



SCIENCEDOMAIN international www.sciencedomain.org

# Insights on the Infrared Spectrum, Phytochemical and Antibacterial Activities of *Calotropis* procera Leaf Extracts against Vancomycin and Methicllin Resistant Bacterial Isolates

# A. O. Ogundare<sup>1</sup> and P. O. Akindele<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Microbiology, Federal University of Technology, P.M.B. 704, Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria.

# Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between both authors. Author AOO designed the study and wrote the protocol. Author POA wrote the first draft of the manuscript, managed the literature searches, analyses of the study performed the spectroscopy analysis and managed the experimental process. Author AOO identified the species of plant. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.

#### Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/BJPR/2016/30974 <u>Editor(s)</u>: (1) Cheng Wang, Division of Neurotoxicology, National Center for Toxicological Research (NCTR), Food and Drug Administration (FDA), USA. <u>Reviewers</u>: (1) Saiqa Andleeb, University of Azad Jammu and Kashmir, Muzaffarabad, Pakistan. (2) Anonymous, University of Allahabad, Allahabad, India. (3) Alfredo Aires, University of Trás-o-Montes e Alto Douro, Vila Real, Portugal. (4) Hemerson Iury Ferreira Magalhães, Universidade Federal do Ceará, Campus do Porangabussu, Rua Cel, Brazil. (5) Lorna T. Enerva, Polytechnic University of the Philippines, Philippines. Complete Peer review History: <u>http://www.sciencedomain.org/review-history/17606</u>

Original Research Article

Received 12<sup>th</sup> December 2016 Accepted 19<sup>th</sup> January 2017 Published 26<sup>th</sup> January 2017

# ABSTRACT

The Phytochemical and antibacterial activities of *Calotropis procera* Leaf Organic Fractions were tested against vancomycin and methicliin resistant bacteria isolated from wound patients in Ondo State Specialist Hospital. The bacterial isolates are; *Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Proteus mirabilis* and *Streptococcus pyogenes.* Agar well diffusion method was used to determine the antibacterial activities of the extracts on resistant bacterial isolates. Purification of the extracts was carried out using column chromatographic techniques, and the fractions obtained were spotted on the precoated TLC plates to obtain the active fractions by calculating the retention factor (Rf). The antibacterial potency of

\*Corresponding author: E-mail: Akindelepeter7@yahoo.com;

the active purified fractions was investigated against the resistant bacterial isolates. Ethanol extract had the highest zones of inhibition of 24.01 mm against *Staphylococcus aureus* while a lowest zone of inhibition of 10.19 was against *Klebsiella pnuemoniae*. Cold water extract highest zones of inhibition was against *Escherichia coli* at 15.00 mm and lowest inhibition against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* at 7.20 mm. Phytochemical analysis of the extracts revealed the presence of alkaloids, flavonoids, tannin, saponin, terpenoids, cardic glycoside and phenols. The Fourier Transform Infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopic analysis of the active fractions showed five important functional groups namely; phenols, hydroxyl, carbon-hydrogen, carbonyl and aromatic. Findings from this research indicate that the leaf extracts of *Calotropis procera* posses antibacterial potency which will assist in the preliminary treatment of wound infections, most especially because of its high inhibitory effect against *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Keywords: Phytochemical; ft-ir; purification; antibacterial.

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Nosocomial infections is a major problem in many health care systems. It has been reported that 10% of hospital patients will acquire an infection while in hospital [1]. Infections can complicate illness, cause distress to patients and family and can lead to death. Among nosocomial infections, there are main infections that has been reported such as blood stream infections (28%), ventilator-associated pneumonia (21%), lower respiratory infection (12%), urinary tract infection (12%), gastrointestinal, skin, soft tissue and cardiovascular infection (10%), surgical-site infection (7%) and ear, nose and throat infection (7%) [1]. Despite the extensive use of antibiotics and vaccine programs, infectious disease continue to be a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide. Emergence of resistant strains of pathogenic microorganism such as Methicillin - Resistant Staphyloccocus aureus (MRSA) and Vancomvcin-Resistant Staphyloccocus aureus (VRSA) are very virulent in humans and are referred as professional pathogens. Which has also continued to pose a major health concern about the efficacy of several drugs, most importantly antibiotics in current use [2].

Methicillin resistant S. aureus (MRSA) is responsible for hospital-acquired (HA) infections [3,4] and presently community acquired (CA) [5,6,7,8]. Hospital infections associated (nosocomial) staphylococcal infections have been reported to be resistant to as many as 20 antimicrobial compounds, including antiseptics and disinfectants. Resistance to penicillin among S. aureus strains appeared a few years after the introduction of penicillin therapy. Introduction of other antibiotics such as streptomycin, tetracycline and chloramphenicol, and the macrolides were similarly followed by emergence of resistant organisms. Resistant organisms that had acquired resistance to these antibiotics were reported to be usually resistant to penicillin through the production of penicillinase [9]. This resulted in the evolution of organisms with a wide spectrum of resistance and a marked ability to survive and spread in the hospital environment. Such multiple resistant *S. aureus* strains were of global significance as early as 1950s [10].

Paucible observations regarding drug resitance are available revealing the increased frequency of methicillin resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) and VRSA by passage of time [11]. Pathogen developed differing mechanism and means to resist against different antibiotics depending on their mechanism of action. Enzymatic degradation of drug, structural modification of target and antibiotic efflux are mere strategies of resistance followed by the bacteria [12].

The development of drug resistance as well as appearance of undesirable side effects of certain drugs has led to the search of new antimicrobial agents in particular from medicinal plants [13]. Plant extracts, and pure compounds isolated from natural sources have formed the bedrock of modern chemotherapy [14]. Indigeous plants are reservour of various metabolites and provide unlimited source of important chemicals that have diverse biological properties [15]. Over 25% of prescribed medicine in industralized countries are derived directly from plant [16]. Plant-derived substances have recently become of great interest owing to their versatile applications. Medicinal plants are the richest bio-resource of druas of traditional medicines. modern medicines, nutraceuticals, food supplements, folk medicines, pharmaceutical intermediates and chemical entities for synthetic drugs. Plants are reported to have anticancer, antimicrobial, antidiabetic, antiinflammation and antioxidant properties [17].

