

## Original Research Article

### ANTIMICROBIAL AND PHYTOCHEMICAL ANALYSES OF EXTRACTS OF *Diplazium sammatii* and *Pneumatopteris afra* on SELECTED CLINICAL STRAINS OF BACTERIA

#### **ABSTRACT:**

**Aims:** *This study was carried out to test for the antibacterial effects of Diplazium sammatii and Pneumatopteris afra plant leaves extracts on some pathogenic bacteria isolates.*

**Study Design:** *This study was carried out in triplicates and the results presented are mean values of the recordings.*

**Place and Duration of Study:** *This study was carried out in the Microbiology Laboratory of Ekiti State University between January and June, 2011.*

**Methodology:** *The plants were collected and air dried at room temperature. The phytochemical constituents were extracted using ethanol, methanol, acetone and cold redistilled water. The agar well diffusion method was used to determine the antimicrobial activity of the plant extracts against Staphylococcus aureus, Salmonella typhi, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Klebsiella species, Escherichia coli and Shigella dysenteriae. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of the extracts against the test bacteria was also determined.*

**Results:** *The acetone extracts gave the highest zones of inhibition (19.0mm) of the test bacteria at concentrations ranging from 50mg/ml (9.0mm) to 250mg/ml (19.0mm), while aqueous extracts gave the least zone of inhibition 2.0mm at the same range of concentrations. The MIC was also observed for both plants at 50.0mg/ml. Phytochemical screening of the plants revealed the presence of tannins, saponins, flavonoids, cardiacglycosides, anthraquinones and alkaloids.*

**Conclusion:** *The growth of all bacteria were inhibited at varying degrees thus justifying their use in traditional medicines in treating bacteria infectious and other diseases.*

**Keywords:** Antimicrobials, MIC, plant extracts, pathogens, phytochemicals, bioactive

## 30 **1. Introduction**

31 In an effort to improve the quality of life, man has always looked up to plants as sources of food, medicine, shelter  
32 and for relief from the hardships of life [1]. Since ancient times, varieties of drugs have been obtained from  
33 medicinal plants with the search for potent antimicrobial agents shifting to plants [2]. Over 2000 plant species have  
34 been found to have medicinal value and these properties have been exploited over the years [3]. Some plants are  
35 referred to as medicinal plants because they contain certain bioactive substances, that could be used for therapeutic  
36 purposes or which could serve as precursors for the synthesis of useful drugs [4]. The medicinal value of these plants  
37 lies in the active phytochemical constituents that produce definite physiological reactions relentless to the cure of  
38 diseases of man. The use of medicinal plants in the treatment of human diseases is as old as the disease itself as it  
39 predates the introduction of antibiotics [5]. However, the use of antibiotics to treat infections have posed a serious  
40 threat to humans and the environment because of the increasing dissemination of antibiotics resistance genes and the  
41 acquisition of antibiotics resistance by commensals hence the need for an alternative [6]. So, resistance to drugs  
42 especially antibiotics has become a major challenge facing the medical world today coupled with the high cost of  
43 production of this drugs and this has brought a renewed interest in plant medicinal drugs [7]. This has necessitated  
44 the search for newer drugs which is better and cheaper with plants being the better alternative. The selection of crude  
45 plant extracts for screening for antimicrobial effects has the potential of being more successful in the initial stages  
46 than the screening of pure compounds isolated from the natural products [8]. Researchers have reported that plant  
47 extracts of many higher plants did exhibit antibacterial, antifungal and insecticidal properties during laboratory trials  
48 with an observed proliferation of herbal drugs in Nigeria. But very few literature exist on the antimicrobial properties  
49 of lower green plants.

50 This study was aimed at determining the antimicrobial activities, and phytochemical constituents of extracts of *Diplazium*  
51 *sammattii* and *Pneumatopteris afra* on some pathogenic bacteria

## 52 **2.0 Materials and Methods**

### 53 **2.1 Collection of Plant Materials**

54 Fresh leaves of *Pneumatopteris afra* and *Diplazium sammatii* were collected from the University farm and Ikogosi  
55 warm spring. The plants were identified and authenticated at the herbarium section of Plant Science and Biotechnology  
56 Department, Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria. The leaves were air-dried at room temperature for twenty eight  
57 days. The dried leaves were then ground into fine powder using an electronic blender. Plants were stored in a container at  
58 room temperature until required for use.

