

1 Original Article

2 *In vitro* and *in vivo* characterisation of *Centella asiatica* extract against *Vibrio*
3 *alginolyticus* infection in whiteleg shrimp, *Penaeus vannamei*

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17

18 Abstract

19 Methanolic leaf extract of medicinal herb, *Centella asiatica* (Asiatic pennywort) were
20 screened for *in vitro* and *in vivo* antimicrobial activities against *Vibrio alginolyticus*
21 isolated from whiteleg shrimp, *Penaeus vannamei*. Phytochemical analyses were positive
22 for tannins, saponins, steroids, and cardiac glycosides. Antioxidant test revealed
23 antioxidant activity nearly as potent as 0.8 mg/mL ascorbic acid. Minimum inhibitory and
24 bactericidal concentrations against *V. alginolyticus* were determined to be 0.79 and 12.50
25 mg/mL respectively. Scanning electron microscopy demonstrated disruption of treated
26 bacterial cells. 30 mg/kg extract supplementation achieved 85% survival of juvenile
27 shrimp in feeding trial. Histopathology showed increasingly fewer alterations in
28 hepatopancreas from 10, 20 to 30 mg/kg supplementation, where 30 mg/kg preserved the
29 tissues most with relatively complete structure including star-shaped tubule lumen, and
30 various cell types. The present findings suggest the potential of *C. asiatica* as an
31 alternative source of antimicrobial against *V. alginolyticus* as well as other *Vibrio* spp.
32 and gram-negative bacteria in aquaculture.

33

34 **Keywords:** Medicinal herb, Asiatic pennywort, methanolic leaf extract, alternative
35 antimicrobial, antioxidant, aquaculture use.

36

37 1. Introduction

38 Vibrios are halophilic gram-negative bacteria that can cause zoonosis and
39 substantial mortality in domestic marine fish and invertebrates (Nurhafizah et al., 2021;
40 Zhang & Austin, 2000). The widespread antibiotic use in aquaculture has caused
41 emergence of antibiotic resistance, and prompted a shift to alternatives like phage therapy

42 (Nurhafizah et al., 2017), which is however disputable due to obscure health effect on
43 consumer, and lack of regulatory framework. (Plaza et al., 2018). The use of probiotics
44 to improve animal health has grown worldwide. Probiotics colonise the gut environment,
45 and create biocidal effect against shrimp pathogens (D'Arienzo et al., 2006). Probiotics
46 are either applied to feed or directly into pond water to improve water quality, and reduce
47 environmental stress (Rico et al., 2013). Probiotic bacteria recovered from shrimp
48 aquaculture were nevertheless found to harbour antibiotic resistance gene in a recent
49 study (Noor Uddin et al., 2015).

50 These findings encourage the search for plant-based natural remedies for shrimp
51 aquaculture use. Biomedicines of plant origin could provide an alternative approach
52 against infectious diseases in aquaculture from the aspect of treatment and health
53 improvement (Citarasu, 2010). Plant bioactive compounds with antimicrobial, anti-
54 inflammatory and antioxidant activities can be added to pelleted feed as preventive and
55 therapeutic medication to improve the health of aquatic animals. Commonly known as
56 Asiatic pennywort, Indian pennywort, and Gotu kola, *Centella asiatica* is a low-growing
57 perennial plant of pan-tropical distribution. Also native to Malaysia, *C. asiatica* is
58 commonly cultivated and consumed crude as salad, and used in folk medicine.

59 Methanolic extract of *C. asiatica* has been found to be more inhibitory to bacteria
60 than those extracted using acetone, chloroform, and water (aqueous) because it contains
61 terpenoids, saponins, phenols, flavonoids, and tannins (Idris & Nadzir, 2021). Aqueous
62 extract bath treatment at 100 mg/L has been demonstrated to reduce the mortality of
63 columnaris-infected Nile tilapia without negative effects (Rattanachaikunsopon &
64 Phumkhachorn, 2010). On the other hand, Nuwansi, Verma, Chandrakant, Prabhath and
65 Peter (2021) optimised koi carp stocking density in aquaponics with *C. asiatica*

66 **phytoremediation.** *Centella asiatica* supplementation in diet has also been shown to
67 improve serum and mucosal immunity, phagocytosis and respiratory burst activity in Nile
68 tilapia (Srichaiyo et al., 2020).

69 As an effort to combat the growing challenge of multidrug resistant *Vibrio* spp. in
70 aquaculture, the current study examines the antimicrobial activity of methanolic extract
71 of *C. asiatica* leaves against *V. alginolyticus* in whiteleg shrimp.

