

DÉPARTEMENT DE BIOLOGIE

MÉMOIRE DE FIN D'ÉTUDES

Présenté par

BELAHOUEL Farah

BENAOUDA Asma

Pour l'obtention du diplôme de

MASTER EN SCIENCES BIOLOGIQUES

Spécialité :

Thème

**Evaluation de l'effet anti-inflammatoire
de quelques nanoparticules biosynthétisées
*-Etude in vivo-***

Soutenu le 28/06/2025

DEVANT LE JURY COMPOSÉ DE :

Présidente	Benhamimed El Attafia	MCA	U. Mostaganem
Encadrant	Djebli Nouredine	Prof	U. Mostaganem
Co-Encadrante	Belhadji Kenza	MCA	U. Mostaganem
Examinatrice	Chenini-Bendiab Hadjer	MCB	U. Mostaganem

Acknowledgments

*First and foremost, we thank **Allah the Almighty**, who granted us the strength, patience, and perseverance necessary to successfully complete this work.*

*We express our sincere gratitude to our Professor **Djebli Noureddine**, our supervisor, for his trust, rigorous guidance, wise advice, and constant support throughout this project.*

*We also extend our thanks to **Mrs. Terkhi**, our co-supervisor, for her availability, support, and valuable feedback that greatly assisted us.*

*We are deeply grateful to **Mrs. Benhamimed A.**, Chair of the jury, and **Mrs. Bendiab**, examiner, for the honor of evaluating our work, as well as for their enriching observations and suggestions.*

*Additionally, we would like to warmly thank all the staff of the research laboratory in Pharmacognosy and Apitherapy for their hospitality and support, especially **Ms. Mostefa Nadjat** for her great availability, invaluable help, and kind assistance, as well as **Mrs. Medjahed** for her collaboration and kindness.*

To everyone, thank you infinitely.

-FARAH

-ASMA

Dedication

Bismillah Arahman Ar-Raheem,

*First and foremost, I thank **Allah**, the Almighty, for His endless mercy, guidance, and strength throughout this journey.*

*I dedicate this work to my Parents, to my **father**, who, despite being far away over seas, has been a constant source of love, encouragement. Your belief in me has meant everything.*

*To my beloved **mother**, whose love, patience, and prayers have been my greatest comfort. To my dear sisters, **Kenza** and **Nour**, thank you for your support and for always being there.*

*To **Asma**, my closest friend, my lab mate, and my companion in this project, thank you for being by my side through every step, for your dedication, and for the bond we share.*

*To **Moukhtaria Hamidi**, my dearest friend and classmate, the kindest purest soul I know.*

A very special thanks to those I hold dearest:

***Oussama**, a living guardian angel, the one i hold close to my heart and for I cherish every word of encouragement you've gave me, through this journey.*

***Naserddine, Aka Romeo** for making the road for this achievement easy to handle, For the shared laughs and all your support.*

*and my beloved cousin **Hanane**, whose presence and support mean the world to me.*

*I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to my respected **teachers, Mr Djebli, Mme Bendiab and Mostefa Nadjjet**, for their guidance, dedication, and encouragement all along this journey*

*Finally, **to all my classmates** from the past two years of the Master's program PHT. May you forever Find your way to peace of mind the way you made this achievement come to reality.*

-Farah

Dedication

Bismillah Arahman Ar-Raheem,

To Allah, the Source of all strength and wisdom, whose mercy carried me through every struggle, whose light guided me when the path was dim.

To my beloved parents **my mother**, whose prayers were my shield,

My father, whose sacrifices built the foundation of my dreams.

To my sisters and lil brother, my pillars of joy and resilience, and to my grandpa, whose love remains a whisper in my heart.

To my binome, **Farah**

You were more than a teammate, you were a companion in this journey,

A mirror of patience, a spark of motivation when the nights grew long.

To my friends **Rania, Marwa, Ikram, Tig, Moukhtaria, Afif**

You were my laughter in stress, my solace in doubt,

The family I chose when the road felt lonely.

To Rayane, for the chapters we shared and the strength you offered when I needed it, thank you

To my second home, **Tata Khadidja & Unc ghali** and **Tata Zoulikha and their daughters** your kindness was a real comfort that cannot be replaced by anything.

To little Amani sweet deceiver, whose 'I didn't!' always comes with tears on her face.

To my teachers

Prof. Djebli, for your unwavering belief in my potential

Mrs Bendiab, whose dedication made the complex simple

And Mrs Nadjet, for your guidance that shaped my growth.

This work, these pages, this hard-won feat, are not mine alone, but ours to keep.

Alhamdulillah for every soul who cared, for every hand that helped, every tear shared.

May Allah's mercy upon you all.

-Asma

Abstract.

While synthetic anti-inflammatory drugs are effective, their side effects necessitate the exploration of safer alternatives, such as bioactive nanoparticles. This study evaluates the *in vivo* anti-inflammatory potential of zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs) biosynthesized from *Myrtus communis L.* leaf aqueous extract, using a carrageenan-induced paw edema model in mice. Groups included untreated control (Inf), standard control (STD: diclofenac 50mg/kg), and both therapeutic (D01 CR: 150 mg/kg; D02 CR: 300 mg/kg) and prophylactic (D01 PR: 150 mg/kg; D02 PR: 300 mg/kg) ZnO NP doses. Edema inhibition was assessed via percentage increase (%AUG) and inhibition (%INH), complemented by FTIR analysis and histological examination of paw tissues. Therapeutic administration revealed a worthy response with D02 CR (300 mg/kg) exhibiting significant edema reduction (%AUG and %INH) comparable to the STD group. Prophylactic treatment showed delayed but notable efficacy at the 5th hour, with the higher dose (D02 PR: 300 mg/kg) also yielding good results. Histological analysis confirmed these findings, demonstrating reduced paw edema and leukocyte infiltration, particularly at the higher therapeutic dose (D02 CR). FTIR analysis confirmed ZnO NP formation and identified characteristic functional groups associated with bioactive phytoconstituents from the extract, likely responsible for the NPs' anti-inflammatory activity. These results highlight the promising anti-inflammatory properties of *Myrtus communis L.*-synthesized ZnO NPs, with therapeutic doses showing efficacy akin to conventional drugs. The prophylactic effect, though slower, suggests potential for preventive applications. Further pharmacological investigations are warranted to elucidate underlying mechanisms.

Key words: Nanoparticles, *Myrtus communis L.*, Zinc Oxide, Biosynthesis, FTIR, Inflammation, *In vivo*.

Résumé

Bien que les médicaments anti-inflammatoires synthétiques soient efficaces, leurs effets secondaires nécessitent l'exploration d'alternatives plus sûres, telles que les nanoparticules bioactives. Cette étude évalue le potentiel anti-inflammatoire *in vivo* des nanoparticules d'oxyde de zinc (ZnO NPs) biosynthétisées à partir d'extrait aqueux de feuilles de *Myrtus communis L.*, en utilisant un modèle d'œdème de la patte induit par la carraghénine chez la souris. Les groupes comprenaient un contrôle non traité (Inf), un contrôle standard (STD : diclofénac 50 mg/kg), ainsi que des doses thérapeutiques (D01 CR : 150 mg/kg ; D02 CR : 300 mg/kg) et prophylactiques (D01 PR : 150 mg/kg ; D02 PR : 300 mg/kg) de ZnO NP. L'inhibition de l'œdème a été évaluée via l'augmentation en pourcentage (%AUG) et l'inhibition (%INH), complétée par une analyse FTIR et un examen histologique des tissus de la patte. L'administration thérapeutique a révélé une réponse significative, avec D02 CR (300 mg/kg) montrant une réduction significative de l'œdème (%AUG et %INH) comparable au groupe STD. Le traitement prophylactique a montré une efficacité retardée mais notable à la cinquième heure, la dose la plus élevée (D02 PR : 300 mg/kg) donnant également de bons résultats. L'analyse histologique a confirmé ces résultats, démontrant une réduction de l'œdème de la patte et une infiltration de leucocytes, en particulier à la dose thérapeutique plus élevée (D02 CR). L'analyse FTIR a confirmé la formation de ZnO NP et identifié des groupes fonctionnels caractéristiques associés aux phytoconstituants bioactifs de l'extrait, probablement responsables de l'activité anti-inflammatoire des NPs. Ces résultats soulignent les propriétés anti-inflammatoires prometteuses des ZnO NPs synthétisées à partir de *Myrtus communis L.*, les doses thérapeutiques montrant une efficacité comparable à celle des médicaments conventionnels. L'effet prophylactique, bien que plus lent, suggère un potentiel pour des applications préventives. D'autres investigations pharmacologiques sont nécessaires pour élucider les mécanismes sous-jacents

Mots clés : Nanoparticules, *Myrtus communis L.*, Oxyde de Zinc, Biosynthèse, FTIR, Inflammation, *In vivo*.

المخلص

بينما تكون الأدوية المضادة للالتهابات الاصطناعية فعالة، فإن آثارها الجانبية تستدعي استكشاف بدائل أكثر أماناً، مثل تقييم هذه الدراسة الإمكانيات المضادة للالتهابات في الجسم الحي لجسيمات أكسيد الزنك. الجسيمات النانوية النشطة حيويًا المائي، باستخدام نموذج *communis L. Myrtus* التي تم تخليقها حيويًا من مستخلص أوراق (ZnO NPs) النانوية مجموعة تحكم، (Inf) تضمنت المجموعات مجموعة تحكم غير معالجة. وذمة القدم المحفزة بالكار جينان في الفرنان (كغ/ملغ 300 D02 CR : 150 كغ/ملغ D01 CR) وأيضًا جرعات علاجية، (كغ/ملغ 50 ديكولوفيناك : STD) قياسية تم تقييم تثبيط الوذمة عبر زيادة النسبة (ZnO NP من) كغ/ملغ 300 D02 PR : 150 كغ/ملغ D01 PR) ووقائية أظهرت الإدارة العلاجية. و ف ح ص نسيجي لأنسجة القدم FTIR مكملًا بتحليل، (%INH) والتثبيط (%AUG) المئوية مقارنة (%INH) و (%AUG) تقليلًا كبيرًا في الوذمة (كغ/ملغ 300 D02 CR) استجابة ذات قيمة، حيث أظهرت أظهر العلاج الوقائي فعالية ملحوظة ولكن متأخرة في الساعة الخامسة، مع تحقيق الجرعة الأعلى. STD بمجموعة أكدت التحليلات النسيجية هذه النتائج، موضحةً تقليل وذمة القدم ووتمثل. أيضًا نتائج جيدة (كغ/ملغ 300 D02 PR) Zeno NP تشكيل FTIR أكدت تحليلات (D02 CR). الكريات البيضاء، خاصة عند الجرعة العلاجية الأعلى وحددت مجموعات وظيفية مميزة مرتبطة بالمواد النباتية النشطة حيويًا من المستخلص، والتي من المحتمل أن تكون تسلط هذه النتائج الضوء على الخصائص المضادة للالتهابات. مسدود لمة عن النشاط المضاد للالتهابات للجسيمات النانوية حيث تظهر الجرعات العلاجية فعالية، *Myrtus communis L.* التي تم تخليقها من ZnO NPs الواعدة لجسيمات هناك حاجة إلى. يشير التأثير الوقائي، على الرغم من كونه أبطأ، إلى إمكانية تطبيقات وقائية. مماثلة للأدوية التقليدية مزيد من التحقيقات الصيدلانية لتوضيح الآليات الأساسية

الكلمات المفتاحية: التهاب، الجسيمات النانوية، أكسيد الزنك، التخليق الحيوي، FTIR, *Myrtus communis.L*

Table of contents

Figures List

Tables List

Abbreviations List

Introduction 1-2p

Bibliographic Part

Chapter I : Inflammation and Treatment.

1. Over-view	3p
2. Historical and Scientific Evolution of inflammation	3-4p
3. Epidemiological studies on Inflammation.....	4p
4. Definition	5p
5. Inflammatory Mechanism	6p
5.1. Local Level.....	6p
5.1.1. Vascular Phase.....	6p
5.1.1.1. Active Congestion In Response To Tissue Injury.....	6p
5.1.1.2. Inflammatory Edema	6p
5.1.1.3. Leukocyte Diapedesis.....	7p
5.1.2. Cellular Phase	7p
5.1.2.1. Cell Migration and Differentiation	7-8p
5.1.2.2. Formation of The Inflammatory Granuloma	8p
5.1.2.3. Phagocytosis	9p
5.1.3. Repair and Healing.....	9-10p
6. Types Of Inflammation	13p
6.1. Acute Inflammation	13p
6.2. Chronic Inflammation	14p
6.3. Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome (SIRS)	14p
7. The Markers of the inflammatory Response	14p
7.1. Non-Specific Biological Markers	14p
7.1. Specific Biological Markers	15p
8. Anti inflammatory treatment	16p
8.1. Synthetic Anti-inflammatory Agents	16p
8.1.1. Non-steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs).....	16p
8.1.2. Steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (Glucocorticoids).....	18p
8.1.3. Side effects of synthetic anti-inflammatory drugs.....	18-19p
8.2. Natural anti-inflammatory treatment.....	19p
8.2.1. Turmeric (<i>Curcuma longa L.</i>)	20p
8.2.2. Ginger (<i>Zingiber officinale Roscoe</i>)......	20-21p
8.2.3. Rosella (<i>Hibiscus sabdariffa L.</i>).....	22p

8.2.4. Black seeds (<i>Nigella sativa L.</i>)	23p
---	-----

Chapter II: Nanoparticles.

1. Background	25p
1.1. Nano Etymology.....	25p
2. Definitions	25p
2.1. Nanotechnology	25p
2.2. Nanoparticles	25p
3. Classification of Nanoparticles.....	26p
3.1. Organic Nanoparticles	27p
3.2. Inorganic Nanoparticles.....	27p
3.2.1. Metal Based Nanoparticles	28p
3.2.2. Metal Oxides Based Nanoparticles	29p
3.3. Carbon Based Nanoparticles.....	29p
4. Synthesis methods of Nanoparticles	30p
4.1. Top down approach.....	31p
4.1.1. Mechanical milling.....	31p
4.1.2. Laser ablation.....	31p
4.1.3. Electron explosion.....	31p
4.2. Bottom-up approach.....	31p
4.2.1. Chemical synthesis	31p
4.2.1.1. Sol-gel process.....	31p
4.2.1.2. Co-precipitation.....	32p
4.2.2. Green/biological synthesis	32p
4.2.2.1. Biological synthesis using microorganisms	33p
4.2.2.2. Biological synthesis using plant extracts	34p
5. Applications of Nanoparticles	34p
5.1. Environmental applications.....	34p
5.1.1. Bioremediation.....	34p
5.1.2. Sensors in environment.....	34p
5.2. Applications in medicine	35p
5.2.1. Cancer diagnosis and therapy	35p
5.2.2. Drug delivery	35p
5.2.3. Imaging.....	35p

Experimental Part Materials and Methods

I. Plant Material.....	36p
I.1. Preparation of the leaf extract	37p
I.2. Green synthesis of Zinc oxide nanoparticles.....	37p
I.3. Structural Properties Characterization by Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) Spectroscopy of Green Synthesized Nanoparticles via <i>Myrtus communis L.</i>	38p
I.3.1. Principle	38p

I.3.2. General Procedure for Spectroscopy (FTIR).....	39-40p
II. Evaluation of In <i>Vivo</i> Anti-Inflammatory Activity.....	40p
II.1. Animal Material	40p
II.2. Acute Toxicity Test.....	40p
II.2.1. Principle	40p
II.2.2. Protocol.....	40p
II.2.3. Distribution of mice	41p
II.3. In vivo Anti-inflammatory Activity.....	41p
II.3.1. Curative Testing (Therapeutic Treatment).....	41p
II.3.2. Preventive Testing (Prophylactic Treatment).....	42p
II.4. Studied Parameters.....	44p
II.4.1. Paw Edema Measurement	44p
II.4.1.1. Percentage Increase in Paw volume (%AUG).....	44p
II.4.1.2. Percentage Inhibition of Paw volume (%INH).....	44p
II.4.2. Histological Analysis	45p
II.5. Statistical Analysis	48p

Results and Discussion

FTIR Results

1. Faurier Transformation Infrared (FTIR) Spectroscopy Analysis	49p
1.1. Analysis of <i>Myrtus communis L.</i> Leaf Extract.....	49p
1.2. Analysis of Biosynthesized ZnO Nanoparticles Using <i>Myrtus communis L.</i> Extract.....	51p
Discussion	54-56p

Acute Toxicity Test Results

II. Evaluation of In <i>Vivo</i> Anti-Inflammatory Activity.....	57p
II.1. Acute Toxicity Test	57p
Discussion	58p

Curative Assessement Results

II. Evaluation of In <i>Vivo</i> Anti-Inflammatory Activity.....	59p
II.1. Curative Assessement	59p
II.1.1. Percentage Increase in Paw Edema Edema in the curative group treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%AUG)	59p
II.1.2. Percentage Inhibition of Inflammatory Edema in the curative group treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%INH).....	60p
II.1.3. Histological Study of Paw Tissue.....	61p
II.1.3.1. Histology of Cutaneous tissue in negative control group	61p
II.1.3.2. Histology of Cutaneous tissue in Positive Control Group	62p
II.1.3.3. Histology of cutaneous tissue in the standard treatment group (diclofenac)	63p
II.1.3.4. Histology of cutaneous tissue in extract-treated groups Curative	

treatment with ZnO nanoparticle extract)	64-66p
Discussion	67-69p

Preventive Assasement Results

II.2. Prophylactic assessment.....	70p
II.2.1. Percentage Increase in Paw Edema Edema in the preventive group treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%AUG).....	70p
II.2.2. Percentage Inhibition in Paw Edema in the preventive (prophylactic) group treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%INH).....	71p
II.2.3. Histological study of paw tissue.....	72p
II.2.3.1. Histology of Cutaneous tissue in negative control group	72p
II.2.3.2. Histology of Cutaneous tissue in Positive Control Group	73p
II.2.3.3. Histology of cutaneous tissue in the standard treatment group (diclofenac).....	73-74p
II.2.3.4. Histology of cutaneous tissue in extract-pre-treated groups	74-75p
Discussion	76-77p

Conclusion and Perspectives	78-79p
--	--------

References

Annexes

Figures List

Number	Title	Page
01	Inflammatory response. (Karki, 2018)	5
02	Mechanism of action of NSAIDs. (Anne-Marie Schjerning et al., 2020)	18
03	Curcuma longa plant. (Ridho& Indriani , 2025)	20
04	Turmeric rhizomes. (Ridho& Indriani , 2025)	20
05	Powdered Turmeric (Ridho& Indriani , 2025)	20
06	<i>Zingiber officinale Roscoe</i> plant. (Sulimanet al. 2024)	21
07	Fresh Ginger rhizome. (Bitari et al., 2023)	21
08	Dried Ginger rhizome Bitari et al., 2023)	21
09	Powdered Ginger. (Dharmapala & Amarakoon, 2024)	21
10	Rosella, <i>Hibiscus sabdariffa L</i> plant (Unita & Singarimbun, 2018) and its flowers. (Nurnasari & Khuluq, 2018).	23
11	<i>Nigella sativa</i> flower. (Verma et al., 2024)	24
12	<i>Nigella sativa</i> seeds.(Verma et al., 2024)	24
13	Properties of nanoparticles and their advantages. (Khadijah A. Altammar, 2023)	26
14	Classification and subtypes of Organic NPs. (Eker et al., 2024)	27
15	Classification and subtypes of iNPs. (Heuer-Jungemann et al., 2019)	28
16	Classification and subtypes of carbon-based NPs. (Eker et al., 2024)	30
17	Schematic representation of Top- down approach & Bottom Up approach. (Savita Kumari & Leena Sarkar, 2022)	30
18	Schematic of different stages of sol-gel process. (Bokov, 2021)	32
19	Biosynthesis, characterization, and application of metal nanoparticles. (Ovais et al., 2018)	33
20	Geographic localisation of Souk Ahras.	36
21	<i>Myrtus communis L.</i> plant.	36
22	Preparation of <i>Myrtus communis L.</i> aqueous leaf extract	37
23	Green synthesis of ZnO NPs from <i>Myrtus communis L.</i> leaf extract	38
24	Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy.	39
25	Distribution of experimental groups.	43
26	Intragastric gavage administration.	43

27	Inflammation induction with carrageenan injection.	43
28	Measurement of the paw volume before(A) the inducing inflammation and after(B).	44
29	Infrared spectrum of <i>Myrtus communis L.</i> aqueous leaf extract. of the sample.	50
30	Infrared spectrum of ZnO nanoparticles.	53
31	Percentage increase in paw edema (%AUG) over the six-hour period following inflammation induction. C-INF: Inflammation control group; groups treated with Zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs)	60
32	Percentage inhibition of paw edema (%INH) during the six-hour period following inflammation induction. Groups treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs)	61
33	Representative histological sections of mouse paw skin from untreated control group (H&E staining;10×, 40×).	62
34	Histological sections of paw skin tissue from positive control mice (H&E staining; 10×, 40×)	63
35	Histological sections of mouse paw skin tissue from the standard control group (H&E staining; 10×&40×).	64
36	Histological sections of mouse paw of cutaneous tissue from groups treated with ZnO nanoparticles extracts at doses of 150 mg/kg bw (H&E staining; 10× and 40×)	65
37	Histological sections of mouse paw of cutaneous tissue from groups treated with ZnO nanoparticles extracts at doses of 300 mg/kg bw (H&E staining; ×10;40×)	66

38	Percentage increase in paw edema (%AUG) over the six-hour period following inflammation induction. C-INF: Inflammation control group; groups pre-treated with Zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs)	70
39	Percentage inhibition of paw edema (%INH) during the six-hour period following inflammation induction. Groups pre-treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs)	71
40	Representative histological sections of mouse paw skin from untreated control group (H&E staining 10×; 40×).	72
41	Histological sections of paw skin tissue from positive control mice (H&E staining; 10×, 40×) .	73
42	Histological sections of mouse paw skin tissue from the standard control group (H&E staining; 10×; 40×).	74
43	Histological sections of mouse paw of cutaneous tissue from groups pre-treated with ZnO nanoparticles extracts at doses of 150mg/kg bw (H&E staining; 10×; 40×).	75
44	Histological sections of mouse paw of cutaneous tissue from groups pre-treated with ZnO nanoparticles extracts at doses of 300mg/kg bw (H&E staining; 10×; 40×)	75

Tables List

Number	Title	Page
01	Cells involved in inflammation (Lakhani et al., 2009).	11-13
02	Indirect non-specific inflammatory markers	14
03	Specific inflammatory markers.	16
04	Histological study steps	45-47
05	Identification of Functional Groups and Their Chemical Significance in FTIR Spectroscopy Analysis.	50
06	Infrared spectrum (FT-IR) bands of ZnO nanoparticles.	53
07	The results of toxicity signs observed during the 14 days after the administration of ZnO nanoparticles	57

