



ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Bioactive compounds and antimicrobial activity of extracts from fermented African locust bean (*Parkia biglobosa*) against pathogenic microorganisms

Rachael Nkechi Eboma¹ , Clement Olusola Ogidi^{2*} , Bamidele Juliet Akinyele¹ ¹ Department of Microbiology, The Federal University of Technology, PMB 704 Akure, Nigeria² Biotechnology Unit, Department of Biological Sciences, Kings University, PMB 555, Odeomu, Nigeria

Abstract

Background: The challenges of multiple antibiotic resistance by pathogenic microorganisms has necessitated the need for a continuous search for new and effective antimicrobial bioactive compounds. **Objectives:** In this study, the antimicrobial activity of extracts from fermented condiment from *Parkia biglobosa* was investigated against some pathogenic microorganisms. **Materials and Methods:** Gas chromatography - mass spectrometry (GC-MS) was used to identify bioactive compounds in *n*-hexane extract (oil). Aqueous and *n*-hexane extracts of locust beans were tested against clinical isolates; viz., *Klebsiella* spp., *Aeromonas hydrophilia*, *Citrobacter braakii*, *Enterobacter aerogenes*, *Shigella dysenteriae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Salmonella typhi*, *Escherichia coli*, *Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), *Aspergillus* spp. and *Candida albicans* using agar well diffusion method. **Results:** The study revealed the phytochemicals in oil as phenols (41.8 mg/100g), flavonoids of 19.37 mg/100g, saponins (16.7 mg/100g), alkaloids (22.9 mg/100g), steroids (6.9 mg/100g), terpenoids (10.0 mg/100g) and cardiac glycosides (3.3 mg/100g). The aqueous extract contains phenols (33.7 mg/100g), flavonoids (12.3 mg/100g), alkaloids (17.6 mg/100g), saponins (5.0 mg/100g) and cardiac glycosides (1.2 mg/100g). The bioactive compounds in the *n*-hexane extract were ricinoleic acid, *p*-cymene, octadecanoic acid, *n*-hexadecanoic acid and others. Oil from fermented locust bean exhibited zones of inhibition ranging from 5 mm to 14 mm against the tested isolates at 10 mg/mL, while the aqueous extract displayed inhibition zones of 4 mm to 10 mm at 10.0 mg/mL. **Conclusion:** The chemical constituents in locally fermented condiment (locust bean) are responsible for pronounced antimicrobial properties. Hence, the condiment can be exploited for medicinal purposes.

Keywords: Fermented food, condiment, *n*-hexane, phytochemicals and antimicrobials.

Received: October 22, 2020 / Accepted: December 19, 2020 / Published: January 01, 2021

1 Introduction

The development of resistant genes in bacteria is one of the mechanisms that support their natural adaptation to the presence of antimicrobial agents¹. Resistance to drugs by microorganisms are increasing despite the fact that pharmaceutical industries are producing a number of new antibiotics^{2,3}. Infections as a result of recurrent multiple antimicrobial resistance have claimed at least 50,000 lives in many parts of the world⁴. It is estimated that if there is a continuous rise in resistance levels by 2050 it would lead to 10 million deaths annually^{4,5}.

Plants play a pivotal role in the prevention or treatment of diseases and thus, reduce the adverse effects of conventional treatments⁶. An essential part of the investigation of plants is the identification of biologically active compounds in the plant, leading to further biological and pharmacological studies⁷. The plant kingdom represents a resource pool of species with potent medicinal potentials⁸. They constitute the richest source of pharmaceuticals, nutraceuticals and folk medicine products across the globe. The increasing side-effects of synthetic drugs on

humans and their influence on the evolution of resistant microbial strains triggered research into plant resources and their derivatives as suitable alternative therapeutics⁹. The natural products in plants will be continued to be exploited towards meeting the urgent need to develop new and effective drugs, since plant plays a leading role in the treatment of human diseases¹⁰.

P. biglobosa (Jacq.) R.Br. ex G. Don is a perennial dicotyledonous angiosperm that belongs to the family Fabaceae along with other tree legumes¹¹. The roots, fruits and stem bark of *P. biglobosa* are used in the treatment of infertility and veterinary medicine respectively among the 'Igede' people of Benue State in Nigeria¹². *P. biglobosa* leaves are traditionally used as an antihypertensive agent in Benin, Nigeria¹³, and a bark infusion of the plant is used as a tonic for diarrhea and anemia, as an analgesic drug, especially against dental pain with anti-inflammatory activities in Ivory Coast¹⁴. The bark was reported as a viable remedy for toothache, leprosy, eye sores,

* Corresponding author: Clement Olusola Ogidi, Biotechnology Unit, Department of Biological Sciences, Kings University, PMB 555, Odeomu, Nigeria. Tel: (+234) 7033830019, E-mail: clementogidi@yahoo.com

fever, hypertension, wounds such as ulcers and snakebites¹⁵. Fermented locust bean, a pungent condiment called “Iru” in Yoruba land, “Dawadawa” in Hausa, “Ogiri okpe” in Igbo, as “Sumbala”, “Netetou”, and “Kainda” in some parts of Africa is commonly added to flavor most traditional stews, sauces and soups. It is produced from the fermentation of the dried, dehulled and boiled seeds of *P. biglobosa*¹⁶. The African locust bean has gained its popularity from the consumption and economic value of its bean seeds¹⁷. Fermented foods are subjected to the action of microbial enzymes, which cause significant modification to food as a result of the desirable biochemical change. Natural fermentation can eliminate anti-nutrients and produce important nutrients¹⁸. Food condiments are prepared by traditional methods of uncontrolled solid substrate fermentation resulting in extensive hydrolysis of protein and carbohydrates¹⁹, yielding to more nutritional contents and higher therapeutic purposes²⁰. The presence of nutrients and phytochemicals in African locust beans have been linked to their medicinal importance but with few reports on bioactivities of oil (*n*-hexane) and water extracts from the local condiment. In this study, the antimicrobial activity of extracts from fermented African locust beans was tested against some clinical microorganisms.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Source of indicator microorganisms

Clinical isolates namely; *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Klebsiella oxytoca*, *Aeromonas hydrophilia*, *Enterobacter aerogenes*, *Shigella dysenteriae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Salmonella typhi*, *Citrobacter braakii*, *Escherichia coli*, *Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus*, *Aspergillus flavus*, *Aspergillus niger*, *Aspergillus fumigatus* and *Candida albicans* were gotten from Obafemi Awolowo University Teaching Hospital, Ile Ife and transported to Department of Microbiology, The Federal University of Technology, Akure, Nigeria.