72

73 **2. Materials and Methods**

74 **2.1 Methanolic extraction and phytochemical analysis**

75 Fresh *C. asiatica* plant, locally known as pegaga (Malay), ji xui chao (Chinese)
76 and vallarai (Tamil), was purchased from a local wet market in Kuala Terengganu. Plant
77 identity was verified with reference to Malaysian Herbal Monograph 2015, and plant
78 identification app, PlantSnap (www.plantsnap.com). **The leaves were rinsed with running**
79 **tap water, air-dried (50°C, 24h), and powdered. Dry powder (200g) was soaked overnight**
80 **in 2L 80% methanol (Ali, El-Sharkawy, Hamid, Ismail, & Lajis, 1995), and filtered**
81 **(Whatman No. 1, 125mm). The filtrate of crude extract was subjected to rotary**
82 **evaporation, and stored at -20°C prior to use. Phytochemical analyses for tannins,**
83 **saponins, cardiac glycosides, terpenoids and steroids were conducted following Edeoga,**
84 **Okwu, & Mbaebie (2005).**

85

86 **2.2 Antioxidant assay**

87 Antioxidant property of *C. asiatica* extract was determined by quantitative 2,2-
88 diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical scavenging assay (Sadhu, Okuyama, Fujimoto

89 & Ishibashi, 2003). Ascorbic acid and 100% methanol were used as positive and negative
90 controls respectively. Absorbance at 540nm was measured using spectrophotometer.

91

92 **2.3 Bacterial culture preparation**

93 *Vibrio alginolyticus* isolate was recovered from -20°C glycerol stock from the
94 culture collection of Fish Disease Laboratory, Universiti Malaysia Terengganu. The
95 isolate was previously isolated and identified from diseased whiteleg shrimp from a farm
96 at Pengkalan Gelap, Setiu, Terengganu. For comparison, *V. mimicus*, *V. fluvialis*, *V.*
97 *vulnificus*, *V. cholerae* and *Photobacterium damsela* isolates were also prepared
98 similarly from the culture collection.

99

100 **2.4 In vitro antimicrobial screening**

101 **2.4.1 Agar well diffusion method**

102 Screening was performed using agar well diffusion technique against the six
103 bacteria (Laith & Najiah, 2014; Najiah et al., 2011). Overnight cultures were harvested
104 by centrifugation (5,000×g, 10min). The bacterial cell pellets were washed twice with
105 0.85% physiological saline, suspended, and adjusted to 0.5 McFarland standard for $1.5 \times$
106 10^8 CFU/mL (Aznan et al., 2018). The inocula were spread on Mueller-Hinton agar
107 (MHA) using sterile cotton swabs, and wells were made with sterile cork borer. The wells
108 were loaded with 30µL of the extract solution (100 mg/mL) prepared with 80% methanol.
109 Tetracycline disc (TE30, 30 µg/mL) and 80% methanol were used as positive and
110 negative controls respectively. The plates were incubated at 35°C for 24h. The bacterial
111 growth inhibition is measured by the diameter of inhibition zone.

112

113 **2.4.2 Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal** 114 **concentration (MBC)**

115 MIC and MBC were determined using sterile 96-well microtitre plates (Laith,
116 Ambak, Abol-Munafi, Nurhafizah & Najiah, 2017; Laith & Najiah, 2014; Najiah et al.,
117 2011). Each well was added with 100µL tryptic soy broth (1.5% NaCl). Wells in column
118 1 was loaded with 100µL of 100 mg/mL crude extract, followed by two-fold serial
119 dilution until 0.098 mg/mL. Each well was inoculated with 10µL of the overnight culture
120 (1.5×10^8 CFU/mL), and incubated at 35°C for 24h. **The mixture in the wells that showed**
121 **no turbidity was streaked on MHA**, and further incubated at 35°C for 24h. The remaining
122 mixture in the wells were added with 10µL of 0.1% 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium chloride
123 (TTC) (Merck, Germany), and incubated for 1h, for purple-to-pink colour change (due to
124 reduction of TTC to formazan because of cellular respiration). The lowest concentration
125 that prevented visible bacterial growth (no colour change) was recorded as MIC, whereas
126 the lowest concentration that prevented bacterial growth on MHA was recorded as MBC.

127

128 **2.5 Cell disruption test**

129 **Extract** solutions of 0.79, 1.56, 3.13, 6.25 and 12.5 mg/mL (Najiah et al., 2011)
130 were prepared for bacterial cell disruption analysis. Each extract solution (500µL) was
131 mixed with 500µL nutrient broth in 1.5mL tube, followed by 100µL bacterial solution
132 (1.5×10^8 CFU/mL). Bacterial growth in nutrient broth was used as a control. The tubes
133 were incubated at 35°C for 24h.

134

135 **2.6 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)**

136 The overnight mixtures were centrifuged (5,000 ×g, 10min). The cell pellets were
137 fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.2) for 1h, rinsed
138 thrice with 0.1M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.2), and centrifuged (5min). The samples
139 were dehydrated 10min each with 35, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 95% ethanol, and twice with
140 100% ethanol, then air-dried by CO₂ critical point drying technique, coated with gold,
141 and examined using SEM (EIZO, UK) (Najiah, Nadirah, Ibrahim, Shariat, et al., 2011).

