THERAPEUTIC BIOLOGICAL ACTIVITIES OF Balanites aegyptiaca (L.) Delile: A REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Medicinal plants continue to be a crucial source of safe, less toxic, economical, available, and reliable natural medicine supplies all over the world. Balanites aegyptiaca Del. (Zygophyllaceae), commonly known as the "desert date", is a thorny shrub or tree found in arid parts of Africa and South Asia. It has traditionally been used to cure a variety of maladies such as wounds, haemorrhoids, jaundice, syphilis, intestinal worm infection, malaria, dysentery, constipation, diarrhoea, stomachaches, asthma, and fever. The fruits of B. aegyptiaca are highly effective as antioxidants, anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, antifungal, antiparasitic, antidiabetic, and anticancer. However, the safety and effectiveness of *B. aegyptiaca* have not been completely studied in humans, so additional well-planned clinical trials are required to corroborate preclinical findings. The WHO has stressed on continued research on medical plants since products derived from plants will continue to be in demand. Searches were conducted on Google Scholar, Science Direct, Google.com, Wiley, PubMed, Hindawi, Springer, and other relevant databases for research publications on B. aegyptiaca. Duplicate publications including thesis papers, and reviews of B. aegyptiaca were excluded This review presents a thorough overview of current information on the therapeutic characteristics of *B. aegyptiaca* with a focus on its biological activities. It briefly examines its traditional usage, taxonomy, and biological evaluation.

Keywords: Antidiabetic, Balanites aegyptiaca, cancer, diabetes, plant extract

1. INTRODUCTION

Plant remedies have been used for the treatment of numerous diseases for over 4,000 years because they contain beneficial chemical components. The primary therapeutic benefits of plants are derived from their phytochemical constituents, which, when given to humans, have a particular pharmacological impact. In medicinal plants, specialized phytochemicals are naturally present in leaves, stem, roots, fruits, seeds that have their own defense mechanisms and protective ions from many illnesses. There has been a boom in interest in medicinal plants' therapeutic properties. *Balanites aegyptiaca* (L.) Delile is one of the most prevalent but underestimated wild plant species in Africa and South Asia. It is ubiquitous because it does well in a variety of soil types (from sand to clay) and levels of wetness. It can endure fire, animals, and water to a certain extent. In many regions of the world, the plant is referred to by various local names. For instance: Heglig (tree), Lalob (fruit); trade names include Zaccone, Hingot, Bedeno, Egyptian balsam (Fadl, 2015; Goyanar *et al.*, 2020). Various traditional medical uses for *B. aegyptiaca* including antidiabetic, anti-feedant, molluscidal, anticough, and anthelmintic have been reported (Yassin *et al.*, 2017). There has already been an attempt to review the plant (Al-Thobaiti *et al.*, 2018). However, as per our literature search, no current comprehensive biological reviews of *Balanites aegyptiaca* is available. The present review provides an up-to-date and exhaustive analysis of the research done on the biological potential of *B. aegyptiaca*.

2. BRIEF TAXONOMIC DISTRIBUTION

An evergreen dicotyledonous multi-branched Savannah tree species, *Balanites aegyptiaca*, is endemic to dry and semi-arid regions of Africa, the Arabian Peninsula, and South Asia (Shalaby *et al.*, 2010; Vijay *et al.*, 2010; Gardette *et al.*, 2013). *B. aegyptiaca* is a fruit-bearing tree native to Africa that is found in tropical and subtropical climates, ranging from Senegal in west to Somalia in east, and from Jordan in north to Zimbabwe in south (Goyanar *et al.*, 2020). It is also available in Saudi Arabia, India, Iran, Jordan, Syria, Oman, Palestine, Myanmar and Yemen (Abdalla *et al.*, 2022). They are described as woody found in a diverse area of ecological settings and flourishes in arid climates (Vijay *et al.*, 2010; Kusch *et al.*, 2011; Khamis *et al.*, 2020). It grows at an altitude between 380 and 1,800 m masl and encounters rainfall amounting to 100-1400 mm (Khamis *et al.*, 2020). *B. aegyptiaca* developed a new adaptation approach to the harsh climate of these places. It appears a triple root system that accepts it to gain control any drop of moisture that is in contact with it (Gardette *et al.*, 2013); thus, helps to survive for at least two years without rain (Gardette *et al.*, 2013). *B. aegyptiaca*, also known as desert date tree, is a member of the family Zygophyllaceae (Khamis *et al.*, 2020). This tree reaches a height of 10 m and possesses a light crown with intense thorns. Various types of inflorescences, plus yellow-green, bisexual blooms that produce nectar, are generated by the tree (Kusch *et al.*, 2011).

3. TRADITIONAL THERAPEUTIC USES

People have traditionally recognized plants as one of the most valuable parts of the biosphere due to their nutritional and medicinal functions and chemical properties. All parts of plant B. aegyptiaca are used for medicinal reasons- The fruits of this plant are used to cure a variety of illnesses, including diarrhoea, dysentery, fever, syphilis, constipation, wound healing, and intestinal worm infestations (Doughari et al., 2007). B. aegyptiaca roots and bark are known for their purgative and anthelmintic properties. Swelling and stomachache are also relieved by its root, while bark is used to deworm animals (Abdalla et al., 2022). B. aegyptiaca fruit is used in Sudan and Egypt to treat jaundice (Habieballa et al., 2021). A wide variety of ailments are treated by the oil extracted from the seeds, including epilepsy, syphilis, jaundice, and even jaundice. In traditional African medication, the bark is utilised for the treatment of skin diseases and wound healing (Sedky et al., 2022). B. aegyptiaca parts are used for the management of diabetes and liver diseases (Shalaby et al., 2010). The extract from its bark is used to eliminate copepods and freshwater snails (Sarker et al., 2000; Maregesi et al., 2008). The mesocarps fruits are additionally used to remedy water fleas, which assist as guinea worms' alternate hosts, and freshwater snails, which serve as bilharzia's intermediate hosts (Shalaby et al., 2010). Numerous illnesses, including wounds, syphilis, hemorrhoids, jaundice, intestinal worm infection, malaria, dysentery, constipation, diarrhoea, stomachaches, asthma, and fever have historically been treated with it (Fig. 1) [Ibrahim, 2016]. Malaria is another disease treated by using B. aegyptiaca root (Habieballa et al., 2021). Due to the presence of active ingredient steroidal saponin, the bark was once utilized as a fish poison (Neuwinger, 2004). Fruits are sold as an antidiabetic by herbalists in the Egyptian market (Deib et al., 2018), and they are used orally as an anti-hyperglycemic in Egyptian traditional medicine (Gad *et al.*, 2006; Zaahkouk *et al.*, 2015; Zaky *et al.*, 2022). Root decoction is typically used to treat malaria. The roots are used to alleviate edema and stomach troubles when heated into a soup, while the bark is used to deworm animals. As an oral hypoglycemic, its fruits are used in traditional Egyptian medicine (Ahmed *et al.*, 2015). Extracts from the plant roots, branches, bark, fruit, and kernel have proven to be toxic to the miracidia and cercariae of *Shistosoma mansoni* and *Fasciola gigantica*, both of which are gastrointestinal parasites (Koko *et al.*, 2000).

