


## Phytochemicals and acetylcholinesterase activity of stem bark daniella oliveri ethyl acetate extract

Maurice Jemkur<sup>1\*</sup>, Amos Mamman<sup>2</sup>, Toyin Florence Ayandokun<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Chemistry, Air Force Institute of Technology, Kaduna, Nigeria. [mauricejemkur99@gmail.com](mailto:mauricejemkur99@gmail.com)

<sup>2&3</sup>Department of Chemistry, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria. <sup>2</sup>[dmamman51@yahoo.com](mailto:dmamman51@yahoo.com),

<sup>3</sup>[ayandokuntoyin01@gmail.com](mailto:ayandokuntoyin01@gmail.com)

\*Correspondence: [mauricejemkur99@gmail.com](mailto:mauricejemkur99@gmail.com)

Received: July 20, 2022 | Accepted: August 08, 2022 | Published: August 19, 2022

### Abstract

Before the coming of modern drugs circulating now all over the world, traditional plants were in existence. The parts of the plants mostly used are root, stem bark, stem, flower, fruits and seed are ingredients of orthodox medicines. The components of phytochemical signify the healing value of plants. Phytochemical performs physiological activities on the human system; some of the significant phytochemical are flavonoids, alkaloids, phenolic and tannins compounds. In this research, the GC-MS of Daniella Oliveri ethyl acetate stem bark extract revealed 49 bioactive components,  $\delta$ -cadinene and  $\gamma$ -Muurolene, having the highest percentage among other antioxidant compounds. The acetylcholinesterase (AChE) donepezil used to examine the inhibition activity shows a linear progression with the D. Oliveri extracts. Even though there is extensive information on the ethnopharmacological uses of D. Oliveri, there is a shortage of scientific reports on the anti-fungal properties of the plant, therefore, this study aimed at evaluating the biochemical compositions of the plant in order to ascertain its ethnomedicinal use in the treatment of skin ailments and others diseases.

**Keywords:** Acetylcholinesterase (AChE), Bioactive, Donepezil, Phytochemical,  $\delta$ -cadinene,  $\gamma$ -Muurolene

### 1. Introduction

The naturally occurring biologically active substances called phytochemicals that can be used to cure disease are found in plants, the phytochemical are also refer to as secondary metabolites (Abdurrahman, 1992; Farombi et al., 1998). Because of their antioxidant effects, phytochemicals are far more effective at preventing disease. In the event that molecules are attacked by free radicals, antioxidants protect them against oxidation. They shield them from reactive oxygen as well. This makes it feasible to prevent the spread of numerous diseases and food deterioration (Chetia et al., 2014; Koleva et al., 2000). The Shea butter tree (*Vitellaria paradoxa*), which is one of the medicinal plants with a wide range of uses and significant economic potential. The seeds' oil and phytochemicals can

be utilized to produce soap, cosmetics, cooking oil, treatment of ailments, margarine, chocolate, and food (Maurice et al., 2022).

### 1.1. Using animals as a source for natural products

Animals are not excluded because they have historically been a significant source of intriguing chemicals that have been used in pharmaceuticals. The poisonous skin of the Ecuadorian frog is where epibatidine is found. Compared to morphine, it is 10 times more efficient (Cragg et al., 1997). Animal toxins and venoms were used extensively in the treatment of several ailments. Teprotide, which is derived from the Brazilian viper, is one such. It resulted in the creation of the antihypertensive drugs captopril and cilazapril (Clark, 1996).

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1. *Daniella Oliveri*

In Nigeria, many plants are used in ethnomedicine for the treatment of a variety of diseases, one of which is *Daniella Oliveri* (Fabaceae), commonly identified as West African copal plants, Ilorin balm, African copaiba ointment, Accra copal and Benin resin copal. The *D. Oliveri* herbal is found in both temperate and humid provinces of the world, the Amazon area, Latin America and part of Africa (Meggers, Ayensu & Duckworth, 1973; Phillips & Gentry, 1993). It is an indigenous plant of Africa found extensively in Benin, Cameroon, Gambia and Nigeria. The leave, stems bark, and trunk of *D. Oliveri* usually give fluid oleoresin which contains large but variable quantities of volatile oils, non-volatile resinous constituents and minor quantities of acids (Gilbert, 2000). The oleoresin is applied in traditional medicine to treat skin ailments, inflammation and genitourinary tract diseases (Raffauf, 1992). They are similarly utilized as an antiseptic, antibacterial, purgative, laxative, diuretic and hypotensive agents (Fleury, 1997).

