

1 **Antioxidant potential of medicinal plants used against liver diseases in**
2 **Bengassou, Bocanda department (Central-Eastern, Côte d'Ivoire)**

3
4 **Abstract**

5 Hepatitis, which causes acute liver infections, is a global health problem, especially viral
6 hepatitis B and C, which are major causes of serious morbidity and death. In Côte d'Ivoire,
7 viral hepatitis (78%) is the leading cause of chronic liver disease. Late diagnosis of this
8 condition forces most patients, who are generally poor, to turn to medicinal plants, given the
9 high cost of treatments offered by traditional medicine. Hence the need to evaluate their
10 hepatoprotective potential. To contribute to this, this study focused on the phytochemical
11 composition and antioxidant properties of several medicinal plants used to treat liver disease
12 in Bengassou. Oxidative stress, a state of imbalance between the generation and elimination
13 of free radicals in the body, is considered a major factor in the pathogenesis of liver disease.
14 This study aims to identify the major groups of phytochemicals in hydroethanolic extracts
15 from these plants via colorimetric tests, and to evaluate their antioxidant properties using
16 DPPH radical scavenging and Folin-Ciocalteu assays. Polyphenols, flavonoids, sterols and
17 polyterpenes were found in most of the species studied. Three of them, namely the leaves of
18 *Uncaria africana* (TPC = $1,99 \pm 0,02$ mg GAE/g DM; CR₅₀ = $0,109 \cdot 10^{-4}$ mg/ml),
19 *Entandrophragma angolense* (TPC = $2,58 \pm 0,04$ mg GAE/g DM; CR₅₀ = 0,0026 mg/ml) and
20 *Vismia guineensis* (TPC = $1,79 \pm 0,01$ mg GAE/g DM; CR₅₀ = 0,0334 mg/ml) exhibited the
21 best antioxidant profiles. These species represent promising candidates for the development of
22 Improved Traditional Medicines (ITM) against hepatitis.

23 **Keywords:** medicinal plants, liver diseases, phytochemicals, antioxidant properties,
24 Bengassou

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26
27 **Introduction**

28 Medicinal plants have been used since ancient times and long constituted the primary
29 therapeutic resource, grounded in empirical knowledge (Catier and Roux, 2007). Their use
30 has expanded considerably worldwide (Kouamé & Koné, 2017), particularly in developing
31 countries where access to conventional medicine remains limited (WHO, 2012). In West
32 Africa, nearly 80% of the population relies on medicinal plants for primary healthcare
33 (WHO, 2002). This reliance persists, especially in rural communities, where traditional
34 remedies are often perceived as more accessible and culturally appropriate (Marshall, 1998).

35 In Côte d'Ivoire, disparities in access to primary, secondary, and specialized healthcare
36 services continue to pose a significant public health challenge (Goba, 2012). As highlighted
37 by WHO/UNICEF (2005), medicinal plants represent the backbone of primary healthcare for
38 a large proportion of the population due to their geographical availability, affordability, and
39 cultural acceptance. The first volume of the Ivorian Pharmacopoeia, published in 2018,
40 consolidates extensive ethnobotanical knowledge documented by several authors
41 (Adjanohoun&AkéAssi, 1979, 2011; Bouquet &Debray, 1974; Vangah-N'Guessan, 1995;
42 Téré, 2000; Zirihi, 2006; Malan, 2008; Tra Bi et al., 2008; Koné et al., 2012; N'Guessan
43 et al., 2015; Orsot et al., 2016). Among the recorded species, several are traditionally
44 employed in the management of liver disorders.

45 The liver plays a central role in maintaining metabolic homeostasis through its
46 involvement in carbohydrate and lipid metabolism, bile synthesis, and vitamin storage
47 (Ahsan et al., 2009). Its dysfunction can therefore result in severe pathological conditions,
48 making liver diseases a major global health concern (Asha et al., 1998; Adewusi et al.,
49 2010).

