Screening of *Commiphora schimperi* (O. Berg) from Iramba district in Tanzania for antibacterial activities

H.E. Nonga, R.H. Mdegela, E. Macha and F. Mabiki

Department of Veterinary Medicine and Public Health, Sokoine University of Agriculture, P.O. Box 3021, Morogoro, Tanzania.

E-mail: nongahezron@yahoo.co.uk / hezron@suanet.ac.tz

SUMMARY

Commiphora schimperi gum-resin from Iramba district, Tanzania was screened for in vitro antibacterial activities by disk diffusion method. The bacteria employed were Gram positive (Staphylococcus aureus and Bacillus subtilis) and Gram negative (Salmonella gallinarum and Escherichia coli). The results indicated that C. schimperi methanol and petroleum ether extracts were effective against S. aureus and B. subtilis. The methanol extract (200 mg/mL) caused complete zone of inhibition (17.6 \pm 0.5 mm) against S. aureus while petroleum ether extract (200 mg/mL) caused a mean inhibition zone of 12.3 \pm 0.9 mm against B. subtilis. This preliminary finding shows that C. schimperi gum-resin has antibacterial effects on some Gram positive bacteria and supports at least in part, the traditional knowledge of local users. Thus, C. schimperi gum-resin can be further subjected to phytochemical, pharmacological and toxicological evaluation.

Keywords: antibacterial activity, *Commiphora schimperi*, crude extract

INTRODUCTION

The Genus *Commiphora* includes 150–200 species widespread in the drier parts of tropical Africa particularly in Eastern Africa, with few species also occurring in Arabia and India. In Tanzania, the Commiphora spp. is mostly found in semiarid areas particularly in central regions (Singida and Dodoma) and in northern regions (Arusha and Kilimanjaro) (Hines and Eckman, 1993; Minja, 1999). Different species of Commiphora are used as sources of allopathic medicines, food, animal feeds and other general purpose uses (Paraskeva et al., 2007; Tadesse et al., Tanzania for In example. Commiphora is used as fodder for camels and goats and it is believed to possess antimicrobial medicinal and other properties (Hines and Eckman, 1993; Seed leaflet, 2008). Resin of Commiphora spp.

is the most important masticant among the Maasai and Batemi communities. The C. schimperi shrub extracts are also used in of ectoparasites in animals, control treatment of abscesses, dysentery, gastrointestinal ulcers, ringworm, wounds, rheumatism and helminthosis (Desta, 1995; Ibrahim and Ibrahim, 1998; Kaoneka et al., 2007). In Tanzanian local languages, the Commiphora is known by different names Mturituri (Swahili). (Maasai), Mguta (Sukuma), Dumbechanda (Taturu) and Mzilanzi (Gogo) (Minja 1999; Sambuta and Masola, 2008).

In Tanzania like in any other developing countries where medical and veterinary facilities cannot satisfy national demands, traditional medicine plays a big role in combating both human and animal diseases through the use of traditional healers (Maregesi *et al.*, 2008). The importance of

using medicinal plants can be attributed to number of reasons. including affordability and limited availability of western medicine as well as the trust in herbal medicine as an outcome from the witnessed positive results when applying herbs (WHO, 2002). More than 20,000 plant species are reported by WHO to be used for medicinal purposes (Gullece et al., 2006). However, most of medicinal plants have not been scientifically tested or documented (Swaleh, 1999; Maregesi et al., 2008). Despite the extensive traditional use of C. schimperi for treatment of different ailments in central Tanzania (Emmanuel Macha, Personal observation, 2009), the plant has not pharmacologically tested. Claims of the efficacy of C. schimperi in its traditional usage therefore require validation and accurate documentation. Thus, this study aimed to assess the antibacterial effects of C. schimperi crude extracts against selected Gram positive (Staphylococcus aureus and Bacillus subtilis) and Gram negative (Salmonella gallinarum and Escherichia coli) bacteria.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Crude extracts (gum resin) collection

