INTRODUCTION

The gut barrier is a selective barrier that serves two critical functions: first it allows the passage of selective solutes that are beneficial to the host and second it prevents harmful luminal entities such as microorganisms, antigens, and pro-inflammatory factors from entering into the systemic circulation. Thus it serves as the first line of defence against a hostile environment within the intestinal lumen and helps in maintaining the health of an individual.1

Several factors such as modifications in the enteric microflora, alterations in the mucosal layer, and damage to the epithelium can alter the functioning of the gut barrier and increase intestinal permeability, allowing the luminal contents to traverse the inner layer of intestinal wall.2 An association between intestinal barrier dysfunction and the development of a wide range of diseases is now established. Gut barrier failure has been found to occur in gastrointestinal disorders such as inflammatory bowel disease, celiac disease, irritable bowel syndrome, collagen vascular disorders, dermatological disorders, critical illness, alcoholic liver disease and obstructive jaundice, and in obesity and associated metabolic diseases such as non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, diabetes mellitus.3,4

A variety of agents have been evaluated in both experimental as well as clinical studies for the treatment of gut barrier failure and have been found to modulate the intestinal permeability. Among these, corticosteroids, anti-inflammatory agents, PPAR-δ agonists, and probiotics have been found to be effective in the prevention and treatment of gut barrier dysfunction.5-7

Several factors are responsible for the development of gastrointestinal barrier dysfunction.8 Factors that have been associated with barrier dysfunction include infections, malignancies, diabetes, chronic kidney disease, and inflammatory bowel disease.8

While several studies have been done to evaluate the effects of various agents on intestinal barrier function, studies on the effects of Aegle marmelos and Punica granatum, commonly known as Amla (in Sanskrit) and Pomegranate, respectively, have been limited. Aegle marmelos and Punica granatum are known to possess several bioactive compounds with medicinal and therapeutic uses.9-10

The present study was conducted to evaluate the effects of Aegle marmelos and Punica granatum in an experimental model of gastrointestinal barrier dysfunction induced by common bile duct ligation.
TNF-α, 5-aminosalicylic acid, gelatin tannate, glutamine, prebiotics and probiotics have shown promising results. However, no drug has succeeded convincingly to be included as the standard of care in the treatment of gut barrier failure. The limited efficacy of currently available drugs warrants the search for newer agents that restore barrier normality and integrity.

Ayurveda, our traditional system of medicine, describes certain plants as having ‘Balya’ property meaning that they offer strength to the tissue or increase its resistance against any onslaught of disease. Aegle marmelos (Linn.) known as ‘bael’ and Punica granatum (Linn.) known as ‘anar’, are two such plant drugs used in Ayurveda for the treatment of diarrhea and various gastrointestinal disorders. The unripe fruit of A. marmelos and the fruit rind of P. granatum have been studied by researchers for the prevention of diarrhoeal disorders. However no scientific reports demonstrating the effect of these agents on the gastrointestinal barrier are available. We therefore planned the current study to investigate the effects of A. marmelos and P. granatum in an experimental model of gastrointestinal barrier dysfunction. The animal model of obstructive jaundice induced by common bile duct ligation was used as it is widely used to study the effects of drugs on the intestinal mucosal barrier. Glutamine, a non-essential amino acid and a primary fuel source for enterocytes was used as the comparator as it has shown beneficial effects on the gut barrier in several experimental and clinical studies.

METHODS

Drugs and chemicals

Authenticated aqueous extracts of the unripe fruit of A. marmelos (extractive value 17%) and the fruit rind of P. granatum (extractive value 8%) were used for the study and were procured from natural remedies, Bengaluru. The doses for A. Marmelos (0.27 and 0.54 g/kg) and P. Granatum (3.6 and 7.2 g/kg) were extrapolated from the doses used in ayurveda. Glutamine (Spectrochem Pvt. Ltd, India) was used in the dose of 0.75 g/kg. McConkey’s broth and agar were purchased from HiMedia Ltd., India and glucose reagent was purchased from Transansa Bio-Medicals Ltd, India.

