



Ethnobotanical study of medicinal plants in the Adrar Province, Mauritania

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ABSTRACT

Ethnopharmacological relevance: Mauritania is a country in which few ethnobotanical studies have been conducted and consequently the ethnomedical data is scarce. Since the geographical region reflects the transition between tropical and Northern Africa, influenced by the Mediterranean floristic region, the traditional knowledge was influenced by several cultures from tropical Africa as well as Arab, Berber and Islamic societies.

Aim of the study: This paper aims to explore and compile the diversity of ethnomedical knowledge in one of the regions of Mauritania and to compare the data with similar studies from surrounding territories.

Materials and methods: Surveys and interviews were carried out in 11 villages of Adrar province in northern Mauritania. Data were collected through open, semi-structured interviews (with individuals and focus groups). A sample of 120 people aged between 20 and 70 years, including 24 herbalists and 28 traditional healers was included.

Results: Ethnomedical data for 68 plant species belonging to 27 families were obtained. They are used to treat 50 health conditions grouped in 14 pathological groups. Remedies for digestive system disorders, skin problems and respiratory ailments were among the most frequent indications. Leaves were the most frequently used plant part and remedies generally used as a powder for the various applications and a total of 2'317 use reports were gathered. About 55% of the reported species were not cited previously in the literature focusing on Mauritania and neighbouring countries. Moreover, only 6 species are also cited by Ibn al-Baytar (13th century CE).

Conclusions: This work shows a promising perspective for future studies, shedding light on the richness and the risk for conservation of traditional knowledge of herbal medicine in Mauritania.

1. Introduction

1.1. Traditional medicine and ethnobotanical research in Mauritania

In 2001, the World Health Organisation (WHO) performed a Worldwide Review on the legal status of Traditional Medicine and Complementary/Alternative medicine. In this report, with regards to Mauritania, we established a working group to examine problems concerning traditional medicine and traditional pharmacopoeia, in particular: 1) to examine the most appropriate and realistic methods and means of establishing an honest dialogue between the official health services and traditional practitioners and 2) to propose the most appropriate mechanisms for identifying traditional practitioners who are amenable to such dialogue in order to determine and acknowledge the part that they can play in the system of comprehensive health care (WHO, 2001). Still, today, Mauritania has no official legislative/regulatory texts governing the practice of traditional medicine, any licensing processes for traditional practitioners or procedures for official

approval of traditional medical practices and remedies (Gueye, 2009). Traditional medicine practitioners are not involved in Mauritania's primary health care program (WHO, 2001), and Mauritania authorises, at a small scale, the production and marketing of substances related to traditional medicine (ARSO, 2019). Nevertheless, this traditional medicine, unlike in other countries such as China or India, is not officially recognised by the national health committee and requires further organisation, regulations and adequate integration into the national health system (Amadou, 2011). In fact, the state of traditional medicine in Mauritania is little known and suffers from an almost total absence of bibliographical references (The African Health Monitor, WHO-AFRO, 2010).

In a study conducted by Groulard (1991) on traditional medicine in Mauritania (not focused on plants, but on traditional healing practices, diagnosis and symptoms), it has been shown that several conditions were treated with a number of traditional remedies. The author concluded that the diversity and the impacts of these traditional healing practices need to be integrated in a rational way into the national

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health system. The traditional Mauritanian medicine has been defined by [Graz \(2010\)](#) as a “classical Greco-Arab medicine”, i.e. related to the ancient Greek medical theory based on balance or imbalance of humours. He also concluded that practitioners of Traditional Arabic Medicine in this country use a prognosis/follow-up method to evaluate the safety and effectiveness of the treatment. This allows the comparison between progress and what the traditional ‘tabib’ had anticipated, and therefore compares the traditional healing methods with those of modern medicine.

As in most countries without a developed public and accessible modern health system, traditional medicine is socio-culturally highly popular in Mauritania. Apart from being extremely common, traditional medicine uses a large diversity of remedies, generally based on mineral, animal and plant origins ([Groulard, 1991](#)). However, traditional medicine has a huge socio-economic impact, since 42% of the constantly growing population of Mauretania live below the poverty line ([Oxfam International, 2018](#)). Undeniably, the socio-economic interest for medicinal plants is reaching the traditional healers. As some studies have pointed out, their commercial side could be a valuable source of income for local dwellers ([Vall, 2009](#)).

As the country is located approximately in-between the 15th and 27th parallels, with highly different environmental conditions and ecosystems, different approaches associated with the practice of traditional medicine exist within the country. While the population of the southern provinces is more attracted to the Tropical Africa animistic practices and rituals, the population of the northern provinces is more inclined to practice the Moorish medical tradition, influenced by the Arabo-Islamic medicine ([Thouzery, 1998](#)). In this sense, traditional medical practices in Mauritania can be seen as a crossroad of Sub-Saharan-African and Arabo-Berber cultures ([Bellakhdar, 1997](#)).

The importance of traditional medicine and its viability in Mauritania are high, since still today, it is used by large parts of the Mauritanian population ([Graz, 2010](#)). Mauritania is rich in ethnobotanical resources, medicinal plants and traditional healing practices. Nevertheless, the methods of work and the theories can be compared to Greek medicine, but are not known by the neighbouring countries ([Graz, 2010](#)).

Due to the geographical position of Mauritania, with a desert climate and harsh living conditions, its flora is quite poor in terms of species numbers. There are about 1400 vascular plant species ([Barry and Celles, 1991](#)), unevenly spread across the territory. More precisely, our studied area, Adrar Province, contains 250 species per 100,000 km² ([Monod, 1952](#)). Among other studies on the flora and vegetation of the country, we highlight those of [Sauvage \(1949\)](#), [Monod \(1952\)](#), [Boudet et al. \(1961\)](#), [Adam \(1966\)](#), [Toupet \(1966\)](#) and [Vall et al. \(2011, 2015\)](#).

Several studies have been published to deepen the knowledge of traditional medicine, but unfortunately, they are hardly known to the scientific community ([Adje, 1998](#); [Awfa, 1983, 1996](#); [Dubief, 1937; Hamidoun, 1952](#); [Mame N'Diak, 1977](#)). This list could be enriched by other published works about ethnobotany in Mauritania ([Leriche, 1953; Fortin et al., 1990; Vall, 2009](#)) and by some books on the useful plants within a wider geographical area ([Bellakhdar, 1978](#); [Boulos, 1983; Maydell, 1983](#); [Burkill et al., 1985](#); [Pousset, 1989](#)).

Additional ethnobotanical data of interest for this region can be found in nearby territories, such as South Morocco and the Saharian regions ([Barrera et al., 2007](#)), the Algerian Sahara ([Miara et al., 2019, 2018; Hammiche and Maiza, 2006](#)), Senegal ([Diop et al., 2018; Benoit-Vical et al., 2008; Stauble, 1986; Le Grand, 1989; Le Grand et al., 1988; Le Grand and Wondergem, 1987; Bonati, 1980; Kerharo and Adam, 1974](#)) and Mali ([Wangensteen et al., 2015; Diarra et al., 2015; Bah et al., 2006; Bizimana et al., 2006; Maiga et al., 2005; Nergard et al., 2005; Inngjerdingen et al., 2004](#)). Interesting data on desert plant species can be found in the eastern part of the Sahara Desert (e.g. [Khalid et al., 2012; El-Kamali and Khalid, 1998](#)).

