Ethnobotanical Survey Among the Nubian and Southeastern Tribes of Egypt

Ashraf Soliman^{1*}, Rim Hamdy¹, Fatma A. Hamada²

¹ Department of Botany and Microbiology, Faculty of Science, Cairo University ²Department of Botany, Faculty of Science, Aswan University

ABSTRACT



This survey was undertaken on four tribes (Ababda, Bisharia, Nubian, and Rashayda) living in Egypt's southern Nile Valley and Eastern Desert to chronicle and evaluate traditional herbal treatments, as well as to examine the links between these tribes based on ethnobotanical use. A total of 180 interviews with Bedouins and herbal healers were undertaken, with 45 informants for each tribe, ranging in age from 18 to 85 years. There were 39 species in total, belonging to 36 genera and 27 families. Fabaceae and Poaceae and Rutaceae were the species-rich families. The used wild species comprised 43.6%, cultivated species (38.5%) and the remaining 17.9% were bought from the herbalist shops. The leaves were the most commonly used part (31%), followed by stems and fruits (22% each). Distinct species included Acacia nilotica, that is used in the treatment of dental discomfort and has a use-value of 33.3 %, and Cymbopogon schoenanthus subsp. proximus, that is used in the treatment of cough and headache and has a use-value of 35% and 30.6%, respectively. A combination of Acacia nilotica and Lawsonia inermis, has a use-value of 22.2 % for the treatment of sore throats. Based on ethnobotanical treatments, the most resemblance was found between the Nubian and Rashayda tribes (55.3%), that the Rashayda' nomads utilized the Nubian markets for the winter, and Nubians were supplied with livestock or handicrafts by the nomads, followed by 46.8% between Ababda and Bisharia that both tribes are shared land, resources, and even reached a historical homogeneous state not only due to land proximity but also through marriage and social relations. The most prevalent ailments were diarrhoea and headache, each had seven different recipes, while cough and dental aches had six. This type of research should be encouraged in order to better understand how the common flora might be used in human healthcare.

Keywords: Eastern Desert, Egypt, Ethnobotany, Herbal medicine, Nomads.

INTRODUCTION

The use of plant resources for the treatment of diseases has been existed since ancient times and may even be considered the genesis of contemporary medicine, (Salmerón-Manzano et al., 2020). Plant chemicals were and are still a major source of medicinal compounds. The tendency in worldwide research has been to concentrate on the hunt for potential or active medications or chemicals rather than to cultivate or domesticate plant species. It is a fact as all civilizations have resulted in the creation of this type of medication (Gurib-Fakim, 2006), based on the cultivated, wild, or native plant species in their habitat (Houghton, 1995). There are even authors who claim that this transmitted knowledge is the origin of medicine and pharmacy. Even today, hundreds of higher plants are cultivated worldwide to obtain useful substances in medicine and pharmacy (Kinghorn and Seo, 2020).

The therapeutic properties of plants have been created with medicinal drugs made from certain plants with these benefits (Jones *et al.*, 2006). The utilization of medicinal plants was about 80% of the world population primarily in developing countries (Dubey *et al.*, 2004). Low-income individuals like farmers, people in remote villages, and indigenous populations that do not have access to modern medicine in developing nations depend on traditional remedies and employ a large number of local plants for the treatment

of common ailments (Elkhouly and Ahmed, 2018). Traditional primary health knowledge has been extensively recognized around the globe in the past several decades. It is believed that 60% of the world's population is dependent on traditional medicine, mostly primary healthcare, and 80 % of the population in poorer nations. (Shrestha and Dhillion, 2003). Baqar (2001) elaborated that it is essential to document such information because it is passed on verbally from one generation to another; thus, is vulnerable to being lost.

Many studies have been carried out to deal with the ethnobotanical utilization of plant species (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2010; Mandaville, 2011; Khajoei Nasab and Khosravi, 2014; Manas *et al.*, 2015; Maleki and Akhani, 2018; Rana *et al.*, 2019; Aly, 2019; Salmerón-Manzano *et al.*, 2020; Aparicio *et al.*, 2021; Khajuria *et al.*, 2021; Nigussie *et al.*, 2021). Goodman and Hobbs (1988) made vital findings as a naturalist and described plants in detail by a particular tribe in the area of study.

Most of the flora of the Eastern Desert belongs to the Phytogeographic Region of the Saharo-Sindians sensu Eig, 1931/32. The main exception is Gebel Elba in the extreme south, where several Afrotropical plant species reach their northern limits (Kassas and Zahran, 1971). The floristic diversity in the region of Bisharia is almost twice as high as in the north and comprises far more species of trees.

Nearly a fourth of Egyptian territory is covered by the Eastern desert (225,000 km^2). It occupies an area of around 200 to 500 km wide and 1080 km long between

^{*} Corresponding author e-mail: <u>ashsoliman@sci.cu.edu.eg</u>

the Red Sea and the Nile. The Eastern desert is mountainous arid Sahara characterized by a coastal granite mountain chain running parallel to the Red Sea shore. Two groups of transverse wadis, the eastern wadis that go towards the Red Sea and the western wadis that run towards the Nile valley, cut across this chain (Bubenzer *et al.*, 2020).

The Eastern desert climate differs from the rest of Egypt in that it is arid, with winter rainfall averaging 14 mm per year (Climate-data.org). The amount of rain that falls along the Red Sea coast varies from year to year, with low rainfall in the south and more rainfall in the south at Ras Banas (Gamal, 2000). The average annual temperature at Shalatin, much to the south of the examined area, is 26.1 °C, as shown in Figure 1. These harsh arid climatic conditions resulted in frequent cattle death; which contributed to the Bedouins' migration into the modern cities (Ghazaly, 2006).

The original residents of this region were related to Egyptian Beja tribes as Ababda and Bisharia, two general Bedouin tribes (Fig. 1). Alshemab, Alferganab, Alfaragab, Alhasanat, and Algameiat are the five subtribes of Ababda. Bisharia is divided into 42 sub-tribes, the most well-known of which are Omirab, Shonirat, Belgab, Oliab, Alhamedorab, and Qurilab, who rely on camel, goat, and sheep herding for their livelihood (Gamal, 2000; Mustafa, 2005; Bos-Seldenthuis 2007). Ababda and Bisharia dominated the southeastern part of the Red Sea, however, Ababda dominated the same region in addition to the Marsa Allam region, and few members are located near Esna and Qena on the Nile banks (Gamal, 2000).

In addition, Rashayda's nomads live near the border between Egypt and Sudan near the Red Sea coast. They have no lineage with the two previous tribes as they came from the Arabian Peninsula mainly Saudi Arabia after the collapse of the Al Rashid governance. They earn a living by trading, camel herding, and smuggling. They are a closed community in their marriage and do not make ancestry relations with their neighbors. Generally, these tribal people have a weak social status and live individually, and are restricted mainly to their society (Mustafa, 2005).

The Nubia geographic region stretches along the Nile for 310 km from Aswan Dam south to the Sudanese Frontiers, south of that lies the Sudanese Nubia. The Nubian people mainly depend on agriculture on the Nile banks. The Nubian culture has more social attributes, and there is substantial collaboration with members of various families and communities, who own waterwheels, palm trees, farms, and livestock. (Abdel Meguid, 2005). Nubian people live mainly in the south of the upper Nile in the narrow alluvial wadi which is intensively cultivated; however, Ababda and Bisharia live in the vast eastern desert which is extensively arid (Fernea, 1994; Belal *et al.*, 1998; Badri and Hamed 2000).