The leaf, root and stem bark of *D. Oliveri* are used to treat ailments like ringworm, syphilis, scrotal elephantiasis, typhoid, dysentery and ear aching (Nwaeze & Abariku, 2006). Decoction of leaf and bark is used as a mouthwash for toothache and tooth troubles. Young leafy shoots are pounded to a paste and applied on wounds to arrest bleeding and hasten to healing. Tiv people in Nigeria take leaf sap as cough medicine. The gum exudate from the bark is applied externally to treat itching skin and skin diseases (Burkill, 1994).



**Figure 1:** *Daniella Oliveri* Plant

In Nigeria, many treasured seeds which might be oil-wealthy are allowed to perish every 12 months due to the fact that they are non-traditional oil spores. *Daniella Oliveri* (Rolfe) Hutch and Dalziel of

the own circle of relatives Caesalpiniaceae is a famous herbal in West Africa and the Amazon area (Meggers et al., 1973; Atolani & Olatunji, 2016). The trees are domestically regarded as "EMI ya" in South West and Nmi Iko Langtang, Plateau State Nigeria, (Maurice et al., 2022).

The tree exudates had been carried out equally as a factor of skincare and their ability as anti-wrinkle sellers had remained unproved because there is no proper account of (Lamy et al., 2010). Polylactic, a Furano-terpene has been found in exudates of the plant (Atolani & Olatunji, 2014), also the biochemical constituents of the gum had been scrutinized (Atolani & Olatunji, 2016). Some planted flora which encompasses the Shea butter plants known as *Vitellaria paradoxa* are from the circle of relatives Sapotaceae, *cola millenii* and *Moringa oleifera* which also have numerous organic activities (Maurice et al., 2022).

Therefore, in addition, isolation and validation of the compounds from this species may also screen greater approximately their contribution to pharmacological properties. Inhibit tumour boom, decorate anticancer outcomes of bortezomib in a couple of myelomas, antibacterial agent (strong inhibit micro-organism: *Vibrio paraharmolyticus*, *Enterobacter aerogenes*, *Bacillus subtilis* (Lee et al., 2015), Germacrene D. Stem bark Antimicrobial, antifungal, antitumor (Montanari et al., 2011; Duarte et al., 2005).  $\beta$ caryophyllene Leaf, stem bark Anti-inflammatory and nearby anaesthetic, antibacterial agent, mild cytotoxicity in vitro, antimalarial (Ghelardini et al., 2001; Oladimeji et al., 2016; Tchoumboungang et al., 2005)  $\delta$ -cadinene Stem bark Antibacterial, Moderate cytotoxicity in vitro Reduce the quantity of microorganism at any level of the boom while mixed with indole compound (Atolani & Olatunji, 2016).

The biochemical constituent of the oleoresin on *Daniella Oliveri* changed into the investigation. The 3 essential compounds are  $\delta$ -cadinene, copaene, cis-muurolo-4(14), and 5-diene contributed approximately 60% indicating that this tree has potential supply of herbal sesquiterpenes. Diagnosed sesquiterpenes can be an essential biochemical component for the short chemo-taxonomical classification of the herbal species and their own circle of relatives. The oleoresin indicated low interest towards the prostate most cancers molecular stripeplus a mild essential scavenging ability. The oleoresin can be a probable supply of herbal antioxidants for in addition

## **2.2. Antimicrobial function**

Animals and plants resist infection from living microorganisms. They are the easy targets for pathogens and it makes them not to avoid hectic climates. It emanates that plants can synthesize a range of useful compounds which assist them to resist assaults from microorganism such as bacteria, viruses and fungi. Usually, these chemicals are alkaloids, phenolic, and terpenoids. In most of the Asteraceae especially, lactones which is the sesquiterpene from plants such as *cola millenii*, and *Daniella Oliveri* served as the fundamental mechanisms for this defense. Sesquiterpenes diminish damage that a microbial outbreak would have caused to the microbe's membrane cell of the plants (Cowan, 1999).