## 59 **2.2 Extraction Procedure**

60 **2.2.1 Aqueous Extraction:** Twenty five grammes each of powdered leaves of *Diplazium sammatii* and *Pneumatopteris afra*  
61 were separately weighed into a clean sterile Erlenmeyer flask and 100ml of distilled water was added into the Erlenmeyer  
62 flask. The mixture was allowed to stand for a period of 120hours. The extract was collected by filtration using Whatmann  
63 No1 filter paper.

64 **2.2.2 Solvent extraction:** Twenty five grammes each of dried powdered leaves of *Diplazium sammatii* and *Pneumatopteris*  
65 *afra* were each soaked in 100ml of 95% ethanol, methanol and acetone in 250ml Erlenmeyer flasks for a period of  
66 120hours. The extracts were then obtained by filtration using filter paper (Whatmann No1 filter paper) into small sterile  
67 crucibles. Extracts were evaporated to dryness by the use of rotary evaporator and reconstituted with 50%  
68 Dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO, Merck). The stock extracts were kept in the refrigerator at 4°C until used.

## 69 **2.3 Determination of Antimicrobial Activities**

### 70 **2.3.1 Source of Microorganisms**

71 Six bacteria strains were used for this study, namely *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas*  
72 *aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella* spp, *Salmonella typhi* and *Shigella dysenteriae*. All the bacteria strains were obtained from the stock  
73 culture of the Department of Microbiology, Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti. The bacteria isolates was maintained on agar  
74 slant at 4 °C.

### 75 **2.3.2 Standardization of Innocula**

76 The test bacteria were grown at 37°C in Mueller-Hilton broth (Oxoid) (McFarland standard) at optical activity of  
77 625nm with Mueller-Hilton Broth and stored at 4°C to prevent further bacteria growth [9].

### 78 **2.3.3 Determination of Antimicrobial Activity**

79 Antibacterial activity was measured using agar well diffusion technique [2], whereby the test bacteria were  
80 inoculated into the sterile Mueller-Hinton agar plates by aseptically transferring 0.1ml of each of the standardized test  
81 bacteria into petri dishes containing solidified Mueller-Hinton agar. A sterile glass spreader was used to evenly spread this  
82 over the surface of the Mueller-Hinton agar. A sterile cork borer 6mm in diameter was used to bore wells on the Petri dishes  
83 and 0.1ml of each extract was then transferred into the holes. About 0.1ml of DMSO was introduced as control into a well  
84 on each plate. The plates were allowed to dry for one hour for diffusion. The plates were then incubated at 37°C for 24hours  
85 in an inverted position. The experiment was carried out in triplicates and the mean values were recorded.

### 86 **2.3.4 Determination of Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) Using Agar Dilution Method**

87 The leaves extracts were aseptically introduced into sterile Petri dishes at different concentrations (50mg/ml,  
88 100mg/ml, 150mg/ml, 200mg/ml and 250mg/ml) with the aid of a micropipette at 100µl volume. Fifteen milliliters of  
89 sterile Mueller-Hinton agar was added to each of the sterile Petri dishes containing the extracts and was carefully swirled.  
90 The agar was then allowed to set. Standardized test bacteria were carefully streaked with the aid of a sterile inoculating loop  
91 on the nutrient agar and incubated at 37°C. The plates were observed for growth and the MIC was determined as the lowest  
92 concentration that inhibited the growth of the test organisms.

### 93 **2.4 Phytochemical Analysis of the Extracts**

94 Qualitative phytochemical analysis was carried out to determine the presence of alkaloids, tannins, saponins,  
95 steroids, terpenoids, flavonoids, anthraquinones, cardiacglycosides and cyanoglycosides [4, 10].