2.2 Collection of samples

Fermented locust bean was purchased from King’s market in Akure, the samples were taken to the Microbiology laboratory, The Federal University of Technology, Akure for further studies.

2.3 Preparation of extracts from Fermented Condiment

Fermented locust bean was sundried to reduce the moisture content. The dried sample was ground and 170 g was transferred into a Soxhlet extractor with *n*-hexane²¹. After extraction, *n*-hexane was removed using a rotary evaporator to generate fermented locust bean oil. The method of Azwanida²² was utilized to obtain an aqueous extract from fermented locust bean with some modifications. This was performed by soaking 50 g of pulverized sample in 200 ml of distilled water for one hour and was filtered with Whatman No. 1 filter paper. The extract was freeze-dried (FD-10-MR, Xiangtan Xiangyi instrument Ltd, China) at -65 °C. The extracts were stored at -4 °C before used.

2.4 Phytochemicals assessment in extracts from fermented condiment

Determination of alkaloid and tannins was carried out according to Trease and Evans²³, saponin²⁴ phenol²⁵, flavonoid²⁶, while steroids, cardiac glycosides and anthraquinones were determined according to the methods of Abioye *et al.*²⁷.

2.5 Identification of bioactive compounds in the oil of fermented locust bean

Gas chromatography - mass spectrometry (GC-MS) was used to identify the various bioactive components present in oil from fermented locust beans²⁸. The GC-MS is composed of two major building blocks: the gas chromatograph and the mass spectrometer. The gas chromatograph utilizes a capillary column which depends on the column’s dimensions with a thickness of 1.00 µm, dimensions of 0.32 mm × 30 m and temperature limits of 60 °C to 325 °C. The column operates between 60 °C and 240 °C at a rate of 0.5 m/s with a pressure of 100.2 Kpa. The injector and detector were at 250 °C and 200 °C, respectively. Helium gas was used as a carrier gas at a flow rate of 0.46 m/s. The MS analysis was done based on comparative retention times, mass and peaks of chemical compounds using the computer-aided matching of unknown mass spectra of compounds with the known compounds stored in the software database library from the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), Washington, USA, having more than 62,000 patterns as the reference database.

2.6 Determination of the antimicrobial activity of oil and water extract obtained from fermented locust bean

Agar well diffusion method was used to evaluate the antimicrobial activity of fermented locust bean extracts²⁹. Briefly, tested microorganisms; inoculum turbidity was adjusted and compared to 0.5 McFarland standard. The absorbance of the solution was then checked using a spectrophotometer at 620 nm. Mueller Hinton agar was prepared according to the manufacturer’s specification and inoculated by spreading 0.1 ml of the test organisms ($\times 10^6$) over the entire agar surface. Dimethyl sulfoxide (2% v/v) was used to reconstitute the oil extracts in order to make a stock solution and sterilization was carried out by filtration using 0.22 µm aqua membrane nylon filter disk (Benton Dickinson Company). A cork borer of 6 mm was used to bore holes on the plate. Reconstituted extracts (50 µl) of 10 mg/mL were dropped in each well. Antibiotics; chloramphenicol and nystatin were used as a positive control against bacteria and fungi, respectively. Dimethyl sulfoxide (2% v/v) was used as a negative control. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h and 25 °C for 3-4 days for bacteria and fungi, respectively. Zones of inhibition were measured in millimeters (mm). Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) was determined by varying the concentrations of extracts from 2.5-10.0 mg/mL. Minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) was recorded as the lowest concentration of extract that showed no growth of tested microorganisms on the agar plates.

2.7 Experimental animal design

Wistar albino rats were obtained from the Department of Animal Production and Health, Federal University of Technology, Akure. The initial weights of the rats were 62-63 kg. They were allowed to acclimatize for seven days. The rats were fed basal diet, which comprises of animal feed with water. Some of the rats were inoculated with pathogenic microorganisms; they were carefully monitored due to the effects of microorganisms on them, while some of them were not inoculated serving as the control. The experiment was carried out following the guideline stated institutional ethics and international standard of animal welfare described by the National Research Council ³⁰.

Rats (five) each was grouped as follows:

- CN 1: rats not infected but fed basal diet;
- CN 2: rats infected with *A. flavus* but not treated;
- CN 3: rats infected with *K. pneumoniae* but not treated;
- CN 4: rats infected with *Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus* but not treated;
- HEX 1: rats infected with *K. pneumoniae* and treated with oil of fermented locust bean;
- AQ 1: rats infected with *Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus* and treated with aqueous extract of fermented locust bean;
- HEX 2: rats infected with *A. flavus* and treated with oil of fermented locust bean;
- AQ 2: rats infected with *A. flavus* and treated with aqueous extract of fermented locust bean.

Infectivity was done according to the method of Komolafe *et al.*³¹. Stock cultures of *K. pneumoniae*, methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* and *A. flavus* that were more susceptible to the aqueous and *n*-hexane extracts during in vitro assay were reactivated in nutrient broth and incubated at 37 °C for 18 hours. The broth culture was centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 10 min and the supernatant was discarded to obtain whitish pellet, which was serially diluted to 10⁶ CFU/mL in sterile distilled water. The test animals in each group (five) were then orogastrically infected, while the control group was left uninfected.

2.8 Statistical analysis

Experimental studies were carried out in replicates. Data obtained were subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20, USA. Results were presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD).

3 Results

The quantity of phytochemicals in the oil and aqueous extract from fermented locust beans is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Phytochemical contents (mg/100g) of extracts from fermented African locust beans

| Phytochemicals | NE | AE |
|--------------------|------------|------------|
| Phenol | 41.8 ± 0.1 | 33.7 ± 0.3 |
| Flavonoids | 19.4 ± 0.5 | 12.3 ± 0.2 |
| Saponin | 16.7 ± 0.1 | 5.0 ± 0.0 |
| Alkaloids | 22.9 ± 0.0 | 17.6 ± 0.3 |
| Steroids | 6.9 ± 0.8 | 0.8 ± 0.0 |
| Terpenoids | 10.0 ± 0.0 | 8.0 ± 0.0 |
| Cardiac glycosides | 3.3 ± 0.0 | 1.2 ± 0.0 |

Values are mean of triplicates ± standard deviation. NE: *n*-hexane extract and AE: aqueous extract.

