



ANTIBACTERIAL ACTIVITY OF AFRICAN KILLER BEE *Apis mellifera adansonii* VENOM EXTRACT AGAINST ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANT *Acinetobacter species* ISOLATES

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KeyWords

Antibacterial activity, *Acinetobacter species*, African killer bee venom, Multidrug resistance, Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC), Column chromatography, High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to assess the antibacterial activity of African killer bee venom against antibiotic-resistant *Acinetobacter species* isolates, utilizing both extracted and commercial venom from *Apis mellifera adansonii*. *Acinetobacter species* were isolated from four diverse sites, given its prevalence in the environment and its role as a nosocomial pathogen, causing infections in hospital ICUs. The study sites included Abattoir soil and effluent, ABUTH Gynecology department, and ABUTH Veterinary hospital examination table and tray. Among the sixty samples collected, 18 (56.28%) isolates of *Acinetobacter species* were recovered. Identification was based on colonial morphology, standard biochemical tests, and the AP120NE multi-test system. Venom extraction utilized an electric-shock collector device (VC-6F), and sterility was ensured through membrane filtration. Sensitivity tests on positive *Acinetobacter species* isolates were conducted for both extracted and commercial venom at concentrations of 7.81mg/ml, 15.26mg/ml, 31.25mg/ml, 62.5mg/ml, and 125mg/ml. The disc diffusion method revealed a multidrug-resistant pattern, with 100% resistance to ciprofloxacin, penicillin, sulfamethoxazole, and ampicillin, 90% to chloramphenicol, and 60% to colistin. No resistance was observed (0%) to imipenem. The Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) required to inhibit *Acinetobacter species* growth was 31.23mg/ml, while the Minimum Bactericidal Concentration (MBC) was 62.5mg/ml. Column chromatography and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) identified Am2, Am3, and Am5 as active components in the venom. HPLC identified Apamin, Melittin, and Phospholipase A2 as unknown components. Statistical analysis, using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), showed

no significant difference in the activity of extracted and commercial venom against *Acinetobacter* species isolates. However, a significant difference was observed between the activity of both venom types and imipenem.

INTRODUCTION

An antimicrobial is any substance that kills or inhibits the growth of microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, or protozoan, as well as killing viruses. The discovery of antimicrobial like penicillin and tetracycline paved the way for better health for millions around the world. Before 1941, the year in which penicillin was discovered, no true cure existed for some diseases such as gonorrhoea, strep throat, or pneumonia. (Castro *et al.*, 2005). The needs for research of antibacterial activity are important for the health of people globally, because of the importance of finding a new cure for some diseases that occur due to microorganisms. Some of the microorganisms, especially bacteria are becoming resistant to more and more antibacterial agents. By making new research, microorganisms that can kill or inhibit the growth of other bacteria can be found (Weil *et al.*, 1933). Now, most of these infections can be cured easily with a short course of antibacterial. (Abd Manap, *et al.*, 2014). However, the effectiveness of antimicrobial therapy is somehow in doubt. Microorganisms, especially bacteria are becoming more resistant to antimicrobial agents. They are becoming resistant more quickly than new drugs that are being made available. Therefore, future research in antimicrobial therapy may focus on finding the new antimicrobial that can overcome this problem, or treat infections with alternative means (Abd Manap *et al.*, 2014). The increase in life-threatening infections that are resistant to commonly used antibiotics has become a worldwide problem. It is becoming an important cause of morbidity in immunocompromised patients in developing countries (Nablo *et al.*, 2005). The increasing prevalence of multi-drug resistant strains of bacteria and the recent appearance of strains with reduced susceptibility to antibiotics has raised the specter of untraceable bacterial infection and adds urgency to search for new infection-fighting strategies (Ito *et al.*, 1995; Britland *et al.*, 2011). Presently, there are global problems of the emergence of multiple antibiotic resistance as well as the emergence of new and "resurrection" of previously eradicated diseases. There is a need to search for new and more potent antimicrobial compounds of natural origin to complement the existing synthetic antimicrobial drugs that are gradually becoming less potent against pathogenic microorganisms (Castro *et al.*, 2005). The continuous spread of multi-drug resistant pathogens has become a serious threat to public health and a major concern for infection control practitioners worldwide (Sanders and Sanders, 2014). In addition to increasing the cost of drug regimens, this scenario has paved way for the re-emergence of previously controlled diseases and has contributed substantially to the high frequency of opportunistic and chronic infection cases in developing countries (Dobrovolsky and Titaeva 2002; Wysocki *et al.*, 1999). Abuse and misuse of antibiotics in humans and livestock have spurred the evolutionary development of bacteria that have selective resistance to antibiotics. Following this lead, it is imperative to develop new alternative substances to replace antibiotic to minimize the damage or loss that human and livestock farming industry may suffer by the exclusion of antibiotic from animal feed and to ensure continuous improvement of human health and livestock productivity (Dibner and Richards, 2005). Bee venom is a mixture of several components with proven therapeutic benefits, among which are anti-inflammatory, analgesic and various cardiovascular effects. The therapeutic application of bee venom has been used in traditional medicine to treat diseases since ancient times (Hegazi, 2015). It also has biological activity against arthritis (Jensen *et al.*, 1987), rheumatism, pain, tendonitis, fibromyositis, rheumatoid arthritis and osteoarthritis (Son *et al.*, 2007; Han *et al.*, 2009). It also inhibits mammary carcinoma cell proliferation (Orsolich *et al.*, 2003), and cytotoxic to malignant cells both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Shaposhnikova *et al.*, 2001). Bee venom was also used as a cure for baldness, therapy against gout and was prescribed to improve the low of uric acid and against kidney stones and it is also used cosmetically to 'fool' the skin into thinking it has been lightly stung with the toxin melittin. This causes the body to direct blood towards the area and stimulates the production of the naturally-occurring chemicals, collagen, and elastin. Collagen strengthens body tissue while elastin is the protein that helps the skin to remain taut and bounce back into shape after being pressed or pinched. The venom also has the effect of relaxing the muscle and against aging-related human face wrinkles which have been scientifically proven (Doo *et al.*, 2015). Kim *et al.* (2012) reported that bee venom has activity against diseases of central and peripheral nervous systems and other skin diseases and also on HIV virus. However, venom administration was reported to stimulate the function of the immune system and to affect the release of cortisol production, known as a natural anti-inflammatory agent (Castro *et al.*, 2005). Bee venom was also found to have antibacterial activity on some Gram-positive bacteria species which include *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, and gram-negative bacteria such as *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Holton 1983; Hepburn and Hepburn. (2005); Pak, 2016; Hegaziet *al.*, 2015b).

STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Antibiotic resistance is a global problem. It is a trans-boundary problem where the organism requires no international passport. It is considered to be one of the greatest threats to public health.

According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention of the USA, at least 2 million infections that occur each year in the US are caused by resistant bacteria (Oberoi *et al.*, 2018). The estimated direct economic losses due to resistant bacterial infections in man amounts to US \$20 billion and additional costs due to loss in productivity as well is over US \$20 billion. Apart from economic losses, antimicrobial resistance adds enormous pressure on health care delivery, requires a prolonged stay in the hospital, more expensive treatment options, and greater expenditure and patient turnaround time due to additional tests including sensitivity tests. Such individuals overall have higher chances of dying (Olaitan *et al.*, 2013). The rapid expansion of *Acinetobacter Species* isolates exhibiting resistance to carbapenems and most or all available antibiotics during the last decade is a worrying evolution (Doern, 2014). The evolutionary advantage of the dominant clonal lineages relies on the capability of the *Acinetobacter Species* pangenome to incorporate resistance determinants. In particular, the simultaneous presence of divergent strains of the international clone II and their increasing prevalence in international hospitals further support the ongoing adaptation of this lineage to the hospital environment (Olaitan *et al.*, 2013). Genomic and genetic studies have elucidated the role of mobile genetic elements in the transfer of antibiotic resistance genes and substantiate the rate of genetic alterations associated with acquisition in *Acinetobacter Species* of various resistance genes, including OXA- and Metallo- β -lactamase-type carbapenemase genes (Dijkshoorn *et al.*, 2007). Establishment of a network of reference laboratories in different countries would generate a more complete picture and a fuller understanding of the importance of high-risk *Acinetobacter Species* clones in the international dissemination of antibiotic resistance (Villegas and Hartstein, 2003). Several species persist in hospital environments, sewage, effluent, soil and cause severe life-threatening infections in immune-compromised patients (Dijkshoorn *et al.*, 2007). These organisms have been implicated in a diverse range of infections and are particularly problematic in intensive care units (Gordon *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, detection of *Acinetobacter Species* carriers and the establishment of isolation measures are of crucial importance to preventing the development of nosocomial infections. This organism has been reported to have been isolated from African countries including Egypt, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Senegal, Nigeria, South Africa and Madagascar (Higgin *et al.*, 2010). Odewale *et al.* (2017) stated that the prevalence of *Acinetobacter Species* isolated from hospital environment was 8.5% and was more prevalent among patients (72.7%) in the intensive care unit (ICU), the organisms showed 100% resistance to amikacin, ciprofloxacin, ceftriaxone, piperacillin, and was, however, sensitive to colistin and imipenem. Outbreak of *Acinetobacter* infection in Ogun state Tertiary hospital was linked to contaminated respiratory equipment, intravascular access devices, bedding material, and transmission via hospital personnel (Neely *et al.*, 1999). *Acinetobacter Species* generally occur in patients with diminished host defence (Example: Alcoholism, tobacco use, diabetes Mellitus, renal failure, and underlying pulmonary diseases), in pregnant women, children and the elderly (Richard *et al.*, 2015).

JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Acinetobacter Species has become a problematic nosocomial pathogen, partly due to clonal spread, particularly in intensive care units (ICUs). In the 1970s, *Acinetobacter Species* infection could be treated with common antibiotics, now reports of infections with multidrug or even pan-drug-resistant isolates are alarmingly increasing. Given the problem associated with antibiotic-resistant, pathogenic *Acinetobacter Species*, the development of alternative treatment strategies for the management of *Acinetobacter* infections is needed. Mortality ranges from an attributable in-hospital mortality of 7.8% to 70% in ventilator-associated pneumonia and 72.7% in patients suffering from meningitis. *Acinetobacter Species*, bacteremia is associated with a high mortality rate, ranging from 29% to 46.9% and a diverse spectrum of comorbidities have been investigated as potential risk factors for mortality in these patients such as previous severity of organ failure, neutropenia, elevated APACHE II score, malignancy, inappropriate antimicrobial treatment, pneumonia as the source of bacteraemia and septic shock. The most serious issue in the treatment of *Acinetobacter Species* infection is multidrug resistance (MDR) because the number of appropriately active agents is limited. Studies have reported that antibiotic resistance has an adverse impact on mortality rate, duration of hospitalization and healthcare costs in patients with *Acinetobacter Species* bacteremia (Odewale *et al.*, 2017). One matched-control study conducted showed that mortality rate increased from 13% to 34.6% in *Acinetobacter Species* bacteremia when pathogen possessed MDR and that duration hospitalization and healthcare costs were additionally increased. Given that *Acinetobacter Species* is developing resistance, there is a need to have even more as an alternative. Honeybee venom has been used within the oriental region for the treatment of several inflammatory diseases and bacterial infections. The venom contains predominantly biologically active compounds. Paul and Shumovsky (2015) reported a study on Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) a gram-positive bacterium which was used as a model. The study evaluated bee venom and its principal active components, in terms of their antibacterial activities and *in vivo* protection against MRSA infections. *In vitro*, bee venom or Apitoxin exhibited comparable levels of antibacterial activity, which was more marked against MRSA strains, compared with other Gram-positive bacteria. When MRSA-infected mice were retreated with the venom, only the latter animals were successfully rescued from MRSA-induced bacteremia or exhibited re-

covery from MRSA-infected skin wounds (Littlewood *et al.*, 2000;Shumovsky,2015).

AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to determine the antibacterial activity of killer bee (*Apis mellifera adansonii*) venom against antibiotic-resistant *Acinetobacter Species* isolates.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives were to:

1. isolate and identify *Acinetobacter Species* from Abattoir soil, abattoir effluent, ABU teaching hospital, and ABU Veterinary Teaching hospital
2. extract the venom from *A. mellifera adansonii*
3. determine the antibacterial activity of extracted venom of African killer bee *Apis mellifera adansonii* against antibiotic-resistant *Acinetobacter Species* isolates.
4. determine the antibacterial activity of commercial venom from African killer bee *Apis mellifera adansonii* against antibiotic-resistant *Acinetobacter Species* isolates
5. determine the Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) and Minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) of the extracted venom of the killer bee *Apis mellifera* against antibiotic-resistant *Acinetobacter Species* isolates.
6. determine the different and active components of the extracted venom using Column and High-Performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

STUDY AREA

The study was carried out in Zaria Metropolis which comprised of Zaria, Sabon Gari and Sobalocal Governments of Kaduna State, Nigeria. The area lies between latitude $11^{\circ} 00'N$ to latitude $12^{\circ} 12'N$ and longitude $07^{\circ} 33'E$ to $08^{\circ} 03'E$ with an altitude of 675 meters above the sea level. The area is characterised by tropical continental climate with two distinct seasons, cool humid wet season and cold or hot dry season. The area has an average daily temperature range of $17^{\circ}C$ to $33^{\circ}C$ and total land area of $5,126 km^2$. (KDSG, 2008). The area has an estimated population of 1,279,253 and a density population of $1,400/km^2$ (NPC, 2006) (Figure 3.1). Majority of the residents are Hausa-Fulani with an estimated of 40 % to 75 % of the working population deriving their livelihood from agriculture. Agriculture in the area can be divided into two types: Rain- fall (from May to October) and irrigation farming in the dry season (from November to April).

