

1 **Biofilm inhibiting properties of compounds from the leaves of *Warburgia ugandensis***
2 **Sprague subsp *ugandensis* against *Candida* and staphylococcal biofilms**

3 Purity N. Kipanga^{a,b}, Maoxuan Liu^a, Sujogya K. Panda^b, Anh Hung Mai^{1c}, Cedrick Veryser^c, Luc
4 Van Puyvelde^b, Wim M. De Borggraeve^c, Patrick Van Dijck^{d,e*}, Josphat Matasyoh^f and Walter
5 Luyten^b

6 ^aFaculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, KU Leuven, Belgium, ^bDepartment of Biology, Animal
7 Physiology and Neurobiology division, KU Leuven, Belgium, ^cDepartment of Chemistry,
8 Molecular Design and Synthesis, KU Leuven, Belgium, ^dVIB Center for Microbiology,
9 ^eLaboratory of Molecular Cell Biology, KU Leuven, Belgium, ^fDepartment of Chemistry,
10 Egerton University, Njoro, Kenya.

11 **Correspondence:**

12 Patrick Van Dijck, VIB-KU Leuven Center for Microbiology, Laboratory of Molecular Cell
13 Biology, Institute of Botany and Microbiology, Kasteelpark Arenberg 31, B-3001 Leuven,
14 Belgium. Tel: +32 16 32 15 12. Email: patrick.vandijck@kuleuven.vib.be

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

¹ Present Address: PolymerExpert, Pessac, France.

23 **Abstract**

24 **Ethnopharmacological relevance**

25 *Warburgia ugandensis* Sprague subspecies *ugandensis* is a plant widely distributed in Eastern,
26 Central and Southern Africa. In humans, it is used to treat respiratory infections, tooth aches,
27 malaria, skin infections, venereal diseases, diarrhea, fevers and aches.

28 **Aim of the study**

29 This study aims to identify the bioactive compounds against clinically important biofilm-forming
30 strains of *Candida* and staphylococci that are responsible for tissue and implanted device-related
31 infections.

32 **Methods**

33 Using a bioassay-guided fractionation approach, hexane -, ethanol -, acetone - and water extracts
34 from the leaves of *W. ugandensis*, their subsequent fractions and isolated compounds were tested
35 against both developing and preformed 24h-biofilms of *Candida albicans* SC5314, *Candida*
36 *glabrata* BG2 *Candida glabrata* ATCC 2001, *Staphylococcus epidermidis* 1457 and
37 *Staphylococcus aureus* USA 300 using microtiter susceptibility tests. Planktonic cells were also
38 tested in parallel for comparison purposes. Confocal scanning laser microscopy was also used to
39 visualize effects of isolated compounds on biofilm formation.

40 **Results**

41 Warburganal, polygodial and alpha-linolenic acid (ALA) were the major bioactive compounds
42 isolated from the acetone extract of *W. ugandensis*. For both warburganal and polygodial, the
43 biofilm inhibitory concentration that inhibits 50% of *C. albicans* developing biofilms (BIC₅₀) was
44 4.5±1 and 10.8±5 µg/mL respectively. Against *S. aureus* developing biofilms, this value was
45 37.9±8 µg/mL and 25 µg/mL with warburganal and ALA respectively. Eradication of preformed

46 24 h biofilms was also observed. Interestingly, synergy between the sesquiterpenoids and azoles
47 against developing *C. albicans* biofilms resulted in an approximately ten-fold decrease of the
48 effective concentration required to completely inhibit growth of the biofilms by individual
49 compounds. The hydroxyl group in position C-9 in warburganal was identified as essential for
50 activity against staphylococcal biofilms. We also identified additional promising bioactive
51 sesquiterpenoids; drimenol and drimendiol from the structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies.

52 **Conclusions**

53 ALA and four sesquiterpenoids: polygodial, warburganal, drimenol and drimendiol, have shown
54 biofilm-inhibitory activity that has not been reported before and is worth following up. These
55 compounds are potential drug candidates to manage biofilm-based infections, possibly in
56 combination with azoles.

57

58 **Keywords**

59 Chromatography, multi-drug resistance, sesquiterpenoids, *W. ugandensis*, synergy, azoles

60

61 **1 Introduction**

62 Biofilms are the most prevalent forms observed in microbial growth and development (Dowd et
63 al., 2008). They comprise microbial populations that are attached to surfaces and embedded in a
64 self-produced extracellular matrix (Frade and Arthington-Skaggs, 2011). Biofilm formation occurs
65 in several phases, namely early, intermediate and maturation phases. Pathogenic microbes such as
66 *Candida* and staphylococcal strains in particular, use this as a virulence strategy to ensure
67 successful colonization and survival in tissues and on implanted medical devices (Silva et al.,
68 2011). Notably, the most offensive clinical consequence of these biofilm infections has been

69 increased resistance to current treatments (Van Acker et al., 2014), consequently increasing
70 morbidity and mortality rates, especially among immunocompromised patients (Fidel et al., 1999;
71 Otto, 2013). The paucity of effective medicines to combat these biofilm infections caused by
72 common pathogens is alarming and justifies increased drug discovery efforts to surmount this
73 challenge.

74 Plants offer a rich source of chemical diversity from which novel compounds can be harnessed to
75 boost the current antimicrobial drug pipeline (Karygianni et al., 2019; Rishton, 2008; Sardi et al.,
76 2013). *Warburgia ugandensis* Sprague subsp. *ugandensis* is a highly valuable medicinal plant in
77 the Canellaceae family. It is also used as a spice in East Africa suggesting considerable safety upon
78 oral use (Kokwaro, 1976).

79 It has been used traditionally in the treatment of a broad range of diseases in Kenya, Ethiopia,
80 Tanzania, Uganda, Congo and Malawi (Leonard and Viljoen, 2015; Maroyi, 2014). In Kenya,
81 decoctions from either the bark or leaves are used to treat infections of lungs, throat, gastric ulcers
82 and venereal diseases (Kiringe, 2006). The bark is used for treating skin diseases (Wamalwa et al.,
83 2006), toothaches, malaria, diarrhea, fevers, joint-, chest- and headaches (Kokwaro, 2009) and as
84 an antiviral against measles (Parker et al., 2007). Kubo *et al.* showed that both polygodial and
85 warburganal have potent antifungal activities against planktonic (non-adherent) *C. albicans* (Kubo
86 et al., 1977; Lunde and Kubo, 2000). Mbwambo and colleagues (2009) later reported on the
87 antibacterial and antifungal activity of ethanolic extracts of *W. ugandensis* on planktonic forms of
88 *S. aureus* and *C. albicans*. However, biofilms (sessile cells) are generally more difficult to
89 eradicate by antimicrobials compared to planktonic cells, in part due to the extracellular matrix
90 that restricts penetration of antimicrobials and also due to decreased/heterogenous growth rates as
91 well as drug-efflux systems, amongst other factors (Kuhn et al., 2002; Lewis, 2001; Van Acker et

92 al., 2014). Biofilm-associated infections account for 60-80% of all infections in humans (Omar et
93 al., 2017), and are often considered the underlying cause of failed treatments in clinical settings,
94 posing a serious challenge to human health. Moreover, drugs/compounds that act on planktonic
95 cells are not necessarily active against biofilms; fluconazole e.g. shows potent activity against
96 planktonic *C. albicans* at 4 µg/mL but its activity against biofilms was >1024 µg/mL (Ramage et
97 al., 2001). Thus, in our search for novel compounds that act on biofilms, we probed on the potential
98 of *W. ugandensis* to inhibit developing or preformed biofilms, and tried to identify the active
99 compounds by bioassay-guided fractionation. Consequently, extracts from this plant and their
100 subsequent fractions and bioactive compounds were tested for activity against biofilms of *S.*
101 *aureus*, *S. epidermidis*, *C. albicans* and two strains of *C. glabrata*. To the best of our knowledge,
102 this is the first report documenting the biofilm-inhibitory activity of *W. ugandensis*.

103

104 **2 Materials and methods**

105 **2.1 Chemicals and reagents**

106 Resazurin salt was purchased from Acros Organics (Geel, Belgium). All the other chemicals were
107 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Flat-bottomed Costar™ plates were used
108 for the antimicrobial tests (Kipanga and Luyten, 2017). Stock solutions of fluconazole (FLZ) 1
109 mg/mL, miconazole (MCZ) 2.5 mg/mL and Amphotericin B (AmB) 10 mg/mL were prepared in
110 dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), while vancomycin (VAN) stock, 10mg/mL was prepared in sterile
111 MilliQ water. These stock solutions were aliquoted and stored at -20 °C. A stock solution of
112 Resazurin powder was prepared by mixing 1 g with 100 mL 1x phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)
113 (1 % w/v) in a tube, and covering it with aluminium foil. From this, a working solution was
114 prepared by mixing 200 µL of the stock solution with 50 mL 1x PBS (0.4 % v/v).

115 **2.2 Plant collection**

116 Fresh leaves of *W. ugandensis* were collected from the Kakamega forest in Western Kenya, air-
117 dried at ambient temperature, and milled to a fine powder. A voucher specimen of the plant (NWB
118 237) was deposited at the Egerton University's herbarium.

