

# Ethnoveterinary study of the medicinal plants of Dheri, Julagram, Khar, Tari, and Totakan Villages of Tehsil Batkhela, Malakand, Northern Pakistan

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## Research

## Abstract

*Background:* The current study was conducted to document the medicinal plants used commonly for the treatment of veterinary diseases in the study area.

*Methods:* The snowball sampling method was used for the selection of informants and the informants were interviewed through a semi-structured questionnaire. The documented data was quantified by indices UV (use value) and RFC (Relative Frequency of Citation).

*Results:* During fieldwork, about 51 plant species belonging to the 35 families were collected and ethnoveterinary data was documented for these plants. The most dominant family was Apiaceae and Solanaceae (5 Species each). The most dominant life form was herb (34 Species). The most commonly used plant part was the leaf (16 Species). The most common method of drug preparation was decoction (28 Species). The highest RFC value was calculated for *Trachyspermum ammi* (L.) Sprague (0.245) and the highest UV value was calculated for *Trachyspermum ammi* (L.) Sprague (0.245).

*Conclusion:* Traditional communities still use medicinal plants for the treatment of various diseases of animals. But the knowledge of ethnoveterinary is at risk because the younger generations have no interest. Furthermore, due to deforestation and urbanization, the local medicinal flora is also at risk.

Keywords: Ethnoveterinary; Medicinal plants; Traditional knowledge; Local people perception

## Background

Pakistan is an agrarian country in Southeast Asia, located at the foothills of the Himalayas, and has multiple floristic zones. Out of the approximate 6,000 species, about 600 are part of folkloric medicines (Jan *et al.* 2020). Agriculture and animal husbandry are the main sources of income and nutrition for the majority of the rural residents of Pakistan. According to estimates, up to 80% of Pakistan's population depends on the agricultural and livestock sectors, with the majority of livestock producers owning five to six animals per home (Khan *et al.* 2019). The country's livestock population is very extensive, consisting of a variety of native varieties that are well adapted to local conditions. In particular, there are an estimated 30 million cattle, 54 million goats, 27 million sheep, 01 million

camels, 27 million buffaloes, 0.3 million horses, 0.2 million mules, 4 million asses, and 74 million poultry in Pakistan (Jan *et al.* 2020). The farmers residing in remote parts of the country, often financially- challenged fail to avail healthcare for their livestock. In such a scenario, the knowledge of locally-available medicinal plants serves a great purpose (Khan *et al.* 2019). Moreover, plant-based veterinary medicines or formulations are much cheaper (Raza *et al.* 2014).

The plant-based ethnoveterinary herbal medicine is one of the alternatives and most sustainable approaches that are easily adapted to rural livestock for the treatment of animal diseases in Pakistan. It has been serving as a treatment purpose for several years in the lack of modern veterinary practices (Abidin *et al.* 2021). Community members gave traditional knowledge of herbal medication services to their community with minimum cost or sometimes free of charge. However, communication and exchange of traditional knowledge between various ethnic communities are restricted, and sometimes traditional healers can only transfer knowledge to one son or pass away without transmitting their knowledge to anyone else. This condition is coupled with the fact that the awareness of ethnoveterinary is at risk because no resources are available for younger generations. The key explanation is that local people, especially those of younger generations, are not interested in the traditional knowledge of ethnoveterinary (Amjad *et al.* 2020). For that reason, ethnoveterinary medicinal knowledge may be lost soon unless researchers document the information and pass it from one generation to another generation (Aziz *et al.* 2018). Therefore, this study was conducted to document the ethnoveterinary knowledge about the plants used by the local population of the study area.