4. THERAPEUTIC BIOLOGICAL ACTIVITES OF B. aegyptiaca

4.1 Antioxidant activities

The primary factor behind the health benefits of plant-derived natural bioactive compounds is their ability to reduce oxidative stress (Laus *et al.*, 2023). Phytochemicals are a diverse group of secondary metabolites that plants produce and store. There are two main sources for these chemicals: constitutive production and stress-induced formation (Kasote *et al.*, 2015). Human body has an antioxidant defense system in place to counteract the oxidative stress brought on by the production of free radicals and reactive oxygen species (ROS) during typical physiological operations (Abdulrahman, 2023). Since antioxidants can shield the body from the harmful effects of free radicals and ROS, therefore,

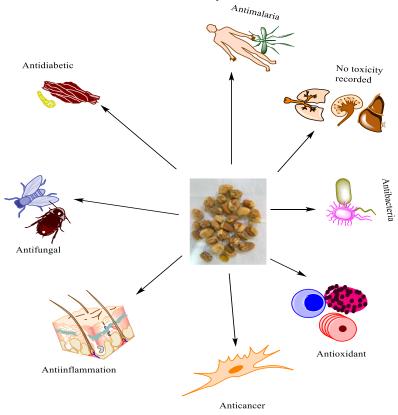


Fig. 1: Summary of biological activities of *Balanites aegyptiaca*

(Kahsay *et al.*, 2014). After pretreatment with leaf extract, these changes were prevented and the enzyme activities were restored to almost normal levels, which was statistically significant (P < 0.05) [Masry *et al.*, 2010]. The overall antioxidant capacity of ethanolic root extract ranged from 55 to 81%, whereas the concentrations of aqueous root extract ranged from 20 to 35% as compared to the 80% for regular ascorbic acids (Usman *et al.*, 2010). Chloroform fruit extract had highest level of radical scavenging activity (75%), while hexane and methanol extracts had scavenging capacities of 44 and 41%, respectively (Al-Ashaal, 2017). The different dosages of extracts significantly corrected the negative effect of *Monosodium glutamate* on memory (Parfait *et al.*, 2022). This was demonstrated

many chronic diseases can be prevented or even cured.

The perusal of literature has revealed the presence of high antioxidant content in B. aegyptiaca in its different parts (Table 1). The addition of *B. aegyptiaca* extract at a concentration of 20 µg mL⁻¹ variably inhibited *β*-carotene bleaching (Abdallah et al., 2012). B. aegyptiaca showed anti-oxidant activity in FRAP or DPPH assays (46.8 and 102.0 g AAE g⁻¹, respectively) [Nitiema et al., 2020]. Low levels of radicals can be scavenged by hydroethanolic extract of B. aegyptiaca (IC_{50.} 52.5 µg mL⁻¹). The ferric reduction in this sample is 126 moles (Anani et al., 2015). The IC₅₀ value for inhibiting free radicals in methanolic leaf extract was 182 µg mL⁻¹

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S.	Biological	Method	Plant part	Solvents	Concentrations	Reference
	activity	Followed	used	used	tested	
1	Antioxidant	DPPH	Fruits (oil)	n-hexane	1 mL	Al Ashaal et al. (2010)
		DPPH	Fruits	-	-	Abdelaziz et al. (2020)
		DPPH, β -caroter	ne			
		bleaching assay	Fruits	Methanol	200, 500 μL	Abdallah et al. (2012)
		DPPH, ABTS,	Stem bark	n-hexane, chloroform,	20, 100 μL	Hassan et al. (2016)
		FRAP		methanol, aqueous		
		DPPH, FRAP	Stem bark	Ethanol (70%)	-	Nitiema et al. (2020)
		DPPH, FRAP	Bark	Ethanol-aqueous (7:3)	50-100 mg mL ⁻¹	Anani et al. (2015)
		DPPH	-	Methanol	-	Annan et al. (2008)
		DPPH, FRAP	Fruits	Aqueous	1.5- 5.0 mg mL ⁻¹	Amadou et al. (2012)
		DPPH, FRAP	Leaves	Ethanol	-	Khamis et al. (2020)
		In vivo	-	Ethanol	100, 200 mg kg ⁻¹	Suky et al. (2011)
		In vivo	Fruits	-	100 mg kg ⁻¹	Montasser et al. (2017)
		In vivo	Leaves	-	400 mg kg ⁻¹ BW	El Masry et al. (2010)
		In vivo	Fruits	Ethanol	-	Jaheed et al. (2019)
		DPPH	Root	Ethanol, aqueous	100 mg mL ⁻¹	Usman <i>et al.</i> (2010)
		DPPH	Fruits	-	-	Kabbashi (2015)
		DPPH	Fruits	-	1.5 mg mL ⁻¹	Sedky et al. (2022)
		DPPH	Leaves	Methanol	-	Ibrahim (2016b)
		DPPH	Fruits	Hexane, chloroform,	-	Al-Ashaal (2017)
		DITT	Tures	methanol		111 Holiaal (2017)
		Thiocyanate	Leaves	Ethanol	200-1000 µg	Vijay et al. (2010)
		method	Leuves	Ethunor	200 1000 µ5	(ijuj el ul. (2010)
		method	Fruit pulp	Aqueous	50, 125, 250, & 500 mg kg ⁻¹	Parfait et al. (2022)
		DPPH	Leaves	Methanol	1 mg mL^{-1}	Kahsay et al. (2014)
		DPPH, super-	Fruits	-	5 mg mL^{-1}	Amadou <i>et al.</i> (2017)
		oxide radicals	Tuns		5 mg mL	7 mildoù er ur. (2017)
		DPPH	Kernel	Ethanol	50- 200 mg mL ⁻¹	Mostafa et al. (2016)
		In vivo	Fruits	Methanol	50- 200 mg mL	El-Saied <i>et al.</i> (2021)
		DPPH	Seed	Wethanoi	-	Badu <i>et al.</i> (2021)
		DPPH, FRAP	Seeu	-	-	Nitiema <i>et al.</i> (2021)
2	Anti-		- Bark	- Methanol, butanol	- 200, 400 mg kg ⁻¹	
<u>.</u>		In vivo In vivo		Methanol, butanol		Speroni <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	inflammatory		Oil	-	25-100 mg kg ⁻¹	Ahmed <i>et al.</i> (2015)
		In vivo	-	Aqueous	-	Elkareem <i>et al.</i> (2021)
		-		s Aqueous, acetone		Meda <i>et al.</i> (2020)
		Protein denatu- ration assay	Seed	-	-	Badu et al. (2021)
		In vivo	Seed oil	-	10-600 mg kg day	⁻¹ Goyanar <i>et al.</i> (2020)
		In vivo	Bark	Methanol, butanol	-	Speroni et al. (2005)
3	Antibacterial	Disc	Leaves	Aqueous, acetone & ethanol.	20-100 mg mL ⁻¹	Doughari et al. (2007)
		Agar-well	Fruits	Methanol	50, 100 mg mL ⁻¹	Abdallah et al. (2012)
		diffusion			- ,, 100 mg mL	
			Bark	_	Ethanol-aqueous	Anani et al. (2015)
		-	Dark	_	(7:3)	1 main <i>ei ul</i> . (2015)
			Emite	Ethonol	(1.5)	Kabbashi (2015)
		-	Fruits	Ethanol	-	Kabbashi (2015)

