

Medicinal plants

Medicinal plants, also called **medicinal herbs**, have been discovered and used in [traditional medicine](#) practices since prehistoric times. [Plants](#) synthesize hundreds of chemical compounds for functions including [defense](#) against [insects](#), [fungi](#), [diseases](#), and [herbivorous mammals](#). Numerous [phytochemicals](#) with potential or established [biological activity](#) have been identified. However, since a single plant contains widely diverse phytochemicals, the effects of using a whole plant as medicine are uncertain. Further, the phytochemical content and [pharmacological](#) actions, if any, of many plants having medicinal potential remain unassessed by rigorous [scientific research](#) to define efficacy and safety.^[2]



The bark of [willow](#) trees contains [salicylic acid](#), the [active metabolite](#) of [aspirin](#), and has been used for millennia to [relieve pain](#) and reduce [fever](#).^[1]



Medicinal plants

The earliest historical records of herbs are found from the [Sumerian](#) civilization, where hundreds of medicinal plants including [opium](#) are listed on clay tablets, c. 3000 BC. The [Ebers Papyrus](#) from [ancient Egypt](#), c. 1550 BC, describes over 850 plant medicines. The Greek physician [Dioscorides](#), who worked in the Roman army, documented over 1000 recipes for medicines using over 600 medicinal plants in *De materia medica*, c. 60 AD; this formed the basis of [pharmacopoeias](#) for some 1500 years. Drug research sometimes makes use of [ethnobotany](#) to search for pharmacologically active substances, and this approach has yielded hundreds of useful compounds. These include the common drugs [aspirin](#), [digoxin](#), [quinine](#), and [opium](#). The compounds found in plants are of many kinds, but most are in four major biochemical classes: [alkaloids](#), [glycosides](#), [polyphenols](#), and [terpenes](#).

Medicinal plants are widely used in non-industrialized societies, mainly because they are readily available and cheaper than modern medicines. The annual global export value of the thousands of types of plants with medicinal properties was estimated to be US\$2.2 billion in 2012.^[3] In 2017, the potential global market for botanical [extracts](#) and medicines was estimated at several hundred billion dollars.^[2] In many countries, there is little regulation of traditional medicine, but the [World Health Organization](#) coordinates a network to encourage safe and rational usage. Medicinal plants face both general threats, such as [climate change](#) and [habitat destruction](#), and the specific threat of over-collection to meet market demand.^[2]

History



Dioscorides's 1st century *De materia medica*, seen here in a c. 1334 copy in Arabic, describes some 1000 drug recipes based on over 600 plants.^[4]

Prehistoric times

Plants, including many now used as [culinary herbs](#) and [spices](#), have been used as medicines, not necessarily effectively, from prehistoric times. Spices have been used partly to counter [food spoilage](#) bacteria, especially in hot climates,^{[5][6]} and especially in meat dishes which spoil more readily.^[7] Angiosperms ([flowering plants](#)) were the original source of most plant medicines.^[8] Human settlements are often surrounded by weeds used as [herbal medicines](#), such as [nettle](#), [dandelion](#) and [chickweed](#).^{[9][10]} Humans were not alone in using herbs as medicines: some animals such as non-human [primates](#), [monarch butterflies](#) and [sheep](#) ingest medicinal plants when they are ill.^[11] Plant samples from prehistoric burial sites are among the lines of evidence that Paleolithic peoples had knowledge of herbal medicine. For instance, a 60,000-year-old Neanderthal burial site, "[Shanidar IV](#)", in northern Iraq has yielded large amounts of pollen from eight plant species, seven of which are used now as herbal remedies.^[12] Also, a [mushroom](#) was found in the personal effects of [Ötzi the Iceman](#), whose body was frozen in the [Ötztal Alps](#) for more than 5,000 years. The mushroom was probably used against [whipworm](#).^[13]

Ancient times



The *Ebers Papyrus* (c. 1550 BC) from *Ancient Egypt* describes the use of hundreds of plant medicines.^[14]

In ancient *Sumeria*, hundreds of medicinal plants including *myrrh* and *opium* are listed on clay tablets from around 3000 BC. The *ancient Egyptian Ebers Papyrus* lists over 800 plant medicines such as *aloe*, *cannabis*, *castor bean*, *garlic*, *juniper*, and *mandrake*.^{[14][15]}