Phenols, cardiac glycosides, flavonoids, alkaloids steroids and saponin were present in the two extracts (oil and aqueous extract). Phenol had the highest value of 41.8 mg/100g and 33.7 mg/100g for oil and water extract, respectively. Alkaloid had the value of 22.9 mg/100g and 17.6 mg/100g for oil and aqueous extracts. Cardiac glycosides had the lowest value of 3.3 mg/100g and 1.2 mg/100g for oil and aqueous extract, respectively.

GC-MS spectrum confirmed the presence of various bioactive compounds with different retention times as illustrated in Figure 1.

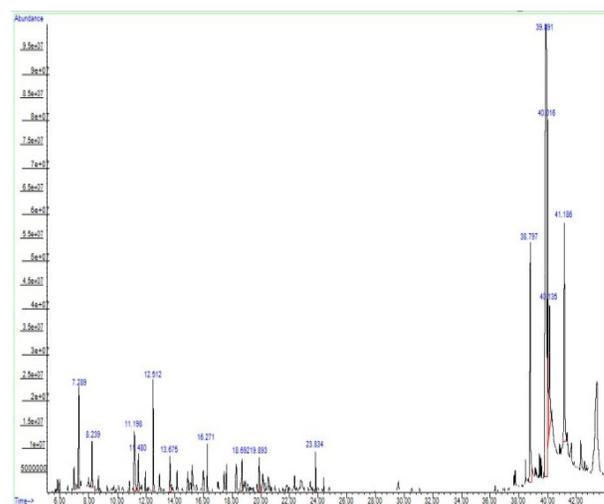


Figure 1: Peaks of bioactive compounds present in oil from fermented locust bean.

The bioactive compounds in oil; the most effective extract from fermented locust bean when subjected to GCMS were 1,3-dimethyl-p-xylene, o-xylene, 1-ethyl-3-methyl-benzene, 1,2,3-trimethyl-mesitylene, 1,2,4-trimethyl-Benzene, 1,2,3-trimethyl-benzene, p-cymene, 1-methyl-2-(2-propenyl)-benzene, azulene, 2-methyl-naphthalene, *n*-hexadecanoic acid, 9,12-octadecadienoic acid, pentadecanoic acid, 7-methyl-9,12-octadiene and ricinoleic acid (Table 2).

Table 2: Bioactive compounds in oil from fermented African locust bean using Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry

| No | Retention time | Area (%) | Bioactive compound | Molecular Formula | Molecular Weight (g/mol) |
|----|----------------|----------|---------------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| 1 | 7.28 | 3.93 | 1,3-dimethyl-p-Xylene | C ₆ H ₄ (CH ₃) ₂ | 106.17 |
| 2 | 8.23 | 1.55 | 0-Xylene | C ₈ H ₁₀ | 106.17 |
| 3 | 11.19 | 2.84 | 1-ethyl-3-methyl-Benzene | C ₉ H ₁₂ | 120.19 |
| 4 | 11.48 | 1.35 | 1,2,3-trimethyl-Mesitylene | C ₉ H ₁₁ NO ₂ | 120.19 |
| 5 | 12.51 | 4.04 | 1,2,4-trimethyl-Benzene | C ₉ H ₁₂ | 120.19 |
| 6 | 13.67 | 1.26 | 1,2,3-trimethyl-Benzene | C ₉ H ₁₂ | 120.19 |
| 7 | 16.27 | 1.75 | p-Cymene | C ₁₀ H ₁₄ | 134.21 |
| 8 | 18.69 | 1.83 | 1-methyl-2-(2-propenyl)-Benzene | C ₁₁ H ₁₄ | 146.23 |
| 9 | 19.89 | 1.31 | Azulene | C ₁₀ H ₈ | 128.17 |
| 10 | 23.83 | 1.54 | 2-methyl-Naphthalene | C ₁₁ H ₁₀ | 142.20 |
| 11 | 38.79 | 9.58 | n-Hexadecanoic acid | C ₁₆ H ₃₂ O ₂ | 256.40 |
| 12 | 39.89 | 41.80 | 9,12-Octadecadienoic acid | C ₁₈ H ₃₂ O ₂ | 280.45 |
| 13 | 40.01 | 10.97 | Pentadecanoic acid | C ₁₅ H ₃₀ O ₂ | 242.39 |
| 14 | 40.13 | 4.54 | 7-methyl-9,12-Octadiene | C ₉ H ₁₆ | 316.26 |
| 15 | 41.18 | 11.71 | Ricinoic acid | C ₁₈ H ₃₈ O ₃ | 298.46 |

Table 3 shows zones of inhibition of extracts from fermented locust beans on tested isolates. The oil (*n*-hexane extract) exerted the highest effect on *K. pneumoniae* at 10 mg/mL with a diameter zone of inhibition of 14.00 mm, while the least effect (5.0 mm) was observed on *A. fumigatus* and *C. albicans*. The highest zone of inhibition of 10.0 mm was observed against *methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus* when tested against aqueous extract at 10 mg/mL but *Klebsiella oxytoca*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *C. albicans* have no zone of inhibition.

