

Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine

journal homepage: www.apjtb.org

doi: 10.4103/2221-1691.267669

Impact factor: 1.59

Phytochemical analysis and antibacterial activities of *Eleutherine bulbosa* (Mill.) Urb. extract against *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*

Waode Munaeni^{1,2}, Widanarni^{1⊠}, Munti Yuhana¹, Mia Setiawati¹, Aris T. Wahyudi³

¹Department of Aquaculture, Faculty of Fisheries and Marine Science, IPB University (Bogor Agricultural University), Bogor 16680, Indonesia ²Department of Aquaculture, Faculty of Fisheries and Marine Science, Halu Oleo University, Kendari 93232, Indonesia ³Department of Biology, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Science, IPB University (Bogor Agricultural University), Bogor 16680, Indonesia

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 10 April 2019 Revision 21 May 2019 Accepted 1 September 2019 Available online 25 September 2019

Keywords: Phytochemical Eleutherine bulbosa Antibacterial Vibrio parahaemolyticus

ABSTRACT

Objective: To analyze compounds in *Eleutherine bulbosa* (*E. bulbosa*) (Mill.) Urb. extract and to determine its antibacterial capability against *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (*V. parahaemolyticus*). **Methods:** *E. bulbosa* bulb extract was preprared using 96% ethanol by the maceration method. Phytochemical investigation of *E. bulbosa* extract was analyzed using GC-MS, spectrophotometry and titrimetry methods. The zone of inhibition was identified by the diffusion agar method. The minimum inhibitory concentration and minimum bactericidal concentration were determined using the plate count method. The inhibitory rate against V. parahaemolyticus was determined by the microdilution method. Cellular leakage was evaluated by spectrophotometry and cellular damage was observed by scanning electron microscopy.

Results: GC-MS analysis showed the high compound of the *E. bulbosa* extract was securixanthone E (7-hydroxy-1,2-dimethoxyxanthone). The compound groups also included fatty acid esters, isoquinolines, naphthalenes, and phenolics. The total phenolic content was $(2.50 \pm 0.00) \text{ mg/g}$, flavonoid $(6.61 \pm 0.00) \text{ mg/g}$, and tannin $(0.03 \pm 0.00)\%$. The greatest zone of inhibition and inhibitory rate were $(11.83 \pm 0.06) \text{ mm}$ and $(91.32 \pm 2.76)\%$, respectively, at 10 mg/mL. The minimum inhibitory concentration was 0.156 mg/mL, while the minimum bactericidal concentration was 10 mg/mL. The *E. bulbosa* extract caused leakage and cellular damage to *V. parahaemolyticus*.

Conclusions: The *E. bulbosa* extract possesses inhibitory activities against *V. parahaemolyticus* and causes cellular leakage and damage.

1. Introduction

Vibrio parahaemolyticus (V. parahaemolyticus) is a normal (opportunistic) flora in the aquacultural environment, but it is pathogenic to both cultivated organisms and humans[1]. This bacterium is found in marine environments and in seafood[2,3]. Controlling opportunistic pathogenic bacteria in aquaculture using measures such as prophylactic chemotherapy or antibiotics is commonly known. However, the use of antibiotics has been banned

Tel: +62-251-8628755

E-mail: widanarni@apps.ipb.ac.id

because it could lead to an increased number of antibiotic-resistant bacteria and it leaves antibiotic residue in cultivated organisms which could potentially harm both humans and the aquatic environment[4,5]. Application of medicinal plants is one of the bacterial disease control methods[6]. Natural compounds found in

For reprints contact: reprints@medknow.com

©2019 Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine Produced by Wolters Kluwer-Medknow. All rights reserved.



^{©C}Orresponding author: Widanarni, Aquaculture Building, Agatis Street, IPB Campus Dramaga, Bogor 16680, Indonesia.

This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial-ShareAlike 4.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

How to cite this article: Munaeni W, Widanarni, Yuhana M, Setiawati M, Wahyudi AT. Phytochemical analysis and antibacterial activities of *Eleutherine bulbosa* (Mill.) Urb. extract against *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. Asian Pac J Trop Biomed 2019; 9(9): 397-404.

plants or medicinal herbs are not dangerous and could potentially be an alternative to antibiotics in cultivation[7,8]. Secondary metabolites from plants are potential antimicrobial substances[9].

Eleutherine bulbosa (*E. palmifolia*) (Mill.) Urb. (in previous publications, it was called *E. palmifolia*, but after being identified, it includes the species *E. bulbosa*) is a medicinal plant that is known for its antimicrobial properties; it can inhibit the replication of viruses and has anti-inflammatory and anti-hypertension activities[10]. Extracts of *E. palmifolia* have antidiabetic and antioxidant properties[11]. The potential of *E. bulbosa* (Mill.) Urb. extract as an antimicrobial has been proven to inhibit a number of bacteria species such as *Staphylococcus aureus*[12,13], and *Vibrio harveyi*[14].