From ancient times to the present, *Ayurvedic medicine* as documented in the *Atharva Veda*, the *Rig Veda* and the *Sushruta Samhita* has used hundreds of pharmacologically active herbs and spices such as *turmeric*, which contains *curcumin*.^{[16][17]} The *Chinese pharmacopoeia*, the *Shennong Ben Cao Jing* records plant medicines such as *chaulmoogra* for leprosy, *ephedra*, and *hemp*.^[18] This was expanded in the *Tang Dynasty Yaoxing Lun*.^[19] In the fourth century BC, *Aristotle's* pupil *Theophrastus* wrote the first systematic botany text, *Historia plantarum*.^[20] In around 60 AD, the Greek physician *Pedanius Dioscorides*, working for the Roman army, documented over 1000 recipes for medicines using over 600 medicinal plants in *De materia medica*. The book remained the authoritative reference on herbalism for over 1500 years, into the seventeenth century.^[4]

Middle Ages



Illustration of a 1632 copy of [Avicenna's 1025 *The Canon of Medicine*](#), showing a physician talking to a female patient in a garden, while servants prepare medicines.

In the [Early Middle Ages](#), [Benedictine monasteries](#) preserved medical knowledge in [Europe](#), translating and copying classical texts and maintaining [herb gardens](#).^{[21][22]} [Hildegard of Bingen](#) wrote *Causae et Curae* ("Causes and Cures") on medicine.^[23] In the [Islamic Golden Age](#), scholars translated many classical Greek texts including Dioscorides into [Arabic](#), adding their own commentaries.^[24] Herbalism flourished in the Islamic world, particularly in [Baghdad](#) and in [Al-Andalus](#). Among many works on medicinal plants, [Abulcasis](#) (936–1013) of [Cordoba](#) wrote *The Book of Simples*, and Ibn al-Baitar (1197–1248) recorded hundreds of medicinal herbs such as *Aconitum*, *nux vomica*, and [tamarind](#) in his *Corpus of Simples*.^[25] [Avicenna](#) included many plants in his 1025 *The Canon of Medicine*.^[26] [Abu-Rayhan Biruni](#),^[27] [Ibn Zuhr](#),^[28] [Peter of Spain](#), and [John of St Amand](#) wrote further [pharmacopoeias](#).^[29]

Early Modern



An early illustrated book of medicinal plants,^[30] *The Grete Herball*, 1526

The **Early Modern** period saw the flourishing of illustrated **herbals** across Europe, starting with the 1526 *Grete Herball*. **John Gerard** wrote his famous *The Herball or General History of Plants* in 1597, based on **Rembert Dodoens**, and **Nicholas Culpeper** published his *The English Physician Enlarged*.^[30] Many new plant medicines arrived in Europe as products of **Early Modern exploration** and the resulting **Columbian Exchange**, in which livestock, crops and technologies were transferred between the Old World and the Americas in the 15th and 16th centuries. Medicinal herbs arriving in the Americas included garlic, ginger, and turmeric; coffee, tobacco and coca travelled in the other direction.^{[31][32]} In Mexico, the sixteenth century *Badianus Manuscript* described medicinal plants available in Central America.^[33]

19th and 20th centuries

The place of plants in medicine was radically altered in the 19th century by the application of **chemical analysis**. **Alkaloids** were isolated from a succession of medicinal plants, starting with **morphine** from the **poppy** in 1806, and soon followed by **ippecacuanha** and **strychnos** in 1817, **quinine** from the **cinchona** tree, and then many others. As chemistry progressed, additional classes of pharmacologically active substances were discovered in medicinal plants. Commercial extraction of purified alkaloids including morphine from medicinal plants began at **Merck** in 1826. **Synthesis** of a substance first discovered in a medicinal plant began with **salicylic acid** in 1853. Around the end of the 19th century, the mood of pharmacy turned against medicinal plants, as **enzymes** often modified the active ingredients when whole plants were dried, and alkaloids and glycosides purified from plant material started to be preferred. Drug

discovery from plants continued to be important through the 20th century and into the 21st, with important anti-cancer drugs from [yew](#) and [Madagascar periwinkle](#).^{[34][35][36]}

Context

Medicinal plants are used with the intention of maintaining health, to be administered for a specific condition, or both, whether in [modern medicine](#) or in [traditional medicine](#).^{[2][37]} The [Food and Agriculture Organization](#) estimated in 2002 that over 50,000 medicinal plants are used across the world.^[38] The [Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew](#) more conservatively estimated in 2016 that 17,810 plant species have a medicinal use, out of some 30,000 plants for which a use of any kind is documented.^[39]

