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ARTICLE

Antibiogram and the efficacy of leaf extract of Chromolena odorota (L.) R. M. King and H. Robinson on bacteria isolated from some swimming pools within Akure metropolis
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Screening of bacteria isolated from the environment for the capability to control mosquito larva
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**Antibiogram and the efficacy of leaf extract of Chromolena odorata (L.) R. M. King and H. Robinson on bacteria isolated from some swimming pools within Akure metropolis**

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Microorganisms being cosmopolitan are widely distributed in nature and can as well be found in swimming pools. These microorganisms contaminate swimming pools and other recreational water through indiscriminate defecation, contamination from rodents and birds etc. making these sources of water threat to human life. Concurrently, the resistant to conventional antibiotics has also increased the danger on people that are exposed to swimming pools, thus there is the need for alternative therapy. In view of this, study revealed the antibiogram of microorganisms isolated from swimming pools within Akure metropolis and the efficacy of *Chromolena odorata* as an alternative therapy to conventional antibiotics. The isolation, identification and antibiotic sensitivity of bacteria from selected swimming pools in Akure was carried out. Ethanol extract of the leaf of *C. odorata* was further tested on the isolates for comparative purpose with the commercial antibiotics using standard methods. The results of the experiment showed that the highest bacterial load of 7.10×10³ cfu/ml was obtained for Swan hotel, while the least bacterial load was recorded for Sun view hotel with a bacterial load of 2.83×10³ cfu/ml. Bacteria that were isolated and identified are *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Proteus vulgaris*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, *Bacillus subtilis* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. The antibiotic sensitivity of the isolates showed that ofloxacin and ciprofloxacin were able to exert inhibitory effect on all the isolates. Most of the antibiotics were however resisted by *P. aeruginosa*, except ofloxacin. The inhibitory evaluation of ethanol extract of *C. odorata* on the bacterial isolates showed that the extract had its highest inhibitory effect on *Proteus vulgaris* with a zone diameter of 7.9 mm. The extract was however resisted by *P. aeruginosa*. These results showed that these swimming pools house a variety of microorganisms, some of which are pathogenic and should therefore be disinfected on regular basis to prevent dissemination of these bacteria by swimmers. *C. odorata* is also is a good alternative antimicrobial agent especially to *P. vulgaris*.

**Key words:** Chromolena odorata, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus, Proteus vulgaris, swimming pools.

**INTRODUCTION**

"Public Pool" means an artificial basin constructed of concrete, steel, fiberglass or other relatively impervious material intended for recreational bathing, swimming, diving, or therapeutic purposes which is located either
indoors or outdoors and is provided with a controlled water supply and which is not used or intended to be used as a pool at a single family residence (GSRWE, 2000). The term also includes a pool located at a single family residence which is used or intended to be used for commercial or business purposes.

Microorganisms can be found in swimming pools and some other recreational water environments. These microorganisms may be introduced in a number of ways. Basically, the risk of infection has been implicated to feecal contamination of the water which may be as a result indiscriminate release of feaces by bathers, through contaminated source water or animals such as birds and rodents (CDC, 2001). Feecal matter can also be introduced into the water when a person has an accidental feecal release – AFR (through the release of formed stool or diarrhrhoea into the water) or residual feecal material on swimmers’ bodies is washed into the pool (CDC, 2001). Proper management of pools would have to the large extent prevented or reduced outbreaks related to swimming pools. Whereas, non feecal contaminations can be linked to the shedding of vomit, mucus, saliva or skin into the swimming pools by humans. These can be a major source of infection in other users of the pools (CDC, 2001). The release of these pathogens (opportunistic pathogens, viruses and fungi) can result to the development of skin infections, diarrhoea, among others. Similarly, public swimming pools may be exposed to pathogens from pests and rodents which can harbour lassa fever virus, ebola virus etc. especially when the environment is not properly cleaned (GSRWE, 2000).

