
**PHYTOCHEMICAL SCREENING AND PROXIMATE ANALYSES OF SOME
MEDICINAL PLANTS USED IN IRUN AKOKO, AKOKO NORTH WEST LOCAL
GOVERNMENT AREA ONDO STATE, NIGERIA**

Olanipekun M.K; Akirun K; and Amoo J.A
Ekiti State University Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti-State

ABSTRACT: *The study was designed to focus on the potential of seven selected medicinal plants vis Azadiracta indica (A.Juss), Saraca indica (Linn.), Cymbopogon citratus (DC. Stapf.), Morinda lucida, (Benth.), Moringa oleifera (Lam.), Acacia senegalens (Houtt.), and Gossypium arboretum (Jacq.). The plants are relatively available, effective, disease resistance, less toxic and found traditionally medicinal relevance in the study area. This work was designed to identify secondary metabolites present in the leaves extracts of Azadiracta indica (A.Juss). Saraca indica (Linn.), Cymbopogon citratus (DC. Stapf.), Morinda lucida, (Benth.), Moringa oleifera (Lam.), Acacia senegalens (Houtt.), and Gossypium arboretum (Jacq.) to validate their traditional importance. Phytochemical screening and proximate analysis was carried out using standard qualitative and quantitative tests respectively. The screening assessed and determined the proximate composition of Azadiracta indica; Saraca indica; Cymbopogon citratus; Morinda lucida; Moringa oleifera; Acacia senegalens; and Gossypium arboretum. Statistical analysis was performed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) while Duncan's New Multiple range test were applied at 0.05 level of significance ($p < 0.05$). Phytochemical screening of the plants revealed the presence of alkaloids, saponins, tannins, phenols and flavonoids. Nutritional analysis revealed that all the plants were rich in crude protein, carbohydrate, fat, ash, moisture and dietary fiber. Morinda lucida has the highest moisture contents of 13.42 ± 0.05 % while Saraca indica has the least moisture contents of 9.19 ± 0.52 %. Acacia senegalens has the highest fat contents of 6.17 ± 0.70 % while Azadiracta indica has the least contents of 2.84 ± 0.19 %. Similarly, Gossypium arboretum has the highest ash content of 13.46 ± 0.08 while Saraca indica is having least ash content of 6.60 ± 0.03 %. Moringa oleifera has the highest proteins contents of 7.81 ± 0.08 % while Cymbopogon citratus has least protein content of 3.64 ± 0.05 %. Gossypium arboreum has the highest number of fibers 11.28 ± 0.11 % while Saraca indica is having least fiber contents of 7.35 ± 0.14 %. Also, Saraca indica has the highest carbohydrates contents of 67.69 ± 0.11 while Moringa oleifera is having the least of carbohydrates content of 52.97 ± 0.23 % respectively. Proximate composition in the plants supported various body functions such as body development, maintenance of fluid balance, formation of hormones, enzymes, repair of worn out tissues, sustaining strong immune function among others. Therefore, the results of this study validated the traditional relevance of the plants.*

KEY WORDS: aqueous solvents, medicinal plant, phytochemical, proximate, traditional relevance

INTRODUCTION

The use of various parts of plants in the prevention and treatment of many ailments is now experiencing positive awareness especially amongst the rural dwellers because of their availability, cheaper prices, effectiveness and resistance to disease caused organisms (Rajendra et al., 2019., Arowosegbe et. al.,

2020). Since the ancient's days, early man observed and believed that plants have healing powers. Many plants synthesize substances useful in the maintenance of health in man and animals. These are called bioactive substances called secondary metabolites that include aromatic substances, most of which are phenols or oxygen substituted derivatives such as tannins (Chellappandian *et al.* (2012). The World Health Organization (WHO 2001) estimated that up to 80% of the world's population rely on plants for their primary health care, while in Nigeria, a WHO survey estimated that up to 75% of the population personally used plants in various forms or patronized traditional medical practitioners in managing their health challenges. Medicinal plants play a significant role in the provision of nutritious food to people (Thangaraj *et al.*, 2014; Latif *et al.*, 2003). Interestingly, medicinal plant species has its own phytochemicals and nutritional composition that makes it effective and pharmacologically important for the various functions they perform but unfortunately a few number of these plants have been studied and known to have therapeutic value (Adamu, 2008). Bioactive ingredients in medicinal plants are biochemical in nature and they varied from carbohydrates, fats, proteins, fibers and moisture contents, thus they are essential for the physiological functions of human body. Their mode of administration varies from the form of extract, decoction and concoction to cure various diseases (Latif *et al.*, 2004). As at present a substantial number of drugs are developed from plants which are active against a number of ailments and disease conditions such as hypertension, pains, fever, cancer, diabetes, arthritis, gastrointestinal diseases and so on Harvey, (2008); Patel *et al.*, (2010). Also, Patwardhan *et al.*, (2004) reported that in the developed countries 25% of the synthetic drugs are based on plants and their derivatives because of the chemical compound found in plants and their subsequent modification.

However, it has been observed that the compound in many plants responsible for their therapeutic actions are yet to be well examined to justify and validate their traditional use in the study area. Therefore the validation of traditional importance of some selected plants such as *Azadiracta indica* (A.Juss), *Saraca indica* (Linn.), *Cymbopogon citratus* (DC. Stapf.), *Morinda lucida*, (Benth.), *Moringa oleifera* (Lam.), *Acacia senegalens* (Houtt.) and *Gossypium arboretum* (Jacq.) is imperatives.