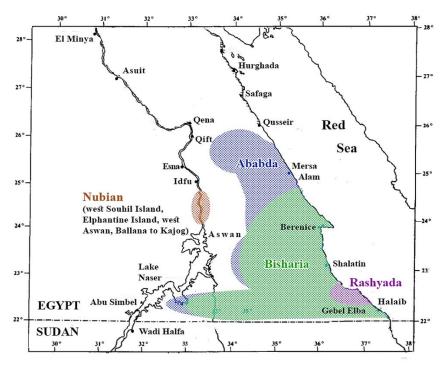


Figure (1): Map showing the location of studied tribes after the construction of the High Dam at Aswan.

Not only at the tribe level, but throughout Egypt, documentation of ethnobotanical pertinent data (plant ingredient, utilisation, descriptions, preparation, tribal attitude, etc.) is insufficient. Furthermore, urbanisation, industrialization, and youth migration to modern cities in and outside Egypt pose dangers to ethnobotanical data for some tribes. Additional threats for the Nubian tribe appeared after the tribal dislocation from their home villages after the construction of the Aswan High Dam. It is very important and urgent to record all ethnobotanical and ethnomedicinal data before they wiped out (El-Darier, 2021). Therefore, the goal of this paper was to collect ethnobotanical data and analyse plant consumption in the ranges of the four tribes investigated (Ababda, Bisharia, Nubian, and Rashayda) who live in the Nile Valley and the Egyptian Eastern Desert. It also attempts to examine the links between these tribes based on their plant usage.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Several strategies have been employed for collecting ethnobotanical data (Briggs 1986, Crane and Angrosino 1992, Johns and Kimanani 1990) and interview techniques according to Briggs (1986), Crane and Angrosino (1992). Interviews were mostly done in the vernacular Arabic language (sometimes we needed to translate from Beji into Arabic). Herbal market surveys were carried out with herbalists to identify some herbal plants described in the interviews (Bye and Linares, 1983). The methodology of Rana *et al.*, (2019) was used.

The information was gathered mostly through interviews with 180 Bedouins or traditional healers, 45 from each tribe, ranging in age from 18 to 85 years old. Surprisingly, women made up the majority of the informants (119 females, 51 males, 6 herbal shops owners, and 4 local healers). Women were in charge of using the available plant species in their families' therapies, while men had little knowledge of these remedies and relied on their wives. During the period of March (2018) to May (2019), informants were contacted at their houses, tents, or public marketplaces via 4-6 field excursions. Taeckholm (1974), Bailey and Bailey (1976), and Boulos (1977) were used for identification and nomenclature (2009). The database (http://www.theplantlist.org, visited on 27 May 2021) was used to validate plant names, families, and plant authority. The identified plants were listed with their scientific name, family, mode of use, and categorized into: wild, cultivated, or bought from the traditional healers.

Use-value calculation

The relative importance of the species was calculated using the use-value (Phillips *et al.*, 1994) with slight modification as a percentage:

$UV = \Sigma U/n*100$

where (U) is the number of plants cited by each informant for a given species and (n) is the total number of informants (45) for each tribe. Also, the total use value for all informants (180) was calculated.

To investigate the affinity (similarity) among the 4 tribes based on their usage of the plant-based ethnomedicine, the matrix of the use values of the utilized 39 species against the 4 monitored tribes (Table 1) were analysed using the correlate proximity of the program IBM SPSS statistics 25 (1989-2017).

RESULTS

Taxonomic identity of the traced species

Thirty-nine species are commonly used by at least two of the investigated 4 tribes (Ababda, Bisharia, Rashayda, and Nubian) as ethnomedicinal plants for different kinds of treatments (Table 1). From the floristic point of view, the traced and identified species belonged to 36 genera and 27 families. Among these genera, *Acacia, Citrus*, and *Cymbopogon* were represented by 2 species each, namely: *Acacia nilotica* (L.) Willd. ex Delile and *Acacia seyal* Delile; *Citrus* limon (L.) Osbeck and *Citrus sinensis* (L.) Osbeck, *Cymbopogon citratus* (DC.) Stapf and *Cymbopogon schoenanthus* subsp. *proximus* (Hochst. ex A. Rich.) Maire and Weiller.

At the family level, seven families were represented by more than one species. Fabaceae and Poaceae were represented by 4 species each; while, Rutaceae was represented by 3 species. In addition, 4 families, Apocynaceae, Arecaceae, Lythraceae, and Myrtaceae that were represented by 2 species each. The remaining families were represented by one species each (Table 1). The recorded species are categorized into 17 wild species, approximately 43.6% of the total number of species given a superscript letter (^w) in Table (1), that were collected from the vicinity of the desert, canyons, shaded mountain slopes and wadi bottoms; 15 cultivated species (^c) accounted for 38.5%, and 7 bought (^b) from the traditional healers (Attarin) accounted for 17.9% of the total number of recorded species.

The collected field data from the studied tribes revealed that these species were used in the 72 treatments. One can classify the different ethnomedicinal treatments (recipes) or utilization of these species into 3 main categories. The first category contains 4 recipes that were used by all 4 tribes, of course with different use values, Acacia nilotica was used in the treatment of dental pain with a use value of 33.3%, Cymbopogon schoenanthus subsp. proximus in the treatment of either cough or headache with use values 35 and 30.6%; respectively, and a combination of Acacia nilotica with Lawsonia inermis in the treatment of sore throat with use value 22.2%. The second category contained 21 recipes that are used by 3 of the 4 tribes and the remaining 37 are used by 2 of the 4 tribes only.

According to the total number of recipes used by each tribe, it was found that Nubian and Rashayda tribes have the highest and more or less equal 49 and 48 recipes respectively, Bisharia shows the least with 35 and Ababda had 41 recipes (Table 1).

Tribal affinity concerning their usage of the plantbased ethnomedicine

The affinity or similarity of the four tribes was evaluated based on their use of plant species as ethnomedicinal treatments. Table (2) revealed that the largest degree of resemblance was found between the Nubian and Rashayda tribes (55.3%), followed by a relatively considerable degree of similarity between the Ababda and Bisharia tribes (46.8%). Bisharia and Rashayda have the least similarity to Nubian and Rashayda, with 13.4 percent and 15.6 %, respectively. The people of the different tribes may show affinities to use more than one recipe for a definite treatment, as shown in Figure (2). Diarrhea and headache show the highest

Soliman et al.,

Table (1): List of the recorded 39 ethnomedicinal plant species used by the 4 tribes (Ababda = Ab, Bisharia = Bi, Nubian = Nu, Rashayda = Ra) living in the south of the Nile and Eastern Desert of Egypt showing taxon names (species and family), usage method. (+) combination between 2 plants, PP= part used of the plants, PP: B = Bulb, G = Gum from the stem, Fr = Fruit, Fl= flower, L = Leaves, R= rhizome, S = Seed, St = Stem), mode of usage, different type of treatments (25), Resources of plant species: c = Cultivated, b = bought from the traditional healers, w = wild, T = Total number of informants and the use-value of each treatment (recipe) UV= T/180%. Figures under the tribes represent the use value in each tribe, Number of tribes = Nm.

