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1	The growth promoting and immunomodulatory effects of a medicinal plant leaf extract obtained
2	from Salvia officinalis and Lippia citriodora in gilthead seabream (Sparus aurata)
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### Abstract

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In the present study, we evaluated the effects of a medicinal plant leaf extract (MPLE; 10%, ursolic acid, 3% other triterpenic compounds; 2% verbascoside and <1% polyphenols) obtained from Lippia citriodora and Salvia officinalis on somatic growth and immune responses in juvenile gilthead seabream (Sparus aurata). Fish (initial body weight = 26.0 ± 0.1 g) were fed two isoproteic (48% crude protein, 7% fishmeal), isolipidic (17% crude fat) and isoenergetic diets (21.7 MJ/kg), one of them containing 0.1% MPLE. Both diets were tested using four replicate tanks during 92 days. At the end of the trial, a significant increase in growth was observed in fish fed the diet containing the additive in comparison to fish fed the control diet (189.6  $\pm$  2.5 g vs. 173.8  $\pm$  4.1 g, respectively; P < 0.05). Specific growth rates (SGR) in fish fed the feed supplemented with 0.1% MPLE were significantly higher than in fish fed the control diet (SGR<sub>0-92 days (0.1% MPLE diet)</sub> = 2.26 ± 0.01 % day<sup>-1</sup>,  $SGR_{0-92 \text{ days (control diet)}} = 2.16 \pm 0.02 \% \text{ day}^{-1}$ ; P < 0.05). Feed conversion ratio (FCR) values in fish fed the control diet were higher than those in fish fed the MPLE diet (FCR<sub>control diet</sub> =  $1.23 \pm 0.02$  vs. FCR  $_{0.1\%\,\text{MPLE diet}} = 1.10 \pm 0.02$ ; P < 0.05). When evaluating non-specific immune plasmatic parameters, no significant variations were registered at the level of bacteriolytic and complement activities, nor IgM levels (P > 0.05). In order to evaluate the cellular immune competence of fish, an ex vivo assay with splenocytes primary cell culture (SPCC) from both dietary groups was conducted. SPCC were incubated with lipopolysaccharide (LPS) for 24 h and the expression of genes associated to several immune processes was evaluated (humoral immune response, pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines, cell surface markers, and antioxidant enzymes). Particularly at 4 h post-exposure, dietary supplementation with 0.1% MPLE enhanced SPCC immune response to LPS by the up-regulation of genes involved in humoral immunity (lys, lgM), pro-  $(tnf-\alpha, il-1\theta)$  and anti-inflammatory  $(tgf-\theta 1, lgM)$ il10) cytokines, the leucocyte cell surface marker cd4, and antioxidative stress enzymes (mn-sod, cat). Therefore, a medicinal plant leaf extract (MPLE) obtained from L. citriodora and S. officinalis may be considered as efficient additive to be used in aquafeed since it does not induce a significant

immune reaction under basal conditions, but it provides immune protection after LPS treatment, together with increasing overall fish growth and improvement of feed efficiency values.

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**Keywords:** additive, functional diet, immunity, pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP), ursolic acid, verbascoside.

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### 1. Introduction

Functional feeds are regarded as the future of the aquaculture industry. By preventive health management through feeding practices, aquatic animals can divert more energy to somatic growth and reduce biological energy reserves needed to fight disease or stress resistance. Nowadays, functional feeds include specific ingredients with specific functions or special product characteristics; therefore, providing solutions to recurrent problems in animal production cycles rather than only focusing on growth performance issues. A reality that affects the aquaculture industry and still unresolved, is the excessive use of antibiotics, regardless of the global strategy promoted by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2016). In recent years, the increase in the use of antimicrobials has been reported due to intense worldwide fish farming and the spreading of several bacterial diseases (Defoirdt et al., 2011). However, antibiotic prophylaxis represents a high cost and leads to undesirable side effects such as bioaccumulation of drug residues, pollution, and increased antibiotic resistance among bacteria. A suitable solution to replace the excessive administration of antibiotics in the aquaculture industry is the use of additives such as immunostimulants that may be used in functional feeds to improve resistance to diseases by strengthening the innate immune defense mechanisms in aquatic animals (Dawood et al., 2018; Fuchs et al., 2015; Vallejos-Vidal et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017). Among them, the use of immunostimulants from plant materials has been recognized as an ecofriendly approach for the control of pathogens and regulation of host health, as they possess medicinal properties that have been reported to have a key role in enhancing fish immunity (Vaseeharan and Thaya, 2014). In this context, plant extracts or their by-products contain several active compounds, including phenols, polyphenols, alkaloids, terpenoids, lectines, and polypeptides, that have been shown to be effective alternatives to traditional prophylaxis and vaccines (Chakraborty and Hancz, 2011; Galina et al., 2009).

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In this study, we evaluated the growth and immune response in juvenile gilthead sea bream (Sparus aurata) fed with a functional diet containing a medicinal plant leaf extract from sage (Salvia officinalis, Lamiaceae) and lemon verbena (Lippia citriodora, Verbenaceae). Extracts of sage are rich in phenolic compounds (e.g., coumarins, flavonoids, tannins) (Ghorbani and Esmaeilizadeh, 2017) and triterpenes, which are natural components found in a variety of common European plants and fruits, which are gaining attention for their functional benefits (Babalola and Shode, 2013). In traditional medicine, this plant has been reputed for its potential antitumor and antioxidant activities, anti-inflammatory properties and antiseptic effects (Ghorbani and Esmaeilizadeh, 2017; Jedinák et al., 2006). The extracts from the aromatic and medicinal plant lemon verbena contain a large quantity polyphenolic and triterpenic compounds, as well as verbascoside and its derivates (Mauriz et al., 2015; Quirantes-Piné et al., 2009). The above-mentioned compounds have reported beneficial pharmacological activities, including antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and antineoplastic properties in addition to numerous wound-healing and neuroprotective properties (Alipieva et al., 2014; Caturla et al., 2011; Funes et al., 2009). In fish, the anti-inflammatory activity of a triterpenic compound like ursolic acid was reported in zebrafish (Danio rerio) (Ding et al., 2015). Furthermore, a strong antiviral activity both in vitro and in vivo has recently been reported in rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) (Li et al., 2019). However, none of these studies has used the strategy of a dietary administration to evaluate its applicability in aquaculture. By contrast, to the best of our knowledge, there are no antecedents of the verbascoside effect upon fish health.

