpagam, S. (2015). Evaluation of antimicrobial studies on root of *Carmona retusa* (Vahl.) Masam. *Int. J. Curr. Pharm. Res.* 7, 60–63.
- Mageswari, S., Karpagam, S., and Reddy, G. A. (2012). Evaluation of wound healing activity of the plant *Carmona retusa* (Vahl.) Masam., in mice. *Int. J. Intell. Inf. Technol.* 4, 1–4.
- Mandal, G., and Joshi, S. P. (2014). Analysis of vegetation dynamics and phytodiversity from three dry deciduous forests of Doon Valley, Western Himalaya, India. *J. Asia-Pacific Biodivers.* 7, 292–304. doi:10.1016/j.japb.2014.07.006
- Maramba-Lazarte, C. C., Rivera, P. T., and Villacorte, E. A. (2020). Philippine Tsaang Gubat (*Ehretia microphylla* Lam) and ampalaya (*Momordica charantia* L.) leaf extracts lack amoebicidal activity *in vitro*. *Acta Med. Philipp.* 54, 5–10. doi:10.47895/amp.v54i1.1081
- Maroyi, A. (2023). A systematic review on biological and medicinal properties of *Ehretia rigida* (Thunb.) Druce (Ehretiaceae) in Southern Africa. *Plant Sci. Today* 10, 74–82.
- Memon, F. S., Silawat, N., and Jain, N. K. (2022). Phytochemical and pharmacological screening of *Ehretia laevis* extract for anti-inflammatory activity. *J. Pharm. Neg. Res.* 3, 4854–4859.
- Mitsi, C., and Echeverría, J. (2024). The genus *Haplopappus*: botany, phytochemistry, traditional uses, and pharmacological properties. *Front. Pharmacol.* 15, 1490243. doi:10.47750/fpnr.2022.13.S10.588
- Mncwangi, N., Chen, W., Vermaak, I., Viljoen, A. M., and Gericke, N. (2012). Devil’s Claw—A review of the ethnobotany, phytochemistry and biological activity of *Harpagophytum procumbens*. *J. Ethnopharmacol.* 143, 755–771. doi:10.1016/j.jep.2012.08.013
- Monroy-García, I. N., Carranza-Torres, I. E., Carranza-Rosales, P., Oyón-Ardoiz, M., García-Estévez, I., Ayala-Zavala, J. F., et al. (2021). Phenolic profiles and biological activities of extracts from edible wild fruits *Ehretia tinifolia* and *Sideroxylon lanuginosum*. *Foods* 10, 2710–2725. doi:10.3390/foods10112710
- Neuwinger, H. D. (2000). African traditional medicine: a dictionary of plant use and applications.
- Ogundajo, A., and Ashafa, A. T. (2017). Phytochemical compositions and *in vitro* assessments of antioxidant and anti-diabetic potentials of fractions from *Ehretia cymosa* Thonn. *Pharm. Mag.* 13, S470–S480–S480. doi:10.4103/pm.pm\_118\_17
- Ogundajo, A. L., Nnaemeka, C. O., Olawunmi, R. O., and Ogunwande, I. A. (2016). Chemical constituents of essential oil of *Ehretia cymosa* Thonn. *Br. J. Appl. Sci. Technol.* 14, 1–6. doi:10.9734/bjast/2016/24240
- Panja, S., Choudhuri, I., Khanra, K., Pati, B., and Bhattacharyya, N. (2020). Biological and photocatalytic activity of silver nanoparticle synthesized from *Ehretia laevis* Roxb. leaves extract. *Nano Biom. Eng.* 12, 104–113. doi:10.5101/nbe.v12i1.p104-113
- Petersen, M. (2013). Rosmarinic acid: new aspects. *Phytochem. Rev.* 12, 207–227. doi:10.1007/s11101-013-9282-8
- Petersen, M., and Simmonds, M. S. (2003). Rosmarinic acid. *Phytochemistry* 62, 121–125. doi:10.1016/s0031-9422(02)00513-7
