Vol. 15(2), pp. 36-49, July-December 2023 DOI: 10.5897/JBR2023.0359 Article Number:E6BA54A71438 ISSN 2006-9871 Copyright © 2023 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/JBR



Full Length Research Paper

Challenges and opportunities in advancing microbiology research in Africa: A review

Eric Amenyogbe^{1*}, Christian Larbi Ayisi¹, Eric Kwabena Droepenu¹, Grace Afumwaa Boamah¹, Rahmat Quaigrane Duker², Noel Ayivor¹, Isaac Kwame Akortia¹

¹Department of Water Resources and Aquaculture Management, School of Sustainable Development, University of Environment and Sustainable Development, Somanya, Eastern Region, Ghana.

Received 16 June, 2023; Accepted 18 July, 2023

The need for efficient microbiology technologies in Africa has been a significant challenge to advancing microbiology research and study. This review examines the impact of this challenge and identifies the opportunities that exist to address them. These include the slow pace of research and development, the limited ability to identify and manage infectious diseases, and the challenge of monitoring and controlling food and water quality. The impact of the slow pace of research and development on microbiology is particularly concerning, as it limits the ability of African researchers to carry out complex microbiology experiments. This, in turn, limits the amount of knowledge that can be generated about various aspects of life, including human health, agriculture, and environmental science. Despite these challenges, this article identifies opportunities for addressing Africa's lack of efficient microbiology technologies. One opportunity is the development of specialised research facilities that can support microbiology research in the continent. Another opportunity is training researchers and technicians to ensure they are equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge to carry out microbiology research. The need for efficient microbiology technologies in Africa has significantly impacted microbiology research and study on the continent. By investing in specialised research facilities, providing training for researchers and technicians, and increasing access to funding for research and development, it is possible to improve the pace of microbiology research and generate new knowledge about various aspects of life in Africa.

Key words: Technologies, Laboratory techniques, Diagnostic methods, Capacity building, Education.

INTRODUCTION

Microbiology's development as a science confounds the history of biotechnological techniques in humanity. Microbiological technologies refer to a wide range of tools and techniques used to study microorganisms, including bacteria, viruses, fungi, and protozoa. These technologies

have revolutionised our understanding of microbiology and have enabled scientists to explore the diversity and complexity of microbial life (Tortora et al., 2016; Madigan et al., 2018). Some common microbiological technologies include: Microscopy (Figure 1) uses microscopes to

*Corresponding author. E-mail: amenyogbeeric@yahoo.com.

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> <u>License 4.0 International License</u>

²Department of Biological Sciences, School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, University of Environment and Sustainable Development, Somanya, Eastern Region, Ghana.



Figure 1. Some common microbiological technology devices (Some images of various microscopes types) used. A microscope is an instrument that is used to magnify small objects. Microscopes opened a window into the invisible world of microorganisms. Some microscopes can even be used to observe an object at the cellular level, allowing scientists to see the shape of a cell, its nucleus, mitochondria, and other organelles. Source: https://thebiologynotes.com/types-of-microscopes/#2-compound-microscope

visualize and study microorganisms. Different types of microscopes, such as light, electron, and fluorescence, can reveal different aspects of microbial morphology, structure, and behavior. Culture techniques (Figure 2) involve the cultivation of microorganisms in the laboratory using nutrient-rich media. These techniques are used to isolate and identify microbial species, study their growth characteristics, and test their susceptibility to different antimicrobial agents. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (Figure 3) is a technique that amplifies small amounts of DNA or RNA from microorganisms, allowing their detection and identification. PCR has become an important tool in microbial diagnostics and research. Nextgeneration sequencing (NGS) (Figure 4) technologies allow the rapid and high-throughput sequencing of microbial genomes, enabling the study of microbial diversity, evolution, and function. Examples of NGS platforms include Illumina, PacBio, and Oxford Nanopore. Bioinformatics (Figure 5) uses computational tools and databases to analyse and interpret large-scale microbial data. Bioinformatics is crucial in analysing NGS data and

integrating diverse microbiological data sets (Tortora et al., 2016; Madigan et al., 2018).

Molecular evidence from the Neolithic village of Jiahu in China dates to 7000 BC and shows the first use of microorganisms to ferment cereal grain to produce an alcoholic beverage (McGovern et al., 2004; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). In northern Mesopotamia, evidence for similar dating dates back to 5400-5000 BC and was discovered in the Zagros Mountains (McGovern et al., 1996). An old jar at the Neolithic site of Tepe in Mesopotamia that was also dated to 5400-5000 BC. which contains tartaric acid, is the first indication that wine was produced (McGovern et al., 1996), while grape juice residues found in Dikili Tash, Greece, have also been dated to 5000 BC (Valamoti et al., 2007; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). This evidence suggests that these civilisations began producing wine on a large scale in 5000 BC, based on their technological process (Borneman et al., 2013). As a result of the empirical domestication of yeasts (Sicard and Legras, 2011), fermentation practices developed and spread throughout

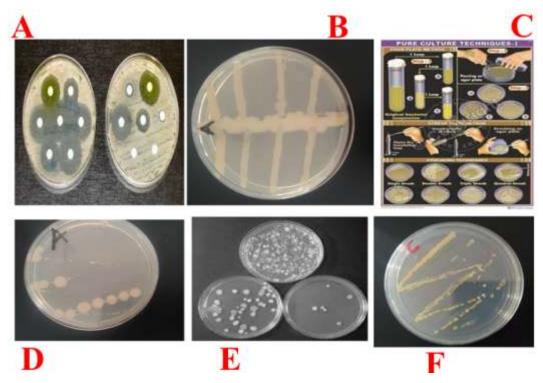


Figure 2. Showing the culture techniques. Culture methods involve taking samples from the field and detecting the presence of microbe by culturing them. From the amount of microbial species their influence on corrosion is estimated. Culture media to grow different microbes have been established. Note: A shows the antagonize effects of a bacteria on an antibiotics; B shows the compatibility of two different bacteria; C shows the different forms of culture methods; D, E and F shows the growth of a bacteria on culture plate through spread and strike methods. Source: https://www.cdc.gov/microbes/bacteria.html



Figure 3. Showing various types of Polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Polymerase chain reaction PCR method. PCR is a very sensitive technique that allows rapid amplification of a specific segment of DNA. PCR makes billions of copies of a specific DNA fragment or gene, which allows detection and identification of gene sequences using visual techniques based on size and charge.