The aim of this study was to evaluate a medicinal plant leaf extract (10%, ursolic acid, 3% other triterpenic compounds; 2% verbascoside and <1% polyphenols) from sage (*S. officinalis*) and lemon verbena (*L. citriodora*) as a feed additive, using gilthead seabream as a model species for marine aquaculture. This extract contains several compounds that are reputed in traditional medicine for their immunomodulatory properties, which if they also function in fish, would be beneficial in functional aquafeeds. Thus, we decided to test this phytochemical extract on growth performance and the systemic immune response through the evaluation of humoral immune parameters. The beneficial effects of the dietary administration of the medicinal plant leaf extract (MPLE) to a bacterial challenge were evaluated at the gene expression level in splenocytes by a short-term *ex vivo* stimulation with LPS, a broadly recognized pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP).

#### 2. Material and Methods

### 2.1 Fish and rearing conditions

A total of 300 gilthead seabream (body weight, BW = 5 – 8 g) were purchased from a commercial fish farm (Andromeda Group, Burriana, Spain) and transported by road (1 h) to IRTA facilities at Sant Carles de la Ràpita (Spain). Once there, fish were acclimatized for three weeks in 450 L tanks connected to a water recirculation system (IRTAmar<sup>™</sup>) at an initial density of 2 kg m<sup>-3</sup>. Acclimation was conducted in the same experimental tanks (450 L) where the nutritional experiment was carried out. Water temperature (22-27 °C), oxygen (6.1  $\pm$  0.2 mg l<sup>-1</sup>) (OXI330, Crison Instruments), and pH (7.5  $\pm$  0.01) (pHmeter 507, Crison Instruments, Barcelona, Spain), were daily controlled, whereas salinity (35‰) (MASTER-20 T; ATAGO Co. Ltd), as well as ammonia (0.13  $\pm$  0.1 mg NH<sub>4</sub>+ l<sup>-1</sup>) and nitrite (0.18  $\pm$  0.1 mg NO<sub>2</sub>- l<sup>-1</sup>) levels (HACH DR9000 Colorimeter, Hach<sup>®</sup>, Spain) were weekly monitored. Just before the start of the trial, all necessary animals (n = 280, 35 fish per tank) were individually measured in BW and standard length (SL) and distributed homogeneously among the eight experimental tanks.

### 2.2 Experimental diets and fish sampling

Experimental diets used in this trial were manufactured by SPAROS Lda (Portugal). Once received and during the entire trial (92 days), they were stored in a refrigeration chamber at 4 °C to avoid their oxidation. Two experimental diets with low fishmeal (FM) content (7% FM) were tested: a control diet (48% protein, 17% lipids and energy: 21.7 MJ kg¹) and the same diet but supplemented with the MPLE additive obtained from *S. officinalis* and *L. citriodora* at 0.1% inclusion (Table 1). This inclusion level was chosen according to previous results using similar compounds (Gisbert et al., 2017). Sage and verbena leaf extracts (5 parts of sage : 1 part of verbena) were produced by NATAC Biotech SL (Madrid, Spain) using water/ethanol extraction (plant leaf extract ratio 5:1) and characterized as described in Arthur et al. (2011) and Wójciak-Kosior et al. (2013). The biochemical composition in terms of the tested extract contained 73% carbohydrates, 2% crude lipids, <1% crude proteins, 5% salts, 4% water, 10% ursolic acid, 3% other triterpenic compounds, 2% verbascoside and <1% polyphenols. Thus, the content in plant-derived bioactive compounds in the experimental diet was 0.01% ursolic acid, 0.003% other triterpenic compounds, 0.002% verbascoside and <0.001% polyphenols.

The trial lasted 92 days and each diet was tested by means of four replicate tanks. Diets were distributed eight times per day by automatic feeders (ARVO-TEC T Drum 2000; Arvotec, Finland) at the daily rate of 3.0% of the stocked biomass, which approached apparent satiation. One hour after feed administration, uneaten pellets were recovered from the bottom of the tank, dried in an oven (100 °C) and their dry weight used for estimating the amount of uneaten feed and calculate feed intake. Sampling to monitor fish growth took place monthly from the nutritional trial in order to adjust feeding rate and evaluate somatic growth performance. For that purpose, all fish in each tank were netted, gently anaesthetized (tricaine methanesulfonate, MS-222, 50 mg l<sup>-1</sup>) and their BW (g) and standard length (SL, cm) determined. Fish growth was evaluated by means of the

following indices: Fulton's condition factor (K) =  $(BW_f / SL_f^3) \times 100$ ; specific growth rate in BW  $(SGR_{BW}, \%) = [(In BW_f - In BW_i) \times 100] / time (d)$ ; where  $BW_f$  and  $BW_i$  correspond to final and initial BW, and  $SL_f$  corresponds to final SL. Feed utilization was evaluated by the following formula: feed conversion ratio (FCR) = feed intake (g) / increase of fish biomass (g).

Proximate composition of the extract and experimental diets was determined as follows: crude fat was quantified gravimetrically after extraction in chloroform/methanol (2:1) and evaporation of the solvent under a stream of N followed by vacuum desiccation overnight (Folch et al., 1957); crude protein content was determined according to Lowry et al. (1951); ash contents were determined by keeping the sample at 500 to 600°C for 24 h in a muffle furnace (AOAC, 1990) and water content was estimated by sample drying at 120°C for 24 h. All chemical analyses were performed by duplicate.

### 2.3 Humoral immune parameters

After fish were measured, blood (ca. 1ml) was taken from anaesthetized fish (n = 5 fish per tank) by caudal puncture with lithium-heparinized syringes and immediately centrifuged (2,000 × g for 20 min at 4 °C) to separate plasma. Levels of immunoglobulin M (IgM) were measured by using the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (Wells et al., 1986). Aliquots of 100  $\mu$ l of plasma (1/5 diluted with 50 mM carbonate-bicarbonate buffer, pH 9.6) were placed in flat-bottomed 96-well plates in triplicate and coated by overnight incubation at 4 °C. After three rinses with PBT buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl and 0.05% Tween 20, pH 7.3) the plates were blocked for 2 h at room temperature with blocking buffer containing 3% bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma) in PBT buffer, followed by three rinses with PBT buffer. The plates were then incubated for 1 h with 100  $\mu$ l per well of mouse anti-gilthead seabream IgM monoclonal antibody (Aquatic Diagnostics Ltd.) (1/100 in blocking buffer), washed and incubated with the secondary antibody anti-mouse IgG-HRP (streptavidin horseradish-peroxidase) (1/1,000 in blocking buffer, Sigma). After exhaustive rinsing

with PBT buffer the plates were developed using 100  $\mu$ L of a 0.42 mM solution of 3,3′,5,5′-tetramethylbenzidine hydrochloride (TMB, Sigma), which was prepared daily in a 100 mM citric acid/sodium acetate buffer (pH 5.4) containing 0.01%  $H_2O_2$ . The reaction was allowed to proceed for 10 min and stopped by the addition of 50  $\mu$ L of 2M  $H_2SO_4$  before the plates were read at  $\lambda$  = 450 nm in a plate reader (FLUOstar Omega, BMG Labtech). Negative controls consisted of samples without plasma, whose optical density (OD) values were subtracted for each sample value.

