

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

ABSTRACT

Aim: The antibacterial activity of Bay leaf (*Laurus nobilis* L.) and Zobo leaf (*Hibiscus sabdariffa* L.) 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 *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus 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 showed no sensitivity against the tested bacteria, whereas the extracts of hot dry aqueous and alcohol of Zobo leaf 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 *E. 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 *E. 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 *S. 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*

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 been 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.

62 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

64 2.1 Sample Collection

65 Bay leaf (*Laurus nobilis* L.), and Zobo leaf (*Hibiscus sabdariffa* L.) 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.

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71

72 **2.1.1 Preparation of Samples**

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

76
77 **2.1.2 Extraction of extract**

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

86
87 **2.1.3 Test for Sterility of Extracts**

88 The sterility of the extracts was determined by streaking them on MacConkey and nutrient
89 agar plates. plates were later incubated for 24-48 hours at 37 °C. The absence of microbial
90 growth after incubation showed that the extracts were not contaminated (i.e. were sterile)
91 [14].

92
93 **2.1.4 Preparation of Various Concentrations from the Extracts**

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

98
99 **2.4 Microbiological Analysis**

100
101 **2.4.1 Isolation and Identification**

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

111
112 **2.4.2 Characterization of bacterial isolates**

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

118
119 **2.5 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Test of the Extracts**

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

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

127

128 2.6 Statistical Analysis

129 The mean and standard deviation of the zone diameters of the extract on the test isolates
130 was calculated and compared with the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Duncan test
131 was used in separation of means for significant difference. This was done using the SPSS
132 version 23 statistical package.

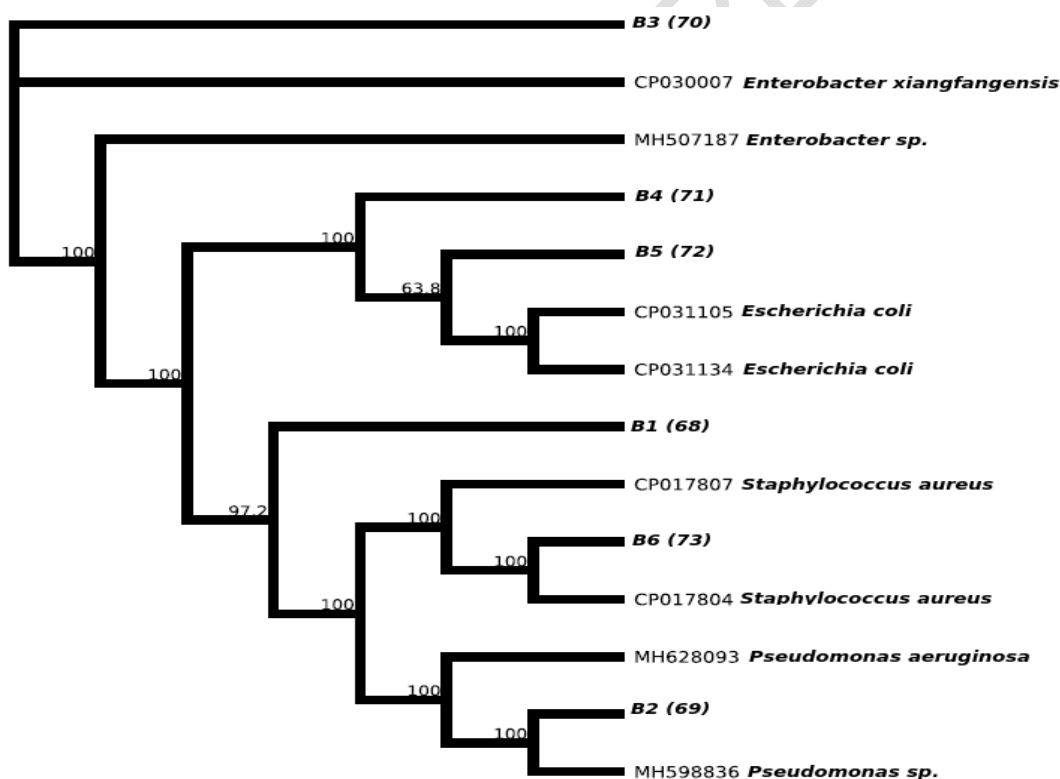
133

134 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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

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

150

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

Medicinal plant	Extracting solvent	Type of extract	Colour of extract	Weight of macerated sample (g)	Weight of extract used (g)	Percentage yield of extract (%)
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