Abbreviations List

- °C : Degrees Celsius
- **AgNPs** : Silver Nanoparticles
- **AP-1** : Activator Protein 1
- **AuNPs** : Gold Nanoparticles
- **AUG** : Percentage Increase
- **BCE** : Before Common Era
- **CE** : Common Era
- **cm⁻¹** : Centimeter to the power of negative one
- **C-inf** : Inflammation Control Group
- **COX** : Cyclooxygenase
- **CRD** : Control Group Dose
- **CRP** : C-Reactive Protein
- **DAMPs** : Damage-Associated Molecular Patterns
- **DED** : Dermal Edema
- **EGF** : Epidermal Growth Factor
- **EPI** : Epidermis
- **ESR** : Erythrocyte Sedimentation Rate
- **FGF** : Fibroblast Growth Factor
- **FTIR** : Fourier Transform Infrared
- **g** : Grams
- **GCs** : Glucocorticoids
- **GI** : Gastrointestinal
- **GR** : Glucocorticoid Receptor
- **HF** : Hair Follicle
- **HED** : Hypodermal Edema
- **HPLC** : High-Performance Liquid Chromatography
- **HYPO** : Hypodermis

- **i.g.g** : Intra gastric Gavage
- **Ii** : Inflammatory Infiltrate
- **IUPAC** : International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry
- **LEUK** : Leukocyte
- **LSPR** : Localized Surface Plasmon Resonance
- **mL** : Milliliters
- **MRI** : Magnetic Resonance Imaging
- **NaCl** : Sodium Chloride
- **NCD** : Non-Communicable Diseases
- **NF- κ B** : Nuclear Factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells
- **nm** : Nanometer
- **NMs** : Nanomaterials
- **NMRI** : Naval Medical Research Institute
- **NPs** : Nanoparticles
- **OECD** : Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
- **P** : Probability (statistical significance)
- **PAMPs** : Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns
- **PDGF** : Platelet-Derived Growth Factor
- **PET** : Positron Emission Tomography
- **PG** : Prostaglandin
- **PGE2** : Prostaglandin E2
- **RA** : Rheumatoid Arthritis
- **SD** : Standard Deviation
- **SEM** : Standard Error of the Mean
- **SG** : Sebaceous Gland
- **SIRS** : Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome
- **SLE** : Systemic Lupus Erythematosus
- **STD** : Standard (treatment)
- **TGF** : Transforming Growth Factor
- **TQ** : Thymoquinone

- **UHC** : Universal Health Coverage
- **UN** : United Nations
- **US** : Ultrasound
- **WHO** : World Health Organization
- **Zn⁰** : Solid Zinc atom
- **Zn²⁺** : Zinc ion
- **ZnO** : Zinc Oxide
- **λ** : Lambda

Introduction

Introduction

Inflammation is a key defense and healing process in the body, contributing significantly to the recovery process. It can be triggered by a variety of factors, including pathogens, disruption of cells, and exposure to harmful substances. Upon detecting damage or invasive pathogens, the immune system coordinates a complex array of responses. **(Chopra et al., 2024)**

While the inflammatory response is a crucial defense mechanism against pathogens, excessive or prolonged activation can lead to harmful effects. This situation necessitates targeted therapeutic interventions to modulate the inflammatory response. **(Chen et al., 2018)**

Anti-inflammatory therapies currently include steroidal and non-steroidal drugs, specifically synthetic steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (SAIDs) and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs). While these treatments are widely used for their effectiveness in managing pain, they can also cause undesirable long-term effects on the physiology of various organs. **(Teroare, 2018)**

In light of these concerns, researchers are increasingly exploring phytochemicals as alternative sources of anti-inflammatory agents. Since antiquity, people have relied on plants as natural remedies for a wide range of illnesses, making herbal medicine one of the most traditional practices recognized across all civilizations. **(Abidullah et al., 2022)**

This growing interest in natural remedies coincides with advancements in nanotechnology, which is emerging as a versatile field of research with numerous applications. Various toxic physicochemical techniques, including gas-phase methods, spray pyrolysis, electrochemical methods, chemical vapor deposition, and laser ablation techniques, have been developed to synthesize nanoparticles, further enhancing the potential for innovative therapeutic solutions. **(Hasan et al., 2021)**

However, these techniques require meticulous process control and involve the use of toxic reagents, expensive instruments, hazardous organic solvents, and non-biodegradable stabilizing agents. As a result, these methods are not only harmful to the environment but also toxic to living organisms. **(Soliman et al., 2023).**

Therefore, Researchers are increasingly favoring the biosynthesis of nanoparticles due to its eco-friendly, cost-effective, and safer nature compared to traditional physical and chemical fabrication methods. **(Rajeswari et al., 2023)**

One of the types of nanoparticle green synthesis is Plant-mediated synthesis which offers a sustainable alternative to conventional techniques, which often rely on toxic chemicals and energy-intensive processes. This approach not only minimizes environmental impact but also enhances the safety profile of nanoparticle production, making it an attractive option for advancing nanotechnology. **(Edo et al., 2025)**

Under this context, our study aimed to evaluate the anti-inflammatory effect of Zinc oxide nanoparticles biosynthesized from *Myrtus communis* leaf extract, using in vivo approach. Before beginning our experimental research, a bibliographical part was developed in three chapters: general information on inflammation, anti-inflammatory treatments (both conventional and alternative), and a final chapter dedicated to nanoparticles and their biomedical applications. The second part of the study focused on experimental work, which included FTIR analysis for characterization, followed by in vivo evaluation using the paw edema measurement protocol to assess anti-inflammatory activity, Statistical analyses and a histological study largely supported the results of this protocol. This second part was reinforced by a discussion and finalized with a general conclusion.

Bibliographic Part

**Chapter I:
Inflammation
&
Treatment**

1. Overview

Inflammation is a complex and essential defense mechanism for the body, designed to eradicate microbes, pathogens, or any irritants, thus protecting living tissues from infections and injuries (Eds. of *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 2025; Khan, 2024). This process plays a crucial role in the immune response, facilitating the repair of damaged tissues and allowing white blood cells to migrate to injured areas (Barrett *et al.*, 2019; Medzhitov & Janeway, 2000). When a tissue is injured or infected, a series of biological reactions are triggered, leading to significant changes in local blood flow, including increased vascular permeability, which facilitates the migration of fluids, plasma proteins, and leukocytes from the circulatory system to the site of injury (Khan, 2024).

If the inflammatory response is short-lived, typically lasting a few days, it is referred to as acute inflammation (Eds. of *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 2025). This form of inflammation is beneficial and represents an immediate reaction to injury or infection. However, when the inflammatory response persists, it becomes chronic inflammation, which can lead to serious health issues such as progressive physiological degradation and organ dysfunction (Furman *et al.*, 2019; Sherwood & Toliver-Kinsky, 2004). Chronic inflammation may arise from persistent infections, autoimmune disorders, or prolonged exposure to irritants and has been linked to various diseases, including cardiovascular conditions. (Garg & Haller, 2018; Friedman, 2019).

The inflammatory process is characterized by five cardinal signs: (i) rubor (redness), (ii) tumor (swelling), (iii) calor (heat), (iv) dolor (pain), and (v) functio laesa (loss of function) (Eds. of *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 2025). These signs reflect underlying pathophysiological mechanisms and are crucial for diagnosing inflammatory conditions (Chandrasoma & Taylor, 1998). Although inflammation is a necessary protective response, inadequate regulation can lead to tissue damage and chronic diseases.

Understanding the intricacies of inflammation, including the danger model, helps clarify how the body differentiates between harmful and harmless stimuli (Matzinger, 2002).

2. The Historical and Scientific Evolution of Inflammation:

Inflammation, derived from the Latin inflamer, has its roots in antiquity, where

Hippocrates linked imbalances in bodily fluids to this condition. Celsus formalized the four classic signs of inflammation, while Galen advanced the humoral theory, introducing treatments like bloodletting and the concept of "laudable pus." In the 18th century, Albrecht Von Haller challenged this theory by demonstrating that putrid fluids could induce inflammation, an idea further reinforced by François Magendie. The 19th century saw the emergence of Rudolf Virchow's cellular theory, which emphasized cellular changes as the origin of diseases, while Claude Bernard described inflammation as a defense mechanism for maintaining homeostasis. Discoveries in immunology in the 20th century, particularly by Elie Metchnikoff on phagocytosis, revealed inflammation's protective role. Key inflammatory mediators like histamine and prostaglandins were identified, and concepts such as Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns (PAMPs) and the Danger Theory deepened our understanding of immune activation and inflammation in various diseases (Scott *et al.*, 2004; Chen *et al.*, 2018; Martins *et al.*, 2023; Medzhitov, 2010; Gordon, 2016).

3. Epidemiological Studies of Inflammation:

Chronic inflammation is increasingly recognized as a key driver of major global diseases. Although comprehensive epidemiological studies on mortality and pathologies specifically linked to inflammatory conditions remain limited, recent research continues to emphasize the importance of this area (WHO, 2021). Sustained inflammation contributes to highly prevalent chronic diseases, including cancer through tumor-promoting pathways (Mantovani *et al.*, 2020), arthritis via joint tissue destruction, obesity through metabolic dysfunction (Hotamisligil, 2017), and even behavioral disorders via neuroinflammation mechanisms (Miller & Raison, 2016). Furthermore, research indicates that anti-inflammatory diets may reduce neuroinflammation, offering a potential nutritional strategy for managing Alzheimer's disease (Heneka *et al.*, 2025; Scheltens *et al.*, 2021).

Beyond the previously mentioned conditions, diabetes, osteoarthritis, and myocardial infarction are also recognized as inflammation-related disorders (Donath, 2014; Berenbaum, 2013; Libby, 2021). The World Health Organization (WHO) classifies these

diseases as non-communicable diseases (NCDs), which have accounted for a significant proportion of global deaths (WHO, 2011). Systemic inflammation is highly prevalent among patients with atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, particularly those with chronic kidney disease (Giancarlo Pesce et al., 2025), highlighting the need for strategies targeting inflammation reduction for secondary prevention.

4. Definition:

Inflammation represents the body's sophisticated defense mechanism against infection and tissue damage, with leukocytes serving as key cellular players in combating pathogens. This biological response is crucial for wound healing and tissue repair. The classic manifestations of inflammation—pain (dolor), heat (calor), redness (rubor), swelling (tumor), and impaired function (functio laesa)—reflect the body's concerted effort to address injury or infection (Britannica, 2025).

At the cellular level, neutrophils and macrophages orchestrate the inflammatory response by engulfing and destroying harmful organisms or clearing damaged tissue (Halpern, 2023). While inflammation is typically protective, it can become harmful when prolonged or dysregulated. For instance, excessive or persistent inflammation contributes to conditions like atherosclerosis and may progress to chronic inflammation, characterized by granuloma formation, tissue destruction, and eventual organ dysfunction (Carr, 2023).

Various inflammatory mediators interact with innate immune pathways to coordinate these responses to harmful stimuli.

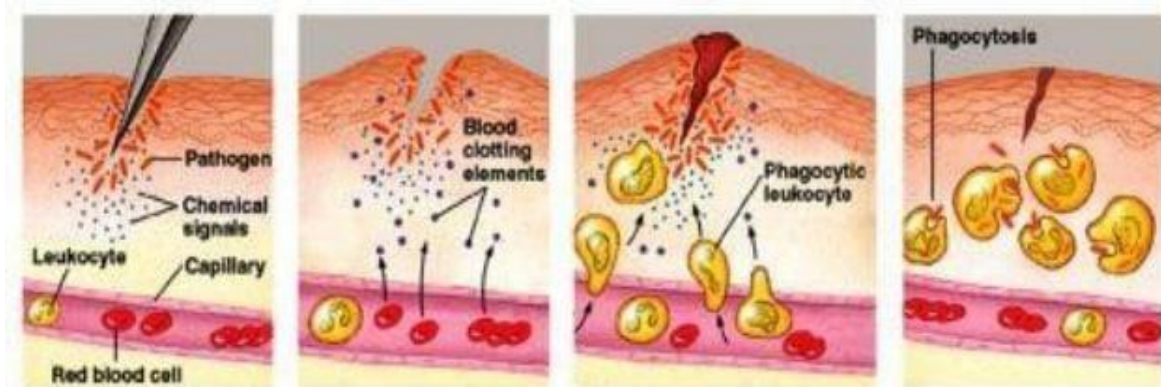


Figure 01: Inflammatory response. (Karki, 2018)

5. Inflammatory mechanism:

The inflammatory mechanism manifests locally through several successive stages: the vascular or vascular-exudative phase, the cellular phase, and the repair and healing phase. Concurrently, a systemic reaction occurs. (Kumar et al., 2020; Medzhitov, 2008)

5.1. Local Level:

The local inflammatory response unfolds through three sequential phases:

5.1.1. Vascular Phase:

This phase involves three phenomena: active congestion, inflammatory edema or exudate, and leukocyte diapedesis. (Abbas et al., 2021; Murphy et al., 2022).

5.1.1.1. Active Congestion in Response to Tissue Injury:

Following tissue injury, active congestion appears very rapidly, corresponding to a change in vascular caliber after a brief vasoconstriction. It consists of arteriolar and then capillary vasodilation in the affected area (Serhan & Chiang, 2015). Under the influence of chemical mediators such as histamine and serotonin, as well as neural mechanisms involving vasomotor nerves, there is a local increase in blood supply and a slowing of blood flow. The small vessels become dilated and filled with red blood cells, lined by a swollen endothelium (Sweeney et al., 2022).

Congestion is triggered by a neural mechanism mediated by vasomotor nerves and the action of chemical mediators. (Kumar et al., 2020; Serhan et al., 2010; Medzhitov, 2008)

5.1.1.2. Inflammatory edema:

Inflammatory edema corresponds to the passage of a fluid called exudate—derived from plasma and composed of water and plasma proteins—into the interstitial connective tissue or serous cavities. Its clinical manifestation is edema, which, by compressing nerve endings, is responsible for pain, also induced by certain chemical mediators such as prostaglandins. Microscopically, the connective tissue appears pale and distended. Inflammatory edema results from increased hydrostatic pressure due to vasodilation and, most importantly, from increased permeability of the walls of small vessels under the

influence of chemical mediators, including histamine. (**Kumar et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2018; Murphy et al., 2022**)

The pathogenesis of inflammatory edema involves two key mechanisms:

1. Elevated hydrostatic pressure resulting from vasodilation
2. Enhanced vascular permeability mediated by chemical factors, particularly histamine (**Kumar et al., 2020 ; Chen et al., 2018 ; Murphy et al., 2022**)

5.1.1.3. Leukocyte Diapedesis:

Leukocyte diapedesis describes the active migration of white blood cells from blood vessels into injured tissues. This process begins with polymorphonuclear cells (6-24 hours postinjury), followed by monocytes and lymphocytes (24-48 hours). The cells actively cross vascular walls to reach the site of damage (**Abbas et al., 2021; Nourshargh and Alon, 2014; Ley et al., 2007**).

5.1.2. Cellular Phase:

The cellular phase is characterized by the formation of an inflammatory granuloma, composed of cells derived from both the blood and connective tissue. (**Kumar et al., 2020; Robbins & Cotran, 2020**).

5.1.2.1. Cell Migration and Differentiation

The blood-derived cells include polymorphonuclear cells, monocytes, and lymphocytes. Following diapedesis, these cells exit the perivascular area and migrate toward the site of injury through chemotaxis. This movement is directed by chemotactic agents produced by damaged tissues, bacteria, and resident leukocytes in the inflammatory focus. Key chemotactic factors such as leukotriene B₄, interleukin-8, and complement component C5a bind to specific membrane receptors on leukocytes, triggering their activation and subsequent mobilization. (**Abbas et al., 2021; Nourshargh and Alon, 2014; Ley et al., 2007**)

The connective tissue contributes fibroblasts, endothelial cells, mast cells, and resident macrophages. At the local level, these cells undergo proliferation (particularly fibroblasts, lymphocytes, and endothelial cells, with macrophages proliferating to a lesser extent) and various transformations to form the inflammatory granuloma. The following cellular

phenomena are observed .(Kumar *et al.*, 2020; Wynn and Vannella, 2016)

a. Neutrophil Accumulation: Neutrophils, which have a relatively short lifespan of 3-4 days, accumulate at the site and release their enzymatic contents into the inflammatory focus. Their continuous supply during early inflammation is maintained through increased hematopoietic production in the bone marrow (Nathan, 2006; Kolaczkowska and Kubes, 2013).

b. Monocyte Transformation: Circulating monocytes differentiate into activated macrophages that acquire multiple functional capabilities including phagocytosis, secretion of various inflammatory mediators, and cooperation with lymphocytes for immune response development through antigen presentation. These cells exhibit significantly longer survival compared to polymorphonuclear cells (Murray & Wynn, 2011; Wynn and Vannella, 2016).

c. B Lymphocyte Differentiation: B lymphocytes undergo transformation into plasma cells, which are specialized for immunoglobulin production and secretion (Murphy *et al.*, 2022; Crotty, 2019).

d. T Lymphocyte Activation: T lymphocytes become activated, gaining the ability to secrete numerous mediators, develop cytotoxic properties, and coordinate with B lymphocytes for immune response regulation (Abbas *et al.*, 2021; Zhu *et al.*, 2010).

e. Fibroblast Modification: Resident fibroblasts undergo phenotypic changes into myofibroblasts, acquiring contractile properties and enhancing their capacity for extracellular matrix component synthesis (Hinz *et al.*, 2012; Gabbiani, 2003).

5.1.2.2. Formation of the Inflammatory Granuloma:

The cellular composition of the inflammatory granuloma evolves dynamically over time. During the acute phase of inflammation (Kumar *et al.*, 2020), polymorphonuclear cells predominate. However, within days to weeks, the granuloma undergoes a cellular shift, with mononuclear inflammatory cells (Ramakrishnan *et al.*, 2013), including macrophages, lymphocytes, and plasma cells (Eming *et al.*, 2014). becoming more numerous than polymorphonuclear cells. Progressive changes occur under the influence of growth factors, leading to the incorporation of fibroblasts and endothelial cells that drive

neovascularization, ultimately forming granulation tissue. (Kumar et al., 2020; Ramakrishnan et al., 2013).

The specific cellular makeup of the granulation tissue further varies according to the underlying cause of inflammation, with certain cell types potentially dominating the inflammatory infiltrate depending on the etiology. (Kumar et al., 2020; Eming et al., 2014).

5.1.2.3. Phagocytosis:

The phagocytosis of a microorganism occurs in three stages:

A. Adhesion: This is the contact between the phagocytic cell and the microorganism. It is facilitated by the opsonization of the microorganism, which involves the binding of antibodies to the microorganism. This opsonization subsequently allows the action of complement, leading to better recognition and elimination of the microorganism by the phagocytic cell. (Flannagan et al., 2012; Underhill & Goodridge, 2012).

B. Endocytosis: This is the engulfment of the microorganism by the phagocytic cell, using a "zipper" mechanism to form the phagosome (Masters et al., 2013).

C. Phagosome: This corresponds to the complete engulfment of the microorganism, forming a vacuole. This vacuole fuses with lysosomes in the cytoplasm, which release their lytic enzymes to digest the invading microorganism (Levin et al., 2016).

The inflammatory reaction is a component of non-specific immunity. It is a response manifested by the four signs of inflammation: redness, heat, pain, and swelling. Heat and redness are due to capillary vasodilation and the slowing of blood circulation. Pain is caused by the compression of nerve fibers by edema, which itself results from plasma exudation due to blood flow congestion. (Kumar et al., 2020; Medzhitov, 2008).

5.1.3. Repair and Healing:

Tissue repair occurs following complete debridement of damaged tissue and typically results in scar formation. However, certain tissues, such as neurons and myocardial muscle cells, lack regenerative capacity. Similarly, extensive or prolonged tissue destruction (e.g., in severe burns) may also preclude regeneration, leading instead to fibrous scar formation (Gurtner et al., 2008; Eming et al., 2014).

The repair process is orchestrated by numerous growth factors and involves complex interactions between cells and the extracellular matrix to regulate cellular proliferation and biosynthetic activity. Adhesion molecules play a critical role in transmitting activation signals to cells, while specific growth factors can modulate the expression of these adhesion molecules (**Darby & Hewitson, 2016; Hinz, 2016**).

a. Scar Formation:

The scar represents the permanent fibrous remnant of the inflammatory process following the granulation tissue phase. Composed primarily of dense collagenous connective tissue, it replaces areas of irreversible tissue destruction. This scar tissue undergoes progressive structural remodeling over several months as collagen fibers reorganize (**Ogawa, 2019**).

b. Epithelial Regeneration:

Epithelial regeneration occurs alongside connective tissue repair, with intact epithelial cells proliferating and migrating to repopulate damaged areas. The process varies between covering tissues and parenchymal organs (**Blanpain & Fuchs, 2014**).

In covering tissues (e.g., skin, mucous membranes), regeneration progresses from the wound margins toward the center after granulation tissue forms. This may involve metaplasia (e.g., bronchial epithelium becoming squamous) or functional loss (e.g., cilia disappearance) (**Blanpain & Fuchs, 2009**).

In parenchymal tissues (e.g., liver, kidneys), regeneration quality depends on the extent of damage (particularly to the connective framework) and the mitotic capacity of epithelial cells (**Fausto et al., 2012**).

Example of Hepatitis: In common acute viral hepatitis, the supporting connective framework of hepatocytes remains intact, and hepatocyte regeneration from non-necrotic hepatocytes, guided by this connective framework, results in the formation of new, normal hepatocyte cords without scarring. In severe acute viral hepatitis, the initial destruction of hepatocytes and connective tissue is so extensive that hepatocyte regeneration leads to thickened and disorganized hepatic cords, associated with areas of scarring. (**Kumar et al., 2020; Fausto et al., 2012**)

Table 01: Cells involved in inflammation (Lakhani et al., 2009).

Cell category	Cell type	Origin	Percent while cells	Major Function
Circulating Cells Granulocytes (polymorpho nuclear leukocytes)	Neutrophils	Bone marrow	75	Acute inflammatory cell involved in bacterial killing and phagocytosis. Granule contents for increasing vascular permeability, chemotaxis, killing organisms, and digesting extracellular matrix.
	Eosinophils	Bone marrow	1	Acute inflammatory cell particularly common in allergic and parasitic conditions. Granules include major basic protein.
	Basophilis	Bone marrow	<1	Circulating cells that give rise to mast cells . Granules include histamine.

Lymphocytes	T cells	Lymphoid organs and thymus	20	Various subtypes involved in antigen recognition and presentation, cell killing, and regulation of immune responses (e.g., helper, suppressor, and natural killer cells).
	B cells	Lymphoid organs and bone marrow	20	On antigen stimulation, proliferate and give rise to specific plasma cells , which synthesize specific immunoglobulins.
Macrophage system	Monocytes	Bone marrow	4	Migrate into tissues to become macrophages capable of phagocytosis, cytokine production, and antigen processing and presentation.
<p>Non-circulating cells</p> <p>Kupffer cells (liver sinusoids)</p> <p>Macrophages (bone marrow, spleen and lymph nodes)</p>				Fixed phagocytic cells lining sinusoids and filtering large molecules/particles from blood or lymph

Megakaryocytes in bone marrow				Produce platelets which contain serotonin, platelet-derived growth factor, etc. Also important in haemostasis
Hepatocytes				Produce proteins important in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● clotting and fibrinolytic system ● complement system ● kinin system ● acute-phase proteins

6. Types of Inflammation :

Inflammation can divide into two types, as follows:

6.1. Acute Inflammation:

Acute inflammation represents the body's rapid and immediate defensive response to harmful stimuli, typically persisting from several days to a few weeks. This process is marked by sudden onset and prominent vascular changes, progressing through distinct phases from initial vascular alterations to eventual tissue repair. The inflammatory response initiates locally, recruiting immune cells to the site of injury to mediate phagocytosis and pathogen containment, while simultaneously triggering systemic reactions to circulating microbial toxins (**Chernecky and Berger, 2013**).

