

# Cognitive-Enhancing Effect of Ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorense* stems bark against Ketamine-induced Memory Impairment in Mice

## Abstract

**Background:** Conventional treatments for managing Alzheimer's disease (AD) and related cognitive deficits are not said to be curative; they relieve symptoms but can result in adverse side effects. Additionally, the use of herbal therapies to manage cognitive illnesses has increased significantly. *Erythrophylum ivorense* is commonly used in herbal medicine to manage neurological disorders. The present study evaluated the cognitive-enhancing potential of the ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorense* (EAFEI) against ketamine-induced memory impairment in mice.

**Materials and Methods:** Ketamine (15 mg/kg) was administered to induce memory impairment. Donepezil (1 mg/kg) served as the standard reference compound. An ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorense* (20, 40, 80 mg/kg) was evaluated for its cognitive-enhancing effects, as measured by step-through latency in a passive avoidance test. Additionally, the anti-acetylcholinesterase (anti-AChE) activity and antioxidant potential of the extract were assessed using brain tissues from the test animals

**Results:** The ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophylum ivorense* demonstrated significant effectiveness in combating cognitive deficits in the test animals. This was evidenced by increased step-through latencies significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the extract-treated mice compared to the untreated cognitively impaired mice. Moreover, the cognitively impaired mice that received the extract exhibited significantly lower levels of malondialdehyde and AChE activity ( $p < 0.05$ ) compared to the negative control mice. The antioxidant and anti-AChE properties of the extract were confirmed in this study, therefore indicating its potential to reduce oxidative stress in the brain and enhance cholinergic transmission.

**Conclusion:** This study highlights the ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorense* as a promising candidate for Alzheimer's disease (AD) and related disorders.

Keywords: *Erythrophylum ivorense*, cognitive impairment, ketamine, passive avoidance, acetylcholinesterase

## INTRODUCTION

Cognitive impairment greatly increases the risk of neurological disorders, especially Alzheimer's disease (AD), the most common form of dementia. Alzheimer's disease is a complex condition. It is characterized by gradual memory decline, cognitive impairment, and changes in personality. These symptoms come from neuronal damage in the frontal cortex and hippocampus. Major neurochemical disruptions seen in Alzheimer's disease (AD) include a decline in cholinergic function in the central nervous system. An imbalance in redox homeostasis is also observed. These changes are closely related to AD's hallmark pathological features. Accumulation of amyloid- $\beta$  plaques and neurofibrillary tangles in the brain marks the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease (Kwon et al., 2017; Shin et al., 2019). Some research suggests that amyloid buildup in the brain may be the primary cause of AD. Other studies argue that hyperphosphorylation is the key pathogenic mechanism. It is widely accepted that all these factors together contribute to the neuropathogenesis seen in AD. Various approaches have been used to develop agents for managing Alzheimer's disease. These efforts have led to several drugs that can alleviate

47 symptoms to some extent. Common treatments include memantine, an N-Methyl-D-aspartate  
48 antagonist, and acetylcholinesterase inhibitors such as donepezil, galantamine, rivastigmine, and  
49 tacrine. However, these drugs often cause side effects like cardiovascular issues, muscle cramps,  
50 and urinary incontinence. Current pharmacotherapy for Alzheimer's mainly aims to relieve  
51 symptoms and does not cure the disease. Therefore, there is strong interest in researching new,  
52 safe agents that could potentially cure Alzheimer's.

53 Forests play a vital role in our atmosphere. According to WHO (2001), the need to study forest  
54 plant species stems from their extensive use in folk medicine, forming a basis for daily life.  
55 Many African indigenous trees have recognized health-protective properties (Okeno et al., 2003;  
56 Einoshio and Ayorinde, 2008). *Erythrophleum ivorense*, of the family Caesalpiniaceae  
57 (Leguminosae-Caesalpinioideae). Its timber in Nigeria is known as 'Iyin' (Edo), 'erun' (Yoruba),  
58 and 'ihi' (Igbo) (Aigbokhan, 2014), and as 'Ordeal tree' or 'Sasswood tree' (English), among  
59 other names in various regions (Burkill, 1995). Some *Erythrophleum* species are venomous and  
60 toxic to livestock. The bark, traded as 'sassy-bark' or 'man cona bark', is used medicinally  
61 (ITTO, 2004), for example as an emetic, purgative, and pain reliever (Richter and Dallwitz,  
62 2000; Betti, 2004). The bark is also used as fish poison, for tanning, and to enhance palm wine  
63 (PROTA, 2008; Voorhoeve, 1979). The wood is hard, making it suitable for construction and  
64 charcoal. In Cameroon, it is the fourth most important timber, also exported to China (PROTA,  
65 2008). *E. ivorense* is an evergreen tree reaching up to 40 meters, with alternate leaves and  
66 bisexual flowers. Previous research reported its toxicology and phytochemical components  
67 (Amoah et al., 2014; Sima et al., 2016). However, these studies did not quantify the  
68 phytochemicals. Therefore, this research specifically aims to determine the cognitive-enhancing  
69 potential of the ethylacetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorense* in mice with ketamine-induced  
70 Alzheimer's disease-like cognitive deficits.

