

Evaluation of the Anti-Microbial Activity of Zero valent iron nanoparticle synthesized using *Aspillia plorizeta* extracts

ABSTRACT

Antimicrobial resistance poses a great burden to existing health care system as more potent drugs are required to combat this global problem. As such there is need to explore new ways in which we can be able to combat antimicrobial resistance hence the need to utilize the potential of metallic nanoparticles as a new alternative to combat resistance. The present study focuses on synthesis of iron nanoparticles using *Aspillia plorizeta* aqueous extracts its characterization and antimicrobial activities against gram positive and gram negative bacteria. Preliminary phytochemical screening was carried out to test for the presence of secondary metabolites; phenol, flavonoid, phytosterol, carbohydrate, tannin, saponin, glycoside and terpenoid resulting in a positive test for all the metabolites. Folin-Ciocalteu method and aluminium chloride method respectively were used in determination of total phenolic content 31.45 ± 0.017 mg/g and total flavonoid content 7.223 ± 0.081 mg/g. Characterization of zero valent iron oxide NPs was achieved using UV-visible spectrophotometer, FT-IR, XRD and XRF. UV-Vis spectrophotometer displayed a peak at 346 nm. FT-IR spectra portrayed existence of functional groups such as OH, C-O and C-C that aid in formation of NPs. XRD indicated the presence of peaks of peaks at 16.06° and 43.73° . XRF data showed the NPs containing Fe 31.58%, MgO 12.02%, Al_2O_3 1.883%, SiO_2 13.84%, P_2O_5 11.14%, K_2O 4.699% and CaO 1.522% of respective oxides. Thus presence of secondary metabolites in the plant extracts are responsible for the synthesis of iron nanoparticles. Finally the antimicrobial activity was determined against *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Escherichia coli* and *Candida albicans* which exhibited significant zones of inhibition.

Keywords: Aspillia plorizeta; NPs; Environmental friendly; Characterization; XRF

1. INTRODUCTION

Infectious diseases are the world's leading cause of premature deaths, killing almost 50,000 people every day and with continuous use of antibiotics, microorganism have become resistant (Alavijeh, *et al.*, 2012). Many developing countries more so in Africa, mortality and morbidity rates as a result of diarrhea, which continues to be a major challenge especially amongst children (Hills, *et al.*, 2014). Of late drug resistance to human pathogenic bacteria has been commonly reported (Frieri, *et al.*, 2017). In addition to this problem, antibiotics are sometimes associated with adverse effects on host which include hypersensitivity, immunosuppressant and allergic reactions. This has brought immense clinical problems in the treatment of infectious diseases (Alavijeh *et al.*, 2012).

37 According to 2008 study of antibiotic development involving small firms as well as large
38 pharmaceutical companies revealed that only 15 of 167 antibiotics under development had a new
39 mechanism of action (Leung *et al.*, 2011). If the current trend continues, before long there may not be
40 effective antimicrobials with which to treat patients with serious infections.

41 Nanotechnology which is a modern field of science dealing in production, manipulation and use of
42 very small particles with sizes measured in nanometers has found its application in the field of
43 medicine (Heera & Shanmugam, 2015). Nanoparticles are majorly obtained using chemical and
44 physical process. Production of NPs using plant materials results to low cost of production, short
45 production time, it is relatively safer and its ability to up production. On industrial scale efficient
46 extraction, isolation and purification is a challenge. Plant materials have varying concentration of bio-
47 active components. Size and morphology depends on localization in plant material that depends on
48 differences in content of metal tissues (Makarov, *et al.*, 2014). Various research work has been done
49 using different metal NPs contributing toward the development and synthesis of alternative
50 antimicrobial agents, nano-therapeutics, to treat infections caused by clinical multidrug-resistant
51 strains (Enrique, *et al.*, 2018). Due to their various physiochemical properties such as large surface
52 area, mechanical strength, optical activity and their reactivity (Khan, *et al.*, 2017), iron
53 nanoparticles has also found application in water treatment (Devatha, *et al.*, 2018). Borohydrate
54 reduction of Fe (III) ions in aqueous media to zero valent ions is usually carried out in inert conditions
55 to keep iron in its zero valent form which is unstable in atmospheric conditions and it tends to form
56 oxides/hydroxides in the forms of Fe_3O_4 , Fe_2O_3 and $FeOOH$ (Yuvakkumar, *et al.*, 2011). Extraction and
57 isolation of natural products (Xiao, *et al.*, 2018). Biosynthesis have more compensation over other
58 classical synthesis procedures due to availability of more biological entities and eco-friendly
59 procedures it is cost effective, easily scaled up for large scale synthesis, there is no need to use high
60 pressure, energy, temperature and toxic chemicals (Kuppusamy, *et al.*, 2016; Ksv, *et al.*, 2017).

