

In vitro inhibitory activities of magnolol against *Candida* spp.

Peiru Zhou¹

Jingya Fu²

Hong Hua¹

Xiaosong Liu¹

¹Department of Oral Medicine, Peking University School and Hospital of Stomatology, ²Department of Stomatology, Peking University International Hospital, Beijing, People's Republic of China

Abstract: *Candida* spp. cause various infections involving the skin, mucosa, deep tissues, and even life-threatening candidemia. They are regarded as an important pathogen of nosocomial bloodstream infection, with a high mortality rate. As a result of prolonged exposure to azoles, the therapeutic failure associated with azoles resistance has become a serious challenge in clinical situations. Therefore, novel, alternative antifungals are required urgently. In the present study, the CLSI M-27A broth microdilution method and the 2,3-Bis-(2-methoxy-4-nitro-5-sulfophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium-5-carboxanilide (XTT) reduction assay were used to evaluate the antifungal effects of magnolol against various standard *Candida* strains in planktonic mode and biofilm formation, respectively. The antifungal activity of magnolol was demonstrated in planktonic *C. albicans* and non-albicans *Candida* species, especially fluconazole-resistant *Candida krusei*, with the minimum inhibitory concentrations ranging from 10 to 40 µg/mL. The BMIC₉₀ (minimum concentration with 90% *Candida* biofilm inhibited) values of magnolol ranged from 20 to 160 µg/mL, whereas the BMIC₉₀ values of fluconazole were more than 128 µg/mL. As an alternative and broad-spectrum antifungal agent, magnolol might be of benefit to the treatment of refractory *Candida* infection.

Keywords: magnolol, inhibition, *Candida* spp., biofilm

Introduction

The genus *Candida*, an opportunistic pathogen, is prone to attack immunocompromised hosts or those with debilities, causing the infection of the skin, mucosa, deep-tissues, or even the life-threatening candidemia.¹ With the use of potent antibiotics; immunosuppressive and cytotoxic agents; and implanted devices, as well as prolonged intensive care unit stays, the risk of *Candida*-associated nosocomial infections is increasing remarkably. According to a survey from the US National Nosocomial Infections Surveillance System, *Candida* species are the fourth most common cause of nosocomial bloodstream infection, with a mortality rate of 35%.²

Azoles, such as fluconazole and itraconazole, are the most frequently prescribed antifungals in candidiasis therapy, which destroy the cellular structures of fungi by inhibiting the biosynthesis of membranous ergosterol.³ However, long-term or repeat exposure to azoles in refractory infection can induce the emergence of resistant strains.⁴ Among *C. albicans* isolates from candidemia patients and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-positive patients with oropharyngeal candidiasis, 0%–4.3% and 9.5% were reported to be fluconazole resistant, respectively.^{5–8} In recent years, the incidence of infections caused by non-albicans *Candida* species (NACS), including *C. glabrata*, *C. dubliniensis*, and *C. krusei*, increased.⁹ Approximately 26% of *Candida* bloodstream infections investigated in the USA were attributed to *C. glabrata*,¹⁰ and

Correspondence: Xiaosong Liu
Department of Oral Medicine, Peking University School and Hospital of Stomatology, 22 Zhongguancun Avenue South, Haidian District, Beijing 100081, People's Republic of China
Tel +86 10 8219 5349
Email liusarah@126.com

1.5%–32% of HIV-positive populations were infected with *C. dubliniensis*.^{11,12} Azoles-induced *Candida* species screening is responsible for the increased infection by NACS. Under the stress of azoles, the species susceptible to azoles are inhibited, leaving the resistant species to grow richer.¹³ *C. krusei* is intrinsically azoles-resistant, while the resistance of *C. glabrata* may be acquired. Their ability to take up exogenous sterols allows *C. glabrata* to grow in the presence of azoles.¹⁴ Despite *C. dubliniensis* being mostly sensitive to azoles, it can develop azole resistance during antifungal treatment.¹⁵ The incidence was reported to be 23% in HIV-positive individuals.¹⁶ Therefore, a novel, alternative agent is needed against a broad range of fungi.

Magnolol, a lignin compound, was extracted initially in the 1930s from the dried bark of the stem, root, or branch of the traditional Chinese medicinal plant *Magnolia officinalis*. Previous studies demonstrated that magnolol could inhibit the growth of *Helicobacter pylori* remarkably,¹⁷ as well as other pathogens localized in the oral cavity, including *Streptococcus mutans*,¹⁸ *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, and *Prevotella intermedia*.¹⁹ The inhibitory activities of magnolol against *Cryptococcus neoformans*, *Aspergillus niger*, and *C. albicans* were also demonstrated.^{18,20} Nevertheless, NACS-associated infections have increased notably, and the effect of magnolol on NACS, especially the resistant species, remains unclear. Therefore, in this study, the activities of magnolol against various *Candida* spp. were evaluated in planktonic mode and in biofilm formation.

Materials and methods

Organisms and culture condition

Five different standard strains of *C. albicans* (ATCC90028), *C. krusei* (ATCC6258), *C. dubliniensis* (MYA646), *C. glabrata* (ATCC90030), and *C. parapsilosis* (ATCC22019), obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC)

(Manassas, VA, USA), were used in the study. *C. parapsilosis* (ATCC22019) was used as a quality control isolate.

All yeasts were cultured aerobically on Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA) plates (BioMérieux Industry Co. Ltd., Shanghai, China) for 48 h at 37°C, and stored at 4°C ready for use.

Drug preparation

Commercial powders of magnolol and fluconazole (Figure 1) were obtained from the National Institutes for Food and Drug Control (Beijing, China). The purity was measured by high-performance liquid chromatography and determined to be about 98.8% for magnolol, 99.8% for fluconazole. The drugs were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (Sigma-Aldrich Co., St Louis, MI, USA), and stored at a concentration of 1.28×10^5 µg/mL for magnolol, and 1.28×10^4 µg/mL for fluconazole, at -80°C.