Source: https://www.thermofisher.com/us/en/home/life-science/cloning/pcr-amplification/pcr-basics/what-is-pcr.html



Figure 4. Showing various forms of Next-generation sequencing (NGS). Next-generation sequencing (NGS) is a massively parallel sequencing technology that offers ultra-high throughput, scalability, and speed. The technology is used to determine the order of nucleotides in entire genomes or targeted regions of DNA or RNA. Source: https://www.illumina.com/techniques/sequencing/ngs.html

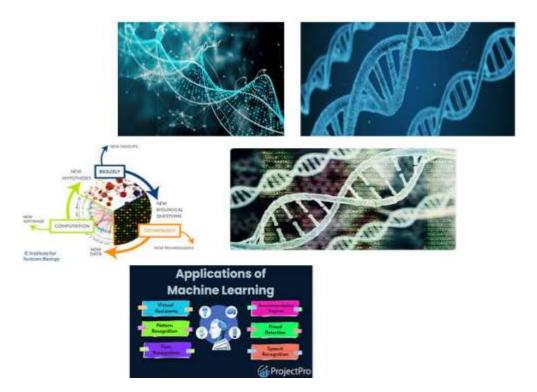


Figure 5. Showing some images of Bioinformatics learning's. Bioinformatics uses biology, chemistry, physics, computer science, computer programming, information engineering, mathematics and statistics to analyse and interpret biological data. The subsequent process of analysing and interpreting data is referred to as computational biology. Source: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4010455/

Asia, Mesopotamia, Egypt, and the Old World (Pasteur, 1857; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). This led Louis Pasteur to explore the true causes of fermentation (Pasteur, 1857). Pasteur was approached in 1856 by an agricultural-industrial region in Lille that was facing production problems with beetroot-based alcohol. As a result, Pasteur began studying the fermentation of lactic acid and alcoholic alcohol (Gal, 2008). His appreciation of the microscopic universe propelled him to propose vaccinations against anthrax (1881) and rabies (1885) that were later used against the disease (Pasteur, 2002; Plotkin and Plotkin, 2011; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). As a result of Pasteur's work, fermentation-based products were synthesised at an accelerated rate, and improvements were made to techniques that had already been developed. The results of his studies contributed to the formation of microbiology as a science, which initially focused on disease control through sanitary methods.

Technological Microbiology only attracted the market's attention after microbial products started being required on an industrial scale. A good example of this was the use of glycerol during World War I to manufacture explosives (Wang et al., 2001; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017) and the large-scale production of penicillin in the 1940s, thanks to Fleming's discovery (Neushul, 1993). As a result of a United States Supreme Court decision in the 1980s, technological microbiology is considered to have begun in the 1980s. In this case, a Pseudomonas putida variant was patented, which was effective in digesting organic compounds found in crude oil spills (Robinson and Medlock, 2005; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). We learned that our ignorance of microbial diversity was enormous in the 1970s when Carl Woese and colleagues used a universally conserved sequence, the 16S rRNA molecule, as a taxonomic marker. As a result, a new prokaryotic domain, the Archaea, was concealed (Woese and Fox, 1977; Woese et al., 1990; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). A recent discovery of genomics has revealed that the tree of life is even more complex than before, as two exceptionally complex and poorly studied groups have been identified (Spang and Ettema, 2016). Candidate Phyla Radiation is a bacterial group, while DPANN is a superphylum of Archaea. Based on these studies, we may continue to see the tree of life grow in the future. Further, although many archaea, such as Halobacterium, Pyrococcus, and Thermococcus, have already been recognised as having potential biotechnological applications (Coker, 2016; Waditee-Sirisattha et al., Vitorino and Bessa, 2017), Technological Microbiology will continue to provide new perspectives on the use of these species in developing new or improved products as new microorganisms with diverse nutritional requirements and metabolic profiles emerge. Classical has therefore progressed discovering new species, selecting and improving known strains, and introducing non-native genes to acquire expressed products or new functional traits (Vitorino and Bessa, 2017).

Africa faces significant challenges with respect to the development and adoption of advanced technologies, particularly in the area of aquaculture. The lack of adequate technological infrastructure has significantly limited the growth and expansion of this sector, hindering the development of microbiological applications in aquaculture. Microbiology is a vital field of study that is crucial for understanding various aspects of life. However, the need for efficient microbiology technologies in Africa has significantly impacted the advancement of microbiology research on the continent. With 54 countries, Africa is the world's second-biggest and most populated continent. Despite its vast natural resources, Africa needs to catch up in technological development. This review discusses the impacts of the lack of efficient microbiology technologies on microbiological research and the opportunities these topics present. The lack of efficient microbiology technologies in Africa has led to a slow pace of research and development in the field. With access to advanced technologies such as highthroughput sequencing, advanced microscopy, and advanced cell culture techniques, African researchers may find it easier to carry out complex microbiology experiments. The lack of efficient microbiology technologies also limits the ability to monitor and control food and water quality, leading to outbreaks of foodborne illnesses and other waterborne diseases. With advanced researchers can identify pathogens technologies. responsible for these diseases and develop effective treatments to prevent their spread. In addition, access to efficient microbiology technologies can help researchers conduct more in-depth studies of microorganisms and their interactions with humans and the environment. This knowledge can lead to the development of new treatments and preventative measures.

Microbiology research plays a crucial role in understanding infectious diseases, improving healthcare, promoting sustainable development. significant progress in recent years, microbiology research in Africa still faces numerous challenges that hinder its advancement. By conducting a review focused on the challenges and opportunities in this field, valuable insights can be gained, leading to the formulation of effective strategies to overcome these obstacles and maximize the potential for microbiology research in Africa. This study aims to shed light on the current state of microbiology research in Africa, identify the challenges it faces, and explore the opportunities for growth and development in this important scientific discipline. The study take into consideration the following: Technological microbiology in agriculture and aquaculture, technological microbiology in food, technological microbiology in chemical and fuel, science and technological microbiology in the environment, technological microbiology in the Technological Microbiology medical industry, Materials, the molecular technology of microbiology, and

technological microbiology in education.

METHODOLOGY

Literature search

For this study, the search databases covering Web of Science, Google Scholar, and subscribed journals served as Core Collections. Papers published up to 2022 were initially retrieved using amalgamations of several keywords. In addition, the studies found in the preliminary search were distinguished according to the relevance of the information they contained regarding microbiology research. Further classification of these papers was done according to the topics explored: Technological microbiology in agriculture and aquaculture, technological microbiology in food, technological microbiology in chemical and fuel, science and technological microbiology in the environment, technological microbiology in the medical industry, Technological Microbiology of Materials, the molecular technology of microbiology, and technological microbiology in education. In total, 79 publications reporting microbiology research were obtained in full-text format.

TECHNOLOGICAL MICROBIOLOGY IN AGRICULTURE AND AQUACULTURE

Agricultural/Aquaculture Technological Microbiology refers to the use of microorganisms in the agriculture and aquaculture industry to improve the productivity and quality of crops, livestock, and aquatic animals. Microbes are essential to the agricultural and aquaculture industry as they play critical roles in nutrient cycling, soil health, waste management, and disease control. Some of the applications of agricultural/aquaculture technological microbiology includes Biofertilizers: Microbes such as Rhizobium, Azotobacter, and Azospirillum are used as biofertilisers to enhance the nutrient uptake of plants and improve soil health. Biocontrol agents: Microbes such as Bacillus thuringiensis, Trichoderma spp., Pseudomonas fluorescens are used as biocontrol agents to control pests and diseases in crops. Aquaculture probiotics: Probiotic bacteria such as Lactobacillus and Bifidobacterium are used in aquaculture to improve the health and growth of fish and shrimp (Amenyogbe et al., 2022a). Bioremediation: Microbes such as Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Bacillus subtilis are bioremediation of soil and water contaminated with pesticides and other pollutants. Fermentation: Microbes such as Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Lactobacillus acidophilus are used in the fermentation of food products such as yoghurt, cheese, and beer. Agricultural/ Aquaculture technological microbiology is an important field that has the potential to improve the sustainability and efficiency of the agriculture and aguaculture industry while reducing the environmental impact of these industries.