| Treatment [†] | Spacing Name | Fomily | РР | Lago Mothod | | Investiga | ted Tribe | s | – T | UV | N |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------|------------------------------------------------------------------|------|-----------|-----------|------|------|------|-----|
| Treatment | Species Name | Family | rr | Usage Method | Ab | Bi | Nu | Ra | - 1 | UV | Nm |
| Skin Abscess | ^c Allium cepa L. + ^c Lepidium sativum L. | Amaryllidaceae Brassicaceae | L + S | Paste of onion leaves + crushed seeds of the garden cress | 0.0 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 35.6 | 19.0 | 10.6 | 2.0 |
| SMII ADSCESS | ^w Solenostemma argel (Delile) Hayne | Apocynaceae | St, L | Paste with warm water + drink | 28.9 | 33.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 28.0 | 15.6 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Sesamum indicum L. | Pedaliaceae | S | Paste of crushed seeds as ointment | 20.0 | 4.4 | 0.0 | 93.3 | 53.0 | 29.4 | 3.0 |
| ¹ Asthenia | ^w Solenostemma argel | Apocynaceae | St, L | the decoction of leaves and stem as drink | 0.0 | 33.3 | 0.0 | 22.2 | 25.0 | 13.9 | 2.0 |
| Asticina | ⁱ Nigella sativa L. | Ranunculaceae | S | Tea based from seeds or seed oil are used as droplets. | 13.3 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 9.0 | 5.0 | 2.0 |
| | ^b Zingiber officinale Roscoe | Zingiberaceae | R | drink with white honey | 0.0 | 4.4 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 5.0 | 2.8 | 2.0 |
| Anemia | ^c Phoenix dactylifera L. | Arecaceae | Fr | Ripen fruits are eaten or soaked in milk | 0.0 | 95.6 | 0.0 | 17.8 | 51.0 | 28.3 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Triticum sp. | Poaceae | Fr | Paste | 15.6 | 0.0 | 13.3 | 62.2 | 41.0 | 22.8 | 3.0 |
| Bone fractures | ^c Triticum sp.+ ⁿ Acacia nilotica (L.) Willd. ex Delile | Poaceae Fabaceae | Fr | Paste | 0.0 | 0.0 | 11.1 | 22.2 | 15.0 | 8.3 | 2.0 |
| ² Chest diseases | °Olea europaea L. | Oleaceae | S | Rubbing with the oil | 0.0 | 0.0 | 22.2 | 6.7 | 13.0 | 7.2 | 2.0 |
| | <i>Cymbopogon schoenanthus</i> subsp . <i>proximus</i> (Hochst. ex A.Rich.) Maire & Weiller | Poaceae | St, L | Drink | 24.4 | 33.3 | 20.0 | 62.2 | 63.0 | 35.0 | 4.0 |
| | ^w Solenostemma argel | Apocynaceae | St, L | Drink | 73.3 | 0.0 | 26.7 | 55.6 | 70.0 | 38.9 | 3.0 |
| Cough | ^b Boswellia sacra Flueck. | Burseraceae | G | Gum, soaked in hot water and drink | 31.1 | 17.8 | 33.3 | 0.0 | 37.0 | 20.6 | 3.0 |
| | ^c Psidium guajava L. | Myrtaceae | L | Leaves, soaked in hot water and drink | 22.2 | 0.0 | 93.3 | 0.0 | 52.0 | 28.9 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Capparis spinosa L. | Capparaceae | Fr | Decoction of ripen fruits or the fruit bulb is cooked as pudding | 51.1 | 55.6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 48.0 | 26.7 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Hibiscus sabdariffa L. | Malvaceae | Fl | soaked or boiled drink | 20.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 15.6 | 16.0 | 8.9 | 2.0 |

Table (1): Continued

| (_) | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|----------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|
| | <i>"Balanites aegyptiaca</i> (L.) Delile | Zygophyllaceae | Fr | Soaked or boiled drink | 66.7 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 17.8 | 41.0 | 22.8 | 3.0 |
| Diabetes | ^c Lupinus albus L. | Fabaceae | S | Seeds are crushed or eaten after being soaked | 0.0 | 0.0 | 40 | 46.7 | 39.0 | 21.7 | 2.0 |
| | <i>^wCymbopogon schoenanthus</i> subsp. <i>proximus</i> | Poaceae | St, L | Soaked in hot water and taken on an empty stomach | 40.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 15.6 | 25.0 | 13.9 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Acacia nilotica | Fabaceae | Fr | soaked then drink | 22.2 | 26.7 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 25.0 | 13.9 | 3.0 |
| | ^b Coffea arabica L.+ ^c Citrus limon (L.) Osbeck | Rubiaceae + Rutaceae | S+ Fr | Squeeze of one lemon on a small spoonful of grinded coffee | 0.0 | 53.3 | 0.0 | 15.6 | 31.0 | 17.2 | 2.0 |
| | "Cymbopogon schoenanthus subsp. proximus | Poaceae | St, L | drink on an empty stomach | 40.0 | 22.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 28.0 | 15.6 | 2.0 |
| Diarrhea | ^c Trigonella foenum-graecum L. | Fabaceae | S | drink or eaten | 0.0 | 0.0 | 13.3 | 20.0 | 15.0 | 8.3 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Oryza sativa L. | Poaceae | Fr | cooked and eaten or drink the rice washing water | 0.0 | 0.0 | 13.3 | 15.6 | 13.0 | 7.2 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Convolvulus hystrix Vahl | Convolvulaceae | St, L | boil and drink | 6.7 | 15.6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 10.0 | 5.6 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Punica granatum L. | Lythraceae | Fr | use boiled the peel as a drink | 0.0 | 8.9 | 13.3 | 0.0 | 10.0 | 5.6 | 2.0 |
| ³ Eye diseases | ^w Aloe vera (L.) Burm.f. | Cuctaceae | L | Latex is used as eye droplets or the latex is mixed with water, leave to dry then apply to the eye or around | 6.7 | 2.2 | 0.0 | 22.2 | 14.0 | 7.8 | 3.0 |
| | ^w Lawsonia inermis L. | Lythraceae | L | fresh leaves on the eye | 40.0 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 21.0 | 11.7 | 2.0 |
| Favus | ^w Ricinus communis L. | Euphorbiaceae | S | Rrubbing with oil | 0.0 | 0.0 | 53.3 | 15.6 | 31.0 | 17.2 | 2.0 |
| ravus | ^w Lawsonia inermis L. | Lythraceae | L | Paste | 0.0 | 42.2 | 13.3 | 0.0 | 25.0 | 13.9 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Acacia seyal Delile | Fabaceae | St | Smelling of the smoke of burn wood | 2.2 | 4.4 | 0.0 | 11.1 | 8.0 | 4.4 | 3.0 |
| Flu | ^b Cymbopogon citratus (DC.) Stapf | Poaceae | St +L | Drink | 0.0 | 0.0 | 17.8 | 2.2 | 9.0 | 5.0 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Olea europaea L. | Oleaceae | S | rubbing with oil | 0.0 | 4.4 | 26.7 | 46.7 | 35.0 | 19.4 | 3.0 |
| Hair care | ^w Lawsonia inermis L. | Lythraceae | L | paste of its powder | 0.0 | 0.0 | 40.0 | 53.3 | 42.0 | 23.3 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Ricinus communis L. | Euphorbiaceae | S | rubbing with oil | 44.4 | 0.0 | 20.0 | 0.0 | 29.0 | 16.1 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Hibiscus sabdariffa L. | Malvaceae | Fl | Drink | 0.0 | 6.7 | 80.0 | 77.8 | 74.0 | 41.1 | 3.0 |
| Hypertension | <i>^wHyphaene thebaica</i> (L.) Mart. | Arecaceae | Fr | Drink | 6.7 | 4.4 | 84.4 | 0.0 | 43.0 | 23.9 | 3.0 |