50 In Côte d'Ivoire, despite ongoing efforts to curb hepatitis through awareness and early
51 screening initiatives, effective treatment remains constrained by the high costs associated with
52 modern medical care. This economic barrier encourages patients to seek alternative therapies
53 based on medicinal plants (Pourette et al., 2014; Anzouan et al., 2022). Experimental
54 evidence increasingly supports the hepatoprotective potential of several plant species
55 (Akharaiyi et al., 2005; Sourabié et al., 2012; Mallik et al., 2014; Jaiswal et al., 2015;
56 Adesiyun, 2018). Bioactive compounds such as alkaloids, flavonoids, lignans, saponins, and
57 terpenoids have attracted significant scientific interest for their hepatoprotective properties
58 (Domitrović&Potočnjak, 2016; Zhou et al., 2021). Through their antioxidant activity, these
59 phytochemicals may enhance hepatic defense mechanisms and mitigate the progression of
60 liver damage. This is particularly relevant as hepatitis is closely associated with oxidative
61 stress resulting from an imbalance between pro-oxidant and antioxidant systems (Rambaldi
62 et al., 2005; Li et al., 2015).

63 The present study aims to promote the rational use of medicinal plants in the management of
64 liver diseases in Bengassou, a hamlet located in the Bocanda department (central-eastern Côte
65 d'Ivoire), recognized for its rich ethnomedicinal heritage in treating hepatic disorders (Siallou
66 et al., 2024). Specifically, this study seeks to identify major phytochemical groups using
67 colorimetric screening and to assess their antioxidant potential through DPPH (2,2-diphenyl-
68 1-picrylhydrazyl) radical scavenging activity and the Folin–Ciocalteu assay.

69 **Materials and methods**

70 **Plant selection**

71 The plants were selected following an ethnomedicinal survey conducted by **Siallouet al.**
72 **(2024)** in Bengassou. The subsequent literature review, based on the lack of information
73 relating to hepatoprotective properties, led to the selection of 13 medicinal plants (**Table I**).

74 The organs of these plants were harvested in July 2018, dried in a ventilated room at
75 room temperature, then crushed in a mortar and blender to obtain fine powders. These
76 powders were stored in Kraft paper at room temperature.

77 **Table I.** Medicinal plants used to treat liver diseases that have been identified and
78 selected

Plant extracts	Family	Part used
<i>Albizia adianthifolia</i> (Schumach)W. Wight	Fabaceae	Bark
<i>Aframamumalboviolaceum</i> (Ridl.) K.Schum.	Zingiberaceae	Leaves
<i>Anthocleistanobilis</i> G. Don	Gentianaceae	Leaves, Bark
<i>Bombax buonopozense</i> P.Beauv.	Malvaceae	Leaves
<i>Diospyrosmonbuttensis</i> Gürke	Ebenaceae	Leaves
<i>Entandrophragmaangolense</i> (Welw.) C.DC.	Meliaceae	Leaves, Bark
<i>Ficus sur</i> Forssk.	Moraceae	Leaves
<i>Griffoniasimplicifolia</i> (DC.) Baill.	Fabaceae	Leaves
<i>Leonotis nepetefolia</i> (L.) R. Br.	Lamiaceae	Leaves
<i>Oxyanthusunilocularis</i> Hiern	Rubiaceae	Leaves, Bark
<i>Trichiliaprieureana</i> A. Juss.	Meliaceae	Leaves
<i>Uncariaafricana</i> G. Don	Rubiaceae	Leaves
<i>Vismiaaguineensis</i> (L.) Choisy	Hypericaceae	Leaves

79

80 **Preparation of extracts**

81 Fifteen (15) g of powder from each part of the plant were macerated in 100 ml of an
82 ethanol-water mixture (80:20). This maceration was repeated three times, renewing the
83 solvent every 24 hours. The hydroalcoholic macerates were combined, filtered and then
84 evaporated under reduced pressure using a rotary evaporator until a dry hydroalcoholic
85 residue was obtained. Aliquots of the selective extracts obtained were used to perform
86 phytochemical screening and antioxidant profiling.

87 **Phytochemical screening**

88 **Polyphenol detection**

89 Polyphenols were detected using the ferric chloride reaction. A drop of 2% ferric
90 chloride aqueous solution was added to 2 ml of each solution. The presence of polyphenols is

91 indicated by the appearance of a blue-black or green colouration of varying intensity
92 (N'Guessan *et al.*, 2009). If a positive reaction is obtained, coumarins, flavonoids and tannins
93 are sought.