61 The plant crude extract contain active secondary metabolites such as phenolic acids, flavonoids,
62 alkaloids and terpenoids which have been reported to be mainly responsible for the reduction of ionic
63 iron leading to formation of bulk metallic nanoparticles. In the present study, iron nanoparticle were
64 synthesized using a rapid, single step, green biosynthetic method employing aqueous extracts of
65 *Aspillia plorizeta* as a reducing agent (Saranya, 2017).

66 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

67 **2.1 Collection of plant material**

68 The fresh plant samples were collected, kept in a labelled polythene bag and taken to the laboratory.
69 Thoroughly washed plant material were then air dried in a shade for four days, thereafter crushed into
70 powder form with an in-house mechanical grinder and stored to await chemical analysis (Ahmed, *et*
71 *al.*, 2016)

72 **2.2 Extraction of *Aspillia plorizeta* using water**

73 With slight changes from work done by (Vélez *et al.*, 2018) ,5g of *Aspillia plorizeta* leaves powder was
74 weighed into a 250 conical flask, thereafter 100ml of distilled water added followed by boiling in a
75 water bath for one hour maintaining the temperature at 80°C. Having obtained the extract, it was then
76 filtered using Whatman no.1filter paper .The filtrate was then kept in the refrigerator ready for analysis
77 (Logeswari, *et al.*, 2015).

78 **2.3 Qualitative screening of secondary metabolites**

79 The following standard protocols were used for qualitative analysis to check for the presence of
80 Carbohydrates, Flavonoids, Phenols, Saponins, Tannins, Terpenoids, Phytosterols and glycosdes
81 (Prabhavathi, *et al.*, 2016,Khalid, *et al.*, 2018 and Gupta & Gupta, 2014).

82 **2.4 Quantitative Analysis**

83 **2.4.1 Total Phenolic Content**

84 The total phenolic content was determined using Folin-Ciocalteu method with slight changes from
85 work done by (Baba & Malik, 2015). Aliquots of working standard solution was pipetted out into a
86 series of test tubes. 50 µL of phenolic extract of the plant sample was then taken into another series
87 of test tubes. Contents of all the test tubes were topped to 1 mL using distilled water. Another test
88 tube labelled blank with 1 mL of distilled water served as the blank. 0.5 mL of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent
89 (1 N) was then added to each test tube including the blank. All the test tubes were vortexed well and
90 allowed to stand for 5 min at room temperature. 2.5 mL of 5 % sodium carbonate was then added to
91 all the test tubes including the blank. The test tubes were again vortexed and incubated in the dark at
92 room temperature for 40 min. Absorbance of the blue color developed was measured against the
93 reagent blank at 769 nm using UV-vis spectrophotometer. Thereafter, the sample concentration was
94 calculated from the gallic acid standard curve equation and the results expressed as mg gallic acid
95 equivalents per gram of dried weight sample. Experiments were carried out in triplicates and
96 expressed as mean ± standard deviation (Alara, *et al.*, 2017).