### 96 **2.5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

97 The result of the antimicrobial activities of the leaf extracts are given in Tables I and II by measuring the diameter of  
98 the zones of inhibition compared to standards. The result of the antimicrobial activities of extracts of *Diplazium sammatii*

99 are shown in table I, acetone extracts gave the highest zones of inhibition at 250mg/ml (19.0mm) on *Staphylococcus aureus*,  
100 *Salmonella typhi* and *Shigella dysenteriae* with the lowest zone of inhibition occurring at 50mg/ml (9.0mm) on *E. coli*.  
101 Methanol extracts of *Diplazium sammatii* also showed considerable level of antibacterial activity with zones of inhibition  
102 ranging from 250mg/ml (19.0mm, 18.0mm, and 16.0mm) on *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Escherichia coli* while it had its  
103 lowest zone of inhibition at 50mg/ml (5.0mm) on *Salmonella typhi*. This result obtained is quite higher when compared to  
104 results obtained by [5] as the entire results obtained were susceptible to *Diplazium sammatii* to a varying degree.

105 Table II shows the result of the antimicrobial activities of *Pneumatopteris afra*. Acetone extracts of *P. afra* showed  
106 the highest antimicrobial activity at 250mg/ml and 200mg/ml (19.0mm) on *S. typhi* with the lowest level at 50mg/ml  
107 (4.0mm). *S. typhi* showed reasonable susceptibility to the extracts at 250mg/ml. the aqueous extracts also showed  
108 appreciable levels of antimicrobial activity on the tested bacteria except for *E. coli* which showed no susceptibility to the  
109 aqueous extracts which agrees with the works of [11, 12].

110 The Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) was observed at 50mg/ml for ethanol extract of *Diplazium sammatii*  
111 against *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Salmonella typhi* while *Pneumatopteris afra* had an MIC at 50mg/ml for *Pseudomonas*  
112 *aeruginosa* and *Salmonella typhi*. When compared with the works of other authors [2, 3, 13, and 14] the solvents used were  
113 found to be relatively effective in extracting the polar and non-polar constituents of the plants.

114 Results obtained from the antimicrobial effects of *Diplazium sammatii* and *Pneumatopteris afra* against the bacteria  
115 isolates was broad spectrum in activity [12, 15], though with variations in the degree of sensitivity as observed in the Tables  
116 presented. The control used in this study showed no inhibitory effect on the microorganisms. From the results obtained  
117 acetone, ethanol, methanol and aqueous extracts of both plants inhibited the growth of the test bacteria. Also aqueous  
118 extracts of *Diplazium sammatii* and *Pneumatopteris afra* did not have any inhibitory effect on *Klebsiella* spp and  
119 *Staphylococcus aureus*.

120 The antimicrobial properties of many medicinal plants have been previously studied [2, 14, 16 and 17]. The acetone  
121 extracts of *Diplazium sammatii* and *Pneumatopteris afra* was more effective followed by the methanol extract which  
122 correlates with the works of [2] who reported the antimicrobial activities of methanol extracts of lower green plants against

123 *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Salmonella typhi* and *Klebsiella* spp. The extracts of *Diplazium sammatii* and  
124 *Pneumatopteris afra* had higher inhibitory effects when compared with the works of [18].

125 The effect of the extracts on all the test organisms increased with the increase in concentration of the extracts which  
126 is in agreement to the works of other authors. Aqueous extracts of the leaves showed considerable inhibition which also  
127 correlates with the work of [3 and 14] who reported higher zones of inhibition for aqueous extracts on both Gram positive  
128 and Gram negative bacteria.

129 The phytochemical analysis of the plants showed the presence of certain bioactive (tannins, saponins, alkaloids,  
130 flavonoids, cardiacglycosides and anthraquinones except for steroids which was absent in both plants) compounds which  
131 have been reported to exhibit various medicinal and physiological activity [19].

132 Differences observed in the antimicrobial activities of the plants could be due to the quantitative and qualitative  
133 differences in them [13, 20], the extraction methods employed and the level of concentration of such extracts [21].  
134 Alkaloids have also been reported to have antimicrobial potentials [22] as well as antibacterial activities [23]. Flavonoids  
135 complex with extra cellular and soluble proteins and with bacterial cell walls [24]. Tannins interfere with protein synthesis  
136 by binding to proline rich proteins [25]. Plant glycosides, which are not normally toxic when ingested orally, are known to  
137 inhibit chloride transport in the stomach [17, 26].

## 138 **Conclusion**

139 This study shows that lower green plants show much promise in the development of phytomedicines with great  
140 antimicrobial properties as observed presently in the traditional context. It can be concluded that this plants showed much  
141 antimicrobial potential against the selected test microorganisms and has greater potential in the development of  
142 phytomedicines.

