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Prospects for the Domestication of *Aloe mzimbana* in Zambia



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Abstract

Chishimba Falls is one of the several waterfalls of aesthetic value and tourist attraction in Zambia, located on the Luombe River, which forms part of the Bangweulu Basin drainage system. The geomorphological nature of Chishimba Falls is such that it consists of two waterfalls called the Mutumuna and Chishimba and the Kaela Rapids. The Chishimba Falls Heritage Site covers an area of 777 hectares. It is surrounded by human settlements and residences for staff of the Zambia Electricity Supply Corporation and the Zambia National Service. Out of a total of 314 plant species recorded at this site, 138 species of flowering plants are of ethnobotanical value. Vegetation studies conducted at this heritage site generated an idea on the prospects to domesticate species of *Aloe*, particularly *Aloe mzimbana*, as a source of pharmaceutical compounds.

Keywords: *Aloe mzimbana*, *Asphodelaceae*, *Ethnobotany*, *Medicinal plants*

1.0. Introduction

Zambia is endowed with several waterfalls of aesthetic value and tourist attraction. The most prominent being Victoria Falls

near Livingstone. The Lumangwe Falls, located in Northern Zambia along the Kalungwishi River, possesses striking topographic features that present it as a 'mini-Victoria Falls'. Other waterfalls sites of tourist attraction in Zambia include the Kundalira Falls, the Ngonye Falls, the Kalambo Falls and the Chishimba Falls. The Chishimba Falls, which was the core site selected for ethnobotanical studies, is located on the Luombe River. This river, which originates north of Kasama in Senga Hill District, is one among several other riverine systems forming part of the Bangweulu Basin drainage system, which is a more or less circular depression.

The geomorphological nature of Chishimba Falls is such that it consists of two waterfalls, the upper-most which is called the Mutumuna and the lower-most which is the real Chishimba Falls. The upper and lower waterfalls are separated by the Kaela rapids located in the middle of the two waterfalls. The site is situated along the Kasama-Mporokoso road, about 35km from the central town of Kasama (1,2).

2.0. Concept of Ethnobotany

Ethnobotany is a scientific discipline that has recently evolved to encompass diverse approaches to understanding how humans utilise plants and their inherent natural products. It has been observed that fields of ethnobotanical research mainly cover folklore taxonomy, the origin and domestication of cultivated plants, and include studies on the ecological effects of human activities upon plant communities(3). Ethnobotany, a relatively underdeveloped discipline in southern Africa, can also be defined as a study involving the use of plants by indigenous people⁴. Other authorities have defined ethnobotany as a discipline of plant sciences that involves studies relating to the mutual relationships between traditional people and plants in their environments(5). Throughout the existence of humans, knowledge relating to plant use has been passed on from parents to off-springs and from generation to generation. The ability to discriminate between edible and non-edible plants, or to differentiate between medicinal and non-medicinal plants, has been an essential factor for the survival of people(6).

The scope of ethnobotany has been expanded to encompass ethnomedicine, ethnotaxonomy and ethnoecology(5). In this regard, it has been observed that different regions of the world are evolving a diversity of approaches in the field of ethnobotany. In Asia, several ethnobotanical projects aim at documenting the knowledge of traditional medicinal plants(5). In Australia, the development of ethnobotanical research has been linked to the ecological management of vegetation types. Ethnoecology is thus, an area of ethnobotany that deals with the traditional knowledge of plant phenology, adaptation and interaction with other organisms(5).

In the United States of America, programmes relating to the protection and propagation of valuable plants, which are indigenous to America have led to the development of a major Federal Government mandate that has been applied in the management of vegetation, including some aspects of environmental impact assessment, since the 1980s(3,5). In Africa, ethnobotanical practices are linked to incorporating indigenous plants into traditional agriculture. A case in point relates to the practice in Malawi and Zambia where weedy plants such as *Cleome gynandra* L and *Amaranthus hybridus* L are cultivated around villages as sources of vegetable foods (7). However, one of the leading ethnobotanical practices in Africa has been and still is the use of herbs as sources of medical care (5).

