



## Research Article

**JOURNAL OF APPLIED PHARMACEUTICAL RESEARCH | JOAPR**

www.japronline.com

ISSN: 2348 – 0335

### **MYCOTIC LOADS' DETERMINATION OF NON-STERILE PHARMACEUTICALS IN LAGOS STATE AND 16S rDNA IDENTIFICATION OF THE FUNGAL ISOLATES**

Elizabeth Olawumi Oyebanji<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Adedotun Adeyinka Adekunle<sup>1</sup>, Herbert Alexander B. Coker<sup>3</sup>, Gboyega Ebenezer Adebami<sup>2</sup>

#### **Article Information**

Received: 19<sup>th</sup> December 2017

Revised: 29<sup>th</sup> April 2018

Accepted: 22<sup>nd</sup> May 2018

#### **Keywords**

*Oral drug, Contamination, Fungal load, Fungal identification, Colony forming unit, Aspergillus*

#### **ABSTRACT**

Pharmaceuticals are medicinal products used in the prevention, treatment, and diagnosis of diseases. As such, the presence of microorganisms' especially fungal toxins can reduce or eliminate the product's therapeutic activity and constitute a potential danger to patient health. This study attempts to determine the fungal loads of liquid preparation used as medication in Lagos State and its environs and identify the fungal isolates. 252 different types of oral liquid drugs (200 syrups and 52 suspensions) which included paracetamol syrup, cough syrup and antibiotics suspension manufactured in five different pharmaceutical industries in Nigeria were methodically sampled and analyzed for fungi contamination using standardized method. The isolated fungi were identified using morphological characterization as well as 16S rDNA sequencing. 13% of the sampled syrups were found to be contaminated with fungi where the colony forming units for paracetamol syrup, cough syrup and antibiotics suspension ranges from  $2.0 \times 10^1$  -  $9.6 \times 10^4$ ;  $1.0 \times 10^2$  -  $7.5 \times 10^4$  and  $1.0 \times 10^1$  -  $8.8 \times 10^4$  cfu/ml respectively while 87% yielded no growth. Thirteen (13) morphologically different species of fungi were identified which included *Aspergillus niger* strains, *A. tamari* strains, *A. japonicas*, *A. flavus*, *A. awamari*, *A. ellipticus*, *A. tubingensis*, *Meyerozyma aaribbica*, *Candida carpophila* and *Eurotiomycetes spp*. The presence of microorganisms in oral liquid samples might explain the treatment complicity of the diseased children. Therefore, microbiological quality of such drugs is thus suggested.

<sup>1</sup>Department of Botany, University of Lagos, Nigeria

<sup>2</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, Mountain Top University, Ibafo, Ogun State, Nigeria

<sup>3</sup>Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Faculty of Pharmacy, College of Medicine Campus, Idiaraba, University of Lagos, Nigeria

**\*For Correspondence:** olawumioyebanji@gmail.com

©2018 The authors

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY NC), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, as long as the original authors and source are cited. No permission is required from the authors or the publishers. (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>)

## INTRODUCTION

Pharmaceutical drug or medicinal product according to United State Food and Drug Administration [1] is any chemical substance formulated or compounded as single active ingredient which may be in combination with other pharmacologically active substance intended for external or internal use in the medical diagnosis, to cure, treat or prevent diseases. The use of pharmaceutical drug to eradicate an array of diseases in human have been in existence for a very longtime and the possibility of microbial contamination such as viruses, bacteria, fungi and actinomycetes cannot be over emphasized due to impaired manufacturing condition [2]. Oral liquid preparations have been earmarked as one of the pharmaceutical formulations that possess a greater chance of microbial contamination than any other drug [3,4] and unless they are carefully and tightly closed immediately after opening, oral liquid preparations are highly liable to be contaminated by air borne bacteria and fungal spores [3]. Moreover, microorganisms such as fungi, yeast, bacteria, actinomyces and viruses have been found to play a major role in the contamination of pharmaceutical products leading to changes in the physical characteristics, such as fermentation of syrups, breaking of emulsions, thinning of creams, appearance of turbidity or deposit, and changes in colour and odour [5, 6]. The contamination of the raw materials used for the manufacturing of oral drugs with microbes may be associated with the unexplained treatment complications been experienced in patients [7, 8]. As such, the presence of contaminating microflora, especially when it is in excess of the acceptable limit of >10cfu/ml in oral drugs, result to a major threat in public health measures [9].

The presence of certain fungi especially molds in pharmaceuticals are harmful due to the production of metabolites that may be toxic to consumers and cause rapid deterioration of the product. This invariably results in biodegradation of the different components of formulations arising from the production of toxins [10,4]. Some fungi genera especially *Aspergillus* and *Mucor* which have been confirmed to produce toxins such as *A. flavus*, *A. parasiticus* and *A. turingensis* should not be found in pharmaceutical products [6]. Moreover, some of the dosage forms of oral drugs, if stored in favourable environment, can serve as substrates for fungi and other microorganisms [11,12]. Mugoyela and Mwambete [13] stated that moisture and high amount of sugar in the oral

liquid drugs in particular, can support the microbial growth. Nirmala *et al.* [14] concluded that improper storage, defects in handling, presence of sweetening agents, and reconstitution methods of oral liquid drug formulations such as aqueous solutions, suspensions, syrups and emulsions used for pediatrics are at a greater risk of microbial contamination during consumption.

Drug manufacturing industry is one of the dynamically growing and expanding production sectors in Nigeria, and the quality of medicine available domestically varies significantly as they are mostly retail oriented. Adeshina *et al.* [15] felt that an anarchy situation could prevail in the marketing of drugs, due to a large number of illegal and unlicensed drug stores selling poorly manufactured pharmaceuticals. However, in Nigeria, there is paucity of report or research studies on microbial load of fungi of finished pharmaceutical products as well as the molecular studies on possible fungal isolates implicated in pharmaceutical product contamination. Therefore, intermittent examination of microbiological quality of the pharmaceutical or medicinal products especially non-sterile preparation consumed mostly by the children is highly important for their well-being. Though the knowledge of these according to Hossain, [11] and Moniruzzaman *et al.* [16] does not prove to be sufficient in predicting the safety of the sold oral liquid drugs, but contribute significantly in the area of prevention.

## MATERIALS & METHODS

### Sampling methodology

Paracetamol syrup, cough syrup and antibiotics were sampled from five different pharmaceutical industries; E, F, M, S and V located in Lagos State. Samples were collected from pharmaceutical shops and directly from the production companies. Drug collection was done for two years which was limited to products manufactured within one year as shown by manufacturers. The pharmaceutical products were collected in sterile Ziploc bags from one location to the other. All the Ziploc bags used for sampling were methodologically labelled with necessary information concerning the product. Information such as date of manufacture, expiry date and batch number were recorded and transported to the Laboratory under aseptic condition in order to minimize environmental exposure. All the samples collected have NAFDAC registration numbers clearly written on the packs and bottle labels.

