

**Evaluation of Antibacterial Activity of Zobo and Bay leaf
Extracts on Enteropathogenic Bacteria**

ABSTRACT

Aim: The antibacterial activity of Bay leaf (*Laurus nobilis*) and Zobo leaf (*Hibiscus sabdariffa*) extracts on enteropathogenic bacteria was investigated

Study design: the study utilized well in agar diffusion to investigate the antimicrobial properties of the extracts.

Place and Duration of Study: Department of Microbiology, Rivers State University and the study was carried out in August, 2018 to October, 2018.

Methodology: Faecal samples were collected from a medical laboratory and inoculated on eosin methylene blue and mannitol salt agar plates for *E. coli* and *S. aureus* using standard microbiological techniques. The bacterial isolates were subjected to biochemical and molecular (PCR) identification so as to ascertain the distinctiveness of the isolates. Hot water and absolute alcohol were used as the extracting solvents. Concentrations of the extracted solvents was tested against *E. coli* and *S. aureus* using the well in agar method.

Results: The result showed that both hot aqueous and alcoholic extracts of Bay leaf (*Laurus nobilis*) showed no sensitivity against the tested bacteria, whereas the extracts of hot dry aqueous and alcohol of Zobo leaf (*Hibiscus sabdariffa*) showed remarkable zones of inhibition against the tested bacteria. The zones of inhibition in the dry hot aqueous extract of zobo leaf with concentrations of 0.25 µg/ml, 0.125 µg/ml and 0.063 µg/ml were 31.3±0.1, 25.6±1.2 and 10.0±0.0, respectively. The minimal inhibitory concentration of the dry hot aqueous of zobo extract was observed at 0.063 µg/ml for *Escherichia coli*, while zones of inhibition of 33.3±0.0, 30.1±0.3, 17.2±1.0 and 15.0±0.1 mm were recorded from the dry alcoholic extract of zobo leaf on *Escherichia coli* given similar concentrations and the MIC was observed at the 0.031 µg/ml concentration. The result also showed that out of the four concentrations of the dry hot aqueous extract, only the 0.25 µg/ml concentration was able to show 14.2±0.0 mm inhibition on *Staphylococcus aureus*, while the concentrations of 0.25 µg/ml and 0.125 µg/ml were the only two concentrations of the dry alcohol that showed levels of sensitivity with zone diameters of 29.3±1.0 and 25.2±0.0, respectively.

Conclusion: The plant extracts of zobo leaves which displayed remarkable activity at fairly-low concentrations could be recommended for use against similar bacteria. Thus, investigation and adoption of plant extracts in modern medicine should be encouraged as this may be the break through needed to combat the ever-increasing resistance to commonly used antibiotics.

10
11 *Keywords: antimicrobial properties, Laurus nobilis, Hibiscus sabdariffa, enteropathogenic*
12 *bacteria*

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15 **1. INTRODUCTION**

16
17 For decades, plants have been the mainstay of traditional medical practice and have
18 remained an inestimable source of natural health products for humans, particularly in the last
19 few decades, with more thorough researches having being carried out to explore natural

