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Nigerian Medicinal Plants I

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ABSTRACT

Nigerian medicinal plants (*Aspilia africana, Bryophyllum pinnatum, Garcinia kola, Spondias mombim* and *Uvaria chamea*) are used in herbal medicine to cure diseases, protect and regenerate liver cells, prevent alcoholic liver damage, viral liver damage and toxic liver damage. The plants contain proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins, minerals and phytochemicals. The phytochemicals comprise flavonoids, phenolic compounds, alkaloids, tannins and saponins. The flavonoids and phenolic compounds present in the plants exhibit antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anti-tumor, anti-hepatotoxic, anti-microbial and anti-ulcer properties. Several epidemiological studies have suggested that micro-chemicals present in plants could be the most desirable agents for the prevention and /or intervention of human cancer. These plants have been extensively used to prevent colic disorders, suppress cough, heal injuries and used in the treatment of cirrhosis and hepatitis. There is a need to pool and conserve the genetic wealth available in these plants at a national and international level. The conservation of the genetic diversity of these plants is very essential and vital for their future use. Emphasis was placed on these plants in view of their popular use in herbal medicine. The importance of the chemical constituents available in these plants is discussed with respect to their role in herbal medicine in Nigeria.

Keywords: antioxidants, anti-tumor, conservation, ethnomedicine, herbal medicine, nutritive value, phytochemicals **Abbreviations: AFBI**, aflatoxin B1; **AST**, aspartate amino transferase; **gamma-GT**, gamma glutamyl transferase; **LDL**, low density lipo-protein; **LPO**, lipid preoxidation; **LHP**, lipid hydroperoxide; **MDA**, malonialdehyde

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INTRODUCTION

Nigeria is richly endowed with indigenous plants, which are used in herbal medicine to cure diseases and heal injuries. Some of these plants are used as food or medicine. These plants exhibit a wide range of biological and pharmacological activities such as anti cancer, anti-inflammatory, diuretic, laxative, antispasmodic, anti-hypertensive, antidiabetic and anti-microbial functions. It is generally assumed (Okwu and Ekeke 2003; Okwu 2004) that the active medicinal constituents contributing to these protective effects are the phytochemicals, vitamins and minerals.

Phytochemicals, which posses many ecological and physiological roles are widely distributed as plants constituents (Okwu 2005). Woody plants and herbs can synthesize and accumulate in their cells a large reservoir of phytochemicals including flavonoids, alkaloids, terpenoids, phenolic compounds, tannins, cynogenic glycosodes, saponins, lignins and lignans (Okwu 2004, 2005). It has been highlighted that the additional role of flavornoids and other polyphenolic compounds of higher plants may act as antioxidants or agents of other mechanisms that contribute in their anti-carcinogenic or cardioprotective actions (Herlog *et al.* 1993). Extracts from the roots, barks, seeds and fruits of these plants are used in the preparation of syrups, infusions, teas and as cough suppressants and in the treatment of liver cirrhosis and hepatitis (Iwu 1989; Okwu 2003, 2005). These plants encompass *Aspilia africana*, *Bryophyllum pinnatum*, *Garcinia kola*, *Spondias mombin* and *Uvaria chamae* (Fig. 1). They are extensively used in herbal medicine in Nigeria.

Aspilia africana (Asteraceae)

Aspilia africana is a perennial herb varying in height from 60 cm to about 1.5 m, depending on rainfall. It is a common weed of field crops in West Africa and is sometimes found in fallow land, especially in forest zones (Akobundu 1987;



Fig. 1 (A) Aspilia africana, (B) Bryophyllum pinnatum, (C) Garcinia kola, (D) Spondias mombin, (E) Uvaria chamae.

Okwu and Josiah 2006). The crushed leaves and flowers are used to stop bleeding and for treating wounds and sores (Agoha 1974). This may be due to high saponin $(1.46 \text{ mg.100 g}^{-1})$ content (**Table 1**). The high saponin content in A. africana justifies the use of the extract from this plant to stop bleeding and in treating wounds (Okwu and Josiah 2006). Saponin has the property of precipitating and coagulating red blood cells. Some of the general properties of saponin include the formation of foams in aqueous solution, hemolytic activity and cholesterol binding properties and bitterness (Sodipo et al. 2000; Okwu and Ndu 2006). Plants saponins help humans fight fungal infections, combat microbes and viruses, boost the effectiveness of certain vaccines and knock out some kinds of tumor cells (Okwu and Josiah 2006; Okwu and Ndu 2006). Infusion of the leaves of A. africana is taken by children and can also be mixed with clay as a medicine for stomach troubles (Okwu and Josiah 2006). A. africana is grazed by cattle and sheep and is much used as food for rabbits and hares Egunjobi (1969).