142

143 **2.7 Determination of LD₅₀ of *V. alginolyticus***

144 The pathogenicity of *V. alginolyticus* was determined by experimental challenge
145 in juvenile whiteleg shrimp. The shrimp were acclimatised for two weeks (temperature
146 $28 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$; dissolved oxygen 5 mg/L; pH 7.6 ± 1 ; salinity 24ppt) before challenge.
147 Inocula at 1.5×10^7 , 1.5×10^6 , 1.5×10^5 , 1.5×10^4 and 1.5×10^3 CFU/mL were diluted
148 from 1.5×10^8 CFU/mL with sterile 0.85% saline. Inoculum (100µL) was injected into
149 the shrimp's ventral sinus near cephalothorax (Harikrishnan, Balasundaram, Jawahar, &
150 Heo, 2011). Control group was injected with 0.85% saline. The shrimp were observed for
151 mortalities for 120h post-infection. Median lethal dose (LD₅₀) was determined based on
152 Reed and Muench (1938).

153

154 **2.8 *In vivo* antimicrobial screening**

155 Shrimp grower feed No.1 (CP, Thailand) was used to prepare the control (T1) and
156 treatment (T2, T3, T4) diets with 0, 10, 20 and 30 mg/kg extracts respectively by spraying
157 (Selvin, Ninawe, & Lipton, 2011), and dried at 40°C (oven). Acclimatised (as in 2.7)
158 healthy juvenile shrimp (5.0-6.0g) were injected with LD₅₀ of *V. alginolyticus*, followed
159 by in-feed treatment at 3.2% body weight daily. Signs of infection and mortalities were

160 observed. Hepatopancreas samples were collected 15 days post-infection, and fixed in
161 Davidson's fixative for 24h for histopathology.

162

163 3. Results

164 3.1 Phytochemical and antioxidant screening

165 Phytochemical screening showed the presence of tannins, saponins, steroids, cardiac
166 glycosides, and terpenoids in the extract (Table 1). Antioxidant test showed positive
167 antioxidant activity, which conferred free radicals neutralising capacity nearly as potent
168 as 0.8 mg/mL ascorbic acid (Figure 1).

169

170 Table 1 Bioactive compounds of *C. asiatica* methanolic leaf extract.

171

172 Figure 1 Antioxidant activity of *C. asiatica* leaf extract compared with ascorbic acid
173 reference standard.

174 3.2 *In vitro* antimicrobial screening

175 3.2.1 Preliminary screening

176 At 100 mg/mL, the extract demonstrated significant antibacterial activities against
177 *V. alginolyticus* (17 mm), followed by *P. damsela* (15 mm), *V. cholerae* (14 mm), *V.*
178 *mimicus* (13 mm), *V. vulnificus* (11 mm), and *V. fluvialis* (9 mm). The inhibitory activities
179 were however weaker than those of tetracycline (30 µg/mL) (Figure 2).

180

181 Figure 2 Preliminary antimicrobial screening of *C. asiatica* extract against different
182 bacteria.

183

184 3.2.2 MIC and MBC

185 *Vibrio alginolyticus* was most sensitive to *C. asiatica* extract with the lowest MIC and
186 MBC of 0.79 mg/mL and 12.50 mg/mL, respectively (Table 2).

187

188 Table 2. The MIC and MBC of *C. asiatica* methanolic extract against different bacterial
189 species

190

191 3.3 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

192 Morphological changes and cell disruption were observed by SEM. Figure 3A shows
193 untreated cell with intact and smooth surface. Cells treated with 0.79 mg/mL (Figure 3B),
194 1.57 mg/mL (Figure 3C) and 3.13 mg/mL (Figure 3D) of extract solutions showed
195 increasing levels of surface roughening, shrinkage, wrinkling and cavitation. Rupture of
196 bacterial cell wall and membrane began to be observed at 6.25 mg/mL (Figure 3E), and
197 cell lysis was apparent at 12.50 mg/mL with release of cell contents (Figure 3F).

198

199 Figure 3 SEM of *V. alginolyticus*: (A) Control, (B-F) *V. alginolyticus* treated at (B) 0.79
200 mg/mL, (C) 1.56 mg/mL, (D) 3.13 mg/mL, (E) 6.25 mg/mL and (F) 12.50 mg/mL of *C.*
201 *asiatica* extract. Magnification ranged from 7,500× to 23,000× at 15kV.

202

203 3.4. Pathogenicity of *V. alginolyticus* against juvenile *P. vannamei*

204 Challenges from 1.5×10^3 to 1.5×10^7 CFU/mL of *V. alginolyticus* caused mortalities in
205 juvenile *P. vannamei* (Table 3).

