

1 **Evaluation of synergistic anticandidal activity of *Galenia***  
2 ***africana* extract and fluconazole against *Candida albicans***  
3 **and *Candida glabrata***

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1 **Abstract:** *Candida* infections have increased in recent years and are causing a serious public  
2 health concern. In addition, *Candida* species are becoming resistant to numerous antifungal  
3 drugs. It is for this reason that alternative treatment options are being explored, using  
4 medicinal plants, to curb this trend of drug resistance. The aim of this study was to evaluate  
5 the anticandidal activity of an ethanolic extract of *Galenia africana* (*G. africana*) alone and  
6 particularly in combination with fluconazole (FLC) against *Candida albicans* and *Candida*  
7 *glabrata*. The anticandidal activity was evaluated using various techniques. The minimum  
8 inhibitory concentration (MIC) of the extract was 6.25 mg/mL for both *Candida* strains. A  
9 synergistic effect was observed when *G. africana* was combined with FLC, against *C.*  
10 *albicans* and an indifferent effect against *C. glabrata* when interpreted by the fractional  
11 inhibitory concentration index (FICI) (0.36 and 1.002 for *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*,  
12 respectively). Microscopic analysis revealed cell damage and decrease in cell size after *G.*  
13 *africana* treatment. Collectively, these results suggest that *G. africana* possessed antifungal  
14 activity against the *Candida* strains and a synergistic effect with FLC. Cell damage observed  
15 possibly contributed to this synergistic effect. This provides new information for the  
16 development of new antifungal agents.

17 **Keywords:** antifungal resistance; *Candida species*; *Galenia africana*; susceptibility testing;  
18 disk diffusion; Broth microdilution

19 **Abbreviations:** CLSI: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute; CFU: colony-forming  
20 unit; CPD: critical point dryer; DPBS: Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline; FIC:  
21 Fractional inhibitory concentrations; FICI: Fractional inhibitory concentration index; *G.*  
22 *africana*: *Galenia africana*; INT: p-iodonitrotetrazolium chloride; MIC: Minimum  
23 inhibitory concentration; MFC: Minimum fungicidal concentration; RPMI: Roswell Park  
24 Memorial Institute medium; SDA: Sabouraud Dextrose Agar; SDB: Sabouraud Dextrose  
25 Broth; SGA: Sabouraud Glucose Agar; SEM: Scanning electron microscopy; YNBG: Yeast  
26 Nitrogen Base Glucose

## 27 1. Introduction

28 The occurrence and frequency of fungal infections, which range from life threatening  
29 invasive and chronic infections (such as fungemia and meningitis) to recurrent superficial  
30 infections (such as oral and vaginal candidiasis), have been on the rise for a number of years  
31 now (Brown et al., 2012; Ksiezopolska and Gabaldon, 2018). In spite of the availability of  
32 treatment options, fungal infections significantly contribute to the high global morbidity and  
33 mortality rates (affecting millions of people, with an overall death toll of around 1 350 000  
34 deaths per year) (Brown et al., 2012). Thus, creating a major public health concern due to the  
35 challenging aspect of managing these infections (Arendrup and Patterson, 2017; Fisher et al.,  
36 2018). Candidiasis is the major cause of fungal infections especially in immunocompromised  
37 and hospitalized individuals. It is particularly common in people suffering from cancer,  
38 diabetes, AIDS, as well as those with other severe diseases and transplant patients receiving  
39 immunosuppressive treatment following transplant surgeries (Al Ashaal et al., 2010;  
40 Arendrup, 2010). Candidiasis is caused by *Candida* species, commensal fungi found in the  
41 gastrointestinal tract, oral mucosa, skin, and vagina (Nobile and Johnson, 2015; Shao et al.,  
42 2007). *Candida* species are capable of causing both superficial and systemic infections due  
43 to their ability to adapt to different environments (Yan et al., 2012).