Bryophyllum pinnatun (Crassulaceae)

Bryophyllum pinnatum is an erect, succulent, perennial shrub that grows about 1.5 m tall and reproduces via seeds and also vegetatively from leaf bulbils (Agoha 1974). It is an introduced ornamental plant that is now growing as a weed around plantation crops (Dalziel 1995; Okwu and Josiah 2006). B. pinnatum is used in ethnomedicine for the treatment of earache, burns, abscesses, boils, whitlow, ulcers, insect bites, diarrhea and lithiasis (Chopra et al. 1956; Agoha 1974; Ofokansi et al. 2005; Okwu and Josiah 2006). The crushed leaves as well as the extracted juice are mixed with shear butter or palm oil and rubbed on abscessses, whitlows, boils or other swellings. This is also applied on ulcers, burns and on the bodies of young children when they are ill (Agoha 1974; Okwu and Josiah 2006). Bryophyllin, potassium malate, ascorbic, malic and citric acids have been isolated from the leaves of *B. pinnatum* (Singh 1976; Soddiguluient et al. 1983; Mekenzie et al. 1985; Oliver 1989).

Garcinia kola Heckel (Guttiferae)

Garcinia kola (Bitter kola) *is* popular in Southern Nigeria. The plant is extensively used in herbal medicine and as food (Okwu 2005). It is usually found in the tropical rain forest region of West Africa. It prevails as a multipurpose tree crop in the home gardens of Southern Nigeria (Nzegbule and Mbakwe 2001). The tree is cultivated within villages in Southern Nigeria as an economic tree crop.

Bitter kola is seen as trees of 12 to 27 m with cylindrical slightly buttressed trunks (Gledhill 1972). The grayish brown bark is slightly scaly and the slash is thick, brownish and has a slow yellow exudates. The deep dense crown is composed of short whorled dropping branches with opposite leaves 15 cm long and 6 cm wide with pale midribs (Gledhill 1972). It produces reddish, yellowish or orange co-loured fruits. Each fruit contains 2 to 4 yellow seeds and a sour tasting pulp. The seed, when chewed, has a bitter, astringent taste. The seed is chewed as a masticatory and it is readily served to visitors especially among the Igbo tribe of Eastern Nigeria, as a sign of peace and acceptance of visitors (Uko et al. 2001). The seed is also used in traditionnal hospitality, cultural and social ceremonies (Olaleye 2000). The flowering of the plant occurs between December and January while the fruits mature between June and August (Okwu 2003, 2005). The wood is termite-proof, while the tree grows very slowly under cultivation (Gledhill 1972).

G. kola is highly valued because of its medicinal use (Iwu 1989; Manimi et al. 1994; Chairungsrilerd et al. 1996). The seeds are chewed as an aphrodisiac or use to cure cough, dysentery or chest colds in herbal medicine (Irvine 1961; Okwu 2005). G. kola could serve as a raw material for pharmaceutical industries (Iwu 1989). The raw stem bark of G. kola is purgative. The powdered bark is applied to malignnant tumors. The sap is used for curing parasitic skin disease (Okwu 2003, 2005). The latex or gum (exudates) is used intensively against gonorrhea (Iwu 1989) and applied externally on fresh wounds. The seeds prevent or relieve colic disorders, cure head or chest colds, suppressed cough and is often use in the treatment of cirrhosis and hepatitis (inflammation of the liver) (Iwu 1989; Ogu and Agu 1995). The stem of G. kola is used to produce favourite bitter chewing sticks sold in small bundles. The seeds as well as chewing stick are important products often seen in West African markets, particularly in Nigeria (Irvin 1961). Chewing sticks when used without toothpaste is very effecttive, efficient and reliable in cleaning the teeth of many people in Southern Nigeria (Olabanji et al. 1996; Okwu and Ekeke 2003).

The chemical, brewing and anti-microbial properties of *G. kola* have been compared with hops in larger beer brewing because of their similarity in flavor and the availability of *G. kola* in West Africa (Aniche and Uwakwe 1990; Leaky 1995). Hops are the essential and universal flavoring ingredient for larger beer (Aniche and Uwakwe 1990; Ogu and

 Table 1 Phytochemical composition of five Nigerian medicinal plants expressed as mg/100 g dry weight.