206

207 Table 3. The LD₅₀ of *V. alginolyticus* to whiteleg shrimp according to Reed and
208 Muench method.

209

210

211 1.5×10^7 and 1.5×10^6 CFU/mL caused 100% and 92% mortalities respectively. Fifty
212 percent mortalities were observed at 1.5×10^4 CFU/mL, thus the LD₅₀ of *V. alginolyticus*
213 for *in vivo* antimicrobial assay in juvenile *P. vannamei*.

214

215 3.5. *In vivo* antimicrobial assay

216 3.5.1. Cumulative mortality

217 The highest cumulative mortality was recorded in the control group (T1, 0 mg/kg)
218 at 87%, followed by 67% in T2 (10 mg/kg), 50% in T3 (20 mg/kg), and 15% in T4 (30
219 mg/kg) (Figure 4).

220

221 Figure 4 Cumulative mortalities of whiteleg shrimp challenged with *V. alginolyticus*.

222 3.5.2. Histopathological analysis

223 Figure 5A shows the normal histological structure of hepatopancreas of
224 unchallenged shrimp with a complete star-shaped lumen (star), B-cells (dotted-arrow), E-
225 cells (arrowhead), R-cells (arrow), F-cells (red arrow). Group T1 (0 mg/kg) showed the
226 most severe pathological changes including necrosis of hepatopancreatic tubule and
227 intertubular connective tissue (arrow), which resulted in degeneration of tubule epithelium,
228 and consequent loss of lumen shape, and enlarged lumen (star), as well as lack of B-, F-
229 and R-cells (arrowhead) (Figure 5B). Group T2 (10 mg/kg) and T3 (20 mg/kg) showed
230 milder degree of tubule epithelial degeneration, characterised by enlargement of tubule
231 lumen (star) and pyknotic nuclei (arrow) (Figure 5C-D). Degeneration and vacuolisation
232 of tubule epithelium and basement membrane caused detachment of tubule from
233 endothelium sheath, and increased distance between adjacent tubules. In general, the
234 alterations of intertubular connective tissue resulted in apparent haemal sinuses (H)
235 despite the dosages of extract given (Figure 5C-E). The shape of tubules was, however,
236 generally retained, though some pyknotic nuclei were observed. The shrimp fed with 30
237 mg/kg of extract supplement showed relatively normal hepatopancreas with more star-
238 shaped tubule lumen (arrow), as well as B-, F- and R-cells (Figure 5E).

239

240 Figure 5 Transverse sections of hepatopancreas. (A) Normal hepatopancreas; (B)
241 hepatopancreas of untreated shrimp (0 mg/kg); (C-E) Hepatopancreases of shrimp treated
242 with 10, 20, and 30 mg/kg of *C. asiatica* extract. Scale bar 10 μm .

243

244 4. Discussions

245 The misuse of antibiotics in shrimp aquaculture has promoted the emergence of
246 antibiotic resistance, prompting the quest for natural remedies for controlling bacterial
247 diseases. Herbal medicinal applications in aquaculture are evolving (Citarasu, 2010), and
248 evaluation of antimicrobial activities is essential for subsequent compounds identification
249 (Das, Tiwari, & Shrivastava, 2010). Due to its high organic content, methanolic herb
250 extract is efficient against most bacteria (Chopra, 2007). Methanolic extracts of medicinal
251 plants have demonstrated higher antibacterial activities than those extracted by aqueous
252 and hexane solvents (Ahmad, Zaiba-Beg, & Mehmood, 1999), due to high polarity of the
253 bioactive compounds (probably polyphenols or aldehydes) (Power, 1997). Methanolic
254 plant extracts have been proven to be promising antimicrobials against pathogenic
255 bacteria both *in vitro* (Laith et al., 2016; Najjah et al., 2011) and *in vivo* (Aznan et al.,
256 2018; Laith et al., 2017).

257 Methanolic extract of *C. asiatica* contains saponins, tannins, steroids, terpenoids,
258 and cardiac glycosides, as well as antioxidant properties that may be attributed to some
259 of these bioactive substances. Steroidal compounds limit the microbial development by
260 causing plasma membrane leakage and cell death (Harlina, Prajitno, Suprayitno, &

261 Nursyam, 2013). Tannins inhibit microbial adhesions, enzymes, and cell envelope
262 transport proteins (Cowan, 1999). The saponins, steroids, cardiac glycosides, and tannins
263 in *C. asiatica* leaves are likely responsible for free radical scavenging. Putative active
264 compounds are also present in sufficient quantities in crude extract with dose-dependent
265 activities (Taylor, Rabe, McGaw, Jäger, & van Staden, 2001), as seen in the methanolic
266 extract of *C. asiatica*. Antioxidant properties are crucial for defence against reactive
267 oxygen species that cause pathophysiological conditions, and complement the
268 endogenous radical scavenging mechanism (Naznin & Hassan, 2009). The present study
269 demonstrated mitigation of *V. alginolyticus*-induced oxidative damage in *P. vannamei* by
270 the antioxidant activity of *C. asiatica*.