In optimal conditions, acute inflammation culminates in complete resolution - characterized by total elimination of the inciting agent and restoration of normal tissue architecture. However, persistent infections (e.g., tuberculosis) or localized pathogen survival (e.g., in osteomyelitis or chronic skin infections) may disrupt this resolution, leading to transition into chronic inflammation (**Calhelha et al., 2023**).

6.2. Chronic Inflammation:

Chronic inflammation is a prolonged inflammatory response that persists for months to years without resolution. Unlike self-limiting acute inflammation, this persistent state demonstrates no capacity for spontaneous healing and may progressively worsen over time. Two distinct pathogenic pathways underlie chronic inflammation: progression from unresolved acute inflammation or de novo development as a primary chronic process (Wang et al., 2021).

6.3. Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome (SIRS):

SIRS is a generalized inflammatory state triggered by severe insults like trauma, infection, or ischemia. It mobilizes acute-phase reactants to combat threats but can spiral into a harmful cytokine storm, causing multi-organ dysfunction or death due to uncontrolled systemic inflammation (Chakraborty RK, Burns B., 2023)

7. The markers of the inflammatory response:

Inflammatory markers are essential blood tests used to detect and monitor inflammation in the body, which can arise from various conditions, including infections and autoimmune diseases. These markers can be either specific including C-reactive protein (CRP), plasma viscosity (PV), and erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) or non-specific blood-based biological markers (ARC West, 2022).

7.1. Non-Specific Biological Markers:

The initial diagnostic evaluation involves the identification of non-specific blood-based biological markers, which can indirectly suggest the presence of an inflammatory reaction (Table02). These markers are detected through a complete blood count (CBC) and may indicate inflammatory anemia, leukocytosis (elevated white blood cell count), or thrombocytosis (elevated platelet count) (Crouzilles,Siebert, 2013).

Table 02: Indirect non-specific inflammatory markers.

Affected Blood Cell	Normal Values	Changes in Inflammation
Red Blood Cells (Erythrocytes)	5 to 6 million/mm ³	Decrease (inflammatory anemia)

White Blood Cells (Leukocytes)	6,000 to 7,000/mm ³	Increase (leukocytosis)
Platelets (Thrombocytes)	150,000 400,000/mm ³	Increase (thrombocytosis)

7.2. Specific biological markers:

Specific biological markers, when elevated, indicate the presence of an inflammatory reaction, although they do not specify its origin. These markers include erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR), C-reactive protein (CRP), and orosomucoid (**Crouzilles, Siebert, 2013**).

7.2.1. Erythrocyte Sedimentation Rate (ESR):

The erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) measures the rate at which red blood cells settle at the bottom of a vertical tube (Westergren tube) when left at rest. It reflects the degree of systemic inflammation, as it varies with blood viscosity, which is partly influenced by antibody levels (**Braun & Anderson, 2023**).

7.2.2. C-Reactive Protein (CRP):

C-reactive protein (CRP) is a protein synthesized by the liver, with a normal blood level of < 6 mg/L. It is the most reliable marker of inflammation.

- CRP levels rise significantly (10 to 1000 times the normal value) within hours during severe inflammatory processes (e.g., infections, autoimmune diseases, rheumatic inflammation) (**Schuetz et al., 2019**)

- Levels decrease rapidly once the inflammatory process resolves.

7.2.3. Orosomucoid:

Orosomucoid is a liver-synthesized protein with a normal blood level of 0.5 to 1.5 g/L (**Crouzilles, Siebert, 2013**).

Table 03: Specific inflammatory markers.

Specific Inflammatory Proteins	Normal Values	Changes in Inflammation
ESR	<p>1st hour: < 5 mm</p> <p>2nd hour: < 10 mm</p>	Increase (2 to 3 times in anemia; up to 120 times in some cancers)
CRP	< 6 mg/L	Increase (10 to 1000 times)
Orosomuroid	0.5 to 1.5 g/L	Increase

Elevated levels indicate an inflammatory stat.

8. Anti-inflammatory treatment:

Anti-inflammatory treatments are designed to reduce inflammation and alleviate associated symptoms. Conventional pharmacological approaches primarily include nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and corticosteroids, which work by inhibiting cyclooxygenase enzymes and suppressing immune responses, respectively. However, these treatments are associated with significant adverse effects, particularly with long-term use (Wongrakpanich et al., 2018).

8. 1. Synthetic Anti-inflammatory Agents:

8.1.1. Non-steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs):

Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) is a drug class that gathers drugs that can provide pain-killing/relieving effects (analgesic) and can also reduce fever (antipyretic) and at higher doses, it can present reduce inflammation (anti-inflammatory effects). (Charles Fokunang, et al. 2018)

NSAIDs reprints a wide range of drugs with significant structural and functional diversity. Mostly these drugs are weak organic acids that typically feature an acidic moiety

combined with an aromatic functional group. (S. Bindu, et al. 2020)

The analgesic and anti-inflammatory properties are mainly achieved by the inhibition of two well-known isoenzymes of prostaglandin G/H synthase, commonly referred to as cyclo-oxygenase (COX), more specifically COX 1 and COX 2 (As shown in fig.02) (Charles Fokunang, et al. 2018).

As for its specific anti-inflammatory activity, it's mainly achieved by the inhibition of the enzyme cyclo-oxygenase (COX) as mentioned previously, these enzymes help in converting a fatty acid known as arachidonic acid into thromboxans, prostaglandins, and prostacyclins, these substances are called eicosanoids, which are involved in the process of inflammation, Moreover, the therapeutic effects of NSAIDs drugs are attributed to the lack of these eicosanoids.

There are two cyclooxygenase isoenzymes, COX-1 and COX-2. Comparatively, COX-2 is not constitutively expressed in the body; and instead, it is induced during an inflammatory response, while on the other hand, COX-1 gets constitutively expressed in the body (always active) as it is involved in supporting kidney function, maintaining gastrointestinal mucosa lining and platelet aggregation. Most of the NSAIDs are nonselective and would target both COX-1 and COX-2. In contrast, COX-2 selective NSAIDs such as celecoxib, only target COX-2, hence have a different side effect profile. That's because the enzyme COX-1 is the key mediator for ensuring gastric mucosal integrity while COX-2 is mainly involved in inflammation, therefore COX-2 selective NSAIDs would provide anti-inflammatory relief without causing any damage to the gastric mucosa. (Ida Ghlichloo & Valerie Gerriets , 2019)

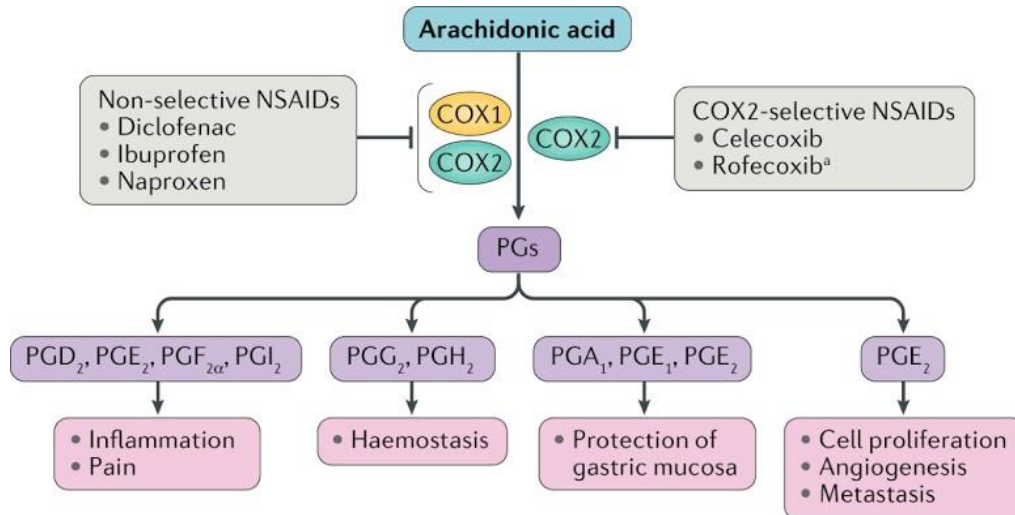


Figure 02: Mechanism of action of NSAIDs. (Anne-Marie Schjerning et al., 2020)

8.1.2 Steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (Glucocorticoids):

Glucocorticoids (GCs) are steroid hormones that play a crucial role in the treatment of inflammation, autoimmune diseases, and cancer (S Timmermans, 2019). For over 70 years, GCs have been utilized in clinical settings to manage inflammatory diseases and other conditions believed to involve inflammation (Sybille D Reichardt et al., 2021). These hormones are fundamental in treating a variety of inflammatory and autoimmune disorders, including bronchial asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, Crohn's disease, ulcerative colitis, immune-mediated glomerulonephritis, rheumatoid arthritis (RA), systemic lupus erythematosus, and multiple sclerosis (Simona Ronchetti et al., 2018).

To achieve their extensive physiological and therapeutic effects, glucocorticoids bind to the glucocorticoid receptor (GR), which is part of the nuclear receptor superfamily of transcription factors (S Timmermans, 2019).

By inhibiting transcription factors such as AP-1 and NF-κB, GCs can reduce the expression of cyclooxygenases (COX), particularly COX-2, in inflammatory cells, effectively blocking the synthesis of prostaglandins (Sébastien Faure, 2009).

8.1.3. Side effects of synthetic anti-inflammatory drugs:

The toxicity resulting from non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs can manifest as: renal damage, hepatotoxicity, and hypertension. (Ida Ghlichloo & Valerie Gerriets, 2019;

Rothenberg & JP Holcomb, 2000)

These medications can also result in GI damage that includes gastric ulceration, perforation and their associated complications. It works by inhibiting COX-1 specifically, which causes decreased gastric mucosa production. **(AH Abbas, 2015)**

As of the Nephrotoxicity (renal damage), it occurs with NSAID use because these medications reduce prostaglandin levels, which are crucial for maintaining proper blood flow and function in the kidneys. This reduction can lead to inadequate kidney perfusion and potential damage over time. **(P Ejaz, 2004)**

Lastly, neuro-toxicity can manifest through a range of symptoms, indicating that the drug is affecting the central nervous system and sensory pathways such as drowsiness, confusion, nystagmus, blurred vision, diplopia, headache, and tinnitus. **(Ida Ghlichloo & Valerie Gerriets , 2019; Laura J Hunter et al., 2011).**

As for SAIDs or GCs, Their drawbacks are directly resulted from their biological activities, such as metabolic disorders, Endocrine Disorders, Psychiatric Disorders (Insomnia), Infectious Complications, Digestive Disorders: (Gastroduodenal Ulcer: Risk of perforation of a colonic diverticulum and bleeding, Acute Pancreatitis: Particularly in children) and other (Acute or Chronic Glaucoma, Cataract: Very common; its incidence depends on the dosage administered, Increased Intracranial Pressure, Hypercoagulability: Increased tendency for blood to clot). **(Sébastien Faure, 2009)**

8.2. Natural anti-inflammatory treatment:

Even with the availability of various options of conventional and non-conventional treatment for inflammation, they often present few drawbacks that are related to the safety, effectiveness and the cost.

Herbal remedies are a Natural alternative medicine to synthetic drugs, these Herbal products are typically considered safer for treating various health issues **(Mukta Gupta et al., 2021; Jamshidi-Kia et al., 2018).**

Among these Natural remedies we highlight some plants that are characterized by their anti-inflammatory properties such as **Turmeric** (*Curcuma longa L.*), **Ginger** (*Zingiber officinale Roscoe*), **Rosella** (*Hibiscus sabdariffa L.*) **and black seed** (*Nigella sativa L.*)

8.2.1. Turmeric (*Curcuma longa* L.):

Turmeric, also scientifically known as *Curcuma longa* L. is a perennial rhizomatous herbaceous plant, the main part of it is its rhizome which is usually used as a food additive. Scientific research has reported that rhizomes of this plant possess antibacterial, antifungal, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant and antitumor properties. (Mohammad Basir Khan et al., 2013).

These therapeutic properties are the result of the presence of secondary metabolites such as curcumin, demethoxycurcumin (DMC), and bisdemethoxy curcumin (BDMC). (Md Zahorul Islam et al., 2024).

But the most important secondary metabolite of *C. longa* is curcumin, which is responsible, for plant's the anti-inflammatory properties (Julie S Jurenka, 2009).

More specifically it cures the etiological factors and addresses the pathological changes associated with inflammation.

The anti-inflammatory properties of curcumin were first documented in 1971. (RC Srimal et al., 1971).



Fig.03:Curcuma longa plant. (Ridho& Indriani , 2025)



Fig.04: Turmeric rhizomes. (Ridho& Indriani , 2025)



Fig.05:Powdered Turmeric (Ridho& Indriani , 2025)

8.2.2. Ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe):

Ginger, the rhizome of *Zingiber officinale* Roscoe that belongs the plant family of *Zingiberaceae* originates from the Indo-Malayan region, and in the current time is widely cultivated throughout the tropical areas of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia

(Mirele da Silveira Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2019; Kizhakkayil & Sasikumar, 2011)

Its most commonly used part is the rhizome which is used for numerous therapeutic purposes including anti-inflammatory, antidiabetics, antioxidant, anti-microbial and also curing in vomiting, constipation, indigestion, cold, fever, cough, nausea, respiratory conditions, bronchitis etc. (D, Mutthuraj *et al.*, 2020)



Fig. 06 : *Zingiber officinale* Roscoe plant. (Sulimanet *et al.* 2024)

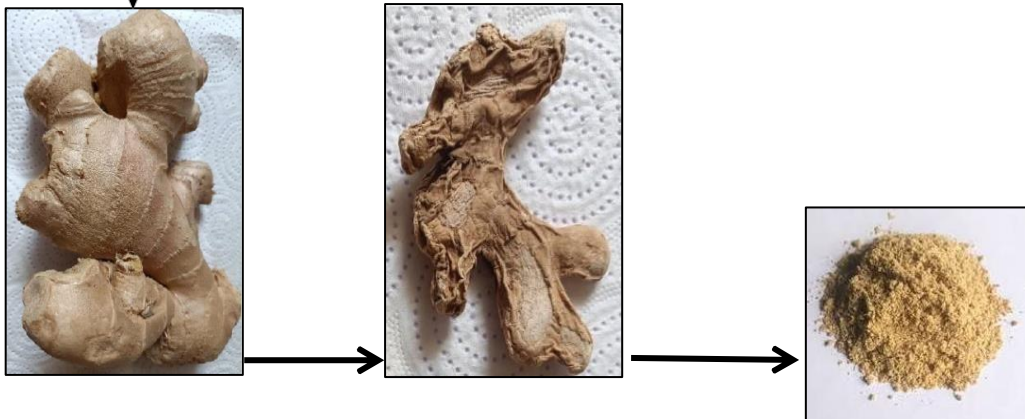


Fig. 07: Fresh Ginger rhizome. **Fig. 08:** Dried Ginger rhizome **Fig. 09:** Powdered Ginger.

(Bitari *et al.*, 2023)

(Bitari *et al.*, 2023)

(Dharmapala & Amarakoon,

2024)

There are various (clinical and preclinical) studies which indicate that ginger has a notable efficacy in treating inflammation and is comparable to NSAIDs yet it has less side effects especially the drawbacks that are related to the gastrointestinal tract. **(Sonam Shashikala B.V , 2024)**

The mechanism of action of the main secondary metabolites in this plant involves the **Inhibition of Cyclooxygenase and Lipoxygenase Pathways**, Gingerols and shogaols exert their anti-inflammatory action by inhibiting key enzymes such as cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) and lipoxygenase (LOX). COX-2 is an enzyme that is crucial in the generating of pro-inflammatory prostaglandins whereas LOX is involved in the production of leukotrienes which is another category of inflammatory mediators enzymes, the synthesis of pro-inflammatory compounds decreases which helps reduce the inflammation. **(Sonam Shashikala B.V, 2024; Bischoff-Kont I & Fürst R., 2021)**

8.2.3. Rosella (*Hibiscus sabdariffa* L.):

Hibiscus sabdariffa L., commonly known as the rosella plant, is a notable herbal plant with significant health benefits. Its petals, leaves, seeds, and stems have all been utilized since ancient times for their medicinal properties. Packed with a variety of beneficial substances, hibiscus is valued in traditional medicine for its positive effects on the human body **(Sri Muliana Putri Bakara et al., 2024)**.

This plant is recognized for its potential health benefits, attributed to its rich array of bioactive compounds. Notably, it contains flavonoids, phenolic acids, and anthocyanins, all of which are known for their significant therapeutic properties. These compounds contribute to the plant's effectiveness in promoting overall health and wellness, they're known for their strong anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and antimicrobial effects. Flavonoids and phenolic acids, in particular, can modulate inflammatory responses by inhibiting key enzymes such as cyclooxygenase (COX), this process leads to a decrease in the production of inflammatory mediators like prostaglandins and leukotrienes, which are

involved in the inflammatory process. By lowering the level of these mediators, this plant has the ability to reduce inflammation and oxidative stress. Moreover, the antioxidant properties of these compounds help protect cells from damage caused by free radicals, further supporting overall health. (Salsabila Putri Uno et al., 2024)



Figure 10: Rosella, *Hibiscus sabdariffa* L plant (Unita & Singarimbun, 2018) and its flowers.(Nurnasari & Khuluq, 2018).

8.2.4. Black seeds (*Nigella sativa* L.):

Black cumin or black seed, is scientifically known as *Nigella sativa* L., is a native plant in Eastern Europe and Western Asia. Which has naturalized over the decades around North Africa and parts of the Middle East. (H Abdelhalim & S Arora , 2022 ; Ali, B. H., & Blunden, G. , 2003)

This medicinal herb is exclusively used in traditional medicine mostly in Western Asia, some scientific researches has proved that it exerts its action by inhibiting both cyclooxygenase (COX) and 5-lipoxygenase pathways of arachidonic acid metabolism. (Harshal Pise & Sudhir Padwal , 2017)

It is also rich with Several chemical compounds, with its prime compound as thymoquinone (TQ) /(2-isopropyl-5-methyl-1,4-benzoquinone) , which is known with its Pharmacological properties to reduce asthma symptoms and treat rheumatoid arthritis all by targeting the

inflammatory pathway.

(H Abdelhalim & S Arora , 2022 ; Ahmad Aftab, et *al.*, 2013 ;Amin & Hosseinzadeh, 2016).



Figure 11: *Nigella sativa* flower.

(Verma et *al.*, 2024)



Figure 12: *Nigella sativa* seeds.

(Verma et *al.*, 2024)

Chapter II: Nanoparticles

1. Background:

1.1. Nano etymology:

The prefix nano comes from the Greek word *nanos* which means “a dwarf”. At the 14th conference of the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) in 1947, “nano” was officially recognized as a term to describe the one-billionth part (10^{-9}) of a unit.

(Nadeem Joudeh & Dirk Linke, 2022 ; Buzea C et al., 2007)

Nowadays, 'Nano' is a widely recognized term in modern science, with numerous related words appearing in the dictionary, such as nanoscience, nanotechnology, nanostructure, nanoparticle, and nanotube. This concept originated from R. Feynman's speech in December 1959 at the American Physical Society meeting, where he asked: «*What would happen if we could arrange the atoms one by one the way we want them?* » **(Gigault, 2011).**

2. Definitions:

2.1. Nanotechnology:

“technology on the nanoscale” serves as the simplest definition of nanotechnology but this initial, we cannot accurately define nanotechnology without defining what is meant by “nanoscale,” that is, a scale covering **1–100 nm. (Bhushan, 2017)**

This branch encompasses the synthesis, engineering, and applications of materials whose size ranges from 1 to 100 nm, which are referred to as nanomaterials. **(Mulvaney P, 2015; Nadeem Joudeh & Dirk Linke, 2022)**

2.2. Nanoparticles:

Nanoparticles are defined as the particulate matter with at least one dimension less than 100 nm. They can be composed of metal, metal oxides, carbon or organic matter. **(Savita Kumari and Leena Sarkar, 2022)**

These particles are viewed as the essential building blocks of nanotechnology. **(P Biswas & CY Wu , 2005)**

They vary in size, shape, and composition, which sets them apart from one another. They exhibit unique physical, chemical, and biological properties in comparison to larger particles. This distinction relies on different factors such as increased chemical reactivity

or stability and a greater surface area relative to volume, all along with greater mechanical strength. Due to these specific properties, nanoparticles have various applications. (B Yang et al., 2021 ; Yousaf Khan et al., 2022).



Figure13 : Properties of nanoparticles and their advantages. (Khadijah A. Altammar, 2023)

3. Classification of nanoparticles:

The nanoparticles can manifest in different shapes, sizes and structures, they can be spherical, cylindrical, tubular, conical, hollow core, spiral, flat, wire etc. It can also be irregular in shape. They're typically categorized into different classes depending on their morphology, size, physical & chemical properties. Mainly, they're classified into organic, inorganic and carbon-based NPs. (Savita Kumari & Leena Sarkar , 2022)

3.1. Organic Nanoparticles:

Organic nanoparticles are solid particles composed of natural or synthetic organic molecules, typically ranging in diameter from 10 to 100 nm, but, However, they can extend up to 1000 nm within this definition. (Kumar & Lal, 2014)

Some well-known organic NPs include dendrimers, liposomes, micelles, ferritin etc. These nanoparticles are eco-friendly, biodegradable, non- toxic, cost-effective which makes them more ideal for biomedical applications. (Savita Kumari & Leena Sarkar , 2022)

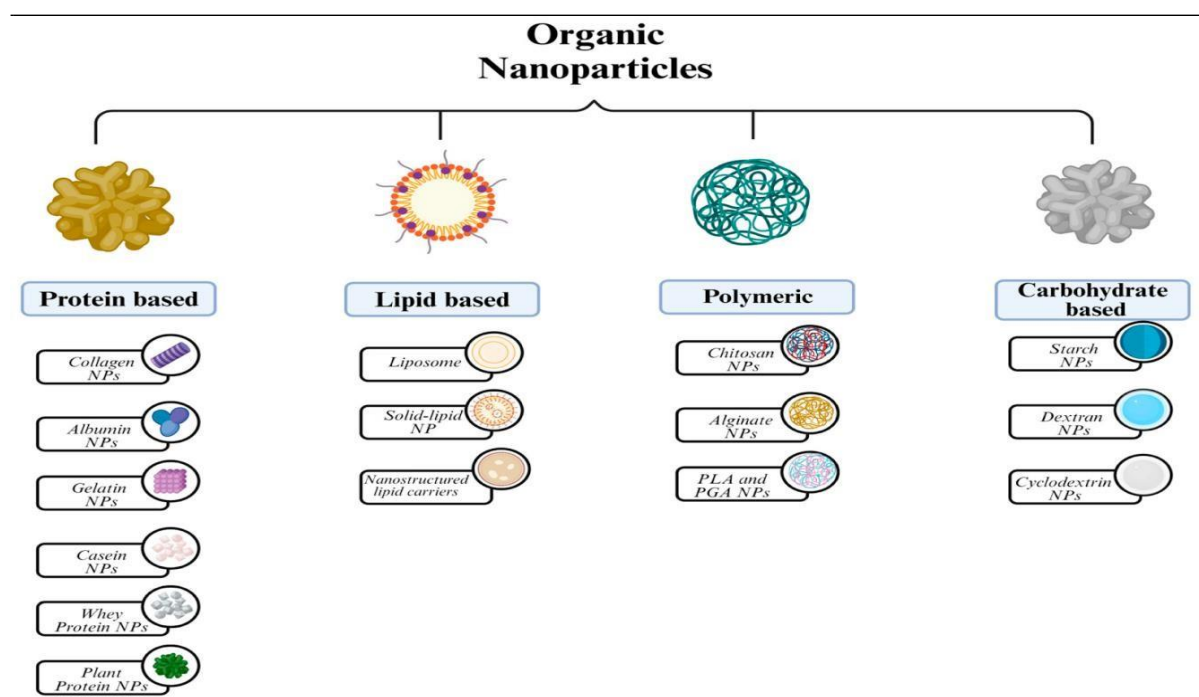


Figure14: Classification and subtypes of Organic NPs. (Eker et al., 2024)

3.2. Inorganic Nanoparticles:

Inorganic nanoparticles (iNPs) are the particles that do not contain carbon. Such as metal and metal oxides (Khalisanni K. et al., 2020)

Compared to organic nanoparticles, iNP's have received significant research and commercial investment.

