Hyperoxaluria (excessive urinary oxalate excretion) is a major risk factor for kidney stone diseases (KSD).[1–3] The upper limit of normal level for urinary oxalate excretion is considered to be 40 mg (0.40 µmol) in 24 hour urine; this index is slightly higher in men - 43 mg/d vs 32 mg/d in women.[3] This difference is associated with a larger body habitus and increased food intake in men. Taking into consideration the demonstration of these norms, the regular definition of hyperoxaluria is urinary oxalate excretion that exceeds 44 mg/d or 0.44 µmol/d.[1, 3–5] The alternative indicator of hyperoxaluria, which eliminates the differences in body mass and food volume, is the ratio of excretion >32 mg/day of oxalate per gram of isolated creatinine (or >40 µmol/mol).[1]

There are 3 main types of hyperoxaluria:

1. **Primary hyperoxaluria:** (≥1 µmol/d). It is characterized by inherited (genetic) overproduction of oxalate and associated with genetic defects (type I is the AGXT gene mutation, type II is the GRHPR gene and type III is the DHDPSL gene).[6, 7]

2. **Secondary hyperoxuria:** (≥0.45–0.85 µmol/d).[1, 2] It occurs due to intestinal hyperabsorption of oxalate (enteral) or dietary abuse (dietary). Enteral hyperoxaluria is most commonly associated with a bowel resection, bariatric surgery, Crohn’s disease and pancreatic insufficiency.[1]

3. **Idiopathic or mild hyperoxuria:** (≥0.45–0.85 µmol/d).[1, 2]

As all forms of KSD, clinical implications of hyperoxaluria are associated with the formation of stones and subsequent damage of the urinary system: renal obstruction, urosepsis, chronic kidney disease and even death. In particular, primary hyperoxaluria is associated with the most serious life expectancy and prognostic factors.[6] After all, 50% of patients younger than age 15 years and 80% of those under age 30 require renal replacement therapy; mortality (infant mortality in particular) exceeds 50%.[6, 8] Moreover, in terms of the effectiveness of therapeutic and prophylactic measures, secondary and idiopathic types of hyperoxaluria are prognostically favorable.[6, 8] However, existing therapeutic strategies are very limited. First of all, they are based on dietary measures, such as reducing the consumption of high-oxalate and
fat foods and increasing fluid intake to 2.5-3 liters per day.[3, 7, 9] The use of pyridoxine hydrochloride at a dose of 5-20 mg/kg/day is effective in the patients with proven primary hyperoxaluria of type I. In case of enteric hyperoxaluria, increasing calcium intake in a food diet (>500 mg/day) is added to the dietary recommendations, and, the patients are prescribed potassium citrate.[1, 9, 10] However, the use of potassium citrate causes a number of the gastrointestinal side effects (belching, bloating, diarrhea), and, accordingly, these factors make impossible to use it in most cases.[11] Unfortunately, at present, the effectiveness of pharmacotherapy for the treatment of the most common “idiopathic” hyperoxaluria forms (up to 40%) has not been proven.[10, 12, 13] A probiotic approach with the use of O. formigenes, Eubacterium lentum, Lactobacillus acidophilus and all other microorganisms is considered promising today.[14, 15] A substantial body of research has been conducted on the ability of probiotics to reduce oxalate excretion. These studies have led to promising, but, all in all, ambiguous results requiring confirmation with the help of larger, well-designed randomized clinical trials.[16] Consequently, none of the existing treatment methods is devoid of any disadvantages, such as a large number of side effects and/or lack of the evidence base. On the other hand, due to the limited choice of pharmacotherapy, the interest of the public in the use of herbal medicines in KSD treatment in general and hyperoxaluria in particular is increasing.[12, 17-19] Unlike allopathic drugs, which tend to effect only one aspect of lithogenesis, most plants have multifactorial effects acting through antispasmodic, antibacterial, diuretic, analgesic, antioxidant and other effects.[12, 20] That is exactly why the use of herbal preparations, which have been used since ancient times in many countries of the world, is further developing. Nevertheless, as an alternative to hyperoxaluria treatment, the effectiveness and the mechanism of phyto-preparations’ action have not been cleared up yet.[21-23] The purpose of this work was to systematize the current data obtained in vitro, to conduct the experiment on animals, to get the results of clinical studies, to determine the potential of phytotherapy in hyperoxaluria treatment. A total of 98 original scientific works published in the Medline system between the periods of January 2008 and December 2018 were analyzed. We found out that most of the researches, namely 54% (n=53), were conducted in the experiment on animals and 41% (n=40) in vitro studies. And, only 5 works (5%) were the randomized clinical trials. In Vitro Studies Experimental studies in vitro are widely used to study the processes of crystals’ nucleation, their growth and agglomeration.[12, 24] It is necessary to remind that according to the crystallization theory, which appeared in the middle of the last century, the formal crystallization process involves several stages:

