

GC-MS Analysis, Antibacterial and Antibiofilm Activities of Extracts of *Zingiber Officinalis* against *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

Chinedu G. Ohaegbu¹, Anayochukwu C. Ngene¹, Chibuzo V. Alisigwe²

¹Department of Microbiology, Michael Okpara University of Agriculture Umudike, Abia State, Nigeria. ²Department of Chemistry, Federal College of Education (Technical), Gombe, Gombe State, Nigeria

*Corresponding Author Email: chineduohaegbu@gmail.com

Phone: +2347036962377

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received: 11th November, 2021

Accepted: 25th January, 2022

KEYWORDS

Extract; Phytochemical
Constituents; Inhibitory
Concentration; Bactericidal
Concentration; Antibiofilm
Concentration; Cell attachment

Pharmacology and Toxicology
of Natural Medicines ISSN:
2756-6838

Published by **Phytomedicine
Research Group**, Department of
Pharmacology & Toxicology,
Faculty of Pharmacy, University
of Benin, Benin City 300001,
Nigeria

ABSTRACT

Background and Purpose: *Zingiber officinalis* Roscoe (Zingiberaceae) is used in ethnomedicine for conditions related to bacterial infections. This present study was carried out to determine the chemical composition of *Zingiber officinalis* extract and evaluate its antibacterial and antibiofilm activities.

Methods: Extracts were obtained using ethanol, methanol and water as solvents and the phytochemical composition of the ethanol extract was determined using GC-MS analysis. The antibacterial and antibiofilm activities were done using the tetrazolium microplate assay method.

Results: Twenty-seven bioactive phytochemical compounds were identified in the ethanol portion. The dominant compounds were gingerol (10.61%); 2-butanone, 4-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl) (9.35 %); 9,12-octadecadienoic acid (8.55 %); 1,3-cyclohexadiene, 5-(1,5-dimethyl-4-hexenyl)-2-methyl (7.74%). The extracts exhibited significant antibacterial activity but stimulated biofilm formation when compared with ciprofloxacin.

Conclusion: The results of this study show that *Zingiber officinalis* possesses some antibacterial properties and can be used to prevent and treat infections caused by sensitive bacteria.

LICENSE: This article by Pharmacology and Toxicology of Natural Medicines is licensed and published under the Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided this article is duly cited.

COPYRIGHT: The Author(s) completely retain the copyright to this published article.

OPEN ACCESS: The Author(s) approves that this article remains permanently online in the open access (OA) model.

QA: This Article is published in line with the principles of "COPE (Committee on Publication Ethics) and PIE (Publication Integrity & Ethics)".

INTRODUCTION

Ginger (*Zingiber officinalis*), is a slender perennial herb that reaches two feet in height and has greenish flowers that resemble orchids. The rhizomes are aromatic, thick lobbed, white to yellowish brown, irregularly branched, annulated and compressed with smooth surface (Warrier *et al.*, 1997). The dried rhizome of ginger contains approximately 1-4% of volatile oils which are the medicinally active ingredients that are responsible for the characteristic odour and taste (Shareef *et al.*, 2016). It originated from tropical Asia but it is now cultivated as a commercial crop in India, China, Australia, America, Africa as well as South East Asia (Zachariah, 2008).

It has a long history of medicinal use dating back 2500 years in China and India for conditions such as nausea and vomiting, diarrhea, dyspepsia, rheumatism, and colds (Njobdi *et al.*, 2018). It is extensively utilized worldwide as a spice, flavoring agent and herbal remedy. In different traditional systems, it is used to cure a variety of diseases such as nausea, vomiting, asthma, palpitation, inflammation, dyspepsia, loss of appetite, constipation, digestion and pain (Pieters and Vlietinck, 2005; Balunas and Kinghorn, 2005).

The major pungent compounds of fresh ginger are active gingerols which are derivatives of phenols. The most abundant compound is 6-gingerol which appears to be responsible for characteristic taste of ginger and works synergistically with 6-shogaol in having antipyretic, analgesic, anti-inflammatory, anti-tussive and hypotensive effects (Khushtar *et al.*, 2009; Altameme *et al.*, 2015). Patients often seek alternative and complementary therapy, and ginger is one of the most popular herbal remedies for inflammatory conditions (Aryaeian and Tavakkoli, 2015). There is a growing interest in detecting natural substances with flavors for the preservation of food and pharmaceuticals (Shim *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011). Interest in ginger has arisen mainly because of its nonvolatile pungent constituents that show remarkable biological activities including anti-inflammatory, antiplatelet aggregation (Nurtjahja-Tjendraputra *et al.*, 2003), antioxidant, immunomodulatory, anti-tumor, anti-apoptotic, hypoglycemic, hypolipidemic, anti-emetic actions (Ali *et al.*, 2008), antihypertensive, antimicrobial and others (Afzal *et al.*, 2001). This study is therefore aimed at determining the GC-MS analysis, antibacterial and antibiofilm activities of ethanol extract of *Zingiber officinalis* against two food borne pathogens.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection and Identification of Plant Material

The rhizomes of the plant *Zingiber officinalis* (ginger) were randomly purchased from Ubaani Main Market in Umuahia metropolis, South East Nigeria. The

identification of the plant material was done in the Forestry Department of Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike, Abia State, Nigeria.

Preparation of Plant Materials

The plant material was air-dried at room temperature for three days and ground to a fine powder in an electric blender (SONIK R, Japan).

Preparation of Aqueous Extracts

Aqueous extraction was done using the modified maceration technique (Remington, 2000). The powdered plant material (50 g) was macerated with 150 mL of distilled water for 3 h with intermittent stirring. This was followed by vacuum filtration using Whatman (No. 1) filter paper in a Buchner funnel. The extraction process was repeated twice on the residue using 100 mL and 50 mL of water at the second and third extraction, respectively. The portions of aqueous extracts obtained were pooled together into small conical flasks, sealed with parafilm and frozen at -4°C before drying. The portions were concentrated to dryness in a hot air oven (SELLECTA CE 0505, USA) at 45°C with constant monitoring. The extract was double-sealed with parafilm and stored in a desiccator to avoid the extracts picking up moisture. The percentage yield was obtained by dividing the weight of extract by the weight of the starting material. The extract was stored at 4°C until used for experiments.