119 **2.3 Bioassay-guided fractionation**

120 **2.3.1 Small-scale plant extraction**

121 One g *W. ugandensis* powder was added to each of 4 Falcon tubes and extracted separately with
122 10 mL water, acetone, ethanol, and hexane. After extractions, 1 mL aliquots of the crude extracts
123 were transferred into pre-weighed 2 mL Eppendorf tubes, then dried in a Savant™ SpeedVac™
124 apparatus, weighed and stored in a cold room at 4 °C. Just before a biological assay, the dried
125 residue was dissolved in DMSO (for organic extracts) or water for the aqueous extracts; the final
126 concentration in the assay was 1 mg/mL.

127 **2.3.2 Large-scale extraction**

128 One hundred gram of *W. ugandensis* powder was mixed with 1 L of acetone in a screw-capped
129 glass bottle, shaken and sonicated in a sonication water bath for 4 times 30 min over a 24h-period
130 to maximize extraction. The supernatant was decanted through filter paper (MN 615 ¼; Ø 18.5
131 cm, Macherey-Nagel) and the solvent of the filtrate was evaporated in a Buchi® rotary evaporator.
132 The dry residue of the combined filtered supernatants (8 g) was dissolved in a small amount of
133 acetone and adsorbed to about 14 g of silica gel (63-200 µm). The slurry mixture was then
134 evaporated to dryness and stored at 4 °C until dry-loading on a silica gel column.

135 **2.3.3 Preparative silica gel column chromatography**

136 A glass column (20 x 8 cm) was packed with 200 g silica gel (63-200 µm), suspended in 500 mL
137 hexane to a slurry consistency. Once the silica gel had settled in the column, the dried acetone

138 extract adsorbed to silica gel was evenly layered over the bed surface. The column was eluted
139 using a step gradient starting with 400 mL of 100% hexane, labelled as fraction 1 (F1). This was
140 then followed by the same volume of hexane:ethyl acetate (EtOAc) mixtures, yielding F2-F5
141 (75:25, 50:50, 25:75, 0:100), then EtOAc:methanol (MeOH) mixtures, F6-F12 (95:5, 90:10, 85:15,
142 80:20, 60:40, 40:60, 0:100) and finally MeOH:acetic acid mixtures, F13-F15 (95:5, 90:10, 85:15).
143 All 15 fractions (400 mL each) were stored in dark glass bottles at 4 °C. One mL from each fraction
144 was aliquoted into pre-weighed 2 mL Eppendorf tubes and dried. One hundred µL of DMSO was
145 then added to each tube to dissolve the dried residue. Ten and four µL of this solution was tested
146 against *Staphylococcus* and *Candida*, respectively (see section 2.4.2).

147 **2.3.4 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC)**

148 Active fractions from the silica gel column were fractionated further on a Shimadzu LC-20 AT
149 HPLC system with a DAD detector using a C18 column (Sunfire®, 10 x 250 mm, 5 µm) and
150 acetonitrile (ACN)/water gradients at a flow rate of 4 mL/min, with all mobile phases containing
151 0.1% trifluoro acetic acid (TFA). Fractions were collected every minute (Gilson model 201
152 fraction collector) and dried, dissolved in 20 µL DMSO and tested for antimicrobial activity in
153 duplicate. Active peaks (inhibition >75%) were determined by superimposing the chromatogram
154 with the activity profiles of the fractions. Active peaks were collected manually for structure
155 elucidation by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) (Liu et al., 2018). Comparison with spectra
156 from published literature enabled confirmation of the identity of the compounds.

157 **2.4 Bioassays**

158 **2.4.1 Microbial strains and cultures**

159 Cultures of *S. aureus* USA 300 (Tenover and Goering, 2009), *S. epidermidis* 1457 (Mack et al.,
160 1992), *C. albicans* SC5314 (Gillum et al., 1984), *C. glabrata* ATCC 2001, and *C. glabrata* BG2

161 (Kaur et al., 2005) were propagated at 37 °C for 24 h on either tryptic soy agar (TSA) plates (for
162 bacteria) or YPD agar plates (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% D-glucose, supplemented with
163 2% agar) (for *Candida*). These strains were selected as they are the typical standard strains used
164 in many research laboratories.

165 **2.4.2 Antimicrobial test against planktonic cells**

166 We followed the antimicrobial activity using a broth microdilution method throughout the
167 bioassay-guided purification as described earlier (Kerkoub et al., 2018; Panda et al., 2017). Briefly,
168 Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI 1640) medium buffered with MOPS (3-(*N*-morpholino)
169 propanesulfonic acid) to pH 7.0 was used to prepare a *C. albicans* cell suspension at an optical
170 density (OD) 0.1 at 600 nm. Tryptic soy broth (TSB) was used for bacterial suspensions at OD_{600nm}
171 0.1. In a final assay volume of 200 µL, 5% DMSO was used for *S. aureus* and 2% DMSO for *C.*
172 *albicans* experiments (Panda et al., 2017). These DMSO concentrations did not affect microbial
173 growth, as confirmed by growth experiments in presence and absence of DMSO. After 24 h in a
174 shaking incubator at 37 °C, absorbance was measured at 490 nm (yeast) or 620 nm (bacteria), and
175 the percentage growth inhibition calculated relative to solvent controls.

$$176 \quad 100 - \left(\frac{A}{B} \times 100 \right)$$

177 Assuming A is the OD value of a well with treated cells and B the OD value of the vehicle
178 control(s) with cells. Antibiotics VAN and AmB (250 µg/mL) were used as positive controls for
179 bacteria and fungi, respectively.

180 **2.4.3 Antibiofilm test on developing and preformed biofilms**

181 Against developing biofilms, a broth microdilution test was performed according to Kerkoub *et al*
182 (2018). Briefly, 100 µL cell suspensions at OD_{600nm} 0.1 in either TSB or RPMI 1640-MOPS were
183 aliquoted into flat-bottomed 96-well (Costar™) plates and incubated for 90 minutes at 37 °C in a

184 stationary incubator to permit adhesion of the cells to the bottom of the polystyrene plates. The
185 medium was carefully aspirated and the wells carefully rinsed with 1x PBS (Kipanga and Luyten,
186 2017). Fresh TSB (190 μ L) was added to the wells and gently mixed with 10 μ L of a plant
187 extract/fraction/test compound. For yeast, 196 μ L fresh RPMI 1640-MOPS was gently mixed with
188 4 μ L of a test compound. The plates were then incubated at 37 °C for 24 h in a stationary incubator.
189 Afterwards, the medium was carefully aspirated and the cells washed twice with PBS, and stained
190 with 100 μ L resazurin dye (see section 2.1). After 1 h incubation at 37 °C, fluorescence was
191 measured; λ_{ex} at 535 nm and λ_{em} at 590 nm. For *C. glabrata* strains, an XTT, tetrazolium salt 2,3-
192 bis(2-methoxy-4-nitro-5-sulfophenyl)-5-[(phenylamino)carbonyl]-2H-tetrazolium hydroxide
193 reduction assay at 490 nm was used to quantify the surviving biofilm cells, as *C. glabrata* is not
194 able to metabolize resazurin dye within hours, as also observed with cell titer blue stain (Delattin
195 et al., 2014). The percentage of surviving biofilm cells was calculated relative to the growth
196 controls. Assuming A is the OD/fluorescence value of a well with biofilm treated with compound,
197 B the OD value of the dye in a well (s) without cells and C the OD value of the vehicle control (s)
198 with cells. Antibiotics VAN and AmB (250 μ g/mL) were included as positive controls.

199
$$\left(\frac{A - B}{C} \times 100 \right)$$

200 For 24 h-preformed biofilms in 96-well plates, treatment with compounds was started 24 h after
201 biofilm formation. Additionally, treated developing biofilms on highly adhesive, round tissue-
202 culture coverslips (diameter 13 mm; Sarstedt) were separately prepared and visualized using
203 confocal scanning laser microscopy (CSLM), essentially as described before (Kucharíková et al.,
204 2011). Briefly, the medium was removed from the wells, the coverslips were gently washed with
205 1 mL PBS, placed into a clean 24-well tissue-culture plate, and 400 μ L PBS was added together

206 with 5 μ L (50 μ g/mL) concanavalin A–Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate (C-11252; Molecular Probes).
207 After incubation for 10 min at 37 °C in the dark, the stained biofilms were then visualized.

208 **2.4.4 Determination of biofilm inhibitory concentration-50 (BIC₅₀), biofilm eradication** 209 **concentration-50 (BEC₅₀), inhibitory concentration-50 (IC₅₀), and minimum fungicidal** 210 **concentration (MFC)**

211 Two-fold serial dilutions of test compounds in the range of 200 μ g/mL–0.78 μ g/mL (final
212 concentration) were prepared in DMSO and tested against biofilms and planktonic cells. The BIC₅₀
213 (minimum concentration required to inhibit 50% of biofilm growth), BEC₅₀ (minimum
214 concentration required to eradicate 50% of formed biofilms) and IC₅₀ (minimum concentration
215 required to inhibit 50% of planktonic cell growth) were then calculated by non-linear regression
216 (see section 2.6). The MFC was then determined for the treated cells (from wells where no cells
217 grew) by plating ten-fold dilutions (100 μ L) of the cultures on YPD plates and incubating overnight
218 at 37 °C, then counting colonies.

219 **2.4.5 Synergy studies using the checkerboard assay**

220 A combination of an azole (MCZ/FLZ) and a test compound, two-fold serially diluted in DMSO
221 across rows and columns, respectively, of a microplate, was tested on *C. albicans* SC5314
222 developing biofilms. Fractional inhibitory concentration index (FICI) was calculated as $FICI =$
223 $(C_A/IC_A) + (C_B/IC_B)$, where IC_A and IC_B are the inhibitory concentrations of drugs A and B alone,
224 respectively, and C_A and C_B are the concentrations of the drugs in combination. The interaction
225 was considered synergistic if the value was ≤ 0.5 , indifferent for $0.5 < FICI < 4$ and antagonistic for
226 a FICI value ≥ 4 (Odds, 2003).