The classification of plants as food or medicinal plants has been necessitated through the application of names. Ideally, a plant that is not utilised by humans will not be assigned a name. For example, studies conducted by Phiri and Ochyra (1) reveal that no names have been attached to the 88 species of mosses, which have been documented in Zambia because the people do not utilise these lower plants. For this reason, *ethnobotany* is considered the study of plants used by indigenous peoples. According to Liengne(8), the objectives of ethnobotany include such themes as the identification of plants that have uses to humankind; the study of how people classify, identify and relate to useful plants; and the process of examining the reciprocal interaction of people and plants. However, in southern Africa, most ethnobotanical projects are in their early stages that involve identifying plants and

documenting their use. Having documented all plants of ethnobotanical value occurring at Chishimba Falls Heritage Site and the immediate surrounding areas(9), this article aims at focusing on prospects for the domestication of *Aloe mzimbana* I. Verdc and Christian, which is widespread in high-rainfall regions of Zambia.

3.0. Methodology

The Chishimba Falls Heritage Site, located by coordinates of 10° 05'S, 30° 55'E and lying at an elevation of 1260m, covers 777 hectares². The specific objective entailed to conduct an inventory of plants of ethnobotanical value in the Chishimba area. In order to answer the relevant research question, the method used by Bano *et al.*, (10) which was based on qualitative and descriptive data to survey plants of ethnobotanical value, was adopted. This method involves systematically sampling data to access information from respondents of various ages, gender factors and experiences in folklore botany. Information on plant uses was collected through the application of the questionnaires administered to some residents of Chishimba Falls rural communities.

The study entailed the development of a systematic sampling procedure to access the information from varying ages, sex statuses and respondents known to be experienced in folklore botany. The questionnaires were administered to 81 informants. In other words, each household was represented by one family member. Six field assistants from Nandola and Kalonga villages were engaged to administer the questionnaires to the local people on useful indigenous plant species, particularly focussing on the edible and medicinal plants found in the study area where data

was collected(10). Local names of plants were recorded in the Bemba language, and these were later linked to their respective scientific names by consulting the available literature (11, 12,13).

3.1. Ethical Considerations

The ethnobotanical data was collected during the period from March to August 2019. Permission to conduct research was sought from the Headmen of Kalonga and Nandola villages in the area of sub-Chief Mwamba in Kasama District. From a population of 2000 residents who are mostly subsistence farmers(14), the exercise involved 240 households to collect the data, particularly focussing on the edible and medicinal plants found in the study area. However, from this set of 240 households recorded in the villager register, only 81 households were drawn out (selected) as informants. In this regard, six field assistants from Nandola and Kalonga villages were engaged to help administer the questionnaires. The challenge experienced by working in the area was that the informants were reluctant to release information on how they administer traditional medicines. Such information could only be given by informants at extra costs to the researcher. A problem arising from such an arrangement where informants are paid could lead to the temptation of tagging non-authentic names of some plant species for monetary gains.

4.0. Results and Discussion

The overall study revealed that 314 plants had been recorded to occur at Chishimba Falls Heritage Site. These consist of 12 species of bryophytes, 18 species of pteridophytes and 284 species of seed plants⁹. These taxa were recorded from

such vegetation types as the riparian forests, the evergreen forest relicts, the Miombo woodland and the edaphic grassland. The evergreen forest relicts are locally known as the Mushitus. It must be stressed at this point that all the 314 species recorded at Chishimba Falls are significant to the ecology of the four main vegetation types prevalent in the study area. However, only 138 species of flowering plants of ethnobotanical value have been documented at Chishimba Falls and the surrounding area, as listed in Appendix 1.

It must be stressed that all plant species occurring in any given vegetation type are of ecological significance because they contribute to the horizontal and vertical structure of each vegetation type and that they also sustain the floristic composition of plant communities in these four vegetation types occurring in the study site. In this area, plants of ethnobotanical value are utilised as medicines, sources of food, beverage, timber and some are used as building materials. Among the 138 angiosperm species of ethnobotanical value, 91 species are medicinal plants, whereas 47 species are non-medicinal plants. As indicated earlier, this study focused on reviewing prospects for the domestication of one species of *Aloe*, namely; *Aloe mzimbana*, which has been recorded at the Chishimba Falls Heritage Site. However, it is a taxon of widespread distribution in high-rainfall areas of Zambia.