- Crystal nucleus formation in a supersaturated solution (nucleation);
- Crystal growth;
- Crystal aggregation;
- Delay of aggregates in the urinary system with formation of urate (agglomeration).[1, 12] It is a general idea that intervention in the processes of nucleation and aggregation of oxalates is one of the potential therapeutic strategies for the prevention and KSD treatment. Consequently, many of the tested plants in an in vitro system contain glycosaminoglycans. They are inhibitors of crystalization and prevent formation and agglomeration of oxalates. Thus, Surendra K. Pareta and his co-authors demonstrated the antilithogenic properties of Achyranthes indica and Ammi visnaga due to the inhibitory effect on crystalization.[25] The authors showed that the extracts of these plants changed a urine pH level that interfered with citrate reabsorption in kidneys and aggregation of oxalates in the urinary system.[23] A similar “in vitro” effect was also shown with the use of Hyptis suaveolens and Tinospora cordifolia.[26] A. Barzgarnejad argued that urinary concretions could be dissolved in vitro with the help of Juniperus frutic.[27] Moreover, the efficiency of a fruit of juniper had a dose-dependent effect: the higher the concentration of the extract was (the authors used solutions of 200, 500 and 1000 μg/ml), the smaller the weight of the dry powder of the concrement was (1310, 1240 and 1120 mg, respectively).[27] With the help of in vitro studies and using renal epithelial cells, the cytotoxic effect of oxalates was proven due to the unbalance of oxidant/antioxidant systems, membrane integrity damage and apoptosis.[1, 12, 17] After all, it is a well-known fact that oxidative stress leads to inflammation due to the excessive formation of lipid peroxidation products. In turn, the loss of cell membranes integrity further contributes to the preservation of oxalate crystals and the growth of stones in the renal tubules.[17] For example, recent studies have shown that malondialdehyde excretion may be considered as a marker of renal cell damage.[17] Thus, the treatment with natural antioxidants is considered as a second therapeutic strategy that reduces hyperoxaluria-induced oxidative stress. The vegetable extracts such as Holarrhena antidysenterica, Origanum vulgare and Terminalia chebula can inhibit cell damage, preferably by inhibiting free radicals.[28-31] Protective action of Paronychia argentea, B. iligulata, Quercus salieina, Achyranthus Aspera and Ammi visnaga also occurs due to stimulation of antioxidant activity.[25, 31, 32] The effects of the main plant extracts are given in Table 1.