94 **Detection of flavonoids**

95 In a test tube, a few drops of concentrated hydrochloric acid and 2 to 3 magnesium
96 chips were added to 2 ml of the extract. A pink-orange or purplish colour indicates the
97 presence of flavonoids (Auwal *et al.*, 2014).

98 **Detection of coumarins**

99 Coumarins were identified using the lactone ring test. Two (2) millilitres of each
100 solution were examined under UV light at 366 nm. The appearance of blue fluorescence
101 indicates the presence of coumarins. A confirmation test is performed with soda. To do this, 1
102 g of plant powder is placed in a test tube with a few drops of distilled water. The tube is
103 covered with filter paper soaked in 10% soda (NaOH) and brought to the boil. The paper is
104 removed and examined under UV light at 366 nm. Any yellow fluorescence indicates the
105 presence of coumarins (Auwal *et al.*, 2014).

106 **Detection of tannins**

107 Five (5 ml) of Stiasny's reagent (30% CH₂O in concentrated HCl 2/1(v/v)) was added
108 to an aliquot of the extract taken in methanol and then evaporated. The formation of flakes
109 after cooling indicates a positive reaction. The solution is then filtered and saturated with
110 sodium nitrate (NaNO₃). A few drops of 2% FeCl₃ (m/v) are added to this mixture. The
111 appearance of a blue, blue-black or black colour indicates the presence of gallic tannins, while
112 a green or dark green colour indicates the presence of catechinic tannins (Karumi *et al.*,
113 2004).

114 **Detection of alkaloids**

115 Alkaloids were detected using Dragendorff's reagent (iodine and bismuth). Six (6) ml of
116 solution were evaporated and the residue was taken up with 6 ml of ethanol. Then, 3 drops of
117 Dragendorff's reagent were added to the tube. The formation of an orange precipitate indicates
118 the presence of alkaloids (Auwal *et al.*, 2014).

119 **Detection of sterols and polyterpenes**

120 An aliquot amount of hydroethanolic crude extract from each plant sample is dissolved
121 hot in 1 ml of acetic anhydride (CH₃CO₃CH₃) in a test tube. Next, 0.5 ml of concentrated

122 sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄) is slowly poured down the side of the test tube. The appearance of a
123 purple colour turning blue and then green indicates a positive reaction (Békro *et al.*, 2007).

124 **Evaluation of antioxidant properties**

125 **Total Phenolic Content (TPC)**

126 The total phenolic content (TPC) was determined using the Folin-Ciocalteu method,
127 adapted from Singleton & Rossi (1965). Briefly, 0,005 g of each hydroethanolic crude extract
128 was dissolved in 10 mL of distilled water. 1 mL aliquot of this solution (diluted 1/10) was
129 mixed with 1,5 mL of a Na₂CO₃ solution (17% w/v) and 0,5 mL of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent
130 (0,5 N). The mixture was incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes. Absorbance was then measured at
131 760 nm against a blank (containing no extract).

132 Quantification was performed using a linear calibration curve ($y = ax + b$) generated
133 from gallic acid standards at various concentrations under identical conditions. The TPC
134 expressed in micrograms of gallic acid equivalent per gram of dry matter ($\mu\text{g GAE/g DM}$),
135 was calculated using the following formula:

136

$$Q(\mu\text{g GAE/g DM}) = \frac{V \times C \times d}{m}$$

137

138 Q: Total phenolic content ($\mu\text{g GAE/g DM}$);

139 V: Total volume of the extraction solvent (mL);

140 C: Concentration of gallic acid established from the calibration curve ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)

141 d: Dilution factor;

142 m: Mass of the extract used (g).

143 **DPPH radical reduction assay**

144 The radical scavenging activity was determined using the DPPH (2,2-diphenyl-1-
145 picrylhydrazyl) assay, following the method described by Blois (1958) with slight
146 modification. Briefly, 0.03 g of each crude hydroethanolic extract was dissolved in 10 mL of
147 rectified ethanol (96%). A series of extract solutions was prepared at various concentrations
148 (1; 0,5; 0,25; 0,125, 0,061, 0,042; 0,031; 0,016; 0,008; 0,004 mg/mL). A 0,03 mg/mL DPPH
149 radical solution was also prepared in the same solvent.

