Full Length Research Paper

Neuropharmacological evaluation of Annona senegalensis leaves

Okoli, C. O., Onyeto, C. A., Akpa, B. P., Ezike, A. C.*, Akah, P. A. and Okoye, T. C.

Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Nigeria, Nsukka 410001, Enugu State, Nigeria.

Accepted 27 August, 2010

The neuropharmacological activities of methanol leaf extract (ME) of *Annona senegalensis* Pers (Annonaceae) and its bioactive fractions (MF and F_7) were studied in rodents using pentylenetetrazol (PTZ)-induced seizures, pentobarbitone-induced sleep, apomorphine-induced stereotypy, open field, elevated plus maze (EPM) and rotarod performance tests. The extract and fractions inhibited PTZ-induced seizures, prolonged pentobarbitone-induced sleep, reduced stereotypic behaviour induced by apomorphine, decreased the frequency of line crossing and centre square entries and increased rearing in the air in the open field. The frequency of grooming and rearing against the wall were decreased, whereas the duration of grooming increased. Also, the extract and fractions increased the duration of stay in the open arm when compared to the closed arm of the EPM, and reduced the average time spent on the rotarod. Acute toxicity test showed an oral LD₅₀ of ME greater than 5 g/kg in mice. Phytochemical analysis showed that ME tested positive for carbohydrates, reducing sugar, resins, saponins, tannins, steroids, alkaloids, flavonoids and glycosides; MF tested positive for saponins, steroids, terpenoids, alkaloids, flavonoids and glycosides and glycosides; while F_7 tested positive for flavonoids. These findings suggest that leaves of *A. senegalensis* possess anticonvulsant, central depressant and anxiolytic-like properties attributable to flavonoids.

Keywords: Annona senegalensis, anticonvulsant, anxiolytic, sedative, stereotypy.

INTRODUCTION

Annona senegalensis Pers (Annonaceae) commonly known as "Wild Custard Apple" is a shrub or small tree widely distributed in Africa (Adzu et al., 2005; Ogbadoyi et al., 2007). It has aromatic flowers which are used to flavour food. The ripe fruit is yellow in colour and has a sweet edible jelly with pleasant odour.

In Nigeria, *A. senegalensis* is variously known as "Gwandar daji" in Hausa, "Abo" in Yoruba, "Uburu ocha" in Ibo, and "Ikpokpo" among the Idoma speaking people

*Corresponding author. E-mail: adaobiezike@yahoo.ca.

Abbreviations: ME, Methanol leaf extract; PTZ, pentylenetetrazol; EPM, elevated plus maze; CNS, central nervous system; TLC, thin layer chromatography; MF, methanol fraction; HF, hexane fraction; EF, ethyl acetate fraction; F₇, fraction 7.

in the Middle Belt region of Nigeria. It is widespread in the Savannah area and near streams and enjoys great reputation for its immense medicinal value and hence, ethnomedicinal uses. The plant decoction is used in the treatment of sleeping sickness in Northern Nigeria (Igwe and Onabanjo, 1989) and in folkloric treatment of cancer (Durodola, 1975; Gbile and Adesina, 1985; Graham et al., 2000; Abubakar et al., 2007), chest pain, coughs, anaemia, urinary tract infections (Burkill, 1985; Muanza et al., 1994), intestinal troubles, stomach ache (Dalziel, 1955), diarrhoea, bloody stool, dysentery (Muanza et al., 1994; Ekpendu et al., 1998; Kudi and Myint, 1999), arthritis, rheumatism (Audu, 1989), intestinal and guineaworms (Watt and Brever-Brandwick, 1962; Alawa et al., 2003), venereal diseases (Durodola, 1975; Bhat et al., 1990; Tabuti et al., 2003), head and body ache (Arnold and Gulumian, 1984; Chhabra et al., 1987), leishmaniasis (Akendengue et al., 1999), trypanasomiasis (Atawodi et

al., 2003), lice infestation (Hirschmann and Rojas De Arias, 1990), eyelid swelling (Klaus and Adala, 1994) and snakebites (Durodola, 1975; Kela, 1990; Selvanayahgam et al., 1994). It is also used as an anthelmintic by local livestock farmers in Nigeria (Nwude and Ibrahim, 1980; Ibrahim et al., 1983). In southeastern Nigeria, the leaves are used for the treatment of convulsion.

Review of documented literature showed that the antidiarrheal (Suleiman et al., 2008), antimicrobial (More et al., 2008), anticancer (Sowemimo et al., 2007), trypanocidal (Ogbadoyi et al., 2007), antimalarial and cytotoxic (Ajaiyeoba et al., 2006), anticonvulsant (Ezugwu and Odoh, 2003), analgesic, anti-inflammatory (Adzu et al., 2003). antiulcer/antacid, smooth muscle relaxant (Langason et al., 1994), antibacterial (Muanza et al., 1994; Magassouba et al., 2007), antitumor (Fatope et al., 1993; Sahpaz et al., 1994), antiprotozoal (Igwe and Onabanjo, 1989), molluscicidal (Sofowora and Adewunmi, 1980) and hormone-mimetic (Jacobson et al., 1975) activities have been reported. The plant has also been shown to be beneficial in the treatment of snake bite (Adzu et al., 2005). The isolation of monotetrahydrofuran and bis-tetrahydrofuran acetogenins (Sahpaz et al., 1994) and two cytotoxic monotetrahydrofuran acetogenins (Sahpaz et al., 1996) from this plant are also documented.

Anticonvulsant agents affect diverse centrally-mediated functions due to their interference with a variety of mechanisms and structures in different regions of the central nervous system (CNS). In line with the use of leaves of this plant in the treatment of convulsion and the documented anticonvulsant activity of its roots (Ezugwu and Odoh, 2003), we studied the neuropharmacological activities of the leaves and identified the centrally-active constituents using bioactivity-guided technique employing pentylenetetrazol (PTZ)-induced seizures as activityguide.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

Adult Swiss albino rats (150 - 200 g) and mice (19 - 22 g) bred in the laboratory animal facility of the Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, University of Nigeria, Nsukka were used for the study. The animals were maintained freely on standard pellets and water. All animal experiments were in compliance with the National Institute of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (Pub No. 85 – 23, revised 1985).