In Vivo Study The bulk of kidney physiology data was obtained from the experimental animal studies, and, most of the animals were rats. A calcium oxalate KSD model was the most detailed study. Acute or chronic hyperoxaluria was induced in rats by induction of sodium oxalate, ammonium oxalate, oxy-L-proline, ethylene glycol and glycolic acid. Lithogenic agents were administered to rats by means of food or water, oral route using gastric probe, intravenous or intraperitoneal injections.[17]
| Plant extract                | Type of research | Identified effects                                                                 | Source of information          |
|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Achyranthes indica         | In vitro         | Inhibition of oxalate crystallization                                               | Surendra K. Pareta (2011)[33]  |
| Alcea rosea root            | In vivo animals  | Reducing oxalate deposits in kidneys of rabbits; diuretic, anti-inflammatory         | M. Ahmadi (2012)[34]          |
| Ammi visnaga                | In vivo animals  | Antioxidant, nephroprotective                                                        | A. Vanachayangkul (2015)[35]  |
| Achyranthes aspera          | In vivo animals  | Inhibition of oxalate crystallization, reducing crystals’ size; nephroprotective     | R. Kachkoul (2018)[36]        |
| Angelica sinensis           | In vitro         | Inhibition of the calcium oxalate’s crystallization                                | S. Wang (2018)[37]            |
| Arbutus unedo L.            | In vitro         | Inhibition of the calcium oxalate’s crystallization                                | R. Kachkoul (2018)[38]        |
| Berberine                   | In vitro, In vivo animals | Anti-oxidant, diuretic, hypocalciuric                                         | S. Bashir (2011)[39]          |
| Boerhaavia diffusa          | In vivo animals  | Inhibition of oxalates, reducing their size; diuretic, cytoprotective               | F. Yasir (2011)[40]           |
| Camellia sinensis           | Clinical         | Decrease of urinary oxalate excretion, calcium oxalate deposit formation            | A. Rodgers (2016)[41]         |
| Costus arabicus L.          | In vitro         | Inhibition of calcium oxalate crystal growth and adhesion to renal epithelial cells.| M.R. De Cógáin (2015)[42]    |
| Crataeva nurvala            | Clinical, In vivo animals | Dissolving kidney stones and facilitating their passage; anesthetic                   | Patankar S. (2008)[43]       |
| Cymbopogon citratus         | In vivo animals  | Inhibition of calcium oxalate renal stone formation in rats due decreasing free radial mediated lipid peroxidation | Sanjay Agarwal (2010)[44] |
| Dolichous biflorus          | Clinical         | Reducing oxalates’ size                                                             | R. Singh (2010)[45]           |
| Helichrysum graveolens      | In vivo animals  | Decrease formation and growth of crystals, urine oxalate level                      | N. Orhan (2015)[46]           |
| Holarrhena antidysenterica  | In vitro, In vivo animals | Dosage-dependent inhibition effects of oxalate aggregation; antioxidant, epithelial cell defense | A. Khan (2012)[47]           |
| Hyptis suaveolens           | In vitro         | Inhibition of oxalate aggregation                                                   | Agarwal Kumkum (2012)[48]    |
| Juniperus fructus           | In vitro         | Dose-dependent inhibition of oxalate aggregation                                   | A. Barzgarnejad (2010)[49]   |
| Launaea procumbens L.       | In vivo          | Decrease urinary calcium, oxalate and phosphate excretion of oxalates, reducing their size | Jameel Fahad (2010)[50]     |
| Moringa oleifera            | In vivo animals  | Inhibition of oxalate aggregation; diuretic, antioxidant, antispasmodic, epithelial cell defense, hypocalciuric and hypercitrulial | Aslam Khan (2011)[51]       |
| Origanum vulgare            | In vitro, In vivo animals | Lithogenic effects in comparison with placebo have not been defined               | Premgamone (2009)[52]        |
| Orthosiphon stamineus       | Clinical         | Decrease of serum paraoxonasearylesterase activity and supersaturation of calcium oxalate | C.R. Tracy (2014)[53]        |
| Pomegranate juice           | Clinical         | Decrease of serum paraoxonasearylesterase activity and supersaturation of calcium oxalate | C.R. Tracy (2014)[54]        |
| Punica granatum             | In vitro         | Inhibition of oxalate crystallization                                               | R. Kachkoul (2018)[55]       |
| Radix Paeoniea Alba          | In vitro         | Reduce urinary and renal oxalate levels and increased urinary calcium and citrate levels | X. Li (2017)[56]            |
| Rubia cordifolia            | In vivo animals  | Inhibition of oxalate aggregation; nephroprotective                                 | Divakar K (2010)[57]         |
| Rosa canina                 | In vivo animals  | Reducing the size and stones’ amount; diuretic                                      | Tayefi-Nasrabadi H. (2012)[58] |
| Terminalia chebula          | In vitro         | Inhibition of oxalates; cytoprotective                                              | Tayal S. (2012)[59]           |
| Tinospora cordifolia        | In vitro         | Inhibition of oxalate aggregation                                                   | Goyal Parveen Kumar (2011)[60] |
As we have already mentioned above, in an in vitro system, Ammi visnaga inhibits the crystallization process by inhibiting the growth of crystals and their aggregation. P. Vanachayangkul and his co-authors conducted their research on rats and demonstrated that oral administration of 125, 250 or 500 mg/kg of Ammi visnaga extract for a period of 14 days significantly reduced the amount of kidney oxalate deposits. In other works, P. Vanachayangkul and K. Haug tried to find out the pharmacokinetic characteristics of Ammi visnaga, but, they did not reach any definite conclusions. The experimental study on a model of ethylene glycol-induced hyperoxaluria on rats demonstrated the effectiveness of Alcea rosea root for a period of 28 days. The authors described diuretic, anti-inflammatory, nephroprotective effects of the extract and reducing concentration of lithogenic agents in urine. The use of Berberine, Boerhaavia diffusa, Hibiscus sabdariffa, Moringa oleifera, Rubia cordifolia, Rosa canina, Pyracantha crenulata and Pinus oil demonstrated similar effects.