## **Materials and Methods**

#### Study area

The present study was conducted in the villages Dheri, Julagram, Khar, Tari, and Totakan of Tehsil Batkhela. Batkhela is located in District Malakand lying in the Hindu-Kush range of Pakistan, between 34° 35' to 34° 58' N and 71° 57' to 71° 95' E (Fig. 1). Its projected area comprised 952 km<sup>2</sup> (Jan, 2014). The area is surrounded by small foothills of district Lower Dir in the north, Swat & Buner in the northeast, Mardan, and Charsadda in the south, Mohmand and Bajaur Agency in the west. As per the 2017 censuses, the estimated population was recorded to be 416,183 individuals. The area is mostly covered by exposed metamorphic and igneous rocks (Noor et al. 2022). The climate is moderate in both winter and summer with 600 to 650 mm of annual rainfall. The temperature normally ranges from 3°C to 41°C throughout the year, with temperatures rarely falling below 0°C or rising over 44°C. The probability of rainy days fluctuates throughout the year (Ahmad et al. 2016). Pashto is the predominant language spoken in the area. Another language called Gujro has also been noticed in mountainous villages. The common flora of the area is Olea ferruginea Wall. ex Aitch., Monotheca buxifolia (Falc.)A. DC., Acacia modesta Wall., Dodonaea viscosa (L.) Jacq, Pistacia integerrima J. L. Stewart ex Brandis, Melia azedarach L., Acacia nilotica (L.) Delile, Ziziphus jujuba Mill., Ziziphus nummularia (Burm.f.) Wight & Arn., Morus alba L., Pinus roxburghii Sarg. The common wild animals found in the area are Jackal (Canis aureus), Rabbits (Oryctolagus), monkeys (Macaques), and wolves (Canis lupus). In addition, all community groups mostly use herbal drugs to cure different ailments of livestock as these groups are rich with plenty of indigenous knowledge about the use of medicinal plant species (Khan et al. 2019).

#### Collection and identification of plants

Plant specimens were collected in different seasons from 2019-20. Randomly four to five field trips were arranged in each season for the collection of maximum plants. We take a local guide during each field trip to show us important medicinal plants for collection and after plant collection, we meet with the local informants for the documentation of the medicinal uses of the collected plants. The collected plant specimens were preserved according to the technique of Forman and Birdson, (1989). During fieldwork, appropriate photographs of the vegetative parts, fruits, and flowers were captured for future identification of each medicinal plant with the help of the Fuji digital camera. Furthermore, self and informants' photographs were also captured during interviews. The collected specimens were further confirmed from the databases International Plant Names Index, World Flora Online, and medicinal plants name service. All the collected specimens of medicinal plants were submitted to the Herbarium of the Department of Botany, Islamia College Peshawar, Pakistan for future reference.

#### Ethnoveterinary data documentation

A semi-structured questionnaire was used as a tool for ethnoveterinary data collection. The informants were interrogated through face-to-face interviews and group discussions. The snowball and free listing methods were used for selecting the informants (Jan *et al.* 2022). Detailed interviews were mostly followed by free listing. We encouraged the local population to enlarge the free listing. The collected ethnoveterinary data was cross-checked among the informants to confirm the genuineness of the data. Prior verbal consent was always obtained from each informant (Abidin *et al.* 2022). We interviewed 86 local people of which 34 were male informants and 52 were

female informants. The interviews from the male informants were taken in the field, Hujra, or Baithaks, and the interviews from female informants were taken at home due to cultural restrictions. To document the present status of traditional knowledge the local herbalists (hakims) were also interrogated in their herbal shops. For the index used, the questionnaire was analyzed in two ways: firstly, responses of the informants have been documented and in the second step the binary values for the questions were considered, 0 value was allotted to answer "NO" and value 1 allotted to the answer "YES" (Andrade-Cetto, 2009).

For enhancing understanding of the gathered information on collected medicinal plants available in the study area un-ceremonious dialogues and walks in the field were held with key informants (13) comprising herdsmen, farmers, teachers, housewives, shepherds, and students (from school to university). The informants' age ranged from 20-97. The knowledge they delivered us was documented unerringly according to the technique of Mengistu and Hager, (2008). To verify the authenticity of the collected data about medicinal plants it was cross-checked at various communities either by presenting the plant's fresh or dry specimen, telling the local name/s of the plant, or displaying the photograph/s of the plant to the informants.

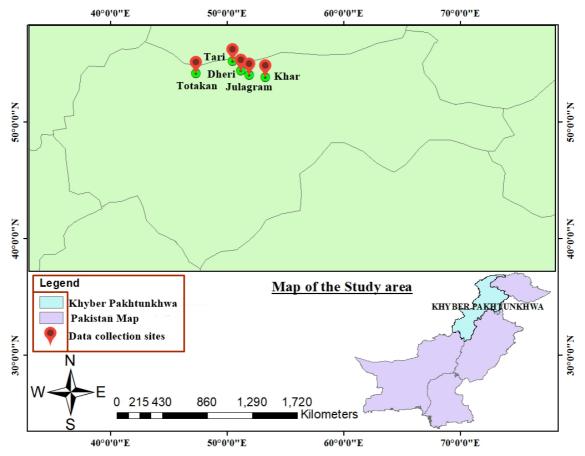


Figure 1. Map of the study area with data collection sites

#### Quantification of ethnoveterinary data

The quantification of ethnomedicinal data was done by using the following ethnobotanical indexes.