20 therapies [1]. The use of herbs in the treatment of diseases has become widespread and is
21 increasingly achieving popularity worldwide not only due to their continuous usage in
22 developing countries for primary health care of the poor, but also in societies where
23 conventional medicine is prevalent in their health care system [2]. Approximately eighty
24 percent of the world's population practises herbal medicine, which may explain the constant
25 rise in the annual global market value of these herbal remedies estimated at over US \$60
26 billion currently [3]. Presently, the use of medicinal plants alongside western medicine is of
27 great significance in the Nigerian health care system, a type of health care referred to as
28 "herbalism" [4]. Due to the constant rise in sophistication across the world, it is essential to
29 refer to herbal medical practice as alternative or complimentary medicine, so as to appeal to
30 large populations of people regardless of their cultures and/or religions [5].
31 Medicinal plants contain certain substances which possess the healing properties known as
32 "phytochemicals" [6]. Phytochemicals are non-nutritive, biologically active chemical
33 compounds occurring naturally in these plants, which confer the characteristic colour, aroma
34 and flavour to them and in some cases, constitute their natural defence mechanisms [7, 8].
35 Phytochemicals are chiefly categorized into two broad groups namely: primary constituents
36 and secondary metabolites [9]. Primary constituents include proteins, amino acids, common
37 sugars and chlorophyll, whereas, secondary constituents include glycosides, alkaloids,
38 phenolic compounds, flavonoids, saponins, essential oils, tannins and terpenoids [9]. At
39 present, many countries have shown a stepwise increase in their employment of
40 phytochemicals for pharmaceutical uses [2]. It has been reported by the World Health
41 Organization (WHO) that medicinal plants would serve as the best source of varieties of
42 drugs [10]. Nearly eighty percent of individuals, particularly in developed countries, engage
43 in traditional medicine, which makes use of compounds gotten from medicinal plant parts [3].
44 Recently, numerous studies have been conducted in various countries to demonstrate the
45 efficiency and significance of various crude plant extracts and phytochemicals of known
46 antimicrobial characteristics in modern therapeutic care [11]. Hence, many plants have found
47 usefulness in medical practice by virtue of their respective antimicrobial properties which are
48 conferred upon them by the secondary metabolites they synthesize [11]. Due to the
49 constantly rising incidence of new and re-emerging infectious diseases, there is a pressing
50 need to find new antimicrobial agents with varying chemical structures and newer
51 mechanisms of action [12]. This is also necessitated by some of the adverse side effects
52 associated with certain antibiotics as well as the increasing development of resistance to the
53 antibiotics currently in use [12]. As such, necessary actions must be taken to prevent
54 excessive and unnecessary intake of antibiotics, to better comprehend the various genetic
55 antibiotic resistance mechanisms and to enable further researches in the development of
56 newer drugs [13]. There are various means of treating and controlling the infections caused
57 by Multi-Drug Resistant (MDR) bacteria. One of such means is by isolating active
58 phytochemicals in plants that can help stop the transmission of infection [2]. Thus, the aim of
59 this study is to investigate the antibacterial activity of zobo and bay leaf extracts commonly
60 used in Nigeria against some human enteropathogenic bacteria.

61 62 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS – SHOULD MENTION ABOUT STATISTICAL** 63 **ANALYSIS FOLLOWED**

64 **2.1 Sample Collection**

65 Bay leaf (*Laurus nobilis*), and Zobo leaf (*Hibiscus sabdariffa*) were bought from the
66 Rumuokoro Slaughter Market which is one of the major markets in Port Harcourt City Local
67 Government Area, Rivers State. The samples were taken to the Botany Department of the
68 Rivers State University for identification before being taken to the Microbiology Laboratory
69 for preparation.

70 71 **2.1.1 Preparation of Samples**

72 The plant samples were shade dried at room temperature (30-35 °C) for eight (8) days. After
73 which, they were pulverized into fine powder using a mortar and pestle which has been
74 sterilized using ethanol (99.9 %) and cotton wool.

75

76 **2.1.2 Extraction of extract**

77 Hot distilled water and ethanol were used for extraction. For the hot distilled water extraction,
78 fifty grams (50g) of the powdered samples were transferred in to sterile beakers containing
79 200ml each of sterile distilled water (which was sterilized by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15
80 minutes) and labelled accordingly. While in the ethanol extraction, fifty grams (50g) of the
81 powdered samples were transferred into sterile conical flasks containing 200ml ethanol
82 (99.9%). The samples were swirled and allowed to stand for 72 hours. Both samples were
83 sieved using filter paper. The filtrates obtained were evaporated to dryness using the water
84 bath and the residues were stored in sterile containers for further use.

85

86 **2.1.3 Test for Sterility of Extracts**

87 The sterility of the extracts was determined by streaking them on MacConkey and nutrient
88 agar plates. plates were later incubated for 24-48 hours at 37 °C. The absence of microbial
89 growth after incubation showed that the extracts were not contaminated (i.e. were sterile)
90 [14].

