Journal of Scientific and Engineering Research, 2020, 7(3):206-213



Research Article

ISSN: 2394-2630 CODEN(USA): JSERBR

Preliminary Screening of the Phytochemical Composition, Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Activity of the Twigs of *Prosopis africana* Used as Chewing Stick in Benin Republic

OLAYE Théophile^{1*}, TCHOBO Paul Fidèle¹, CHABI Worou Nicodème^{1,2}, KOUDOKPON Hornel⁴, SESSOU Philippe^{1,3}, ALITONOU Alain Guy¹, AVLESSI Félicien¹, SOHOUNHLOUE Koko Codjo Dominique¹

¹Laboratoire d'Etude et de Recherches en Chimie Appliquée (LERCA), Ecole Polytechnique d'Abomey-Calavi (EPAC), Université d'Abomey-Calavi, 01 PO Box 2009 Cotonou, Benin.

²Laboratoire de Biochimie et Biologie Moléculaire (LBBM) / Faculté des Sciences et Techniques (FAST) /Université d'Abomey-Calavi(UAC)

³Laboratoire de Recherche en Biologie Appliquée (LARBA), Ecole Polytechnique d'Abomey-Calavi (EPAC), University of Abomey-Calavi, 01 PO Box 2009 Cotonou, Benin

⁴Unité de Recherche en Microbiologie Appliquée et Pharmacologie des substances naturelles (U.R.M.A.Pha), Tél. 00 229 97 73 64 46; Mail. urmaphaepac@hotmail.com

*Corresponding author: OLAYE Théophile; Tel. 00 229 97 95 03 83

Mail. olayephile@gmail.com

Abstract The present work was devoted to the evaluation of the chemical and antimicrobial potential of the stems of *Prosopis africana*. Standard techniques described in the literature were used to analyse the phytochemicals. The antioxidant activity was carried out by DPPH and FRAP methods and antimicrobial activity, by the diffusion method. Many secondary metabolites like tannins, steroids, coumarins, flavonoids, mucilage and alkaloids were identified in the different extracts of this plant. The semi-ethanolic extract presented the highest total phenolic content which is of 124.142 ± 3.535 mg eqGA/gCE whereas the ethanolic extract of this plant exhibited a good ability to inhibit the DPPH radical and a good ability to reduce ferric Fe³⁺ ions to ferrous Fe²⁺ ion and this could be explain by it good content in phenolic compounds. The ethanolic extract was the only one that was able to inhibit the strains used in this study. MICs and MBCs ranged from 12.500 to 25.000 mg / mL.The same extract was able to inhibit *Candida albicans*, a strain that is known to be implicated in oral diseases with a MIC of 12.500 mg/mL.

Keywords Phytochemical; Antimicrobial; Antioxidant; Chewing stick; Oral hygiene

1. Introduction

For many decades now, plants have played an important role in oral hygiene. Most societies recognize that the cleaning of teeth is a desirable social habit and also a means of keeping diseases away. Plants have been used in oral health as chewing sticks, mouthwash, dental floss and to cure tooth ache and infections [1]. Even though many people have abandoned the traditional use of vegetable toothbrushes, and have adapted to the conventional method of brushing teeth, some peoples still use chewing stick as a daily ritual to maintain oral hygiene. This is particularly true in developing countries where the economy, customs, religion and the availability of oral hygiene tools play a role in their continued use. Chewing stick have long been used in the Greek, Roman, Jewish and Islamic empires [2]. The stem of *Prosopis africana* is one the multiples plant parts

that are still been used as chewing stick in the central region of Benin Republic. *P. Africana* is a *Perennial leguminous* tree and is mostly found growing in the savanna regions of Western Africa [3]. The *Leguminosae* family consists of large number of trees and herbs with diverse locations and habit. The family includes approximately 700 genera and 17,000 species that are widely distribution in tropical, subtropical and temperate zones. This family is the most important in the Dicotyledonous group as they contain chemically diverse compounds such as: alkaloids, terpenoids, flavonoids and glycosides which are of interest for their biological activities [4]. For this raison, the phytochemical analysis and biological testing of traditionally used medicinal plants has become an important research area as it promotes the use of herbal medicine through confirmation of their efficacy and safety. It also determines their potential as sources of new drugs [5].

