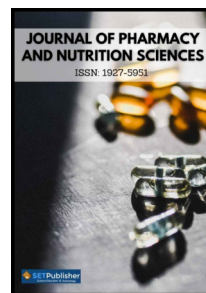




Published by SET Publisher

Journal of Pharmacy and Nutrition Sciences

ISSN (online): 1927-5951



Family Araliaceae in Southern Africa: A Review of Ethnobotanical Uses, Phytochemistry, Pharmacology, and Toxicology

Alfred Maroyi*

Department of Botany, University of Fort Hare, Private Bag X1314, Alice 5700, South Africa

Article Info:

Keywords:

Araliaceae,
Cussonia,
Neocussonia,
indigenous knowledge,
southern Africa,
traditional medicine

Timeline:

Received: November 12, 2022
Accepted: December 02, 2022
Published: December 27, 2022

Citation: Maroyi A. Family araliaceae in southern africa: a review of ethnobotanical uses, phytochemistry, pharmacology, and toxicology. J Pharm Nutr Sci 2022; 12: 109-127.

Abstract:

There is widespread use of species belonging to the family Araliaceae in traditional medicine in southern Africa. This review aimed to assess the medicinal uses, phytochemistry, pharmacology, and toxicological properties of indigenous species belonging to the family Araliaceae in south Africa. Relevant articles, books, theses, dissertations, patents, and other English-only reports on the therapeutic uses, chemical, biological and toxicological activities of species belonging to the family Araliaceae in southern Africa (Angola, Botswana, Eswatini, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) were reviewed. Databases such as PubMed, Web of Science, Elsevier, Google Scholar, Scopus, Springer, Science Direct, Taylor and Francis between January and July 2022. Eleven species, namely *Cussonia Arborea*, *C. arenicola*, *C. natalensis*, *C. nicholsonii*, *C. paniculata*, *C. sphaerocephala*, *C. spicata*, *C. transvaalensis*, *C. thyrsoflora*, *C. zuluensis*, and *Neocussonia umbellifera* are used as traditional medicines against 48 human and animal diseases. This study showed alkaloids, anthocyanins, anthracene glycosides, botulin, flavonoids, free gallic acid, iridoids, phenolics, saponins, steroids, tannins, triterpenoids, and volatile oils have been identified from these species. Pharmacological research revealed that the crude extracts and compounds isolated from these species are characterized by A β 42 protein reduction, acetylcholinesterase, analgesic, antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, anticancer, antihyperglycemic, anti-inflammatory, antileishmanial, antioxidant, antiplasmodial, antiprotozoal, anti-ulcer, immunomodulatory, larvicidal, molluscicidal, spermicidal, cytotoxicity and toxicity activities. Reports of medicinal uses, phytochemistry, pharmacology and toxicological properties of species belonging to the family Araliaceae in southern Africa could only be found for 11 species, suggesting that further investigation of largely unexplored family members is necessary.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.29169/1927-5951.2022.12.10>

*Corresponding Author
Tel/Fax: +27406022322;
E-mail: amaroyi@ufh.ac.za

© 2022 Alfred Maroyi; Licensee SET Publisher.
This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>) which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited.

INTRODUCTION

The family Araliaceae is reported to have 55 genera and over 1500 species and infraspecific taxa [1] distributed in tropical, subtropical, and temperate regions. The members of the family Araliaceae are known to have various classes of secondary metabolites, which are characterized by several phytochemical properties [2-9]. Research by Kinghorn and Balandrin [10] showed that natural products and their phytochemical compounds represent more than 50% of all pharmaceutical drugs in clinical use worldwide. Similarly, an estimated 25% of the pharmaceutical drugs and 11% of pharmaceutical drugs considered essential by the World Health Organization (WHO) are derived from plants, and many synthetic drugs are also obtained from precursor phytochemical compounds originating from plants [11]. The worldwide burden of diseases and ailments has forced scientists to explore medicinal plants as alternative therapies based on their traditional uses as herbal medicines. Medicinal plants have been used since ancient times to treat and manage various human and animal diseases and ailments. In some communities, medicinal plants are an important aspect of their daily lives and a crucial part of their cultural heritage [12,13]. In the last 70 years, documentation of medicinal uses of species belonging to the family Araliaceae has expanded in southern Africa [14-18]. However, these studies have yet to be compiled and analyzed. It is, therefore, within this context that this study was undertaken aimed at critically assessing the medicinal uses, phytochemistry, pharmacology, and toxicological properties of indigenous species belonging to the family Araliaceae in southern Africa (Angola, Botswana, Eswatini, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe). This review sought to collate and synthesize information about the ethnopharmacology of the family Araliaceae in southern Africa into a scientific report that is easy to use as a quick reference. This is important as some of the species belonging to the family Araliaceae are widely used as traditional medicines in the region, and information about their ethnopharmacology is currently scattered in several reports, some of which are not readily accessible. There is a need to characterize the phytochemical compounds of these plants used as traditional medicines to understand their mechanisms of action and therapeutic effects.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Relevant original articles, books, theses, dissertations, and other grey literature written in English on medicinal uses, phytochemistry, pharmacology, and toxicological properties of indigenous species belonging to the family Araliaceae in southern Africa (Angola, Botswana, Eswatini, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) were searched in PubMed, Web of Science, Elsevier, Google Scholar, Scopus, Springer, Science Direct, Taylor and Francis between January and July 2022. The literature search from different scientific databases provided 426 articles (Figure 1). After removing the duplicates and adding 11 articles identified from dissertations, theses, book chapters, and books retrieved from the University of Fort Hare library, 225 articles were retained. Of these, 106 reports were discarded mainly due to lack of information on medicinal uses, phytochemistry, pharmacology, and toxicological properties of indigenous species belonging to the family Araliaceae in southern Africa, bias, limited raw data, and 119 articles contributed to the generated inventory in this review (Figure 1). Scientific names of the plant species were verified using Plants of the World Online (POWO, <http://powo.science.kew.org/>).

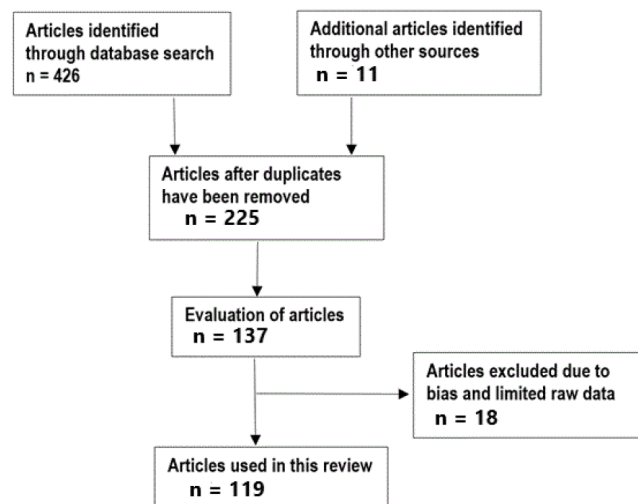


Figure 1: Flow chart showing the number of research publications used in this study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Medicinal Uses

Table 1 shows 11 species belonging to the family Araliaceae that are used as sources of traditional medicines in southern Africa. Such species included *Cussonia Arborea* Hochst. ex A. Rich., *C. arenicola*

Table 1: Medicinal Uses of Indigenous Species of the Araliaceae Family in Southern Africa

Medicinal uses	Parts used	Country	References
<i>C. arborea</i>			
Convulsions	Leaf infusion sprinkled on the face	Zimbabwe	[16]
Heart pains	Heartwood root infusion is taken orally	Zimbabwe	[16]
Menstrual problems	Root decoction is taken orally and mixed with the root of <i>Steganotaenia araliacea</i> Hochst. and fruits of <i>Vigna unguiculata</i> (L.) Walp.	Zimbabwe	[16]
Mental problems	A leaf infusion is orally mixed with <i>Ipomoea batatas</i> (L.) Lam. and <i>Musa</i> spp.	Malawi	[16]
Painful legs	Leaf infusion applied topically	Malawi	[16]
Painful uterus	Root infusion mixed with those of <i>Pappea capensis</i> Eckl. & Zeyh. inserted into vagina	Zimbabwe	[16]
Postpartum	Heartwood infusion is taken orally	Zimbabwe	[16]
Pregnancy	Not specified	Zimbabwe	[20]
Sexually transmitted diseases	Bark and root bark decoction is taken orally	Zambia	[21]
Ethnoveterinary medicine (blood in dung and urine of cattle)	Cattle drenched with bark infusion	Zimbabwe	[16]
<i>C. arenicola</i>			
Venereal diseases	A root infusion is taken orally	Mozambique	[22]
<i>C. natalensis</i>			
Emetic	Root decoction is taken orally	Eswatini	[7,18,23]
Gastro-intestinal problems	Stem bark decoction is orally mixed with <i>Gardenia volkensii</i> K. Schum. subsp. <i>spatulifolia</i> (Stapf. & Hutch.) Verdc.	Eswatini	[7,24]
Gastro-intestinal problems (diarrhea and stomach ache)	Bark and root decoction are taken orally	Eswatini and Zimbabwe	[7,23-25]
Protective charm	Bark, fruits, and roots used	Eswatini	[7,18]
Purgative	Bark decoction is taken orally	Eswatini	[7,23]
<i>C. nicholsonii</i>			
Emetic	Not specified	Eswatini	[18]
Gastro-intestinal (biliousness)	Not specified	South Africa	[26]
Musculoskeletal (inflammation)	Not specified	South Africa	[26]
Tonic	Not specified	South Africa	[26]
<i>C. paniculata</i>			
Anemia	Bark decoction is taken orally	Lesotho	[4,27]
Biliousness	Not specified	Lesotho and South Africa	[28]
Bladder problems	Bark decoction is taken orally	Lesotho	[4,15,28-31]
Boils, shingles, and skin diseases	Bark and leaf decoction is taken orally	Lesotho and South Africa	[4,15,28-35]
Breast and cervical cancer	A leaf infusion is taken orally	Lesotho	[4,31,36]
Cardiovascular problems	Bark decoction is taken orally	Lesotho	[4,27]
Cleanses blood	Bark decoction is taken orally	Lesotho	[4,27]
Colic	Bark and leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[2,4,37-39]

(Table 1). Continued.