		-		Methanol	10 mg mL ⁻¹	Ouedraogo et al. (2018)
		Diag diffusion	galls	Methanol		$V_{abcov} \rightarrow \pi l (2014)$
		Disc diffusion Well diffusion	Leaves Kernel	Ethanol	- 50-200 mg mL ⁻¹	Kahsay <i>et al.</i> (2014) Mostafa <i>et al.</i> (2016)
				Methanol	•	¹ Ibrahim <i>et al.</i> (2010)
		Agar diffusion	Fruits		10	
		Agar plates	bark, root	Aqueous (hot & cold) and ethanol	100 mg mL	Tula et al. (2014)
			bark			
		Agar well diffusion	Leaf	Aqueous, ethanolic	200, 100, 50, 25, 12.5, 6.25 mg mL ⁻	Ezemokwe <i>et al.</i> (2020) 1
			Seed	n-hexane	100, 50, 25, 12 , 6 μg mL ⁻¹	Habieballa et al. (2021)
		Disc	Leaves	Methanol, aqueous	5, 10, 15 mg mL ⁻¹	Abdulhamid et al. (2016)
		Ager well	Leaf, stem,	Ethanol	-	Shahid et al. (2012)
			fruit and flower			
		Disc	Galls, leaves	-	40 mg mL ⁻¹	Meda et al. (2011)
		Agar well	Mesocarp	Aqueous	-	Awad <i>et al.</i> (2013)
		diffusion	Ĩ	1		× ,
		Disc	Leaves	Methanol, aqueous	5, 10, 15 mg mL ⁻¹	Abdulhamid et al. (2016)
			Leaves	-	25-100%	Ibrahim (2016a)
4	Antifungal	Agar-well	Fruits	Methanol	50, 100 mg mL ⁻¹	Abdallah et al. (2012)
		diffusion				
		Disc	Fruits (oil)	n-hexane	10 µL per disk	Al Ashaal et al. (2010)
		Disc	Seed, callus		-	Abaka et al. (2020)
			Seed		100, 50, 25, 12, 6 μg mL ⁻¹	Habieballa et al. (2021)
		MIC	Fruits		-	Khatoon et al. (2013)
						Nitiema et al. (2019)
5	Antiparasitic		Fruits	Hexane, chloroform, methanol	-	Al-Ashaal (2017)
		In vivo	Fruits	Methanol	1.000 mg kg ⁻¹ BW	Shalaby <i>et al.</i> (2010)
		In vivo	fruit	Chloroform, ethyl	0- 0.200 % w/v	Wiesman <i>et al.</i> (2006)
			mesocarp	acetate, butanol, methanol		
		In vivo	Fruit	Aqueous	9 g kg ⁻¹ BW	Koko et al. (2000)
			mesocarp	. I que o us	5 <u>6 6</u> 2	110110 01 001 (2000)
		In vivo	Fruit mesocarp	-	200 mg kg ⁻¹ BW	Koko et al. (2005)
		In vivo	Leaf, fruit	Aqueous	0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5,	Chapagain et a-l. (2005)
			pulp, seed	rqueous	1.0, & 2.0%	Chapagain <i>et a t</i> . (2000)
			kernel		1.0, a 2.070	
		In vivo	Root (callus)) -	0, 50, 100, 500, 1000 &1500 ppm	Chapagain et al. (2008)
			Leaves, sterr back, roots	n Aqueous	10- 50 ppm	Abdullahi (2018)
		In vivo	Seed	Aqueous	1.25 g 100 mL ⁻¹	Kusch et al. (2011)
		In vivo In vivo	-	-	-	Karou et al. (2011)
6	Antidiabetic	In vivo	Fruits	Aqueous	1.5 g kg ⁻¹ bw	Erejuwa <i>et al.</i> (2012)
5					daily for 45 days	(2012)