### **Culture technique**

The total viable fungi were estimated using serial dilutions. Pour plate method was used from the dilution  $10^{-1}$ ,  $10^{-2}$ ,  $10^{-3}$  and  $10^{-4}$  of each sample. 1 ml of dilution was aseptically transferred to disposable sterile petri-dishes (15 cm diameter at a depth of 4.0 mm). Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) (Oxoid) (supplemented with streptomycin) was used for culturing. The agar was sterilised by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 minutes and allowed to cool to approximately 45 °C before pouring twenty millilitres (20 ml) of the liquefied agar into each petri-dish. All the plates were incubated at 30 °C for 4 – 7 days. Moreover, plating of each sample was done in duplicate and the average values obtained were multiplied by the dilution factors to get the total colony forming unit per millilitre (cfu/ml) count. For those plates that showed growth, re-culturing was carried out three months after sampling and a month before expiration of the product [17].

### **Identification of the Fungal Isolates**

Morphological, biochemical and molecular methods were used for the identification of the isolates. The plates were examined for the presence of noticeable growth and once this is observed, the texture, pigmentation and topography of each specific type of colony was noted for proper and accurate identification. A little portion of the growth colony was teased with an inoculating needle and mounted on the slide with a drop of Lactophenol blue, covered with a cover slip. The preparation was examined under a light microscope with an attached camera (Motic Mc digital coloured camera) connected to a computer for the microscopic photography of the fungi. The essence of this was to observe the exact arrangement of the conidiophores and the way the spores are produced. The identities of these fungi isolates were certified using cultural as well as morphological methodologies by comparing the isolates with confirmed representatives of different fungal species in relevant texts before molecular identification for proper confirmation [18, 19].

### **DNA Extraction using modified CTAB protocol**

DNA extraction was done according to the modified method of Umesha *et al.* [20]. Ten millilitre (10 ml) of isolation buffer (10x CTAB) containing 80 µl of mercaptoethanol in 50 ml blue cap tube was pre-heated in 65 °C water bath. One gramme (1g) of freshly scrapped pure culture plates of each fungal isolate was added to the preheated isolation buffer in each tube. The

mixture was then incubated at 65 °C for 15 minutes. Ten millilitres (10 ml) of SEVAG (24:1 chloroform: Isoamyl alcohol), then mixed gently but thoroughly.

The cap of the tubes containing the mixture was then opened to release gas, which was then re-tightened and homogenized using an orbital shaker (100 rpm) for 60 minutes. After rocking, the tubes were spun at 4000 rpm and 25 °C for 20 minutes. The mixture gave a clear and colourless aqueous solution at the top containing the DNA, which was then removed into another set of tubes with the aid of a plastic transfer pipette. Two third volume of isopropanol was added to the aqueous solution. The mixture was then mixed gently and stored in a freezer at -20 °C for 24 hours in order for the inherent DNA to precipitate. The mixture was then spun in a centrifuge at 3000 rpm for 5 minutes, followed by the addition of 3 ml of 70% ethanol to dislodge the pellet and facilitate washing. The mixture was spun again at 3000 rpm for 5 minutes, after which the liquid was discarded and the alcohol was allowed to evaporate by leaving the tubes open on its side. The DNA was re-suspended in 1.5 ml of water and stored at (-20 °C). The samples were run on 1% Agarose Gel Electrophoresis to verify the presence of DNA in the samples, prior to PCR and DNA sequencing.

### **DNA Amplification and 16S rDNA Sequence Determination of the fungal isolates**

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) assay was performed using the method stated by Gonzalez-Mendoza *et al.* [21]. PCR amplification reaction was carried out using ITS1 F (TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG) and ITS4 R (TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC) primers. Amplification was done in 0.2-ml tube and reaction mixture containing 2.5 µL of 80–100 ng of genomic DNA, 1 µL of 20 pmol of each primer, and 20 µL of Dream Taq Green PCR master mix (Containing: 0.25 mM each dNTP, 2 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> and Taq DNA polymerase).

The PCR was carried out in a master gradient thermal cycler (LABNET, NJ, USA). The following conditions were used for PCR: initial denaturation was done at 94 °C for 5 min; 30 cycles of denaturation for 1 min at 94 °C, annealing was performed at 52 °C for 1 min, initial extension was done at 72 °C for 1 min while final extension was carried out at 72 °C for 10 min, followed by cooling at 4 °C until the samples were recovered. The amplified DNA was confirmed through gel

electrophoresis using 1 % agarose gel. The generated sequence data from the DNA extraction were sequenced by Inqaba Biotechnology, South Africa. The 16SrDNA gene sequences obtained were compared with the NCBI database [22].

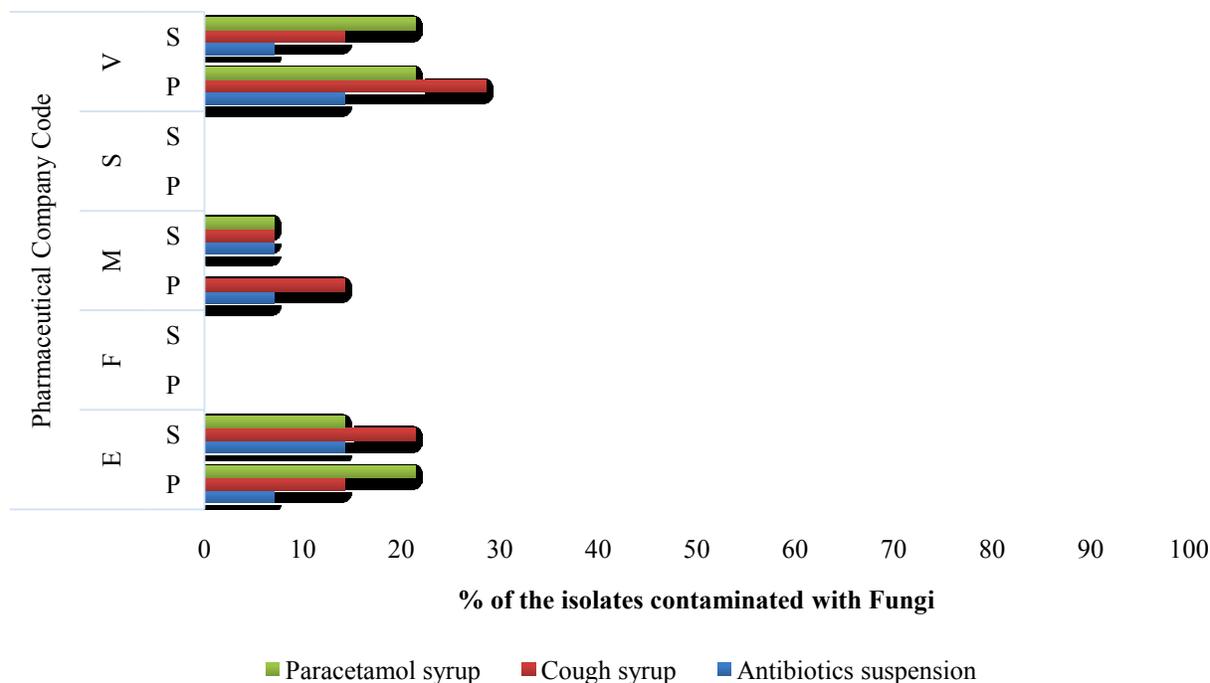
### RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS

A total of two hundred and fifty-two (252) samples were collected, out of which thirty three samples (33, 13%) showed growth while two hundred and twenty samples (220, 87%) did not show any noticeable growth on incubation (Fig. 1). The colony forming units for Paracetamol syrup, cough syrup and antibiotics suspension ranged from  $2.0 \times 10^1$ - $9.6 \times 10^4$ ;  $1.0 \times 10^2$ - $7.5 \times 10^4$  and  $1.0 \times 10^1$ - $8.8 \times 10^4$ cfu/ml respectively (Table 1a, 1b & 1c). Paracetamol syrup from Pharmaceutical companies VM, VI and EI produced the highest contaminations while FM, MP and SM did not showed any noticeable growth at all.

Cough syrups from pharmaceutical company VI produced the highest growth on incubation while FM and SM showed no growth. Antibiotics suspensions from production companies EM and VI gave the highest contaminations while that of FM and SM showed no appreciable growth (Fig. 1). The thirty three

(33) samples produced thirteen (13) morphologically different species of fungi which were identified using cultural, morphological and molecular methods.

Figure 2 shows the Electrophorogram of the extracted DNA of the thirteen isolates using modified CTAB protocol. BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool) analyses of the 16S rDNA genes nucleotide sequences of the fungal strains showed a range of 95-99% similarities (with their respective accession number) to: *A. niger* strains A(KJ881377.1), *A. niger* strains B(KF305758.1), *A. niger* strains C(KF305742.1); *A. tamari* strain A(KP784375.1) and *A. tamari* strain B(KF221089.1); *A. japonicas*(KC128815.1), *A. flavus*(KF221065.1), *A. awamari*(KF154413.1), *A. ellipticus* (EU821329.1), *A. tubingensis* (KC020122.1), *Meyerozyma aaribbica* (KP674752.1), *Candida carpophila* (KP131683.1) and *Eurotiomyces* sp. ( JX174154.1)(Fig. 3 and 4). Furthermore, out of the four fungal genera isolated, the genus *Aspergillus* gave the highest percentage occurrence of 76% while the genera *Candida*, *Meyerozyma* and *Eurotiomyces* gave 8% respectively (Fig. 5).



**Fig. 1: Percentage occurrence of fungi isolates from different Pharmaceutical companies**

Key: E, F, M, S and V indicate pharmaceutical Companies codes. Sub S and P indicate samples collected from pharmaceutical shops and production companies respectively.

**Table 1a: Fungi Load of the Paracetamol Syrups Sampled**

Sampling code	Sampling Location	TFCIMAS (cfu/ml)	TFC3M (cfu/ml)	TFCBE (cfu/ml)
EP(P)1	DF	$3.7 \times 10^2$	$6.7 \times 10^3$	$9.6 \times 10^4$
EP(P)4	DF	$4.0 \times 10^2$	$7.1 \times 10^2$	$6.5 \times 10^4$
ES(P)1	PS	$4.0 \times 10^2$	$4.7 \times 10^3$	$6.8 \times 10^4$
ES(P)5	PS	$3.0 \times 10^2$	$3.7 \times 10^4$	$5.7 \times 10^4$
MP(P)2	PS	$5.0 \times 10^1$	$5.7 \times 10^4$	$7.5 \times 10^4$
MP(P)3	DF	$4.0 \times 10^1$	$4.7 \times 10^2$	$5.0 \times 10^4$
MS(P)2	PS	$2.5 \times 10^2$	$4.0 \times 10^3$	$6.7 \times 10^4$
VP(P)1	DF	$4.0 \times 10^2$	$6.0 \times 10^4$	$7.6 \times 10^4$
VP(P)12	DF	$2.0 \times 10^1$	$3.0 \times 10^2$	$4.7 \times 10^4$
VP(P)13	PS	$2.0 \times 10^2$	$3.7 \times 10^4$	$4.0 \times 10^4$
VS(P)11	PS	$4.0 \times 10^2$	$4.4 \times 10^3$	$5.1 \times 10^3$
VS(P)3	PS	$4.4 \times 10^2$	$3.7 \times 10^4$	$5.7 \times 10^4$

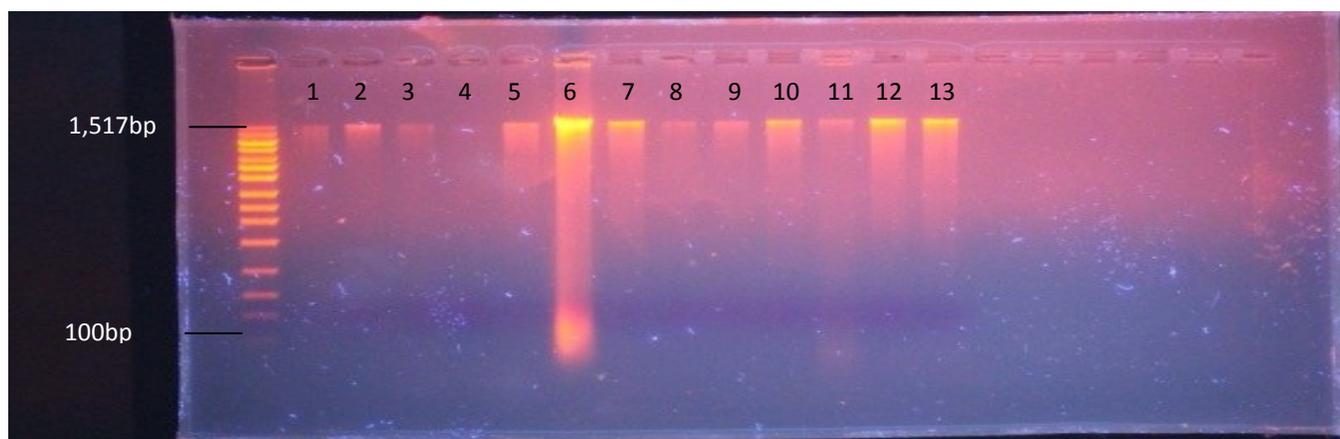
**Table 1b: Fungi Load of the Cough Syrups Sampled**