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Natural haemolytic complement activity was measured in plasma according to Guardiola et al. (2018). The buffers used were: GVB (Isotonic veronal buffered saline), pH 7.3, containing 0.1% gelatin; EDTA-GVB, as the previous one but containing 20 mM EDTA; and Mg-EGTA-GVB, which is GVB with 10 mM Mg<sup>+2</sup> and 10 mM EGTA. Rabbit red blood cells (RaRBC; Probiologica Lda, Portugal) were used for natural haemolytic complement determination. RaRBC were washed four times in GVB and resuspended in GVB to a concentration of 2.5 x 10<sup>8</sup> cells ml<sup>-1</sup>. Twenty μl of RaRBC suspension were then added to 40 μl of serially diluted plasma in Mg-EGTA-GVB buffer. The values of maximum (100%) and minimum (spontaneous) haemolysis were obtained by adding 40 μL of distilled water or Mg-EGTA-GVB buffer to 20 µl samples of RaRBC, respectively. Samples were incubated at room temperature for 100 min with regular shaking every 20 min. The reaction was stopped by adding 150 µl of cold EDTA-GVB. Samples were then centrifuged (400 x g for 5 min at 22 °C) and the extent of haemolysis was estimated by measuring the optical density of the supernatant at  $\lambda$  = 414 nm in a microplate reader (Synergy HT, Switzerland). The degree of haemolysis (Y) was calculated and the lysis curve for each specimen was obtained by plotting Y = (1-Y)-1 against the volume of plasma added (μl) on a log-log scaled graph. The volume of plasma producing 50% haemolysis (ACH<sub>50</sub>) was determined and the number of ACH50 units/ mL obtained for each experimental fish sample.

The fish pathogen *Vibrio anguillarum* was used in the bactericidal assay. The strain was grown from 1 mL of stock culture that had been previously frozen at -80 °C. The bacteria cells were cultured for 48 h at 25 °C in Triptic Soy Agar (TSA, Difco Laboratories), and then inoculated in Triptic

Soy Broth (TSB, Difco Laboratories), both supplemented with NaCl to a final concentration of 1% (w/v). Bacteria in TSB medium were then cultured at the same temperature, with continuous shaking (100 rpm) for 24 h. Exponentially growing bacteria were resuspended in sterile PBS and adjusted to 10<sup>8</sup> colony forming units per mL (CFU ml<sup>-1</sup>).

Bactericidal activity was determined following the method of Stevens and Kehrli (Stevens et al., 1991) with some modifications. Samples of 20  $\mu$ L of plasma were added (in six replicates) to the wells of a flat-bottomed 96-well plate. PBS solution was added to some wells instead of the plasma (positive control). Aliquots of 20  $\mu$ L of the previously cultured bacteria were added and the plates were incubated for 5 h at 25 °C. Then, 25  $\mu$ l of MTT (1 mg ml<sup>1</sup>) were added to each well and the plates were incubated again for 10 min at 25°C to allow the formation of formazan. Plates were then centrifuged (2,000 x g for 10 min) and the precipitates dissolved in 200  $\mu$ l of DMSO were transferred to a new flat-bottom 96-well plate. The absorbance of the dissolved formazan was measured at  $\lambda$  = 570 nm. Bactericidal activity was expressed as percentage of non-viable bacteria, calculated as the difference between absorbance of surviving bacteria compared to the absorbance of bacteria from positive controls (100%).

# 2.4 Ex vivo immune stimulation of splenocytes with LPS

In order to evaluate the immunomodulatory effect of the tested additive when fish come in contact with a pathogenic organism, an *ex vivo* assay was conducted. For this purpose, the spleen was used because of its key role as a secondary lymphoid tissue and, therefore, its specific capacity to activate the immune response in face of a widely recognized pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP) like lipopolysaccharide (LPS).

At the end of the nutritional trial, six specimens from each experimental group (biological replicates) were sacrificed with an overdose of anesthetic (>150 mg l<sup>-1</sup>, MS-222) and their spleens removed. The *ex vivo* protocol and the dose of LPS used was similar to that described by Campoverde et al. (Campoverde et al., 2017). In brief, the spleen of each fish was passed through

a 100 µm nylon mesh cell strainer (SefarNytal PA-13xxx/100, Spain) in Leibovitz L15 medium (Gibco) supplemented with 1:1000 penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco, catalogue number 15140-122) and 2% foetal calf serum (Gibco, catalogue number 10270-098). The resulting cell suspension was collected and centrifuged (at  $400 \times g$  for 10 min at room temperature). Then, the supernatant was discarded and replaced with 10 ml of Leibovitz L15 medium. The cell suspension was again centrifuged and supernatants removed and replaced with 30 ml of media. Cells were distributed to 12-well microtiter plates in 5 mL aliquots (2 wells per fish; methodological replicates). The obtained splenocyte primary cell cultures (SPCC) were incubated with a bacterial-type PAMP, LPS (Sigma, #L3129-100 MG). For this purpose, LPS was dissolved in sterile PBS. A LPS dose (50 μg ml-1; Campoverde et al., 2017) was added to evaluate its effect upon the SPCC from control diet (SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS) and from 0.1% MPLE diet (SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS). The assay was carried out on microtiter plates (Greiner Bio-One, Spain). LPS-free samples were obtained incubating the SPCC from control (SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+PBS) and 0.1% MPLE diets (SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS) with 250 μl of PBS. In order to evaluate the expression profile of immune genes, splenocytes were harvested at 4, 12 and 24 h after LPS exposure, centrifuged at  $400 \times g$  for 10 min at room temperature, and the supernatant discarded. Splenocytes with no stimuli were harvested immediately prior to the beginning of the treatment (time zero). After cell centrifugation, the pellet was immediately suspended in 1.5 ml of RNAlater® (Sigma-Aldrich, Spain), incubated overnight at 4 °C, then stored at -80°C for further gene expression analyses.

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### 2.5 RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis

Spleen total RNA was extracted using the QIAGEN RNeasy® Mini Kit following the manufacturer's recommendations. The amount of isolated RNA was determined by spectrophotometry with an ND-2000 NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific™) and its quality was evaluated by means of agarose gel electrophoresis (2%) according to Masek et al. (2005). Once the quality of the extracted RNA was verified, single-stranded cDNA was synthesized in order to evaluate their expression profile. For

cDNA synthesis, 1  $\mu$ g of total RNA was reverse transcribed using a high capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (QuantiTect® Reverse Transcription Kit) in a final reaction volume of 20  $\mu$ l according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer.