Antifungal activity of magnolol against planktonic *Candida* cells

Susceptibility testing of planktonic yeast cells to magnolol was performed following the CLSI M-27A broth micro-dilution method.²¹ The frozen magnolol solution was thawed and diluted in Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) 1640 medium (containing L-glutamine) (Life Technologies Co., Madison, WI, USA), which was buffered to pH =7.0 using 0.165 M 3-morpholinopropane-1-sulfonic acid (Sigma-Aldrich Co.). The magnolol solution (100 µL of a 2-fold dilution) was pipetted into each well of a 96-well microtiter plate. The final concentration of magnolol ranged from 2.5 to 1,280 µg/mL.

Fresh yeast cells were harvested and washed twice with PBS (pH =7.2). Yeast suspensions at 1×10^4 cells/mL were prepared using RPMI 1640 medium. Aliquots of 100 µL of the yeast suspension was inoculated into each well containing the magnolol solution, and incubated for 48 h at 37°C. The

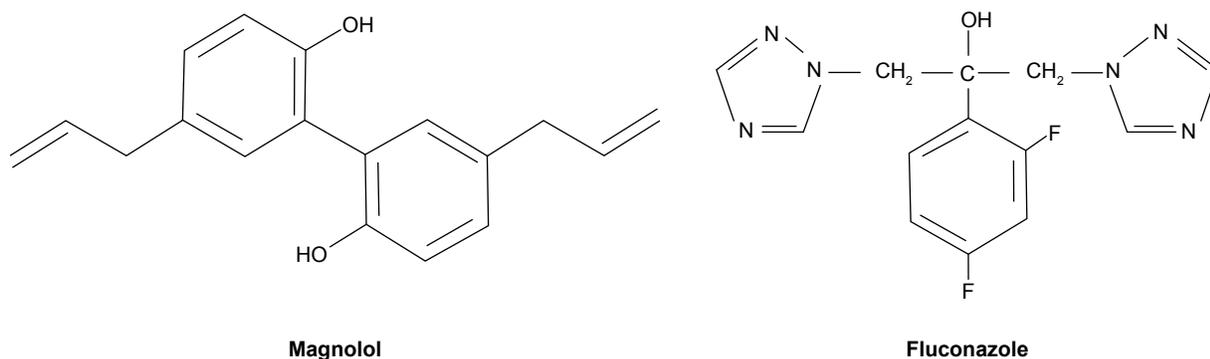


Figure 1 Structures of magnolol and fluconazole.

minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) was determined on visual inspection. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration, at which no yeast could be seen to grow. The experiment was performed in triplicate.

As a positive control, the MICs of fluconazole against the planktonic yeasts were determined in parallel, and the final concentration of fluconazole ranged from 0.25 to 128 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$.

Preparation of standard yeast suspensions for biofilm studies

Yeast cells were grown on an SDA plate for 18 h at 37°C. A loopful of the yeast was then inoculated into yeast nitrogen base medium (YNB, Beijing Solarbio Science and Technology Co., Ltd., Beijing, China) supplemented with 50 mM glucose in an orbital shaker at 80 rpm. After overnight incubation, the yeast cells were harvested. After washing twice in PBS, yeast suspensions at 1×10^7 cells/mL were prepared in YNB (pH = 7.0) medium containing 100 mM glucose.

Biofilm formation

A previously described method was used for *Candida* biofilm formation.²² Briefly, aliquots of 100 μL of the standard yeast suspensions were pipetted into each well of polystyrene microtiter plates and incubated for 90 min at 37°C in a shaker at 80 rpm, which allowed the yeast cells to attach to the well surface. Thereafter, the yeast suspensions were aspirated, and each well was washed gently with 100 μL of sterilized PBS. Following the pipetting of 200 μL of YNB medium supplemented with 100 mM glucose into each well, 4 μL of 2-fold dilutions of magnolol solutions were added to each well, the final concentrations of magnolol ranged from 5 to 2,560 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$. The microtiter plates were subsequently incubated at 37°C in a shaker at 80 rpm. After 6, 12, 24, or 48 h of incubation, the yeast suspensions were aspirated. The 4 time-points were set up based on the developmental phases during the period of *Candida* biofilm formation. Each well was washed twice with sterilized PBS to remove unattached cells.

The influence of fluconazole on *Candida* biofilm production was also studied, and the final concentration of fluconazole ranged from 0.25 to 128 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$.

XTT reduction assay

This assay was used to determine the biofilm activity by measuring the reduction of 2,3-Bis-(2-methoxy-4-nitro-5-sulfophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium-5-carboxanilide (XTT).²³ XTT (Sigma-Aldrich Co.) was dissolved in PBS at 1 mg/mL.

After sterilization through a 0.22- μm filter, the XTT solution was stored at -80°C until use. Menadione (0.4 mM; Sigma-Aldrich Co.) was prepared in acetone immediately before the assay. Before each assay, the thawed XTT solution was mixed with the menadione solution at a ratio of 5 to 1 by volume. Following the prewash, 200 μL of XTT-menadione-PBS reagent was added to each well containing adherent yeast cells, and incubated in the dark. Three hours later, 100 μL of the supernatant in each well was transferred to new wells. The color of the supernatants in each well was measured using a microplate reader (model: EL \times 808) (BioTek Instruments, Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) at 490 nm. The absorbance value of each solution was read as the optical density (OD) value. The experiment was performed in triplicate and the average result was used. The yeast suspension without drug was regarded as the drug-free control.

The BMIC_{90} was defined as the minimum concentration with 90% *Candida* biofilm inhibited, of which produced 90% reduction of OD value compared with the drug-free control.