## **2.3. Medicinal plants that treat malaria**

In numerous regions of the world, orthodox medicine remedies have been utilized for thousands of years to treat malaria. The alkaloid quinine, still widely utilized, was derived from the bark of *Cinchona* / Rubiaceae classes and was the first antimalarial medication used in the Occident. As early

as 1632, plant bark infusions were used to cure malaria (Baird et al., 1996). It was later quinine discovered, making it the eldest and greatest significant antimalarial medication (Saxena et al., 2003). *Artemisia annua*, which has been used as a medicine for millennia Europe, was redeveloped in China around 1970s and is a significant basis of the antimalarial called artemisinin drug (Bruce-Chwatt, 1982; Klayman, 1985). The use of Artemisinin-Combined Treatments (ACT) became official. From 2005 onwards were publicly adopted in Nigeria as the first-line treatment for uncomplicated malaria (Mokuolu et al., 2007). Nevertheless, the partial manufacture of artemisinin derivatives in accordance with GMP (Good Manufacturing Practices) criteria, expensive costs, and noxiousness of ACT prevent its widespread usage (Haynes, 2001; Malomo et al., 2001; Borstnik et al., 2002; Adebayo & Malomo, 2002; Afonso et al., 2006; Boareto et al., 2008).

#### **2.4. Hunt for fresh phytochemicals with antimalarial properties**

Because conventional medicine is not widely used, there is attention in home-grown medicine during the past ten years. Other approaches based on cultural alternatives frequently support healthcare in underdeveloped nations (Maurice et al., 2022). One-fifth of patients in many underdeveloped nations utilize local herbal treatments to treat illnesses like malaria (Willcox & Bodeker, 2004). Although some societies have access to modern treatment, herbal remedies frequently maintain appeal due to historical and cultural considerations as well as their lower cost. The usage of herbal treatments has grown rapidly in recent years, and researchers are constantly looking for novel phytochemicals that might one day be turned into effective (Willcox, 1999).

Before now, trees were chosen casually and tested for activity of antimalarial. Nevertheless, these processes were time-consuming and cannot produce many results. Example, extracts from 600 classes in 126 plant groups were tested in 1947, the *Vivo* effectiveness against the then-current laboratory models of avian malaria. From species in 33 genera, active extracts were isolated, and species in the Simaroubaceae family consistently produced excellent results. Plants were chosen according to ethnobotanical info is considered to be a preferable strategy. Trees are been chosen according to their traditional medicinal uses to treat malaria fever (Carvalho et al., 1991).

#### **2.5. Objectives**

The objective of this study is to determine the phytochemicals and acetylcholinesterase activity of stem bark *Daniella Oliveri* ethyl acetate extract.

### **3. Materials and methods**

#### **3.1. Plant materials**

Early in the morning, tree barks and stems were cut. *Daniella Oliveri* obtained from the University of Ilorin's premises; it was verified as authentic by the department of plant science's herbarium at the university's school of physical sciences in Ilorin, Kwara State.

#### **3.2. Purification of Solvents**

Prior to being employed for the extraction, the solvent underwent distillation to purify it. Since contaminants are typically present, the ethyl acetate was purified after being purchased from a local market.

### **3.3. Extraction of plant material**

The stem bark of *D. Oliveri* was unwrapped and cut into pieces. For three weeks, it was air dried in the laboratory. 750g was soaked for five days at room temperature with intermittent shaking in transparent reagent vials with ethyl acetate. To get rid of the extraction solvent, the extract was sieved and dried in a Rotary Evaporator.

### **3.4. Apparatus and materials used**

Beakers, preparative thin layer chromatography plates, fast fit distillation flasks, measuring cylinders, spatulas, aluminum foil, reagent bottles, masking tape, thin layer chromatography tanks, and rotary evaporators are among the supplies needed.

### **3.5. Thin layer chromatography**

A small quantity of concentrated ethyl acetate extract was placed in a beaker. Using a Pasteur pipette, a drop of the extract was deposited on a TLC plate. The plate was prepared using n-hexane and ethyl acetate in a 3:1 ratio as the mobile phase. In a TLC tank, add the solvent and shake to ensure homogeneity. Place the thin layer plate with the spots in the tank and cover it. Slender layer the chemical components found in the stem could be identified by chromatography of n-hexane extract. A UV lamp with a 366 nm wavelength was used to view the thin layer chromatogram. Spots of pink, yellow, and blue fluorescence were observed, with the blue fluorescence being the most prominent (major).