4.1. Prospects for the Domestication of *Aloe Mzimbana*

A diversity of flowering plants will differ in terms of their form and the chemical compounds they contain. Observations have been made to the effect that the

ability of plants to produce carbohydrates and a diversity of other biological compounds makes plants far more useful natural resources to humans(15). In addition to being sources of food, fodder, building material and other natural products, and plants are considered vital sources of medicines. It has also been observed that traditional societies retain more knowledge about medicinal species compared to the more westernised societies(16). However, it has been noted that medicinal plants are widely used in traditional cultures in several parts of the world(17).

Authorities in ethnobotany have also noted that traditional healers may not understand the scientific rationale associated with their medicines but instead, rely on their personal experience to believe that plants they use are highly effective if applied at some level of therapeutic doses. On the other hand, scientists have established that bioactive compounds are contained in different parts of the plants, such as the leaves, bark of roots, fruits or seeds(17).

A description of some plant parts will help explain why traditional healers selectively exploit these parts as sources of medicine. The leaf is the main photosynthetic organ of plants that, in a majority of plants, usually consists of the petiole and leaf blade. The root is an underground plant organ that absorbs water and mineral nutrients from the soil. The stem is an organ of the plant that bears the leaves, flowers and, ultimately, the fruits. The bark is the outer protective layer of the tree trunk. The rhizome is an underground stem located below the soil surface and bears leaves projected above the soil surface and the bearing roots that develop and grow below the soil surface. The bulb is a fleshy underground organ

consisting of overlapping fleshy scale leaves found in onion plants. The fruit is a seed-bearing plant organ, which may be either fleshy, as noted in mangoes, or dry, as noted in beans(17).

It has been noted that in the field of phytomedicines or pharmaceuticals, plant-derived medicines contain chemical compounds that act on the human body to prevent physiological disorders and thus, contribute to the restoration or maintenance of people's health(17). One plant genus that evolved in the Old World and has contributed bioactive compounds of pharmaceutical value is *Aloe* L., a member of the monocot family Asphodelaceae. The genus *Aloe* consists of more than 600 species, including such taxonomic categories as subspecies and varieties and whose natural distribution encompasses Africa, the Arabian Peninsula, Socotra, Madagascar and the Mascarene Islands(18). Zambia is a natural home to 19 species of *Aloe*, of which one is *Aloe mzimbana* I. Verdc and Christian has been recorded at Chishimba Falls Heritage Site^{19,20}.

Aloe vera (L.) Burm. f. is prominent as the basis of its traditional medicinal value and thus, stands out as being of great importance in the pharmaceutical industry globally. This means that most of the drug aloes of the world are produced from *Aloe vera*, a species which originates from North-east Africa and the Arabian Peninsula. The cultivation of *Aloe vera* in the West Indies, USA, China and East Africa has become a major pharmaceutical industry to such an extent that the aloe industry has been estimated to have a turnover of more than US\$100 billion per annum (21,22). In South Africa, medicinal products are sourced from *Aloe ferox* Mill., a species widely distributed in the dry parts of the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, southern KwaZulu-Natal, with few

localities recorded in southwestern Lesotho and the south-eastern part of the Free State (22).

Aloe ferox has become an important commercial medicinal plant for traditional use as a laxative and a source of raw materials for health drinks and cosmetics formulations. Van Wyk and Smith(22) have also reported that when a leaf of the *Aloe* plant is cut, it produces a bitter yellow juice that exudes from the outer green part of the leaf. This juice contains a laxative compound called aloin, which occurs in *Aloe ferox* and *Aloe vera*.

Aloin is also known as anthrone or barbaloin, a quinone compound which is a form of C-glucoside occurring in leaves of several *Aloe* species that are cultivated as sources of drugs. The chemical structure of quinones is such that they all contain the same basic chromophore (coloured part), which consists of two carbonyl groups(23). In addition to laxative activities, other properties of *Aloe ferox* products include aspects of anti-oxidants, anti-inflammatory, anti-cancer, anti-microbial and anthelmintic activities(21).