143

144

145

146

147

148

149 **Table I: Antimicrobial activities of extracts of *Diplazium sammatii***150 **Zones of inhibition of the extracts in (mm)**

151

	50mg/ml				100mg/ml				150mg/ml				200mg/ml				250mg/ml			
<b>Organisms</b>	<b>ET</b>	<b>AC</b>	<b>ME</b>	<b>AQ</b>	<b>ET</b>	<b>AC</b>	<b>ME</b>	<b>AQ</b>	<b>ET</b>	<b>AC</b>	<b>ME</b>	<b>AQ</b>	<b>ET</b>	<b>AC</b>	<b>ME</b>	<b>AQ</b>	<b>ET</b>	<b>AC</b>	<b>ME</b>	<b>AQ</b>
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	8.0	10.0	10.0	4.0	9.0	14.0	13.0	6.0	11.0	16.0	15.0	6.0	12.0	18.0	15.0	6.0	14.0	19.0	17.0	5.0
<i>Salmonella typhi</i>	5.0	11.0	10.0	4.0	8.0	13.0	11.0	5.0	10.0	16.0	8.0	6.0	14.0	18.0	14.0	6.0	15.0	19.0	15.0	6.0
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	6.0	11.0	12.0	4.0	9.0	13.0	13.0	5.0	10.0	15.0	15.0	6.0	14.0	16.0	18.0	6.0	16.0	17.0	18.0	6.0
<i>Klebsiella spp</i>	6.0	11.0	8.0	0.0	7.0	14.0	10.0	4.0	9.0	14.0	12.0	6.0	10.0	16.0	14.0	6.0	12.0	18.0	15.0	7.0
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	6.0	9.0	13.0	2.0	9.0	12.0	15.0	4.0	10.0	15.0	16.0	6.0	14.0	16.0	17.0	6.0	16.0	17.0	19.0	7.0
<i>Shigella dysenteriae</i>	8.0	13.0	5.0	4.0	10.0	14.0	8.0	5.0	10.0	16.0	10.0	6.0	14.0	17.0	12.0	6.0	15.0	19.0	14.0	8.0

152

153 **Keys: ET – Ethanol AC – Acetone ME – Methanol AQ – Aqueous**

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162 **Table II: Antimicrobial activities of extracts of *Pneumatopteris afra***

163 **Zones of inhibition of the extracts in (mm)**

164

Organisms	50mg/ml				100mg/ml				150mg/ml				200mg/ml				250mg/ml			
	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	4.0	4.0	4.0	0.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	3.0	5.0	6.0	6.0	4.0	6.0	8.0	9.0	6.0	8.0	12.0	11.0	7.0
<i>Salmonella typhi</i>	10.0	13.0	10.0	2.0	12.0	15.0	12.0	4.0	13.0	18.0	12.0	7.0	15.0	19.0	14.0	8.0	16.0	19.0	16.0	8.0
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	11.0	4.0	4.0	2.0	12.0	8.0	7.0	4.0	13.0	6.0	8.0	6.0	14.0	8.0	9.0	9.0	15.0	10.0	10.0	9.0
<i>Klebsiella spp</i>	5.0	4.0	5.0	2.0	5.0	6.0	7.0	3.0	7.0	10.0	10.0	5.0	8.0	9.0	11.0	7.0	10.0	10.0	13.0	8.0
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	5.0	5.0	7.0	0.0	8.0	5.0	9.0	0.0	11.0	10.0	10.0	0.0	11.0	7.0	10.0	0.0	13.0	9.0	11.0	0.0
<i>Shigella dysenteriae</i>	5.0	5.0	5.0	2.0	8.0	6.0	6.0	5.0	11.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	12.0	11.0	8.0	9.0	14.0	14.0	10.0	7.0

165

166 **Keys: ET – Ethanol AC – Acetone ME – Methanol AQ – Aqueous**

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175



176

177

178

179 **Table III: Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of Extracts of *Diplazium sammatii***

Organisms	50mg/ml				100mg/ml				150mg/ml				200mg/ml			
	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Salmonella typhi</i>	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Klebsiella spp</i>	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Shigella dysenteriae</i>	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-