Sampling code	Sampling Location	TFCIMAS (cfu/ml)	TFC3M (cfu/ml)	TFCBE (cfu/ml)
EP(C)5	PS	$1.0 \times 10^2$	$2.5 \times 10^4$	$5.0 \times 10^4$
EP(C)9	DF	$2.5 \times 10^2$	$3.0 \times 10^4$	$5.5 \times 10^4$
ES(C)12	PS	$4.4 \times 10^2$	$5.0 \times 10^3$	$5.0 \times 10^4$
ES(C)3	PS	$4.0 \times 10^2$	$5.4 \times 10^3$	$5.4 \times 10^3$
ES(C)4	DF	$3.0 \times 10^1$	$5.0 \times 10^4$	$6.6 \times 10^4$
MS(C)13	DF	$4.4 \times 10^1$	$4.0 \times 10^4$	$6.0 \times 10^4$
VP(C)1	PS	$2.2 \times 10^2$	$4.4 \times 10^4$	$5.4 \times 10^4$
VP(C)6	PS	$3.5 \times 10^2$	$4.2 \times 10^4$	$5.5 \times 10^4$
VP(C)8	DF	$4.7 \times 10^2$	$5.4 \times 10^3$	$6.6 \times 10^4$
VS(C)2	PS	$3.2 \times 10^1$	$5.5 \times 10^3$	$6.0 \times 10^4$
VS(C)3	PS	$4.0 \times 10^2$	$5.0 \times 10^3$	$7.5 \times 10^4$

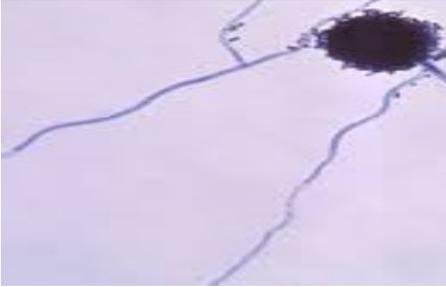
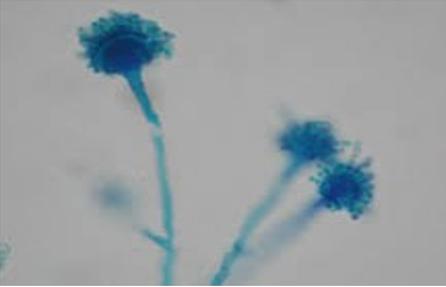
**Table 1c: Fungi Load of the Antibiotics Suspension Sampled**

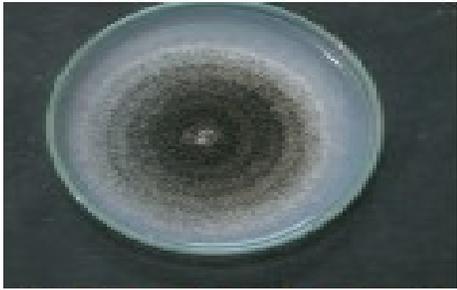
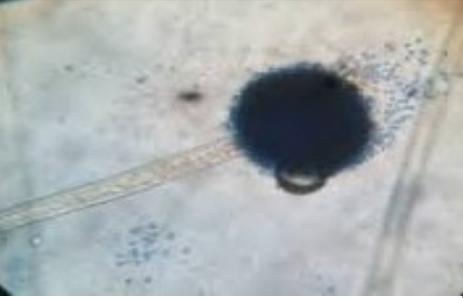
Sampling code	Sampling Location	TFCIMAS (cfu/ml)	TFC3M (cfu/ml)	TFCBE (cfu/ml)
EP(A)10	PS	$2.0 \times 10^2$	$3.7 \times 10^3$	$6.7 \times 10^4$
EP(A)2	PS	$1.0 \times 10^1$	$3.0 \times 10^3$	$6.7 \times 10^4$
ES(A)4	PS	$3.0 \times 10^2$	$4.4 \times 10^3$	$4.0 \times 10^4$
ES(A)5	DF	$1.0 \times 10^2$	$2.5 \times 10^3$	$4.0 \times 10^4$
MP(A)13	DF	$3.7 \times 10^2$	$6.4 \times 10^3$	$8.8 \times 10^4$
MS(A)3	PS	$2.0 \times 10^2$	$3.5 \times 10^3$	$6.7 \times 10^4$
VP(A)3	DF	$3.7 \times 10^2$	$6.3 \times 10^3$	$7.8 \times 10^4$
VP(A)4	DF	$4.0 \times 10^2$	$7.5 \times 10^3$	$8.5 \times 10^4$
VS(A)2	DF	$1.0 \times 10^2$	$4.0 \times 10^3$	$7.0 \times 10^4$
VS(A)7	PS	$3.7 \times 10^1$	$4.4 \times 10^3$	$6.0 \times 10^4$

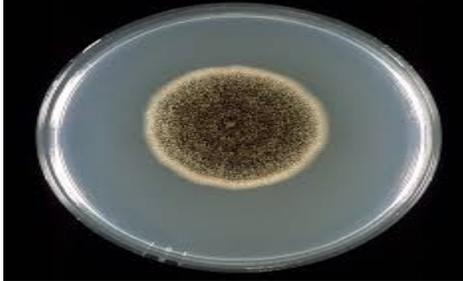
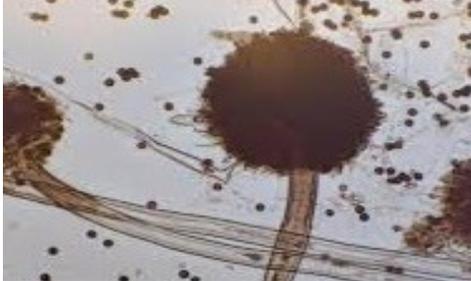
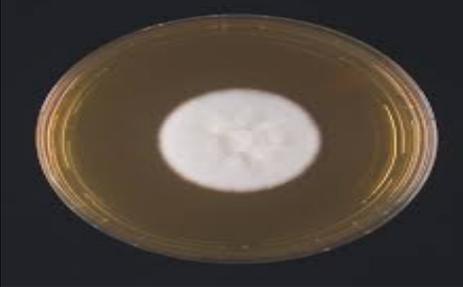
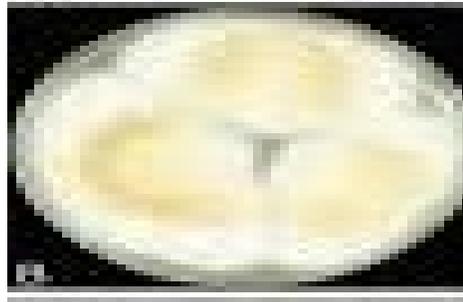
**Key:** TFCIMAS=Total fungi count immediately after sampling; TFC3M= Total fungi count 3 months after sampling; TFCBE= Total fungi count a month before expiration; DF=Directly from Factory; PS= Pharmaceutical shops; cfu /ml= colony forming unit per ml