The anatomical middle part of leaves of *Aloe* species contains a non-bitter inner parenchyma gel. This aloe gel is a water-soluble polysaccharide known as glucomannan found in leaves of succulent plants and whose physiological role is to help retain water content in aloe leaves. As a health benefit attributed to most aloe plants, the action of glucomannan promotes the production of fibroblast, thus, increasing the amount of collagen synthesis – a process which enhances the process of wound-healing(22). In South Africa, the first commercial plantation of *Aloe ferox* was established in 1976 by Dr Tewis Muller near Albertinia in the Western Cape Province(21).

It follows then that the domestication of *Aloe ferox* and *Aloe vera* as sources of drugs is yet another window of opportunity that should prompt Zambia into the domestication of some *Aloe* species to supply raw material for the production of drugs. This study has revealed that among the 19 species of *Aloe* that are indigenous to Zambia(19,20), only *Aloe mzimbana* I. Verdc. and Christian has been recorded within the Chishimba Falls Heritage Site. The type locality of this species was first recorded in northern Malawi, 29km north-east of Mzimba, as per data attached on the specimen collected on 8 June 1938 by Pole Evans and Erens 643, and the holotype specimen of this species is held in the Pretoria herbarium (PRE)(24). The natural growth habit of *Aloe mzimbana*, as earlier captured in Luapula Province, is illustrated in Figure 1.

Aloe mzimbana is a perennial succulent plant that develops suckers to form dense communities on rock outcrops. The plant bears greyish-green leaves that are curved inwards and characterised by whitish spots fringed with pink margins on both the abaxial and adaxial surfaces. The inflorescence is erect, up to 60cm long and typified by bearing several bracts below each raceme(24).

Aloe mzimbana, a candidate that is hereby being groomed for domestication in Zambia, ecologically occurs on rock outcrops and is found in high-rainfall regions of Zambia. Its distribution range covers Central, Luapula, Muchinga, Northern and Northwestern(20). Recent fieldwork conducted by a research student, Emmanuel Kapongolo, has confirmed the occurrence of this species at the Chishimba Falls Heritage Site. Furthermore, herbarium records show that *Aloe mzimbana* has authentically been recorded in Kapiri Mposhi, Kasama, Kawambwa, Mbala,

Mporokoso and the Nyika Plateau. The geographical range of this species extends into Congo DR, Malawi and Tanzania(19,25). Therefore, the region that is best suitable for the domestication and cultivation of *Aloe mzimbana* can be located in the northern part of Zambia, which receives high annual rainfall.

4.2. Considerations on Human Safety

The introduction of *Aloe mzimbana* into the agricultural system needs to consider other factors, such as the yield of raw materials with bioactive compounds and the verification of the probable occurrence of lethal toxic compounds reported in some species of *Aloe*. These considerations should be based on the commercial importance drawn from the cultivation of *Aloe ferox* in South Africa and *Aloe vera* in the West Indies. With regard to lethal compounds, studies conducted in East Africa reveal that some species of *Aloe* have been reported to contain poisonous compounds that are lethal to mammals. For instance, Newton (26) has reported three poisonous *Aloe* species in Kenya, namely: *Aloe ballyi* Reynolds, *Aloe elata* S. Carter and L.E. Newton and *Aloe ruspoliana* Baker.

The poisonous species of *Aloe* are reputed to contain a hemlock poison called **γ -coniceine** (gamma-coniceine), a highly toxic compound known to be teratogenic. The mechanism of this poison involves the disruption of the central nervous system, which leads to respiratory paralysis and death of the mammal. In addition, a teratogenic is an agent that can disturb the development of the mammalian embryo or foetus, thus, resulting in spontaneous abortion(23). It has been reported that in some parts of north-eastern Africa, *Aloe ruspoliana* is used for killing hyenas. In this case,

meat that has been smeared with the leaf exudase from this *Aloe* species is left lying around the villages at night, and hyenas are found to be dead the following morning(26). These findings necessitate the need to establish that *Aloe mzimbana*, proposed for domestication to join the pharmaceutical importance attained by *Aloe ferox* and *Aloe vera*, does not contain lethal compounds reported in some species of *Aloe* in East-Africa.



Figure 1: *Aloe mzimbana* on rock outcrop at Mumbuluma Falls north of Mansa (Photo by PSM Phiri)

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Appendix 1: Inventory of useful flowering plants of Chishimba Falls Heritage Site and the surrounding area. Local names are in Bemba or Lungu languages.