227 **2.5 Structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies**

228 Analogues of isolated compounds were purchased from the Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA)
229 and Specs® companies, and tested for antibiofilm activity.

230 **2.6 Statistical analyses**

231 Non-linear regression was used to determine the BIC₅₀, BEC₅₀ and IC₅₀ of the compounds used
232 against the pathogens using Graphpad Prism 5 software (San Diego, CA). All bioassays were
233 independently repeated at least twice with duplicate technical repeats. Error bars represent standard
234 deviations.

235

236 **3 Results and Discussion**

237 **3.1 *W. ugandensis* extracts prevent the formation of biofilms**

238 Both the acetone and ethanol extracts prevented the formation of biofilms by all the
239 microorganisms tested (Figure 1A). While the hexane extract failed to show activity at 1 mg/mL,
240 inhibition was seen at 4 mg/mL (data not shown). In a study with antimicrobial screening of thirty-
241 seven plant species belonging to 26 families, most of the activity was detected in ethanol and
242 acetone extracts, followed by water extracts, and very little activity was detected in the hexane
243 extracts (Panda et al., 2018). A similar profile is seen in this study where both acetone and ethanol
244 were superior to hexane in extracting bioactive compounds.

245 We proceeded with the acetone extract for large-scale preparations as it was more potent than the
246 ethanol extract upon 2-fold serial dilution (Supplementary material I). Eloff (1998), described
247 some guidelines that can be used to select appropriate solvents for plant extraction, such as the
248 diversity of inhibitory compounds extracted, the toxicity of the solvent in the bioassay, and the
249 potential health hazard of the extractants.

250 In traditional medicine, aqueous decoctions and infusions of *W. ugandensis* are common
251 (Nanyingi et al., 2008), suggesting that the active compounds are (at least to some extent) water-
252 soluble. Boiling the powder in water may facilitate the extraction of active compounds (Just et al.,
253 2015), and a large volume of the decoction taken as medicine may compensate for a lower
254 concentration, so that a therapeutically active dose may still be achieved.

255 We prepared our extracts from (dried) leaves, whereas in African traditional medicine mostly hot
256 decoctions either from bark, roots or leaves are used. Overharvesting of *W. ugandensis* bark was
257 reported to reduce the population of this valuable tree (Maroyi, 2014). From our results, the leaves
258 offer a more sustainable alternative for extracting medicinal compounds of *W. ugandensis* than the
259 barks. Similar conclusions were drawn by Mbwambo and colleagues (2009) and Drewes *et al.*,
260 (2001) for *W. salutaris*.

261

262 **3.2 Bioassay-guided purification of antibiofilm compounds**

263 Fractionation of the acetone extract showed that fractions 3 and 4 (F3: 50% hexane:50% EtOAc;
264 F4: 25% hexane:75% EtOAc) had the most potent activity against developing biofilms (Figure
265 1B). F3 was further separated on a C18 HPLC column, and tested against developing biofilms.
266 (Supplementary material II). The structures of three active peaks (Figure 2), as well as a major
267 peak devoid of antimicrobial activity were successfully elucidated by NMR as ugandential A
268 (inactive), warburganal, polygodial and ALA (Liu et al., 2018; Urones et al., 1994; Xu et al., 2009).
269 Ugandential A, warburganal and polygodial are known sesquiterpenoids from *W. ugandensis*, while
270 ALA is a polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA).

271 According to Wang and colleagues (2015), PUFA constitute the majority of fatty acids in *W.*
272 *ugandensis* bark and leaf, accounting for 41.34% and 67.76% of their total fatty acids, respectively.

273 Moreover, ALA is the most abundant PUFA in the leaf, reaching up to 52.77% of the total fatty
274 acids (*ibid.*).

275 An aliquot of F4 was also analyzed by HPLC using the same chromatography conditions as for
276 F3, and the only peak with bioactivity had the same elution time and UV spectrum as the
277 warburganal peak in F3, and is therefore most likely warburganal. Back-calculated yields based
278 on the weight of warburganal and polygodial obtained from a known volume of F3, showed that
279 warburganal was 7 times more abundant than polygodial, with 1 g of the dried acetone extract
280 yielding 1.24 mg warburganal. This final yield of roughly 0.1% compares favourably with that of
281 0.05% from *W. salutaris* (Drewes et al., 2001). For F4, the warburganal and polygodial content
282 were estimated based on the area under the curve of the two peaks, compared with those in F3. F4
283 contained 17% of the amount of warburganal in F3, and 8% of that of polygodial. This leads us to
284 conclude that warburganal accounts for most of the antifungal activity in F3 and F4 (and
285 presumably therefore in the original crude extract).

286 **3.3 Antibiofilm activity of ALA, warburganal and polygodial**

287 Against *S. aureus* USA 300, ALA inhibited completely the growth of both the planktonic and
288 biofilm forms at 25 µg/mL. However, on *C. albicans* planktonic and biofilm cells, the IC₅₀ and
289 BIC₅₀ values of ALA were above 100 µg/mL. Moreover, no synergy was observed between
290 polygodial or warburganal and ALA on either *Candida* or staphylococcal developing biofilms
291 (data not shown).

292 *C. albicans* was the most susceptible strain with warburganal being the most potent isolated
293 compound against both developing biofilms and preformed 24 h biofilms of *C. albicans* and the 2
294 staphylococcal strains (Table 1). Polygodial was active against *Candida* but not against the
295 staphylococcal strains at the highest tested concentration of 100 µg/mL. To the best of our

296 knowledge, this is the first report highlighting antibiofilm activity of warburganal and polygodial
297 against both developing biofilms and preformed 24 h biofilms.

298
299 Higher compound concentrations were required to inhibit preformed 24 h biofilms compared to
300 developing biofilms, possibly due to the formation of extracellular matrix in the former. We
301 observed a ten-fold difference in sensitivity between developing biofilms of *C. glabrata* compared
302 to *C. albicans* upon treatment with warburganal (Table 1). *Candida glabrata* is known to be
303 generally more resistant to antifungals compared to *C. albicans* due to phenotypic and genetic
304 differences (Brunke and Hube, 2013). Moreover, the preformed 24 h biofilms are more resistant
305 to treatment compared to planktonic cells. Similar observations were made by Ramage and
306 colleagues (2001) when 48 h *C. albicans* biofilms were compared to planktonic *C. albicans* cells.
307 Generally, biofilms are observed to be more resistant to antimicrobials compared to planktonic
308 cells (Sardi et al., 2013).

309 By counting colony-forming units (cfus), we established that warburganal is fungicidal against *C.*
310 *albicans* cells at 12.5 µg/mL. Polygodial's minimum fungicidal activity on *C. albicans* developing
311 biofilms was >50 µg/mL as a few (~ 5) colonies consistently persisted at this concentration. These
312 may represent a separate population of persister cells. As is evident, planktonic *C. albicans* cells
313 were about 8 times more sensitive to polygodial than their biofilm counterparts (Figure 3). Against
314 *S. aureus*, the cidal concentration of warburganal was above 50 µg/mL (data not shown).

315
316 Moreover, by CSLM, we were able to visually confirm the biofilm inhibiting potential of both
317 warburganal and polygodial at low concentrations on developing *C. albicans* biofilms (Figure 4).

318

319 **3.4 Structure-activity relationship studies**

320 The observed higher potency of warburganal over polygodial could be attributed to the presence
321 of the hydroxyl group at position C9 that distinguishes the two sesquiterpenes. To outline a
322 pharmacophore responsible for the observed activity in polygodial and warburganal, several
323 analogues were tested. As seen in Table 2, the α,β -unsaturated 1,4-dialdehyde in polygodial and
324 warburganal is required for the potent antifungal activity on developing biofilms. Interestingly,
325 drimenol and drimendiol are sesquiterpenoids that have been previously isolated from *W.*
326 *ugandensis* (Brooks and Draffan, 1969; Drage et al., 2014). They have also been isolated from
327 plants in the Winteraceae and Polygonaceae families (Paza et al., 2013; Prota et al., 2014), but
328 their inhibitory activity against developing and preformed 24 h biofilms has not yet been reported.
329 The hydroxymethyl group at position C-9 in drimenol is required for the observed activity, and
330 two hydroxymethyl groups in drimendiol do not improve the antibiofilm activity.

331

332 **3.5 Synergy between polygodial/warburganal and clinically used antifungal drugs**

333 Synergy was tested between warburganal/polygodial and 2 azoles: MCZ and FLZ, against
334 developing *C. albicans* biofilms (Table 3). FICI values below 0.5 indicate synergy.

335 The combinations resulted in lower (~ 10-fold) effective concentrations of the isolated
336 compounds and azoles that was required to completely inhibit the developing biofilms, compared
337 to individual compounds alone. This has implications for reducing toxicities (if present), for
338 treatment of polymicrobial infections and for reducing drug resistance development by
339 pathogens (Rybak and McGrath, 1996).