Medicinal plants have been used for centuries as remedies for human diseases because they contain chemical components of therapeutic value (Nostro et al., 2000). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), more than 80% of the world’s population relies on traditional medicine for their primary healthcare needs (Ammara et al., 2009). Chromolaena odorata (L. f.) King and Robinson (synonym: Eupatorium odoratum L.) (Asteraceae) is a perennial scandent or semi-woody shrub. In traditional medicine, a decoction of the leaf is used as a cough remedy and as an ingredient with lemon grass and guava leaves for the treatment of malaria (Iwu et al., 1999). Other medicinal uses include anti-diarrheal, astringent, antispasmodic, anthypertensive, anti-inflammatory and diuretic (Iwu et al., 1999). A decoction of flowers is used as tonic, antipyretic and heart tonic (Bunyapraphatsara and Chokechijaroenporn, 2000).

The significance of the study is to show the various microorganisms of medical importance that are associated with swimming pool and to investigate the effect of C. odorata on the microorganisms isolated as an alternative treatment to antibiotics.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Collection of samples**

Sterile bottles (20 ml Plastilab containers made by Agary Pharmaceuticals in China) were used to collect swimming water samples (20 ml each from 6 different points-surface, bottom and mid-dept of up and down sides of each swimming pool) from selected hotels within Akure metropolis namely: Sunview Hotel located at Alagbaka. First Victoria, Bliss World at Ijapo Estate and Swan located along Ilesha-Akure Express way. These are the four major hotels in Akure metropolis with standard public swimming pools. Also, these hotels are strategically located in the four cardinal points of Akure (East, West, North and South of the town; hence their choice). In addition, these pools are mostly crowded on daily basis which makes them preferred for this research. The collection was done in triplicacy and transferred in an ice packed container within 1 h of collection to the Department of Microbiology laboratory, Federal University of Technology, Akure (FUTA) for necessary analyses.

**C. odorata** a common plant in Southwestern Nigeria was collected from bushes around Southgate area of The Federal University of Technology, Akure. The plant was taking to the Department of Crop Soil and Pest Management, Federal University of Technology, Akure for authentication. The plant was further identified as C. odorata by Prof. Oyelana, O. A.; a renown botanist in Elizade University, Ilara-Mokin, Ondo State, Nigeria.

**Isolation of microorganisms**

The four samples each from the study swimming pools were cultured on already prepared nutrient agar in triplicates, using the pour plate and streak method. Distinct colonies of bacteria were picked using sterile inoculating loop. These were streaked onto the surface of the prepared nutrient agar plate to obtain pure isolates for confirmation of their identities. Gram staining was carried out on the subculture to ascertain purity. Pure isolates were sub cultured on a double strength nutrient agar slant for further studies and identification. Cultural characterization of colonies; color, edge, elevation, surface, biochemical tests such as catalase, oxidase, indole production, coagulase, methyl red and citrate test as well as sugar fermentation (such as glucose, arabinose, fructose, maltose, sucrose, lactose, galactose, etc) using conventional methods (Holt et al., 1994) were employed.

**Preparation of the leaves**

The plant materials were collected in the afternoon of a sunny day in the rainy season and washed to reduce microbial load to a large extent. They were further air dried to remove water on the leave surfaces. The leaves were further dried in the laboratory oven at 60°C for two days. After sufficiently dried, a warping industrial blender was used to crush the leaves to powder and then weighed.

**Ethanolic extract preparation**

A hundred gram of pulverized powdered leaves of plant materials...
were weighed using an electronic weighing balance and weighed sample were soaked separately in a clean 250 ml conical flasks containing 200 mls of 98% ethanol. The mixture was vigorously stirred with a stirrer. After 72 h with interval stirring, the mixture was filtered using a clean filter paper (Whatman filter paper) into a clean beaker and the filtrate was concentrated to dryness by evaporation using a steam bath at 90°C for 48 h. The filtrates were concentrated by evaporation using rotary evaporator. The standard extracts obtained were then stored in the refrigerator at 4°C as stated by (Mbajuka et al., 2014).