This points to the need for more in-depth studies on the traditionally used medicinal plants in this region. In this context, we hypothesise that

a long-term and well-driven study based on local healers and inhabitants using traditional healing practices in Mauritania can increase our knowledge of this topic, thereby facilitating the development of better policies for the regulation and exploitation of plant resources. Moreover, as will be discussed in this paper, some of the previous studies lack a critical assessment of the included names and contain several taxonomic and nomenclatural errors, mostly because of inadequate botanical literature and a lack of new research tools dealing with plant nomenclature and taxonomy (e.g. the websites of the African Plant Database, the International Plant Names Index, [theplantlist.org](#) or [tropicos.org](#)).

1.2. Aim of the study

This study aims to significantly deepen the knowledge of traditional plant-based medicine as practiced in the province of Adrar, an important region of North Mauritania, bordering Morocco, Algeria and Mali. We compiled an annotated list of the plants traditionally used as medicine, together with information on the specific herbal drugs traditionally used in this province, recorded through anthropological field surveys focusing on ethnomedicine. By performing a bibliographical comparison with other ethnobotanical studies in Mauritania and the above mentioned nearby territories, we aim to know for each of the included uses if they have previously been reported in the region or in nearby areas or if they are reported for the first time in this context.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area

This work was performed in the province of Adrar ([Fig. 1](#)), named after the Adrar Plateau, a large administrative region in northern Mauritania covering about 235,000 km² and accounting for 22.8% of the country ([ONS, 2011](#)). In 2010, its estimated population size was 76,082 inhabitants ([ONS, 2011](#)), with a density of about 0.3 inhabitants per km², classifying Adrar as the second lowest populated province. Its capital, Atar, was populated by 38,877 inhabitants in 2013 ([ONS, 2013](#)). Eleven different villages of Adrar were surveyed in this work, selected according to the presence of traditional healers and potential informants.

According to the Köppen-Geiger climatic classification ([Rubel and Kottek, 2010](#)), the climate in Adrar is categorised as a hot desert climate (BWh code), with hot and arid conditions, intense sunshine, a typical desert precipitation and hot summers with temperatures exceeding 42 °C. In Atar, the average annual rainfall is 111 L/m², with an average temperature of 28 °C (with 5 months, between May and September, with over 30°; [www.globalbioclimatics.org](#)). The rainy season extends from July to October, with most of the rain being concentrated in August and September.

The population of this region usually migrates to the capital (Nouakchott) for job opportunities, to obtain higher education or to escape from the drought and harsh climatic conditions. Economically, the province of Adrar is based on agriculture and mainly on regular farming, with an increasing touristic activity. Agricultural activities are practiced on many fertile oases, since this province contains the largest number of oases in the country (over 63). Besides being a self-sufficient territory with regards to agricultural support, it participates in the food supply for the capital, Nouakchott, particularly in terms of vegetables and dates (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.). The cultivation of date palms in these oases is, as in other Saharan territories, common and culturally and economically important ([ONS, 2011](#)). Tourism is clearly progressing thanks to the beauty of the desert landscape, the mountain ranges and the historic towns with a rural lifestyle (such as Chinguetti and Oudane), which have led to the development of this industry sector, making this province the most important tourist destination. These reasons, together with our interest in developing an ethnobotanical



Fig. 1. Study area representing Adrar Province with its four provinces Atar, Oudane, Aoujeft and Chinguetti. Trarza, Tagant, Inchiri and Tiris zemour are surrounding provinces.

study, led us to choose this region as our study area.

2.2. Ethnobotanical approach and surveys

Our approach towards the ethnobotanical field study is based on previous works of our research group (Merzouki et al., 1997, 2000). The first phase consisted of visiting the villages and looking for traditional healers and inhabitants with high knowledge on the traditional use of plants. Classic methods to locate informants were followed, such as the snowball or participant observation on festivities and culturally important days, trying to locate traditional healers and practitioners as key informants. Once some informants were located and selected, our ethnobotanical data gathering was essentially based on open semi-structured interviews (Martin, 2004). Interviews were performed in "Hassanya", the Mauritanian Arabic dialect, after obtaining a verbal informed consent, and lasted for 1 or 2 h. We focused on the Maures ethnicity since Adrar people are mostly Arabs who speak Arabic, with some being of Amazigh (Berber) origin, and are locally known as the people with the higher traditional knowledge on medicinal plants. Through these interviews, information on both informants and medicinal plant use and knowledge was collected. The gathered information included local names of plants, parts of the plant used, preparation methods, modes of administration and health conditions or symptoms treated. During the fieldwork with our informants or from their own previous collections, plant material was also collected. While doing the interviews, a closed and structured questionnaire was also compiled with the help of the participants (supplementary Table 1; in French). The first part included data about the interviewed herbalist (sex, age, family situation, level of study), and the second part was dedicated to the collection of data on the plants and their uses, data which were

enlarged and deepened in the oral interviews.

The ethnobotanical field work was carried out over a period of 2 years. A total of 120 informants were interviewed during the field work, including 24 herbalists (H) and 28 traditional healers (TH). The surveyed villages were Atar (31 informants; including 7 H and 6 TH), Tawaz (9 informants; 1 H and 1 TH), Ain ehltaya (11 informants; 2 H and 2 TH), Choum (7 informants; 2 H and 2 TH), Aoujeft (13 informants; 2 H and 2 TH), El Medea (7 informants; 1 H and 3 TH), Maeden (5 informants; 1 H and 1 TH), N'terguent (10 informants; 1 H and 3 TH), Chinguitti (9 informants; 1 H and 3 TH), Ain savra (8 informants; 2 H and 1 TH) and Ouadane (10 informants; 4 H and 4 TH). Our interviewees were native from different localities of Adrar, mainly from Atar, Awjeft, Chinguetti and Ouadane.

Subsequently, plant samples were identified at the Laboratory of the École Normale Supérieure-ENS of Nouakchott, Mauritania, and voucher specimens were prepared and conserved in its herbarium (international herbarium code HNM; for all non-cultivated species). For plant identification, we used the Flora of Mauritania (Barry and Celles, 1991) and, as suggested by Rivera et al. (2014), all scientific names were reviewed using a standardised database (www.theplantlist.org, Version 1.1) and Dobignard and Chatelain (2010–2013); some important synonyms were included. In a final fieldwork phase, to complete or check the data and, in some cases, to clearly state the correlation of vernacular and scientific names, a part of the plant or a whole plant was shown again in certain cases to our previous interviewees. They were asked if they recognised it and if they knew vernacular name, medicinal use, parts used, preparation methods, mode of administration, etc., as described in Merzouki et al. (1997, 2000). For each plant sample, a specific code was given (e.g. "HNM00001", as the international herbarium code for this herbarium is HNM). Vernacular names were included as they were

table 1
Medicinal plants with families, voucher, local names, traditional use (with ICPC-2 code), similar previous references in nearby territories and use reports. For Al-Baytar, we consulted both Al-Baytar (1992) and Leclerc 877-883.