#### Relative frequency citation (RFC)

The local significance of every plant species was figured through the relative frequency of citation, which does not consider the variable *i.e.* use-category (Tardio & Pardo-De- Santayana, 2008; Ahmad *et al.* 2021). The RFC was calculated as follows:

$$RFC = FC/N$$

FC is the number of informants who mentioned the use of the species N is the total number of informants participating in the study

#### Use value (UV)

The index is used to find out the relative importance of each species locally used as a remedy and is calculated with the help of the following formula (Phillips *et al.* 1994; Jan *et al.* 2021).

#### $UV = \sum U/n$

Where UV is the use-value,  $\Sigma U$  is the number of uses told by each informant for the given plant species, and n is the total number of informants interviewed for that particular plant. It is high when there are more uses reported for a plant and low when fewer uses are reported for a plant (Yabesh *et al.* 2014).

## **Result and Discussion**

#### The socio-demographic distribution and characteristics of the local informants

In this study, we interviewed a total of 86 indigenous people which includes dayiahs, drivers, farmers, housewives, labors, shepherds, teachers, students (school to university), shopkeepers, hakims, herbalists, and pansaries, etc. 34 were male informants and 52 were female. The age of the interviewed informants was from 20 years to 97 years. These respondents were further classified into seven age groups with the interval of the years and seven literacy groups. Most of the informants were belongs to the age group 61-70 and it was documented that this group has the highest ethnoveterinary knowledge about the medicinal plants followed by 51-60 age. In the groups of informants with ages below 41 years, there was a decline in ethnic knowledge, the informants of age group 20-30 have the least ethnoveterinary knowledge (Table 1). The possible reason behind this may be the modernization of lifestyle which leads young generations to give preference to allopathic medicines as compared to herbal medicines (Sargin, 2015). Furthermore, according to literacy classification, a decreasing trend was noted in the ethnoveterinary knowledge of informants with an increasing literacy rate. The reason for this is that educated people prefer a more modern healthcare system as compared to the traditional healthcare system (Jan et al. 2017). Moreover, the same results were reported by other authors (Bhatia et al. 2014; Jan et al. 2017). Additionally, it was documented that males and females both have almost equal ethnoveterinary knowledge. The reason behind this may be that men collect medicinal plants and women prepare herbal medicines and treat animals at home. Due to this both men and women are more or less likewise well aware of the uses of plants as medicines (Ahmad et al. 2015; Jan et al. 2017).

Gender	No. Informants				
Male		34			
Female		52			
Age Group	No. Informants	Medicinal Plants Reported Complete R			
20-30	13	9	11		
31-40	11	7	21		
41-50	15	11	24		
51-60	12	16	28		
61-70	19	28	31		
71-80	9	5	17		
81-Above	7	7	14		

Table 1. Demographic information of the study area

#### Diversity of families and life form

In the present study, 51 medicinal plants (Fig. 2) were collected which belong to 35 different families. The most dominant family in terms of the number of species is Apiaceae and Solanaceae with 5 species each followed by Brassicaceae with 3 species (Fig. 3). The possible reason may be the common distribution of the members of these families in the study area. Moreover, the members of Apiaceae and Solanaceae are widespread in the study area (Abbas *et al.* 2017). Additionally, the same results for the dominancy of the family Apiaceae and Solanaceae are reported from the surrounding areas by others (Bano *et al.* 2014; Barkatullah *et al.* 2015; Abbas *et al.* 2017; Haq *et al.* 2022). Brassicaceae as a dominant family was reported by other authors from surrounding areas (Ahmad *et al.* 2009).

The collected medicinal plants belong to different life forms. The most dominant life form was herb with 34 species than a tree with 11 species and shrub with 6 species (Table 2). The possible reason for the dominance of herbs may be the better adaptation to the climate and topography of the study area. Furthermore, herbs have more potency and fast regeneration as compared to shrubs and trees (Shah & Rahim, 2017). Moreover, the availability of herbs is easy (Malik *et al.* 2019). Additionally, herbs have different types of bioactive compounds which help them to adapt to any climatic condition easily (Zahor *et al.* 2017). Also, herbs have a higher concentration of various bioactive compounds than other life forms as well as herbs have high medicinal efficacy than shrubs and trees (Ullah *et al.* 2021). According to Amjad *et al.* (2017), high-altitude areas have dominant herbaceous flora as compared to shrubs and trees. Furthermore, a similar result was reported by other studies from surrounding areas (Barkatullah *et al.* 

2015; Amjad *et al.* 2017; Jan *et al.* 2017; Shah and Rahim, 2017; Zahor *et al.* 2017; Wali *et al.* 2019; Ullah *et al.* 2021). During fieldwork, we observed that some plant species were not native to the study area but were still used by the people for the cure of various illnesses. Most of these non-native plants were cultivated by the local people.