Medicinal plants	Family	Part screened	Alkaloids	Flavonoids	Tannins	Phenols	Saponins	References
Aspilia africana	Asterceae	Leaf	1.24 ± 0.11	1.46 ± 0.20	0.04 ± 0.10	0.06 ± 0.20	1.46 ± 0.11	Okwu and Josiah 2006
Bryophyllum pinnatum	Creassulaceae	Leaf	1.48 ± 0.02	1.72 ± 0.11	0.51 ± 0.20	0.06 ± 0.11	1.72 ± 0.20	Okwu and Josiah 2006
Garcinia kola	Guttiferae	Seed	0.36 ± 0.10	0.98 ± 0.20	0.26 ± 0.20	0.11 ± 0.20	11.48 ± 0.10	Okwu 2005
Spondias mombim	Anacardiacceae	Leaf	0.78 ± 0.20	0.32 ± 0.11	0.17 ± 0.21	0.09 ± 0.33	1.06 ± 0.30	Okwu and Okwu 2004
Spondias mombim	Anacardiacceae	Bark	0.50 ± 0.02	0.16 ± 0.21	0.36 ± 0.41	0.33 ± 0.23	3.90 ± 0.31	Okwu and Okwu 2004
Spondias mombim	Anacardiacceae	Root	0.36 ± 0.10	0.24 ± 0.22	0.26 ± 0.22	0.26 ± 0.22	3.76 ± 0.11	Okwu and Okwu 2004
Uvaria chamea	Annonaceae	Root	8.10 ± 0.02	5.70 ± 0.03	0.41 ± 0.03	0.10 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.01	Iroabuchi 2004

Data are means \pm standard deviation of triplicate determinations on a dry weight basis.

Agu 1995). Hops are cultivated throughout the temperate regions of the world, mainly Germany, USA, England, The Czech Republic and Russia but do not grow in tropical climates (Little 1986). The prospect of indigenous production of hops in West Africa therefore does not exist. *G kola* therefore could serve as an alternative source for the bitter principle for use as a hop substitute (Aniche and Uwakwe 1990; Ogu and Agu 1995).

Numerous reports are available which state that *G. kola* is a versatile medicinal plant in Nigeria and is effective against liver inflammation, as a cough suppressant and as an anti-tumor agent (Iwu 1989; Adaramoye *et al.* 2001; Okwu 2003; Adaramoye *et al.* 2005; Farombi *et al.* 2005)

In traditional medicine, G. kola is used for the treatment of varicose ulcers, hemorrhoids and frostbite (Okwu 2003). Furthermore, extracts of the plant have been traditionally used for ailments such as laryngitis, liver disease and cough (Ogu and Agu 1995). The seed protect and regenerate liver cells, prevent alcoholic liver damage, viral liver damage and toxic liver damage. The seed also has anti-inflammatory, anti-diabetic, anti-microbial and anti-viral as well as anti-ulcer properties (Ibironke et al. 1997). The main flavonoid content isolated from G. kola is kolaviron (Iwu et al. 1990). Kolaviron is a defatted ethanol extract from the seeds of G. kola. It is a mixture of three compounds encompassing garcinia-biflavonoids (C1B1, C1B2) and kolaflavanone in the ratio of 2:2:1 (Iwu 1986; Iwu *et al.* 1990). Also isolated from the seed is the kolaviron biflavonoid, flavornone glycoside 4¹,5,7-trihydroxyflavonone rhamnoglucose that is responsible for the bitter principle of the seed (Okwu 2003). These compounds are responsible for the marked medicinal properties of the plant.

Spondias mombim Linn. (Anacardiaccae)

Spondias mombim Linn. is a medium-sized, occasionally large tree with long compound leaves. The tree is widely cultivated for its yellow, pleasantly acid fruit and as a live fence (Okwu and Okwu 2004). It grows abundantly in Nigeria, bears fruit in April-May and July-August. The pulp-like fruit are yellow and about 3.5 cm long (Keay 1989). *S. mombim* is native to Southern Mexico, throughout Northern Peru and Brazil.

The plant used to be cultivated in commercial quantities in Mexico (Morton 1987a). Spanish explorers carried this species to the Philippines where it was widely adopted and whose fruit was used as food (Morton 1987a). The tree is naturalized throughout Southern Nigeria for its fruit (Morton 1987a; Kozioe and Marica 1998). The small fruits are popular for eating, making juice, popsickles and ice cream. The wood is shaved and steeped in water. Women in rural areas use this concoction as a vaginal douche. The concocttion is drunk to cure ailments in their reproductive system. They are anti-fungi and exhibit the inhibition of *Candida albicans* (Okwu and Okwu 2004).