According to Nnaji and Dike (2020), the need for advanced microbiological technologies in Africa has made diagnosing and treating fish diseases difficult,

resulting in significant economic losses for fish farmers. Moreover, the need for advanced technologies has also limited the ability of researchers to study microbial communities in fish ponds, which has hindered the development of effective strategies for maintaining optimal water quality in aquaculture systems. The lack of adequate technologies in Africa has hampered the development of advanced microbiological applications in aquaculture in most African countries with the exception of few such as South Africa and Egypt. Microbiological applications such as probiotics, prebiotics, and synbiotics have improved aquaculture species' growth and health, reduced antibiotic use, and enhanced disease resistance (FAO, 2016, 2018a, 2018b, 2019; Goddard, 2018). However, the application of these microbiological products is heavily dependent on the availability of advanced technologies such as bioreactors, sophisticated equipment, laboratory and high-speed internet connectivity for data analysis and transfer. The absence of such technologies in many parts of Africa has significantly limited the application of microbiological solutions in aquaculture, hindering the growth and development of the sector (Naylor et al., 2009; Gallois and Lafont, 2016; Oyebanji et al., 2017).

Several strategies can be employed to address the lack technologies in Africa and their impact on microbiological use in aquaculture. First, governments and private sector organizations can invest in the development of advanced technological infrastructure, such as bioreactors and laboratory equipment, to support the production and application of microbiological solutions. Second, collaborations between African and international research institutions can be established to facilitate the transfer of knowledge and expertise on microbiological solutions for aquaculture. Third, training and capacity-building programs can be developed to equip local farmers and aquaculture practitioners with the necessary skills and knowledge to adopt and apply microbiological solutions in their operations. Fourth, initiatives such as public-private partnerships and venture capital investments can be encouraged to support the development and adoption of advanced technologies in aquaculture.

TECHNOLOGICAL MICROBIOLOGY IN FOOD

Food Technological Microbiology refers to the study of microorganisms that are involved in food production, preservation, and spoilage. Microbes play a significant role in the food industry, as they can be utilised to improve the quality, safety, and shelf life of food products. Some of the applications of Food Technological Microbiology include Fermentation: Microbes such as *lactic acid* bacteria, yeast, and mould are used in the fermentation of various food products such as bread, cheese, yoghurt, and alcoholic beverages. Food

preservation: Microbes such as lactic acid bacteria and propionibacteria are used in the production of fermented sausages and cheese, which can be stored for a long time due to the presence of organic acids and low pH. Food safety: Microbes such as Salmonella, Escherichia coli, and Listeria monocytogenes can cause foodborne illnesses, and their detection and control are crucial for ensuring food safety. Probiotics: Microbes such as Lactobacillus and Bifidobacterium are used as probiotics in functional foods to improve gut health and boost the immune system. Biopreservation: Microbes such as bacteriocin-producing lactic acid bacteria are used in biopreservation to inhibit the growth of spoilage and pathogenic bacteria in food. Food Technological Microbiology is a critical field in the food industry. It provides solutions to improve food quality, safety, and shelf life while reducing food waste and environmental impact.

The lack of technology has hindered the growth and development of food technology microbiology in many countries in Africa, however, this may not be the case in countries such as South Africa, Egypt and Nigeria Food storage, and preservation processing, challenging without adequate technology, leading to food spoilage and contamination. Furthermore, the lack of technology makes conducting research and development in the food industry difficult, limiting innovation in the food industry. Additionally, the absence of modern technology in Africa has led to using traditional food preservation methods, which are often inefficient and ineffective. For instance, smoking and sun-drying are common traditional food preservation methods in Africa. However, they can lead to the growth of bacteria, fungi, and other microorganisms, leading to food spoilage contamination (Adebowale et al., 2008; Oyebanji et al., 2017). Moreover, the lack of technology has also limited the adoption of food safety practices, leading to a high incidence of foodborne illnesses. Inadequate monitoring and surveillance of food products have led to the consumption of contaminated food, leading to outbreaks of diseases such as cholera, typhoid, and salmonellosis.

TECHNOLOGICAL MICROBIOLOGY IN CHEMICAL AND FUEL

Chemical and Fuel Technological Microbiology refers to the use of microorganisms to produce chemicals and fuels through biological processes. Microbes can produce a wide range of chemicals and fuels that can replace petroleum-based products and reduce the environmental impact of these industries. Some of the applications of Chemical and Fuel Technological Microbiology include Biofuels: Microbes such as algae and bacteria can be used to produce biofuels such as ethanol, biodiesel, and methane. These biofuels can be produced from renewable resources such as biomass and can reduce

greenhouse gas emissions compared to traditional fossil fuels. Bioplastics: Microbes such as Pseudomonas putida and Escherichia coli can be used to produce biodegradable bioplastics that can replace petroleumbased plastics. Enzyme production: Microbes such as Aspergillus niger and Trichoderma reesei can be used to produce enzymes such as amylases, cellulases, and proteases, which are used in various industries such as food, paper, and textile. Fine chemicals: Microbes such as Streptomyces and Penicillium can be used to produce fine chemicals such as antibiotics, immunosuppressants, and anti-cancer drugs. Bioremediation: Microbes such as Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Rhodococcus erythropolis can be used for bioremediation of contaminated soil and water by degrading pollutants such as hydrocarbons and pesticides. Chemical and Fuel Technological Microbiology is an important field that has the potential to provide sustainable solutions for chemical and fuel production while reducing the environmental impact of these industries.

One of the first large-scale industrial fermentation processes to gain global significance was the microbial production of acetone and butanol, which was performed efficiently by the Clostridium genus (Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). The inability to compete with chemical synthesis from petrochemical feedstock also affected the centennial microbial synthesis of glycerol. As a result, glycerol became an important raw material for the production of various chemicals in developing countries, including Africa, when the price of propylene increased due to its decreased availability. The alternative synthesis of glycerol by fermentation became more attractive as a result (Wang et al., 2001; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017).

As a means of reducing fossil fuel dependence, the synthesis of chemicals through metabolic processes in microbes is urgently needed. A biorefinery converts renewable resources into substrates that are susceptible to microbial action using biomass or waste products in modern research (Sauer, 2016), which has prompted the industry to move from fossil fuel usage to renewable raw materials as a result of climate change and environmental problems (Moon et al., 2016). A new generation of biofuels may also be produced by microorganisms (Liao et al., 2016; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). Tolerating acetic acid is another challenge facing second-generation ethanol production. This acid inhibits lignocellulose hydrolysate. Currently, it is not known what polygenic basis exists in some strains of S. cerevisiae that lead to high acetic acid tolerance. However, its identification may allow strains to be improved acetic acid tolerated more effectively without adversely affecting other yeast properties that are important to industry (Meijnen et al., 2016). Furthermore, the development of pre-treatment techniques for cellulose sources such as forestry, crop residues (eucalyptus bark, corn, and rice husks), and yeast genetic improvement (McIntosh et al., 2016; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017) are capable of boosting

second-generation ethanol production.

Microbial conversion of biomass can also produce biogas and other energy molecules besides bioethanol. However, AD's performance for biogas production is not only influenced by the maintenance of a high density of these bioconversion microorganisms but also by several ion-specific transporters and enzyme systems not yet well-known, so the knowledge of genes that control these systems efficiently will be an important part of future production challenges (Goswami et al., 2016; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017).