97 **2.4.2 Total Flavonoids Content**

98 With slight modifications, total flavonoid content of crude extract was determined using aluminium
99 chloride colorimetric method on the basis of a protocol represented by (Baba & Malik, 2015). In brief
100 aliquots of working standard solution was pipetted into a series of labelled test tubes. 100 µL of
101 sample extract was taken into another series of test tubes. All the test tubes contents were topped up
102 to 1 mL with distilled water. Another test tube marked blanked with 1 mL of distilled water served as
103 the blank. Thereafter 150 µL of 5 % sodium nitrite was added to each test tube including the blank
104 followed by vortexing all the test tubes well and incubating at room temperature for 5 min.150 µL of 10
105 % aluminum chloride was then added to all the test tubes including the blank. The test tubes were
106 again vortexed and incubated at room temperature for 6 min.2 mL of 4 % sodium hydroxide was then
107 added to all the test tubes. The contents of test tubes were then made up to 5 mL using distilled water
108 followed by vortexing and allowing them to stand for 15 min at room temperature. Absorbance of the
109 pink color developed due to the presence of flavonoids was measured against the reagent blank at

110 511 nm using UV-vis spectrophotometer. Finally, total flavonoid content was calculated from
111 calibration curve, and results expressed as mg rutin equivalent per g dry weight. Experiments were
112 carried out in triplicates and expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (Spiridon, *et al.*, 2011).

113 **2.5 Preparation of iron salt and synthesis of zero valent iron oxide nanoparticle**

114 Preparation and synthesis of iron NPs was carried out with slight modification of procedure, from
115 previous work done by (Ksv, *et al.*, 2017). 0.1M FeCl₃.6H₂O solution salt was prepared by adding
116 2.703g of solid FeCl₃.6H₂O into 100ml of distilled water. The mixture was then shaken for about 5
117 minutes to obtain a homogenous mixture. Thereafter NPs was prepared by adding 0.1M of the salt to
118 plant sample in the ratio of 2:5 in which a black precipitate was observed indicating presence of NPs
119 (Silveira, *et al.*, 2017). Formed nanoparticle was then retrieved from the mixture by centrifuging
120 (350rpm for ten minutes) and washing severally using distilled water and finally dried in an oven for
121 characterization(Fierascu, *et al.*, 2014).

122

123 **2.6 Characterization of zero valent iron NPs**

124 Functional groups which necessitated development of nanoparticles was characterized using a
125 Shimadzu Fourier Transform Infrared Spectrometer, Model FTS-8000 and analysis run using the KBr
126 pellet technique (Madivoli, *et al.*, 2012). The optical properties of zero valent iron NPs was determined
127 using Perkin Elmer Spectrophotometer and the characteristic peaks detected and the peak values of
128 the UV-vis recorded (Groiss, *et al.*, 2017). The crystallinity phase of the nanoparticles was identified
129 using STOE STADIP P X-ray Powder Diffraction System (STOE & Cie GmbH, Darmstadt, Germany)
130 with slight modifications from work done by (Gondwal, 2018).Elemental composition of prepared
131 powder sample was then determined using X-ray fluorescence spectrometry (Santos, *et al.*, 2017).

132 **2.7 Antibacterial Activity**

133 Evaluation of the antimicrobial activities against gram positive(*Staphylococcus aureus* and *Bacillus*
134 *subtilis*), gram negative (*Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Escherichia coli*) and yeast bacteria(*Candida*
135 *albicans*) for the green-synthesized zero valent iron nanoparticle was carried out using standard disc
136 diffusion assay with slight modifications from work done previously(Mostafa et al., 2017). Bacteria
137 used in analysis was obtained from Botany department, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and
138 Technology, Juja ,Kenya.20 mL of agar was loaded to sterile petri plates. After solidification, 100 μ L of
139 overnight bacterial culture was spread to get bacterial lawn. Briefly the zero valent iron nanoparticles
140 were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and serially diluted in Muller Hinton agar in Petri dishes
141 to obtain final concentration: 10⁰, 10⁻¹, 10⁻², 10⁻³, 10⁻⁴ and 10⁻⁵ μ g/ml. Each experiment was done in
142 triplicates. Discs of 6mm in diameter prepared from Whatman's filter paper number 1 were dipped in
143 DMSO without nanoparticle acted as negative control, while Nitrofurantoin (200 mcg) acted as

144 positive control. After incubation of the plates for 24 h at 37°C, a clear zone growth of inhibition was
145 recorded and expressed as mean \pm SD (Groiss *et al.*, 2017,).