S. mombin is a versatile African medicinal plant growing in Southern parts of Nigeria. Earlier studies of the plant isolated a series of phytochemicals comprising tannins and phenolic esters, which are found to be anti-viral (Corthout and Pieters 1979; Kozioe and Marica 1998; Okwu and Okwu 2004). In ethnomedicine, the fruits are regarded as a diuretic and antispasmodic. The fruit decoction is used to bathe wounds and heal sores in the mouth (Morton 1987a; Okwu and Okwu 2004). Syrup prepared from the fruit is taken to overcome chronic diarrhea. The astringent bark decoction is a remedy for ulcers, dysentery, hemorrhoids and a treatment for gonorrhea and leucorrhoea (Morton 1987b; Lanz 2000; Okwu and Okwu 2004). In herbal medicine, the bark is used to treat stomatitis in infants (Irvine 1961; Morton 1987a, 1987b; Kozioe and Marica 1998; Lanz 2000).

The juice of the fresh leaves is a remedy for thrush. A decoction of the leaves and bark is employed as a febrifuge. In Southeastern Nigeria, an infusion of shredded leaves is valued for washing cuts, sores and burns (Okwu and Okwu 2004). It has been found (Morton 1987a; Kozioe and Mari-

ca 1998) that an aqueous extract of the leaves has antibacterial action. This may explain why women in rural communities use it as virginal douche. An alcoholic extract of this plant is more effective as an anti-bacterial agent. The gum resin of the tree is blended with pineapple or sour-sop juice for treating jaundice (Okwu and Okwu 2004). The juice of the crushed leaves and powdered dried leaves are used as poultices on wounds and inflammations while the gum that exudes from the bark is employed as an expectorant to expel tapeworms (Martinez 2000).

In parts of Eastern Nigeria, the bark is used to cook for the mothers after delivery. The use of *S. mombin* leaves as a goat fodder supplement by farmers is well known in Igbo land (Onwuka 1992). The leaves are fed to goats to expel the placenta after delivery and this suggest that *S. mombin* have obortifactant properties (Nzegbule and Meregini 1999). This may be the reason for the use of the extracts from *S. mombin* in herbal medicine to accelerate labor in South Eastern Nigeria (Okwu and Okwu 2004).

S. mombim is a very useful food. The pulp is eaten fresh or made into juice, concentrates, jellies and sherbets. In the home, they are stewed whole with sugar and consumed as a dessert. They can be preserved for future use merely by boiling and drying. The strained juice of cooked fruits yields an excellent jelly and is also used for making wine and vinegar (Morton 1987a).

In agro-forestry, this multipurpose species easily regenerates in a floodplain environment. The tree can grow to be very large, but the canopy is very light, allowing crops to grow under it. It will grow from cuttings, so people use this species as living fencepost. The trees are spaced at least six to eight meters apart. The openings and fissures in the trunk normally attract termites, insects, birds and honeybees. The wood is useful for fuel and construction needs (Kozioe and Marica 1998).

In Nigeria, indigenous people traditionally use *S. mombim* to maintain their health. The *S. mombim* plant has enormous reservoirs of many secondary metabolites and nutriative compounds which exhibit some medicinal and nutritive properties.

Uvaria chamae Beav. (Annonaceae)

Uvaria chamae Beav. is a climbing plant. It is predominantly found in the tropical rain forest of West Africa (Irvin 1961; Okwu and Iroabuchi 2004). It is a terrestrial, perennial and evergreen plant that grows about 3.6 to 4.5 m high, cultivated as well as wild (Irvin 1961). The plant is extensively branched with sweet aromatic and alternate leaves (Shukda and Shital 1994).

U. chamae is a plant with both medicinal and nutritional values. It has been reported (Okogun 1985) that its extracts have mutagenic effects. The drug benzyl benzoate used in antifungal preparations has a mutagenic compound, chamuvaritin, a benzydihydrochalcone, which was isolated from *U. chamae* (Okogun 1985). The root is used in Nigeria as a purgative (Irvin 1961). The root bark is used for respiratory catarrh and the root extract is used in the treatment of piles, menrrhegia, epistaxis, haematuria and haemalysis (Oliver 1986).

A root infusion is used for severe abdominal pains. The juice from the roots, stems or leaves is commonly applied to wounds and sores (Irvin 1961). Okwu and Iroabuchi (2004) reported the antifungal and antibacterial inhibitory properties of the plant.