$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			In vivo	-	Butanol, dichloromethane	$50 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ bw}$	Hassanin et al. (2018)
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			In vivo	Seeds		$4.2 \text{ mg} 100 \text{ g}^{-1}$	Helpl $at al (2013)$
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$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			In vivo	Fruits	Aqueous	-	Deib et al. (2018)
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			In vivo	Seeds	-	-	Gad et al. (2006)
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			In vivo	Fruits	Ethyl acetate	10-50 mg kg ⁻¹ bw	Al-Malki et al. (2015)
$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			In vivo	Kernel	Methanol	650 mg kg ⁻¹	Al-Thobaiti et al. (2019)
$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$			In vivo	Fruits	Ethanol, butanol,	50 mg kg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹	Al-Ashaal (2017)
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$					dichloromethane		
8Anti-Alzheimer -PulpIbrahim et al. (2021)9Antiviral-Fruit(oil)N hexane-Al Ashaal et al. (2010)10AnticancerIn vivoFruits-10 mg kg ⁻¹ bwAl-Ghannam et al. (2013)MTTRootMethanol1-10 μ MBeit et al. (2011)FruitsHexane, chloroform, methanol-Al-Ashaal (2017)-FruitsHexane, chloroform, methanol-Al-Ashaal (2017)In vivoFruits-400 mg kg ⁻¹ Issa et al. (2015)MTTFruits-400 mg kg ⁻¹ Ibrahim et al. (2022)-FruitsYassin et al. (2017)Sulphodiamine-BYassin et al. (2017)Sulphodiamine-B-Sassay-Zaahkouk et al. (2015)MTTSeeds-3.12-100 µg mL ⁻¹ Sherif et al. (2016)MTTFruitsEthyl acetate, ethanol, chloroform25-100 µg mL ⁻¹ Al-Malki et al. (2016)MTTFruit oiln-hexane-Al Ashaal et al. (2010)11ToxicityMicronucleusFruit oiln-hexane50 & 100 ppmAl Ashaal et al. (2010)11ToxicityMicronucleusFruit oiln-hexane50 & 100 ppmAl Ashaal et al. (2010)11ToxicityMicronucleusFruit oiln-hexane125- 500 µg mL ⁻¹ Ibrahim (2016b)In vivo-Aqueous1 g kg ⁻¹ Ali et al. (2001) <td></td> <td></td> <td>In vivo</td> <td>Fruits</td> <td>Aqueous</td> <td>0.25-1.0%</td> <td>Ghanem et al. (2016)</td>			In vivo	Fruits	Aqueous	0.25-1.0%	Ghanem et al. (2016)
9Antiviral-Fruit(oil)N hexane-Al Ashaal et al. (2010)10AnticancerIn vivoFruits-10 mg kg ⁻¹ bwAl-Ghannam et al. (2013)MTTRootMethanol1-10 μ MBeit et al. (2011)-FruitsHexane, chloroform, methanol-Al-Ashaal (2017)-Fruits-400 mg kg ⁻¹ Issa et al. (2015)MTTFruits-400 mg kg ⁻¹ Issa et al. (2022)-FruitsYassin et al. (2027)-FruitsYassin et al. (2017)Sulphodiamine-BYassin et al. (2017)Sulphodiamine-B-3.12-100 µg mL ⁻¹ Sherif et al. (2015)(SRB) assayMTTSeeds-3.12-100 µg mL ⁻¹ MTTFruitsEthyl acetate, ethanol, chloroform25-100 µg mL ⁻¹ Al Ashaal et al. (2010)mit oiln-hexane-ELISAFruit oiln-hexane50 & 100 ppmAl Ashaal et al. (2010)k chromosomal aberrations assaysMTTLeavesMTTLeavesMethanol125- 500 µg mL ⁻¹ Ibrahim (2016b)In vivo-Aqueous1 g kg ⁻¹ Ali et al. (2010)	7	Wound healing In vivo		-	Methanol	33.3% w/w	Annan et al. (2008)
10AnticancerIn vivoFruits-10 mg kg ⁻¹ bwAl-Ghannam et al. (2013)MTTRootMethanol1-10 μ MBeit et al. (2011)-FruitsHexane, chloroform, methanol-Al-Ashaal (2017)In vivoFruits-400 mg kg ⁻¹ Issa et al. (2015)MTTFruitsMethanol31-1000 μ g mL ⁻¹ Ibrahim et al. (2022)-FruitsYassin et al. (2017)Sulphodiamine-BZaahkouk et al. (2015)(SRB) assayMTTSeeds-3.12-100 μ g mL ⁻¹ MTTFruitsEthyl acetate, ethanol, chloroform25-100 μ g mL ⁻¹ LISAFruit oiln-hexane-Al Ashaal et al. (2010)11ToxicityMicronucleusFruit oiln-hexane50 & 100 ppmMTTLeavesMethanol125- 500 μ g mL ⁻¹ Ibrahim (2016b)In vivo-Aqueous1 g kg ⁻¹ Ali et al. (2001)		Anti-Alzheime	er -	Pulp	-	-	Ibrahim et al. (2021)
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$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	10	Anticancer	In vivo	Fruits	-	10 mg kg ⁻¹ bw	Al-Ghannam et al. (2013)
$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $			MTT	Root	Methanol	1-10 µM	Beit et al. (2011)
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			-	Fruits		-	Al-Ashaal (2017)
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			In vivo	Fruits	-	400 mg kg ⁻¹	Issa et al. (2015)
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			MTT	Fruits	Methanol	31-1000 µg mL ⁻¹	Ibrahim et al. (2022)
(SRB) assay MTT Seeds - 3.12-100 μg mL ⁻¹ Sherif <i>et al.</i> (2016) MTT Fruits Ethyl acetate, ethanol, chloroform 25-100 μg mL ⁻¹ Al-Malki <i>et al.</i> (2016) 11 Toxicity Micronucleus Fruit oil n-hexane - Al Ashaal <i>et al.</i> (2010) 11 Toxicity Micronucleus Fruit oil n-hexane 50 & 100 ppm Al Ashaal <i>et al.</i> (2010) & chromosomal aberrations assays MTT Leaves Methanol 125- 500 μg mL ⁻¹ Ibrahim (2016b) In vivo - Aqueous 1 g kg ⁻¹ Ali <i>et al.</i> (2001)			-	Fruits	-	-	Yassin et al. (2017)
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In vivo - Aqueous 1 g kg^{-1} Ali <i>et al.</i> (2001)			aberrations assay	ys			
			MTT	Leaves	Methanol	125- 500 μg mL ⁻¹	Ibrahim (2016b)
<i>In vivo</i> Fruits - $8.4-64 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ Absalom <i>et al.</i> (2013)			In vivo	-	Aqueous	1 g kg ⁻¹	Ali et al. (2001)
			In vivo	Fruits	-	8.4-64 g L ⁻¹	Absalom et al. (2013)

by a significant (P<0.05) increase in the proportion of spontaneous alternation in Y-maze test and a significant (P<0.05) increase in the discrimination index for recognizing novel items at a dose of 500 mg kg⁻¹ extract (Parfait *et al.*, 2022).

Methanol extract showed highest level of free radical activity in DPPH experiment (IC₅₀, 40 µg mL⁻¹), and the highest level of antioxidant activity in FRAP 0.52 (FeSO₄ mol mL⁻¹) assay (IC₅₀, 125.85 µg mL⁻¹) {Hassan *et al.*, 2016]. The antioxidant activity of *B. aegyptiaca* oil is greater than that of normal oleic acid due to the synergistic impact of oleic, linoleic, and sterol acids (Al Ashaal *et al.*, 2010). Serum levels of GOT, GPT, and ALP were significantly higher in the CCl₄ intoxicated group (group II) as compared to the healthy control group (P<0.01). (group I). Compared to the control group, CCl₄-intoxicated rats had considerably lower total protein (4.31 g dL⁻¹) and albumin (2.61 g dL⁻¹), both of which were statistically significant (P<0.01) (Suky *et al.*, 2011). TNF-levels oxidized glutathione (GSSG), malondialdehyde (MDA), and nitric oxide were also significantly elevated in MTX 40, as were alanine transaminase (ALT), aspartate transaminase (AST), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), gamma glutamyl transferase (GGT), total and direct bilirubin, and oxidized glut. Nonetheless, the MTX-treated group showed markedly lower levels of total protein, albumin, total antioxidant capacity, reduced glutathione (GSSH), glutathione (GSH), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), glutathione reductase (GR),

glutathione S-transferase (GST), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and catalase (CAT) (Montasser *et al.*, 2017). Due to an increase in flavonoids, which have high free radical scavenger properties and significant antioxidant activity, this happened linearly with increasing doses (Mostafa *et al.*, 2016). The extract, which contains saponins, flavonoids, terpenoids, phenolics, and alkaloids showed *in vitro* antioxidant activity (Jaheed *et al.*, 2019). An important predictor of a compound's potential antioxidant action is its capacity for lowering (Vijay *et al.*, 2010).