The evaluation of antimicrobial plant extracts *in vitro* could provide information on the inhibitory effect of the extract, for example, the bactericidal or bacteriostatic effect and the cellular damage against microorganism^[15]. In addition, an important characteristic that needs to be evaluated in plant extracts is their hydrophobic capability on the lipids in the bacterial cell membrane, *i.e.*, their capability to damage cellular structure to ultimately cause death^[16]. The inhibitory effect and damage to bacterial cells depend on the time and concentration of the extract^[15]. Therefore, this study aimed to analyze the compounds found in *E. bulbosa* (Mill.) Urb. extract and to determine its capability as an antibacterial against *V. parahaemolyticus*.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. E. bulbosa extract preparation

E. bulbosa was obtained from Kanawa Village, Buton Regency, South East Sulawesi, Indonesia, in April 2017. The *E. bulbosa* was then identified at the Botany Division, Reseach Center for Biology, Indonesian Institute of Sciences (No. 1000/1PH.1.01/11.07/V/2018). Extraction of the *E. bulbosa* was carried out with 96% ethanol using the maceration method[14]. *E. bulbosa* bulbs aged 3-4 months or those that have flowered were cleaned, thinly sliced and then dried in an oven for 48 h at a temperature of 60 °C. The *E. bulbosa* was powdered using a blender, then extracted using 96% ethanol at a ratio of 1:4 (w/v) and macerated for 24 h at room temperature using a magnetic stirrer. The maceration results were filtered using Whatman's filter paper's No 41, and then re-macerated twice using the same method. The maceration results were thickened using a vacuum evaporator at 40 °C and the extract was then stored in a freezer at -20 °C for further analysis.

2.2. Bacterial preparation

The strain of *V. parahaemolyticus* MPL was collected from the Research Institute for Coastal Aquaculture and Fisheries Extention, Maros, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. This isolate was originally from vaname shrimp when an outbreak occurred in a shrimp farm in Lampung Province, Indonesia. *V. parahaemolyticus* was grown at

37 °C and reared at 4 °C on sea water complete (SWC) agar slant (1 g of yeast extract, 3 mL of glycerol, 5 g of bactopeptone, 250 mL of distilled water, and 750 mL of seawater). The mutant cell of *V*. *parahaemolyticus* was prepared to be resistant using 50 µg/mL of the antibiotic rifampicin (0.25 g of rifampicin, 9.5 mL of absolute ethanol, 0.5 mL of aqua bidestilata).

2.3. Analysis of the E. bulbosa extract with gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS)

The *E. bulbosa* extract was dissolved in ethanol at a ratio of 1:1 (b/v). The equipment employed was a GC-MS 5973 Pyrolysis, Agilent Technology. The sample injection volume was 2 μ L, and the type of column was HP-5MS (30 m long, 0.5 mm in diameter, 0.25 μ m wide). Helium gas (99.999%) was used as the carrying gas at a total flow of 104 μ L/min, for a run time of 30 minutes at an oven temperature of 50 °C, injector temperature of 290 °C, and aux temperature of 290 °C. The number of compounds obtained was reflected by the number of peaks in the chromatogram. The names of the compounds found were interpreted based on the mass spectra data of each peak matched to the GC-MS Pyrolysis database.

2.4. Total phenolic, flavonoid and tannin analysis

The total phenolic content in the *E. bulbosa* extract was measured using the spectrophotometry method[17]. An amount of 5 mg of the *E. bulbosa* extract was dissolved in 2 mL of 95% ethanol. This was then dissolved in 5 mL of distilled water and homogenized, then 0.5 mL of 50% (v/v) Folin-Ciocalteu reagent was added. The solution was allowed to rest for 5 min, then 1 mL of 5% sodium carbonate (b/v) was added. The solution was homogenized and incubated in a dark room at room temperature (28-29 °C) for 1 h. The absorbance was measured using a spectrophotometer at a wavelength of 725 nm. The standard solution used was gallic acid. The total phenolic content obtained was stated as gallic acid equivalent (GAE) in mg per gram dry extract.

The analysis of flavonoid content was conducted using the spectrophotometry method^[18]. Ten μ L of the *E. bulbosa* extract, 60 μ L of methanol, 10 μ L of aluminum chloride (10% w/v), 10 μ L of potassium acetate (1 mol/L), and 120 μ L of distilled water were mixed thoroughly and incubated at room temperature for 30 min. The absorbance was measured at 415 nm using a spectrophotometer. The flavonoid content was stated in quercetin equivalent (QE) in mg per gram dry extract.