**Antibiotic sensitivity test**

The antibiotic sensitivity test was carried out in order to know the sensitivity of the microorganism to the different commercially available antibiotics. These antibiotics discs include: Augmentin, Amoxicillin, Ofloxacin, Gentamycin, Cotrimoxazole, Nitrofurantoin, Nalidixic acid and Tetracycline. Disc diffusion method was used to determine the effect of standard antibiotics on the bacterial isolates as described by Jayasingh and Parkinson (2008). Sterile Petri dishes were seeded aseptically with 1 ml each of 18 h old pure cultures of the test organisms each while about 15 ml of sterilized Muller-Hinton agar was poured aseptically on the seeded plates. The culture was first standardized using spectrophotometer and plate count methods at 2.0 ×10^5 cfu/ml. McFarland standard at 540 nm (0.050 spectrophotic reading) was used. The plate were swirled carefully for even distribution and allowed to gel. With the aid of sterile forceps the antibiotics discs (Optu standard antibiotic discs made by Optu medicals and equipments, United Kingdom) were placed firmly on solidified plates and incubated for 24 h at 37°C. After incubation, clear areas around the disc represent the zones of inhibition and the areas without clear zones were also observed. Seeded agar plates without antibiotics disc served as the control experiment. The zones of inhibition were measured in millimeter (mm). The experiment was carried out in triplicate.

**Susceptibility of isolates to extracts**

Mueller Hinton agar plates were inoculated with respective test organisms using syringe and needle. This was then streaked for each test organism. Plates were in triplicate for each test organism for the extract. The plates were allowed to set properly for 15 min in a lamina flow. Using sterile cork-borer of 4 mm diameter well was made on the streaked plate of Mueller Hinton agar with the test organisms. About 0.4 ml of 100 mg/ml concentration of the ethanol extract of *C. odorata* was introduced into the well. This was incubated at 37°C for 18-24 h to observe the zone of growth inhibition produced by the extract (Mbajuka et al., 2014).

**Statistical analysis of result**

Results obtained were subjected to descriptive one way analyses of variance, SPSS version 16 Microsoft windows 7 and Duncan multiple range tests was used as follow up test.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Table 1 shows the mean microbial load of from the four swimming pool water assayed for. The sun view hotel had the least microbial load of 2.83×10^3 cfu/ml, while swan hotel had the highest microbial load of 7.10×10^3 cfu/ml. Figure 1 on the other hand showed the percentage occurrence of the different bacteria isolated from the swimming pool water of the different hotels. The most prominent of the bacteria isolated which was present in all the four hotels swimming water is the genus *Staphylococcus*, especially *S. aureus*. *Proteus vulgaris* was isolated from Bliss world hotel swimming water, while *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was isolated from First Victoria and Swan hotels respectively.

Figure 2 shows the diameter of zones of inhibition of commercial antibiotics on the bacterial isolates. *Bacillus subtilis* was the most susceptible to all the commercial antibiotics while *P. aeruginosa* was the least susceptible to all the commercial antibiotics used. Table 2 shows the diameter of zones of inhibition of commercial antibiotics on the bacterial isolates. *P. vulgaris* was the most susceptible bacteria with a diameter of zone of inhibition of 7.90±1.05 mm while *P. aeruginosa* was completely resistant to the extract. Table 3 and Figure 3 shows minimum inhibitory concentration of ethanol extract of *C. odorata* on the bacterial isolates as well as the diagrammatic comparative diameter of zones of inhibition of commercial antibiotics and ethanol extract of *C. odorata* on bacterial isolates.

**DISCUSSION**

The results obtained in this work have shown that most swimming pool harbour different species of bacteria. According to Yoder et al. (2004), the swimming pool cannot be sterile as it is often found in an open space or air area. However, according to World Health Organization procedure for owning and operating a swimming pool, a strict adherence to the constant sterilization with the use of chemicals such as chlorine to sterilize the water in order to minimize contamination must be followed (WHO, 2008). Although, no special regulation for the microbial level or load for swimming pool water, the microorganisms as well as the microbial level should not be too high. Aho and Hirn (2001), already reported that the higher the microbial load, the greater the risks of the presence pathogenic bacteria.