Without adequate technology, conducting research and development in this field is difficult, which limits innovation in the sector. Furthermore, the lack of technology has led to using traditional methods for producing chemicals and fuels, which are often inefficient, costly, and environmentally harmful. In addition, the lack of technology has also limited the adoption of sustainable practices, such as renewable energy, in chemical and fuel production. Africa is rich in renewable energy resources such as solar, wind, and hydropower, but the lack of technology has made it difficult to harness these resources for energy production (Agbogidi et al., 2016; World Bank, 2018). Moreover, the absence of technology has led to out-dated and harmful chemical processes, such as leaded gasoline, which is still used in some African countries. Leaded gasoline has adverse health effects, including damage to the nervous system and cognitive impairment. The lack of technology has also led to poor waste management practices, which have led to pollution of the environment, including air, water, and soil.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGICAL MICROBIOLOGY IN THE ENVIRONMENT

Environmental Technological Microbiology refers to the use of microorganisms to address environmental issues such as pollution, waste management, and soil and water quality. Microbes play a critical role in maintaining the balance of ecosystems and can be utilised to improve environmental sustainability. Some of the applications of Environmental Technological Microbiology Bioremediation: Microbes such as bacteria, fungi, and algae can be used to remediate contaminated soil and water by breaking down pollutants and converting them into less harmful substances. Composting: Microbes such as bacteria and fungi can be used in the composting process to break down organic waste and convert it into nutrient-rich compost, which can be used to improve soil health. Wastewater treatment: Microbes such as bacteria and protozoa can be used in wastewater treatment plants to break down organic matter and remove pollutants from wastewater. Carbon sequestration: Microbes such as cyanobacteria and algae can be used for carbon sequestration by converting carbon dioxide into biomass

through photosynthesis. Biogas production: Microbes such as methanogenic bacteria can be used to produce biogas from organic waste such as agricultural waste and sewage sludge.

In treating effluents, especially industrial effluents, microbial enzymes have been used directly because of their faster action, eliminating the need for fermentation (Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). Among the wastewater treatment methods used are lipases, which remove triglycerides by converting them to fatty acids (Jamie et al., 2016). As the fat layers form on the surface of aerated tanks, these enzymes are critical in removing these layers continuously to allow oxygen to be transported (Hasan et al., 2006). Researchers are currently investigating integrating solid waste treatment or even wastewater treatment using microbial fuel cells (MFC), that is, microbial cells that use electrons donated by the waste as a source of energy (Xu et al., 2016; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). In addition to treating effluent and generating electricity, this alternative technology can be conducted using mixed MFC cultures that can be adapted to various substrates (Pendyala et al., 2016). Improve purification of drinking water has also been the focus of research. Enzymatic waste treatment is usually less expensive but involves using biodegradable enzymes. The development of thermostable or pHresilient microbial enzymes requires further research.

Additionally, the use of enzymes in waste treatment has been hindered by a lack of knowledge about the enzyme-producing species that may be applicable since only about 2% of all microorganisms have been tested for their enzyme potential (Hasan et al., 2006; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). Environmental Technological Microbiology is an essential field providing sustainable solutions to environmental challenges. By harnessing the power of microorganisms, we can create more efficient and sustainable ways of managing waste, remediating contaminated sites, and improving soil and water quality.

Environmental technological microbiology plays a critical role in sustainable development and environmental protection. Unfortunately, this field is not well developed in many countries in Africa. The lack of environmental technological microbiology in most African countries has several impacts: The research on microorganisms in the environment is limited, leading to an incomplete understanding of the complex environmental processes in the continent. This hinders the development and implementation of effective environmental policies and management plans. The knowledge gap in environmental technological microbiology limits the ability to manage environmental challenges such as soil degradation, water pollution, and waste management (Adeyemo et al., 2017). This jeopardizes public health sustainability of natural resources. The absence of environmental technological microbiology also affects economic growth. Africa's rich biodiversity could be harnessed through biotechnological solutions for

environmental protection, agriculture, and medicine. However, this potential remains untapped due to a lack of knowledge and skills. In conclusion, Africa's lack of environmental technological microbiology has farreaching impacts on the environment, public health, and economic development. It is, therefore, vital for the continent to invest in this field to address current and future environmental challenges.

TECHNOLOGICAL MICROBIOLOGY IN THE MEDICAL INDUSTRY

Medical Technological Microbiology is the study of microorganisms involved in human health and disease. Microbes play a significant role in both causing and diseases, and Medical preventing Technological Microbiology involves using microorganisms microbial products to diagnose, treat, and prevent Some of the applications of Medical diseases. Technological Microbiology include infectious disease diagnosis: Microbes such as bacteria, viruses, and fungi can be identified using various diagnostic techniques such as culture, PCR, and serological tests. Antibiotic production: Microbes such as Streptomyces and Penicillium are used to produce antibiotics such as penicillin, streptomycin, and tetracycline. Vaccines: Microbes such as bacteria and viruses can be used to develop vaccines for various infectious diseases. Probiotics: Microbes such as Lactobacillus Bifidobacterium are used as probiotics to promote gut health and prevent or treat diseases such as diarrhea and irritable bowel syndrome. Microbial therapy: Microbes such as bacteriophages and engineered bacteria can be used to treat bacterial infections that are resistant antibiotics. Medical Technological Microbiology is an essential field that provides solutions for diagnosing, treating, and preventing infectious diseases. By studying microorganisms and their interactions with the human body, we can develop new and more effective ways to improve human health and reduce the burden of disease.

There are four distinct aspects of microorganism participation in the production of medical products or services: biocontrol of diseases, vaccines, antibiotics, and biotherapeutics (hormones, biomaterials, and others) (Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). Parasitic vectors such as the mosquitoes of the genera Aedes and Anopheles spread easily in developing countries because of the difficulty of implementing public policies to control their spread. Recently, outbreaks of emerging and reemerging diseases have prompted the development biotechnological techniques that assist in diagnosis and prevention. One example is the potential offered by introducing the bacterium Wolbachia into the mosquito Aedes aegypti, which transmits diseases including dengue fever, yellow fever, chikungunya, and the newly

detected Zika virus (Walker et al., 2011). Instead of focusing on mosquito abundance, this approach aims to reduce mosquito longevity. Since only adult female mosquitoes can transmit the disease, bacteria reduce their life span and reduce their ability to transmit the dengue virus (Cook et al., 2008; Turley et al., 2009; Bian et al., 2010; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017).

Despite having a significant burden of disease most African countries still needs to catch up in the development and adoption of medical technology. The of Technology on Medical Technological Microbiology in many African countries including Ghana has hindered its growth and development. The situation was obvious when Covid-19 strike in most African countries. Without adequate technology, conducting research and development in this field is challenging, which limits innovation in the Medical Technological Microbiology field (Daramola et al., 2019; Mboya et al., 2019). Furthermore, the lack of technology has made diagnosing and treating infectious diseases in most African countries difficult, leading to high morbidity and mortality rates (Adebisi et al., 2020). Moreover, the absence of technology has led to poor infection control practices, contributing to the spread of infectious diseases in healthcare settings (Gebreyohannes and Bhagavathula, 2019; Mugisa et al., 2019). The lack of technology has also limited the availability of sterile equipment and supplies, making it challenging to perform invasive procedures safely. Additionally, the need for more technology has hindered the production of vaccines and other essential medical supplies in Africa, leading to a dependence on imports. Covid-19 exposes this situation in recent outbreaks. This dependence on imports has made it difficult for African countries to respond adequately to disease outbreaks and other health emergencies.