271 *Centella asiatica* contains triterpenoids (asiaticoside, madecassoside, asiatic acid,
272 madecassic acid), glycosides, flavonoids, alkaloids, steroids, volatile and fatty oils (James
273 & Dubery, 2011; Subban, Veerakumar, Manimaran, Hashim, & Balachandran, 2008), of
274 which triterpenoid saponins represent the most important active ingredient for wound
275 healing (Irham, Tamrin, Marpaung, and Marpongahtum, 2019). Methanolic extract of *C.*
276 *asiatica* also possess antibacterial secondary metabolites, and variant metabolites. It has
277 also been found that *C. asiatica* from different geographies varies considerably in active
278 components, despite having identical phenotypes and growth conditions (James and
279 Dubery, 2011; Aziz, Sarmidi, Kumaresan, and Foo, 2005).

280 The methanolic extract of *C. asiatica* exhibited a MIC of 0.79 mg/mL against *V.*
281 *alginolyticus*. Previously, whole plant aqueous and methanolic extracts of *C. asiatica*
282 demonstrated about the same level of inhibition strength against *V. alginolyticus* in disc
283 diffusion assay (Lee et al., 2008). The morphological alteration and deformation of the

284 treated bacterial cells in a dose-dependent manner as revealed by SEM re-affirm that *C.*
285 *asiatica* extract acts by disrupting the bacterial cell wall and membrane, and eventually
286 bursts the cells as the extract concentration increases. Previously, *C. asiatica* has been
287 reported to contain asiatic acid (pentacyclic triterpenoid) (Venter et al., 2018), which
288 inhibits gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria by disrupting the membranes, and
289 increasing potassium and nucleotide leaks (Chi et al., 2021; Sycz, Tichaczek-Goska &
290 Wojnicz, 2022).

291 The extract supplement feeding trial significantly reduced shrimp mortality due
292 to *V. alginolyticus* infection with the lowest mortality observed at 30 mg/kg. The
293 improved shrimp survival with the increase of *C. asiatica* extract concentration in feed
294 also suggests that the tested dosages are not at a toxic level. Previously, Phumkhachorn
295 and Rattanachaikunsopon (2010) demonstrated that *C. asiatica* bath treatment at 100
296 mg/L caused no adverse effects in *Flavobacterium columnare*-infected Nile tilapia. More
297 recently, Deshpande et al. (2019) determined the acute oral toxicity and 90-day repeated
298 dosage toxicity (LD₅₀) of *C. asiatica* in Sprague-Dawley rats to be >2000 and 1000 mg/kg,
299 respectively. These studies help estimate the safe dose levels for short and long-term
300 repeated use of the extract. OECD guideline 425 states that a substance is regarded as
301 safe if the maximum dose causes no deaths or clinical symptoms in the acute oral toxicity
302 investigation.

303 Hepatopancreas is a very sensitive and important organ in shrimp, which indicates
304 metabolic level, ecdysis phase, nutritional and disease status (Esteve & Herrera, 2000;
305 Iswarya et al., 2022). The present study conducted histopathological evaluation of the
306 protective effect of *C. asiatica* extract on hepatopancreas against *V. alginolyticus*

307 infection. Compared with the untreated group (0 mg/kg), the treated groups demonstrated
308 increasingly fewer hepatopancreatic alterations due to *V. alginolyticus* infection from 10,
309 20 to 30 mg/kg supplement. In other words, 30 mg/kg extract supplement helped
310 preserving more of the healthy hepatopancreatic tissues. The protective effects are
311 attributed to the antibacterial, antioxidant, and anti-inflammatory activities of *C. asiatica*
312 methanolic extract as previously reported (Krishnaiah, Devi, Bono, & Sarbatly, 2009).

313 5. Conclusion

314 Our results highlight the potential of methanolic leaf extract of *C. asiatica* as an
315 alternative antimicrobial against *V. alginolyticus* infection in *P. vannamei*. The
316 mechanism of action that breaks cell wall and membrane implies that *C. asiatica* extract
317 may also work on other *Vibrio* spp. not tested in this study, as well as other gram-negative
318 bacteria, as a tool for treatment, prevention and control of infection in aquaculture.