Soliman et al.,

Table (1): Continued

| | ^w Cymbopogon schoenanthus subsp. proximus | Poaceae | L, St | Vapor inhale or drink | 51.1 | 11.1 | 13.3 | 46.7 | 55.0 | 30.6 | 4.0 |
|---------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|-----|
| | ^w Solenostemma argel | Apocynaceae | L | Paste with hot water or drink | 26.7 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 62.2 | 43.0 | 23.9 | 3.0 |
| | ^w Lawsonia inermis L. | Lythraceae | L | rubbing with oil | 24.4 | 0.0 | 46.7 | 62.2 | 60.0 | 33.3 | 3.0 |
| Headache | ^w Acacia nilotica + ^w Solenostemma argel | Fabaceae + Apocynaceae | Fr + St, L | Paste with hot warm water | 28.9 | 88.9 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 56.0 | 31.1 | 3.0 |
| | ^b Camellia sinensis (L.) Kuntze | Theaceae | L | Paste with hot warm hot water | 0.0 | 0.0 | 66.7 | 46.7 | 51.0 | 28.3 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Citrus limon | Rutaceae | Fr | Drink or apply the fruit on the head | 0.0 | 0.0 | 26.7 | 15.6 | 19.0 | 10.6 | 2.0 |
| | ^b Coffea arabica L. | Rubiaceae | S | Drink | 0.0 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 20.0 | 12.0 | 6.7 | 2.0 |
| Kidney | ^w Haplophyllum tuberculatum (Forssk.) Juss. | Rutaceae | St, L | Drink for kidney stones and kidney problems | 22.2 | 28.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 23.0 | 12.8 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Solenostemma argel | Apocynaceae | St, L | Drink | 11.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 22.2 | 15.0 | 8.3 | 2.0 |
| Possessed | ^w Ziziphus spina-christi (L.) Desf. | Rhamnaceae | L | Shower with the leaves that have been boiled | 15.6 | 11.1 | 0.0 | 42.2 | 31.0 | 17.2 | 3.0 |
| persons | ^b Nigella sativa L. | Ranunculaceae | S | incense | 0.0 | 0.0 | 44.4 | 22.2 | 30.0 | 16.7 | 2.0 |
| Mumps | ^w Calotropis procera (Aiton) Dryand. | Apocynaceae | St, L | latex as oinment | 11.1 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 8.0 | 4.4 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Artemisia herba-alba Asso | Asteraceae | St | Drink | 24.4 | 2.2 | 0.0 | 44.4 | 32.0 | 17.8 | 3.0 |
| Contraception | ^w Cymbopogon schoenanthus subsp.proximus | Poaceae | St, L | Drink | 4.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.2 | 3.0 | 1.7 | 2.0 |
| Rheumatoid | ^w Citrullus colocynthis (L.) Schrad. | Cucurbitaceae | Fr | External use after warming in hot sand and rubing with the cutting fruits on knee | 44.4 | 0.0 | 13.3 | 31.1 | 40.0 | 22.2 | 3.0 |
| arthritis | ^c Sesamum indicum L. | Pedaliaceae | S | Rub with the oil | 0.0 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 77.8 | 38 | 21.1 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Citrus sinensis (L.) Osbeck | Rutaceae | Fr | Rub with the fruit | 0.0 | 0.0 | 15.6 | 6.7 | 10 | 5.6 | 2.0 |
| Skin care | ^w Lawsonia inermis L. | Lythraceae | L | Paste with warm water | 0.0 | 11.1 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 8.0 | 4.4 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Lawsonia inermis L.+ ^w Acacia nilotica | Lythraceae + Fabaceae | L+ Fr | paste on the neck | 11.1 | 6.7 | 26.7 | 44.4 | 40.0 | 22.2 | 4.(|
| Sore throat | ^w Solenostemma argel | Apocynaceae | L, St | gargling with the soaked leaves and stem | 53.3 | 100.0 | 20.0 | 0.0 | 78.0 | 43.3 | 3.0 |
| | ^b Zingiber officinale Roscoe | Zingiberaceae | R | root powder in hot water as a drink | 0.0 | 0.0 | 73.3 | 11.1 | 38.0 | 21.1 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Carum carvi L. | Apiaceae | Fr | Fruit extract in hot water and drink | 0.0 | 0.0 | 17.8 | 4.4 | 10.0 | 5.6 | 2.0 |

Table (1): Continued

| Stomachache | ^w Solenostemma argel | Apocynaceae | L, St | Drink or dried, crushed then swallowed | 22.2 | 73.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 43.0 | 23.9 | 2.0 |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|----------------|-------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|------|------|-----------|------|------|-----|
| | ^w Acacia nilotica | Fabaceae | Fr | Rinsing the mouth with soaked fruits or sucking the fruits or brushing the teeth | 13.3 | 77.8 | 26.7 | 15.6 | 60.0 | 33.3 | 4.0 |
| | ^b Syzygium aromaticum (L.) Merr. & L.M.Perry | Myrtaceae | Fl | Rinsing the mouth with soaked flower buds or crushing the dried ones and applying to the pain | 8.9 | 0.0 | 95.6 | 93.3 | 89.0 | 49.4 | 3.0 |
| Dental pains | ^w Salvadora persica L. | Salvadoraceae | St | soaking in cold water, rinsing or brushing the teeth | 37.8 | 44.4 | 0.0 | 15.6 | 44.0 | 24.4 | 3.0 |
| Dentai puins | ^w Haplophyllum tuberculatum (Forssk.) A. Juss | Rutaceae | L, St | crushing and apply to the teeth or smoking like cigarettes | 33.3 | 35.6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 31.0 | 17.2 | 2.0 |
| | ^c Allium cepa L. | Amaryllidaceae | В | Rashayda: vapor on hot knife while Nubian: paste on the pain area | 0.0 | 0.0 | 26.7 | 20.0 | 21.0 | 11.7 | 2.0 |
| | ^b Zingiber officinale | Zingiberaceae | R | boil with hot water then drink or gargling | 0.0 | 0.0 | 13.3 | 15.6 | 13.0 | 7.2 | 2.0 |
| Vitiligo & Gecko | ^w Citrullus colocynthis (L.) Schrad. | Cucurbitaceae | Fr | 3-4 kg of crushed fruits boiled in a metallic container then use the tar released droplets through pores in the container | 13.3 | 35.6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 22.0 | 12.2 | 2.0 |
| OCCRU | ^b Nigella sativa L. | Ranunculaceae | S | Oil for rubbing | 0.0 | 0.0 | 33.3 | 8.9 | 19.0 | 10.6 | 2.0 |
| | ^w Acacia nilotica | Fabaceae | Fr | Crushed fruits used as paste with salt | 0.0 | 2.2 | 0.0 | 15.6 | 8.0 | 4.4 | 2.0 |
| XX7 1 1 | ^w Acacia nilotica | Fabaceae | Fr | Surface applying the crushed fruits | 26.7 | 17.8 | 6.7 | 0.0 | 23.0 | 12.8 | 3.0 |
| Wounds' healing (cuts) | ^b Coffea arabica L. | Rubiaceae | S | Applying the crushed fruits | 48.9 | 0.0 | 66.7 | 0.0 | 52.0 | 28.9 | 2.0 |
| | ^b Camellia sinensis | Theaceae | L | Spreading a dry fine powder on wound or paste with hot water | 0.0 | 0.0 | 26.7 | 33.3 | 27.0 | 15.0 | 2.0 |
| Total number of | Total number of recipes for each tribe | | | | | 35 | 49 | 48 | | | |

^{†1}Asthenia includes treatment of weakness and dizziness; ²Chest diseases include apnea, asthma, bronchitis and pneumonia; ³Eye diseases include conjunctivitis, keratitis and scleritis; ⁴Hair care includes alopecia, hair fragmentation and hair loss; ⁵Possessed persons, a person completely controlled by an evil spirit; ⁶Skin care includes eczema, psoriasis and xeroderma.

where they have 7 different recipes, cough and dental pains followed with 6 different recipes. On the contrary, 5 treatments namely, anemia, chest disease (apnea, asthma, bronchitis, and pneumonia), mumps, skincare (eczema, psoriasis, and xeroderma), and stomachache have only one recipe each.

The plant parts used in ethnomedicinal preparations

The investigated ethnomedicinal preparations showed that the usage of leaves were the highest (31%), followed by stems and fruits with about 22% each. Gums, bulbs, roots, and flowers had the least ingredients ranging between 1-3 % (Fig. 3).