TECHNOLOGICAL MICROBIOLOGY OF MATERIALS

Materials Technological Microbiology refers to the use of microorganisms to produce, modify, or degrade materials. Microbes can be used to synthesise a wide range of materials, including biodegradable plastics, biofuels, and electronic components. Some of the applications of Materials Technological Microbiology include Biodegradable Plastics: Microbes such as bacteria and fungi can be used to produce biodegradable and sustainable bioplastics. Biofuels: Microbes such as algae and bacteria can be used to produce biofuels such as biodiesel and bioethanol. Electronic components: Microbes such as Geobacter sulfurreducens can be used to produce electrically conductive nanowires that can be used in electronic components. Textile production: Microbes such as bacteria and fungi can be used to produce textile materials such as cellulose and chitin. Biomineralisation: Microbes such as bacteria can be used

to mineralise materials such as metals and ceramics, which can be used in various industrial applications. Materials Technological Microbiology provides sustainable and eco-friendly alternative to traditional materials production methods. By harnessing the power of microorganisms, we can create new materials that are biodegradable, renewable, and have lower environmental impact. This field could revolutionise various industries and pave the way for a more sustainable future.

Additionally, microbiology has been able to develop a great variety of biomaterials and biosensors through the application of biotechnological techniques. Biomaterials refer to natural or synthetic products that are synthesized by microorganisms in different environmental conditions and can act on biological structures (organs or tissues) (Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). The use of biosensors allows rapid and accurate detection of analysis targets in diverse fields, such as medicine, environmental monitoring, food processing, and others, by integrating microorganisms with physical transducers to generate a signal proportional to the concentration of analytes (D'Souza, 2001; Paitan et al., 2003; Lei et al., 2006; Su et al., 2011; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017).

Bioplastics are a family of important biomaterials. A bioplastic is polyester that accumulates intracellularly in microorganisms as storage granules and has a similar physicochemical property to petrochemical plastics. It is also important to note that these properties, as well as the monomeric composition, can be altered depending on the microorganism from which the bioplastic originates and that the primary interest in these polymers lies in their biodegradability and biocompatibility (Luengo et al., 2003; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). In addition to acidogenic fermentation or pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass, bioplastic can also be manufactured via the bioprocessing of solid and liquid waste (Ivanov and Stabnikov, 2016).

Bioplastics are being used to manufacture high-value-added medical materials, such as films that function as vehicles for drug delivery (Awadhiya et al., 2016). A bioceramic and/or bioactive glass can enhance the biomechanical and bioactivity of PHAs as medical materials (Radecka et al., 2016). Seed coating of agronomic species with bioplastic formulations was recently tested. Future agricultural pest control may be improved using these coatings, which contain spores of growth promoters like *Trichoderma harzianum* (Accinelli et al., 2016; Vitorino and Bessa, 2017). In civil construction, bioplastics may also contribute to the rise of low energy-absorbed materials, which will contribute to energy conservation (Ivanov and Stabnikov, 2016).

Africa is a continent rich in natural resources, but the need for more technology has hindered the development of materials technology microbiology. Firstly, it has limited the ability to explore and exploit the vast natural resources in the continent, which could be used to

develop new materials with a wide range of applications (Ogbonna and Nwokonko, 2018; World Bank, 2018; Monyatsi et al., 2019). The extraction and processing of these materials are challenging without appropriate technology, which limits innovation opportunities (Agbogidi et al., 2016; World Bank, 2018). Secondly, the lack of technology has made it difficult to develop and test new materials that could be used in various fields such as construction, electronics, and manufacturing in most countries in Africa. This lack of technology has also hindered research into new biomaterials that could be used in medical applications, such as implants and prosthetics several countries in the continent.

Moreover, the absence of technology has limited the ability to detect and prevent microbial contamination in materials, leading to product failures and health risks (Mugisa and Abwooli, 2019). This is particularly important in the food and beverage industry, where microbial contamination can lead to foodborne illnesses and even deaths. Additionally, the need for more technology has limited the capacity for quality control in the manufacturing industry, leading to the production of substandard and unsafe materials. This has contributed to a lack of consumer confidence in locally manufactured products, leading to dependence on imported materials.

MOLECULAR TECHNOLOGY OF MICROBIOLOGY

Molecular Technological Microbiology is a field of study that focuses on applying molecular biology techniques in studying microorganisms. This field involves the use of molecular techniques advanced such as sequencing, gene expression analysis, and protein analysis to understand the structure, function, and interactions of microorganisms. Some of the key applications of molecular technological microbiology include the study of microbial diversity and evolution, identifying and characterising microbial pathogens, developing new antibiotics and vaccines, and studying microbial metabolic pathways. Molecular technological microbiology also plays a crucial role in biotechnology and the development of new products and processes, such as the production of biofuels and the bioremediation of environmental contaminants.

Because of the expansion of aquatic microbial populations and the increased impacts of anthropogenic activities and environmental change, surface water sources need to be protected more effectively (Amin et al., 2019). Anthropogenic activities have a variety of impacts on aquatic microbial communities, some of which are undefined. However, advanced next-generation sequencing and novel model approaches have begun to shed some light on this significant issue (Labbate et al., 2016). Applying molecular techniques has gained a new understanding of aquatic microbial diversity. The equipment and techniques used in the molecular analysis

are called molecular tools. For the purpose of analysing the structure and diversity of microbial communities. clone libraries, FISH, denaturing gradient electrophoresis (DGGE), terminal restriction fragment polymorphisms, single-strand conformation polymorphisms, amplified ribosomal DNA restriction analysis, and ribosomal intergenic spacer analysis (RISA) are the most commonly used molecular techniques in microbiology (Giulietti et al., 2001; Bartlett and Stirling, 2003; Gill and Ghaemi, 2008; Joshi and Deshpande, 2010; Kalle et al., 2014; Blackburn et al., 2015; Yang and Kim, 2015; Blaser et al., 2016; Quideau et al., 2016). In recent decades, however, new technologies have made it possible for aquatic systems to be monitored in real-time. DNA microarrays and PCR-based methods are some of the most promising advances in detecting microbial indicators in water samples in near real-time and quantitatively. Anthropogenic influences on aquatic systems can be assessed more effectively with these methods developed and applied. New technologies have made it possible to assess aquatic systems in real time in recent years. Various molecular approaches show promise in monitoring microbial water quality, including microarrays, real-time sequencing, and Droplet Digital Polymerase Chain Reactions (ddPCR). Microarrays have the advantage of allowing researchers to detect hundreds of different genes at once instead of detecting only one or a few genes at a time with older techniques (like PCR) (Amin et al., 2019). The use of microarrays in detecting multiple types of FIBs/pathogens from common water samples represents a potentially significant technological advance. Using the nanopore MinION device, real-time portable sequencing has been developed recently (Cortés-Hinojosa et al., 2017; Amin et al., 2019) offers several advantages over qPCR. The MinION device allows rapid and targeted treatment of metagenomic sequences in real-time; By using long sequence reads, divergent viral sequences can be accurately identified, and novel viruses can be discovered. Another advanced third-generation technology, ddPCR, provides fast, specific, and sensitive results in quantifying viruses without using standard curves to overcome the challenge associated with slow turnaround (Cortés-Hinojosa et al., 2017; Amin et al., 2019). These new molecular techniques allow viral pathogens to be detected unbiased, rapidly, and accurately in water environments. Molecular technological microbiology is a rapidly evolving field that has significant potential to advance our understanding of microorganisms and their role in various processes, from disease to environmental sustainability.