Botanical Name	Local Name	Use
MONOCOTYLEDONS		
ASPARAGACEAE		
<i>Asparagus plumosus</i> Baker	Kemyanshinge	medicine
ASPHODELACEAE		
<i>Aloe mzimbana</i> I. Verdc. & Christian	Chitembwisha	medicine
COLCHICACEAE		
<i>Gloriosa superba</i> L.	Mukolwe	medicine
COMMELINACEAE		
<i>Floscopa polypleura</i> Brenan	Chinkofwa	vegetable
CYPERACEAE		
<i>Ascolepis capensis</i> (Kunth) Ridl.	Namwansa	medicine
ORCHIDACEAE		
<i>Brachycorythis buchananii</i> (Schltr.) Rolfe	Nakatali	food
<i>Brachycorythis friesii</i> (Schltr.) Summerh.	Nakatali	food
<i>Disa welwitschii</i> Rchb.f.	Chikanda	food
<i>Disperis reichenbachiana</i> Welw. ex Rchb. f.	Chikanda	food
<i>Habenaria holubii</i> Rolfe	Chikanda	food
<i>Habenaria praestans</i> Rendle	Chikanda	food
<i>Liparis nervosa</i> (Thunb.) Lindl.	Chikanda	food
<i>Microcoelia globulosa</i> (Hochst.) L. Jónss	Chikanda	food
<i>Platycoryne macroceras</i> Summerh.	Kalobo	food
<i>Satyrium amblyosaccos</i> Schltr.	Matibula	food
<i>Satyrium trinerve</i> Lindl.	Matibula	food
POACEAE		
<i>Hyparrhenia cymbaria</i> (L.) Stapf	Kawundwe	building
<i>Hyparrhenia filipendula</i> (Hochst.) Stapf	Mpumpu	building
<i>Hyparrhenia rufa</i> (Nees) Stapf	Kasansa	building
<i>Imperata cylindrica</i> (L.) Raeusch.	Ibamba	medicine
<i>Loudetia simplex</i> (Nees) C.E. Hubb.	Lweo	building
<i>Oxytenanthera abyssinica</i> (A. Rich.) Munro	Lusengu	building

SMILACACEAE

Smilax anceps Willd. Nkololo medicine

ZINGIBERACEAE

Aframomum angustifolium (Sonn.) K. Schum. Mutungulu medicine

DICOTYLEDONS

AMARANTHACEAE

Amaranthus hybridus L. Ibondwe vegetable

ANACARDIACEAE

Lannea discolor (Sond.) Engl. Nakabumbu, medicine

Rhus longipes Engl. Namulalusha medicine

ANISOPHYLLEACEAE

Anisophyllea boehmii Engl. Mufungo food

ANNONACEAE

Annona senegalensis Pers. Mulolo medicinal

Hexalobus monopetalus (A.Rich) Engl. & Diels Mukundukubwile food

Uvariastrum hexaloboides (R.E. Fr.) R.E. Fr. Chisofu food

Xylopi odoratissima Welw. ex Oliv. Changwe medicine

APIACEAE

Diplophium zambesianum Hiern Mumfwemfwe medicine

Steganotaenia araliacea Hochst. Mutebitebi medicine

APOCYNACEAE

Diplorhynchus condylocarpon (Müll. Arg.) Pichon Mwenge medicine

Strophanthus welwitschii (Baill.) K. Schum. Kapempewansha medicine

Tabernaemontana pachysiphon Stapf Chinimbwe medicine

ASTERACEAE

Bidens pilosa L. Kasokopyo vegetable

Inula glomerata Oliv. & Hiern Chibalani medicine

Helichrysum sp. Kalungambebeba medicine

BIGNONIACEAE

Kigelia africana (Lam.) Benth. Mufungufungu medicine

CELASTRACEAE

Salacia bussei Loes. Mumpo medicine

Salacia rhodesiaca Blakelock Mumpo medicine

CHRYSOBALANACEAE

<i>Magnistipula butayei</i> De Wild.	Mubwilili	medicine
<i>Parinari curatellifolia</i> Planch. ex Benth.	Mupundu	food
<i>Parinari excelsa</i> Sabine	Mupundu	food