Clinical Studies

All modern randomized clinical studies are devoted to the use of specific herbal medicines or some types of juice: lemon, orange or apple. And, only 5 works are focused on plant extracts of Orthosiphon stamineus, Dolichous biflorus and Crataeva nurvala. A. Premgamone with his co-authors demonstrated the absence of any anti-lithogenic effects of Orthosiphon stamineus (kidney tea). The authors believed that the flavonoids, which were contained in Orthosiphon stamineus, acted as adenosine A1 receptor antagonists increasing diuresis and inhibiting sodium reabsorption.

In another study (47 patients took part in this trial), Rana Gopal Singh and his co-authors identified a significant reduction in the size of the concrements in comparison with potassium citrate in 6 months after the patients used Dolichous biflorus.

S. Patankar and his colleagues conducted a prospective, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study involving 77 patients. The authors came to the conclusion that Crataeva nurvala had prospects for UHC treatment because it could dissolve oxalate concrements and anesthetize their passage.

Summary

In vitro data, the experimental and clinical studies have demonstrated the urolithic properties of many plant extracts. Reducing hyperoxaluria is mainly due to the ability of plants to inhibit nucleation and agglomeration of crystals by changing ionic composition of urine through diuretic, nephroprotective, antioxidant and antibacterial effects. Nevertheless, the general disadvantage of all these studies is lack of phytochemical characteristics of the plants. Since many extracts contain oxalates (and/or citrate), this important factor must take into account in order to eliminate possible negative side effects. In addition, some of the plants contain saponins, and, in fact, they are promoters of crystallization. It is clear that the use of phytotherapy cannot be an alternative to shock-wave lithotripsy or, if it is necessary, surgical interventions; but, undoubtedly, it can be use to treat hyperoxaluria. Further preclinical and clinical studies on the efficacy and safety of plant products will allow the creation of new phytotherapeutic agents.

Disclosures

Peer-review: Externally peer-reviewed.
Conflict of Interest: None declared.