340 Interestingly, an earlier study on planktonic *C. albicans* cells also showed synergy between
341 miconazole and polygodial (Kubo et al., 2011). Largely dependent on the drug or a given

342 combination, differences in drug efficacy have been observed between planktonic versus biofilm
343 cells, and these are not always predictable (Kuhn et al., 2002). Mechanistic studies of polygodial
344 in *S. cerevisiae* noted that MCZ's mode of action was different from that of polygodial (Yano et
345 al., 1991). Azoles interfere directly with ergosterol biosynthesis, while polygodial appears to affect
346 (*i.a.*) mitochondrial ATPase (Lunde and Kubo, 2000). Since mitochondrial dysfunction also leads
347 to reduced ergosterol levels (Geraghty and Kavanagh, 2003), the observed synergy can be
348 rationalized. Moreover, MCZ induces the ABC transporter Cdr1p in *C. albicans* (Shukla et al.,
349 2003), which removes MCZ from the cytoplasm; but mitochondrial dysfunction reduces Cdr1p
350 activity (Thomas et al., 2013), providing a second potential mechanism for synergy.

351 Little is known about the *in vivo* effects of warburganal, which is surprising since it appears to
352 account for most of the antimicrobial activity of our *W. ugandensis* extracts. However, many
353 studies have focused on polygodial's safety profile. A clinical trial for recurrent vulvovaginal
354 candidiasis used an oral preparation 'K-712' in which 100 mg contains 10 mg of oleoresin from
355 *Pseudowintera (P.) colorata* at 30% (w/w) polygodial, together with trace amounts of *Olea*
356 *europaea*. No adverse drug effects were reported in this 2-year trial, which showed comparable
357 efficacy, improved prophylactic effect, and lower relapse rates compared to itraconazole (Chopra
358 et al., 2013). Until their pharmacokinetic profiles are established, it is difficult to estimate the
359 potential of our sesquiterpenoids for systemic infections. But therapeutic areas that could benefit
360 from the antibiofilm properties of polygodial, warburganal, drimenol, drimendiol and ALA include
361 topical preparations for the treatment of vaginal candidiasis, dermal wounds, skin infections by
362 dermatophytes (Lee et al., 1999; Lunde and Kubo, 2000) and mouth rinses for gum and dental
363 infections. Moreover, they can be incorporated into cleaning solutions for medical devices such as
364 prosthetic teeth or in solutions for irrigating catheters.

365 **4 Conclusion**

366 In conclusion, the above results on the antimicrobial activities of warburganal, polygodial and
367 ALA from the acetone extract of *W. ugandensis* not only support the traditional use of the plant in
368 the treatment of fungal and bacterial infections, but also demonstrate the potential of these
369 compounds in the management of both *C. albicans*- and staphylococcal-biofilm infections.
370 Additionally, this report highlights the potencies of drimenol and drimendiol in inhibiting biofilm
371 development; further investigations on these compounds are underway.

372

373 **Author Contributions**

374 WL, PVD, PK, ML and JM contributed to study conceptualization, design and corrected the
375 manuscript. PK performed the extractions together with LVP and SKP who also revised the
376 manuscript. PK performed the experiments, analysed the data, drafted and corrected the
377 manuscript. AHM, CV and WB performed NMR measurements, analysis and revised the
378 manuscript.

379 **Conflict of interest**

380 We wish to confirm that there are no known conflicts of interest associated with this publication
381 and there has been no significant financial support for this work that could have influenced its
382 outcome.

383

384 **Funding**

385 This work was supported by a scholarship from the Interfaculty Council for Development
386 Cooperation programme, KU Leuven, awarded to PK and by the Fund for Scientific Research
387 Flanders (FWO) (WO.009.16N) to PVD; WL largely supported himself.

388 **Acknowledgements**

389 We thank Wuyts J., Kucharíková S., Ma Y., Nackaerts Z., Bouhenna M., Verjans E.T. and
390 Vanden Bosch L., for technical assistance and meaningful discussions. We also thank Prof.
391 Kabuitu S.T for the identification of the plant.

392

393 **References**

394

395 Brooks, C.J.W., and Draffan, G.H. (1969). Sesquiterpenoids of Warburgia species - I :

396 Warburgin and warburgiadione. Tetrahedron 25, 2865-2885.

397 Brunke, S., and Hube, B. (2013). Two unlike cousins: *Candida albicans* and *C. glabrata*

398 infection strategies. Cell Microbiol 15, 701-708.

399 Chopra, V., Marotta, F., Kumari, A., Bishier, M.P., He, F., Zerbinati, N., Agarwal, C., Naito, Y.,

400 Tomella, C., Sharma, A., *et al.* (2013). Prophylactic strategies in recurrent vulvovaginal

401 candidiasis: a 2-year study testing a phytonutrient vs itraconazole. J Biol Regul Homeost

402 Agents 27, 875-882.

403 Delattin, N., De Brucker, K., Vandamme, K., Meert, E., Marchand, A., Chaltin, P., Cammue,

404 B.P., and Thevissen, K. (2014). Repurposing as a means to increase the activity of

405 amphotericin B and caspofungin against *Candida albicans* biofilms. J Antimicrob

406 Chemother 69, 1035-1044.

407 Dowd, S.E., Wolcott, R.D., Sun, Y., McKeehan, T., Smith, E., and Rhoads, D. (2008).

408 Polymicrobial nature of chronic diabetic foot ulcer biofilm infections determined using

409 bacterial tag encoded FLX amplicon pyrosequencing (bTEFAP). PLoS One 3, e3326.

410 Drage, S., Mitter, B., Tröls, C., Muchugi, A., Jamnadass, R.H., Sessitsch, A., and Hadacek, F.
411 (2014). Antimicrobial drimane sesquiterpenes and their effect on endophyte communities in
412 the medical tree *Warburgia ugandensis*. *Front Microbiol* 5, 13.

413 Drewes, S.E., Crouch, N.R.M., Mahimbye, J., de Leeuw, B.M., and Horn, M.M. (2001). A
414 phytochemical basis for the potential use of *Warburgia salutaris* (pepper-bark tree) leaves in
415 the place of bark. *S Afr J Sci* 97, 383-386.

416 Eloff, J.N. (1998). Which extractant should be used for the screening and isolation of
417 antimicrobial components from plants? *J Ethnopharmacol* 60, 1-8.

418 Fidel, P.L.J., Vazquez, J.A., and Sobel, J.D. (1999). *Candida glabrata*: review of epidemiology,
419 pathogenesis, and clinical disease with comparison to *C. albicans*. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 12,
420 80-96.

421 Frade, J.P., and Arthington-Skaggs, B.A. (2011). Effect of serum and surface characteristics on
422 *Candida albicans* biofilm formation. *Mycoses* 54, e154-162.

423 Geraghty, P., and Kavanagh, K. (2003). Disruption of mitochondrial function in *Candida*
424 *albicans* leads to reduced cellular ergosterol levels and elevated growth in the presence of
425 amphotericin B. *Arch Microbiol* 179, 295-300.

426 Gillum, A.M., Tsay, E.Y.H., and Kirsch, D.R. (1984). Isolation of the *Candida albicans* gene for
427 orotidine-5'-phosphate decarboxylase by complementation of *S. cerevisiae ura3* and *E. coli*
428 *pyrF* mutations. *Mol Gen Genet* 198, 179-182.

429 Just, J., Jordan, T.B., Paull, B., Bissember, A.C., and Smith, J.A. (2015). Practical isolation of
430 polygodial from *Tasmania lanceolata*: a viable scaffold for synthesis. *Org Biomol Chem*
431 13, 11200-11207.

432 Karygianni, L., Cecere, M., Argyropoulou, A., Hellwig, E., Skaltsounis, A.L., Wittmer, A.,
433 Tchorz, J.P., and Al-Ahmad, A. (2019). Compounds from *Olea europaea* and *Pistacia*
434 *lentiscus* inhibit oral microbial growth. *BMC Complement Altern Med* 19, 51.

435 Kaur, R., Domergue, R., Zupancic, M.L., and Cormack, B.P. (2005). A yeast by any other name:
436 *Candida glabrata* and its interaction with the host. *Curr Opin Microbiol* 8, 378-384.

437 Kerkoub, N., Panda, S.K., Yang, M.R., Lu, J.G., Jiang, Z.H., Nasri, H., and Luyten, W.H.
438 (2018). Bioassay-guided isolation of anti-*Candida* biofilm compounds from methanol
439 extracts of the aerial parts of *Salvia officinalis* (Annaba, Algeria). *Pront Pharmacol* 9, 1418.

440 Kipanga, P.N., and Luyten, W. (2017). Influence of serum and polystyrene plate type on stability
441 of *Candida albicans* biofilms. *J Microbiol Methods* 139, 8-11.

442 Kiringe, J.W. (2006). A survey of traditional health remedies used by the Maasai of southern
443 Kajiado District, Kenya. *J Ethnobot Res Appl* 4, 61-73.

444 Kokwaro, J.O. (1976). Medicinal plants of east Africa, 1st edition edn (Nairobi, Kenya: East
445 African Literature Bureau).

446 Kokwaro, J.O. (2009). Medicinal plants of east Africa, Third edition edn (University of Nairobi
447 press, Kenya).

448 Kubo, I., Lee, S.H., and Shimizu, K. (2011). Combination effect of miconazole with polygodial
449 against *Candida albicans*. *Open J Med Microbiol* 1, 7-11.

450 Kubo, I., Miura, I., Pettei, M.J., Lee, Y.-W., Pilkiewicz, F., and Nakanishi, K. (1977).
451 Muzigadial and warburganal, potent antifungal antiyeast, and African army worm
452 antifeedant agents. *Tetrahedron Lett* 52, 4553-4556.