319

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323

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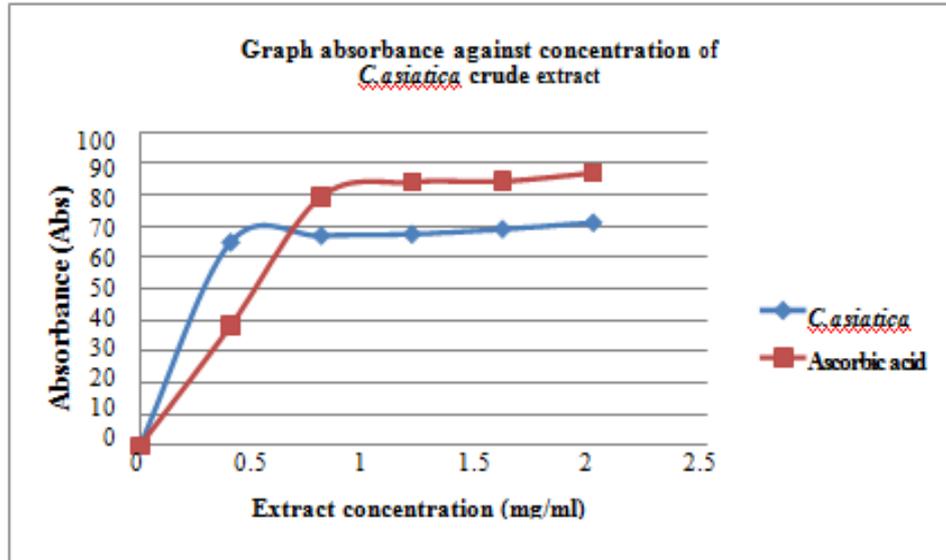
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1 **FIGURE FILE**

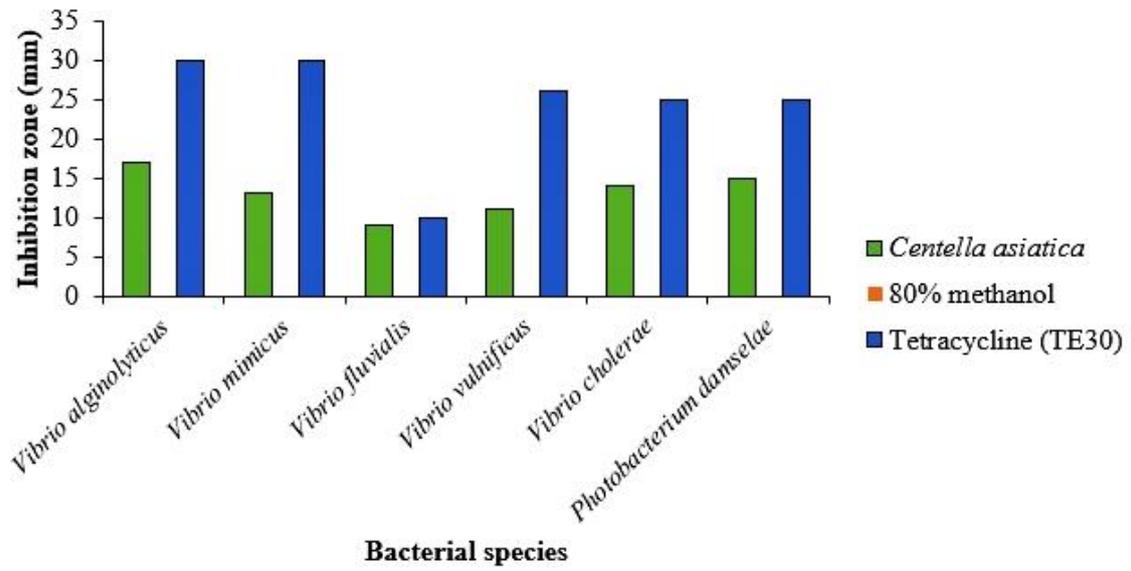
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4 Figure 1 Antioxidant activity of *C. asiatica* leaf extract compared with ascorbic acid
5 reference standard.