The analysis of tannin content was conducted using the titrimetric method^[18]. An amount of 0.2 g of the *E. bulbosa* extract was dissolved in hot water, boiled for 30 min and then allowed to settle. An amount of 2.5 mL of this solution was mixed with 2.5 mL of indigo carmine solution (0.01 grams of indigo carmine dissolved in 0.25 mL of sulphuric acid). This was then titrated with 0.1 N KMnO₄ and the resulting tannin content percentage was calculated.

2.5. Antibacterial activity

The antibacterial activity of the E. bulbosa extract was evaluated using the diffusion agar method[19]. Extract of E. bulbosa was diluted using PBS solution at concentrations of 10, 5, 2.5, 1.25, 0.625, 0.313, 0.156 mg/mL (b/v). An amount of 100 µL of the V. parahaemolyticus which had been cultured for 14 h in liquid SWC medium (1 g of yeast extract, 3 mL of glycerol, 5 g of bactopeptone, 250 mL of distilled water, 750 mL of seawater) at a temperature of 28-29 °C and a speed of 140 rpm (108 CFU/mL) was collected and spread on to SWC agar medium. Sterile paper discs (Whatman filter paper No. 41, 5.5 mm in diameter) that had E. bulbosa extract with different concentrations were affixed to the SWC agar medium. The negative control used PBS solution, while the positive control used 30 µg/mL of chloramphenicol, each in triplicate. The medium was then incubated for 24 h at 37 $^{\circ}$ C. The antibacterial activity of the *E*. bulbosa extract was measured based on the diameter of the zone of inhibition surrounding the paper discs.

2.6. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC)

Determination of the MIC and MBC was done using the plate count method[20] with minor modifications. A serial dilution of the E. bulbosa extract stock at a concentration of 20 mg/mL (1:1 dilution factor) was conducted in test tubes using liquid SWC medium until the treatment concentrations reached 10, 5, 2.5, 1.25, 0.625, 0.313, and 0.156 mg/mL. The negative control used PBS solution, while the positive control used 30 µg/mL of chloramphenicol, each in triplicate. Each test tube was then inoculated using 100 µL of the V. parahaemolyticus suspension (10⁸ CFU/mL) which had been rinsed twice using PBS solution (phosphate buffer saline: 8 g of NaCl, 1.5 of g Na₂HPO₄, 0.2 g of KCL, 0.2 g of KH₂PO₄, 1000 mL of distilled water). The number of colonies in the negative control was counted before the incubation (data for 0 h as the C* treatment). All the treatment test tubes were then agitated in a shaker at a temperature of 28-29 °C and a speed of 140 rpm for 24 h. The suspension was counted by re-culturing 100 µL of each treatment in thiosulphate citrate bile-salt sucrose medium and then incubated for 24 h. MIC was the lowest concentration which could inhibit the growth of bacteria (bacteriostatic) using negative control prior to incubation (C*) as the comparison. The MBC was calculated as the lowest concentration which could kill 99% of the bacteria (bactericidal).

2.7. Inhibition of V. parahaemolyticus

The inhibition rate was calculated based on the microdilution method using microplates^[20] with minor modifications. The dilution factor was 1:1, and liquid SWC medium was used to produce treatment concentrations of 10, 5, 2.5, 1.25, 0.625, 0.313, and 0.156

mg/mL. Each well was filled with 100 μ L of the treatment liquid and inoculated with 10 μ L of *V. parahaemolyticus* (10⁸ CFU/mL). The treatment suspensions were agitated in a shaker at a temperature of 28-29 °C at a speed of 140 rpm for 24 h and then measured in a 630 nm microplate reader to determine the inhibitory rate. The sample blank was the absorbance of the treatments prior to inoculation with the *V. parahaemolyticus* suspension. The equation used to calculate the percentage of the inhibition of *V. parahaemolyticus* was as follows[20]:

Inhibitory rate (%) = $(ODr - ODs)/(ODr - ODb) \times 100$

Where ODr was the negative control's absorbance, ODs was the sample's absorbance, and ODb was the sample blank's absorbance.

2.8. V. parahaemolyticus cell leakage and damage

The method used for analyzing *V. parahaemolyticus* cell leakage in the present study was a modification of the studies by Oonmetta-aree *et al.*[21] and Bunduki *et al.*[22] using spectrophotometry, whereas observations of the *V. parahaemolyticus* cell damage were conducted using scanning electron microscopy (SEM)[23]. The concentrations of the *E. bulbosa* extract used in the observations of *V. parahaemolyticus* cell leakage were 10, 5, 2.5, 1.25, 0.625, 0.313, and 0.156 mg/mL (b/ v), whereas the concentration for observing the *V. parahaemolyticus* cell damage was the concentration which resulted in the smallest (0.156 mg/mL), middle-sized (1.25 mg/mL), and largest zones (10 mg/mL) of inhibition in the antibacterial test.