146 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

147 3.1 Phytochemical screening of *Aspillia plorizeta* leaves extract

148 The results on the phytochemical screening of water leaf extract of *Aspillia plorizeta* is presented in
149 Table 1 below.

150 **Table 1: Phytochemical constituents of *Aspillia plorizeta***

Secondary metabolite	Water extract
Tannin	+
Phytosterol	+
Carbohydrate	+
Terpenoid	+
Flavonoid	+
Sapponin	+
Phenol	+
Glycoside	+

151 **Key: '+' = Present - = absent**

152 Phytochemical are basically divided into two groups, primary and secondary constituents according to
153 their functions in plant metabolism. Primary constituents comprise common carbohydrate while
154 secondary constituents consists; glycosides, flavonoids, terpenes, terpenoids, saponins, phenols and
155 tannins (Ranjitha & Suganthi, 2017). *Aspillia plorizeta* aqueous extract gave a positive test for
156 phytochemical screening of all the secondary metabolites under study and this is shown in table 1
157 above. The structure of plant extracts is constituted by different metabolites like terpenoid, phenols, or
158 carbohydrates (Martínez-cabanas, *et al.*, 2016). These compounds are directly responsible of the
159 extract capacity to carry out the NPs biosynthesis hence the leaves were boiled with the aim of
160 rupturing and releasing intracellular materials into the solution (Ganesan, 2015).

161 3.2 Quantitative phytochemical screening

162 The total phenolic and flavonoid contents determined from standard curves ($y = 0.0043x + 0.0464$,
163 $R^2 = 0.9919$) and ($y = 0.064x + 0.0061$, $R^2 = 0.9955$) respectively is presented in table 2 below.

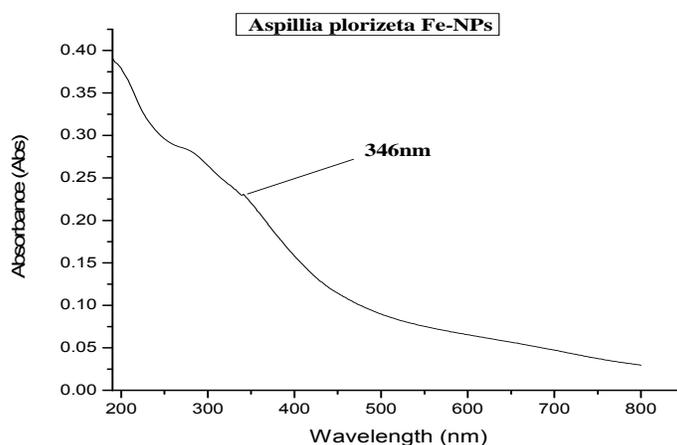
164 **Table 2: Total phenolic and total flavonoid content**

Metabolite	Quantity
Total phenolic content	31.45 \pm 0.017 mg GE/g DW
Total flavonoid content	7.223 \pm 0.081 mg RE/g DW

165 Results shown in Table 2 above are presented as the mean \pm standard deviation using the correlation
166 and regression applications in the Microsoft Excel 2013. Polarity of extracting solvent, isolation
167 procedure and compounds present constitutes natural extracts activity. Total phenolic content of
168 aqueous extracts calculated from the calibration curve ($y=0.0043x+0.0464$, $R^2=0.9919$), was
169 31.45 ± 0.017 mg/g gallic acid equivalents/g, and the total flavonoid content calculated from the
170 calibration curve ($y=0.064x+0.0061$, $R^2=0.9955$), was 7.223 ± 0.081 mg/g rutin equivalents/g.
171 Flavonoids and phenolic contents are always considered to be major contributors for the antioxidant
172 activity of plant materials (Jing, *et al.*, 2015). Flavonoids belongs to a family of natural polyphenolic
173 compounds that include flavone, flavonol, flavonone, flavanonol, and isoflavone derivatives. Number
174 of hydroxyl groups and structure in flavonoids play an important role in metal-binding activity. Iron
175 chelates have shown to have pro-oxidant potential (Marslin *et al.*, 2018).