Animals

Adult wistar rats (n=42) of either sex weighing 150-200g were used for the study and procured from the centre for animal studies of the Seth GS Medical College and KEM Hospital, Mumbai, India. The rats were housed in polypropylene cages with paddy husk as bedding and maintained under standard conditions (Temp: 22±2°C; Relative humidity: 50-70%; 12 hour light/dark cycles). They were fed standard rodent pellet feed (chakan oil mills, Maharashtra, India) and filtered and ultra-violet purified water was provided ad libitum. The study was approved by the Institutional animal ethics committee and all experimental procedures were performed in accordance with the guidelines laid down by the committee for the purpose of control and supervision of experiments on animals (CPCSEA).

Experimental procedure

The forty two rats were randomly allocated to 7 groups of 6 rats each. On day 0, the rats were anaesthetized with an intramuscular injection of 70 mg/kg of ketamine hydrochloride and 5 mg/kg of xylazine and midline laparotomies were performed under sterile conditions. In group 1 (sham operated), the common bile duct was identified, freed from the surrounding soft tissue and manipulated without carrying out ligation and transection. In groups 2-7, the common bile duct was dissected and double-ligated with 6/0 silk and sectioned between the ligatures according to the procedure described by Lee et al. All abdominal incisions were closed in 2 layers using 4/0 chronic catgut. After surgery, the rats were allowed to recover from anaesthesia following which each rat was housed in an individual cage with free access to food and water. Rats in all the groups were treated with the vehicle or study drugs orally once daily from day 1 to day 10 as follows: Group 1 (sham control) and group 2 (disease control) received distilled water, group 3 received glutamine (0.75 g/kg), groups 4 and 5 received the lower (0.27 g/kg) and higher (0.54 g/kg) doses of A. marmelos respectively and groups 6 and 7 received the lower (3.6 g/kg) and higher (7.2 g/kg) doses of P. granatum respectively. Following drug administration on day 10, the rats were kept fasting for 24 hours and on day 11 they were sacrificed by giving a high dose of ketamine (100mg/kg). Samples of the jejunum, ileum and the mesenteric lymph nodes, were obtained for assessment of the following variables.

Villous morphology and villous heights

Tissue samples from the proximal jejunum and terminal ileum were obtained from all animals. Before taking the sample, the intestinal lumen was carefully cannulated and gently washed in normal saline with help of a pipette taking care to avoid any mucosal damage. The samples were fixed in 10% neutral formalin, embedded in paraffin and stained with haematoxylin eosin. For the morphometric analysis, the mucosal regions of the jejunum and ileum of each rat were traced using a light microscope with a magnification of 10X and the morphology of 20 well-preserved villi/slide/rat was observed. The villi were classified according to Lee and Toner's classification into finger-like villi, leaf-like villi, blunted/ ridged villi. The number of villi belonging to each class was calculated. In addition, the heights of 20 well-preserved villi/slide/rat were measured using a trinocular microscope with an image analyzer Image-Pro® Plus Version 6.2 for Windows™ (Media Cybernetics, MA, USA) and the mean villous height was calculated.
Bacterial translocation

The mesenteric lymph nodes were excised under aseptic conditions and transferred to 5 ml sterile McConkey’s broth. The tissues were homogenized under sterile conditions and the homogenates were inoculated on McConkey’s agar plates. The plates were incubated at 370°C for 24 hours and examined for bacterial growth.