**Fig. 2:** Electropherogram of extracted DNA samples for the 13 morphologically different fungal isolates using modified CTAB protocol. EP(P)1, MP(P)2, ES(P)1, VP(P)12, VP(C)1, VP(C)6, VS(C)2, VS(C)3, EP(A)2, ES(A)5, MP(A)13, VS(A)7, MS(A)3 respectively

Culture plates of the isolates	Photomicrograph of the isolates	Characteristics of colonies
 <p><b>Fig. 3a(i):</b> <i>Aspergillus niger</i> strain A</p>	 <p><b>Fig. 3a(ii):</b> <i>Aspergillus niger</i> strain A</p>	<p>Colony is a fast growing one, black in colour. Conidial head is short. Conidiophores is erect, simple with thick wall</p>
 <p><b>Fig. 3b(i):</b> <i>Aspergillus niger</i> strain B</p>	 <p><b>Fig. 3b(ii):</b> <i>Aspergillus niger</i> strain B</p>	<p>The colony is a fast growing one formed in groups, black in colour. Conidial head are short. Conidiophores is erect, simple with thick walled.</p>
 <p><b>Fig. 3c(i):</b> <i>Aspergillus niger</i> strain C</p>	 <p><b>Fig. 3c(ii):</b> <i>Aspergillus niger</i> strain C</p>	<p>The conidial head are compact with phalides borne directly on vesicle. This fungus colony is typically black in colour. Conidial heads are long columnar and biserated with long and thin blue smooth-walled stipes.</p>

		<p>The conidiophores hyaline or pale brown erect and simple thick walled. The fungus colony is fast growing</p>
<p><b>Fig. 3d(i): <i>Aspergillus awamari</i></b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3d(ii): <i>Aspergillus awamari</i></b></p>	
		<p>The conidiophores upright, simple terminating in a globose shape with spores at the apex and the entire surface. The colony is a fast growing fungus.</p>
<p><b>Fig. 3e(i): <i>Aspergillus tubingensis</i></b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3e(ii): <i>Aspergillus tubingensis</i></b></p>	
		<p>The colony are granular, flat, often with radial grooves. Yellow at first but quickly becoming bright to green with time. Conidial head are typically radiate, later splitting to form loose columns, having heads with phalides.</p>
<p><b>Fig. 3f(i): <i>Aspergillus flavus</i></b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3f(ii): <i>Aspergillus flavus</i></b></p>	
		<p>It is a fast growing fungus. The fungus colony is typically black in colour .These colonies range in size from a single mold spore to acres across conidial heads are short columnar and uniserate with short, and black smooth-walled stipes.</p>
<p><b>Fig. 3g(i): <i>Aspergillus japonicus</i></b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3g(ii): <i>Aspergillus japonicus</i></b></p>	
		<p>The fungus is fast growing. Black in colour. Conidiophore is erect with smooth stipe wall.</p>

<p><b>Fig. 3h(i): <i>Aspergillus ellipticus</i></b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3h(ii): <i>Aspergillus ellipticus</i></b></p>	<p>The fungus colony is typically suede-like and buffy to sand brown in colouration. The conidial heads are short columnar and biseriate, with short, brownish and smooth-walled stipes.</p>
		
<p><b>Fig. 3i(i): <i>Aspergillus tamari A</i></b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3i(ii): <i>Aspergillus tamari A</i></b></p>	<p>The fungus colony is typically black in colour. The conidial heads are short columnar and uniserate with short, and black smooth-walled stipes.</p>
		
<p><b>Fig. 3j(i): <i>Aspergillus tamari</i> strain B</b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3j(ii): <i>Aspergillus tamari</i> strain B</b></p>	<p>The fungal colony is a slow growing one. It is singly arranged having a whitish cream colour. It produces tiny spores that are scattered on the surface</p>
		
<p><b>Fig. 3k(i): <i>Candida carpophila</i></b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3k(ii): <i>Candida carpophila</i></b></p>	<p>The fungus colony is typically black in colour. The conidial heads are short columnar and uniserates with short and black smooth-walled stipes.</p>
		
<p><b>Fig. 3l(i): <i>Eurotiomycetes</i> sp.</b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3l(ii): <i>Eurotiomycetes</i> sp.</b></p>	<p>It is a fast growing fungus. The colony is a flat, moist-smooth and cream to grey green in colour. It produces clusters of small blastospores along the pseudohyphae.</p>
		
<p><b>Fig. 3m(i): <i>Meyerozyma caaribbica</i></b></p>	<p><b>Fig. 3m(ii): <i>Meyerozyma caaribbica</i></b></p>	