### **3.6. Acetylcholinesterase (AChE) Inhibitory activity**

With a few modifications, the Lopez et al. (2002) methodology will be followed for the AChE inhibitory experiment and the investigation of the inhibition kinetics. The assay combination contained 200 L of Tris-HCl 50 mM pH 8.0, 0.1 percent BSA buffer, 100 L of extracts or fractions solution that would be liquefied in buffer-MeOH (10 percent), and 100 L of AChE. (0.22U/mL-1), before adding 500 mL of DTNB (5, 5Vdithiobis [2-nitrobenzoic acid] (3 mM) and 100 mL of substrate acetylthiocholine iodide (ATCI), the mixture was incubated at room temperature for 2 min (15 mM). After 4 minutes, the growing creamy pigment was observed at 405 nm. As a positive control, donepezil hydrochloride will be added to the test mixture at a concluding conc. of 0.2 g mL-1. When expressing AChE inhibitory activity as a percentage of AChE inhibition, the formula is  $(1-B/A) \times 100$ , "A" represents the variation in absorbance of the bioassay minusextract from the plants (abs. with enzyme-abs. Without enzyme) and B represents the change in absorbance of the assay with the plant extract.

#### 4. Results and discussions

**Table 1:** Chemical Composition of *Daniella Oliveri* Ethyl Acetate Extract

S/N	RETENTION TIME (Sec)	COMPOUND NAME	MOLECULAR COMPOUND	%COMPOSITION
1	6.61	Glycerin	C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>8</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.32
2	6.81	Hemellitol	C <sub>9</sub> H <sub>12</sub>	0.30
3	8.09	D-Mannitol	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>14</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	1.36
4	9.61	1,3-Oxathiolane, 2-acetyl-2-methyl	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>10</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	0.55
5	10.90	alpha-Cubebene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.44
6	11.16	Copaene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.13
7	11.22	alfa.-Copaene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	2.08
8	11.33	beta.-copaene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.78
9	11.56	Cyclopropa[a]naphthaleneoctahydro-1,1,3a,7-tetramethyl,[1aR(1a.alpha.,3a.alpha.,7b.alpha.)]	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	1.03
10	11.69	Isocaryophyllene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.24
11	11.77	1-Ethyl-3-vinyl-adamantane	C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>22</sub>	0.11
12	11.87	Aromadendrene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.13
13	12.03	cis.-beta.-Ocimene	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub>	0.16
14	12.08	Alloaromadendrene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.95
15	12.16	gamma.-Muurolene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	6.79
16	12.34	Germacrene D	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.93
17	12.37	alpha.-Muurolene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.94
18	12.54	delta.-Cadinene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	16.62
19	12.51	Calamenene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>22</sub>	1.32
20	12.69	alpha.-Cubebene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub>	0.75
21	12.79	alpha.-Calacorene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>20</sub>	6.14
22	12.91	Spathulenol	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O	0.44
23	12.98	Cadala-1(10),3,8-triene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>22</sub>	1.40
24	13.15	Spathulenol	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O	0.81
25	13.43	Isolongifolene, 4,5,9,10-dehydro-	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>20</sub>	1.58
26	13.45	Neoisolongifolene, 8,9-dehydro-	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>22</sub>	0.26
27	13.55	Cubenol	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>26</sub> O	1.04
28	13.68	tau.-Muurolol	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>26</sub> O	2.17
29	13.78	Viridiflorol	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O	1.32
30	13.93	Cadalene	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>18</sub>	2.21
31	13.91	2,3-2H-Benzofuran-2-one,3,3,4,6 tetramethyl	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>14</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	1.41
32	14.10	6-Isopropenyl-4,8a-dimethyl-1,2,3,5,6,7,8,8a-octahydro-naphthalen-2-ol	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O	0.83
33	14.17	Androstan-17-one, 3-ethyl-3-hydroxy-, (5.alpha.)	C <sub>21</sub> H <sub>34</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	0.67
34	14.21	Propanoic acid, 2-[4-(1-buten-3-yl)phenyl]-, methyl ester	C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>18</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	1.20
35	14.34	5-Isopropylidene-6-methyldeca-3,6,9-trien-2-one	C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>20</sub> O	0.50