# 2.6 Gene expression analyses by real-time PCR (qPCR)

The gilthead sea bream SPCC treatments were analyzed by qRT-PCR in order to evaluate the modulation of a set of immune-related genes. The screening included the analysis of humoral response (lysozyme [lys]; immunoglobulin M [lgM]), pro-inflammatory (interleukin 1 beta [il-18]; tumor necrosis factor alpha [tnf- $\alpha$ ]) and anti-inflammatory cytokines (il-10; transforming growth factor beta 1 [tgf $\beta$ 1]), the surface cell marker cd4, and antioxidant enzymes (manganese superoxide dismutase [mn-sod]; catalase [cat]). Two different reference genes ( $\beta$ -actin; 185) were assessed using the BestKeeper software (Pfaffl et al., 2004) to elucidate which one had less variation. Thus,  $\beta$ -actin was included as the reference gene for expression analyses. The specific primer set for each gene are detailed in Table 2.

The primer amplification efficiency (E) for all the genes included in this analysis was determined using a reference pool containing 1 µl of each sample included in this study. Based on the value of the slope of the regression line obtained, E was calculated according to the formula described in Pffaffl (Pfaffl, 2001) and E values reported in Table 2. Quantitative PCR reactions were performed with 2.5 µl iTaq universal SYBR green supermix (Bio-Rad Laboratories), 0.1 µl forward and reverse primers (final concentration of 500 nM at the reaction volume) and 1.3 µl of miliQ H<sub>2</sub>O using 1:4 cDNA dilution from all the cDNA stock samples. The thermal conditions used were 3 min at 95 °C of pre-incubation followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 30 s and 60 °C for 30 s. An additional temperature ramping step from 65 to 95 °C was included to produce the melting curves and thus, verify the amplification of a unique single product on all samples. All the reactions were performed in duplicate using a CFX384 Touch Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Quantification was done according to the Pfaffl method (Pfaffl, 2001) corrected for efficiency of

each primer set obtained. The normalized relative expression (NRE) value for each diet (control diet; 0.1% MPLE diet) and experimental condition (PBS; LPS) was calculated using the time zero (calibrator) and normalized to the  $\beta$ -actin (reference gene) expression. The results were expressed as mean expression values obtained at 0, 4, 12, and 24 hours of treatment (n = 6 fish per diet, experimental condition, and time-point assessed).

# 2.7 Statistical analysis

Differences in somatic growth and fish condition between both diets (control; 0.1% MPLE) were evaluated by means of a t-test. Two-way ANOVA test was used to determine differences in gene expression between dietary groups (factor 1) and sampling times (factor 2). Prior to ANOVA analyses, all data were checked for normality and homogeneity of variances. When statistical significances were found between groups (P < 0.05), a post-hoc Tukey test was conducted. Results in growth performance parameters and gene expression values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD (standard deviation). All statistical analyses were performed using Graph Pad Prism V.6.1. Software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, USA).

# 2.8 Ethics statement

The experiment complied with the Guiding Principles for Biomedical Research Involving Animals (EU2010/63), the guidelines of the Spanish laws (law 32/2007 and RD 53/2013), and authorized by the Ethical Committee of the Institute for Research and Technology in Food and Agriculture (Spain) for the use of laboratory animals.

#### 3. Results

3.1 Somatic growth performance and feed utilization parameters

At the end of the 92-days trial, survival was similar among groups with values ranging between 98.0 to 99.0% (P > 0.05). Gilthead seabream fed the diet containing 0.1% MPLE were 8.3% heavier than those fed the control diet (189.6 ± 2.5 g vs. 173.8 ± 4.1 g, respectively; P < 0.05). Similarly, SGR values in fish fed the 0.1% MPLE diet were higher than those recorded in the control group (SGR = 2.26 ± 0.001 % day<sup>-1</sup> vs. 2.16 ± 0.018 % day<sup>-1</sup>, respectively; P < 0.05). No significant differences in SL<sub>f</sub>, and K and were found between both groups (Table 3; P > 0.05). Values of FCR were lower in fish fed the 0.1% MPLE diet than in those fed the control diet (Table 3; P < 0.05).

### 3.2 Non-specific humoral immune parameters

At the end of the feeding trial, there were no significant differences in the IgM levels, either bacteriolytic nor complement activities among gilthead seabream specimens fed both diets (Table 4; P > 0.05).

## 3.3 Gene expression in splenocytes incubated with LPS (ex vivo trial)

Normalized relative expression (NRE) for each gene from different experimental groups are presented in the Supplementary file 1. Regarding the humoral immune response, at 4 h post-exposure (hpe), *lys* in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS was significantly higher than in the SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS (Fig. 1a; P < 0.05). At 12 hpe, *lys* expression levels in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS increased in comparison to the same treatment at 4 hpe, while these values were significantly higher than those observed from the same group, but just incubated with PBS (SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS) (P < 0.05). The same effect, although at a lower magnitude, was observed between SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS and SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+PBS. At 24 hpe, *lys* levels decreased in SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS and SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS and SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS and SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+DBS. At 24 hpe, *lys* levels decreased in SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS and SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS compared to 12 hpe (P < 0.05); thus, decreasing to similar values recorded prior to LPS stimulation (P < 0.05).

Regarding IgM, SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS remained stable throughout the study (from time zero to 24 hpe) (P > 0.05). However, the SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS showed higher IgM levels compared to SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS (Fig. 1b, P < 0.05). On the other hand, at 12 and 24 hpe no differences in IgM levels were detected in none of the diets and treatments evaluated (P > 0.05). Collectively, the expression of Iys and IgM suggest that the activation of the humoral immune response in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS is perceived at 4 hpe, while in fish fed the control diet the response was characterized by a delayed activation of response (Iys) or even no effect (IgM).

The expression of the pro-inflammatory cytokines il-1 $\theta$  and  $tnf\alpha$  was also determined. A significant ten-fold increase of il-1 $\theta$  was registered in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS at 4 hpe compared to SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS (Fig. 1c; P < 0.05). In fish fed the control diet, a significant increase was also observed in the expression of il-1 $\theta$  in SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS at 4 hpe compared to SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+PBS. Importantly, at 4 hpe the il-1 $\theta$  expression value was also higher in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS when it was compared to SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS (P < 0.05). The expression of il-1 $\theta$  diminished at 12 hpe in all the treatments evaluated, although it was still significantly higher in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS in comparison to SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS. By contrast, il-1 $\theta$  levels in SPCC from fish fed the control diet were similar at 12 hpe when comparing the LPS and PBS treatments. No differences were registered at 24 hpe between both evaluated treatments (P < 0.05).