## 71 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 72 **Plant material**

73 Plant material Identification, collection, and authentication of plant materials. Fresh stem bark of  
74 *Erythrophleum ivorense* was identified and collected from trees in Iwo, Iwo Local Government  
75 Area, Osun State, Nigeria, between April and October 2018. The plant was authenticated by a  
76 Botanist in the Department of Botany, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife. A voucher  
77 specimen was deposited (voucher number 16878) (Wakeel et al., 2018).

### 78 **Extraction of plant material**

79 Extraction of plant material followed the methods of Wadood et al. (2013). *Erythrophleum*  
80 *ivorense* stem bark (2.5 kg) was air-dried for eight weeks. The material was reduced to coarse  
81 powder using an electric blender (Christy and Norris – 47362, England). Extraction was  
82 performed by adding the stem bark powder to 5 liters of absolute methanol in a sterile, stoppered  
83 flask. This prevented loss of volatile liquid. The mixture was agitated for 24 hours, then decanted  
84 and filtered (filter paper No. 1, Whatmann London, UK). The filtrate was evaporated to dryness  
85 using a rotary evaporator (Buchi Rota Vapour R110) and freeze-dried to yield a solid mass. The  
86 dried residue (85.6 g) was sealed in glass vials and stored in a refrigerator. The stored crude  
87 methanol extract (85 g) was suspended in distilled water and partitioned between ethyl acetate  
88 and water with a separating funnel. The organic (ethyl acetate) phase was pooled and  
89 concentrated using a rotary evaporator to yield a dark brown fraction (EAF; 27.0 g; 31.8% w/w).

### 90 **Animal materials**

91 Healthy male Swiss mice (20-30 g) were obtained from the Animal house of Ladoke Akintola  
92 University of Technology, Ogbomosho, Oyo State, Nigeria. Six animals were housed per  
93 standard cage. Mice were kept in temperature-controlled quarters (22.5°C ±2.5°C) with lights  
94 on/off at 7 o'clock. They had free access to food and water except during behavioural tests. Mice  
95 were fed commercial standard rodent chow (29% protein, 13% fat, 58% carbohydrate)  
96 throughout the experiment. All rules for animal safety and care were observed.

### 97 **Passive avoidance test**

98 The passive avoidance test (PAT) was conducted for 6 days using a box (25cm x 20cm x 20cm)  
99 with a brightly lit and a dark compartment, separated by a wall with a sliding door. An electric  
100 circuit (0.5 mA) was installed in the dark chamber (Kim et al., 2020).

101 The test comprised three phases: habituation, training, and testing. In habituation, mice explored  
102 the lit chamber for 20 seconds before the door opened, then could move freely between  
103 compartments for 300 seconds with the electric circuit off.

104 During training, mice began in the lit chamber for 20 seconds. After opening the sliding door,  
105 they roamed for 300 seconds. Once fully inside the dark chamber, they received a 0.5mA shock  
106 for 10 seconds and stayed for 30 seconds to associate discomfort with the area.

107 After training, memory retention was tested over three days. Each mouse received treatment,  
108 entered the lit chamber for 20 seconds, and, after the door was opened, was observed in the box  
109 for 5 minutes. Step-through latency to the dark chamber was recorded.

110 Between each mouse's habituation, testing, and training session, the box was wiped with 70%  
111 ethanol to remove any lingering olfactory stimuli (Eagle et al., 2016). All experiments were  
112 conducted at 08:00 am throughout the study period, with 24-hour intervals.

### 113 **Cholinesterase inhibitory activities**

114 Acetylcholinesterase (AChE) inhibition was assessed using Ellman's colorimetric method (1961)  
115 (Nan & Atirlar, 2015). Crude AChE was prepared from mouse brain as described previously.