Distinct species

The species that are commonly used by the different tribes for three or more ethnomedicinal treatments are termed distinct species. The stems and leaves of Solenostemma argel, which were used in 7 treatments, namely abscess, asthenia, cough, headache, kidney, sore throat, and stomachache. The informants indicated that 100% of Bisharia use this species in the treatment of sore throat while 73.3% of Ababda used it in the treatment of stomachache, Rashayda recorded 62.2% in the treatment of headache and Nubian recorded 26.7% in the treatment of cough. The leguminous fruits of Acacia nilotica played an important role in 6 treatments, bone fractures, diarrhea, headache, sore throat, dental pains, vitiligo and gecko. About 89% of Bisharia used the crushed fruits in combination with Solenostemma argel in the treatment of headache. Other tribes recorded relatively lower values, Rashayda (sore throat, 44.4%), Ababda (headache, 28.9%), and Nubian (sore throat, 26.7%).

The fresh leaves or the paste of the leaves of Lawsonia inermis were used in 6 treatments (eye, baldness, hair care, headache, skincare, and sore throat). The records indicated that 62.2% of Rashayda and 46.7% of Nubian used the soaked leaves as a paste in the treatment of headaches. Bisharia recorded 42.2% in the treatment of baldness while Ababda recorded 40% in the treatment of eye problems as external use.

Table (2): The similarity of the utilization of plant species as ethnomedicinal treatments among the four tribes.

| Triebs | Ababda | Bisharia | Nubian | Rashayda | | | | | | |
|----------|--------------|----------|--------|----------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 1 rieds | Similartiy % | | | | | | | | | |
| Ababda | 100 | | | | | | | | | |
| Bisharia | 46.8 | 100 | | | | | | | | |
| Nubian | 31.7 | 13.4 | 100 | | | | | | | |
| Rashayda | 38.7 | 15.6 | 55.3 | 100 | | | | | | |

The drink prepared from the soaked stems and leaves of *Cymbopogon schoenanthus* subsp. *proximus* was highly recommended in 5 treatments (cough, diabetes, diarrhea, headache, and contraception). Rash-ayda recorded the highest value (62.2%) for cough treatment. Meanwhile, Ababda recorded 51.1% for treat-

ment of headache, while, Bisharia and Nubian recorded 33.3% and 20% for cough treatment, respectively.

The seeds used in making a tea-like drink or the seed oil of Nigella sativa were used in the treatment of asthenia, possessed persons, vitiligo anl gecko. The informants indicated that 44.4% of Nubian and 22.2% of Rashayda used this species in the treatment of possessed persons. Only 13.3% of Ababda used it in the asthenia, while Bisharia did not mention the using of this plant.

Crushing or the drink made from the seeds of Coffea arabica played important role in the 3 treatments (diarrhea, headache, and wound cuts). About 67% of Nubian, 53.3% of Bisharai, and 48.9% of Ababda used the paste made from this species in wound healing. The highest value of using this species as a drink in the treatment of headache by Rashayda was 20%.

The drink made from *Zingiber officinale* was used in 3 treatments (asthenia, sore throat, and dental pain or toothache). Nubian recorded 73.3% for the treatment of sore throat, Rashayda recorded 15.6% for the treatment of dental pain, Bisharia recorded 4.4% for the treatment of asthenia while Ababda had no record for this species.

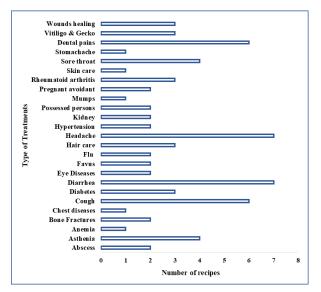


Figure (2): The number of recipes for the 25 treatments used by the 4 tribes.

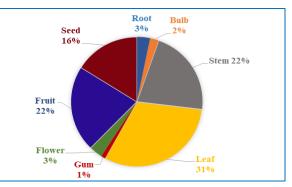


Figure (3): The percentage of the plant parts used in ethnomedicinal preparations

Distinctive tribal use values

The records indicated that some tribes showed tendency to ustilize definite recipes with relatively high use values than other tribes. Five species had recorded use values more than 93% in definite tribe. *Solenostemma argel* was used by 100% of Bisharia in the treatment of sore throat, *Syzygium aromaticum* was used by 95.6% and 93.3% of Nubian and Rashayda; respectively in the treatment of dental pain, *Phoenix dactylifera* was used by 95.5% of Bisharia in the treatment of anemia, *Psidium guajava* and *Sesamum indicum* were used by 93.3% of Nubian and Rashayda in the treatment of cough and asthenia.

DISCUSSION

The Egyptian Eastern Desert has depauperate vegetation; with large barren areas (Kassas and Zahran, 1962, 1965, 1971). This may indicate the low number of ethnomedicinal plants (18 species) used from the flora of the area in the ethnobotanical treatments by the 4 tribes. Serag (2008) indicated that the Sedentarization life had become a common behavior of the Ababda, Rashayda, and Bisharia tribes. Some are well known for the herding and trading of camels between Egypt and Sudan while others pure nomads and are still occupying remote areas. This explains the very few numbers of treatments that are used by the 4 tribes. On the other hand, Ababda and Bisharia tribes have social bonds amongst themselves, which extend beyond the borders between Egypt and Sudan. Both tribes share land, resources, and even opportunities offered recently by the government. They also have reached a historical homogenous state not only due to land proximity but also through marriage and social relations (Briggs et al., 1993, Moustafa, 1998; Ali et al., 2000). This explains the reason for the relatively high similarity in the utilization of ethnomedicinal treatments that recorded 46.8%.

Unexpectedly, the similarity between Nubian and Rashayda showed the highest similarity (55.6%) among all tribes. This could be explained on the basis that the Aswan High Dam and the resultant Lake Naser have varied impacts upon the Eastern Desert people. For some of the nomads, the impact has been more positive than others. Before the inundation that created the lake, the nomads' subsistence patterns were fairly stable and were based upon the maintenance of a "seasonal and oscillating migratory pattern". This pattern usually consisted of movement between the Nubian's shoreline and the Wadi of Hadien (eastern desert). The shorelines were used for grazing in the summer months, and then the Bedouins would return in the winter season (October-May) to their various wells in Abrak and Shalateen, taking with them what they needed of medicinal plants. The association the nomads had with the Nubians was generally pleasant and mutually beneficial, the Rashayda' nomads utilized the Nubian markets for the winter, and Nubians were supplied with livestock or handicrafts by the nomads (Fahim, 2015).

The total number of ethnomedicinal treatments for in Bisharia and Ababda tribes was the lowest, which reflects the changes in the altitude of these related tribes over time, where some families moved to villages outside the mountains, for a better lifestyle (Gamal, 2000; Mustafa, 2005; Bos-Seldenthuis 2007).

The study revealed that a single disease was treated by several plant species meaning that, in some cases, more than one plant was active for some ailments treatment (Hussain *et al.*, 2021). On the other hand, several recipes were used to treat a single disease that reflected the prevalence and severity of this disease among the different tribes due to the harsh environment and their prevailing habits.

The study of main therapeutic indications for medicinal plants has been shown by Bellakhdar *et al.*, (1991) who presented a clearly defined picture of health concerns. In our case, the most frequent diseases that people of these four tribes are suffering are diarrhea and headache with 7 recipes followed by cough and dental pains with 6 different recipes. Our field observations were reflecting that the harsh climatic aspects and the drinking water (direct underground) may be responsible for diseases like diarrhea and headache.

The results indicated the dominance of using the leaves, stems, and fruits (31, 22, and 22%; respectively) over other plant organs in the treatment of diseases. These results are similar to other investigations (Giday *et al.*, 2009; Ugulu *et al.*, 2009; Abbasi *et al.*, 2013; Mahmoud and Gairola 2013; Ullah *et al.*, 2013; Sadeghi and Mohamed 2014; Bhat *et al.*, 2015; Araya *et al.*, 2015, Guler *et al.*, 2015). Easy availability of leaves with their higher metabolite contents can be the reason for their preference (Ghorbani 2005; Weckerle *et al.*, 2006).