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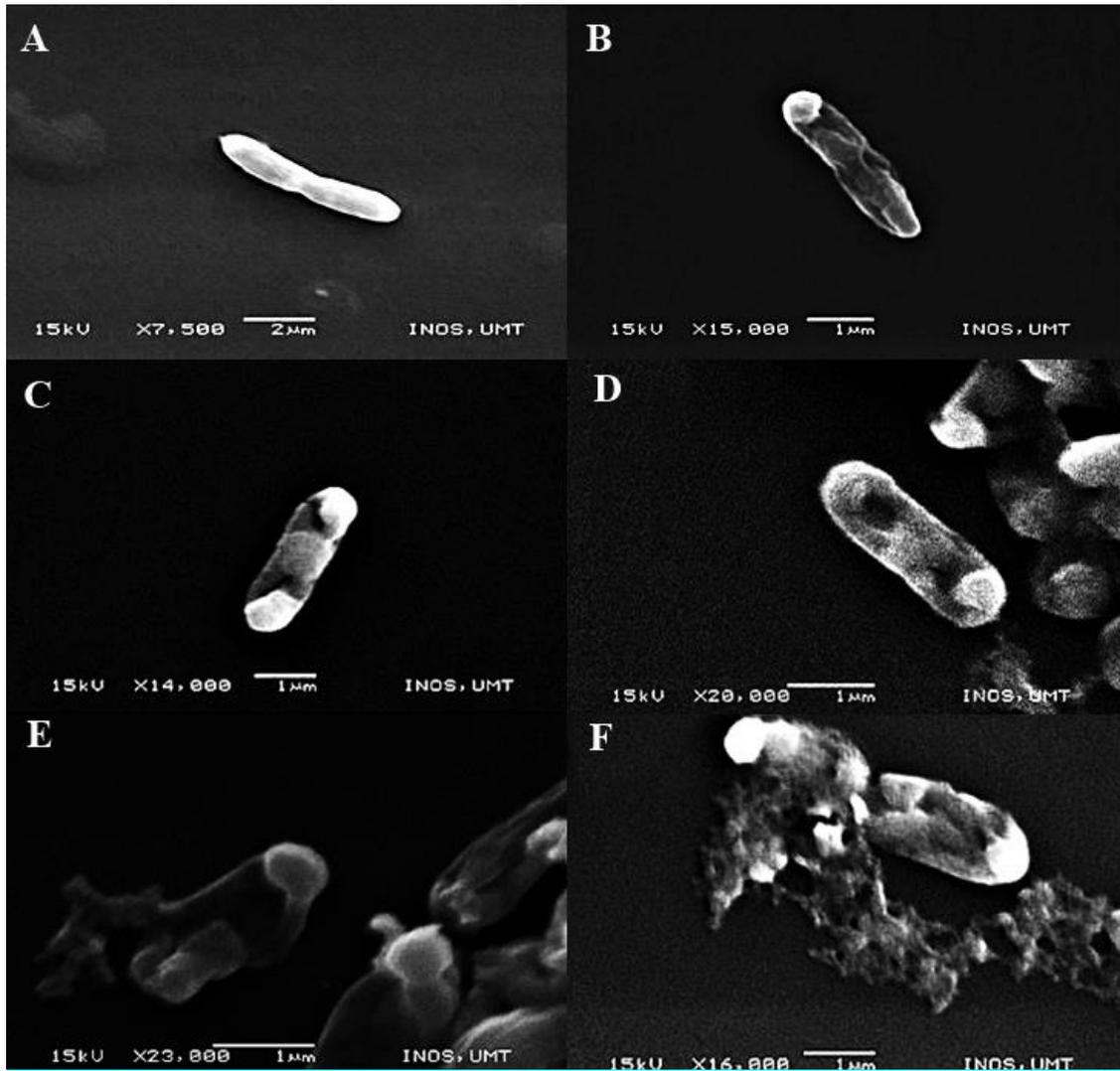
8 **Figure 2 Preliminary antimicrobial screening of *C. asiatica* extract against different**
9 **bacteria.**

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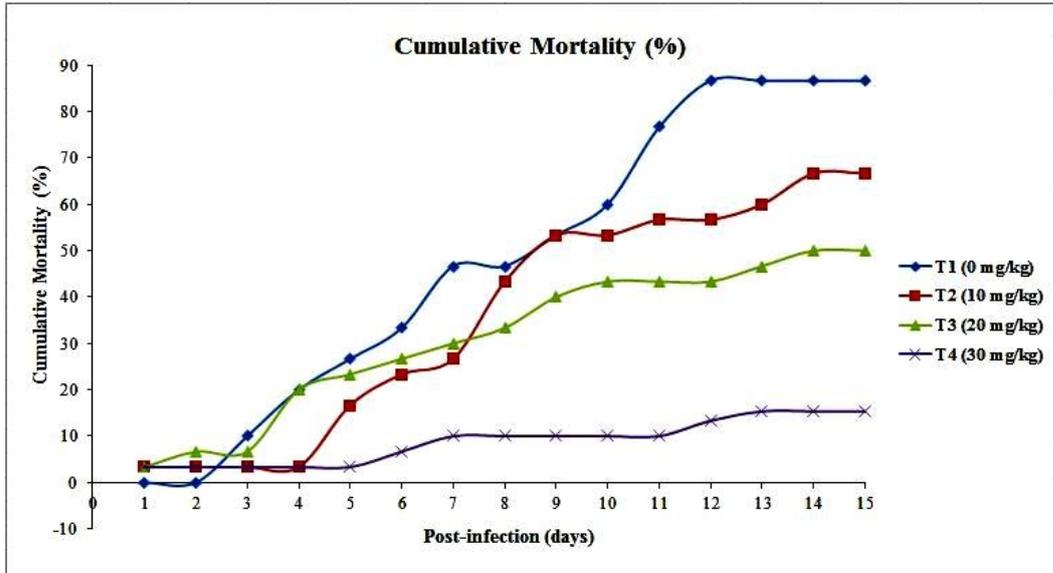