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Table 1 (*continued*)

Family	Species (Vouchers)	Local Names	Diseases treated	Part used	Mode of preparation	Mode of administration	Similar use references	UR
Brassicaceae	<i>Schouwia purpurea</i> (Forsk.) Schveinf. (HNM00061) <i>Commiphora africana</i> (A.Rich.) Endl (HNM00060)	جیر ادرس	Impotence Y07 Breast cancer X76 Constipation D12 Mouth symptom D20 Laceration S18 Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Leaves Gum Fruits Rod Gum Leaves	Infusion Mashed Fresh Mashed Mashed mixed with water Infusion	Oral Cataplasma Oral Oral Cataplasma Oral	— — — Bellakhdar (1997) Bellakhdar (1997) Fasola et al. (2004)	10 2 3 3 5 3
Burseraceae			Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Leaves	Mashed	Cataplasma	—	—
Capparaceae	<i>Boscia senegalensis</i> Lam. (HNM00988)	إيزن	Heartburn D03 Teeth ache D19 Back symptom I02 Asthma R06	Leaves Leaves	Powder Powder with water Maceration powder	Oral Oral Oral	— — —	2 12 20
Capparaceae	<i>Maerua crassifolia</i> Forsk. (HNM01452)	أليل	Teeth ache D19	Leaves	Mashed	Cataplasma	Vall (2009)	19
Capparaceae	<i>Capparis decidua</i> (Forsk.) Edgew. (HNM00706)	عجمين	Abdominal pain epigastric D02 Constipation D12 Jaundice D13 Non insulin dependent diabetes T90 Fever A03 Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Leaves Fruits Fruits Leaves Roots Fruits	Infusion Fresh Fresh Powder with gum of <i>Senegalia senegal</i> Powder Fresh	Oral Oral Oral Oral Oral Oral	Bellakhdar (1997); Rahman et al. (2004); Hammiche and Meiza (2006)	50
Capparaceae	<i>Cleome arabica</i> L. (HNM01443)	الخشنة	Menstrual pain X02 Impotence Y07 Infertility Y10 Bronchitis R78	Whole plant Leaves Leaves Whole plant	Macerated in milk Infusion Infusion Decoction	Oral Oral Oral Oral	— — — —	48
Celastraceae	<i>Gymnosporia senegalensis</i> (Lam.) Loes. (Syn. <i>Maytenus senegalensis</i> (Lam.) Exell) (HNM01465)	أشد	Viral hepatitis D72 Jaundice D13 Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Seeds Leaves Leaves	Infusion Infusion Infusion	Oral Oral Oral	— — —	26 5 5
Combretaceae	<i>Combretum aculeatum</i> Vent. (HNM02328)	كلي	Diarrhoea D11	Leaves	Mashed	Oral	Kankara et al. (2015)	3
Combretaceae	<i>Combretum glutinosum</i> Perr. ex DC. (HNM00134)	توكف	Worms D96 Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Leaves Leaves	Powder with water Powder with water	Oral Oral	Holaly et al. (2018)	3
Combretaceae	<i>Guiera senegalensis</i> J.F.Gmel. (HNM01400)	آيل	Abdominal pain epigastric D02 Diarrhoea D11	Leaves Leaves	Powder with gum of <i>Senegalia senegal</i> and sugar Powder with gum of <i>Senegalia senegal</i> and sugar	Oral Oral	— —	27
Combretaceae			Teeth ache D19 Diarrhoea D11 Asthma R06 Cough R05	Leaves Leaves Leaves Leaves	Fresh Mashed Decoction Decoction	Oral Oral Oral Oral	Vall (2009)	11 6 4 3

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Table 1 (*continued*)

Family	Species (Vouchers)	Local Names	Diseases treated	Part used	Mode of preparation	Mode of administration	Similar use references	UR
Cucurbitaceae	<i>Citrullus colocynthis</i> (L.) Schrad. (HNM02009)	الجلد حملاء	Htaj-lehmar	Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Seeds of fruits	Fresh with water	Oral	Bellakhdar (1997); Malik et al. (2015); Eddouks et al., 2017; Fakchich and Elachouri (2014); Ghulam et al. (2015); Ariz et al. (2012); Ahmad et al., 2017; Vall (2009); Hammiche and Meiza (2006)
Cucurbitaceae	<i>Citrullus lanatus</i> (Thunb.) Matsum. & Nakai(HNM00138)	الجلد دالل	Tagastaryt	Abdominal pain epigastric D02 Diarrhoea D11 Worms D96	Fruits	Fresh Fresh	Cataplasma Oral	Bahassan et al., 2014; Vall (2009)
Cucurbitaceae	<i>Cucumis prophetarium</i> L.(HNM00190)	الجلد طمس		Cough R05 Worms (D96)	Fruits	Powder with sugar Powder with water Infusion with milk Powder/maceration	Oral Oral Oral Oral	Leriche, 1954; Vall (2009)
Cucurbitaceae	<i>Momordica balsamina</i> L.(HNM00194)	تمبرة	Tumbahra		Fruits			–
Euphorbiaceae	<i>Euphorbia balsamifera</i> Aiton (HNM00623)	أفريان	Afarnan	Rash localized S06 Scabies S72 Bronchitis R78	Latex Latex Leaves	Extracted mixed with oil Extraction Infusion	Cataplasma Cataplasma Oral	Bellakhdar (1997)
Euphorbiaceae	<i>Euphorbia calyptata</i> Coss. & Kralk (HNM00254)	المادة	El-ranahadah	Skin injury S19 Constipation D12 Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Leaves	Powder Powder with milk Powder with milk	Cataplasma Oral Oral	–
Euphorbiaceae	<i>Euphorbia scordifolia</i> Jacq. (HNM01120)	الثعبان	Qambilina	Eye pain F01 Dyspepsia D07 Diarrhoea D11	Gum Leaves Leaves	Powder with water Infusion Maceration	Eye drop Oral Oral	Rahman et al. (2004); Vall (2009)
Fabaceae	<i>Acacia senegal</i> (L.) Willd. (Syn. <i>Senegalia senegal</i> (L.) Britton) (HNM00320)	أورونج	Awerwar	Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Gum Leaves	Powder with water Maceration	–	–
Fabaceae	<i>Arachis hypogaea</i> L. (HNM00261)	قرن حرتاح	Gertah	Skin injury S19 Rash localized S06 Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Jaundice D13 Seeds Seeds	Mashed and mixed with water Mashed Mashed Infusion	Oral	Bellakhdar (1997)
Fabaceae	<i>Bauhinia rufescens</i> Lam.(HNM01550)	درن	N'dern		Leaves		Cataplasma Cataplasma Oral	Bahassan et al. (2014); Kankara et al., 2015; Hammiche and Meiza (2006)
Fabaceae	<i>Cullen plicatum</i> (Deile) C.H. Stitt. (HNM01983)	طمارت	Tatratit	Diarrhoea D11 Constipation (D12)	Leaves Leaves	Powder with water Powder with water Powder/infusion	Oral Gargle Oral	Vall (2009)
Fabaceae	<i>Kerria roudairei</i> (Bonnet), Krameria & D. D. Sokoloff(HNM00299)	كيريا	Khydit-dhab	Hearburn D03 Abdominal pain epigastric D02 Bronchitis R78 Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Leaves Leaves Leaves Leaves	Infusion Powder with water	Oral Oral	Bellakhdar (1997)
Fabaceae	<i>Prosopis juliflora</i> (Sw.) DC.	سجاد	Groun-lymhaada	Breathing problem R04 Fever A03 Abdominal pain epigastric DC2	Stems Leaves Leaves	Fumigation Powder with water Maceration	Inhalation Oral Oral	–
Fabaceae				Muscle pain L18 epigastric DC2	Leaves	Powder	Cataplasma	Ghulam et al. (2015)