150 For the assay, 1 mL of each extract dilution was mixed with 2 mL of the DPPH
151 solution. The mixtures were incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes in the dark. Absorbance was
152 measured at 517 nm using a spectrophotometer.

153 The following controls were used:
154 Reaction mixture: 1 mL of extract solution + 2 mL of DPPH solution;
155 Control: 1 mL of ethanol (96%) + 2 mL of DPPH solution;
156 Blank: 3 mL of ethanol (96%).

157 The following equation was used to calculate the DPPH radical reduction percentage
158 induced by the extracts (RP):

$$RP (\%) = \left(1 - \frac{A_{extract}}{A_{control}}\right) \times 100$$

160
161 $A_{extract}$ and $A_{control}$ are the absorbance values of the sample and the control, respectively.

162 The CR₅₀ value, defined as the extract concentration required to reduce 50% of DPPH
163 radicals, was determined from the linear regression curve of RP(%) versus extract
164 concentration. When the 50% reduction level was not experimentally achieved, the CR₅₀ was
165 estimated by interpolation of the values surrounding the 50% reduction threshold.

166 Antioxidant capacity is inversely proportional to the CR₅₀ value. Thus, a higher
167 CR₅₀ indicates lower antioxidant capacity, and vice versa (Tanoh et al., 2019).

168 **Statistical analyses**

169 The averages of the amounts of the different compounds were calculated using Excel
170 software and were subjected to a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using GraphPad
171 Prism 5 software. When a difference is observed for each characteristic ($p < 0.05$), the
172 variance is completed by comparing the means using Tukey's multiple comparison test at a
173 threshold of 0.05.

174 **Results**

175 **Phytochemicals detected**

176 Phytochemical screening of the 16 hydroethanolic extracts obtained from the leaves and
177 bark of the 13 plants showed that all these extracts have total polyphenols, flavonoids, sterols,
178 and polyterpenes in common, except the bark of *Anthocleista nobilis*. Coumarins were present
179 in the hydroethanolic extracts of the leaves and bark of *Entandrophragma angolense*, the
180 leaves of *Trichilia prieureana*, *Uncaria africana*, *Vismia guineensis*, *Bombax buonopozense*,
181 and *Diospyros monbuttensis*. Condensed tannins were present in virtually all hydroethanolic
182 extracts, except for the leaves of *Entandrophragma angolense* and *Ficus sur*, which contain

183 hydrolyzable tannins, and *Albizia adianthifolia*, which contains neither. Alkaloids, on the
 184 other hand, were not present in any of the extracts (**Table II**). These results show a diversity
 185 of chemical compound groups in the hydroethanolic extracts of the leaves and bark of the
 186 plants studied.

187 **Table II.** Chemical compounds in hydroethanolic extracts from the leaves and bark of plants
 188 used to treat hepatitis in Bengassou

Plant extracts	Organs	Poly	Flav	Cou	Ster/ Polyt	TC	TH	Alc
<i>Albizia adianthifolia</i>	Bark	+	+	-	+	-	-	-
<i>Aframum alboviolaceum</i>	Leaves	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
<i>Anthocleistanobilis</i>	Bark	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
	Leaves	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
<i>Bombax buonopozense</i>	Leaves	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
<i>Diospyros monbutensis</i>	Leaves	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
<i>Entandrophragma angolense</i>	Bark	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
	Leaves	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
<i>Ficus sur</i>	Leaves	+	+	-	+	-	+	-
<i>Griffonia simplicifolia</i>	Leaves	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
<i>Leonotis nepetifolia</i>	Leaves	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
<i>Oxyanthus unilocularis</i>	Leaves	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
	Bark	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
<i>Trichilia prieureana</i>	Leaves	+	+	++	+	+	-	-
<i>Uncaria africana</i>	Leaves	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
<i>Vismia guineensis</i>	Leaves	+	+	+	+	+	-	-

189 Poly. Polyphenols; Flav. Flavonoids; Cou. Coumarins; TC. Condensed tannins; TH.
 190 Hydrolyzable tannins; Alc. Alkaloids; Ster/Polyt. Sterols and polyterpenes