91

92 **2.1.4 Preparation of Various Concentrations from the Extracts**

93 The extracts were diluted into four (4) concentrations (0.25 µg/ml to 0.031µg/ml) using the
94 two-fold dilution method described by Obire and Ogbonna [15]. One gram of extract was
95 diluted into 2ml of the sterile diluent and a step-wise 2-fold dilution was carried out to
96 achieve the required concentrations.

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98 **2.4 Microbiological Analysis**

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100 **2.4.1 Isolation and Identification**

101 Twenty stool samples were collected in sterile bottles from a medical laboratory and
102 transferred to the Microbiology Laboratory of the Rivers State University for analysis. The
103 stool samples were analyzed according to the methods described by Cheesbrough [16]. The
104 stool samples were moistened in normal saline and were streaked on the surface of Eosin
105 methylene blue (EMB) agar and Mannitol salt agar (MSA) plates and incubated at 37 °C for
106 24 hours. Discrete colonies on the respective plates were isolated and streaked on fresh
107 nutrient agar plates until pure isolates were obtained and preserved in agar slants. Isolates
108 were identified by their colonial morphology microscopy, biochemical test and molecular
109 methods.

110

111 **2.4.2 Characterization of bacterial isolates**

112 The bacterial isolates were characterized using the methods described by Cheesbrough [16]
113 and further confirmation of isolates was done using the Bergy's manual of determinative
114 bacteriology. The biochemical tests adopted include catalase, motility, sugar fermentation,
115 citrate utilization, oxidase, MRVP and Indole. Further confirmation of the isolates was carried
116 out using molecular (genomic) characterization.

117

118 **2.5 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Test of the Extracts**

119 The Well in agar diffusion method was used. The standardized inoculum was swabbed on
120 the surface of the Mueller-Hinton agar plates and were allowed to dry. A sterile 6mm well
121 borer was used to bore holes on the surface of the seeded plates. The holes were bored in
122 such a way that each hole did not get to the bottom of the agar so as to prevent leakage.
123 The already prepared extracts at different concentrations were then transferred into the

124 holes, after which plates were incubated at 37 °C for 18-24 hours without inverting the
 125 plates.