Preparation of Methanol and Ethanol Extracts

Both the ethanol and methanol extracts were prepared using the same process (Remington, 2000). The ground plant material (50 g) was extracted with 150 mL of the solvent in a foiled-sealed flask for 3 h with occasional shaking. Thereafter, the extracts were vacuum filtered using Whatman (No. 1) filter paper in a Buchner funnel. The residues were extracted twice with 100 mL and 50 mL of the solvent. The filtrates were concentrated in an oven at 50°C, and then transferred to a glass petri dish for drying at 60°C for 24 h in a vacuum oven. The extracts were weighed to obtain percentage yields and stored in sealed vials at 4°C.

Preparation of Cultures

Typed bacterial strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were obtained from the Diagnostic Centre of National Veterinary Research Institute, Vom, Plateau State, Nigeria. The strains were *S. aureus* ATCC 12540 and *P. aeruginosa* ATCC 10200.

Glycerol stock cultures of each organism were prepared and kept at -4°C prior to use. The strains were revived onto sterile Tryptone Soy Agar (Oxoid, UK) and incubated at 37°C for 18 h. Selective media were used to confirm their identity. Following incubation, the organisms were inoculated into sterile Tryptone Soy Broth (TSB) and

incubated at 37°C overnight. The overnight culture was standardized to a concentration of 1.0×10^6 CFU/mL. This was done by diluting the overnight cultures with TSB to obtain an absorbance (OD_{590 nm}) of 0.02 for all bacteria (Sandasi et al., 2008).

Biofilm Formation and Quantification

A sterile 96-well flat bottomed microtitre plates was filled with 230 µL TSB per well and thereafter and 200 µL of overnight bacterial culture standardized to a concentration of 1.0×10^6 CFU/mL was pipetted into each well and then incubated at 37°C for 24 h. The negative control wells contained TSB only. After incubation, the contents of the plates were poured off and the wells were washed three times with 300 µL of sterile distilled water. The remaining attached cells were fixed with 250 µL of methanol per well and emptied after 15 min and allowed to dry at a temperature of $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ for 3 h. The plates were stained with 250 µL of 0.1% (w/v) crystal violet per well for 5 min. Excess stain was rinsed by placing the microtitre plate under running water and air drying. The dye bound to adherent cells was re-solubilized with 250 µL of 90% ethanol per well. Absorbance was measured at 570 nm (Stepanovic et al., 2007). Experiments were performed in triplicates.

Analysis of Plant Extracts Using Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS)

The ethanol extract of the *Z. officinalis* was subjected to GC-MS analysis using the instrument GCMS-QP2010 PLUS (SHIMADZU, Japan). The oven temperature was programmed at 80°C for 1.0 min, and was gradually increased to 200°C at 10.0/4.0 min and then ending with 280°C at 10.05 min. Four microlitre (4.0 µL) of sample was injected for analysis. Helium gas of 99.995% purity was used as a carrier gas as well as an eluent.

The flow rate of helium gas was set to 1.58 mL/min. The sample injector temperature was maintained at 250°C and the split ratio was 1.0 throughout the experiment periods. The analysis was done with 70 eV for the ionization mass spectroscopy. The mass spectra were recorded for the mass range 40-600 *m/z* for about 25 min. Based on comparison of their mass spectra, the components were identified. On elution through the column, they were detected as electronic signals as the compounds were separated. As individual compounds eluted from the Gas chromatographic column, they entered the detector (electron ionization detector) where they were bombarded with a stream of electrons causing them to be fragmentized. With a certain mass, the fragments were charged ions. From the mass spectrum graph which was the fingerprint of the molecule, the mass to charge (*m/z*) ratio was calibrated. GC-MS interpretation was carried out using the National Institute of Standard and Technology

(NIST) database, having over 62,000 patterns. The spectra of the known components stored in the NIST Library 2008 WILEY8, FAME were compared with the spectra of the unknown components. The components of the test materials were ascertained by noting their name, molecular weight and structure (Hussein et al., 2017).

Determination of Minimum Inhibitory Concentration and Minimum Bactericidal Concentration

The Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of each extract was determined using the tetrazolium microplate assay as described by Eloff (1998) with slight modifications. The assay was performed using the round-bottomed polystyrene 96-well clear microtitre plates with standard plate layout as proposed by Cos et al., (2006). Briefly, each extract was dissolved in 0.5% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and identical two-fold serial dilutions were made to form 0.03125 – 4.0 mg/mL. Following the serial dilutions, 100 µL of the standard culture (1.0×10^6 CFU/ mL) was then added to all the wells. The plates were sterile-sealed and incubated at 37°C for 24 h. The MIC was detected following the addition of 50 µL of 0.2 mg/mL of INT (2-4-iodophenyl-3-4-nitrophenyl-5-phenyl-2H-tetrazolium chloride) in all the wells and incubating for further 30 min at 37°C. Bacterial growth was determined by observing the colour change of INT in the microplate wells. Biologically active bacterial cells reduce the colourless tetrazolium salt which act as an electron acceptor to a red-coloured formazan product (Berridge et al., 2005). When the solution in the well became clear after incubation with INT, the inhibition of bacterial growth was observed. MIC is defined as the lowest extract concentration that completely inhibits the growth of microorganisms and it is indicated by the first clear well in the column. For the determination of minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC), 20 µL of culture medium from the microtitre plate wells that showed no changes in colour were re-inoculated on Mueller Hinton (MH) agar plates. After 24 h of incubation at 37°C, MBC was determined as the lowest concentration that showed no bacterial growth on MH agar plates. The MIC and MBC determination were performed in duplicate. The positive and negative controls are ciprofloxacin (V.S. International Pvt Ltd. India) and TSB (Oxoid, UK) respectively.