Azadiractha indica: is locally known as Neem tree. It is a tree in the mahogany family of *Meliaceae*. It has one or two species in the genus of *Azadiractha*. It is native to India, Bangladesh, Thailand, Nepal and Pakistan. It is growing well in tropical and sub-tropical regions. The neem oil is isolated from its fruits and seeds (Akter *et al.*, 2013., Harbone, 1998). Neem is the most important medicinal plant that has been declared worldwide as the "Tree of the 21st century. Therapeutically, it is used to prepare formulated medicine for the treatment of a variety of human ailment such as cleaning of teeth with neem twigs. Drinking of its juice is considered as a good tonic to increase appetite and cure fever or to kill intestinal worms, its crude extracts from bark and leaves have been used in folk medicine to control diseases such as leprosy, intestinal problems, helminthiasis and respiratory system Yerima *et al.*, (2012). Besides these uses, there are several other reports on the biological and pharmacological actions such as antiviral, antibacterial, antifungal, anti-inflammatory, antipyretic, antiseptic etc.

Saraca asoka (family *Caesalpiniaceae*) also known as *Saraca asoka* is one of the most ancient sacred plants widely distributed throughout the Indian subcontinent Bhalerao *et al.*, 2014. Different parts of the plant exhibit a number of pharmacological effects like antihyperglycemic, antipyretic, antibacterial, anthelmintic, activity, and so forth (Kumar *et al.*, 2012; Sasmal *et al.*, 2012; Sarojini *et al.*, 2011; Suja *et al.*, 2012). A traditional drug Asoka Arishta used for the treatment of menorrhagia, helps in conception, ovarian-stimulant and strengthened uterine muscles in female reproductive problems is originated from *Saraca indica*. Secondary metabolites like flavonoids, terpenoid, lignin, phenolic compounds, tannins, and so forth are reported from *Saraca indica* stem bark extracts and found responsible for their therapeutic action Saha, *et al* 2013; Cibin *et al.*, 2012.

Cymbopogon citratus, commonly known as **West Indian lemon grass** or simply **lemon grass**. It is a tropical plant native to Island Southeast Asia and introduced to many tropical regions *Cymbopogon citratus* is often sold in stem form Gagan *et. al.*, (2011). Its fragrant leaves are traditionally used in cooking, particularly for *lechon* and roasted chicken (Carbajal *et al.*, (1989). The dried leaves can also be brewed into a tea, either alone or as a flavoring in other teas, imparting a flavor reminiscent of lemon juice but with a mild sweetness without significant sourness or tartness. The plant is also used as an antibacterial, antidiarrheal and antioxidant. Similarly, *Cymbopogon citratus* contains various phytoconstituents such as flavonoids and phenolic compounds, terpenoids and essential oils, which may be responsible for the different biological activities Melo *et al.*, 2001; Onawunmia *et al.*, 1984; Blanco et al 2009. Also, the Methanol, MeOH/water extracts, infusion and decoction of *Cymbopogon citratus* were shown to have free radical scavenging effects by measuring the bleaching of the 1, 1-diphenyl-2-picryl-hydrazyl (DPPH) radical, scavenging of the superoxide anion and inhibition of the enzyme xanthine oxidase and lipid peroxidation in human erythrocytes Gagan *et. al.*, (2011) Cheel *et. al.*, (2005).

Morinda lucida

Morinda is a genus of flowering plants in family, Rubiaceae. The generic name is derived from the Latin words *morus* "mulberry". All *Morinda* species bear aggregate or multiple fruits that can be fleshy (like *Morinda citrifolia*) or dry (Talukdar *et al.*, 2010). Most species of this genus originate in the area of Borneo, New Guinea, Northern Australia and New Caledonia (Wallnöfer, 2011). *Morinda lucida* has antimalarial, antibacterial and antioxidant properties. *Morinda lucida* is a nutrient factory and is readily available throughout the year in southwestern Nigeria. It is rich source of two powerful antioxidants, vitamins A and E which could be effective in combating degenerative diseases like atherosclerosis; vitamin K, different secondary metabolites responsible for the ethnomedicinal properties of the plant,- alkaloids, tannins, saponins, flavonoids, phenols. The plant is an excellent source of phytochemical constituent and nutritive components (Adeleye *et al.*, 2018).

Gossypium arboreum : ***Gossypium arboreum***, commonly called **tree cotton**, is a species of cotton native to India, Pakistan and other tropical and subtropical regions of the Old World. This species of cotton was also introduced into East Africa and was grown by the Meroe civilization in Nubia. The shrub was included in Linnaeus's *Species Plantarum* published in 1753. The holotype was also supplied by him, which is now in the Linnean Herbarium in the Swedish Museum of Natural History. It is a sister species of *Gossypium herbaceum*. *Gossypium arboreum* var. *neglecta*, locally known as "Phuti karpas", is the variant used to make Muslin in East India, now Bangladesh. It is widely used in African traditional medicine. The root is considered an emmenagogue and to cause uterine contractions and can be taken as an abortifacient. The juice of the root is used in the treatment of fever Wendel *et al.*, (2010).

Moringa oleifera: ***Moringa oleifera*** is a fast-growing, drought-resistant tree of the family Moringaceae, native to tropical and subtropical regions of South Asia. Common name is moringa, (Yoshida and Hatano, 2000; Kumar 2010). It is widely cultivated for its young seed pods and leaves used as vegetables and for traditional herbal medicine. It is also used for water purification. *M. oleifera* is considered to be an aggressive invasive species. *M. oleifera* is a fast-growing, deciduous tree that can reach a height of 10–12 m (32–40 ft) and trunk diameter of 45 cm (1.5 ft), (Yoshida and Hatano, 2000). The plant various parts such as leaves, roots, stem, bark, fruits, flowers acts as cardiac and circulatory stimulants, possess anti-inflammatory, antihypertensive and antioxidant Ghazanfar and Al-Al-Sabahi, 1993). The young leaves of *M. peregrina* are used traditionally in folk medicine as antioxidant and wound healing in Arab countries. The bark juice is also used as disinfectant (Marwah *et al.*, 2007) and

also to treat fever, headache, constipation, back and muscle pains, slimness, burns and labor pain (Tahany et al., 2010). The leaves are used for wound healing (Nawash and AlHorani, 2011).