Equipment

Equipment

The open field apparatus consisted of a plexiglass box measuring 72×72 cm with 36 cm high walls, the walls and the floor were painted white. Blue lines, drawn under the clear plexiglass floor with a marker, divided the floor into 16 squares (18 × 18 cm). A central

square of equal size was drawn in the middle of the maze; elevated plus maze (EPM) consisted of two open arms (40×10 cm each) and two closed arms ($40 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10$ cm each) radiating from a central platform (10×10 cm) arranged in such a way that the two arms of each type were opposite to each other. The maze was elevated 100 cm above the floor. The maze floor and walls were constructed with wood; a rotarod apparatus (Ugo Basile, 01778; Comerio-Va-Italy) consisting of a motor-driven aluminum rod (6 - 8 cm diameter) divided into five segments by circular aluminum plates which served to limit lateral movements of the animals on the rod; rotary evaporator (Staffordshire, ST 150BG; England) and video camera.

Plant material and preparation of extract

Fresh leaves of *A. senegalensis* were collected in March 2006 from Nsukka, Enugu State, Nigeria. The plant material was identified and authenticated by Mr. A. Ozioko of the International Centre for Ethnomedicine and Drug Development (InterCEDD), Nsukka, Enugu State, where a voucher specimen is deposited (specimen number: BDCP/INTERCEDD 64). The leaves were dried under the sun for 5 days and pulverized to coarse powder using an electric blender. The powdered leaf (2.5 kg) was extracted with methanol by cold maceration for 48 h. Concentration of the filtrate in a rotary evaporator at 40 - 50°C under reduced pressure afforded 131.4 g of the methanol extract (ME; 5.26% w/w).

Acute toxicity tests

The acute toxicity and lethality of ME was studied in mice using the method described by Lorke (1983). Briefly, nine mice of both sexes randomly divided into three groups (n = 3) received oral administration of one of 10, 100, and 1000 mg/kg of ME and were observed for 24 h for death. Since no death was recorded, further doses of 1,600, 2,900 and 5000 mg/kg of ME were administered to a fresh batch of animals (n = 1) and the number of deaths in 24 h was recorded. The LD₅₀ was calculated as the geometric mean of the highest non-lethal dose and the lowest lethal dose (Lorke, 1983).

Solvent-guided fractionation of ME and bioactivity-guided studies

The methanol extract (100 g) was subjected to solvent-guided fractionation in a silica gel (60 - 120 mesh size) column (60 cm in length and 7.5 cm in diameter), successively eluted with n-hexane, ethyl acetate and methanol. The fractions were concentrated under reduced pressure in a rotary evaporator (40 - 50 ℃) to obtain the hexane fraction (HF; 0.2 g; 0.2% w/w), ethyl acetate fraction (EF; 2.5 g; 2.5% w/w) and methanol fraction (MF; 70.26 g; 70.3% w/w). Bioactivity-guided studies on the extract and fractions using the PTZ-induced seizure model as activity-guide showed that MF caused the highest delay in the onset of tonic-clonic seizures and also afforded 100% protection against seizure-induced deaths. Subsequently, MF (27.6 g) was separated in a silica gel column (60 cm in length and 7.5 cm in diameter) eluted with gradient mixtures of dichloromethane and methanol and the fractions were collected in aliquots of 10 ml in test tubes. The collected fractions were subsequently pooled into eight broad fractions, $F_1 - F_8$, based on the similarity of constituents visualized on silica gel pre-coated thin layer chromatography (TLC) plates developed with mixtures of methanol and dichloromethane. Further activity-guided studies on the fractions showed that F7 (0.56 g; 2.03% w/w) caused the

greatest delay in onset of tonic-clonic seizures with 60% protection. Consequently, ME, MF and F₇ were screened for effects on sedation, paradigms of anxiety and depression, stereotype behavior and motor coordination. Phytochemical tests on the extract and fractions for constituents identification was performed using standard procedures (Harborne, 1973; Trease and Evans, 1983).

Pentylenetetrazole-induced seizures in mice

Male mice (20 - 39 g) were randomly divided into groups (n = 5) to receive oral administration of one of ME, MF (100, 200 and 400 mg/kg) or F_7 (400 mg/kg) suspended in Tween 80 (3% v/v). Control animals received either the vehicle (10 ml/kg p.o) or phenobarbitone (35 mg/kg i.p). Thirty minutes later, seizure was induced by intraperitoneal administration of pentylenetetrazole (70 mg/kg). The animals were observed for seizures. The onset and duration of seizures as well as quantal protections were recorded for each group. An episode of clonic spasm that persisted for a minimum of 30 s was taken as threshold convulsion. Animals devoid of threshold convulsion and without subsequent death during 60 min of observation were considered protected (Akah et al., 1998).

Pentobarbitone-induced sleeping time test in rats

Male rats were randomly divided into five groups (n = 5) to receive intraperitoneal administration of one of ME, MF or F₇ (50, 100, or 200 mg/kg) suspended in Tween 80 (3% v/v). Control groups received either the vehicle (2 ml/kg p.o) or diazepam (1 mg/kg i.p). Thirty minutes later, sleep was induced by intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbitone sodium (35 mg/kg). Each animal was observed for onset and duration of sleep. The time from induction of sleep to loss of righting reflex was considered as onset of sleep, while that between loss and recovery of righting reflex was recorded as the duration of sleep (Wambebe, 1985).

Apomorphine-induced stereotypic behavior test

The effect of the extract and fractions on apomorphine-induced stereotypic behavior was evaluated as earlier described (Kenneth and Kenneth, 1984). Male mice were divided into groups (n = 5) to receive intraperitoneal administration of one of ME, MF or F_7 (50, 100, or 200 mg/kg) suspended in Tween 80 (3% v/v). The control groups received either chlorpromazine (2 mg/kg i.p) or the vehicle (10 ml/kg p.o). Thirty minutes later, stereotype behavior was induced by subcutaneous injection of apomorphine (1 mg/kg). Signs of stereotypic behavior, which include mainly sniffing and gnawing, were observed and scored as follows: Absence of stereotypy = 0; occasional sniffing = 1; occasional gnawing = 2; frequent gnawing = 3; continuous gnawing = 4; gnawing intensively and staying at the same spot = 5. Stereotypic behavior was measured and scored for 5 min, immediately after induction (0 min) and at 30 min intervals for up to 120 min.