Figure 2. Pictures of the collected medicinal plants

(a) Ajuga integrifolia Buch.-Ham. (b) Berberis lycium Royle (c) Papaver somniferum L. (d) Taraxicum officinale (L.)
Weber ex F.H.Wigg. (e) Fumaria indica (Hausskn.) Pugsley (f) Cannabis sativa L. (g) Pinus roxburghii Sarg. (h) Paeonia emodi Royle (i) Cedrus deodara (Roxb. ex D.Don) G.Don (j) Chenopodium album L. (k) Coriandrum sativum L. (l) Dodonaea viscosa (L.) Jacq. (m) Geranium wallichianum D. Don ex. Sweet (n) Justicia adhatoda L. (o) Mallotus philippensis (Lam.) Moll. Arg. (p) Melia azedarach L.

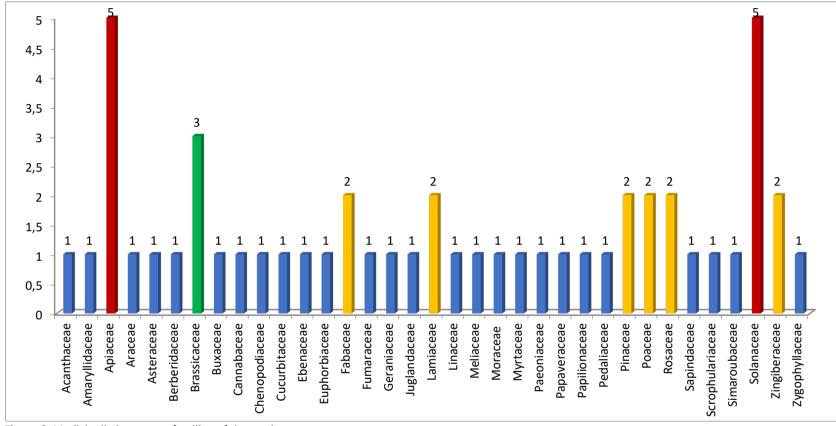


Figure 3. Medicinally important families of the study area

Botanical name	Local	Part used	Intake	Disease(s) treated	UV	RFC	Dheri	Julagram	Khar	Tari	Totakan
	name		mode								
Acanthaceae											
<i>Justicia adhatoda</i> L.	Baikarn	Leaf	Decoction	Mastitis	0.024	0.059	Y	Υ	Y	Υ	Y
Amaryllidaceae			<u>.</u>					•			
<i>Allium cepa</i> L.	Pyaz	Bulb, Fruit	Raw, Paste	Gaseous bloating, Indigestion	0.024	0.012	Y	Y	Y	Υ	Y
Apiaceae			•	·					•	•	•
<i>Anethum graveolens</i> L.	Sowa	Seed	Decoction, Paste	Enhance milk production, Kill liver fluke, Fever, Cold	0.024	0.012	Y	Y	N	Y	N
<i>Coriandrum sativum</i> L.	Shna daniya	Leaf	Raw	Laminitis	0.024	0.012	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
<i>Cuminum cyminum</i> L.	Zeera	Seed	Decoction	Abdominal pain, Enhance milk production	0.07	0.07	N	Ν	Y	Y	N
<i>Foeniculum vulgare</i> Mill.	Kago	Seed	Paste, Decoction	Fever, Rheumatism, Enhance milk production, Constipation	0.105	0.117	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
<i>Trachyspermum ammi</i> (L.) Sprague	Sparkii	Seed	Decoction, Paste	Meningitis, Enhance milk production, Kill liver fluke, Fever, Rheumatism, Abdominal pain, Constipation, Cold	0.094	0.024	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Araceae	•			·	•				•	•	•
<i>Acorus calamus</i> L.	Skhawaja	Rhizome, Leaf	Decoction, Extract	Meningitis, Urinary tract infection	0.012	0.035	Y	Y	N	N	Y
Asteraceae											
<i>Taraxicum officinale</i> (L.) Weber ex F.H.Wigg.	Zyar gulay	Whole plant	Paste, Decoction	Indigestion	0.047	0.024	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Berberidaceae											
<i>Berberis lycium</i> Royle	Kwarii	Stem, Root	Decoction, Poultice, Infusion	Gaseous bloating, Heat stress, Gastritis, Chills	0.035	0.012	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Brassicaceae	·	•	•	· ·				•	•		•
<i>Brassica rapa</i> L.	Sharshm	Seed	Decoction, Raw	Heat stress, Tympany, Foot and mouth disease, Antiseptic, Injury, Muscle cramps	0.012	0.012	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Eruca vesicaria (L.) Cav.	Jamama	Oil	Decoction	Loss of appetite	0.035	0.047	Y	Y	Y	N	Y