Recently, attention has been directed towards extracts and biological compounds isolated from medicinal plants. More so, the use of medicinal plants play a vital role in covering the basic health needs in developing countries and these plants may offer new sources of antibacterial, antifungal and antiviral agents with significant activity against infective microorganisms [18].

#### 1.1 Description of Calotropis procera

Calotropis procera is member of plant family Asclepiadaceae, a shrub of about 6 m high and is widely distributed in the tropics. The plant is erect, tall, large, much branched and perennial with milky latex throughout. It is found in most parts of the world in dry, sandy and alkaline soils and warm climate and is more common in south western and central India and western Himalayas. It is found in waste lands and grows as a weed in agricultural lands. In ancient Ayurvedic medicines, the plant Calotropis procera was known as "Rakta arka" [19]. It is a common plant in Nigeria but it is more abundant in the northern part of the country [20].

For many years now, the normadic Fulani women of the Northern Nigeria use the part of the plant in the production of warankasi (a local soft cheese); the practice is still popular today even in almost all the parts of the country where fluid milk is abundant. The importance of this plant locally called "bomu bomu" in South-West of Nigeria for use in the country as a cuddling agent in local cheese production came to limelight many decades ago in countries like India where the latex was used in Indian medicine as a blistering agent.

All parts of plant exude white latex when cut or broken, which act as a defence strategy against insects, viruses and fungi. A large number of secondary metabolites have been isolated from this plant that include many flavonoids, cardiac glycosides, Triterpenes and sterols [21].

Calotropis procera is a well known plant and has been traditionally used for the treatment of a wide range of infections globally such as wound, otitis media, rheumatism, epilepsy, hemiplegia, sores, ulcers, spleen complaints, gumboils, smallpox, protracted labor and skin infections [22,23,24]. The antimicrobial activity of C. procera plant extracts against bacteria and fungi documented [25,26,27,28,29]. is well Pharmacological studies of Calotropis species showed anti-inflammatory, anti-tumoral [30],

antioxidant [31,32], antibacterial [33], [35] antidiarrheal [34], antifungal and Nanoparticles Synthesize [36] activities.

#### Table 1. Scientistific classification of Calotropis procera

Kingdom	Plantae – Plants			
Subkingdom	Tracheobionta – Vascular plants			
Superdivision	Spermatophyta – Seed plants			
Division	Magnoliophyta – Flowering plants			
Class	Magnoliopsida – Dicotyledons			
Subclass	Asteridae			
Order	Gentianales			
Family	Asclepiadaceae – Milkweed family			
Genus	Calotropis R. Br. – calotropis			
Species	Calotropis procera (Aiton) W.T. Aiton			
-	- roostertree			
Source: (Jain and Sharma, 1006) [27]				

ce: (Jain and Sharma, 1996) [37]



Fig. 1. Image of Calotropis procera where it growing naturally

# **1.2 Geographic Distribution**

C. procera is drought-resistant, salt-tolerant to a relatively high degree, and it disperses seeds through wind and animals. It quickly becomes established as a weed along degraded roadsides, lagoon edges and in overgrazed native pastures. It has a preference for and is often dominant in areas of abandoned cultivation especially sandy soils in areas of low rainfall; assumed to be an indicator of over-cultivation. C. procera is native to India, Pakistan, Nepal, Afghanistan, Algeria, Iran, Irag, Israel, Kenya, Kuwait, Niger, Nigeria, Oman, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Vietnam, Yemen and Zimbabwe [38].

#### 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

# 2.1 Isolation of Bacteria from the Clinical Sample

# 2.1.1 Isolation of bacteria

The plate streaking technique was used for isolation of bacteria. Swab sticks were used to streak the samples on the already solidified nutrient agar plate, blood agar and chocolate agar, and incubated at 37°C for 24 hour. Pure cultures of isolate were obtained by subculturing unto freshly prepared plates as appropriate [39].

#### 2.1.2 Identification and characterization of bacterial isolates

The isolated bacteria were identified by using their cultural and morphological characteristics on media. This was followed by microscopic examination of the bacterial isolates under the microscope. The cultural features examined included shape elevation, surface edge and consistency. Physiological and biochemical tests were employed to confirm their identification [40].

#### 2.2 Collection and Preparation of Plant Materials

Fresh leaves of *Calotropis procera* (Bomubomu) were collected from a farm from Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria where they were going naturally. The plant material was identified and authenticated at the Crop, Soil and Pest Department, Federal University of Technology, Akure, Nigeria. The leaves were cleaned with tap water and air-dried at room temperature until well dried. The dried part were milled into fine powder using a clean mechanical blender. The powdered sample were collected into sterile cellophane bags and labelled. The sample were kept in cool dry place till further use.

#### 2.3 Preparation of Plant Extract

Exactly 300 g each of the dried powdered plant sample was weighted in a beaker and percolated with 3000 ml each of 80% ethanol and distilled cold water. It was allowed to stand for 3 days at room temperature with agitations at intervals. Afterwards, each extract was sieved through a muslin cloth, filtered through a Whatman (No. 1) filter paper and was concentrated *en vacuo* using rotary evaporator. The dried mass was stored in sterile McCartney bottle and kept in the frigerator at 4°C at least 24 hrs before subsequently testing [41].

# 2.4 Phytochemical Screening

The preliminary phytochemical analysis of the extracts were carried out to determine the presence of tannins, flavonoids, saponins, alkaloids, phenols and glycosides using standard procedures [42,43].