References

1. Türk C, Petřík A, Sarica K, Seitz C, Skolarikos A, Straub M, Knoll T. EAU Guidelines on Diagnosis and Conservative Management of Urolithiasis. Eur Urol 2016;69:468–74. [CrossRef]
2. Robijn S, Hoppe B, Vervaet BA, D’Haese PC, Verhulst A. Hyperoxaluria: a gut-kidney axis? Kidney Int 2011;80:1146–58. [CrossRef]
3. Knight J, Holmes RP, Assimos DG. Intestinal and renal handling of oxalate loads in normal individuals and stone formers. Urol Res 2007;35:111–117. [CrossRef]
4. Marengo SR, Romani AM. Oxalate in renal stone disease: the terminal metabolite that just won’t go away. Nat Clin Pract Nephrol 2008;4:368–77. [CrossRef]
5. Glew RH, Sun Y, Horowitz BL, Konstantinov KN, Barry M, Fair JR, et al. Nephropathy in dietary hyperoxaluria: A potentially preventable acute or chronic kidney disease. World J Nephrol 2014;3:122–42. [CrossRef]
6. Harambat J, Fargue S, Bacchetta J, Acquaviva C, Cochat P. Primary hyperoxaluria. Int J Nephrol 2011;2011:864580. [CrossRef]
7. Bhasin B, Ürekli HM, Atta MG. Primary and secondary hyperoxaluria: Understanding the enigma. World J Nephrol 2015;4:235–244. [CrossRef]
8. Barmela SR, Soni SS, Saboo SS, Bhansali AS. Medical management of renal stone. Indian J Endocrinol Metab 2012;16:236–239. [CrossRef]
9. Morgan Monica S C, Pearle Margaret S. Medical management of renal stones BMJ 2016;352:i52. [CrossRef]
10. Azarfar A, Esmaili M, Tousi N, Naseri M, Ghane F, Ravanshad Y, Alizadeh A. Evaluation of the effects of magnesium supplement in primary and secondary preventions of nephrolithiasis: a systematic review. Reviews in Clinical Medicine 2016;3:18–22.
11. Butterweck V, Khan SR. Herbal medicines in the management of urolithiasis: alternative or complementary? Planta Med
2009;75:1095–1103. [CrossRef]
12. Nirumand MC, Hajialyani M, Rahimi R, Farzaei MH, Zingue S, Nabavi SM, Bishayee A. Dietary Plants for the Prevention and Management of Kidney Stones: Preclinical and Clinical Evidence and Molecular Mechanisms. Int J Mol Sci 2018;19:765.
13. Stepanova N. Lactobacillus probiotic decreases urinary oxalate excretion in non-stone former women with recurrent pyelonephritis. Eur Urol Suppl 2016;17:e1367. [CrossRef]
14. Hatch M, Gjymishka A, Salido EC, Allison MJ, Freel RW. Enteric oxalate elimination is induced and oxalate is normalized in a mouse model of primary hyperoxaluria following intestinal colonization with Oxalobacter. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 2011;300:G461–G469. [CrossRef]
15. Milliner D, Hoppe B, Groothoff J. A randomised Phase II/III study to evaluate the efficacy and safety of orally administered Oxalobacter formigenes to treat primary hyperoxaluria. Urolithiasis 2018;46:313–323. [CrossRef]
16. Yadav RD, Alok SS, Jain SK, Verma A, Mahor A, Verma A, Mahor A, Bharti JP, Jaiswal M. Herbal plants used in the treatment of urolithiasis: a review. JPSR 2011;2:1412–1420.
17. Havagiray RC, Shashi A, Jain SK, Sabharwal M. Herbal treatment for urinary stones. JPSR 2010;3:24–31.
18. Bahmani M, Baharvand-Ahmbi B, Tajeddini P, Rafeian-Kopaei M, Naghdí N. Identification of medicinal plants for the treatment of kidney and urinary stones. J Renal Inj Prev 2016;5:129–133. [CrossRef]
19. Prachi N, Chauhan D, Kumar M S. Medicinal plants of muzafarnagar district used in treatment of urinary tract and kidney stone. Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge 2009;8:191–195.
20. Akram M, Idrees M. Progress and prospects in the management of kidney stones and developments in phytotherapeutic modalities. Int J Immunopathol Pharmacol 2019;33:2058738419848220. [CrossRef]
21. Tiwari A, Soni V, Loundhe V, Bhandarkar A, Bandawane DD, Nipate SS. An overview on potent indigenous herbs for urinary tract infirmity: urolithiasis. Asian J Pharm Clin Res 2012;5:7–12.