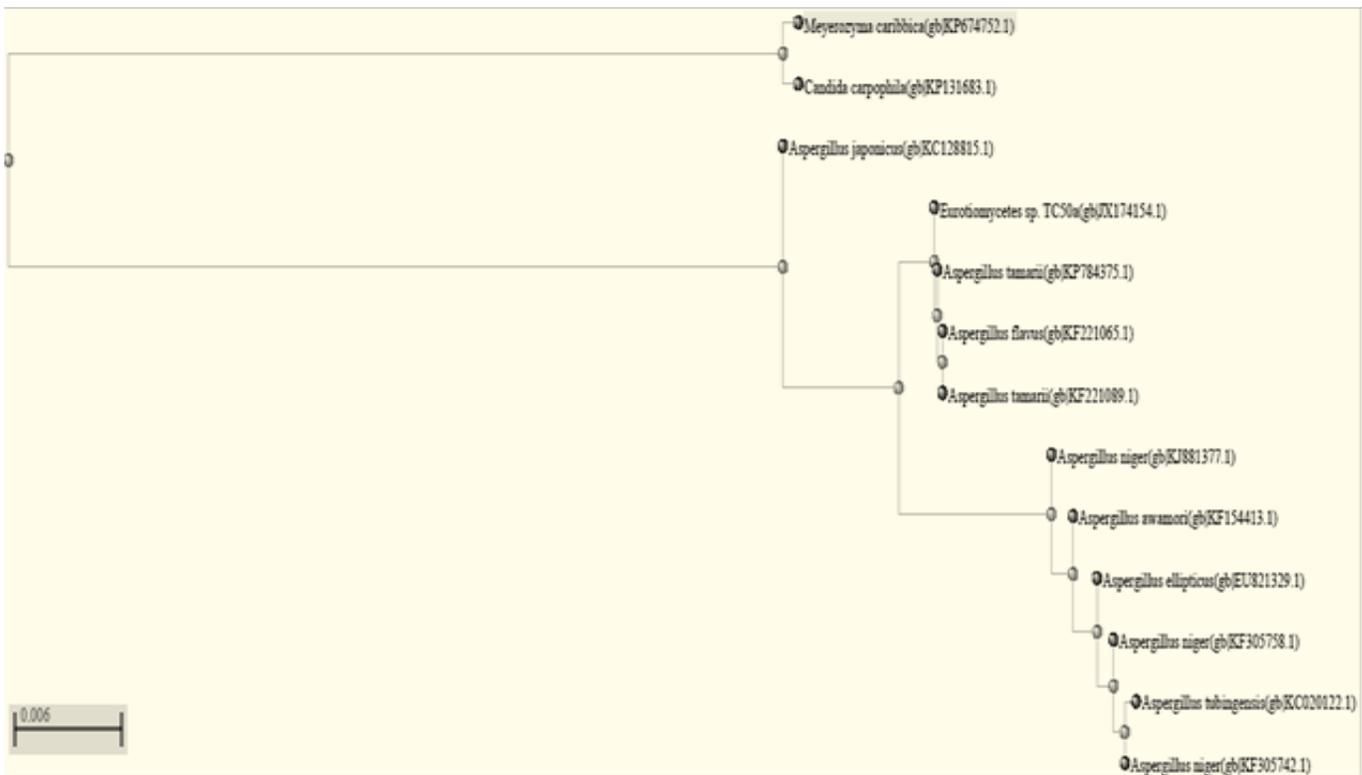


Fig. 4. Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method of the isolates

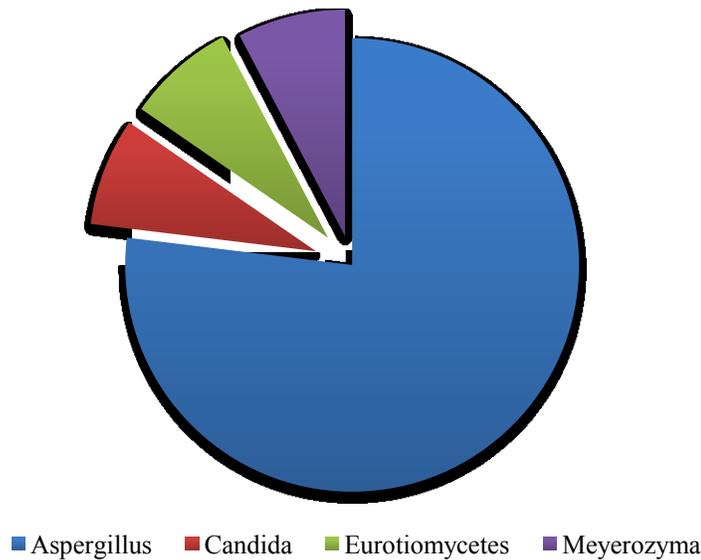


Fig. 5: Percentage occurrence of different fungi genera isolated. With Aspergillus having 76.9% occurrence while Candida, Eurotiomyces and Meyeromyces have 7.7% respectively

Non-sterile liquid drugs are characterized by their viscous consistency and sweet taste with active medicaments. These pharmaceutical syrups constitute the most convenient dosage for babies, children and adult [23]. The deleterious effect of ingesting microbiologically contaminated non-sterile pharmaceutical is more significant as the patients involved are already diseased. As such, it is very important to carry out all round examination on the potency of these drugs before use as

medication especially in babies and little children. Mahboob *et al.* [24] and Emejuru *et al.* [25], observed that the addition of high amount of sweetening agent as well as preservatives could enhance mycotic growth in pharmaceutical products. The World Health Organization (W.H.O), European Pharmacopoeia (EP), United States Pharmacopoeia (USP), and other recognized regulatory agencies have guidelines to ascertain the quality assurance of pharmaceutical products [26]. National Agency

for Food and Drug Administration and Control (NAFDAC), the body assigned with the responsibility of monitoring the quality assurance of consumable food items including pharmaceutical products in Nigeria, published a handbook in 2000 [27], where the standard microbiological specifications for the certification of syrup oral suspensions are well outlined. Thus, it was typically stated that total viable fungal counts must not exceed  $1.0 \times 10^2$  CFU/ml which is far below the observed mycotic loads in some of the analyzed samples. The European Directorate for the Quality of Medicines & HealthCare [28] as well as United State Pharmacopoeia [9] standards for the Total Yeast and Mould Count (TYMC) for the assessment of the microbiological quality of non-sterile pharmaceutical is  $10^2$  cfu/ml or cfu/g which is in line with NAFDAC standard [29, 30]. Furthermore, high contaminations of the sampled antibiotics from our study were not unexpected as the drug is formulated to inhibit the growth of bacterial infections and not necessarily fungi. Emejuru *et al* [25] reported a fungal growth in 16 out of the 24 selected oral liquid pharmaceuticals in Southeastern geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Gad *et al.* [6] observed a range of  $10^1 - 10^3$  cfu/ml contamination of the paediatrics drugs he sampled from Egyptian market with very high prevalence of major fungi genera. Moreover, the observed high fungal loads from this work were similar to the findings of Al-Kafet *et al.* [31] on his research on microbial and physicochemical assays of paracetamol in different brands of analgesic and antipyretic syrups sold in Sana'a City of Yemen. However, Khanom *et al.* [32] who carried out microbiological analysis of liquid oral drugs available in Bangladesh, contradicted this finding where his total fungal count of the oral suspensions were found to be in the range of  $10^1$  to  $10^2$ . Fatema *et al.* [33] report on the assessment of microbiological quality of the pediatric oral liquid drugs in Dhaka city, Bangladesh, was similar to our finding. He observed that fungi presence were not significant during the initial assessment of sampling, however, most of the samples were found to support fungal growth after 21 days with the CFU ranging from  $10^1 - 10^3$  which is similar to our finding.

As observed from this study, *Aspergillus* accounts for about 70% of the total fungal isolates (Fig. 4). The genus *Aspergillus* is one of the most well researched fungi genera and more than 180 officially recognized species have been identified which included 20 human pathogens as well as beneficial strains used in the production of foodstuffs and important industrial