Three out of the 7 distinct species are imported and the people of the 4 tribes bought these species from the herb market for their known benefits. The ethnomedicinal utilization of the species is recorded in many previous works. Coffea arabica (AbouZid and Mohamed, 2011), Nigella sativa (Tiwari et al., 2004; AbouZid and Mohamed, 2011; Mandaville, 2011; Abouri et al., 2012; Islam et al., 2020) and Zingiber officinale (Davison & Frank, 1935; Tiwari et al., 2004; AbouZid and Mohamed, 2011; Abouri et al., 2012; Islam et al., 2020; Nigussie et al., 2021; Aparicio et al., 2021). In addition to the cultivated Lawsonia inermis (Mandaville, 2011; Islam et al., 2020; Nigussie et al., 2021). The other three species that are wild include Acacia nilotica that is scattered open vegetation in the main channel of wadis as indicated by Boulos (2008). Its utilization as an ethnomedicinal plant is cited by many authors (Bandeira et al, 2001; Tiwari et al., 2004; Mandaville, 2011; Andersen et al., 2014; Islam et al., 2020). Solenostemma argel that recorded the highest usage and is used in the treatment of 7 different diseases among the 4 tribes is cited by many authors for its benefits in the treatment of gastrointestinal cramps, purgative properties, or kidney diseases (Osborn, 1968; Goodman and Hobbs, 1988; AbouZid and Mohamed, 2011). Cymbopogon schoenanthus subsp. proximus recorded to be used for rheumatism remedies or lung diseases (Mandaville, 2011).

Another four species that are used by one or more tribes with use values of more than 90% include 3 cultivated plants. *Phoenix dactylifera* was recorded for anemia treatment in Bisharia with a use-value of 95.6%, which is documented by many authors for its benefit in the treatment of tiredness, childhood enuresis, and arrhythmia, and colds (Abouri *et al.*, 2012).

Sesamum indicum was used in the asthenia of 93.3% of Rashayda, this plant was recorded by Abouri et al., (2012) for spasmolytic and aromatic uses. Psidium guajava is used by Bisharia in the treatment of cough. This is similar to what was documented by other authors Abouzid & Mohamed (2011) and Aparicio et al., (2021), while Islam et al., (2020) docu-mented its usage for the treatment of diarrhea, dysentery, and cholera. Syzygium aromaticum was used by Nubian and Rashayda with use values 95.6% and 93.3% respectively in the treatment of dental pain while Islam et al., (2020) recorded it in the treatment of stomach upset, chills, and impotence and Davison and Frank (1935) as antiseptic, anti-inflammatory and dental pain. The high use values of some species by the different tribes were significantly reflecting the indigenous inhabitants believe in the utilization of these recipes for different ailments and naturally the efficacy of these treatments.

CONCLUSION

The data collected has served in determining the trend in the transfer of ethnobotanical knowledge among age groups. The location of plant collection, ethnobotanical usage, and the manner of their use were all documented. This study found that women, particularly elders, had a wealth of knowledge about traditional herbal use. Furthermore, it is necessary to preserve indigenous knowledge of traditional ethnobotany since growing urbanisation, industrial development, and the migration of nomads to modern cities, pose a threat to ethnobotany and ethnomedicine knowledge. This gathered information also shed a light on the possibility for the common flora to be used in human healthcare. Because such information is passed down from generation to generation informally, it is critical to document it. In addition, various actions must be taken to protect the natural flora in order to avoid their exploitation.

REFERENCES

- ABBASI, A.M., KHAN M.A., SHAH M.H., SHAH M.M., PERVEZ A., AND AHMED M. (2013). Ethnobotanical appraisal and cultural values of medicinally important wild edible vegetables of Lesser Himalayas-Pakistan. J Ethnobiol Ethnomed. 9:66.
- ABOURI, M., MOUSADIK, A. EL, MSANDA, F., BOUBAKER, H., SAADI, B., AND CHERIFI, K. (2012). An ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used in the Tata Province, Morocco. Intern-

- ational Journal of Medicinal Plant Research, 1(7): 99–123.
- ABDEL MEGUID, O. A. W. (2005). The Nubia Museum's Role in the Community, UNESCO (Vol. 57, No. 1–2) 67: Published by Blackwell Publishing.
- ABOUZID, S. F. AND MOHAMED, A. A. (2011). Survey on medicinal plants and spices used in Beni-Sueif, Upper Egypt. Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine, 7: 1–6.

https://doi.org/10.1186/1746-4269-7-18

- ALY, F. (2019). Evaluation of wild medicinal plants potentialities in South-East of Egypt View project maximizing the use of wild medicinal plants. view project evaluation of wild medicinal plants potentialities in South-East of Egypt. Article in Journal of Medicinal Plants Studies, 6(12), 421–431. https://doi.org/10.15413/ajmp.2018.0182
- ALI, M. M., DICKINSON, G., AND MURPHY, K. J. (2000). Predictors of Plant Diversity in a Hyperarid Desert Wadi Ecosystem. Journal of Arid Environments 45: 215–230.
- ANDERSEN, G. L., KRZYWINSKI, K., TALIB, M., SAADALLAH, A. E. M., HOBBS, J. J., AND PIERCE, R. H. (2014). Traditional nomadic tending of trees in the Red Sea Hills. Journal of Arid Environments, 106: 36–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2014.02.009
 - nttps://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2014.02.009
- APARICIO, H., HEDBERG, I., BANDEIRA, S., AND GHORBANI, A. (2021). Ethnobotanical study of medicinal and edible plants used in Nhamacoa area, Manica province–Mozambique. South African Journal of Botany, 139: 318–328. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2021.02.029
- ARAYA, S., ABERA B., AND GIDAY M. (2015). Study of plants traditionally used in public and animal health management in Seharti Samre District, Southern Tigray, Ethiopia. J Ethnobiol Ethnomed. 11:22.
- BADRI, M., AND HAMED, A. (2000). Nutrient Value of Some Plants in an Extremely Arid Environment (Wadi Allaqi Biosphere Reserve, Egypt). Journal of Arid Environments. 44: 347–356.
- BAQAR, S.R. (2001). Anti-spasmodic action of crude methanolic extract. J. Med. Plants Res. 6(3): 461-464.
- BELLAKHDAR, J., CLAISSE R., FLEURENTIN J., AND YOUNOS, C. (1991). Repertory of standard herbal drugs in the Moroccan pharmacopoea. J. Ethnopharmacol. 35 (2); 123-43.
- BAILEY, L.H., AND BAILEY, E.Z. 1976. Hortus Third. A concise Dictionary of Plant Cultivated in the U.S. and Canada. 'Revised by Staff of the L.H. Bailey Hortium'. The Macmillan Publishing Company, New York.
- BANDEIRA, S. O., GASPAR, F., AND PAGULA, F. P. (2001). African Ethnobotany and Healthcare : Emphasis on Mozambique. Pharmaceutical Biology, 39 (May), 70–73. https://doi.org/10.1076/phbi.39.s1.70.0002