Test tubes were filled with 90 µL of *E. bulbosa* extract. The negative control used PBS solution, and the positive control used 30 µg/ mL of chloramphenicol. Each treatment was directly exposed to 10 µL of the *V. parahaemolyticus* bacterial suspension which had been cultured in liquid SWC for 14 h at 28-29 °C and rinsed twice using PBS solution (at a density of 10^8 CFU/mL). These were then homogenized and incubated for 24 h. The suspension was centrifuged for 10 min at a speed of 10 000 rpm. The supernatant was used for analyzing cellular leakage, while the pellet for *V. parahaemolyticus* cellular damage. The supernatant was filtered using a 0.20 µm acrodisc, and then the optical density of the supernatant was analyzed using a spectrophotometer UV-200-RS at a wavelength of 260 nm to determine the cellular nucleic acid while the 280 nm wavelength was used to determine the cellular protein. Observations of the cellular leakage were conducted for 0, 2, 6, 12, and 24 h.

The pellet was rinsed twice with PBS solution, then the supernatant was disposed. The remaining pellet was mixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde (pH 7.3) and allowed to stand for 2 h. This was then fixated for 2 h using 1% osmium tetraoxide and rinsed three times with aqua bidestillata. The dehydration process was conducted in stages using 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% alcohol, respectively, each for 10 min. Then, this was affixed to aluminum stubs and coated with gold using a vacuum process for 20 min. The preparation was then observed and documented using SEM (JSM-5310LV, Japan).

Retion time (min)	Area (%)	Name of compound	Compound group	Function	References
14.27	9.06	Hexadecanoic acid, ethyl ester	Fatty acid esters	Antibacterial; antioxidant	[24,25]
15.37	1.75	Isoquinoline-1-carbonitrile	Isoquinolines	Antibacterial; anticancer; anti-inflammatory; Antidepressant; antimalarial; anti-HIV	[26-31]
15.46	23.76	Linoleic acid, ethyl ester	Fatty acid esters	Hypocholesterolemic, nematicide, antiarthritic, hepatoprotective, anti-androgenic, 5-alpha reductase inhibitor, antihistaminic, anticoronary, insectifuge, anti-eczemic, Anti-acne	[25]
15.61	2.81	Octadecanoic acid, ethyl ester	Fatty acid esters	Antimicrobial activity	[32]
16.31	31.42	Securixanthone E (7-hydroxy-1,2-di methoxyxanthone)	Xanthones	Antioxidant	[33]
16.69	19.20	2(1H)-Phenanthrenone		Antioxidant & antiinflammatory activities	[34]
18.10	8.89	2,3-dihhydro-2,2,3,3-tetramethyl-6- Butyl-1,4-dimethoxynaphthalene	Naphthalenes	Antibacterial; viral replication inhibitor; Antioxidant	[35–37]
19.50	3.14	2H-1-Benzopyran-2-one	Phenolics	Antioxidant; Bacteriostatic and anti-tumor activity; Cancer-preventive and used as flavours	[38-40]

2.9. Data analysis

The data were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively and expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Statistical analysis was conducted using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), then followed by Duncan's test using the SPSS (Statistical Program Software System) program version 16.0. Significant differences were those where *P*<0.05 or *P*<0.01.

3. Results

3.1. Analysis of the E. bulbosa extract with GC-MS

GC-MS showed that the high compound found in the *E. bulbosa* extract was securixanthone E (7-hydroxy-1,2-dimethoxyxanthone) (31.42%) (Table 1). A number of compounds found in this study were new compounds that had not been discovered in previous studies of *E. bulbosa*; therefore, the functions of these compounds were taken from other studies of different plants.

3.2. Quantitative analysis of phytochemicals of E. bulbosa extract

The results of the phytochemical quantitative analysis revealed that the total phenolic content of the *E. bulbosa* extract in the present study was (2.50 ± 0.00) mg/g, flavonoid (6.61 ± 0.00) mg/g, and tannin $(0.03 \pm 0.00)\%$.

3.3. Antibacterial activity

The results on zone of inhibition test revealed that *E. bulbosa* extract could inhibit *V. parahaemolyticus* (Table 2). *E. bulbosa* extract at 10 mg/mL had the largest zone of inhibition $[(11.83 \pm 0.06) \text{ mm}, P<0.05)]$. This concentration was more bactericidal compared to

the other concentrations which were bacteriostatic. The inhibitory zone diameters of *E. bulbosa* extract at all concentrations were significantly different (P<0.05) from the positive and negative control.