44 *Candida albicans* is the leading cause of persistent and severe fungal infections (Horn et  
45 al., 2009). However, the prevalence of infections caused by non-*albicans* species is on the  
46 rise (Sardi et al., 2013), which include *Candida glabrata*, *Candida krusei*, *Candida*  
47 *tropicalis*, and *Candida parapsilosis* (Krcmery and Barnes, 2002). Despite *C. albicans*, *C.*  
48 *glabrata*, *C. krusei*, *C. parapsilosis*, and *C. tropicalis* being the most common *Candida*  
49 species, accounting for over 90% of the cases, more than 30 other *Candida* species have been  
50 associated with candidemia (Gabaldon et al., 2016; Pfaller et al., 2010; Pfaller et al., 2011).  
51 However, *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* have been reported to be the most frequently isolated  
52 *Candida* species. For instance, a North American study conducted in major medical centers  
53 showed that *C. albicans* was the most commonly isolated species followed by *C. glabrata*.  
54 Moreover, the increase and spread of non-*albicans* infections could be attributed to severe  
55 immunosuppression, increased broad-spectrum antibiotic use and old age (Horn et al., 2009;  
56 Panghal et al., 2011). Over the years, it has been observed that a large number of fungal  
57 species, including *Candida* species, are resistant to a variety of antifungal drugs worldwide  
58 (Ingham et al., 2012). Furthermore, it has been shown that prior fluconazole exposure can  
59 influence the incidence of fluconazole- resistant *Candida* bloodstream infections (Oxman et  
60 al., 2010; Tumbarello et al., 2008) in patients with underlying medical conditions such as  
61 HIV/AIDS and cancer, patients in intensive care, and those undergoing treatment with other  
62 therapeutic drugs (Garnacho-Montero et al., 2010; Ruhnke et al., 1994; Slavin et al., 2010).  
63 Fluconazole resistance is also seen in candidemia resulting from *C. glabrata* infection (Lee  
64 et al., 2009; Tumbarello et al., 2008). This is attributed to the ability of *Candida* species to  
65 form drug-resistant biofilms which significantly contributes to their disease causing  
66 characteristic in humans (Rajendran et al., 2010). The advent of drug resistant species and  
67 the need for treatment options with fewer side effects have paved the way for the evaluation  
68 of alternative antifungal agents, using medicinal plants, in the hope of developing novel  
69 therapeutic agents (Bonifacio et al., 2019; Hofling et al., 2010; Soliman et al., 2017).

70 For centuries, herbal medicines have been traditionally used in Africa, and around the  
71 world, to treat various diseases. This is mainly due to the belief that medicinal plants are  
72 widely available, extremely effective, and cheaper than conventional drugs (Awuchi, 2019).  
73 *Galenia africana* (*G. africana*) is a medicinal plant commonly referred to as “kraalbos” or  
74 “geelbos” (Van Der Lugt et al., 1992). It is predominantly found in the Namaqualand region  
75 of South Africa as well as the western and southern Karoo (Kellerman et al., 1988; van Wyk  
76 et al., 1997). It is documented that the indigenous Khoi-San people chewed the plant to  
77 alleviate toothaches and it has also been used to treat venereal sores, asthma, wounds on both  
78 animals and humans, eye infections, and skin diseases (Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962).  
79 Other therapeutic uses include the treatment of venereal disease, ringworms, relieving of eye  
80 inflammation and using it in lotions for the treatment of skin diseases. The aerial parts of *G.*  
81 *africana* have also been used to treat coughs, including tuberculosis (Mativandlela et al.,  
82 2009; Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962). *G. africana* extracts have also demonstrated  
83 antifungal characteristics against *Botrytis cinerea* (Fielding et al., 2015). The current study  
84 was a preliminary study mainly aimed at investigating the effect of *G. africana* alone and

85 particularly in combination with fluconazole (FLC) against *Candida albicans* and *Candida*  
86 *glabrata* using different methods.

## 87 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 88 *2.1. Preparation of the G. africana plant extracts*

89 The plant material was collected from Komaggas farmers in Namaqua District, Northern  
90 Cape Province. The formal identification of the plant material used in this study was done by  
91 Mr. F. Weitz (Herbarium, Department of Botany, University of the Western Cape, Bellville).  
92 Voucher specimens are kept in the UWC herbarium (Vries 1; herb no 6595). The dried leaves  
93 and shoots were dried for several weeks to maintain the bioactivity and then passed through  
94 a hammer mill to produce a powdery material (approximately 2-3 mm). To standardize the  
95 material substance within the plant, the dry weight was measured against the total volume of  
96 liquids used in the maceration process. The 20% (w/v) yellow-green to brown-green plant  
97 tincture was macerated by mixing the milled plant material, using 60% ethanol as a solvent.  
98 This was expressed as a ratio with the generally accepted standard strength of a plant tincture  
99 being 1:5 which is 1-part dry weight of plant material to 5 parts of macerating liquid. The  
100 expiry date applied was four years from the date of maceration. The extraction took place in  
101 cold ethanol at room temperature in a shaker for 12 h maximum. The extract had a pH of 6.9  
102 and was then used as a stock solution. Two types of *G. africana* extracts were used in this  
103 study. The first was a 200 mg/mL extract which was commercially prepared, by Brenn-O-  
104 Kem (Pty) Ltd (Wolseley, South Africa), with 60% ethanol and then oven dried under  
105 negative pressure to produce crystals. The dried *G. africana* crystals were then crushed and  
106 re-suspended in RPMI 1640 media buffered with 0.165 M MOPS (both purchased from  
107 Sigma-Aldrich, USA) to make a stock solution that was utilized in the subsequent  
108 experiments. However, a 500 mg/mL extract was prepared and used for the disk diffusion  
109 assay. The second was a 200 mg/mL extract in 60% ethanol that was not dried and was  
110 supplied in liquid form. The working concentrations of both *G. africana* extracts were made  
111 up in RPMI 1640 media buffered with 0.165 M MOPS.