22. Pareda SK, Patra KC, Mazumder PM, r Sasmal D. Establishing the Principle of Herbal Therapy for Antiurolithic Activity: A Review. J Toxicol Pharmacol 2011;6:321–332. [CrossRef]
23. Sundaramoorthi P, Palainathan S. Crystal Growth of Some Renal Stones Constituents: In vitro Crystallization of Trace Element and its Characterization Studies. Journal of Minerals & Materials Characterization & Engineering 2007;6:17–24.
24. Pareda SK, Patra KC, Mazumder PM, Sasmal D. Boerhaavia Diffusa Linn aqueous extract as curative agent in ethylene glycol induced urolithiasis. Pharmacologyonline 2010;3:112–120.
25. Goyal KP, Arun M, Rishi K. Evaluation of tinospora cordifolia for antiurolithic potential. Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Sciences 2011;9:1–15.
26. Barzgarnejad A, Azadbakht M, Emadian O. In vitro effect of juniper fruit extract on dissolution of urinary stones. J Mazand Univ Med Sci 2010;20:31–36.
27. Khan A, Bashir S, Khan SR, Gilani AH. Antiurolithic activity of Origanum vulgare is mediated through multiple pathways. BMC Complement Altern Med 2011;11:96. [CrossRef]
28. Tayal S, Duggal S, Bandypadhyay P, Aggarwal A, Tandon S, Tandon C. Cytoprotective role of the aqueous extract of Terminalia chebula on renal epithelial cells. Int Braz J Urol 2012;38:204–13; discussion 213–4. [CrossRef]
29. Khan A, Khan SR, Gilani AH. Studies on the in vitro and in vivo antiurolithic activity of Holarrhena antidysenterica. Urol Res 2012;40:671–681. [CrossRef]
30. Bouanani S, Henchiri C, Migianu-Gripon F, Eouf N, Lecouvey M. Pharmacological and toxicological effects of Paronychia argentea in experimental calcium oxalate nephrolithiasis in rats. J Ethnopharmacol 2010;129:38–45. [CrossRef]
31. Kachkoul R, Sqalli Houssaini T, Miyah Y, Mohim M, El Habbani R, Lahrichi A. The study of the inhibitory effect of calcium oxalate monohydrate’s crystallization by two medicinal and aromatic plants: Ammi visnaga and Punica granatum. Prog Urol 2018;28:156–163. [CrossRef]
32. Pareta SK, Patra K, Harwansh RK. In-vitro calcium oxalate crystallization inhibition by achyranthes indica linn. Hydralcoholic extract: an approach to antilithiasis. Int J Pharma Bio Sci 2011;2:432–7.
33. Ahmadi M, Rad AK, Rajaee Z, Hadjzadeh MA, Mohammadian N, Tabasi NS. Alcea rosea root extract as a preventive and curative agent in ethylene glycol-induced urolithiasis in rats. Indian J Pharmacol 2012;44:304–307. [CrossRef]
34. Bhagavathula AS, Mahmoud Al-Khatib AJ, ElNour AA, Al Kalbani NM, Shehab A. Ammi Visnaga in treatment of urolithiasis and hypertriglyceridemia. Pharmacognosy Res 2015;7:397–400. [CrossRef]
35. Aggarwal A, Singla SK, Gandhi M, Tandon C. Preventive and curative effects of Achyranthes aspera Linn. extract in experimentally induced nephrolithiasis. Indian J Exp Biol 2012;50:201–8.
36. Wang S, Li X, Bao J, Chen S. Protective potential of Angelica sinensis polysaccharide extract against ethylene glycol-induced calcium oxalate urolithiasis. Ren Fail 2018;40:618–627.
37. Kachkoul R, Sqalli Houssaini T, Habbani R, Lahrichi A. The study of the inhibitory effect of calcium oxalate crystallization of Arbutus unedo L. leaves. Heliyon. 2015;5:129–133. [CrossRef]
38. Tayal S, Duggal S, Bandypadhyay P, Aggarwal A, Tandon S, Tandon C. Cytoprotective role of the aqueous extract of Terminalia chebula on renal epithelial cells. Int Braz J Urol 2012;38:204–13; discussion 213–4. [CrossRef]
39. Yasir F, Waqar MA. Effect of indigenous plant extracts on calcium oxalate crystallization having a role in urolithiasis. Urol Res 2011;39:345–350. [CrossRef]
40. Rodgers A, Mokoena M, Durbach I, Lazarus J, de Jager S, Ack-
ermann H, et al. Do teas rich in antioxidants reduce the physicochemical and peroxidative risk factors for calcium oxalate nephrolithiasis in humans? Pilot studies with Rooibos herbal tea and Japanese green tea. Urolithiasis 2016;44:299–310.