- BELAL, A. E., LEITH, B., SOLWAY, J., AND SPRINGUEL, I. (1998). Environmental Valuation and Management of Plants in Wadi Allaqi, Egypt. Final Report Submitted to International Development Research Centre (IDRC) Canada.
- BHAT, J.A., KUMAR M., AND BUSSMANN R.W. (2015). Ecological status and traditional knowledge of medicinal plants in Kedarnath Wildlife Sanctuary of Garhwal Himalaya, India. J Ethnobiol Ethnomed. 2013; 9:1.48. Guler B, Manav E, Ugurlu E. Medicinal plants used by traditional healers in Bozuyuk (Bilecik–Turkey). J Ethnopharmacol. 173:39–47.
- BOULOS, L. (2009). Flora of Egypt checklist revised annotated edition. Al-Hadara Publishing, Cairo.
- BOULOS, L. (2008). Flora and Vegetation of the Deserts of Egypt. Flora Medit., 18, 341–359.
- BOOM, B. M. (1987). Ethnobotany of the Châcobo Indians, Beni, Bolivia. Advances in Economic Botany 4:1–68.
- BOS-SELDENTHUIS, J. E. (2007). Life and tradition of the Ababda nomads in the Egyptian Desert, the junction between intangible and tangible heritage management. International Journal of intangible heritage, 2: 32-43.
- BRIGGS, C. L. (1986). Learning how to ask. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, Great Britain.
- BRIGGS, J., DICKINSON, G., MURPHY, K., PULFORD, I., BELAL, A. E., MOALLA, S., SPRINGUEL, I., GHABBOUR, S. I., AND MEKKI, A. M. (1993). Sustainable Development and Resource Management in Marginal Environments: Natural resources and their use in the Wadi Allaqi Region of Egypt. Applied Geography 13: 259–284.
- BUBENZER, O., EMBABI, N. S., AND ASHOUR, M. M. (2020). Sand seas and dune fields of Egypt. Geosciences, 10(3): 101.
- BYE, R. A., AND LINARES, E. (1983). The role of plants found in the Mexican markets and their importance in ethnobotanical studies. Journal of Ethnobiology, 3(1): 1-13.
- CRANE, J. G., AND ANGROSINO, M. V. (1992). Field projects in anthropology. 3rd ed. Waveland Press, Inc., Prospect Heights, IL.
- DAVISON, K., AND FRANK, B. L. (1935). Ethnobotany: Plant-Derived Medical Therapy. In Auerbach's Wilderness Medicine, 2-Volume Set (Seventh Ed). Elsevier Inc.
- https://doi.org/10.1016/B9780-323-59429.00068-1
- DUBEY N.K., KUMAR R., TIRUPATHI P. (2004). Global promotion of herbal medicine: India opportunity. Curr. Sci., 86 (1): 37-41.
- EL-DARIER S., ABDEL-RAZIK M., HAM-MOUDA S., AND NUAMAN W. (2021). State of the Art of diabetes mellitus herbal Medicine in the western Mediterranean coastal region of Egypt. Journal of Pharmacy and Biological Sciences 16(4): 40-44.

- ELKHOULY A.A., AND AHMED F.A. (2018). Evaluation of wild medicinal plants potentialities in South-East of Egypt. Acad. J. Med. Plants. 6(12): 421-431.
- FAHIM, H. M. (2015). Dams, people and developpment: the Aswan High Dam case. Elsevier. 204 pp.
- FERNEA, R. (1994). Thirty Years of resettlement: The Nubians in Egypt, University of Texas, Austin, 156-158., <u>https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdf/10.1111/j.2</u> 050-411X.1994.tb00803.x
- GAMAL, M. M. (2000). Geography of Halaib triangle, MSc thesis geography department, faculty of Arts, Alexandria University.) in Arabic)
- GHAZALY, U. (2006). Impact of Desertification on Traditional Societies in the Elba Mountain Region of Egypt. Mountain Forum Bulletin. Retrieved April 2014, from http://www. Mountainfund.org/research/mf-bulletin-2006-07.pdf.
- GHORBANI, A. (2005). Studies on pharmaceutical ethnobotany in the region of Turkmen Sahra, north of Iran:(Part 1): General results. Journal of ethnopharmacology, 102(1), 58-68.
- GIDAY M., ASFAW Z., AND WOLDU Z. (2009). Medicinal plants of the Meinit ethnic group of Ethiopia: an ethnobotanical study. J Ethnopharmacol. 124:513–21.
- GOODMAN, S. M., AND HOBBS, J. J. (1988). The ethnobotany of the Egyptian Eastern Desert: a comparison of common plant usage between two culturally distinct Bedouin groups. Journal of ethnopharmacology, 23(1), 73-89.
- GULER B., MANAV E., AND UGURLU E. (2015). Medicinal plants used by traditional healers in Bozuyuk (Bilecik–Turkey). J Ethnopharmacol. 173:39–47
- GURIB-FAKIM, A. (2006). Medicinal plants: Traditions of yesterday and drugs of tomorrow. Mol. Asp. Med. 27: 1–93.
- HUSSAIN, M., KHALID, F., NOREEN, U., BANO, A., HUSSAIN, A., ALAM, S., SHAH, S., SAB-ER, M. & HABIBA, U. (2021). An ethnobotanical study of indigenous medicinal plants and their usage in rural valleys of Swabi and Hazara region of Pakistan. Brazilian J. of Biology, 82.
- HOUGHTON, P.J. (1995). The role of plants in traditional medicine and current therapy. J. Altern. Complementary Med. 1:131–143.
- ISLAM, A. T. M. R., HASAN, M., ISLAM, T., RAHMAN, A., MITRA, S., AND DAS, S. K. (2020). Ethnobotany of Medicinal Plants Used by Rakhine Indigenous Communities Patuakhali and Barguna District of Southern Bangladesh. Journal of Evidence-Based Integrative Medicine. 25: 1–27. https://doi.org/10.1177/2515690X20971586
- JOHNS, T., AND KIMANANI, E. K. (1990). Herbal remedies of the Luo of Siaya District, Kenya: establishing quantitative criteria for consensus. Economic Botany 44:369–381.

JONES, W.P., CHIN, Y.W., AND KINGHORN,

A.D. (2006). The role of pharmacognosy in modern medicine and pharmacy. Curr. Drug Targets. 7: 247–264.

- KASSAS, M., AND ZAHRAN, M. A. (1962). Studies on the Ecology of the Red Sea Coastal Land: The District of Gebel Ataqa and El-Galala El-Bahariya. Imprimerie de l'Institut français d'Archéologie orientale.
- KASSAS, M., AND ZAHRAN, M. A. (1965). Studies on the ecology of the Red Sea coastal land.II. The district from El-Galala El-Qibliya to Hurghada. Bulletin de la Société de Géographie d'Egypte, 38, 155-193.
- KASSAS, M., AND ZAHRAN, M. A. (1971). Plant life on the coastal mountains of the Red Sea, Egypt. Journal of Indian Botanical Society, 50, 571-589.
- KHAJOEI NASAB, F., AND KHOSRAVI, A. R. (2014). Ethnobotanical study of medicinal plants of Sirjan in Kerman Province, Iran. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 154(1): 190–197. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2014.04.003
- KHAJURIA, A. K., MANHAS, R. K., KUMAR, H., AND BISHT, N. S. (2021). Ethnobotanical study of traditionally used medicinal plants of Pauri district of Uttarakhand, India. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 276, 114204. https://doi.org/10.-1016/j.jep.2021.114204
- KINGHORN, A.D., AND SEO, E.K. Plants as Sources of Drugs. ACS Symposium Series, Vol. 647. Agricultural Materials as Renewable Resources, Chapter 12, pp. 179–193. <u>https://pubs.acs.org/doi-/abs/10.1021/bk-1996-</u>0647.ch012.
- MAHMOUD, T., & GAIROLA, S. (2013). Traditional knowledge and use of medicinal plants in the Eastern Desert of Egypt: a case study from Wadi El-Gemal National Park. Journal of Medicinal Plants, 1(6), 10-17.
- MALEKI, T., AND AKHANI, H. (2018). Ethnobotanical and ethnomedicinal studies in Baluchi tribes: A case study in Mt. Taftan, southeastern Iran. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 217 (February), 163–177. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2018.02.017
- MANAS, R. S., RITU, R., PALLAB K., SEN, A., AND SARKER, D. (2015). Ethnobotany, traditional knowledge and socioeconomic importance of native drink among the Oraon tribe of Maida district in India. Journal of Intercultural Ethnopharmacology, 4, 34–39.
- MANDAVILLE, J. P. (2011). Bedouin ethnobotany: plant concepts and uses in a desert pastoral world. Bedouin Ethnobotany: Plant Concepts and Uses in A Desert Pastoral World, 1–397. <u>https://doi.org/10.14237/ebl.4.2013.14</u>
- MUSTAFA, H. (2005). Statistical proposal model on the optimum use for available water resources in Halaib and Shalatin area MSc. thesis, Environmental sciences, institute of Environmental studies and research, Ain Shams University.
- MOUSTAFA, A. A. (1998). Halayeb Triangle, an

Anthropological Vision. Symposium for setting a comprehensive development vision to the Halayeb triangle. Cairo: African research and studies center-Cairo University.