Determination of Minimum Biofilm Inhibitory Concentration (MBIC)

The MBICs of each extract was determined using the methods described by Cernohorská and Votava (2004; 2008) with slight modifications. The experiments were done in a 96-well polystyrene microtitre plates with round bottoms (Sigma Aldrich, Costa, USA). A volume of 75 µL of an overnight standard culture of 1.0×10^6 CFU/mL was added to the wells and the plates incubated for 24 h at

37°C. The wells were washed three times with phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.2) under aseptic conditions to remove unattached bacteria and then dried in an inverted position at a temperature of 60°C for 1 h. Volumes of 100 µL of two-fold dilutions of the respective plant extract were transferred into the dried wells with established biofilms. The microtitre plates were incubated for 18–20 h at 37°C. Following incubation, 50 µL of 0.2 mg/mL of INT was added in all the wells and incubated for further 30 min at 37°C. The MBIC corresponded to the lowest concentration of the extracts which inhibited growth of biofilm cells as indicated by the first clear well. The positive and negative controls were ciprofloxacin (V. S. International Pvt Ltd. India) and Tryptone Soy Broth (TSB) (Oxoid, UK) respectively. The experiment was repeated twice.

Inhibition of Cell Attachment

The extracts were tested for their potential anti-adhesive properties at a concentration of 1 mg/mL. A volume of 200 µL was added to each of the 96-well microtitre plates, and equal volumes of TSB and ciprofloxacin (MIC value) were added as negative and positive controls, respectively. Another volume of 200 µL of standardized culture (1.0×10^6 CFU/mL) was then pipetted into each well to yield a final volume of 400 µL. In triplicate, the cultures were introduced into the wells. Without shaking, the plates were sterile-sealed and incubated at 37°C for 8 h to allow biofilm development and cell attachment (Fairbanks *et al.*, 2014). The modified crystal violet assay following incubation, was performed to assess biofilm biomass, and the results presented as percentage inhibition (Sandasi *et al.*, 2008).

$$\% \text{ inhibition} = \frac{OD (NC) - OD (E)}{OD (NC)} \times 100$$

Where OD is optical density, NC is negative control, and E is experimental.

Assessment of Biofilm Biomass (Crystal Violet Staining Assay)

Cell attachment was assessed using the modified crystal violet (CV) assay (Djordjevic *et al.*, 2002). Before incubation, with sterile distilled water to remove loosely attached cells, the plates were washed three times. The plates were first air-dried before drying for 45 min in an oven at 60°C. Following drying, the wells were stained with 100 µL of 1% crystal violet and incubated at room temperature for 15 min after which the plates were washed three times with sterile distilled water to remove unabsorbed stain. By adding 125 µL of ethanol to destain the wells, the semi-quantitative assessment of biofilm formation was performed. A volume of 100 µL of the destaining solution was then transferred to a cuvette, and the absorbance (OD) was determined at 590 nm using a

spectrophotometer (Spectrumlab S23A, China). The mean OD at 590 nm of the samples was used to calculate the percentage inhibition as described above (Sandasi *et al.*, 2008).

Inhibition of Biofilm Growth and Development

A biofilm was allowed to preform by aliquoting 100 µL of a standardized (1.0×10^6 CFU/mL) culture of the test organisms into a 96-well microtitre plate. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 4 h to allow cell attachment. A volume (100 µL) of each plant extract was added to yield a final concentration of 1 mg/mL in the wells. For positive and negative controls, an equal volume of ciprofloxacin and TSB were added respectively. The plates were further incubated for 24 h before the crystal violet assay was performed (Sandasi *et al.*, 2008).

Statistical Analysis

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to evaluate significant differences between the mean absorbance values obtained without the extracts (controls) and those obtained in the presence of the different extracts used. Differences were considered statistically significant at $P < 0.05$. The means were separated using the Duncan's New Multiple Range Test. The statistical variables were evaluated using the International Business Machines (IBM) Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0 (IBM, USA) for windows software.

RESULTS

Yields of Plant Extracts after Extraction with Different Solvents

Quantitatively, the aqueous extract had the highest yield of 16.58% w/w. This is followed by methanol (11.0% w/w) and ethanol (5.10% w/w) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Yield of Plant extracts after extraction with various solvents

Solvent	Yield (g)	Yield (%w/w)
Water	8.29	16.58
Ethanol	2.55	5.10
Methanol	5.50	11.00

Figure 1 shows the chromatogram of the ethanol rhizome extract of *Z. officinalis*. Twenty-seven (27) compounds were identified and the chromatogram shows 7 prominent peaks in the retention time range 11.292 - 27.492. The Fourth less prominent peak at 11.292 retention time with the peak area 7.74 denotes 1,3- cyclohexadiene, 5-(1,5-dimethyl-4-hexenyl)-2-methyl (Figure 2). The Second less prominent peak at 13.783 retention time having the peak area 9.35% is due to the presence of 2-butanone, 4-(4-

hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl) (Figure 3). The third less significant peak at 21.350 retention time with the peak area 8.55% is 9, 12- octadecadienoic acid (Figure 4).

The largest peak at 23.317 retention time having the peak area 10.61% is gingerol (Figure 5). The other less prominent peaks at other retention times are given in Table 2.