- Pío-León, J. F., Díaz-Camacho, S. P., López, M. G., Montes-Avila, J., López-Angulo, G., and Delgado-Vargas, F. (2012a). Características físico-químicas, nutricias y antioxidantes del fruto de *Ehretia tinifolia*. *Rev. Mex. Biodivers.* 83, 273–280. doi:10.22201/ib.20078706e.2012.1.1148
- Pío-León, J. F., Díaz-Camacho, S. P., López, M. G., Montes-Avila, J., López-Angulo, G., and Delgado-Vargas, F. (2012b). Physicochemical, nutritional, and antioxidant characteristics of the fruit of *Ehretia tinifolia*. *Rev. Mex. Biodivers.* 83, 273–280. doi:10.22201/ib.20078706e.2012.1.1148
- Rangnathrao, T. S., and Shanmugasundaram, P. (2019). Antioxidant and hepatoprotective activity of *Ehretia laevis* Roxb against paracetamol induced acute hepatotoxicity in wistar rats. *Res. J. Pharm. Technol.* 12, 6143–6148. doi:10.5958/0974-360x.2019.01067.9
- Retief, E., and Van Wyk, A. E. (2001). The genus *Ehretia* (boraginaceae: ehretioidae) in southern Africa. *Bothalia-african biodiv. Conserv.* 31, 9–23. doi:10.4102/abc.v31i1.494
- Sarkodie, J., Squire, S., Kretchy, I., Domozi, C., Ahiagbe, K., Twumasi, M., et al. (2015). The antihyperglycemic, antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of *Ehretia cymosa*. *J. Pharm. Phytochem.* 4, 105–111.
- Selvanayagam, Z. E., Gnanavendhan, S. G., Balakrishna, K., Rao, R. B., Sivaraman, J., Subramanian, K., et al. (1996). Ehretianone, a novel quinonoid xanthone from *Ehretia buxifolia* with antsnake venom activity. *J. Nat. Prod.* 59, 664–667. doi:10.1021/np960355p
- Sharma, P., Shri, R., and Kumar, S. (2022). Phytochemical and *in vitro* cytotoxic screening of chloroform extract of *Ehretia microphylla* lamk. *Stresses* 2, 384–394. doi:10.3390/stresses2040027
- Sharma, P., Shri, R., Ntie-Kang, F., and Kumar, S. (2021). Phytochemical and ethnopharmacological perspectives of *Ehretia laevis*. *Molecules* 26, 3489–3517. doi:10.3390/molecules26123489
- Shukla, A., and Kaur, A. (2018). A systematic review of traditional uses bioactive phytoconstituents of genus *Ehretia*. *Asian J. Pharm. Clin. Res.* 11, 88–100. doi:10.22159/ajpcr.2018.v11i6.25178
- Shukla, A., Kaur, A., Shukla, R., and Anchal, (2019a). A comparative study of *in vitro* antioxidant potential, photoprotective screening of *Ehretia acuminata* R. Br. leaves. *Indian Drugs* 56, 30–36. doi:10.53879/id.56.09.11593
- Shukla, A., Kaur, A., and Shukla, R. K. (2021). Evaluation of different biological activities of leaves of *Ehretia acuminata* R. Br. *Indian Drugs* 58, 42–49. doi:10.53879/id.58.04.12201
- Shukla, A., Kaur, A., Shukla, R. K., and Anchal, (2019b). Comparative evaluation of antioxidant capacity, total flavonoid and phenolic content of *Ehretia acuminata* R. Br. fruit. *Res. J. Pharm. Technol.* 12, 1811–1816. doi:10.5958/0974-360x.2019.00302.0
- Simpol, L. R., Otsuka, H., Ohtani, K., Kasai, R., and Yamasaki, K. (1994). Nitrile glucosides and rosmarinic acid, the histamine inhibitor from *Ehretia philippinensis*. *Phytochemistry* 36, 91–95. doi:10.1016/s0031-9422(00)97019-5
- Steyn, T. (1998). *The chemical constituents of Ehretia rigida*, Apodytes dimidiata and Ocotea kenyensis. Citeseer.