PHYTOCHEMICAL COMPOSITION

It is generally assumed that the active constituents contributing to these medicinal properties exhibited by plants are the phytochemicals, vitamins and minerals (Okwu and Ekeke 2003; Okwu 2004). These medicinal plants are rich in phytochemicals (**Table 1**).

Phytochemicals are widely distributed groups of substances in the plant kingdom. Woody plants synthesize and accumulate in their cells a great variety of phytochemicals including low molecular phenolics (hydroxybenzoic and hydroxycinnamic acids, acetophenones, flavonoids, stilbens and lignans) and oligo- and polymeric forms (hydrolysable and condensed tannins and lignins; Close and McArthur 2002; Okwu 2004; Okwu and Omodamiro 2005).

Phenolic compounds

The phenolic group of phytochemicals includes ortho-and β -cyanins, flavonoids, lignans and lignins. They have antiinflammatory, anticlotting, and antioxidant properties, and are immune enhancers and hormone modulators (Okwu 2004). Phenols have been the subjects of extensive research as disease preventives. Phenols protect plants and humans from oxidative damage. Perhaps of greatest interest is the ability of phenol to block specific enzymes that cause inflammation. They also modify the prostaglandin pathways and thereby protect platelets from clumping (Okwu 2004; Okwu and Omadamiro 2005).

Flavonoids

Flavonoids are known for their ability to enhance the effects of ascorbic acid, along with vitamin C. Flavonoids protect the vascular system by strengthening, maintaining and repairing capillaries (Teyssier *et al.* 2001). Plant flavor-noids comprise anthocyanins, proanthocyanins, flavones, flavonols, flavonoes, bioflavinoids, flavin-3-4-diol, isoflavones and catechins.

Flavonoids found in *G. kola* include kolaviron, bioflavonones, garcinia-flavonone, kolaflavanone and 4^{I} 5,7 trihydrixyflavanone rhamnoglucose. Bryophyllin is found in *Bryophyllum pinnatum*, while *U. chamae* contained chamuvartin, chamanetin and uvarinol (**Table 2**). The biological functions of flavonoids include action against allergies, inflammation, microbes, ulcers, hepatotoxin, viruses and tumors (Salah *et al.* 1995; Fahey *et al.* 1997; Okwu 2004, 2005). Flavonoids are potent water-soluble super antioxidants which prevent oxidative cell damage, have strong anti cancer activity, and inhibit all stages of carcinogensis (Salah *et al.* 1995; Okwu 2004, 2005). Flavonoids in the intestinal tract are known to lower the risk of heart disease (Okwu 2004; Adaramonye *et al.* 2005).

Free radical formation is associated with the normal natural metabolism of aerobic cells. The oxygen consumption inherent in cell growth leads to the generation of a series of free radicals of oxygen, leading to oxidative stress (del Rio *et al.* 1997). The interaction of these species with lipids produces new radicals, hydroperoxides and different radicals (del Rio *et al.* 1997; Adaramoye *et al.* 2005). These groups of radicals (super oxides) may interact with biological systems in a clearly cytotoxic manner (del Rio *et al.* 1997).

Research has been conducted on the principle that free radicals can be blocked and/or scavenged (del Rio *et al.* 1997; Adaramony *et al.* 2005).

The different radicals responsible for the cell oxidation process comprise the following: singlet oxygen $(^{1}O_{2})$, superoxide anion (O^{2-}) , hydroxide radical (•OH) and peroxyl radical (ROO•) (del Rio *et al.* 1997). The hydroxyl radical is the most cytotoxic of all these radicals. Also polyunsaturated fatty acids present in cell membranes are easily oxidized by both enzymatic and oxdative preoxidation through free radical chain reaction (Aust and Svingen 1982). Initiation of lipid peroxidation can be induced by free radicals (superoxide, hydroxy and singlet oxygen) produced in biological systems (del Rio *et al.* 1997; Adaramoye *et al.* 2005). These electrically inert species have the ability to interact and alter genetic materials. They exhibit cytotoxic, mutagenic and carcinogenic actions. It has been reported (del Rio *et al.* 1997; Adaramoye *et al.* 2005) that lipid peroxidation can be inhibited by flavonoids acting as strong radical scavengers and singlet oxygen quenchers. It has also been proposed that flavonoids react with peroxyl radicals, thus bringing about the termination of the radical reaction (del Rio *et al.* 2005).