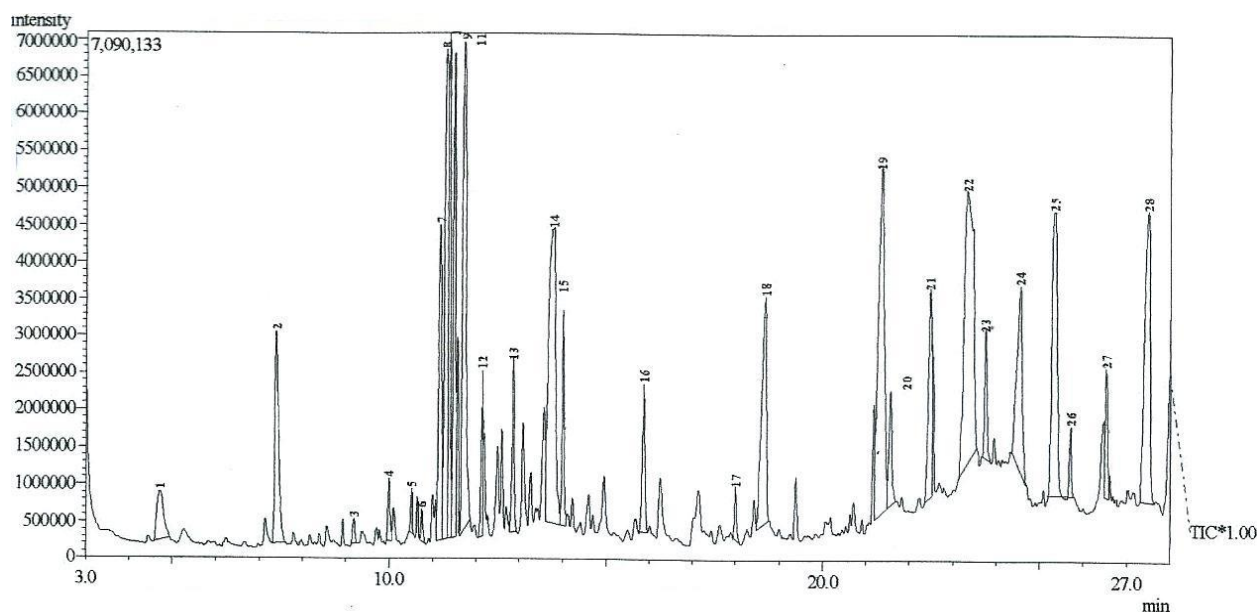


Figure 1: Chromatogram of ethanol rhizome extract of *Zingiber officinalis*

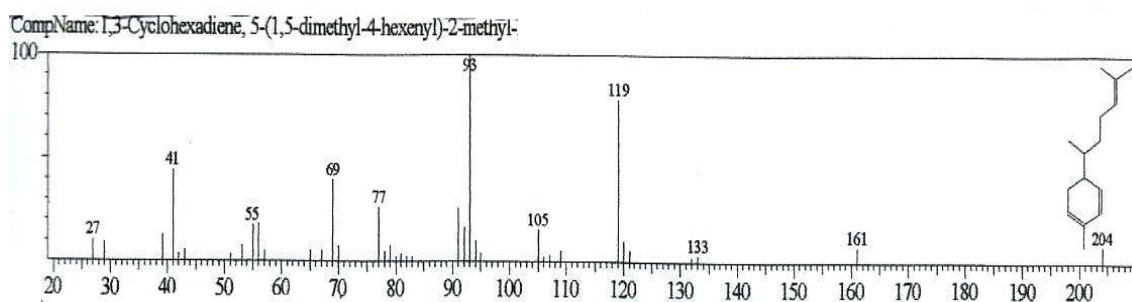


Figure 2: Mass spectrum of 1, 3-cyclohexadiene, 5-(1, 5-dimethyl-4-hexenyl)-2-methyl-

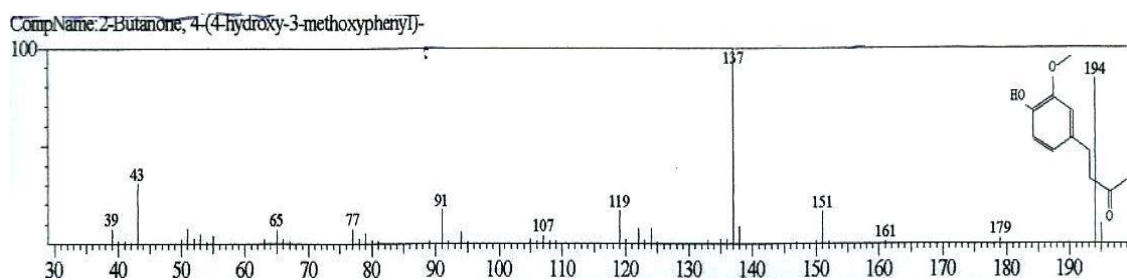


Figure 3: Mass spectrum of 2-butanone, 4-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)-methyl

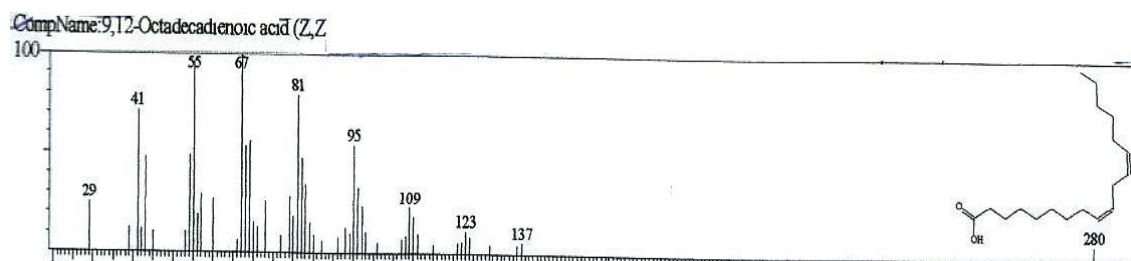


Figure 4: Mass spectrum of 9, 12-octadecadienoic acid (Z, Z)

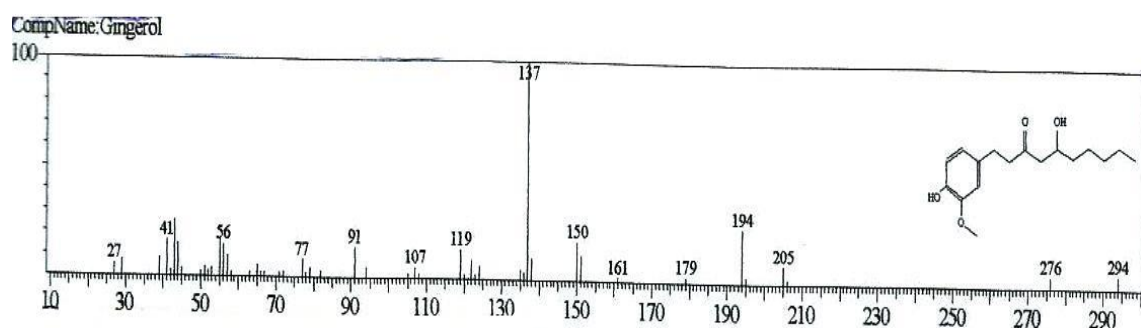


Figure 5: Mass spectrum of gingerol

Table 2a: Identified phytochemical constituents of *Zingiber officinalis* with their retention time, molecular weight and composition