Acacia senegalens (Houtt.): The characterization of the active compound that plays a role for treating human diseases (infection, cancer, etc.) represents a key step in phytochemical research of new compounds. *Acacia senegalens* is used in managing Respiratory infections, Flue, sinusitis, Toothaches, Different parts of the plant species are used dry or in liquid form after maceration or decoction for general treatment of bacterial, viral, parasitic infections or used to treat symptoms in gastroenterology, dermatology, hematology, rheumatology and inflammation Thoen and Thiam 19 Diallo et al.,2007; Maiga et al. 2005; Nacoulma and Millogo-Rasolodimby (1985); Tapsoba and Deschamps (2006).

MATERIALS AND METHOD

The study was carried out in Irun Akoko, Akoko North West Local Government Area Ondo State. The population of the study area was 180,621. Irun Akoko found between 7° 35'17" N latitude and 5° 40' 11" E longitude. The people of Irun Akoko are sub-ethnic group of the Yoruba involving majorly in subsistence agricultural practices. The region is humid having mild summer with average annual rainfall exceeds 1000 mm and mean annual temperature of about 18°C (Adnan *et al.*, 2006).

Collection of Plant Samples

Processing and sample preparation

The leaves of plants of *Azadiracta indica* (A.Juss), *Saraca indica* (Linn.), *Cymbopogon citratus* (DC. Stapf.), *Morinda lucida*, (Benth.), *Moringa oleifera* (Lam.), *Acacia senegalens* (Houtt.) and *Gossypium arboretum* (Jacq.) were collected from various farms located in the study area. The traditional importance of the plants were provided by the inhabitants of the study area and documented. The fresh and matured samples of the plants were scientifically authenticated at the herbarium units of the Plant Science and Biotechnology Department laboratory, Ekiti State University while the vouchers specimens were prepared and deposited at the Herbarium. The leaves of the plants samples collected were thoroughly washed with distilled water and shade-dried at room temperature for 3-4 weeks. The dried leaves were ground, blended to powdered form through the use of pestle and mortal and stored in airtight containers in preparation for the analyses of phytochemical and proximate constituents.

Extraction of plants Materials

A 100 g of the powdered plant material was carefully weighed and loaded into a soxhlet extractor. The powdered plant material was extracted separately with redistilled ethanolic solvent using soxhlet extraction and cold maceration method (Harbone, 1984). The extract was then concentrated in vacuo- using rotary evaporator at about 40°C and finally was subsequently subjected to air drying to give dried extracts for further analysis.

Phytochemical screening

Phytochemical screening procedures carried out were adopted from the previous work on plant analysis Odebiyi and Sofowora, 1999., Trease and Evans, 2002; A.O.A.C. (1980); Kumar 2010 This analysis provides information on the biologically activity and non- nutritive compounds that contribute to the flavor,

colour and other characteristics of plant parts. Examples of these are, Tannins, Glycosides, Phenolics, Steroids, Saponins by froth test; Alkaloids by legal's test, and Flavonoids by Shinoda test

Proximate analysis

The proximate analysis (carbohydrates, fats, proteins, moisture and ash) of the plant samples were determined by using AOAC methods. Carbohydrate was determined using [100 - (Protein +Fats +moisture +ash)]. The nitrogen value, which is the precursor for protein of a substance, was determined by micro Kjeldahl method. The nitrogen value was converted to protein by multiplying to a factor of 6.25. The moisture and ash were determined using weight difference method while determination of crude lipid content of the samples was done using Soxhlet type of the direct solvent extraction method. The solvent used were aqueous and methanol (boiling range 40 - 60°C). All the proximate values were reported in percentage (AOAC, 2000; Okwu *et al.*, 2004; Hussain *et al.*, 2009).

Statistical analysis

Data from the procedure were summarized using two-way ANOVA to analyze the results.

Ethical consideration:

This article followed all ethical standards for research without direct contact with human or animal subjects

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows that the seven studied plants belongs to six families. The plants were found used traditionally as antibacterial, antifungal, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antidiabetics, anticancer etc. The part used by all the plants were leaves and the collection of the leaves of the plants is effective and preferred to when other parts like stem bark and roots were used. Harvesting of leaves could not easily hindered the existence of the plants since leaves can regenerate as soon as possible when harvested.

Table 1. List of selected plants used traditionally to manage various diseases in the study area.

S/N	BOTANICAL NAME/AUTHORITY	FAMILY NAME	LOCAL NAME/COMMON NAME	PART USED	HABIT
1	<i>Azadiracta indica</i> (A.Juss).	Meliaceae	Ewe Dongoyaro/Neem leaves	Leaves	Tree
2	<i>Saraca asoka</i> (Linn.)	Fabaceae	Igi egungun/ Masquerade tree	Leaves	Tree
3	<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> (Stapf.)	Poaceae	Tealeaves/ Lemon tea	Leaves	Herb
4	<i>Morinda lucida</i> (Benth.),	Rubiaceae	Morinda	Leaves	Shrub
5	<i>Moringa oleifera</i> (Lam.)	Moringaceae	Ewe igbale/ Moringa	Leaves	Shrub
6	<i>Acacia senegalensis</i> (Houtt.)	Fabaceae	Ewe kasia/ Cassia leaves	Leaves	Tree
7	<i>Gossypium arboretum</i> (L)	Malvaceae	Tree cotton leaves/ Ewe Owu	Leaves	Tree

The Phytochemical screening of the aqueous extract of the seven tested plants revealed the presence of various phytochemical compound (Table 2). This results showed that the leaves of the plants were rich in alkaloids, flavonoids, tannins and saponins.