### 112 *2.2. Candida strains and culture conditions*

113 The *Candida* type strains, *C. glabrata* (ATCC 26512) and *C. albicans* (ATCC 90028),  
114 were a kind gift from Prof Charlene WJ Africa. *C. glabrata* and *C. albicans* were sub-cultured  
115 on Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA) and incubated for 24 h at 37°C. These type strains were  
116 used in this study due to their high prevalence (as previously outlined in the introduction  
117 section). Sterile glass test tubes, containing 7 mL of saline, were inoculated with colonies  
118 picked from the SDA. The inoculums were then adjusted to 0.5 McFarland's standard with a  
119 known concentration of approximately  $3 \times 10^8$  microorganisms per mL using a nephelometer.  
120 This technique uses known densities of microorganism suspensions for standardization  
121 (McFarland, 1907). In the broth microdilution method, cell suspensions were standardized  
122 using Sabouraud Dextrose Broth (SDB) to the desired concentration. Confirmation of the two  
123 strains was carried out by aseptically streaking the fungal strains on Oxoid chromogenic  
124 differential medium. On this medium, *C. albicans* grow as green colonies, whereas *C.*  
125 *glabrata* produce beige/brown or purple/mauve colonies.

### 126 *2.3. Antifungal susceptibility testing using the disk diffusion assay*

127 The disk diffusion assay was conducted according to the Clinical and Laboratory  
128 Standards Institute (CLSI) (CLSI, 2009) with minor modifications, and used to evaluate the  
129 antifungal effect of *G. africana* extract against *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. Briefly, a 500  
130 mg/mL stock solution of the extract was used to make serial dilutions of 3.91, 7.81, 15.63,  
131 31.25, 62.5, 125 and 250 mg/mL. Sterile filter disks (9 mm) were then loaded with 40  $\mu$ L of

132 the different extract concentrations. Control disks impregnated with 25 µg/mL fluconazole  
133 and 50% ethanol (solvent used to dissolve the *G. africana* crystals) were also included. The  
134 disks were then allowed to dry at 37°C overnight. Inoculums of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*  
135 (adjusted to 0.5 McFarland standard) were then swabbed onto the Yeast Nitrogen Base  
136 Glucose (YNBG) agar plates and allowed to stand for about 30 min. The disks were then  
137 placed onto the cultured plates and incubated at 37°C for 24 h. All experiments were  
138 performed in triplicate and results are expressed as arithmetic means of these replicates.  
139 Determination of antifungal susceptibility and resistance was done after 24 h of incubation  
140 by measuring zones of inhibition.

#### 141 2.4. Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) using the broth 142 microdilution method

143 The MIC of *G. africana* was determined by the broth microdilution method and  
144 performed according to CLSI reference methods for yeasts (CLSI, 2008). Briefly, twofold  
145 dilutions of the dried and ethanolic *G. africana* extracts were prepared by diluting them in  
146 RPMI 1640 medium (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) to yield the following concentrations: 0.015,  
147 0.031, 0.061, 0.122, 0.244, 0.489, 0.977, 1.954, 3.91, 7.815 and 15.63 mg/mL of the dried  
148 extract; 0.024, 0.049, 0.098, 0.195, 0.391, 0.781, 1.562, 3.125, 6.25, 12.5 and 25 mg/mL of  
149 the ethanolic extract. A 1:100 cell suspension (of both *Candida* strains) was prepared  
150 containing a final concentration of  $1-5 \times 10^3$  CFU/ml and 100 µL of this standardized  
151 suspension was then added to wells containing 100 µL of the extract to yield the desired  
152 concentrations. The tests were performed in triplicate. Control wells consisted of RPMI  
153 media alone, cell suspensions alone, fluconazole (2 µg/mL and 32 µg/mL for *C. albicans* and  
154 *C. glabrata* respectively) alone and sterile water alone. Each well contained a final volume  
155 of 200 µL and plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h. After the incubation period, 40 µL (0.2  
156 mg/mL) of *p*-iodonitrotetrazolium chloride (INT) was then added to each well and incubated  
157 for another 30 min at 37°C. The MIC was determined as the lowest concentration of the  
158 extract showing no colour change and exhibiting complete inhibition of fungal growth as  
159 seen by the lack of colour change from yellow to pink.

#### 160 2.5. Determination of minimum fungicidal concentration (MFC)

161 The minimum fungicidal concentration of the dried and ethanolic extracts was evaluated  
162 in order to establish whether *G. africana* was fungicidal (able to kill the yeast cells). The  
163 MFC was determined by sub-culturing a 10 µL aliquot from each negative well (well that did  
164 not produce any colour change) and from a positive well (cell suspension control well) onto  
165 drug-free Sabouraud glucose agar (SGA) plates. The plates were then incubated for 18-24 h  
166 at 37°C. The concentration that yielded no visible growth on SDA was taken as the MFC  
167 (Bagiu et al., 2012; Costa et al., 2015).