- NIGUSSIE, D., MAKONNEN, E., TUFA, T. B., BREWSTER, M., LEGESSE, B. A., FEKADU, A., AND DAVEY, G. (2021). Systematic review of Ethiopian medicinal plants used for their antiinflammatory and wound healing activities. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 276, 114179. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2021.114179
- OSBORN, D. J. (1968). Notes on medicinal and other uses of plants in Egypt. Economic Botany, 22(2): 165-177.
- PHILLIPS O., GENTRY A.H., REYNEL C., WILKI P., AND GAVEZ-DURAND C.B. (1994). Quantitative ethnobotany and Amazonian conservation. Conserv Biol. 8:225–48.
- RANA, D., BHATT, A., AND LAL, B. (2019). Ethnobotanical knowledge among the semipastoral Gujjar tribe in the high altitude (Adhwari's) of Churah subdivision, district Chamba, Western Himalaya. Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine, 15(1): 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13002-019-0286-3
- RIBEIRO, A., ROMEIRAS, M. M., TAVARES, J., AND FARIA, M. T. (2010). Ethnobotanical survey in Canhane village, district of Massingir, Mozambique: Medicinal plants and traditional knowledge. Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine, 6: 1–15.

https://doi.org/10.1186/1746-4269-6-33

- SADEGHI Z. AND MAHMOOD A. (2014). Ethnogynecological knowledge of medicinal plants used by Baluch tribes, southeast of Baluchistan, Iran, Brazilian. J Pharmacogn. 24:706–15.
- SALMERÓN-MANZANO, E., GARRIDO-CARDENAS, J. A., AND MANZANO-AGUG-LIARO, F. (2020). Worldwide research trends on medicinal plants. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17(10). <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17103376</u>
- SHRESTHA P.M., AND DHILLION S.S. (2003). Medicinal plant diversity and use in the highlands of Dolakha district, Nepal. J. Ethnopharmacol. 86(1): 81-96.
- SERAG, M.Y. (2008). Border settlements in Egypt, between trans-border cooperation & defending the sovereignty of the country. Retrieved January 12, 2014, from Academia.edu: <u>http://www.academia.edu/5534461</u>
- TAECKHOLM, V. (1974). Students' flora of Egypt, Beirut. Cairo University, Cooperative Printing.
- TIWARI, N. N., POUDEL, R. C., AND UPRETY, Y. (2004). Study on Domestic Market of Medicinal and Aromatic Plants (MAPs) in Kathmandu Valley. November. https://doi.org/10.12140/PC.21.5166.0242

https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.5166.0243

- TREGENZA, L. A. (1955). The Return of Orestes in the Choephori: An Arab View1. Greece & Rome, 2(2), 59-61.
- TREGENZA, L. A. (1958). Egyptian years. Oxford

University Press.

- UGULU I., BASLAR S., YOREK N., AND DOGAN Y. (2009). The investigation and quantitative ethnobotanical evaluation of med-icinal plants used around Izmir province. J Med Plant Res. 3:345–67.
- Ullah M., Khan M.U., Mahmood A., Malik R., Hussain M., Wazir S.M., Daud M., AND Khan

Z.K. (2013). An ethnobotanical survey of indigenous medicinal plants in Wana district south Waziristan agency, Pakistan. J Ethnopharmacol. 150:918–24.

WECKERLE, C. S., HUBER, F. K., YONGPING, Y., AND WEIBANG, S. (2006). Plant knowledge of the Shuhi in the Hengduan Mountains, southwest China. Economic Botany, 60(1), 3-23.

استخدام النبات كعلاج بين النوبيين والقبائل الجنوبية الشرقية في مصر

أشرف سليمان¹، ريم حمدي¹، فاطمة حمادة² قسم النبات والميكروبيولوجي ، كلية العلوم، جامعة القاهرة، مصر ² قسم النبات كلية العلوم، جامعة أسوان، مصر

الملخص العربسى

تم إجراء هذا المسح على 4 قبائل (العبابدة ، بشارية ، النوبيين ، الرشايدة) الذين يقطنون جنوب النيل والصحراء الشرقية الجنوبية لمصر بهدف توثيق ومقارنة الأدوية العشبية التقليدية وتقييم العلاقات بين هذه القبائل. تم إجراء 180 مقابلة مع البدو ومعالجي الأعشاب. تم رصد 39 نوعًا نباتيا ينتمون إلى 36 جنسًا في 27 عائلة. كانت الفصيلة البقولية و النجيلية و البرتقالية من العائلات الغنية بالأنواع. وتشكل الأنواع البرية المستخدمة 3.64٪ والأنواع المزروعة جنسًا في 27 عائلة. كانت الفصيلة البقولية و النجيلية و البرتقالية من العائلات الغنية بالأنواع. وتشكل الأنواع البرية المستخدمة 3.64٪ والأنواع المزروعة (38.5٪) والمستوردة من محلات الأعشاب (7.9٪). كانت الأوراق أكثر الأجزاء استخدامًا (31٪) ، تليها السيقان والثمار بحوالي 22٪ لكل منهما. الأنواع المتميزة تشمل محلات الأعشاب (7.9٪). كانت الأوراق أكثر الأجزاء استخدامًا (31.5٪) ، تليها السيقان والثمار بحوالي 22٪ لكل منهما. الأنواع المتميزة تشمل محلات الأعشاب (7.9٪). كانت الأوراق أكثر الأجزاء استخدامًا (31.5٪) ، تليها السيقان والثمار بحوالي 22٪ لكل منهما. ولانواع المتميزة تشمل محلات الأعشاب (7.9٪). كانت الأوراق أكثر الأجزاء استخدامًا (31.5٪) ، تليها السيقان والثمار بحوالي 22٪ لكل منهما. والأنواع المتميزة تشمل محلات الأعشاب (7.9٪). كانت الأوراق أكثر الأجزاء ومتيمة استخدام 3.3 هذا معالية مع معالية من العائل الوراق أكثر الأجزاء استخدام 3.3 هذا معالية مع المتميزة تشمل معالمات العلية مستخدام 3.5 و 3.00٪ على التوالي ومزيج من 2.3%، معالية مع المعاملية مع معالية المستحملية معرفي معالية والأسنان بقيمة استخدام 3.3 هذا معاملية معان معالية مع المحافية و المحافية و من معالية مع التوالي ومزيج من معاملية مع معالية مع المعاملية مع مع معالية مع معالية مع معالية مع معاملية مع معالية مع معالية مع مندان بقربة و الرشايدة (3.5%)، والعبابذة والمحربية القبلية مع مع معالية مع معافية مع معاب الحق بقيمة المتمامية و معافية مع مانه الذوبة و الرشايذة (3.5%) و العبابذة والمحكان والمحل مع معالية مع مانهما. كان والمحان والمحل والمحكان والمحكان والمحكان والمحكان والمحكان والمحكان و ومعان مع 6 وصاد معابية مع مع معانية مع مع مع مع مع مع مع مع مع معالية مع 6 وصفات علاجية مختلفة اكن من من خلال النوزاوج ف