Medicinal uses	Parts used	Country	References
Colic, menstrual problems, mental disease, and nervous system problems	Bark and leaf decoction is taken orally and mixed with <i>Searsia divaricata</i> (Eckl. and Zeyh.) Moffett, <i>S. zeyheri</i> (Sond.) Moffett and <i>Scabiosa columbaria</i> L.	Lesotho and South Africa	[28,36,40]
Emetic	Bark and leaf decoction is taken orally	Eswatini and Lesotho	[4, 15, 18, 28-31]
Gastro-intestinal problems (indigestion and stomach complaints)	Leaf and root decoction are taken orally	Lesotho and South Africa	[4, 15, 28-33, 41-43]
Heartburn	Bark decoction is taken orally	Lesotho	[4, 15, 27-30, 42]
Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) opportunistic infections	Bark and leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[4, 32-34]
Immune booster	Bark, leaf, and root decoction are taken orally	Lesotho and South Africa	[4, 32-35, 42]
Intestinal ulcers	Leaf decoction is taken orally	Lesotho	[4, 15, 28-31, 42]
Intestinal parasites and worms	Bark, fruit, root, and stem decoction are taken orally	Lesotho and South Africa	[4, 14, 27, 44]
Kidney problems	A leaf infusion is taken orally	Lesotho	[4, 15, 28-31]
Loss of appetite	A root infusion is taken orally	Lesotho	[4, 42]
Malaria	Root decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[4, 32, 33, 43, 45, 46]
Menstrual problem	Leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[2, 4, 37, 39]
Mental disease	Leaf decoction is taken orally	Eswatini and South Africa	[2, 4, 14, 18, 37, 38, 47-50]
Nervous system problem	Leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[2, 4, 14, 37-39, 47]
Phlegm	Bark decoction is taken orally	Lesotho	[4, 27]
Pellagra	Bark decoction is taken orally	Lesotho	[4, 27]
Purgative	Leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[4, 32, 33]
Rheumatism and swollen limbs	A leaf infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[4, 38, 39, 51]
Sores and wounds	Leaf decoction applied topically	South Africa	[4, 14, 15, 27, 29-31, 51, 52]
Tonic	Bark and leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[4, 32, 33, 34]
Tuberculosis	Not specified	Lesotho and South Africa	[28]
Ethnoveterinary medicine (biliousness in livestock)	Not specified	Lesotho and South Africa	[28]
<i>C. sphaerocephala</i>			
Emetic	Not specified	Eswatini	[18]
<i>C. spicata</i>			
Abdominal pain	Bark and root decoction are taken orally	South Africa	[5, 53]
Antifebrile and fever	Leaf, root bark, and root decoction are taken orally	South Africa	[5, 17, 53-57]
Appetite stimulant	Root decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[5, 41]
Cardiovascular	Not specified	Zimbabwe	[5, 16]
Convulsions and epilepsy	Leaf infusion sprinkled on the face and taken orally	Zimbabwe	[5, 16, 35, 39]
Diabetes mellitus	Root decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[5, 58]
Diuretic	A root infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[5, 17, 55, 59, 60]
Emetic, nausea, and vomiting	Fruit, root, and stem infusion taken orally	Eswatini and South Africa	[2, 5, 14, 17, 53-57, 61]

(Table 1). Continued.

Medicinal uses	Parts used	Country	References
Fever	A leaf infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[59]
Gastro-intestinal problems (biliousness, constipation, indigestion, and stomach complaints)	Flower, flower stalk, and root powder decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[2,5,17,26,32-35,55,60,62-64]
Gonorrhoea and venereal diseases	Bark, flower, fruits, root, and stem decoction are taken orally	Lesotho and South Africa	[2,5,17,18,32,33,53,55,62,63]
HIV	Flower, fruit, root, and stem decoction are taken orally	South Africa	[5,32,33]
Immune booster	Flower, fruit, leaf, root, and stem decoction are taken orally	South Africa	[5,32-35]
Inflammation	Root infusion applied topically	South Africa	[5,26]
Laxative and purgative	Flower, fruit, root, and stem decoction are taken orally	South Africa	[5,17,32,33,55,59,60]
Magical purposes	Bark used	South Africa	[5,17,47,65]
Malaria	Bark, flower, fruit, root, and stem infusion taken orally	Eswatini, South Africa, and Zimbabwe	[2,5,17,18,37,60,62,63]
Menstrual problems	Root and stem decoction is taken orally	South Africa and Zimbabwe	[2,5,16,37]
Mental illness	Bark and root bark decoction is taken orally	South Africa and Zimbabwe	[5,16,17,47,49]
Muscular spasms, cramps, and painful legs	Bark decoction applied topically	South Africa and Zimbabwe	[2,5,16,66-68]
Nausea	A leaf infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[60]
Skin diseases (measles, pimples, shingles, and skin irritation)	Flower, fruit, leaf, root, and stem decoction are taken orally	South Africa	[5,17,32-34]
Stomach ulcers	Bark infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[2,5,17,55,65]
Tonic	Flower, fruit, root, and stem decoction are taken orally	South Africa	[5,26,32-34]
Uterine pain	Root decoction is taken orally	South Africa and Zimbabwe	[5,16,17,53,55]
Venereal diseases	A leaf infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[60]
Vomiting	Not specified	Eswatini	[18]
Wounds	Bark, leaf, and root decoction applied topically	South Africa	[5,69]
Ethnoveterinary medicine			
Anthelmintics	Animals drenched with bark decoction	South Africa	[5,70-72]
Bloody urine after calving, endometriosis, and vaginitis	Leaves mixed with those of <i>Olea europaea</i> L. subsp. <i>Africana</i> (Mill.) P.S. Green	South Africa	[5,73,74]
Gallsickness	Animals drenched with bark and leaf decoction	South Africa	[5,73-77]
Heartwater	Animals drenched with bark decoction	South Africa	[5,78,79]
Paralyzed goats	Animals drenched with leaf decoction	South Africa	[5,17,62,74]
Redwater	Animals drenched with bark and leaf decoction	South Africa	[5,77,78]
Retained placenta	Animals drenched with bark decoction	South Africa	[5,73,74,80]
<i>C. thrysiflora</i>			
Diuretic	Root decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[81]
Laxative	Root decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[81]

(Table 1). Continued.

Medicinal uses	Parts used	Country	References
<i>C. transvaalensis</i>			
Malaria	Root decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[81]
<i>C. zuluensis</i>			
Emetic	Root infusion is taken orally	Eswatini	[7,18,82]
Fever	Root decoction is taken orally	Eswatini	[7,82]
Purgative	Root infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[7,83]
Swellings	Root infusion applied topically	South Africa	[7,83]
<i>N. umbellifera</i>			
Colic	Leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[2,9,14,17]
Diuretic	Root infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[83,85]
Gastro-intestinal problems (stomachache)	Leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[61,86]
Inflammation	Bark, leaf, and root decoction applied topically	South Africa	[87,88]
Inflammation of navel	Root decoction applied topically	Zimbabwe	[16,17]
Insanity	Leaf decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[2,9,14,17,48,62]
Laxative	Root infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[84,90]
Malaria	Bark and leaf decoction is taken orally	Eswatini, South Africa, and Zimbabwe	[2,9,16,17,89]
Nausea	Root infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[84,89]
Protective charm (good luck and magical)	Bark used	Eswatini and South Africa	[14,18]
Rheumatism	Leaf decoction is taken orally	Eswatini and South Africa	[2,9,18,88]
Stomach ulcers	Bark decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[14,89]
Venereal diseases	Root decoction is taken orally	South Africa	[84,89]
Weaning infants	Root infusion is taken orally	South Africa	[85,89]

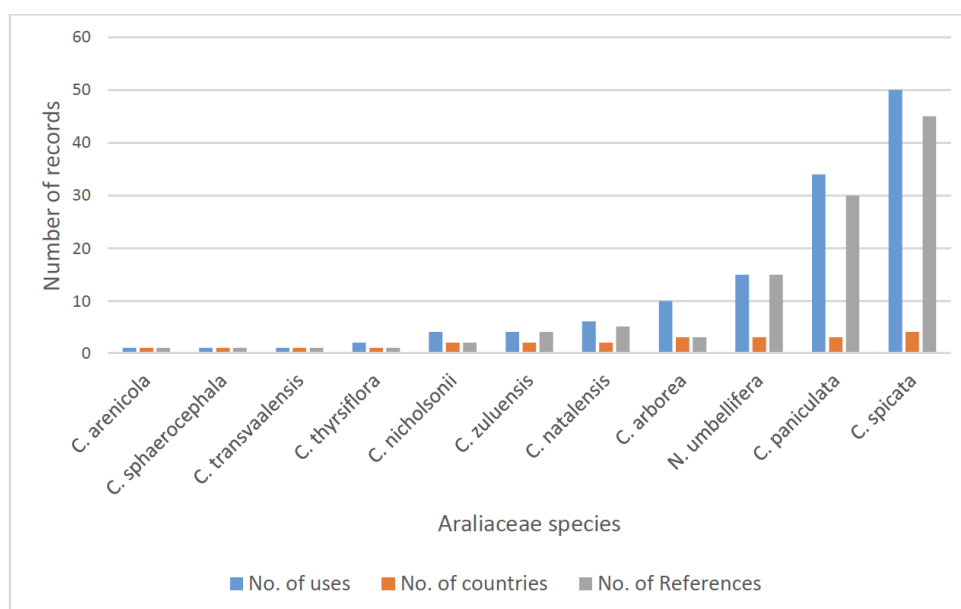


Figure 2: Species belonging to the family Araliaceae used as sources of traditional medicines in southern Africa.