Although the World Health Organization has promoted the use of toothbrush sticks and has encouraged further research of their efficacy, few studies have been undertaken on the potential antimicrobial properties of chewing stick [1]. This is particulary true in Benin Republic where just few work has been overtaking in the determination of chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of chewing stick. For that purpose, the present study is a contribution to the knowledge of the antibacterial activities and the phytochemical potential of the stem of *Prosopis africana* used for oral hygiene in Benin Republic.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Plant material

The stem of *Prosopis Africana* were collected in a rural zone of the central Benin Republic (latitude/longitude: $8^{\circ} 52' 60$ " North / $2^{\circ} 36' 0$ " east) in September 2017.

2.2. Microorganisms

The used bacteria strains were obtained from the Bacteriology section of the National Laboratory of the Ministry of Health (LNMSP). They were constituted of reference strains namely:

- gram positive cocci: Enterococcus faecalis ATCC 10240, Staphylococcus aureus ATCC 29223
- Bacillus negative gram: Proteus mirabilis ATCC 24974, Pseudomonas aeruginosa ATCC 27853, Escherichia coli ATCC 25922
- Fungus: Candida albicans IP 4872

2.3. Plant extracts preparation

The plants, once collected, were left at room temperature $(20^{\circ}C)$ in the laboratory for two weeks to dry. They were then grounded to a fine powder to make three types of crude extracts, namely semi ethanolic 50% macerate (eth), aqueous macerate (aq) and aqueous decoction (de). The ethanolic and aqueous macerate were obtained by maceration for three successive days, taking care to renew the solvent each day while the decoction was prepared by boiling the vegetables' powder for 30 minutes in distilled water. The filtrates obtained were concentrated on a rotary evaporator and then in an oven at 40° C for 3 days.

2.4. Phytochemical Screening

The phytochemical screening was done according to the standard techniques described by Harborne [6] and Noudogbessi et *al.*, [7] and table 1 gives a summary of these methods. The plant extracts were screened for presence of alkaloids, tannins, flavonoids, coumarins, mucilage, saponins, terpene, triterpene, anthocyans and leuco-anthocyans.

Table 1. Standard teeningues used for the phytochemical screening						
Phytochemical	Name of test	Observations				
Tannins	Braemer's test	Dark blue or greenish grey				
		coloration of the solution				
Flavonoids	Shinoda test	Orange, red or purple coloration				
Anthocyans	Test with 10% H ₂ SO ₄ and 50%	Appearance of a coloration after acidification which turns				
	NH ₄ OH	to purplish blue in basic medium				
Coumarines	Lactone test	Intense UV fluorescence at 365 nm				
Alkaloids	Meyer and Dragendorff	Appearance of a precipitate				
Sterol	Liebermann-Burchardt test	Reddishbrowncolor of Interface				
Mucilages	Test withabsoluteethanol	appearance of a flakyprecipitate.				

 Table 1: Standard techniques used for the phytochemical screening



2.5. Determination of total phenolic content

The determination of total polyphenols was carried out with the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent according to the method presented by Ainsworth and Gillespie [8]. This method consists in adding to 20 μ L of each diluted ethanolic extract obtained by maceration of the crude extracts (eth, aq, de) in ethanol for 24 hours, 200 μ L of Folin-ciocalteu (10%) in a tube. The mixture obtained is vigorously vortexed before adding 5 min after 800 μ l of sodium carbonate Na₂CO₃ (7%). The absorbance is read at 765 nm after 2 hours against a blank (ethanol). Gallic acid was used as standard for the calibration curve and the content is expressed in milligram equivalent of Gallic Acid per gram of crude extract (CE) (mg eq AG / g CE).