453 Kucharíková, S., Tournu, H., Lagrou, K., Van Dijck, P., and Bujdáková, H. (2011). Detailed
454 comparison of *Candida albicans* and *Candida glabrata* biofilms under different conditions
455 and their susceptibility to caspofungin and anidulafungin. *J Med Microbiol* 60, 1261-1269.

456 Kuhn, D.M., George, T., Chandra, J., Mukherjee, P.K., and Ghannoum, M.A. (2002). Antifungal
457 susceptibility of *Candida* biofilms: Unique efficacy of amphotericin B lipid formulations
458 and echinocandins. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 46, 1773-1780.

459 Lee, S.H., Lee, J.R., Lunde, C.S., and Kubo, I. (1999). *In vitro* antifungal susceptibilities of
460 *Candida albicans* and other fungal pathogens to polygodial, a sesquiterpene dialdehyde.
461 *Plant Med* 65, 204-208.

462 Leonard, C.M., and Viljoen, A.M. (2015). *Warburgia*: a comprehensive review of the botany,
463 traditional uses and phytochemistry. *J Ethnopharmacol* 165, 260-285.

464 Lewis, K. (2001). Riddle of biofilm research. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 45, 999-1007.

465 Liu, M., Kipanga, P.N., Mai, A.H., Dhondt, I., Braeckman, B.P., De Borggraeve, W., and
466 Luyten, W. (2018). Bioassay-guided isolation of three anthelmintic compounds from
467 *Warburgia ugandensis* Sprague subsp. *ugandensis*, and the mechanism of action of
468 polygodial. *Int J Parasitol* 48, 833-844.

469 Lunde, C.S., and Kubo, I. (2000). Effect of polygodial on the mitochondrial ATPase of
470 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 44, 1943-1953.

471 Mack, D., Siemssen, N., and Laufs, R. (1992). Parallel induction by glucose of adherence and a
472 polysaccharide antigen specific for plastic-adherent *Staphylococcus epidermidis*: evidence
473 for functional relation to intercellular adhesion. *Infect Immun* 60, 2048-2057.

474 Maroyi, A. (2014). The genus *Warburgia*: a review of its traditional uses and pharmacology.
475 *Pharm Biol* 52, 378-391.

476 Mbwambo, Z.H., Erasto, P., Innocent, E., and Masimba, P.J. (2009). Antimicrobial and cytotoxic
477 activities of fresh leaf extracts of *Warburgia ugandensis*. Tanzania J Health Res 11, 75-78.

478 Nanyingi, M.O., Mbaria, J.M., Lanyasunya, A.L., Wagate, C.G., Koros, K.B., Kaburia, H.F.,
479 Munenge, R.W., and Ogara, W.O. (2008). Ethnopharmacological survey of Samburu district
480 Kenya. J Ehtnobiol Ethnomed 4, 14.

481 Odds, F.C. (2003). Synergy, antagonism, and what the chequerboard puts between them. J
482 Antimicrob Chemother 52, 1.

483 Omar, A., Wright, J.B., Schultz, G., Burrell, R., and Nadworny, P. (2017). Microbial biofilms
484 and chronic wounds. Microorganisms 5, 9.

485 Otto, M. (2013). *Staphylococcal* infections: Mechanisms of biofilm maturation and detachment
486 as critical determinants of pathogenicity. Ann Rev Med 64, 175-188.

487 Panda, S.K., Das, R.N., Leyssen, P., Neyts, J., and Luyten, W. (2018). Assessing medicinal
488 plants traditionally used in the Chirang Reserve Forest, Northeast India for antimicrobial
489 activity. J Ethnopharmacol 225, 220-233.

490 Panda, S.K., Padhi, L., Leyssen, P., Liu, M., Neyts, J., and Luyten, W. (2017). Antimicrobial,
491 anthelmintic, and antiviral activity of plants traditionally used for treating infectious disease
492 in the Similipal Biosphere Reserve, Odisha, India. Front Pharmacol 8, 658.

493 Parker, M.E., Chabot, S., Ward, B.J., and Johns, T. (2007). Traditional dietary additives of the
494 Maasai are antiviral against the measles virus. J Ethnopharmacol 114, 146-152.

495 Paza, C., Cárcamo, G., Silva, M., Becerra, J., Urrutia, H., and Sossa, K. (2013). Drimendiol, a
496 drimane sesquiterpene with quorum sensing inhibition activity. Nat Prod Commun 8, 147-
497 148.

498 Prota, N., Mumm, R., Bouwmeester, H.J., and Jongsma, M.A. (2014). Comparison of the
499 chemical composition of three species of smartweed (genus *Persicaria*) with a focus on
500 drimane sesquiterpenoids. *Phytochemistry* 108, 129-136.

501 Ramage, G., Vande Walle, K., Wickes, B.L., and López-Ribot, J.L. (2001). Standardized method
502 for in vitro antifungal testing of *Candida albicans* biofilms. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*
503 45, 2475-2479.

504 Rishton, G.M. (2008). Natural products as a robust source of new drugs and drug leads: past
505 successes and present day issues. *Am J Cardiol* 101, S43-S49.

506 Rybak, M.J., and McGrath, B.J. (1996). Combination antimicrobial therapy for bacterial
507 infections; Guidelines for the clinician. *Drugs* 52, 390-405.

508 Sardi, J.C., Scorzoni, L., Bernardi, T., Fusco-Almeida, A.M., and Mendes Giannini, M.J. (2013).
509 *Candida* species: current epidemiology, pathology, biofilm formation, natural antifungal
510 products and new therapeutic options. *J Med Microbiol* 62, 10-24.

511 Shukla, S., Saini-Smriti, P., Jha, J., Ambudkar, S.V., and Prasad, R. (2003). Functional
512 characterization of *Candida albicans* ABC transporter Cdr1p. *Eukaryot Cell* 2, 1361-1375.

513 Silva, S., Negri, M., Henriques, M., Oliveira, R., Williams, D.W., and Azeredo, J. (2011).
514 Adherence and biofilm formation of non-*Candida albicans* *Candida* species. *Trends*
515 *Microbiol* 19, 241-247.

516 Tenover, F.C., and Goering, R.V. (2009). Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strain
517 USA300: origin and epidemiology. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 64, 441-446.

518 Thomas, E., Roman, E., Claypool, S., Manzoor, N., Pla, J., and Panwar, S.L. (2013).
519 Mitochondria influence *CDR1* efflux pump activity, Hog1-mediated oxidative stress

520 pathway, iron homeostasis and ergosterol levels in *Candida albicans*. *Antimicrob Agents*
521 *Chemother* 57, 5580-5599.

522 Urones, J.G., Marcos, I.S., Pérez, B.G., Díez, D., Lithgow, A.M., Gómez, P.M., Basabe, P., and
523 Garrido, N.M. (1994). Chemistry of zamoranic acid Part V homochiral semisyntheses of
524 active drimanes: pereniporin B, polygodial and warburganal. *Tetrahedron* 50, 10995-11012.

525 Van Acker, H., Van Dijck, P., and Coenye, T. (2014). Molecular mechanisms of antimicrobial
526 tolerance and resistance in bacterial and fungal biofilms. *Trends Microbiol* 22, 326-333.

527 Wamalwa, N.L., Oballa, P., and Gicheru, J. (2006). Genetic variation of *Warburgia ugandensis*
528 in Kenya and implications for its cultivation. In Kenya Forestry Research Institution
529 (KEFRI) (Nairobi, Kenya).

530 Wang, X., Zhou, C., Yang, X., Miao, D., and Zhang, Y. (2015). De novo transcriptome analysis
531 of *Warburgia ugandensis* to identify genes involved in terpenoids and unsaturated fatty
532 acids biosynthesis. *PLoS One* 10, e0135724.

533 Xu, M., Litaudon, M., Krief, S., Martin, M.T., Kasenene, J., Kiremire, B., Dumontet, V., and
534 Guéritte, F. (2009). Ugandential A, a new drimane-type sesquiterpenoid from *Warburgia*
535 *ugandensis*. *Molecules* 14, 3844-3850.

536 Yano, Y., Taniguchi, M., Tanaka, T., Oi, S., and Kubo, L. (1991). Protective effects of Ca²⁺ on
537 cell membrane damage by polygodial in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Agric Biol Chem* 55,
538 603-604.

539 **Figure Legends**

540 **Figure 1.** A: Inhibition of biofilm formation by crude extracts of *W. ugandensis* tested at 1mg/ml
541 final concentration. Amphotericin B and Vancomycin were used as positive controls for *Candida*
542 and staphylococcal strains respectively. B: Biofilm-inhibitory activity of the 15 fractions

543 obtained by step-gradient elution of the acetone extract of *W. ugandensis* from a silica gel
 544 column, starting concentration 1mg/mL.

545

546 **Figure 2.** Structures of ugandential A (1), warburganal (2), polygodial (3) and ALA (4)

547

548 **Figure 3.** Average log 10 cfu/mL± SEM to establish the minimum fungicidal concentration
 549 (MFC) of polygodial and warburganal on *C. albicans* SC5314 cells.

550

551 **Figure 4.** CSLM photographs of *C. albicans* SC5314 developing biofilms showing: A) DMSO-
 552 treated cells (control), B) 6.25 µg/mL polygodial-treated cells, and C) 6.25 µg/mL warburganal-
 553 treated cells.