The choice of the *C. schimperi* shrub to be tested for antibacterial activities based on the ethnopharmacological use through interviews with traditional healers. The crude extract (gum resin) was collected in February, 2009 in Mitala village, located in Iramba district of Singida region. By using a machete, stem incisions was made to enhance oozing of the gum resin. The gum resin was collected from different trees and pooled into sterile glass bottles and stored in cool box with ice pack during field sampling. The samples were subsequently transported to the laboratory at the Faculty Veterinary Medicine, Sokoine University of Agriculture, for antibacterial analysis. Identification of collected *C. schimperi* shrubs was done at the Department of Forest Biology, Sokoine University of Agriculture by Professor R.P.C. Temu. Voucher specimens were deposited in the same herbarium.

Preparation of the extract

Extraction of C. schimperi gum-resin with methanol

The extraction of *C. schimperi* gum-resin was done as described by Salamah and Zaid (1999) with some modifications. The extracts were all made with analytical grade solvents (Merck). One hundred grams of C. schimperi gum-resin was added with 200 mL of absolute methanol, thoroughly shaken to mix and left overnight at room temperature (25 °C). The mixture was separated by centrifugation (at 8000 rpm for 10 min) then the supernatant was decanted as methanol extract. This was repeated twice and the methanol extract was pooled in one bottle. The extract was concentrated in a rotary evaporator and further dried in a desiccator for three days. The extract was re-dissolved in the methanol to give a concentration of 200 mg/mL which was used in the antibacterial assay.

Extraction of C. schimperi gum-resin with other solvents

Two hundred grams of C. schimperi gumsubjected successive resin was to extraction with different solvents according to their polarities. The solvents used were petroleum ether, dichloromethane and ethanol, respectively. The 200 g of C. schimperi gum-resin was first mixed with 200 mL of absolute petroleum ether, mixed thoroughly and left overnight at room temperature (25 °C) to extract. The mixture was separated by centrifugation (at 8000 rpm for 10 minutes) and the supernatant was decanted as petroleum ether extract. repeated The extraction was for

dichloromethane and ethanol solvents. This resulted in three extracts namely: (i) petroleum ether extract; (ii) dichloromethane extract; and (iii) ethanol extract. Each extract was concentrated in a rotary evaporator, further dried in a desiccator for three days to allow more evaporation of the remaining solvents. Each solid extract was re-dissolved in the methanol to give a concentration of 200 mg/mL which was used in the antibacterial assay.

Antibacterial susceptibility testing

Antibacterial susceptibility test was performed on Muller Hinton (MH) Agar (Oxoid Ltd, Basingstoke, UK) by agar disc described diffusion method as Luangtongkum et al. (2007) with some modifications. B. subtilis and S. aureus cultures were used as Gram positive bacteria while E. coli and S. gallinarum as Gram negative bacteria. All test bacteria were obtained from the research laboratory of the Department of Veterinary Medicine and Public Health, Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania. Briefly, the MH agar was prepared in sterile glass plates. Each of the bacteria suspensions was prepared in a sterile normal saline and the suspensions were adjusted to a turbidity equivalent to a 0.5 McFarland standard. Sterile cotton-tipped swabs were used to transfer the inocula onto Mueller-Hinton plates to produce a confluent lawn of bacterial growth.

Then 100 μ l of the methanol and petroleum ether extracts was spotted onto paper discs (6 mm) and dried under sterilized conditions. Another set of paper discs were spotted with dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) and were used as negative controls. In each test performed, streptomycin (10 μ g), amoxicillin (10 μ g) and gentamicin (10 μ g) (Span Diagnostic, Surat India) antibiotic discs were used as positive control.