The presence of bacteria such as *S. aureus*, *P. vulgaris*, *B. subtilis* and *P. aeruginosa* isolated from these swimming pools poses questions such as how harmful are they, how did they get into the water and can people

**Table 1. Mean microbial load of swimming pools water samples.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Sample source</th>
<th>Mean microbial load (cfu/ml)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sun view hotel</td>
<td>2.83×10^3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bliss world hotel</td>
<td>3.30×10^3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>First Victoria hotel</td>
<td>5.90×10^3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Swan hotel</td>
<td>7.10×10^3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. Percentage occurrence of bacteria isolated.

Table 2. Diameter of zones of inhibition of ethanol extract of *Chromolena odorata*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Isolate number</th>
<th>Bacterial name</th>
<th>Diameter zones of inhibition (mm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><em>Staphylococcus aureus</em></td>
<td>5.45±0.50b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><em>Proteus vulgaris</em></td>
<td>7.90±1.05c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><em>Staphylococcus epidermidis</em></td>
<td>5.20±0.10b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td><em>Bacillus subtilis</em></td>
<td>2.00±0.00a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td><em>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</em></td>
<td>0.00±0.00a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values in the same row carrying the same superscript are not significantly different according to Duncan's multiple range tests at (P≤0.05).

Table 3. Minimum inhibitory concentration of ethanol extract of *Chromolena odorata*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Isolate number</th>
<th>Bacterial name</th>
<th>Minimum inhibitory concentration (mg/ml)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><em>Staphylococcus aureus</em></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><em>Proteus vulgaris</em></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><em>Staphylococcus epidermidis</em></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td><em>Bacillus subtilis</em></td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td><em>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</em></td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


who swim in such pools be infected or affected CDC (2000) in an attempt to answer these questions stated that certain factors such as the dose of the organism present, health status of the swimmer, type of chemical
sterilant used are factors to be checked before concluding the answers. 

*S. aureus* having the highest percentage of occurrence results from its abundance on the body of human which is its normal flora Valarmathi et al. (2013). The presence of *S. aureus* on the skin might not pose any threat as it is the normal flora of human skin, but can pose major threat when it finds its way into the mucosal region of the skin where it can cause cellulitis, impetigo septicemia etc (Vos, 2012; Kumar et al., 2007). Consequent release of these bacteria can result to Pelvic Inflammatory Disease (PID) (Bartlett et al., 2013) and Urinary Tracts Infections (UTI) (Beerepoot et al., 2012) which are mostly associated with *Pseudomonas* sp, *Klebsiella* sp, *Escherichia coli* and *S. aureus* most especially among females due to their short clitoris.

The relevance of the standard antibiotics used in this research is that these hotels and other hotels with commercial swimming pool can and should employ the liquid forms of some of these antibiotics in treatment of the water after chlorination. According to Bartlett et al., 2013, there is need for hotels to have swimming pool water quality control officers who are microbiologists that will constantly carry out isolation and susceptibility testing of isolates from these pools to enhance constant treatments of these pools. This will prevent further contamination and dissemination of some of these pathogenic bacteria.

The inhibitory evaluation of ethanol extract of *C. odorata* on the bacterial isolates showed that the extract had its highest inhibitory effect on *P. vulgaris*, *S. aureus*, *B. subtilis* and *S. epidermidis*. The inhibitory activity against *S. aureus* by the ethanolic extract of *C. odorata* is in accordance with the report of Mbajiuka et al. (2014); however, *C. odorata* was resisted by *P. aeruginosa*, which is in agreement with the result obtained by Rojas et al. (2006) and Nascimento et al. (2010), who found various plant extracts resisted by *Pseudomonas* sp. But this is not in agreement with Srisuda et al. (2016) who reported that the ethanolic extract of *C. odorata* as inhibitory effect on *P. aeruginosa*. Variation in the antibacterial efficacy on *Pseudomonas* sp may be due to genetic make-up of the different strains of *Pseudomonas* sp. Whereas, antibiotics such as ofloxacin, ciprofloxacin which are used as positive control exert the highest inhibitory effect on all the bacteria isolated and this is in agreement with the result obtained by Donlan (2002).

**CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

These results have shown that these swimming pools house a variety of microorganisms, some of which are pathogenic and should therefore be disinfected on regular basis to prevent dissemination of these bacteria by swimmers. Swimmers suspected to be infected should not be permitted to swim; therefore medical records should be obtained before anyone is allowed to use the swimming pools. There is absence of feacal indicators such as *E. coli* and this may be that the focus of the hotels management is only eradication of feacal indicators from the swimming pool, whereas there could be other life threatening bacteria in the pools. In view of this, attention should also been drawn to eradication of other pathogenic and resistant bacteria from the swimming pools. *C. odorata* has also been noted for its antibacterial potentials and can then be further developed as an alternative therapy as many pathogens are becoming resistant to conventional antibiotics and some of these antibiotics have various side effects to human being.

**Conflict of interests**

The authors have not declared any conflict of interest.

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Screening of bacteria isolated from the environment for the capability to control mosquito larva

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Malaria fever is a major disease that has killed millions of people in tropical and subtropical regions of the world. Mosquitoes are vectors of this debilitating and fatal disease. Therefore, mosquito control becomes paramount using environmentally friendly biological agents instead of chemicals. Water samples obtained from the gutters and water logged areas and soil samples analyzed resulted in 18 different bacteria isolates identified as Staphylococcus sp., Streptococcus sp., Shigella sp., Salmonella sp., Kiebsiella sp., Micrococcus sp., Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas sp., Proteus vulgaris, Proteus penneri, Bacillus sp., Serratia sp., Sporolactobacillus sp., Listeria sp., Clostridium sp., Lactobacillus sp., Enterococcus sp and Citrobacter sp. The activities of these bacteria against 8 day old mosquito larva at different concentrations and volumes were determined. At the end of the screening period of 7 days with bacteria concentration of $3.0 \times 10^8$ cfu/ml, Bacillus sp. showed 80% activity, Clostridium sp. 50% activity, Proteus vulgaris and Proteus penneri 20% activity each against the mosquito larva. At bacteria concentration of $3.0 \times 10^5$ cfu/10 ml, the activities of the bacteria against the mosquito larva were Bacillus sp. 100%, Clostridium sp. 85%, Sporolactobacillus sp. 60%, while Proteus vulgaris and Proteus penneri 40% each. Lactobacillus sp had 35% activity. The rest of the bacteria isolates had no activity or insignificant activities. Other than Bacillus sp which is a known bioinsecticide, Clostridium sp. and Sporolactobacillus sp. can be genetically modified to be used as bioinsecticides as man continues to search for alternative means of combating mosquito borne diseases.

Key words: Larvicide, larva, gutters, mosquito, vectors, activity.

INTRODUCTION

Malaria is spread by mosquitoes which breed in open water and spend most of their larva stage feeding on fungi and microorganisms on water surfaces. There are over 200 million cases of malaria each year and, in 2009, malaria was responsible for 781000 deaths worldwide (WHO, 2009). In 2015, 95 countries and territories had malaria transmission. About 3.2 billion people, almost half of the world’s population, are at risk of malaria (WHO, 2015). Malaria is a life-threatening disease caused by parasites that are transmitted to people through the bites of infected female Anopheles mosquitoes. Malaria is preventable and curable, and increased efforts are...
dramatically reducing the malaria burden in many places. Between 2000 and 2015, malaria incidence among populations at risk (the rate of new cases) fell by 37% globally. In that same period, malaria death rates among populations at risk fell by 60% globally among all age groups, and by 65% among children under 5 (WHO, 2015). The most effective method of reducing the spread of malaria is to control the larva population (Bukhari et al., 2011). The intensive use of chemical insecticides led to the development of resistant insect populations resulting in a reduced control and often to a negative impact on various non-target organisms and on the environment in general (John et al., 2007). Recent efforts to reduce broad spectrum toxins added to the environment have brought biological insecticides back into vogue (Davidson, 1982).