They are made up of inorganic atoms bonded by covalent or metallic bonds. They can be synthesized from materials such as semiconductors, ceramics, or magnetic metals (Savita

Kumari & Leena Sarkar, 2022)

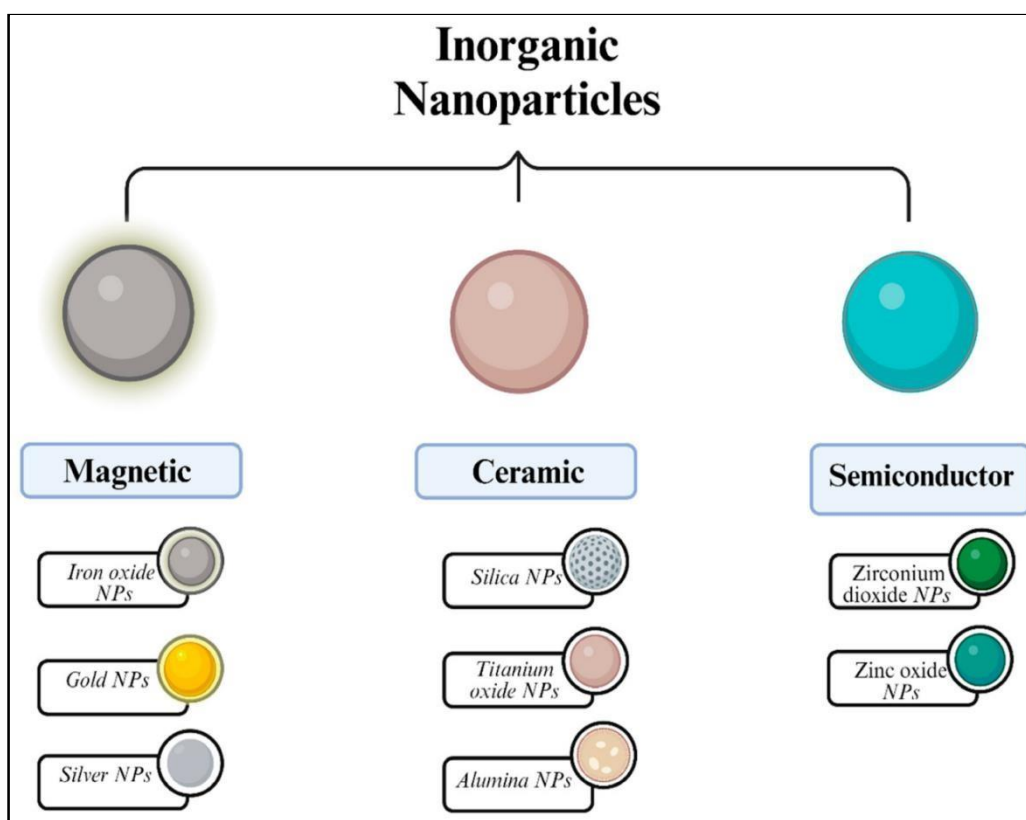


Figure15: Classification and subtypes of iNPs. (Heuer-Jungemann et al., 2019)

3.2.1. Metal Based Nanoparticles:

Metal-based nanoparticles typically range in size from 10 to 100 nm and can take various shapes, including spherical and cylindrical forms. They exhibit unique properties, such as a high surface area-to-volume ratio, specific pore sizes, surface charge, surface charge density, and can have both crystalline and amorphous structures. Additionally, they display high reactivity and sensitivity to environmental factors like air, moisture, heat, and sunlight. These distinctive properties make them highly valuable in a wide array of research applications. (Savita Kumari & Leena Sarkar, 2022)

They can be derived from metals like aluminum (Al), gold (Au), silver (Ag), cadmium (Cd), cobalt (Co), copper (Cu), iron (Fe), lead (Pb), and zinc (Zn). The most commonly used metals are Ag (silver), Au (gold), Cu (copper), Fe (iron), and Zn (zinc). Transition metals are considered the best candidates for synthesizing (Elena S. L., et al., 2020).

3.2.2. Metal Oxides Based Nanoparticles:

Metal nanoparticles (NPs) can be oxidized to form metal oxide NPs, which exhibit superior properties compared to their parent metals. Examples include Iron oxide (Fe_2O_3), Magnetite (Fe_3O_4), Aluminum oxide (Al_2O_3), Cerium oxide (CeO_2), Silica (SiO_2), Titanium dioxide (TiO_2), and Zinc oxide (ZnO). (Savita Kumari & Leena Sarkar, 2022)

3.3. Carbon Based Nanoparticles:

Nanoparticles made of carbon are referred to as carbon-based NPs. They come in various shapes, such as tube-shaped, horn-shaped, spherical, or ellipsoidal. The main classes of this category include fullerenes and carbon nanotubes (CNTs). Additional classes of carbon-based NPs are graphene, nanofibers, and carbon black.

Due to its ability to form long and resistant chains, Carbon has a crucial place in nanotechnology. This distinctive property of carbon is exploited in the field of NPs, known as carbon-based NPs. They own significant characteristics including high chemical stability, powerful heat and electrical conductivity, high optical absorption, and luminescence (Kokorina et al., 2020).

Thus, they are utilized in numerous research fields, including biosensors, drug delivery, cancer, they also play a role in cellular therapy; *in vivo*, *in vitro*, and optical imaging..etc. (RP Singh & KRB Singh, 2021)

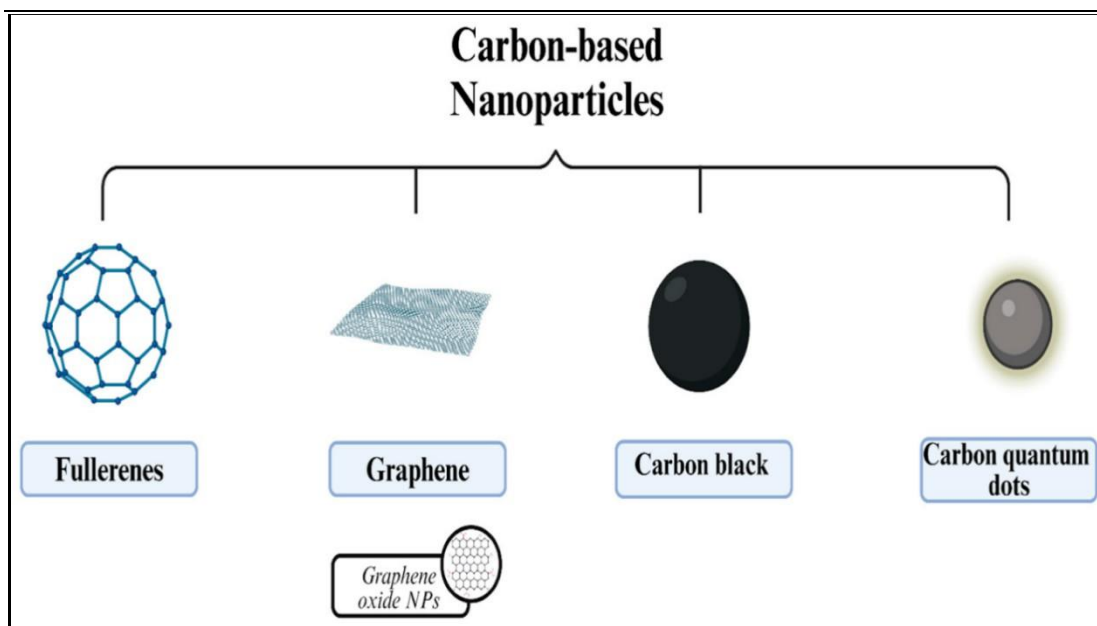


Figure16: Classification and subtypes of carbon-based NPs. (Eker et al., 2024)

4. Synthesis methods of Nanoparticles:

There are three main approaches for the synthesis of nanoparticles: physical, chemical, and biological. The top-down approach refers to the physical method, in contrast to the bottom-up approach which refers to the chemical and biological approaches collectively. The biological method approach is also named green systems of NPs. Each approach can be further divided into various types based on the employed method. (Khadijah A. Altammar,2023).

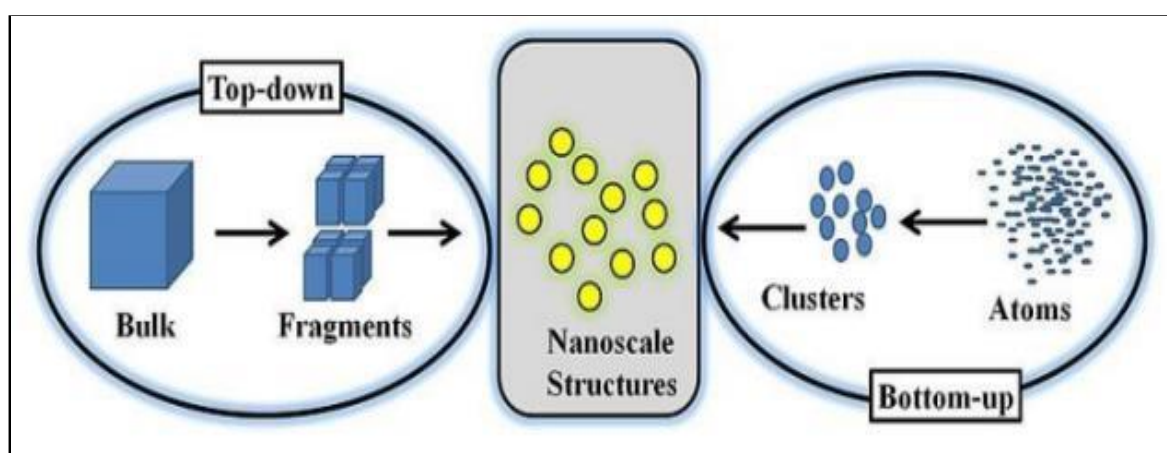


Figure17: Schematic representation of Top- down approach & Bottom-Up approach (Savita Kumari & Leena Sarkar, 2022)

4.1. Top-down approach:

In top-down methods Bulk materials are mechanically fragmented to produce nano-structured materials. This approach, also known as the physical method, involves a reduction in size to achieve nanoscale dimensions (**Baig et al., 2021**). .

The following techniques can achieve a top-down approach.

4.1.1. Mechanical milling:

The mechanical milling process involves the use of balls within containers and can be performed in various types of mills, commonly planetary and shaker mills. This impact process operates with high energy to effectively reduce particle size. (**Gorrasi & Sorrentino, 2015**).

4.1.2. Laser ablation:

Laser beams can fabricate micro-features by vaporizing a single material (**Tran & Wen, 2014**). Similarly, laser ablation synthesis generates nanoparticles through intense laser irradiation that vaporizes the target material. (**Amendola & Meneghetti, 2009**).

4.1.3. Electron explosion:

This technique requires the use of a thin metal wire that is subjected to a high current pulse that will result in an explosion, evaporation, and ionization. The metal vaporizes and ionizes, then expands and cools as it reacts with the surrounding gas or liquid medium. This condensed vapor ultimately forms nanoparticles. (**Joh et al., 2013**)

4.2. Bottom-up approach:

In the bottom-up method small atoms and molecules are assembled to form nano-structured particles (**Baig et al., 2021**). These include chemical and biological approaches as follows;

4.2.1. Chemical synthesis:

Numerous Chemical synthesis methods of NPs has been used over the years, we cite mainly:

4.2.1.1. Sol-gel process:

The sol-gel method is a widely used wet-chemical approach for the synthesis of nanomaterials (**Das and Srivasatava, 2016; Baig et al., 2021**).

This technique is used for synthesizing nanostructures (particularly metal oxide nanoparticles). It involves dissolving a molecular precursor (e.g., metal alkoxide) in water/alcohol, converting it to gel via hydrolysis/alcoholysis with heat and stirring. The resulting wet gel is dried (e.g., through solvent combustion for alcoholic solutions), powdered, and calcined as clarified in **(Figure 18)** This low-temperature, cost-effective process enables precise control over product composition. **(Bokov, 2021)**

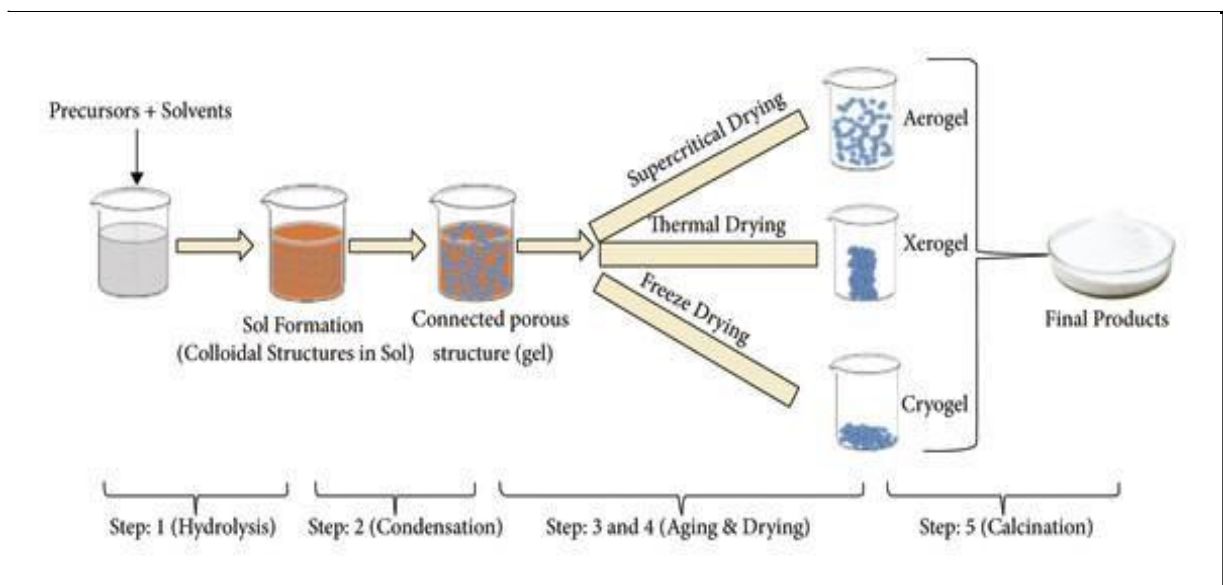


Figure18: Schematic of different stages of sol-gel process **(Bokov, 2021)**

4.2.1.2. Co-precipitation:

This method involves a solvent displacement technique as part of a wet chemical process. Examples of solvents used include ethanol, acetone, hexane, and non-solvent polymers. The polymer phases can be synthetic or natural. When the polymer solution is mixed, the polymer-solvent diffuses quickly into the non-solvent phase, creating interfacial stress between the two phases, which ultimately results in the formation of nanoparticles. **(Das & Srivasatava, 2016).**

4.2.2. Green/biological synthesis:

The synthesis of various metal nanoparticles using bioactive agents, including plant materials, microbes, and various biowastes like vegetable scraps, fruit peels, eggshells, and

agricultural residues, is known as “green” or “biological” nanoparticle synthesis and it goes as shows in the following scheme (Figure 19.) (Kumari et al., 2021).

Developing reliable and sustainable green synthesis technologies is essential to avoid the creation of undesirable or hazardous byproducts. The green synthesis of nanoparticles offers numerous advantages, such as simplicity, cost-effectiveness, the production of highly stable nanoparticles, minimal time requirements, the generation of non-toxic byproducts, and the ease of scaling up for large-scale production. (Malhotra & Alghuthaymi, 2022).

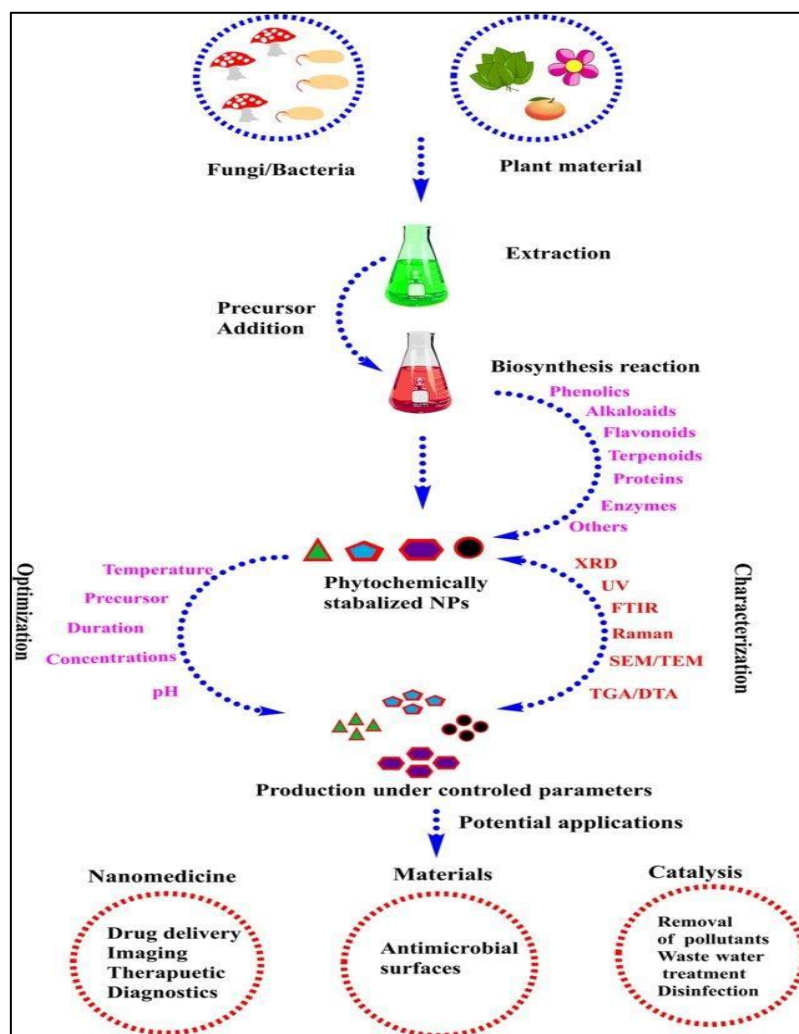


Figure19: Biosynthesis, characterization, and application of metal nanoparticles.(Ovais et al., 2018)

4.2.2.1. Biological synthesis using microorganisms:

Microbes generate nanoparticles through metal capture, enzymatic reduction, and capping processes. Metal ions are first trapped on the surface or inside the microbial cells before enzymes convert them into nanoparticles (Ghosh *et al.*, 2021).

Some microorganisms, particularly marine microbes, are used for the synthesis of metallic nanoparticles is environmentally friendly, rapid, and economical. (Patil & Kim, 2018).

4.2.2.2. Biological synthesis using plant extracts:

Plant extract is the substance or active ingredient of a desired quality obtained from plant tissue through specific treatment for a particular purpose. (Jadoun *et al.*, 2021).

Plant extracts are mixed with a metal salt solution at room temperature for the sole purpose of creating nanoparticles. The reaction is achieved within minutes. nanoparticles of silver, gold, and many other metals has been created by using this technique. (Li X. *et al.*, 2011).

5. Applications of Nanoparticles:

Being the fundamental component of nanotechnology, nanoparticles have a wide spectrum of applications such as:

5.1. Environmental applications:

NPs appeal to various environmental applications such as:

5.1.1. Bioremediation:

Nanoparticles can eliminate environmental pollutants like heavy metals from water and organic substances from soil (Zhuang & Gentry, 2011). As an example, silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) are effective in breaking down certain pollutants, such as organic dyes and other compounds present in wastewater. In addition to AgNPs. (Khadijah A. Altammar, 2023)

5.1.2. Sensors in environment:

Nanoparticles have been and still are currently used to enhance water quality and support in environmental clean-up activities (Pradeep, 2009).

They can be engineered to bind selectively to specific types of pollutants, enabling their detection even at low concentrations. For example, gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) have been used to detect mercury in water (Theron *et al.*, 2010; Khadijah A. Altammar, 2023)

5.2. Applications in medicine:

Nanomaterials (NMs) are crucial in modern medicine, with applications ranging from enhancing contrast in imaging to serving as carriers for targeted drug and gene delivery into tumors. (Joseph *et al.*, 2023) as we note below:

5.2.1. Cancer diagnosis and therapy:

Metallic and semiconductor NPs have great potential in cancer diagnosis and therapy, thanks to their enhanced light scattering and absorption properties from the LSPR effect. For instance, AuNPs can efficiently absorb light and convert it into localized heat, making them suitable for selective photothermal therapy that induces cancer cell death through the heat produced in tumor tissues. (Huang *et al.*, 2007)

5.2.2. Drug delivery:

Targeted drug delivery is also an important potential application of NPs. ZnO and Fe₃O₄ NPs were efficiently used for targeted drug delivery and selective destruction of tumor cells (Rasmussen *et al.*, 2010).

5.2.3. Imaging:

Nanoparticles have been successfully used in different medical applications such as cellular imaging (Hutter & Maysinger, 2011)

Nanotechnology holds great promise for rapid, high-resolution imaging of tissue microstructures and accurate lesion characterization. This can be achieved through the development of non-toxic contrast agents with extended circulation times such as Nanoparticle-based contrast agents which are useful across a range of widely used biomedical imaging techniques, including fluorescence imaging, Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI), Computed Tomography (CT), Ultrasound (US), Positron Emission Tomography (PET), and Single Photon Emission Computed Tomography (SPECT), each with unique structural features, benefits, and limitations. (Han *et al.*, 2019)

Experimental Part

**Materials
&
Methods**

I. Plant Material:

Myrtus communis L. also commonly known as Myrtle was obtained from the region of Souk-ahras, North east Algeria. (Fig 20&21)

Myrtle leaves were collected. The fresh leaves were first washed several times with distilled water to remove impurities and dust. The obtained leaves were then dried in the shade at ambient temperature for 5 to 7 days.