CLUSIACEAE

<i>Garcinia huillensis</i> Welw. ex Oliv.	Musongwa	food
<i>Harungana madagascariensis</i> Lam. ex Poir.	Katumbi	medicine
<i>Psorospermum febrifugum</i> Spach	Katumbi	medicine

COMBRETACEAE

<i>Combretum collinum</i> Fresen	Mufuka	medicine
<i>Combretum molle</i> R. Br.	Mulama	medicine
<i>Combretum psidioides</i> Welw.	Motamfumu	medicine
<i>Combretum zeyheri</i> Sond.	Mufuka	medicine
<i>Terminalia sericea</i> Burch ex DC.	Namwinshi	medicine

CONNARACEAE

<i>Rourea orientalis</i> Baill.	Kapululambushi	medicine
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DIPTEROCARPACEAE

<i>Marquesia acuminata</i> (Gilg) R.E. Fr.	Museshi	timber
<i>Monotes africanus</i> A.DC.	Chimpampa	medicine

EBENACEAE

<i>Diospyros batocana</i> Hiern	Muntufita	medicine
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EUPHORBIACEAE

<i>Antidesma venosum</i> E. Mey ex Tul.	Mulambabwato	medicine
<i>Hymenocardia acida</i> Tul.	Kapempe	medicine
<i>Maprounea africana</i> Müll. Arg.	Kafulamume	medicine
<i>Phyllanthus muellerianus</i> (Kuntz) Exell	Mupetwalupe	medicine
<i>Pseudolachnostylis maprouneifolia</i> Pax	Musangati	medicine
<i>Uapaca kirkiana</i> Müll. Arg.	Musuku	food
<i>Uapaca lyssopyrena</i> Radcl.-Sm.	Musokolowe-wabuta	food
<i>Uapaca pilosa</i> Hutch.	Mupangwa	food
<i>Uapaca robynsii</i> De Wild.	Mupangwa	food
<i>Uapaca sansibarica</i> Pax	Musokolowe	food

FABACEAE

<i>Afzelia quanzensis</i> Welw.	Mupapa	medicine
<i>Albizia adianthifolia</i> (Schumach.) W. Wight	Mutanga	medicine
<i>Albizia antunesiana</i> Harms	Musase	medicine
<i>Brachystegia boehmii</i> Taub.	Muombo	medicine

<i>Brachystegia floribunda</i> Benth.	Musompa	medicine
<i>Brachystegia longifolia</i> Benth.	Muombo	medicine
<i>Brachystegia spiciformis</i> Benth.	Muputu	medicine
<i>Cassia abbreviata</i> Oliv.	Munsokansoka	medicine
<i>Dalbergia nitidula</i> Baker	Kalongwe	medicine
<i>Dichrostachys cinerea</i> (L.) Wight & Arn	Katenge	medicine
<i>Dolichos linearifolius</i> Johnston	Chibombolwa	medicine
<i>Dolichos trinervatus</i> Baker	Chibombolwa	medicine
<i>Droogmansia pteropus</i> (Baker) De Wild.	Mulundenya	medicine
<i>Eriosema shirense</i> Baker f.	Mukusao-ukalamba	medicine
<i>Erythrina abyssinica</i> Lam. ex DC.	Kalunguti	medicine
<i>Erythrophleum africanum</i> (Welw. ex Benth.) Harms	Kayimbi	medicine
<i>Indigofera rhynchocarpa</i> Welw. ex Baker	Munkunka	medicine
<i>Isoberlinia angolensis</i> (Welw. ex Benth.) Hoyle & Brenan	Mutobo	medicine
<i>Julbernardia globiflora</i> (Benth.) Troupin	Mpasa	medicine
<i>Mucuna pruriens</i> (L.) DC.	Kaenya	medicine
<i>Philenoptera bussei</i> (Harms) Schrire	Chiya	medicine
<i>Pterocarpus angolensis</i> DC.	Mulombwa	timber
<i>Pterocarpus tinctorius</i> Welw.	Mukula	timber
<i>Rhynchosia insignis</i> (O.Hoffm) R.E. Fr.	Munkoyo	beverage
<i>Swartzia madagascariensis</i> Desv.	Ndale	medicine
<i>Vigna nuda</i> N.E. Br.	Muchilikandibu	medicine
GENTIANACEAE		
<i>Anthocleista schweinfurthii</i> Gilg	Mulwalwalwa	medicine
LAMIACEAE		
<i>Ocimum americanum</i> L.	Kafupa	medicine
<i>Ocimum obovatum</i> E. Mey ex Benth.	Kafupa	medicine
<i>Vitex doniana</i> Sweet	Mufutu	food
LORANTHACEAE		
<i>Agelanthus nyasicus</i> (Baker & Sprague) Polhill & Wiens	Mwikalampungu	medicine
MALVACEAE		
<i>Azanza garckeana</i> (F. Hoffm) Exell & Hillc.	Mukole	food
<i>Dombeya rotundifolia</i> (Hochst.) Planch.	Chinga	medicine
<i>Hibiscus subdariffa</i> Rottl.	Lumanda	vegetable
MELASTOMATACEAE		
<i>Memecylon flavovirens</i> Baker	Mufishameno	medicine