3.4. MIC and MBC

The MIC test revealed that the *E. bulbosa* extract at 0.156 mg/mL was not significantly different (P>0.05) from the negative control prior to incubation (C*); therefore, the MIC of the *E. bulbosa* extract on *V. parahaemolyticus* was 0.156 mg/mL (Figure 1). The MBC was 10 mg/mL. The *E. bulbosa* extract at 10 mg/mL and the positive control (30 µg/mL of chloramphenicol) inhibited *V. parahaemolyticus* to 0 log CFU/mL after 24 h of incubation.

3.5. Inhibition to V. parahaemolyticus

E. bulbosa extract at 0.156 mg/mL inhibited the growth of *V. parahaemolyticus* at $(12.79 \pm 2.68)\%$, whereas 10 mg/mL inhibited at $(91.32 \pm 2.76)\%$ (Figure 2). All the treatment concentrations of the *E. bulbosa* extract were significantly different (*P*<0.05) from the negative control.

Table 2. Antibacterial activity of *Eleutherine bulbosa* extract at different concentrations against *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*.

Treatment	Inhibitory zone diameter (mm)
0.156 mg/mL	2.83 ± 0.06^{b}
0.313 mg/mL	3.17 ± 0.06^{b}
0.625 mg/mL	$4.50 \pm 0.10^{\circ}$
1.25 mg/mL	5.50 ± 0.10^{cd}
2.5 mg/mL	6.17 ± 0.06^{d}
5 mg/mL	$9.83 \pm 0.06^{\circ}$
10 mg/mL	$11.83 \pm 0.06^{\text{f}}$
Chloramphenicol (30 µg/mL)	15.83 ± 0.06^{g}
PBS solution	0.00 ± 0.00^{a}

Data (mean \pm SD) with different letters indicate significant difference (*P*<0.05).



Figure 1. Effects of *Eleutherine bulbosa* extract on growth of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* for 0 and 24 h. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD. **P*<0.05; ***P*<0.01 when compared with the negative control without the addition of *Eleutherine bulbosa* extract for 0 h (C*).



Figure 2. Inhibitory rate of *Eleutherine bulbosa* extract at different concentrations against *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD. **P*<0.05; ***P*<0.01, when compared with the negative control (PBS solution).

3.6. V. parahaemolyticus cell leakage and damage

The results of cell leakage demonstrated that after treatment with *E. bulbosa* extract for 2 h, the absorbance values were increased for both 260 nm and 280 nm, and there was no significant increase after 24 h of incubation in all the treatments except for the positive control (Figure 3). The higher the concentration of the *E. bulbosa* extracts was, the greater the damage to *V. parahaemolyticus* cells was.

Figure 4A shows that without the administration of the *E. bulbosa* extract, *V. parahaemolyticus* cell was short, curved rod with the cells flocking together and with smooth and whole cell surface. After treatment with *E. bulbosa* extract at 0.156 mg/mL, most cells were still whole and the surface was smooth, even though some cells had altered shapes. Some cells shrank with cellular leakage as indicated by the red arrow in Figure 4. At the concentration of 1.25 mg/mL, the *E. bulbosa* extract caused more cellular leakage and morphological damage than at the concentration of 0.156 mg/mL. *E. bulbosa* extract

at 10 mg/mL caused most serious damage compared to the other concentrations. The positive control treatment using 30 μ g/mL of chloramphenicol caused the destruction of *V. parahaemolyticus* cells into small parts.

4. Discussion

The antibacterial capability of *E. bulbosa* extract was attributed to the activity of the secondary metabolite compounds. A previous study revealed that the secondary metabolite compounds found in *E. bulbosa* extract include flavonoids, tannins, saponins, quinones, steroids, and triterpenoids[14]. This study also found fatty acid esters, isoquinolines, naphthalenes, and phenolics in *E. bulbosa* extract. Plant extracts contain many flavonoid compounds and phenolics, which could inhibit the growth of Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria[41]. Naphthalene-derivate compounds are



Figure 3. Absorbance of 260 nm (A) and 280 nm (B) after exposure to *Eleutherine bulbosa* extract at different concentrations. Positive control (30 µg/mL of chloramphenicol), negative control (PBS solution).



Figure 4. Morphology of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* exposed to *Eleutherine bulbosa* extract. Arrows indicate damage or leakage to the cell membrane. A: negative control (PBS solution), B: positive control (30 µg/mL of chloramphenicol), administration of *Eleutherine bulbosa* extract: 0.156 mg/mL (C), 1.25 mg/mL (D), 10 mg/mL (E).

bioactive metabolites commonly found in the genus Eleutherine[42]. The naphthalene-derivate compounds in *Ewingella americana* are antibacterial[35]. In addition to antibacterial activity, the compounds of the *E. bulbosa* extract possess antioxidant, antivirus, and anticancer activities.