2.6. Determination of flavonoid content

The estimation of the total flavonoid content was carried out by the method used by Kim et *al.*, [9]. The extract used were obtain from dilution of each the crude extracts (ethanolic, aqueous, and decoction) in ethanol. A volume of 100 μ l of the extract of each plant was mixed with 0.4 ml of distilled water and subsequently with 0.03 ml of a solution of 5% sodium nitrite. After 5 minutes, 0.02 milliliters of a 10% solution of AlCl₃ was added. After 5 minutes again, 0.2 ml of Na₂CO₃ solution (1 M) and 0.25 ml of distilled water were added to the mixture. The whole was vortexed and the absorbance measured at 510 nm. The flavonoid content is calculated from a standard curve using catechin as a standard. The results are expressed in milligram-equivalent of catechin per gram of the crude extract (mg eq EC/ g CE)

2.7. Antioxidant activity

2.7.1. DPPH method

This test was carried out by adding 50 μ l of the diluted extracts at different concentration to 1950 μ L of DPPH at 130 μ M, Discoloration of DPPH was measured at 516 nm against the blank (1950 μ l of DPPH at 130 μ M and 50 μ l of ethanol) after 45 min [10]. The scavenging percentage was calculated by the following formula:

P = [(Ab - Ae) / Ab]*100

With P: percentage of trapping; Ab: absorbance of the blank; Ae: Absorbance of the sample

The extract concentration necessary for trapping 50% of free radicals of DPPH (IC_{50}) is calculated graphically by linear regression of the plotted graphs of DPPH free radical scavenging percentages as a function of the concentrations of extracts tested.

2.7.2. Ferric Reducing Antioxidant Power (FRAP) method

FRAP method is based on the ability of extracts to reduce ferric ion (Fe³⁺) to ferrous (Fe²⁺) ion. The total antioxidant capacity of each plant extract and reference compounds was determined by the method used by Chung *et al.*, [11] with a slight modification. Thus 2 ml of an aqueous solution of each extract was mixed with 2 ml of phosphate buffer (0.2 M, pH 6.6) and 2 ml of the aqueous solution (1%) of potassium hexacyanoferrate [K₃Fe(CN)₆]. After 20 min incubation at 50°C; 2 ml of trichloroacetic acid (10%) was added. The mixture was then centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 min. 2 ml of the supernatant were then mixed with the same volume of water and 20 µl of a freshly prepared aqueous solution of FeCl₃ (0.1%) was added. Absorbances were read at 700 nm against a calibration curve obtained from gallic acid and catechin and an absorbance increase can be correlated to the reducing ability of the plant extract. The reducing power of the plant extracts were expressed as function of gallic acid equivalent per gram of crude extract (mg eq GA / g CE) and also as function of catechin equivalent per gram of crude extract (mg eq C/ g CE).

2.8. Antimicrobial activity

2.8.1. Preliminary antimicrobial screening of the extracts

It was carried out by the diffusion method of the extracts placed in wells dug in Mueller Hinton agar plates. Thus bacteria mentioned above were suspended according to the recommendations of the Antibiogram Committee of the French Society of Microbiology [12]. The suspensions thus made were seeded by swabbing on Mueller Hinton square agar plates. The three extracts of plants previously prepared at a concentration of 100 mg / ml in DMSO were filtered using 0.4µm multi-pore membranes in order to obtain sterile extract solutions.

16 wells of about 6 mm were dug in the agar plates as described by Agbankpe et al., [13] and 50 µl of each of the sterile extract solutions were deposited in each well. DMSO solution was used as the negative control. The positive control was conventional Vancomycin antibiotic discs for Gram-positive cocci and Imipenem and Colistin discs for Gram-negative bacilli. The different Petri dishes were left at room temperature for one hour for prediffusion and then incubated at 37 ° C for 18h as described by Oke et al., [14]. Each test was conducted three times for quality control purposes. Inhibition diameters were measured and compared to the standards indicated in the Table 2.

Table 2: Standard values used to interpret the results of the susceptibility tests of the plant extracts [15-16]

1	1 0	•
Inhibition zone diameter (Δ)	Degree of susceptibility of the germ	Symbol
Δ <7 mm	Resistant	-
$7 \text{ mm} \le \Delta < 8 \text{ mm}$	Susceptible	+
$8 \text{ mm} \le \Delta \le 9 \text{ mm}$	Fairly Susceptible	++
$\Delta \ge 9 \text{ mm}$	Very Susceptible	+++