Intestinal mucosal sucrase enzyme activity

The sucrose enzyme activity of jejunum was assessed by the method described by Dhalqvist et al.13 In brief, 20 cm of jejunum was dissected and the mucosa was scraped off and weighed. The mucosal homogenates were centrifuged and the supernatants were diluted with distilled water. 100 µl of the homogenate was incubated with 0.056 M sucrose maleate buffer in a water bath at 370°C for 1h. Following this, the homogenate was immediately transferred to a boiling water bath for 2 min to denature the remaining disaccharidases. The test tubes were cooled and incubated with glucose oxidase reagent. The concentration of glucose was determined spectrophotometrically to estimate the sucrase enzyme activity which was expressed as IU/g of mucosa.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using the Graphpad Instat version 3.06 for Windows. A value of p<0.05 was considered to be statistically significant. For bacterial translocation, Fisher’s exact test was used. Villous morphology was evaluated using Chi square test. Villous heights and sucrase enzyme activity and were analysed using One way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey’s test.

RESULTS

Villous morphology: Jejunum and ileum

The disease control animals showed a significant increase in the number of blunted or ridged villi in the jejunum and ileum (p<0.05) as compared to the sham control animals (Table 1). Glutamine and both the doses of the two plant drugs significantly prevented the blunting of villi in the jejunum (p<0.001) as compared to the disease control groups (Figure 1a-g). Similar results were seen in the ileum wherein glutamine and the plant drugs (except the low dose of A. marmelos) prevented the blunting of villi (p<0.05). No significant difference was observed between glutamine and the plant-drug treated groups (Table 1).
Table 1: Villous morphology in the various experimental groups.

| Groups | Treatment (p.o.) | Jejunum | Ileum |
|--------|-----------------|---------|-------|
|        |                 | F | L | B/R | F | L | B/R |
| 1      | Sham control (distilled water) | 83 | 27 | 10 | 76 | 25 | 19 |
| 2      | Disease control (distilled water) | 46* | 24 | 50* | 57* | 25 | 38* |
| 3      | Glutamine (0.75 mg/kg/day) | 67* | 31 | 22** | 71 | 33 | 16* |
| 4      | A. marmelos (0.27 g/kg/day) | 46 | 49* | 25** | 47 | 46* | 27 |
| 5      | A. marmelos (0.54 g/kg/day) | 71* | 30 | 19** | 70 | 32 | 18* |
| 6      | P. granatum (3.6 g/kg/day) | 68* | 29 | 23** | 69 | 36 | 15* |
| 7      | P. granatum (7.2 g/kg/day) | 80** | 27 | 13** | 66 | 43* | 11** |

F: Finger-like villi, L: Leaf-like villi, B/R: Blunted/ridged villi.; p.o: per oral; Results expressed as number of villi out of 120 villi per group (n=20 jejunal/ileal villi per rat); *p < 0.05 vs. sham control; **p < 0.001 vs. disease control

Villous heights: jejunum and ileum

The mean heights of jejunal and ileal villi in the disease control animals were significantly less as compared to heights of villi in the sham control animals (Table 2). Administration of glutamine significantly prevented the decrease in jejunal villous height (p <0.001). Both the lower (p <0.05) as well as the higher dose (p <0.001) of A. marmelos significantly prevented the decrease in jejunal villous height in a dose dependent manner. However, only the higher dose of P. granatum significantly prevented the decrease in the jejunal villous height (p <0.001). When the effect on ileal villous heights was observed it was found that both the doses of the two plant drugs protected against the decrease in ileal villous heights. The jejunal and ileal villous heights of groups receiving the higher doses of Aegle marmelos and Punica granatum were not significant when compared to glutamine whereas the villous heights of the animals receiving lower doses of both the plant drugs were significantly less than that observed with glutamine (Table 2).

Table 2: Villous heights in the various experimental groups.

| Groups | Treatment (p.o.) | Villous heights (μm) | Jejunum | Ileum |
|--------|-----------------|---------------------|---------|-------|
|        |                 |                     | F       | L     | B/R   | F    | L | B/R |
| 1      | Sham control (distilled water) | 506.23±121.31 | 453.68±106.34 |
| 2      | Disease control (distilled water) | 357.07±130.30* | 251.10±109.01* |
| 3      | Glutamine (0.75 mg/kg/day) | 494.68±168.02** | 430.78±161.79** |
| 4      | A. marmelos (0.27 g/kg/day) | 416.82±133.61*# | 325.19±125.78*# |
| 5      | A. marmelos (0.54 g/kg/day) | 457.08±138.21** | 396.24±132.66** |
| 6      | P. granatum (3.6 g/kg/day) | 403.93±144.71* | 341.01±101.57* |
| 7      | P. granatum (7.2 g/kg/day) | 459.52±134.08** | 429.04±96.82** |