	Retention Time (Min)	Name of Compound	Molecular Formula	MW	Peak Area (%)
1	4.708	Octanal	C ₈ H ₁₆ O	128	1.46
2	7.392	Decanal	C ₁₀ H ₂₀ O	156	3.70
3	9.183	Benzene methanol, 4-(1-methylethyl)	C ₁₀ H ₁₄ O	150	0.27
4	9.983	Cyclohexene, 1-methyl-4-(5-methyl-1-methylene-4-hexenyl)-, (S)	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	204	0.63
5	10.517	Gamma-Elemene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	204	0.32
6	10.750	1,6,10-Dodecatriene, 7,11-dimethyl-3-methylene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	204	0.25
7	11.175	Benzene, 1-(1,5-dimethyl-4-hexenyl) 4-methyl	C ₁₅ H ₂₂	202	3.95
8	11.292	1,3-Cyclohexadiene, 5-(1,5-dimethyl-4-hexenyl)-2-methyl	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	204	7.74
9	11.383	Alpha-Farnesene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	204	4.44
10	11.483	Cyclohexene, 1-methyl-4-(5-methyl-1-methylene-4-hexenyl)-(S)	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	204	4.80
11	11.717	Cyclohexene, 3-(1,5-dimethyl-4-hexenyl)-6-methylene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	204	7.41
12	12.133	1,6,10-Dodecatrien-3-ol,3,7,11-trimethyl-[S-(Z)]	C ₁₅ H ₂₆ O	222	1.52
13	12.858	Alpha-Bisabolol	C ₁₅ H ₂₆ O	222	1.47

Table 2b: Identified phytochemical compounds in *Zingiber officinalis* with their retention time, molecular weight and composition

	Retention Time (Min)	Name of Compound	Molecular Formula	MW	Peak Area (%)
14	13.783	2-Butanone,4-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl	C ₁₁ H ₁₄ O ₃	194	9.35
15	14.000	6,10-Dodecadien-1-yn-3-ol, 3,7,11-trimethyl	C ₁₅ H ₂₄ O	220	2.05
16	15.867	Ledol	C ₁₅ H ₂₆ O	222	1.85
17	18.000	Benzene, 1-(1,5-dimethyl-4-hexenyl)-4-methyl	C ₁₅ H ₂₂	202	0.53
18	18.667	n-Hexadecanoic acid	C ₁₆ H ₃₂ O ₂	256	4.35
19	21.350	9,12-Octadecadienoic acid (Z, Z)	C ₁₈ H ₃₂ O ₂	280	8.55
20	21.558	Octadecanoic acid	C ₁₈ H ₃₆ O ₂	284	1.35
21	22.475	Phenol, 2-methoxy-4-propyl-	C ₁₀ H ₁₄ O ₂	166	3.08
22	23.317	Gingerol	C ₁₇ H ₂₆ O ₄	294	10.61
23	24.550	Capsaicin	C ₁₈ H ₂₇ NO ₃	305	4.10
24	25.333	Cyclohexanone, 2-(2-nitro-2-propenyl)-	C ₉ H ₁₃ NO ₃	183	6.18
25	25.700	4,5-Heptadien-2-one, 3,3,6-trimethyl	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	152	0.60
26	26.533	4-Methoxy-phenyl)-(2-nitrocyclohexyl)-methanol	C ₁₄ H ₁₉ NO ₄	265	1.48
27	27.492	2,5-Octadiene, 3,4,5,6-tetramethyl-	C ₁₂ H ₂₂	166	6.75

Minimum Inhibitory Concentration and Minimum Bactericidal Concentration

The type of solvent used for the extraction greatly influenced the antimicrobial activities of the extracts, with the ethanol extracts showing greater activities against all test organisms than the methanol and aqueous extract (Table 3). The ethanol extract was the most active against the test organisms with MIC values of 0.125 and 0.50 mg/mL against *S. aureus* ATCC 12540 and *P. aeruginosa* ATCC 10200 respectively. The positive control (ciprofloxacin) showed inhibitory activity with MIC values of 0.0625 and 0.05 against *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* respectively. Generally, *S. aureus* (0.5 mg/mL) recorded a high susceptibility to the extracts than *P.*

aeruginosa (1.0 mg/mL) as evidenced by its lower MBC values.

Also, the capability of the plant extracts to attenuate biofilm formation is also shown in Table 3. The potent biofilm inhibition activity was shown by ethanol extract with MBIC value of 2.0 mg/mL and 2.5 mg/mL against *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* respectively. The remainder of the biofilms recorded the lowest resistance to the plant extracts with MBIC value of 4.0 for the methanol extract while the aqueous extract showed no activity within the range of concentrations tested. Within the tested MBIC range (0.03125 to 4 mg/mL), ciprofloxacin showed good biofilm inhibitory activity against the test organisms.

Table 3: Minimum and Bactericidal Inhibitory Concentration of *Zingiber officinalis* against *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa*

Solvent	MIC (mg/mL)		MBC (mg/mL)		MBIC (mg/mL)	
	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>
Aqueous	1.0	1.5	2.0	4.0	NA	NA
Ethanol	0.125	0.5	0.5	1.0	2.0	2.5
Methanol	0.5	1.0	1.0	2.0	4.0	4.0
Ciprofloxacin	0.0625	0.05	0.10	0.10	0.125	0.125

Values are means of duplicate experiments. NA: indicates no activity within the range of concentration tested (0.03125 – 4 mg/mL)

Inhibition of Cell Attachment

Table 4 shows that some of the extracts reduced biofilm biomass compared to the control. However, none of the extracts showed complete inhibition of cell attachment including the positive control ciprofloxacin. Inhibition was expressed as percentage values with the most active extract showing the highest percentage inhibition and *vice-versa*. The ethanol extract, showed selective inhibition against either *S. aureus* or *P. aeruginosa* but not both. The methanol extract seemed to promote attachment of both *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* to the microtitre plate. This is shown by the increase in biofilm biomass of the extract

compared to the control biofilm which was represented as 0% inhibition. *P. aeruginosa* (27.66 %) was more resistant than *S. aureus* (1.96 %) as evidenced by its lower percentage inhibition values compared to that of *S. aureus*.

Inhibition of growth of a preformed biofilm

The ability of the extracts to inhibit growth of a preformed biofilm is shown in Table 5. None of the extracts was able to inhibit the growth of a preformed biofilm. The methanol and ethanol extracts enhanced biofilm growth as evidenced by the increase in biomass compared to the control.