Open field test

The effect of the extract and fractions on locomotor activity, exploration and grooming was studied in the open field (Archer, 1973). Briefly, male mice (19 - 30 g) selected at random were divided into groups (n = 5) to receive oral administration of one of ME, MF or F_7 (200 or 400 mg/kg) suspended in Tween 80 (3% v/v). The control groups received either diazepam (1 mg/kg i.p) or the vehicle (10 ml/kg p.o). Thirty minutes after treatment, each mouse was placed in the centre square of the open field and observed for 5 min with the aid of video camera. Behavioral parameters recorded include line crossing, centre square entries, rearing (in the air and against the wall) and stereotypy as shown by frequency and duration of grooming. The floor of the open field was cleaned with 70% ethanol and allowed to dry between tests.

EPM

Male mice were divided into groups (n = 5) to receive one of ME, MF or F₇ (50, 100 or 200 mg/kg) suspended in Tween 80 (3% v/v) and administered intraperitoneally. The control groups received either diazepam (1 mg/kg i.p) or the vehicle (10 ml/kg p.o). The mice were placed at the junction of the open and closed arms, facing the open arm opposite to where the experimenter was. A video camera set at 45° between one open and one closed arm was then started to track and record the activity of the rodent on the maze for 5 min (Pellow et al., 1985; Lister, 1987) and was scored on video playback. An observer sat on an elevated platform to observe the behavior. Parameters observed included duration of stay and number of fecal boli in the open, closed and mid arms of the EPM.

Motor coordination test

The effect of the extract and fractions on motor coordination in mice was studied using the rotarod test. Thirty-five male mice (20 - 35 g) were selected at random and divided into 7 groups (n = 5) to receive one of ME, MF or F7 (200 or 400 mg/kg) suspended in Tween 80 (3% v/v) and administered orally. The control group received either diazepam (1 mg/kg i.p) or the vehicle (10 ml/kg p.o). The mice were allowed to acclimatize for 3 min on the rotarod beam before administration of the extract and fractions. Thirty minutes after treatment, each mouse was placed on one of the five rotarod beams facing the opposite direction of the beam's motion. All mice started from a non-motion beam and then the rotarod was turned on. When a mouse fell from the beam into the chamber, it remained there until all other mice had either completed 3 min on the beam or fell off. After one-minute break, the mice were lifted and placed on the beam once more. Each mouse went through 10 trials and was tested for time spent on the rod during each trial. The average total time each animal stayed on the rotating rod was recorded. The increase in time the animal remained on the rod was taken as an index of motor coordination/learning.

Statistical analysis

Data obtained was analyzed using one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and subjected to least significant difference (LSD) post hoc test for multiple comparisons. Differences between means were accepted to be significant at P < 0.05 and the results expressed as mean \pm SEM.

RESULTS

Phytochemical constituents of extract and fractions

Phytochemical analysis showed that ME tested positive for carbohydrates, reducing sugar, resins, saponins, tannins, steroids, terpenoids, alkaloids, flavonoids and

Phytochemical	Extract and fraction					
constituents	ME (5.26% w/w)	MF (70.3%w/w)	F ₇ (2.03% w/w)			
Alkaloids	+++	+	-			
Carbohydrates	+++	+++	-			
Flavonoids	+++	+++	+++			
Glycosides	+++	+++	-			
Reducing sugar	+++	+++	-			
Resins	++	-	-			
Saponins	+++	+++	-			
Steroids	+++	+++	-			
Tannins	+	-	-			
Terpenoids	+++	+++	-			

Table 1. Phy	/tochemical	constituents	of the	extract	and	fractions
	rounennear	COnstituents			anu	nactions.

Values in parenthesis are extractive yields. ME, methanol extract; MF, methanol fraction; F₇, fraction 7; +++, conspicuously present: ++, moderately present; +, present; -, absent.

Table 2.	Effect	of extract	and fractions	on PTZ	-induced seizures.
----------	--------	------------	---------------	--------	--------------------

Treatment	Dose (mg/kg)	Onset of seizure (min)	Duration of seizure (min)	Quantal protection	Protection (%)
Control	-	1.2 ± 0.1	1.6 ± 0.7	0/5	0
ME	100	2.9 ± 1.0	11.7 ± 4.5	2/5	40
	200	2.8 ± 0.1	19.6 ± 4.1*	2/5	40
	400	2.6 ± 0.6	19.4 ± 4.6*	2/5	40
MF	100	2.3 ± 0.5	13.5 ± 4.4*	3/5	60
	200	4.0 ± 1.1	11.5 ± 1.6	3/5	60
	400	3.1 ± 0.2	18.4 ± 2.4*	5/5	100
F ₇	400	2.6 ± 0.8	5.2 ± 1.9	3/5	60
Phenobarbitone	35	13.33 ± 1.45*	0.1 ± 0.4	5/5	100

n, 5; *P < 0.05 compared to control (ANOVA; LSD post hoc); ME, methanol extract; MF, methanol fraction; F₇, fraction 7.

glycosides; MF tested positive for saponins, steroids, terpenoids, alkaloids, carbohydrates, reducing sugar, flavonoids and glycosides, while F_7 tested positive to flavonoids (Table 1).

Acute toxicity and lethality (LD₅₀) of ME

Oral administration of ME of up to 5 g/kg caused no death in mice. Therefore, the oral LD_{50} of ME in mice was >5 g/kg.

Effect of extract and fractions on PTZ-induced seizure

The ME, MF and F_7 caused significant (P < 0.05) and non-dose-related inhibition of PTZ-induced seizures cha-

racterized by increased seizure latency, prolonged duration of seizure and increased survival time or protection against seizure-induced deaths (Table 2).

Effect of extract and fractions on pentobarbitoneinduced sleeping time

The ME and MF significantly (P < 0.05) shortened the sleep onset time (sleep latency) and prolonged sleeping time in a dose-related manner. F₇ significantly (P < 0.05) prolonged sleep time but increased sleep latency in a dose-related manner. The magnitude of potency of effect was of the order F₇ > MF > ME (Table 3).

Effect of extract and fractions on stereotypy induced by apomorphine in mice

Treatment with the extract and fractions significantly (P <

Treatment	Dose (ma/ka)	Sleep time (min)				
meatment	Dose (ilig/kg)	Onset	Duration	Prolongation (%)		
Control	-	24.1 ± 0.8	94.9 ± 7.0	-		
	50	24.0 ± 13.6*	56.8 ± 8.9*	NP		
ME	100	22.0 ± 10.3	109.2 ± 17.4	15.07		
	200	15.2 ± 13.4*	201.2 ± 3.3	112.01		
	50	11.8 ± 1.1*	94.0 ± 6.5*	NP		
MF	100	$5.4 \pm 0.6^{*}$	128.2 ± 3.0*	35.09		
	200	$3.2 \pm 0.5^{*}$	178.3 ± 2.4*	87.88		
	50	34.8 ± 0.5	102.0 ± 2.7*	7.48		
F ₇	100	40.0 ± 7.1*	198.2 ± 4.1	108.85		
	200	34.2 ± 0.5	252.5 ± 5.1*	166.07		
Diazepam	1	12.9 ± 0.8	192.9 ± 31.5	103.27		

 Table 3. Effect of extract and fractions on pentobarbitone induced sleeping time.

n = 5; **P*<0.05 compared to control (ANOVA; LSD post hoc); ME = methanol extract; MF = methanol fraction, F_7 = fraction 7; NP = no prolongation; prolongation (%) was calculated relative to the control.