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15 **Figure 3 SEM of *V. alginolyticus*: (A) Control, (B-F) *V. alginolyticus* treated at (B) 0.79**
 16 **mg/mL, (C) 1.56 mg/mL, (D) 3.13 mg/mL, (E) 6.25 mg/mL and (F) 12.50 mg/mL of *C.***
 17 ***asiatica* extract. Magnification ranged from 7,500× to 23,000× at 15kV.**

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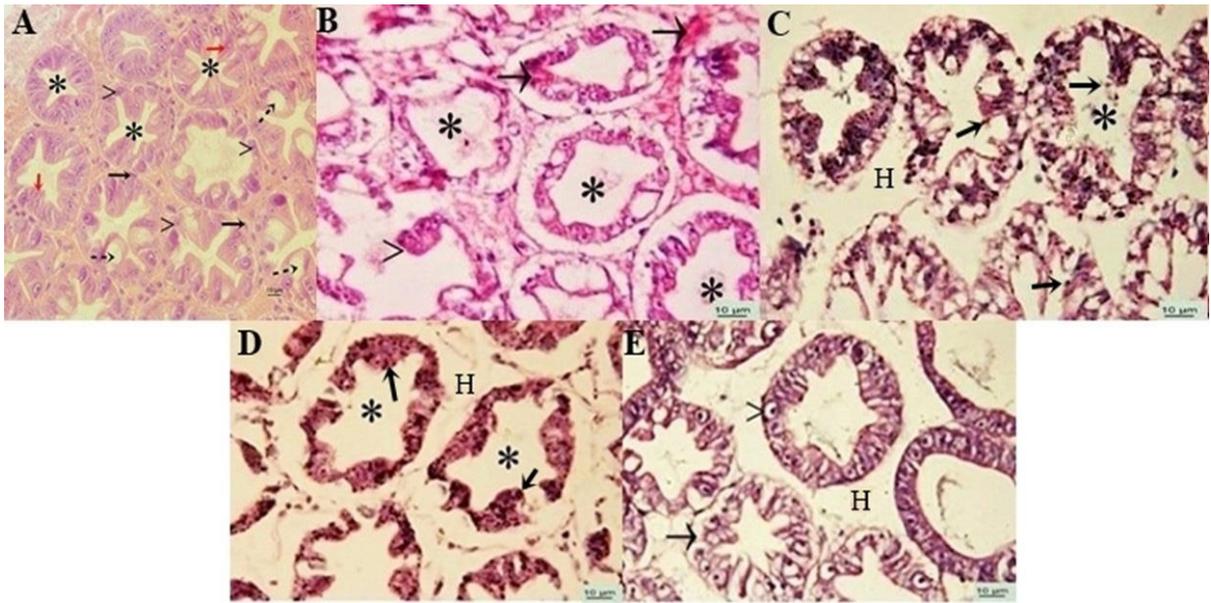
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21 Figure 4 Cumulative mortalities of whiteleg shrimp challenged with *V. alginolyticus*.

22



23

24 Figure 5 Transverse sections of hepatopancreas. (A) Normal hepatopancreas; (B)

25 hepatopancreas of untreated shrimp (0 mg/kg); (C-E) Hepatopancreases of shrimp treated

26 with 10, 20, and 30 mg/kg of *C. asiatica* extract. Scale bar 10 μm.

27

28

1

1 **TABLE FILE**2 Table 1 Bioactive compounds of *C. asiatica* methanolic leaf extract.

Bioactive compounds	Results
Steroid	+
Cardiac glycoside	+
Saponin	+
Terpenoid	+
Tannin	+

+ : Present

- : Absent

3

4

5

6 Table 2. The MIC and MBC of *C. asiatica* methanolic extract against different bacterial
7 species

Bacteria	MIC (mg/mL)	MBC (mg/mL)
<i>Vibrio alginolyticus</i>	0.79	12.50
<i>Vibrio mimicus</i>	6.25	25.00
<i>Vibrio fluvialis</i>	6.25	12.50
<i>Vibrio vulnificus</i>	3.13	25.00
<i>Vibrio cholerae</i>	1.57	6.25
<i>Photobacterium damsela</i>	3.13	50.00

10 Table 3. The LD₅₀ of *V. alginolyticus* to whiteleg shrimp according to Reed and Muench
 11 method.

Bacterial concentration (CFU/mL)	Initial number	Average mortality	Average survival	Cumulative total			Percent mortality
				Mortality	Survival	Mortality ratio	
1.5×10^7	5	5	0	17	0	17/17	100
1.5×10^6	5	4	1	12	1	12/13	92
1.5×10^5	5	3	2	8	3	8/11	73
$*1.5 \times 10^4$	5	3	2	5	5	5/10	50
1.5×10^3	5	2	3	2	8	2/10	20
Control	5	0	5	0	13	0/13	0

12 *LD

13