MELIACEAE

<i>Turraea nilotica</i> Kotschy & Peyr.	Mulyansefu	medicine
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MORACEAE

<i>Ficus barteri</i> Sprague	Mukunyu	food
<i>Ficus natalensis</i> Hochst.	Mutaba	medicine
<i>Ficus sansibarica</i> Warb.	Mutombolya	food
<i>Ficus stuhlmannii</i> Warb.	Mupula-mpako	medicine
<i>Ficus sur</i> Forssk.	Mukunyu	medicine

MYRTACEAE

<i>Syzygium cordatum</i> Hochst. ex C. Krauss	Mufinsa	food,
<i>Syzygium guineense</i> (Willd.) DC.	Musafwa	food,
<i>Syzygium owariense</i> (P. Beauv.) Benth.	Luamba	medicine

PASSIFLORACEAE

<i>Adenia lobata</i> (Jacq.) Engl.	Mobole	medicine
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PEDALIACEAE

<i>Sesamum angolense</i> Welw.	Mukonde	medicine
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POLYGALACEAE

<i>Polygala exelliana</i> Troupin	Kanamwilila	medicine
<i>Securidaca longipedunculata</i> Fresen	Mupapi	medicine

PROTEACEAE

<i>Faurea saligna</i> Harv.	Saninga	medicine
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RANUNCULACEAE

<i>Clematis villosa</i> DC.	Nyinu	medicine
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RHAMNACEAE

<i>Ziziphus abyssinica</i> A. Rich.	Kalangwa	medicine
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RUBIACEAE

<i>Canthium lactescens</i> Hiern	Mukolobondo	medicine
<i>Fadogiella stigmatoloba</i> (K. Schum.) Robyns	Musengele	medicine
<i>Gardenia imperialis</i> K. Schum.	Munamba	medicine
<i>Psychotria eminiana</i> (Kuntze) E.M.A.Petit	Chitapatapa	medicine
<i>Psychotria kirkii</i> Hiern	Namulilo	medicine

RUTACEAE

<i>Zanthoxylum chalybeum</i> Engl.	Pupwe	vegetable
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SALICACEAE

Flacourtia indica (Burm.f.) Merr. Mutumbwisha food

SAPINDACEAE

Haplocoelum foliolosum (Hiern) Bullock Nachisungu medicine

Zanha africana (Radlk.) Exell Chibangalume medicine

SAPOTACEAE

Chrysophyllum bangweolense R.E. Fr. Muyenga medicine

Mimusops zeyheri Sond. Mubungbunga medicine

SOLANACEAE

Withania somnifera (L.) Dunal Mutuntula medicine

STRYCHNACEAE

Strychnos cocculoides Baker Kasongole food

Strychnos innocua Delile Mulungi food

Strychnos potatorum L.f. Mubanga-chulu medicine

Strychnos pungens Soler. Mukome food

Strychnos spinosa Lam. Sansa food

THYMELAEACEAE

Craterosiphon quarrei Staner Mukole medicine

VITACEAE

Cissus quadrangularis L. Mobole medicine