After the inocula on the plates were dried, the test discs were distributed over the inoculated plates by using a sterile forceps. Each plate was added with one disc of methanol extract (test material); streptomycin (10 µg), amoxicillin (10 µg) and gentamicin (10 µg) discs (positive controls) and DMSO as a negative control. The same was done for the petroleum ether extract. Each bacteria species was tested in triplicate for each extract. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. After the incubation period, the plate cultures were examined for inhibition zones around the wells. Results were recorded as presence or absence of zone of inhibition (Lennette, 1995) and the diameters of inhibition zones were measured with slipping callipers. The inhibitory zone around test paper disks indicated absence of bacterial growth and it was reported as positive (growth inhibition observed) and absence of zone as negative. For test and interpretation of the results the general guidelines of NCCLS (2002) and Gaudreau and Gibert (1997) followed.

RESULTS

The results of the current study revealed *C*. schimperi gum-resin antibacterial effects on some Gram positive bacteria, in particular S. aureus and B. subtilis (Table 1). None of the extracts showed any activity against the Gramnegative bacteria, S. gallinarum and E. coli. The C. schimperi methanol extract (200 mg/mL) caused complete zone of inhibition (17.6 \pm 0.5 mm) against S. aureus which is higher than the inhibition zone caused by 10 µg of amoxicillin and 10 ug of gentamicin. C. schimperi petroleum ether extract (200 mg/mL) caused a mean inhibition zone of 12.3 ± 0.9 mm against *B*. subtilis which is higher than the inhibition zone caused by 10 µg of amoxicillin on the same bacteria (Table 1).

Table 1. Antibacterial effectiveness of methanol, petroleum ether extracts and standard antibiotic discs

unitatione dises						
Bacteria	Mean inhibition zone ± Std deviation (mm)					
	Methanol	Petroleum	Streptomycin	Amoxicillin	Gentamicin	DMSO
	extract	ether extract	(10µg)	$(10 \mu g)$	$(10 \mu g)$	
	(50%)	(50%)				
S. gallinarum	Niz	niz	12.1 ± 0.3	18.0 ± 0	17.3 ± 0.1	niz
E. coli	Niz	niz	14.3 ± 0.6	14.3 ± 0.7	15.0 ± 1.1	niz
S. aureus	17.6 ± 0.5	9.3 ± 0.4	niz	10.0 ± 0	15.2 ± 0.6	niz
B. subtilis	11.2 ± 1.1	12.3 ± 0.9	20.4 ± 0.2	11.9 ± 0.6	17.0 ± 0	niz

Legend: niz: No inhibition zone

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to assess the antibacterial effects of C. schimperi crude extracts against selected Gram positive (S. aureus and B. subtilis) and Gram negative (S. gallinarum and E. coli) bacteria. It was generally found that C. schimperi gumresin has antibacterial effects on some Gram positive bacteria, in particular S. aureus and B. subtilis. This gives some preliminary evidences on the traditional use of C. schimperi in medical and veterinary practices in Tanzania. A study by Paraskeva et al. (2007) on crude extracts from 10 South Commiphora species also exhibited high antibacterial activity mostly against the Gram-positive bacteria.

However, none of C. schimperi crude extracts showed antimicrobial activities against Gram negative bacteria. The lack of activity of tested C. schimperi gum-resin may be explained by the fact that unlike Gram-positive bacteria. the lipopolysaccharide layer along with proteins and phospholipids are the major components in the outer surface of Gramnegative bacteria which offer a much more complex barrier system against permeation of foreign substances (in this case, the antibacterial agent) (Palombo and Semple, 2001; Denver and Maillard, 2002). This

also may apply on the different methods of preparing extracts from that used by traditional healers which may have led to separation or loss of some active ingredients. The traditional healers use the whole plant part without extraction or fractionation. In this way, a number of compounds when are acting synergistically may produce a particular therapeutic effect which may be missed upon separation. Further causes of these differences in antibacterial activity may well be found in inherent differences in strain sensitivity, and the mode of and choice of solvent for extraction.

The selection of *C. schimperi* for this study was based on its use to treat infectious diseases such as abscesses, dysentery, diarrhoea, ulcers and wounds. S. aureus was used since is amongst the microbes responsible for causing abscesses and sepsis of wounds, which were indicated to be treated by several plants by traditional healers. Nevertheless, B. subtilis and E. coli have been known to act as primary invaders or secondary infectious agent in a number of diseases and have been implicated in some cases of food poisoning and cause of dysentery (Turnbull and Kramer, 1991). S. gallinarum is known in causing diarrhoea and other signs in chickens. C. schimperi as an herbal medicine of the indigenous people in central and northern Tanzania may have helped to combat these microbes.