The pro-inflammatory cytokine tnf- $\alpha$  showed increased expression at 4 hpe in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS, as well as in SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS, though the magnitude of increase was higher in fish fed the additive (P < 0.05; Fig. 1d). At 12 hpe, in both dietary groups tnf- $\alpha$  expression decreased with regard to 4 hpe. In particular, tnf- $\alpha$  levels in SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS were similar to those recorded at basal level. By contrast, tnf- $\alpha$  levels in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS were still significantly higher than those recorded at the beginning of the LPS exposure (P < 0.05). At 24 hpe, tnf- $\alpha$  expression returned to basal expression levels (P > 0.05). The pro-inflammatory il-1 $\theta$  and tnf- $\alpha$  data provided more evidence of activation and significantly higher immune response occurring in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS.

The leukocyte membrane marker cd4 showed a significant increase only at 4 hpe in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS compared to SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS (P < 0.05; Fig. 1e), but also compared to SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS evaluated at the same time-point. This increase in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS at 4 hpe was also observed in a time-dependent manner compared to 0 hpe. No differences were observed for the other time-points and treatments assessed (P > 0.05). This data suggested a correlation between the activation of the proinflammatory response and the CD4+ immune cell populations associated to the MPLE dietary additive.

Expression analysis of anti-inflammatory cytokines (il-10; tgf61) demonstrated levels for il-10 remained stable throughout the 24 h-study and they were not affected by the exposure of SPCC to LPS in fish group fed the control diet (P > 0.05; Fig. 1f). However, at 4 hpe a significant increase was recorded in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS compared to SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS (P < 0.05). Similarly, this up-regulation of the SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS was also registered concerning the SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS. At 12 hpe, il-10 levels in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS was still higher compared to SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS and SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS. At 24 hpe, no differences on the expression of il-10 were detected (P > 0.05). The expression of tgf61 in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS increased compared to both SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS and SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS, whereas expression levels reached basal values at 12 hpe in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS (P > 0.05). Thus, the same expression pattern observed at 4 hpe of anti-inflammatory (il-10 and tgf61) and pro-inflammatory actors of the humoral and cytokine responses, suggests that a coordinated and also intimate control of immune response takes place in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS and whose response was not perceived in SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS.

The expression of anti-oxidative stress enzymes (mn-sod; catalase) was also evaluated. The level of mn-sod was significantly up-regulated at 4 hpe in  $SPCC_{MPLE}+LPS$  compared to  $SPCC_{MPLE}+PBS$  (Fig. 1h; P < 0.05). Importantly, the expression in  $SPCC_{MPLE}+LPS$  was also higher than in  $SPCC_{CD}+LPS$  (P < 0.05). After 4 hpe, the expression values in  $SPCC_{MPLE}+LPS$  progressively decreased at 12 hpe and 24 hpe. However, mn-sod levels in  $SPCC_{MPLE}+LPS$  at 24 hpe were still higher than those recorded at 0 h (P < 0.05). A similar trend was observed in  $SPCC_{CD}+LPS$ . However, the highest significant expression

peak of mn-sod in SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS was only registered at 12 hpe (P < 0.05), then returned to basal expression levels at 24 hpe (P > 0.05).

On the other hand, the expression profile of catalase (cat) had a similar trend as was observed for mn-sod. Levels of cat in SPCC from fish fed the control diet (SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS; SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+PBS) remained stable throughout the 24 h-study (P > 0.05; Fig. 1i). The highest expression in cat was registered in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS at 4 hpe, values that were significantly higher than those recorded in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS, SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS and SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+PBS (P < 0.05). In SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS, cat expression decreased at 12 hpe (P < 0.05) and remained constant at 24 hpe (P > 0.05). In sum, the antioxidant gene expression profile suggests that a tight control of the oxidative process is produced in SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS at the same time that the peak in immune response activation (4 hpe) was registered.

Altogether, our results suggested that SPCC from gilthead seabream fed the 0.1% MPLE (SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS) showed an earlier activation and higher magnitude immune response than the observed response of the fish fed the control diet. This response seemed to be intimately regulated by both anti-inflammatory and anti-oxidant mechanisms.

## 4. Discussion

In this study, the effect of a functional diet formulated with low fishmeal levels (7%) and supplemented with 0.1% medicinal plant leaf extract from sage (*S. officinalis*) and lemon verbena (*L. citriodora*) was evaluated in terms of growth performance, non-specific humoral immune response parameters, and the expression profile of genes related to several immune processes including humoral response, pro- and anti-inflammation, and antioxidant enzymes in an *ex vivo* assay using SPCC. Our results showed that 0.1% MPLE increased the body weight and improved feed utilization (FCR) with no effects on the plasma immune parameters in gilthead seabream. Importantly, when isolated splenocytes were incubated with LPS (*ex vivo* conditions) their immune

response was activated earlier in those fish fed the 0.1% MPLE, and accompanied by regulatory mechanisms at both anti-inflammatory and anti-oxidant levels.

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Although functional diets in aquaculture are not considered as a primary strategy for promoting somatic growth, several studies have shown an improvement in growth performance when fish are fed these kinds of diets (Vallejos-Vidal et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017). Under present experimental conditions, the supplementation of a basal diet with low FM levels with 0.1% MPLE increased growth performance compared to the control diet. In particular, fish fed the diet containing the plant extracts were 8.3% heavier than the control group. Similar results were observed in rainbow trout (O. mykiss) fed with dietary inclusion of sage oils (Sönmez et al., 2014) and post-weaned piglets fed with a lemon verbena additive (Pastorelli et al., 2012). These results might be partially attributed to the potential growth-promoting effects of polyphenolic compounds like verbascoside (Chakraborty and Hancz, 2011). However, these results may also be attributed to triterpenoid compounds, among which the ursolic acid, which has been reported to promote muscular growth by hypertrophy of skeletal muscular fibers in mice (Kunkel et al., 2012) and rainbow trout (Fernández-Navarro et al., 2006). These results in terms of growth are of special relevance due to the low content of FM (7%), representing 75% of FM replacement in tested diets; thus, supporting the change of the aquaculture industry towards compound diets less dependent on wild fisheryderived raw materials (Froehlich et al., 2018).