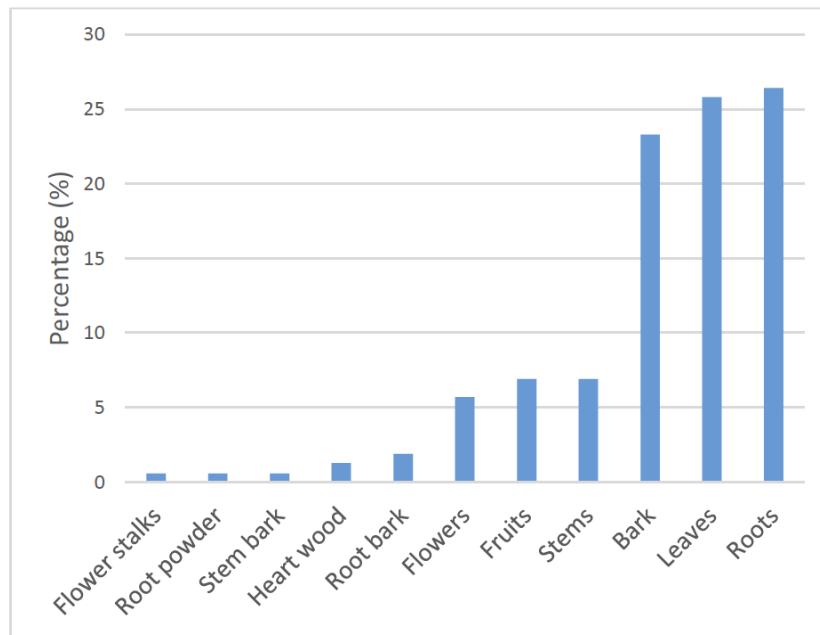


Figure 3: Plant parts of species belonging to the family Araliaceae used as sources of traditional medicines in southern Africa.

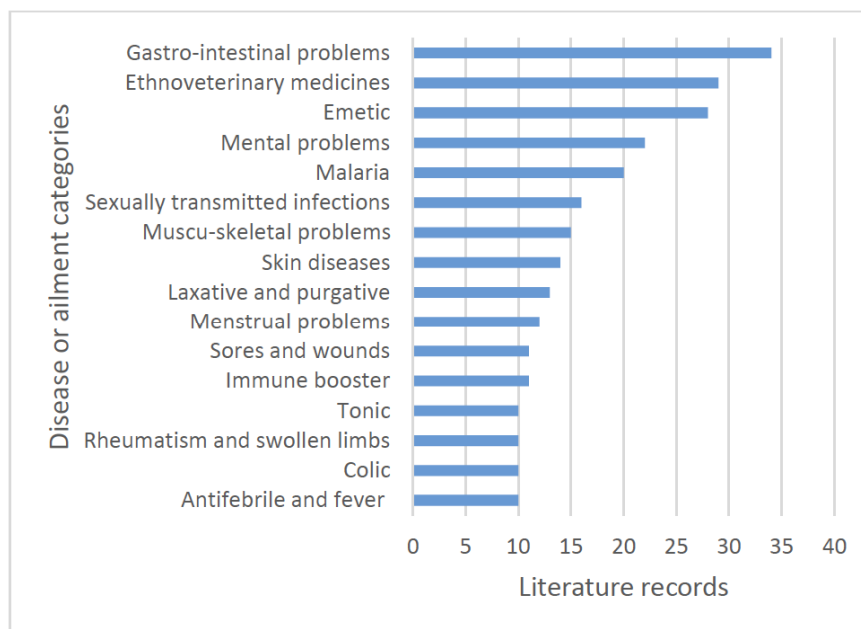


Figure 4: Medicinal uses of species of the Araliaceae family in southern Africa.

Strey, *C. natalensis* Sond., *C. nicholsonii* Strey, *C. paniculata* Eckl. & Zeyh., *C. sphaerocephala* Strey, *C. spicata* Thunb., *C. transvaalensis* Reyneke, *C. thyrsoiflora* Thunb., *C. zuluensis* Thunb. and *Neocussonia umbellifera* (Sond.) Hutch (Figure 2). The widely used species is *C. spicata*, used in countries such as Eswatini, Lesotho, South Africa, and Zimbabwe, followed by *C. paniculata* (Eswatini, Lesotho, and South Africa), *N. umbellifera* (Eswatini, South Africa and Zimbabwe) and *C. Arborea* used in Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Table 1; Figure

2). The bark, flowers, flower stalks, fruits, heartwood, leaves, roots, root bark, root powder, stem and stem bark of *C. arborea*, *C. arenicola*, *C. natalensis*, *C. nicholsonii*, *C. paniculata*, *C. sphaerocephala*, *C. spicata*, *C. zuluensis* and *N. umbellifera* (Figure 3) are used against 48 human and animal ailments or diseases, mainly as antifebrile, colic, emetic, immune booster, laxative, purgative, tonic and ethnoveterinary medicines as well as traditional medicines against fever, rheumatism, swollen limbs, sores, wounds, menstrual problems, skin diseases, muscu-skeletal

problems, sexually transmitted infections, malaria, mental problems and gastro-intestinal problems (Table 1; Figure 4).

Species such as *C. arborea*, *C. arenicola*, *C. natalensis*, *C. paniculata*, *C. spicata*, *C. zuluensis*, and *N. umbellifera* are important components of traditional pharmacopeia in southern Africa [2-8]. Hence, the bark, leaves, roots, and stems of *C. arenicola* and *S. spicata* are sold in informal herbal medicine markets as a source of traditional medicines in Kenya, Mozambique, and South Africa [5,19]. The thick tuberous roots of *C. paniculata*, *C. spicata*, and *C. thysiflora* Thunb. They are peeled and eaten raw as emergency food or as a source of water in South Africa [4,5]. Such socio-cultural indigenous knowledge base about species belonging to the family Araliaceae is still relatively underdeveloped in the region.

This study showed that alkaloids, anthocyanins, anthracene glycosides, botulin, flavonoids, free gallic acid, iridoids, phenolics, saponins, steroids, tannins, triterpenoids, and volatile oils have been identified from the leaves, roots, root bark, stems, stem bark and twigs of *C. arborea*, *C. natalensis*, *C. paniculata*, *C. spicata*, *C. zuluensis* and *N. umbellifera* (Table 2). The documented species of the Araliaceae family appear to be important sources of triterpenes, triterpene glycosides, and triterpenoid saponins (Table 2). This diversity of phytochemical compounds associated with species belonging to the Araliaceae family emphasizes the importance of evaluating the toxicological properties of the species used as traditional medicines. Pharmacological research revealed that *C. arborea*, *C. natalensis*, *C. paniculata*, *C. spicata*, *C. zuluensis*, and *N. umbellifera* crude extracts and compounds demonstrated A β 42 protein reduction, acetylcholinesterase, analgesic, antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, anticancer, antihyperglycemic, anti-inflammatory, antileishmanial, antioxidant, antiplasmodial, antiprotozoal, anti-ulcer, immunomodulatory, larvicidal, molluscicidal, spermicidal, cytotoxicity and toxicity activities.

Summary of the Pharmacological Activities of Araliaceae Species

Extracts and isolated compounds from *C. arborea*, *C. natalensis*, *C. paniculata*, *C. spicata*, *C. zuluensis*, and *N. umbellifera* have been reported to possess A β 42 protein reduction, acetylcholinesterase, analgesic, antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, anticancer, antihyperglycemic, anti-inflammatory, antileishmanial, antioxidant, antiplasmodial, antiprotozoal, anti-ulcer,

immunomodulatory, larvicidal, molluscicidal, spermicidal, cytotoxicity and toxicity activities.

A β 42 Protein Reduction Activities

Thakur *et al.* [39] evaluated the A β 42 protein reduction activities of dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts of *C. paniculata* leaves and stems using ELISA – sAPP α , sAPP β , and A β peptide assays. The extracts reduced the secreted level of A β 42 by 57.5% in a dose-dependent manner compared to the control. The extract also decreased the levels of A β 40, sAPP β -sw, and sAPP α in a dose-dependent way [39].

Acetylcholinesterase Inhibitory

Amoo *et al.* [103] evaluated acetylcholinesterase inhibitory properties of aqueous extract of *C. spicata* leaves using a colorimetric assay with galanthamine at 20.0 μ M as a positive control. The extract exhibited acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activities of 72.1%–86.5% at 1.0 mg/ml.

Analgesic Activities

Adedapo *et al.* [105] evaluated the analgesic activities of the aqueous extract of *C. paniculata* stem bark using the formalin test by treating male Wistar rats with the extract; 10 mg/kg of indomethacin; and 2 ml/kg of normal saline and the licking time and frequency of the injected paw were recorded for 30 min. In the acetic acid-induced writhing model, the extract showed a good analgesic effect characterized by a reduction in the number of writhes when compared to the control, and the extract also caused a dose-dependent decrease of licking time and licking frequency in rats injected with 2.5% formalin, signifying its analgesic effect [105].