Study Population

The bee farms used in this study were maintained by Jora farm Associates. The farm is located at Jahi, Abuja, Nigeria. Jahi is a populated settlement in Abuja Federal Capital Territory. It is located at an elevation of 568 meters above sea level and its population amounts to 250,459. Its coordinates are $9^{\circ}6'15'' N$ and $7^{\circ}26'33'' E$ in DMS (Degrees Minutes Seconds) or 9.10417 and 7.4425 (in decimal degrees). The farm has about twenty (20) active Warren hives each containing over 20,000 Killer bees.

STUDY DESIGN / SAMPLING METHOD

An experimental study design was used to determine the antibacterial activity of venom from *A. mellifera* against antibiotic resistant *Acinetobacter Species* isolates using Non-Probability sampling technique based on Purposive was used for the research work. The experiment was divided into three (3) groups according to the study of Hegazi, *et al.*, 2015

Group A - Positive control (*Escherichia coli* 10788 (Standard strain))

Group B - negative control (distilled water)

Group C - test sample (extracted venom (A pitoxin))

The Group A was used as a positive control, group B served as the negative control and the Group C was tested against the positive isolates of multi-drug resistant *Acinetobacter Species* at the concentration

nof 125mg/ml, 62.5mg/ml, 31.25mg/ml, 15.62mg/ml and 7.81mg/ml as described by Hegazi *et al.*, 2015. Twenty (22) plates of sterile Mueller-Hilton agar were used. The agar surface was inoculated by spreading a volume of the microbial inoculums over the entire surface.

Then, wells with a diameter of 6mm were aseptically bored and a volume of 20 µl of the venom extract were introduced into the wells, as well as for the positive and negative control plates. Then the agar plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours.

SAMPLE COLLECTION

Fifteen samples each were collected from a battoir soil and effluent, ABUTH Gynaecology department, and ABU Veterinary teaching hospital (examination table). 10 grams of the soil samples were collected at different points in the selected site, while 20 ml of effluents were also collected from different point at the selected site. Swab sticks were used to collect samples from ABUTH-patient beds, tables, sinks, floor, and medical equipment, while in the veterinary environment swab sticks were also used to collect sample from the examination table. The swab sticks, soil samples and effluent were transported to the laboratory for further isolation process.

MEDIA PREPARATION

The study used a formulation of CHROMagar *Acinetobacter* that was designed for the detection of *Acinetobacter* species. CHROMagar *Acinetobacter* was prepared from dehydrated powder and liquid supplement according to the manufacturer's instructions (CHROMagar; Paris, France). MacConkey agar with Chloramphenicol was prepared in the laboratory from dehydrated MacConkey powder according to manufacturer's instructions (BD, Sparks, MD), and supplemented with 300 µl of 20 mg/ml stock of Chloramphenicol solution per one litre of MacConkey solution for a final concentration of 6 µg/ml. Chloramphenicol concentration of 6 µg/ml was chosen to select for intermediate and resistant *Acinetobacter* species using Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) breakpoints (CLSI, 2010).

Isolation and Identification of *Acinetobacter* Species

In the Laboratory under aseptic conditions, the specimens collected from soil and effluent were inoculated in Tryptone Soya broth and incubated for 24 hours at 37°C, while the swab specimens from ABUTH Gynaecology department and ABU Veterinary hospital were suspended in 20 ml of Tryptone Soya broth and incubated for 24 hours at 37°C. After that, the swab specimens were streaked directly on CHROM-agar and MacConkey agar and incubated for 24 hrs at 37°C. The conspicuously red, round and smooth colonies on CHROM-agar and non-lactose fermenting colonies on MacConkey agar were sub-cultured on MacConkey agar and incubated for another 24 hrs at 44°C (Fobes *et al.*, 2007). *A. species* isolates were identified using the morphological and biochemical tests. All isolates were examined for gram stainability and conventional biochemical tests which included the Catalase test, Oxidase test, Indole production test, Motility test, Urease production test, Lactose fermentation test, and Citrate utilization test. Identification results were done using API 20NE System (Hegazi, *et al.*, 2015).

GRAM STAIN

A smear of the individual colony was made on a clean grease-free slide. Slides were relabelled accordingly and stained as follows (Cheesbrough, 2000):

1. A smear of the cultured organism was made on a grease-free slide using a sterilized wire loop and was air-dried.

The slide was fixed by passing over a flame three times and allowed to cool.

2. Slides were covered with crystal violet for 1 minute.

3. Slides were drained and were washed in slow running water.

4. Slides were covered with Lugol's iodine for 30 seconds and rinsed in slow running water.

Slides were decolorized with 70% alcohol.

5. Slides were covered with safranin reagent for 30 seconds and were rinsed under slow running water.

Slides were air-dried. Oil immersion was applied on each slide and was examined under the microscope using oil immersion.

BIOCHEMICAL TEST

Catalase Test

A colony of culture was placed on the slide and a 2-3 drop of 10% hydrogen peroxide was added to it. The appearance of gas bubbles within 2-3 seconds indicated positive results. It is used to distinguish catalase enzyme producers from non-producer (Cheesbrough, 2000).

CITRATE UTILIZATION TEST

About 2.4g of Simmons citrate was dissolved in 100ml of distilled water and autoclaved. It was also allowed to cool and poured into sterile bottles in a slanting position. It was allowed to solidify and the slope surface was inoculated and incubated at 37°C for 96 hours. A change from green to blue indicated an alkaline reaction arising from citrate utilization when the citrate is not utilized, the greenish colour remains unchanged. The test is important in the identification of citrate utilizer.

UREASE TEST

This test was performed using urea agar. The test organisms were inoculated and the bottle incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The appearance of light violet colour indicated urease positive culture. The test was used to differentiate urease producer from those which do not growth (Cheesbrough, 2000).