In addition to evaluating the potential growth-promoting effects of the tested plant extract used in this study, the authors wanted to screen their potential immunomodulatory effects (Vallejos-Vidal et al., 2016). For this purpose, different humoral immune parameters were evaluated in plasma at the end of the nutritional study, as well as the immune competence of splenocytes when exposed to a PAMP, like bacterial LPS, by means of an *ex vivo* assay. The evaluation of plasmatic immune parameters (bacteriolytic and complement activities, and IgM levels) revealed no significant immunostimulant effect of the tested additive, although other studies on feed additives

derived from medicinal plants have reported increases in the activities of the above-mentioned parameters (Awad and Awaad, 2017; Harikrishnan et al., 2011; Vaseeharan and Thaya, 2014). Some authors have shown that the use of additives does not always have the expected immunological response, since the administration of natural additives showed counter-productive results (distress situation) due to the bio-energetic cost of prolonged and enhanced immune responses (Álvarez-Rodríguez et al., 2018). Furthermore, the lack of transversal standardized experimental dietary evaluation procedures impedes any comparison between the obtained results and those from the literature (Vallejos-Vidal et al., 2016). At first sight, it may seem that the tested compounds did not modulate the immunity in gilthead seabream. Thus, from these results it could be presumed that 0.1% MPLE had no effect upon the immunity. On the other hand, the results of the ex vivo study using SPCC stimulated with LPS, as described below, showed a stimulatory effect. These results may not be surprising taking into consideration that the activation of the immune response represents an important increase in energy expenditure; thus, affecting the energy budget of the organism (Aída et al., 2016). Based on these antecedents, our results suggested that the tested additive from MPLE administered at 0.1% during 92 days did not modify the status of immune homeostasis. One possible reason is that systemic humoral immune of the fish could adapt to the supplemented feed without major energetic consequences, because 92 days can be considered a long time for determining immunostimulation. Nevertheless, this basal conditioning was modified and apparently potentiated in the presence of a pathogenic stimulus, whereas under normal conditions humoral non-specific immune systems were not enhanced. Thus, new studies using other additive concentrations or shorter administration times could bring some additional light to this complex issue.

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The evaluation of the systemic immune response of gilthead seabream using an *ex vivo* trial with SPCC exposed to LPS assessed changes in gene expression of a repertoire of classical immune gene markers (Vallejos-Vidal et al., 2016). In particular, the expression of *lys* and *lgM* were upregulated at 4 hpe in SPCC from gilthead seabream fed the 0.1% MPLE diet and remained stable

until 12 hpe, whereas they returned to basal levels (0 h) at 24 hpe. A similar trend in lys expression patterns were found in SPCC from when compared to the control group, although the magnitude of increase in gene expression after LPS exposure in SPCC over the control group was significantly lower than SPCC fed the diet containing the medicinal plant extract. Lysozyme and IgM play an important role as defense molecules of the immune response. In particular, lysozyme is important in mediating protection against microbial invasion (Saurabh and Sahoo, 2008). IgM is the most common immunoglobulin in plasma and mucus and the key player in the orchestration of the systemic immune memory responses in teleosts (Parra et al., 2015). Several authors have reported increased values in the plasmatic non-specific immune response after the activation of the immune system with plant-derived immunostimulants. For instance, tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) fed a diet supplemented with the Chinese herb Astragalus radix, which is rich in polyphenols, showed a significant increase of lysozyme in serum (Yin et al., 2006), whereas Akrami et al. (Akrami et al., 2015) found an increase in serum lysozyme activity in beluga sturgeon (Huso huso) fed a diet supplemented with garlic. On the other hand, lower levels of liver lysozyme were found in gilthead sea bream fed the diets supplemented with maslinic acid, a triterpenic olive-derived (Reyes-Cerpa et al., 2018). These results were not in agreement with our findings, since even though we tried to analyze lysozyme in our plasma samples, values were below detection levels in both groups (data not presented), which supported the above-mentioned hypothesis that the tested additives had an immune homeostatic effect.

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Regarding IgM, there was an increase in IgM levels in the spleen of mice when polyphenolic compounds were administered (Oršolić et al., 2005), whereas triterpenes were found to act similarly (Jie et al., 1984). Regarding fish, Reyes-Cerpa et al. (2018) reported that Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) fed functional diets, containing different medicinal plants rich in phenolic compounds, demonstrated an up-regulation of *IgM* in the spleen that was confirmed by increases in B lymphocyte-produced antibodies in the serum. The above-mentioned results are in agreement with those obtained in our study, suggesting a potential adjuvant effect of the MPLE that may be

responsible for antibody production when SPCC were stimulated with LPS (Reyes-Cerpa et al., 2018). As it was previously mentioned, the gene expression patterns observed for *lys* and *lgM* in SPCC after their exposure to LPS did not match with the plasmatic levels of these proteins in fish fed the 0.1% MPLE. These differences could be related to the absence (because of the end of nutritional trial) or presence of LPS (*ex vivo*) and its intrinsic capacity to activate the expression of immune-related genes (Shepherd et al., 2018). The present results suggested that the administration of 0.1% MPLE potentiates the splenocytes humoral immune response in a time and magnitude-dependent manner.

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The pro-inflammatory response plays a key role in the success of control and eradication of pathogens. The current study revealed that MPLE increased the expression levels of both il-16 and tnf- $\alpha$ . IL-1 is an early secreted pro-inflammatory cytokine responsible for a cascade of effects on different members of this citokyne family that leads to signal transduction and activation of the nuclear factor (NF)-kB pathway (Engelsma et al., 2002). In addition,  $tnf-\alpha$  is one of the immune genes initially expressed at an early stage of infection in fish having a key role in the activation of macrophages/phagocytes and enhancing their microbial killing activity; thus, promoting leucocyte proliferation and migration (Hayden and Ghosh, 2014; Zou and Secombes, 2016). Two major classes of leukocytes are the CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> leukocytes; so named because of the presence on their respective cell surface of these specific markers. Among these, the CD4<sup>+</sup> leukocytes are referred to in some literature as "helper" T-lymphocytes because they aid in the regulation/activation of response by CD8<sup>+</sup> cells, or "natural killer" T-lymphocytes, through their secretion of many types of cytokines; among them IL1-β. Accordingly, our finding of an increase in the expression of cd4 suggested that the pro-inflammatory response is promoting the proliferation of CD4+ leukocyte cells in 0.1% MPLE-fed fish. The immuno-stimulatory activity of il-1 $\theta$  and tnf- $\alpha$  in response to a bacterial challenge was previously shown in carp (Cyprinus carpio) injected with recombinant il-1, resulting in an enhancement of agglutinating antibody titers against Aeromonas hydrophila (Yin and Kwang, 2000). Similarly to our results, il-18 was up-regulated in trout (O. mykiss) in a dosedependent manner in phagocytes from head kidney exposed to LPS (Zou et al., 2000) and carp (Engelsma et al., 2006) confirming its role in the regulation of the inflammatory response, as well as modulating the expression of *il-17* family members, which are important for antibacterial defense (Zou and Secombes, 2016). Under the present *ex vivo* experimental conditions, the increase of *il-16* in SPCC of gilthead sea bream fed with the tested additive and exposed to LPS may also be attributed to the coordinated response with the up-regulation of tnf- $\alpha$ . It has been reported that in rainbow trout head kidney leukocytes and monocytes/macrophages treated with recombinant TNF- $\alpha$  triggered the expression of a number of immune genes associated with inflammation, including *il-16*, *il-8*, *il-17C* and cox-2, and genes involved in antimicrobial responses (Zou et al., 2003). Thus, the up-regulated expression of *il-16* and tnf- $\alpha$  could be the result of a coordinated immune response mechanism favored by the administration of the 0.1% MPLE as a dietary additive. It is worth noting that our results showed a differential response in the up-regulation of *il-16* and tnf- $\alpha$  between the MPLE and control diets. Collectively, these results suggested that splenocytes from gilthead seabream fed the 0.1% MPLE had an increased pro-inflammatory immune activity that could likely be mediated by the proliferation of CD4+ leucocyte cells.