Table 3: Inhibition zones (mm) displayed by extracts from fermented African locust beans against pathogenic bacteria at 10 mg/mL

| Microorganisms | NE | AE | Chloramphenicol/ Nystatin |
|--|------------|------------|------------------------------|
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | 9.0 ± 0.0 | 7.0 ± 0.5 | 17.0 ± 0.2 |
| <i>Shigella dysenteriae</i> | 10.0 ± 0.1 | 5.0 ± 0.1 | 22.0 ± 0.1 |
| <i>Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus</i> | 8.0 ± 0.0 | 10.0 ± 0.5 | 11.0 ± 0.0 |
| <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | 10.0 ± 0.1 | 0.0 | 17.0 ± 0.0 |
| <i>Salmonella typhi</i> | 9.0 ± 0.2 | 5.0 ± 0.2 | 9.0 ± 0.2 |
| <i>Citrobacter braakii</i> | 8.0 ± 0.0 | 7.0 ± 0.0 | 19.0 ± 0.0 |
| <i>Aeromonas hydrophilia</i> | 9.0 ± 0.2 | 6.0 ± 0.2 | 17.0 ± 0.3 |
| <i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i> | 10.0 ± 0.0 | 4.0 ± 0.0 | 21.0 ± 0.0 |
| <i>Klebsiella oxytoca</i> | 7.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 | 22.0 ± 0.0 |
| <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> | 14.0 ± 0.1 | 8.0 ± 0.1 | 18.0 ± 0.1 |
| <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> | 10.0 ± 0.5 | 8.3 ± 0.0 | 16.0 ± 0.0 |
| <i>Aspergillus niger</i> | 7.0 ± 0.0 | 6.0 ± 0.0 | 19.0 ± 0.0 |
| <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> | 5.0 ± 0.2 | 8.0 ± 0.0 | 18.0 ± 0.2 |
| <i>Candida albicans</i> | 5.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 ± 0.0 | 22.0 ± 0.1 |

Values are means of triplicates ± standard deviation. NE: n-hexane extract and AE: aqueous extract

The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) of *n*-hexane and aqueous extracts of fermented locust bean against bacteria are shown in Table 4. The MIC of oil against tested microorganisms ranged from 2.5-10.0 mg/mL, while aqueous extract ranged from 5.0 -10 mg/mL. The MBC obtained in this study ranged from 5.0 - 20.0 mg/mL for oil extract and 20.0- 50.0 mg/mL for aqueous extract.

Table 4: Minimum inhibitory and bactericidal concentrations (mg/mL) for extracts of fermented African locust beans against microorganism

| Bacterial isolates | NE | AE | NE | AE |
|--|------|------|------|------|
| | MIC | | MBC | |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | 5.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 |
| <i>Shigella dysenteriae</i> | 2.5 | 10.0 | 5.0 | 20.0 |
| <i>Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus</i> | 5.0 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 50.0 |
| <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | 2.5 | 0.0 | 5.0 | 0.0 |
| <i>Salmonella typhi</i> | 5.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 |
| <i>Citrobacter braakii</i> | 5.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 |
| <i>Aeromonas hydrophilia</i> | 5.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 |
| <i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i> | 5.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 25.0 |
| <i>Klebsiella oxytoca</i> | 10.0 | 0.0 | 20.0 | 0.0 |
| <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> | 5.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 |
| <i>Aspergillus flavus</i> | 5.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 25.0 |
| <i>Aspergillus niger</i> | 10.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 | 50.0 |
| <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> | 10.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 | 50.0 |
| <i>Candida albicans</i> | 10.0 | 10.0 | 20.0 | 50.0 |

NE: n-hexane extract and AE: aqueous extract

The hematological parameters of rats infected with pathogenic microorganisms and treated with aqueous and *n*-hexane extracts from fermented locust beans are shown in Table 5, while Table 6 shows Differential white blood cell count of rats infected and treated with extracts from fermented locust beans. The PCV of infected rats was lower (18-20%) compared to others, which ranged from 24.0 -38%. The WBC (109 g/L) of infected rats, which were not treated were higher as 11.8 to 14.8 when compared to treated groups with WBC ranging from 4.8-5.9. The lymphocytes ranged from 43.0 to 61.0%, neutrophils as 36.0-49.0%, eosinophil as 1.0-3.0% and monocytes as 1.0 to 2.0%.

4 Discussion

Parkia plants have been identified as a source of tannins, saponins, protein and amino acid acids³². Phytochemical screening showed the presence higher proportion of phenols and flavonoids. They are the most common group of polyphenolic compounds in the human diet and are found ubiquitously in plants³³. Phenols and flavonoids have been shown to have a wide range of biological and pharmacological activities, which include anti-allergic, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, anti-microbial, anti-cancer, and anti-diarrheal activities^{34,35}. Cardiac glycoside was also one of the phytochemicals present in the oil. It served as the main medical treatment for congestive heart failure and cardiac arrhythmia, due to their effects of increasing the force of muscle contraction while reducing heart rate³⁶.

Table 5: Hematological parameters of rats infected with microorganisms and treated with extracts from fermented African locust beans

| Sample | PCV (%) | HB (g/dl) | WBC (10 ⁹ /L) | RBC (10 ¹² /L) | MCHC | MCV | MCH |
|--------|------------|------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| CN 1 | 31.0 ± 0.0 | 10.3 ± 0.0 | 5.0 ± 0.0 | 3.4 ± 0.0 | 33.2 ± 0.0 | 90.1 ± 0.0 | 3.0 ± 0.0 |
| CN 2 | 20.0 ± 0.0 | 6.8 ± 0.1 | 14.8 ± 0.0 | 2.4 ± 0.0 | 33.5 ± 0.0 | 82.3 ± 0.0 | 2.5 ± 0.0 |
| CN 3 | 18.0 ± 0.0 | 9.4 ± 0.0 | 11.8 ± 0.1 | 2.1 ± 0.0 | 33.6 ± 0.0 | 81.5 ± 0.0 | 2.6 ± 0.0 |
| CN 4 | 17.2 ± 0.0 | 7.5 ± 0.1 | 12.7 ± 0.0 | 2.1 ± 0.0 | 33.2 ± 0.1 | 81.7 ± 0.0 | 2.5 ± 0.0 |
| AQ 1 | 30.0 ± 0.1 | 9.4 ± 0.0 | 5.4 ± 0.0 | 3.2 ± 0.0 | 33.6 ± 0.0 | 88.9 ± 4.0 | 3.0 ± 0.0 |
| HEX 1 | 26.0 ± 0.5 | 5.4 ± 0.0 | 5.9 ± 0.0 | 3.0 ± 0.0 | 33.8 ± 0.0 | 89.2 ± 0.1 | 2.9 ± 0.0 |
| AQ 2 | 38.0 ± 0.0 | 12.6 ± 0.0 | 5.4 ± 0.0 | 4.2 ± 0.0 | 33.2 ± 0.0 | 90.1 ± 2.0 | 3.0 ± 0.0 |
| HEX 2 | 24.0 ± 0.0 | 8.0 ± 0.7 | 4.8 ± 0.1 | 5.4 ± 0.0 | 33.3 ± 0.0 | 90.3 ± 2.0 | 3.0 ± 0.0 |

Key: PCV-packed cell volume, Hb-Hemoglobin, WBC-white blood cell, RBC-red blood cell, MCHC- mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration, MCV- mean corpuscular volume, MCH- mean corpuscular hemoglobin, CN 1: Rat not infected but fed basal diet and water, CN 2: rat infected with *Aspergillus flavus* but not treated, CN 3: rat infected with *Klebsiella pneumoniae* but not treated, CN 4: rats infected with *Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus* but not treated, HEX 1: Rat infected with *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and treated with *n*-hexane extract of fermented locust bean, AQ 1: Rats infected with *Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus* and treated with aqueous extract of fermented locust bean, HEX 2: rats infected with *Aspergillus flavus* and treated with *n*-hexane extract of fermented locust bean, AQ 2: rats infected with *Aspergillus flavus* and treated with aqueous extract of fermented locust bean.