Result

Antifungal activity of magnolol against planktonic *Candida* cells by broth microdilution

Magnolol demonstrated in vitro inhibitory activities against planktonic *C. albicans*, as well as non-*albicans Candida*, in terms of their MICs (Figure 2). Of the tested strains, *C. dubliniensis* was most susceptible to magnolol, with a MIC of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, followed by *C. glabrata* with a MIC of 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, and *C. albicans* with a MIC of 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, which was equal to that of *C. krusei* (Table 1).

Corresponding to the standard recommended by National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS) [21], fluconazole showed antifungal activities against *C. albicans*, *C. dubliniensis*, and *C. glabrata* with MICs of 0.25, 0.5, and 2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, respectively, while *C. krusei* was resistant to fluconazole, with a MIC of 32 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$.

Inhibitory effects of magnolol on *Candida* biofilm formation by the XTT reduction assay

Magnolol was remarkably effective at inhibiting *Candida* spp. biofilm formation compared with fluconazole. At the mature-stage of biofilm (48 h), the BMIC_{90} of magnolol against *C. albicans* was 160 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$. *C. dubliniensis* and *C. glabrata* were more susceptible to magnolol, with the BMIC_{90} values of 20 and 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, respectively. Even

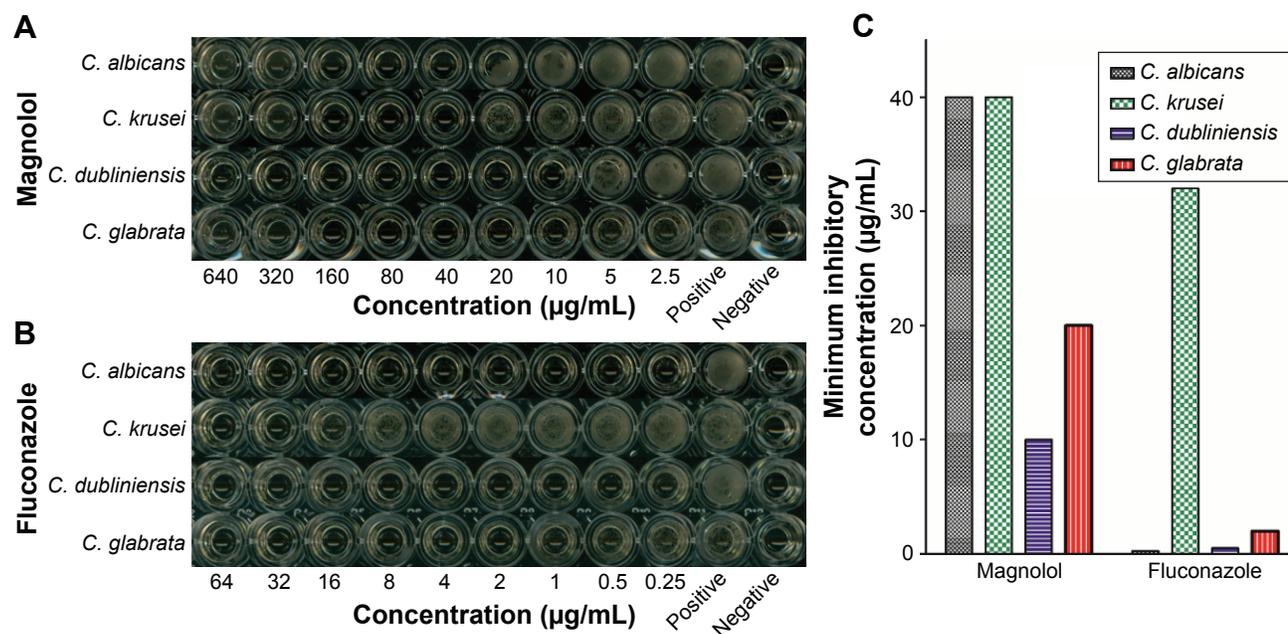


Figure 2 The inhibitory effects of magnolol on planktonic-mode *Candida* cells using the CLSI M-27A broth microdilution method.

Notes: The quantity of *Candida* cells was reduced as the drug concentrations of the wells increased. At the MICs or over, no yeast cells were observed to grow. **(A)** Results for magnolol; **(B)** results for fluconazole; **(C)** the MICs of magnolol and fluconazole for *C. albicans*, *C. krusei*, *C. dubliniensis*, and *C. glabrata*.

Abbreviation: MICs, minimum inhibitory concentrations.

C. krusei, the fluconazole-resistant strain, demonstrated sensitivity to magnolol, with a BMIC₉₀ of 80 µg/mL. In comparison, fluconazole showed higher BMIC₉₀ values for all strains, at over 128 µg/mL. No definitive values were identified because of the restricted concentrations of fluconazole used in the study (0.25–128 µg/mL) (Table 1).

Compared with the planktonic-mode, the BMIC₉₀ values of fluconazole increased by 4–500 times against 48 h yeast-biofilms, changing from 0.25 to 32 µg/mL to over 128 µg/mL. By contrast, the BMIC₉₀ values of magnolol ranged from 20 to 160 µg/mL for the 4 *Candida* spp., which were only 2–4 times higher than the MICs in planktonic form (ranging from 0.25 to 32 µg/mL; Table 1).

Based on the developmental phases during the period of *Candida* biofilm formation, 4 different time-points were chosen to evaluate the effect of magnolol on *Candida* biofilm formation. All yeast strains were most vulnerable to magnolol at the maturation age of 12 h. The BMIC₉₀ of *C. albicans* was

20 µg/mL, *C. krusei*, *C. dubliniensis* and *C. glabrata* were all 10 µg/mL. With the maturation of the biofilms, the BMIC₉₀ values showed a tendency to increase (Figure 3), changing from 10 to 20 µg/mL to 20–80 µg/mL (from 12 to 24 h). With the exception of *C. albicans*, the BMIC₉₀ values of the other strains reached a high level, which was maintained until 48 h. From 12 to 48 h of biofilm development, the BMIC₉₀ of *C. albicans* continued to increase. This result suggested that the inhibitory effect of magnolol on yeast biofilm production reached a peak at around 12 h, which coincided with the start of maturation, after which, the yeast biofilm became more tolerant to magnolol (Figure 3).