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Table 1 (continued)

Family	Species (Vouchers)	Local Names	Diseases treated	Part used	Mode of preparation	Mode of administration	Similar use references	UR
Fabaceae	<i>Senna italica</i> Mill. (HNM01562)	لَبَّاْيَةٌ Valajyt	Constipation D12 Abdominal pain epigastric D02 Skin colour change S08 Worms D96	Leaves Leaves	Mashed Powder/maceration	Oral Oral	Bahassan et al. (2014); Vall (2009); Malik et al. (2015) Eddouks et al., 2017	25 16
Fabaceae	<i>Senna occidentalis</i> (L.) Link (HNM01570)	سِرَّاسَار Sarasar	Vomiting D10	Leaves	Powder Powder/maceration	Cataplasma Oral	— —	11 11
Fabaceae	<i>Tamarindus indica</i> L. (HNM00116)	تَارِمَةٌ Agant	Headache N01	Fruits	Macerated mixed with sugar	Oral	Al-Baytar	4
Fabaceae	<i>Vachellia nilotica</i> (L.) P.J.H. Hurter & Mabb. (HNM00614)	أَمْوَر Amour	Eye pain F01 Haemorrhoids K96 Skin injury S19 Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Leaves Pods Pods Leaves	Macerated mixed with gum of <i>Senegalia senegal</i> Juice Powder/maceration Powder	Oral Oral Cataplasma	Malik et al. (2015) — Bellakhdar (1997)	20 10
Fabaceae	<i>Vachellia tortilis</i> (Forsk.) Galasso & Bañfi. (HNM00620)	الْمَالِحَةُ Adlagan	Diarrhoea D11 hypertension K86 Anaemia B81 Jaundice D13 Cough R05 Abdominal pain epigastric D02 Worms D96	Leaves Bark Seeds Seeds Bark Leaves	Powder Mashed/macerated Cooked Infusion Infusion Infusion	Oral Oral Oral Oral Oral	Bellakhdar (1997); Hammiche and Meiza (2006) — Vall (2009) — Al-Baytar Al-Baytar	13 15 17 98
Fabaceae	<i>Vigna unguiculata</i> (L.) Walp. (HNM00252)	الْمَلَقَةُ Sadra	Abscesses Sadra	Leaves	Powder with sugar and arabic gum mixed with water	Oral	— —	45 8
Fabaceae	<i>Vachellia seyal</i> (Delile) P.J.H. Hurter. (HNM01584)	بَهْدَى beydha	Leaves	Leaves	Leaves	Oral	Ghulam et al. (2015) —	7 3 30 10
Lamiaceae	<i>Mentha spicata</i> L.	نَانَا نَانَا	Menstrual pain X02 Vomiting D10 Teeth ache D19 Dyspepsia D07	Bark Leaves Leaves Leaves	Powder/infusion Decoction Mashed Decoction	Oral Oral Oral Oral	Al-Baytar Al-Baytar — Tahrerai et al. (2007); Hendel et al. (2012) Holaly et al. (2018)	12 4 3 3 7
Lamiaceae	<i>Ocimum basilicum</i> L. (HNM01553)	لَبَّاقَةٌ لَبَّاقَةٌ	Hypertension K86 Non insulin dependent diabetes T90 Asthma R96 Dysuria U01	Leaves Leaves Leaves	Decoction Decoction Decoction	Oral Oral Oral	— — Ghulam et al. (2015)	11 11 4
Loranthaceae	<i>Tapinanthus globiferus</i> (A. Rich.) Tiegh. (HNM00626)	أَشْلَادَةٌ أَرْشَلَادَةٌ Al-Hanna	Headache N01 Jaundice D13 Burn S14	Leaves Leaves Leaves	Powder/maceration	Cataplasma	Bellakhdar (1997) Ahmad et al., 2017; Vall (2009)	11 6
Lythraceae	<i>Lawsonia inermis</i> L. (HNM00344)	جَمَّةٌ Al-Hanna	Jaundice D11	Fruits	Powder with water	Cataplasma	— Kankara et al. (2015); Vall (2009)	18 40
Malvaceae	<i>Adansonia digitata</i> L. (HNM01538)	أَفْوَلَةٌ Teydoum	Hypertension uncomplicated K86 Abdominal pain epigastric D02 Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Leaves Leaves	Powder with sugar	Oral	— — Leriche, 1954	89 80
Malvaceae	<i>Hibiscus sabdariffa</i> L. (HNM00351)	بَسَّامٌ بَسَّامٌ	Flowers	Decoction	Oral	— —	— —	7 7
Malvaceae	<i>Grewia damine</i> Gaertn. (Syn. <i>Grewia bicolor</i> Juss.) (HNM01752)	كَعْلَمٌ Imijy	Cough R05 Malaria A73	Flowers Leaves	Decoction Decoction	Oral Oral	Vall (2009) —	12 11
Malvaceae	<i>Sterculia setigera</i> Del. (HNM01741)	بَرْبَرْيَا Quinin	Diarrhoea D11	Seeds	Fresh with water	Oral	Vall (2009)	9
Meliaceae	<i>Azadirachta indica</i> A.Juss.	ذَنْبَلَةٌ	Cough R05 Malaria A73	Leaves	Powder/infusion	Oral	Hilonga et al., 2018; Kankara et al. (2015); Vall (2009)	5
Poaceae	<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> L.	شَأْرَةٌ Sha-yrt	Viral hepatitis D72 Jaundice D13	Seeds	Infusion	Oral	Vall (2009)	6
			Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Seeds	Powder	Oral	Malik et al. (2015); Bahadur et al., 2018 Malik et al. (2015); Fakchich and Elachouri (2014)	5 6

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Table 1 (*continued*)