Table 4: Mean biofilm biomass of *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* after exposure to plant extracts at a concentration of 1 mg/mL (inhibition of cell attachment)

Extracts	<i>S. aureus</i> Absorbance (OD ₅₉₀)	Inhibition of Cell Attachment (%)	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> Absorbance (OD ₅₉₀)	Inhibition of Cell Attachment (%)
Ethanol	0.34±0.015 ^c	27.66	0.50±0.050 ^a	1.96
Methanol	0.49±0.020 ^a	-4.26	0.52±0.007 ^a	-1.96
Aqueous	NA	-	NA	-
Ciprofloxacin	0.10±0.021 ^d	78.72	0.17±0.038 ^b	70.59
Control biofilm	0.47±0.011 ^b	-	0.51±0.042 ^a	-

Values in each column followed by different superscript within each column are significantly different from each other at $P < 0.05$. Values are mean ± standard error of three replicates. NA: no activity at 1 mg/mL concentration of the extract. Concentration of ciprofloxacin was 0.0625 mg/ml and 0.05 mg/mL for *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* respectively.

Table 5: Mean Biofilm Biomass of *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* after exposure to plant extracts at a concentration of 1 mg/mL

Extracts	<i>S. aureus</i> Absorbance (OD ₅₉₀)	Inhibition of Preformed Biofilm (%)	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> Absorbance (OD ₅₉₀)	Inhibition of Preformed Biofilm (%)
Ethanol	0.71±0.045 ^b	-1.43	0.97±0.012 ^b	-18.29
Methanol	0.76±0.020 ^a	-8.57	1.12±0.024 ^a	-36.59
Aqueous	NA	-	NA	-
Ciprofloxacin	0.31±0.033 ^c	55.71	0.49±0.015 ^d	40.24
Control biofilm	0.70±0.014 ^b	-	0.82±0.024 ^c	-

Values in each column followed by different superscript within each column are significantly different from each other at $P < 0.05$. Values are mean ± standard error of three replicates. NA: no activity at 1 mg/mL concentration of the extract. Ciprofloxacin was used at a concentration of 0.125 mg/mL for both *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa*.

DISCUSSION

Our present study which was designed to obtain preliminary information on the *in vitro* antibacterial and antibiofilm activities of *Zingiber officinalis* extracts on selected pathogens showed that the ethanol extract of the plant exhibited antibacterial activity as it was active against the two microorganisms. Studies have shown that spices are active against a wide range of microorganism, their efficacy depended on solvent used for extraction, the

type of spice, composition and concentration of secondary metabolites, and the test organisms (Ali *et al.*, 2011; Sawant *et al.*, 2021). In this study, the ethanol extract of *Z. officinalis* tested showed superior antibacterial activity against both *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* compared to the methanol and aqueous extracts. The antimicrobial activity of *Z. officinalis* extracts has been attributed to the presence of oxygenated mono- and sesquiterpene phenolic compounds such as gingerol and shogaol (Michielin *et al.*,

2009; Elaissi *et al.*, 2011; Hossain *et al.*, 2011; Singh *et al.*, 2008). Phenolic compounds are believed to significantly contribute to the overall antimicrobial activity of spices (Condò *et al.*, 2020). Various compounds are believed to interact mainly with the cell membrane to bring about their antimicrobial effects. Firstly, plant metabolites are believed to bond with membrane proteins through hydrophobic and hydrogen bonds, resulting in the subsequent transport of the metabolites through the lipid bilayer. This has been proven for naturally occurring hydrophobic compounds such as essential oil constituents (e.g. carvacrol, eugenol and thymol) that partition into the cytoplasm, due to their hydrophobicity (Condò *et al.*, 2020). A second mechanism involves the disturbance of membrane permeability, resulting in an increase in fluidity and subsequent inhibition of membrane embedded enzymes (Khameneh *et al.*, 2019). Other mechanisms include disruption of both membrane and electron transport systems, which may result in some cellular processes such as respiration being shut down (Khameneh *et al.*, 2019). Phenolic compounds, in particular, are believed to sensitize the cytoplasmic membranes, increasing membrane permeability and reducing the availability of essential intracellular components (Khameneh *et al.*, 2019).

In contrast to the growth inhibitory activity against planktonic cells, biofilms of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* were less susceptible to the extracts. Eradication of bacteria living as biofilm is often more difficult compared to planktonic cells that form biofilms by use of pili to adhere to each other strongly. In the present study, the results of MIC, MBC, and MBIC have highlighted the interesting activity of *Z. officinalis*. The phytochemicals present in the crude ethanol extracts could play an important role in antibacterial activity. Medicinal plants are rich in secondary metabolites some of which are directly involved in the defense mechanisms of the plant against microorganisms (Cowan, 1999). In the current investigation, GC-MS analysis of the ethanol extract of *Z. officinalis* was carried out to identify the phytochemical compounds that might be responsible for any observed antibacterial and antibiofilm activity. Among the compounds identified in the plant extracts, gingerol (5-hydroxy-1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)-decan-3-one) is the most abundant constituent, which has been reported to possess various pharmacological and physiological effects (Bhattara *et al.*, 2001). However, the predominant pungent principles in dried ginger are dehydrated products of gingerols called shogaols (Bischoff-Kont and Furst, 2021). A number of commercial preparations of ginger containing gingerol and/or shogaols have also been developed for the treatment of travel sickness and chronic arthritis (Lete and Allue, 2016).

Inhibition of initial attachment or impeding the growth of an established biofilm is one of the approaches currently used to reduce the accumulation of microorganisms on the surface. Cerca *et al.* (2005), reported that prevention of cell attachment to a substrate is easier to achieve than inhibiting the growth of an established biofilm. Prevention of attachment has become an attractive target in the prevention of infection and contamination of equipment and environmental surfaces in food industries (Zohra *et al.*, 2019). However, the enhancement of cell attachment observed for *Z. officinalis* methanol extract (-1.96%) in this study may have been due to the presence of certain compounds that provided a conditioning film that promoted microbial adhesion (Sandasi *et al.*, 2011). Meadows (1971) reported that substances such as albumin, gelatin, fibrinogen, and casein play an important role in promoting microbial adhesion. This enhancing effect confirms reports that some natural compounds promote the growth of microorganisms (Sandasi *et al.*, 2008). Some essential oil components promote the growth and development of a preformed *L. monocytogenes* biofilm *in vitro* (Sandasi *et al.*, 2008). It has been reported that plant lectins may enhance the adsorption of cells onto a surface by acting as receptors of bacterial glycans, thereby promoting cell attachment (Ofek *et al.*, 2003).