#### 2.5 Reconstitution and Sterilization of Plant Extracts

Each of the extracts (ethanol and distill cold water) were reconstituted using 0.01% Tween 20 as described by [44]. This was done by dissolving 0.5 g of the extract in 10 ml 0.01% Tween 20. The resultant solution was filtered using sterile Millipore membrane filter (0.45 µm).

# 2.6 Antibacterial Activity

#### 2.6.1 Determination of antibacterial activities by leaf extract

Agar well diffusion technique as described by [45] was used to determine the in-vitro antibacterial activity of the crude extract. A 1 ml aliquot of 18 hrs broth culture that had been adjusted to turbidity equivalent of 0.5 McFarland standards was dispensed into sterile Petri dishes previously labeled with the test bacteria. Molten sterile Muller-Hinton was aseptically poured into the plates and gently rotated for the bacteria to be homogenously distributed in the medium. The agar plates were allowed to solidify, after which a sterile cork borer of 6 mm in diameter was used to cut uniform wells in the agar plates. The wells were later filled with 0.5 ml of the each extracts. In addition, 20% Tween 20 was used as the negative control while Ciprofloxacin served as the positive control. The experiment was conducted in triplicates. All plates were incubated at 37℃ for 24 hours. Clearance zones around the wells were noted and measured in millimeters.

### **3. PURIFICATION OF EXTRACTS**

#### 3.1 Purification by Column Chromatography

The purification of the antibacterial compound was carried out using silica gel column chromatography as described by [46] and [47]. Methanol and petroleum ether in the ratio 3:1 v/v was used as eluting solvent. The column was packed with silica gel (60-120 mesh). The sample to be separated was then added on the top of the packed column and eluted with the solvent at the flow rate of a drop per 3 sec. A collecting conical flask was placed at the bottom of the column to collect the eluted fractions. The collected elute was distilled, leaving the purified fractions. The fractions obtained were spotted unto TLC plates. Fractions with the same retention factor (Rf) were pooled together.

# 3.2 Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC)

The crude extract was subjected to TLC analysis on 2.6  $\times$  8 cm silica del plate. These fractions were spotted onto a TLC plate 2 cm above the base. After thorough drying, the plate placed in solvent svstem was а (methanol:chloroform:petroleum ether (3:1:1)) in a chromatography tank to develop. The plates were removed when the solvent front approached the top of the plates and air-dried. Spots on the plates were visualized in an iodine chamber. The distances travelled by the constituents were measured and used to determine their Rf values [46].

 $R_f = \frac{\text{Distance moved by solute}}{\text{Distance moved by solvent}}$ 

# 3.3 Antibacterial Assay of Column Fractions of Leaf Extracts

Antibacterial activity of the column fraction was determined by paper disc diffusion method [48]. Sterile Petri dishes were seeded aseptically with 0.1 ml of the standardized test organisms while about 20 ml of sterile Mueller Hinton agar was poured aseptically on the seeded plates. Sterile Whatman filter paper discs (6.00 mm in diameter) were impregnated with 30 mg/ml of the purified fraction reconstituted with 30% dimethyl sulphonamide (DMSO). The impregnated paper discs were allowed to dry and applied with the aid of sterile forceps on the seeded plates. Filter paper disc dipped into DMSO and allowed to dry served as control. The plates were incubated at 37℃ for 24 h. Antibacterial activities were determined by the measurement of zone of inhibition around each paper disc.

#### 3.4 Spectroscopic Analysis of the Purified Fraction Produced by the Leaf Extract

Infrared (IR) analysis was performed with the aid of infra red spectrophotometer (Perkin-Elmer spectrum bx) at Department of Chemistry, Redeemer's University, Ede, Osun State. The method used is direct application of sample on cell. A drop of purified extract was placed on fused sodium chloride (NaCl) cell. It was then carefully placed on cell, loosely clamped and fixed on the IR beam and scanned at a range of 350-440 nm. After few seconds the spectrum was displayed on the computer screen. The IR data was compared to the table of IR frequencies using the methods of [49].

# 3.5 Data Analysis

All the experiments were carried out in triplicate and data obtained from the study were subjected to analysis of variance. Treatment means were compared using Duncan's New Multiple Range Test (DNMRT) at 5% level of significance using SPPS version 21.

# 4. RESULTS

The following subjected vancomycin and methicillin resistant bacterial isolates were obtained from wound swabs namely; *Staphylococcus aureus, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Escherichia coli, Proteus mirabilis* and *Streptococcus pyogenes.* 

Table 2 shows the percentage yield of the extracts by different solvents. 12.37% was the highest yield obtained from Cold water and 9.13% from Ethanol extract. The result of the antibacterial activities of Calotropis procera leaf extracts at 500 mg/ml as shown in Tables 3 reveals the highest inhibition by the Ethanol extract had the highest zone of inhibition against Staphylococcus aureus with 16.03 mm and lowest zone of inhibition against Klebsiella pnuemoniae with 8.03 mm. While for Cold water extract, the highest zone of inhibition was recorded against Escherichia coli with 13.30 mm lowest zone of inhibition against and Pseudomonas aeruginosa with 4.60 mm.

Table 4 reveals the qualitative analysis of the phytochemical constituents of *Calotropis procera* Leaf Extracts. Phenolics, saponins, tannins, cardic glycoside, flavonoids and alkaloids were present in both the Ethanol and Cold water extracts.