Table 2. Medicinal plants used for the treatment of veterinary diseases by the local population of Dheri, Julagram, Khar, Tari, and Totakan Villages of Tehsil Batkhela

<i>Lepidium sativum</i> L.	Alam	Seed	Decoction, Paste	Meningitis, Enhance milk production, Laxative, Rheumatism, Constipation, Fever	0.012	0.012	Y	N	Y	Y	N
Buxaceae											
<i>Sarcococca pruniformis</i> Lindl.	Ladda	Whole plant, Root, Leaf	Decoction, Extract	Placental retention, Analgesic, Fever	0.012	0.012	N	N	N	Y	Y
Cannabaceae											
<i>Cannabis sativa</i> L.	Bang	Leaf	Extract	Wounds healing	0.024	0.012	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Chenopodiaceae	1		•				1				•
Chenopodium album L.	Sarmii	Leaf	Decoction	Colic pain	0.012	0.012	Υ	Y	Y	Y	Y
Cucurbitaceae	1										
<i>Cucurbita maxima</i> Duchesne	Acharri kado	Fruit	Decoction	Jaundice	0.047	0.07	Y	Y	Ν	Y	Y
Ebenaceae	1										
<i>Diospyros lotus</i> L.	Toor amlok	Fruit	Raw	Constipation, Diarrhea	0.117	0.024	Y	N	Ν	Ν	Y
Euphorbiaceae					1						
<i>Mallotus philippensis</i> (Lam.) Moll. Arg.	Kambella	Flower, Whole Plant, Seed	Powder, Infusion, Poultice, Decoction, Powder	Diarrhea, Kill liver fluke, Foot and mouth disease, Diarrhea, Colon cleansing, Deworming, For health restoration	0.012	0.012	N	N	N	Y	Y
Fabaceae			•			•					•
<i>Trigonella foenum- graecum</i> L.	Makvazi	Seed	Decoction	Kill liver fluk	0.035	0.082	N	N	N	Y	N
<i>Vigna radiata</i> (L.) R.Wilczek	Мауе	Seed	Decoction	Heat stress	0.024	0.047	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Fumaraceae	1										
<i>Fumaria indica</i> (Hausskn.) Pugsley	Papra	Stem	Paste	Mange	0.059	0.035	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Geraniaceae	•	•	•	-	•	•	•			- ·	•
<i>Geranium wallichianum</i> D. Don ex. Sweet	Sra zilla	Root, Stem	Paste, Raw	Pyrexia, Diarrhea	0.012	0.035	N	Y	Y	Ν	N
Juglandaceae			•	•		•	•		•		•
<i>Juglans regia</i> L.	Ghwz	Fruit	Powder	Burn wounds	0.012	0.012	Ν	Ν	Y	Y	Ν