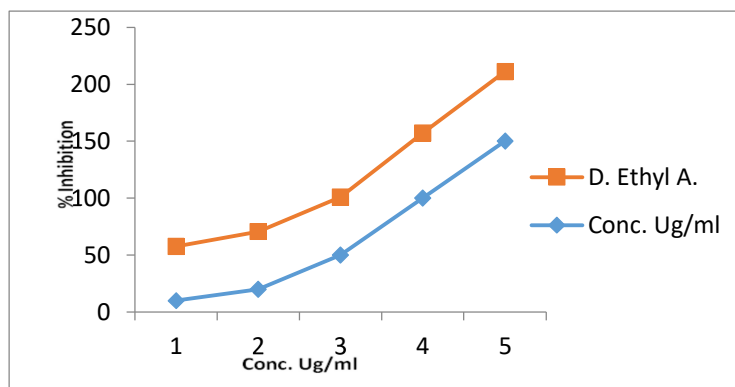
36	14.45	1-Cyclohexene-1-ethanol,2,6,6 trimethyl	C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>20</sub> O	1.00
37	14.63	2,3-Dehydro-4-oxo-.beta.-ionol	C <sub>13</sub> H <sub>18</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	1.51
38	14.68	Aromadendrene oxide-(2)	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O	0.72
39	14.75	Isoshyobunone	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O	1.64
40	14.94	Spiro[tricyclo[4.4.0.0(5,9)]decane-10,2'-oxirane],1-methyl-4-isopropyl-7,8-dihydroxy-, (8S)	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	3.92
41	15.23	Murolan-3,9(11)-diene-10-peroxy	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	2.58
42	15.50	Alloaromadendrene oxide-(1)	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>24</sub> O	1.94
43	15.55	4-t-Butyl-1-(1-methylallyl) cyclohexanol	C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>26</sub> O	1.34
44	16.08	1-Heptatriacotanol	C <sub>27</sub> H <sub>56</sub> O	4.28
45	16.85	17-Octadecynoic acid	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>32</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	3.55
46	17.01	3,7,11,15-Tetramethyl-2-hexadecen-1-ol	C <sub>20</sub> H <sub>40</sub> O	1.46
47	19.29	cis-13,16-Docosadienoic acid	C <sub>22</sub> H <sub>40</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	2.61
48	19.84	1-Heptatriacotanol	C <sub>27</sub> H <sub>56</sub> O	6.69
49	20.42	17-Octadecynoic acid	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>32</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	5.10

**Table 2:** % Inhibition of acetyl cholinesterase activity of *Daniella Oliveri* ethyl acetate extract

Conc. (ug/ml)	1st %Inh	2nd %Inh	3rd %Inh	Ave %Inh	SD	SEM
10	50.88729	44.23245	47.29368	47.47114	3.330967	47.47114±3.330967
20	44.36555	54.34781	53.28303	50.66546	5.481799	50.66546±5.481799
50	49.15703	50.75419	53.01684	50.97602	1.939441	50.97602±1.939441
100	58.07452	54.7471	58.74	57.18720	2.139231	57.18720±2.139231
150	60.60335	62.20052	60.60335	61.13574	0.922122	61.13574±0.922122

**Table 3:** Concentration of *Daniella Oliveri* crude extracts VS Donepezil

Conc.(Ug/ml)	D. Ethyl A.	Donepezil
10	47.47114	16.65758
20	50.66546	24.68797
50	50.97602	35.97392
100	57.1872	40.85727
150	61.13574	49.10469



**Figure 2:** Graph representation of % Inhibition of *Daniella Oliveri* crude extract

#### 4.1. *Daniella Oliveri*

In the stem bark of *Daniella Oliveri*, Delta Cadinene has the highest percentage composition (16.62%). The cadinenes are bicyclic sesquiterpenes chemically. This kind of complexes has been fragmented to different subclasses of four, according to stereochemistry of isopropyl group with bridgehead of two carbon atoms due to vast quantity of identified double-bond and isomers stereochemical (Borg-Karlson et al., 1981). A category of isomeric hydrocarbons known as cadinenes are found in a wide range of plants that produce essential oils. Delta-cadinene synthase belong to an enzyme in the study of enzymes which activate/catalyzes the biochemical reaction. These enzymes belong to lyase family, specifically the phosphate-acting carbon-oxygen lyases. This enzyme takes part in the production of terpenoids. Magnesium is the only cofactor it uses. Ovarian cancer cells are prevented from growing by cadinene through caspase-dependent apoptosis and cell cycle arrest (Hui et al., 2015).