In modern medicine, around a quarter^[a] of the drugs prescribed to patients are derived from medicinal plants, and they are rigorously tested.^{[37][40]} In other systems of medicine, medicinal plants may constitute the majority of what are often informal attempted treatments, not tested scientifically.^[41] The [World Health Organization](#) estimates, without reliable data, that some 80 percent of the world's population depends mainly on traditional medicine (including but not limited to plants); perhaps some two billion people are largely reliant on medicinal plants.^{[37][40]} The use of plant-based materials including herbal or natural health products with supposed health benefits, is increasing in developed countries.^[42] This brings attendant risks of toxicity and other effects on human health, despite the safe image of herbal remedies.^[42] Herbal medicines have been in use since long before modern medicine existed; there was and often still is little or no knowledge of the pharmacological basis of their actions, if any, or of their safety. The World Health Organization formulated a policy on traditional medicine in 1991, and since then has published guidelines for them, with a series of monographs on widely used herbal medicines.^{[43][44]}

Medicinal plants may provide three main kinds of benefit: health benefits to the people who consume them as medicines; financial benefits to people who harvest, process, and distribute them for sale; and society-wide benefits, such as job opportunities, taxation income, and a healthier labour force.^[37] However, development of plants or extracts having potential medicinal uses is blunted by weak scientific evidence, poor practices in the process of [drug development](#), and insufficient financing.^[2]

Phytochemical basis

All plants produce chemical compounds which give them an [evolutionary](#) advantage, such as [defending against herbivores](#) or, in the example of [salicylic acid](#), as a [hormone](#) in plant defenses.^{[45][46]} These phytochemicals have potential for use as drugs, and the content and known pharmacological activity of these substances in medicinal plants is the scientific basis for their use in modern medicine, if scientifically confirmed.^[2] For instance, daffodils (*Narcissus*) contain nine groups of alkaloids including [galantamine](#), licensed for use against [Alzheimer's disease](#). The alkaloids are bitter-tasting and toxic, and concentrated in the parts of the plant such as the stem most likely to be eaten by herbivores; they may also protect against [parasites](#).^{[47][48][49]}

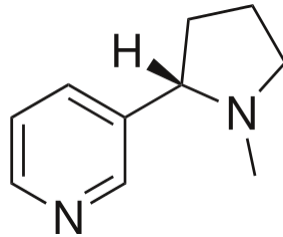
Modern knowledge of medicinal plants is being systematised in the Medicinal Plant Transcriptomics Database, which by 2011 provided a sequence reference for the [transcriptome](#) of some thirty species.^[50] The major classes of pharmacologically active [phytochemicals](#) are described below, with examples of medicinal plants that contain them.^{[8][44][51][52][53]}

Alkaloids

[Alkaloids](#) are bitter-tasting chemicals, very widespread in nature, and often toxic, found in many medicinal plants.^[54] There are several classes with different modes of action as drugs, both recreational and pharmaceutical. Medicines of different classes include [atropine](#), [scopolamine](#), and [hyoscyamine](#) (all from [nightshade](#)),^[55] the traditional medicine [berberine](#) (from plants such as *Berberis* and *Mahonia*),^[b] [caffeine](#) (*Coffea*), [cocaine](#) (*Coca*), [ephedrine](#) (*Ephedra*), [morphine](#) (opium poppy), [nicotine](#) (tobacco),^[c] [reserpine](#) (*Rauvolfia serpentina*), [quinidine](#) and [quinine](#) (*Cinchona*), [vincamine](#) (*Vinca minor*), and [vincristine](#) (*Catharanthus roseus*).^{[53][58]}



The opium poppy *Papaver somniferum* is the source of the alkaloids morphine and codeine.^[53]



The alkaloid nicotine from tobacco binds directly to the body's Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors, accounting for its pharmacological effects.^[59]



Deadly nightshade, *Atropa belladonna*, yields tropane alkaloids including atropine, scopolamine and hyoscyamine.^[55]

Glycosides

Anthraquinone glycosides are found in medicinal plants such as [rhubarb](#), [cascara](#), and [Alexandrian senna](#).^{[60][61]} Plant-based [laxatives](#) made from such plants include [senna](#),^[62] [rhubarb](#)^[63] and [Aloe](#).^[53]