Using the XTT reduction assay, the biofilm metabolic activities of the *Candida* strains were identified by the microplate reader in terms of absorbance (OD_{490nm}) (Figure 4). At the 4 time-points observed, the decreases in absorbance correlated with the increasing magnolol concentrations. After 6 h of culture, the metabolic activities of the strains

Table 1 Activities of magnolol against planktonic-mode and 48-h biofilm production of various *Candida* spp.

	Planktonic-mode (MIC, µg/mL)				Biofilm (BMIC ₉₀ , µg/mL)			
	<i>C. albicans</i>	<i>C. krusei</i>	<i>C. dubliniensis</i>	<i>C. glabrata</i>	<i>C. albicans</i>	<i>C. krusei</i>	<i>C. dubliniensis</i>	<i>C. glabrata</i>
Magnolol	40	40	10	20	160	80	20	40
Fluconazole	0.25	32	0.5	2	>128	>128	>128	>128

Notes: MIC is the minimum concentration of the drugs that inhibited 100% of the yeast growth on visual inspection. BMIC₉₀ is the minimum concentration of the drugs that produced 90% reduction of optical density value compared with the drug-free control.

Abbreviations: MIC, minimum inhibitory concentration; BMIC₉₀, the minimum concentration with 90% *Candida* biofilm inhibited.

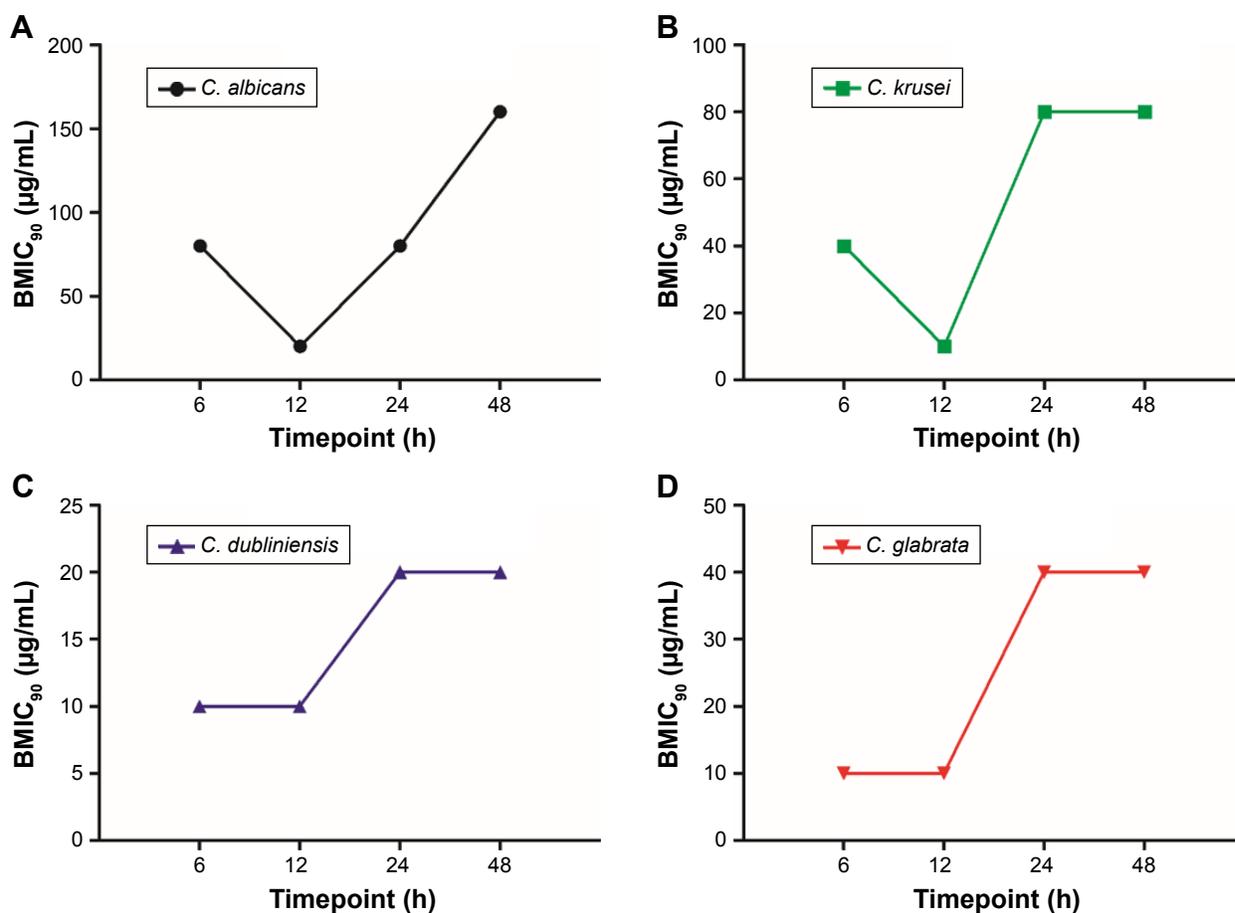


Figure 3 Inhibitory activities of magnolol against *Candida* biofilm formation at different time-points using the XTT reduction assay.

Notes: (A) *C. albicans*; (B) *C. krusei*; (C) *C. dubliniensis*; (D) *C. glabrata*.

Abbreviations: BMIC₉₀, the minimum concentration with 90% *Candida* biofilm inhibited; XTT, 2,3-Bis-(2-methoxy-4-nitro-5-sulphophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium-5-carboxanilide.

except for *C. albicans*, decreased rapidly. At 12 h, greatly reduced metabolic activity was observed in all strains. Thereafter, the rate of decline slowed in all strains. This result implied that the fungicidal efficacy of magnolol was relatively high up to 12 h.