Table 2: Phytochemical screening of the aqueous extract of the plants species

Name of plants	Alkaloids	Saponins	Flavonoids	Phenols	Tannins	Glycosides
<i>Azadirachta indica</i>	++	+	++	+	+	+
<i>Saraca indica</i>	+	+	++	+	+	+
<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i>	+	++	++	+	+	+
<i>Morinda lucida</i>	++	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Moringa oleifera</i>	++	+	++	+	+	+
<i>Acacia senegalensis</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Gossypium arboerum</i>	++	+	+	+	++	+

Keys: + Sparingly present
++ Abundantly present

Nutritional composition

The plant samples contained a relatively percentage of carbohydrate, Fat, Ash, Protein, Crude fiber and Moisture contents at varying levels (Table 2). The results shows that there are no significance differences in the moisture contents present in *Morinda lucida* *Moringa oleifera*, *Cymbopogon citratus*, *Acacia senegalensis* and *Gossypium arboreum* respectively. *Morinda lucida* has the highest moisture contents of 13.12 ± 0.049^a , this is followed by *Moringa oleifera* with moisture content 13.12 ± 0.049^a while *Saraca indica* and *Cymbopogon citratus* are of least moisture content of 9.19 ± 0.516^f and 10.15 ± 0.113^c respectively. However, there are significant differences in the moisture contents found in *Azadirachta indica* (11.32 ± 0.126^c) and *Saraca indica* (9.19 ± 0.516^c). Also it was equally observed that *Acacia senegalensis* has the highest fat content of 6.17 ± 0.70^c , followed by *Moringa oleifera* (6.10 ± 0.28^a), *Morinda lucida* (5.11 ± 0.14^b), *Gossypium arboreum* (4.44 ± 0.12^c), *Cymbopogon citratus* (3.86 ± 0.49^d), *Saraca indica* (3.37 ± 0.12^c) and *Azadirachta indica* (2.84 ± 0.19^f) respectively. Also the ash contents of *Gossypium arboreum* was higher with 13.46 ± 0.08^a while *Saraca indica* have the least ash contents of 6.60 ± 0.03^e . However, there are no significance difference in *Morinda lucida* and *Acacia senegalensis* with fat contents of 9.07 ± 0.07^c and 7.58 ± 0.21^c respectively. The protein composition of the study plants, shows that *Moringa oleifera* has a significance difference with the highest protein contents of 7.81 ± 0.08^a over *Saraca indica* with the protein contents of 5.81 ± 0.06^b , while *Cymbopogon citratus* and *Azadirachta indica* are made up of the least protein contents of

3.64±0.05^f and 4.81±0.06^c respectively. There are significant differences between *Moringa oleifera* and *Saraca indica*. Also there are significant differences between *Cymbopogon citratus* 3.64±0.05^f and *Azadiracta indica* 4.81±0.06^c, There are no significant differences between *Acacia senegalensis*, *Gossypium arboreum* and *Azadiracta indica* with protein content 5.27±0.02, 4.87±0.07 and 4.81±0.06 respectively. The crude fibers contents in all the plant samples revealed that *Gossypium arboreum* has the highest crude fiber contents of 11.28±0.11^a, followed by *Moringa oleifera* with crude fiber contents of 10.23±0.16^b, while *Saraca indica* and *Cymbopogon citratus* are made up of the least crude fibers contents of 7.35±0.14^c and 8.32±0.03^d respectively. It was also observed from the table that the carbohydrate contents in *Cymbopogon citratus* shows higher carbohydrate contents of 66.87±0.16^f and it is significantly different from *Moringa oleifera* with the least carbohydrate contents of 52.97±0.23^d.

Table 3: Proximate composition of the selected plants in the study area

Name of the plants	Moisture content (%)	Fat (%)	Ash (%)	Protein (%)	Crude fiber (%)	Carbohydrate (%)
<i>Azadiracta indica</i>	11.32±0.126 ^d	2.84±0.19 ^f	8.26±0.06 ^d	4.81±0.06 ^c	9.10±0.03 ^c	63.69 ± 0.64 ^{bc}
<i>Saraca indica</i>	9.19±0.516 ^f	3.37±0.12 ^c	6.60±0.03 ^g	5.81±0.06 ^b	7.35±0.14 ^c	67.69 ± 0.11 ^c
<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i>	10.15±0.113 ^c	3.86±0.49 ^d	7.17±0.84 ^f	3.64±0.05 ^f	8.32±0.03 ^d	66.87 ± 0.16 ^f
<i>Morinda lucida</i>	13.42±0.049 ^a	5.11±0.14 ^b	9.07±0.07 ^c	5.12±0.04 ^d	10.09±0.42 ^b	60.21 ± 4.24 ^b
<i>Moringa oleifera</i>	13.12±0.049 ^a	6.10±0.28 ^a	9.78±0.02 ^b	7.81±0.08 ^a	10.23±0.16 ^b	52.97 ± 0.23 ^d
<i>Acacia senegalensis</i>	12.62±0.049 ^c	6.17±0.70 ^c	7.58±0.02 ^c	5.27±0.02 ^c	8.37±0.12 ^a	60.01 ± 0.28 ^c
<i>Gossypium arboreum</i>	12.72±0.049 ^c	4.44±0.12 ^c	13.46±0.08 ^a	4.87±0.07 ^c	11.28±0.11 ^a	53.25 ± 0.26 ^d

Means in the same column followed by the same letter(s) are not significantly different at $p \geq 0.05$