Antibacterial Activities

McGaw *et al.* [61] evaluated the antibacterial activities of aqueous, ethanol, and hexane extracts of *C. spicata* leave against *Bacillus subtilis*, *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, and *Staphylococcus aureus* using the disc diffusion assay with neomycin (5 μ g) as the positive control. The ethanol and water extracts were active against all tested pathogens exhibiting minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values ranging from 3.1 mg/ml to 12.5 mg/ml [61]. Tetyana [37] and Tetyana *et al.* [2] evaluated the antibacterial activities of ethanolic, ethyl acetate, and water extracts of *C. spicata* and *N. umbellifera* bark and roots against *Bacillus subtilis*, *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella*

Table 2: Phytochemical Composition of Species Belonging to the Family Araliaceae

Phytochemical compound	Plant part	Reference
<i>C. arborea</i>		
2,3-dihydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid	Root bark and stem bark	[91,92]
3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic	Root bark and stem bark	[91,92]
3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid	Root bark	[93]
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosylolean-12-en-28-oic acid	Stem bark	[92]
3-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl stigmaterol	Root bark and stem bark	[91-93]
3-O- β -D-xylopyranosylolean-12-en-28-oic acid	Stem bark	[92]
3-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-23-hydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid	Stem bark	[92]
3-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-arabinopyranosyl-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid	Stem bark	[92]
3,23-dihydroxy olean-12-en-28-oic acid	Root bark and stem bark	[91,92]
3,23-dihydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid	Stem bark	[92]
3,23-dihydroxy-12-oleanen-28-oic acid	Root bark	[93]
23-hydroxy-3-oxours-12-en-28-oic acid	Root bark and stem bark	[91-93]
28-O- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)- β -D-glucopyranosyl-23-hydroxyursolic acid	Root bark and stem bark	[91,92]
β -resorcylic acid (5), mixture of 3-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-23-hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid	Stem bark	[92]
Alkaloids	Root bark	[94,95]
Anthocyanins	Root bark	[95]
Cardiac glycosides	Root bark	[94-96]
Ciwujianoside C3	Root bark and stem bark	[91,92]
Flavonoids	Root bark	[94,95]
Polyphenols	Root bark	[95]
Protocatechuic acid	Stem bark	[92]
Quinones	Root bark	[95]
Saponins	Root bark	[94-96]
Saponinsarboreasides A-E	Root bark and stem bark	[91,92]
Steroids	Root bark	[95]
Stigmaterol	Root bark and stem bark	[91-93]
Tannins	Root bark	[94-96]
Triterpenes	Root bark	[94,95]
<i>C. natalensis</i>		
23-hydroxy3-oxo-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	Leaves and twigs	[97]
Oleanolic acid	Leaves and twigs	[97]
<i>C. paniculata</i>		
3-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glucopyranosides of 23-hydroxybetulinic acid	Leaves	[98]
28-O-(2-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glucopyranosides of 23-hydroxybetulinic acid	Leaves	[98]
28-O-(2-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glucopyranosides of hederagenin	Leaves	[98]
3-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glucopyranosides of hederagenin	Leaves	[98]

(Table 2). Continued.

Phytochemical compound	Plant part	Reference
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl-28-O-(2-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of oleanic acid	Leaves	[98]
3-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of oleanic acid	Leaves	[98]
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl-28-O-(2-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of ursolic acid	Leaves	[98]
3-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of ursolic acid	Leaves	[98]
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl-28-O-(4-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of hederagenin	Leaves	[98]
2-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of hederagenin	Leaves	[98]
3-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of hederagenin	Leaves	[98]
3-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl-28-O-(2-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glycopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of oleanic acid	Leaves	[98]
3-O-acetyl- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl)-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of oleanic acid	Leaves	[98]
28-O- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranoside of 23-hydroxyursolic acid	Leaves	[99]
3-O- β -D-glycopyranoside of β -sitosterol	Leaves	[99]
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosides of oleanolic acid	Leaves	[99]
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosides of ursolic acid	Leaves	[99]
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosides of hederagenin	Leaves	[99]
3-O- β -D-glycopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-arabinopyranoside of oleanolic acid	Leaves	[99]
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl-28-O- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glycopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of oleanolic acid	Leaves	[99]
3-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl-28-O- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)-O- β -D-glycopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)-O- β -D-glycopyranosides of ursolic acid	Leaves	[99]
Clethroidoside B	Leaves	[39]
Pseudoprostodioscin	Leaves	[39]
Rutin	Leaves	[39]
Spinasaponin A	Leaves	[39]
C. spicata		
α - and β -amyrin	Leaves and stems	[100]
[α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid	Stem bark	[101]
[α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-galactopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)]- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid	Stem bark	[101]
Alkaloids	Root bark	[102]
Anthocyanins	Root bark	[102]
Anthracene glycosides	Root bark	[102]
Botulin	Leaves and stems	[100]
Flavonoids	Leaves	[103]
Free gallic acid	Leaves	[103]
Gallotannins	Leaves	[103]
Iridoids	Leaves	[103]

(Table 2). Continued.

Phytochemical compound	Plant part	Reference
Lupeol	Leaves and stems	[100]
Phenolics	Leaves	[103]
Saponins		[5]
Steroids		[5]
Tannins	Leaves	[103]
Triterpenoids	Root bark	[102]
Volatile oils	Root bark	[102]
C. zuluensis		
Cardiac glycosides	Roots	[82]
Flavonoids	Roots	[82]
Polyphenols	Roots	[82]
Saponins	Roots	[82,85,104]
Steroids	Roots	[82]
Tannins	Roots	[85,104]
N. umbellifera		
Betulin	Not specified	[9,89]
Ent-Kaur-16-en-19-oic-acid	Not specified	[9,89]
7-Hydroxy-6-methoxycoumarin	Not specified	[9,89]

pneumoniae, *Micrococcus luteus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* using the disc diffusion assay with neomycin as a positive control. The extracts exhibited activities against *Staphylococcus aureus* (2,37). McGaw *et al.* [106] evaluated the antibacterial activities of aqueous, methanol, and hexane extracts of *C. spicata* roots against *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* using the serial microplate dilution method with neomycin as the positive control. The extracts exhibited activities with MIC values ranging from 6.3 mg/ml to >12.5 mg/ml [106]. Shai [85] and Shai *et al.* [68] evaluated the antibacterial activities of acetone, dichloromethane, and n-hexane extracts of *C. zuluensis* leaves against *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* using the microdilution method with gentamicin as a positive control. The extracts exhibited activities against the tested pathogens with MIC values ranging from 0.3 mg/ml to 2.5 mg/ml and total activity ranging from 8.0 ml to 267.0 ml [68,85]. De Villiers *et al.* [3] evaluated the antibacterial activities of methanol and water extracts of *C. arborea*, *C. arenicola*, *C. natalensis*, *C. nicholsonii*, and *C. paniculata* subsp. *paniculata*, *C. paniculata* subsp.

sinuata, *C. sphaerocephala*, *C. spicata*, *C. thyrsoiflora*, *C. zuluensis* and *N. umbellifera* leaves against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli* using the microdilution method with ciprofloxacin (0.01 mg/ml) as a positive control. Both extracts exhibited activities against tested pathogens, with the MIC values ranging from 0.02 mg/mL to 16.0 mg/ml [3]. Amoo *et al.* [60] evaluated the antibacterial activities of aqueous extract of *C. spicata* leaves using the microdilution bioassay against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* with neomycin as a positive control. The extract exhibited activities against tested pathogens with MIC and minimum microbicidal concentration (MMC) values ranging from 1.6 mg/ml to >6.3 mg/ml [60]. Mounang *et al.* [95] evaluated the antibacterial activities of ethanol and hydro-ethanolic extracts of *C. arborea* root bark against *Proteus mirabilis*, *Salmonella* spp., *Shigella* spp., and *Staphylococcus aureus* using the microdilution technique. The extracts exhibited activities against the tested pathogens with the minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) and the minimum bactericidal concentrations (MBC) values ranging from 25.0 mg/mL to 200.0 mg/ml [95].

Antifungal Activities

Shai [85] and Shai *et al.* [68] evaluated the antifungal activities of acetone, dichloromethane, and n-hexane extracts of *C. zuluensis* leaves against *Cryptococcus neoformans*, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, *Candida albicans*, *Micrococcus canis* and *Sporothrix schenckii* using the microdilution method with amphotericin B as a positive control. The extracts exhibited activities against tested pathogens with MIC values ranging from 0.06 mg/ml to 2.5 mg/ml and total activity ranging from 8.0 ml to 133.0 ml [68,85]. Mokoka [107] and Mokoka *et al.* [108] evaluated the antifungal activities of hexane, dichloromethane, acetone, and methanol extracts of *C. zuluensis* leaves against *Cryptococcus neoformans* using the two-fold serial dilution microplate and microdilution methods. The extracts exhibited activities against the tested pathogen with MIC values ranging from 0.02 mg/ml to 0.6 mg/ml and total activity ranging from 9.0 ml/g to 496.0 ml/g [107,108]. Mangoyi and Mukanganyama [109] evaluated the antifungal activities of ethanol extracts of *C. natalensis* leaves against *Candida krusei* and *Candida albicans* using the agar disc diffusion and broth dilution methods with miconazole as a positive control. The extract exhibited activities against *Candida albicans* with a zone of inhibition value of 16.0 mm, MIC and minimum fungicidal concentration (MFC) values of 0.3 mg/ml and 1.3 mg/ml, respectively [109]. Amoo *et al.* [60] evaluated the antifungal activities of aqueous extract of *C. spicata* leaves using the microdilution bioassay against *Candida albicans* with amphotericin B as a positive control. The extract exhibited activities against tested pathogens with MIC and MMC values of 6.3 mg/ml [60].

Antiviral Activities

McGaw *et al.* [106,110] evaluated the antiviral activities of acetone extracts of *C. spicata* leaves using an antiviral assay against the sensitive feline herpesvirus type 1, and the extract exhibited activities. Nthambeleni *et al.* [111] evaluated the anti-HIV activities of aqueous extract of *N. umbellifera* leaves using EMF and InPheno bioassay screening against the cellular co-receptor types for HIV, CCR5, and CXCR4 viruses and the extract exhibited moderate activities [111].

Anticancer Activities

Fouché *et al.* [112] evaluated the anticancer activities of dichloromethane extracts of *C. paniculata* leaves against sixty human cancer cell lines organized into

subpanels representing leukemia, melanoma, and cancer of the lung, colon, kidney, ovary, and central nervous system. The extracts exhibited moderate growth inhibition of above 50% for two or more of the cell lines (GI_{50}), with values ranging from >0 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ to 1.1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ [112]. Similarly, Fouché *et al.* [113] evaluated the anticancer activities of dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts of *C. paniculata* leaves against sixty human cancer cell lines organized into subpanels representing leukemia, melanoma, and cancer of the lung, colon, kidney, ovary, and central nervous system. The extracts exhibited activities against leukemia RPMI-8226, colon HCT-116, and colon KM12 with total growth inhibition (TGI) values of 1.0 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, 1.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, and 2.7 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, respectively [113].