0.05) reduced stereotypic behaviour in a dose-related manner (Table 4).

Effect of extract and fractions on mice in the open field

The extract and fractions decreased the frequency of line crossing in a dose-related manner. However, F_7 produced a higher frequency of line crossing with increased dose, which was still lower than that of control animals. Although F_7 (400 mg/kg) slightly increased centre square entries, ME produced a decrease, while MF caused no change. On rearing, ME and the fractions increased the frequency of rearing in the air with MF and F_7 showing greater effect. However, with the exception of MF (200 mg/kg), extract and fractions decreased the number of rearing against the wall. The extract and fractions treated groups had reduced frequency and increased duration of grooming (Table 5).

Effect of extract and fractions on the behavior of mice on the EPM

The ME and fractions significantly (P < 0.05) increased the duration of stay in the open arm and decreased the duration of stay in the closed arm. There was little or no change in fecal boli produced by treated and control groups in the mid, closed and open arms. The magnitude of increase in duration of stay in the open arm was of the order of potency $F_7 > MF > ME$ (Table 6).

Effect of extract and fractions on rotarod performance

Treatment with the extract and fractions significantly (P < 0.05) reduced the average total time spent by rats on the rotarod. The magnitude of reduction in permanence on the rod was of the order ME > MF > F₇ (Table 7).

DISCUSSION

In this study, evaluation of the neuropharmacological activities of A. senegalensis showed that the leaf extract and bioactive fractions possess anticonvulsant, sedative/ anxiolytic and central depressant properties. Assessment of the anticonvulsant activity revealed increased seizure latency, prolonged duration of seizure and protection of treated mice from seizure-induced deaths. PTZ induces convulsions by antagonizing the y-aminobutyric acid (GABA_A) receptor Cl⁻ channel complex (Corda et al., 1990) which attenuates GABA-dependent inhibition. Thus, the anticonvulsant activity of leaves of this plant and its usefulness in traditional treatment of convulsion may be derived in part from enhancement of GABAergic mechanisms. Agents that protect against tonic-clonic seizures induced by PTZ are considered useful in controlling myoclonic and absence seizures in humans (Nisar et al., 2008).

Studies on the sedative activity revealed reduced latency of induction and increased duration of pentobarbitone-induced sleep. Although the pentobarbitonesleeping time test is not clearly specific because

Treatment	Dose	Stereotypic behaviour score (min)					
	(mg/kg)	0	30	60	90	120	
Control	-	1.19 ± 0.29	1.07 ± 0.47	0.97 ± 0.15	1.03 ± 0.08	0.96 ± 0.09	
ME	50	0.44 ± 0.41* (63.03)	0.72 ± 0.30 (32.71)	0.60 ± 0.45 (38.14)	0.32 ± 0.27* (68.93)	0.04 ± 0.84* (95.83)	
	100	0.32 ± 0.41 (73.11)	0.88 ± 0.18 (17.76)	0.36 ± 0.36 (62.89)	0.12 ± 0.27* (88.35)	0.04 ± 0.84* (95.83)	
	200	0.36 ± 0.49 (69.75)	0.64 ± 0.29 (40.19)	0.32 ± 0.18 (67.01)	0.00 ± 0.0 (100)	0.00 ± 0.00 (100)	
MF	50	0.40 ± 0.40* (66.39)	1.00 ± 0.00 (6.54)	0.61 ± 0.55 (37.11)	0.80 ± 0.36 (22.33)	0.60 ± 0.55 (37.50)	
	100	0.32 ± 0.22* (73.11)	0.80 ± 0.45 (25.23)	0.44 ± 0.26 (54.64)	0.44 ± 0.38* (57.28)	0.12 ± 0.27* (87.50)	
	200	0.00 ± 0.00 (100)	0.36 ± 0.26* (66.36)	0.68 ± 0.28 (29.90)	0.72 ± 0.23 (30.10)	0.04 ± 0.09* (95.83)	
F ₇	50	0.80 ± 0.00 (32.77)	1.00 ± 0.00 (6.54)	0.88 ± 0.18 (9.28)	0.00 ± 0.00 (100)	0.00 ± 0.00 (100)	
	100	0.40 ± 0.28* (66.39)	0.92 ± 0.18 (14.02)	0.52 ± 0.44 (46.39)	0.00 ± 0.00 (100)	0.00 ± 0.00 (100)	
	200	0.16 ± 0.26* (86.55)	0.60 ± 0.28 (43.93)	0.56 ± 0.36 (42.27)	0.00 ± 0.00 (100)	0.00 ± 0.00 (100)	
Chlorpromazine	2	0.20±0.41 (83.19)	0.10±0.30 (90.65)	0.00±0.00 (100)	0.00±0.00 (100)	0.00±0.00 (100)	

Table 4. Effect of extracts and fractions on stereotypy induced by apomorphine in mice.

n = 5; **P* < 0.05 Compared to control (ANOVA; LSD post hoc); ME = methanol extract; MF = methanol fraction; F₇ = fraction 7. Values in parenthesis represent inhibition of stereotypic behaviour calculated relative to control.

Table 5. Effect of extract and fractions on mice in the open field.