Table 6: Differential white blood cell count (%) of rats infected and treated with extracts from African Locust beans

| Sample | Lymphocytes | Neutrophils | Eosinophil | Monocytes | Basophile |
|--------|-------------|-------------|------------|-----------|-----------|
| CN 1 | 55.0 ± 7.3 | 41.0 ± 0.5 | 2.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 |
| CN 2 | 61.0 ± 9.4 | 36.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 |
| CN 3 | 43.0 ± 5.7 | 49.0 ± 5.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 |
| CN 4 | 52.6 ± 3.1 | 45.3 ± 7.2 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 |
| AQ 1 | 57.0 ± 4.7 | 37.0 ± 5.7 | 2.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 |
| HEX 1 | 47.0 ± 7.1 | 49.0 ± 7.7 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 |
| AQ 2 | 56.0 ± 8.2 | 38.0 ± 7.0 | 3.0 ± 0.0 | 2.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 |
| HEX 2 | 54.0 ± 5.7 | 40.0 ± 0.0 | 1.0 ± 0.0 | 2.0 ± 0.0 | 0.0 |

Values are means of triplicate determinations ± standard error. Keys: CN 1: Rat not infected but fed with the normal diet and water, CN 2: rat infected with *Aspergillus flavus* but not treated, CN 3: rat infected with *Klebsiella pneumoniae* but not treated, CN 4: rats infected with *Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus* but not treated, HEX 1: Rat infected with *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and treated with *n*-hexane extracts of fermented locust bean, AQ 1: Rats infected with *Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus* and treated with aqueous extract of fermented locust bean, HEX 2: rats infected with *Aspergillus flavus* and treated with *n*-hexane extract of fermented locust bean, AQ 2: rats infected with *Aspergillus flavus* and treated with aqueous extract of fermented locust bean.

This is in accordance with previous studies where glycoside was found to be present in partially and completely fermented locust bean seed but lacking in the unfermented seeds³⁷. Phytochemical screening showed the presence of saponins in *n*-hexane extract. Saponins in plants help humans to fight fungal infections, decrease blood glucose levels, and lower cancer risks³⁸. Phytochemicals serve as natural antibiotics, helping the body to fight infections and microbial invasions³⁹. The presence of these phytochemicals in extracts of African locust bean and its fermented product has been linked to their antimicrobial activities^{37,40}. The aqueous extract from fermented locust bean contains flavonoids with a little amount of steroids, which is in accordance with Osemwegie and Dahunsi⁴¹. The researchers assessed the phytochemicals in the aqueous and ethanolic extracts of *Parkia biglobosa* root and stem. Daramola⁴² reported that, the defatted samples of fermented locust beans contain a high quantity of bioactive compounds like phenolic compounds, peptides, saponins, and amino acids. In the present study, *p*-cymene was one of the components of *n*-hexane extract of fermented locust bean. *p*-cymene as a medicinal bioactive compound is often found in more than 100 plant species⁴³. *p*-cymene and its components are the most important constituents of essential oils produced through liquid extraction and steam distillation of edible and

medicinal plants, it shows a range of biological activity including antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, antinociceptive, anxiolytic, anticancer and antimicrobial effects⁴⁴. Rahman *et al.*⁴⁵ reported that *p*-cymene and *n*-hexadecanoic acid are part of the antimicrobial compounds present in methanol leaf extract of *Psidium guajava*.

Octadecanoic acid present in the *n*-hexane extract had the highest percentage as revealed by GC-MS. This is in accordance with Al-Jasass and Al-Jasser⁴⁶ who reported the presence of bioactive compounds (octadecanoic acid) in some spices and herbs; fenugreek, cress, mustard, black cumin, black pepper, and clove grown in Saudi Arabia. In this study, Pentadecanoic acid, a saturated fatty acid was identified as one of the constituents of fermented locust bean as revealed by GC-MS and this is in relation to previous studies where pentadecanoic acid was identified as one of the fatty acid constituents of *Peganum harmala*⁴⁷.

The aqueous extract of fermented locust bean inhibited the growth of methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* at concentrations 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 mg/mL. This is in accordance with a previous study that showed that the aqueous extract of the root of *P. biglobosa* has an inhibitory effect on the growth of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from patients with urinary tract infection⁴⁰. In

another study, the fractionation of *P. biglobosa* seeds with different solvents (*n*-hexane, chloroform and methanol) inhibited *Candida albican*, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, vancomycin resistance *Enterococcus* and Methicillin-resistance *Staphylococcus aureus* ⁴⁸. Jauro *et al.* ⁴⁹ revealed the inhibitory potential of *P. biglobosa* methanolic leaf extract on MRSA isolated from sheep and humans at different concentrations of 100, 200 and 400 mg/mL. Abioye *et al.* ²⁷ revealed that methanolic crude extract of *P. biglobosa* exhibited zones of inhibition of 14 mm and 28 mm against *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, respectively. The researchers reported MIC of methanolic extract of *P. biglobosa* against tested isolates as 0.63 mg/mL to 5 mg/mL, while the MIC values of *n*-hexane and aqueous fractions were within 0.63 mg/mL and 10 mg/mL. In a similar study, the aqueous extract of the stem bark of *P. biglobosa* was reported to inhibit the growth of different microorganisms^{50,51}. The oil of fermented locust bean exhibited a better zone of inhibition than aqueous extract probably because not all the bioactive compounds have been extracted with water ⁵². However, aqueous extract from fermented African locust still inhibited some pathogenic microorganisms. In a similar way, an aqueous extract of the *P. biglobosa* displayed inhibitory zones of 6.5 to 19.5 mm against four spoilage microorganisms; *Bacillus subtilis*, *Cronobacter dublinensis*, *Pantoea agglomerans*, and *Bacillus* sp. isolated from mulberry fruit ⁵³.