When assessing the immune condition, the evaluation of genes associated to the antiinflammatory response is important since they regulate and reduce the expression of proinflammatory cytokines (Reyes-Cerpa et al., 2013) when necessary, to prevent collateral damage to
host tissues and avoid wasting bioenergetic resources (Moore et al., 2001). IL-10 is an antiinflammatory cytokine and suppresses immune responses (Zou and Secombes, 2016) through its
regulatory effect upon pro-inflammatory cytokines, as it has been shown in *in vitro* studies with
goldfish (*Carassius auratus*) monocytes activated with heat-killed *Aeromonas salmonicida* then
incubated with IL-10 (Grayfer et al., 2011). The regulatory role of IL-10 has also been reported in
LPS-activated immune cell populations (neutrophils and macrophages) in carp (Piazzon et al., 2015).
Additionally, we found an up-regulation of *tgf-61*. Previous antecedents in teleost fish have
proposed an important role for this cytokine in the control of the pro-inflammatory process and

the resolution of pathogenic infective processes (Reyes-Cerpa et al., 2014; Reyes-López et al., 2015). The augmentation of expression of tgf-61 could be mediated by IL-1, as it has been reported in primary head kidney-derived macrophages (Castro et al., 2011), and appears to be mediated via the NF-B and MAPK signaling pathways (Yang et al., 2014). The regulation by tgf-61 of the LPSinduced pro-inflammatory response in grass carp (Ctenopharyngodon idella), has been previously reported (Wei et al., 2015). Present results were in agreement with those obtained by Zhan et al. (2015) where tqf-61 expression increased in the head kidney and spleen of tilapia challenged with Streptococcus agalactiae and stimulated by LPS. Thus, the up-regulation of both anti-inflammatory cytokines measured in this study, il-10 and tgf81, confirmed the anti-inflammatory properties of verbascoside (Alipieva et al., 2014) and ursolic acid (Baricevic et al., 2001), while at the same time stimulating some pro-inflammatory responses, such that it is likely that a balanced immune response was maintained. These data suggested that the splenocytes from fish fed the 0.1% MPLE diet exerted a tight control of the immune response to LPS by means of the up-regulation of antiinflammatory cytokines at the same time-point (4 hpe) where the pro-inflammatory response peaked. Overall, immune protection was thereby established, and potentially improved, with a general homoeostasis being maintained.

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) compose an important defense mechanism involved in the activation of the immune response including the activation of T cells (Chen et al., 2018). However, the imbalance of ROS, which can be a cause of oxidative stress, has been associated to aberrant immunity (Chen et al., 2018). Thus, several cellular self-protective mechanisms against this potential damage should also be tightly regulated during an immune response to prevent collateral damage. In this way, *mn-sod* and *cat* are two enzymes involved in the cellular defense against uncontrolled oxidative processes and catalyze the reduction of superoxide radicals and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Otto and Moon, 1996). To minimize the damaging effects of ROS, these two antioxidant enzymes have related functions and are considered as the first line of defense against oxygen toxicity due to their inhibitory effects on oxygen radical formation (Li et al., 2009; Pandey et al., 2003). Furthermore,

the presence of phenolic compounds in sage and lemon verbena have been reported to be responsible for the high antioxidant and antibacterial capacity of these medicinal plants (Bulfon et al., 2014; Funes et al., 2009). Results from the current study were in agreement with the above-mentioned findings, as changes in levels of *mn-sod* and *cat* expression by SPCC exposed to LPS occurred as a response by fish fed the 0.1% MPLE diet. These data suggested that fish fed with 0.1% MPLE had an increased *redox* capacity related to the presence of triterpenic (Rufino-Palomares et al., 2011) and polyphenolic (Sönmez et al., 2014) compounds, protecting against reactive oxygen species and stimulation of the antioxidant defenses of the organism (John et al., 2001).

Despite the potential benefits of the tested MPLE obtained from sage and lemon verbena in terms of growth performance and immunostimulatory properties reported in the current study, verbascoside extracted from *Kigelia africana* has been reported to promote genotoxicity in human lymphocytes (Santoro et al., 2008). However, our study demonstrated that the long administration of a feed additive containing verbascoside at low levels (0.002%) had no toxic effects in gilthead sea bream. These results were in agreement to other studies in different animal models that reported that this compound posed no risk on animal health (Etemad et al., 2015, 2016; Perucatti et al., 2018 among others).

## 5. Conclusions

In summary, present data suggest that the inclusion of a medicinal plant leaf extract obtained from sage and lemon verbena at 0.1% in diets with low FM levels not only promoted somatic growth and reduced FCR values in gilthead seabream, but also enhanced their systemic immune response as indicated by changes in gene expression of a repertoire of markers in an *ex vivo* trial using SPCC exposed to LPS. However, the above-mentioned effects were not seen in bacteriolityc, complement activities, and/or IgM levels in plasma, which may indicate, in comparison to other immunostimulants, a very tight control of the immune status mediated by the tested compounds

(immune homeostasis), that functions well with the host strategy to save energy for metabolic purposes when no real immune response is needed. Altogether, the up-regulation of genes involved in non-specific immune response (lys, lgM), as well as pro- (tnf- $\alpha$ , il- $1\beta$ ) and anti-inflammatory (tgf- $\beta$ 1, il10) cytokines, surface T-cell marker cd4, and antioxidative stress enzymes (mn-sod, cat) indicated that the tested feed additive, rich in triterpenic and polyphenolic compounds, mainly ursolic acid and verbascoside, has immunomodulatory properties that can be useful for incorporation in aquafeeds.

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Table 1. List of ingredients and proximal composition of experimental diets.

Ingredients, %	Control diet	MPLE diet
Fishmeal LT70	7.0	7.0
Soy protein concentrate	21.0	21.0
Pea protein concentrate	12.0	12.0
Wheat gluten	12.0	12.0
Corn gluten	12.0	12.0
Soybean meal 48	5.0	5.0
Wheat meal	10.4	10.4
Fish oil (SAVINOR)	15.0	15.0
Vitamin and mineral Premix PV01	1.0	1.0
Soy lecithin - Powder	1.0	1.0
Binder (guar gum)	1.0	1.0
MCP	2.0	2.0
L-Lysine	0.3	0.3
L-Tryptophan	0.1	0.1
DL-Methionine	0.2	0.2
MPLE	-	0.1
Proximate composition		
Crude protein, %	48.37	48.37
Crude fat, %	17.19	17.21
Fiber, %	1.52	1.52
Ash, %	5.88	5.88
Gross Energy, MJ/kg	21.62	21.62

Abbreviation: MPLE, medicinal plant leaf extract obtained from sage (*Salvia officinalis*) and lemon verbena (*Lippia citriodora*).