Second, gamma-murolene is an octahydronaphthalene, a sesquiterpene (sesquiterpenoids), a carbobicyclic molecule. These terpenes have three isoprene units in a row. Standards; Natural Products Extracted; Pharmaceutical/API Drug Impurities/Metabolites which that state Murolene is a terpenoid that is naturally present in *Garcinia brasiliensis* and the essential oil from Bulgaria. - Murolene may have anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties (Merdzhanov et al., 2016; Queiroz et al., 2014). This has justified the statement of Raffauf, 1992 in the literature reviews mentioned above. The extract has about 49 bioactive components identified by GC-MS and most of them are free fatty acids. They act as antioxidants and are also antimalarial.

The acetylcholinesterase used in carrying out the % inhibition is donepezil, the preliminary binding ability of the extract and donepezil are shown in table 3 with the linear progressive graphic

in figure 2. As the concentration increases, the inhibition % shows a progressive increment while table 2 shows % Inhibition of acetylcholinesterase activity of *Daniella Oliveri* ethyl acetate extract.

## 5. Conclusion

The above reviews gave a motivation to carry out research on *Daniella Oliveri*, despite numerous applications of this plant not much has been explore about it bioactive components. More also preliminary binding ability of this extract has not been fully conducted. In comparison to plants from other biomes, humid forest trees are recognized to contain larger number of natural biochemical resistances and to be more diverse, making them possible sources of new medications. Sub-Saharan Africa does not have any natural *Cinchona* trees (*Artemisia annua*), which the utmost powerful medications (artemisinin and quinine) were gotten. Given that African nations account for the majority of malaria-related deaths, therefore, researchers are encouraging to conduct research on herbal trees from these areas to cushion the challenges of malaria and other related diseases.

## ORCID

Maurice Jemkur  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1923-8652>

## References

1. Abdulrahman, F. (1992). Studies in natural products: The Moraceae in African Traditional Medicine and Management of Psychiatry in Bornu State [thesis], Department of Chemistry, University of Maiduguri.
2. Adebayo, J. O., & Malomo, S. O. (2002). The effect of co-administration of dihydroartemisinin with vitamin E on the activities of cation ATPases in some rat tissues. *Nigerian Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences*, 17, 1245-1252.
3. Afonso, A., Hunt, P., Cheesman, S., Alves, A. C., Cunha, C. V., Do Rosário, V., & Cravo, P. (2006). Malaria parasites can develop stable resistance to artemisinin but lack mutations in candidate genes *atp6* (encoding the sarcoplasmic and endoplasmic reticulum Ca<sup>2+</sup> ATPase), *tctp*, *mdr1*, and *cg10*. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 50(2), 480-489.
4. Atolani, O., & Olatunji, G. A. (2014). Isolation and evaluation of antiglycation potential of polyalthic acid (furano-terpene) from *Daniella oliveri*. *Journal of pharmaceutical analysis*, 4(6), 407-411.
5. Atolani, O., & Olatunji, G. A. (2016). Chemical composition, antioxidant and cytotoxicity potential of *Daniellia oliveri* (Rolfe) Hutch. & Dalz. *Turkish Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 13(1), 41-46.
6. Baird, J. K., Caneta-Miguel, E., Masbar, S., Bustos, D. G., Abrenica, J. A., Layawen, A. V., ... & Wignall, F. S. (1996). Survey of resistance to chloroquine of falciparum and vivax malaria in Palawan, The Philippines. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 90(4), 413-414.
7. Balick, M. J., Elisabetsky, E., & Laird, S. A. (Eds.). (1996). *Medicinal resources of the tropical forest: biodiversity and its importance to human health*. Columbia University Press.
8. Boareto, A. C., Muller, J. C., Bufalo, A. C., Botelho, G. G., de Araujo, S. L., Foglio, M. A., ... & Dalsenter, P. R. (2008). Toxicity of artemisinin [*Artemisia annua* L.] in two different periods of pregnancy in Wistar rats. *Reproductive Toxicology*, 25(2), 239-246.