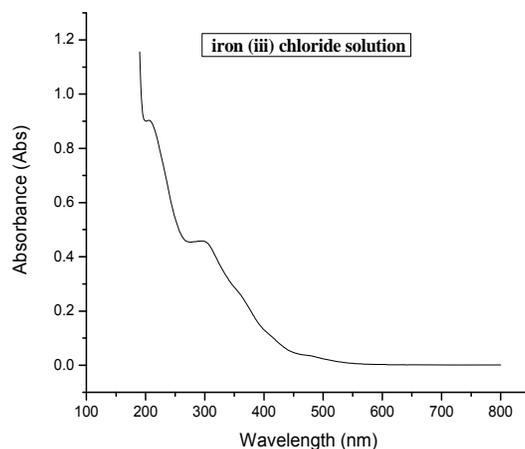
176 3.3 Observations and UV-vis analysis of Iron nanoparticle

177 Figure 1 and Figure 2 shows the UV-Visible spectrum of zero valent iron nanoparticle and iron (iii)
178 chloride solution.



179

180 **Figure 1: Zero valent iron nanoparticle UV-vis spectrum**



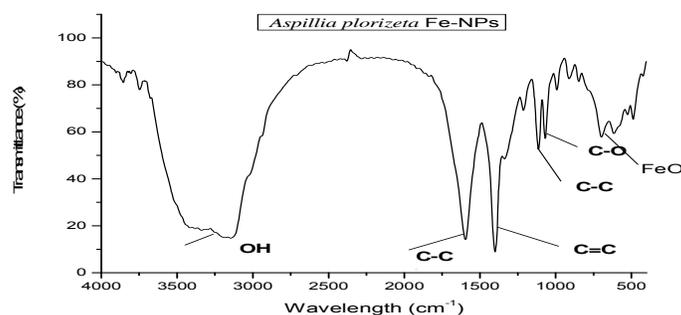
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182 **Figure 2: Iron (iii) chloride UV-Vis spectrum**

183 Optical characterization of synthesized zero valent iron nanoparticle was achieved by studying
 184 absorption spectra of green synthesized Fe-NPs (fig.1) and aqueous solution of iron (iii) chloride
 185 (fig.2). From preliminary characterization of Fe^{3+} ions bio-reduction using UV-Visible absorption
 186 spectrum, a peak was recorded at 346nm as shown in (fig.1) which is almost similar from previous
 187 work done by (Chaki, *et al.*, 2015). Aqueous solution of iron (iii) chloride gave two peaks at 214nm
 188 and 286nm. Thus absence of a peak at 214nm and 286nm in the NPs spectrum could signify
 189 formation of zero valent iron NPs. Greater change in absorption spectra, indicates that *Aspillia*
 190 *plorizeta* alone acts as a better stabilizer, this is in agreement from work done by (Jain & Mehata,
 191 2017) . Presence of a single peak in the NPs developed indicates ,particles formed are of uniform size
 192 and shape (Joe, *et al.*, 2011). Upon addition of *Aspillia plorizeta* leaf extract into $FeCl_3$ solutions in the
 193 ratio of 5:2 at room temperature a visible color change was observed as the yellow aqueous solution
 194 of $FeCl_3$ turned to black (Balamurugan, *et al.*, 2014). Color change is the most easy and commonly
 195 used indicator of metal nanoparticles formation (Atarod, *et al.*, 2016).