The ability of medicinal plants to effect therapy is typically linked to the variety of secondary metabolites they contain (Yılmaz *et al.*, 2023). Due to their many useful biological and pharmacological features, including their potent antioxidant effects, phenolic acids are often regarded as a potential class of plant secondary metabolites. However, several processes, including the inhibition of chain initiation, binding of the transition metal ion catalyst, breakdown of peroxides, inhibition of abstraction, and radical scavenging, have been proposed to explain the antioxidant actions of putative antioxidants (Vijay *et al.*, 2010).

4.2 Anti-inflammatory activities

There has been recent surge in the use of therapeutic plants as scientific research now backs up their usage in folk medicine to treat common disorders like inflammation, fever, cold and cough (Dogara, 2023). Injured or infected tissues trigger a defensive reaction known as inflammation (Abdulrahman, 2023). This is normal during recovery process but can be a problem in and of itself. Inflammation is characterized by redness, swelling, pain, heat, and dysfunction (Dogara, 2023). The inflammatory processes underlying these symptoms are triggered and regulated by a plethora of chemical mediators present in plants (Abdulrahman, 2023). These include complement proteins, kinins, eicosanoids, monokines, and histamines. For millennia, the leaves, root, bark, fruit, and seeds of *B. aegyptiaca* have been used as a medicine to alleviate inflammation and its associated symptoms (Deib *et al.*, 2018).

The crude extract of *B. aegyptiaca* prepared in a variety of solvents has been found efficient in treating a variety of inflammatory diseases. The extract induced significant inhibition of 63.9% when used @ 600 mg kg⁻¹ (Goyanar et al., 2020). The aqueous extract significantly reduced serum alanine aminotransferase, aspartate aminotransferase, alkaline phosphatase, bilirubin, urea, creatinine, tumour necrosis factor alpha, and interleukin-1beta levels, as well as hepatic malondialdehyde and nitric oxide (NO) levels (Elkareem et al., 2021). The aqueous and acetone extracts significantly (P<0.0001) decreased the levels of total leukocytes, total nitrite, and total nitrate in rat's serum (Meda et al., 2020). Oil reduced edema-induced increases in NO, LPO, CAT, and GST enzyme activity. Both methanol and butanol extracts exhibited strong analgesic effectiveness at 400 mg kg⁻¹. The number of writhes in mice treated with bark extract is significantly reduced. Mice pretreated with saponins, or extracts @ 200 mg kg⁻¹ did not vary from the control group (Speroni et al., 2005). The effects of butanol extract are clearly dose-dependent and are more pronounced than those of methanol extract (Speroni et al., 2005). Edema was reduced because of lower levels of cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), tumour necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-a), and interleukin-6 (Ahmed et al., 2015). Butanol extract demonstrated promising dose-response activity, with volume inhibition in rat paw ranging from 59 to 62.5% at a dose of 200 mg kg⁻¹ (Speroni et al., 2005). The structures of two saponins (steroid saponins 1 and 2) may explain the anti-inflammatory activity generated by the administration of *B. aegyptiaca* extracts (Speroni et al., 2005). Many anti-inflammatory herbal medications have various forms of saponins as major ingredients. Saponins may generate a modification of antioxidant systems that justify the pharmacological activity (Sayyah et al., 2004). The data provides significant support to the hypothesis that certain chemicals found in B. aegyptiaca extracts may inhibit lipoxygenase and/or cyclooxygenase (Speroni et al., 2005). The local peritoneal receptors presumably play a role in abdominal writhing response. Prostanoid system involvement appears crucial for the mechanism of response to this nociceptive stimulation. Multiple studies have found elevated levels of peritoneal fluid prostaglandin E_2 -induced inflammation (PGE₂ and PGF₂), as well as lipoxygenase products (Dhara *et* al., 2000). The receptors of tyrosine kinase are influenced by a number of stress and pathologies which, in turn, promote IKKs. The energetic IKKs phosphorylate dormant IkBa-NF-kB complex. The IkBa,

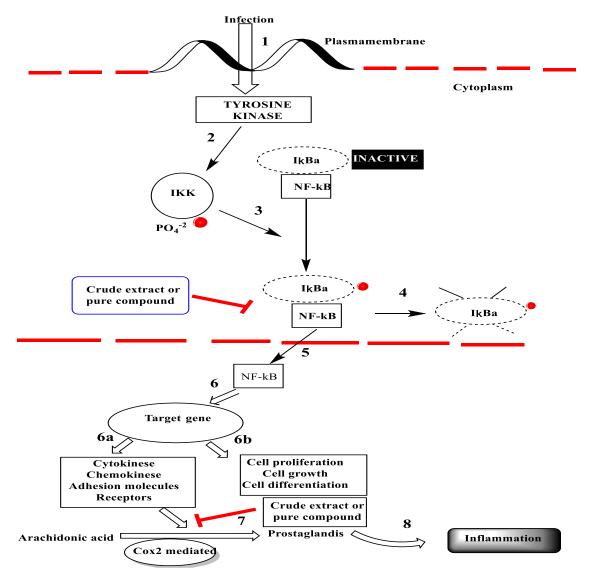


Fig. 2: Illustration of the anti-inflammatory mechanism of action of B. aegyptiaca

when phosphorylated go through ubiquitylation, and is later degraded. The pure compound or crude extract prevent the access of active form of NF- κ B into nucleus which helps the expression of genes intricate in (6a), chemokines, adhesion molecules, cytokines and adhesion molecules altogether partake a protagonist in (6b) differentiation, growth and cells proliferation. With the help of Cox2, arachidonic acid exchanged into prostaglandin, nevertheless a pure compound or crude extract will stop this from happening. This inflammation is triggered by prostaglandins (Fig. 2). The present review's innovative and supportive findings recommend further exploration into the plant's antiinflammatory properties.

4.3 Antibacterial activities

Due to the alarming global proliferation of multidrug resistance bacteria, the development of novel antimicrobial medicines derived from plants is of utmost importance. Owing to the rise in antibiotic-resistant pathogens, it is critical to develop new antibacterial medicines with unique targets. The methanol extract demonstrated significantly higher antibacterial activity *in vitro* than the standard antibiotic (gentamicin 1 mg mL⁻¹) [Abdallah *et al.*, 2012]. At a dosage of 100 mg mL⁻¹, *Bacillus cereus* showed the greatest susceptibility (22.3 mm), followed by *B. subtilis* (22.2 mm). Inhibition zones of

all strains tested were > 14 mm, indicating that the extract has great potential as an efficient antibacterial agent against a wide variety of bacterial pathogens (Abdallah *et al.*, 2012). Further, the organic extracts (acetone and ethanol) were more active than the aqueous extracts. The extraction capabilities and solubility profiles of phytoconstituents reportedly vary significantly between the solvents (Doughari *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, the effectiveness of plant extracts was comparable to that of antibiotics ciprofloxacin, cotrimoxazole, and chloramphenicol. When used at 100 mg mL⁻¹ (16 mm zone of inhibition), ethanolic extracts of *B. aegyptiaca* outperformed the other antibiotics and ciprofloxacin (10 mg mL⁻¹, 10 mm zone of inhibition) in killing bacteria. This showed that the plant extracts work well as anti-typhoid agents if used in purified form (Doughari *et al.*, 2007).