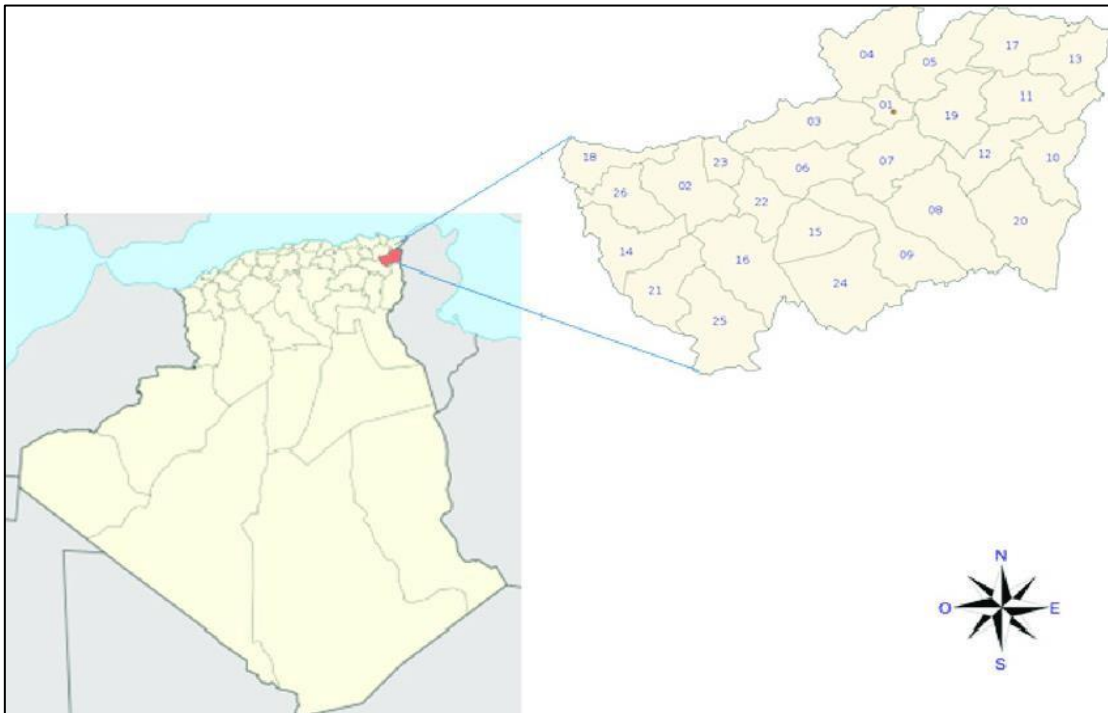


Figure 20: Geographic localization of Souk Ahras.



Figure 21: *Myrtus communis L.* plant.

I.1. Preparation of the leaf extract:

Myrtle leaves were collected. The fresh leaves were first washed several times with distilled water to remove impurities and dust. The obtained leaves were dried in the shade at ambient temperature for 5 to 7 days, then ground to a fine powder, which was stored in a container away from air.

To prepare the extract, we mixed 20 g of powder with 200 ml of distilled water in a flask then stirred the mixture for 24 hours at room temperature. The extract was then filtered by vacuum filtration using Buchner funnel and stored in an airtight bottle at 6 °C for immediate use.

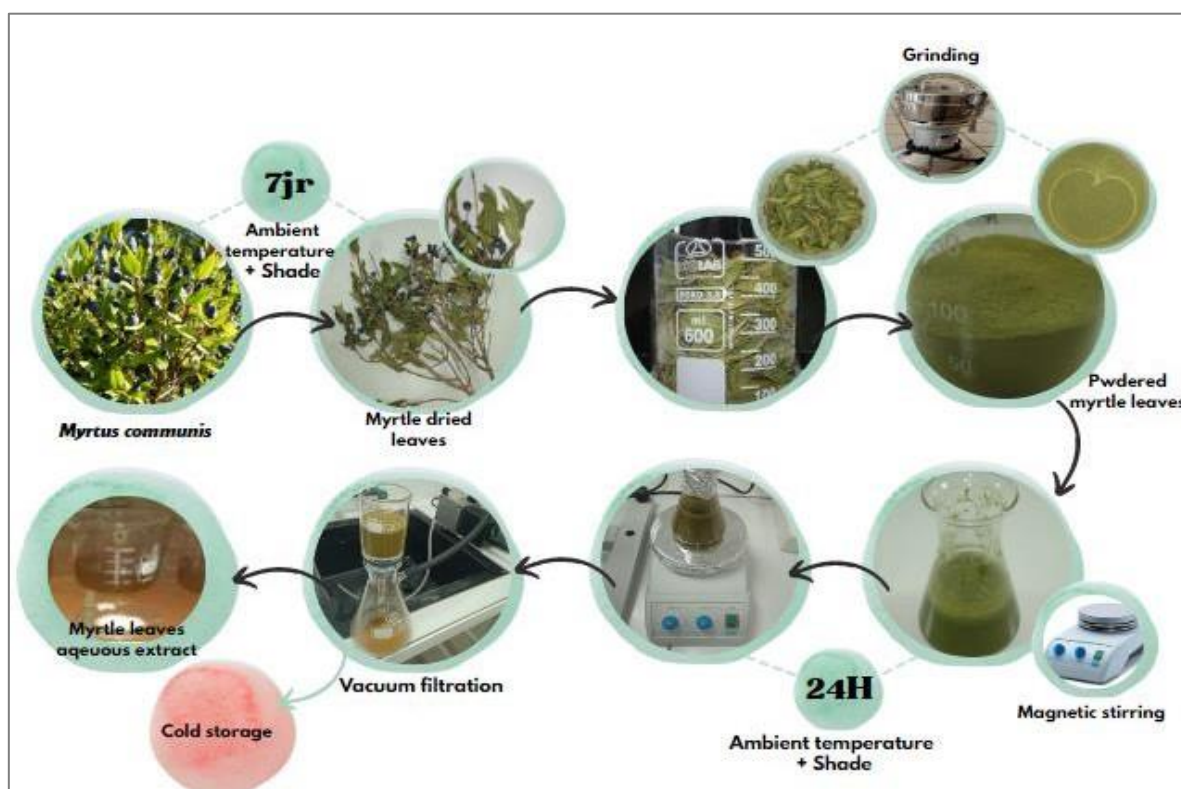


Figure22: Preparation of *Myrtus communis L.* aqueous leaf extract.

I.2. Green synthesis of Zinc oxide nanoparticles:

The aqueous extract of myrtle leaves (100mL) was reacted with 0.6g of zinc acetate in a water bath system with continuous stirring at 85 °C for 1 hour. The formation of zinc oxide nanoparticles was indicated by a color change of the mixture solution from green to dark brown. The obtained products were collected and dried at 100 °C before being

calcined at 200 °C for 2 hours.

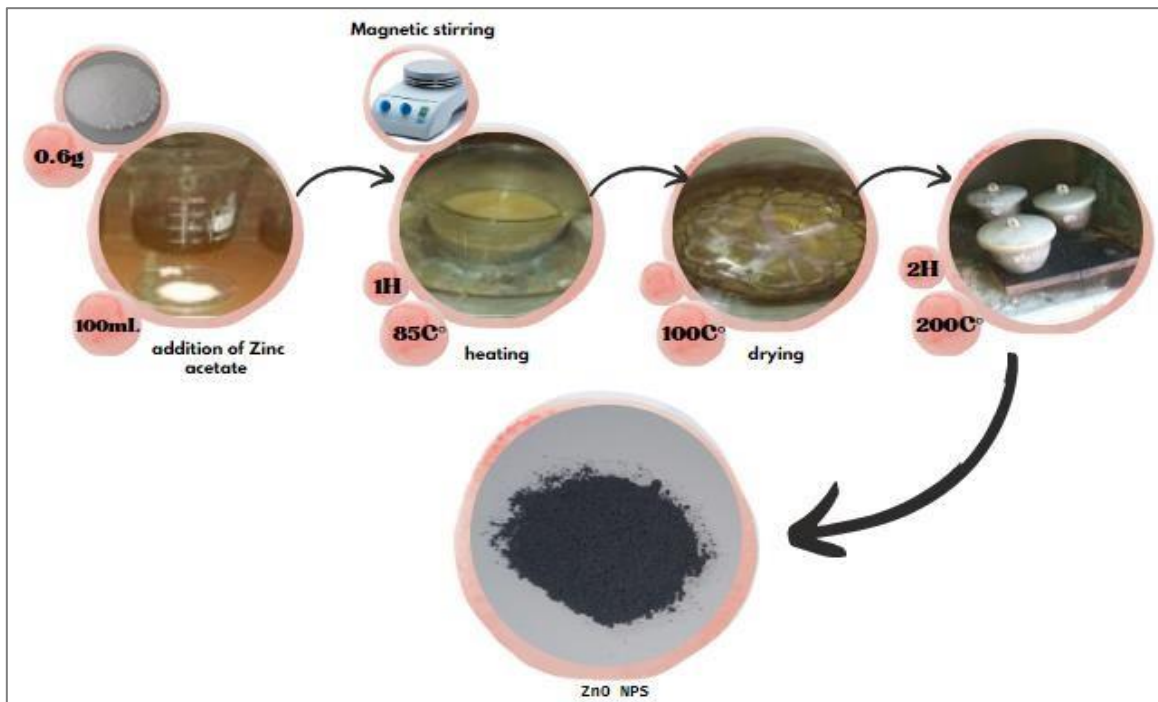


Figure23: Green synthesis of ZnO NPs from *Myrtus communis L.* leaf extract.

I.3. Structural Properties Characterization by Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) Spectroscopy of Green Synthesized Nanoparticles via *Myrtus communis L.*:

I.3.1. Principle:

Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy is based on the principle that molecules absorb infrared light at specific frequencies corresponding to the vibrational modes of their chemical bonds. The resulting absorption spectrum acts as a molecular fingerprint, allowing for the identification and characterization of various organic and inorganic substances. Functional groups, which determine the main chemical properties of compounds, absorb IR radiation at similar wavenumbers, even across different compounds. This establishes a clear relationship between the wavenumber of IR absorption and the material's structure, enabling identification through the recognition of absorption bands that correspond to the functional groups present. Consequently, infrared spectroscopy is a valuable tool in chemical analysis, particularly in the mid-infrared (mid-IR) region, which ranges from 4000 to 400 cm^{-1} . (Smith, 2011; Pasieczna-Patkowska et al., 2025).



Figure24: Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy.

I.3.2. General Procedure for Spectroscopy (FTIR):

Sample Preparation:

Representative samples are taken in a clean, dry container. Ensuring that the sample is at room temperature to avoid any condensation. A thin layer of the sample is spread on an appropriate surface (usually a salt crystal window or Br) for measurement. **(El-Mansy & El-Shafey, 2022).**

Calibration of the Spectrometer:

Data Acquisition: Place the prepared sample in the FTIR spectrometer and ensure it is correctly positioned. Select the appropriate acquisition parameters, such as spectral resolution, wavelength range, number of scans, etc. Then, initiate the measurement by recording the infrared absorption spectra of the sample.

Data Analysis: Once the data is acquired, perform a Fourier transform to convert the raw data into an FTIR spectrum. Analyze the FTIR spectrum by identifying characteristic absorption bands corresponding to the molecular vibrations present in the sample. Compare the obtained spectra with spectral libraries or known references to identify the chemical components present in the tested sample.

Interpretation of Results: Interpret the FTIR data based on known information about the chemical composition of the extract/sample. Finally, identify the characteristic functional groups such as O-H, C-H bonds, sugars, amino acids, etc. **(Science Info, 2023)**

II. Evaluation of In Vivo Anti-Inflammatory Activity:

II.1. Animal Material :

Fifty female NMRI mice (*Mus musculus*; mean body weight 25 ± 5 g) were procured from the Pasteur Institute (Algiers, Algeria) and maintained under standardized laboratory conditions at the **Pharmacognosy and Api-Phytotherapy Research Laboratory** (University of Mostaganem).

Following arrival, animals underwent a 10-day acclimatization period in polypropylene cages with environmental parameters strictly maintained Standard housing conditions (12:12 light: dark light cycle system)

Throughout the study, mice received ad libitum access to drinking water and standard rodent chow (15 ± 5 g/mouse/day), with cage changes performed twice weekly.

II.2. Acute toxicity Test:

II.2.1. The Principle:

The toxicological evaluation of the extracts was conducted in accordance with Test No. 425 of the guidelines established by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (**OECD, 2008**).

A comprehensive clinical monitoring protocol was implemented, evaluating toxicological manifestations across all major physiological systems at predetermined intervals (1, 24, and 48 hours) post-administration, with subsequent daily observations maintained throughout the 14-day experimental period.

2.2.2. The Protocol:

For the nanoparticle extract evaluation, a dose-range finding study was designed utilizing four distinct concentration levels (150, 300, 1000, and 2000 mg/kg body weight) The doses were administered by intragastric gavage with a unique dose, each administered to separate experimental cohorts to ensure independent assessment of dose-response relationships.

II.2.3. Distribution of mice:

The experimental groups, designated as :

***Groupe01(n=3)** was administered a unique dose of ZnO NPs extract at a concentration of 150 mg/kg via intragastric gavage.

***Groupe02(n=3)** was administered a unique dose of ZnO NPs extract at a concentration of 300 mg/kg via intragastric gavage.

***Groupe03(n=3)** was administered a unique dose of ZnO NPs extract at a concentration of 1000 mg/kg via intragastric gavage.

***Groupe04(n=3)** was administered a unique dose of ZnO NPs extract at a concentration of 2000 mg/kg via intragastric gavage.

II.3. In vivo anti-inflammatory activity:

To evaluate the in vivo anti-inflammatory activity of nanoparticle suspensions, the paw edema test induced by carrageenan was selected, following the method described by **Winter et al.** (1962). The injection of carrageenan under the plantar aponeurosis of the mice triggers an inflammatory response that can be alleviated by an anti-inflammatory agent. Diclofenac was selected as the reference drug due to its well-established pharmacological profile. Prior to the experiment, the mice were food-deprived for 16 hours. Two protocols, curative and preventive, were implemented to measure the activity as follows:

II.3.1. Curative Testing (Therapeutic Treatment):

Sixty minutes after inducing edema with carrageenan, the mice received nanoparticle suspensions via intragastric gavage, as detailed below:

- **Group C (Control Group):** Represents the control group.
- **Group Inf (Inflammatory Group):** Includes mice with inflammation that received distilled water by i.g.g.
- **Group STD:** Corresponds to the STANDARD group, which received 50 mg/kg of Diclofenac by i.g.g.
- **Group D01 Cr (Curative Group Dose 01):** Includes mice that received 150 mg/kg of *Myrtus communis L.* extract containing ZnO nanoparticles by i.g.g.

- **Group D02 Cr (Curative Group Dose 02):** The mice received 300 mg/kg of *Myrtus communis L.* extract with ZnO nanoparticles by i.g.g.

II.3.2. Preventive Testing (Prophylactic Treatment):

For the preventive protocol, 25 mice were divided into five groups and received the nanoparticle suspensions by intragastric gavage (i.g.g) using a sterile feeding tube, as detailed below:

- **Group C (Control Group):** This group received distilled water via intragastric gavage.
- **Group Inf (Inflammatory Group):** This group consisted of mice with inflammation that also received distilled water via gastric gavage.
- **Group STD:** This group represents the STANDARD, with an administration of 50 mg/kg of Diclofenac by i.g.g.
- **Group D01 Pr (Preventive Group Dose 01):** This group received 150 mg/kg of *Myrtus communis L.* extract containing ZnO nanoparticles by i.g.g.
- **Group D02 Pr (Preventive Group Dose 02):** The mice received 300 mg/kg of *Myrtus communis L.* extract with ZnO nanoparticles by i.g.g.

One hour after intragastric gavage i.g.g, edema was induced by intraplantar injection of 0.1 ml of a 1% λ -carrageenan solution (freshly prepared in a 0.9% NaCl solution) into the right hind paw. The paw volumes were measured using a caliper one hour prior to λ -carrageenan injection and hourly for six hours.

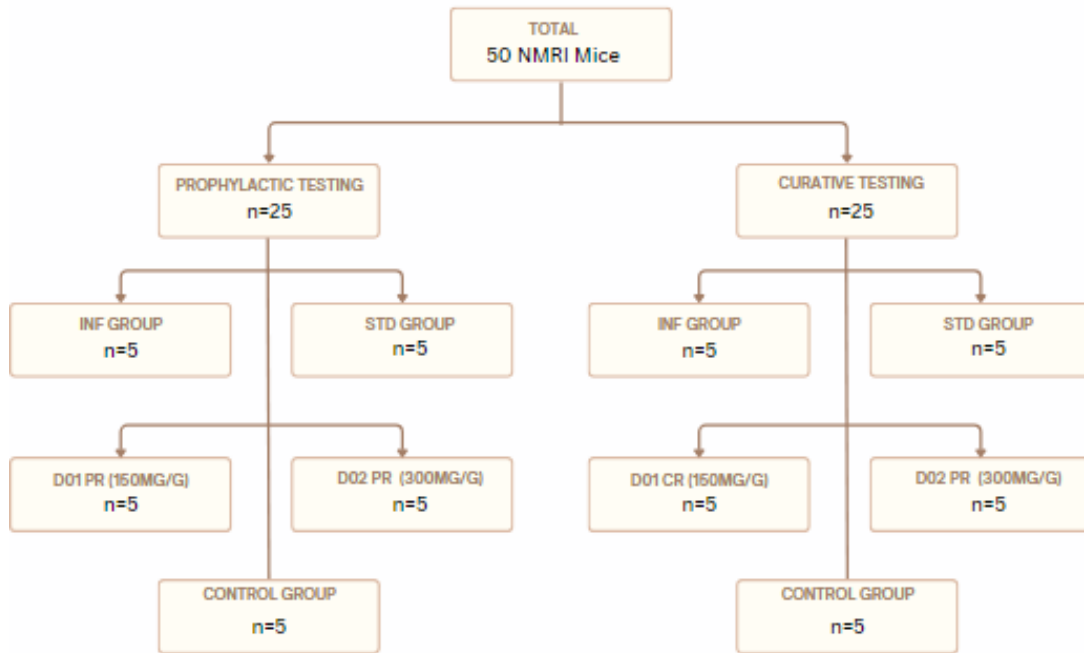


Figure25: Distribution of experimental groups.

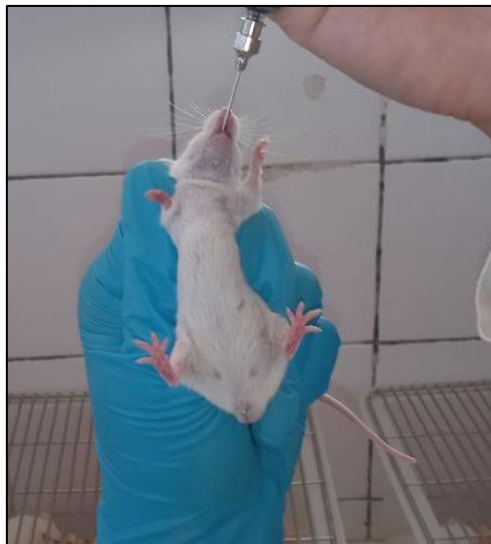


Figure26: Intragastric gavage administration.



Figure27: Inflammation induction with carrageenan injection.

II.4. Studied Parameters:

II.4.1. Paw Edema Measurement:

The diameter of the mice's paw volume was measured using a digital caliper before and after inflammation induction by carrageenan at one-hour intervals for six successive hours.

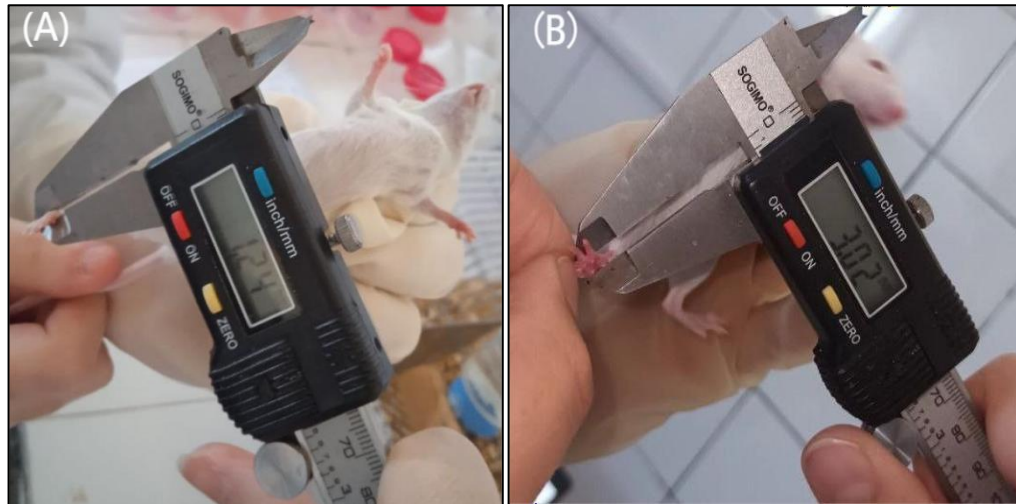


Figure28: Measurement of the paw volume before(A) the inducing inflammation and after(B).

II.4.1.1. Percentage Increase in Paw volume (%AUG):

The Percentage increase (% AUG) in the edema was calculated for each mouse, which is determined by the following formula (Ndiaye et al, 2006)

$$\%AUG = (D_x - D_0) \times 100 / D_0$$

DX: Diameter of the paw at x hour after the injection of carrageenan.

Do: Diameter of the paw before the injection of carrageenan .

II.4.1.2. Percentage Inhibition of Paw volume (%INH):

The percentage inhibition (%INH) of paw edema was calculated for each mouse that is treated compared with inflammatory mice (Inf), which is determined by the following formula (Ndiaye et al, 2006).

$$\%INH = (\%AUG \text{ Inf} - \%AUG \text{ treated}) \times 100 / \%AUG \text{ Inf.}$$

Inf: Inflamed mice group.

AUG: treated

II.4.2. Histological Analysis:

The histological study was carried out according to the Anatomical and Cytopathology Techniques Manual by **Marck, (2010)**.

It was performed at the Pharmacognosy & Api-Phytotherapy Research Laboratory at the University of Mostaganem. At the end of the experiment, the mice were anesthetized by inhalation with Chloroform. Their paws were then removed and immediately placed in 10% formaldehyde. (**Annexe**)

Following several steps in the right order (**Tab.04**) Pictures shown in **Annexe**

Table 04: Histological study steps

Paws	
Post-fixation	The collected paws are drained in a solution of 10% formalin.
Decalcification	Due to the hardness of bone tissue, chemical decalcification is required to remove calcium and soften the tissue. This process facilitates the preparation of thin histological sections suitable for microscopic examination. During decalcification, the paws are immersed in a decalcifying solution, which is 10% hydrochloric acid.
Macroscopic	A detailed macroscopic examination is an essential part of the study of an operative piece, so our pieces are examined, measured, weighed, palpated and then dissected. Preparation of the fragments, and then we introduce these fragments into inclusion cassettes. The cassettes were

Paws		
	marked on their edge.	
Circulation	Dehydration	*1 Glass staining dish of 96% ethanol for 1 hour *1 Glass staining dish of 96% ethanol for 1 hour *1 Glass staining dish of acetone for 2 hours
	Substitution	*1 Glass staining dish of toluene / xylene for 2 hours
	Impregnation	*1 Glass staining dish of paraffin at 70°C for 1 hour.
Inclusion and coating	Placing the sampled part in a steel mould and coating it with liquid paraffin. Once the block is prepared, it is stored in a freezer (-20°C).	
Microtomy	This step allows the cuts to be made on the block using a microtome. All the slices obtained from a ribbon of very thin quality (2 to 4 µm). The sections are then spread on microscope slides using a hot plate to avoid the formation of wrinkles and streaks.	
Coloration	Before the dewaxing step, the slides must be dried to facilitate the adhesion of the sections to the microscope slide. This firing is carried out in a laboratory oven at 58°C for 1 hour.	
	Dewaxing	The first step in any staining of a histological section is to remove the paraffin from the tissue so that the dyes can penetrate it. *1 Glass staining dish of toluene / xylene for 10 min.