#### 168 2.6. Evaluation of the activity of *G. africana* in combination with fluconazole using the 169 checkerboard assay

170 The checkerboard assay was performed to assess the interaction between the *G. africana*  
171 ethanolic extract and fluconazole as previously described (Hsieh et al., 1993; Petersen et al.,  
172 2006). The ethanolic extract was chosen for the checkerboard assay as it exhibited greater  
173 antifungal activity against the two *Candida* strains as determined by the MIC and MFC  
174 values. Briefly, the MIC of the extract was determined after a 24 h incubation period. The  
175 concentrations tested ranged between 0.78 and 50 mg/mL for *G. africana* and between 0.12  
176 and 64 µg/mL for fluconazole. The fractional inhibitory concentration index (FICI) was used  
177 to estimate the interaction between *G. africana* and fluconazole in this assay. It was  
178 calculated by adding the MIC of the extract and fluconazole in combination divided by the  
179 MIC of extract and fluconazole when used alone. The results were interpreted as follows:

180 FICI  $\leq$  0.5 was defined as synergy,  $0.5 < \text{FICI} < 1$  as additive,  $1 < \text{FICI} < 4$  as indifference  
181 and antagonism as  $\text{FICI} > 4$  (Olajuyigbe and Afolayan, 2013).

## 182 2.7. Sensititre YeastOne colorimetric MIC procedure

183 The Sensititre YeastOne antifungal susceptibility test is a broth microdilution method  
184 utilized to evaluate the interaction between *G. africana* and various antifungal drugs. This  
185 colorimetric microdilution assay relies on a colorimetric indicator to indicate yeast cell  
186 growth (Posteraro and Sanguinetti, 2014; Sanguinetti and Posteraro, 2018) and was  
187 performed as previously described (Pfaller et al., 2012). Briefly, before adding the cell  
188 suspension to the YeastOne inoculation broth, *G. africana* was added to yield final  
189 concentrations of 6.25 (the MIC) and 12.5 (2 x MIC) mg/mL. A working suspension of  
190 approximately  $1.5\text{-}8 \times 10^3$  CFU/mL (of both *Candida* species) was then prepared in the same  
191 broth (TREK Diagnostics Systems). Broths containing cell suspensions but without the  
192 extract were also included as controls. The YeastOne plates were then rehydrated by adding  
193 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of the working solution (containing the extract and cell suspension) into each well.  
194 The plates were sealed with the adhesive seal and incubated for 24 h at  $37^\circ\text{C}$ . The plates were  
195 read manually by visually reading them under normal laboratory lighting. Yeast growth in  
196 the wells containing the antifungal solutions was represented by a change in the colorimetric  
197 growth indicator from blue (negative, no growth) to red (positive, growth). The MIC was  
198 recorded as the lowest concentration of antifungal agent inhibiting yeast growth as evident  
199 by the lack of development of a red colour in the growth well (first blue colour). The intensity  
200 of colour produced was compared to that of the positive control wells (Pfaller et al., 2012).

## 201 2.8. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

202 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to evaluate the effect of the extract on  
203 the *Candida* cells. SEM was performed on yeast cells treated with the extract in the disk  
204 diffusion assay. The aim was to evaluate the effect of the extract on the yeast cell structure  
205 despite the extract only showing minimal activity in this method. The yeast cells within the  
206 inhibition zones (microcolonies) were carefully collected using fine spatulas, to avoid  
207 damaging the cell structures, and fixed onto glass cover slips using 2.5% glutaraldehyde in  
208 Dulbecco's phosphate buffer saline (PBS) for 1 h. The cover slip was then washed twice with  
209 PBS and twice with sterile distilled water in 5 min cycles. Samples were then dehydrated in  
210 graded concentrations of ethanol (50, 70, 90 and 100%) in 10 min cycles. After the  
211 dehydration process, samples were then removed from the 100% ethanol and placed into the  
212 critical point dryer (CPD) or air dried in order to remove any remnants of ethanol. Once all  
213 samples were dried, they were then sputter-coated with gold-palladium alloy and analyzed  
214 using the scanning electron microscope.

## 215 3. Results

### 216 3.1. Antifungal susceptibility testing using the disk diffusion assay

217 The disk diffusion assay was utilized in the analysis of the antifungal activity of *G.*  
218 *africana* against *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. The dried *G. africana* extract was dissolved in  
219 50% ethanol to make up a 500 mg/mL stock solution. Treatment of *C. albicans* with *G.*  
220 *africana* produced small zones of inhibition, with the presence of microcolonies, at  
221 concentrations of 15.6 to 250 mg/mL. *G. africana* concentrations of 3.91 and 7.8 mg/mL did  
222 not produce any visible zones of inhibition. Zones of inhibition produced after the treatment  
223 of *C. glabrata* with *G. africana* were small and contained microcolonies at concentrations of  
224 31.25 to 250 mg/mL. Those produced after treatment with 15.62 mg/mL of *G. africana* were  
225 not well defined but contained microcolonies. Concentrations of 3.91 and 7.8 mg/mL did not  
226 produce any inhibition zones. Control plates were also included which contained 50% ethanol

227 and fluconazole (25 µg/mL). There were no zones of inhibition present after treatment of  
228 both *Candida* strains with 50% ethanol. Treatment of the *Candida* species with fluconazole  
229 yielded an inhibition zone of 18 mm against *C. albicans*, with the presence of microcolonies.  
230 However, there was only a small zone of inhibition produced when used against *C. glabrata*.