The antibacterial activity was also observed to differ based on the extracting solvent. The C. schimperi methanol extract was effective against S. aureus where it resulted into a complete zone of inhibition of 17.6 ± 0.5 mm at a concentration of 200 mg/mL which was comparable to that of gentamicin (10 µg) (Table 1). Similarly, petroleum ether extract caused a mean inhibition zone of 12.3 ± 0.9 mm comparable to that of amoxicillin (10 µg). The high activities revealed by the methanol and petroleum ether extracts may be due to high polarity of these solvents which naturally has the ability of extracting phytoconstituents quantity of high (Marjorie 1999). Our results are also in agreement with those of Salamah and Zaid (1999) and Paraskeva et al. (2007) who differences in antibacterial observed activities of Commiphora spp. that varied depending on the extracting solvents. In addition, the high antibacterial activities in methanol extract may be ascribed to the presence of polyphenol compounds such as tannins which are known to have a wide range of non-specific anti-infective actions. However, if tannins were solely responsible for the activity presented by these results, this activity would be observed against all organisms and would not be limited to Gram-positive bacteria. Thus, tannins may be partially responsible for the antibiotic activity observed in Gram-positive bacteria.

Based on polarity of the extracting solvents, petroleum ether extracts ranked highest (42%) followed by methanol extracts (24%) then dichloromethane (2.4%) and least active were ethanol extracts (1.9%). The results clearly indicate that the total extractable lipids of resin-gum varied according to the solvent used. Our results are in line with the findings by

George and Pandalai (1949) who reported that among organic solvents, petroleum ether was the best extracting solvent for medicinal plants. It was also noted that, successive extraction and concentration using rotary evaporator was a good method over direct methanol extraction of *C. schimperi* gum-resin.

It is therefore concluded that although some studies reported on exotic C. schimperi, this study represents the first account on the in vitro antibacterial potential of this natural product from Iramba district, Tanzania. The in vitro investigations indicated that C. schimperi gum-resin display promising antibacterial activity against Gram positive bacterial species, in particular S. aureus and B. subtilis hence this plant can be further subjected phytochemical, to toxicological pharmacological and evaluation. This observation provides a scientific basis for use of this plant in traditional medicine, especially in the treatment of wounds and diarrhoea where S. aureus and B. subtilis are commonly involved.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to acknowledge the technical assistance received from Mr. P. Mkuchu, and Mr. G. Makingi. Prof. R.P.C. Temu of the Department of Forest Biology, Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania is thanked for the identification of *C. schimperi* shrubs. This work was funded by Tanzania Higher Education Students Loan Board.

REFERENCES

Denyer SP, Maillard JY. Cellular impermeability and uptake of biocides and antibiotics in Gramnegative bacteria. *J Appl Microbiol Symp Suppl*, 92: 35–45, 2002.

Desta B. Ethiopian traditional herbal drugs. Part I: Studies on the toxicity and therapeutic activity