Discussion

Magnolol, the major chemical compound purified from the traditional Chinese medicinal plant *M. officinalis*, has been demonstrated to have various pharmacological functions in the treatment of illness, including antianxiety,²⁴ analgesic,²⁵ smooth muscle relaxing,²⁶ anti-tumorigenic,²⁷ and antimicrobial activities. Magnolol is active against Gram-positive and acid-fast bacteria,^{17–19} *H. pylori*, and *Propionibacterium acne*.¹⁷ By reducing the secretion of IL-8 and TNF- α induced by *P. acne*, magnolol may exhibit anti-inflammatory effects.²⁸ The inhibitory effects of magnolol against clinical isolates of *C. albicans* are remarkable, with the MIC values ranging from 16 to 32 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.^{18,20} It was confirmed in the present

study using the planktonic standard strain of *C. albicans* (ATCC90028), in which the MIC of magnolol was 40 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. Besides *C. albicans*, the potent antifungal effects of magnolol for NACS, including *C. krusei*, *C. dubliniensis*, and *C. glabrata* in the planktonic form, were determined with MICs ranging from 10 to 40 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. *C. krusei* is intrinsically fluconazole-resistant, and *C. dubliniensis*,¹⁵ *C. glabrata*,¹⁴ and *C. albicans*²⁹ may develop fluconazole-resistance in clinical antifungal therapy. Fluconazole targets mainly membranous ergosterol. Therefore, mutations of the ergosterol biosynthesis gene, *Erg11*, and the overexpression of drug efflux pumps Mdr1p and Cdr1p/Cdr2p, are responsible for fluconazole resistance in *C. albicans*.³⁰ In *C. glabrata*, the resistance to fluconazole is attributed to its ability to take up exogenous sterols instead of the altered cell membrane sterols. On the other hand, mutations in the *Pdr1* gene are also involved in fluconazole resistance of *C. glabrata*.³¹ Although the precise mechanism is unclear, *C. krusei* is considered to resist fluconazole via the efflux pump activity,³² as well

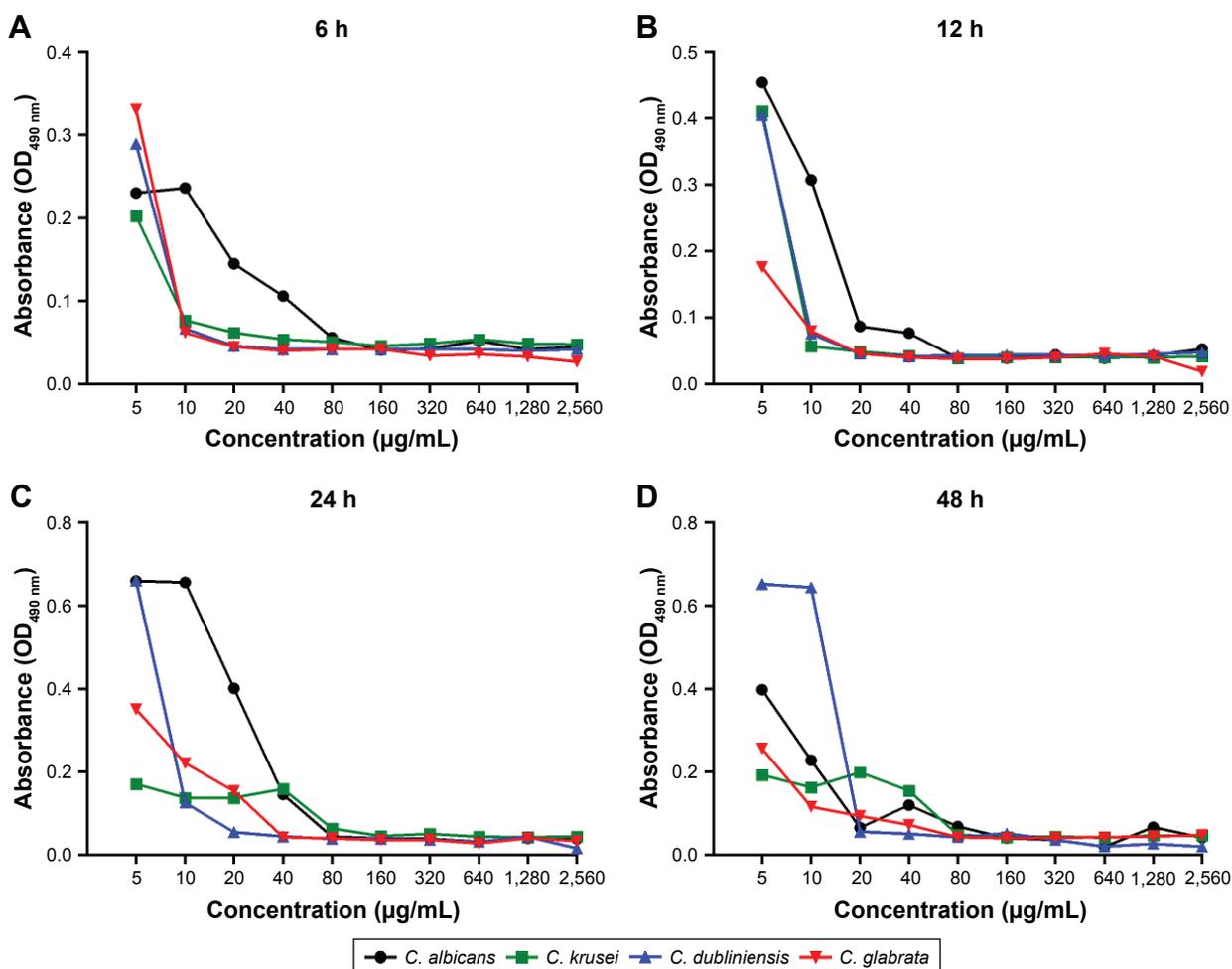


Figure 4 Influence of different concentrations of magnolol on *Candida* biofilm activity during biofilm maturation, as assessed by the XTT reduction assay.