enzymes [34]. In particular, the genera *Candida*, *Rhodotorula*, *Penicillium*, *Aspergillus*, *Rhizopus*, *Alternaria*, and *Mucor* have been reported to be a great contaminant of pharmaceutical products especially syrup, suspension and cosmetics materials [35]. Moreover, Elmorsy and Hafez, [36] observed that fungal isolates from cosmetic preparation were 30% *Aspergillus* spp., 30% *Rhizopus* spp., 18% *Candida* spp., 15% *Trichoderma* spp., and 7% *Penicillium* spp. Timberlake and Marshall [37] described *Aspergilli* as ubiquitous group of filamentous fungi which have been in existence for over 200 million years with a great impact on human health and society. Atkinson and Brojer, [38] described the ubiquitous nature of *Aspergillus* has been due to their saprophytic feeding habit as well as their ability to grow in a wide range of temperatures. Mugoyela *et al.* [13] noted that the presence of potentially pathogenic opportunistic microbes especially *Aspergillus* in pharmaceutical drugs cannot be overemphasized because of their significance in the deterioration of the health status of patients particularly infants with an immature immune system and immune-compromised individuals. Furthermore, the species of *Aspergillus* frequently isolated include *A. fumigatus*, *A. flavus*, *A. nidulans*, *A. niger* and *A. terreus* [38]. *Aspergillus* has been identified as the causative agent of *Aspergillo*sis infection which is a non-contagious disease that affect humans, mammals and mostly wild or domestic birds [39]. Perfect *et al.* [40] categorized the various *Aspergillus* infections as: invasive *aspergillo*sis, chronic necrotizing *aspergillo*sis, allergic broncho-pulmonary *aspergillo*sis and fungus ball or *aspergillo*ma. Wattier and Ramirez-Avila, [41] identified *A. fumigatus* and *A. flavus* as one of the causative agent of Invasive *Aspergillo*sis (IA) which happened to be one of the most common and serious infectious complications occurring in immune-compromised patients.

The presence of moulds in any pharmaceutical products especially consumables like syrup and suspension should be considered as harmful since they produce metabolites that may be toxic to consumers. Gad *et al.* [6], Wu *et al.* [42] and Ratajczak *et al.* [35] reported that moulds and some species of *Aspergillus* such as *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* can produce mycotoxins which can be carcinogenic and mutagenic in nature. Furthermore, they emphasized that these mycotoxins can cause allergies, acute and chronic poisoning, liver damage, and diseases of the respiratory and digestive systems. Raw materials, ingredients, water supply, unhygienic environmental condition and lack of aseptic handling has been identified as

major factors that can significantly contribute to high microbial growth in pharmaceutical products [43, 44]. In developing countries like Nigeria, the possibility of disease incidence is very high due to poor hygienic practices, consumption of contaminated food and water, and unstable environmental condition due to pollution [45]. These give room for the infectious and virulent nature of opportunistic pathogens when resistance mechanisms are impaired either by severe underlying disease or by use of immunosuppressive drugs [46].

### CONCLUSION

The finding from this research shows that fungal loads are present in some of pharmaceutical products sampled in the quantities that are not acceptable according to the standard provided by local (Nigeria) and international drug regulatory bodies. Some of the isolated fungi may not be pathogenic but their presence can interfere with the functionality of the drug through biodegradation of the active component of such syrup. Fungi are also known to produce toxins which can be carcinogenic in nature, as such their presence in any pediatrics' drug should not be taken lightly. Usually most patients are potentially immune compromised when they are taking drugs which accelerate the chances of diseases acquired by opportunistic pathogens. Therefore, the presence of any microorganism should be considered undesirable for all drugs. The compliance sector in Nigeria's Pharmaceuticals should strictly deal with microbial stringency within the manufacturing which should include packaging, distribution and storage of pharmaceutical products, added preservatives, sweeteners, and production environment. Furthermore, microbial loads of non-sterile pharmaceuticals can be reduced to barest minimum by preventing the possibility of spoilage organisms and by adding well-researched antimicrobial agents or chemical preservatives. Unhygienic environmental condition coupled with improper handling of raw materials, ingredients and products must also be checked. Finally, good manufacturing practice is non-negotiable and must be strictly adhere to at all times if the microbial contamination is to be totally eradicated.

### FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

Nil

### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest

### REFERENCES

- [1] U.S. Federal Food and Drug Administration, 2008. US Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act, Section 210, 2008. United State Pharmacopeia. Microbiological examination of non-sterile product. Tests for specified microorganisms. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Forum*, 29(5), 1722-1733 (2003).
- [2] Bajaj S, Singla D, Sakhuja S. Stability Testing of Pharmaceutical Products. *Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science*, 2(3), 129-138 (2012)
- [3] Pal S, Basak S, Roy S, Roy DR, Palchoudhuri S, Dastidar SG.. Experimental evaluation of practical viability of Good Manufacturing Practice (GMP) in preparation of oral liquid formulations in small scale pharmaceutical industries. *European Journal of Pharmacy and Medical Research*, 3(4), 403-407 (2016)
- [4] Saeger SD, Logrieco A. Report from the 1st MYCOKEY International Conference Global Mycotoxin Reduction in the Food and Feed Chain Held in Ghent, Belgium, 11–14 September 2017. *Toxins*, 9, 276 (2017).
- [5] Shaikh D, Jamshed TA, Shaikh R. Microbial contamination of pharmaceutical preparations. *Pakistan Journal of Pharmaceutical Science*, 1, 61-6 (1988)
- [6] Gad GFM, Aly RAI, Ashour MSE. Microbial Evaluation of Some Non-sterile Pharmaceutical Preparations Commonly Used in the Egyptian Market. *Tropical Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*, 10 (4), 437-445 (2011)
- [7] Kallings LO, Ringertz O, Silverstolpe L, Ernerfeldt F. Microbial contamination of medical preparation. *Acta Phamaca Succica*, 3, 219-228 (1996)
- [8] Mwambete KD, Justin-Temu M, Fazleabbas SF. Microbiological assessment of commercially available quinine syrups and water for injections in Dares Salaam, Tanzania. *Tropical Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*, 8(5), 441–447 (2009)
- [9] U.S. Pharmacopoeial Convention: Microbiological examination of non-sterile products: tests for specified microorganisms. In United States Pharmacopeia. Rockville: General Chapter 62 (USP 35), U.S. Pharmacopoeial Convention, 60–61 (2012)
- [10] El-Houssieny RS, Aboulwafa MW, Elkhatib WF, Hassouna NA. Recovery and Detection of Microbial Contaminants in Some Non-Sterile Pharmaceutical Products. *Archives Clinical Microbiology*, 4(6), 1-4 (2013)