- of local taenicidal medications. *J Ethnopharmacol*, 45: 27–33, 1995.
- Gaudreau C, Gibert H. Comparison of disc diffusion and Agar dilution methods for antibiotic susceptibility testing of *Campylobacter jejuni* subsp. *jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli. J Antimicrob Chemoth*, 39: 707–712, 1997.
- George M, Pandalai KM. Investigations on plant antibiotics. Part IV. Further search for antibiotic substances in Indian medicinal plants. *Indian J Med Res*, 37: 169–181, 1949.
- Gullece A, Aslan A, Sokmen M, Sahin F, Adiguzel A, Agar G, Sokmen A. Screening the antioxidant and antimicrobial properties of the lichens *Parmelia saxatilis*, *Platismatia glauca*, *Ramalina pollinaria*, *Ramalina polymorpha* and *Umbilicaria nylanderian*. *Phytomedicine*, 13: 515–521, 2006.
- Hines DA, Eckman K. Indigenous multipurpose trees of Tanzania: Uses and economic benefits for people. FAO corporate document repository, Ottawa, 1993. Available at http://www.fao.org/docrep/X5327e/X5327e00.h tm. Accessed on 23/6/2011.
- Ibrahim F, Ibrahim B. The Maasai Herbalists in Arusha Town, Tanzania. GeoJournal, 46: 141– 154, 1998.
- Kaoneka B, Mollel M, Lyatuu F. Leaf essential oils composition and tick repellency activity of *Commiphora swynnertonii. J Biol Res Thessal*, 8: 213–216, 2007.
- Lennette EH, Balows A, William J, Hausler WJ, Shadomy HJ. (Eds). Manual of clinical microbiology (4th Edn.). American association for microbiology, Washington, D.C., pp. 978– 987, 1995.
- Luangtongkum T, Morishita TY, El-Tayeb AB, Ison AJ, Zhang Q. Comparison of antimicrobial susceptibility testing of Campylobacter spp. by the agar dilution and the agar disk diffusion methods. J Clin Microbiol, 45: 590–594, 2007.
- Maregesi SH, Pieters L, Ngassapa OD, Apers S, Vingerhoets R, Cos P, Berghe DAV, Vlietinck AJ. Screening of some Tanzanian medicinal plants from Bunda district for antibacterial, antifungal and antiviral activities. *J Ethnopharmacol*, 119: 58–66, 2008.
- Marjorie MC. Plant products as antimicrobial agents. *Clin Microbiol Rev*, 12: 564–582, 1999.

- Minja MM. The Maasai wander plants. Paper presented at the people and plants training workshop held at the tropical pesticide research institute Arusha, Tanzania 15th to 18th March, 1999
- NCCLS. Perfomance Standards for Antimicrobial Disk Diffusion and Dilution Susceptibility Tests for Bacteria Isolated from Animals. National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS), Pennsylvania, 1999.
- Palombo EA, Semple SJ. Antibacterial activity of traditional Australian medicinal plants. *J Ethnopharmacol*, 77: 151–157, 2001.
- Paraskeva MP. A phytochemical and pharmacological study of ten *Commiphora* species indigenous to South Africa. MSc dissertation. University of the Wiwatersrand, Johannesburg, 2007.
- Salamah AA, Zaid AMA. Antimicrobial Activity of *Commiphora quandricincta* from Saudi Arabia. *J King Saud Univ*, 12: 1–10, 1999.
- Sambuta AK, Masola SN. The efficacy of *Commiphora swynnertonii* extracts in the control of external parasites in livestock. First costech scientific and technological conference progme. *In*: Proceedings papers of COSTECH 24-26th May, 2006, pg. 42, 2006.
- Seed leaflet No. 138. Commiphora africana (A. Rich) Engel, 2008. Available at http://www.SL.life.ku.dk. Accessed on 18/6/2011.
- Swaleh, A. Ethnoveterinary Medicine in Ormaland Kenya. MSc dissertation in Tropical Animal Production and Health. Centre for Tropical Veterinary Medicine (CTVM), University of Edinburgh, 1999.
- Tadesse W, Desalegn G, Alia R. Natural gum and resin bearing species of Ethiopia and their potential applications. *Invest Agrar-Sist Res*, 16: 211–221, 2007.
- Turnbull PCB, Kramer JM. *Bacillus*. In: Barlows, A., Hausler Jr., W.J., Herrmann, K.L., Isenberg, H.D., Shadomy, H.J. (Eds.), Manuals of Clinical Microbiology, 5th ed. American Society of Microbiology, Washington DC, pp. 345–355, 1991.
- World Health Organization (WHO). WHO Traditional Medicine Strategy 2002–2005. World Health Organization, Geneva, WHO/EDM/TRM/2002.1, 2002.