554

555 Tables

556 **Table 1.** IC₅₀, BIC₅₀ and BEC₅₀ of warburganal and polygodial on planktonic cells, developing
 557 biofilms (compounds added after 90 min of adhesion) and preformed 24 h old *Candida* and
 558 staphylococcal biofilms. N.A: not active at highest final concentration used of 100 µg/mL.

559

Microorganism	Warburganal (µg/mL)			Polygodial (µg/mL)		
	IC ₅₀	BIC ₅₀	BEC ₅₀	IC ₅₀	BIC ₅₀	BEC ₅₀
<i>C. albicans</i> SC5314	4.0±3	4.5±1	16.4±2	4.1±0.1	10.8±5	16.0±5
<i>C. glabrata</i> ATCC 2001	72.0±19	49.1±3	>100	94.1±28	50.6±7	>100
<i>C. glabrata</i> BG2	72.6±22	55.9±4	>100	>100	61.9±8	>100
<i>S. aureus</i> USA 300	17.5±8	37.9±8	46.2±16	N.A	N.A	N.A
<i>S. epidermidis</i> 1457	15.9±7	38.1±9	35.8±7	N.A	N.A	N.A

560

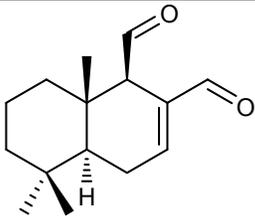
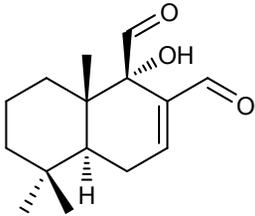
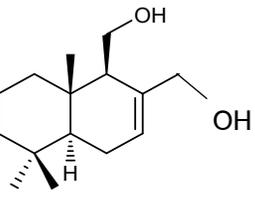
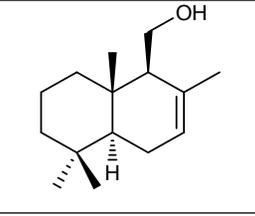
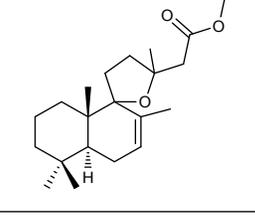
561

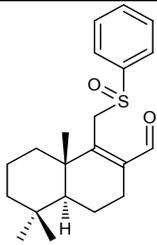
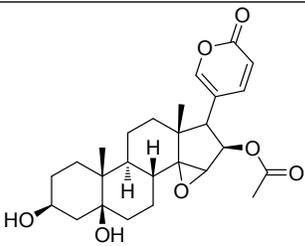
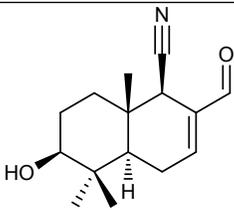
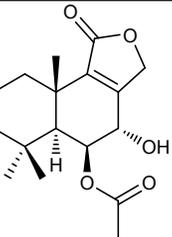
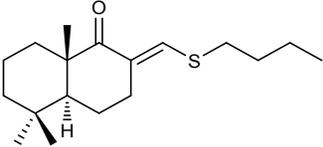
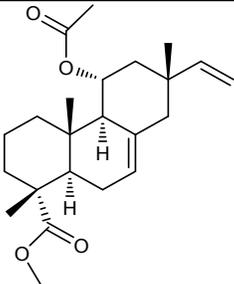
562

563 **Table 2.** BIC₅₀ (μg/mL) of analogues of polygodial and warburganal on developing biofilms.

564 NT= not tested. Samples from the Specs® company were in limited supply, and the company

565 had stopped their synthesis.

Structure	Identity	BIC ₅₀ (μg/ml) <i>C. albicans</i>	BIC ₅₀ (μg/ml) <i>S. aureus; S. epidermidis</i>
	Polygodial	10.8±5	>100; >100
	Warburganal	4.5±1	37.9±8; 38.1±9
	Drimendiol	25.5±8	65.1±24; 67.1±12
	Drimenol	15.4±7	14.7±2; 16.4±3
	Specs 1	>400	NT

	Specs 2	131.5±6	NT
	Specs 3	>400	NT
	Specs 4	>400	NT
	Specs 5	>400	NT
	Specs 6	>400	NT
	Specs 7	>400	NT

566

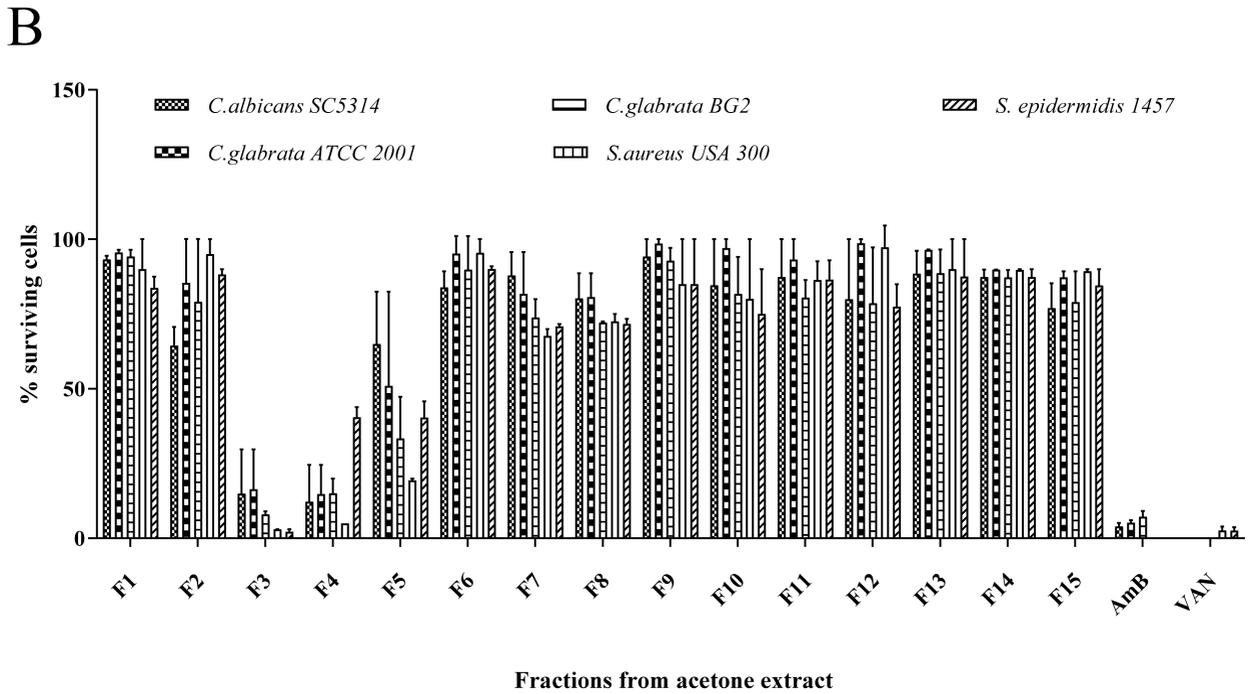
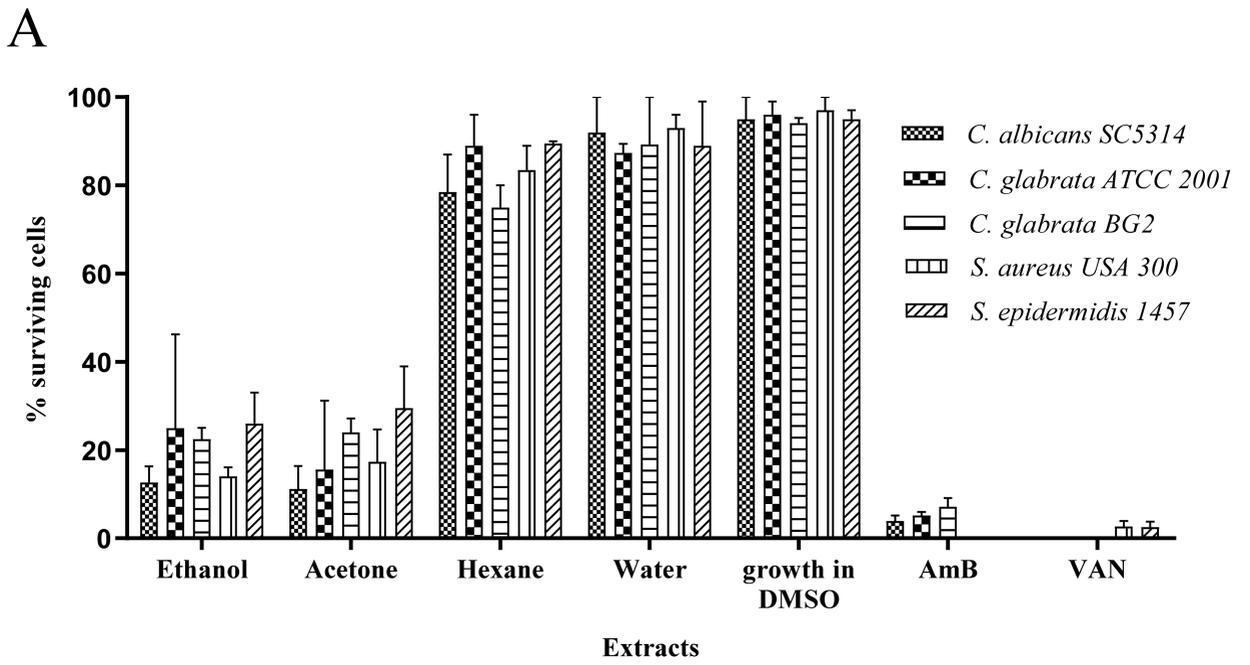
567

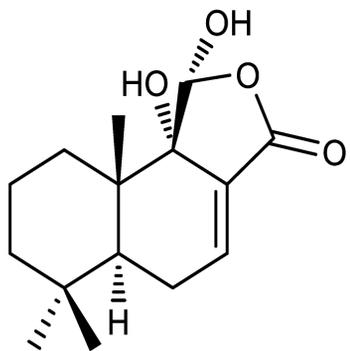
568

569 **Table 3.** Synergistic activities of azoles (miconazole or fluconazole) with warburganal or
 570 polygodial against *C. albicans* developing biofilms. BIC₁₀₀ represents the minimum
 571 concentration required to completely inhibit the growth of biofilms. W: warburganal, P:
 572 polygodial, MCZ: miconazole, FLZ: fluconazole.