2.8.2. Determination of minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimal bactericidal concentration (MBC)

The determination of the MIC was performed according to the microwell methodology used by Lagnika et *al.*, [17]. Different successive dilutions of 180 μ l of the extract at initial concentrations 50 mg/mL prepared in Mueller Hinton broth were distributed in the wells. 20 μ l of a 10% dilution of a suspension of 0.5 Mc Farland strains in Mueller broth Hinton were distributed in all wells. On each plate, bacterial suspension + Mueller Hinton broth served as a positive control and Negative control was DMSO + Mueller Hinton broth. The plates were then stirred for 5 minutes and placed in an oven at 37 ° C. for 18 h. 40 μ l of a solution of 0.2% p-iodonitrotetrazolium (INT) in distilled water was added to each well. The plates were then deposited for 20 minutes in the dark. The presence of a red color in a well indicates the presence of viable bacteria. The MIC is the first concentration for which viable bacteria are present. Wells that did not show a red color (subjects are missing here) are seeded on Mueller Hinton agar. CMB is the first concentration for which there is a colony presence.

2.9. Statistical Analysis

All experiments were conducted in triplicate, and results, analysed using SPSS Statistics 17.0 software, were reported with means \pm standard deviation (S.D.). An analysis of variance (ANOVA single factor) was used to compare the means of the inhibition zone diameters of the same plant on different strains, and also the inhibition zone diameters of plants extracts with reference antibiotic. The level of significance was defined at 5%.

3. Results & Discussion

3.1. Phytochemical Screening

The phytochemical screening of the three differents extracts of *P. africana* has revealed the presence of many secondary metabolites like tannins, steroids, coumarins, flavonoids, mucilage and alkaloids. The analyses of the results as presented in table 3 indicate that the presence of some phytochemical in this plant depends on the type of extract used. For exemple, coumarins were found only in the aqueous and ethanolic extracts and in the decoction of *P. africana*, whereas they were not reveled in the total extract of plant (the direct use of plant powder for screening without any initial extraction. We could not highlight the presence of alkaloids in this plant. On the contrary, Kolapo et *al.*, [18] reported that saponins, tannins, alkaloids and steroids were highly concentrated in the stem and root of *P. africana*.

Plant Extract	Phytochemicals						
	Mucilage	Tannin	Anthocyan	Steroid	Coumarin	Flavonoid	alkaloid
Total extract	+	+	-	+	-	+	-
Aqueous	-	+	+	+	+	+	-
Decoction	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Ethanolic	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
+ : Present ; - : Absent							

Table 3: Result of the phytochemical screening

Journal of Scientific and Engineering Research

3.2. Total phenolic contents

The total phenolic contents of the semi-ethanolic extracts which 124.142 ± 3.535 mg eq GA / g CE were generally and logically above those of the aqueous extracts and decoction. Indeed, countless studies have already shown that ethanol or methanol alone or mixed with water extract the phenolic compounds better than water alone. Total flavonoids content of the three extracts of the plant were also determine and results appear in table 4. The ethanolic extracts of both plants had the highest content of flavonoid with values of 124.708 ± 5.595 mg eq C / g CE. Flavonoids have vitamin P properties in the capillaries, which they reinforce and make it possible to reduce the frequency of minor hemorrhages [19]. Catechins, the most reduced form of the C₃ unit in flavonoid compounds, deserve special mention. These flavonoids have been extensively researched due to their occurrence in oolong green teas and their antimicrobial activity against oral microbes implicated in oral infection like *Streptococcus mutans* [20].

Table 4:	Total	Phenolic	Content
----------	-------	----------	---------

Phenolic compounds	Plant extracts				
	Aqueous	Decoction	Ethanolic		
Total phenolic(mg eq GA / g CE)	51.107 ± 6.313	61.464 ± 6.313	124.142 ± 3.535		
Flavonoid (mg eq C / g CE)	76.060 ± 3.948	52.934 ± 4.196	124.708 ± 5.595		