9. Borg-Karlson, A. K., Norin, T., & Talvitie, A. (1981). Configurations and conformations of torreyol ( $\delta$ -cadinol),  $\alpha$ -cadinol, T-muurolol and T-cadinol. *Tetrahedron*, 37(2), 425-430.
10. Borstnik, K., Paik, I. H., Shapiro, T. A., & Posner, G. H. (2002). Antimalarial chemotherapeutic peroxides: artemisinin, yingzhaosu A and related compounds. *International Journal for Parasitology*, 32(13), 1661-1667.
11. Bruce-Chwatt, L. J. (1982). Qinghaosu: a new antimalarial. *British Medical Journal (Clinical Research Ed.)*, 284(6318), 767.
12. Burkill, H. M. (1994). *The useful plants of west tropical Africa. Volume 2: Families EI* (No. Edn 2). Royal Botanic Gardens.
13. Carvalho, L. H., Brandao, M. G., Santos-Filho, D., Lopes, J. L., & Krettli, A. U. (1991). Antimalarial activity of crude extracts from Brazilian plants studied in vivo in Plasmodium berghei-infected mice and in vitro against Plasmodium falciparum in culture. *Brazilian journal of medical and biological research= Revista brasileira de pesquisas medicas e biologicas*, 24(11), 1113-1123.
14. Chetia, J., Upadhyaya, S., & Saikia, L. R. (2014). Phytochemical analysis, antioxidant and antimicrobial activity and nutrient content analysis of Ocimum gratissimum linn. from Dibrugarh, NE India. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Review and Research*, 25, 229.
15. Clark, A. M. (1996). Natural products as a resource for new drugs. *Pharmaceutical research*, 13(8), 1133-1141.
16. Cowan, M. M. (1999). Plant products as antimicrobial agents. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 12(4), 564-582.
17. Cragg, G. M., Newman, D. J., & Snader, K. M. (1997). Natural products in drug discovery and development. *Journal of natural products*, 60(1), 52-60.
18. Duarte, C. M., Middelburg, J. J., & Caraco, N. (2005). Major role of marine vegetation on the oceanic carbon cycle. *Biogeosciences*, 2(1), 1-8.
19. Farombi, E. O., Nwankwo, J. O., & Emerole, G. O. (1998). Effect of methanolic extract of browned yam flour diet on 7, 12 Dimethylbenzanthracene (DMBA) and 3-methylcholanthrene (3-MC)-induced toxicity in the rat. *Proceedings of the Federation of African Society on Biochemistry and Molecular Biology*, 1, 5-10.
20. Fleury, M. (1997). Medicinal role of Copaiba balsam. *Acta Botanica Gallica*, 144(4): 473-497.
21. Gentry, AH. (1993). *A field guide to the families and genera of kwdy plants of Northwest South America (Columbia, Equator and Peru)*. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
22. Ghelardini, C., Galeotti, N., Mannelli, L. D. C., Mazzanti, G., & Bartolini, A. (2001). Local anaesthetic activity of  $\beta$ -caryophyllene. *Il Farmaco*, 56(5-7), 387-389.
23. Gilbert, M. (2000). Medicinal importance of Copaiba oil. *J. Pharmacol*, 4, 1159-1164.
24. Haynes, R. K. (2001). Artemisinin and derivatives: the future for malaria treatment?. *Current opinion in infectious diseases*, 14(6), 719-726.
25. Hui, L. M., Zhao, G. D., & Zhao, J. J. (2015).  $\delta$ -Cadinene inhibits the growth of ovarian cancer cells via caspase-dependent apoptosis and cell cycle arrest. *International journal of clinical and experimental pathology*, 8(6), 6046.
26. Klayman, D. L. (1985). Qinghaosu (artemisinin): an antimalarial drug from China. *Science*, 228(4703), 1049-1055.