 Table 2. Physical characteristics and percentage (%) yield of the extracts obtained from

 Calotropis procera leaves

Solvent (3L)	Input: Dried leaf	Output: (extract)	% Recovery	Colour	Odour	Texture
Cold water	300g	37.1	12.37	Dark-Brown	Pleasant fruity	Oily
Ethanol	300g	27.4	9.13	Black	Slightly repulsive	Oily

Zone of inhibition (diameter in mm)						
Plant	Escherichia Staphylococcus Pseudomonas Klebsiella Proteus Streptococ					
extract	coli	aureus	aeruginosa	pneumoniae	mirabilis	pyogenes
CPX (25	24.12±0.00 <sup>c</sup>	20.45±0.58 <sup>a</sup>	25.61±0.58 <sup>°</sup>	21.67±0.33 <sup>ab</sup>	25.33±0.33 <sup>c</sup>	19.00±0.00 <sup>a</sup>
mg/ml)						
EET	13.09±0.17 <sup>°</sup>	24.01±0.15 <sup>e</sup>	11.05±0.15 <sup>♭</sup>	10.40±0.25 <sup>a</sup>	16.72±0.38 <sup>d</sup>	10.20±0.12 <sup>a</sup>
CWT	15.00±0.11 <sup>°</sup>	12.61±0.58 <sup>b</sup>	7.20±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	7.54±0.15 <sup>a</sup>	12.60±0.15 <sup>b</sup>	17.11±0.10 <sup>d</sup>
CWT	15.00±0.11 <sup>°</sup>	12.61±0.58 <sup>b</sup>	7.20±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	7.54±0.15 <sup>a</sup>	12.60±0.15 <sup>b</sup>	17.11±0.10 <sup>d</sup>

Table 3. Antibacterial activity of Calotropis procera extracts on the resistant bacterial isolates at 500 mg/ml

Data are presented as Mean $\pm$ S.E (n=3). Values with the same superscript letter(s) along the same column are not significantly different (P<0.05)

Key: EET= Ethanol Extract, CWT= Cold Water Extract, CPX= Ciprofloxacin

The quantitative analysis of phytochemicals constituents of Calotropis procera Leaf Extract is shown in Fig. 2. The Cold water extract had the highest quantity of phenolic (13.38 g/ml) The highest quantity of tannins (4.72 mg/ml) and saponins (10.34 mg/ml) was recorded in Cold water extract. Cold water extract recorded the highest quantity of alkaloid (12.27 mg/ml).

#### 4.1 Thin Layer Chromatography

Table 5 shows the Column chromatography of the ethanol and cold water extracts. Plate 2 shows Ethanol fractions of Calotropis procera leaf extract spotted on the TLC plate. From the thin layer chromatography of fractions, the retention factor values obtained were recorded on Table 6. The highest value was recorded on Emp8a fraction with a green colouration of the value of 0.89 retention factors while the lowest value was recorded in the Cmp1 fraction with a vellowish green colouration of the value of 0.64 refractive factor measured in centimeter (cm).

#### Table 4. Qualitative phytochemical constituents of Calotropis procera leaf extract

Constituents	Crude extract	Cold extract	Ethanol extract
Alkanoids	++	++	++
Flavonoid	++	++	++
Phenolics	++	++	++
Saponin	+	+	+
Tannin	+	+	+
Terpenoids	+	+	+
Cardic Glycoside	+	+	+

Key: + = Positive; - = Negative; ++ = Strongly positive

ponins



Error bars: +/- 1 SE

Fig. 2. Quantitative phytochemical constituent of Calotropios procera leaf extract

S/N	Fractions	Solvent/eluents	Colour of the fractions
1	Emp1	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
2	Emp2	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Green
3	Emp3	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
4	Emp4	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
5	Emp5	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
6	Emp6	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Lemon
7	Emp7	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
8	Emp8	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Green
9	Emp9	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Dark green
10	Emp10	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
11	Emp11	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
12	Cmp1	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Yellowish green
13	Cmp2	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
14	Cmp3	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Lemon
15	Cmp4	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
16	Cmp5	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
17	Cmp6	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
18	Cmp7	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green
19	Cmp8	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Lemon
20	Cmp9	Methanol: Petroleum ether (75:25)	Light green

Table 5. Column chromatography of the ethanol and cold water extracts

Table 6. Refractive factor of fractions obtained from ethanol and cold leaf extract spotted on the TLC plates

S/N	Fractions	(R <sub>f</sub> ) Value(cm)
1	Cmp9+Cmp7+Emp5	0.77
2	Emp1	0.82
3	Emp2+Cmp4	0.75
4	Emp3	0.85
5	Emp4+Emp6+Emp9	0.84
6	Emp7+Emp10	0.87
7	Emp8A	0.89
8	Emp8B+Emp11	0.80
9	Cmp1	0.64
10	Cmp2	0.67
11	Cmp3	0.66
12	Cmp5	0.80
13	Cmp6	0.67
14	Cmp8	0.69

Table 7 shows the antibacterial activities of the purified extracts on the resistant bacterial isolates. The highest zones of inhibition was recorded by (Emp8a) of ethanol extract against Pseudomonas aeruginosa with zones of inhibition of 34.27 mm, followed by (Emp10) of ethanol extract against Staphylococcus aureus with zones of inhibition of 33.28 mm, followed by (Cmp5) of Cold water extract against Klebsiella pneumoniae with inhibition of 28.73 mm, followed by (Cmp7) of Cold water extract against Escherichia coli with zones of inhibition of 28.52 mm, followed by (Emp8a) of ethanol extracts on Streptococcus pyogenes with zones of inhibition of 28.23 mm and followed by (Cmp7) of Cold water against Klebsiella pnuemoniae with zones of inhibition of 27.40 mm.

Fraction (Emp8a) has the highest zones of inhibition of 34.27 mm against *pseudomonas* aeruginosa while the lowest zones of inhibition of 4.26 mm against *Proteus mirabilis* for the Ethanol extract. Fraction (Cmp7) has the highest zones of inhibition of 28.52 mm against *Escherichia coli* while the lowest zones of inhibition of 2.31 mm were recorded against *Proteus mirabilis* for the Cold water extract. The infrared spectrum of the antimicrobial agent showed bands corresponding to 17 peaks, (Figs. 3 and 4; Tables 8 and 9).