196 **3.4 FT-IR characterization**

197 Figure 3 shows the FT-IR spectrum of *Aspillia plorizeta* iron oxide nanoparticle.



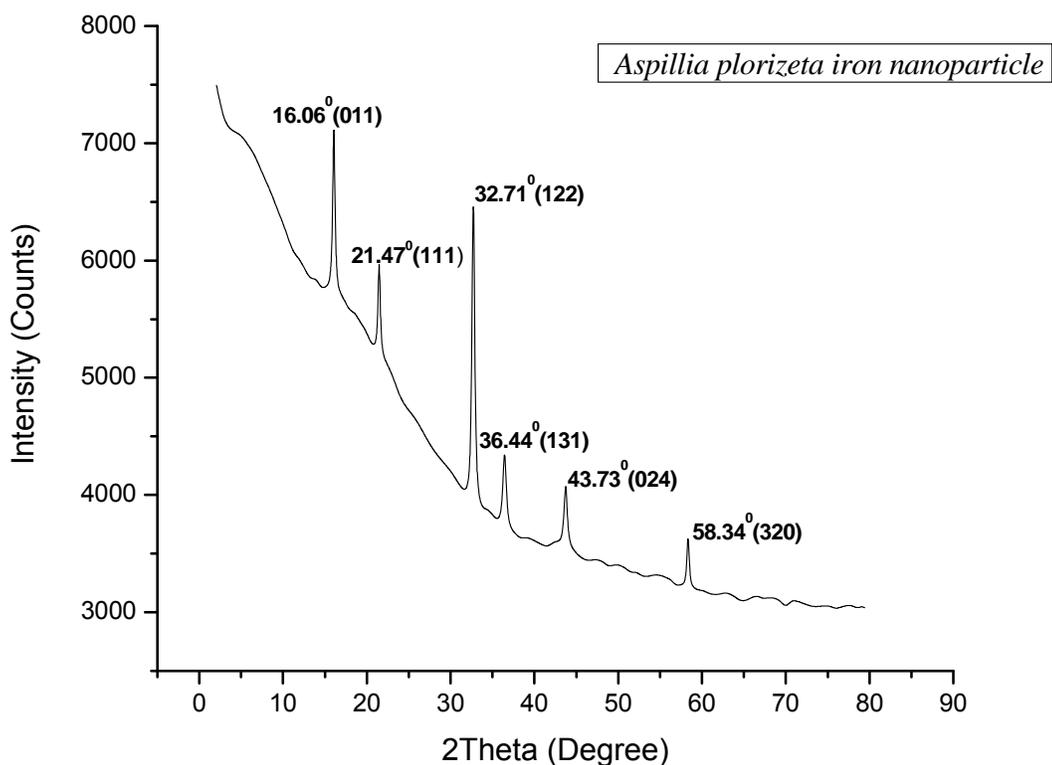
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199 **Figure 3: FTIR analysis of Zero Valent Iron nanoparticle**

200 The strong and broad peak at 3145.7cm^{-1} is due to OH stretching vibration arising from hydroxyl
201 groups from the phenolics on nanoparticles, it also denotes reduction of the iron (iii) chloride. The
202 absorption peaks 700.1cm^{-1} and 619.1cm^{-1} corresponds to the Fe-O bond vibration of the formed
203 nanoparticle, absorption peak 1400.2cm^{-1} corresponds to aromatic stretch of C=C while the peak at
204 1596.9cm^{-1} is attributed to C-C stretch ring in aromatics. Peaks at $1000\text{-}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ corresponds to C-
205 O stretching vibrations (Khodadadi, *et al.*, 2017). Other remaining peaks corresponds to small amount
206 of organic acids responsible for low pH of the sample helping in synthesis of NPs
207 (Kanagasubbulakshmi, *et al.*, 2017). From the FT-IR analysis in (fig. 3) presence of hydroxyl groups of
208 phenolic in plant extract acts as bio-reductant agents and are directly responsible for reduction of Fe^{3+}
209 ions to zero valent iron NPs (Samaneh, *et al.*, 2017).

210 **3.5 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)**

211 Figure 4 shows the x-ray powder diffraction patterns for zero valent iron nanoparticles



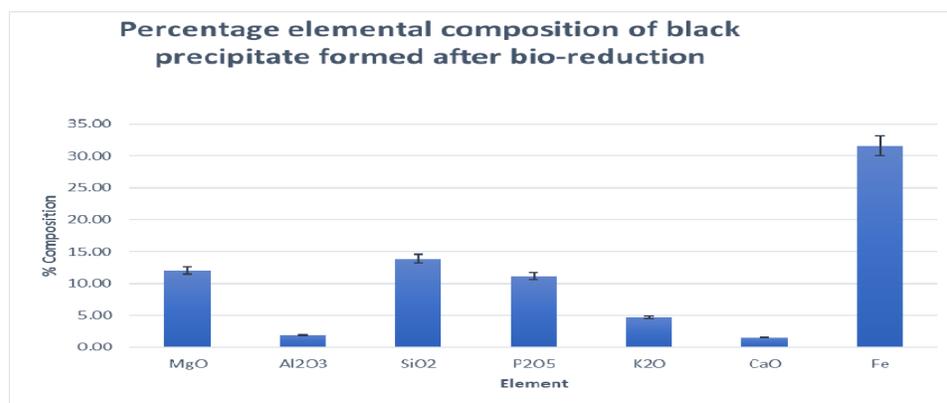
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214 **Figure 4: XRD analysis of Zero Valent Iron nanoparticles**