41. De Cógain MR, Linnes MP, Lee HJ, Krambeck AE, de Mendonça Uchôa JC, Kim S-H, Lieske JC. Aqueous extract of Costus arubicus inhibits calcium oxalate crystal growth and adhesion to renal epithelial cells. Urolithiasis 2015;43:119–24. (CrossRef)

42. Patankar S, Dobhada S, Bhansali M, Khaladkar S, Modi J. A prospective, randomized, controlled study to evaluate the efficacy and tolerability of Ayurvedic formulation "varuna and banana stem" in the management of ureteral stones. J Altern Complement Med 2008;14:1287–90. (CrossRef)

43. Agarwal S, Gupta SJ, Saxena AK, Gupta N, Agarwal S. Uro lithic property of Varuna (Crataeva nurvala): An experimental study. Ayu 2010;31:361–366. (CrossRef)

44. Ibrahimina FY, El-Khateeb AY. Effect of herbal beverages offoeniculum vulgareand Cymbopogon proximus on inhibition of calcium oxalaterenal crystals formation in rats. Annals of Agricultural Sciences 2013;58:221–229. (CrossRef)

45. Singh RG, Behura SK, Kumar R. Litholytic property of Kulantha (Dolichous biflorus) vs potassium citrate in renal calculus disease: a comparative study. J Assoc Physicians India 2010;58:286–9.

46. Saha S, Verma RJ. Evaluation of hydro-alcoholic extract of Dolichos biflorus seeds on inhibition of calcium oxalate crystallization. J Herb Med 2015;5:41–47. (CrossRef)

47. Woottisin S, Hossain RZ, Yachantha C, Sriroonlue P, Ogawa Y, Saito S. Effects of Orthosiphon grandiflorus, Hibiscus sabdariffa and Phyllanthus amarus extracts on risk factors for urinary calcium oxalate stones in rats. J Urol 2011;185:323–8. (CrossRef)

48. Kummuk A., Ranjana V. Inhibition of calcium oxalate crystallization in vitro by various extracts of Hyptis Suaveolens (L.) Poit. IRGP 2012;3:261–7.

49. Haug KG, Weber B, Hochhaus G, Butterweck V. Nonlinear pharmacokinetics of visnagin in rats after intravenous bolus administration. Eur J Pharm Sci 2012;45:79–89. (CrossRef)

50. Fink HA, Akornor JW, Garimella PS, et al. Diet, fluid, or supplements for secondary prevention of nephrolithiasis: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized trials. Eur Urol 2009;56:72–80. (CrossRef)