Table 2. Sequence of primers used in real-time PCR analysis.

Gene name	Acronym	Accession no.	Sequence 5'→3'	Amplification efficiency (%)	
Q Actin	в-actin	X89920	FW: TCCTGCGGAATCCATGAGA	1.99	
β-Actin			RV: GACGTCGCACTTCATGATGCT		
Lycozymo	lys	AM749959.1	FW: TCATCGCTGCCATCATCTCC	1.96	
Lysozyme	iys		RV: TGTTCCTCACTGTCCCATGC	1.90	
Immunoglobulin M	igm	JQ811851.1	FW: GATCGTGACATCGTCTGAGG	2.01	
iiiiiidiiogiobuiiii ivi	igili		RV: TGTTGGGTTGTGGTTGTAGG		
Interleukin 1β	il16	AJ277166.2	FW: TCAGCACCGCAGAAGAAAC	1.99	
interieukin 1p	1110		RV: TAACACTCTCCACCCTCCAC	1.99	
Tumour necrosis factor alpha	tnf-α	AJ413189	FW: CAGGCGTCGTTCAGAGTCTC	1.99	
rumour necrosis factor alpha			RV: CTGTGGCTGAGAGGTGTGTG		
CD4 molecule	cd4	AM489485.1	FW: TAGCGGAAAGTGGAGGTGTG	2.00	
CD4 molecule		AIVI469465.1	RV: GCCTGGGGTGTCTCATCTTC	2.00	
Interleukin 10	il10	JX976621.1	FW: GAGCGTGGAGGAATCTTTCAA	2.01	
interieukiii 10			RV: GATCTGCTGGATGGACTGC	2.01	
Transforming growth factor Beta 1	tgf61	AF424703.1	FW: AGACCCTTCAGAACTGGCTC	1.95	
Transforming growth factor beta 1			RV: ACTGCTTTGTCTCCCCTACC	1.33	
Manganese superoxide dismutase	mn-sod	JQ308833.1	FW: CCTGACCTGACCTACGACTATGG	1.97	
ivialiganese superoxide districtase			RV: AGTGCCTCCTGATATTTCTCCTCTG	1.97	
Catalase	cat	JQ308823	FW: TGGTCGAGAACTTGAAGGCTGTC	2.01	
Catalase			RV: AGGACGCAGAAATGGCAGAGG	2.01	

Table 3. Survival, growth performance and feed efficiency parameters in gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) fed experimental diets. Values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 4 tanks). Different letters denote statistical significant differences among groups (t-test, P < 0.05).

Q	1	6
$\mathbf{c}$	4	v

	Control diet	Control diet + 0.1% MPLE
Survival (%)	98.0 ± 1.0	99.0 ± 0.8
BW <sub>i</sub> (g)	26.0 ± 0.2	26.0 ± 0.2
BW <sub>f</sub> (g)	173.8 ± 8.2 a	189.6 ± 5.0 b
SL <sub>f</sub> (cm)	18.8 ± 0.32	19.2 ± 0.20
Fulton's condition factor (K)	2.65 ± 0.04	2.68 ± 0.03
SGR (% day <sup>-1</sup> )	2.16 ± 0.004 a	2.26 ± 0.002 b
FCR	1.23 ± 0.04 b	1.10 ± 0.04 a

Abbreviation: MPLE, medicinal plant leaf extract obtained from sage (*Salvia officinalis*) and lemon verbena (*Lippia citriodora*).

**Table 4.** Levels of protein immunoglobulin M (IgM) and complement and bacteriolytic activities measured in gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) plasma fed experimental diets. Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM [n = 4; calculated from the mean of each tank (n =5 fish per tank)]. No significant differences were registered (t-test; P > 0.05)

	Control diet	Control diet + 0.1% MPLE
Protein IgM ( $\Delta$ O.D. at $\lambda$ = 450 nm)	0.55 ± 0.06	0.66 ± 0.06
Complement activity ( $\Delta$ O.D. at $\lambda$ = 540 nm)	94.85 ± 50.8	122.5 ± 50.0
Bacteriolytic activity (ACH <sub>50</sub> U ml <sup>-1</sup> )	81.16 ± 0.66	80.39 ± 0.32

Abbreviation: MPLE, medicinal plant leaf extract obtained from sage (*Salvia officinalis*) and lemon verbena (*Lippia citriodora*); O.D. = optical density; ACH<sub>50</sub> = volume of plasma producing 50% haemolysis (P > 0.05).

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Figure 1. Normalized relative expression (NRE) of immune-related genes in gilthead seabream (Sparus aurata) after 92 days of feeding with experimental diets.. The expression of lys, cd4, lqM, il-16, tnf- $\alpha$ , il-10, tgf61, sod and cat was evaluated in splenocytes primary cell culture (SPCC) isolated from gilthead sea breams at 4, 12 and 24 h after exposure to PBS or LPS. Yellow bar: PBStreated splenocytes from gilthead sea bream fed with control diet (SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+PBS). Green bars: LPStreated splenocytes from gilthead sea bream fed with control diet (SPCC<sub>CD</sub>+LPS). Blue bars: PBStreated splenocytes from gilthead sea bream fed with 0.1% UA-VB diet (SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+PBS). Black bars: LPS-treated splenocytes from gilthead sea bream fed with 0.1% UA-VB diet (SPCC<sub>MPLE</sub>+LPS). The time 0 h corresponds to the basal state prior to the beginning of the treatment. Statistical analysis: Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. Asterisk (\*) represents significant differences between LPS treatments at the same time-point evaluated; (\*\*) represents significant differences between cells treated with PBS and LPS within the same diet and time-point evaluated; different letters (a, b and c) represent significant differences between the control diet and different post-exposure times with LPS (P < 0.05). Different letters (x, y and z) represent significant differences between the 0.1% UA-VB diet at different post-exposure times with LPS (P < 0.05). Abbreviations: MPLE, medicinal plant leaf extract obtained from sage (Salvia officinalis) and lemon verbena (Lippia citriodora); il-16, interleukin 1 beta;  $tnf-\alpha$ , tumor necrosis factor alpha; il-10, interleukin 10; tgf61, transforming growth factor beta 1; cd4, cluster of differentiation 4; mn-sod, manganese superoxide dismutase; cat: catalase.

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