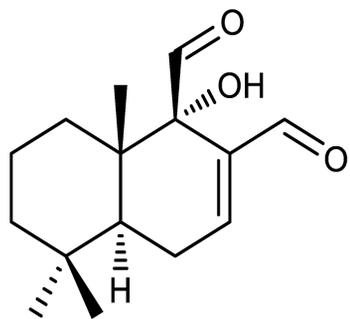
Compounds	BIC ₁₀₀ alone (µg/mL)	BIC ₁₀₀ combined (µg/mL)		FICI	
		W/MCZ	W/FLZ	W/MCZ	W/FLZ
		P/MCZ	P/FLZ	P/MCZ	P/FLZ
Warburganal (W)	25	3.13/0.19	3.13/3.3	0.16	<0.25
Polygodial (P)	12.5	1.6/0.05	0.78/1.7	0.13	<0.12
Miconazole (MCZ)	6.13	-		-	
Fluconazole (FLZ)	>26.6	-		-	

573

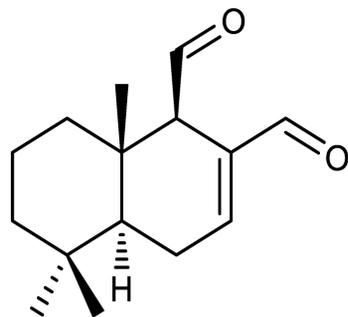




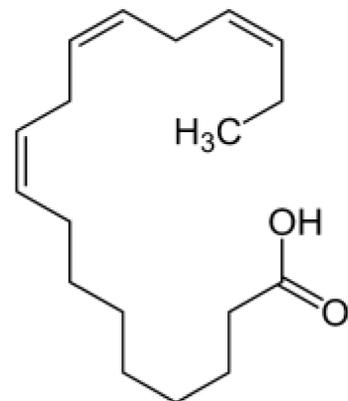
1



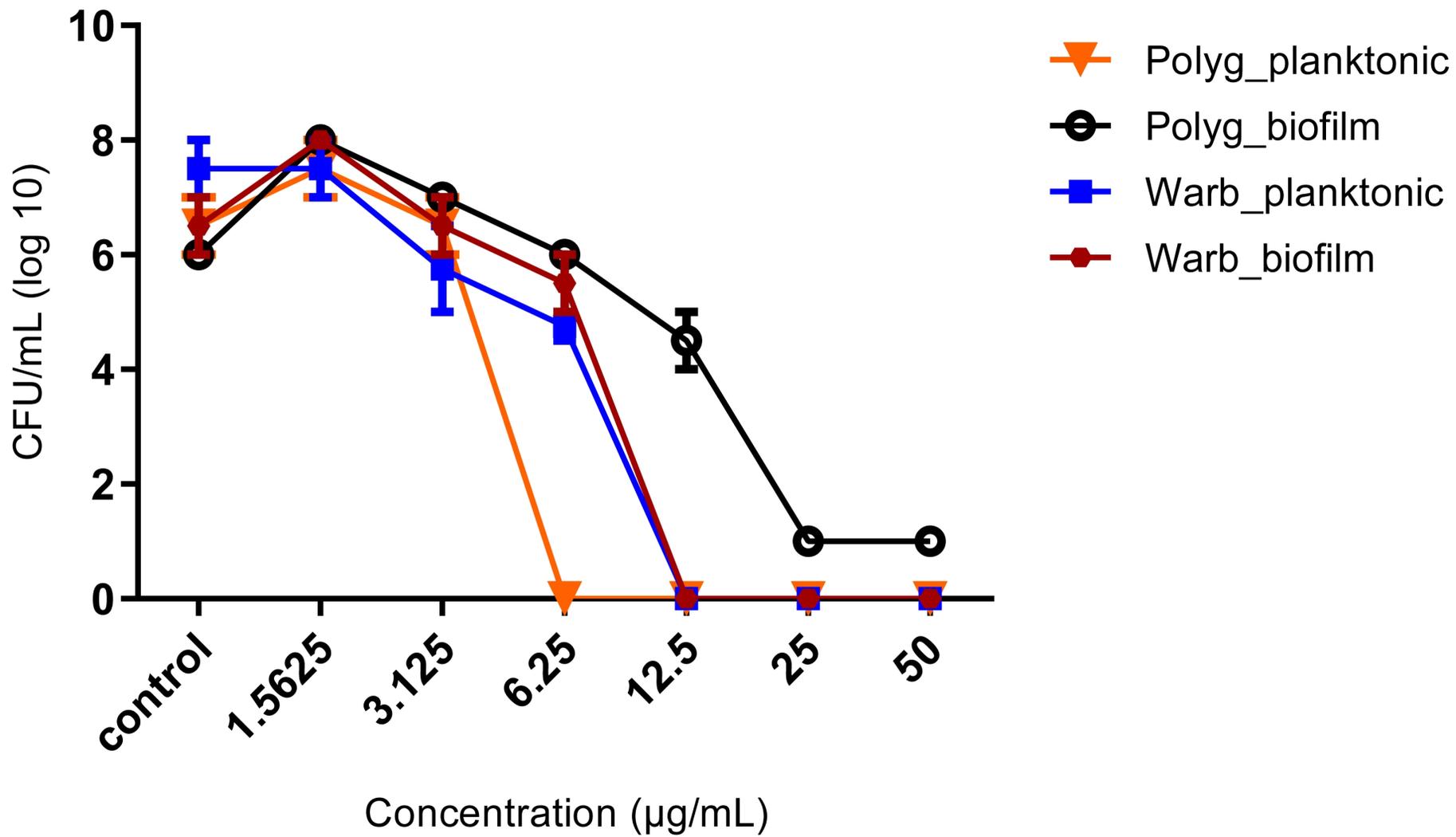
2

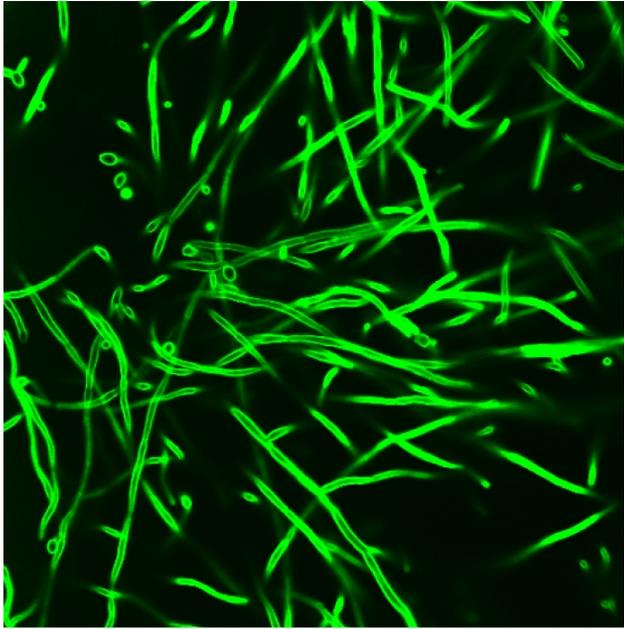


3

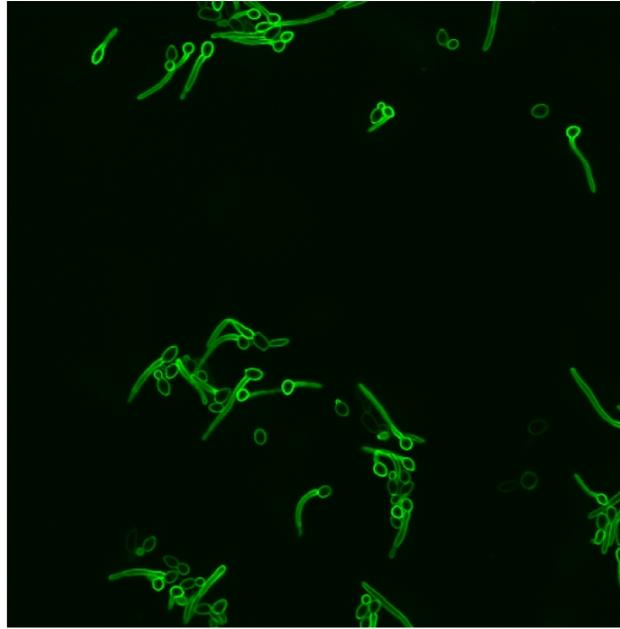


4

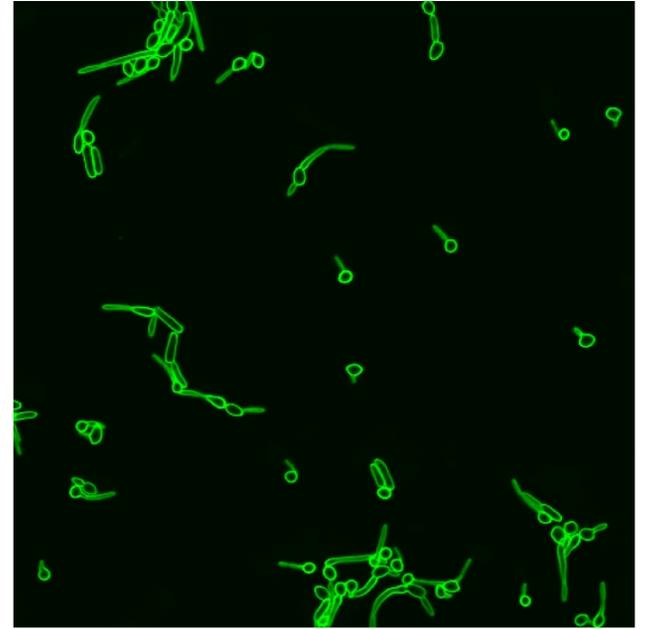




a)



b)