Antihyperglycemic Activities

Triterpenoids content fraction of methanol extract of *C. arborea* root bark and stem bark have been reported to have antihyperglycemic activities by reducing fasting blood sugar (FBS) from 310.0 to 74.0 mg/dl [91]. Aba *et al.* [96] and Aba and Asuzu [94,114-116] reported that administration of 125 mg/kg bw of the extract to the diabetic rats significantly increased red blood cell, packed cell volume, haemoglobin, mean corpuscular volume, and conjugated bilirubin levels. It also considerably decreased total bilirubin and unconjugated bilirubin values compared to the untreated diabetic group.

Anti-Inflammatory Activities

Tetyana [37] and Tetyana *et al.* [2] evaluated the anti-inflammatory activities of ethanolic, ethyl acetate, and water extracts of *C. paniculata*, *C. spicata*, and *N. umbellifera* bark, leaves, roots, and stems using the cyclooxygenase-1 (COX-1) assay. The extracts inhibited COX in the COX-1 assay. Adedapo *et al.* [105] evaluated the anti-inflammatory activities of aqueous extract of *C. paniculata* stem bark using the carrageenan-induced rat paw edema and histamine-induced rat paw edema assays with indomethacin and cyproheptadine as positive controls. The extract reduced the formation of edema induced by carrageenan and histamine [105].

Antileishmanial Activities

Mokoka [117] and Mokoka *et al.* [118] evaluated the antileishmanial activities of dichloromethane and dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts of *N. umbellifera* roots against *Leishmania donovani*. The

extracts exhibited activities. Bapela *et al.* [119] evaluated antileishmanial activities of dichloromethane and 50% methanol extracts of *C. spicata* root bark against *Leishmania donovani*. The dichloromethane extracts displayed inhibitory effects on the growth of amastigote forms of *Leishmania donovani* with half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) values of 8.2 µg/ml [119].

Antioxidant Activities

Amoo *et al.* [103] evaluated the antioxidant activities of the aqueous extract of *C. spicata* leaves using the 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) free radical scavenging and β-carotene linoleic acid model assays. The DPPH results showed half-maximal effective concentration (EC₅₀) values of 14.3 µg/ml to 43.6 µg/ml, while the antioxidant activity of 41.8% to 55.7% at 200.0 µg/ml was exhibited using the β-carotene linoleic acid model assay [103]. Aba *et al.* [96] evaluated the antioxidant activities of the methanolic extract of *C. arborea* stem bark using the DPPH and ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assays with 2.0 µM ascorbic acid as a positive control. The results of both the DPPH and FRAP assays showed that the extract exhibited activities [96].

Antiplasmodial Activities

Tetyana [37] and Tetyana and Van Staden [2] evaluated antiplasmodial activities of the ethanolic, ethyl acetate, and water extracts of *C. paniculata*, *C. spicata*, and *N. umbellifera* bark against *Plasmodium falciparum* in an *in vitro* assay, a slightly modified version of the parasite lactate dehydrogenase assay with chloroquine as a positive control. The extracts exhibited weak inhibitory activities. Kraft *et al.* [120] evaluated the *in vitro* antiplasmodial activities of petrol ether: ethylacetate (1:1) extracts of *C. spicata* bark and leaves using the [G-H] hypoxanthine incorporation assay using the chloroquine-sensitive and chloroquine-resistant strains of *Plasmodium falciparum*. The leaf extract exhibited weak activities with IC₅₀ values of 45.1 µg/ml and 47.5 µg/ml against chloroquine-sensitive and chloroquine-resistant strains of *Plasmodium falciparum*, respectively [120]. Clarkson *et al.* [121] evaluated antiplasmodial activities of *C. spicata* and *N. umbellifera* aqueous, dichloromethane, dichloromethane-methanol (1:1) extracts against *Plasmodium falciparum* using the parasite lactate dehydrogenase assay. The extracts exhibited weak activities. De Villiers *et al.* [3] evaluated the antiplasmodial activities of methanol and water extracts

of *C. arborea*, *C. natalensis*, *C. paniculata* subsp. *paniculata*, *C. paniculata* subsp. *sinuata*, *C. sphaerocephala*, *C. spicata*, *C. zuluensis*, and *N. umbellifera* leaves using the [G-³H] hypoxanthine incorporation assay using chloroquine-sensitive (3D7) strain of *Plasmodium falciparum* as the test organism. The extracts exhibited activities. Similarly, Bapela *et al.* [56], Bapela [57], and Bapela *et al.* [122] evaluated antiplasmodial activities of dichloromethane and 50% methanol root bark extract of *C. spicata* using the [G-H]-hypoxanthine incorporation assay using chloroquine-sensitive (NF54) strain of *Plasmodium falciparum* as the test organism with chloroquine as a positive control. The dichloromethane extract exhibited pronounced activities with an IC₅₀ value of 3.3 µg/ml [56,57,122]. Mthembu [84] and Mthembu *et al.* [89] evaluated the antiplasmodial activities of dichloromethane and dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts of *N. umbellifera* leaves and the compounds 7-hydroxy-6-methoxycoumarin, botulin and entkaur16-en-19-oic acid isolated from the species against the chloroquine-susceptible *Plasmodium falciparum* D10 using a parasite lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) assay with chloroquine used as a reference drug. The dichloromethane and dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts and the compound betulin exhibited activities with IC₅₀ values ranging from 3.2 µg/ml to 5.0 µg/ml compared to IC₅₀ value of 27.2 ng/ml exhibited by the reference compound [84,89]. Mokoka [117] and Mokoka *et al.* [118] evaluated the antimalarial activities of dichloromethane and dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts of *N. umbellifera* roots against *Plasmodium falciparum* with benznidazole chloroquine (IC₅₀ = 0.05 µM) as a positive control using the [G-³H]-hypoxanthine incorporation assay. The dichloromethane and dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts exhibited weak activities with IC₅₀ values of 2.7 µg/ml and 7.7 µg/ml, respectively [117,118].

Antiprotozoal Activities

De Villiers *et al.* [3] evaluated the antiprotozoal activities of methanol and water extracts of *C. arborea*, *C. natalensis*, *C. nicholsonii*, *C. paniculata* subsp. *paniculata*, *C. paniculata* subsp. *sinuata*, *C. sphaerocephala*, *C. spicata*, *C. thyrsoflora*, *C. zuluensis*, and *N. umbellifera* leaves against the protozoan pathogen associated with urogenital or sexually transmitted infections, *Trichomonas vaginalis* using the microdilution method with ciprofloxacin (0.01 mg/ml) as a positive control. The methanol extract exhibited activities against the tested pathogen. Mokoka [117]

and Mokoka et al. [118] evaluated the antiprotozoal activities of dichloromethane and dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts of *N. umbellifera* roots against *Trypanosoma cruzi* and *Trypanosoma brucei rhodesiense*. The extracts exhibited antiprotozoal activities.

Anti-Ulcer Activities

Preliminary research by Fourie *et al.* [97] showed that the triterpene acid, 23-hydroxy-3-oxo-urs-12-en-28-oic acid isolated from the leaves and twigs of *C. natalensis* exhibited anti-ulcer activities.

Immunomodulatory Activities

Oladimeji *et al.* [93] evaluated the immunomodulatory activities of the compounds 3,23-dihydroxy-12-oleanen-28-oic acid, 3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid, stigmaterol and 3-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl stigmaterol isolated from the root-bark of *C. arborea* by assessing the effect on production of intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) from zymosan activated whole blood phagocytes and on proliferation of phytohemagglutinin (PHA) activated T-lymphocytes. The compounds 3,23-dihydroxy-12-oleanen-28-oic acid and 3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid moderately inhibited the production of ROS with IC₅₀ values of 24.4 and 37.5 μ g/ml, respectively whereas compound 3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid exhibited the highest inhibitory effect with IC₅₀ value of 12.6 μ g/ml on PHA [93].

Larvicidal Activities

Maharaj *et al.* [123,124] evaluated the larvicidal activities of aqueous, dichloromethane, dichloromethane: methanol (1:1), and methanol extracts of *C. spicata* and *N. umbellifera* fruits against the 3rd instar larvae of *Anopheles arabiensis* using Temephos (Mostop; Agrivo) as a positive control. The extract exhibited activities.

Molluscicidal Activities

Marston and Hostettmann [125] and Msonthi *et al.* [126] evaluated the molluscicidal activities of the water extract of *C. spicata* stem bark using bioassays made with *Biomphalaria glabrata* snails, the intermediate host of *Schistosoma mansoni*. The extract showed activities of 400 ppm within 24 h against *Biomphalaria glabrata* snails [125,126]. Similarly, Gunzinger *et al.* [101] evaluated the molluscicidal activities of the compounds [α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid and [α -L-

arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-galactopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2))- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid isolated from *C. spicata* stem bark using bioassays that were made with *Biomphalaria glabrata* snails. The compound [α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid was active at 12.5 mg/l while [α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-galactopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2))- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid was active at 100 mg/l [101].

Spermicidal Activities

Hostettmann *et al.* [127] evaluated the spermicidal activities of the compounds [α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid and [α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-galactopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2))- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid against human spermatozooids. The compound [α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid was active at 1 mg/l and compound [α -L-arabinofuranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-galactopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2))- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 3)]-3 β -hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid was active at 3 mg/l, within 3 min [127].

Cytotoxicity Activities

De Villiers *et al.* [3] evaluated the cytotoxicity activities of methanol and water extracts of *C. arborea*, *C. natalensis*, *C. paniculata* subsp. *paniculata*, *C. paniculata* subsp. *sinuata*, *C. spicata* and *N. umbellifera* against the human T-cell leukemia (Jurkat) cell line using the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) calorimetric assay with (S)-(+)-camptothecin as a positive control. Mokoka [117] and Mokoka *et al.* [118] evaluated the cytotoxicity activities of dichloromethane and dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts of *N. umbellifera* roots against the rat myoblast L6 cells with podophyllotoxin (IC₅₀ = 0.05 μ M) as a reference drug. The dichloromethane and dichloromethane: methanol (1:1) extracts exhibited activities with IC₅₀ values of 13.9 μ g/mL and 48.3 μ g/mL, respectively [117,118]. Bapela [57] and Bapela *et al.* [56,119,122] evaluated cytotoxicity activities of dichloromethane and 50% methanol root bark extracts of *C. spicata* against mammalian L-6 rat skeletal myoblast cells with podophyllotoxin as a control. The dichloromethane extract demonstrated IC₅₀ value of 47.8 μ g/ml and selectivity index value of 15 and 50% methanol extract exhibited IC₅₀ value of 69.1 μ g/ml which was considered

to be non-toxic to rat skeletal myoblast L6 cells [56,57,119,122].