Mosquito-borne diseases such as malaria, cause extensive morbidity and mortality and are a major economic burden within disease-endemic countries (Sachs and Malaney, 2002; Boutayeb, 2006). As vectors of these debilitating and fatal diseases, these insects threaten more than three billion people in both tropical and sub-tropical regions (Sharma, 1999; Snow et al., 2005). The use of pesticides to control mosquitoes in the various stages of the life cycle of mosquitoes have been shown to have weaknesses and limitations as most of the mosquito populations have grown resistance to them and many people are concerned about their harmful effects on the environments, animals, plants and on human (Coleman et al., 2006; Coleman and Hemingway, 2007). Bacterial larvicides have been used with considerable success in nuisance insect and vector control programmes for almost two decades. However, current operational cost for larvicides based on Bacillus thuringiensis subspecies Isrealensis and Bacillus sphaericus are high even though they have been investigated and considered environmentally friendly for mosquito control (Poopathi and Abidha, 2010). In view of that, there is need to deepen the search for more potent larvicide producing bacteria. Therefore, this research work will fill the missing gap on the quest for malaria parasite and dengue fever control.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Samples collection

Soil samples of 100 g each were collected using sterile spatula at different locations and stored in sterile screw capped vials. These were pooled together to form a composite. Water samples of 100 ml each were collected from water-logged locations, drainages/gutters and culverts using sterile containers. These water samples were collected from about 2-3 cm below the surface of the water body area. All were mixed to form a composite. The samples were taken to the laboratory for analysis.

Microbiological analysis of the samples

One gram of the soil sample was weighed and transferred aseptically into a test tube containing 9 ml of sterile water and placed on a rotary shaker at 100 rpm for 30 min to dislodge the bacterial cells from the soil particles. The supernatant was serially diluted up to 10°. Similarly, water samples were diluted up to 10° with sterile water (Prescott et al., 2002). One milliliter each from the 10° and 104 were plated on blood agar, nutrient agar and Polymixin egg yolk mannitol broth thymol blue agar (PEMBA) using spread plate method. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 18-24 h. After incubation, the plates were examined for the presence of discrete colonies. Characteristic discrete colonies on the different media were isolated and purified by sub culturing on nutrient agar.

Identification of isolates

Pure colonies were stocked and characterized by Gram staining and biochemical tests. The following biochemical tests were performed: catalase, oxidase, lecithenase production, citrate utilization, MR-VP, indole production and nitrate reduction, urease activity, starch hydrolysis, gelatin hydrolysis, motility and sugar fermentation.

Mosquito larva acquisition

Rain water was obtained using a wide mouth container during rain and kept outside for a few days. Emergence of mosquito larva was monitored until enough larva were observed in the container on the 8th day. These larva were allowed to breed in their natural environment except during the screening period which lasted for 7 days.

Screening of bacterial isolates for capability to control mosquito larvae

Samples of varying volume each from the stock culture was used to screen for mosquito larvicidal activity through bioassay. A loopful of bacterial cells from the nutrient agar slant was inoculated into 10 ml of nutrient broth and incubated at 30°C on a rotary shaker (200 rpm) for 72 h. Varying volumes of 1, 2, 5 and 10 ml of each of the bacterial isolate at a concentration of about 1 million bacterial cells were tested against 20 larvae of anopheles mosquito in 250 ml of distilled water contained in transparent glass jars. Appropriate controls without the addition of the bacteria culture but containing 1, 2, 5 and 10ml of uninoculated distilled water were maintained. The larvicidal activity of each bacterial isolate was monitored for a period of 7 days. Both the bacterial cultures and controls had 20 larvae each. Counting of the viable larvae was done every day for the period of the screening. A bacterial isolate was considered potent if it both delayed metamorphosis beyond 6 days and caused death of the test larvae.