Natural products derived from medicinal plants have been sources of bioactive compounds for the development of novel drug molecules including antimicrobial agents (Cowan, 1999). The results of this work support the study on antibiofilm effects of phenolic compounds of plants on *P. aeruginosa*, which showed that increased biofilm formation are as a result of different plant phenolic compounds, at concentrations that did not or weakly inhibits bacterial growth (Plyuta *et al.*, 2013). In an investigation on *Bacillus subtilis*, biofilm formation was increased under the effect chlorine dioxide, a biocide and it was interpreted that this phenomenon is a self-protective response to the presence of harmful agents in the environment at their sub-lethal concentrations (Shemesh *et al.*, 2010). Similar results have been observed in biofilm studies with the aminoglycoside antibiotics (Ryan *et al.*, 2008). In this study, increase of biofilm formation by *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa*, in presence of *Z. officinalis* extracts, could be a protective response by bacteria to evade the antimicrobial effects of the extracts. It has been shown that some medicinal plants that have antimicrobial activity against planktonic form of some bacteria can induce biofilm formation and consequently more resistance in other bacteria. Another crucial factor in biofilm inhibition is the use of inappropriate amount of plant extracts and the dosage of plant extract which could yield an opposite result i.e., increase in biofilm production (Shemesh *et al.*, 2010).

CONCLUSION

Natural products as alternatives to chemical disinfectants could offer consumers safer alternatives and a broader range of choice. The findings from this study validate the traditional use of the rhizomes of *Zingiber officinalis* for the treatment of bacterial infections. Hence, we conclude that *Z. officinalis* possesses some antibacterial properties and so can be used as potential source of active preservative for food and pharmaceuticals.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank Ome Kalu Achi and Ukwuru Mike Ukwuru for their valuable input and revision of the manuscript.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

FUNDING

This work was funded by contribution from all the authors.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors conceptualized the study. CGO and CAN were responsible for the methodology, analysis, data curation, and manuscript preparation. Review and editing of the manuscript were done by CGO and CVA but all authors agreed on the content before submission.

REFERENCES

- Afzal M, Al-Hadidi D, Menon M, Pesek J, Dhami M (2001). Ginger: an ethnomedical, chemical and pharmacological review. *Drug Metabolism and Drug Interactions* 18(3-4): 159-190.
- Ali B, Blunden G, Tanira M, Nemmar A (2008). Some phytochemical, pharmacological and toxicological properties of ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe): A Review of Recent Research. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* 46(2): 409-420.
- Ali NH, Faizi S, Kazmi SU (2011). Antibacterial activity in spices and local medicinal plants against clinical isolates of Karachi, Pakistan. *Pharmaceutical Biology* 49(8): 833-839.
- Altameme HJ, Hadi MY, Hameed IH (2015). Phytochemical analysis of *Urtica dioica* leaves by fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy and gas chromatography-mass spectroscopy. *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytotherapy* 7(10): 238-252.
- Aryaeian N, Tavakkoli H (2015). Ginger and its effects on inflammatory diseases. *Advances in Food Technology and Nutritional Sciences Open Journal* 1(4): 97-101.
- Balunas MJ, Kinghorn AD (2005). Drug discovery from medicinal plants. *Life Sciences* 78(5): 431-41.
- Berridge MV, Herst PM, Tan AS (2005). Tetrazolium dyes as tools in cell biology: New insights into their cellular reduction. *Biotechnology Annual Review* 11: 127-152.
- Bhattara SI, Trau VH, Duke CC (2001). The stability of gingerol and shogaol in aqueous solutions. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Science* 90: 1658-1664.
- Bischoff-Kont I, Furst R (2021). Benefits of ginger and its constituent 6-shogaol in inhibiting inflammatory processes. *Pharmaceuticals* 14 (6): 571.
- Cerca N, Pier GB, Vilanova M, Oliveira R, Azeredo, J (2005). Quantitative analysis of adhesion and biofilm formation on hydrophilic and hydrophobic surfaces of clinical isolates of *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *Research in Microbiology* 156(4): 506-514.
- Cernohorská L, Votava M (2004). Determination of minimal regrowth concentration (MRC) in clinical isolates of various biofilm-forming bacteria. *Folia Microbiologica* 49: 75-78.
- Cernohorská L, Votava M (2008). Antibiotic synergy against biofilm forming *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Folia Microbiologica* 53: 57-60.
- Condò C, Anacarso I, Sabia C, Iseppi R, Anfelli I, Forti L, Messi P (2020). Antimicrobial activity of spices essential oils and its effectiveness on mature biofilms of human pathogens. *Natural Product Research* 34(4): 567-574.
- Cos P, Vlietinck AJ, Berghe DV, Maes L (2006). Anti-infective potential of natural products: how to develop a stronger in vitro 'proof- of- concept'. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 106: 290-302.
- Cowan MM (1999). Plant products as antimicrobial agents. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 12(4): 564-582.
- Djordjevic D, Wiedmann M, Mcclandsborough LA (2002). Microtitreplate assay for assessment of *Listeria monocytogenes* biofilm formation. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 68: 2950-2958.
- Elaissi A, Salah K, Mabrouk S, Larbi K Chemli R (2011). Antibacterial activity and chemical composition of 20 Eucalyptus species' essential oils. *Food Chemistry* 129: 1427-1434.