DISCUSSION

Extraction of the active ingredients

The plants were found used traditionally for their various medicinal values, therefore they could be a good source of medicine to protecting the body against outbreak of degenerating diseases (Iqbal and Hamayun, 2002). Water is an organic polar solvents, having higher polarity that is capable to extracts the bioactive component of the plants viz: *Azadiracta indica* (A.Juss), *Saraca indica* (Linn.), *Cymbopogon citratus* (DC. Stapf.), *Morinda lucida*, (Benth.), *Moringa oleifera* (Lam.), *Acacia senegalensis* (Houtt.) and *Gossypium arboreum* (Jacq.) Also, Water is electron donors and could react with free radicals to convert them to more stable products and terminated the radical chain reaction that usually cause degenerative diseases. The phytochemical screening of the plant extracts revealed the presence of various bioactive compounds in the medicinal plants and they were found contributed to the medicinal value as well as physiological activity of the users (Shirolkar *et al.*, (2013); Hhrma *et al.*, (2007); Sofowora, 1993). They were known to show

medicinal activity as well as exhibiting physiological activity (Sofowora, 1993). This therefore confirmed that the plants contain therapeutic substances which could be responsible to alleviate or manage various diseased conditions. Saponins from plants have long been employed for their detergent properties. It is used as mild detergents and in intracellular histochemistry staining to allow antibody access to intracellular proteins. In medicine, it is used in hypercholesterolaemia, hyperglycaemia, antioxidant, anti-cancer, anti-inflammatory and weight loss etc, (Ngbede *et al.*, 2008). Also, Seigler (1998) reported that saponins have anticarcinogens' properties, immune modulatory activity and cholesterol lowering activity. It is also been reported to have anti-fungal properties (Sodipo *et al.*, 1991). Some saponin glycosides are cardiotonics while others are contraceptives and precursors for other sex hormones (Trease and Evans 2002). Tannins are known to be common in Caesalpinoideae and known to exhibit antiviral, antibacterial and anti-tumor activities. It was also reported that certain tannins are able to inhibit HIV replication selectively and is also used as diuretic. Plant tannins are also source of commercial tannic acids and tanning agents (Trease and Evans 2002). Flavonoids and phenols have wide range of pharmacological effects including antioxidant, anti-inflammation, antiplatelet, anti-allergic, cytotoxicity and reduce risk of heart disease (Mohammad and Etham, 2013).

Proximate composition of the plants

The level of nutrients present in the plant samples determine their functions in the body and this varies from the provision of energy, to the building up of blood, cells, tissues and binding up and repairing of worn out tissues. The mean value of the carbohydrates of the leaves of all the plants are relatively high, though not as high as the value of carbohydrate (80%) in *B. falcatum* (Akter *et al.*, (2013) Latif *et al.*, 2003) but it is still preferred when compared with plant like *Croton tiglium* with the low yield of carbohydrates of 15.51% (Shah *et al.*, 2009). Therefore the plants could be used as sources of energy. The crude protein contents of all the studied plants are higher when compared to 1.98% as reported for *Securinea virosa* leaves and *G. hirsutum* (2.70 ± 0.01) and *M. charantia* (2.46 ± 0.03) respectively (Danlami *et al.*, 2012). However, crude protein is associated with amino acids. It is expected to be up to minimum of 12% of calorific value in the plants species. Protein is responsible for the building up of blood, antibodies and replacement of the worn out tissues (Ali, 2010).

Also, the moisture contents of the plants is very low when compared with some leafy vegetables consumed in Nigeria such as *Colosia argenta* (80%), *Amaranthus cruentus* (86%) and *Vernonia amygdalina* (37.67%) having high moisture contents Igile *et al.* 2013 and Mensal *et al.* 2008. This indicates that the plants have a long shelf life and are quite succulent. However, the moisture contents in all the plants have higher values than what was reported for *Gnetum africanum* (9.18%) and *Telfaria occidentalis* (8.64%) (Dike 2010; Bose 2007). The level of moisture content values in plants is responsible for the prevention of the plants from spoilage by microorganisms and for the optimum function of the cells of the body Hameed and Dastagir (2009). *Gossypium arboreum* has the highest fiber contents among all the plants. Nutritionally this is important as been reported by Bouba *et al.*, (2012), Kelsay, 1981, Le Veille and Sanberlich, 1966, Iheanacho and Ubebani (2009) because fiber aids absorption and digestion of trace element in the gut, it also responsible for the reduction of cholesterol in the body. Also, the crude fiber contents in the plants were within the range of the reported values (8.50-20.90%) for some Nigerian vegetables (Misurcova *et al.*, 2010; Ali, 2010). The crude fat contents of the plants were lower when compared with 15% in *Costus afer* and 11.00% in *Cedrela odorata* as reported by (Asekun *et al.* 2013; Tusharkumar, (2011)) but higher than the values obtained in spinach leaves, *Cnidioscolus acoitifolius* leaves and *Amaranthus hybridus* leaves respectively (Nwaogu *et al.* 2000). However the crude fat obtained from some of the present study plants are relatively close to the values of *Gossypium hissumum* 6.57 ± 0.04 and *Momordica charantia* 5.83 ± 0.01

respectively. The fat contents of the studied plants were low and it can be recommended as part of weight reducing diets. The low fat food reduces level of cholesterol and thereby reduces obesity and every degenerated disease related to fat intake.

The ash contents values of the leaves of the plants are lower compared to the ash contents reported for *G. hirsutum* (18.72%) and *M. charantia* (14.71%) respectively by Onwuka (2005). However the values are compared favorably with values of *Urera trinervis* (5.54%) and *Hippocratea myriantha* 6.14% respectively (Andzouana and Mombouli, 2012). The presence of ash contents is an indication of the level of minerals and organic matter present in the plant thereby justify the traditional importance of the plants.