### 231 3.2. Determination of MIC using the broth microdilution method

232 The broth microdilution assay was used to evaluate the effect of both the dried and ethanolic  
233 *G. africana* extracts. The MIC of the dried *G. africana* extract against *C. albicans* was 3.91  
234 mg/mL while the MIC of the dried extract against *C. glabrata* was 1.95 mg/mL. The ethanolic  
235 extract produced an MIC of 6.25 mg/mL against both *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*.

### 236 3.3. Determination of MFC

237 Figure 1 shows the results obtained after sub-culturing the aliquots from the negative  
238 wells (wells with no growth) in the microdilution assay onto SGA plates. The results revealed  
239 that the dried *G. africana* extract was fungistatic at all the concentrations (even the highest  
240 one used) as demonstrated by the presence of growth on the SGA plates. The results obtained  
241 after sub-culturing the aliquot from the wells treated with the ethanolic extract are shown in  
242 Figure 2. The MFC of the ethanolic extract against *C. albicans* was 6.25 mg/mL and that of  
243 *C. glabrata* was 12.5 mg/mL. This showed that the MIC=MFC=6.25 mg/mL (the MIC and  
244 MFC values were similar) for *C. albicans* whereas *C. glabrata* had an MFC of 12.5 mg/mL  
245 which was different from its MIC of 6.25 mg/mL (MFC > MIC). The MFC results  
246 demonstrated that the ethanolic extract exhibited greater antifungal activity compared to the  
247 dried extract. The ethanolic extract was fungicidal at concentrations of 6.25 and 12.5 mg/mL  
248 for *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*, respectively. Given that the dried extract was fungistatic,  
249 and not fungicidal, even at a high concentration, the ethanolic extract was selected for the  
250 checkerboard and Sensititre susceptibility testing methods to assess the combination effects.

### 251 3.4. Evaluation of the activity of *G. africana* in combination with fluconazole using the 252 checkerboard assay

253 Results of the checkerboard assay revealed that the MIC of fluconazole alone was 0.5  
254 µg/mL whereas that in combination was 0.12 µg/mL against *C. albicans*. The MIC of *G.*  
255 *africana* alone was 6.25 mg/mL and the MIC in combination was 0.78 mg/mL. The FICI  
256 obtained was 0.36 which indicated that the interaction between fluconazole and *G. africana*  
257 against *C. albicans* was synergistic since the value was  $\leq 0.5$ . Treatment of *C. glabrata* with  
258 the extract-fluconazole combinations revealed that the MIC of fluconazole alone was 64  
259 µg/mL whereas that in combination was 0.12 µg/mL. The MIC of *G. africana* alone and in  
260 combination was 6.25 mg/mL. The FICI obtained was 1.002 which classified the interaction  
261 as being indifferent. This meant that the interaction observed was as a result of the *G. africana*  
262 extract that had the greatest antifungal activity compared to fluconazole.

### 263 3.5. Sensititre YeastOne colorimetric MIC procedure

264 The Sensititre YeastOne colorimetric MIC procedure was used to evaluate the interaction  
265 between combinations of antifungal agents and *G. africana* against *C. albicans* and *C.*  
266 *glabrata*. The MIC interpretive criteria shown in Table 1 are included for easy comparison  
267 to the results obtained using this procedure (Table 2). Table 2 outlines the results obtained  
268 after the treatment of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* with different antifungal drugs alone as  
269 well as in combination with *G. africana*.

270

271

272 **Table 1.** MIC interpretive criteria (clinical breakpoints in µg/mL) for antifungal drugs and *Candida*  
 273 species using CLSI broth microdilution methods<sup>a</sup>.

Antifungal drug	<i>C. albicans</i>			<i>C. glabrata</i>		
	S	I	R	S	I	R
Anidulafungin	≤0.25	0.5	≥1	≤0.12	0.25	≥0.5
Caspofungin	≤0.25	0.5	≥1	≤0.12	0.25	≥0.5
Micafungin	≤0.25	0.5	≥1	≤0.06	0.12	≥0.25
Itraconazole	≤0.12	0.25-0.5	≥1	≤2	–	>2
Fluconazole	≤2	4	≥8	–	≤32	≥64
Posaconazole	≤0.06	–	>0.06	≤2	–	>2
Voriconazole	≤0.12	0.25-0.5	≥1	≤0.5	–	>0.5
5-Flucytosine	≤4	8-16	≥32	≤4	8-16	≥32
Amphotericin B	≤2	–	>2	≤2	–	>2

274 <sup>a</sup> Data compiled from (Pfaller and Diekema, 2012). S- sensitive; I- intermediate; R- resistant.