- Eloff JN (1998). A sensitive and quick microplate method to determine the minimal inhibitory concentration of plant extracts for bacteria. *Planta Medica* 64: 711-713.
- Fairbanks BD, Thissen H, Maurdev G, Pasic P, White JF, Meagher L (2014). Inhibition of protein and cell attachment on materials generated from N-(2-hydroxypropyl) acrylamide. *Biomacromolecules* 15(9): 3259-3266.
- Habib SH, Makpol S, Hamid NA, Das S, Ngah WZ, Yusof YA (2008). *Clinics.*, 63: 807-813.
- Hossain MA, Shah MD, Sang CV, Sakari M (2011). Chemical composition and antibacterial properties of the essential oils and crude extracts of *Merremia borneensis*. *Journal of King Saud University-Science* 24:243-249.
- Hussein HJ, Hameed IH, Hadi MY (2017). Using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) technique for analysis of bioactive compounds of methanolic leaves extract of *Lepidium sativum*. *Research Journal of Pharmacy and Technology* 10(11): 3981-3989.
- Jamuna BA, Ravishankar RV (2014). Environmental risk, human health, and toxic effects of nanoparticles. *Nanomaterials for Environmental Protection* 31: 523-535.
- Junaid SA, Olabode AO, Onwuliri FC, Okwori AEJ, Agina SE (2006). The antimicrobial properties of *Ocimum gratissimum* extracts on some selected bacterial gastrointestinal isolates. *African journal of Biotechnology* 5(22): 2315-2321.
- Khameneh B, Iranshahy M, Soheili V, Bazzaz B (2019). Review on plant antimicrobials: a mechanism viewpoint. *Antimicrobial Resistance and Infection Control* 8: 118.
- Khushtar M, Kumar V, Javed K, Uma B (2009). Protective effect of ginger oil on aspirin and pylorus ligation-induced gastric ulcer model in rats. *Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Science* 1(5): 554-558.
- Lete I, Allue J (2016). The effectiveness of Ginger in the Prevention of Nausea and Vomiting during Pregnancy and Chemotherapy. *Integrative Medicine Insights* 11: 11-17.
- Michielin EM, Salvador AA, Riehl CA, Smania AJr, Smania EF (2009). Chemical composition and antibacterial activity of *Cordia verbenacea* extracts obtained by different methods. *Bioresource Technology* 100: 6615-6623.
- Njobdi S, Gambo M, Ishaku GA (2018). Antibacterial activity of *Zingiber officinale* on *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Journal of Advances in Biology and Biotechnology* 19(1): 1-8.
- Nurtjahja-Tjendraputra E, Ammit AJ, Roufogalis BD, Tran VH, Duke CC (2003). Effective anti-platelet and COX-1 enzyme inhibitors from pungent constituents of ginger. *Thrombosis Research* 111(4): 259-265.
- Ofek I, Hasty DL, Sharon N (2003). Anti-adhesion therapy of bacterial diseases: Prospects and problems. *FEMS Immunology and Medical Microbiology* 38(3): 181-191.
- Pieters L, Vlietinck AJ (2005). Bioguided isolation of pharmacologically active plant components, still a valuable strategy for the finding of new lead compounds. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 100(1-2): 57-60.
- Plyuta V, Zaitseva J, Lobakova E, Zagorskina N, Kuznetsov A, Khmel I (2013). Effect of plant phenolic compounds on biofilm formation by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *APMIS* 121(11): 1073-1081.
- Remington JP (2000). The science and practice of pharmacy. 20th edition. Lippincott Williams and Wilkins. USA. Pp. 11-17.
- Ryan RP, Fouhy Y, Garcia BF, Watt SA, Niehaus K, Yang L, ... Dow JM (2008). Interspecies signalling via the *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* diffusible signal factor influences biofilm formation and polymyxin tolerance in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Molecular Microbiology* 68(1): 75-86.
- Sandasi M, Leonard CM, Viljoen AM (2008). The effect of five common essential oil components on *Listeria monocytogenes* biofilms. *Food Control* 19: 1070-1075.
- Sandasi M, Leonard CM, Van Vuuren SF, Viljoen AM (2011). Peppermint (*Mentha piperita*) inhibits microbial biofilms in vitro. *South African Journal of Botany* 77(1): 80-85.
- Sawant D, Deshpande P, Shedge V, Phadke M, Sahani A, Godbole CS (2021). Antimicrobial activity of spices against gram positive and Gram-negative organisms. *African journal of Biological Sciences* 3(3): 37-40.
- Shareef HK, Muhammed HJ, Hussein HM, Hameed IH (2016). Antibacterial effect of ginger (*Zingiber officinale*) roscoe and bioactive chemical analysis using gas chromatography mass spectrum. *Oriental Journal of Chemistry* 32(2): 20-40.

Shemesh M, Kolter R, Losick R (2010). The biocide chlorine dioxide stimulates biofilm formation in *Bacillus subtilis* by activation of the histidine kinase KinC. *Journal of Bacteriology* 192(24): 6352-6356.

Shim S, Kim S, Choi DS, Kwon, YB, Kwon J (2011). Anti-inflammatory effects of 6 shogol: Potential roles of HDAC inhibition and HSP70 induction. *Food Chemical Toxicology* 49: 2734-2740.

Singh G, Kapoor IP, Singh P, de Heluani CS, de Lampasona MP (2008). Chemistry, antioxidant and antimicrobial investigation on essential oil and oleoresins of *Zingiber officinale*. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* 46: 3295-3302.

Stepanovic S, Cirkovic I, Ranin L, Svabic-Vlahovic M (2007). Biofilm formation by *Salmonella spp.* and *Listeria monocytogenes* on plastic surface. *Letters in Applied Microbiology* 38(5): 428-432.

The Wealth of India, Raw materials and cumulative indexes (2009). CSIR, New Delhi: Reprinted, 6: 89-99.

Wang X, Zheng ZJ, Guo XF, Yuan JP, Zheng CC (2011). Preparative separation of gingerols from *Zingiber officinale* by high-speed counter-current chromatography using stepwise elution. *Food Chemistry* 125: 1476-1480.

Warrier PK, Nambier VPK, Ramankutty C (1997). Indian medicinal plants, Arya Vaidya Sala, Orient Longman limited. *Hyderabad* 5:431-3.

Wohlmuth H, Leach DN, Smith MK, Meyers SP (2005). Gingerol content of diploid and tetraploid clones of ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe). *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 53(14): 5772-5778.

Zachariah TA (2008). Ginger. In chemistry of spices by Parthasarathy VA, Chempakam B, Zachariah TJ. CAB International Oxford, UK: P.70-96.

Zohra K, Christopher DM, Erik JS, Thien-Far M, Emilo IA (2019). Bacterial biofilm formation on implantable devices and approaches to its treatment and prevention. *Heliyon* 4 (12): 10-67.