191

192

193 **Total phenolic compound content**

194 The results obtained are shown in **Table III**. These results show that the phenolic
 195 compound content (TPC) varied among the organs of the same plant. The highest TPC was
 196 found in hydroethanolic extracts of bark (2.58 ± 0.04 mgEAG/g DM) and leaves (2.42 ± 0.08
 197 mgEAG/g DM) of *Entandrophragma angolense*, followed respectively by the leaves of
 198 *Trichilia prieureana* (2.01 ± 0.06 mgEAG/g DM), *Uncaria africana* (1.99 ± 0.02 mgEAG/g DM)
 199 and *Vismia guineensis* (1.79 ± 0.01 mgEAG/g DM).

200 **Table III.** Total phenolic compound content of hydroethanolic extracts

Plant species	Organs	Polyphenols \pm ET (mg EAG/g DM)
<i>Aframamumalboviolaceum</i>	Leaves	0,39 \pm 0,02 ^{ef}
<i>Albizia adianthifolia</i>	Bark	0,43 \pm 0,06 ^c
<i>Anthocleistanobilis</i>	Bark	0,72 \pm 0,05 ^d
	Leaves	0,22 \pm 0,01 ^{efg}
<i>Bombax buonopozense</i>	Leaves	1,25 \pm 0,05 ^c
<i>Diospyrosmonbuttensis</i>	Leaves	0,36 \pm 0,02 ^{ef}
	Bark	2,58 \pm 0,04 ^a
<i>Entandrophragmaangolense</i>	Leaves	2,42 \pm 0,08 ^a
	Bark	0,03 \pm 0,01 ^g
<i>Ficus sur</i>	Leaves	0,03 \pm 0,01 ^g
<i>Griffoniasimplicifolia</i>	Leaves	0,36 \pm 0,01 ^{ef}
<i>Leonotisnepetifolia</i>	Leaves	0,30 \pm 0,01 ^{ef}
<i>Oxyanthusunilocularis</i>	Leaves	0,23 \pm 0,03 ^{efg}
	Bark	0,08 \pm 0,01 ^g
<i>Trichiliaprieureana</i>	Leaves	2,01 \pm 0,06 ^b
<i>Uncariaafricana</i>	Leaves	1,99 \pm 0,02 ^b
<i>Vismiaguineensis</i>	Leaves	1,79 \pm 0,01 ^b
Statisticalparameters	DI	15
	F	485,335
	P	<0,001

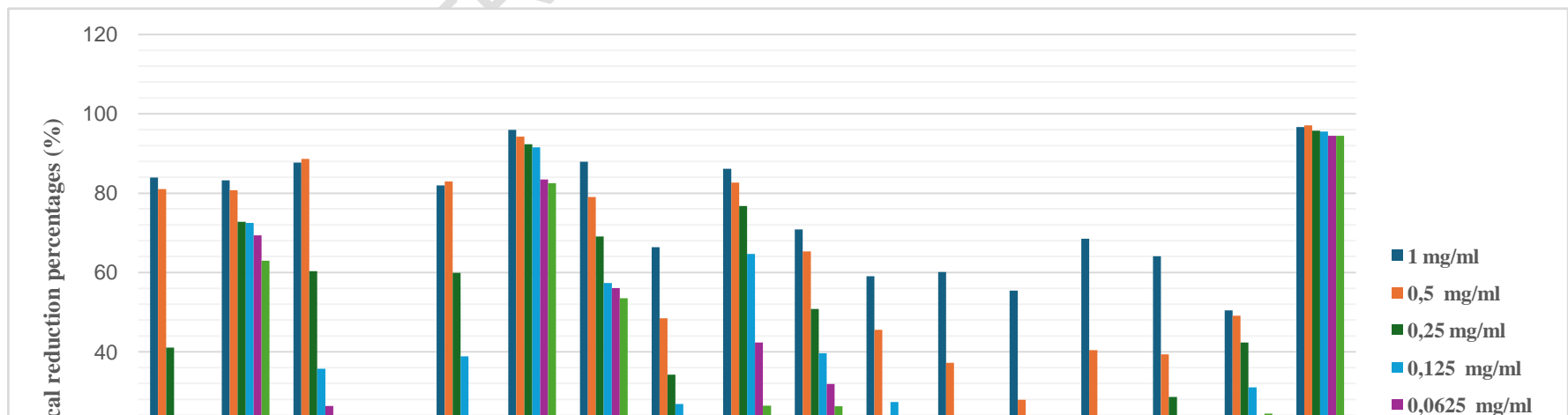
201 **SD.** Standard deviation; **GAE.** Gallicacidequivalent; **df.** Degrees of freedom; **F.** Statistical test value;
202 **P.** Probability; **DM.** Dry matter. Values with the same letters are not significantly different.