At the concentrations of 400 and 800 mg mL⁻¹, the extract exhibited substantial antibacterial activity against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria isolated from clinical and subclinical mastitic cow (Murthy *et al.*, 2020). At higher concentrations, the extract's antimicrobial effectiveness was more pronounced (Murthy *et al.*, 2020). Methanol extract of *B. aegyptiaca* fruit showed significant levels of total phenolics and total flavonoids, as well as the presence of saponins and terpenoids, phenolic compounds, and alkaloids (Abdallah *et al.*, 2012). Phenolics, terpenoids, alkaloids, lectins, polypeptides, and poly-acetylenes were identified as the most common types of antimicrobial chemicals found in plants (Abdallah, 2011). Antimicrobial substances such as phenolics (simple phenols, quinones, phenolic acids, flavonols, flavones, flavonoids, tannins, coumarins, terpenoids, essential oils, and alkaloids) are prevalent in desert date (Murthy *et al.*, 2020). Possible antibacterial properties of this plant are due to the presence of saponins and alkaloids (Doughari *et al.*, 2007). The penetration of extract into the cell harm intracellular organelles (Gonelimali *et al.*, 2018). The extract's induction of cellular toxicity and oxidative stress caused by the production of ROS and free radicals, and the extract's modulation of cellular signalling are the four well-defined mechanisms linked to the antimicrobial action of plant extract.

4.4 Antifungal activities

Fungi can induce opportunistic infections in patients having weakened immune systems as a result of an underlying illness or the use of immunosuppressive medications (Khatoon et al., 2013). Even though many antifungal medicines have been developed, only a few are clinically efficacious and safe to use (Khatoon et al., 2013). This predicament has compelled researchers to seek new antibacterial substances from a variety of sources, including medicinal plants (Abdulrahman, 2022; Dogara, 2022; Dogara et al., 2022). Plant-based antimicrobials have proven successful in treating numerous infectious diseases vis-à-vis minimizing many negative effects commonly associated with synthetic antimicrobials (Samy et al., 2000). The plant extract used @ 100 mg mL⁻¹ demonstrated antifungal activity against all the test fungal strains, with inhibition zones greater than observed in reference antibiotic (amphotericin B, @ 2 mg mL⁻¹); with highest susceptibility in Aspergillus niger (24.8 mm), followed by Fusarium graminearum (20 mm) (Abdallah et al., 2012). When applied @ 10 uL per disk, the oil killed all microbiological strains tested. Maximum inhibitory concentrations for Candida albicans were reported to be 22 and 20 mm for Staphylococcus aureus (Al Ashaal et al., 2010). The methanolic extract of callus had largest zone of inhibition, measuring 17 and 11 mm, respectively, at doses of 100 and 50 mg mL⁻¹, respectively (Abaka et al., 2020). An inhibitory zone of 21 mm was observed for *Candida albicans* at the dose of 100 µg mL⁻¹ (Habieballa *et al.*, 2021). Against the tested fungi, the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for an alcoholic fruit extract was 3.05-24 µg mL⁻¹, whereas the MIC for an *in vitro* produced callus extract was 1.53-12 µg mL⁻¹ (Khatoon *et al.*, 2013). The extract prevented the growth of all fungus's mycelium, and this action was concentration dependent. Fusarium solani and F. moniliforme required a 1% extract concentration while Curvularia lunata needed a concentration of 0.5% to entirely stop mycelial growth. (Nitiema et al., 2019).

4.5 Anti-parasitic activities

The parasites that have adapted to humans as hosts have proliferated throughout our history. Most parasites are annoying or harmful to human health (Wink, 2012). Malaria, trypanosomiasis, and

Chagas disease are all parasite illnesses that can be fatal if not treated promptly and effectively (Wink, 2012). The two most pervasive parasite illnesses that impact people are leishmaniasis and malaria (Tarig et al., 2016). Medications that are effective against several endoparasites have been developed in the field of medicinal chemistry. Although many of these drugs were developed many years ago, some parasite strains have developed resistance to them. Due to mounting evidence of existing anthelmintic drug resistance and declining potency against parasites in their encapsulated larval stages, there is a great interest in creating novel anthelmintic medications, particularly those derived from medicinal plants (Shalaby et al., 2010). The parasite was totally destroyed on exposure to crude plant extract after 3 days, with a determined IC₅₀ value of 68 µg L⁻¹ (Kusch et al., 2011). On 3rd and 5th day, the extracts of methanol and chloroform demonstrated 100% elimination of Schistosoma worms. Both the extracts demonstrated anti-fascioliasis action as evidenced by their LC_{50} values of 63 and 55 mg L^{-1} (Al-Ashaal, 2017). At a concentration of 0.0014% (w/v) of this active component, 50% larval population was inhibited from emerging as adults (Wiesman et al., 2006). As per percentage reduction in fluke counts in liver post-mortem two weeks after medication, the extract was 97.7% effective. In terms of egg g⁻¹ faeces, packed cell volume (PCV), haemoglobin concentration, total red blood cell count (RBC), total white blood cell count (WBC), and eosinophil, liver fascioliasis lesions were significantly different between control and treatment groups (P< 0.05) (Koko et al., 2000). The fruit extract significantly decreased EPG (eggs g^{-1} stool), egg burden in tissues, and adult worm recovery (P <0.05) (Koko et al., 2005). The 0.5% aqueous bark extract caused death of all larvae (Chapagain et al., 2005). In a chronic mortality examination, 500 ppm or more could entirely eradicate the test larvae population (after 7 days of exposure) (Chapagain et al., 2008). The extract had a modest anti-plasmodial effectiveness, with an IC₅₀ of 24.56 µg mL⁻¹ (Karou et al., 2011). The current research details the effectiveness and dependability of *B. aegyptiaca* in treating a wide range of parasites, and it also calls for scientists' attention to other scientifically validated species that might result in the development of innovative antiparasites medications.