RESULTS

Eighteen different bacteria species were isolated and identified from the soil and water samples. The identified bacteria species were Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus sp., Shigella sp., Salmonella sp., Klebsiella sp., Micrococcus sp., Escherichia coli, Pseudomonas sp., Proteus vulgaris, Proteus penneri, Bacillus sp., Serratia sp., Sporolactobacillus sp., Listeria sp., Clostridium sp., Lactobacillus sp., Enterococcus sp. and Citrobacter sp. Mosquito larvalicidal activities of the bacterial isolates at a bacterial concentration of 3.0 x 10^8 cfu in 1 ml of distilled water were determined through bioassay by exposing larval mosquito to the bacterial cultures and controls. The larvicidal activity was monitored for 7 days. Both the bacterial cultures and controls had 20 larvae each. Counting of the viable larvae was done daily during the period of the screening. A bacterial isolate was considered potent if it both delayed metamorphosis beyond 6 days and caused death of the test larvae.
Table 1. Larvicidal activities of the bacteria isolates at a bacterial concentration of $3.0 \times 10^8$ cfu in 1 ml of nutrient both on 8-day old mosquito larvae.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Micro-organism</th>
<th>Volume of each bacterium inoculated (ml)</th>
<th>No. of 8 day old mosquito larva in 250ml H$_2$O</th>
<th>No. of 8 day old mosquito larva alive at the beginning of the screening period</th>
<th>No. of 8 days of mosquito larvae alive within 5 days of screening period</th>
<th>No. of 8 day old mosquito larvae dead at the end of 7 screening days</th>
<th>Mortality rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Staphylococcus sp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Streptococcus sp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shigella sp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Salmonellasp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Klebsiellasp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Micrococcus sp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Escherichia coli</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pseudomonaspp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proteus vulgaris</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Proteus penneri</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bacillus sp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Serratia sp.</strong></td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sporolactobacillus sp.</strong></td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
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</tr>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enterococcus sp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Citrobacter sp.</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Water in an 8-day old mosquito larvae is shown in Table 1 while the larvicidal activities at a bacterial concentration of $6.0 \times 10^8$ cfu in 2 ml of distilled water on 8-day old mosquito larvae is shown in Table 2. Tables 3 and 4 show the larvicidal activities of the bacterial isolates of concentration $1.5 \times 10^9$ and $3.0 \times 10^9$ cfu in 5 and 10 ml, respectively.

DISCUSSION

In the last decade, many investigations have been carried out to find potential bioagents for the control of vector mosquitoes. Importantly, the biocontrol of mosquito larvae came to the fore recently. Fungi, bacteria and viruses are used either directly or after manipulation to control insect populations (John et al., 2007). Mosquito larval control is not an entirely new strategy for managing transmissible diseases. Historically, many successful campaigns of mosquito eradication had relied heavily on management of larval habitats. The renewed interest in larval interventions led to the development of environmentally friendly and powerful microbial insecticides such as *Bacillus thuringiensis israeliensis* (Rose, 2001; Mittal, 2003). The present research investigated some promising bacteria for mosquito control. The results of the study revealed that *Bacillus* sp., *Clostridium* sp. and *Sporolactobacillus* sp had high larvicidal rates: 100%, 85% and 60%, respectively, at $3.0 \times 10^9$ cfu/ml. This is in agreement with the findings of Poopathi and Abidha (2010), Youssef et al. (2013). *Clostridium* and *Sporolactobacillus* species can be used as effective bioinsecticides in the control of mosquito larvae other than *Bacillus* sp. More recently, the anaerobic bacterium *Clostridium bifermentans* subsp. Malaysia has been reported to have high mosquitocidal activity (Qureshi et
Table 2. Larvicidal activities of the bacteria isolates at a bacterial concentration of $6.0 \times 10^8$ cfu in 1 ml of nutrient both on 8-day old mosquito larvae.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Micro-organism</th>
<th>Volume of each bacterium inoculated (ml)</th>
<th>No. of 8 day old mosquito larvae in 250ml H2O</th>
<th>No. of 8 day old mosquito larvae alive at the beginning of the screening period</th>
<th>No. of 8 days of mosquito larvae alive within 5 days of screening period</th>
<th>No. of 8 days old mosquito larvae dead at the end of 7 screening days</th>
<th>Mortality rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staphylococcus sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Streptococcus sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shigella sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salmonella</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klebsiella sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micrococcus sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escherichia coli</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudomonas sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proteus vulgaris</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proteus penneri</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacillus sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serratia sp.</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sporolactobacillus sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listeria sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clostridium sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lactobacillus sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enterococcus sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Citrobacter sp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This agrees with the works done by Goldberg and Margalit (1977), Margalit and Dean (1985) and Hemstadt et al. (1986) that strains of these bacteria have shown toxicity towards dipteran mosquito larvae thus widening the scope of biological control of mosquitoes with these bacteria. The problem with Clostridium sp. is that the species are pathogenic to humans. It is therefore not logical to use it as a bioinsecticide.