215 Crystallinity of the zero valent iron nanoparticles was determined by analysis of XRD patterns shown
 216 in Fig. 4. Characteristic peaks shown by the freshly prepared zero valent iron nanoparticles were
 217 $2\theta = (16.06^\circ, 21.47^\circ, 32.71^\circ, 36.44^\circ, 43.73^\circ \text{ and } 58.34^\circ)$. Peak at 16.06° indicates polyphenols present
 218 in plant that aids in reduction of iron (iii) salts while peak at 43.73° indicates formation of zero valent
 219 iron nanoparticles (Yuvakkumar et al., 2011). Other remaining peaks 21.47° could be as a result of
 220 iron oxhydroxide (FeOOH), 36.44° is due to presence of magnetite (Groiss et al., 2017), 32.71° is
 221 almost similar to work done by (Jain & Mehata, 2017) and 58.34° was as a result of the bioorganic
 222 crystallization on the surface of the nanoparticles (Rafi et al., 2018). Corresponding crystal planes of
 223 various peaks shown in fig. 4 above are 011, 111, 122, 131, 024 and 320 respectively. Formation of the
 224 various crystal planes emanated from crystallite growth of iron metal with oxygen species (Marslin et
 225 al., 2018). Presence of distinctive diffraction peaks indicates formed NPs are not amorphous (Wang,
 226 Fang, & Megharaj, 2014). From the XRD spectrum it is evident that as intensity increases the peaks
 227 also increases this is due to capping of biomaterials from *Aspillia plorizeta* leaf extract on surface of
 228 nanoparticles (Ullah, et al., 2018).

229 3.6 X-Ray Fluorescence Spectrophotometric analysis

230 XRF spectroscopy was used to determine the elemental composition of the precipitate formed and the
 231 results are depicted in figure 5.



232

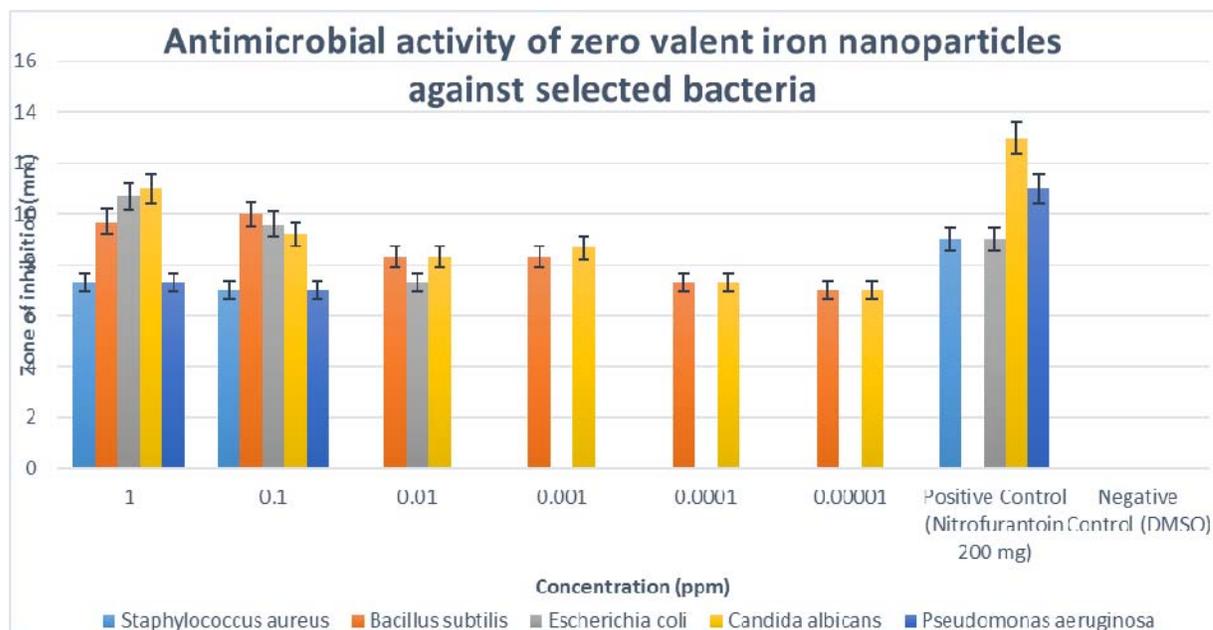
233 **Figure 5: Percentage elemental composition of black precipitate formed after bio-reduction**