Paws		
	Rehydration	<p>Consists of gradually replacing the solvent of the tissue with ethanol baths to bring it to the water.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> *1 Glass staining dish of 70% ethanol for 5 minutes *1 Glass staining dish of 80% ethanol for 5 minutes *1 Glass staining dish of 96% ethanol for 5 minutes <p>Rinse with water for 10 minutes</p>
	Coloring; Staining with Hematoxylin/Eosin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *1 Glass staining dish of Harris hematoxylin for 5-10 minutes *1 Glass staining dish of acidified water *1 Glass staining dish water tank * 1 Glass staining dish of 96% ethanol * 1 Glass staining dish of eosin for 5 minutes * 2 Glass staining dish of acetone, 5 min each * 1 Glass staining dish of toluene or xylene until assembly.
Montage	<p>This operation consists of using a synthetic resin (EUKITT solution) to fix a coverslip on the section (the slide) in order to protect it from the chemical degradation of the dyes which oxidize in the air and mechanical breakage.</p>	
Microscopic observation	<p>The microscopic examination was performed using a photonic microscope, and each section was photographed.</p>	

II.5. Statistical Analysis:

The results obtained from mice paw Edema measurements (%AUG and %INH) were presented as mean (an average value) \pm SD. Then they have been analyzed using Student's t-test with XLstat.

The values of $P \leq 0.05$, $P \leq 0.01$ and $P \leq 0.001$ has been considered as :

-Significant (*), Very significant (**) and highly significant (***) compared to the inflammatory group (Inf) respectively.

-Significant (#), Very significant (##) and highly significant (###) compared to STD Respectively as well.

Results & Discussion

II. Evaluation of *in vivo* anti-Inflammatory activity:

II.1. Acute Toxicity Test:

No signs of toxicity (behavioral, neurological, respiratory abnormalities...) were observed in mice during the 14-day observation period following intra gastric gavage administration of ZnO nanoparticles at doses of (150, 300,1000 and 2000mg/kg). **(Tab07)**

Table 07: The results of toxicity signs observed during the 14 days after the administration of ZnO nanoparticles.

Doses	General Physical Signs (Macroscopic Observation) : • Hunched posture • Piloerection (fur standing up) • Hypothermia	Gastrointestinal & Excretory Signs : • Diarrhea • Abdominal distension • Bloody stools	Skin & Fur : • Alopecia (hair loss) • Swelling • Skin ulcers	Severe Toxicity : • Death
NP Extract : Lot 01 " 150mg "	-	-	-	-
NP Extract : Lot 02 " 300mg "	-	-	-	-
NP Extract : Lot 03 " 1000mg "	-	-	-	-
NP Extract : Lot 04 " 2000mg "	-	-	-	-

(-): No signs

Researchers are increasingly interested in phytochemicals as natural anti-inflammatory agents, in connection with advancements in nanotechnology (**Abidullah et al., 2022**). Traditional methods of nanoparticle synthesis are often toxic and pose environmental risks, making biosynthesis, which is more eco-friendly and safer, increasingly favored (**Hasan et al., 2021**). Plant-mediated synthesis is considered a sustainable approach (**Edo et al., 2025**). In this context, a study was conducted to evaluate the anti-inflammatory efficacy of biosynthesized zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs) in vivo.

Before conducting in vivo experiments, it is crucial to assess the safety profile of zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs) due to their potential applications in medicine and industry. Toxicity testing is an essential first step in identifying any adverse effects that may result from the administration of these nanoparticles (**Oberdörster et al., 2005**). In our study, we performed an acute toxicity test by administering varying doses of *Myrtus communis L.* biosynthesized ZnO NPs via oral gavage. The results showed that no behavioral changes or mortality were observed in mice, even at high doses up to 2000 mg/kg body weight over a 14-day observation period. These observations suggest that ZnO NPs, at the tested concentrations, do not have immediate toxic effects, which is promising for their future use (**Zhang et al., 2020**).

The absence of acute toxicity is consistent with other studies that have also reported low toxicity of ZnO NPs at similar doses (**Rajeswari et al., 2023; Soliman et al., 2023**). For instance, **Ahamed et al. (2010)** demonstrated that zinc oxide nanoparticles do not induce DNA damage in human cells at specific concentrations.

It is important to note that the safety of nanoparticles can vary depending on their size, shape, and synthesis method, highlighting the importance of rigorous evaluation for each type of nanoparticle. These results pave the way for further studies on the anti-inflammatory efficacy of ZnO NPs and reinforce their potential as safe therapeutic agents in medical applications (**Gopinath et al., 2014; Hussain et al., 2005**).

II. Evaluation of *in-vivo* Anti-Inflammatory Activity:

Evaluation of anti-inflammatory activity *in vivo* by Paw edema measurement:

The carrageenan-induced mouse paw inflammation model was used to evaluate both the preventive (pre-treatment) and curative (post-treatment) anti-inflammatory effects of zinc oxide nanoparticles. The quantification of paw edema through caliper or plethysmometry measurement provides a reliable and reproducible method to assess subcutaneous inflammation in the well-established carrageenan-induced mouse model. This standardized experimental approach remains one of the most practical and widely adopted systems for screening the anti-inflammatory potential of pharmacological compounds, as demonstrated in numerous studies (Cuzzocrea *et al.*, 1998; Gilroy *et al.*, 1999; Chauhan *et al.*, 2018)

II.1. Curative assessment:

II.1.1. Percentage Increase in Paw Edema in the curative group treated with Zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%AUG):

The histogram illustrates the anti-inflammatory effects of intraplantar carrageenan across four groups: C-INF (inflammation control), STD (diclofenac 50 mg/kg), NP's CRD1 (ZnO NPs 150 mg/kg), and NP's CRD2 (ZnO NPs 300 mg/kg). The C-INF group showed a significant increase in %AUG from the first hour, peaking before a slight decline at 6 hours. In contrast, both ZnO NP groups (CRD1 and CRD2) demonstrated statistically significant-inflammatory effects versus control ($p < 0.001$) starting at the first hour. The higher dose (CRD2) exhibited rapid onset, achieving maximal significance ($p < 0.001$) by the third hour, with progressively enhanced efficacy through later timepoints. The STD group displayed extremely significant effects from hour 2 ($p < 0.001$), sustaining this through hours 5–6. Comparative analysis revealed CRD2 matched diclofenac's anti-inflammatory efficacy in the late phase (both $p < 0.001$), with ZnO NPs showing marginally earlier numerical improvement at intermediate stages ($p < 0.05$ vs. STD from hour 4 onward). Annotations highlight highly significant reductions in %AUG for both ZnO NPs versus control ($p < 0.001$). These results underscore ZnO nanoparticles particularly CR D02 as a promising therapeutic alternative, offering comparable efficacy to standard diclofenac with potential

early-phase advantages in mitigating inflammatory responses. **Fig (31)**

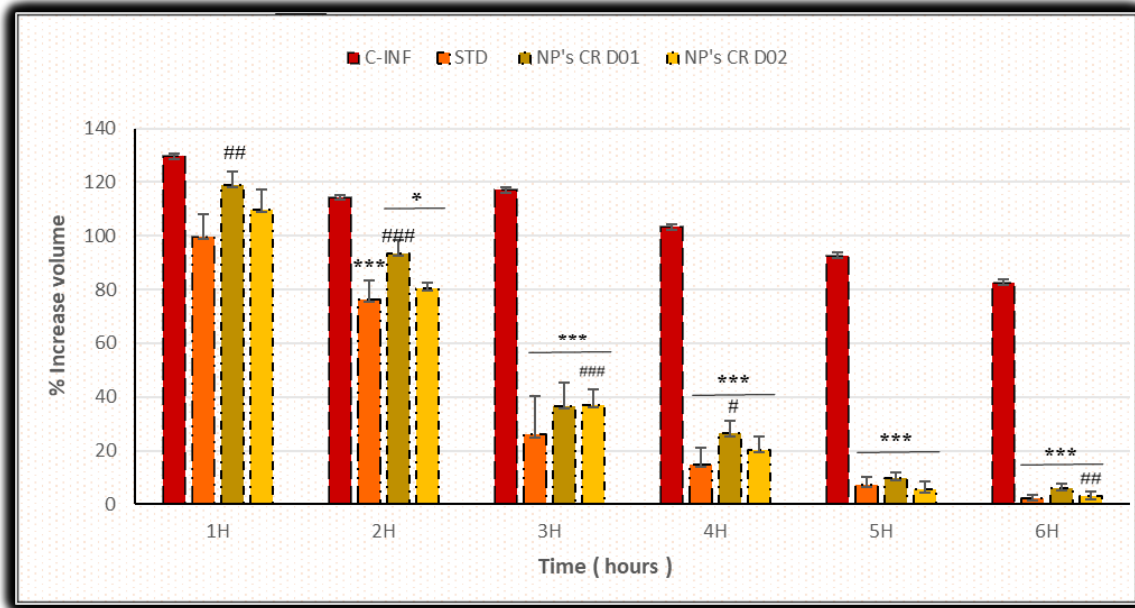


Figure 31: Percentage increase in paw edema (%AUG) over the six-hour period following inflammation induction. C-INF: Inflammation control group; groups treated with Zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs): ZnO NPs CRD1 (150 mg/kg), CRD2 (300 mg/kg); Standard group treated with Diclofenac at 50 mg/kg (STD). Values are expressed as means \pm SEM in each group (n=5). *P < 0.05 (significant), **P < 0.01 (highly significant), ***P < 0.001 (extremely significant) compared to the C-inf group. #P < 0.05 (significant), ##P < 0.01 (highly significant), ###P \leq 0.001 (extremely significant) compared to the standard (STD) group.

II.1.2. Percentage Inhibition of Inflammatory Edema in the curative group treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%INH):

The anti-inflammatory efficacy of zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs) was evaluated in a carrageenan-induced murine paw edema model. Treatment with 150 mg/kg ZnO NPs (D01 CR) demonstrated highly significant inhibition (P < 0.01) at multiple timepoints compared to the standard group, though with intermittent periods of non-significant activity. The higher-dose ZnO NP group (D02 CR, 300 mg/kg) showed more consistent but nonsignificant effects throughout the observation period when compared to STD. The reference standard diclofenac group (STD, 50 mg/kg) maintained extremely significant

anti-inflammatory effects ($P \leq 0.001$) from hour 2 through hour 6. Comparative analysis revealed that while CR 01 achieved statistically comparable effects to STD at selective timepoints, from the 4th hour up till the 6th, neither ZnO NP's formulation matched the sustained, extremely significant suppression demonstrated by the standard treatment throughout the entire observation period. **Fig (32)**

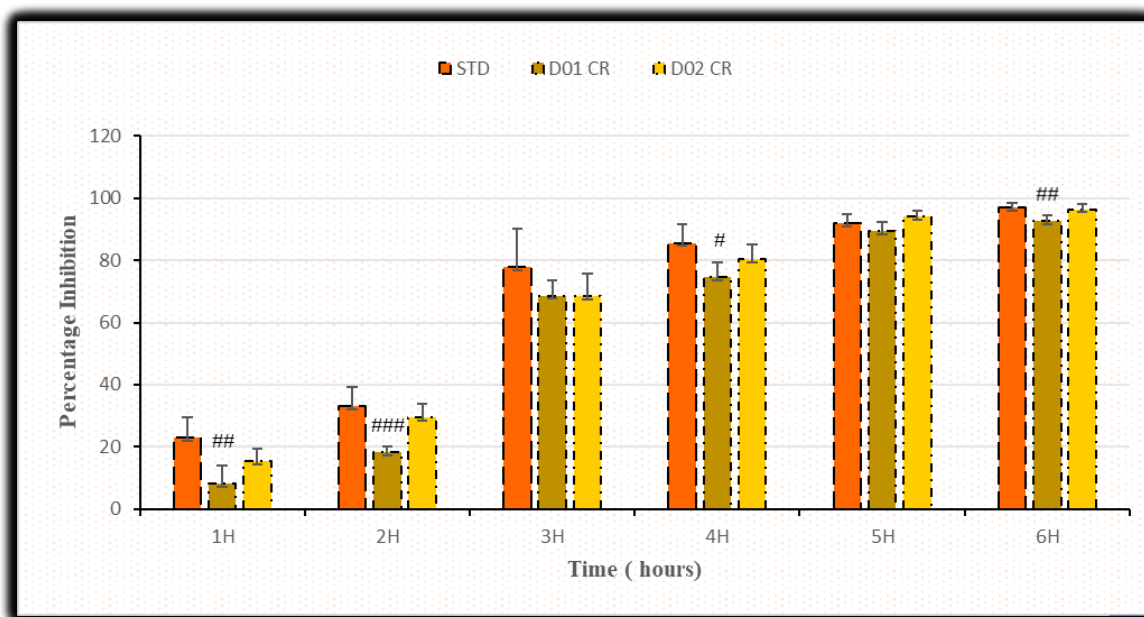


Figure 32: Percentage inhibition of paw edema (%INH) during the six-hour period following inflammation induction. Groups treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs): CRD1 (150 mg/kg), CRD2 (300 mg/kg), and the standard group treated with diclofenac (STD) at 50 mg/kg. Values are expressed as means \pm SEM for each group (n=5). # $P < 0.05$ (significant), ## $P < 0.01$ (highly significant), ### $P < 0.001$ (extremely significant) compared to the standard group (STD).

II.2. Prophylactic assessment:

II.2.1. Percentage Increase in Paw Edema in the preventive (prophylactic)

group treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%AUG):

The intraplantar administration of carrageenan induced significant edema in the control group (INF). In contrast, zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs) at doses of 150 mg/kg (D01 Pr) and 300 mg/kg (D02 Pr) demonstrated modest but statistically significant anti-inflammatory effects, with maximum efficacy observed between hours 5 and 6. The D02 Pr group showed a significant reduction ($P < 0.05$) in %AUG from the 2nd hour till the third, while D01 Pr exhibited a highly significant reduction ($P < 0.01$). Both groups achieved extremely significant reductions in %AUG ($P < 0.001$) between hours 5 and 6. Comparatively, the standard diclofenac treatment (STD) displayed extremely significant anti-inflammatory effects ($P < 0.001$) from hours 2 to 6, establishing a robust benchmark. The histogram illustrates these results, showing significant reductions in the ZnO NP groups compared to the control group and confirming the effectiveness of the standard treatment. **Fig (38)**

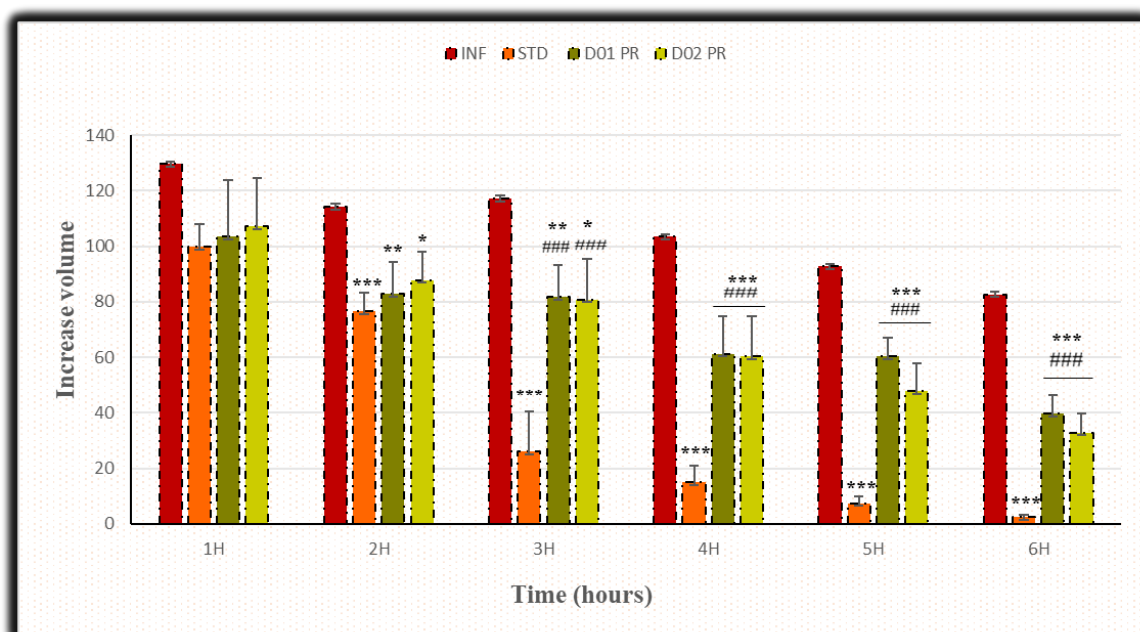


Figure 38: Percentage increase in paw edema (%AUG) over the six-hour period following inflammation induction. C-INF: Inflammation control group; groups pre-treated with Zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs): ZnO NPs PRD1 (150 mg/kg), PRD2 (300 mg/kg); Standard group treated with Diclofenac at 50 mg/kg (STD). Values are expressed as means

± SEM in each group (n=5). *P < 0.05 (significant), **P < 0.01 (highly significant), ***P < 0.001 (extremely significant) compared to the C-inf group. #P < 0.05 (significant), ##P < 0.01 (highly significant), ###P ≤ 0.001 (extremely significant) compared to the standard (STD) group.

II.2.2. Percentage Inhibition in Paw Edema in the preventive (prophylactic) group treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%INH):

The percentage inhibition (%INH) of paw edema showed distinct patterns among treatment groups. The standard diclofenac (STD) group exhibited significant efficacy, with extremely significant inhibition at 2 hours (##P < 0.01) till 6 hours (###P < 0.001), but only marginal effects at other times. In contrast, zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs)

PRD1 (150 mg/kg) showed weaker inhibition without statistical significance, while PRD2 (300 mg/kg) achieved significant inhibition by 5hr (#P < 0.05), though still less effective than STD (###P < 0.001). The STD group had a rapid onset of action, whereas both ZnO NP groups required prolonged exposure for detectable effects, with PRD2 showing delayed but dose-responsive inhibition.

The histogram highlighted these differences, illustrating the quick response of Diclofenac compared to the gradual increase in inhibition with ZnO NPs. **Fig (34)**

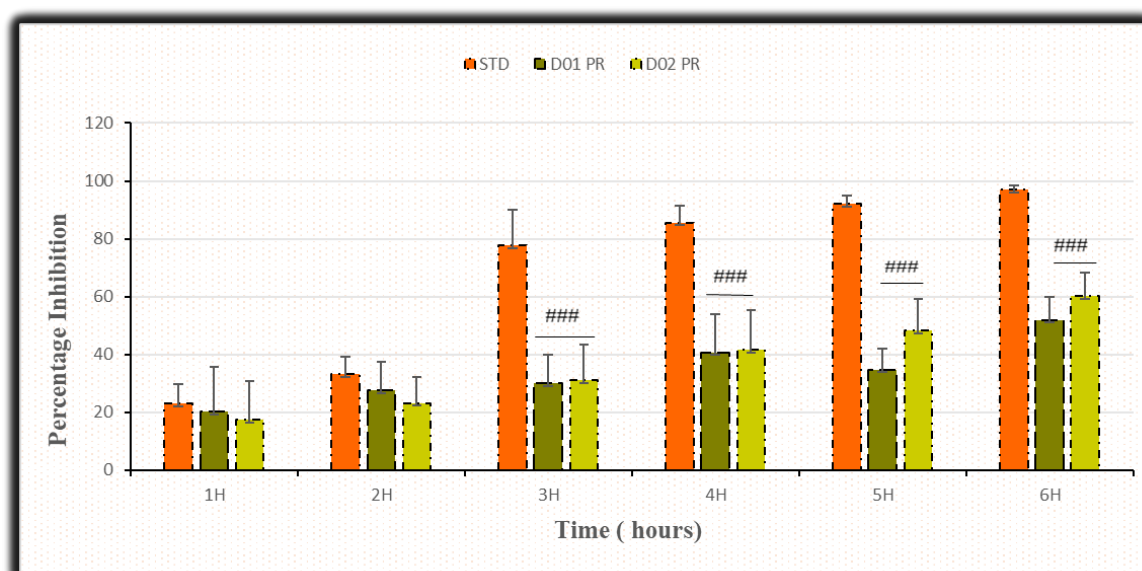


Figure 39: Percentage inhibition of paw edema (%INH) during the six-hour period following inflammation induction. Groups pre-treated with zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO NPs): PRD1 (150 mg/kg), PRD2 (300 mg/kg), and the standard group treated

with diclofenac (STD, 50 mg/kg). Values are expressed as means \pm SEM for each group (n=5). #P < 0.05 (significant), ##P < 0.01 (highly significant), ###P < 0.001 (extremely significant) compared to the standard group (STD).

Conclusion

Conclusion

Green synthesis, especially plant-mediated methods, offers a sustainable and safe approach to nanoparticle production, reducing environmental impact and costs while advancing nanotechnology.

Our experiment was primarily based on the *in vivo* evaluation of the anti-inflammatory activity of the aqueous extract ZnO NPs biosynthesized from *Myrtus communis L.* leaf extract.

The biosynthesized ZnO NPs exhibited no acute toxicity at doses up to 2000 mg/kg, indicating a favorable safety profile for *in vivo* applications.

The carrageenan-induced paw edema model confirmed that ZnO NPs, particularly at both doses 300 mg/kg D02 Cr for the Curative assessment and 300mg/kg D02 Pr for the prophylactic assessment, exerting an anti-edematous activity, comparable to the reference drug diclofenac (50 mg/kg). This effect was statistically significant. D02 Pr showed a delayed effect at the late hours of the experiment starting from the 5th hour.

Histopathological analyses substantiated these findings, revealing reduced edema, minimal leukocyte infiltration, and restored tissue architecture in treated groups, especially with the D02 Cr (300 mg/kg) dose, as for D02 Pr (300mg/kg) showed a reduced but yet persistent edema inflammatory infiltration. The presence of flavonoids, alkaloids, tannins, and terpenoids (confirmed through FTIR spectroscopy) suggests a synergistic mechanism between the ZnO core and bioactive plant compounds, enhancing anti-inflammatory efficacy.

These results propose that ZnO NPs synthesized from *Myrtus communis L.* not only offer a biocompatible and eco-friendly alternative to conventional anti-inflammatory drugs but also benefit from the intrinsic therapeutic properties of plant-derived compounds. The observed pharmacological activity is likely attributed to both the metallic core and the phytochemical surface coating, reinforcing the concept of synergy in green nanomedicine. In conclusion, the biosynthesized ZnO NPs represent a promising and multifunctional nanomaterial for anti-inflammatory therapy, warranting continued research and potential

development into safe, plant-based nano pharmaceuticals.

Further investigations are recommended to elucidate the precise molecular mechanisms underlying this anti-inflammatory activity and to isolate, quantify, and characterize the bioactive phytoconstituents responsible for nanoparticle formation and stabilization. Advanced analytical techniques such as X-Ray Diffraction (XRD), Transmission Electron Microscopy and Scanning Electron Microscopy (TEM/SEM) image analysis techniques should be employed to complement FTIR data and deepen our understanding of the structure-activity relationships.