INDOLE TEST

Testing indole production is important in the identification of *Enterobacteriaceae*. The organism is cultured in a medium which contains tryptophan. Indole production is detected by Kovac's or Ehrlich's reagent which contains 4 (P)-dimethylamino benzaldehyde. They react with the indole to produce a red-coloured compound. Kovac's reagent is recommended in preference to Ehrlich's reagent for the detection of indole for enterobacteria (Cheesbrough, 2000).

API 20NE MULTI-TEST SYSTEM

The identified *Acinetobacter* spp. isolates were verified by API 20E systems (BioMerieux, France). These tests were used according to the manufacturer's protocol for none *Enterobacteriaceae*. Wells of biochemical tests were inoculated with overnight 0.5 McFarland bacterial suspension and incubated at 37°C for 24 hrs. The results were read after the addition of reagents, and a 7 digit number was generated and identified by API 20NE Software.

VENOM COLLECTION AND PREPARATION

Venom were collected using a mild electro-stimulator device VC-6F model, with an adjusted voltage of DC 12V as described by Towner (2006). The most efficient collection cycle was three 15-minute stimulations at intervals of three days, repeated after 2-3 weeks (Krell, 1996). A convenient sampling method was used in the collection for a period of 2 months (April-May, 2019). The device is made up of a venom collector frame with wire electrodes installed in parallel to each other. The device uses electrical impulses connected to an electro-stimulator to stimulate the honey bee stinging the collector sheet. Bees that come into contact with the wires receive mild electrical shock through wires above the collecting tray and stung onto the glass sheet. The collector device is bee safe. A well-adjusted impulse generator cannot harm more than 5-15 bees per collection. The alarm odour, which is evaporated from the venom, mobilizes and irritates other bees and they also start stinging. It is unlikely that a bee will eject all the content of its venom sac, even after repeated stinging. The electric shock device frame with the fresh dried bee venom on the glass was carefully packed into a special container for transportation to the laboratory. The processing of bee venom started right after the frames are brought back to the laboratory and a sharp scraper was used to scrape off the dried bee venom from the glass frame and packed up in the dark glass jars and stored in a cool dry place.

Purification of bee venom

The bee venom was purified by dissolving 125mg, 62.5mg, 31.25mg, 15.62mg and 7.81 mg of venom weighed in 1ml of distilled water each and allowed to pass through a membrane filter as described by Hegazi et al. (2015). The filter allows water to flow through, while it traps suspended solids and other substances through a selective separation wall.

EVALUATION OF ANTI-BACTERIAL ACTIVITY OF BEE VENOM

Agar well diffusion method was used to test the antibacterial activity of the venom on the isolates of *Acinetobacter Species*. 0.5 McFarland standard, yielding approximately 10^6 CFU/ml was used and further 0.1ml was spread on sterile agar plates using a sterile cotton swab. The surface of the medium was allowed to dry for 3min and sterile glass borer was used to bore wells to contain venom concentrations of 125mg/ml, 62.5mg/ml, 31.25mg/ml, 15.62mg/ml and 7.81mg/ml. Well containing 0.1ml of distilled water served as negative control while 20µl of (*Escherichia coli* 10788 (Standard strain)) served as the positive control. The bacterial plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The diameters of inhibition zones were measured using a transparent ruler and the measurements recorded. This was repeated at four directions in the inhibition zone and the mean radius calculated.

ANTIBIOTICS SUSCEPTIBILITY TEST

Isolates were plated on Mueller–Hinton agar and their susceptibilities to different antibiotics were tested by Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method and interpreted according to the Clinical and Laboratory Standard Institute guide-d Laboratory Standard Institute guide-lines (2010). The following seven (7) different antibiotics were used: chloramphenicol (C, 30 µg), imipenem (IMP, 10 µg), colistin (CT, 10 µg), Ampicillin (AMP, 10 µg), Ciprofloxacin (CIP, 10 µg), Penicillin G (P, 10 µg) and Sulphamethoxazole (SXT, 10 µg). Inhibition zones developed around the discs were measured to the nearest millimetre (mm) using a metric ruler according to Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute CLSI (2010). *Escherichia coli* 10788 standard strain was used as quality control in susceptibility determination (CLSI, 2010).

DETERMINATION OF MINIMUM INHIBITORY CONCENTRATIONS (MIC)

MIC was determined by using the dilution method of the venom extracts. Concentrations of venom extracts at (125 mg/ml, 62.5 mg/ml, 31.25 mg/ml, 15.62 mg/ml and 7.81 mg/ml.) were prepared. One hundred and forty (140) test tubes were set up; 2 ml of nutrient broth was pipetted into each sterile test tubes that were labelled properly. Control tubes were also set up.

Positive control: Tube A (test tubes containing commercial venom and broth),

Organism control: Tube B (test tube containing broth, inoculum and venom extract) and

Negative control: Tube C (test tube containing the broth only). Using sterile Pasteur pipettes 0.2 ml suspension of the test organisms were introduced into the test tubes according to their labels. Also, 2 drops of the different stock solutions (isolates) were introduced using sterile Pasteur pipettes and 2 drops of the venom extract were also introduced into the same test tubes containing both broth and inoculum. The preparation was incubated at 37°C for 24 hours after which the test tubes were observed for turbidity or clearness. The least concentration where no turbidity was observed and noted as the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) value (Mates *et al.*, 1999)

DETERMINATION OF MINIMUM BACTERICIDAL CONCENTRATIONS (MBC)

The least concentrations of the venom extracts that have an antibacterial effect on the organism was considered as the minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC). This was determined from the broth dilution resulting from MIC tubes by sub-culturing on the surface of freshly prepared Mueller agar plates by using a sterile inoculating loop to streak the plates as described (Dijkshoorn *et al.*, 2007). All the test tubes that showed no microbial growth after 24 hours of incubation i.e. then non-turbid test tubes were sub-cultured onto the surface of freshly prepared nutrient agar plates and incubated at 37°C for 24 hours, after which the plates were observed for growth. The plates with the lowest concentration of the extract that show no bacterial growth after incubation was noted and recorded as the MBC (CLSI, 2010).