Our study showed that the zone of inhibition, the inhibition rate toward V. parahaemolyticus, the cellular leakage and damage rate are all concentration dependent. The E. bulbosa extract at 10 mg/mL inhibited V. parahaemolyticus to 0 log CFU/mL after 24 h of incubation, and was bactericidal. Another study found that Ginkgo biloba leaf extract could inhibit the growth of Shewanella putrefaciens to 0 log CFU/mL after 24 h with an inhibition rate of 100%, whereas the inhibition rate of the MIC dose toward Saprophytic staphylococcus was 22.78%[20]. The increase of absorbance in the cellular leakage test after 2 h of incubation demonstrated the presence of cellular leakage in the V. parahaemolyticus. Another study reported that the 4×MIC concentration of the Polygonum minus Huds. leaf extract could cause cellular leakage in Escherichia coli and Staphylococcus aureus after 30 min of incubation[43]. SEM displayed changes in the morphological changes due to the antibacterial activity of E. bulbosa extract against V. parahaemolyticus. The function of cell membrane is to maintain the balance of materials and energy in the cell in order to maintain the bacteria's activities[44]. Our study shows that without the administration of the E. bulbosa extract, V. parahaemolyticus cell was short, curved rod with the cells flocking together and with smooth and whole cell surface. E. bulbosa extract induced morphological and structural damage to V. parahaemolyticus. E. bulbosa extract at 10 mg/mL caused most serious damage compared to the other concentrations. The V. parahaemolyticus cell displayed morphological changes in shape; the cells shriveled and shrunk, causing leakage in the cell wall, and destroyed cell parts were also observed. Another study also demonstrated that extracts of medicinal plants can infiltrate the outer membrane of bacteria, disrupt cellular and metabolic functions, and cause loss of cellular contents, which ultimately causes the death of the bacteria cells[45]. Ginkgo biloba leaf extract could also cause damage to the cell membrane and cell wall, the SEM revealed that the bacterial cell structure altered, shriveled, adhered to each other, and some parts of the cells disintegrated and shrunken[20]. In conclusion, our study indicated that the secondary metabolite compounds found in the E. bulbosa extract could inhibit the growth of V. parahaemolyticus, result in damage to cellular morphology and cause cellular leakage.

Conflict of interest statement

Authors declare that there are no competing interests.

Acknowledgments

This article is part of the dissertation by Waode Munaeni in the Department of Aquaculture, Faculty of Fishery and Marine Science, Bogor Agricultural University. Deepest gratitude is conveyed to the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education and the Lembaga Pengelola Dana Pendidikan (LPDP, Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education) for funding the present study in the form of the BUDI-DN (Beasiswa Unggulan Dosen Indonesia- Dalam Negeri, The Indonesian Superior Lecturer Scholarship-Domestic) scholarship.

References

- Lee CT, Chen IT, Yang YT, Ko TP, Huang YT, Huang JY, et al. The opportunistic marine pathogen *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* becomes virulent by acquiring a plasmid that expresses a deadly toxin. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 2015; **112**: 10798-10803.
- [2] Tran L, Nunan LD, Redman RM, Mohney LL, Pantoja CR, Fitzsimmons K, et al. Determination of the infectious nature of the agent of acute hepatopancreatic necrosis syndrome affecting penaeid shrimp. *Dis Aquat Org* 2013; **105**(1): 45-55.
- [3] Nunan LD, Lightner D, Pantoja C, Gomez-Jimenez S. Detection of acute hepatopancreatic necrosis disease (AHPND) in Mexico. *Dis Aquat Org* 2014; 111(1): 81-86.
- [4] Li JQ, Tan BP, Mai KS, Ai QH, Zhang WB, Xu W, et al. Comparative study between probiotic bacterium *Arthrobacter* XE-7 and chloramphenicol on protection of *Penaeus chinensis* post-larvae from pathogenic vibrios. *Aquaculture* 2006; 253(1-4): 140-147.
- [5] Ng SC, Hart AL, Kamm MA, Stagg AJ, Knight SC. Mechanisms of action of probiotics: Recent advances. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2009; 15(2): 300-310.
- [6] Huynh TG, Yeh ST, Lin YC, Shyu JF, Chen LL, Chen JC. White shrimp Litopenaeus vannamei immersed in seawater containing Sargassum hemiphyllum var. chinense powder and its extract showed increased immunity and resistance against Vibrio alginolyticus and white spot syndrome virus. Fish Shellfish Immunol 2011; 31(2): 286-293.
- [7] Harikrishnan R, Balasundaram C, Heo MS. Impact of plant products on innate and adaptive immune system of cultured finfish and shellfish. *Aquaculture* 2011; **317**(1-4): 1-15.
- [8] van Hai N. The use of medicinal plants as immunostimulants in aquaculture: A review. Aquaculture 2015; 446: 88-96.
- [9] Mabona U, Viljoen A, Shikanga E, Marston A, Van Vuuren S. Antimicrobial activity of southern African medicinal plants with dermatological relevance: From an ethnopharmacological screening approach, to combination studies and the isolation of a bioactive compound. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2013; **148**(1): 45-55.
- [10]Insanu M, Kusmardiyani S, Hartati R. Recent studies on phytochemicals and pharmacological effects of *Eleutherine americana* Merr. Proc Chem 2014; 13: 221-228.
- [11]Febrinda AE. Antioxidants and antidiabetic potency of aqueous and ethanolic extracts of *Bawang dayak* bulbs (*Eleutherine palmifolia*) in vitro and in vivo [Thesis]. Bogor Agricultural University; 2014.
- [12]Ifesan BO, Hamtasin C, Mahabusarakam W, Voravuthikunchai SP. Inhibitory effect of *Eleutherine americana* Merr. extract on *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from food. *J Food Sci* 2009; 74(1): M31-M36.
- [13]Subramaniam K, Suriyamoorthy S, Wahab F, Sharon FB, Rex GR. Antagonistic activity of *Eleutherine palmifolia* Linn. Asian Pac J Trop Dis 2012; 2(Supplement 1): S491-S493.