In this study, there was an increase in the hemoglobin level of rats treated with oil and aqueous extract of fermented locust bean and this is a good one because the decrease in hemoglobin level may result in anemia ⁵⁴. From the study, there was decreased in the packed cell volume of rats infected with each of the microorganisms; *A. flavus*, *K. pneumoniae*, and Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*. The treated group with aqueous extracts of fermented locust bean has increased packed cell volume than the group treated with oil. This is similar to the findings of Sunday *et al.* ⁵⁵ who revealed PCV values of rats treated with aqueous extract of *Bryoscarpus coccineus* root bark were higher than that of untreated rats infected with bacterially induced diarrhea. The slight deviation of PCV observed in rats treated with oil could be due to the presence of ricinoleic acid in the oil as revealed by GC-MS. This is in relation to the work of Momoh *et al.* ⁵⁶ who studied the effect of oil from castor seed on the hematological parameters of albino rats and reported that the presence of ricinoleic acid in *Ricinus communis* caused a reduction in PCV. The white blood cell (WBC) increased in infected rats with pathogenic microorganisms. WBC is used as an immunological parameter to determine the cause of infection ⁵⁷, because the main type of phagocytic cells, which is required to participate in the phagocytosis in the ingestion of foreign bodies (like bacterial cells) are neutrophil and macrophage^{58,59}, so during infection with bacteria, the range of neutrophils increased compared to control. Basophil and eosinophil play a role in immunity, eosinophil increase in parasitic infections ⁶⁰.

5 Conclusion

From this study, the growth inhibition exerted by aqueous and *n*-hexane extracts from fermented locust bean seed suggests that *P. biglobosa* has antimicrobial property, which may be a result of the bioactive compounds present in the extracts. The oil and water extracts from fermented locust bean contained phytochemicals that exhibited noticeable antimicrobial activities. Hence, the bioactive compounds in the fermented condiment can be exploited for medicinal purposes.

Author contribution: OCO and BJA conceived and designed the research study. RNE, OCO and BJA performed the experiments. RNE and OCO interpreted the data and drafted the manuscript. OCO and BJA revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgment: Not applicable

Funding: Not applicable

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

ORCID:

Rachael Nkechi Eboma: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2144-9849>

Clement Olusola Ogidri: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3800-6817>

Bamidele Juliet Akinyele: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5638-3368>

References

1. Reygaert, W.C. (2018). An overview of the antimicrobial resistance mechanisms of bacteria. *AIMS Microbiology*, 4(3), 482–501. <https://doi.org/10.3934/microbiol.2018.3.482>
2. Cohen, M. L. (1992). Epidemiology of drug resistance: Implications for a post-antimicrobial era. *Science*, 257(5073), 1050-1055. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.257.5073.1050>
3. Nascimento, G. G., Locatelli, J., Freitas, P. C., & Silva, G. L. (2000). Antibacterial activity of plant extracts and phytochemicals on antibiotic-resistant bacteria. *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology*, 31(4), 247-256. <https://doi.org/10.1590/s1517-83822000000400003>
4. Gupta, P. D., & Birdi, T. J. (2017). Development of botanicals to combat antibiotic resistance. *Journal of Ayurveda and Integrative Medicine*, 8(4), 266-275. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaim.2017.05.004>
5. Mendelson, M. (2015). Role of antibiotic stewardship in extending the age of modern medicine. *South African Medical Journal*, 105(5), 414-418. <https://doi.org/10.7196/samj.9635>
6. Casuga, F. P., Castillo, A. L., & Corpuz, M. J. (2016). GC-MS analysis of bioactive compounds present in different extracts of an endemic plant *Broussonetia luzonica* (Blanco) (Moraceae) leaves. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, 6(11), 957-961. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apjtb.2016.08.015>
7. Momin, M. A., Bellah, S. F., Rahman, S. M., Rahman, A. A., Murshid, G. M., & Emran, T. B. (2014). Phytopharmacological evaluation of ethanol extract of *Sida cordifolia* L. roots. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, 4(1), 18-24. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s2221-1691\(14\)60202-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s2221-1691(14)60202-1)
8. Pandey, A., & Kumar, S. (2013). Perspective on plant products as antimicrobials agents: A review. *Pharmacologia*, 4(7), 469-480. <https://doi.org/10.5567/pharmacologia.2013.469.480>