		Locomotor activity		Explora	atory activity	Grooming	
Treatment	Treatment Dose (mg/kg)		Centre square entries	Rearing in the air	Rearing against a wall	Frequency	Duration (s)
ME	200	32.6 ± 18.4	1.2 ± 0.6	0.8 ± 0.8	2.2 ± 1.4*	1.8 ± 0.7	6.4 ± 1.8*
	400	3.8 ± 2.8*	0.0 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.2	$0.8 \pm 0.8^{*}$	$0.8 \pm 0.2^{*}$	4.6 ± 1.9
MF	200	46.6 ± 26.7	1.4 ± 0.9	1.0 ± 1.0	16.4 ± 8.4	1.6 ± 0.8	8.0 ± 3.7
	400	7.6 ± 5.6*	0.0 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.4	1.6 ± 1.6*	$1.0 \pm 0.4^{*}$	5.0 ± 3.9
F ₇	200	32.8 ± 15.0	0.6 ± 0.6	1.0 ± 1.0	9.4 ± 4.6	1.8 ± 0.9	5.4 ± 3.0
	400	41.8 ± 19.9	1.6 ± 1.2	0.0 ± 0.0	4.8 ± 2.3	2.0 ± 1.4	8.0 ± 5.8
Diazepam	1	7.3 ± 5.0	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	3.7 ± 2.03	2.0 ± 0.58	0.6 ± 0.44
Control	-	60.4 ± 12.4	1.4 ± 0.9	0.0 ± 0.0	15.4 ± 3.1	2.8 ± 0.9	5.0 ± 1.3

n = 5; *P < 0.05 Compared to control (ANOVA; LSD post hoc); ME = methanol extract; MF = methanol fraction; F_7 = fraction 7.

compounds that interfere with biotransformation of pentobarbital by cytochrome P-450 complex can exhibit the same effects (Goloubkova et al., 1998), the result possibly indicates sedative/anxiolytic or central depressant activities.

Evaluation of the effect of the extract and

fractions on paradigms of anxiety and depression showed that treated mice exhibited decreased locomotor and exploratory activities likely due to

Extract/	Dose	Number of fecal boli			[Duration of stay	(s)
fraction	(mg/kg)	Mid arm	Closed arm	Open arm	Mid arm	Closed arm	Open arm
Control	-	0.5 ± 0.6	0.2 ± 0.3	0.2 ± 0.3	8.3 ± 3.4	251.6 ± 16.1	88.9 ± 41.9
	50	0.2 ± 0.5	0.4 ± 0.6	0.2 ± 0.5	5.4 ± 3.2	180.4 ± 73.1	114.2 ± 74.3
ME	100	0.0 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.5	0.0 ± 0.0	10.2 ± 6.2	191.0 ± 89.5	98.6 ± 88.2
	200	0.2 ± 0.5	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	4.2 ± 3.9	157.4 ± 91.9	138.4 ± 89.9
	50	0.2 ± 0.5	0.2 ± 0.5	0.0 ± 0.0	6.6 ± 8.3	130.8 ± 31.5*	162.6 ± 30.6*
MF	100	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	16.2 ± 3.0*	106.0 ± 18.5*	177.8 ± 19.6*
	200	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	9.6 ± 5.6	107.0 ± 43.6*	163.4 ± 51.0*
	50	0.2 ± 0.5	0.2 ± 0.5	0.2 ± 0.5	20.8 ± 9.5	135.6 ± 44.4*	143.2 ± 48.9*
F ₇	100	0.2 ± 0.5	0.2 ± 0.5	0.2 ± 0.5	24.6 ± 15.8	76.2 ± 64.3*	199.2 ± 73.9*
	200	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	13.0 ± 8.8	79.0 ± 99.7*	206.2 ± 91.3*
Diazepam	1	0.0 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.5	0.0 ± 0.0	8.9 ± 4.2	128.4 ± 35.2	173.0 ± 18.4

Table 6. Effect of extract and fractions on mice on the elevated plus maze.

n = 5; *P < 0.05 compared to control (one way ANOVA; LSD pos hoc); ME = methanol extract; MF = methanol fraction; F₇ = fraction 7.

Table 7. Effects of the extract and fractions on motor co-ordination on rotarod.

Treatment	Dose (mg/kg)	Duration of stay on the rotarod (s)
Control	-	98.1 ± 15.4
ME	200	14.6 ± 4.5*
	400	22.0 ± 5.2*
MF	200	26.9 ± 19.0*
	400	36.4 ± 24.3*
F ₇	200	66.1 ± 25.5
	400	96.7 ± 36.7
Diazepam	1	32.6 ± 0.66*

n = 5; *P < 0.05 compared to control (ANOVA; LSD post hoc); ME = methanol extract, MF = methanol fraction, F₇ = Fraction 7.

central depression. The open field test is used to measure not only anxiety-like behaviors, but also sedative (Prut and Belzung, 2003) as well as non-specific effects of drugs on locomotor activity (Choleris et al., 2001). Treatment of mice with the extract and fractions reduced the frequency of grooming but caused little or no change in the duration which suggests reduced stress and anxiolytic-like effect. The mice also exhibited reduced frequency of rearing against the wall, whereas rearing in the air was increased. In a novel environment as in the open field, anxious rodents exhibited thigmotaxic behavior, which is a spontaneous preference for periphery/walls of the open field to the central parts. Thus, the animals exhibited reduced thigmotaxic behaviour as shown by reduced preference for walls of the open field which is consistent with central depressant activity. Decrease in spontaneous motor activity such as locomotor activity (horizontal activity) and rearing (vertical activity) results from reduced excitability of the central nervous system and sedation (Ozturk et al., 1996; Perez et al. 1998; Prut and Belzung, 2003). Rearing is a function of the excitability levels of the CNS (Cunha and Masur, 1978), while grooming is modulated by various neurotransmitters (Traber et al., 1988) particularly, dopamine (Drago et al., 1999; Serafim and Felício, 2001; Gomes et al., 2008).

Consistent with the anxiolytic-like activity is the effect on the EPM. In the EPM, treatment with the extract and fractions caused anxiolytic-like effect by increasing exploration and time spent in the open arms and reduces the number of entries and time spent in the enclosed arms. The EPM is widely used to measure anxiety in rodents (Pellow et al., 1985; Lister, 1987). Naive mice spend more time in the enclosed arm which may reflect an aversion towards the open arms caused by fear of open spaces (Rodgers and Dalvi, 1997). Drugs that increase the open arms exploration are considered anxiolytics and the reverse is also true for anxiogenic compounds (Handley and McBlane, 1993). Anxiolytic compounds promote exploration and reduce the animal's natural aversion for the open arms. Several plants used to reduce anxiety in folk medicine have been shown to increase exploration in the open arms of the EPM (Helli´on-Ibarrola et al., 2006).