- [14]Munaeni W, Pariakan A, Yuhana M, Setiawati M, Abidin LOB. In vitro phytochemical and inhibitory potential tests of buton forest onion extract Eleutherine palmifolia on Vibrio harveyi. Microbiol Indonesia 2017; 11(3): 75-80.
- [15]Balouiri M, Sadiki M, Ibnsouda SK. Methods for *in vitro* evaluating antimicrobial activity: A review. J Pharm Anal 2016; 6(2): 71-79.
- [16]Joshi J, Srisala J, Truong VH, Chen IT, Nuangsaeng B, Suthienkul O, et al. Variation in *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolates from a single Thai shrimp farm experiencing an outbreak of acute hepatopancreatic necrosis disease (AHPND). *Aquaculture* 2014; **428–429**: 297-302.
- [17]Sahreen S, Khan MR, Khan RA. Evaluation of antioxidant activities of various solvent extracts of *Carissa opacus* fruits. *Food Chem* 2010; **122**: 1205-1211.
- [18]Mayur B, Sandesh S, Shruti S, Sung-Yum S. Antioxidant and αglucosidase inhibitory properties of *Carpesium abrotanoides* L. J Med Plants Res 2010; 4: 1547-1553.
- [19]Yeh RY, Shiu YL, Shei SC, Cheng SC, Huang SY, Lin JC, et al. Evaluation of the antibacterial activity of leaf and twig extracts of stout camphor tree, *Cinnamomum kanehirae*, and the effects on immunity and disease resistance of white shrimp, *Litopenaeus vannamei*. *Fish Shellfish Immunol* 2009; 27(1): 26-32.
- [20]Zhang NN, Lan WQ, Wang Q, Sun XH, Xie J. Antibacterial mechanism of *Ginkgo biloba* leaf extract when applied to *Shewanella putrefaciens* and *Saprophytic staphylococcus*. Aquac Fish 2018; 3(4): 163-169.
- [21]Oonmetta-Aree J, Suzuki T, Gasaluck P, Eumkeb G. Antimicrobial properties and action of galangal (*Alpinia galanga* Linn.) on *Staphylococcus aureus*. LWT - *Food Sci Technol* 2006; **39**(10): 1214-1220.
- [22]Bunduki MMC, Flanders KJ, Donnelly CW. Metabolic and structural sites of damage in heat- and sanitizer-injured populations of listeria monocytogenes. *J Food Protection* 1995; 58(4): 410-415.
- [23]Bozzola JJ, Russel LD. Electron microscopy. Principles and techniques for biologists. 2nd ed. Boston: Jones and Bartlett Publisher; 1999.
- [24]Kujumgiev A, Bankova V, Ignatova A, Popov S. Antibacterial activity of propolis, some of its components and their analogs. *Pharmazie* 1993; 48(10): 785-786.
- [25]Duke's Phytochemical and Ethnobotanical Databases U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service1992-1996. [Online]. Available at: http://phytochem.nal.usda.gov [Accessed on 2 January 2019].
- [26]Asiri AM, Khan SA, Al-Thaqafy SH, Sharma K. One pot synthesis, photophysical and X-ray studies of novel highly fluorescent isoquinoline derivatives with higher antibacterial efficacy based on the in-vitro and density functional theory. J Fluoresc 2015; 25(3): 503-518.
- [27]Mukherjee A, Dutta S, Shanmugavel M, Mondhe DM, Sharma PR, Singh SK, et al. 6-Nitro-2-(3-hydroxypropyl)-1H-benz[de] isoquinoline-1, 3-dione, a potent antitumor agent, induces cell cycle arrest and apoptosis. J Exp Clin Cancer Res 2010; 29: 175.
- [28]Barbosa-Filho JM, Piuvezam MR, Moura MD, Silva MS, Lima KVB, Da-Cunha EVL, et al. Anti-inflammatory activity of alkaloids: A twenty-century review. *Rev Bras Farmacogn* 2006; 16(1): 109-139.
- [29]Maryanoff BE, McComsey DF, Castanzo MJ, Setler PE, Gardocki JF, Shank RP, et al. Pyrroloisoquinoline antidepressants. Potent, enantioselective inhibition of tetrabenazine-induced ptosis and neuronal uptake of norepinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin. J Med Chem 1984;

27(8): 943-946.