9. Wink, M. (2012). Medicinal plants: A source of anti-parasitic secondary metabolites. *Molecules*, 17(11), 12771-12791. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules171112771>
10. Galm, U., & Shen, B. (2007). Natural product drug discovery: The times have never been better. *Chemistry & Biology*, 14(10), 1098-1104. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chembiol.2007.10.004>
11. Thiombiano, D. N., Parkouda, C., Lamien, N., Sr, A., Castro-Euler, A. M., & Boussim, I. J. (2014). Nutritional composition of five food trees species products used in human diet during food shortage period in Burkina Faso. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 13(17), 1807-1812. <https://doi.org/10.5897/ajb2013.13462>
12. Igoli, J., Ogaji, O., Tor-Anyiin, T., & Igoli, N. (2005). Traditional medicine practice amongst the Igede people of Nigeria. Part II. *African Journal of Traditional, Complementary and Alternative Medicines*, 2(2), 134-152. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ajtcam.v2i2.31112>
13. Tokoudagba, J., Auger, C., Bréant, L., N'Gom, S., Chabert, P., Idris-Khodja, N., Gbaguidi, F., Gbenou, J., Moudachirou, M., Lobstein, A., & Schini-Kerth, V. B. (2010). Procyanidin-rich fractions from *Parkia biglobosa* (Mimosaceae) leaves cause redox-sensitive endothelium-dependent relaxation involving NO and EDHF in porcine coronary artery. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 132(1), 246-250. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2010.08.031>
14. Kouadio, F., Kanko, C., Juge, M., Grimaud, N., Jean, A., N'Guessan, Y.T., & Petit, J.Y. (2000). Analgesic and antiinflammatory activities of an extract from *Parkia biglobosa* used in traditional medicine in the Ivory Coast. *Phytotherapy Research: PTR*, 14(8), 635-637. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1099-1573\(200012\)14:8<635::aid-ptr427>3.0.co;2-t](https://doi.org/10.1002/1099-1573(200012)14:8<635::aid-ptr427>3.0.co;2-t)
15. Asuzu, I., & Harvey, A. (2003). The antisnake venom activities of *Parkia biglobosa* (Mimosaceae) stem bark extract. *Toxicon*, 42(7), 763-768. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.toxicon.2003.10.004>
16. Adelekan, A. (2012). Bacterial succession studies during fermentation of African locust bean (*Parkia biglobosa*) to Iru using molecular methods. *British Biotechnology Journal*, 2(1), 49-59. <https://doi.org/10.9734/bbj/2012/586>
17. Ezuruike, U. F., & Prieto, J. M. (2014). The use of plants in the traditional management of diabetes in Nigeria: pharmacological and toxicological considerations. *Journal of ethnopharmacology*, 155(2), 857-924. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2014.05.055>
18. Abdulrahman, B. O., Osibemhe, M., & Idoko, A. S. (2016). The status of mineral and anti-nutritional composition of raw and fermented seeds of African locust bean (*Parkia biglobosa*). *International Journal of Current Research in Biosciences and Plant Biology*, 3(2), 1-4. <https://doi.org/10.20546/ijcrbp.2016.302.001>
19. Eka, O. U. (1980). Effect of fermentation on the nutrient status of locust beans. *Food Chemistry*, 5(4), 303-308. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0308-8146\(80\)90051-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0308-8146(80)90051-5)
20. Burlando, B., Palmero, S., & Cornara, L. (2019). Nutritional and medicinal properties of underexploited legume trees from West Africa. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 59(sup1), S178-S188. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2018.1551776>
21. Krzyczkowska, J., & Kozłowska, M. (2017). Effect of oils extracted from plant seeds on the growth and Lipolytic activity of *Yarrowia lipolytica* yeast. *Journal of the American Oil Chemists' Society*, 94(5), 661-671. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11746-017-2975-1>
22. Azwanida, N. N. (2015). A review on the extraction methods use in medicinal plants, principle, strength and limitation. *Medicinal & Aromatic Plants*, 04(03), 196. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2167-0412.1000196>
23. Trease, G. E., Evans, W. C. (2002). Fifteenth Edition. Philadelphia Journal Elsevier Science Limited. p. 336.
24. Obadoni, B. O., & Ochuko, P. O. (2002). Phytochemical studies and comparative efficacy of the crude extracts of some haemostatic plants in Edo and delta states of Nigeria. *Global Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences*, 8(2), 203-208. <https://doi.org/10.4314/gjpas.v8i2.16033>
25. Singleton, V. L., Orthofer, R., & Lamuela-Raventós, R. M. (1999). Analysis of total phenols and other oxidation substrates and antioxidants by means of folin-ciocalteu reagent. *Methods in enzymology*, 299, 152-178. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0076-6879\(99\)99017-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0076-6879(99)99017-1)
26. Stankovic, M. S., Niciforovic N., Topuzovic M. & Solujic S. (2011) Total phenolic content, flavonoid concentrations and antioxidant activity, of the whole plant and plant parts extracts from *Teucrium Montanum* L. Var. *Montanum*, f. *Supinum* (L.) Reichenb, *Biotechnology & Biotechnological Equipment*, 25:1, 2222-2227. <https://doi.org/10.5504/BBEQ.2011.0020>
27. Abioye, E., Akinpelu, D., Aiyegoro, O., Adegboye, M., Oni, M., & Okoh, A. (2013). Preliminary phytochemical screening and antibacterial properties of crude stem bark extracts and fractions of *Parkia biglobosa* (Jacq.). *Molecules*, 18(7), 8485-8499. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules18078485>
28. Sparkman, O. D., Penton, Z. E., & Kitson, F. G. (2011). Mass spectrometry instrumentation. *Gas Chromatography and Mass Spectrometry: A Practical Guide*, 89-148. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-373628-4.00004-6>
29. Cheesbrough, M. (2006). District laboratory practice in tropical countries. p. 299-331.
30. National Research Council. (2011). 8th edition. Guide for the care and use of laboratory animals. The national academic Press, Washington D. C.
31. Komolafe, B. M., Ogundare, A. O., & Adebolu, T. T. (2013). Therapeutic and immunomodulatory effects of raw maize "OGI" on rats infected with *Escherichia coli* 0157: H7. *Journal of Life Sciences*, 7(6), 570. <https://doi.org/10.17265/1934-7391/2013.06.002>
32. Ajaiyeoba, E. O. (2002). Phytochemical and antibacterial properties of *Parkia biglobosa* and *Parkia bicolor* leaf extracts. *African Journal of Biomedical Research*, 5(3), 125-129. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ajbr.v5i3.54000>
33. Cushnie, T. T., & Lamb, A. J. (2011). Recent advances in understanding the antibacterial properties of flavonoids. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 38(2), 99-107. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2011.02.014>
34. Friedman, M. (2007). Overview of antibacterial, antitoxin, antiviral, and antifungal activities of tea flavonoids and teas. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 51(1), 116-134. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.200600173>
35. Manner, S., Skogman, M., Goeres, D., Vuorela, P., & Fallarero, A. (2013). Systematic exploration of natural and synthetic flavonoids for the inhibition of *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilms. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 14(10), 19434-19451. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms141019434>
36. Patel, S. (2016). Plant-derived cardiac glycosides: Role in heart ailments and cancer management. *Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy*, 84, 1036-1041. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopha.2016.10.030>
37. Oluwaniyi, O., & Bazambo, I. (2014). Anti-nutritional and phytochemical evaluation of raw and fermented African locust bean (*Parkia biglobosa*) seeds. *Global Journal of Pure and Applied Sciences*, 20(2), 105-109. <https://doi.org/10.4314/gjpas.v20i2.4>
38. Shi, J., Arunasalam, K., Yeung, D., Kakuda, Y., Mittal, G., & Jiang, Y. (2004). Saponins from edible legumes: Chemistry, processing, and health benefits. *Journal of Medicinal Food*, 7(1), 67-78. <https://doi.org/10.1089/109662004322984734>