COLUMN CHROMATOGRAPHY OF BEE VENOM

The bee venom was subjected to qualitative screening for antimicrobial assay. The flash column was washed, dried and clamped vertically onto a retort stand. A piece of cotton wool was introduced into the clean dry column followed by 30 g absorbent silica gel. The column was tapped gently to give a uniform packing. Some 15 g of venom sample was weighed and poured into the column followed by the addition of solvent. Solvent elution was started with 100% hexane followed by hexane/ethyl acetate (80:20 %, 60:40 %, 40:60 %, 20:80 % v/v, 100% ethyl acetate and 100% methanol respectively) each sample. The fractions were collected in 50 ml beakers and evaporated and tested on *Acinetobacter Species*.

DETERMINATION OF THE DIFFERENT COMPONENTS OF HONEY BEE VENOM EXTRACTS USING HPLC

HPLC studies were carried out at the Sheda Science and Technology Complex (SHESTCO) Abuja using the KNAUER (Dr. Ing. Herbert Knauer GmbH, Berlin, Germany) instrument made up of the following elements: HPLC PUMP K-1001, detector (UV K-2501), column oven, manual injector with 20 µm loop and EUROCHROM 2000 V2.05 computer software. In the investigations for the development of the method for separation and identification of bee venom components, the following parameters were checked using literature data (Bouthrín, *et al.*, 2018).

(1)-Chromatographic columns with C18 packing, 25cm x 4mm (4.6mm), 5µm, of different pore size: 100 (Knauer Eurosfer-100 C18, Dr. Ing. Herbert Knauer GmbH, Berlin, Germany), 180 (DISCOVERY® C18, Supelco Park, Bellefonte PA, USA) and 300 (SPELCO-SIL™ LC-318, Supelco Park, Bellefonte PA, USA); (2)- Conditions for linear gradient elution: 0%B - 45%B for 60min, 0%B-60%B, for 60min, 5%B-80%B for 40min; -flow rate of mobile phase 1.5ml/min, 2.0ml/min and 2.5 ml/min;

(3)-Separation temperature: 25°C, 30°C and 35°C; Chromatographic separation was performed using the following eluents: eluent A - 0.1% TFA in water, B - 0.1% TFA in the solution: acetonitrile: water (80:20). Venom compounds were identified using a UV detector at 220 nm wavelength. The external standard method (one-point calibration) was used for quantitation of Apamin, phospholipase A2, and Melittin. The whole procedure was validated by determining the detection limit, precision, accuracy, repeatability, and linearity of the method. Validation was performed for the assay on the column DISCOVERY® C18.

DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data into simple percentage and standard deviation of the mean and Microsoft Excel. The data was subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare significant difference between extracted venom and commercial venom, and significant difference between the commonly used antibiotics and venom extract. Values of $p \leq 0.05$ were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Out of 60 samples collected, 32 (53.3%) were positive based on the morphological characterization and biochemical behaviour of the isolates. *Acinetobacter species*, which appeared as small, pale and lactose non-fermenter colonies on MacConkey agar, and round smooth red colonies on CHROM agar. Growth at 44°C was positive for all *Acinetobacter species* isolates which showed the ability to grow at this temperature. The frequency of isolation of positive *Acinetobacter species* isolates is presented in Table 1

TABLE 1: Frequency of isolation of *Acinetobacter species*

S/N	Sampling site	No. of samples	No. (%) of positive <i>Acinetobacter species</i>
1	Abattoir soil	15	5 (8.3%)
2	Abattoir Effluent	15	7 (11.67%)
3	ABUTH Gynaecology department	15	11 (18.33%)
4	ABU Veterinary- Teaching hospital examination table	15	9 (15%)
Total		60	32 (53.3%)

Table 2 shows the frequency and sources of *Acinetobacter species* isolates identified by API20E system. It was found that the system identified a total of 18(56.28%) *Acinetobacter Species* isolates with the following occurrence: Abattoir soil 3(9.4%), abattoir effluent 4(12.5%), ABUTH Gynaecology department 6(18.75%), and ABU Veterinary Teaching hospital examination table 5(15.63%). The API 20E system identified species so as to avoid the variability in findings of conventional biochemical tests.

TABLE 2: Frequency and sources of *Acinetobacter species* isolates identified by multi-test systems out of 32 presumptive *Acinetobacter* isolates.

S/N	Sample site	No.(%) of positive <i>Acinetobacter</i> spp	API20E
1	Abattoir soil	5	3(9.4%)
2	Abattoir Effluent	7	4(12.5%)
3	ABUTH Gynaecology department	11	6(18.75%)
4	ABU Veterinary Teaching hospital examination table	9	5(15.63%)
Total		32	18(56.28%)

Table 3 below shows the Mean ± SD inhibition zone of diameters of extracted bee venom against *Acinetobacter Species* isolates at different concentrations of 7.81mg/ml, 15.26mg/ml, 31.25mg/ml, 62.5mg/ml and 125mg/ml respectively. For the purpose of this finding, to interpret the results of the zone diameter of inhibition, the antibacterial and inhibitory effect of the venom was considered at the concentration of 30mg/ml as compared to that of Chloramphenicol (30µg), a standard antibiotic. When interpreted using CLSI, 2004 guide, zone diameter of Chloramphenicol (30µg) ≥ 18 is sensitive, ≤ 12 is resistant, while 13-17 is intermediate.

TABLE 3 MEAN± SD OF INHIBITION ZONE (MM) OF EXTRACTED BEE VENOM AT FIVE DIFFERENT CONCENTRATIONS AGAINST EIGHTEEN POSITIVE ISOLATES OF ACINETOBACTER SPECIES

<i>Acinetobacter Spp</i> Isolates	ZI(mm) for venom Concentration(mg/ml)				
	7.81	15.26	31.25	62.5	125
A1	14.9±0.00	15.3±0.00	19.4±0.50	20.9±0.50	22.6±0.03
A2	14.4±0.01	15.3±0.01	18.7±0.03	19.9±0.03	22.0±0.05
A3	13.4±0.03	14.6±0.01	19.6±0.03	21.9±0.04	22.6±0.02
B1	15.8±0.03	16.3±0.05	19.4±0.01	20.9±0.02	22.6±0.05
B2	14.0±0.00	15.3±0.03	19.7±0.00	19.9±0.00	22.0±0.50
B3	13.4±0.01	14.6±0.03	19.6±0.01	21.9±0.00	22.6±0.50
B4	13.0±0.01	15.0±0.02	19.4±0.00	19.5±0.05	21.7±0.50
C1	14.9±0.50	15.1±0.05	19.3±0.03	19.3±0.05	22.3±0.3
C2	12.0±0.50	13.3±0.01	15.0±0.05	17.6±0.00	19.8±0.01
C3	12.0±0.03	13.3±0.00	15.3±0.04	16.9±0.00	18.9±0.00
C4	11.6±0.03	12.6±0.00	14.9±0.04	17.0±0.01	18.9±0.00
C5	11.0±0.01	12.0±0.01	15.4±0.04	17.5±0.01	19.3±0.03
C6	12.9±0.00	13.7±0.00	15.2±0.00	16.3±0.00	18.3±0.03
D1	12.0±0.00	14.0±0.02	15.0±0.02	17.6±0.05	20.2±0.03
D2	12.0±0.01	14.2±0.00	15.3±0.01	16.9±0.03	18.9±0.05
D3	11.6±0.01	13.6±0.00	14.9±0.01	17.0±0.01	18.9±0.05
D4	11.0±0.01	14.0±0.50	15.4±0.00	17.5±0.00	19.3±0.00
D5	12.9±0.00	13.9±0.02	15.2±0.02	16.3±0.00	18.3±0.01