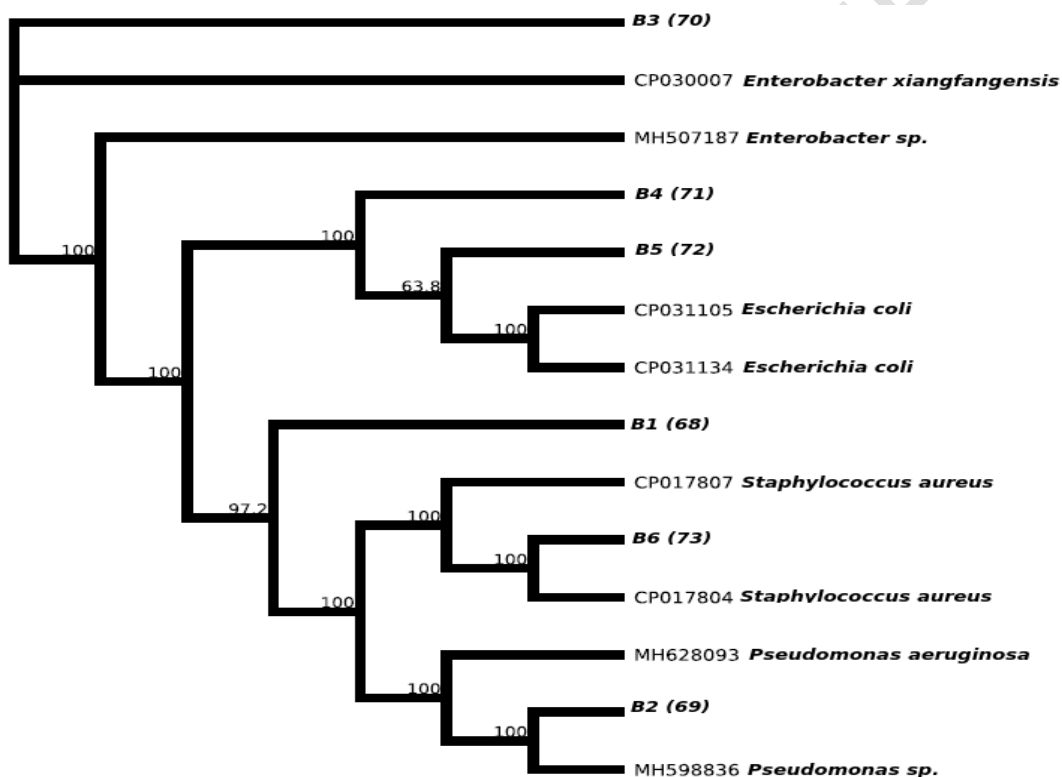
126

127 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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129 After the mega blast for the search of highly similar sequences of the already obtained 16S
 130 rRNA sequences from the NCBI data base, the 16S rDNA of the isolates showed a
 131 percentage similarity to other species at 99%. The evolutionary distances which was
 132 computed with the Jukes-Cantor method were in agreement with the phylogenetic placement
 133 of the 16s rDNA of the isolates as presented in Fig. 1. Four bacterial isolates belonging to
 134 *Escherichia coli*, *Enterobacter xiangfangensis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus*
 135 *aureus* were identified. The percentage yield of the plant extract using the different solvents
 136 are presented in Table 1.

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142 Fig 1: Phylogenetic tree showing the evolutionary distance between the bacterial isolates

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144 **Table 1: Percentage yield of crude extracts**

Medicinal plant	Extracting solvent	Type of extract	Colour extract	of	Weight macerated sample	of	Weight extract used	of	Percentage yield of extract (%)
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(g)						
Bay leaf	Hot water	DHA	Light green	50	5.2	10.4
	Alcohol	DA	Light green	50	4.91	9.82
Zobo leaf	Hot water	DHA	Red	50	5.0	10
	Alcohol	DA	Red	50	5.1	10.2

145 DHA: dry hot aqueous, DA: dry alcohol

146

147 **Table 2: Zones of inhibition (mm) of the different extracts of Bay leaf - is this table**
 148 **required as all are zero you can write in result running matter**
 149 **????**

Bacterial isolates	Type of extract	Inhibitory zone diameters(mm) at Various concentrations of extracts				MIC (µg/ml)
		0.25 µg/ml	0.125 µg/ml	0.063 µg/ml	0.031 µg/ml	
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	DHA	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	DA	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0
<i>Staphylococcus aureus.</i>	DHA	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	DA	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0

150 DHA: dry hot aqueous, DA: dry alcohol

151

152 **Table 3: Zones of inhibition (mm) of the different extracts of Zobo leaf**

Bacterial isolates	Type of extract	Inhibitory zone diameters(mm) at Various concentrations of extracts				MIC (µg/ml)
		0.25 µg/ml	0.125 µg/ml	0.063 µg/ml	0.031 µg/ml	
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	DHA	31.3±0.1	25.6±1.2	10.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.063
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	DA	33.3±0.0	30.1±0.3	17.2±1.0	15.0±0.1	0.031
<i>Staphylococcus sp.</i>	DHA	14.2±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.25
<i>Staphylococcus sp.</i>	DA	29.3±1.0	25.2±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.125

153 DHA: dry hot aqueous, DA: dry alcohol

154

155 **Susceptibility of the test organisms to *Laurus nobilis***

156 The susceptibility of the antimicrobial activity of Bay leaf is presented in Table 2. The result
 157 showed that both the dry hot aqueous and dry alcohol extracts of *Laurus nobilis*
 158 demonstrated no inhibitory activity on the test organisms. Thus, the findings in this study do
 159 not agree with previous studies which has demonstrated the antimicrobial property of bay
 160 leave extracts (*Laurus nobilis*) on *E. coli*, *Staphylococcus sp.*, *Salmonella sp.*, *Pseudomonas*
 161 *sp.*, *Shigella sp.* and *Klebsiella* [17, 18, 19, 20, 21].