Lamiaceae											
<i>Ajuga integrifolia</i> Buch Ham.	Bottii	Leaf	Decoction, Infusion	Gaseous Bloating, Foot and mouth disease	0.082	0.035	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
<i>Mentha longifolia</i> (L.) L.	Enalli	Leaf, Whole plant	Decoction, Raw, Paste	Rheumatism, Enhance milk production, Colic pain, Abdominal pain	0.012	0.024	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Linaceae			•							•	
<i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L.	Alsi	Seed	Decoction, Paste	Kill liver fluk, Fever, Enhance milk production	0.024	0.035	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Meliaceae			•								
<i>Melia azedarach</i> L.	Tora shandii	Leaf, Stem	Paste, Raw	Prolapse anusia, Gaseous bloat	0.024	0.082	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Moraceae											
<i>Ficus carica</i> L.	Enzar	Leaf	Powder	Burn wounds	0.012	0.012	Y	Y	Y	Ν	Y
Myrtaceae											
<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> (L.) Merr. & L.M.Perry	Lawang	Flower	Raw	Mastitis	0.117	0.105	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Paeoniaceae			1								
<i>Paeonia emodi</i> Royle	Mamaaikh	Rhizome	Infusion, Paste, Decoction, Powder	Chills, Colic pain, Loss of appetite, Gaseous bloating, Dysentery, Fever, Rheumatism	0.059	0.024	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Papaveraceae	1									1	
Papaver somniferum L.	Qalqash	Stem	Decoction	Analgesic	0.152	0.117	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Papilionaceae										1	
Dalbergia sissoo DC.	Shawa	Stem bark	Decoction	Jaundice	0.024	0.012	Ν	Ν	Y	Ν	Y
Pedaliaceae			1								
Sesamum indicum L.	Kwanzali	Seed	Raw	Mastitis, Enhance milk production	0.082	0.035	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Pinaceae			•								
Pinus roxburghii Sarg.	Nakhtar	Male cones	Poultice	Mastitis	0.07	0.07	Ν	Y	Y	Ν	Y
<i>Cedrus deodara</i> (Roxb. ex D.Don) G.Don	Diyar (Ranzra)	Seed	Raw, Poultice	Stomach burning, Gaseous bloat, Heat stress	0.012	0.024	N	Y	Y	N	N
Poaceae	•		1								
<i>Cenchrus ciliaris</i> L.	Sargrii	Whole plant	Decoction, Infusion	Constipation, Chills, Rheumatism	0.024	0.012	Y	Y	Ν	Y	Y
Zea mays L.	Jewar	Seed	Powder	Diarrhea	0.024	0.024	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Rosaceae											
Cotoneaster nummularius	Kharrava	Leaf	Infusion	Foot and mouth disease	0.012	0.012	Y	Ν	Y	Y	Ν
Fisch. & C.A.Mey.											
Prunus persica (L.) Batsch	Shaltalo	Leaf	Extract,	Deworming, Urine retention	0.012	0.012	Y	Y	Ν	Ν	Y
			Decoction								
Sapindaceae											
Dodonaea viscosa (L.)	Ghwarskii	Stem,	Powder,	Burn wounds, Constipation,	0.035	0.024	Y	Y	Y	у	Y
Jacq.		Leaf	Extract,	Swelling (injury), Sprained body							
			Poultice	parts							
Scrophulariaceae											
<i>Verbascum thapsus</i> L.	Khwar	Leaf	Poultice	Foot and mouth disease	0.012	0.024	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
	ghog										
Simaroubaceae						-					
<i>Ailanthus altissima</i> (Mill.)	Shandii	Stem	Powder	Tympany	0.024	0.059	Υ	Y	Ν	Ν	Υ
Swingle											
Solanaceae											
<i>Capsicum annuum</i> L.	Marchakii	Fruit	Raw, Paste	Gaseous bloating, Indigestion,	0.28	0.245	Y	у	Y	Y	Y
				Rheumatism							
<i>Datura innoxia</i> Mill.	Batorra	Leaf	Raw	Fever, Gaseous bloating	0.024	0.012	Ν	Y	Y	Y	Ν
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> L.	Tamator	Fruit	Raw	Fever	0.035	0.024	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Solanum surattense Burm.	Trakha	Fruit	Paste	Abdominal pain (colic pain),	0.012	0.012	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
f.	hendvana			Indigestion, Diarrhea							
<i>Withania somnifera</i> (L.)	Kotti lal	Root	Decoction	Fever, Mastitis, Placental Retention	0.012	0.012	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Dunal				and other antiseptic wash							
Zingiberaceae											
<i>Curcuma longa</i> L.	Kurkaman	Rhizome	Decoction,	Meningitis, Chills, Antiseptic, Injury,	0.047	0.012	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
			Infusion,	Muscle cramps, Antiseptic, Wound							
			Cooked,	healing, Analgesic							
			Poultice,								
			Powder								
<i>Zingiber officinale</i> Roscoe	Adrak	Rhizome	Poultice,	Indigestion, Kill liver fluke, Chills,	0.012	0.047	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
			Decoction,	Enhance milk production, Fever,							
			Powder	Foot and mouth disease							
Zygophyllaceae						-					
<i>Tribulus terrestris</i> L.	Azghakii	Leaf	Paste	Respiratory infections	0.094	0.059	Y	Y	N	Y	Y