CLSI, 2004 Interpretation

Key: A=Abattoir soil, B=Abattoir Effluent, C=ABUTH Gynecology department, D= ABUVeterinaryteachinghospital examination table

Table 4 shows the mean±SD of inhibition zone of commercial bee venom against *Acinetobacter species* isolates at different concentrations of 7.81mg/ml, 15.26mg/ml, 31.25mg/ml, 62.5mg/ml and 125mg/ml. For the purpose of this finding, to interpret the results of the zone diameter, the antibacterial effect and inhibitory effect of the venom at the concentration of 30mg/ml was compared to that of Chloramphenicol (30µg), a standard antibiotic. When interpreted with CLSI, 2004 guide, zone diameter of Chloramphenicol (30µg) ≥18 is sensitive, ≤12 is resistant, while 13-17 is intermediate.

TABLE 4: MEAN ± SD OF INHIBITION ZONE OF COMMERCIAL BEE VENOM AT 5 DIFFERENT CONCENTRATIONS AGAINST EIGHTEEN POSITIVE ISOLATES OF ACINETOBACTER SPECIES

<i>Acinetobacter</i> species isolates	ZI (mm) for venom Concentration (mg/ml)				
	7.81	15.26	31.25	62.5	125
A1	13.8±0.03	15.3±0.02	19.4±0.03	20.9±0.00	22.6±0.01
A2	14.4±0.01	15.3±0.01	18.7±0.03	19.9±0.00	22.0±0.00
A3	13.4±0.04	14.6±0.05	19.6±0.01	21.9±0.03	22.6±0.01
B1	12.8±0.01	16.3±0.01	19.4±0.02	20.9±0.01	22.6±0.04
B2	13.0±0.03	15.3±0.01	19.7±0.02	19.9±0.01	22.0±0.01
B3	13.4±0.03	14.6±0.03	19.6±0.02	21.9±0.03	22.6±0.00
B4	13.0±0.02	15.0±0.50	19.4±0.00	19.5±0.04	21.7±0.00
C1	14.9±0.01	15.1±0.01	19.3±0.00	19.3±0.02	22.3±0.01
C2	11.0±0.02	12.8±0.04	15.0±0.00	17.6±0.02	19.8±0.04
C3	12.0±0.04	13.3±0.02	15.3±0.01	16.9±0.00	18.9±0.01
C4	11.6±0.03	12.6±0.03	14.9±0.03	17.0±0.01	18.9±0.00
C5	11.0±0.06	12.0±0.01	15.4±0.50	17.5±0.00	19.3±0.50
C6	12.9±0.00	13.7±0.00	15.2±0.03	16.3±0.00	18.3±0.50
D1	12.0±0.50	14.0±0.02	15.0±0.50	17.6±0.05	20.2±0.04
D2	12.0±0.00	14.2±0.01	15.3±0.04	16.9±0.01	18.9±0.03
D3	11.6±0.01	13.6±0.01	14.9±0.50	17.0±0.02	18.9±0.03
D4	11.0±0.50	14.0±0.00	15.4±0.00	17.5±0.02	19.3±0.00
D5	12.9±0.01	13.9±0.02	15.2±0.01	16.3±0.00	18.3±0.01

CLSI, 2004 Interpretation

Key: A=Abattoir soil, B=Abattoir Effluent, C=ABUTH Gynecology departments, D= ABUVeterinaryTeachingHospital examination table

Table 5 shows the Antibiotic Susceptibility profiles of eighteen *Acinetobacter species* isolates against 7 antibiotics used. The isolates showed 100% sensitivity to imipenem, 61.1% were resistant to Colistin, 88.8% resistance to Chloramphenicol, 100% resistant to Ciprofloxacin, penicillin, SXT, and Ampicillin.

TABLE 5 ANTIBIOTIC SUSCEPTIBILITY PROFILES OF ACINETOBACTER SPECIES ISOLATES FROM ABATTOIR SOIL, ABATTOIR EFFLUENT, ABUTH GYNECOLOGY DEPARTMENT, AND ABUVETERINARY

Teaching hospital examination table against 7 antibiotics

<i>Acinetobacter species</i> isolates	Antibiotics Tested (µg)						
	IMP	C	CIP	P	SXT	CT	AMP
A1	S	R	R	R	R	I	R
A2	S	S	R	R	R	S	R
A3	S	S	R	R	R	S	R
B1	S	R	R	R	R	S	R
B2	S	R	R	R	R	S	R
B3	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
B4	S	R	R	R	R	I	R
C1	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
C2	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
C3	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
C4	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
C5	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
C6	S	R	R	R	R	I	R
D1	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
D2	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
D3	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
D4	S	R	R	R	R	R	R
D5	S	R	R	R	R	R	R

CLSI, 2004 INTERPRETATION

Key: IMP Imipenem (30µg), SXT sulfamethoxazole (10µg), CIP ciprofloxacin (10µg), Ppenicillin (10µg), CT colistin (10µg), AMP ampicillin (10µg), and C Chloramphenicol (30µg), R resistant, S susceptible, I intermediate.

Table 6 below shows the Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) for extracted venom against *Acinetobacter species* isolates from Abattoir soil, abattoir effluent was 15.26mg/ml while that of ABUTH Gynecology department and ABU veterinary Teaching hospital examination table was 31.25mg/ml. The MIC obtained in the study of bee venom was 31.25mg/ml which indicates that BV is effective against MDR *Acinetobacter species* strains.