Aspilia africana, B. pinnatum, S. mombim, U. chamae and garcinia flavonoids show an anti-adhesive and anti-aggregation action against red blood cell clumping (Okwu 2003; Okwu and Okwu 2004; Okwu and Emenike 2006; Okwu and Josiah 2006)

Methoxylated flavonoids are much more active than hydroxylated compounds (del Rio et al. 1997). Oxidative damage has been suggested to be a contributory factor in the development and complication of thrombosis and recently the beneficial effects of antioxidants from G. kola seed against thrombosis and atherosclerosis have gained interest (Adaramoye et al. 2005). These researchers evaluated the protective effects of flavonoids from G. kola seeds on the oxidation of human low-density lipo-protein (LDL) and their ability to scavenge reactive oxygen species in vitro. They investigated the inhibitory effects of garcinia flavonoids (kolaviron, garcinia biflavonone and kolaflavonone) on Fe/ascorbate induced peroxidation in LDL. Also the scavenging effects of these flavonoids on superoxide radicals and hydrogen peroxide in vitro were examined (Adaramoye et al. 1993, 2005). Also kolaviron, garcinia biflavanone (GB1, GB2) and kolaflavanone showed marked activity as superoxide radical scavengers (Adaramoye et al. 2005). These researchers reported that 1 mg.ml⁻¹ kolaviron, garcinia-biflavanone (GB1, GB2) and kolaflavanone scavenged O_2 radicals by 71%, 52%, 66% and 48%, respectively.

In addition, kolaviron, garcinia biflavanone (GB1, GB2) and kolaflavanone exhibited pronounced reducing property on potassium ferricyanide *in vitro*. Kolaviron, garcinia biflavanone (GB1, GB2) and kolaflavonon were effective at preventing LDL lipid peroxidation (LPO) induced by the Fe/ ascorbate system.

Vitamin composition

These plants are good sources of ascorbic acids, riboflavin, thiamin and niacin (**Table 3**). The vitamins are important in the body. Their deficiencies adversely affect the metabolism of the body. Lack of ascorbic acid impairs the normal formation of intercellular substance throughout the body, including collagen, bone matrix and tooth dentine. A striking pathological change resulting from their defect is the weakening of the endothelial wall of the capillaries due to a reduction in the mouth of intercellular substances (Hunt *et al.* 1980; Okwu 2005). The clinical manifestation of scurvy hemorrhage from the mucous membrane of the mouth and gastrointestinal tract, anemia, pains in the joint and defects

 Table 2 Phytochemical substances in select Nigerian medicinal plants.

Medicinal plantFamilyPhytocheAspilia africanaAsterceaePhenolic		Phytochemical substance/compounds	Reference			
		Phenolic compounds, tannins	Okwu and Josaih 2006			
Bryophyllum pinnatum	Creassulaceae	Bryophyllin	Singh 1976; Mckenzie et al. 1985			
Garcinia kola	Guttiferae	Kolaviron, bioflavanones, kolaflavonones	Etkin 1981; Iwu and Igboko 1982; Iwu			
		4 ¹ ,5,7-trihydroxyflavanone rhamnoglucose, guttiferin	1986; Okwu 2003; Adaramoye et al. 2005			
Spondias mombim	Anacardiaccea	eCaffeoyl esters	Carthout et al. 1979			
		Ergometrine, oxytoxin, seotonin, acetylcholine, biorneol, cineole	Kozioe and Marcia 1998			
Uvaria chamea	Annonaceae	Chamuvaritin, chamanetin	Okogun 1985			
		Dichamanetin, dihydrochelcone, flav-3-ene	Oliver 1986			
		Hydroxychalcone, pyrenes, 2-hydroxyflavones, uvarinol, isouvarinal	Achenbach 1997			

Table 3 Vitamin composition of five Nigerian medicinal plants on mg/100g dry weight basis.

Medicinal plant	Family	Part screened	Ascorbic acid	Riboflavin	Thiamine	Niacin	Reference
Aspilia africana	Asterceae	Leaf	26.42 ± 0.01	0.20 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.20	0.09 ± 0.11	Okwu and Josiah 2006
Bryophyllum pinnatum	Creassulaceae	Leaf	44.03 ± 0.20	0.42 ± 0.01	0.18 ± 0.02	0.02 ± 0.10	Okwu and Josiah 2006
Garcinia kola	Guttiferae	Seed	23.10 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.01	0.54 ± 0.30	1.60 ± 0.01	Okwu 2005
Spondias mombim	Anacardiacceae	Leaf	8.80 ± 0.10	0.26 ± 0.23	0.60 ± 0.33	0.04 ± 0.04	Okwu and Okwu 2004
Spondias mombim	Anacardiacceae	Bark	2.20 ± 0.33	0.08 ± 0.11	0.32 ± 0.11	0.03 ± 0.12	Okwu and Okwu 2004
Spondias mombim	Anacardiacceae	Root	6.60 ± 0.12	0.83 ± 0.10	0.20 ± 0.11	0.04 ± 0.11	Okwu and Okwu 2004
Uvaria chamea	Annonaceae	Root	2.10 ± 0.06	0.06 ± 0.21	0.16 ± 0.01	0.40 ± 0.22	Okwu and Iroabuchi 2004
Data are means \pm standard deviation of triplicate determinations on a dry weight basis.							