Results expressed as Mean±S.D. of 120 villi per group (n=20 jejunal/ileal villi per rat); p.o: per oral; *p <0.05 vs. sham control; #p <0.001 vs. disease control using One way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey’s test

Table 3: Bacterial translocation to the mesenteric lymph nodes and jejunal sucrase enzyme activity in the experimental groups.

| Groups (n=6/gp) | Treatment (p.o.) | Incidence of bacterial translocation | Sucrate enzyme activity in jejunum (IU/g of mucosa) |
|-----------------|-----------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| 1               | Sham control (Distilled water) | 0 / 6 | 5.89±0.69 |
| 2               | Disease control (Distilled water) | 5 / 6# | 2.94±0.80# |
| 3               | Glutamine (0.75mg/kg/day) | 0 / 6* | 5.75±0.61** |
| 4               | Aegle marmelos (0.27 g/kg/day) | 2 / 6##, NS1 | 3.95±0.38*# |
| 5               | Aegle marmelos (0.54 g/kg/day) | 1 / 6*##, NS1 | 5.12±0.26##, NS2 |
| 6               | Punica granatum (3.6 g/kg/day) | 1 / 6###, NS1 | 3.87±0.28*## |
| 7               | Punica granatum (7.2 g/kg/day) | 1 / 6###, NS1 | 4.96±0.34##, NS2 |

Bacterial translocation: Numerator in each ratio represents the number in which translocation occurred out of the entire group; p.o: per oral; *p<0.05 vs. sham control; #p<0.05, NS1 - Not significant vs. disease control; NS1 - Not significant vs. Glutamine using Fisher’s exact test. Results expressed as mean±S.D. for sucrase enzyme activity; @p <0.001 versus Sham Control; **p <0.05, **p <0.001 vs. disease control; @p <0.001, NS2 – Not significant vs. glutamine using one way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey’s test.
Bacterial translocation

The results of bacterial translocation are summarized in Table 3, none of the sham control rats showed bacterial translocation whereas bacterial translocation was recorded in 5/6 rats in the disease control group. Glutamine prevented the bacterial translocation to the mesenteric lymph nodes (p <0.05). Both the doses of Punica granatum and the high dose of Aegle marmelos significantly decreased the translocation of bacteria (p <0.05) as compared to the disease control group. When compared to glutamine the decrease in translocation was not significant.

Intestinal mucosal sucrase enzyme activity

The jejunal sucrase enzyme activity in group 2 animals (disease control) was significantly less (p< 0.001) than that of animals in group 1 (Table 3). The fall in the enzyme activity was prevented by glutamine and high doses of both the plant drugs (p<0.001) and their low doses (p<0.05). The enzyme activity observed with the higher doses of Aegle marmelos and Punica granatum was not found to be significantly different as compared to glutamine while the enzyme activity seen with the lower doses of both the plants drugs was significantly less than that observed with glutamine.

DISCUSSION

The present study was conducted to evaluate whether the aqueous extracts of the unripe fruit of A. marmelos and fruit rind of P. granatum protected against intestinal mucosal barrier disruption in rats with bile duct ligation. The variables selected were intestinal villous morphology including villous heights, bacterial translocation and intestinal mucosal sucrase enzyme activity.