- Suri, O. P., Jamwal, R. S., Suri, K. A., and Atal, C. K. (1980). Ehretinine, a novel pyrrolizidine alkaloid from *Ehretia aspera*. *Phytochemistry* 19, 1273–1274. doi:10.1016/0031-9422(80)83115-3
- Thakre, R., Bhatnagar, S., Chouragade, B., Khobragade, P., and Ketaki, H. (2016). Unexplored wound healing property of *Ehretia laevis* Roxb. (Khandu Chakka) plant. *Int. J. Res. Ayurveda Pharm.* 7, 54–57. doi:10.7897/2277-4343.075219
- Torane, R. C., Kamble, G. S., Kale, A. A., Gadkari, T. V., and Deshpande, N. R. (2011). Quantification of diethyl phthalate from *Ehretia laevis* Roxb by HPTLC. *J. Chem. Pharm. Res.* 3, 48–51.
- Torane, R. C., Ruikar, A. D., Chandrachud, P. S., and Deshpande, N. R. (2009). Study of amino acids and carbohydrates from the leaves of *Ehretia laevis*. *Asian J. Chem.* 21, 1636–1638.
- Velappan, S., and Thangaraj, P. (2014). Phytochemical constituents and antiarthritic activity of *Ehretia laevis* Roxb. *J. Food Biochem.* 38, 433–443. doi:10.1111/jfbc.12071
- Waheed, A., Chohan, M. M., Ahmed, D., and Ullah, N. (2019). The first report on the *in vitro* antimicrobial activities of extracts of leaves of *Ehretia serrata*. *Saudi J. Biol. Sci.* 26, 1253–1261. doi:10.1016/j.sjbs.2018.05.025
- Wang, Y. C., and Huang, T. L. (2005). Screening of anti-Helicobacter pylori herbs deriving from Taiwanese folk medicinal plants. *FEMS Immunol. Med. Microbiol.* 43, 295–300. doi:10.1016/j.femsim.2004.09.008
- Xu, X. G., Cheng, Y., Tong, L. L., Tian, L., and Xia, C. L. (2022). The complete chloroplast genome sequence of *Ehretia dicksonii* Hance (Ehretiaceae). *Mitochondrial DNA. B* 7, 661–662. doi:10.1080/23802359.2022.2061873
- Yamamura, S., Simpola, L. R., Ozawa, K., Ohtani, K., Otsuka, H., Kasai, R., et al. (1995). Antiallergic dimeric prenylbenzoquinones from *Ehretia microphylla*. *Phytochemistry* 39, 105–110. doi:10.1016/0031-9422(94)00845-k
- Yende, S. R., Shah, S. K., Arora, S. K., Moharir, K. S., and Lohiya, G. K. (2021). *In silico* prediction of phytoconstituents from *Ehretia laevis* targeting TNF- $\alpha$  in arthritis. *Dig. Chin. Med.* 4, 180–190. doi:10.1016/j.dcm.2021.09.003
- Yoshikawa, K., Kageyama, H., and Arihara, S. (1995). Phenolic glucosides and lignans from *Ehretia ovalifolia*. *Phytochemistry* 39, 659–664. doi:10.1016/0031-9422(94)00931-i
- Yuvaraja, K. R., Santhiagu, A., Jasemine, S., and Gopalasatheeskumar, K. (2021). Hepatoprotective activity of *Ehretia microphylla* on paracetamol induced liver toxic rats. *J. Res. Pharm.* 25, 1–98. doi:10.35333/jrp.2021.286
- Zara, S., Ahmed, D., Baig, H., and Ikram, M. (2012). Evaluation of antioxidant activities of various solvent extracts of fruits and leaves of *Ehretia serrata*. *Asian J. Chem.* 24, 4345–4351.
- Zeng, M. Y., and Zeng, J. F. (1994). *China traditional Chinese medicine resources Zhi Yao*. Beijing: Science Press, 1034–1035.
- Zhou, W., Du, G. P., and Hu, Q. B. (2012). Artificial cultivation technique of *Ehretia thyriflora* of wild species. *Prat. For. Techn.* 03, 20–21.