

ROLE OF HERBAL ANTIFUNGAL AGENTS FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF FUNGAL DISEASES: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

KUSUM KAUSHIK*, SHWETA AGARWAL

Department of Pharmaceutics, LR Institute of Pharmacy, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India. Email: kaushikkusum081994@gmail.com

Received: 29 April 2019, Revised and Accepted: 28 May 2019

ABSTRACT

Nowadays, fungal infection of skin is one of the most common dermatological problems worldwide. It has been investigated that 40 million people suffer from fungal infections. Superficial and subcutaneous fungal infections affect the skin, keratinous tissues, and mucous membranes. The dermatophytic infections, superficial candidiasis of the mouth, skin, or genital tract and infections due to *Malassezia*, such as pityriasis versicolor and *Malassezia* folliculitis are the main afflicting conditions. Systemic fungal infections may be caused by either an opportunistic organism that infects an at-risk host or may be associated with a more invasive organism or may be endemic to a specific geographical area. The most frequently encountered pathogens are *Candida albicans* and *Aspergillus* spp. but other fungi such as non-*albicans Candida* spp. are increasingly important in causing systemic fungal infections. There are numerous antifungal agents used clinically to treat fungal infections, i.e., azoles, allylamines, echinocandins, griseofulvin, and flucytosine. The course to modern treatment has not been without its problems and complications, particularly the drug resistances. Phytochemistry of various plant species has indicated that the phytochemicals could be a better source of medicine as compared to synthetically produced drugs. Natural medicines from a plant origin are still used as therapeutic agents, especially for treating bacterial, fungal, viral, protozoal, helminthic infections, etc. This review focuses on the use of plant constituents to prevent fungal infections caused by various pathogens. Hence, it will be proved beneficial for the drug industries.

Keywords: Fungal infection, Dermatophyte, Pityriasis versicolor, Pathogens, Endemic, Natural medicines.

© 2019 The Authors. Published by Innovare Academic Sciences Pvt Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>) DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.22159/ajpcr.2019.v12i7.33831>

INTRODUCTION

The humans live in peaceful coexistence with the surrounding microorganisms but an infection may emerge from the surrounding microorganisms when the defense system is damaged or the concentration of pathogens reach an exceptionally high density whereas infectious disease is a condition in which the infecting agents do elicit a response of the body, which leads to clinically manifest signs and symptoms. Bacteria, viruses, parasites, fungi, prions, worms, and helminths have all been involved in causing infectious diseases. A few decades ago, an infection caused by bacteria was the most feared and as the strategies to control bacterial infections in patients improved, but nowadays, fungi are the most hazardous pathogens [1].

Fungi exist in two basic forms: Yeasts and molds. Yeasts are typically single, small, and oval cells, whereas mold colonies consist of filamentous strands called hyphae. Some fungi are dimorphic, exists either as yeasts or molds depending on the external environment such as temperature [2,3]. Fungi are ubiquitous within the environment; however, only a few species are routinely found associated with humans who are capable of causing disease. A handful of fungi that is responsible for causing disease in healthy individuals are considered as true pathogens, (*Histoplasma* and *Paracoccidioides*), while the majority of fungi causing disease primarily in immuno-suppressed individuals are often classified as opportunistic pathogens (*Candida* and *Cryptococcus*) [4]. However, it is obvious that some opportunistic fungal pathogens also cause disease in otherwise healthy individuals (*Candida vaginitis* or *Cryptococcus gattii* outbreaks) [5,6]. Invasive fungal infections are characterized by high morbidity and mortality, although these infections are now more frequent they are still difficult to diagnose, prevent, and treat. [7]

For a systemic effect, the intravenous or oral route is mainly used to treat topical fungal infection. However, it causes many side effects, including gastric irritation, diarrhea, nausea, vomiting and stomach pain, headache,

fever, renal impairment, and anemia. Hence, the topical drug delivery is the most suitable routes for the administration of drugs that undergo first-pass metabolism. It is generally effective against fungal infections [8]. By spreading and rubbing ointments, creams, and gels applied directly to an external body surface for topical administration of drugs to the skin. For the therapeutic effect, the drug must permeate and diffuse across the skin [9,10]. The rate and extent of transport depend on the drug molecular properties and the characteristic of the biologic tissue. Advantages of the topical treatment of fungal infections include targeting the site of infection; increase the efficacy of treatment, reduction in the risk of systemic side effects, and to increase the patient compliance [11].

There are numerous antifungal agents used clinically to treat fungal infections and can be broadly classified into five major classes, i.e., azoles, allylamines, echinocandins, griseofulvin, and flucytosine [12]. Although the course to modern treatment has not been without its problems and complications, particularly the drug resistances which have not had a major impact on the currently used antifungals with the exception of superficial Candidiasis infections; however, azole resistance is well recognized. The rise of *Candida auris* as a pathogen, which is resistant to multidrug is a further worry although it has not had a major impact on skin infection, superficial carriage is well documented [13-16].