39. Mohammadi, A., Nazari, H., Imani, S., & Amrollahi, H. (2014). Antifungal activities and chemical composition of some medicinal plants. *Journal de Mycologie Médicale*, 24(2), e1–e8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mycmed.2014.02.006>
40. Millogo-Kone, H., Guissou, I., Nacoulma, O., & Traore, A. S. (2007). Antimicrobial effects of the stem bark extracts of *Parkia biglobosa* (Jacq.) Benth. on Shigellae. *African Journal of Traditional, Complementary, and Alternative Medicines: AJTCAM*, 4(4), 392–396. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ajtcam.v4i4.31234>
41. Osemwegie, O., & Dahunsi, S. (2015). in-vitro effects of aqueous and ethanolic extracts of *Parkia biglobosa* (Jacq.) Benth on selected microorganisms. *Nigerian Journal of Biotechnology*, 29(1), 11–20. <https://doi.org/10.4314/njb.v29i1.2>
42. Daramola, B. (2015). Preliminary Studies on Antioxidative Potentials of Extracts of Defatted Locust Bean Condiment. *Journal of Food Biosciences and Technology*, 05(1), 23–30.
43. Philis, J. G. (2005). The S1 ← S0 spectrum of jet-cooled P-cymene. *Spectrochimica Acta Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy*, 61(6), 1239–1241. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.saa.2004.06.046>
44. Marchese, A., Arciola, C., Barbieri, R., Silva, A., Nabavi, S., Tsetegho Sokeng, A., Izadi, M., Jafari, N., Suntar, I., Daglia, M., & Nabavi, S. (2017). Update on Monoterpenes as antimicrobial agents: A particular focus on P-cymene. *Materials*, 10(8), 947. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma10080947>
45. Rahman, M. M., Ahmad, S. H., Mohamed, M. T., & Ab Rahman, M. Z. (2014). Antimicrobial compounds from leaf extracts of *Jatropha curcas*, *Psidium guajava*, and *Andrographis paniculata*. *The Scientific World Journal*, 14, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/635240>
46. Al-Jasass, F.M., & Al-Jasser, M.S. (2012). Chemical composition and fatty acid content of some spices and herbs under Saudi Arabia conditions. *The Scientific World Journal*, 12, 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1100/2012/859892>
47. Moussa, T. A., & Almaghrabi, O. A. (2016). Fatty acid constituents of *Peganum harmala* plant using gas chromatography–mass spectroscopy. *Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences*, 23(3), 397–403. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sjbs.2015.04.013>
48. Bello, O. M., Ibitoye, T. & Adetunji, C. (2019). Assessing antimicrobial agents of Nigeria flora. *Journal of King Saud University - Science*, 31 (4): 1379–1383. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jksus.2018.04.017>
49. Jauro, S., Abubakar, M., Geidam, Y., Zanna, M., Kwoji, I., Gulani, I., & Ibrahim, I. (2018). Phytochemical and antimicrobial profile analysis of *Parkia biglobosa* against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research*, 5(3), 173–181. <https://doi.org/10.5455/javar.2018.e263>
50. Udobi, C.E., & Onaolapo, J.A. (2010). Cell kill pattern and acute toxicity studies of the aqueous fraction of the methanolic extract of parts of *Parkia biglobosa*. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 9(31), 4993–4998. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJB09.798>
51. Dosumu, O., Oluwaniyi, O., Awolola, G., & Oyediji, O. (2012). Nutritional composition and antimicrobial properties of three Nigerian condiments. *Nigerian Food Journal*, 30(1), 43–52. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0189-7241\(15\)30012-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0189-7241(15)30012-6)
52. De, N. B., & Ifeoma, E. (2002). Antimicrobial effects of components of the bark extract of neem (*Azadirachta indica* A. Juss). *Technology and Development*, 8, 23–28. <http://eprints.covenantuniversity.edu.ng/id/eprint/5103>
53. Herman, R. A., Wang, J., Amuzu, P., Shittu, S., Wu, F., & Wang, J. (2020). Evaluation of inhibitory activities of two medicinal plant extracts *Parkia biglobosa* and *Lonicera japonica* against spoilage microorganisms isolated from mulberry fruit. *Journal of Food Processing and Preservation*, 44(8), e14630. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpp.14630>
54. Stott, G. J., & Lewis, S. M. (1995). A simple and reliable method for estimating haemoglobin. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 73(3), 369. <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/264012>
55. Sunday, E. A., Onyeyili, P. A., & Saganuwan, S. A. (2019). Therapeutic effects of *Byrsocarpus coccineus* root bark extract on bacterially and chemically induced diarrhea in the Wistar albino rat (*Rattus norvegicus domestica*). *Animal Models and Experimental Medicine*, 2(4), 312–325. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ame2.12094>
56. Momoh, O. (2012). Haematological and histopathological effects of oil from castor seeds (*Ricinus communis* Linn.) on albino-rats. *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytotherapy*, 4(4), 40–43. <https://doi.org/10.5897/jpp11.077>
57. Provan, D., Singer, C. R. J., Baglin, T., Lilleyman, J. (2004). Oxford Handbook of Clinical Hematology. Oxford University Press. Inc., New York.
58. Kern, W. F. (2002). PDQ (Pretty Darned Quick) Hematology. BC Decker Inc., Hamilton, London, Ethnobotanical, 12. p. 42–48.
59. Henderson, B., Oyston, P. C. F. (2003). Bacterial Evasion of Host Immune Responses: Advanced in Molecular and Cellular Microbiology 2. Cambridge University Press, United Kingdom.
60. Godin, B., Toutiou, E., Rubinstein, E., Athamna, A., & Athamna, M. (2005). A new approach for treatment of deep skin infections by an ethosomal antibiotic preparation: An in vivo study. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*, 55(6), 989–994. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dki125>

Cite this article as: Eboma, R.N., Ogidi, C.O., & Akinyele, B.J., (2020). Bioactive compounds and antimicrobial activity of extracts from fermented African locust bean (*Parkia biglobosa*) against pathogenic microorganisms. *The North African Journal of Food and Nutrition Research*, 4(8): 343–350. <https://doi.org/10.51745/najfnr.4.8.343-350>