27. Klayman, D. L., Lin, A. J., Acton, N., Scovill, J. P., Hoch, J. M., Milhous, W. K., ... & Dobek, A. S. (1984). Isolation of artemisinin (qinghaosu) from *Artemisia annua* growing in the United States. *Journal of natural products*, 47(4), 715-717.
28. Koleva, I. I., Niederländer, H. A., & van Beek, T. A. (2000). An on-line HPLC method for detection of radical scavenging compounds in complex mixtures. *Analytical Chemistry*, 72(10), 2323-2328.
29. Lamy, C., Sauvan, N. M., Renimel, I. T., Andre, P. N., & Darnault, S. O. (2010). Use in the cosmetic field of an exudate of plant *Daniellia oliveri*, in particular as an antiwrinkle agent. *US Patent: US7776367B2*.
30. Langenheim, J. H. (1962). Vegetation and environmental patterns in the Crested Butte area, Gunnison County, Colorado. *Ecological Monographs*, 32(3), 249-285.
31. Lee, B. C., Kaya, A., Ma, S., Kim, G., Gerashchenko, M. V., Yim, S. H., ... & Gladyshev, V. N. (2014). Methionine restriction extends lifespan of *Drosophila melanogaster* under conditions of low amino-acid status. *Nature communications*, 5(1), 1-12.
32. Lee, D. S., Nioche, P., Hamberg, M., & Raman, C. S. (2008). Structural insights into the evolutionary paths of oxylipin biosynthetic enzymes. *Nature*, 455(7211), 363-368.
33. Malomo, S. O., Adebayo, J. O., & Olorunniji, F. J. (2001). Decrease in activities of cation ATPases and alkaline phosphatase in kidney and liver of artemether treated rats. *NISEB Journal*, 1, 175-182.
34. Maurice, J., Olaleye, T. F., & Joseph, P. S. (2022). Physicochemical analysis and application of Shea butter oil (*viellariaparadoxa*): a case study of Fuyallang local production of Shea butter oil. *International journal of novel research and development*, 7(6), 470-481.
35. Meggers, B. J., Ayensu, E. S., & Duckworth, W. D. (1973). Tropical forest ecosystems in Africa and South America.
36. Mokuolu, O. A., Okoro, E. O., Ayetoro, S. O., & Adewara, A. A. (2007). Effect of artemisinin-based treatment policy on consumption pattern of antimalarials. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene*, 76(1), 7-11.
37. Montanari, R. M., Barbosa, L. C., Demuner, A. J., Silva, C. J., Carvalho, L. S., & Andrade, N. J. (2011). Chemical composition and antibacterial activity of essential oils from Verbenaceae species: Alternative sources of (E)-caryophyllene and germacrene-D. *Química Nova*, 34, 1550-1555.
38. Muhammad, S., & Amusa, N. A. (2005). The important food crops and medicinal plants of north-western Nigeria. *Res J Agric Biol Sci*, 1(3), 254-260.
39. Newman, D. J., & Cragg, G. M. (2007). Natural products as sources of new drugs over the last 25 years. *Journal of natural products*, 70(3), 461-477.
40. Nwaeze, C. U., & Abarikwu, P. O. (2006). Antimicrobial activity of certain medicinal plants used in traditional medicine in Nigeria. *Nigeria Journal of Microbiology*, 6(12), 32-40.
41. Phillips, O., & Gentry, A. H. (1993). The useful plants of Tambopata, Peru: I. Statistical hypotheses tests with a new quantitative technique. *Economic Botany*, 47(1), 15-32.
42. Raffauf, M. D. (1992). Medicinal potentials of oleoresin. *N. Engl. J. Med*, 4, 214-301.
43. Saxena, R. K., Sheoran, A., Giri, B., & Davidson, W. S. (2003). Purification strategies for microbial lipases. *Journal of microbiological methods*, 52(1), 1-18.
44. Spencer, C. F., Koniuszy, F. R., Rogers, E. F., Shavel, J., Easton, N. R., Kaczka, E. A., ... & Seeler, A. O. (1947). Survey of plants for antimalarial activity. *Lloydia*, 10(3), 145-174.

45. Tchoumboungang, F., Zollo, P. A., Dagne, E., & Mekonnen, Y. (2005). In vivo antimalarial activity of essential oils from *Cymbopogon citratus* and *Ocimum gratissimum* on mice infected with *Plasmodium berghei*. *Planta medica*, 71(01), 20-23.
46. Willcox, M. L. (1999). A clinical trial of 'AM', a Ugandan herbal remedy for malaria. *Journal of Public Health*, 21(3), 318-324.
47. Willcox, M. L., & Bodeker, G. (2004). Traditional herbal medicines for malaria. *Bmj*, 329(7475), 1156-1159.



This article is licensed and distributed under a Creative Common [Attribution \(CC BY-SA 4.0\) International License](#). Copyright (c), 2022 by the author/s.