Bile has a trophic effect on the intestinal mucosa and absence of intraluminal bile leads to intestinal mucosal atrophy.14 Hence various researchers have assessed villous morphology including villous heights to evaluate the effect of the test drugs in the model of common bile duct ligation.15,16 In our study, A. marmelos and P. granatum significantly prevented the blunting of villi and maintained the villous heights and the higher doses were comparable to glutamine. The exact mechanism by which A. marmelos and P. granatum prevented the damage to the intestinal mucosa is not known. It has been reported that the intestinal cell damage induced by bile duct ligation occurs due to lipid peroxidation and hence it is possible that the antioxidants present in the plant drugs are responsible for the protective effect.17 Das et al have demonstrated the antioxidant property of A. marmelos in an experimental study of aspirin-induced gastroduodenal ulcers and have attributed the protection to the vitamin E, β-carotene, flavanols and flavonoids in the A. marmelos extract.18 Similarly, phenolics extracted from the peel of P. granatum have been reported to exhibit a potent antioxidant activity.19 The gallic acid present in P. granatum, may also play a part in the regeneration of the intestinal epithelium. Murthy et al have reported that the epithelial cells from the excision wound of skin are stimulated by the methanolic extract of P. granatum which contain high levels of gallic acid.20

Bacterial translocation is the migration of bacteria from the intestinal lumen to extraintestinal sites. The identification of intestinal bacteria in the normally sterile mesenteric lymph nodes is a direct evidence of bacterial translocation and a marker of the loss of gut integrity.
Mechanisms that promote bacterial translocation are bacterial overgrowth in the small intestine, deficiencies in host immune defences and damage to the intestinal mucosa. The higher dose of A. marmelos and both the doses of P. granatum prevented BT to the mesenteric lymph nodes and were comparable to glutamine. Brijesh et al have studied the anti diarrhoeal activity of A. marmelos and have suggested that its antimicrobial activity is due to the presence of tannins and flavonoids. The in-vitro bactericidal activity of P. granatum peels has been reported by several researchers. Clinical trials have also been conducted with P. granatum extracts but have mainly focused on oral bacteria. It is possible that the antimicrobial activity of the plant drugs prevented the overgrowth of enteric bacteria thereby reducing the bacterial translocation. However, in the present study, since the intestinal microbial content was not assessed, we could not determine whether it was the antimicrobial activity of the plant drugs that caused a reduction in bacterial translocation. Thus, the protective effects of the plants on the intestinal mucosa as well as their antimicrobial effects may have played a part in decreasing the bacterial translocation.

The intestinal mucosal disaccharidase activity represents the functional ability of the intestinal villi for carbohydrate digestion. Damage to the intestinal morphology such as that due to intestinal reperfusion causes a decrease in the intestinal disaccharidase activity injury. Although our literature search did not reveal any study wherein the disaccharidase levels were assessed in obstructive jaundice, we felt it would be interesting to measure the jejunal mucosal sucrase levels, as an objective means to study the effect of the plant drugs. In our study, both the doses of A. marmelos and P. granatum averted the fall in sucrase levels caused by bile duct ligation but only the higher doses were comparable to glutamine. A decrease in disaccharidase activity has also been reported due to infections. Thus, prevention of the fall in sucrase activity, observed with the plant drugs can be ascribed not only to the fact that they preserved the overall morphology of intestinal villi but also to their antimicrobial activity. No study has measured the intestinal sucrase levels in a model of bile duct ligation and hence we could not compare our results to other studies.

To conclude, the effects of both A. marmelos and P. granatum observed in this preliminary study point out to the potential of these plants in maintaining the gastrointestinal barrier function. One of the strengths of this study is that the objective variables used by us to study the effects of these plant drugs, have not been used by the other researchers who have evaluated these plants. However, further studies need to be carried out to determine the exact mechanism/s of action of the plant drugs as also the active constituent/s which are responsible for strengthening of the gastrointestinal barrier. As mentioned earlier, various other researchers in studies to gut barrier dysfunction have shown that these plant drugs have stimulatory effects on the epithelial cell growth, antioxidant activity and possess antimicrobial effects. How these effects contribute to the maintenance of gut barrier structure and function in the model of bile duct ligation remains to be investigated.

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