Toxicity Activities

McGaw *et al.* [106] evaluated toxicity activities of aqueous, methanol, and hexane extracts of *C. spicata* roots using the brine shrimp lethality mortality assay against the larvae of *Artemia salina* with podophyllotoxin as a positive control. Only the aqueous extract showed activities with a median lethal concentration (LC₅₀) value of 2.6 µg/mL, comparable to the LC₅₀ value of 7.0 µg/ml exhibited by the control [106]. Adedapo *et al.* [105] evaluated acute toxicity activities of the aqueous extract of *C. paniculata* stem bark by oral administration of graded doses of the extract of 200 mg/kg, 400 mg/kg, 800 mg/kg, 1600 mg/kg, and 3200 mg/kg body weight in Wistar male rats. All the rats were allowed free access to food and water and observed throughout 48 h for signs of acute toxicity and death within this period. Acute toxicity tests showed that the extract caused 80% mortality in rats; hence, *C. paniculata* can be considered toxic [105].

CONCLUSION

Despite several species belonging to the family Araliaceae in southern Africa, only 11 species have been documented as used in traditional medicine or investigated for their chemical composition or biological activities. Such results highlight that this family is highly understudied despite its promising medicinal value. This study explored the correlation between the documented species' medicinal uses, phytochemistry, and pharmacological properties. Therefore, this review helps to identify medicinal plants with clinical potential for further *in vitro* or *in vivo* pharmacological investigation.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Aβ	= amyloid β-protein
COX-1	= cyclooxygenase-1
DPPH	= 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl
EC ₅₀	= half maximal effective concentration
ELISA	= Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay
FBS	= fasting blood sugar
FRAP	= ferric reducing antioxidant power

GI ₅₀	= half maximal growth inhibition
HIV	= Human immunodeficiency virus
IC ₅₀	= half maximal inhibitory concentration
LC ₅₀	= half maximal lethal concentration
MBC	= minimum bactericidal concentrations
MFC	= minimum fungicidal concentration
MIC	= minimum inhibitory concentration
MMC	= minimum microbicidal concentration
MTT	= 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide
PHA	= phytohemagglutinin
pLDH	= parasite lactate dehydrogenase
POWO	= Plants of the World Online
ROS	= reactive oxygen species
sAPPα	= soluble amyloid precursor protein (APPα)
sAPPβ	= soluble amyloid precursor protein (APPβ)
TGI	= total growth inhibition
µM	= micrometre
WHO	= World Health Organization

AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS

The author declares that this work was done by the author named in this article.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Kim K, *et al.* Evolution of the Araliaceae family inferred from complete chloroplast genomes and 45S nrDNAs of 10 Panax-related species. *Sci Rep* 2017; 7(1): 4917. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-05218-y>
- [2] Tetyana P, *et al.* Some medicinal properties of *Cussonia* and *Schefflera* species used in traditional medicine. *S Afr J Bot* 2002; 68: 51-54. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0254-6299\(16\)30454-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0254-6299(16)30454-9)
- [3] De Villiers BJ, *et al.* Antimicrobial and antimalarial activity of *Cussonia* species (Araliaceae). *J Ethnopharmacol* 2010; 129: 189-196. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2010.02.014>

- [4] Maroyi A. A review of botany, therapeutic value, phytochemistry and pharmacology of *Cussonia paniculata*. Asian J Pharmaceut Clinical Res 2019; 12: 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.22159/ajpcr.2019.v12i9.34434>
- [5] Maroyi A. *Cussonia spicata* Thunb. in tropical Africa: Phytochemistry, pharmacology and medicinal potential. Asian J Pharmaceut Clinical Res 2019; 12: 39-45. <http://dx.doi.org/10.22159/ajpcr.2019.v12i9.34464>
- [6] Maroyi A. A review of botany, therapeutic value, phytochemistry and pharmacology of *Cussonia zimmermannii*. J Pharmaceut Sci Res 2019; 11: 2665-2669.
- [7] Maroyi A. *Cussonia natalensis* Sond. and *C. zuluensis* Strey (Araliaceae): A comparative analysis of their medicinal uses and pharmacological properties. Int J Res Pharmaceut Sci 2020; 11(4): 6089-6094. <https://doi.org/10.26452/ijrps.v11i4.3280>
- [8] Maroyi A. A synthesis and review of medicinal uses, phytochemistry and pharmacological properties of *Schefflera umbellifera* (Sond.) Baill. (Araliaceae). Int J Res Pharmaceut Sci 2020; 11(4): 5460-5466. <https://doi.org/10.26452/ijrps.v11i4.3176>
- [9] Wang Y, et al. The genus *Schefflera*: A review of traditional uses, phytochemistry and pharmacology. J Ethnopharmacol 2021; 279: 113675. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2020.113675>
- [10] Kinghorn AD, Balandrin MF. Human medicinal agents from plants. Washington DC: ACS Symposium Series 534, American Chemical Society; 1993.
- [11] Rates SMK. Plants as a source of drugs. Toxicon 2001; 39: 603-613. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0041-0101\(00\)00154-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0041-0101(00)00154-9)
- [12] Chituku S, Nikodem C, Maroyi A. Use of herbal, complementary and alternative medicines among pregnant women in Makoni District, Zimbabwe. Bol Latinoam Caribe Plant Med Aromat 2022; 21: 631-645. <https://doi.org/10.37360/blacpma.22.21.5.39>
- [13] Shopo B, Mapaya RJ, Maroyi A. Ethnobotanical study of medicinal plants traditionally used in Gokwe South District, Zimbabwe. S Afr J Bot 2022; 149: 29-48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2022.05.052>
- [14] Watt JM, Breyer-Brandwijk MG. The medicinal and poisonous plants of southern and eastern Africa. London: E & S Livingstone; 1962.
- [15] Guillarmod AJ. Flora of Lesotho. Lehre: Cramer; 1971.
- [16] Gelfand M, et al. The traditional medical practitioner in Zimbabwe: His principles of practice and pharmacopoeia. Gweru: Mambo Press; 1985
- [17] Hutchings A, et al. Zulu medicinal plants: An inventory. Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal Press; 1996.
- [18] Long C. Swaziland's flora: siSwati names and uses. Mbambane, Swaziland: Swaziland National Trust Commission; 2005. Available at: <http://www.sntc.org.sz/index.asp>, accessed on 11 July 2022.
- [19] Krog MP, Falcão MP, Olsen CS. Medicinal plant markets and trade in Maputo, Mozambique. Hørsholm: Danish Centre for Forest, Landscape, Forest and Landscape Working Papers no. 16; 2006
- [20] Dimene L, et al. A cross-sectional study to determine the use of alternative medicines during pregnancy in the district hospitals in Manicaland, Zimbabwe. Afr Health Sci 2020; 20(1): 64-72. <https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ahs.v20i1.11>
- [21] Ndubani P, Höjer B. Traditional healers and the treatment of sexually transmitted illnesses in rural Zambia. J Ethnopharmacol 1999; 67: 15-25. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0378-8741\(99\)00075-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0378-8741(99)00075-6)
- [22] Siteo E. Medicinal ethnobotany of Mozambique: A review and analysis. MSc dissertation. Johannesburg: University of Johannesburg; 2020.
- [23] Amusan OOG, et al. Some herbal remedies from Manzini region of Swaziland. J Ethnopharmacol 2002; 79: 109-112. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-8741\(01\)00381-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-8741(01)00381-6)
- [24] Amusan OO. African natural plant products: New discoveries and challenges in chemistry and quality. In Ho C-T, Juliani HR, Simon J (Editor), African natural plant products: New discoveries and challenges in chemistry and quality. Washington DC: American Chemical Society; 2010; pp. 31-49.
- [25] Mukanganyama S, Dumbura SC, Mampuru L. Anti-proliferative effects of plant extracts from Zimbabwean medicinal plants against human leukaemia cell lines. Afr J Plant Sci Biotechnol 2012; 6: 14-20.
- [26] Mhlongo LS, Van Wyk BE. Zulu medicinal ethnobotany: New records from the Amandawe area of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. S Afr J Bot 2019; 122: 266-290. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2019.02.012>
- [27] Mugomeri E, et al. Ethnobotanical study and conservation status of local medicinal plants: Towards a repository and monograph of herbal medicines in Lesotho. Afr J Trad Compl Alt Med 2016; 13: 143-156. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ajtcam.v13i1.20>
- [28] Moffett R. Sesotho plant and animal names and plants used by the Basotho. Bloemfontein: Sun Press; 2010
- [29] Maliehe EB. Medicinal plants and herbs of Lesotho. Maseru: Mafeteng Development Project; 1997.
- [30] Moteetee A, Van Wyk BE. The medical ethnobotany of Lesotho: A review. Bothalia 2011; 41: 209-228. <https://doi.org/10.4102/abc.v41i1.52>
- [31] Kose SL, Moteetee A, Van Vuuren S. Ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used in the Maseru district of Lesotho. J Ethnopharmacol 2015; 170: 184-200. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2015.04.047>
- [32] Davids D. *Materia medica* and care: A study of the uses of medicinal herbs and remedies as a form of treatment and negotiating social relationships in Cape Town and surroundings. MSc Dissertation. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape; 2012.
- [33] Davids D, et al. Traditional health practitioners' perceptions, herbal treatment and management of HIV and related opportunistic infections. J Ethnobiol Ethnomed 2014; 10: 77. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1746-4269-10-77>
- [34] Gail H, et al. An ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used by traditional health practitioners to manage HIV and its related opportunistic infections in Mpoza, Eastern Cape province, South Africa. J Ethnopharmacol 2015; 171: 109-115. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2015.05.029>
- [35] Maroyi A. Diversity of use and local knowledge of wild and cultivated plants in the Eastern Cape province, South Africa. J Ethnobiol Ethnomed 2017; 13: 43. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13002-017-0173-8>
- [36] Moteetee A, Kose SL. Medicinal plants used in Lesotho for treatment of reproductive and post reproductive problems. J Ethnopharmacol 2016; 194: 827-849. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2016.10.062>
- [37] Tetyana P. Medicinal properties and micropropagation of *Cussonia* species. MSc Dissertation. Pietermaritzburg: University of KwaZulu-Natal; 2000.
- [38] Tetyana P, Van Staden J. Micropropagation of *Cussonia paniculata*: A medicinal plant with horticultural potentials. S Afr J Bot 2001; 67: 367-370. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0254-6299\(15\)31143-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0254-6299(15)31143-1)
- [39] Thakur A, et al. Potential of South African medicinal plants targeting the reduction of Aβ42 protein as a treatment of Alzheimer's disease. J Ethnopharmacol 2019; 231: 363-373. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2018.11.034>