3.3. Antioxidant activity

3.3.1. DPPH method

The inhibitory concentration of each extract of plant and positive control necessary for trapping 50% of free radicals of DPPH (IC₅₀), graphically calculated are shown in figure (1a) and figure (1b). The ethanolic extract of *P. africana* was the most effective with an IC₅₀ of 0.5 ± 0.084 . The aqueous extract and the decoction were less effective against free radicals although the aqueous extract was more effective than the decoction. In fact the aqueous extract presented an IC₅₀ of 1.160 ± 0.056 mg/mL whereas the IC₅₀ of the decoction was 1.7 ± 0.141 mg/mL. The results where compare to gallic acid and catechin with IC₅₀ of 0.028 ± 0.001 mg/mL and 0.071 ± 0.012 mg/mL respectivily. As result, the reference compound where far active than all the plant extracts. The results suggest that this two plants could increase the antioxidant capacity of saliva when used as chewing stick and this could explain the fact that they are used by rural populations of Benin Republic. The antioxidant activity of these two chewing sticks may be attributed to their phenolic content. Indeed Lee and *al.* [21] showed that delivery of tea polyphenols by holding green or black tea in the mouth for 2-5 minutes increases the antioxidant capacity of saliva. In the same logic, Chinsembu et *al.*, [22] reported that green tea as an excellent source of the polyphenol andantioxidant epigallocatechin-3-gallate plays a beneficial role in alleviating oral oxidative stress and inflammation.



Figure (1a) : Scavenging activity of *P. africana*



Figure 1: Radical DPPH scavenging activities of extracts of P. africana (Aq: aqueous; De: decoction; eth: ethanolic), catechin and gallic acid

Journal of Scientific and Engineering Research

3.3.2. Ferric Reducing Antioxidant Power method

In other to confirm the DPPH free radical scavenging test, the reducing power of iron Fe³⁺ by the extracts of the plants studied was evaluated using the FRAP method describe in the experimental section. The results of this study presented in figure 2 show that the ethanolic extract have the best reducing power which is express as 78.7629 ± 1.361 mg eqGA/g CE and 165.877 ± 3.696 mg eqC/g CE. This could be justify by the high phenolic content previously indicated. The aqueous extract presented a medium reducing power of 44.762 ± 1.676 mg eqGA/g CE and 75.599 ± 1.706 mg eqC/g CE whereas the decoction extract present a low reducing power. Results interpretation simply means that 1g of the ethanolic extract of *P. africana* would have the same reducing power with about 78.7629 mg of gallic acid and 165.877 mg of catechin approximately. We could then conclude that this plant have a relatively good reducing power towards ion Fe (III) as compare with pure reference compounds and this reducing power could be improved by farther purifications of this extracts.



Figure 2: Ferric reducing power of the extracts of P. africana

3.4. Antimicrobial activity

3.4.1. Preliminary screening

The determination of the inhibition zones diameter of the extracts of the selected plants on the strains tested reveals that only the ethanolic extract of *P. africana* was effective against the microorganisms tested (table 5). This extracts was effective against the microorganisms tested with inhibition zones diameter ranging from 11.000 ± 1.000 mm to 13.333 ± 0.577 mm. This extract were able to inhibite *Candida albicans*, known to be implicated in oral infection, with remarkable inhibition zone diameters of 13.333 ± 0.577 mm. Though active, the ethanolic extract of *P. africana* was less active against the microorganisms comparatively to synthetic antibiotics. Kolapo et al., [3] reported that both ethanol and aqueous extracts of the stem and root of *P. africana* had inhibitory effect on the growth of the tested microorganisms like *Candida albicans*. This fact led them to conclude that the stem and root of *P. africana* could be potential candidate in the production of dentifrice and natural chewing gums for oral hygiene and to treat toothache, gingivitis and periodontal disease as early reported by kerry [23]. All plant extracts that were active on the microorganisms studied were submitted to the determination of MICs and MBCs to better highlight their antimicrobial activity.

Strains	Plant extraxts			Antibiotics			
	Aq.	. De Eth.		Vancomycin Imipenem		Colistin	
S. aureus	Na	Na	12.333 ± 0.577	17.666 ± 0.577	ND	ND	
E. coli	Na	Na	13.000 ± 1.000	ND	26.666 ± 1.154	19.333 ± 0.577	
E. faecalis	Na	Na	11.333 ± 0.577	17.666 ± 0.577	ND	ND	
P. mirabilis	Na	Na	11.000 ± 1.000	ND	$26.666 \pm 1,154$	$19.333 \pm 0,577$	
C. albicans	Na	Na	13.333 ± 0.577	ND	ND	ND	
P. aeruginosa	Na	Na	11.000 ± 1.000	ND	26.666 ± 1.154	19.333 ± 0.577	
Aq : aqueous ; De : decoction ; Eth : ethanolic ; ND : Not Done ; na : not active							