The extract and fractions also reduced stereotypic behavior induced by apomorphine in mice. This effect is an indication of neuroleptic potentials and antidopaminergic properties. Agents which inhibit apomorphineinduced stereotypy are known to antagonise dopamine receptors in the nigrostriatal system (Chindo et al., 2003; Tarsy and Baldessarini, 1986). In mice, apomorphine increases the intensity and duration of stereotypic behavior by acting directly on the post-synaptic dopamine D₂ receptors (Stolk and Rech, 1970). Thus, inhibition of the effects of apomorphine reverses the hyperactivity and stereotypic behavior suggesting interference with central dopaminergic neurotransmission by the extract and fractions. This action is consistent with the effect of the major tranquillizers which cause profound central depression by interfering with central dopaminergic neurotransmission as a result of blockade of D₂ receptors (Baldessarini and Tarazi, 2001).

In addition, interference with dopaminergic neurotransmission may partly account for the decrease in permanence of treated mice on the rotarod as is also seen with major tranquillizers which cause motor incoordination (Baldessarini and Tarazi, 2001). The rotarod test designed to assess motor coordination, balance and equilibrium is used to evaluate the pharmacological actions of psychotropic agents on the central or peripheral nervous system (Dunhan and Miya, 1957). Impairment of the rotarod performance has been thought to reflect, at least in part, a behaviorally depressive state. However, it is well known that the riding time on the rotarod is also decreased by a relaxation or weakness of the muscles or motor dysfunction. Thus, in addition to central inhibition, the ability of the extract and fractions to affect motor coordination may also indicate peripheral blockade of the neuromuscular system (Perez et al., 1998; Amos et al., 2001). Several studies have shown similar results with diazepam, a known skeletal muscle relaxant. It is well known that benzodiazepines act as anxiolytics (at low doses), anticonvulsants and also produce sedation and myorelaxant effect at higher doses (Melo et al., 2006). It is likely that the activities of the extract and fractions are mediated by central and peripheral mechanisms.

Biological activity-guided technique was employed to relate activity to constituents and revealed F_7 as the most active anticonvulsant fraction. Phytochemical tests for constituent identification showed that F_7 may be a flavonoid compound. Further neuropharmacological studies showed that F_7 possesses varying levels of activity in the different tests and interestingly, had the least effect on motor-coordination. Flavonoids with anxiolytic activity attributed to their affinity for the central benzodiazepine receptor have also been described in many plant species

used in folk medicine to depress the central nervous system (Medina et al., 1993; Medina et al., 1997; Griebel et al., 1999; Paladini et al., 1999; Rocha et al., 2002). It is likely that further separation of constituents of F_7 would yield a neuropharmacologically-active flavonoid compound.

In conclusion, findings from this study suggest that constituents of leaves of *A. senegalensis* possess anticonvulsant, central depressant and anxiolytic-like properties and justify the folkloric use of the leaves for the treatment of convulsions. These neuropharmacological activities may be attributed to flavonoids in the leaves. Further activity-guided studies are ongoing to isolate the flavonoid(s) responsible for these activities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors are grateful to Dr Hyacinth Okeke from Enugu State, Nigeria, for provision of samples of the plant material and information on the ethnomedicinal uses.

REFERENCES

- Abubakar MS, Musa AM, Ahmed A, Hussaini IM (2007). The perception and practice of traditional medicine in the treatment of cancers and inflammations by the Hausa and Fulani tribes of northern Nigeria. J. Ethnopharmacol. 111: 625-629.
- Adzu B, Amos S, Adamu M, Gamaniel K (2003). Anti-nociceptive and anti-inflammatory effects of the methanol extract of *Annona senegalensis* root bark. J. Nat. Rem. 3: 63-67.
- Adzu B, Abubakar MS, Izebe KS, Akumka DD, Gamaniel KS (2005). Effect of *Annona senegalensis* rootbark extracts on Naja nigricotlis nigricotlis venom in rats J. Ethnopharmacol. 96: 507-513.
- Ajaiyeoba E, Falade M, Ogbole O, Okpako L, Akinboye D (2006). *In vivo* antimalarial and cytotoxic properties of *Annona senegalensis* extract. Afr. J. Trad. CAM. 3(1): 137-141.
- Akah PA, Sampson A, Gammaniel K, Wambebe C (1998). Effect of coconut water on the activity of some centrally acting drugs. Indian Drugs, 35: 693-695.
- Akendengue B, Ngou-Milamg E, Laurens A, Hocquemiller R (1999). Recent advances in the fight against leishmaniasis with natural products. Parasites, 6: 3-9.
- Alawa CBI, Adamu AM, Gefu JO, Ajanusi OJ, Abdu PA, Chiezey NP, Awawa JN, Bowman DD (2003). In vitro screening of two Nigerian medicinal plants (*Vernonia amygdalina*) and (*Anonna senegalensis*) for anthelmintic activity. Vet. Parasitol. 113: 73-81.
- Amos S, Adzu B, Binda L, Wambebe C, Gamaniel K (2001). Neuropharmacological effect of the aqueous extract of *Sphaeranthus senegalensis* in mice. J. Ethnopharmacol. 78: 33-37.
- Archer J (1973). Tests for emotionality in rats and mice: a review. Anim. Behaviour, 21: 205-235.
- Arnold HJ, Gulumian M (1984). Pharmacopoeia of traditional medicine in Venda. J. Ethnopharmacol. 12: 35-74.
- Atawodi SE, Ameh DA, Ibrahim S, Andrew JN, Nzelibe HC, Onyike EO, Anigo KM, Abu EA, James DB, Njoko GC, Sallau AB (2003). Indigenous knowledge system for treatment of typanasomiasis in Kaduna State of Nigeria. J. Ethnopharmacol. 79: 279-282.
- Audu J (1989). Medicinal herbs and their uses in Bauchi State. The Nigerian Field, 54: 157-168.
- Baldessarini RJ, Tarazi FI (2001). Drugs and treatment of psychiatric disorders: psychosis and mania. In: Hardman JG, Limbird LE, Gilman AG (eds). Goodman and Gilman's The pharmacological basis of

therapeutics, 10th ed., McGraw-Hill Medical Publishing Division, New York, pp. 485-520.