**UV**=Use Value: **RFC**=Relative Frequency Citation: **Y**=Medicinal use(s) reported: **N**=Medicinal use(s) not report

#### Diversity of the parts and formulation methods

To treat various diseases different plant parts are used in herbal medicines. In the current study, 11 different vegetative and reproductive plants parts of the collected medicinal plants were used for medicinal purposes. The most dominant plant part used as a medicine of different plants species was the leaf (16 Species) followed by seed (14 Species each) (Fig. 4). The common use of leaves in herbal medicines is due to the presence of different types of metabolites in larger quantity as it is the main photosynthetic organ of the plant (Jan *et al.* 2017; Ullah *et al.* 2021). Moreover, leaves are the only plant part that is easy to collect and also produced in large amounts (Ahmad *et al.* 2015). Additionally from the conservation point of view, the use of leaves is sustainable and safe for the survival of plants (Jan *et al.* 2017). The use of seeds in herbal recipes frequently is due to the presence of bioactive compounds in a high proportion (Shah *et al.* 2017). Similar result to this study was also reported by other researchers from the surrounding areas (Shah *et al.* 2017; Rashid *et al.* 2022).

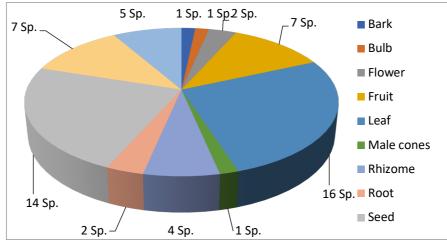


Figure 4. Plant parts used in the preparation of medicines

All the formulation methods were classified into 8 groups. The results showed that the most prominent herbal formulation method was decoction (28 Species) followed by paste (15 Species) and raw (13 Species) (Fig. 5). Decoction is one of the most common methods in the preparation of herbal medicine the possible reason maybe it is an easy method of drug preparation (Amjad *et al.* 2017). Another reason is that boiling plant(s) in water speed up the biochemical reactions which leads to the extraction and availability of different compounds for the cure of diseases (Zhang *et al.* 2009). Also, similar findings are reported by other authors (Ahmad *et al.* 2015; Ijaz *et al.* 2017; Jan *et al.* 2017; Singh *et al.* 2017; Ullah *et al.* 2018; Singh *et al.* 2020; Sulaiman *et al.* 2020).

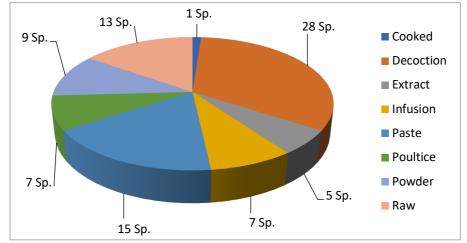


Figure 5. Mode of administration of medicine

### Cross-villages ethnoveterinary data

In the current study, a total of 51 medicinal plant species were reported from Dheri, Julagram, Khar, Tari, and Totakan. The result clearly shows among all the villages the highest number of medicinal plants were reported from Totakan (42 species) followed by Dheri, Julagram, and Tari (41 species) and Khar (40 species) (Table 2). The result demonstrates that the people of these villages share their ethnoveterinary knowledge (Fig. 6). Haq *et al.* (2021)

from the Ladakh region and Aziz *et al.* (2020) from the Pakistan Himalayas conducted a similar cross-cultural analysis and concluded that ethnicity and cultural practices have shaped traditional herbal knowledge among the local inhabitants. Abidin *et al.* (2021) from southwest Pakistan revealed similar findings, which confirm our findings from the Kashmir Himalayan region. Mir *et al.* (2022) also conducted a similar study in the northern regions of Jammu and Kashmir, India.

## Relative frequency citation (RFC)

To determine the local importance of each medicinally important plant species with the help of frequency of citation, the RFC ethnobotanical index was used. In our study, the highest RFC value was calculated for *Trachyspermum ammi* (L.) Sprague (0.245), *Mallotus philippensis* (Lam.) Moll. Arg (0.117), and *Lepidium sativum* L.( 0.105) (Table 2). The plant has a high RFC value showing that it is widely distributed in the study area and also the ethnoveterinary knowledge about the uses of plants is widespread in the local population. The plant species with low RFC value does not mean that it is medicinally less important, but it means the plant is restricted in its distribution to certain parts of the study area, therefore, fewer people know about the medicinal uses of the plants (Ahmad *et al.* 2015; Jan *et al.* 2017; Shah and Rahim, 2017). Almost similar results were reported in other studies (Amjad *et al.* 2017; Shinwari *et al.* 2017; Zahoor*et al.* 2017; Ali *et al.* 2018; Rahman *et al.* 2019; Sulaiman *et al.* 2020).