Table 5: Inhibition Zone Diameters of plant extracts and antibiotics



3.4.2. Determination of minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimal bactericidal concentration (MBC)

The most effective plant extracts against the various microorganisms tested were farther inquired about their MICs and CMBs to better appreciate their activity and the results are recorded in Table 6. Thus, only the ethanolic extract of *P. africana* was used for this study. From the analysis of these results, *P. africana* ethanolic extract, MICs range from 12.500 to 25.000 mg/mL whereas the MBCs range from 25.000 to 50.000 mg/mL. The same extract was able to inhibite *candida albicans*, a strain that is known to be implicated in oral diseases with a MIC of 12.500 mg/mL. Ayanwuyi *et al* [24] reported an oral median lethal dose of the methanolic extract of *P. africana* at 3.808 g/kg in mice and >5 g/kg in rats and the study results support the traditional claim of the use of *P. africana* for the analgesic and anti-inflammatory activities.

At this stage we can suppose that natural compounds, especielly phenolic compounds in the chewing sticks are responsible for the observed antimicrobial activities of the chewing sticks studied. This hypothesis seems to be confirmed by Matsumoto *et al* [20], who showed that administration of the oolong tea extract and its chromatographically isolated polyphenol compound into diet and drinking water resulted in significant reductions in caries development and plaque accumulation in rats infected with *mutans streptococci*. Since they are known to be synthesized by plants in response to microbial infection, it should not be surprising that they have been found *in vitro* to be effective antimicrobial substances against a wide array of microorganisms [25].

MIC and MBC (mg/mL)								
Extracts		Strains						
		S. aureus	E. coli	E. faecalis	P. mirabilis	C. albicans	P. aeruginosa	
Ethanolic	MIC	25.000	12.500	25.000	25.000	12.500	25.000	
	MBC	25.000	25.000	25.000	25.000	50.000	25.000	

Table 6 : MICs et MBCs of different plant extracts

4. Conclusion

The results of the present study revealed that the ethanolic extract of *Prosopis Africana* contain an important quantity of phenolic compounds. It has also exhibited a relative good antioxidant and antimicrobial activity which could be related to their phenolic content. Further study have to done in other to find out the bioactive compound of this plant and to evaluate the toxicity this plants extract for further use.

References

- [1]. Van Wyk, B.E., & Gericke, N. (2000). *People's plant: A guide to useful plants of Southern Africa*. Pretoria: Briza Publications.
- [2]. Van Vuuren, S.F. and Viljoen, A.M. 2006. The in vitro antimicrobial activity of toothbrush sticks used in Ethiopia. South African Journal of Botany. 72 (4): 646–648.
- [3]. Kolapo, A.L. Okunade, M.B. Adejumobi, J.A. and Ogundiya, M.O. 2009. Phytochemical Composition and Antimicrobial Activity of *Prosopis africana* Against Some Selected Oral Pathogens. World Journal of Agricultural Sciences. 5(1): 90-93.
- [4]. Harborne, J. B., Boulter, D. and Turner, B. L. Chemotaxonomy of the Leguminosae. London and New York, AcademicPress. (1971).
- [5]. Hostettman, K., Wolfender, J-L., Rodriguez, S., & Marston, A. (1996). Strategy in the search for bioactive plant constituents. In: Hostettmann, K., Chiyanganya, F., Maillard, M., & Wolfender, J-L. (Eds.), Chemistry, Biological and Pharmacological properties of African medicinal plants: Proceedings of the first international IOCD-symposium Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe, 21-42.
- [6]. Harborne J. B., *Phytochemical Methods: A Guide to Modern Techniques of Plant Analysis*, Chapman and Hall, New York, NY, USA, 1973.
- [7]. Noudogbessi J. P. A., Natta A. K., Tchobo F. P., Bogninou G. S., Bothon F. T. D., Bossou A. Figueredo D.G., Chalard P., Chalchat J. C. and Sohounhloué D. C. K. (2013). Phytochemical

Screening of *Pentadesma butyracea* Sabine (Clusiaceae) Acclimated in Benin by GC/MS. Hindawi Publishing Corporation ISRN Analytical Chemistry. Volume 2013, Article ID 172397, 8 pages.