#### 5. DISCUSSION

Finding from this study revealed that the bacterial isolates namely; *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Proteus mirabilis* and *Streptococcus pyogenes* isolated are the bacteria associated with wound infections. This study is also in agreement with previous study of [50] were the named bacterial isolates are the mostly implicated in wound infections.

In this study, the result of the antibacterial activities of *Calotropis procera* leaf extracts at 500mg/ml as shown in Tables 3 reveals the highest inhibition by the Ethanol extract was recorded against *Staphylococcus aureus* with a zones of inhibition value of 24.01 mm and lowest zones of inhibition recorded against *Klebsiella pnuemoniae* at 10.19 mm. For Cold water extract highest inhibition was recorded against *Escherichia coli* at 15.00 mm and lowest inhibition against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* at

7.20 mm. The results of this study reveal that Ethanolic extract had highest zone of inhibition against *Staphylococcus aureus* which is in conformity with the work done by [41,51] but in contrast to the work done by [52] which reveal that the aqueous extract has the highest zones of inhibition against *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Antibacterial activity of medicinal plants and drugs varies in their inhibitory effect depending on the concentration, temperature, nature of organism, size of inoculums [53]. The presence of tannin is also an indication that there are phenolic acids present in the plants which may be responsible for its antibacterial activities [54,55]. The result from this study has shown that the leaf extracts of Calotropis procera has antibacterial properties. Thus the leaf extracts of Calotropis procera exhibited a broad spectrum activity, against the test organisms in this work, and hence can be employed in treatment of diseases caused by such. Also the susceptibility of Staphylococcus aureus to the plant extracts justifies the traditional use of the leaf in wound healing. This is in agreement with the findings of [54,55,24,56] which reported that the plant is useful in treatment of wounds, ulcers, spleen sores, rheumatism, smallpox, complaints, epilepsy, hemiplegia, qumboils and skin infections.

Table 7. Bioassay of the purified extracts on the resistant bacteria isolates

Factions	Zone of inhibition (diameter in mm)					
	Escherichia coli	Staphylococcus aureus	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	Klebsiella pneumoniae	Proteus mirabilis	Streptococcus Pyogenes
Emp7	17.02±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	17.01±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	23.41±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	20.27±0.15 <sup>a</sup>	10.33±0.21 <sup>h</sup>	22.23±0.15 <sup>a</sup>
Emp8A	20.03±0.03 <sup>e</sup>	14.51±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	34.27±0.25 <sup>h</sup>	21.55±0.05 <sup>°</sup>	4.26±0.25 <sup>b</sup>	28.23±0.21 <sup>e</sup>
Emp10	19.06±0.12 <sup>d</sup>	33.28±0.10 <sup>e</sup>	25.13±0.12 <sup>d</sup>	20.33±0.11 <sup>b</sup>	9.07±0.11 <sup>e</sup>	23.57±0.06 <sup>b</sup>
Cmp5	12.06±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	17.02±0.03 <sup>b</sup>	27.58±0.11 <sup>e</sup>	20.07±0.15 <sup>a</sup>	7.53±0.15 <sup>d</sup>	25.23±0.21 <sup>d</sup>
Cmp7	28.52±0.02 <sup>d</sup>	20.29±0.04 <sup>b</sup>	22.10±0.17 <sup>b</sup>	27.40±0.10 <sup>d</sup>	5.30±0.26 <sup>c</sup>	24.53±0.06 <sup>c</sup>
Cmp9	14.11±0.1 <sup>b</sup>	19.36±0.03 <sup>d</sup>	21.24±0.14 <sup>a</sup>	28.73±0.21 <sup>e</sup>	2.31±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	22.27±0.06 <sup>a</sup>

Data are presented as Mean±S.E (n=3). Values with the same superscript letter(s) along the same column are not significantly different (P<0.05)

Key: Emp= Ethanol Extract of methanol:petroleum ether ratio 3:1 Cmp= Cold Water Extract methanol:petroleum ether ratio 3:1



#### SHIMADZU

Fig. 3. Infrared spectrum of ethanol fraction showing different peaks



# () SHIMADZU

Fig. 4. Infrared spectrum of cold water extract fraction showing different peaks

No	Wave	Stretching	Intensity	Possible Functional group
	number	or bending		
	(cm <sup>-1</sup> )			
1	582.52	Stretching	Strong	C-I (halo compound) or C-CI (halo compound) or
		Stretching		C-Br (halo compound
2	653.89	Stretching	Strong	C-Br (halo compound)
3	666.66	Stretching	Strong	C-Br (halo compound) or C=C bending alkene disubstituted (cis)
4	1033.86	Stretching	Strong	C-O (vinyl ether) or C-O (alkyl aryl ether) or S=O (sulfoxide)
5	1053.17	Stretching	Strong	C-O (primary alcohol) or C-O (vinyl ether)
		Stretching		C-O (alkyl aryl ether) or S=O (sulfoxide)
6	1249.91	Stretching	Strong	C-F (fluoro compound) or C-O (aromatic ester)
		Bending	Medium	C-N (amine)
7	1346.36	Stretching	Strong	C-F (fluoro compound) or N-O (nitro compound)
		Bending	Medium	O-H(phenol) or O-H (alcohol)
8	1394.56	Bending	Medium	O-H (carboxylic acid) or O-H (alcohol)
		Stretching	Strong	C-F (fluoro compound)
9	1454.36	Bending	Medium	C-H (alkane methylene group)
10	1643.41	Stretching	Medium	C=N (imine / oxime)
		Stretching	Strong	C=O (secondary amide) or C=O (tertiary amide)
		Stretching	Strong	C=C (alkene disubstituted (cis)) or C=C (conjugated alkene) or
		Bending	Medium	C=C (cyclic alkene) or C=C (alkene monosubstituted) or N-H (amine)
11	1728.28	Bending	Weak	C-H (aromatic compound)
		Stretching	Strong	C=O (conjugated anhydride) or C=O (aldehyde) or
		Stretching	Strong	C=O ( $\alpha$ , $\beta$ -unsaturated ester)
12	2077.4	Stretching	Strong	N=C=S (isothiocyanate)
13	2843.17	Stretching	Strong	O-H (carboxylic acid) or N-H (amine salt)
		Stretching	Weak	O-H (alcohol intramolecular bonded)
		Stretching	Medium	C-H (alkane)
14	2982.05	Stretching	Medium	C-H (alkane)
		Stretching	Strong	N-H (amine salt)
15	3406.4	Stretching	Strong	O-H (alcohol intermolecular bonded)
			Medium	N-H (primary amine)