TABLE 6: MINIMUM INHIBITORY CONCENTRATIONS (MIC) OF EXTRACTED BEE VENOM AGAINST POSITIVE *ACINETOBACTER SPECIES* ISOLATES

<i>Acinetobacter species</i> Isolates	Concentration (mg/ml)				
	7.81	15.26	31.25	62.5	125
A1	-	+	+	+	+
A2	-	+	+	+	+
A3	-	+	+	+	+
B1	+	+	+	+	+
B2	-	+	+	+	+
B3	-	+	+	+	+
B4	+	+	+	+	+
C1	-	+	+	+	+
C2	-	-	+	+	+
C3	-	-	+	+	+
C4	-	-	+	+	+
C5	-	-	+	+	+
C6	-	-	+	+	+
D1	-	-	+	+	+
D2	-	-	+	+	+
D3	-	-	+	+	+
D4	-	-	+	+	+
D5	-	-	+	+	+

Key: + means no visible growth, - means growth

The Minimum Bactericidal Concentration (MBC) for bee venom against eighteen *Acinetobacter species* isolates from Abattoir Soil and abattoir effluent was 31.25mg/ml, while Isolates from ABUTH Gynaecology department and ABU Veterinary Teaching hospital examination table were found to be 62.5mg/ml as shown in table 7 below.

TABLE 7: MINIMUM BACTERICIDAL CONCENTRATION (MBC) OF BEE VENOM AT DIFFERENT CONCENTRATIONS AGAINST 18 POSITIVE ACINETOBACTER SPECIES ISOLATES

<i>Acinetobacter</i> species isolates	7.81	15.26	31.25	62.5	125
A1	-	-	-	+	+
A2	-	-	-	+	+
A3	-	-	+	+	+
B1	-	-	+	+	+
B2	-	-	-	+	+
B3	-	-	-	+	+
B4	-	-	-	+	+
C1	-	-	+	+	+
C2	-	-	-	+	+
C3	-	-	-	+	+
C4	-	-	-	+	+
C5	-	-	-	+	+
C6	-	-	-	+	+
D1	-	-	-	+	+
D2	-	-	-	+	+
D3	-	-	-	+	+
D4	-	-	-	+	+
D5	-	-	-	+	+

Key: + means no visible growth, - means there is growth

Table 8 shows the growth inhibition of various components present in the venom of *A. mellifera* identified by column Chromatography. The column separated the venom into five unknown fractions which were indicated as Am1, Am2, Am3, Am4, and Am5.

TABLE 8: GROWTH INHIBITION OF VARIOUS COMPONENTS IN APIS MELLIFERA VENOM AGAINST FIVE *Acinetobacter* Species Isolates by Column Chromatography

Site	Am1	Am2	Am3	Am4	Am5
A	+	-	-	+	-
B	+	-	-	+	-
C	+	-	-	+	-
D	+	-	-	+	-

Key: +=Bacterial growth, -=No bacterial growth, Am1 means *Apis mellifera* toxins1

Figure 1 below shows the High-Performance Liquid Chromatograph analysis of *Apis mellifera* venom fraction. The HPLC identified Apamine, Phospholipase A and Melittin as the three active components present in the venom of *Apis mellifera*.

Time (min)

Figure 1: Separation profile of the protein fraction of *Apis mellifera Adansonii*

DISCUSSION

Acinetobacter species is often associated with epidemic outbreaks of infections. These infections are becoming harder to treat due to rising number of nosocomial infections having ability to form biofilms and resist all antimicrobials in use including colistin (Visca *et al.*, 2011; Abou-Raya *et al.*, 2013). This study determined the antibacterial activity of bee venom against multi-drug resistant *Acinetobacter species*. A total of sixty samples were collected and screened from abattoir soil, abattoir effluent, ABUTH Gynecology department, and ABU Veterinary teaching hospital examination tables, from which 32 (53.3%) suspected *Acinetobacter species* were isolated. API 20NE system identified 18 (56.28%) of the presumptive isolates *Acinetobacter species*. This finding corresponds to the findings of similar studies carried out by Sia *et al.* (1996); Atallah *et al.* (2001); and Namita *et al.* (2012) with reported prevalence of 11%, 18.8%, and 9.4% respectively. Venom was extracted for the species of *A. mellifera adansonii*, using a mild electro-stimulator device VC-6F model, with an adjusted voltage of DC 12V as described by Towner (2006). Twenty (20) warren beehives were selected using non-probability convenience sampling technique. The extracted venom was further purified and dissolved 125mg, 62.5mg, 31.25mg, 15.62mg and 7.81 mg in 1ml of distilled water each and passing it through a membrane filter as described by Hegazi *et al.* (2015). The antibacterial activity of extracted venom from Africanized killer bee *Apis mellifera adansonii* against antibiotic-resistant *Acinetobacter species* isolates were determined. The analysis showed that the zone diameters of inhibition of extracted bee venom at 5 different concentrations (7.81mg/ml, 15.26mg/ml, 31.25mg/ml, 62.5mg/ml and 125mg/ml) respectively against eighteen isolates of *Acinetobacter species* showed that zone diameter ≥ 18 mm was considered to be sensitive, ≤ 12 mm resistant, while 13-17 mm was intermediate when compared to 30 μ g of Chloramphenicol (CLSI, 2010). The results of this finding also agree with the literature reports (Han, *et al.*, 2009) who evaluated the antibacterial effects of whole bee venom and melittin fraction, and utilized inhibitory effect at a concentration of 30mg/ml and compared to a standard antibiotic Penicillin, and the relative sensitivities of the bacteria was qualitatively estimated by measuring the zones of inhibition. The antibacterial activity of commercial venom from *A. mellifera* was also determined at 5 different concentrations (7.81mg/ml, 15.26mg/ml, 31.25mg/ml, 62.5mg/ml and 125mg/ml) respectively against the eighteen isolates of *Acinetobacter species*. The analysis showed that there was no significant difference between the zone diameter of inhibition of extracted venom preparation and commercial preparation. The antibiotic susceptibility profiles of 18 *Acinetobacter species* isolates against 7 antibiotics indicated that all the isolates (100%) were sensitive to imipenem, 61.1% resistant to Colistin, 88.8% resistant to Chloramphenicol, 100% resistant to Ciprofloxacin, penicillin, SXT, and Ampicillin. This showed similarity to the finding of Al-Yawer *et al.*, (2006), who found that *Acinetobacter Species* isolates were all sensitive to imipenem. Other studies carried out by Peleg *et al.*, (2008) showed that all *Acinetobacter Species* isolates were (100%) sensitive to Colistin and resistant imipenem. These differences may be attributed to the different uses of these two antibiotics in hospitals in the last few years, predominant exposure of present isolates to suboptimal levels of antibiotic, prolonged use of broad-spectrum antibiotics, exposure to isolates carrying resistant genes, lack of hygiene in clinical environments and usage of antibiotics in foods and agriculture (Peleg *et al.*, 2008). Regarding colistin, this study showed a very low level of sensitivity. However, many studies reported that the effective antibiotics used to treat colistin resistant *Acinetobacter Species* isolates was imipenem (Hello *et al.*, 2010; Pongpech *et al.*, 2010; Kumaris *et al.*, 2011).