203 Radical scavenging activity

204 For each extract, the RPs are shown in **Figure 1**. These results show that RPs increased
205 with the concentration of the plant extract. In addition, the hydroethanolic extracts of the
206 leaves of *Vismiaguineensis*, *Uncariaafricana* and *Entandrophragmaangolense*, with RPs
207 between 50 and 95%, appear to have the highest anti-radical properties of all the plant extracts
208 studied. The EC₅₀ are shown in **Table IV**. The hydroethanolic extract of *U. africana* leaves
209 (EC₅₀ = 0.109 10⁻⁴ mg/ml) had the greatest DPPH radical reduction capacity. It is followed by
210 the hydroethanolic extracts of the leaves of *E. angolense* (EC₅₀ = 0.0026 mg/ml) and *V.*
211 *guineensis* (EC₅₀ = 0.0334 mg/ml).
212 (0,0026 mg/mL), which shows an activity nearly identical to Vitamin C, and *V. guineensis*
213 (0,0334mg/mL). These findings confirm that among all studied samples, the leaves of *U.*
214 *africana*, *E. angolense*, and *V. guineensis* possess the most potent antioxidant properties.

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Figure 1. Histogram of the DPPH radical reduction percentages (RP) of the hydroethanolic extracts at different concentrations



Entanec. *Entandrophragma angolense* écorces ;**Entanfe.** *E. angolense* feuilles ;**Antnobec.** *Anthocleista nobilis* écorces ;**Antnofe.** *A. nobilis* feuilles ;**Trichprife.** *Trichilia prieureana* feuilles ;**Unafri.** *Uncaria africana* ;**Visgui.** *Vismia guineensis* ;**Oxyunif.** *Oxyanthus unilocularis* feuilles ;**Bombuo.** *Bombax buonopozense* ; **Grisim.** *Griffonia simplicifolia* ; **Leonep.** *Leonotis nepetifolia* ;**Afralb.** *Aframamum alboviolaceum* ;**Oxyuniec.** *O.*

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Table IV. Reducing concentrations (EC₅₀) of crudehydroethanolicextracts

Plant extracts	Organs	EC ₅₀ (mg/ml)
Vitamine C		0,002456
<i>Aframamumalboviolaceum</i>	Leaves	0,805
<i>Albizia adianthifolia</i>	Leaves	0,716
<i>Anthocleistanobilis</i>	Bark	0,159
	Leaves	>1
<i>Bombax buonopozense</i>	Leaves	0,0842
<i>Diospyrosmonbuttensis</i>	Leaves	0,717
<i>Entandrophragmaangolense</i>	Bark	0,287
	Leaves	0,0026
<i>Ficus sur</i>	Leaves	0,683
<i>Griffoniasimplicifolia</i>	Leaves	0,212
<i>Leonotisnepetifolia</i>	Leaves	0,582
<i>Oxyanthusunilocularis</i>	Leaves	0,495
	Bark	0,854
<i>Trichiliaprieureana</i>	Leaves	0,175
<i>Uncariaafricana</i>	Leaves	0,109 10 ⁻⁴
<i>Vismiaguineensis</i>	Leaves	0,0334

Discussion

Phytochemical screening revealed a diversity of chemical compound groups in the 16 hydroethanolic extracts studied. Polyphenols and flavonoids, tannins (except the bark of *Albizia adiantifolia*), sterols, and polyterpenes (except in the bark of *Anthocleista nobilis*) are present in all extracts.