- Bhat RB, Eterjere EO, Oladipo BI (1990). Ethnobotanical studies from central Nigeria. Economic Botanical, 44: 382-390.
- Burkill HM (1985). The plants of west tropical Africa families A-D, 1: 103-105.
- Chhabra SC, Mahunnah RLA, Mshiu EN (1987). Plants used in traditional medicine in Eastern Tanzania. 1. Pteridopyhtes and Angiosperms (*Aquanthaceae* to *Canelliceae*). J. Ethnopharmacol. 21: 253-277.
- Chindo BA, Amos S, Odutola AA, Vongtau HO, Abbah J, Wambebe C, Gamaniel KS (2003). Central nervous system activity of the methanol extract of *Ficus platyphylla* stem bark. J. Ethnopharmacol. 85: 131-137.
- Choleris E, Thomas AW, Kavaliers M, Prato FS (2001). A detailed ethological analysis of the mouse open field test: effects of diazepam, chlordiazepoxide and an extremely low frequency pulsed magnetic field. Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev. 25: 235-260.
- Corda MG, Giorgi O, Longoni B, Orlandi M, Biggio G (1990). Decrease in the function of γ-aminobutyric acid coupled chloride channel produced by repeated administration of pentylenetetrazole in rats. J. Neurosci. 55: 1216-1221.
- Cunha JM, Masur J (1978). Evaluation of psychotropic drugs with a modified open field test. Pharmacology, 16: 259-267.
- Dalziel JM (1955). The Useful Plants West Tropical Africa. Crown Agents, London, p. 510.
- Drago F, Contarino A, Busa L (1999). The expression of neuropeptideinduced excessive grooming behavior in dopamine D_1 and D_2 receptor-deficient mice. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 365: 125-131.
- Dunhan NW, Miya TS (1957). A note on a simple apparatus for detecting neurological deficit in rats and mice. J. Am. Pharm. Assoc. 46: 208-209.
- Durodola JI (1975). Viability and transplanability of developed tumour cells treated in vitro with antitumour agent C/M2 isolated from herbal cancer remedy of *Annona senegalensis*. Planta Medica, 28: p. 359.
- Ekpendu TOE, Obande OD, Anyogo PO, Attah AD (1998). Nigerian ethnomedicine and medicinal plant flora-the Benue experience part 1. J. Pharm. Res. Dev. 3: 37-46.
- Ezugwu CO, Odoh UE (2003). Anticonvulsant activity of the root extract of Annona senegalensis. J. Trop. Med. Plants, 4(1): 51-55.
- Fatope MO, Ibrahim H, Takeda Y (1993). Screening of higher plants reputed as pesticides using the brine shrimp lethality assay. Int. J. Pharmacognosy, 31: 250-254.
- Gbile ZO, Adesina SK (1985). Nigerian Flora and their Pharmaceutical Potential. University Press Ltd., Ibadan, p. 15.
- Goloubkova TD, Heckler E, Rates SMK, Henriques JAP, Henriques AT (1998). Inhibition of cytochrome P450-dependent monooxygenases by an alkaloid fraction from *Helietta apiculata* markedly potentiate the hypnotic action of pentobarbital. J. Ethnopharmacol. 60: 141-148.
- Gomes PB, Noronha EC, Thiciane V, de Melo C, Bezerra JNS, Neto MA, Cleide S, Lino CS, Vasconcelos SMM, Viana GSB, Sousa FCF (2008). Central effects of isolated fractions from the root of *Petiveria alliacea* L. (tipi) in mice. J. Ethnopharmacol. 120: 209-214.
- Graham JG, Quinn ML, Fabricant DS, Farnsworth NR (2000). Plants used against cancer-an extension of the work of Jonathan Hartwell. J. Ethnopharmacol. 73: 343-377.
- Griebel G, Perrault G, Tan S, Schoemaker H, Sanger DJ (1999). Pharmacological studies on synthetic flavonoids: comparison with diazepam. Neuropharmacology, 38(7): 965-977.
- Handley SL, McBlane JW (1993). An assessment of the elevated Xmaze for studying anxiety and anxiety-modulating drugs. J. Pharmacol. Toxicol. Methods, 29: 129-135.
- Harborne JBC (1973). Phytochemical methods. Chapman and Hall, London, p. 279.
- Helli'on-Ibarrola MC, Ibarrola DA, Montalbetti Y, Kennedy ML, Heinichen O, Campuzano M, Tortoriello J, Fern'andez S, Wasowski C, Marder M, De Lima TCM, Mora S (2006). The anxiolytic-like effects of *Aloysia polystachya* (Griseb.) Moldenke (*Verbenaceae*) in mice. J. Ethnopharmacol. 105: 400-408.