Acinetobacter species is reported to be ubiquitous gram-negative coccobacilli, and are widespread in nature, water and soil and has the greatest clinical significance and identified as the causative agent of the majority of nosocomial infections especially in intensive care units (Ortel, et al., 2012). Bee venom has the potential to address this need due to the anti-inflammatory properties as well as anti-microbial activities. A previous study has demonstrated that bee venom inhibited the growth of seventeen Gram-positive and two Gram-negative bacterial out of 44 strains isolated from bovine mastitis in Korea (Park et al., 2015). Hagazi et al. (2015) reported that bee venom has antibacterial activity against *Escherichia coli*, while Socarras et al. (2017) reported effective antimicrobial activity against *B. burgdorferi* which is a causative agent of Lyme disease. The MIC of bee venom in the current study was 31.23 mg/ml, which indicates that bee venom is effective against MDR *Acinetobacter species* isolates. The results of these findings agree with the literature reports of Safar et al. (2018) who determined the antibacterial activity of bee venom against multi-drug resistant *Acinetobacter species* bacterial strains.

The Minimum Bactericidal Concentration (MBC) for *Apis mellifera adansonii* venom against *Acinetobacter species* isolated from abattoir soil and abattoir effluent-

were 31.25 mg/ml, while for *Acinetobacter species* isolates from hospital and veterinary clinic environment it was 62.5 mg/ml. This result also agrees with the findings of Towner (2006) who isolated large number of resistant *Acinetobacter species* isolates from the hospitals and also stated that due to its ability to form biofilms, they could cause different nosocomial infections and develop resistance to a wide range of antibiotics. Column Chromatography for bee venom were separated into five unknown fractions which were indicated as Am1, Am2, Am3, Am4, and Am5. The analysis showed that *Acinetobacter species* was sensitive to Am2, Am3, and Am5 three of these unknown components. This result agrees with the report of Corzo et al. (2001) who identified three active unknown fractions from the venom of *Apis mellifera*. In recent years, there has been increased focus on bee venom peptides and their mechanisms of action for targeting and killing various types of microorganisms (Jenssen et al., 1987). The High-

Performance Liquid Chromatography analysis of *Apis mellifera* venom frac-

tion identified Apamine, Phospholipase A2 and Melittin as the three active components present in the venom. The result of this study is in general agreement with those found by Hegazi et al. (2015) and Castro et al. (2006) who reported that the active peptide components present in *Apis mellifera* that can inhibit the growth of some Gram-negative and positive bacteria are Melittin, Apamine, and Phospholipase A2. The statistical analysis one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed in this study indicated that there was no significant difference between extracted and commercial venom, but there is significant difference between imipenem and both the extracted and commercial venoms.

Conclusion

Based on this study, the following conclusions could be made:

The isolation of *Acinetobacter* species from the abattoir soil (9.4%), effluent (12.5%), and ABU teaching hospital gynaecology department (18.75%) and ABU Veterinary Teaching hospital (15.63%) is an indication that the organism is ubiquitous in the environment and a common nosocomial pathogen in the hospitals. Antibiotic susceptibility patterns of *Acinetobacter* species isolates showed that Imipenem may be a drug of choice that can be used to treat *Acinetobacter* species infection. Venom of *Apis mellifera adansonii* inhibited the growth of *Acinetobacter* species isolates at 31.25 mg/ml and killed them at 62.5 mg/ml. The MIC and MBC of the venom were determined to be 31.25 mg/ml and 62.5 mg/ml respectively.

RECOMMENDATIONS

From the results of this study, the following recommendations are proffered

1. Further research to determine the extent of the activity of extract against other resistant and pathogenic microorganisms should be conducted
2. There is need to do extensive research on the lethal dose of *Apis mellifera* venom so as to determine safe concentrations for human use.
3. It is also recommended that the identification and characterization of the *Apis mellifera* venom fractions and their major antibacterial elements(s) should be researched and utilized for other organisms
4. Research on bee venom that may lead to the future design of novel antibacterial agents should be conducted

CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

1. The study serves as a baseline for the isolation of *Acinetobacter* species in Zaria Kaduna state
2. Venom of *Apis mellifera adansonii* has antibacterial activities against *Acinetobacter* species
3. *Acinetobacter* species is resistant to more than three classes of antibiotics used and so it can be classified as multi-drug resistance.

Acknowledgment

I extend my heartfelt gratitude to the Almighty for the precious gift of life and good health. In Him, I find strength, guidance, and endless inspiration. A special acknowledgment goes to my dedicated supervisors, Prof. J. K. P. Kwaga and Prof. M. Bello, whose fatherly guidance, constructive criticism, and intellectual insights were instrumental in shaping my journey. They not only believed in me but also instilled the confidence needed to overcome challenges and complete this work successfully. To my unwavering husband, you have been my rock, providing constant support and encouragement. Your belief in my abilities, even during the toughest moments, has been my driving force. I appreciate your unwavering belief in me, my best friend. I express profound gratitude to my late father, Elder Ugbenyo John, and my mother, Mrs. Halima John, for their fatherly advice, support, and the confidence they instilled in me to face life's battles. To my dear brothers, Gabriel and David, your prayers and encouragement have been a source of strength. A special mention goes to Pastor Wole Dahunsi for his timely support, even in untimely hours. Dr. M.K. Lawan and Dr. Grace Kia, your words of encouragement, advice, and suggestions have been invaluable. My appreciation extends to the lecturers of the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine at A.B.U., Zaria, especially those in the Department of Veterinary Public Health and Preventive Medicine. Prof. Junaidu Kabir, Prof. E. C. Okolocha, Dr. B. V. Maikai, Dr. Grace. Nok-Kia, and Dr. M.K. Lawan, your impartation of knowledge and support were crucial. I acknowledge the guidance of the laboratory staff of the Department of Veterinary Public Health and Preventive Medicine, particularly Mal. A. Mahmud and Mal. S. Yahuza. Your assistance during my research is deeply appreciated. To my colleagues and friends in the Department of Veterinary Public Health and Preventive Medicine, A.B.U., Zaria, and the entire Postgraduate students (P15) set of the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine A. B. U. Zaria, your camaraderie is cherished.

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