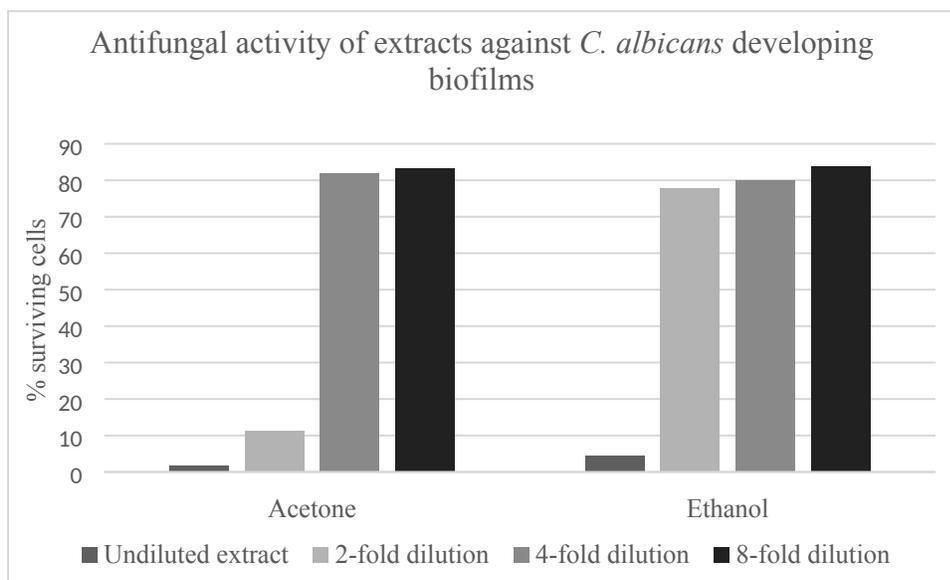


c)

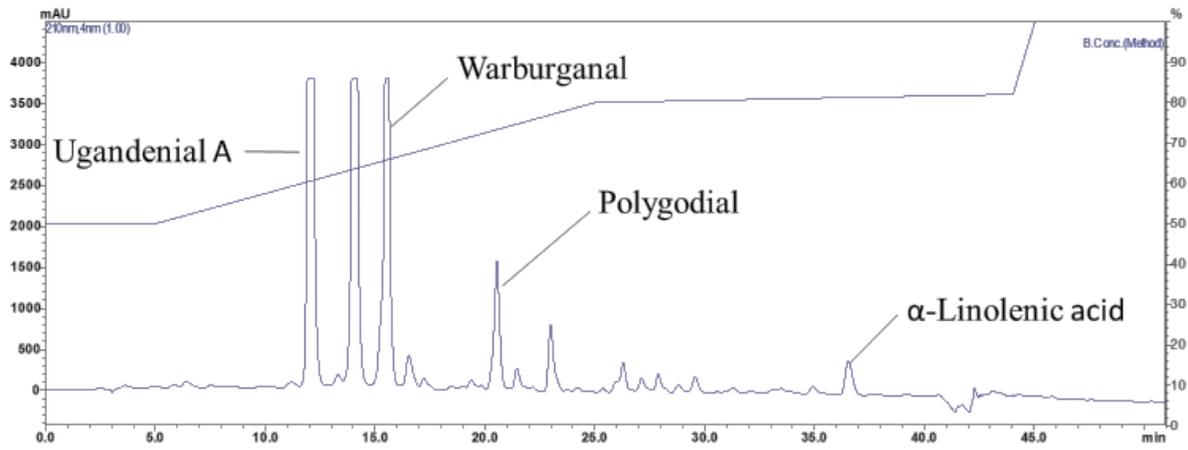
Compounds from *Warburgia ugandensis* Sprague Leaves that inhibit *Candida* and Staphylococcal biofilms

Purity Kipanga^{a,b*}, Maoxuan Liu^a, Sujogya Kumar Panda^b, Anh Hung Mai^c, Cedrick Veryser^c, Luc Van Puyvelde^b, Wim M. De Borggraeve^c, Patrick Van Dijck^{d,e}, Josphat Matasyoh^f and Walter Luyten^b

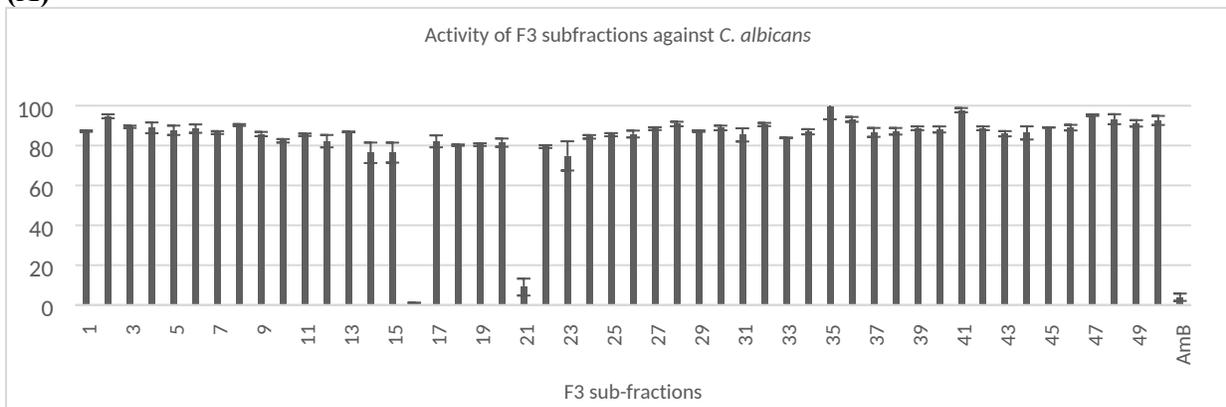
Supplemental material I: 2-fold serial dilution of acetone and ethanol extracts to establish which extract was more active to proceed to large-scale extraction.



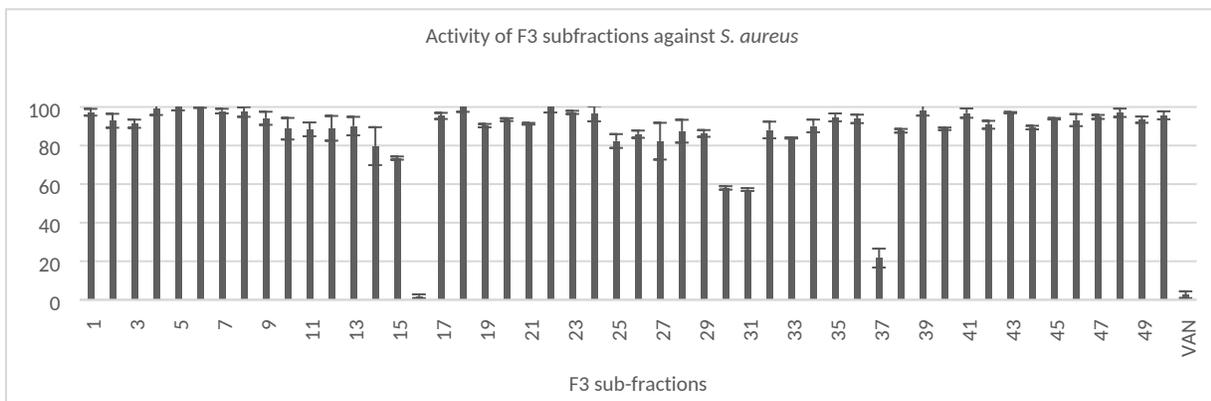
Supplemental material II: Establishing active peaks by comparing activity of fractions collected with peaks in the chromatogram.



(A)



(B)



(C)

A: Chromatogram (210 nm) of F3 resolved on a C18 column showing compounds present in the fraction. A 1 mL dried aliquot of F3 was dissolved in 50% acetonitrile-water, and injected onto a C18 column. The column was eluted by an ACN/water gradient (50-100%; black solid line).

B: Sub-fraction(s) were collected per minute from F3 and tested for activity (% surviving cells) against *C. albicans* developing biofilms

C: Sub-fraction(s) were collected per minute from F3 and tested for activity (% surviving cells) against *S. aureus* developing biofilms