in skeletal calcification can be related to the association of ascorbic acid and normal connective tissue metabolism (Hunt *et al.* 1980; Okwu 2004, 2005). This function of ascorbic acid also accounts for its requirement for normal wound healing (Okwu 2004, 2005).

The availability of ascorbic acid in *A. africana*, *B. pin-natum*, *G. kola*, *S. mombin* and *U. chamea* accounts for their utilization in herbal medicine for the treatment of common cold and other diseases like prostrate cancer (Okogun 1985; Okwu 2003, 2004).

The vitamins, though in trace amounts are very essential for the body's metabolism. Niacin is active in preventing the disease pellagra while a deficiency of thiamin in the diet is the cause of the disease beri beri (Okwu 2005). A deficiency of riboflavin does not result in any specific and identifiable disease and one is apt therefore to underestimate its importance. The symptoms are inflammation of the tongue, lesions at the eyes and lips, congestion of conjunctive blood vessels and desquamation of the skin (Tylor 1972; Okwu 2005). This explains some of the biochemical basis for the uses of these plants in ethnomedicine in Nigeria.

PHARMACOLOGICAL/BIOLOGICAL STUDIES

In pharmacological studies defatted alcoholic extract of *G. kola* seed (kolaviron) prevented liver damage in animals challenged with the deadly toadstool (*Aminita pholloids*) ethanol, ethionine, thioacetamide and glycosiamine (Ibron-ke *et al.* 1997; Adaramoye and Adeyemi 2001). Kolaviron has been extensively studied for its anti-hepatotoxic effects in various experimental models (Akintonwa and Essien 1990; Farombi *et al.* 2005).

Inhibition of aflatoxin B1 genotoxicity in the human liver-derived HCPG2 cells by kolaviron biflavonoids was studied by Nwankwo et al. (2000) and kolaviron biflavonoid demonstrated anti-hepatotoxic activity. Kolaviron ad-ministered orally at a dose of 200 g.kg⁻¹ once a day for the first 2 weeks and then 100 mg.kg⁻¹ twice a day for the next 4 weeks of aflatoxin B1 (2 mg.kg⁻¹, single dose) treatment reduced the aflatoxin B1-increased activities of aspartate amino transferase (AST), alanine amino transferase (ALT) and gamma glutamyl transferase [gamma]-GT by 62%, 56% and 72%, respectively (Farombi et al. 2005). Malonialdehyde (MDA) formation and lipid hydro-peroxide (LHP) accumulation were observed in the livers of aflatoxin B1 (AFB1)-treated rats, and kolaviron significantly reduced the AFBI-induced MDA and LHP formation (Farombi et al. 2005). These results indicate kolaviron as an effecttive chemo-preventive agent against AFBI-induced genotoxicity and hepatic oxidative stress (Farombi et al. 2005). Kolaviron might qualify for chemical trials in combating the menace of aflatoxicosis in endemic areas of aflatoxincontaminated foods. The most active flavonoid component of kolaviron GB1 significantly altered the half-life of phenylbutazone in human subjects (Iwu and Igboko 1982). The active constituents of kolaviron are easily accepted as a pharmaceutical agent because of its close relationship with two commercial products used for the management of liver toxicity namely Silybin Legacon® and cyanidanol Catergen[®] (Iwu 1986). These drugs are believed to exert a specific action on the liver membrane and thereby prevent liver damage.

The anti-inflammatory and analgesic properties of kola-

viron were investigated in mice (Olaleye *et al.* 2000). In their findings, kolaviron exhibited a weak analgesic but strong anti-inflammatory activity when compared with reference drug acetylsalicylic acid.