#### Use value (UV)

The Use Value (UV) index is commonly used by ethnobotanists to quantify the relative medicinal importance of a particular plant species. It is used to highlight the most prominent ethnobotanically important plant species of the study area. The value of UV ranges between 0-1. In this study, the highest UV was calculated for *Trachyspermum ammi* (L.) Sprague (0.28), *Mallotus philippensis* (Lam.) Moll. Arg.(0.152) and *Lepidium sativum* L.( 0.117) (Table 2). The high UV means the plant species are uniformly distributed in the area and the local population has more knowledge about the medicinal uses of the species. The low UV value does not mean that the plant species is medicinally less important, but there may be other reasons for low UV like the restriction of plant species to particular parts of the study area and/or the plant has one or few medicinal uses (Ahmad *et al.* 2015; Jan *et al.* 2017).

## Conclusion

The results of the current work clearly show that the study area has rich floristic and cultural diversity due to which the local population has rich ethnoveterinary knowledge. Furthermore, most of the study area is mountainous and remote which lacks modern health facilities, therefore local people rely on medicinal plants. The present study mainly highlights the important indigenous ethnoveterinary knowledge associated with local medicinal flora. It was noted that the valuable indigenous ethnoveterinary knowledge in the study area is at risk of extinction because the younger generation does not take interest in it. Moreover, the local population transfers this valuable treasure of knowledge orally from generation to generation which is a major factor in the loss of this valuable knowledge. Most of the knowledge was shared by the age group 61-70. The documentation of traditional knowledge will be used for a wide variety of purposes, including its preservation for future generations, it is safeguarding by putting the information in the public domain, and its use as the baseline for further research and conservation strategies. We recommend that future research projects should be designed to develop awareness in the local community about the conservation of medicinal plants. Furthermore, phytochemical and pharmacological evaluation of these medicinal plants should be carried out for the exploration of new medicines.

## Declarations

Ethic statement: Prior verbal consent was taken from all the participants.

Data availability: The original data is presented in the article. There is no supplementary data.

Funding: This research did not receive fiunding.

**Contribution of Authors:** All authors declare to have equal, direct, and intellectual contributions and have approved the current work for publication in this journal.

**Conflict of interest**: Not applicable

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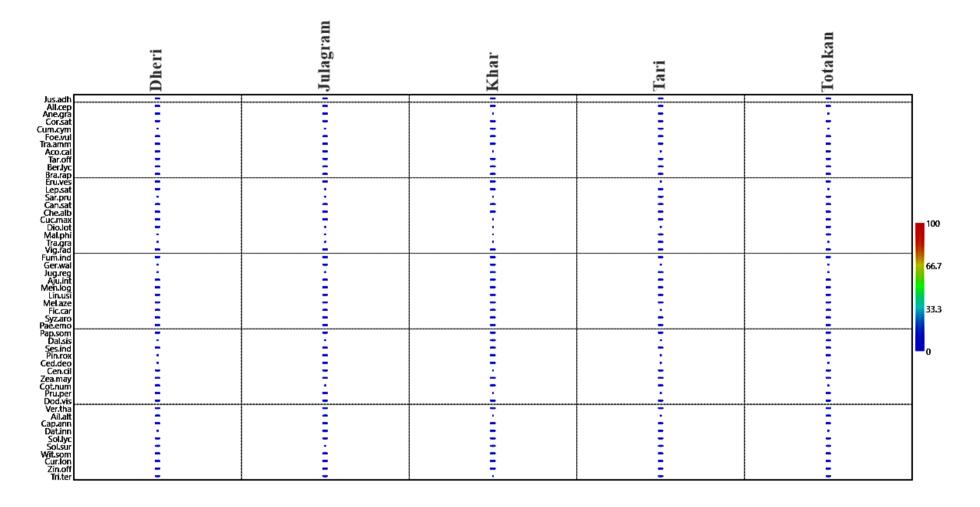


Figure 6. Cross-villages ethnoveterinary data of medicinal plant

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