Family	Species (Vouchers)	Local Names	Diseases treated	Part used	Mode of preparation	Mode of administration	Similar use references	UR
Poaceae	<i>Cenchrus americanus</i> (L.) Morrone (HNM00437)	ڦڻ Mutry	Breathing problem R04	Seeds	Mashed and mixed with water	Oral	–	7
Poaceae	<i>Panicumurgidum</i> Forssk. (HNM01331)	ڦڻ ٻل Oum-rekba	Rash localized S06	Seeds	Mashed	Cataplasma	–	8
Poaceae	<i>Sorghum bicolor</i> (L.) Moench. (HNM00441)	ڦڻ Zraa	Constipation D12	Stems	Infusion	Oral	Hammiche and Meiza (2006)	9
Poaceae	<i>Spiprostrosis pungea</i> (Desf.) DeWinter (HNM01285)	ٻڌاڻ Shbat	Jaundice D13	Seeds	Powder	Oral	–	8
Poaceae	<i>Triticum aestivum</i> L. <i>Zea mays</i> L.	ڪالمٰي AlGhamih ڪڻ Mekkah	Viral hepatitis D72	Seeds	Infusion	Oral	Vall (2009)	17
Rhamnaceae	<i>Ziziphus mauritiana</i> Lam. (HNM01711)	ڄڻ ڦدار لاهبی	Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Seeds	Maceration	Oral	–	15
Rhamnaceae	<i>Ziziphus lotus</i> (L.) Lam. (HNM01705)	ڦڻ ڦدار شریڪ	Dysuria U01	Thaetch	Powder whit water	Oral	–	17
Rhamnaceae	<i>Mitracyena inermis</i> (Willd.) Kunze (HNM00526)	JUJ Agjal	Diarrhoea D11	Seeds	Powder/infusion	Oral	Fakchich and Elaouchi (2014); Bahassan et al. (2014)	3
Rhamnaceae	<i>Sabicea persica</i> L. (HNM01729)	ڀڻ Ivar-shy	Abdominal pain epigastric D02	Seeds	Infusion	Oral	–	9
Rubiaceae	<i>Mitracyena inermis</i> (Willd.) Kunze (HNM00526)	JUJ Agjal	Hypertension K86	Leaves	Macerated whit water	Body lotion	Miara et al. (2019)	3
Rubiaceae	<i>Tamarix senegalensis</i> DC. (HNM00859)	ڦڻ طارڻ Tarva	Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Leaves	Powder/maceration	Oral	Ahmad et al., 2017	2
Rubiaceae	<i>Hyoscyamus muticus</i> L. (HNM01745)	ڦڻ Lebtheyma	Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Leaves	Infusion	Oral	Vall (2009)	2
Solanaceae	<i>Balanites aegyptiaca</i> (L.) Delile (HNM00634)	ٻڌاڻ Teyshyt	Teeth ache D19	Leaves	Mashed	Oral	Ghulam et al. (2015); Fasola et al. (2004); Vall (2009); Hammiche and Meiza, 2006	3
Tamaricaceae	<i>Tamarix senegalensis</i> DC. (HNM00859)	ڦڻ طارڻ Tarva	Kidney symptom U14	Leaves	Mashed	Oral	–	3
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Fagonia glutinosa</i> Delile (HNM00609)	ڦڻ Lebtheyma	Complications of puerperium W96	Leaves	Macerated whit water	Cataplasma	Hilonga et al., 2018; Kankara et al. (2015)	120
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Tribulus terrestris</i> L. (HNM00973)	ٻڌاڻ Teyshyt	Anaemia B81	Leaves	Infusion	Oral	Vall (2009); Hammiche and Meiza (2006)	101
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Balanites aegyptiaca</i> (L.) Delile (HNM00634)	ڦڻ طارڻ Tarva	Malaria A73	Leaves	Mashed/ macerated	Body lotion	Hammiche and Meiza (2006)	57
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Fagonia glutinosa</i> Delile (HNM00609)	ڦڻ Lebtheyma	Constipation D12	Leaves	Mashed/ macerated	Body lotion	–	3
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Tribulus terrestris</i> L. (HNM00973)	ٻڌاڻ Teyshyt	Skin injury S19	Leaves	Powder with water	Cataplasma	–	4
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Balanites aegyptiaca</i> (L.) Delile (HNM00634)	ڦڻ طارڻ Tarva	Non insulin dependent diabetes T90	Leaves	Macerated with water/ fresh	Oral	–	3
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Fagonia glutinosa</i> Delile (HNM00609)	ڦڻ Lebtheyma	Teeth ache D19	Fruits	Powder with animal oil	Cataplasma	Hammiche and Meiza (2006)	57
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Tribulus terrestris</i> L. (HNM00973)	ٻڌاڻ Teyshyt	Teeth ache D19	Leaves	Powder/infusion	Oral	–	3
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Balanites aegyptiaca</i> (L.) Delile (HNM00634)	ڦڻ طارڻ Tarva	Teeth ache D19	Leaves	Mashed	Oral	–	3
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Fagonia glutinosa</i> Delile (HNM00609)	ڦڻ Lebtheyma	Skin disease S99	Fruits	Macerated with water/ fresh	Oral	–	3
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Tribulus terrestris</i> L. (HNM00973)	ٻڌاڻ Teyshyt	Oral abscess D83	Leaves	Powder with animal oil	Cataplasma	Hammiche and Meiza (2006)	57

referred to by our informants in both Arabic and Roman alphabets. For the transliteration of the vernacular names from Arabic into the Roman alphabet, we followed Bellakhdar (1997). For families of flowering plants, we followed the APGIV system (Stevens, 2019). The treated diseases were classified according to the international classifications of diseases (ICPC-2, International Classification of Primary Care, 2015) of the WHO (as suggested by Staub et al., 2015).

2.3. Citation in previous manuscripts

With the aim to analyse the use of medicinal plants through time and across civilisations (Arabo-Islamic, African-Sahel), we performed a comparative study of the medicinal plants and their uses in our study area, based on previous references. The Adrar region contains two historic cities, Chinguetti and Oudane, and, over time, many convoys from neighbouring Islamic countries have enabled the sharing and exchange of cultural knowledge in this region, while the south of the country was influenced by the culture of African-Sahel origin. This study was therefore performed through previous ethnobotanical researches in Mauritania (Leriche, 1953; Vall, 2009), Morocco (Bellakhdar, 1997; Tahraoui et al., 2007; Rahman et al., 2004; Fakchich and Elachouri, 2014; Eddouks et al., 2002, 2016), Algeria (Miara et al., 2019; Chermat and Gharzouli, 2015; Hendel et al., 2012; Hammiche and Maiza, 2006) or in territories with a similar climate and flora, such as Yemen (Bahassan et al., 2014), Nigeria (Fasola et al., 2004) or Pakistan (Ghulam et al., 2015; Ahmad et al., 2018). We also consulted an important historical text, the *Compendium of Simple Medicaments and Foods* from Ibn Al-Baytar, using a modern Arabic transcription (Al-Baytar, 1992) and the French translation from Leclerc (1877–1883), written in the 13th century (see El Gharbaoui et al., 2017 for more details).

2.4. Data analysis

With the gathered information, we developed a database on Microsoft Access and Microsoft Excel. The consistency of the information was checked according to the data comparison technique of El Gharbaoui et al. (2017); the information of medicinal uses was considered coherent when it was reported at least twice, in two different localities, and by at least two different informants. In this study, only coherent information was integrated into our database.

As suggested by Weckerle et al. (2018), we only reported primary data in our results, with the total numbers of use reports (UR).