- [40] Maroyi A. *Scabiosa columbaria*: A review of its medicinal uses, phytochemistry and biological activities. Asian J Pharmaceut Clinical Res 2019; 12: 10-14. <https://doi.org/10.22159/ajpcr.2019.v12i18.34229>
- [41] Semenya SS, Potgieter MJ, Tshisikhawe MP. Use, conservation and present availability status of ethnomedicinal plants of Matebele village in the Limpopo Province, South Africa. Afr J Biotech 2013; 12: 2392-2405. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJB12.2572>
- [42] Mugomeri E, Chatanga P, Chakane N. Medicinal herbs used by HIV positive people in Lesotho. Afr J Trad Compl Alt Med 2016; 13: 123-131. <https://doi.org/10.21010/ajtcam.v13i4.17>
- [43] Schmidt E, Lotter M, McClelland W. Trees and shrubs of Mpumalanga and Kruger National Park. Johannesburg: Jacana Media; 2017.
- [44] Cock IE, Selesho MI, Van Vuuren SF. A review of the traditional use of Southern African medicinal plants for the treatment of selected parasite infections affecting humans. J Ethnopharmacol 2018; 220: 250-264. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2018.04.001>
- [45] Afolayan AJ, Adebola PO. *In vitro* propagation: A biotechnological tool capable of solving the problem of medicinal plants decimation in South Africa. Afr J Biotech 2004; 3: 683-687.
- [46] Pillay P, Maharaj VJ, Smith PJ. Investigating South African plants as a source of new antimalarial drugs. J Ethnopharmacol 2008; 119: 438-454. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2008.07.003>
- [47] Sobiecki JF. A preliminary inventory of plants used for psychoactive purposes in southern African healing traditions. Trans Royal Soc S Afr 2002; 57: 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00359190209520523>
- [48] Van Wyk B-E, Gericke N. People's plants: A guide to useful plants of South Africa. Pretoria: Briza Publication; 2018.
- [49] Masondo NA, *et al.* Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors from southern African plants: An overview of ethnobotanical, pharmacological potential and phytochemical research including and beyond Alzheimer's disease treatment. S Afr J Bot 2019; 120: 39-64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2018.09.011>
- [50] Alharbi R. Medicinal properties of the Araliaceae, with emphasis on chemicals affecting nerve cells. MSc Dissertation. Charleston: Eastern Illinois University; 2019.
- [51] Komoreng L, *et al.* An ethnobotanical survey of traditional medicinal plants used against lymphatic filariasis in South Africa. S Afr J Bot 2017; 111: 12-16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2017.03.005>
- [52] Motetee A, Kose SL. A review of medicinal plants used by the Basotho for treatment of skin disorders: Their phytochemical, antimicrobial, and anti-inflammatory potential. Afr J Trad Compl Alt Med 2017; 14: 121-137. <https://doi.org/10.21010/ajtcam.v14i5.16>
- [53] Matsiliza B, Barker NP. A preliminary survey of plants used in traditional medicine in the Grahamstown area. S Afr J Bot 2001; 67: 177-182. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0254-6299\(15\)31117-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0254-6299(15)31117-0)
- [54] Bryant AT. Zulu medicine and medicine-men. Cape Town: C. Struik; 1966.
- [55] Verschaeve L, Van Staden J. Mutagenic and antimutagenic properties of extracts from South African traditional medicinal plants. J Ethnopharmacol 2008; 119: 575-587. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2008.06.007>
- [56] Bapela MJ, Meyer JJ, Kaiser M. *In vitro* antiplasmodial screening of ethnopharmacologically selected South African plant species used for the treatment of malaria. J Ethnopharmacol 2014; 156: 370-3. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2014.09.017>
- [57] Bapela MJ. NMR-based metabolomic study of medicinal plants used against malaria and the isolation of bioactive alkaloids. PhD Thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria; 2016.
- [58] Semenya S, Potgieter M, Erasmus L. Ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used by Bapedi healers to treat diabetes mellitus in the Limpopo province, South Africa. J Ethnopharmacol 2012; 141: 440-445. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2012.03.008>
- [59] Arnold HJ, Gulumian M. Pharmacopoeia of traditional medicine in Venda. J Ethnopharmacol 1984; 12: 35-74. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-8741\(84\)90086-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-8741(84)90086-2)
- [60] Amoo SO, *et al.* Assessment of long-term storage on antimicrobial and cyclooxygenase-inhibitory properties of South African medicinal plants. Phytother Res 2013; 27: 1029-1035. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ptr.4830>
- [61] McGaw LJ, Jäger AK, van Staden J. Antibacterial, anthelmintic and anti-amoebic activity in South African medicinal plants. J Ethnopharmacol 2000; 72: 247-263. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-8741\(00\)00269-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-8741(00)00269-5)
- [62] Palmer E, Pitman N. Trees of southern Africa covering all known indigenous species in the Republic of South Africa, South-West Africa, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. Cape Town: Balkema; 1972.
- [63] Palgrave MC. Keith Coates Palgrave trees of southern Africa. Cape Town: Struik Publishers; 2002.
- [64] Olajuyigbe OO, Afolayan AJ. Ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used in the treatment of gastro-intestinal disorders in the Eastern Cape province, South Africa. J Med Plant Res 2012; 6: 3415-3424. <https://doi.org/10.5897/JMPR11.1707>
- [65] Mabogo DEN. The Ethnobotany of the VhaVenda. MSc Dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria; 1990
- [66] Roberts M. Indigenous healing plants. Johannesburg: Southern Book Publishers, Halfway House; 1990.
- [67] Grace OM, *et al.* Bark medicines used in traditional healthcare in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa: An inventory. S Afr J Bot 2003; 69: 301-363. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0254-6299\(15\)30318-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0254-6299(15)30318-5)
- [68] Shai LJ, *et al.* Antifungal and antibacterial activity of seven traditionally used South African plant species active against *Candida albicans*. S Afr J Bot 2008; 74: 677-684. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2008.04.003>
- [69] Mehrbod P, *et al.* South African medicinal plant extracts active against influenza A virus. BMC Compl Alt Med 2018; 18: 112. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12906-018-2184-y>
- [70] Maphosa V, Masika PJ. Ethnoveterinary uses of medicinal plants: A survey of plants used in the ethnoveterinary control of gastro-intestinal parasites of goats in the Eastern Cape province, South Africa. Pharm Biol 2010; 48: 697-702. <https://doi.org/10.3109/13880200903260879>
- [71] Sanhokwe M. Determination and validation of medicinal plants used by farmers to control internal and external parasites in goats in the Eastern Cape province, South Africa. MSc Dissertation. Alice: University of Fort Hare; 2015.
- [72] Sanhokwe M, *et al.* Medicinal plants used to control internal and external parasites in goats. Onderstepoort J Vet Res 2016; 83:a1016. <https://doi.org/10.4102/ojvr.v83i1.1016>
- [73] Dold AP, Cocks ML. Traditional veterinary medicine in the Alice district of the Eastern Cape province, South Africa. S Afr J Sci 2001; 97: 375-379. <https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC97371>
- [74] McGaw LJ, Eloff JN. Ethnoveterinary use of southern African plants and scientific evaluation of their medicinal properties. J Ethnopharmacol 2008; 119: 559-574. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2008.06.013>