From the present study, the potential mosquito larvical isolates, Bacillus sp., Clostridium sp. and Sporolactobacillus sp. are spore-forming bacteria which is a distinct and common known characteristic among bioinsecticide bacteria. This finding is in accordance with that obtained by Baumann et al. (1985) that toxicity for mosquito larvae has been associated with the formation of toxic proteins during sporulation and/or vegetative growth. In contrast, De Barjac and Frachon (1990) suggested that amorphous structures observed close to the spores could be responsible for toxicity and not the spores. Therefore, it can be deduced that the larvicidal capability of these bacteria could be their spores. Presently, only B. thuringiensis (Bt), B. thuringiensis israelensis (Bti) and B. sphaericus are used in the control of mosquito larva. With proper genetic manipulation of Sporolactobacillus sp., it will join the league of bioinsecticides. Also, Clostridium bifermentans subsp Malaysia has been discovered to show very high potency against mosquito larva which suggests that the species isolated from this study has very high potential.

Conflict of Interests

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.
Table 3. Larvicidal activities of the bacteria isolates at density of $1.5 \times 10^9$ cfu in 1 ml of nutrient both on 8-day old mosquito larvae.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Microorganism</th>
<th>Volume of each bacterium inoculated (ml)</th>
<th>No. of 8 day old mosquito larva in 250ml H2O</th>
<th>No. of 8-day old mosquito larva alive at the beginning of the screening period</th>
<th>No. of 8 days of mosquito larvae alive within 5 days of screening period</th>
<th>No. of 8 days old mosquito larvae dead at the end of 7 days screening</th>
<th>Mortality rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Streptococcus sp</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Klebsiellasp</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
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<tr>
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<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
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<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterococcus sp</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citrobacter sp</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Larvicidal activities of the bacteria isolates at a bacterial density of $3.0 \times 10^9$ cfu in 1 ml of nutrient both on 8-day old mosquito larvae.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of microorganism</th>
<th>Volume of each bacterium inoculated (ml)</th>
<th>No. of 8 day old mosquito larva in 250 ml H2O</th>
<th>No. of 8-day old mosquito larva alive at the beginning of the screening period</th>
<th>No. of 8 days of mosquito larvae alive within 5 days of screening period</th>
<th>No. of 8 days old mosquito larvae dead at the end of 7 days screening</th>
<th>Mortality rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Streptococcus sp</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REFERENCES


African Journal of Bacteriology Research

Related Journals Published by Academic Journals

- Biotechnology and Molecular Biology Reviews
- African Journal of Microbiology Research
- African Journal of Biochemistry Research
- African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology
- African Journal of Food Science
- African Journal of Plant Science
- Journal of Bioinformatics and Sequence Analysis
- International Journal of Biodiversity and Conservation