CONCLUSION

This work validated the traditional importance of the plants as they are claimed used in managing various diseases. The phytochemical screening revealed the presence of active pharmacological compounds. The plants could be used to provide various vital body function such as body development, maintenance of fluid balance, formation of hormones, enzymes and sustaining strong immune function among others. Nutritionally, they compared favorably with most popularly consumed vegetables based on their moisture content, ash content, crude lipid, crude fibre, crude protein and carbohydrate. The result suggested that the plant leaves if consumed in sufficient amount could contribute greatly towards meeting human nutritional requirement for normal growth and adequate protection against diseases arising from malnutrition. However, further research is required to isolate, elucidate the active principles and advanced molecular and pharmaceutical linkage of the plants. Also, the mechanism of their antioxidant activity could be investigated for their potential applications in therapeutics.

References

1. Adamu Y; 2008, Survey of forest plants used for traditional treatment of tuberculosis. National diploma project, Federal college of forest mechanization, Afaka, Kaduna. Pp 39.
2. Adeleye OO; Ayeni OJ & Ajamu MA; 2018, Traditional and medicinal uses of *Morinda lucida* Journal of medicinal plant studies 6(2): 249-254
3. Andzouana & Mombouli.; 2012, Proximate, Mineral and Phytochemical Analysis of the leaves of *H. myriantha* and *Urera trinervis*, Pakistan journal of Biological Sciences 15(11):536-41. DOI:10.3923/pjbs.2012.536.541. PubMed.
4. Association of Official Analytical Chemists; 1980, Official method of Analysis 15th Edition, Washington D.C.
5. Akter R., Mahabub-Us-Zaman M. & Rahman M,S; 2013, Comparative studies on antidiabetic effects with phytochemical screening of *Azardracta indica* and *Andrographis paniculata*. IOSR journal of Pharmacy and Biological sciences. 5(2):122-128
6. Ali A; 2010, Comparison of proximate and mineral composition between *Asparagus officinalis* and *Momordica dioica*: Iranian and Indian vegetables. *Iranica Journal of Energy and Environment*. 1 (3): 196-199.
7. Arowosegbe, S. Olanipekun M. K. & Olowoyeye O.J; 2020, Influence of Location on the Phytochemical, Nutritional and Mineral Composition of the Leaves of *Moringa oleifera* (LAM) Grown in Ekiti State, *Bulletin of Pure and Applied Sciences*. Vol.39 B, No.1.: P.40-5
8. Rajendra, C.D. & Chandrakant SM; 2019, Natural product in Drug Discovery, Pharmacognosy Medicinal Plants, Shagufta Perveen and Areej Al-Taweel, IntechOpen.

9. Bhalerao, S. A, Verma D. R., Didwana, V. S & Teli, N. C; 2014, “Saraca asoca (Roxb.), de. Wild: an overview,” *Annals of Plant Sciences*, vol. 3, no. 7, pp. 770–775.
10. AOCS (American oil chemist society); 2000, Official methods of analysis 5th edition. Association of official analytical chemists Washington, DC, USA.
11. Bose, CK; 2007, Possible role of *Moringa oleifera* Lam. Root in epithelial ovarian cancer. *MedGenMed* 9:26.
12. Blanco, M.M; Costa, C.A; Freire A.O; Santo, J.G. & Costa, M; 2009, Neurobehavioral effect of essential oil of *Cymbopogon citratus* in mice. *Phytomedicine*. 16 (2-3): 265-70. Doi: 10.1016/j.phymed.2007.04.007.PMID 17561386
13. Bouba, A.A.; Njintang, N.Y.; Foyet, H.S.; Scher, J.; Montet, D.; & Mbofung, C.M.F; 2012, Proximate Composition, Mineral and Vitamin Content of Some Wild Plants Used as Spices in Cameroon. *Food Nutr. Sci.* 03, 423–432. [CrossRef]
14. Carbajal D, Casaco A, Arruzazabala L, Gonzalez R, & Tolon Z; 1989, Pharmacological study of *Cymbopogon citratus* leaves. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 1989;25:103–7. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
15. Cheel J, Theoduloz C, Rodriáquez J, & Hirschmann S.G, 2005, Free Radical Scavengers and Antioxidants from Lemongrass (*Cymbopogon citratus* Stapf) *J Agric Food Chem.*53:2511–7. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
16. Chellappandian M, Mutheeswaran S, Pandikumar P, Duraipandiyan V, & Ignacimuthu S; 2012, Quantitative ethnobotany of traditional *Siddha* medical practitioners from Radhapuram taluk of Tirunelveli District, Tamil Nadu, India *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* Vol.143. (2) Pg. 540-547
17. Cibin, T. R., Devi, D. G. & Abraham, A; 2012, “Chemoprevention of two-stage skin cancer in vivo by *Saraca asoca*,” *Integrative Cancer Therapies*, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 279–286.
18. Cibin, T. R. Devi. D. G, & Abraham, A; 2010, “Chemoprevention of skin cancer by the flavonoid fraction of *Saraca asoka*,” *Phytotherapy Research*, vol. 24, no. 5, pp. 666–672.
19. Danlami U.,Bwai M.D; & Sunday A.T; The phytochemical, Proximate and Elemental Analyses of *Securinega virosa* Leaf Extracts. *Research Journal in Engineering and Applied Sciences* 1(6) 351-354
20. Diallo D, Diakite C, & Mounkoro P, 2007. Knowledge of traditional healers on malaria in Kendi (Bandiagara) and Finkolo (Sikasso) in Mali. *Le Mali medical.* 22: 1-8. Ref.: <https://bit.ly/2TsQSa6>
21. Dike, M.C; 2010, Proximate and Nutrient Compositions of Some Fruits, Seeds and Leaves of Some Plant Species at Umudike, Nigeria. *ARPN-Journal of Agricultural and Biological Science*, 5, 7-16.
22. Gagan Shah, Richa Shri, Vivek Panchal, Narendra Sharma, Bharpur Singh, & A. S. Mann; 2011, Scientific Basis for the Therapeutic use of *Cymbopogon Citratus*, Stapf (Lemon Grass), *J Adv Pharm Technol Res.* Jan-Mar; 2(1): 3–8.
23. Ghazanfar, S. A., & Al-Al-Sabahi, A. M; 1993, Medicinal plants of Northern and Central Oman (Arabia). *Econ. Bot.* 47, 89–98. doi: 10.1007/BF0 2862209
24. Hameed, I. and Dastagir, G; 2009, Nutritional analyses of *Rumex hastatus* D. Don, *Rumex dentatus* Linn & *Rumex nepalensis* Spreng. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.* 8, 4131–4133.
25. Harbone F; 1984, *Phytochemical methods A modern technique in plants analysis* . 2nd edition. Chapman and Hall London 120pp, 1984