4.6 Antidiabetic activities

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a group of metabolic diseases characterized by chronic hyperglycemia caused by defects in insulin secretion, action, or both (Deib et al., 2018). About 422 million people throughout the world currently suffer from diabetes, and this number is significantly on rise. As per the conservative estimates of WHO, this figure is likely to double during next two decades (Ghanem et al., 2016). The International Diabetes Federation (IDF) has revealed that 463 million adults (aged 20-79 years) worldwide have diabetes; most of these people reside in low-income and developing regions (Zaky et al., 2022). This number is anticipated to rise to 700 million by 2045. Population expansion, urbanization, nutritional transition, physical inactivity, and dietary change all contribute to the rise in DM (Zaky et al., 2022). The current synthetic antidiabetic medications have a number of advantages, but also have undesirable side effects (Osadebe et al., 2014). Hence, new antidiabetic drugs that produce fewer or no harmful side effects are required. Lately, active medications with antidiabetic activity have been derived from plants, and they are more effective than oral chemical hypoglycemic pharmaceuticals now used in established therapy (Verma *et al.*, 2018). Many bioactive chemicals found in medicinal plants stimulate insulin secretion as well as insulin activity (Zaky et al., 2022). As a result, in vitro and in vivo data were pooled to determine the total impact of B. aegyptiaca on diabetes. There was a striking difference between the treated and untreated groups, with treated groups showing significantly greater pancreatic weight, larger islets of Langerhans, and enhanced histoarchitecture (Abou Khalil et al., 2016). As an alternative treatment for DM, medicinal plants are widely used in underdeveloped countries due to their demonstrated efficacy in lowering plasma glucose levels with little adverse effects. Research on natural antidiabetic therapies, such as medicinal plants, that have little or no adverse effects is in high demand (Erejuwa et al., 2012). The administration of aqueous extract of fruits significantly boost serum insulin in diabetic rats (91%), while lowering blood sugar levels (54%), cholesterol levels (26%), triglyceride levels (16%), and LDL cholesterol levels (25%) (Deib et al., 2018). The damaging effects on serum insulin and C-peptide levels, oral glucose tolerance, liver lipid peroxidation, liver glucose-6-phosphatase and glycogen phosphorylase activities, serum lipid profile, serum free fatty acid level, glutathione content, and antioxidant enzyme (glutathione peroxidase, glutathione reductase, and glutathione S-transfer) levels were significantly reduced in diabetic-treated rats with extract (Zaky *et al.*, 2022). The seed extract significantly lowered hepatic glucose-6-phosphatase activity and blood glucose levels in diabetic rats, lowering both by 24% (Gad *et al.*, 2006). Hexane, chloroform, and methanol fruits extracts all reduced blood sugar levels by 64, 69, and 77%, respectively (Al-Ashaal, 2017). After four weeks of fruit therapy, diabetic rats had significantly lower levels of blood sugar, urea, creatinine, AST, ALT, total cholesterol, and triglycerides. The levels of total protein and the activity of several antioxidant enzymes were also higher in diabetes group than in control group, and the total antioxidant capacity was restored to almost normal levels (Ghanem *et al.*, 2016). Fruit ethyl acetate extract had a hypoglycemic impact, as evidenced by diabetic rats' fasting blood glucose and glycated hemoglobin levels being lower than they were in the control group (Al-Malki *et al.*, 2015).

The plant extract-treated diabetic rats displayed improvement in insulin, decreased glutathione level, catalase, and superoxide dismutase activities, as well as decrease in plasma glucose, HbA1c, lactic acid, lipid profile, and malondialdehyde as compared to the untreated rats (Hassanin et al., 2018). After treatment with extract, the bulk of alloxan's toxic effects were diminished, and the histological changes caused by alloxan were partially reversed (Helal et al., 2013). The extracts increased the serum levels of antioxidant enzymes CAT and SOD, as well as ALT, AST, ALP, and GGT. The extracts also shielded liver tissues from degenerative changes brought on by STZ (Al-Thobaiti *et al.*, 2019). Antioxidants compounds like vanillic acid, syringic acid and β -sitosterol were detected in GC-MS analysis of an ethyl acetate extract of fruits (Al-Malki et al., 2015), which are likely responsible for antidiabetic activity of fruits. Saponins and a polysaccharide fraction in Balanites fruits are responsible for hypoglycemic impact (Gad et al., 2006). Possible mechanisms for the extracts' anti-hyperglycemic and anti-hyperlipidemic actions in diabetic rats include elevating serum insulin levels, lowering insulin resistance, and bolstering the body's natural antioxidant defenses (Zaky et al., 2022). Similarly, it was hypothesized that B. aegyptiaca's mode of action results in a reduction in intestinal glucose absorption by suppressing amylase activity, which is regarded as the first line medication in the treatment of diabetes (Gad et al., 2006; Deib et al., 2018). Because of their effects on pancreatic beta cell activity, augmentation of inhibitory effect on insulinase enzyme, improvement of insulin sensitivity, and improvement of insulin-like activity, plant extracts are hypoglycemic. B. aegyptiaca fruit extracts have shown promising antidiabetic activities. As a result, the review opens new avenues for the development of antidiabetic drugs.

4.7 Other diseases treated with Balanites aegyptiaca

At a concentration of 50 μ g mL⁻¹, the oil was more effective than acyclovir (60%) at killing Herpes simplex virus type 1(Al Ashaal *et al.*, 2010). After plant extract administration, the epithelization period was shortened from 26.7 (control) to 16.4 days, and the scar area was reduced while the tensile strength and hydroxyproline content were both considerably raised as compared to the control (Annan *et al.*, 2008). Extract efficiently inhibited acetylcholine esterase (IC₅₀: 193 μ g mL⁻¹), butyrylcholine esterase (IC₅₀: 490 μ g mL⁻¹), and tyrosinase (IC₅₀: 1.97 μ g mL⁻¹) at incubation times of 10, 20, and 40 min, respectively (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2021). Further research is needed to determine the efficacy of *B. aegyptiaca* on viral illnesses, wound healing, and Alzheimer's disease.

4.8 Anticancer activities

Cancer is a multifactorial cell disease distinguished by aberrant cellular growth (Mbaveng *et al.*, 2011) and is a worldwide public health problem (Sherif *et al.*, 2016). Chemotherapy, radiotherapy, immunotherapy, and surgery are all part of cancer treatment routine in advanced grades and stages. However, net therapeutic outcomes are still associated with the significant side effects or unfavourable consequences (Al-Malki *et al.*, 2016). Medicinal plants have been at forefront of anticancer therapies (Abdulrahman, 2023). A wide range of plants and their separated compounds have anticancer action

(Abdulrahman, 2023). Modern research on cancer treatment is focused on maximizing the effectiveness while minimizing the adverse effects. Plant-derived chemicals have received increasing attention lately because of their anticancer properties and capacity to strengthen the body's defense. HepG2 and CaCo2 proliferation were influenced by *B. aegyptiaca* extract at nontoxic doses of 0.63 mg mL⁻¹ of 81 and 77%, respectively (Yassin *et al.*, 2017). Zaahkouk *et al.* (2015) found that each extract had an inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) of 2.3 for MCF7 cells, 12 for HEPG-2, and 69.3 for HCT116 μ g mL⁻¹, respectively.