No	Wave number (cm⁻¹)	Stretching or bending	Intensity	Possible functional group
1	644.75	Stretching	Strong	C-Br (halo compound)
2	711.76	Bending	Strong	C=C (alkene disubstituted (cis)) or
				C-H (monosubstituted benzene derivative)
3	952.87	Bending	Strong	C=C (alkene disubstituted (trans))
4	1016.62	Stretching	Strong	C-O (vinyl ether) or C-O (alkyl aryl ether)
5	1033.86	Stretching	Strong	C-O (vinyl ether) or C-O (alkyl aryl ether) S=O (sulfoxide)
6	1055.1	Stretching	Strong	C-O (primary alcohol) C-O (vinyl ether)
		Stretching		C-O (alkyl aryl ether) S=O (sulfoxide)
7	1141.9	Stretching	Strong	C-F (fluoro compound) or C-O (tertiary alcohol) or
		Stretching	Strong	S=O (sulfone) or C-O (aliphatic ether) or C-N (amine)
	1346.35	Stretching	Strong	C-F (fluoro compound) or N-O (nitro compound)
8		Bending	Medium	O-H (alcohol) or O-H (phenol)
9	1411.94	Bending	Medium	C-H (alkane methyl group) or O-H (carboxylic acid) or
		Bending	Medium	O-H (alcohol)
10	1454.38	Stretching	Medium	C-H (alkane methylene group)
11	1653.05	Stretching	Strong	C=O stretching (primary amide)
		Stretching	Medium	C=N stretching (imine / oxime)
		Stretching	Strong	C=O stretching (secondary amide) or C=O stretching (tertiary
		Stretching	Medium	amide
		Stretching	Weak	C=C stretching (alkene disubstituted (cis)) or C=C stretching
		Bending		alkene vinylidene)
			_	C-H (aromatic compound)
12	2077.4	Stretching	Strong	N=C=S (isothiocyanate)
13	2364.81	Stretching	Strong	O=C=O (carbon dioxide)
14	2845.1	Stretching	Weak	O-H (alcohol intramolecular bonded)
		Stretching	Medium	C-H (alkane)
		Stretching	Strong	N-H (amine salt) or O-H (carboxylic acid)
15	2982.05	Stretching	Weak	O-H (alcohol intramolecular bonded)
		Stretching	Medium	C-H (alkane)
		Stretching	Strong	N-H (amine salt) or O-H (carboxylic acid)
16	3427.62		Strong	O-H (alcohol intermolecular bonded)
			Medium	N-H (primary amine)

Table 9. Interpretation of the FT-IR data of the cold water extracts

It was observed that the purified extracts had higher inhibitory effect on bacterial isolates than crude extracts. [57] reported that crude extracts are liable to deterioration and contamination which reduces their inhibitory activity. The fractions from ethanol and cold water extract which had the highest inhibitory effect were sent for Fourier Transform Infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopic analysis. The infra red signals revealed a compound containing the following principal functional group; an alcohol (O=H), an amine (nitrogen) group, a carbonyl group(C=O), an alkenyl (C=C). The signal at 1346.35 suggest skeletal structure resembling calotropin and calotropegenin which confirmed the presence of amide, alcohols, phenols, alkanes, carboxylic acids, aldehydes, ketones, alkenes, primary amines, aromatics, esters, ethers, alkyl halides and aliphatic amines compounds, which showed major peaks. This is in agreement with the work done by [54,55]. The presence of an O-H bending phenol which is a very rare functional group in most compound might be responsible for the effectiveness of the leaf extracts and this is an indication that purified active extracts of *Calotropis procera* may be potent material for drug development that could be used in the in the preliminary treatment of wound infections, most especially because of its high inhibitory effect against *Staphylococcus aureus*.

#### 6. CONCLUSION

In this study, the microbiological investigation done on *Calotropis procera* leaves obtained in Nigeria have shown activity coherent with the use of this plant in folk medicine. The extracts could serve as useful sources for new antibacterial agent owing to the increase rate of resistance of bacteria to vancomycin and methicillin antibiotics. Findings from this research indicate that the leaf extracts of *Calotropis procera* posses antibacterial potency which will assist in the preliminary treatment of wound infections, most especially because of its high inhibitory effect against *Staphylococcus aureus*.

# CONSENT

All consent form was duly signed by 8. parents/guardian of the patients before samples were collected from them.

#### ETHICAL APPROVAL

Ethical was approved by Ondo State Health Research and Ethics committee (OSHREC).

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors are grateful to the Department of Microbiology, Federal University of Technology, Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria, for providing the necessary facilities used in this study.

## **COMPETING INTERESTS**

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

#### REFERENCES

- Asefzadeh M. The risk of nosocomial infections for NCD patients. NCD Malaysia. 2005;4:8-12.
- Timothy O, Idu M. Preliminary phytochemistry and *in vitro* antimicrobial properties of aqueous and methanol extracts of *Icacina trichantha*. Olive Leaf. 2011;1(3):184–188.
- McDougal LK, Fosheim GE, Nicholson A, Bulens SN, Limbago BM, Shearer JES, Summers AO, Patel JB. Emergence of Resistance among USA300 methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates causing invasive disease in the United States. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy. 2010;54(9):3804–3811.
- Hena JV, Sudha SS. RFLP analysis of clinical MRSA isolates. International Journal of Pharmacy and Biological Sciences. 2011;2(1):637-645.
- Van Leeuwen WB. Molecular diagnostics in clinical microbiology. Iranian Journal of Microbiology. 2009;1(2):5-20.
- Khadri H, Alzohairy M. Prevalence and antibiotic susceptibility pattern of methicillinresistant and coagulase-negative staphylococci in a tertiary care hospital in India. International Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences. 2010;2(4):116-120.
- Okwu M, Bamgbala S, Aborisade W. Prevalence of nasal carriage of community associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (CA-MRSA) among healthy primary school children in

Okada, Nigeria. Journal of Natural Sciences Research. 2010;12(4):61-65.