- [8]. Ainsworth E.A. et Gillespie K.M., (2007). Estimation of total phenolic content and other oxidation substrates in plant tissues using Folin-Ciocalteu reagent. Nature protocols. 2, 875-877.
- [9]. Kim D.O., Chun O.K, Kim Y. J., Moon H.Y., Lee C.Y., (2003). Quantification of polyphenolics and their antioxidant capacity in fresh plums. J. Agric. Food Chem. 51, 6509-6515.
- [10]. Haddadi H., Alizadeh N. and Shamsipur M., (2011). Stoichiometric and Free Radical-Scavenging Kinetic Studies of Extractable. Polyphenols from Pomegranate Husk and Pistachio Hull. Journal of the Iranian Chemical Society. 8, 694-707.
- [11]. Chung Y.C., Chang C.T., Chao W.W., Lin C.F. and Chou S.T., (2002). Antioxidative activity and safety of the 50% ethanolic extract from redbean fermented by *Bacillus subtilis* IMR-NK1. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*. 50, 2454-2458.
- [12]. Société Française de Microbilogie (CA-SFM). Recommendation 2017, V. 2.0 May
- [13]. Agbankpe A.J., Dougnon T.V., Bankole S.H., Houngbegnon O., Dah-nouvlessounon D. and Babamoussa L., (2016). In Vitro Antibacterial Effects of Crateva adansonii, Vernonia amygdalina and Sesamum radiatum Used for the Treatment of Infectious Diarrhoeas in Benin; Journal of Infectious Diseases and Therapy. 4, 01-07.
- [14]. Oke M.A., Bello A.B., Odebisi, M.B., Ahmed El-Imam A.M. and Kazeem. M.O., (2013). Evaluation of antibacterial efficacy of some alcohol-based hand sanitizers sold in Ilorin (north-central Nigeria). Ife Journal of Science 15, no. 1 (2013)
- [15]. OMS. L'utilisation des antimicrobiens en dehors de la médecine humaine et les résistances qui en résultent chez l'homme. OMS Aide-Mémoire N°268, Genève (2002).
- [16]. Tsirinirindravo L and Andrianarisoa B., (2009). Activités antibactériennes de l'extrait des feuilles de Dalechampia clematidifolia (*Euphorbiaceae*). International Journal of Biological and Chemical Sciences. 3, 01-07.
- [17]. Lagnika L., Anago E., Atindehou M., Adjahoutonon B., Dramane K., et al. (2011). Antimicrobial activity of Crataeva religiosa Forst against bacteria isolated from Thryonomys swinderianus Temminck. African Journal of Biotechnology. 10, 10034-10039
- [18]. Kolapo A.L., Okunade M.B., Adejumobi J.A. and Ogundiya M.O., (2009). Phytochemical Composition and Antimicrobial Activity of Prosopis africana Against Some Selected Oral Pathogens. World Journal of Agricultural Sciences. 5, 90-93 (2009)
- [19]. Bitty M.J.. (1982). Etude de quelques plantes utilisées comme bâtonnet frotte-dent en côte d'ivoire. Thèse pour le diplôme d'état de docteur en chirurgie dentaire de côte d'Ivoire Dissertation, Université de Clermont 1.
- [20]. Matsumoto, M. Minami, T. Sasaki, H. Sobue, S. Hamada, S. and Ooshima, T. 1999. Inhibitory effects of oolongtea extract on caries-inducing properties of mutans streptococci. Caries Res. 33 (6): 441-445.
- [21]. Lee M.J., Lambert J.D., Prabhu S., Meng X., Lu H., Malaikal P. et al., (2004). Delivery of tea polyphenols to the oral cavity by green tea leaves and black tea extract. Cancer Epidemiology Biomarkers and Prevention. 13, 132-137.
- [22]. Chinsembu (2016). Plants and other natural products used in the management of oral infections and improvement of oral health. *Acta Tropica*, 154, 6–18.
- [23]. Kerry, B., 2008. Phytotherapy for Periodontal disease and improved oral hygiene (Phytotherapy Review and Commentary) http://www.mediherb.com
- [24]. Ayanwuyi LO, Yaro AH, Abodunde OM. Analgesic and anti-inflammatory effects of the methanol stem bark extract of *Prosopis africana*. Pharm Biol 2010; 48: 296-299.
- [25]. Cowan, M.M. 1999. Plant Products as Antimicrobial Agents. Clinical microbiology reviews. 12 (4): 564–582.