162

163 **Susceptibility of the test organisms to Zobo leaf (*Hibiscus sabdariffa*)**

164 The result of the zones of inhibition of the Zobo leaf (*Hibiscus sabdariffa*) extract is
 165 presented in Table 3. From the results, both dry hot aqueous and dry alcoholic extracts of
 166 *Hibiscus sabdariffa* both demonstrated remarkable inhibitory activity on the growth of the test
 167 bacterial isolates. For the dry hot aqueous extracts, the zones of inhibition in the extract

168 concentrations of 0.25 µg/ml, 0.125 µg/ml and 0.063 µg/ml were 31.3±0.1, 25.6±1.2 and
169 10.0±0.0 respectively for *Escherichia coli*. The least concentration which represented the
170 MIC was noted in the 0.063 µg/ml. whereas higher zones of inhibition were recorded from
171 the alcoholic extract on *Escherichia coli* given similar concentrations and the MIC was
172 observed at the 0.031 µg/ml concentration. The result also showed that out of the four
173 concentrations of the dry hot aqueous extract, only the 0.25 µg/ml concentration was able to
174 show 14.2±0.0 mm inhibition on *Staphylococcus aureus*, while the concentrations of 0.25
175 µg/ml and 0.125 µg/ml were the only two concentrations of the dry alcohol that showed
176 levels of sensitivity with zone diameters of 29.3±1.0 and 25.2±0.0, respectively. The
177 antimicrobial activities of zobo leaf extracts have been reported by previous studies [22, 23,
178 24, 25, 26, 27]. In the study of Salem *et al* [22], it was shown to inhibit *S. aureus*, *K.*
179 *pneumoniae* and *E. coli*, at minimum concentrations ranging from 0.30 to 1.30±0.2mg/ml for
180 the three organisms. In the study done by Higginbotham *et al* [28], *E. coli* and *S. aureus*
181 were inhibited at concentrations of both 40 and 60mg/ml, while in the study carried out by Al-
182 Hashimi [27], aqueous and ethanolic extracts of *H. sabdariffa* caused growth inhibition of *E.*
183 *coli*, *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa*, with inhibitory zone diameters ranging within 17 and
184 46mm for all three organisms. Results from the study of Saeidi *et al* [23] showed that *H.*
185 *sabdariffa* extracts inhibited growth of *E. coli*, *Shigella sp.* and *S. aureus* at concentrations of
186 1.25-20mg/ml, while the study of Nwaiwu *et al* [25] showed that it inhibited *Salmonella sp.*,
187 *Shigella sp.* and *Enterobacter sp.* each at 200mg/ml. Results similar to those obtained from
188 this study were also seen in that of Panaitescu and Lengyel [24] in which *H. sabdariffa*
189 extracts were found to inhibit growth in *E. coli*, *S. typhi*, *K. pneumonia* and *S. aureus* used in
190 the study. Inhibitory concentrations were 4, 10, 20 and 100% respectively, while inhibitory
191 zone diameters ranged within 0.1 and 5.0mm. The work of Jantrapanukorn *et al* [26] showed
192 that it caused inhibition in *S. typhi*, *S. paratyphi A*, *S. flexneri*, *S. boydii*, *S. dysenteriae* and
193 *S. sonnei* at a minimum concentration of 3.125mg/ml. The results of this study also agreed
194 with those of Sekar *et al* [29], [30], [31] – **put all in one [29, 30 and 31]** in which *E.*
195 *coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, *S. aureus*, *S. enterica* and *K. pneumoniae* were all inhibited.

197 **4. CONCLUSION**

198
199 The emergence and re-emergence of antibiotic-resistant organisms has become a serious
200 problem in clinical practice due to the fact that some common antibiotics in use no longer
201 demonstrate any significant effects on these organisms. This research was carried out in a
202 bid to discover novel means of combating this public health scourge, as medicinal plants
203 apparently offer promising solutions to this problem. Interestingly, the plant extracts of zobo
204 leaves displayed remarkable activity at fairly-low concentrations, whereas extracts of bay
205 leaf were completely not sensitive against the bacterial isolates. This means that in the
206 nearest future, these common medicinal plants will have a place in modern medical practice.

207 208 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

209
210 No competing interest exist between authors

211 212 213 214 **REFERENCES**

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