275

276 **Table 2.** Sensititre susceptibility test results of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* treated with antifungal drugs  
 277 alone as well as in combination with *G. africana* (6.25 and 12.5 mg/mL).

MIC of antifungal drug (µg/mL)						
Antifungal drug	Drugs alone	<i>C. albicans</i>		<i>C. glabrata</i>		
		Drugs + GA <sup>a</sup>	Drugs + GA <sup>b</sup>	Drugs alone	Drugs + GA <sup>a</sup>	Drugs + GA <sup>b</sup>
5-Flucytosine	= 0.5	≤ <b>0.06</b>	≤ <b>0.06</b>	≤ 0.06	≤ 0.06	≤ 0.06
Amphotericin B	= 0.5	≤ <b>0.12</b>	≤ <b>0.12</b>	= 2	≤ <b>0.12</b>	≤ <b>0.12</b>
Anidulafungin	≤ 0.015	≤ 0.015	≤ 0.015	= 0.06	≤ <b>0.015</b>	≤ <b>0.015</b>
Caspofungin	= 0.03	≤ <b>0.008</b>	≤ <b>0.008</b>	= 0.12	≤ <b>0.008</b>	≤ <b>0.008</b>
Fluconazole	= 0.25	≤ <b>0.12</b>	≤ <b>0.12</b>	= 16	≤ <b>0.12</b>	≤ <b>0.12</b>
Itraconazole	≤ 0.015	≤ 0.015	≤ 0.015	= 0.5	≤ <b>0.015</b>	≤ <b>0.015</b>
Micafungin	≤ 0.008	≤ 0.008	≤ 0.008	= 0.015	≤ <b>0.008</b>	≤ <b>0.008</b>
Posaconazole	≤ 0.008	≤ 0.008	≤ 0.008	= 1	≤ <b>0.008</b>	≤ <b>0.008</b>
Voriconazole	≤ 0.008	≤ 0.008	≤ 0.008	= 0.5	≤ <b>0.008</b>	≤ <b>0.008</b>

278 <sup>a</sup> GA- *G. africana* at 6.25 mg/mL.

279 <sup>b</sup> GA- *G. africana* at 12.5 mg/mL.

280 Values in bold outline the changes in MIC when drugs were combined with *G. africana*. MICs are presented as means of  
 281 three replicates.

282 The results revealed that *G. africana* enhanced the antifungal activity of the antifungal  
 283 drugs as seen by a decrease in the antifungal drug MIC against the *Candida* species. *G.*  
 284 *africana* enhanced the antifungal activity of 5-flucytosine, amphotericin B, caspofungin, and  
 285 fluconazole against *C. albicans*. In addition, *G. africana* enhanced the antifungal activities  
 286 of amphotericin B, anidulafungin, caspofungin, fluconazole, itraconazole, micafungin,  
 287 posaconazole, and voriconazole against *C. glabrata*. This was significant as the MIC of  
 288 fluconazole alone against *C. glabrata* in the microdilution assay, checkerboard assay and  
 289 Sensititre susceptibility method was ≥16 µg/mL, but reduced significantly in the combination  
 290 assays.

### 291 3.6. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

292 Scanning electron microscopy was employed to examine the structural changes of  
 293 *Candida* cells after treatment with the extract. Figure 3 shows the appearance of the *Candida*  
 294 cells prior to treatment. The cells appeared rounded with smooth surfaces. Figures 4 and 5  
 295 represent scanning electron micrographs of *Candida* cells after treatment with *G. africana* at  
 296 a concentration of 250 mg/mL. The structure of both *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* cells  
 297 appeared distorted and only remnants of other cells could be seen.



#### 298 4. Discussion

299 The increase in *Candida* species that are resistant to numerous antifungal agents is due  
300 to the rise in the use of these antifungal agents (Pemmaraju et al., 2013). Oral candidiasis is  
301 an infection normally associated with HIV-positive patients as a result of their weakened  
302 immune system and results in high mortality rates (Dos Santos Abrantes et al., 2014;  
303 Pomarico et al., 2010). Treatment of candidiasis is usually achieved by the administration of  
304 amphotericin B and fluconazole, with fluconazole frequently being given as the first line of  
305 treatment when dealing with systemic infections. Unfortunately, *Candida* strains are  
306 developing resistance to fluconazole (Dos Santos Abrantes et al., 2014). The increase in  
307 multi-drug resistant organisms is influenced by altered gene expression (Kanafani and  
308 Perfect, 2008), impaired immune function, underlying disease, reduced drug bioavailability,  
309 and increased drug metabolism (Rex et al., 1997). Given that *Candida* species are resistant  
310 to various classes of antifungal drugs, such as azoles and echinocandins (Sanguinetti et al.,  
311 2015), there is need for the development of alternative treatment options. Medicinal plants  
312 possess numerous compounds with several health benefits that can be used in the  
313 development of new antifungal agents (Juca et al., 2020).