3. Results and discussion

The ethnobotanical fieldwork allowed to gather information on 68 plant species (in 57 genera) and from 27 different botanical families (Table 1). The distribution within botanical families can be consulted in Fig. 3, highlighting Fabaceae (14 species, 20.5%), as in other ethnobotanical researches in Africa (e.g. Naceiri Mrabti et al., 2019; Inngjerdingen et al., 2004). We also highlight the families Poaceae (seven species; 10%), Malvaceae, Capparaceae and Cucurbitaceae (four species each; 6%). In fact, the total amount of species in these five families accounted for 48% of the total species. The dominance of Fabaceae is related to ecological factors: the most diverse families in Mauritania are Poaceae (190 species) and Fabaceae (128 species; Barry and Celles, 1991). Similar results for the most used botanical families have been reported by Vall et al. (2015), Bibi et al. (2015) or Hilonga et al. (2019), but not in other studies focusing on the Mediterranean region (e.g. Merzouki et al., 1997, 2000; Gonzalez-Tejero et al., 2008; El-Gharbaoui, 2017; Gras et al., 2017), where Asteraceae and Lamioceae were the most important families (Benítez et al., 2010; Martínez-Lirola et al., 1997; Fernández, 2000; Verde, 2002; Tahraoui et al., 2007; Fakchich and Elachouri, 2014). Nevertheless, considering the proportion of medicinal species from this research (Table 2) and the total

Table 2
Conditions and pathological groups with number of species and UR.

P.G.	Health conditions/symptoms	SP	UR
A	Fever	5	94
A	Intoxication	1	2
A	Malaria	3	16
A	Measles	1	4
B	Anaemia	3	20
D	Abdominal pain epigastric	24	612
D	Constipation	9	113
D	Diarrhoea	11	211
D	Dyspepsia	2	6
D	Heartburn	3	33
D	Jaundice	8	66
D	Mouth symptom	2	8
D	Oral abscess	1	3
D	Teeth ache	10	90
D	Viral hepatitis	3	33
D	Vomiting	2	32
D	Worms	7	33
F	Eye pain	3	34
K	Haemorrhoids	1	15
K	Hypertension	5	146
L	Back symptom	2	29
L	Muscle pain	1	4
L	Musculoskeletal disease	2	8
N	Headache	2	21
R	Asthma	4	24
R	Breathing problem	2	11
R	Bronchitis	3	12
R	Cough	5	26
R	Pain respiratory system	1	15
R	Whooping cough	1	3
S	Acne	1	3
S	Boil	2	12
S	Burn	2	23
S	Foreign body in skin	1	4
S	Laceration	1	5
S	Rash localized	3	23
S	Scabies	1	3
S	Skin colour change	2	24
S	Skin disease	1	57
S	Skin injury	11	121
T	Non-insulin dependent diabetes	13	227
T	Loss of appetite	1	3
U	Dysuria	2	21
U	Kidney symptom	1	11
W	Complications of puerperium	1	3
X	Breast cancer	1	2
X	Menstrual pain	2	17
X	Syphilis in women	1	3
Y	Impotence	2	20
Y	Infertility	1	11
	TOTAL	177	2317

number of species in the Mauritanian flora per family, Rhamnaceae, Combretaceae, Cucurbitaceae and Apocynaceae stand out (with 50, 42.9, 36.4 and 28.6% of the total flora reported as medicinal in Adrar; Fig. 2).

A total of 177 medicinal uses have been reported for the included plants. These species are used to treat up to 50 conditions, classified into 14 pathological groups (Table 2). We collected 2317 use reports, with an average of 13 UR for each use.

The main features to describe our informants (gender, age, ethnic group and education level) can be consulted in Table 3. We highlight that more than half of our respondents were female, nearly half of them were over 50 years old, and most belonged to the Maures ethnic group; nearly one quarter were illiterate.

In our experience, in the territory of Mauritania, knowledge on the traditional pharmacopoeia, is mostly conserved by traditional healers and inherited by their descendants. However, on the other hand, during our field ethnobotanical survey, we observed that traditional healing is also being practiced by inexperienced healers, which may lead to an

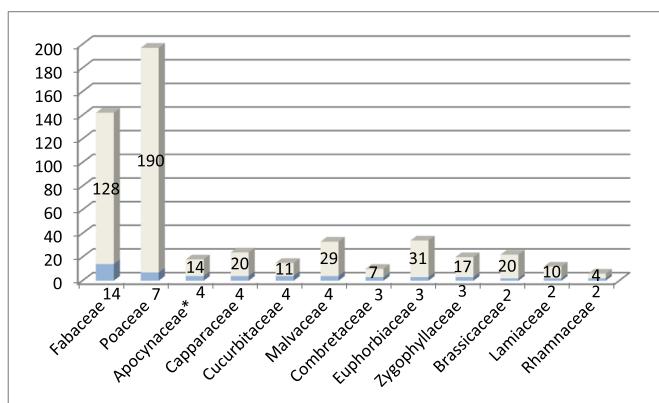


Fig. 2. Number of total species per botanical family in Mauritania (according to Barry and Celles, 1991; boxes in grey) and number of medicinal species in Adrar (below the line, boxes in blue).* Apocynaceae includes the former Asclepiadaceae.

alteration in knowledge transmission, changing some practices, used plants or parts thereof, and even potentially endangering the conservation of this invaluable knowledge, thereby decreasing the quality perception of this traditional medicine. As in several parts of the world (Ladio and Lozada, 2009; Langås-Larsen et al., 2017; Bruschi et al., 2019), in Mauritania, this knowledge is particularly important within particular families which have owned, practiced and transmitted it for several generations.

3.1. Used plants, specificity and polyvalence

Most of the included plants were gathered from the wild (56, 82.5%), while some cultivated plants were also used for medicinal purposes, such as garlic, onion, basil, melon, peanut, mint, cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp), some cereals such as wheat, barley, sorghum and maize, as well as some others, which, apart from being cultivated, also exist in the wild (such as the date palm). *Senna occidentalis* (L.) Link is also cultivated as a medicinal plant. The most cited plants were *Balanites aegyptiaca* (L.) Delile (used for three health conditions and with 278 UR), *Vachellia tortilis* (Forssk.) Galasso & Banfi. (three conditions and 254 UR) and the baobab (locally named *Teydoum*) *Adansonia digitata* L. (three conditions and 209 UR). These three species also showed a high consensus considering both the high number of UR and the low number of health conditions they are used for. Although have a high UR, but with a lower consensus due to a higher number of conditions treated, we can mention *Maerua crassifolia* Forssk. and *Acacia senegal* (L.) Willd. (six conditions each and 140 and 110 UR, respectively).

Of the 68 plant species, 50 have more than one traditional medicinal use. In terms of polyvalence, the species which is used for a higher number of conditions is *Ziziphus lotus* (L.) Lam., (seven conditions from

Table 3
Demographic and socio-cultural variables of our interviewees.