Note: Assessed at 6 (A), 12 (B), 24 (C), and 48 (D) h.

Abbreviation: OD, optical density.

as the reduced azole affinity for Erg11p.³³ In this regard, our data suggested that magnolol had a broad antifungal spectrum mechanism that differs from that of fluconazole. Membranous ergosterol may be not the target of magnolol, or at least, not the only one.

In recent years, although *C. albicans* is still the predominant cause of candidiasis, NACS-associated infections have increased notably. *C. glabrata* is isolated frequently from patients with vulvovaginal or urinary candidiasis because of its affinity for epithelial cells of the vagina³³ and urethra.³⁴ Its rapid dissemination throughout the body contributes to *C. glabrata*'s increasing prevalence in candidemia cases.³⁵ In the USA, *C. krusei* was responsible for 2.7% of NACS-associated infections.³⁶ It is considered an important risk factor causing *Candida* infection among patients with hematological malignancies and bone marrow transplants.³⁷ *C. dubliniensis* was either the second or the

third most commonly identified pathogenic fungi in patients with HIV/AIDS,^{38,39} and was associated with 2%–7% of candidemia cases.^{40,41} In oral infections, *C. glabrata* or *C. krusei* was responsible for 42% of Sjogren's syndrome cases combined with oral candidiasis.⁴² For this reason, as an alternative antifungal agent, magnolol may potentially benefit the treatment of NACS-associated infections, particularly the infection caused by the azoles-resistant species.

In nature, most microorganisms prefer growth in the form of biofilm, in which one or more other species are embedded within an extracellular matrix (ECM), comprising a complex community.⁴³ Approximately 65% of all clinical infections are biofilm-associated.⁴⁴ A biofilm is significantly less susceptible to antimicrobial agents, being 10–1,000 times more resistant to antimicrobial agents than the planktonic form.⁴⁵ Notably, the concentrations of magnolol required in

the present study to reduce 90% of metabolic activity were just 2 to 4 times higher for biofilms than for planktonic cells, whereas the concentrations of fluconazole required increased by 4 to 500 times. Moreover, magnolol was more active than fluconazole in inhibiting biofilm formation of *Candida* spp. for the BMIC_{90} values for fluconazole were all $>128 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for *C. albicans*, *C. krusei*, *C. dubliniensis*, and *C. glabrata*, whereas the BMIC_{90} values for magnolol ranged from 20 to $160 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for them. Despite the BMIC_{90} of magnolol against *C. albicans* being $160 \mu\text{g/mL}$, the other isolates were more susceptible, with BMIC_{90} values in the range of 20–80 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, whereas the BMIC_{90} of fluconazole against all strains were over $128 \mu\text{g/mL}$.

Multiple mechanisms are responsible for biofilm-associated resistance, including drug efflux pumps, delayed penetration of the antimicrobial agent through the biofilm matrix, decrease of growth rate or cell metabolism.^{46,47} Fluconazole-associated resistance attributes to the overexpression of drug efflux pumps genes *Mdr1* and *Cdr1/Cdr2*, as well as the alteration of ergosterol biosynthesis pathway.⁴⁸ However, a different mechanism of magnolol from fluconazole could be indicated because of a broad antifungal range of magnolol against *Candida* spp., including intrinsic fluconazole-resistant isolate. Few studies focus on the antifungal mechanisms of magnolol. In the report of Sun et al magnolol was considered to inhibit *C. albicans* biofilm formation through decreasing the yeasts' adhesive and morphological transitional abilities, and its fungicidal capabilities.²⁰ In addition, cell wall component β -1,3-glucan may also be a target of magnolol as echinocandin family antifungals.⁴⁹ Levels of β -1,3-glucan on *Candida* cell walls as well as in ECM were significantly elevated in biofilm-form than in planktonic-mode, which may benefit the biofilm fluconazole-resistance.⁵⁰ Moreover, since magnolol was demonstrated to take effect around the cellular logarithmic phase in the present study, the inhibitory effects of cell growth may also be a possible mechanism of magnolol against biofilm formation. However, further studies are needed.

Candida biofilm formation involves several specific stages: 1) The early phase (60–90 min). In this stage, round yeast cells adhere to the substrate; 2) The developmental phase: attached cells proliferate to form a basal layer, and biofilm formation begins; 3) The biofilm maturation stage: complex layers of polymorphic cells develop and become encased in an ECM (24 h); 4) The dispersal stage: some round yeast cells disperse from the biofilm to seed new sites.⁵¹ In the different developmental stages, the biofilm

has different biological behaviors. With the maturation of the biofilm, *Candida* spp. cells exhibited increased tolerance to magnolol. To obtain 90% biofilm reduction, increased amounts of magnolol were required. In the present study, the lowest dosage of magnolol required was at around 12 h of culture, after which the BMIC_{90} values started to increase remarkably. It is reasonable to assume that magnolol attacks yeast cells in the logarithmic phase (16–18 h) when the cells are sensitive to environmental changes.⁵² Using the XTT reduction assay, the biofilm metabolic activity of *Candida* spp. was assessed. Our data showed that with the increasing magnolol concentrations, the metabolic activities of the biofilms decreased. The reduction proceeded through the course of biofilm formation, which suggested that the effects of magnolol on *Candida* spp. biofilm formation were concentration-dependent.

In summary, in contrast to fluconazole, the antifungal spectrum of magnolol was broad. Various *Candida* spp., including *C. albicans*, *C. krusei*, *C. dubliniensis*, and *C. glabrata* were susceptible to magnolol, both in planktonic mode and biofilm form. Magnolol was more active than fluconazole at inhibiting biofilm formation of *Candida* spp. The effect was concentration-dependent, and might act during the logarithmic phase of yeast growth. As an alternative antifungal agent, magnolol might be beneficial to treat NACS-associated infections, particularly those caused by azoles-resistant species. Nevertheless, the safety and the antifungal effect in vivo require further evaluation.