314 In this study, the antifungal activities as well as synergistic effects of *G. africana* and  
315 fluconazole were evaluated using the disk diffusion, broth microdilution, checkerboard assay,  
316 and Sensititre YeastOne colorimetric MIC procedure. The effect of *G. africana* on the  
317 structure of *Candida* cells was assessed using SEM. The results of the disk diffusion assay  
318 showed that the *G. africana* extract did not inhibit the growth of the *Candida* strains, even at  
319 a concentration of 250 mg/mL, as seen by the lack of large inhibition zones. This decrease in  
320 inhibitory activity could be attributed to the fact that natural plant products tend to diffuse  
321 out the disks much slower than conventional antimicrobial agents, (Klancnik et al., 2010)  
322 hence, the decreased antifungal activity observed. In addition, polarity also influences the  
323 rate of diffusion of a compound with more polar compounds diffusing out of the disk faster  
324 than less polar compounds (Moreno et al., 2006). The results of the broth dilution assay  
325 revealed that the dried *G. africana* was more effective than the ethanolic as seen by the lower  
326 MIC against the *Candida* strains. The MIC of the dried extract against *C. albicans* was 3.91  
327 mg/mL whereas that of the ethanolic extract was 6.25 mg/mL. The MIC of the dried extract  
328 against *C. glabrata* was 1.95 mg/mL whereas that of the ethanolic extract was 6.25 mg/mL.  
329 However, when the MFC was determined for both the dried and ethanolic extracts, the dried  
330 extract was fungistatic, as seen by the presence of colonies when sub-cultured on SGA at  
331 even the highest concentration (15.62 mg/mL). On the other hand, the ethanolic extract was  
332 fungicidal at concentrations of 6.25 and 12.5 mg/mL for *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*  
333 respectively. This result showed that the ethanolic extract had a greater ability to kill the yeast  
334 cells compared to the dried extract and it is for this reason that it was used in the checkerboard  
335 assay and Sensititre YeastOne colorimetric MIC procedure. The greater antifungal effect of  
336 the ethanolic extract compared to extracts prepared from other solvents can also be seen in  
337 other medicinal plants. A study carried out on ethanolic and methanolic leaf extracts of  
338 *Pogostemon parviflorus* Benth revealed that the ethanolic extract had greater antifungal  
339 activity compared to the methanolic extract. This could be seen from the mean MICs of the

340 ethanolic extract against *Candida* species of 5.7 mg/mL compared to that of 6.6 mg/mL of  
341 the methanolic extract (Najafi and Sadeghi-Nejad, 2010).

342 The checkerboard assay results showed that the interaction between *G. africana* and  
343 fluconazole against *C. albicans* was synergistic as evident by the FICI value of 0.36 which  
344 was < 0.5. This result is similar to a study carried out on glabridin (a compound found in  
345 *Glycyrrhiza glabra*) against *Canadida* species, such as drug-resistant *C. albicans*, which  
346 revealed that the combination of fluconazole and glabridin demonstrated synergistic effects  
347 (Liu et al., 2014). The interaction of *G. africana* and fluconazole against *C. glabrata* was  
348 indifferent as seen by the FICI value of 1.002. The Sensititre susceptibility method showed  
349 that the combination of *G. africana* and the antifungal drugs was more effective against the  
350 *Candida* strains than the antifungal drugs on their own. This could be seen in the reduction  
351 of the MIC of most of the antifungal agents for both *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. This was  
352 an important result because *C. glabrata* was showing less susceptibility to the antifungal  
353 drugs compared to *C. albicans*.

354 The microscopy analysis revealed that *G. africana* had an effect on the yeast cells. This  
355 could be seen by the distorted structure of the cells and the cell remnants that were present  
356 after treatment. These results were seen despite *G. africana* not showing much antifungal  
357 activity against the *Candida* strains in the disk diffusion assay. The results observed after  
358 microscopic analysis of yeast cells following treatment with *G. africana* are similar to the  
359 results obtained after treatment of *C. albicans* with *Euphorbia hirta* L. leaf extract.  
360 Transmission electron micrographs taken after treatment of *C. albicans* with the *E. hirta* leaf  
361 extract revealed significant alterations to the microstructure of the *C. albicans* cells. These  
362 alterations included changes in the morphology of the cells, lysis, and total disintegration of  
363 the cells after 36 h of exposure to the extract. The control cells, on the other hand,  
364 demonstrated the usual *Candida* morphology with a regular undamaged cell wall (Basma et  
365 al., 2011).