180

181 **Keys: ET – Ethanol AC – Acetone ME – Methanol AQ – Aqueous**

182 +: Growth of organisms

183 -: No growth of organisms

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191 **Table IV: Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of Extracts of *Pneumatopteris afra***

Organisms	50mg/ml				100mg/ml				150mg/ml				200mg/ml			
	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ	ET	AC	ME	AQ
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+
<i>Salmonella typhi</i>	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Klebsiella spp</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
<i>Shigella dysenteriae</i>	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-

192 **Keys: ET – Ethanol AC – Acetone ME – Methanol AQ – Aqueous**

193 +: Growth of organisms

194 -: No growth of organisms

195 **Table V: Phytochemical analysis of the plants**

Tests	<i>Diplazium sammatii</i>	<i>Pneumatopteris afra</i>
Alkaloids	+	+
Tannins	+	+
Saponins	+	+
Steroids	-	-
Cardiacglycosides	+	+
Cyanoglycosides	+	+
Anthraquinones	+	+
Terpenoids	+	+
Flavonoids	+	+

196

197 Keys: +: Present

198 -: Absent

199

200 **References:**

- 201 1. Odunbaku, O.A. and Ilusanya, O.A. (2008). Antibacterial activity of the Ethanolic and  
 202 Methanolic Leaf Extract of some Tropical Plants on some human pathogenic microbes.  
 203 *Research Journal of Agricultural and Biological Sciences*. 4(5): 373-376.
- 204 2. Ojo, O.O., A.O. Ajayi and Anibijuwon (2007). Antibacterial potency of methanol  
 205 extracts of lower plants. *J. Zhejiang Uni. Sci.*, 8: 189-191.
- 206 3. Kannan, M., Lija, Lj. T. Francis, X., and Auxillia, A. (2013). Antimicrobial Activity of  
 207 The Medicinal Plant *Senna Obtusa Roxb* *IJBPAS* 2(5): 1135-1140.
- 208 4. Sofowora, E.A. (2008). *Medicinal plant and traditional medicine in Africa*. John Wiley  
 209 and sons LTD. Pp 110.
- 210 5. Yahaya, O., Yabefa, J.A. and Usman, B. (2012). Phytochemical Screening and  
 211 Antibacterial Activity of *Combretum glutinosum* Extract against Some Human  
 212 Pathogens. *British Journal of Pharmacology and Toxicology* 3(5): 233-236.
- 213 6. Wellington, E.M.H., Boxall, A.B.A., Cross, P., Feil, E.J., Gaze, W.H., Hawkey, P.M.,  
 214 Johnson- ollings, A.S., Jones, D.L., Lee, N.M., Otten, W., Thomas, C.M. and Williams,  
 215 A.P. (2013). The role of the natural environment in the emergence of antibiotic resistance  
 216 in Gram-negative bacteria. *Lancet Infectious Diseases*. 13: 155-65.
- 217 7. Fagbohun, E.D. and Bamikole, A.M. (2016). Antifungal Effects of Methanolic Extract of  
 218 Stem Bark of *Bridelia ferruginea* Benth. Leaves of *Aloe vera* L. and Stem Bark of  
 219 *Alstonia boonei* De Wild *British Microbiology Research Journal* 2(3): 1135-1140.
- 220 8. Okigbo, R.N. and Ogbonnaya, U.O. (2006). Antifungal effects of two tropical plant leaf  
 221 extract (*Ocimum gratissimum* and *Aframomum melegueta*) on postharvest yam  
 222 (*Dioscorea* spp.) rot, *Afr. J. Biotech.* 5(9):727- 731.