26. Hhrman TM, Barlow DJ, & Hylands PJ; 2007, Phytochemical databases of Chinese herbal constituents and bioactive plant compounds with known target specificities. *J. ChemInf Model*; 47:254-63
27. Hussain, K. A., Shahazad , S. Z., & Hussain; 2009, An ethanobotanical survey of important wild medicinal plants of Hattar District Haripur, Pakistan. *Ethanobotanical leaflets* 12: 29: pp35.
28. Harvey, AL; 2008, Natural products in drug discovery. *Drug Discov Today*. 13:89901
29. Iqbal I, & Hamayun M; 2002, Studies on the traditional uses of plants of Malam Jabba Valley, District Swat, Pakistan, Deptt. of Botany, SPS school and college, Swat, NWFP, Pakistan.
30. Iheanacho, K. & Ubebani, A. C; 2009, Nutritional composition of some leafy vegetable consumed in Imo-State, Nigeria. *J. Appl. Sci. Environ. Manage*, 13(3), 35-38,
31. Kelsay J. L; 1981, Effects of diet fibre on bowel function and trace mineral balances of human subjects. *Cereal Chem.*, pp: 2-5, 1981.
32. Kumar P, Debasis Mishra, Goutam Ghosh, Chandra S. & Panda; 2010, Medicinal uses and pharmacological properties of *Moringa oleifera*; *International Journal of Phytomedicine* 2 210-216
33. Kumar, S., Narwal, S., Kumar, D., Singh, G., & Arya, R; 2012, "Evaluation of antihyperglycemic and antioxidant activities of *Saraca asoca* (Roxb.) De Wild leaves in streptozotocin induced diabetic mice," *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Disease*, vol. 2, no. 3, pp. 170–176.
34. Latif A, Ahmad H, Begum S, Adnan M, Hussian S, & Waseem M; 2003, Medicinal and other economic plants as substitute to forest logging in Miandam and Sulatanr valleys, Swat. *Proceedings of international workshop on conservation and sustainable use of medicinal and aromatic plants in Pakistan*. WWF-Pak. 101-105.
35. Le Veille, G. & H. E. Sanberlich; 1966, Mechanism of the cholesterol-dressing effect of pectin in the cholesterol fed rat. *J. Nutr.*, pp: 209-214,
36. Maiga A, Diallo D, & Fane S; 2005, A survey of toxic plants on the market in the district of Bamako, Mali: traditional knowledge compared with a literature search of modern pharmacology and toxicology. *J Ethnopharmacol*. 96: 183-193. Ref.: <https://bit.ly/2TKqcjV>
37. Marwah, R. G., Fatope, M. O., Al Mahrooqi, R., Varma, G. B., Al Abadi, H., & Al-Burtamani, S. K. S; 2007, Antioxidant capacity of some edible and wound healing plants in Oman. *Food Chem*. 101, 465–470. doi: 10.1016/j.foodchem.2006.02.001
38. Melo SF, Soares SF, Costa DR, Silva DC, Oliveira DM, & Bezerra RJ; 2001, Effect of the *Cymbopogon citratus*, *Maytenus ilicifolia* and *Baccharis genistelloides* extracts against the stannous chloride oxidative damage in *Escherichia coli*. *Mutat Res.* ;496:33–8. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
39. Middelkoop T. B & Labadie R; 1985, "The action of *Saraca asoca* Roxb. de Wilde bark on the PGH2 synthetase enzyme complex of the sheep vesicular gland," *Zeitschrift fur Naturforschung*. Section C: Biosciences, vol. 40, no. 7-8, pp. 523–526, 1985.
40. Misurcova L, Kracmar S, Klejdus B & Vacek J; 2010, Nitrogen content, dietary fiber and digestibility of algal food products. *Czech J. Food Sc.* 28 (1): 27-35.
41. Mohammad A. & Etham K; 2013, Medicinal uses and chemistry of flavonoids contents of some edible tropical plants. *Journal of paramedical sciences*. 14 ;3 pp119-135, 2013.