116 Acetylthiocholine iodide served as the substrate for AChE assays, and its hydrolysis was  
117 measured spectrophotometrically. Plant extract or reference compound was added to the enzyme  
118 solution, which was then incubated at 37 °C for 15 minutes. Next, 50 mM sodium phosphate  
119 buffer (pH 8.0) containing 0.5 mM acetylthiocholine was added, and absorbance was  
120 immediately recorded against a blank. All experiments were performed in triplicate. Donepezil  
121 served as the reference compound for AChE activity. The percent inhibition was calculated using  
122 the following equation: (Edwards et al., 2019) :  $a-b/a \times 100/1$  Where a= change in absorbance  
123 per min of control ( $\Delta A/\text{min}$ ), b= Change in absorbance per minute of test sample.

124

### 125 **Biochemical assays**

126 On the 6th day of the PAB test, mice were humanely euthanized, and their brains were promptly  
127 harvested. Each brain was then homogenized in 0.6 mL of sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4, 0.1  
128 M). The homogenate obtained was then centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 20 minutes at 4°C. The  
129 resulting supernatant was used to measure malondialdehyde (MDA) levels, as previously  
130 described (Jilani et al., 2018), and to assess acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activity, following  
131 established protocols (Chen et al., 2021)

### 132 **Statistical analyses**

133 Results of parametric tests were expressed in terms of mean±SEM. In the assays involving  
134 comparison of more than two means, one-way ANOVA was used, followed by the Student

135 Dunnett's post-hoc test. test when statistical difference was detected among the groups. P-values  
 136 less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant

## 137 RESULTS

### 138 Effects of EAFEI extract on passive avoidance

139 Effects of EAFEI was investigated in memory-impaired mice, tested for three consecutive days  
 140 after habituation and training. The negative control group consistently showed significantly  
 141 reduced step-through latency (Table 1) compared to all treatments. In contrast, the extract  
 142 improved cognition, especially at 20 mg/kg bw, which resulted in the highest step-through  
 143 latency throughout testing. On first and second days, 20 mg/kg bw nearly restored cognition to  
 144 normal, matching normal controls. Additionally, on day 1, similar latency was seen for the 20  
 145 and 80 mg/kg bw groups; however, across days 2 and 3, 20 mg/kg bw maintained the highest  
 146 latency, while 40 mg/kg bw produced the lowest.

147 **Table 1: Effects of EAFEI extract on passive avoidance**

Treatment	Doses (mg/kg)	Time (second)		
		1 <sup>st</sup> day	2 <sup>nd</sup> day	3 <sup>rd</sup> day
Normal saline	0	221.01±7.32	295.21±9.01	281.05±7.21
Ketamine	15	141.21±6.51	139.16±4.42	75.22±3.31
MEEI	20	221.69±5.11	261.98±5.97	167.04±4.72
MEEI	40	175.19±5.07	132.07±3.97	239.12±6.35
MEEI	80	164.34±5.35	158.09±4.31	158.74±6.04
Donepezi	1	137.36±4.43	129.07±5.35	205.5±7.74

148 \*\*Values are mean ± SEM (n=5).

149 \*Values are statistically significant (P<0.05) compared with control using one-way ANOVA  
 150 followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test.

### 151 Effects of EAFEI on acetylcholinesterase activity

152 The present study investigated effects of EAFEI on AChE activity in brain homogenates of  
 153 ketamine-treated mice. All tested extract concentrations (20, 40, 80, and 200 mg/kg bw) and  
 154 donepezil produced significant inhibition of AChE activity compared to the negative control.  
 155 Notably, the 80 mg/kg bw extract group showed the highest anti-AChE efficacy, but this was not  
 156 significantly different from the 40 mg/kg bw group (p>0.001; Figure 1). Both the 40 mg/kg bw  
 157 extract and donepezil groups exhibited similar degrees of anti-AChE activity. In contrast, the 20  
 158 mg/kg bw extract group demonstrated the lowest anti-AChE activity among the tested doses  
 159 (Table 2).

160 **Table 2: Effects of EAFEI on acetylcholinesterase activity**

Treatments	Doses (mg/kg)	Change in absorbance**	% inhibition
Control	0	0.085±0.000	0
Donepezi	1	0.003±0.000*	96.5
EAFEI	20	0.021±0.001*	75.4
EAFEI	40	0.006±0.000*	92.9
EAFEI	80	0.005±0.000*	94.1

161 \*\*Values are mean ± SEM (n=5).

162 \*Values are statistically significant (P<0.05) compared with control using one-way ANOVA  
 163 followed by Dunnett's

164 post-hoc test.