Histological alterations in the liver, kidney and duodenum of rats fed diets containing 10% G. kola seed have been reported (Bracide and Grill 1990). Furthermore, an increase of both basal and histamine-mediated gastric acid secretions of rats fed G. kola seed was observed (Oluwole and Obatomi 1992). Using growing rats as a model, Uko et al. (2001) conducted a study on possible alterations of the digestive, hematological and reproductive systems. There was a dose-related decrease in the size of the liver, lungs and heart of rats fed the plant extract. In contrast, the extract caused a mild, but consistent enlargement of the spleen and brain of experimental rats compared with those of the control rats (Uko et al. 2001). Among the organs (testes, kidney, liver, heart, lungs and brain) examined no microscopic alterations were observed in any of the treatment group (Uko et al. 2001). However, Orie and Ekon (1993) observed a bronchodilator effect of Garcinia seeds on normal Nigerians. During the course of a male-fertility trial, it was observed (Olaleye et al. 2000; Uko et al. 2001) that experimental rats fed with G. kola seed exhibited increased libido, which was demonstrated by frequent attempts of the males to mount females rats thus justifying the use of G. kola seed by the natives as an aphrodisiac.

The anti-bacterial and anti-fungal activity of the crude ethanolic extract of *G. kola* seed showed the successful inhibition compared to some reference antibiotics like streptomycin and clotrimazole (Okwu 2003). *G. kola* seed extracts successfully inhibited *Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus* and *Candida albicans* (Okwu 2003). *G. kola* extract also exhibited the inhibition of *Streptococcus pyrogenes, Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Hemophilus influenzae* (Akoachere *et al.* 2002). The observed inhibiting property explains the reason behind the utilization of *G. kola* extract in traditional medicine as a cough suppressant, an anti-tumor agent, its wound healing activity and as an aphrodisiac.

Both the aqueous and ethanolic root extracts of *U. chamea* inhibited *Staphylococcus aureus and Bacillius subtilis* (Okwu and Iroabuchi 2004). Also the extract from the leaves of *B. pinnatum* inhibited *Staph. aureus, Esterichia coli, Bac. subtilis, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Klebsiella aerogenes, Kleb. pneunoniae* and *Salmonella typhi* (Ofokansi *et al.* 2005). The inhibitory activities of these plants are due to the phenolic constituents. Phenol and phenolic compounds have been extensively used in disinfections and remain the standard with which other bactericides are compared.

CONSERVATION

As a result of the advancement in plant breeding techniques coupled with the development of high yielding varieties, the tendency for land races and primitive cultivars of plants like *A. africana, B. pinnatum, S. mombim, G. kola* and *U. chamae* are fast being replaced. Improvement in agronomy and conservation of these plants are necessary to avoid genetic erosion. Farmers in Nigeria do not domesticate these plants except for *G. kola*. There is an urgent need to collect more seeds from wild species of *A. africana, B. pinnatum, G. kola*,

S. mombim and U. chamea. It should be emphasized that the rapid replacement of locally adopted varieties with high yielding and early maturing varieties should improve the economy of the nation in particular and that of the farmers in general. This will result in the elimination of old varieties selected by nature with the highly improved varieties. There is an urgent need to conserve the variability in these species. It is very important to formulate methods for regeneration and conservation of germplasm collections in long-term storage with little loss of aggregate diversity from natural land races, primitive cultivars and new breeding species when grown simultaneously. To check genetic drift and frequent regeneration, facilities should be developed for the long-term storage of germplasm in a national gene bank. Unfortunately, there is no medicinal plant conservation center in Nigeria and no national gene bank exists in the country. However, the three Universities of Agriculture in the country, namely the Michael Okpara University of Agriculture at Umudike, the Federal University of Agriculture at Markurdi, and the Federal University of Agriculture, at Abeokuta should be proposed as storage and conservation centers for Nigerian/African medicinal plants. Medicinal plants gardens should be establish in Ibadan, Nsukka and Zairia for in situ conservation. The germplasm collection from different parts of Nigeria should be evaluated and classified for various characters of economic importance. Plant breeders should undertake a detailed evaluation of morphological, physiological and biochemical traits including tolerance to disease, pests, adaptation to adverse climate and soil conditions. Finally, a gene bank should be established in these centers.

CONCLUSION

This review shows that information relating to seed research, propagation and conservation of these medicinal plants do not exist in Nigeria. A complete package for cultivating *U. chamea*, *A. africana*, *B. pinnatum*, *S. mombim* and *G. kola* and germplasm storage techniques is yet to be developed. High quality seeds of *G. kola* should be provided for the growers. There is a need to conserve protected areas, herbal gardens, sacred grooves and forest areas rich in medicinal plants. It is very necessary to conserve these plants for posterity.

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