Molecular technological microbiology is an essential tool used to diagnose, treat, and prevent infectious diseases caused by microorganisms. However, the lack of access to adequate molecular diagnostic facilities and trained personnel in most countries in Africa with the exception of few such as South Africa has hindered the diagnosis and control of infectious diseases, significantly

impacting public health. One of the major impacts of this lack of technological advancement in microbiology is the inability to detect and control outbreaks of infectious diseases such as Ebola, cholera, and tuberculosis. This has resulted in high mortality rates, particularly in rural areas with limited access to health facilities. Additionally, the lack of molecular technological microbiology in Africa has stymied the development of new vaccines and research into the genetics and evolution microorganisms and this was evident when Covid-19 strikes and until now not sure if the continent have its own vaccine for it. This has impeded efforts to control the spread of diseases and the development of new antibiotics.

Furthermore, the absence of molecular diagnostic facilities has a significant economic impact. By delaying disease diagnosis and resolution, infectious disease outbreaks can lead to a loss in productivity and income, particularly in rural areas where agriculture and aquaculture are the primary sources of income. In conclusion, the lack of adequate molecular technological microbiology facilities in majority of countries in Africa significantly impacts public health, economic development, and research. Addressing this issue through investments in infrastructure and education is critical for supporting the growth and well-being of African countries.

TECHNOLOGICAL MICROBIOLOGY IN EDUCATION

The lack of efficient technological microbiology in education has significant impacts on African education, particularly in the areas of healthcare and agriculture. Technological microbiology refers to the application of technology in the study of microorganisms, their genetic makeup, and their interactions with the environment. It plays a critical role in understanding and improving human and animal health and crop and livestock production.

One of the major effects of the lack of efficient technological microbiology in education is the limited access to modern and advanced laboratory facilities and equipment. This led to a lack of practical experience in microbiology in many countries in Africa including Ghana, which is essential for students to understand the concepts and principles of microbiology. As a result, students are not able to develop the necessary skills and competencies required in the field of microbiology. According to a study by UNESCO, the shortage of qualified teachers in Africa is a major challenge in providing quality education in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) fields, including microbiology (UNESCO, 2019).

In Africa, the lack of access to technological microbiology education could lead to a shortage of skilled microbiologists, hindering the development of the

healthcare and agricultural sectors. According to a report by the African Union, the continent has a shortage of 1 million health workers, including microbiologists, leading to inadequate disease surveillance and management (African Union, 2017). In addition, the lack of trained microbiologists has led to challenges in identifying and controlling infectious diseases, such as tuberculosis, malaria, and HIV/AIDS, which are prevalent in Africa (Nkengasong et al., 2017). Technological microbiology is crucial for increasing crop yields, improving soil health, and preventing plant diseases in the agricultural sector. However, the lack of access to education in this area has led to low adoption of modern agricultural practices, limiting food security and contributing to poverty and malnutrition in many African countries (Makinde et al., 2021). In conclusion, the lack of efficient technological microbiology education in many African countries has significant impacts on the development of the healthcare and agricultural sectors. Addressing this challenge through investments in education and research could help improve disease surveillance and management, increase food security, and contribute to the continent's overall development.

CONCLUSION

The lack of efficient microbiological technologies in Africa significantly impacts the advancement of microbiology research. Some key challenges many African researchers face include limited access to state-of-the-art equipment, inadequate funding, and limited research infrastructure. These challenges hinder the development and application of microbial technologies in various fields, such as agriculture, medicine, and environmental sustainability. Without access to the latest technologies, African researchers may not be able to explore the potential of microorganisms and their products fully. They may miss out on important discoveries that could benefit their communities and the world at large.

Moreover, Africa's lack of efficient microbiology technologies can also contribute to the brain drain phenomenon, where talented and experienced researchers leave the continent searching for better opportunities and resources. This can further impede the progress of microbiology research in Africa and widen the gap between African and developed countries. Investing in research infrastructure, training, and capacity building in microbiology and related fields in Africa is essential to challenges mentioned. address the Although, Governments, funding agencies, and international organisations supports research and development by providing funding and resources for capacity building and equipping laboratories, these supports in most cases are inadequate. By investing in microbiology research and technology, most African countries can tap into the potential of microorganisms to develop sustainable solutions to pressing challenges such as food security,

public health, and environmental sustainability. Investing in microbiology research and technology in Africa presents various opportunities. For instance, developing specialised research facilities can help attract international collaborations and researchers. Training programs for researchers and technicians can also enhance their skills, improve the quality of research, and lead to better outcomes. Increased access to funding for research and development can also lead to the development of innovative technologies, which can help solve Africa's The lack of efficient microbiological challenges. technologies in most countries in Africa has significantly impacted the advancement of microbiology research on the continent. The lack of efficient technological microbiology in education significantly impacts most African countries including Ghana's education. It limits access to advanced laboratory facilities and equipment, leads to a shortage of qualified teachers and instructors. and hinders research and innovation in microbiology. However, investing in microbiology research and technology presents various opportunities that can help improve the pace of research and the quality of outcomes. It is however be noted that some countries such as South Africa, Egypt and some few other countries are doing well in providing such technologies. By addressing these challenges, it is possible to develop new solutions for the challenges facing Africa, particularly in the areas of infectious diseases and food and water safety. The present study provides vital information and opens opportunities for technological inventors and businesses interested in the sector to invest in Africa. This will help advance microbiology research in Africa.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

REFERENCES

Accinelli C, Abbas HK, Little NS, Kotowicz JK, Mencarelli M, Shier WT (2016). A liquid bioplastic formulation for film coating of agronomic seeds. Crop Prot 89:123-128.

Adebisi YA, Oke GO, Ademola PS, Chinemelum IG (2020). Effect of inadequate health facilities and equipment on the transmission of Lassa fever in Nigeria. Journal of Public Health in Africa 11(2):1074.

Adebowale AA, Sanni LO, Awonorin SO.(2008). Effect of drying methods on the quality and shelf stability of yam flour. Journal of Food Processing and Preservation 32(2):173-191.

Adeyemo AA, Adeoye IB, Bello OS (2017). Chemical pollution and environmental degradation in Africa: The prevalence of heavy metal pollution in Nigeria. Journal of Health and Pollution 7(15):1-12.

African Union (2017). Africa Health Strategy 2016–2030. Retrieved from https://au.int/sites/default/files/documents/32111-docafrica_health_strategy_2016-2030_english.pdf

Agbogidi OM, Aigbodion AI, Asuke F (2016). Assessment of the potential of renewable energy sources for power generation in Nigeria. Journal of Renewable Energy 2016:1-7.