References

A

1. Abdelhalim, H., & Arora, S. (2022). Identification of Anti-Inflammatory Compounds Present in *Nigella Sativa* and Analyzing Their Effects on the Inflammation Pathway Using In Silico Techniques. *Aresty Rutgers Undergraduate Research Journal*, 1(4).
2. Abidullah, S., Rauf, A., Khan, S. W., Ayaz, A., Liaquat, F., & Saqib, S. (2022). A comprehensive review on distribution, pharmacological uses and biological activities of *Argyrobium roseum* (Cambess.) Jaub. & Spach. *Acta Ecologica Sinica*, 42(3), 198–205.
3. Abidullah, S., Rauf, A., Khan, S. W., Ayaz, A., Liaquat, F., & Saqib, S. (2022). A comprehensive review on distribution, pharmacological uses and biological activities of *Argyrobium roseum* (Cambess.) Jaub. & Spach. *Acta Ecologica Sinica*, 42(3), 198–205.
4. Ahamed, M., et al. (2010). DNA damage and apoptosis induced by zinc oxide nanoparticles in human skin fibroblast cells. *Toxicology Letters*, 195(1), 1–7.
5. Ahmad, Aftab, et al. (2013). A review on therapeutic potential of *Nigella sativa*: A miracle herb. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, 3(5), 337–352.
6. Ali, B. H., & Blunden, G. (2003). Pharmacological and toxicological properties of *Nigella sativa*. *Phytotherapy Research*, 17(4), 299–305.
7. Amin, B., & Hosseinzadeh, H. (2016). Black Cumin (*Nigella sativa*) and Its Active Constituent, Thymoquinone: An Overview on the Analgesic and Anti-inflammatory Effects. *Planta Medica*, 82(1–2), 8–16.
8. Amendola, V., & Meneghetti, M. (2009). Laser ablation synthesis in solution and size manipulation of noble metal nanoparticles. *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 11, 3805–3821.
9. Altammar, K. A. (2023). A review on nanoparticles: characteristics, synthesis, applications, and challenges. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 14, 1155622.
10. ARC West. (2022). Inflammatory markers explained. Retrieved from [ARC West]

B

11. Baig, N., Kammakakam, I., & Falath, W. (2021). Nanomaterials: A review of synthesis methods, properties, recent progress, and challenges. *Materials Advances*, 2, 1821–1871.
12. Bakara, S. M. P., Sinaga, S. N., Manurung, H. R., Damanik, O., Bakara, C. V., & Gulo, P. (2024). POTENTIAL OF ROSELLA (*Hibiscus sabdariffa* L) AS A HERBAL MEDICINE FOR HEALTH. *Journal of Public Health Science*, 1(4), 340–349.
13. Bal, T. (2024). Invitro-invivo evaluations of green synthesized zinc oxide (ZnO) nanoparticles using *Ipomoea aquatica* leaf extract as matric and fillers. *Journal of the Mechanical Behavior of Biomedical Materials*, 150, 106330.
14. Barrett, K. E., Barman, S. M., Brooks, H. L., & Yuan, J. X.-J. (2019). *Ganong's review of medical physiology* (26th ed.). McGraw-Hill Education.

15. Bae, H. R., Leung, P. S., Hodge, D. L., Fenimore, J. M., Jeon, S.-M., Thovarai, V., Dzutsev, A., Welcher, A. A., Boedigheimer, M., Damore, M. A., et al. (2020). Multi-omics: Differential expression of IFN- γ results in distinctive mechanistic features linking chronic inflammation, gut dysbiosis, and autoimmune diseases. *Journal of Autoimmunity*, *111*, 102436.
16. Berenbaum, F. (2013). Osteoarthritis as an inflammatory disease. *Osteoarthritis and Cartilage*, *21*(1), 16–21.
17. Bernstein, J. E., Bickers, D. R., Dahl, M. V., & Roshal, J. Y. (1987). Treatment of chronic postherpetic neuralgia with topical capsaicin: A preliminary study. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology*, *17*, 93–96.
18. Bindu, S., Mazumder, S., & Bandyopadhyay, U. (2020). Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and organ damage: A current perspective. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, *180*, 114147.
19. Bischoff-Kont, I., & Fürst, R. (2021). Benefits of ginger and its constituent 6-shogaol in inhibiting inflammatory processes. *Pharmaceuticals*, *14*(6), 571.
20. Biswas, P., & Wu, C. Y. (2005). Nanoparticles and the environment. *Journal of the Air & Waste Management Association*, *55*(6), 708–746.
21. Bitari, A., Oualdi, I., Touzani, R., Elachouri, M., & Legssyer, A. (2023). Zingiber officinale Roscoe: A comprehensive review of clinical properties. *Materials Today: Proceedings*, *72*, 3757-3767.
22. Blanpain, C., & Fuchs, E. (2014). Stem cell plasticity: Plasticity of epithelial stem cells in tissue regeneration. *Science*, *344*(6189),
23. Bokov, D., Turki Jalil, A., Chupradit, S., Suksatan, W., Javed Ansari, M., Shewael, I. H., ... & Kianfar, E. (2021). Nanomaterial by sol-gel method: synthesis and application. *Advances in Materials Science and Engineering*, *2021*(1), 5102014.
24. Braun, C. A., & Anderson, C. M. (2023). *Pathophysiology: Functional Alterations in Human Health*.
25. Brown, M. S., & Goldstein, J. L. (1983). Lipoprotein metabolism in the macrophage: Implications for cholesterol deposition in atherosclerosis. *Annual Review of Biochemistry*, *52*, 223–261.
26. Buniyamin, I., Akhir, R. M., Asli, N. A., Khusaimi, Z., & Mahmood, M. R. (2021, June). Effect of calcination time on biosynthesised SnO₂ nanoparticles using bioactive compound from leaves extract of *Chromolaena odorata*. In *AIP Conference Proceedings* (Vol. 2368, No. 1). AIP Publishing.
27. Buzea, C., Pacheco, I. I., & Robbie, K. (2007). Nanomaterials and nanoparticles: sources and toxicity. *Biointerphases*, *2*(4), MR17–MR71.
28. BV, S. S. (2024). Anti-Inflammatory Effects of *Zingiber officinale*: A Comprehensive Review of Its Bioactive Compounds and Therapeutic Potential. *medtigo Journal*, *2*(3).

29. Calhelha, R. C., Haddad, H., Ribeiro, L., Heleno, S. A., Carocho, M., & Barros, L. (2023). Inflammation: What's There and What's New? *Applied Sciences*, *13*(4), 2312.
30. Carmeliet, P., & Jain, R. K. (2011). Molecular mechanisms and clinical applications of angiogenesis. *Nature*, *473*(7347), 298–307.
31. Carr, L. (2023). Innate immunity: Inflammation and phagocytosis | Study guide for. *Course Sidekick*. <https://www.coursesidekick.com/biology/1571114>
32. Chakraborty, R. K., & Burns, B. (2023). Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome. In *StatPearls [Internet]*. StatPearls Publishing.
33. Calhelha, R. C., Ferreira, I. C. F. R., Estevinho, L. M., & Queiroz, M. J. R. P. (2023). Insights into chronic inflammation and associated diseases: Mechanisms and therapeutic strategies. *Pharmacological Research*, *187*, 106603.
34. Chandrasoma, P., & Taylor, C. R. (1998). *Concise pathology* (3rd ed.). Appleton & Lange.
35. Chauhan, P., Singh, S., Gupta, Y., & Kumar, U. (2018). Evaluation of toxicity studies and anti-inflammatory activity of *Terminalia bellerica* in carrageenan-induced paw edema in experimental rats. *Journal of Natural Science, Biology and Medicine*, *9*(2), 169.
36. Chakraborty, R. K., & Burns, B. (2023). *Systemic inflammatory response syndrome*. In StatPearls [Internet]. StatPearls Publishing.
37. Chen, L., Deng, H., Cui, H., Fang, J., Zuo, Z., Deng, J., Li, Y., Wang, X., & Zhao, L. (2018). Inflammatory responses and inflammation-associated diseases in organs. *Oncotarget*, *9*(6), 7204–7218.
38. Chernecky, C. C., & Berger, B. J. (2012). *Laboratory tests and diagnostic procedures* (6th ed.). Elsevier Saunders.
39. Chopra, D., Shukla, S., Rana, P., Kamar, M. D., Gaur, P., Bala, M., & Pathaniya, D. (2024). Overview of Inflammation. In *Inflammation Resolution and Chronic Diseases* (pp. 1–18). Springer Nature Singapore.
40. Choudhry, M. A., Bland, K. I., & Chaudry, I. H. (2007). Trauma and immune response effect of gender differences. *Injury*, *38*(12), 1382–1391.
41. Crotty, S. (2019). T follicular helper cell biology: A decade of discovery and diseases. *Immunity*, *50*(5), 1132–1148.
42. Crouzilles, C., & Siebert, C. (2013). *Processus inflammatoires et infectieux : Unité d'enseignement 2.5*. Elsevier Masson.
43. Cuzzocrea, S., Zingarelli, B., Hake, P., Salzman, A. L., & Szabo, C. (1998). Anti-inflammatory Effects of Mercaptoethylguanidine, a Combined Inhibitor of Nitric Oxide Synthase and Peroxynitrite Scavenger, in Carrageenan-induced Models of Inflammation. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, *24*(3), 450–459.

D

44. Da Silveira Vasconcelos, M., Mota, E. F., Gomes-Rochette, N. F., Nunes-Pinheiro, D. C. S., Nabavi, S. M., & de Melo, D. F. (2019). Ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe). In *Nonvitamin and Nonmineral Nutritional Supplements* (pp. 235–239). Elsevier.
45. Darby, I. A., & Hewitson, T. D. (2016). Fibroblast differentiation in wound healing and fibrosis. *International Review of Cytology*, 257, 143–179.
46. Das, S., & Srivasatava, V. C. (2016). Synthesis and characterization of ZnO–MgO nanocomposite by co-precipitation method. *Smart Science*, 4, 190–195.
47. Dharmapala, K. P., & Amarakoon, R. (2024). An Evaluation of Antimicrobial Activity of Common *Zingiber officinale* Cultivars Grown in Sri Lanka. *European Journal of Agriculture and Food Sciences*, 6(3), 33–38. <https://doi.org/10.24018/ejfood.2024.6.3.804>
48. Donath, M. Y. (2014). Targeting inflammation in the treatment of type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 36(Suppl 2), S223–S229.
49. Duggi Shrishail, Handral Harish K., Handral Ravichandra, Tulsianand, G. and Shruthi, S.D. (2013). Turmeric: Nature's Precious Medicine. *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research*, 6(3), 10–16.

E

50. Edo, G. I., Mafe, A. N., Ali, A. B., Akpoghelie, P. O., Yousif, E., Isoje, E. F., ... & Alamiery, A. A. (2025). Green Biosynthesis of Nanoparticles Using Plant Extracts: Mechanisms, Advances, Challenges, and Applications. *BioNanoScience*, 15(2), 267.
51. Eker, F., Duman, H., Akdaşçi, E., Bolat, E., Sarıtaş, S., Karay, S., & Witkowska, A. M. (2024). A Comprehensive Review of Nanoparticles: From Classification to Application and Toxicity. *Molecules*, 29(15), 3482.
52. Elena S. L., Daniela G. , Gerard E. , Lorena B. , Ana L. L. M. , Ruth G. , Amanda C., Marta E., Miren E., Antoni C., Amélia M. S., Alessandra D., Antonello S., Maria L. G. & Eliana B. S., (2020). Metal-Based Nanoparticles as Antimicrobial Agents: An Overview. *Nanomaterials*, 10(2), 292.
53. Eming, S. A., Martin, P., & Tomic-Canic, M. (2014). Wound repair and regeneration: Mechanisms, signaling, and translation. *Science Translational Medicine*, 6(265), 265sr6.

F

54. Faisto, N., Campbell, J. S., & Riehle, K. J. (2012). Liver regeneration. *Hepatology*, 55(3), 965–970.
55. Faure, S. (2009). Anti-inflammatoires stéroïdiens. *Actualités Pharmaceutiques*, 48(487), 51–56.
56. Fausto, N., Campbell, J. S., & Riehle, K. J. (2012). Liver regeneration. *Hepatology*, 55(3), 965–974. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hep.25551>

57. Faure, S. (2009). Anti-inflammatoires stéroïdiens. *Actualités Pharmaceutiques*, 48(487), 51–56.
58. Febriantini, D., Liandi, A. R., & Yulizar, Y. (2024). A comprehensive study on the influence of single and multiple phytochemicals in facilitating green synthesis of ZrO₂ nanoparticles. **Nano-Structures & Nano-Objects*, 39*, 101303.
59. Ferrero-Miliani, L., Nielsen, O. H., Andersen, P. S., & Girardin, S. E. (2007). Chronic inflammation: Importance of NOD2 and NALP3 in interleukin-1 β generation. *Clinical and Experimental Immunology*, 147, 227–235.
60. Faisal, S., Jan, H., Abdullah, Alam, I., Rizwan, M., Hussain, Z., ... & Uddin, M. N. (2022). In vivo analgesic, anti-inflammatory, and anti-diabetic screening of *Bacopa monnieri*-synthesized copper oxide nanoparticles. *ACS Omega*, 7(5), 4071–4082.
61. Flannagan, R. S., Jaumouillé, V., & Grinstein, S. (2012). The cell biology of phagocytosis. *Annual Review of Pathology: Mechanisms of Disease*, 7, 61-98. DOI: 10.1146/annurev-pathol-011811-132445
62. Fokunang, C., Fokunang, E. T., Frederick, K., Ngameni, B., & Ngadjui, B. (2018). Overview of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) in resource limited countries. *MOJ Toxicology*, 4(1), 5–13.
63. Friedman, B. W. (2019). Inflammation. In *Merck manual professional version*. Merck & Co.
64. Furman, D., Campisi, J., Verdin, E., Carrera-Bastos, P., Targ, S., Franceschi, C., Ferrucci, L., Gilroy, D. W., Fasano, A., Miller, G. W., & Slavich, G. M. (2019). Chronic inflammation in the etiology of disease across the life span. *Nature Medicine*, 25(12), 1822–1832.

G

65. Garg, M., & Haller, H. (2018). Inflammation in cardiovascular diseases: A comprehensive review. *European Journal of Inflammation*, 16, 1–10.
66. Gabbiani, G. (2003). The myofibroblast in wound healing and fibrocontractive diseases. *The Journal of Pathology*, 200(4), 500–503.
67. Ghlichloo, I., & Gerriets, V. (2019). Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs). (last update 2023).
68. Ghosh, S., Ahmad, R., Zeyauallah, M., & Khare, S. K. (2021). Microbial nano-factories: synthesis and biomedical applications. *Frontiers in Chemistry*, 9, 194.
69. Gigault, J. (2011). Développement de méthodes de Fractionnement par couplage Flux-Force (FFF)–multi-détection pour la caractérisation de nanotubes de carbone dispersés en milieu aqueux (Doctoral dissertation, Université de Pau et des pays de l'Adour).

70. Gilroy, D. W., Colville-Nash, P. R., Willis, D., Chivers, J., Paul-Clark, M. J., & Willoughby, D. A. (1999). Inducible cyclooxygenase may have anti-inflammatory properties. *Nature Medicine*, *5*(6), 698–701.
71. Gopinath, S. C. B., et al. (2014). Zinc oxide nanoparticles: A new therapeutic agent for bacterial infections. *Journal of Nanobiotechnology*, *12*(1), 1–10.
72. Gorrasi, G., & Sorrentino, A. (2015). Mechanical milling as a technology to produce structural and functional bio-nanocomposites. *Green Chemistry*, *17*, 2610–2625.
73. Gurtner, G. C., Werner, S., Barrandon, Y., & Longaker, M. T. (2008). Wound repair and regeneration. *Nature*, *453*(7193), 314–321.
74. Gupta, M., Singh, N., Gulati, M., Gupta, R., Sudhakar, K., & Kapoor, B. (2021). Herbal bioactives in treatment of inflammation: An overview. *South African Journal of Botany*, *143*, 205–225.
75. Gutsche, J., & Deutschman, C. S. (2007). Sepsis, systemic inflammatory response syndrome, and multiple organ dysfunction syndrome. In J. L. Atlee (Ed.), *Complications in anesthesia* (2nd ed., pp. 496–499). W.B. Saunders.

H

76. Hajar, R. (2021). The Greco-Roman Contribution to Modern Medicine. *Heart Views*, *22*(1), 50–53.
77. Halpern, J. (2023). 6.2.6: Inflammation and fever – Biology LibreTexts. Retrieved from https://bio.libretexts.org/Courses/Prince_Georges_Community_College/PGCC_Microbiology/06%3A_Immunology/6.02%3A_Non-Adaptive_Immunity/6.2.06%3A_Inflammation_and_Fever
78. Han, X., Xu, K., Taratula, O., & Farsad, K. (2019). Applications of nanoparticles in biomedical imaging. *Nanoscale*, *11*(3), 799–819.
79. Hasan, M., Altaf, M., Zafar, A., Hassan, S. G., Ali, Z., Mustafa, G., ... & Shu, X. (2021). Bioinspired synthesis of zinc oxide nano-flowers: A surface enhanced antibacterial and harvesting efficiency. *Materials Science and Engineering: C*, *119*, 111280.
80. Hasan, S. (2015). A review on nanoparticles: their synthesis and types. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*, *2277*, 2502.
81. Heuer-Jungemann, A.; Feliu, N.; Bakaimi, I.; Hamaly, M.; Alkilany, A.; Chakraborty, I.; Masood, A.; Casula, M.F.; Kostopoulou, A.; Oh, E.; et al. (2019). The Role of Ligands in the Chemical Synthesis and Applications of Inorganic Nanoparticles. *Chemical Reviews*, *119*, 4819–4880.
82. Heneka, M. T., Kummer, M. P., & Latz, E. (2025). Innate immune activation in neurodegenerative disease. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, *14*, 463–477.
83. Hinze, B., Phan, S. H., Thannickal, V. J., Galli, A., Bochaton-Piallat, M. L., & Gabbiani, G. (2012). The myofibroblast: One function, multiple origins. *American Journal of Pathology*, *170*(6), 1807–1816.

84. Hotamisligil, G. S. (2017). Inflammation, metaflammation and immunometabolic disorders. *Nature*, 542, 177–185.
85. Hunter, L., Wood, D., & Dargan. (2011). The patterns of toxicity and management of acute nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) overdose. *Open Access Emergency Medicine*, 39.
86. Hussain, S. M., et al. (2005). Toxicity evaluation of zinc oxide nanoparticles in human lung epithelial cells. *Journal of Nanoparticle Research*, 7(4), 621–623.
87. Hutter, E., & Maysinger, D. (2011). Gold nanoparticles and quantum dots for bioimaging. *Microscopy Research and Technique*, 74(7), 592–604.

I

88. Igc, R. (2018). The Discovery of Prostaglandins. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 293(20), 7725–7726.
89. Iravani, S. (2011). Green synthesis of metal nanoparticles using plants. *Green Chemistry*, 13(10), 2638–2650.
90. Islam, M. Z., Akter, J., Hossain, M. A., Islam, M. S., Islam, P., Goswami, C., ... & Miyamoto, A. (2024). Anti-Inflammatory, Wound Healing, and Anti-Diabetic Effects of Pure Active Compounds Present in the Ryudai Gold Variety of *Curcuma longa*. *Molecules*, 29(12), 2795.

J

91. Jamshidi-Kia, F., Lorigooini, Z., & Amini-Khoei, H. (2018). Medicinal plants: Past history and future perspective. *Journal of Herbmed Pharmacology*, 7, 1–7.
92. Jeffers, M. D. (2006). Tannins as anti-inflammatory agents (Master's thesis, Miami University).
93. Joh, D.-W., Jung, T.-T., Lee, H.-S., & Kim, D.-H. (2013). Synthesis of nanoparticles using electrical explosion of Ni wire in Pt solution. *Journal of Nanoscience and Nanotechnology*, 13, 6092–6094.
94. Joseph, T. M., Kar Mahapatra, D., Esmaceli, A., Piszczyk, Ł., Hasanin, M. S., Kattali, M., Haponiuk, J., & Thomas, S. (2023). Nanoparticles: Taking a Unique Position in Medicine. *Nanomaterials*, 13(3), 574.
95. Joudeh, N., & Linke, D. (2022). Nanoparticle classification, physicochemical properties, characterization, and applications: a comprehensive review for biologists. *Journal of Nanobiotechnology*, 20(1), 262.
96. Jurenka, J. S. (2009). Anti-inflammatory properties of curcumin, a major constituent of *Curcuma longa*: a review of preclinical and clinical research. *Alternative Medicine Review*, 14(2), 141–153.

K

97. Khan, A. (2024). *Inflammation: Mechanisms and clinical implications*. Academic Press.
98. Khan, M. B., Rabby, M. A., Ullah, M. H., & Hossain, C. F. (2013). Investigation of antimicrobial and anti-inflammatory activity of *Curcuma longa*. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research*, 4(3), 1105.
99. Khan, Y., Sadia, H., Ali Shah, S. Z., Khan, M. N., Shah, A. A., Ullah, N., ... & Khan, M. I. (2022). Classification, synthetic, and characterization approaches to nanoparticles, and their applications in various fields of nanotechnology: a review. *Catalysts*, 12(11), 1386.
100. Kizhakkayil, J., & Sasikumar, B. (2011). Diversity, characterization and utilization of ginger: a review. *Plant Genetic Resources*, 9(03), 464–477.
101. Köckerling, F., Köckerling, D., & Lomas, C. (2013). Celsus and the four cardinal signs of inflammation: A historical perspective. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, 106(12), 482–485.
102. Kokorina, A. A., Ermakov, A. V., Abramova, A. M., Goryacheva, I. Y., & Sukhorukov, G. B. (2020). Carbon nanoparticles and materials on their basis. *Colloids and Interfaces*, 4(4), 42.
103. Kolaczowska, E., & Kubes, P. (2013). Neutrophil recruitment and function in health and inflammation. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 13(3), 159–175
104. Khalisanni K., Xuefei T., Hayyiratul F. M. Z., Yang T. , Chien L. C. , Dinh-Toi C., Man, Kee L. , Yeek C. H. , Jun W. L., & Lai C. W., (2020). Advanced in developmental organic and inorganic nanomaterial: a review. *Bioengineered*, 11(1), 328–355.
105. Kumari, S., & Sarkar, L. (2021). A review on nanoparticles: Structure, classification, synthesis & applications. *Journal of Scientific Research*, 65(8), 42–46.
106. Kumari, S. C., Dhand, V., & Padma, P. N. (2021). Green synthesis of metallic nanoparticles: a review. *Nanomaterials*, 2021, 259–281.
107. Kumar, A., & Singh, R. (2022). Mechanisms of protein denaturation in inflammatory diseases. *Clinical and Experimental Immunology*, 208(2), 123–134.
108. Kumar, R., & Lal, S. (2014). Synthesis of organic nanoparticles and their applications in drug delivery and food nanotechnology: a review. *Journal of Nanomaterials and Molecular Nanotechnology*, 3(4).
109. Kumar, V., Abbas, A. K., & Aster, J. C. (2020). *Robbins and Cotran pathologic basis of disease* (10th ed.). Elsevier.

L

110. Lawrence, T., Willoughby, D. A., & Gilroy, D. W. (2002). Anti-inflammatory lipid mediators and insights into the resolution of inflammation. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 2(10), 787–795.