### 165 **Effects of EAFEI on MDA profile**

166 The mean and standard deviation of MDA serum levels of all groups are summarized in Table 3.  
167 Notably, the EAFEI-treated groups exhibited a significant reduction in MDA levels compared to  
168 ketamine -treated group, highlighting the potential effectiveness of EAFEI in mitigating  
169 oxidative stress. A comparison between the control group and ketamine group revealed that  
170 significantly higher MDA levels were observed in ketamine group. These results suggest  
171 increased oxidative stress or lipid peroxidation in this group. Further comparisons between  
172 ketamine group and ketamine plus EAFEI at a dosage of 20 or 40, or 80 mg/kg, showed that a  
173 dose-dependent reduction in MDA levels.

174 **Table 3: Effects of EAFEI on MDA profile**

Treatments	Doses (mg/kg)	MDA(nmol/mL)
Control	0	3.78±0.05
Ketamine	15	31.79 ± 3.07
Donepezi	1	7.85±2.67
EAFEI	20	20.21±1.64
EAFEI	40	13.34±2.31
EAFEI	80	8.41±1.01

175 \*\*Values are mean ± SEM (n=5).

176 \*Values are statistically significant (P<0.05) compared with control using one-way ANOVA  
177 followed by Dunnett's  
178 post-hoc test.

## 179 **DISCUSSION**

181 This study examined how a part of *Erythrophleum ivorense* improved memory in mice treated  
182 with ketamine. Ketamine causes memory problems similar to those in Alzheimer's disease, such  
183 as disruptions in brain chemicals and increased oxidative stress.

184 Ketamine has been reported to disrupt metabolism of key neurochemicals, especially  
185 acetylcholine. This leads to a decline in cholinergic function (Aalikhani et al., 2022). It also  
186 causes significant oxidative brain damage. These effects contribute to hippocampal memory  
187 deficits seen in Alzheimer's disease (AD) (Ben-Azu et al., 2016). After clinical administration,  
188 ketamine increases hyperphosphorylation of proteins. This can induce cognitive dysfunction  
189 similar to Alzheimer's disease. Negative control animals showed decreased step-through latency,  
190 elevated malondialdehyde (MDA) levels, and increased acetylcholinesterase activity (Imran et  
191 al., 2021). Extracts can have a significant impact on the malondialdehyde (MDA) profile, which  
192 is a biomarker of oxidative stress. Specifically, many extracts, particularly those rich in  
193 antioxidants like phenolic compounds and flavonoids, have been shown to reduce MDA levels in  
194 various tissues. This reduction indicates a decrease in oxidative damage, as MDA is a byproduct  
195 of lipid peroxidation, a process where free radicals attack cell membranes.

196 A passive avoidance test—a fear-driven avoidance method (Lee et al., 2016)—was used to  
197 evaluate memory recovery after extract intervention. This technique assesses an animal's ability  
198 to learn and remember aversive stimuli such as electrical foot shocks in the dark chamber of a  
199 passive avoidance box (PAB). Rodents naturally prefer darkness over light (Collins et al., 2018),

200 so they usually occupy the PAB's dark chamber. However, this chamber contains hostile stimuli  
201 like electroshocks. Mice with good cognition recall aversive experiences from training and  
202 hesitate to re-enter the dark chamber. This method is widely used to assess cognitive function in  
203 rodents [eight]. Treating cognitively impaired mice with the ethyl acetate fraction of  
204 *Erythrophleum ivorense* significantly reversed ketamine-induced memory decline. This was  
205 indicated by increased step-through latency. Memory formation involves acquiring, retaining,  
206 and retrieving information. All these processes occur in the hippocampus (Abdel-Salam et al.,  
207 2023). Longer step-through latency suggests extract-treated mice recalled avoiding aversive  
208 stimuli in the dark chamber where they experienced electric shocks [Abdel-Salam et al., 2023].  
209 The extract improves cognition by enhancing the recall of information learned during training.