- Moussa IM, Al-Qahtani AA, Gassem MA, Ashgan MH, Ismail DK, Ghazy AI, Shibl AM. Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) as an epidemiological marker for typing of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* recovered from KSA. African Journal of Microbiology Research. 2011;5(12):1492-1499.
- Chibuike I, Reginald AO, Solomon CU. Antibiotic resistance patterns and plasmid profiles of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from human samples. British Microbiology Research Journal. 2014;4(2):185-194.
- Olowe OA, Eniola KIT, Olowe RA, Olayemi AB. Antimicrobial susceptibility and betalactamase detection of MRSA in Osogbo, SW Nigeria. Nature and Science. 2007;5(3):44-48.
- 11. Dubery D, Rath S, Sahu MC, Pattnaik L, Debata NK, Padhy RN. Surveillance of infection status of drug resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in an Indian teaching hospital. Asian Pacific Journal Tropic Disease. 2013;3(2):133-142.
- 12. Lowy FD. Antimicrobial resistance: The example of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Journal Clinical Investment. 2003;111: 1265-1273.
- Idu M, Omogbai EKI, Aghimen GE, Amaechina F, Timothy O, Omongho SE. Preliminary phytochemistry and antimicrobial properties of *Stachytarphata jamaicensis* (linn) vahl stem. Research Journal of Medicinal Plants. 2007;1(4):147-153.
- Murti Y, Yogi B, Pathak D. Pharmacognostic standardization of leaves of *Calotropis procera* (Ait.) R. Br. (Asclepiadaceae). International Journal of Ayurveda Research. 2010;1(1):14-17.
- Tomoko N, Takashi A, Hiromu T, Yuka I, Hiroko M, Munekazu I, Totshiyuki T, Tetsuro I, Fujio A, Iriya I, Tsutomu N, Kazuhito W. Antibacterial activity of extracts preparated from tropical and subtropical plants on methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Journal of Health Science. 2002;48:273-276.
- Newman DJ, Cragg GM, Snader KM. The influence of natural products upon drug discovery. Nature Product Reports. 2000;17(3):215-234.
- 17. Gaurav K, Karthik L, Bhaskara Rao KV. Phytochemical composition and *in vitro*

antimicrobial activity of *Bauhinia racemosa* Lamk (Caesalpiniaceae). International Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research. 2010;1(11):51-58.

- Kumar HNK, Preethi SD, Chandana E, Chauhan JB. Phytochemical screening and antibacterial activity of *Stachytarpheta indica*. International. Journal of Pharmacological Science Reviews. 2012;3:1684-1687.
- 19. Verma R, Satsangi GP, Shrivastava JN. Ethno-medicinal profile of different plant parts of *Calotropis procera (Ait.)* R. Br, Ethnobotanical Leaflets. 2010;14:21-42.
- 20. Sofowora A. Medical plants and traditional medicine in Africa. John Wiley and Sons Limited, Ibadan; 1984.
- Chundattu SJ, Agrawal VK, Ganesh N. Phytochemical investigation of *Calotropis* procera. Arab Journal of Chemistry; 2012. In Press. Available:<u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.arabjc.</u> 2011.03.011
- Batanouny KH. Wild medicinal plants in Egypt. (With contribution of: E. Aboutabl, M. Shabana and F. Soliman). With support of the Swiss Development Co-operation (SDC). Academy of Scientific Research and Technology, Egypt. The World Conservation Union (IUCN), Switzerland. 1999;128-129.
- 23. Kumar VL, Arya S. Medicinal uses and prostaglandin inhibitory and antioxidant activities. pharmacological properties of *Calotropis procera*. Chemical and Pharmaceutical Bulletin. 2006;51(5):595-598.
- Nenaah G. Antimicrobial activity of Calotropis procera Ait. (Asclepiadaceae) and isolation of four flavonoid glycosides as the active constituents. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology. 2013; 29(7):1255-1262.
- 25. Adoum OA, Akinniyi JA, Omar T. The effect of geographical location on the antimicrobial activities and trace element concentration in the root of *Calotropis procera* (Ait.) R. Br. Annals of Borno. 1997;13(14):199-207.
- 26. Kareem SO, Akpan Ι, Ojo OP. Antimicrobial activities of Calotropis pathogenic procera on selected microorganisms. African Journal of Biomedical Research. 2008;11:105-110.
- 27. Mako GA, Memon AH, Mughal UR, Pirzado AJ, Bhatti SA. Antibacterial effects of leaves and root extract of *Calotropis*

*procera* linn. Pakistan Journal of Agriculture, Agricultural Engineering and Veterinary Sciences. 2012;28(2):141-149.