152 DHA: dry hot aqueous, DA: dry alcohol

153

154

155 **Table 2: 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>E. coli</i>	DHA	31.3±0.1 ^a	25.6±1.2 ^a	10.0±0.0 ^a	0.0±0.0	0.063
<i>E. coli</i>	DA	33.3±0.0 ^a	30.1±0.3 ^a	17.2±1.0 ^a	15.0±0.1	0.031
<i>Staphylococcus sp.</i>	DHA	14.2±0.0 ^b	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.25
<i>Staphylococcus sp.</i>	DA	29.3±1.0 ^a	25.2±0.0 ^a	0.0±0.0	0.0±0.0	0.125

156 DHA: dry hot aqueous, DA: dry alcohol

157 Means with same superscript have no significant difference at $p < 0.05$

158

159 Susceptibility of the test organisms to *L. nobilis*

160 The susceptibility of the antimicrobial activity of Bay leaf showed that both the dry hot
 161 aqueous and dry alcohol extracts of *L. nobilis* demonstrated no inhibitory activity on the test
 162 organisms. Thus, the findings in this study do not agree with previous studies which has
 163 demonstrated the antimicrobial property of bay leave extracts on *E. coli*, *Staphylococcus sp.*,
 164 *Salmonella sp.*, *Pseudomonas sp.*, *Shigella sp.* and *Klebsiella* [17, 18, 19, 20, 21].

165

166 Susceptibility of the test organisms to Zobo leaf (*H. sabdariffa*)

167 The result of the zones of inhibition of the Zobo leaf extract is presented in Table 2. From the
 168 results, both dry hot aqueous and dry alcoholic extracts of *H. sabdariffa* both demonstrated
 169 remarkable inhibitory activity on the growth of the test bacterial isolates. For the dry hot
 170 aqueous extracts, the zones of inhibition in the extract concentrations of 0.25 µg/mL, 0.125
 171 µg/mL and 0.063 µg/mL were 31.3±0.1, 25.6±1.2 and 10.0±0.0 respectively for *E. coli*. The
 172 least concentration which represented the MIC was noted in the 0.063 µg/mL, whereas
 173 higher zones of inhibition were recorded from the alcoholic extract on *E. coli* given similar
 174 concentrations and the MIC was observed at the 0.031 µg/mL concentration. The result also
 175 showed that out of the four concentrations of the dry hot aqueous extract, only the 0.25
 176 µg/mL concentration was able to show 14.2±0.0 mm inhibition on *S. aureus*, while the
 177 concentrations of 0.25 µg/mL and 0.125 µg/mL were the only two concentrations of the dry
 178 alcohol that showed levels of sensitivity with zone diameters of 29.3±1.0 and 25.2±0.0,
 179 respectively. The antimicrobial activities of zobo leaf extracts have been reported by
 180 previous studies [22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27]. In the study of Salem *et al* [22], it was shown to
 181 inhibit *S. aureus*, *K. pneumoniae* and *E. coli*, at minimum concentrations ranging from 0.30

182 to 1.30±0.2 mg/mL for the three organisms. In the study done by Higginbotham *et al* [28], *E.*
183 *coli* and *S. aureus* were inhibited at concentrations of both 40 and 60 mg/mL, while in the
184 study carried out by Al-Hashimi [27], aqueous and ethanolic extracts of *H. sabdariffa* caused
185 growth inhibition of *E. coli*, *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa*, with inhibitory zone diameters
186 ranging within 17 and 46mm for all three organisms. Results from the study of Saeidi *et al*
187 [23] showed that *H. sabdariffa* extracts inhibited growth of *E. coli*, *Shigella sp.* and *S. aureus*
188 at concentrations of 1.25-20 mg/mL, while the study of Nwaiwu *et al* [25] showed that it
189 inhibited *Salmonella sp.*, *Shigella sp.* and *Enterobacter sp.* each at 200 mg/mL. Results
190 similar to those obtained from this study were also seen in that of Panaitescu and Lengyel
191 [24] in which *H. sabdariffa* extracts were found to inhibit growth in *E. coli*, *S. typhi*, *K.*
192 *pneumonia* and *S. aureus* used in the study. Inhibitory concentrations were 4, 10, 20 and
193 100% respectively, while inhibitory zone diameters ranged within 0.1 and 5.0 mm. The work
194 of Jantrapanukorn *et al* [26] showed that it caused inhibition in *S. typhi*, *S. paratyphi A*, *S.*
195 *flexneri*, *S. boydii*, *S. dysenteriae* and *S. sonnei* at a minimum concentration of 3.125 mg/mL.
196 The results of this study also agreed with those of Sekar *et al* [29], [30], [31] in which *E. coli*,
197 *P. aeruginosa*, *S. aureus*, *S. enterica* and *K. pneumoniae* were all inhibited.

198

199 4. CONCLUSION

200

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

209

210 COMPETING INTERESTS

211

212 No competing interest exist between authors

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