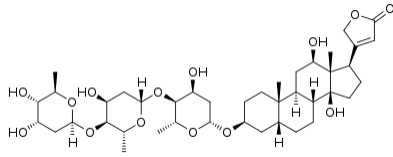
The [cardiac glycosides](#) are powerful drugs from medicinal plants including [foxglove](#) and [lily of the valley](#). They include [digoxin](#) and [digitoxin](#) which support the beating of the heart, and act as [diuretics](#).^[45]



Senna alexandrina, containing [anthraquinone glycosides](#), has been used as a [laxative](#) for millennia.^[62]



The [foxglove](#), *Digitalis purpurea*, contains [digoxin](#), a [cardiac glycoside](#). The plant was used on heart conditions long before the glycoside was identified.^{[45][64]}



Digoxin is used to treat [atrial fibrillation](#), [atrial flutter](#) and sometimes [heart failure](#).^[45]

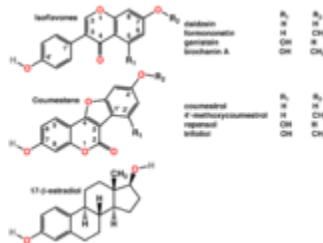
Polyphenols

[Polyphenols](#) of several classes are widespread in plants, having diverse roles in defenses against plant diseases and predators.^[45] They include hormone-mimicking [phytoestrogens](#) and astringent [tannins](#).^{[53][65]} Plants containing phytoestrogens have been administered for centuries for [gynecological](#) disorders, such as fertility, menstrual, and menopausal problems.^[66] Among these plants are *Pueraria mirifica*,^[67] kudzu,^[68] *angelica*,^[69] *fennel*, and *anise*.^[70]

Many polyphenolic extracts, such as from [grape seeds](#), [olives](#) or [maritime pine bark](#), are sold as [dietary supplements](#) and [cosmetics](#) without proof or legal [health claims](#) for beneficial health effects.^[71] In *Ayurveda*, the astringent rind of the [pomegranate](#), containing polyphenols called [punicalagins](#), is used as a medicine.^[72]



Angelica, containing [phytoestrogens](#), has long been used for gynaecological disorders.



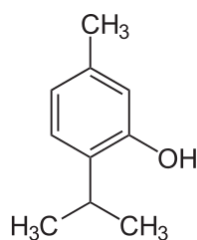
[Polyphenols](#) include [phytoestrogens](#) (top and middle), mimics of animal [estrogen](#) (bottom).^[73]

Terpenes

[Terpenes](#) and [terpenoids](#) of many kinds are found in a variety of medicinal plants,^[74] and in [resinous](#) plants such as the [conifers](#). They are strongly aromatic and serve to repel herbivores. Their scent makes them useful in [essential oils](#), whether for [perfumes](#) such as [rose](#) and [lavender](#), or for [aromatherapy](#).^{[53][75][76]} Some have medicinal uses: for example, [thymol](#) is an antiseptic and was once used as a [vermifuge](#) (anti-worm medicine).^[77]



The essential oil of common thyme (*Thymus vulgaris*), contains the monoterpene thymol, an antiseptic and antifungal.^[77]



Thymol is one of many terpenes found in plants.^[77]

In practice



Licensed commercial cultivation of opium poppies, Tasmania, 2010

Cultivation

Medicinal plants demand intensive management. Different species each require their own distinct conditions of cultivation. The [World Health Organization](#) recommends the use of [rotation](#) to minimise problems with pests and plant diseases. Cultivation may be traditional or may make use of [conservation agriculture](#) practices to maintain organic matter in the soil and to conserve water, for example with [no-till farming](#) systems.^[78] In many medicinal and aromatic plants, plant characteristics vary widely with soil type and cropping strategy, so care is required to obtain satisfactory yields.^[79]

Preparation



A Medieval physician preparing an extract from a medicinal plant, from an Arabic Dioscorides, 1224

Medicinal plants are often tough and fibrous, requiring some form of preparation to make them convenient to administer. According to the Institute for Traditional Medicine, common methods for the preparation of herbal medicines include [decoction](#), powdering, and extraction with alcohol, in each case yielding a mixture of substances. Decoction involves crushing and then boiling the plant material in water to produce a liquid extract that can be taken orally or applied topically.^[80] Powdering involves drying the plant material and then crushing it to yield a powder that can be compressed into [tablets](#). Alcohol extraction involves soaking the plant material in cold wine or distilled spirit to form a [tincture](#).^[81]