Acknowledgment

This study was supported by the Natural Science Foundation of China (grant number 81670991).

Disclosure

The authors report no conflict of interest in this work.

References

1. Guinea J. Global trends in the distribution of *Candida* species causing candidemia. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2014;20(Suppl 6):5–10.
2. Calderone RA. Introduction and historical perspectives. In: Calderone RA, editor. *Candida and Candidiasis*. Washington, DC: ASM Press; 2002:3–13.
3. Odds FC, Brown AJ, Gow NA. Antifungal agents: mechanisms of action. *Trends Microbiol.* 2003;11(6):272–279.
4. White TC, Marr KA, Bowden RA. Clinical, cellular, and molecular factors that contribute to antifungal drug resistance. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 1998; 11(2):382–402.
5. Enwuru CA, Ogunludun A, Idika N, et al. Fluconazole resistant opportunistic oro-pharyngeal *Candida* and non-*Candida* yeast-like isolates from HIV infected patients attending ARV clinics in Lagos, Nigeria. *Afr Health Sci.* 2008;8(3):142–148.

6. Diekema D, Arbefeville S, Boyken L, Kroeger J, Pfaller M. The changing epidemiology of healthcare-associated candidemia over three decades. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2012;73(1):45–48.
7. Pfaller MA, Rhomberg PR, Messer SA, Jones RN, Castanheira M. Isavuconazole, micafungin, and 8 comparator antifungal agents' susceptibility profiles for common and uncommon opportunistic fungi collected in 2013: temporal analysis of antifungal drug resistance using CLSI species-specific clinical breakpoints and proposed epidemiological cutoff values. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2015;82(4):303–313.
8. Ying Y, Zhang J, Huang SB, et al. Fluconazole susceptibility of 3,056 clinical isolates of *Candida* species from 2005 to 2009 in a tertiary-care hospital. *Indian J Med Microbiol*. 2015;33(3):413–415.
9. Eggimann P, Garbino J, Pittet D. Epidemiology of *Candida* species infections in critically ill non-immunosuppressed patients. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2003;3(11):685–702.
10. Horn DL, Neofytos D, Anaissie EJ, et al. Epidemiology and outcomes of candidemia in 2019 patients: data from the prospective antifungal therapy alliance registry. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2009;48(12):1695–1703.
11. Faggi E, Pini G, Campisi E, Martinelli C, Difonzo E. Detection of *Candida dubliniensis* in oropharyngeal samples from human immunodeficiency virus infected and non-infected patients and in a yeast culture collection. *Mycoses*. 2005;48(3):211–215.
12. Pontón J, Rùchel R, Clemons KV, et al. Emerging pathogens. *Med Mycol*. 2000;38(Suppl 1):225–236.
13. González Gravina H, González de Morán E, Zambrano O, et al. Oral Candidiasis in children and adolescents with cancer. Identification of *Candida* spp. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal*. 2007;12(6):E419–E423.
14. Nakayama H, Izuta M, Nakayama N, Arisawa M, Aoki Y. Depletion of the squalene synthase (ERG9) gene does not impair growth of *Candida glabrata* in mice. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2000;44(9):2411–2418.
15. Perea S, López-Ribot JL, Wickes BL, et al. Molecular mechanisms of fluconazole resistance in *Candida dubliniensis* isolates from human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients with oropharyngeal candidiasis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2002;46(6):1695–1703.
16. Chunchanur SK, Nadgir SD, Halesh LH, Patil BS, Kausar Y, Chandrasekhar MR. Detection and antifungal susceptibility testing of oral *Candida dubliniensis* from human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients. *Indian J Pathol Microbiol*. 2009;52(4):501–504.
17. Bae EA, Han MJ, Kim NJ, Kim DH. Anti-*Helicobacter pylori* activity of herbal medicines. *Biol Pharm Bull*. 1998;21(9):990–992.
18. Bang KH, Kim YK, Min BS, et al. Antifungal activity of magnolol and honokiol. *Arch Pharm Res*. 2000;23(1):46–49.
19. Chang B, Lee Y, Ku Y, Bae K, Chung C. Antimicrobial activity of magnolol and honokiol against periodontopathic microorganisms. *Planta Med*. 1998;64(4):367–369.
20. Sun L, Liao K, Wang D. Effects of magnolol and honokiol on adhesion, yeast-hyphal transition, and formation of biofilm by *Candida albicans*. *PLoS One*. 2015;10(2):e0117695.
21. National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards. *Reference Method for Broth Dilution Antifungal Susceptibility Testing of Yeasts: Approved Standard—Second Edition*. Wayne, PA: National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards; 1997.
22. Jin Y, Yip HK, Samaranyake YH, Yau JY, Samaranyake LP. Biofilm-forming ability of *Candida albicans* is unlikely to contribute to high levels of oral yeast carriage in cases of human immunodeficiency virus infection. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2003;41(7):2961–2967.
23. Ramage G, Vande Walle K, Wickes BL, López-Ribot JL. Standardized method for in vitro antifungal susceptibility testing of *Candida albicans* biofilms. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2001;45(9):2475–2479.
24. Kuribara H, Kishi E, Kimura M, Weintraub ST, Maruyama Y. Comparative assessment of the anxiolytic-like activities of honokiol and derivatives. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*. 2000;67(3):597–601.
25. Lin YR, Chen HH, Lin YC, Ko CH, Chan MH. Antinociceptive actions of honokiol and magnolol on glutamatergic and inflammatory pain. *J Biomed Sci*. 2009;16:94.
26. Ko CH, Chen HH, Lin YR, Chan MH. Inhibition of smooth muscle contraction by magnolol and honokiol in porcine trachea. *Planta Med*. 2003;69(6):532–536.
27. Chen LC, Liu YC, Liang YC, Ho YS, Lee WS. Magnolol inhibits human glioblastoma cell proliferation through upregulation of p21/Cip1. *J Agric Food Chem*. 2009;57(16):7331–7337.
28. Park J, Lee J, Jung E, et al. In vitro antibacterial and anti-inflammatory effects of honokiol and magnolol against *Propionibacterium* sp. *Eur J Pharmacol*. 2004;496(1–3):189–195.
29. Yang YL, Lo HJ. Mechanisms of antifungal agent resistance. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect*. 2001;34(2):79–86.
30. Xiang MJ, Liu JY, Ni PH, et al. Erg11 mutations associated with azole resistance in clinical isolates of *Candida albicans*. *FEMS Yeast Res*. 2013;13(4):386–393.
31. Vermitsky JP, Self MJ, Chadwick SG, et al. Survey of vaginal-flora *Candida* species isolates from women of different age groups by use of species-specific PCR detection. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2008;46(4):1501–1503.
32. Corsello S, Spinillo A, Osnengo G, et al. An epidemiological survey of vulvovaginal candidiasis in Italy. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2003;110(1):66–72.
33. Richter SS, Galask RP, Messer SA, Hollis RJ, Diekema DJ, Pfaller MA. Antifungal susceptibilities of *Candida* species causing vulvovaginitis and epidemiology of recurrent cases. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2005;43(5):2155–2162.
34. Kauffman CA. Candiduria. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2005;41(Suppl 6):S371–S376.
35. Fidel PL Jr, Vazquez JA, Sobel JD. *Candida glabrata*: review of epidemiology, pathogenesis, and clinical disease with comparison to *C. albicans*. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 1999;12(1):80–96.
36. Pfaller MA, Jones RN, Castanheira M. Regional data analysis of *Candida non-albicans* strains collected in United States medical sites over a 6-year period, 2006–2011. *Mycoses*. 2014;57(10):602–611.
37. Pfaller MA, Diekema DJ, Gibbs DL, et al; Global Antifungal Surveillance Group. *Candida krusei*, a multidrug-resistant opportunistic fungal pathogen: geographic and temporal trends from the ARTEMIS DISK Antifungal Surveillance Program, 2001 to 2005. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2008;46(2):515–521.
38. Badiee P, Alborzi A, Davarpanah MA, Shakiba E. Distributions and antifungal susceptibility of *Candida* species from mucosal sites in HIV positive patients. *Arch Iran Med*. 2010;13(4):282–287.
39. Thompson GR 3rd, Patel PK, Kirkpatrick WR, et al. Oropharyngeal candidiasis in the era of antiretroviral therapy. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*. 2010;109(4):488–495.
40. Jabra-Rizk MA, Johnson JK, Forrest G, Mankes K, Meiller TF, Venezia RA. Prevalence of *Candida dubliniensis* fungemia at a large teaching hospital. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2005;41(7):1064–1067.
41. Sullivan DJ, Moran GP, Pinjon E, et al. Comparison of the epidemiology, drug resistance mechanisms, and virulence of *Candida dubliniensis* and *Candida albicans*. *FEMS Yeast Res*. 2004;4(4–5):369–376.
42. Yan Z, Young AL, Hua H, Xu Y. Multiple oral *Candida* infections in patients with Sjogren's syndrome—prevalence and clinical and drug susceptibility profiles. *J Rheumatol*. 2011;38(11):2428–2431.
43. Silva S, Henriques M, Martins A, Oliveira R, Williams D, Azeredo J. Biofilms of non-*Candida albicans* *Candida* species: quantification, structure and matrix composition. *Med Mycol*. 2009;47(7):681–689.
44. Uppuluri P, Pierce CG, López-Ribot JL. *Candida albicans* biofilm formation and its clinical consequences. *Future Microbiol*. 2009;4(10):1235–1237.
45. Mukherjee PK, Chandra J. *Candida* biofilm resistance. *Drug Resist Updat*. 2004;7(4–5):301–309.
46. Donlan RM, Costerton JW. Biofilms: survival mechanisms of clinically relevant microorganisms. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 2002;15(2):167–193.
47. Mah TF, O'Toole GA. Mechanisms of biofilm resistance to antimicrobial agents. *Trends Microbiol*. 2001;9(1):34–39.