Amenyogbe E, Yang EJ, Xie RT, Huang JS, Chen G (2022a). Influences of indigenous isolates Pantoea agglomerans RCS2 on growth, proximate analysis, haematological parameters, digestive enzyme activities, serum biochemical parameters, antioxidants

- activities, intestinal morphology, disease resistance, and molecular immune response in juvenile's cobia fish (Rachycentron canadum). Aquaculture 551:737942.
- Awadhiya A, Tyeb S, Rathore K, Verma V (2016). Agarose bioplasticbased drug delivery system for surgical and wound dressings. Eng. Life Science 17:204-214.
- Bartlett JM, Stirling D (2003). A short history of the polymerase chain reaction. In PCR protocols (pp. 3–6). Humana Press, eBook ISBN: 978-1-59259-384-2
- Bian G, Xu Y, Lu P, Xie Y, Xi Z (2010). The Endosymbiotic bacterium Wolbachia induces resistance to Dengue virus in Aedes aegypti. PLoS Pathog 6:e1000833.
- Blackburn LH, Schroeder B, Turner C, Shriver C, Ellsworth DE, Ellsworth R (2015). Management of incidental findings in the era of next-generation sequencing. Current Genomics 16(3):159-174.
- Blaser MJ, Cardon ZG, Cho MK, Dangl JL, Donohue TJ, Green JL., et al (2016). Toward a predictive understanding of Earth's microbiomes to address 21st century challenges. American Society for Microbiology 7(3):e00714-16.
- Borneman AR, Schmidt SA, Pretorius IS (2013). At the cutting-edge of grape and wine biotechnology. Trends Genet 29:263-271.
- Coker JA (2016). Extremophiles and biotechnology: current uses and prospects. F1000 Res 5:396.
- Cook PE, McMeniman CJ, O'Neill SL (2008). Modifying insect population age structure to control vector-borne disease. Transgenesis and the management of vector-borne disease pp.126-140.
- Cortés-Hinojosa G, Gulland FM, Goldstein T, Venn-Watson S, Rivera R, Archer LL, Waltzek TB, Gray GC, Wellehan JFX (2017). Development and validation of a quantitative PCR for rapid and specific detection of California sea lion adenovirus1 and prevalence in wild and managed populations. Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation 29(2):193-197.
- D'Souza SF (2001). Microbial biosensors. Biosensors and Bioelectronics 16:337-353.
- Daramola ES, Yusuf BO, Afolabi A (2019). Microbial contamination of locally produced herbal medicines in Nigeria: The case for improved quality control practices. Journal of Traditional and Complementary Medicine 9(3):212-216.
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (2016). The state of world fisheries and aquaculture 2016: Contributing to food security and nutrition for all. United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). (2016). Lead in Gasoline: Road to Elimination. UNEP.
 - https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/16129/leadg asolineroadtoelimination.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (2018a).

 The State of Food and Agriculture 2018: Migration, Agriculture and Rural

 Development.

 Rome.

 http://www.fao.org/3/ca0191en/CA0191EN.pdf
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (2018b). The state of world fisheries and aquaculture 2018: Meeting the sustainable development goals.
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (2019). Technology adoption and innovation in agriculture. http://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/ca5728en/
- Gal J (2008). The discovery of biological enantioselectivity: louis Pasteur and the fermentation of tartaric acid, 1857-A review and analysis 150 year later. Chirality 20(1):5-19.
- Gallois M, Lafont M (2016). Aquaculture in Africa: State of the art, challenges and prospects. Cahiers Agricultures 25(1):15004.
- Gebreyohannes EA, Bhagavathula AS (2019). Infection control practices and prevalence of hospital-acquired infections in a tertiary care hospital in Ethiopia. PLoS One 14(4):e0215574.
- Gill P, Ghaemi A (2008). Nucleic acid isothermal amplification technologies—a review. Nucleosides, Nucleotides and Nucleic Acids 27(3):224-243.
- Giulietti A, Overbergh L, Valckx D, Decallonne B, Bouillon R, Mathieu C (2001). An overview of real-time quantitative PCR: Applications to quantify cytokine gene expression. Methods 25(4):386-401.
- Goddard J (2018). Microbiome applications for aquaculture: A report from the symposium "Intestinal microbiota of fish and crustaceans

- and its potential application in aquaculture". Journal of the World Aquaculture Society 49(6):947-956.
- Goswami R, Chattopadhyay P, Shome A, Banerjee SN, Chakraborty AK, Mathew AK, Chaudhury S (2016). An overview of physicochemical mechanisms of biogas production by microbial communities: a step towards sustainable waste management. 3 Biotech 6(72):1-12.
- Hasan F, Shah AA, Hameed A (2006). Industrial applications of microbial lipases. Enzyme and Microbial technology, 39(2):235-251.
- Ivanov V, Stabnikov V (2016). Construction biotechnological plastics, in Construction Biotechnology, Part of the Series Green Energy and Technology (Singapore: Springer) pp. 51-75.
- Jamie A, Alshami AS, Maliabari ZO, Ateih MA, Al Hamouz OCS (2016).
 Immobilization and enhanced catalytic activity of lipase on modified MWCNT for oily wastewater treatment. Environmental Progress & Sustainable Energy 35(5):1441-1449.
- Joshi M, Deshpande JD (2010). Polymerase chain reaction: Methods, principles and application. International Journal of Biomedical Research 1(5):81-97.
- Kalle E, Kubista M, Rensing C (2014). Multi-template polymerase chain reaction. Biomolecular Detection and Quantification 2:11-29.
- Labbate M, Seymour JR, Lauroand F, Brown MV (2016). Editorial: Anthropogenic impacts on the microbial ecology and function of aquatic environments. Frontiers in Microbiology 7:1044.
- Lei Y, Chen W, Mulchandani A (2006). Microbial biosensors. Analytica chimica acta, 568(1-2):200-210.
- Liao JC, Mi L, Pontrelli S, Luo S (2016). Fuelling the future: microbial engineering for the production of sustainable biofuels. Nature Reviews Microbiology 14(5):288-304.
- Luengo JM, Garcia B, Sandoval A, Naharro G, Oliveira ER (2003). Bioplastics from microorganisms. Current opinion in microbiology 6(3):251-260.
- Madigan MT, Martinko JM, Bender KS, Buckley DH, Stahl DA (2018). Brock Biology of Microorganisms (15th edition). Pearson.
- Makinde OA, Obatolu VA, Adewole SA (2021). Microbiology and agricultural practices in Africa: A review. Journal of Agricultural Science 13(5):12-24.
- Mboya V, Kishimba RS, Mwakalobo AE, Rwegerera GM (2019). Access to affordable medicines and diagnostic tools for communicable diseases in sub-Saharan Africa: A review of literature. Journal of Pharmaceutical Policy and Practice 12(1):1-12.
- McGovern PE, Glusker DL, Exner LJ (1996). Neolithic resinated wine. Nature 381:480-481.
- McGovern PE, Zhang J, Tang J, Zhang Z, Hall GR, Moreau RA, Nunez A, Butrym ED, Richards MP, Wang C-s, Cheng G, Zhao Z (2004). Fermented beverages of pre- and proto-historic China. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 101(51):17593-17598.
- McIntosh S, Zhang Z, Palmer J, Wong H-H, Doherty WOS, Vancov T (2016). Pilot-scale cellulosic ethanol production using eucalyptus biomass pretreated by dilute acid and steam explosion. Biofuels, Bioproducts and Biorefining 10(4):346-358.
- Meijnen J-P, Randazzo P, Foulquié-Moreno MR, Brink JVD, Vandecruys P, Stojiljkovic M, Dumortier F, Zalar P, Boekhout T, Gunde-Cimerman N, z Kokošar J, Štajdoha, M, Curk T, Petrovič, U, Thevelein JM (2016). Polygenic analysis and targeted improvement of the complex trait of high acetic acid tolerance in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Biotechnology. Biofuels 9(5):1-18.
- Monyatsi L, Kebede-Westhead E, Jones N (2019). Material science and engineering research and development in South Africa: A review of publications from 2008 to 2017. Scientometrics 118(3):889-910.
- Moon HG, Jang Y-S, Cho C, Lee J, Binkley R, Lee SY (2016). One hundred years of clostridial butanol fermentation. FEMS microbiology letters 363(3):fnw001.
- Mugisa MK, Abwooli BO (2019). Exploring the challenges and opportunities for the adoption of biomaterials for medical applications in Africa. Journal of Materials Science: Materials in Medicine 30/6):68
- Naylor RL, Hardy RW, Bureau DP, Chiu A, Elliott M, Farrell AP, Forster I, Gatlin III DM, Goldburg RJ, Hua K, Nichols PD (2009). Feeding aquaculture in an era of finite resources. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 106(36):15103-15110.
- Neushul P (1993). Science, government and the mass production of