- [30]Buchanan MS, Davis RA, Duffy S, Avery VM, Quinn RJ. Antimalarial benzylisoquinoline alkaloid from the rainforest tree *Doryphora* sassafras. J Nat Prod 2009; 72(8): 1541-1543.
- [31]Kashiwada Y, Aoshima A, Ikeshiro Y, Chen YP, Furukawa H, Itoigawa M, et al. Anti-HIV benzylisoquinoline alkaloids and flavonoids from the leaves of *Nelumbo nucifera*, and structure-activity correlations with related alkaloids. *Bioorg Med Chem* 2005; 13(2): 443-448.
- [32]Rahuman AA, Gopalakrishnan G, Ghouse BS, Arumugam S, Himalayan B. Effect of *Feronia limonia* on mosquito larvae. *Fitoterapia* 2000; 71(5): 553-555.
- [33]Singab ANB, Ayoub IM, El-Shazly M, Korinek M, Wu TY, Cheng YB, et al. Shedding the light on Iridaceae: Ethnobotany, phytochemistry and biological activity. *Ind Crops Prod* 2016; **92**: 308-335.
- [34]Altameme HJ, Hameed IH, Abu-serag NA. Analysis of bioactive phytochemical compounds of two medicinal plants, *Equisetum arvense* and *Alchemilla vulgaris* seeds using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry and Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy. *Malays Appl Biol* 2015; 44(4): 47-58.
- [35]Mahabusarakam W, Hemtasin C, Chakthong S, Voravuthikunchai SP, Olawumi IB. Naphthoquinones, anthraquinones and naphthalene derivatives from the bulbs of *Eleutherine americana*. *Planta Med* 2010; 76(4): 345-349.
- [36]Hara H, Maruyama N, Yamashita S, Hayashi Y, Lee KH, Bastow KF, et al. Elecanacin, a novel new naphthoquinone from the bulb of *Eleutherine americana*. *Chem Pharm Bull* 1997; **45**(10): 1714-1716.
- [37]Han AR, Min HY, Nam JW, Lee NY, Wiryawan A, Suprapto W, et al. Identification of a new naphthalene and its derivatives from the bulb of *Eleutherine americana* with inhibitory activity on lipopolysaccharideinduced nitric oxide production. *Chem Pharm Bull* 2008; 56(9): 1314-1316.
- [38]Mirunalini, Krishnaveni M. Coumarin: A plant-derived polyphenol with wide biomedical applications. *Int J Pharm Tech Res* 2011; 3(3): 1693-1696.
- [39]Jain PK, Joshi H. Coumarin: Chemical and pharmacological profile. J App Pharm Sci 2012; 2(6): 236-240.
- [40]Ponnamma SU, Manjunath K. GC-MS Analysis of phytocomponents in the methanolic extract of *Justicia wynaadensis* (Nees) anders. *Int J Pharm Bio Sci* 2012; 3(3): 570-576.
- [41]Negi PS. Plant extracts for the control of bacterial growth: Efficacy, stability and safety issues for food application. *Int J Food Microbiol* 2012; **156**: 7-17.
- [42]Tessele PB, Delle Monache F, Meira Quintao NL, da Silva GF, Rocha LW, Lucena GMRS, et al. A new naphthoquinone isolated from the bulbs of *Cipura paludosa* and pharmacological activity of two main constituents. *Planta Med* 2011; 77: 1035-1043.
- [43]Imelda F, Faridah DN, Kusumaningrum HD. Bacterial inhibition and cell leakage by extract of *Polygonum minus* Huds. leaves. *Int Food Res* J 2014; 21(2): 553-560.
- [44]Li WR, Xie XB, Shi QS, Zeng HY, Ouyang YS, Chen YB. Antibacterial activity and mechanism of silver nanoparticles on *Escherichia coli*. App Microbiol Biotechnol 2010; 85(4): 1115-1122.
- [45]Kang CG, Hah DK, Kim CH, Kim YW, Kim E, Kim JS. Evaluation of antimicrobial activity of the methanol extracts from 8 traditional medicinal plants. *Toxicol Res* 2011; 27(1): 31-36.