234

235 X-RF spectrophotometer was used to determine elemental composition, results obtained confirmed
 236 presence of Fe 31.58%, MgO 12.02%, Al₂O₃ 1.883%, SiO₂ 13.84%, P₂O₅ 11.14%, K₂O 4.699% and
 237 CaO 1.522%. Thus from data in (figure. 5), presence of iron in developed nanoparticle was
 238 confirmed. Relatively higher percentage of FeO was as a result of bio-reduction of Fe³⁺ ions. SiO₂
 239 (13.84%) in the developed nanoparticle provides the following merits; helps in binding various
 240 biological or the other ligands at NPs surface for various application, helps nanoparticles to possess
 241 good biocompatibility and avoids interparticle interaction. (Wu, He, & Jiang, 2008).

242 3.7 Antimicrobial activity

243 Figure. 6 shows the observed zone of inhibition of the five selected microorganisms and various
244 concentrations of developed NPs obtained through serial dilutions.



245

246 **Figure: 6 Antimicrobial activity of zero valent iron nanoparticles against selected bacteria**

247 Antibiotic susceptibility test applied in our present study was the standard disk diffusion assay on the
248 following microorganism *Bacillus subtilis*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus*
249 *aureus* and *Candida albicans*. The zones of inhibition (mm) exhibited by the various concentrations of
250 synthesized nanoparticle in relation to the standard drug (Nitrofurantoin 200 mg) is presented in figure
251 6 above. Of the five selected microorganism, the developed NPs is more effective in *Escherichia coli*
252 at concentrations above (0.1ppm) in comparison to the standard drug which had a zone of inhibition
253 (9.000 mm). *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Candida albicans* and *Staphylococcus aureus* were the most
254 resistant strains. The negative control in our experiment was (DMSO) did not exhibit any zone of
255 inhibition. *Bacillus subtilis* was more effective at even very lower concentrations(0.00005ppm)
256 Polyphenols are well recognized for their antibacterial activities (Devatha *et al.*, 2018).Polyphenols
257 with iron nanoparticles binding play an important role in prevention of oxidative stress caused by
258 generation of reactive oxygen species. Mechanism of antimicrobial activity of the iron nanoparticle can
259 be summarized in three steps; antibiotic enters the cell, thereafter it must accumulate to a minimum
260 concentration within the cell and finally it acts on its target. The antimicrobial potential of zero valent
261 iron nanoparticles is similar to the original aqueous plant extract (Kanagasubbulakshmi & Kadirvelu,
262 2017).

263 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

264 Results exhibited from characterization and antimicrobial activity of zero valent iron nanoparticles, is a
265 confirmation that *Aspillia plorizeta* aqueous can be used as a reducing and stabilizing agent in
266 synthesis of nanoparticles .Incorporating green synthesis approach in our studies provides a clean,
267 cheap and safer method. Even though nanoparticles have been used extensively for applications
268 such drug discovery, drug conveyance and disease diagnostics, availability of different plant species
269 which have not been explored, provides scientists with another great opportunity to discover other
270 new therapeutic agents which could act efficiently against target bacteria, thus quelling the challenge
271 of drug resistance.

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