- 223 9. Bauer, A.W., Kirby, W.W., Shorries, J.C. and Turicks, M. (1996). Antibiotics  
224 susceptibility testing by a standard single disc method. *American Journal of Clinical*  
225 *Pathology* 45: 493-496.
- 226 10. Adegoke, A.A. and Adebayo-Tayo, B.C. (2009). Antibacterial activity and  
227 phytochemical analysis of leaf extracts of *Lasienthera africanum*. *African Journal of*  
228 *Biotechnology*. 8(1):77-80.
- 229 11. Bishnu, J., Govind, P.S., Buddha, B., Basnet, M.R. Bhatt, D.S. Krishna, S., J., Pandey, J.  
230 and Rajani, M. (2011). Phytochemical extraction and antimicrobial properties of different  
231 medicinal plants: *Ocimum sanctum* (Tulsi), *Eugenia caryophyllata* (Clove), *Achyranthes*  
232 *bidentata* (Datiwan) and *Azadirachta indica* (Neem). *Journal of Microbiology and*  
233 *Antimicrobials* 3(1):1-7.
- 234 12. Abhijit, B.S. and Yogini, R.M. (2015). Phytochemical Analysis and Antibacterial  
235 Properties of Some Selected Indian Medicinal Plants *Int. J. Curr. Microbiol. App. Sci*  
236 4(3): 228-235.
- 237 13. Ogueke, C.C., Ogbulie, J.N. and Njoku, H.O. (2006). Antimicrobial properties and  
238 preliminary phytochemical analysis of ethanolic extracts of *Alstonia boonei*. *Nigerian*  
239 *Journal of Microbiology* 20 (2): 896-899
- 240 14. Fagbohun, E.D., Asare, R.R. and Egbebi, A.O. (2010). Chemical composition and  
241 antimicrobial activities of *Urena lobata* L. (Malvaceae) *Journal of Medicinal Plant*  
242 *Research* 4(13), In Press.
- 243 15. Rahman, S.M., and Junaid, M. (2008) Antimicrobial activity of leaf extracts of  
244 *Eupatorium triplinerve Vehl.* against some human pathogenic bacteria and  
245 phytopathogenic fungi. *Bangladesh Journal of Botany* 37(1): 89-92.
- 246 16. Nair, R., T. Kalaraiya and S. Chanda (2005). Antibacterial activity of some selected  
247 Indian medicinal flora. *Turk. J. Biol.* 29: 41-4.
- 248 17. Joshi, B., Sah, G.P., Basnet, B.B., Bhatt, M.R., Sharma, D., Subedi, K., Pandey, J. and  
249 Malla, R. (2011). Phytochemical extraction and antimicrobial properties of different  
250 medicinal plant: *Ocimum sanctum* (Tulsi), *Eugenia Caryophyllata* (Clove), *Achrynanthes*  
251 *bidentata* (Datiwan) and *Azadirachta indica* (Neem). *Journal of Microbiology and*  
252 *Antimicrobials* 3(1): 1-7.
- 253 18. Fagbohun, E.D., Egbebi, A.O. and Lawal, O.U. (2012). Phytochemical Screening,  
254 Proximate Analysis And In-Vitro Antimicrobial Activities Of Methanolic Extract of  
255 *Cnidocolus Aconitifolius Leaves Intl. J. of Pharm. Sc. Rev. & Res.* 13(1):28-33.
- 256 19. Edeoga, H.O., Okwu, D.E. and Mbaebie, B.O. (2005). Phytochemical constituents of  
257 some Nigerian Medicinal plants. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.* 4(7): 685-688.
- 258 20. Perumal, S.R. and Ignacimuthu, S. (2000): Antibacterial activity of some folklore  
259 medicinal plants used by tribes in Western chats of India :69: 63-71.
- 260 21. Rates, S.M.K. (2001). Plants as sources of drugs. *Toxicons* 2001; 39: 603-613
- 261 22. Duke, J.A. and Ayensu, E.S. (1985). *Medicinal plants of China*. Mich. Reference  
262 Publications, Algonae, pp: 705.
- 263 23. Mantle, D., Eddeb, F. and Pickering, A.T. (2000). Comparison of relative antioxidant  
264 activities of British medicinal plant species *in vitro*. *J. Ethnopharmacol.*, 72:47-51.

265 24. Marjorie, C. (1999). Plant products as Antimicrobial Agents. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* 12:  
266 564-582.

267 25. Shimada T (2006). Salivary proteins as a defense against dietary tannins. *J. Chem. Ecol.*,  
268 32(6): 1149-1163.

269 26. Machen, T.E. and Forte, J.G. (1979). Gastric Secretion. In: Guibischil, G; Tasteson, D.C,  
270 Using H.H (Eds), *Handbook of transport organs* Springer, Berlin, pp. 693-747.

271 27. WHO. *WHO traditional medicine strategy 2002-2005*. WHO, Geneva, 2002.

272