Variables	Items	n	%
Gender	Male	50	41.67
	Female	70	58.33
Age classes	20 to 30	10	08.33
	30 to 40	25	20.83
	40 to 50	30	25.00
	50 to 60	26	21.66
	60 to 70	19	15.83
	More than 70	10	08.33
Ethnic groups	Maures	110	91.67
	Peuls	10	08.33
Education levels	Illiterate	28	23.33
	Elementary	30	25.00
	Secondary	27	22.50
	University	20	16.67
	Others	15	12.50

six pathological groups: abdominal epigastric pain, fever, hypertension, non-insulin dependent diabetes, skin injury, toothache and kidney symptoms from groups D, T, S, K, A and U, see Table 1). The traditional use for this species has been highlighted in previous studies (Bellakhdar et al., 1991; Barrera et al., 2007), as well as its economic and socio-cultural value (FAO, 2010), and its potential benefits and phytochemicals have already been surveyed (Abdoul-Azize, 2016). *Commiphora africana* (A.Rich.) Endl. and *Maerua crassifolia* can also be considered as polyvalent, as they are locally used to treat six conditions from three pathological groups. The polyvalence of the genus *Ziziphus* is also seen in the other included species, the Saharan endemic *Z. mauritiana* Lam., used for four conditions, but each one in one pathologic group. Its use against hypertension has already been ethnopharmacologically assessed (Ba, 2005), as well as that of other species of this genus (Mohebbati et al., 2018). On the other hand, for 18 species, only one medicinal use was mentioned, and they can be considered to have a specific medicinal use in this region (see Table 1).

3.2. Used parts and modes of preparation and administration

Generally, the plant parts most frequently used are the leaves (51% of total cases), seeds (17%) and fruits (8%). Fig. 3 reflects the proportions of these parts and the methods of preparation. These results are similar to those reported for the entire country by Vall (2009).

In most cases, the harvested organs undergo various preparations prior to application (see also Fig. 3). Among the most common methods of preparation is powdering (69 cases), followed by infusion (39 cases) and mashing (25), while other methods (fresh intake, maceration, decoction, extraction, etc.) are less frequent. The largest proportion of remedies prepared as powder in the present study is not in concordance with some other researches in nearby territories (e.g. Miara et al., 2013,

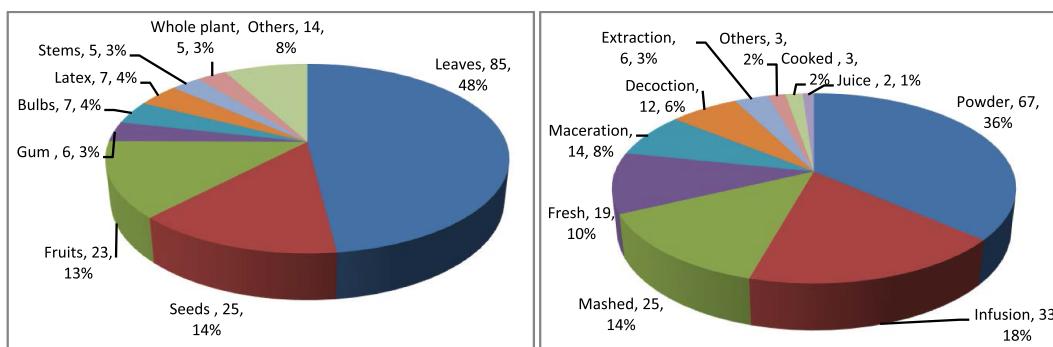


Fig. 3. Distribution of the parts of the plant used (right) and modes of preparation (left).

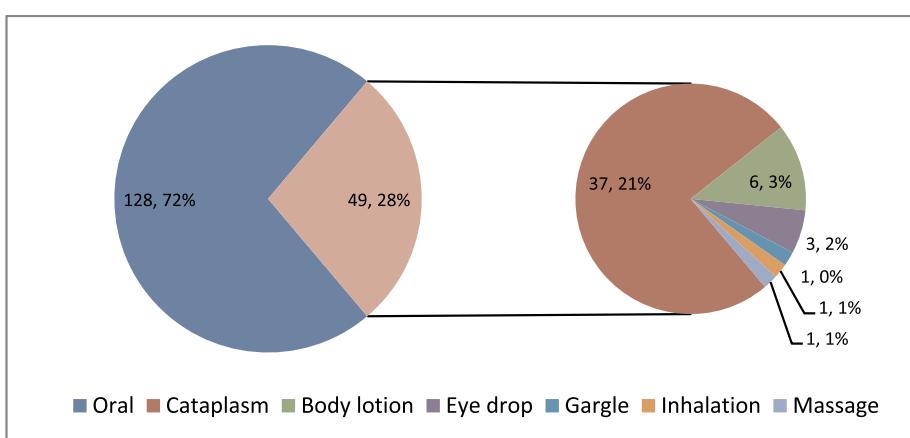


Fig. 4. Modes of administration. In blue, internal application; in pink, external, with subcategories in the small circle.

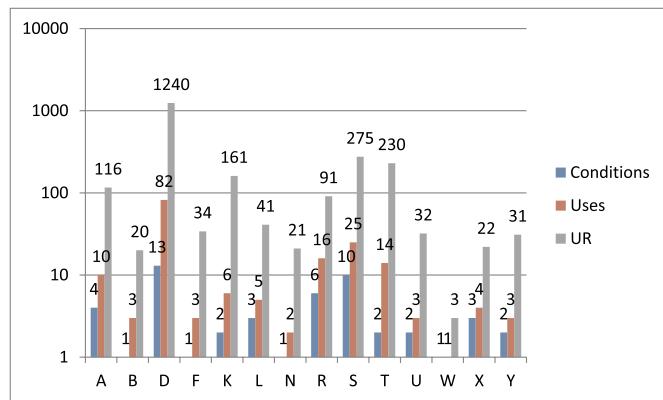


Fig. 5. Number of conditions, uses and UR per pathological group. Note the logarithmic scale.

2019; Togola et al., 2005; Eddouks et al., 2016), which reported the dominance of other modes of preparation, such as decoction. Nevertheless, similar results have been reported by Inngjerdingen et al. (2004) for Mali, Fakchich and Elachouri (2014) for oriental Morocco or Bibi et al. (2015) and Ghulam et al. (2015) for Pakistan. In our case, the majority of our informants indicated that powder is easily prepared and has the advantage that it has a minor risk of contamination compared to juices or infusions and decoctions.

With respect to the administration form, the oral route is the most frequent one (73%). Among the external administrations, the main one is cataplasma (20%), generally prepared with the powder obtained from the leaves (Fig. 4). The people of Adrar use leaf powder because they assume that the probability of contamination is lower compared with other methods, but also because the area is a desert, with a shortage of potable water. The oral route is the most used one as a mode of administration, since digestive diseases are the main treated affections.

3.3. Conditions, symptoms and pathological groups

As mentioned, the included plants are locally used to treat 50 conditions, classified in 14 pathological groups according to the ICPC-2 classification of diseases (Table 2). The most cited condition was abdominal epigastric pain, for which up to 25 plant-based remedies can be used in the study area (642 UR). Also, a high number of remedies and use reports were achieved for non-insulin-dependent diabetes (13 species and 227 UR) and diarrhoea (11 species and 211 UR). Nevertheless, hypertension is worth mentioning, with 146 UR for only five species. For 18 diseases, only one species has been reported (Table 2).