48. Mukherjee PK, Chandra J, Kuhn DM, Ghannoum MA. Mechanism of fluconazole resistance in *Candida albicans* biofilms: phase-specific role of efflux pumps and membrane sterols. *Infect Immun*. 2003;71(8): 4333–4340.
49. Denning DW. Echinocandins: a new class of antifungal. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2002;49(6):889–891.
50. Nett J, Lincoln L, Marchillo K, et al. Putative role of β -1,3 glucans in *Candida albicans* biofilm resistance. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2007;51(2):510–520.
51. Gulati M, Nobile CJ. *Candida albicans* biofilms: development, regulation, and molecular mechanisms. *Microbes Infect*. 2016;18(5): 310–321.
52. Langford ML, Hasim S, Nickerson KW, Atkin AL. Activity and toxicity of farnesol towards *Candida albicans* are dependent on growth conditions. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2010;54(2):940–942.

Drug Design, Development and Therapy

Dovepress

Publish your work in this journal

Drug Design, Development and Therapy is an international, peer-reviewed open-access journal that spans the spectrum of drug design and development through to clinical applications. Clinical outcomes, patient safety, and programs for the development and effective, safe, and sustained use of medicines are the features of the journal, which

has also been accepted for indexing on PubMed Central. The manuscript management system is completely online and includes a very quick and fair peer-review system, which is all easy to use. Visit <http://www.dovepress.com/testimonials.php> to read real quotes from published authors.

Submit your manuscript here: <http://www.dovepress.com/drug-design-development-and-therapy-journal>