111. Lemaitre, B., Nicolas, E., Michaut, L., Reichhart, J. M., & Hoffmann, J. A. (1996). The dorsoventral regulatory gene cassette controls the antifungal immune response in *Drosophila*. *Cell*, 86(6), 973–983.
112. Levin, R., Grinstein, S., & Canton, J. (2016). The life cycle of phagosomes: Formation, maturation, and resolution. *Immunological Reviews*, 273(1), 156-179.
113. Li, X., Xu, H., Chen, Z.-S., & Chen, G. (2011). Biosynthesis of nanoparticles by microorganisms and their applications. *Journal of Nanomaterials*, 2011, 270974.
114. Libby, P. (2021). Inflammation during the life cycle of the atherosclerotic plaque. *Cardiovascular Research*, 117(13), 2525–2536.

M

115. Malhotra, S. P. K., & Alghuthaymi, M. A. (2022). Biomolecule-assisted biogenic synthesis of metallic nanoparticles. *Agri-Waste and Microbial Production of Sustainable Nanomaterials, 2022*, 139–163.
116. Mantovani, A., & Allavena, P. (2020). The interaction of anticancer therapies with tumor-associated macrophages. *Journal of Experimental Medicine*, 212(4), 435–445.
117. Masters, T. A., Pontes, B., Viasnoff, V., Li, Y., & Gauthier, N. C. (2013). Plasma membrane tension orchestrates membrane trafficking, cytoskeletal remodeling, and biochemical signaling during phagocytosis. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 110(29), 11875-11880.
118. Marslin, G., Siram, K., Maqbool, Q., Selvakesavan, R. K., Kruszka, D., Kachlicki, P., & Franklin, G. (2018). Secondary Metabolites in the Green Synthesis of Metallic Nanoparticles. *Materials*, 11(6), 940.
119. Martins, Y. C., Ribeiro-Gomes, F. L., & Daniel-Ribeiro, C. T. (2023). Historical perspectives on inflammation: From humors to toxins. *Journal of Inflammation Research*, 16, 123–135.
120. Matzinger, P. (1994). Tolerance, danger, and the extended family. *Annual Review of Immunology*, 12, 991–1045.
121. Matzinger, P. (2002). The danger model: A renewed sense of self. *Science*, 296(5566), 301–305.
122. Medzhitov, R. (2010). Inflammation 2010: New adventures of an old flame. *Cell*, 140(6), 771–776.
123. Medzhitov, R., & Janeway, C. (2000). Innate immunity. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 343(5), 338–344.
124. Medzhitov, R., Preston-Hurlburt, P., & Janeway, C. A. Jr. (1997). A human homologue of the *Drosophila* Toll protein signals activation of adaptive immunity. *Nature*, 388(6640), 394–397.

125. Miller, A. H., & Raison, C. L. (2016). The role of inflammation in depression: From evolutionary imperative to modern treatment target. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 16(1), 22–34.
126. Mittal, A. K., Chisti, Y., & Banerjee, U. C. (2013). Synthesis of metallic nanoparticles using plant extracts. *Biotechnology Advances*, 31(2), 346–356.
127. Moldovan, B., David, L., Vulcu, A., Olenic, L., Perde-Schrepler, M., Fischer-Fodor, E., ... & Filip, G. A. (2017). In vitro and in vivo anti-inflammatory properties of green synthesized silver nanoparticles using *Viburnum opulus* L. fruits extract. *Materials Science and Engineering: C*, 79, 720–727.
128. Mulvaney, P. (2015). Nanoscience vs Nanotechnology Defining the Field. *ACS Nano*, 9(3), 2215–2217.
129. Murphy, K., & Weaver, C. (2022). *Janeway's immunobiology* (10th ed.). Garland Science.
130. Mutthuraj, D., Vinutha, T., Gopenath, T. S., Kaginelli, S. B., Karthikeyan, M., Ashok, G., ... & Basalingappa, K. M. (2020). Inhibition of Pro-Inflammatory Molecules by Ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe) and its Anti-Inflammatory Effects on Arthritis Patients. *Journal of Drug Delivery & Therapeutics*, 10.

N

131. Nakamura, T., & Tsuji, A. (2023). Membrane dynamics in inflammatory responses: Effects on cellular signaling and interaction. *Cellular Physiology and Biochemistry*, 57(3), 456–469.
132. Nathan, C. (2006). Neutrophils and immunity: Challenges and opportunities. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 6(3), 173–182.
133. Nurnasari, E., & Khuluq, A. D. (2018). Potensi Diversifikasi Rosela Herbal (*Hibiscus sabdariffa* L.) untuk Pangan dan Kesehatan. *Buletin Tanaman Tembakau, Serat & Minyak Industri*, 9(2), 82

O

134. Oakes, S., Kumar, V., Abbas, A., & Aster, J. (2021). Cell injury, cell death, and adaptations. In *Robbins and cotran pathologic basis of diseases* (10th ed., pp. 33–69). Elsevier.
135. Oberdörster, G., et al. (2005). Nanotoxicology: An emerging discipline evolving from studies of ultrafine particles. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 113(7), 823–839.
136. OECD. (2008). *Test No. 425: Acute Oral Toxicity: Up-and-Down Procedure*. OECD.
137. Ogawa, R. (2019). Keloid and hypertrophic scars are the result of chronic inflammation in the reticular dermis. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 20(3), 606.
138. Ong, C. K. S., Seymour, R. A., Lirk, P., & Merry, A. F. (2022). Combining paracetamol (acetaminophen) with nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs: A qualitative systematic

review of analgesic efficacy for acute postoperative pain. *Anesthesia & Analgesia*, 130(3), 579–588.

139. Ovais, M., Khalil, A. T., Islam, N. U., Ahmad, I., Ayaz, M., Saravanan, M., ... & Mukherjee, S. (2018). Role of plant phytochemicals and microbial enzymes in biosynthesis of metallic nanoparticles. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 102, 6799–6814.

P

140. Pahwa, R., Goyal, A., & Jialal, I. (2025). Chronic inflammation. In *StatPearls*. StatPearls Publishing.
141. Patil, M. P., & Kim, G.-D. (2018). Marine microorganisms for synthesis of metallic nanoparticles and their biomedical applications. *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, 172, 487–495.
142. Pesce, G., et al. (2025). Systemic inflammation prevalence in patients with atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease and chronic kidney disease. *Frontiers in Cardiovascular Medicine*.
143. Pise, H. N., & Padwal, S. L. (2017). Evaluation of anti-inflammatory activity of *Nigella sativa*: An experimental study. *National Journal of Physiology, Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, 7(7), 707.
144. Pober, J. S., & Sessa, W. C. (2015). Inflammation and the blood microvascular system. *Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology*, 7(1), a016345.
145. Pradeep, T. (2009). Noble metal nanoparticles for water purification: a critical review. *Thin Solid Films*, 517, 6441–6478.

R

146. Rajeswari, V., et al. (2023). Safety and efficacy of zinc oxide nanoparticles: A review. *Journal of Nanomedicine*.
147. Rajeswari, V. D., Khalifa, A. S., Elfakhany, A., Badruddin, I. A., Kamangar, S., & Brindhadevi, K. (2023). Green and ecofriendly synthesis of cobalt oxide nanoparticles using *Phoenix dactylifera* L: Antimicrobial and photocatalytic activity. *Applied Nanoscience*, 13(2), 1367–1375.
148. Ramakrishnan, L. (2013). Revisiting the role of the granuloma in tuberculosis. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 12(5), 352–366.
149. Rasmussen, J. W., Martinez, E., Louka, P., & Wingett, D. G. (2010). Zinc oxide nanoparticles for selective destruction of tumor cells and potential for drug delivery applications. *Expert Opinion on Drug Delivery*, 7(9), 1063–1077.
150. Ratheesh, M., Svenia, J. P., Sangeeth, S., Sheethal, S., Sony, R., Sandya, S., & Krishnakumar, I. M. (2021). Antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and anti-arthritis effect of thymoquinone-rich black cumin (*Nigella sativa*) oil (blaqmax®) on adjuvant-induced arthritis.

151. Reichardt, S. D., Amouret, A., Muzzi, C., Vettorazzi, S., Tuckermann, J. P., Lühder, F., & Reichardt, H. M. (2021). The role of glucocorticoids in inflammatory diseases. *Cells*, *10*(11), 2921.
152. Ridho, M. A. R., & Indriani, R. D. (2025). The potential of *Curcuma longa* as an antidiabetic agent: Review. *Journal of Medicine and Health Technology*, *2*(1).
153. Ronchetti, S., Migliorati, G., Bruscoli, S., & Riccardi, C. (2018). Defining the role of glucocorticoids in inflammation. *Clinical Science*, *132*(14), 1529–1543.
154. Rothenberg, R. J., & Holcomb, J. P. (2000). Guidelines for Monitoring of NSAIDS Who Listened? *JCR: Journal of Clinical Rheumatology*, *6*(5), 258–265.

S

155. Schuetz, P., et al. (2019). Procalcitonin (PCT)-guided antibiotic stewardship: an international experts' consensus on optimized clinical use. *Clin Chem Lab Med*, *57*(9), 1308-1318.
156. Schjerning, AM., McGettigan, P. & Gislason, G. (2020). Cardiovascular effects and safety of (non-aspirin) NSAIDs. *Nature Reviews Cardiology*, *17*, 574–584.
157. Schwaiger, S., Adams, M., & Seger, C. (2004). New diterpenoids from *Euphorbia semiperfoliata*. *Journal of Natural Products*, *67*(5), 813–821.
158. Scott, A., Khan, K. M., Cook, J. L., & Duronio, V. (2004). What is 'inflammation'? Are we ready to move beyond Celsus? *British Journal of Sports Medicine*, *38*(3), 248–249.
159. Serhan, C. N., & Wasserman, S. (2006). Leukotrienes and inflammation. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, *6*(4), 244–251.
160. Sherwood, E. R., & Toliver-Kinsky, T. (2004). Mechanisms of the inflammatory response. *Best Practice & Research Clinical Anaesthesiology*, *18*(3), 385–405.
161. Singh, R. P., & Singh, K. R. (2021). Nanobiotechnology in animal production and health. In *Advances in animal genomics* (pp. 185–198). Academic Press.
162. Soliman, M., et al. (2023). Toxicological profiles of metal nanoparticles: Implications for biomedical applications. *Environmental Toxicology*.
163. Soliman, M. K., Salem, S. S., Abu-Elghait, M., & Azab, M. S. (2023). Biosynthesis of silver and gold nanoparticles and their efficacy towards antibacterial, antibiofilm, cytotoxicity, and antioxidant activities. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, *195*(2), 1158–1183.
164. Santiago, L. Â. M., Neto, R. N. M., Santos Ataíde, A. C., Fonseca, D. C. S. C., Soares, E. F. A., de Sá Sousa, J. C., ... & de Sousa, E. M. (2021). Flavonoids, alkaloids and saponins: Are these plant-derived compounds an alternative to the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis? A literature review. *Clinical Phytoscience*, *7*, 1–10.
165. Srimal, R. C., Khanna, K. M., & Dhawan, B. N. (1971). A preliminary report on anti-inflammatory activity of curcumin. *Indian Journal of Pharmacology*, *3*, 10.

166. Sulieman, A. M. E., Ibrahim, S. M., Alshammari, M., Abdulaziz, F., Idriss, H., Alanazi, N. A. H., Abdallah, E. M., Siddiqui, A. J., Shommo, S. A. M., Jamal, A., & Badraoui, R. (2024). Zingiber officinale Uncovered: Integrating Experimental and Computational Approaches to Antibacterial and Phytochemical Profiling. *Pharmaceuticals*, 17(11), 1551

T

167. Talabani, R. F., Hamad, S. M., Barzinjy, A. A., & Demir, U. (2021). Biosynthesis of Silver Nanoparticles and Their Applications in Harvesting Sunlight for Solar Thermal Generation. *Nanomaterials*, 11(9), 2421.
168. Theron, J., Eugene Cloete, T., & De Kwaadsteniet, M. (2010). Current molecular and emerging nanobiotechnology approaches for the detection of microbial pathogens. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology*, 36, 318–339.
169. Tiligada, E., & Ennis, M. (2020). Histamine: A century of progress. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 11, 1–10.
170. Traoré, A. (2018). Les accidents sportifs liés à l'utilisation abusive des antiinflammatoires non stéroïdiens.
171. Tran, V., & Wen, X. (2014). Rapid prototyping technologies for tissue regeneration. In R. Narayan (Ed.), *Rapid prototyping of biomaterials* (pp. 97–155). Woodhead Publishing.

U

172. Underhill, D. M., & Goodridge, H. S. (2012). Information processing during phagocytosis. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 12(7), 492–502. DOI: 10.1038/nri3244
173. Unita, L., & Singarimbun, E. (2018). Efek antibakteri ekstrak kelopak bunga rosella terhadap jumlah koloni Streptococcus sp. Antibacterial effect of the rosella flower extract towards the Streptococcus sp. colonies. *Jurnal Kedokteran Gigi Universitas Padjadjaran*, 30(1), 64
174. Uno, S. P., Winaprilia, S. S., Putri, S. R., & Pakpahan, E. L. (2024). EFFECTIVENESS OF ROSELLA AS AN ANTI-INFLAMMATORY. *Moestopo International Review on Social, Humanities, and Sciences*, 4(2), 218–230.

V

175. Verma, P., Choudhary, S., Naaz, N., El Moneim, D. A. A., et al. (2024). Investigating the mutagenic impact of cadmium nitrate on cytomorphological and physiological attributes in *Nigella sativa* L. cultivars. *Phyton-International Journal of Experimental Botany*, *93*(12), 3347–3372.

W

176. Wang, Y., Smith, W., Hao, D., He, B., & Kong, L. (2021). *M1 and M2 macrophage polarization and potentially therapeutic naturally occurring compounds*. *International Immunopharmacology*, *90*, 107175.
177. Winter, C. A., Risley, E. A., & Nuss, G. W. (1962). Carrageenan-induced oedema in the hind paw of rat as an assay for anti-inflammatory activity. *Proceedings of the Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine*, *111*, 544–547.
178. Wongrakpanich, S., Wongrakpanich, A., Melhado, K., & Rangaswami, J. (2018). A comprehensive review of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug use in the elderly. *Aging and Disease*, *9*(1), 143–150.
179. World Health Organization (WHO). (2011). *Global status report on noncommunicable diseases*.
180. World Health Organization (WHO). (2021). Noncommunicable diseases. *Fact Sheet*.
181. Wynn, T. A., & Vannella, K. M. (2016). Macrophages in tissue repair, regeneration, and fibrosis. *Immunity*, *44*(3), 450–462.

Y

182. Yang, B., Chen, J., Liu, B., Ding, Y., Tang, Y., & Yan, X. (2021). One dimensional graphene nanoscroll-wrapped MnO nanoparticles for high-performance lithiumion hybrid capacitors. *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, *9*(10), 6352–6360.

Z

183. Zhang, Y., et al. (2020). A comprehensive review on the biological interactions of zinc oxide nanoparticles in biomedical applications. *Journal of Biomaterials Applications*, *35*(5), 532–546.
184. Zhu, J., Yamane, H., & Paul, W. E. (2010). Differentiation of effector CD4 T cell populations. *Annual Review of Immunology*, *28*, 445–489.
185. Zhuang, J., & Gentry, R. W. (2011). Environmental application and risks of nanotechnology: a balanced view. In S. Ripp & T. Henry (Eds.), *Biotechnology and Nanotechnology Risk Assessment: Minding and Managing the Potential Threats around Us* (pp. 41–67). ACS Publications.

Annexe

Annexe 01: Percentage Increase in Paw Edema in the curative and prophylactic group treated & pre-treated with Zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%AUG)

Mean				
%AUG	C-INF	STD	NP's CR D01	NP's CR D02
1H	129,5827368	99,67620765	103,5449988	107,1725188
2H	114,2721663	76,44226075	82,89973792	87,80600496
3H	117,0872969	26,00478162	81,82362295	80,84261356
4H	103,3888154	14,90012166	61,28948733	60,44289949
5H	92,66377911	7,441221488	60,46060378	47,8190644
6H	82,59512673	2,409117834	39,70153678	32,91569331

Standard deviation				
%AUG	INF	STD	NP's CR D01	NP's CR D02
1H	28,62021177	8,36398076	5,12421407	7,63233892
2H	16,18478765	6,87906521	4,88264551	2,28917588
3H	20,71680155	14,3821706	8,57433997	5,71715606
4H	5,032474386	6,18947241	4,95507785	4,85557369
5H	11,28430816	2,62833817	1,79474209	2,91025151
6H	11,77630176	0,99835649	1,36997036	1,67779143

Mean				
%AUG	C-INF	STD	NP's PR D01	NP's PR D02
1H	129,5827368	99,67620765	118,9521041	109,6747472
2H	114,2721663	76,44226075	93,40875695	80,45152387
3H	117,0872969	26,00478162	36,69122042	36,95818626
4H	103,3888154	14,90012166	26,33351195	20,29659313
5H	92,66377911	7,441221488	9,936710368	5,533735307
6H	82,59512673	2,409117834	6,149081913	2,929278468
Standard deviation				
%AUG	INF	STD	NP's PR D01	NP's PR D02
1H	28,62021177	8,363980764	20,31838156	17,22542373
2H	16,18478765	6,879065212	11,39751927	10,35978571
3H	20,71680155	14,38217064	11,27160106	14,69566208
4H	5,032474386	6,189472414	13,46598114	14,39511891
5H	11,28430816	2,628338167	6,570197046	9,812487653
6H	11,77630176	0,99835649	6,621972772	6,69211719

Annexe 02: Percentage Inhibition of Inflammatory Edema in the curative and prophylactic group treated & pre-treated with Zinc oxide nanoparticles extract (%INH)

Mean			
%INH	STD	NP's D01 CR	NP's D02 CR
1H	23,0790998	8,203741452	15,36314953
2H	33,10509178	18,25764751	29,59657064
3H	77,79026222	68,66336366	68,43535785
4H	85,58826543	74,52963182	80,3686762
5H	91,96965464	89,27659711	94,02815711
6H	97,08322037	92,55515167	96,45344879
Standard deviation			
%INH	STD	NP's D01 CR	NP's D02 CR
1H	6,45454863	5,88993496	3,95439562
2H	6,01989569	2,00326638	4,27282134
3H	12,2832886	4,88281497	7,32303179
4H	5,98659767	4,69642066	4,79266334
5H	2,83642454	3,14065705	1,93683239
6H	1,20873534	2,03134434	1,65865762

Mean			
%INH	STD	NP's D01 PR	NP's D02 PR
1H	23,0790998	20,09352377	17,29413853
2H	33,10509178	27,45412936	23,16063673
3H	77,79026222	30,11742083	30,95526526
4H	85,58826543	40,71942204	41,53826095
5H	91,96965464	34,75271098	48,39508505
6H	97,08322037	51,93234958	60,14814116

Standard deviation			
%INH	STD	NP's D01 PR	NP's D02 PR
1H	6,454548632	15,67985217	13,29299269
2H	6,01989569	9,974011727	9,065887214
3H	12,28328864	9,626664342	12,55103027
4H	5,986597668	13,02460144	13,9232845
5H	2,836424536	7,090361638	10,58934542
6H	1,208735344	8,017389202	8,102314816

Annexe 03 : Animal Material, Female NMRI mice.



Annexe 04 : Caliper.



Annexe 05 : Histology steps.

Post-fixation



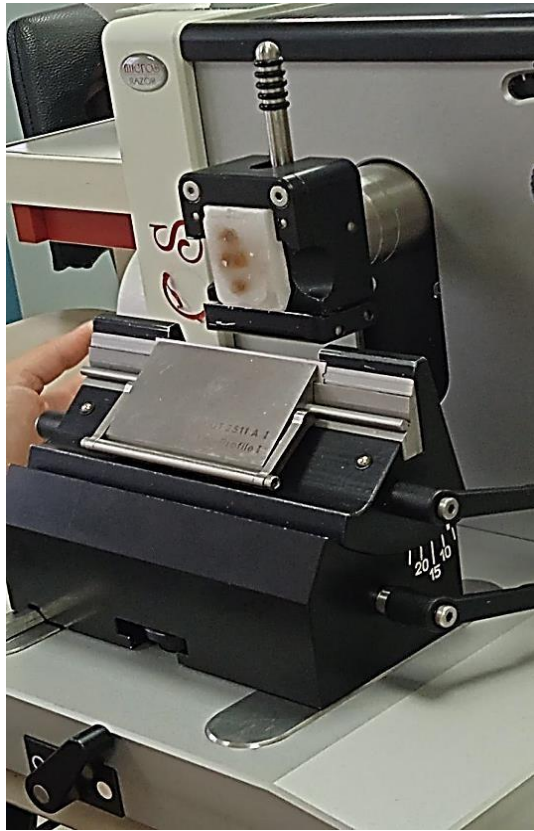
Dehydration



Inclusion



Microtomy



Microscopic analysis



الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

جامعة عبد الحميد بن باديس - مستغانم -

كلية علوم الطبيعة والحياة

تصريح شرفي خاص بالالتزام بقواعد النزاهة العلمية

لإنجاز البحث

أنا الممضي أدناه،

الطالب(ة): بلحجول فراس رقم التسجيل الجامعي 202037031311

الحامل لبطاقة التعريف الوطنية رقم 12.002.111.002.4.19.00000 والصادرة بتاريخ: 2019/06/19

عن جليلة بلحجول فراس - مستغانم

المسجل ب كلية علوم الطبيعة والحياة / قسم البيولوجيا

شعبة علوم بيولوجية. / التخصص علم الصيدلة والسموم

والمكلف بإنجاز مذكرة ماستر بعنوان:

Evaluation de l'effet anti-inflammatoire de quelques nanosparticules

Diazolyl Pectin et ses dérivés in vivo

أصرح بشرفي أنني ألتزم بمراعاة المعايير العلمية والمنهجية ومعايير الأخلاقيات العلمية والنزاهة الأكاديمية

المطلوبة في إنجاز البحث ، وأتحمل المسؤولية الشخصية عن كل المحتوى المتضمن في البحث المذكور أعلاه .

التاريخ: 2020/07/19

إمضاء المعني

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

جامعة عبد الحميد بن باديس-مستغانم-
كلية علوم الطبيعة والحياة

تصریح شرفي خاص بالالتزام بقواعد النزاهة العلمية
لإنجاز البحث

أنا الممضي أدناه،

الطالب(ة): بن عود. أسماء رقم التسجيل الجامعي: 2020.37034538

الحامل لبطاقة التعريف الوطنية رقم 110020014634472004 والصادرة بتاريخ: 2025 / 07 / 07

عن بليل بن ما. سري

المسجل ب كلية علوم الطبيعة والحياة/ قسم البيولوجيا

شعبة علوم بيولوجية./ التخصص علم الصيدلة و السموم

والمكلف بإنجاز مذكرة ماستر بعنوان:

Evaluation de l'effet anti-inflammatoire de quelques
nanoparticules biosynthétisées - étude in vivo-

أصرح بشرفي أنني ألتم بمراعاة المعايير العلمية والمنهجية ومعايير الأخلاقيات العلمية والنزاهة الأكاديمية
المطلوبة في إنجاز البحث ، وأتحمل المسؤولية الشخصية عن كل المحتوى المتضمن في البحث المذكور أعلاه .

التاريخ: 2025 / 07 / 10

إمضاء المعني