Traditional [poultices](#) were made by boiling medicinal plants, wrapping them in a cloth, and applying the resulting parcel externally to the affected part of the body.^[82]

When modern medicine has identified a drug in a medicinal plant, commercial quantities of the drug may either be [synthesised](#) or extracted from plant material, yielding a pure chemical.^[34] Extraction can be practical when the compound in question is complex.^[83]

Usage



A herbalist's shop in the souk of Marrakesh, Morocco

Plant medicines are in wide use around the world.^[84] In most of the developing world, especially in rural areas, local [traditional medicine](#), including herbalism, is the only source of health care for people, while in the [developed world](#), [alternative medicine](#) including use of [dietary supplements](#) is marketed aggressively using the claims of traditional medicine. As of 2015, most products made from medicinal plants had not been tested for their safety and efficacy, and products that were marketed in developed economies and provided in the undeveloped world by traditional healers were of uneven quality, sometimes containing dangerous contaminants.^[85] [Traditional Chinese medicine](#) makes use of a wide variety of plants, among other materials and techniques.^[86] Researchers from [Kew Gardens](#) found 104 species used for [diabetes](#) in Central America, of which seven had been identified in at least three separate studies.^{[87][88]} The [Yanomami](#) of the Brazilian Amazon, assisted by researchers, have described 101 plant species used for traditional medicines.^{[89][90]}

Drugs derived from plants including opiates, cocaine and cannabis have both medical and [recreational uses](#). Different countries have at various times made [use of illegal drugs](#), partly on the basis of the risks involved in taking [psychoactive drugs](#).^[91]

Effectiveness



The bark of the *cinchona* tree contains the *alkaloid quinine*, traditionally given for *malaria*.

Plant medicines have often not been tested systematically, but have come into use informally over the centuries. By 2007, clinical trials had demonstrated potentially useful activity in nearly 16% of herbal medicines; there was limited in vitro or in vivo evidence for roughly half the medicines; there was only phytochemical evidence for around 20%; 0.5% were allergenic or toxic; and some 12% had basically never been studied scientifically.^[44] Cancer Research UK caution that there is no reliable evidence for the effectiveness of herbal remedies for cancer.^[92]

A 2012 *phylogenetic* study built a family tree down to *genus* level using 20,000 species to compare the medicinal plants of three regions, Nepal, New Zealand and the Cape of South Africa. It discovered that the species used traditionally to treat the same types of condition belonged to the same groups of plants in all three regions, giving a "strong phylogenetic signal".^[93] Since many plants that yield pharmaceutical drugs belong to just these groups, and the groups were independently used in three different world regions, the results were taken to mean 1) that these plant groups do have potential for medicinal efficacy, 2) that undefined pharmacological activity is associated with use in traditional medicine, and 3) that the use of a phylogenetic groups for medicines in one region may predict their use in the other regions.^[93]

Regulation



The practice of [Ayurveda](#) in India, such as the running of this Ayurvedic pharmacy in [Rishikesh](#), is regulated by a government department, [AYUSH](#).

The World Health Organization (WHO) has been coordinating a network called the International Regulatory Cooperation for Herbal Medicines to try to improve the quality of medical products made from medicinal plants and the claims made for them.^[94] In 2015, only around 20% of countries had well-functioning regulatory agencies, while 30% had none, and around half had limited regulatory capacity.^[85] In India, where [Ayurveda](#) has been practised for centuries, herbal remedies are the responsibility of a government department, [AYUSH](#), under the Ministry of Health & Family Welfare.^[95]

WHO has set out a strategy for traditional medicines^[96] with four objectives: to integrate them as policy into national healthcare systems; to provide knowledge and guidance on their safety, efficacy, and quality; to increase their availability and affordability; and to promote their rational, therapeutically sound usage.^[96] WHO notes in the strategy that countries are experiencing seven challenges to such implementation, namely in developing and enforcing policy; in integration; in safety and quality, especially in assessment of products and qualification of practitioners; in controlling advertising; in research and development; in education and training; and in the sharing of information.^[96]

Drug discovery



The anticancer drug [taxol](#) was developed after screening of the Pacific yew, [Taxus brevifolia](#) (foliage and fruit shown) in 1971.