The main pathological group treated is that of digestive symptoms

(D, with 1284 UR, 54% of the total cases; Fig. 5), where 13 conditions were mentioned and for which 49 plants can be used. As several ethnopharmacological studies have pointed out (e.g. in nearby territories Benítez, 2009; González-Tejero et al., 2008; Merzouki et al., 2000; Hammiche and Maiza, 2006), this situation is the most typical one, mainly because digestive-associated problems are frequent and not medically important (i.e. not complicated and frequently fleeting). In our study, this is because it is the group with the higher number of conditions cited in our interviews, with a high number of UR (abdominal pain, diarrhoea, toothache and constipation) and with a high prevalence in the studied area; also, these conditions can be threatened with a high number of local resources (Table 2). This high UR for digestive disorders can also be explained by the lack of domestic hygiene in some houses and the frequent consumption of non-treated water from wells. Skin symptoms (S, 286 UR, 12%) are also important in this territory, including 10 different conditions and 26 medicinal uses for their treatment.

It is worth mentioning that some frequent conditions which are usually treated by pharmaceutical drugs are treated in this region with plant remedies, which also have a high popularity. This is the case for non-insulin dependent diabetes, fever or hypertension, with high UR.

The highest use reports were obtained for *Balanites aegyptiaca* (278), *Vachellia tortilis* (254) and *Adansonia digitata* (209), most likely because all these plants are common and frequently used in the area: edible fruits from *B. aegyptiaca* and *A. digitata* are the ones most frequently sold at local markets, and *V. tortilis* timber is mainly used for furniture. We also found high UR for *Maerua crassifolia* (140) and *Ziziphus lotus* (103).

3.4. Bibliographical comparison

By comparing our data with existing bibliographical data concerning the traditional uses of plants in Mauritania and neighbouring territories, we found that 81 of the included uses (45% of total) have previously been reported, with 121 previous citations. Among these, 25 were made by Vall (2009) and 22 by Bellakhdar (1997), as these studies focused on all territories of Mauritania and Morocco. We also found a large number of citations for other arid regions such as Pakistan (Malik et al., 2015, with six coincidences) or Yemen (Bahassan et al., 2014, with five coincidences). On the contrary, more than half (55%) of the included uses were not found in our bibliographical comparison (although they may have been included in some of the works related in the introduction which are not easily accessible for the scientific community). Considering only the species, 24 of them (35%) were previously cited as medicinal by Vall (2009) and 22 (32%) by Bellakhdar (1997), but for 21 of the included species, any of the local uses have previously been reported in the consulted studies.

Only six uses (of six different included plants) have already been included by Ibn Al-Baytar in his compendium of simple medicaments from the 13th century. This low proportion points to an unknown origin date of the medicinal uses of the flora of north Mauritania which can partly be explained by the fact that Al-Baytar probably never travelled to the studied region, and his knowledge on African medicinal plants was more focused on the Mediterranean northern part than on the Saharan part. It is, however, known that he travelled through North Africa from ancient Al-Andalus to Syria, Anatolia, Palestine and Arabia (Cabo-González, 1997), but his visit to the current Mauritanian territory is not known. Also, his work, as a *compendium*, includes all the previously known medicinal plants, herbals and treatises from the classic antiquity, with mostly European plants, which he updated with his own knowledge during his travels. This can be a reason for the lower coincidence of the uses in his work with Mauritania than, e.g., in northeastern Morocco and eastern Andalusia in Spain (El-Gharbaoui et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the high percentage of uses shared with Morocco (previously cited by Bellakdar, 1997) denotes an important sharing level of both territories, and in particular with the southern part of Morocco and the Sahara, exhibiting a similar flora and a similar culture as northern Mauritania (as explained in the introduction).

While performing this review, we realised that previous studies in Mauritania contained several important mistakes regarding the science of ethnopharmacology. While the need for nomenclatural and taxonomical accuracy has been highlighted several times (Rivera et al., 2014; Bennett and Balick, 2014; Weckerle et al., 2018), some studies lack a critical assessment of the included names. For example, among the few ethnobotanical studies in Mauritania, some (e.g. Vall, 2009; Vall et al., 2011, 2015) contain several taxonomic and nomenclatural mistakes or errors in the abbreviation form of the authorities. Of a minor importance for us are those using not currently accepted names regarding the current placement of the species in a certain genus, sometimes a matter of a personal botanical opinion, or names not considered currently valid (according to the priority) in cases in which two species are currently generally considered to be the same.). Far from criticising these works, we strengthen the need for botanical accuracy, particularly in territories with a well-developed botanical knowledge (even with a Flora; Barry and Celles, 1991) and several useful databases for plant names (such as the African Plant Database, the International Plant Names Index, or Tropicos.org, from the Genève, Kew and Missouri Botanical Gardens, respectively).

4. Conclusions

As stated in the introduction, Mauritania is one of the African countries with few published information on the traditional use of plants, with a clear need for more in-depth ethnobotanical studies.

In our ethnobotanical study conducted in the Adrar province in northern Mauritania, we achieved an interesting data set, including the medicinal traditional use of 68 species belonging to 27 botanical families. Fabaceae and Poaceae were the most used and important families. Local healers and inhabitants use these plants for a high variety of health conditions and symptoms, up to 50 conditions grouped into 14 pathological groups. A high consensus was achieved from the interviews performed with 120 informants, obtaining a total number of use reports of 2317. The most important group, as usual, was that of digestive disorders, for which the highest numbers of species, uses and use reports (55%) were gathered. Most of the herbal remedies are administered orally and mainly prepared as a powder, which is not in concordance with most of the ethnobotanical studies in other territories, but is not uncommon in arid environments where water-based extraction is more susceptible to contamination.

From the bibliographical comparison, we gathered that for 19 of the identified species, none of the local uses have previously been reported, and more than half of the included uses have neither been previously reported in the consulted works.

As commented before, during our fieldwork in the territory, we realised that sometimes, traditional medicine is being practiced by inexperienced healers, and this situation may lead to changes in some practices and used plants as well as in the knowledge transmission in this region. This could also endanger the conservation of this invaluable knowledge, potentially leading to a decrease in the quality of the traditional medicine. In a country with an underdeveloped public health care system, this situation needs to be avoided. In this sense, during our fieldwork, we also tried to sensitise the general public and to valorise the use of medicinal plants. It is of considerable interest for all inhabitants, local healers and government decision-makers to have a good perception of this traditional medicine system. Based on our survey, traditional medicine in Mauritania is still being practised, despite the development of modern medicine. People still use plants in a certain way to treat some health conditions, and there is a group of people with the necessary knowledge and experience. However, and at the same time, we noted that there is no transmission of this knowledge and experience from generation to generation, as young people do not know the plants or their uses. There are well-known families in Mauritania who practice traditional medicine and preserve their inheritance for the coming generations, but they monopolise this knowledge and experience.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2019.112217>.

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