- [11] Hossain J. Importance of the bioburden test in pharmaceutical quality control. *Pharmaceutical Microbiology Forum*, 15(1), 2-14 (2009)
- [12] Lowe RA, Shaw RS. Storage, stability in-use, shelf-life guidelines for non-sterile medicine. Eastern and South East London. *Quality Assurance Service*, (2001)
- [13] Mugoyela V, Mwambete KD. Microbial contamination of non-sterile pharmaceutical in hospital settings. *Journal of Therapeutics and Clinical Risk Management*, 6, 443-448 (2010)
- [14] Nirmala MJ, Chandrasekaran N, Mukherjee A. Enhanced solubilization of aqueous insoluble anti-hypertension drug. *International Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Science*, 4(5), 366-368 (2012)
- [15] Adeshina GO, Ajayi SO, Onalapo JA. Microbiological quality of some commercially available paediatrics anti-malarial and cough preparations in Ilorin, Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Pharmaceutical Science*, 8(1), 109-117 (2009)
- [16] Moniruzzaman M, Ashrafi MF, Mia Z. Qualitative and Quantitative microbiological studies of antacid and paracetamol suspension from different drugstores. *Journal of Biological Science*, 21(1), 105-107 (2012)
- [17] Olutiola PO, Famurewa O, Sonntag HG. Introduction to General Microbiology: A practical Approach. Bolaby Publication, Lagos, pp269 (2000)
- [18] Alexopoulos CJ, Mims CW, Blackwell M. Introductory Mycology. Fourth edition. Wiley India, New Delhi, pp869 (2007)
- [19] Ellis D, Davis S, Alexiou H, Handke R, Bartley R. Description of medical fungi. 2nd ed. Mycology unit, Women's and children's hospital, North Adelaide, Australia (2007)
- [20] Umesh S, Manukumar HM, Raghava S. A rapid method for isolation of genomic DNA from food-borne fungal pathogens. *Biotechnology*, 6(123), 1-9 (2016)
- [21] Gonzalez-Mendoza D, Moreno AQ, Zapata Perez O. An improved method for the isolation of total RNA from *Avicennia germinans* leaves. *Z Naturforsch C A Journal of Bioscience*, 63, 124-126 (2008)
- [22] Adebayo-Tayo BC and Adebami GE. Production, Characterization and Effect of Cultural Condition on Bioflocculant Produced by *Alcaligenes aquatilis* AP4. *Journal of Applied Life Sciences International*, 14(2), 1-12, (2017)
- [23] Tukur MA., Muazu J, Mohammed GT. Microbial analysis of brands of multivitamin syrups marketed in Maiduguri, Northeast Nigeria. *Advances in Applied Science Research*, 3(5), 3124-3128 (2012)
- [24] Mahboob, H, Ara S, Raham MZ. Quantization Examination of Aerobic Bacteria and Fungi in Locally available Antacid Suspension and Possible Contamination by Specific Bacteria. *Pakistan Journal of Biological Science*, 7(11), 2014-2017 (2004)
- [25] Emejuru MC, Ojiegbe GC, Azi S, Nwosu NB. Microbiological Load of Selected Oral Liquid Pharmaceuticals. *International Journal of Community Research*, 2(3), 39-45 (2013)
- [26] Haleem RM, Salem MY, Fatahalla FA, Abdelfattah LE. Quality in the pharmaceutical industry – A literature review. *Saudi Pharmaceutical Journal*, 23, 463-469 (2015)
- [27] National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control (NAFDAC). Syrups, Suspensions, Linctures and Mixtures. *Journal of Drug Processing*, 8, 12-19 (2000)
- [28] European Directorate for the Quality of Medicines & HealthCare: Microbiological examination of non-sterile products: test for specified micro-organisms. In European Pharmacopoeia 70. Strasbourg: Chapter 2.6.13, EDQM, 167-171 (2011)
- [29] Pullirsch D, Bellemare J, Hackl A, Trottier Y, Mayrhofer A, Schindl H, Taillon C, Gartner C, Hottowy B, Beck G, Gagnon J. Microbiological contamination in counterfeit and unapproved drugs. *BMC Pharmaceutical Toxicology*, 15(34), 1-8 (2014)
- [30] Vu N, Lou JR, Kupiec TC. Microbiological Limit tests for non-sterile pharmaceutical. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Compound*, 18(3), 213-221 (2014)
- [31] Al-Kaf AG, Alghalibi SM, Edrees WH. Microbial and physicochemical assays of paracetamol in different brands of analgesic syrups sold in Sana'a City-Yemen. *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacognosy Research*, 3 (1), 6-12 (2015)
- [32] Khanom S, Das KK, Banik S, Noor R. Microbiological analysis of liquid oral drugs available in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Science*, 5(4), 479-482 (2013)
- [33] Fatema K, Chakraborty SR, Sultana T, Rahman MM, Kamali NM, Das KK, Noor R. Assessment of microbiological quality of the pediatric oral liquid drugs.

- Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry*, 3(1), 165-171 (2014)
- [34] Contesini F.J., Lopes D.B., Macedo G.A., Nascimento M., Carvalho P. Aspergillus sp. lipase: Potential biocatalyst for industrial use. *Journal of Molecular Catalysis B: Enzymatic*, 67 163–171 (2010)
- [35] Ratajczak M, Kubicka MM, Kamin'ska D, Sawicka P, Długaszewska. Microbiological quality of non-sterile pharmaceutical products. *Saudi Pharmaceutical Journal*, 23, 303–307 (2015)
- [36] Elmorsy TH, Hafez EA. Microbial Contamination of Some Cosmetic Preparations in Egypt. *International Journal of Agricultural Technology*, 12(3), 567-577 (2016)
- [37] Timberlake W.E., Marshall M.A., genetic engineering of filamentous fungi. *Science*, 244, 1313–1317 (1989)
- [38] Atkinson R, Brojer C. Unusual presentations of Aspergillosis in wild birds. *Proc Association of Avian Veterinarians*, 177-181 (1998)
- [39] Stone WB, Okoniewski JC. Necropsy findings and environmental contaminants in common loons from New York. *J Wildl Dis*, 37 (1), 178-184 (2001)
- [40] Perfect JR, Cox GM, Lee JY, Kauffman CA, de Repentigny L, Chapman SW, Morrison VA, Pappas P, Hiemenz JW, Stevens DA and the Mycoses Study Groupa. The Impact of Culture Isolation of Aspergillus Species: A Hospital-Based Survey of Aspergillosis. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 33, 1824–1833 (2001)
- [41] Wattier RL and Ramirez-Avila L. Pediatric Invasive Aspergillosis. *Journal of Fungi*, 2(19), 1-20 (2016)
- [42] Wu F, Groopman JD, Pestka JJ. Public health impacts of foodborne mycotoxins. *Review Food Science and Technology*, 5, 351–372 (2014)
- [43] Parker MS. Microbiological contamination and preservation of pharmaceutical preparations. In: *Pharmaceutics: The science of dosage from design*. 2nd ed. China: Churchill Livingstone, pp220 (2000)
- [44] Najmuddin M, Patel V, Ahmed A, Shelar S, Khan T. Preparation and evaluation of Flurbiprofen microcapsule for colonic drug delivery system. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Science*, 2(2), 83-87 (2010)
- [45] Pruss-Ustun A, Corvalán C. Preventing disease through healthy environments: Towards an estimate of the environmental burden of disease. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Science*, 5(4), 479-482(2006)
- [46] Manu-Tawiah W, Brescia BA, Montgomery ER. Setting threshold limits for the significance of objectionable microorganisms in oral pharmaceutical products, PDA. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Science and Technology*, 55, 171-175 (2001)