The [pharmaceutical industry](#) has roots in the [apothecary](#) shops of Europe in the 1800s, where pharmacists provided local traditional medicines to customers, which included extracts like morphine, quinine, and strychnine.^[97] Therapeutically important drugs like [camptothecin](#) (from [Camptotheca acuminata](#), used in traditional Chinese medicine) and [taxol](#) (from the Pacific yew, [Taxus brevifolia](#)) were derived from medicinal plants.^{[98][34]} The [Vinca alkaloids vincristine](#) and [vinblastine](#), used as anti-cancer drugs, were discovered in the 1950s from the Madagascar periwinkle, [Catharanthus roseus](#).^[99]

Hundreds of compounds have been identified using [ethnobotany](#), investigating plants used by indigenous peoples for possible medical applications.^[100] Some important phytochemicals, including [curcumin](#), [epigallocatechin gallate](#), [genistein](#) and [resveratrol](#) are [pan-assay interference compounds](#), meaning that *in vitro* studies of their activity often provide unreliable data. As a result, phytochemicals have frequently proven unsuitable as the lead substances in [drug discovery](#).^{[101][102]} In the United States over the period 1999 to 2012, despite several hundred applications for [new drug status](#), only two [botanical drug](#) candidates had sufficient evidence of medicinal value to be approved by the [Food and Drug Administration](#).^[2]

The pharmaceutical industry has remained interested in mining traditional uses of medicinal plants in its drug discovery efforts.^[34] Of the 1073 small-molecule drugs approved in the period 1981 to 2010, over half were either directly derived from or inspired by natural substances.^{[34][103]} Among cancer treatments, of 185 small-molecule drugs approved in the period from 1981 to 2019, 65% were derived from or inspired by natural substances.^[104]

Safety



The Thornapple *Datura stramonium* has been used for asthma, because it contains the alkaloid *atropine*, but it is also a powerful and potentially fatal *hallucinogen*.^[105]

Plant medicines can cause adverse effects and even death, whether by side-effects of their active substances, by adulteration or contamination, by overdose, or by inappropriate prescription. Many such effects are known, while others remain to be explored scientifically. There is no reason to presume that because a product comes from nature it must be safe: the existence of powerful natural poisons like atropine and nicotine shows this to be untrue. Further, the high standards applied to conventional medicines do not always apply to plant medicines, and dose can vary widely depending on the growth conditions of plants: older plants may be much more toxic than young ones, for instance.^{[106][107][108][109][110][111]}

Pharmacologically active plant extracts can interact with conventional drugs, both because they may provide an increased dose of similar compounds, and because some phytochemicals interfere with the body's systems that metabolise drugs in the liver including the *cytochrome P450* system, making the drugs last longer in the body and have a more powerful cumulative effect.^[112] Plant medicines can be dangerous during pregnancy.^[113] Since plants may contain many different substances, plant extracts may have complex effects on the human body.^[5]

Quality, advertising, and labelling

Herbal medicine and *dietary supplement* products have been criticized as not having sufficient standards or scientific evidence to confirm their contents, safety, and presumed

efficacy.^{[114][115][116][117]} A 2013 study found that one-third of herbal products sampled contained no trace of the herb listed on the label, and other products were **adulterated** with unlisted **fillers** including potential **allergens**.^{[118][119]}

Threats

Where medicinal plants are harvested from the wild rather than cultivated, they are subject to both general and specific threats. General threats include **climate change** and **habitat loss** to development and agriculture. A specific threat is over-collection to meet rising demand for medicines.^[120] A case in point was the pressure on wild populations of the Pacific yew soon after news of taxol's effectiveness became public.^[34] The threat from over-collection could be addressed by cultivation of some medicinal plants, or by a system of certification to make wild harvesting sustainable.^[120] A report in 2020 by the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew identifies 723 medicinal plants as being at risk of extinction, caused partly by over-collection.^{[121][104]}

See also

- [Ethnomedicine](#)
- [European Directive on Traditional Herbal Medicinal Products](#)
- [Australian Phytochemical Survey](#)
- [Plant Resources of Tropical Africa](#)

Notes

- Farnsworth states that this figure was based on prescriptions from American community pharmacies between 1959 and 1980.*^[40]
- Berberine is the main active component of an ancient Chinese herb *Coptis chinensis* French, which has been administered for what Yin and colleagues state is "**diabetes**" for thousands of years, although with no sound evidence of efficacy.*^[56]
- Tobacco has "probably been responsible for more deaths than any other herb", but it was used as a medicine in the societies encountered by Columbus and was considered a **panacea** in Europe. It is no longer accepted as medicinal.*^[57]

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