- 28. Prabha RM, Vasantha K. Phytochemical and antibacterial activity of *Calotropis procera* (Ait.) R. Br. Flowers. International Journal of Pharmacy and Biological Sciences. 2012;3(1):1-6.
- Saadabi AMA, Ali NM, Mohammed HI, Alsafi FN, Mustafa HB. An *in vitro* antimicrobial activity of *Calotropis procera* (Ait). R. Br. extracts on certain groups of pathogenic microorganisms. Research Journal of Medical Sciences. 2012;6(1):13-17.
- Mathura R, Gupta SK. Anti-tumor studies with extracts of *Calotropis procera* (Ait.) R.Br. root employing Hep2 cells and their possible mechanism of action. Indian Journal of Experimental Biology. 2009;47(5):343-348.
- 31. Murti Y, Yogi B, Pathak D. Journal of Pharmacy Research. 2011;4:3452-3454.
- Ahmed MI. Prevalence of nosocomial wound infection among postoperative patients and antibiotics patterns at teaching hospital in Sudan. North American Journal of Medical Science. 2014;4(1):29–34.
- Gajare SM, Patil MV, Mahajan RT. International Journal of Research in Phytochemistry and Pharmacology. 2012;2:143-146.
- Meena AK, Yadav AK, Niranjan US, Singh B, Nagariya AK, Sharma K, Gaurav A, Sharma S, Rao MM. Drug Invention Today. 2010;2:185-190.
- 35. Goyal S, Kumar S, Rawat P, Dhaliwal N. Antifungal activity of *Calotropis procera* towards dermatoplaytes. International Journal of Advances in Pharmacy, Biology and Chemistry. 2013;2(3):2277–4688.
- Poovizhi J, Krishnaveni B. Synthesis, characterization and antimicrobial activity of zinc oxide nanoparticles synthesized from *Calotropis procera*. International Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Drug Research. 2015;7(5):425-431.
- 37. Jain SC, Sharma R. Antimicrobial activity of *Calotropis procera*. Fitoterapia. 1996;67(3):275-276.
- Chatterjee A, Chandra PS. The treatise of Indian medicinal plants. CSIR, New Delhi. 1995;4:130.
- 39. Cowon ST, Steel KJ. Manual for the identification of medical bacterial 2<sup>nd</sup>

edition. Cambridge University Press. 2002;51-60.

- Cheesbrough M. District Laboratory practice in tropical countries. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition, Cambridge, University Press, United Kingdom. 2010;143:70-95.
- 41. Leonard G, Adamu O, Edeghagba B, Omolara MA, Aniekpeno IE, Ezeokoli OT. Antimicrobial activity of extracts of *Jatropha curcas* and *Calotropis procera* leaves against pathogenic isolates from motorcycle helmets in Lagos metropolis. International Journal of Current Microbiology Applied Science. 2013;2(12): 292-302.
- 42. Harborne JB. Phytochemical methods: A guide to modern techniques of plant analysis. (3rd Edition). Chapman and Hall Company, New York. 1998;1-302.
- Kasolo JN, Bimenya GS, Ojok L, Ochieng J, Ogwal-Okeng JW. Phytochemicals and uses of *Moringa oleifera* leaves in Ugandan rural communities. Journal of Medicinal Plant Research. 2010;4(9):753-757.
- Onifade AK, Fatope MO, Lajide L. Chemical and antimicrobial properities of the essential oils from Ocimum santum and Ocimum tenuitlorum. Journal Research Science Management. 2009; 7(1):76-80.
- 45. Ogundare AO, Onifade AK. The antimicrobial activity of *Morinda lucida* leaf extract on *Escherichia coli*. Journal of Medical Plant Research. 2009;3(4):319-323.
- Atta HM, Dabur SM, Desoukey SG. Sparsomycin antibiotic production by Streptomyces Sp. AZ-NIOFDI: Taxonomy, fermentation, purification and biological activities. American-Eurasian Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Science. 2009;5(3):368-377.
- 47. Usha R, Ananthaseli P, Venil CK, Palaniswamy M. Antimicrobial and Antiangiogenesis activity of *Streptomyces parvulus* KUAP106 from mangrove soil. European Journal of Biological Science. 2010;2:77-83.

- 48. Aida P, Rosa V, Blamea F, Tomas A, Salvadar C. Paraguyan plants used in traditional medicine. Journal of Ethnopharmacology. 2001;16:93-98.
- 49. Mayo DW, Pike RM, Butcher SS. Microscale organic laboratory. NY, John Willey Publisher. 2010;429-468.
- Ajao T, Yakubu SE. Identification, characterization and plasmid profiling of multi drug resistant nocomial pathogens isolated from selected hospitals in Ilorin metropolis. British Microbiology Research Journal. 2015;5(1):33-43.
- 51. Srivastava D. Identification and characterization of plant extracts as a potential antimicrobial agents. Indian Journal Science Reviews. 2014;7(1):1193-1199.
- Salem WM, Sayed WF, Haridy M, Hassan NH. Antibacterial activity of *Calotropis* procera and *Ficus sycomorus* extraxts on some pathogenic microorganisms. African Journal of Biotechnology. 2014;13(32): 3271-3280.
- 53. Prescott LM, Harley PJ, Klein AD. Microbiology. 7th ed. McGraw Hill Publisher, Singapore. 2008;94-122.
- 54. Amit K, Khairnar S, Bhamare R, Bhamare HP. *Calotropis procera*: An ethnopharmacological update. Advance Research in Pharmaceuticals and Biological. 2012;2:2250-0774.
- 55. Rohit S, Gulab S, Thakur BS, Ashish S, Mukeshwar P, Anjana S, Prakash SB. Therapeutic potential of *Calotropis procera*: A giant milkweed. IOSR Journal of Pharmacy and Biological Sciences (IOSR-JPBS). 2012;4(2):42-57.
- 56. Rajesh T, Bhavesh V, Sandip B. A valuable plant *Calotropis procera* linn in indian system of medicine: ayurveda. Pharma Science Monitor. 2014;5(1):151-163.
- Lenta B, Wniger B, Antheaume C, Noungoue D, Ngroueta S, Assob C, Senecheau V, Fokou A, Devkota P, Tsamo E, Sewald N. Anthraquinones from the stem bark of *Strereospernum zenkeri* with antimicrobial activity. Phytochemistry. 2007;11(68):1595-1599.

© 2016 Ogundare and Akindele; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

> Peer-review history: The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/17606