210 Biochemical evaluations revealed how the ethylacetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorense* may  
211 improve cognition. Acetylcholinesterase (AChE) is a recognized cognitive biomarker (Han et al.,  
212 2018). The extract showed anti-acetylcholinesterase effects in the brains of impaired mice.  
213 Measuring AChE activity is common for finding cognitive enhancers (Butterfield & Boyd-  
214 Kimball). More AChE activity is linked to cognitive decline. AChE breaks down acetylcholine  
215 (ACh), which is crucial for cholinergic receptors and synaptic transmission (Bakhtiari et al.,  
216 2017). Low ACh levels weaken cholinergic neurotransmission. This leads to memory issues  
217 often seen in Alzheimer's patients (Marucci et al., 2021). Modulating the cholinergic system is  
218 important because of its direct tie to Alzheimer's disease (Schuster et al., 2010). Inhibiting AChE  
219 prevents acetylcholine breakdown, restoring cholinergic transmission and improving cognition  
220 (Dani et al., 2017). Researchers are seeking new AChE inhibitors for Alzheimer's disease (AD)  
221 (Maghsoud-Nia et al., 2021). This study shows that the ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum*  
222 *ivorense* inhibits AChE, indicating its potential as a treatment for neurological disorders like  
223 AD.

224 The ethylacetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorense* reversed ketamine-induced oxidative  
225 damage in this study. Low malondialdehyde (MDA) levels in brain homogenates show this  
226 effect. MDA is a biomarker for oxidative cell imbalance (Ghani et al 2017). Researchers measure  
227 MDA in brain homogenates to assess oxidative stress (Maghsoud-Nia et al 2021; Rao et al.,  
228 2021). Higher MDA means more oxidative stress. This stress advances neurological illnesses,  
229 including Alzheimer's disease (AD) (Chen & Zhong, 2014). The brain is very vulnerable to  
230 oxidative stress. Causes include its high oxygen use, intense metabolism, many polyunsaturated  
231 fatty acids, and low antioxidants (Imran et al., 2021). Oxidative stress damages the molecular  
232 components of brain cells, such as lipids, DNA, and RNA. This damage triggers apoptosis and  
233 ultimately impairs learning and memory processes (Chen & Zhong, 2014). Antioxidants help  
234 limit the development and progression of neurological disorders. Research links higher  
235 antioxidant intake to less dementia (Bohouth & Tahrir, 2015). Thus, antioxidants are promising  
236 for reducing cognitive disorder onset and progression (Bohouth & Tahrir, 2015). This study  
237 supports the ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorense* as a potential antioxidant therapy  
238 for Alzheimer's disease (AD).

239 The cognitive-enhancing effects of the ethyl acetate fraction may come from its phytochemicals.  
240 Many studies show their therapeutic and neuroprotective properties. Most identified compounds  
241 have both anti-acetylcholinesterase and antioxidant effects. *E. ivorense* contain tannins,  
242 terpenoids, flavonoids, polyphenols, anthracenosids, alkaloids, polyphenols, flavonoids, tannins  
243 gallic, and triterpenoids as previously reported (Cédric et al., 2016) Phenolic compounds and  
244 flavonoids reportedly reduce oxidative stress, their hydroxyl groups directly scavenge, or

245 neutralize, free radicals (Kumar & Pandey, 2013). *Erythrophleum ivorensis* also reported to have  
246 a very strong antioxidant activity which would enable them to play a beneficial role in terms of  
247 very significant preventive actions for human and animal health (Cédric et al., 2016).

248 Antioxidant activity of the plant should be at least partially justified by the presence of phenolic  
249 and the flavonoids highlighted by the phytochemical study (Andzi et al., 2015).

250 Cognitive disorders such as Alzheimer's Disease (AD) are complex and caused by many factors  
251 (Kumar & Murleedharan, 2016). This makes it harder to find the best treatment targets. Recent  
252 strategies aim to develop combinations or agents that affect several disease pathways (Kametani  
253 & Hasegawa, 2018). Researchers are now investigating multimodal therapies for cognitive  
254 disorders (Simone et al., 2014). In this study, the ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum*  
255 *ivorensis* had dual effects. It showed both anti-acetylcholinesterase (AChE) and antioxidant  
256 activity. These effects reduced cognitive dysfunction.

257 This suggests that the ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorensis* can enhance cognition  
258 through multiple pathways. The study supports its potential for multi-functional therapies  
259 targeting cognitive disorders.

## 260 CONCLUSION

261 The ethyl acetate fraction of *Erythrophleum ivorensis* reversed ketamine-induced cognitive  
262 problems in mice. It improves cognition partly by activating the cholinergic system through  
263 AChE inhibition. The extract also prevents decline with antioxidant action that limits brain  
264 damage from ketamine. Its effects likely come from phytochemicals that fight oxidative stress  
265 and boost cholinergic neurotransmission. This study highlights the ethyl acetate fraction of  
266 *Erythrophleum ivorensis* as a promising candidate for Alzheimer's disease (AD) and related  
267 disorders.

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