42. Nacoulma O, & Millogo-Rasolodimby J; 1985, Les produits de la ruche et leurs utilisations au Burkina Faso. *Rev Med Pharm Afr.* 9: 759-767.
43. Nawash, S. O., & Al-Horani, S. A; 2011, The most important medicinal plants in Wadi Araba desert in South West Jordan: a review article. *Adv. Environ. Biol.* 5, 418–425.
44. Ngbede J., Yakubu, R. A. & d Nyam, D. A; 2008, Phytochemical Screening for Active Compounds in *Canarium scheinfurthii* (Atile) leaves from Jos North, Plateau State Nigeria. *Medwell Research Journal of Biological Science*, 3(9): 1076-1078.
45. Okwu DE, & Morah FN; 2004, Mineral and nutritive value of *Dennettia tripetala* fruits. *Fruits* 59(6): 437-442
46. Onawunmia GO, Yisak WA, & Ogunlana E.O. Antibacterial constituents in the essential oil of *Cymbopogon citratus* (DC.) Stapf. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 1984;12:279–86. [PubMed] [
47. Onwuka, G. I. (2005) , *Food Analysis and Instrumentation; Theory and Practice.* Naphthalic prints, Surulere, Lagos, Nigeria. 219-230,
48. Patel PN, Suthar M, Shah TG, & Patel L J; 2010, Anticancer activity of *Nigella sativa* seeds against HL-60, U-937 and HEK-293T cell line. *Pharm Expt.* 2010;1
49. Patwardhan B, Vaidya A.D, & Chorghade M; 2004, Ayurveda and natural product drug discovery. *Curr Sci.* 86:789-799
50. Shah MT, Begum S, & Khan S; 2009, Pedo and biogeochemical studies of mafic and ultramafic rocks in the Mingora and Kabal areas, Swat, Pakistan”. *Environmental Earth Sciences*, DOI: 10.1007/s12665-009- 0253-8.
51. Sarojini, N, Manjari, S. A & Kanti, C. C; 2011, “Phytochemical screening and anthelmintic activity study of *Saraca indica* leaves extracts,” *International Research Journal of Pharmacy*, vol. 2, no. 5, pp. 194–197.
52. Saha, J. Mukherjee, S, Gupta, K. & Gupta, B; 2013, “High-performance thin-layer chromatographic analysis of antioxidants present in different parts of *Saraca asoca* (Roxb.) de Wilde,” *Journal of Pharmacy Research*, vol. 7, no. 9, pp. 798–803, 2013.
53. Sasmal, S Majumdar, S. Gupta, M. Mukherjee, A & Mukherjee, P. K; 2012, “Pharmacognostical, phytochemical and pharmacological evaluation for the antipyretic effect of the seeds of *Saraca asoca* Roxb,” *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, vol. 2, no. 10, pp. 782–786, 2012.
54. Shirolkar, A., Gahlaut, A., Chhillar., A. K & Dabur, R (2013) “Quantitative analysis of catechins in *Saraca asoca* and correlation with antimicrobial activity,” *Journal of Pharmaceutical Analysis*, vol. 3, no. 6, pp. 421–428
55. Sodipo, O. A., Awanji, M. A., Kolawole, F. B. & Oduntuga, A. A; 1991, Saponin is the active fungal principle in *Garcinia kola*, Hekle seed. *BioSci.Res.Comm.*, 3:171
56. Sofowora I. A; 1993, *Medicinal plants and traditional medicine in Africa.* Spectrum Books Ltd Ibadan. pp 55-71.
57. Suja, M. Rajan, S, Thiyagarajan Thirunalasundari, B. J. & Thenmozhi, S; 2012, “Pharmacognostical and phytochemical studies of an Ayurvedic drug *Saraca asoca* stem bark,” *Journal of Pharmacy Research*, vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 1119–1121.
58. Tahany, M. A., Hegazy, A. K., Sayed, A. M., Kabiell, H. F., El-Alfy, T., & El-Komy, S. M; 2010, Study on combined antimicrobial activity of some biologically active constituents from wild *Moringa peregrina* Forssk. *J. Yeast Fungal Res.* 1, 15–24.

59. Tapsoba H, & Deschamps JP; 2006, Use of medicinal plants for the treatment of oral diseases in Burkina Faso. *J ethnopharmacol.* 104: 68-78. Ref.: <https://bit.ly/2TsN1tS> 34. Aké-Assi YA. 1992. Contribution au recensement des espèces végétales utili
60. Thangaraj F.X., Moorthy.K., Leyone L.A., Auxillia A.K. & Freeda R.; 2014, Ethnobotanical study of Kani tribes in Thoduhills of Kerala, South India, Vol. 152 (1), Pg. 78-90
61. Thoen D & Thiam A; 1990, Utilisations des plantes ligneuses et sub-ligneuses par les populations de la region Sahelienne du lac de Guiers (Senegal). *Bull Med TradPharm.* 4: 169- 178.
62. Trease, G. & Evans; 1993, A medicinal plants and Traditional medicines in Africa 2nd Edition, Spectrums Books pp 35-35,
63. Tusharkumar, D., 2011, Chemical investigation of phenolic constituents of two important medicinal plants Terminalia chebula and Saraca asoca [Ph.D. thesis], Shri Jagdishprasad Jhabarmal Tibarewala University.
64. Wendel JF, Brubaker CL, & Seelanan T; 2010, The origin and evolution of Gossypium . In: Stewart JM et al., editors. *Physiology of cotton.* The Netherlands: Springer; 2010. p. 1–18.
65. World Health Organisation; 2001, Antimalarial drug combination therapy: report of a WHO technical consultation, April 4-5 Geneva. WHO/CDS/RBM/2001. 35.
66. Yerima M.B., Jodi S.M., Oyinbo K., Maishanu H.M ., Farouq A.A., & Junaidu A.U; 2012, Effects of neem extract (*Azardirecta indica*) on bacterial isolated from adult mouth. *Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences;* 20:64-67

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to those who contributed immensely to the success of this study. They appreciate the effort of the curator of the Department of Plant Science and Biotechnology Herbarium unit for plants authentication and assignment of voucher number.

Competing interests

The authors have declared that no competing interest exists.

Authors' contributions

M.K Olanipekun designed the study, carried out all laboratory experiments and wrote the manuscript. K, Akirun carry out the laboratory experiment while J.A Amoo collected the plant samples. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding information

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial or not-for-profit sectors. Data availability statement Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analysed in this study.

Disclaimer

The views and opinions expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the official policy or position of any affiliated agency of the authors.