Coumarins were present in the hydroethanolic extracts of the leaves and bark of *Entandrophragmaangolense*, the leaves of *Trichiliaprieureana*, *Uncariaafricana*, *Vismiaguineensis*, *Bombax buonopozense* and *Diospyros monbuttensis*. Alkaloids are absent in all the extracts studied. The presence of this group of secondary metabolites was reported by several authors. This is the case of **Sieniawska et al. (2022)** and **Akoto et al. (2020)**, who detected alkaloids in the methanolic extracts of *Ficus sur* bark and *Griffoniasimplicifolia* leaves, respectively.

Similarly, **Sima Obiang et al. (2015)** reported the presence of the above-mentioned compounds in the hydroethanolic extract of *A. nobilis* bark, while **Kangbéto et al. (2022)** found these phytochemicals in the ethanolic extract of *T.prieureana* leaves. However, alkaloids absent in all the extracts studied were identified by **Kangbéto et al. (2022)** in the ethanolic extract of *T. prieureana* leaves, by **Iroka et al. (2014)** in the aqueous and ethanolic

extracts of *B. Buonopozense* bark, and by **Lagouet *al.*(2016)** in the ethanolic extract of *E. angolense* bark. These contradictory results could be explained, on the one hand, by the solubility of any alkaloids in aqueous or organic solvents and, on the other hand, by the polarity of the extraction solvents. Indeed, due to their extremely complex and varied chemical structures, the solubility of alkaloids and their respective salts can vary considerably depending on the polarity of the extraction solvents (**Kumar, 2014**) and the pH of the reaction medium. Furthermore, a positive test for alkaloids may be due to the presence of other nitrogenous constituents in the plant, such as purines, proteins, betaines, and ammonium salts (**Kumar, 2014**). Conversely, the presence of flavonoids in all hydroethanolic extracts compared to other secondary metabolites is evidence of the widespread distribution of flavonoids in the plant kingdom, as reported by **Macheixet *al.* (2005)**. In addition to flavonoids and tannins, coumarins observed in hydroethanolic extracts from the bark and leaves of *E. angolense*, and the leaves of *T. priureana*, *U. africana*, *V. guineensis*, and *B. buonopozense* are reported to be responsible for the high total phenol content of these extracts compared to other plant extracts. Phenolic compounds are the most important group of phytochemicals in plants. They are divided into ten chemical classes characterized by the presence of a benzoic nucleus to which one or more hydroxyl groups are directly linked (**Macheixet *al.*, 2005; Stalikas, 2007**).

The evaluation of antioxidant properties showed that, of all the extracts studied, the leaves of *U. africana*, *E. angolense*, and *V. guineensis* exhibited the best antioxidant properties (higher RP with low EC₅₀).

The strong antioxidant activity attributed to the hydroethanolic extracts of the leaves of *U. africana*, *E. angolense* and *V. guineensis* can be explained by the high quantity of phenolic compounds contained in these plant organs. The presence of sterols and polyterpenes detected in these plants could also explain this activity. Terpenoids (monoterpenes and carotenoids) have strong antioxidant properties (**Gutiérrez-Del-Río *et al.*, 2021**). The antioxidant activity of certain plants, notably *B. buonopozense*, *G. simplicifolia*, *A. nobilis*, *A. adianthifolia* and *E. angolense*, has been reported in the literature (**Ngwokeet *al.*, 2015; Sonibareet *al.*, 2017; Akoto *et al.*, 2020; Tilaouiet *al.*, 2021; Oyawalujaet *al.*, 2019**). However, the difference in EC₅₀ values can be explained by the influence of the extraction solvent (**Xie & Schaich., 2014; Sharma & Bhat, 2009**). In this study, a hydroethanolic solvent was used, whereas most previous studies used methanol or ethanol (100%) as the extraction solvent.

Conclusion

This study highlighted the antioxidant potential of 16 plant extracts studied and their major groups of phytochemicals. Three of them stood out for their remarkable antioxidant activities and significant phenolic compound content. These are the leaves of *E. angolense*, *U. africana* and *V. guineensis*. These results open up promising prospects for the promotion of the pharmacopoeia used in Côte d'Ivoire. The next step in this work will be to evaluate the safety of these extracts (acute and subacute toxicity) in order to guarantee their safe use. Furthermore, confirmation of their hepatoprotective properties *in vivo* would be a crucial step towards the development of improved traditional medicines (ITMs) for the treatment of liver diseases.

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