- [75] Bishop C. Herbal remedies for cattle. *Farm Wkly* 1997; 13: 6-10.
- [76] Masika PJ, van Averbeke W, Sonandi A. Use of herbal remedies by small-scale farmers to treat livestock diseases in central Eastern Cape province, South Africa. *J S Afr Vet Assoc* 2000; 71: 87-91. <https://doi.org/10.4102/jsava.v71i2.685>
- [77] Masika PJ, Afolayan AJ. An ethnobotanical study of plants used for the treatment of livestock diseases in the Eastern Cape province, South Africa. *Pharm Biol* 2003; 41: 16-21. <https://doi.org/10.1076/phbi.41.1.16.14694>
- [78] Mokwala PW. Antibacterial activity of plants that are used in the treatment of heartwater in livestock and the isolation and identification of bioactive compounds from *Petalidium oblongifolium* and *Ipomoea adenioides*. PhD Thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria; 2007.
- [79] Kambizi L. Indigenous plants for ethnoveterinary uses in the Pondoland, South Africa. *Acta Hort* 2016; 1125: 309-314. <https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.2016.1125.40>
- [80] Luseba D, et al. Antibacterial, anti-inflammatory and mutagenic effects of some medicinal plants used in South Africa for the treatment of wounds and retained placenta in livestock. *S Afr J Bot* 2007; 73: 378-383. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2007.03.003>
- [81] Quattrocchi U. CRC world dictionary of medicinal and poisonous plants: Common names, scientific names, eponyms, synonyms and etymology. Boca Raton: CRC Press; 2016
- [82] Amusan OOG, et al. Some Swazi phytomedicines and their constituents. *African Journal of Biotech* 2007; 6: 267-272. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJB06.681>
- [83] Corrigan BM, et al. Ethnobotanical plant uses in the KwaNobela Peninsula, St Lucia, South Africa. *S Afr J Bot* 2011; 77(2): 346-359. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2010.09.017>
- [84] Mthembu XS. A phytochemical study of *Schefflera umbellifera* and *Elephantorrhiza elephantina*. MSc Dissertation. Pietermaritzburg: University of KwaZulu-Natal; 2007.
- [85] Shai L.J. Characterization of compounds from *Curtisia dentata* (Cornaceae) active against *Candida albicans*. PhD thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria; 2007.
- [86] Mbambezi G. *Schefflera umbellifera*. Kirstenbosch Botanical Garden; 2006. Available at: <http://pza.sanbi.org/schefflera-umbellifera>, accessed on 11 July 2022.
- [87] Jäger AK, van Staden J. Cyclooxygenase inhibitory activity of South African plants used against inflammation. *Phytochem Reviews* 2005; 4(1): 39-46. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11101-004-5570-7>
- [88] Venter F, Venter J-A. Making the most of indigenous trees. Pretoria: Briza Publications; 2015.
- [89] Mthembu XS, Heerden FRV, Fouché G. Antimalarial compounds from *Schefflera umbellifera*. *S Afr J Bot* 2010; 76(1): 82-85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2009.07.019>
- [90] Netshiluvhi TB. Aspects of seed propagation of commonly utilised medicinal trees of Kwazulu-Natal. Pietermaritzburg: University of Kwazulu-Natal; 1996.
- [91] Kougan GB, et al. Arboreasides A-E, triterpene saponins from the bark of *Cussonia arborea*. *J Nat Prod* 2009; 72: 1081-1086. <https://doi.org/10.1021/np8008094>
- [92] Kayangar M, et al. *Cussonia arborea* Hochst (Araliaceae): Ethnobotany, pharmacology and phytochemistry. *Cameroon J Exp Biol* 2020; 14: 6-10. <https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/cajeb.v14i2.2>
- [93] Oladimeji AO, et al. Immunomodulatory activities of isolated compounds from the root-bark of *Cussonia arborea*. *Pharm Biol* 2017; 55: 2240-2247. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13880209.2017.1400078>
- [94] Aba PE, Asuzu IU. Proton NMR spectra of antihyperglycemic triterpenoid isolated from *Cussonia arborea*. *J Nat Prod* 2016; 9: 5-13.
- [95] Mougang LM, et al. Phytochemical screening and *in vitro* evaluation of the antibacterial activity of organic extracts from the root bark of *Cussonia arborea* (Araliaceae). *J Appl Biotechnol* 2021; 9: 2-7. <https://doi.org/10.5296/jab.v9i2.19102>
- [96] Aba EP, Asuzu IU, Odo RI. Antihyperglycaemic and antioxidant potentials of *Cussonia arborea* in alloxan-induced diabetic rats. *Comparative Clinical Pathol* 2014; 23: 451-458. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00580-012-1640-1>
- [97] Fourie TG, Matthee E, Snyckers FO. A pentacyclic triterpene acid, with anti-ulcer properties, from *Cussonia natalensis*. *Phytochem* 1989; 28(10): 2851-2852. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-9422\(00\)98105-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-9422(00)98105-6)
- [98] Grishkovets VI, et al. Triterpene glycosides from *Cussonia paniculata*. II. Acetylated glycosides from leaves. *Chem Nat Comp* 2005; 41: 436-441. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10600-005-0172-1>
- [99] Dovgii II, et al. Triterpene glycosides from *Cussonia paniculata*: Isolation and structure determination of glycosides A, B1, B2, C, D, G2, H1 and H2 from leaves of *Cussonia paniculata*. *Chem Nat Comp* 2005; 41: 200-204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10600-005-0111-1>
- [100] Wollenweber E, et al. Triterpenoids in lipophilic leaf and stem coatings. *Biochem Syst Ecol* 1999; 27: 103-105.
- [101] Gunzinger J, Msonthi JD, Hostettmann K. Molluscicidal saponins from *Cussonia spicata*. *Phytochem* 1986; 25: 2501-2503. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-9422\(00\)84496-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-9422(00)84496-9)
- [102] Chhabra SC, Uiso FC, Mshiu EN. Phytochemical screening of Tanzanian medicinal plants. *I. J Ethnopharmacol* 1984; 11: 157-179. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-8741\(84\)90037-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-8741(84)90037-0)
- [103] Amoo SO, et al. Antioxidant and acetylcholinesterase-inhibitory properties of long-term stored medicinal plants. *BMC Compl Alt Med* 2012; 12: 87. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6882-12-87>
- [104] Van Wyk C, Botha FS, Steenkamp V. *In vitro* antimicrobial activity of medicinal plants against oral *Candida albicans* isolates. *Int J Biomed Pharmaceut Sci* 2009; 3: 26-30
- [105] Adedapo AA, et al. Anti-inflammatory and analgesic activities of the aqueous extract of *Cussonia paniculata* stem bark. *Rec Nat Prod* 2008; 2: 46-53.
- [106] McGaw LJ, Van der Merwe D, Eloff JN. *In vitro* anthelmintic, antibacterial and cytotoxic effects of extracts from plants used in South African ethnoveterinary medicine. *Vet J* 2007; 173: 366-372. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tvjl.2005.09.004>
- [107] Mokoka TA. Isolation and characterization of compounds active against *Cryptococcus neoformans* from *Maytenus undata* (Thunb.) Blakelock (Celastraceae) leaves. MSc Dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria; 2007.
- [108] Mokoka TA, McGaw LJ, Eloff JN. 2010. Antifungal efficacy of ten selected South African plant species against *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Pharm Biol* 2010; 48(4): 397-404. <https://doi.org/10.3109/13880200903150393>
- [109] Mangoyi R, Mukanganyama S. *In vitro* antifungal activities of selected medicinal plants from Zimbabwe against *Candida albicans* and *Candida krusei*. *Afr J Plant Sci Biotech* 2011; 5: 8-14.

- [110] McGaw LJ, *et al.* South African ethnoveterinary plant extracts with antimicrobial and antiviral potential. *Afr J Trad Compl Alt Med* 2009; 6: 472.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12906-018-2184-y>
- [111] Nthambeleni R, *et al.* Discovering novel plant-derived drug leads for the treatment of HIV through an integrated approach. Pretoria: CSIR Research and Innovation Centre; 2010.
- [112] Fouché G, *et al.* Investigation of South African plants for anticancer properties. *Pharmacologyonline* 2006; 3: 494-500.
- [113] Fouche G, *et al.* *In vitro* anticancer screening of South African plants. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2008; 119: 455-461.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2008.07.005>
- [114] Aba PE, Asuzu IU. Haematological profile of alloxan induced diabetic rats treated with methanol root bark extract of *Cussonia arborea*. *Int Blood Res Rev* 2015; 4: 1-10.
<https://doi.org/10.9734/IBRR/2015/22725>
- [115] Aba PE, Asuzu IU. Effects of administration of methanol root bark extract of *Cussonia arborea* on serum biochemical markers of kidney damage and renal histomorphology of alloxan-induced diabetic rats. *J Adv Med Pharm Sci* 2016; 5: 1-9.
<https://doi.org/10.9734/JAMPS/2016/22121>
- [116] Aba PE, Asuzu IU. Glycosylated haemoglobin values of alloxan-induced diabetic rats treated with graded doses of *Cussonia arborea* extract. *J Appl Animal Res* 2018; 46: 1478-1482.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09712119.2018.1544902>
- [117] Mokoka TA. The discovery and characterization of antiprotozoal compounds from South African medicinal plants by a HPLC-based activity profiling technique. PhD Thesis. Pietermaritzburg: University of KwaZulu-Natal; 2013.
- [118] Mokoka TA, *et al.* *In vitro* screening of traditional South African malaria remedies against *Trypanosoma brucei rhodesiense*, *Trypanosoma cruzi*, *Leishmania donovani*, and *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Planta Med* 2011; 77: 1663-1667.
<https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0030-1270932>
- [119] Bapela MJ, Kaiser M, Meyer JJ. Antileishmanial activity of selected South African plant species. *S Afr J Bot* 2017; 108: 342-345.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2016.08.014>
- [120] Kraft C, *et al.* *In vitro* antiplasmodial evaluation of medicinal plants from Zimbabwe. *Phytother Res* 2003; 17: 123-128.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ptr.1066>
- [121] Clarkson C, *et al.* *In vitro* antiplasmodial activity of medicinal plants native to or naturalised in South Africa. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2004; 92: 177-191.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2004.02.011>
- [122] Bapela MJ, *et al.* ¹H NMR-based metabolomics of antimalarial plant species traditionally used by VhaVenda people in Limpopo province, South Africa and isolation of antiplasmodial compounds. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2019; 228: 148-155.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2018.07.022>
- [123] Maharaj R, *et al.* Bioevaluation of South African plants for insecticidal properties. Pretoria: CSIR Research and Innovation Centre; 2006.
- [124] Maharaj R, *et al.* Screening of selected ethnomedicinal plants from South Africa for larvicidal activity against the mosquito *Anopheles arabiensis*. *Malar J* 2012; 11: 320.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-11-320>
- [125] Marston A, Hostettman K. Plant molluscicides. *Phytochem* 1985; 24: 639-652.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-9422\(00\)84870-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0031-9422(00)84870-0)
- [126] Msonthi JD, Hostettman K, Maillard M. Phytochemical studies of medicinal plants from Malawi. In Hostettman K, *et al.* (Editors), *Chemistry, biological and pharmacological properties of African medicinal plants*. Harare: University of Zimbabwe; 1996; pp. 171-186.
- [127] Hostettmann K, *et al.* The potential of African plants as a source of drugs. *Curr Organic Chem* 2000; 4: 973- 1010.
<https://doi.org/10.2174/1385272003375923>