- penicillin. Journal of the history of medicine and allied sciences 48(4):371-395.
- Nkengasong JN, Mesele T, Orloff S, Kebede Y (2017). Africa's neglected epidemic: The fight against tuberculosis and HIV. African Union 23:1-8.
- Nnaji CC, Dike EN (2020). Microbiological diagnosis and treatment of fish diseases in Africa: Current status and future perspectives. Journal of Aquatic Animal Health 32(2):109-118.
- Ogbonna CE, Nwokonko IO (2018). The impact of technology on industrial growth in Nigeria: A review of the Nigerian textile industry. International Journal of Engineering and Applied Sciences 5(1):15-20.
- Oyebanji OO, Adeparusi EO, Adejumo DO (2017). Fish feed and feeding in Nigeria: Challenges and prospects. Journal of Agricultural Extension 21(1):59-72.
- Paitan Y, Biran D, Biran I, Shechter N, Babai R, Rishpon J., Ron EZ. (2003). Online and in situ biosensors for monitoring environmental pollution. Biotechnology Advances 22(1-2):27-33.
- Pasteur L (1857). Mémoire sur la fermentation alcoolique. C R Séances Academy of Sciences 45:1032-1036.
- Pasteur L (2002). Summary report of the experiments conducted at Pouilly-le-Fort, near Melun, on the anthrax vaccination, 1881. The Yale journal of biology and medicine 75(1):59.
- Pendyala B, Chaganti SR, Lalman JA, Heath DD (2016). Optimizing the performance of microbial fuel cells fed a combination of different synthetic organic fractions in municipal solid waste. Waste management 49:73-82.
- Plotkin SL, Plotkin SA (2011). A short history of vaccination, in Vaccines, eds S. A. Plotkin and W. A. Orenstein (Philadelphia, PA: Elsevier) pp. 1-16.
- Quideau SA, McIntosh AC, Norris CE, Lloret E, Swallow MJ, Hannam K (2016). Extraction and analysis of microbial phospholipid fatty acids in soils. Journal of Visualized Experiments: Journal of Visualized Experiments (114):e54360.
- Radecka IK, Guozhan J, Hill DJ, Kowalczuk MM (2016). Poly(Hydroxyalkanoates) composites and their applications, in Green Polymer Composites Technology, ed. Inamuddin (New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group): Pp.163-176.
- Robinson D, Medlock N (2005). Diamond v. Chakrabarty: a retrospective on 25 years of biotech patents. Intellectual Property & Technology Law Journal 17(10):12-15.
- Sauer M (2016). Industrial production of acetone and butanol by fermentation-100 years later. FEMS microbiology letters, 363(13):fnw134.
- Sicard D, Legras J-L (2011). Bread, beer and wine: yeast domestication in the Saccharomyces sensu stricto complex. Comptes rendus biologies 334(3):229-236.
- Spang Å, Ettema TJG (2016). Microbial diversity: the tree of life comes of age. Nature microbiology 1(5):1-2.
- Su L, Jia W, Hou C, Lei Y (2011). Microbial biosensors: a review. Biosens. Bioelectron 26:1788-1799.
- Tortora GJ, Funke BR, Case CL (2016). Microbiology: An Introduction (12th edition). Pearson.
- Turley AP, Moreira LA, O'Neill S, McGraw EA (2009). Wolbachia infection reduces blood-feeding success in the dengue fever mosquito, Aedes aegypti. PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases 3:e516.

- UNESCO (2019). STEM and Gender Advancement in Africa: An Overview of Policies and Practices. UNESCO. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000367645
- Valamoti SM, Mangafa M, Koukouli-Chrysanthaki CH, Malamidou D (2007). Grape-pressings from northern Greece: the earliest wine in the Aegean? Antiquity 81(311):54-61.
- Vitorino LC, Bessa LA (2017). Technological Microbiology: Development and Applications. Frontiers in Microbiology 8:827.
- Waditee-Sirisattha R, Kageyama H, Takabe T (2016). Halophilic microorganism resources and their applications in industrial and environmental biotechnology. AIMS Microbiology 2(1):42-54.
- Walker T, Johnson PH, Moreira LA, Iturbe-Ormaetxe I, Frentiu FD, McMeniman CJ, Leong YS, Dong Y, Axford J, Kriesner P, Lloyd AL, Ritchie SA, O'Niell SL, HoffmanN AA (2011). The wMel Wolbachia strain blocks dengue and invades caged Aedes aegypti populations. Nature 476(7361):450-453.
- Wang Z, Zhuge J, Fang H, Prior BA (2001). Glycerol production by microbial fermentation: a review. Biotechnology Advances 19:201-223
- Woese CR, Fox GE (1977). Phylogenetic structure of the prokaryotic domain: the primary kingdoms. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 74(11):5088-5090.
- Woese CR, Kandler O, Wheelis ML (1990). Towards a natural system of organisms: proposal for the domains Archaea, Bacteria, and Eucarya. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 74(11):5088-5090.
- World Bank (2018). Africa's Pulse, No. 17, April 2018; Africa's Pulse Spring 2018. © Washington, DC: World Bank. https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/entities/publication/0288f5d8-a2ed-56d6-8704-51b7d748d176 License: CC BY 3.0 IGO." Africa's Pulse, Spring 2018: Analysis of Issues Shaping Africa's Economic Future (April), World Bank, Washington, DC.
- Xu L, Zhao Y, Doherty L, Hu Y, Hao X (2016). The integrated processes for wastewater treatment based on the principle of microbial fuel cells: a review. Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology, 46(1):60-91.
- Yang IS, Kim S (2015). Analysis of whole transcriptome sequencing data: Workflow and software. Genomics & Informatics 13(4):119-125.