The significant antiangiogenic and antiproliferative effects of methanol extract may be due to its strong antioxidant component composition (Hassan et al., 2016). Lymphoblastic leukemia, brain, liver, lung, and breast cell lines were all significantly affected by fruit extracts when tested against human cancer cell lines (Al-Ashaal, 2017). The oil's anticancer action was shown by the inhibition of the growth of human brain (U251) (IC₅₀ 2.34 μ g mL⁻¹), liver (HEPG2) (5.99 μ g mL⁻¹), lung (H460) (4.77 µg mL⁻¹), and liver (HEPG2) carcinoma cell lines (Al Ashaal et al., 2010). When the fruit extract was tested against MCF-7, PC-3, and Caco-2 cancer cell lines, it demonstrated considerable cytotoxic activity against each of them, with a selectivity index ranging from 5.07 to 6.52 (Ibrahim et al., 2022). Increased total apoptosis of treated PC-3 cells (19.22% of the total number of cells) in comparison to control cells (0.64% of the total number of cells) and increased transcription of proapoptotic genes including P53 (3.69) and BAX (3.33) expressed as fold changes further corroborated this impact (Ibrahim et al., 2022). Balanitoside treatment reduced the number of EAC cells in both the treatment and preventive groups (Al-Ghannam et al., 2013). MDA and NO levels in liver and serum were lower in therapeutic and preventive groups than in positive control group. Nevertheless, CAT activity was higher in therapeutic and preventive groups' liver and plasma than in positive control group (Al-Ghannam et al., 2013). Caspase 3 activity was higher in treatment and prevention groups than in positive control group in EAC cells. Surviving expression in liver was lower in the therapeutic and preventive groups as compared to the positive control group (Al-Ghannam et al., 2013). 3-O-d-xylo pyranosyl-(1-3) (1-3)- β -d-glucopyranosyl-(1-4)- $[\alpha$ -l-rhamnopyranosyl-(1-2)]-d-glucopyranoside), with IC₅₀ values of 2.4 and 3.3 M, respectively, was reported to exhibit substantial antiproliferative effect against MCF-7 human breast cancer cells and HT-29 human colon cancer cells (Beit-Yannai et al., 2011). With the administration of *B. aegyptiaca* extracts in ascetic fluid, a significant decrease in tumor volume, total cell volume, and viable cell count was seen. Further, it increased P53 expression, decreased lipid peroxidation, elevated SOD and CAT, and increased SOD (Issa et al., 2015).

The A549 non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) (IC₅₀, 0.3 M) and U373 glioblastoma (IC₅₀, 0.5 M) cell lines were the most responsive to balanitin-6 and -7 (Gnoula et al., 2008). The viability of seed extract against hepatic cancer (Hep-G2) cell line increased by 97.43% at 12.5 µg and reduced to 34.89% at 100 µg (Sherif et al., 2016). When seed extract was applied to PC-3 cell line at a concentration of 3.125 µg, the activity peaked to 98.47% and then dropped to 26.74% (Sherif et al., 2016). The ethyl acetate fruit extract had potent antiproliferative, apoptotic, and cell cycle phase modification effect when compared to vincristine (Al-Malki et al., 2016). Numerous plant defense mechanisms have been linked to saponins (Francis et al., 2002). Diosgenyl saponins (balanitin-6 and balanitin-7) isolated from B. aegyptiaca kernels have shown promising antitumor activity (Gnoula et al., 2008). The primary cause of anticancer action is ATP depletion which, in turn, causes a significant disruption in actin cytoskeleton (Gnoula et al., 2008). Another possible mechanisim is that the plant extract flow into the cells by endocytosis mediated through receptors. Cancer cell's pH level is acedic with a redox imbalance (Abdulrahman, 2023). Production of free radical increased as a result of extract (Abdulrahman, 2023), which resulted in damaging the membrane mitochondria, subsequently resulting in seeping out of protein material leading to the endoplasmic reticulum stress. The damage to mitochindrial membrane cause seeping out of numerous proteins and activation of caspases resulting in apoptosis. Several molecules pathways are activated. For example NF- κ B, Wnt/ β -catenin, MAPK/Erk, PI3K/Akt/mTOR, and apoptotic pathways are regulated by this state of cellular stress. The NF-kB upsets cellular homeostasis via inflammatory stress signaling pathway. Equally, carcinogenic signaling obliges the involvement of MAPK/Erk, VEGF, PI3K/Akt/ mTOR, and Wnt/βcatenin pathways (Abdulrahman, 2023). More definitive evidence regarding the benefits of *B*. *aegyptiaca* fruits is needed, hence well-designed clinical trials are encouraged.

Medicinal herbs are used all around the world, especially in developing countries. This is because they are inexpensive and readily available locally. Because herbal treatments are natural, consumers all over the world believe they are always safe. But evidences reveal otherwise. These can be quite dangerous if not properly selected and prepared. Hence, it is vital to determine the safety of plant extracts. The maximal dosage of 500 μ g mL⁻¹ was shown to be safe (Ibrahim, 2016). The relationship between fish mortality and the concentrations used was positive (r = 0.9811). Prior to the fish's demise, some of the behavioural traits that were observed included erratic swimming on water surface, lack of reflexes, and hyperventilation. Hemoglobin estimation and packed cell volume (PCV) values were significant (P <0.05) for acute lethal toxic dose (Absalom *et al.*, 2013). There has been less studies on the toxicity of species, thus research needs to focus on identifying the safest dosage for future studies.

5. CONCLUSION and FUTURE STRATEGIES

Balanites aegyptiaca is a multifunctional tree species valued for its medicinal properties as well as for its utility in providing food, clothes, animal feed, and raw materials for other utilitarian things. The entire plant is used for medicinal putposes across the Africa and various regions worldwide, owing to its intriguing pharmacological characteristics. B. aegyptiaca acts as a significant and plentiful source of vital nutrients. Both in vitro and in vivo studies have demonstrated that B. aegyptiaca has beneficial role in the prevention and treatment of numerous diseases. The tree has enormous potential as an antioxidant, antibacterial agent, and as protectant against diabetes and liver damage. It could potentially serve as a novel approach for treating the disorders. 1) It is crucial to comprehend the function and mechanism of action of each bioactive compound, as well as the potential therapeutic benefits that contribute to the creation of novel drugs. 2) There has been a lack of comprehensive investigations into the molecular mechanisms of action in pharmacological research. Instead, the majority of research has been carried out using in vitro and in vivo animal screening approaches. 3) Proteomic study on *B. aegyptiaca* provide a wealth of information on protein expression, function, interaction, networking, and biosynthetic pathways. 4) The data generated may be helpful in understanding the mechanism of illness prevention and designing new treatments. 5) Another area of research involves the preservation of *B. aegyptiaca* genotype for large-scale development of this plant, using seedlings that are propagated in vitro.

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