Hirschmann GS, Rojas De Arias A (1990). A survey of medicinal plants

- of Minas Gerais, Brazil. J. Ethnopharmacol. 29: 237-260.
- Ibrahim MA, Nwude N, Ogunsusi RA, Aliu YO (1983). Screening of West African Plants for Anthelmintic Activity, 17. International Livestock Centre for Africa (ILCA), Bulletin, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, pp. 19-22.
- Igwe AC, Onabanjo AO (1989). Chemotherapeutic effects of *Annona* senegalensis in *Trypanosoma brucei brucei*. Ann. Trop. Med. Parasitol. 83(5): 527–534.
- Jacobson M, Redfern RE, Mills JR (1975). Naturally occurring insect growth regulators 11. Screening of insect and plant extracts as juvenile hormone mimics. Lloydia, 38: 455-472.
- Kela SL (1990). Incidence of snake bite in Tangale Waja, Bauchi State. The Nigerian Field, 55: 109-112.
- Kenneth SK, Kenneth LD (1984). Genetic control of apomorphineinduced climbing behavior in two inbred mouse strains. Brain Res. 293: 343-351.
- Klaus V, Adala HS (1994). Traditional herbal eye medicine in Kenya. World Health Forum, 15: 138-143.
- Kudi AC, Myint SH (1999). Antiviral activity of some Nigerian medicinal plant extracts. J. Ethnopharmacol. 68: 289-294.
- Langason RBF, Akunyili DN, Akubue PI (1994). A Preliminary study of the gastrointestinal effects of some Nigerian medicinal plants. Fitoterapia, 65: 235-240.
- Lister RG (1987). The use of a plus-maze to measure anxiety in the mouse. Psychopharmacology, 92: 180-185.
- Lorke D (1983). A new approach of practical acute toxicity testing. Arch. Toxicol. 54: 272-289.
- Magassouba FB, Diallo A, Kouyat'e M, Mara F, Mara O, Bangoura O, Camara A, Traor'e S, Diallo AK, Zaoro M, Lamah K, Diallo S, Camara G, Traor'e S, K'eita A, Camara MK, Barry R, K'eita S, Oular'ea K, Barry MS, Donzo M, Camara K, Tot'e K, Berghe VD, Tott'e J, Pieters L, Vlietinck A J, Bald'e AM (2007). Ethnobotanical survey and antibacterial activity of some plants used in Guinean traditional medicine. J. Ethnopharmacol. 114: 44-53.
- Medina JH, Paladini AC, Izquierdo I (1993). Naturally-occurring benzodiazepines and benzodiazepines-like molecules in brain. Behav. Brain Res. 58: 1-8.
- Medina JH, Viola H, Wolfman C, Marder M, Wasowski C, Calvo D, Paladini AC (1997). Overview-flavonoids: a new family of benzodiazepine receptor ligands. Neurochemistry, 22(4): 419-425.
- Melo CTV, Monteiro AP, Leite CP, Araújo FLO, Lima VT, Barbosa-Filho JM, Fonteles MM, Vasconcelos SMM, Viana GSB, Sousa FCF (2006). Anxiolytic-like effects of (O-Methyl)-N-2,6-dihydroxybenzoyltyramine (Riparin III) from *Aniba riparia* (NEES) MEZ (Lauraceae) in mice. Biol. Pharm. Bull. 29(3): 451–454.
- More G, Tshikalange TE, Lall N, Botha F, Meyer JJM (2008). Antimicrobial activity of medicinal plants against oral microorganisms. J. Ethnopharmacol. 119: 473-477.
- Muanza DN, Kim BW, Euler KL, Williams L (1994). Antibacterial and antifungal activities of nine medicinal plants from Zaire. Int. J. Pharmacognosy, 32: 337-345.
- Nisar M, Khan I, Šimjee SU, Gilani AH, Obaidullah, Perveen H (2008). Anticonvulsant, analgesic and antipyretic activities of *Taxus* wallichiana Zucc. J. Ethnopharmacol. 116: 490-494.
- Nwude N, Ibrahim MA (1980). Plants used in traditional veterinary practice in Nigeria. J. Pharmacol. Ther. 3: 261-273.
- Ogbadoyi EO, Abdulganiy AO, Adama TZ, Okogun JI (2007). *In vivo* trypanocidal activity of *Annona senegalensis* Pers. leaf extract against *Trypanosoma brucei brucei*. J. Ethnopharmacol. 112: 85-89.
- Ozturk Y, Aydine S, Baser KHC, Berberoglu H (1996). Effects of *Hypericum perforatum* L. and *Hypericum calycinum* L. extracts on the central nervous system in mice. Phytomedicine, 3: 139-146.
- Paladini AC, Marder M, Viola H, Wolfman C, Wasowski C, Medina JH (1999). Flavonoids and the central nervous system: from forgotten factors to potent anxiolytic compounds. J. Pharm. Pharmacol. 51(5): 519-526.
- Pellow S, Chopin P, File SE, Briley M (1985). Validation of open: closed arm entries in an elevated plus-maze as a measure of anxiety in the rat. J. Neurosci. Methods, 14: 149-167.
- Perez RM, Perez JÁ, Garcia LM, Sossa H (1998). Neuropharmacologi-

cal activity of *Solanum nigrum* fruit. J. Ethnopharmacol. 62: 43-48.

- Prut L, Belzung C (2003). The open field as a paradigm to measure the effects of drugs on anxiety-like behaviors: a review. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 463: 3-33.
- Rocha FF, Lapa AJ, De Lima TCM (2002). Evaluation of the anxiolyticlike effects of *Cecropia glazioui* Sneth in mice. Pharmacol. Biochem. Behav. 71: 183-190.
- Rodgers RJ, Dalvi A (1997). Anxiety, defence and the elevated plusmaze. Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev. 21(6): 801-810.
- Sahpaz S, Bories CH, Loiseau PM, Cartes D, Hocquemiller R, Laurens A, Cave A (1994). Cytotoxic and antiparasitic activity from *Annona* senegalensis seeds. Planta Medica, 60: 538-540.
- Sahpaz S, Gonzalez MC, Hocquemiller R, Zafra-Polo MC, Cortes D (1996). Annosenegalin and Annogalene: two cytotoxic monotetrahydrofuran acetogenins from *Annona senegalensis* and *Annona cherimolia*. Phytochemistry, 42: 103-107.
- Selvanayahgam ZE, Gnanevendhan SG, Balakrishna K (1994). Antisnake venom botanicals from ethnomedicine. J. Herbs, Spices Med. Plants, 2: 45-100.
- Serafim AP, Felício LF (2001). Dopaminergic modulation of grooming behavior in virgin and pregnant rats. Braz. J. Med. Biol. Res. 34: 1465-1470.
- Sofowora EA, Adewunmi CO (1980). Preliminary screening of some plant extracts for molluscicidal activity. Planta Medica, 39: 57-65.
- Sowemimo AA, Fakoya FA, Awopetu I, Omobuwajo OR, Adesanya SA (2007). Toxicity and mutagenic activity of some selected Nigerian plants. J. Ethnopharmacol. 113: 427-432.
- Stolk JM, Rech RH (1970). Antagonism of O-amphetamine by methyl-ptyrosin. Behavioural evidence for participation of cathelcolamine stores and synthesis in the amphetamine stimulant response. Neuropharmacology, 9: 249-263.

- Suleiman MM, Dzenda T, Sani CA (2008). Antidiarrhoeal activity of the methanol stem-bark extract of *Annona senegalensis* Pers. (*Annonaceae*). J. Ethnopharmacol. 116: 125-130.
- Tabuti JRS, Lye KA, Dhillion SS (2003). Traditional herbal drugs of Bulamogi, Uganda: Plants use and administration. J. Ethnopharmacol. 88: 19-44.
- Tarsy D, Baldessarini RJ (1986). Movement disorders induced by psychotherapeutic agents: Clinical features, pathophysiology, and management. In: Shah NS, Donald AG (ed) *Movement disorders*, Plenum Press, New York, pp. 365-389.
- Traber J, Spencer DG, Glaser T, Gispen WH (1988). Actions of psychoactive drugs on ACTH- and novelty-induced behavior in the rat. In: Colbern DL, Gispen WH (ed). Neural mechanisms and biological significance of grooming behavior, Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. New York, pp. 270-280.
- Trease GE, Evans WC (1983). Drugs of Biological origin. In: Pharmacognosy, 12th ed., Balliere Tindall, United Kingdom, pp. 309-540.
- Wambebe C (1985). Influence of some agents that affect 5hydroxytryptamine metabolism and receptors on nitrazepam-induced sleep in mice. Br. J. Pharmacol. 84: 185-191.
- Watt JM, Breyer-Brandwick MG (1962). The Medicinal and poisonous plants of southern and western Africa, 2nd ed., Livingstone Ltd, London.