366 Furthermore, phytochemical analysis of the *G. africana* ethanolic extract revealed that  
367 flavonoids were the major secondary metabolites present (Ticha et al., 2015). Flavonoids are  
368 polyphenolic compounds widely present in plants, vegetables, beverages, and fruits. They  
369 can be classified as flavonols, flavones, flavanones, anthocyanins, isoflavones, and flavanols,  
370 and have been shown to possess several biological activities resulting in numerous health  
371 benefits. These include antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, immunomodulatory, anti-aging,  
372 antiviral, antibacterial, antiparasitic, and antifungal activities (Juca et al., 2020). The  
373 antifungal activity of the ethanolic extract of *G. africana* has been shown against *Alternaria*  
374 sp, *Botrytis cinerea*, *Cylindrocarpon* sp, *Eutypa lata*, *Fusarium equiseti*, *F. graminearum*, *F.*  
375 *oxysporum*, *F. solani*, *F. verticillioides*, *Penicillium expansum*, and *Phaeomoniella*  
376 *chlamydospora* (Ticha et al., 2015). The antifungal activity of flavonoids has also been  
377 demonstrated by their ability to inhibit fungal infections in humans. For instance, a flavone  
378 called baicalein has been shown to demonstrate antifungal activity against *C. albicans*, *C.*  
379 *tropicalis* and *C. parapsilosis*. In addition, baicalein exhibited a synergistic interaction with  
380 fluconazole against *Candida* infections (Serpa et al., 2012). Collectively, these results  
381 provide insight into the ability of *G. africana* to demonstrate antifungal activity against *C.*

382 *albicans* and *C. glabrata*, particularly owing to the biological activity of flavonoids present  
383 in the extracts.

## 384 **5. Conclusion**

385 The results obtained in this study indicate that *G. africana* is a potential source of new  
386 antifungal agents. The fungicidal and synergistic effects exhibited by the *G. africana* extract,  
387 alone and in the combination with antifungal drugs, support the growing need for the use of  
388 medicinal plant extracts as therapeutic agents in the fight against multi-drug resistant  
389 pathogens. Toxicity assessment of medicinal plants already in use, including the ones not yet  
390 commercialized, is vital in evaluating their safety and sensitizing potential at dosages for  
391 which these formulations are being used. Acute toxicity studies of the ethanolic extract of *G.*  
392 *africana* revealed that the extract did not result in any *in vivo* danger (Ng'uni et al., 2018).  
393 Despite acute toxicity studies being conducted, pharmacological and biochemical  
394 investigations will be essential in elucidating the mechanism of action and will be beneficial  
395 in utilizing this plant as a therapeutic agent. Furthermore, a detailed experimental analysis of  
396 chronic toxicities associated with *G. africana* will be beneficial to support these findings.  
397 Clinical trials have not yet been performed on this medicinal plant and will be essential. This  
398 study supplies additional information on the activity of *G. africana* and contributes to the  
399 knowledge of antimicrobial properties of plants commonly found in South Africa. However,  
400 additional research such as exploring the mechanism of action and performing *in vivo* studies  
401 to corroborate the antimicrobial potential of the extract alone and in combination with  
402 antifungal agents will have to be conducted. Given that this is a preliminary study, future  
403 studies will be developed and performed based on these results.

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## 415 **Competing interests**

416 The authors declare no competing interests.

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600 **Figure 1.** MFC results of *Candida* species treated with the dried *G. africana* extract. **a** *C.*  
601 *albicans* (left) and **b** *C. glabrata* (right) treated with the dried extract made up in RPMI  
602 media. A1-A4 represent the different *G. africana* concentrations as follows: A1-15.63  
603 mg/mL; A2-7.81 mg/mL; A3-3.91 mg/mL and A4-1.95 mg/mL.

604

605 **Figure 2.** MFC results of *Candida* species treated with the *G. africana* ethanolic extract. **a**  
606 *C. albicans* (left) and **b** *C. glabrata* (right) treated with the ethanolic extract made up in RPMI  
607 media. A1-A4 represent the different *G. africana* concentrations as follows: A1-25 mg/mL;  
608 A2-12.5 mg/mL; A3-6.25 mg/mL and A4-3.12 mg/mL.

609



610 **Figure 3.** Scanning electron micrographs of untreated *Candida* species. **a** *C. albicans* (left)  
611 and **b** *C. glabrata* (right) at a magnification of 10 000 x. Cells are rounded and smooth with  
612 signs of budding.

613

614 **Figure 4.** Scanning electron micrographs of *C. albicans* treated with 250 mg/ml *G. africana*  
615 extract and cells viewed at different magnifications. **a** 5 000 x magnification (left) and **b** 10  
616 000 X (right) magnification. Cells appeared desiccated and craggy after treatment. The  
617 structural appearance was rough compared to the untreated cells.

618 **Figure 5.** Scanning electron micrographs of *C. glabrata* treated with 250 mg/ml *G. africana*  
619 extract and cells viewed at different magnifications. **a** 5 000 x magnification (left) and **b** 10  
620 000 X (right) magnification. Some cells appeared distorted while only remnants of other cells  
621 could be seen. The structural appearance of the cells was rough compared to the untreated  
622 cells.

623