Therefore, the discovery of novel antifungals is severely needed. Phytochemistry of various plant species has indicated that the phytochemicals could be a better source of medicine as compared to synthetically produced drugs. The use of plants as medicine goes back to early man. These traditional medicines based on medicinal plants have been used for centuries. Therefore, one approach that has been used for the discovery of antimicrobial agents is the evaluation of plant extracts [17].

TYPES OF FUNGAL INFECTIONS

Topical/superficial disease caused by fungal pathogens

Superficial fungal infections occur in the outermost layers of the skin, nails, hair, and mucous membranes [18].

Dermatophytosis

Dermatophyte fungi are organisms that digest keratin [19]. Dermatophytes infect the stratum corneum of the epidermis and keratinized tissues derived from it, such as hair or nail. *Trichophyton* spp., *Microsporum* spp., and *Epidermophyton* spp. are responsible for most of the superficial fungal infections, although the causative agents can be some yeast and some non dermatophyte molds [20].

Tinea pedis

Tinea pedis is a dermatophyte infection of the foot, affecting particularly the toes and sole caused mainly by *Trichophyton rubrum*, *Trichophyton mentagrophytes*, and *Epidermophyton floccosum* pathogens. This infection affects 15–30% of the population [21] and is the most common dermatophyte fungal disease that occurs in man [22]. Individuals with tinea pedis may be susceptible to secondary bacterial infection with, for example, Group A streptococcus [23].

Tinea corporis

Two major causative organisms causing tinea corporis are *T. rubrum*, *T. mentagrophytes* affecting neck, trunk, and the extremities. The classic tinea corporis lesion is a sharply defined circular lesion with erythema, scaling, and small blisters or pustules at the border. The lesion is usually <5 cm in diameter. The fungus is often transmitted from domestic animals, such as cats, dogs, hamsters, and guinea pigs to humans [21].

Tinea capitis

The predominant causative agent of this infection is *Trichophyton tonsurans* and mainly causes disease in childhood, presenting with alopecia and scaling on the scalp [24,25].

Tinea unguium or onychomycosis (nails)

T. rubrum and *T. mentagrophytes* dermatophytes are the principal causes of onychomycosis, accounting approximately for 90% of toenail infections and 50% of fingernail infections [26-28].

Superficial candidiasis

Superficial candidiasis infections are usually caused by *Candida albicans*, and this organism is a common commensal in the mouth, vagina, and gastrointestinal tract in healthy individuals. The prevalence of carriage is greater in hospitalized patients and those who are immuno-compromised.

Oropharyngeal candidiasis (oral thrush)

It has typical symptoms and signs of soreness and white patches on an erythematous background (plaque type). An erythematous variety exists; this does not have plaques, but sore areas of erythema are typical. Acute or chronic infection can occur in immuno-compromised individuals. Other predisposing factors include antibiotic therapy and dentures.

Vaginal candidiasis (vaginal thrush)

Vaginal candidiasis is a common infection, with clinical appearances similar to those of oropharyngeal disease, plus vaginal discharge. Pruritus can also occur, and recurrent episodes are common. Women with vaginal thrush seldom have underlying predisposing factors.

Candidiasis of the skin

Candidiasis of the skin is often confined to body folds, including the inter-digital spaces of the hands or feet. Typically, small satellite pustules lie distal to the periphery of the rim of the rash. Chronic paronychia (nail fold infections) can be caused by *Candida*.

Malassezia infection

Malassezia spp. are common surface commensals of greasy skin includes scalp, chest, and they are associated with pityriasis versicolor, seborrheic dermatitis, and folliculitis [29].

Pityriasis versicolor

Pityriasis versicolor is a scaly, hypo- or hyper-pigmented rash on the trunk which is found common in tropical regions and the patches can resemble vitiligo, but the presence of scaling is typical.

Seborrheic dermatitis

Seborrheic dermatitis is a common scaly condition affecting the face, the front of the chest, and the scalp. Severe seborrheic dermatitis is particularly common in patients with AIDS or chronic neurological Parkinson's disease.

Malassezia folliculitis

Malassezia folliculitis is an itchy, follicular rash on the upper back and shoulders that can resemble acne [30].

Subcutaneous infection

Although subcutaneous mycoses can disseminate, they are usually limited to the dermis and subcutaneous tissues.

Sporotrichosis

Sporotrichosis is caused by the dimorphic fungus *Sporothrix schenckii* and is the most prevalent subcutaneous infection [31]. The fungus is found in soil, vegetation and usually causes disease in farmers or gardeners, especially those who tend roses. It is a localized cutaneous or subcutaneous lesion, which may spread via the lymphatic system and form further lesions. Lymphocutaneous sporotrichosis is a non-life-threatening disease [32].

Chromoblastomycosis

Chromoblastomycosis is a chronic cutaneous or subcutaneous fungal infection caused by members of the Dematiaceae family including *Fonsecaea pedrosoi*, *Cladosporium carrionii*, *Fonsecaea compacta*, *Phialophora verrucosa*, and *Rhinochloidiella aquaspersa* and found in wood, vegetable debris, and soil [33]. Symptoms are raised, crusted lesions of the skin.

Chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis

Chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis is a rare syndrome consisting of chronic infection of mucous membranes usually by *C. albicans*, which may extend to the skin and nails. The condition is associated with impaired cell-mediated responses to *Candida*, although the underlying defect remains poorly understood [34,35]. Various manifestations including white fissured lesions; hyperkeratotic, granulomatous and vegetating lesions, autosomal recessive trait associated with endocrine disorders, for example, hypoparathyroidism.

Systemic fungal infections

Systemic fungal infections can be divided into two distinct groups: The endemic or dimorphic mycoses. These infections are caused by true pathogenic fungi as compared with the opportunistic mold and yeast infections that are saprophytes, which only will invade an immuno-compromised host [36,37]. Such infections are life-threatening and are associated with high rates of death. Solid organ transplant recipients who take immunosuppressive medications to limit the risk of rejection also have an increased susceptibility to systemic fungal infections [2,3].

Opportunistic pathogens**Invasive candidiasis**

At present, *Candida* spp. rank as the fourth most frequent cause of nosocomial bloodstream infections [38,39]. Nosocomial candidiasis may be either endogenous which is acquired through previous colonization of the mouth, gastrointestinal tract, vagina or skin or by exogenous which is acquired by cross-infection from another patient or healthcare worker [40]. *C. albicans* is the most frequently isolated species, causing 48–60% of bloodstream fungal infections [38,41,42]. However, a change in the pattern of *Candida*-related disease has been resulting in the emergence of a number of important non-*albicans Candida* spp., such as *Candida krusei*, *Candida parapsilosis*, *Candida tropicalis*, and *Candida glabrata* [38,41,43]. This epidemiological change has major clinical implications by some non-*albicans Candida* spp. and has higher complication and death rates than *C. albicans* infections, and some species are resistant to antifungal agents [44,45].

Table 1: Classification of medicinal plants according to the bioactive compounds present in the plant for antifungal activity

S. No.	Bioactive compounds	Plant	The chemical constituent for antifungal activity
1	Polyphenols		
1.1		<i>Baseonema acuminatum</i>	Three phenolic compounds, 1-galloyl- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1->4)- β -D galactopyranoside, 2-methoxy-5-(1',2',3'-trihydroxypropyl) phenyl-1-O-(6"-galloyl)- β -D-glucopyranoside and 2-methoxy-5-hydroxymethyl-phenyl-1- O-(6"-galloyl)- β -D-glucopyranoside together were reported for antifungal activity against <i>Candida albicans</i> [82]
1.2		<i>Cuban propolis</i>	A novel polyisoprenylated benzophenone showed significant antimicrobial and antifungal activities against a variety of bacteria and yeasts [83]
1.3		<i>Garcinia mangostana</i>	Geranylated biphenyl derivative 3-hydroxy-4-geranyl-5 methoxybiphenyl has strong antifungal and a number of other biological activities [84]
1.4		<i>Isolona cauliflora</i> and <i>Monodora angolensis</i>	Some of the prenylindoles had antifungal and antimalarial activities [85]
1.5		<i>Lycium chinense</i>	Dihydro-N-caffeoyltyramine, <i>trans</i> -Nferuloyloctopamine, <i>trans</i> -N caffeoyltyramine, and <i>cis</i> -N-caffeoyltyramine reported to have anti-fungal activity [86]
1.6		<i>Toronia toru</i>	4-Hydroxyphenyl-6-O-[(3R)-3,4- dihydroxy-2-methylenebutanoyl]-D-glucopyranoside has the main antimicrobial component of the crude extract [87]
2	Flavonoids		
2.1		<i>Artemisia giraldii</i>	The flavones hispidulin and belamcanidin were shown to inhibit the growth of the broad range of human pathogenic fungi [88]
2.2		<i>Aquilegia vulgaris</i>	4-methoxy-5,7-dihydroxyflavone 6-Cglucoside (isocytoside) showed activity against the mold <i>Aspergillus niger</i> [89]
2.3		<i>Adina cordifolia</i>	A flavon 3,4',5,7-tetraacetyl quercetin exhibited moderate antifungal activity against <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> and <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> [90]
2.4		<i>Hildegardia barteri</i>	An isoflavone, 2-hydroxy maackian was observed to have antifungal activity [91]
2.5		<i>Malus sylvestris</i>	Flavonoid derivative phloretin has antifungal properties [92]
2.6		<i>Piper solmsianum</i>	The four compounds eupomatenoid-3, eupomatenoid-5, conocarpan, and orientin exhibited antifungal action against all the dermatophytes tested [93]
2.7		<i>Selaginella tamariscina</i>	Amentoflavone exhibited potent antifungal activity [94]
3	Coumarins		
3.1		<i>Clausena excavate</i>	Clausenidin, dentatin, nor-dentatin, and carbazole derivatives, and clauszoline J showed antimycotic activity [95]
3.2		<i>Melia azedarach</i>	Hydroxycoumarin scopoleti reported to be antifungal against <i>Fusarium verticillioides</i> [96]
3.3		<i>Senecio poepigii</i>	A bioactive eremophilanolide, 1-tigloyloxy-8bH,10bH-eremophil- 7 (11)-en-8a, 12-olide showed antifungal properties [97]
3.4		<i>Tordylium apulum</i>	An antifungal dihydrofuranocoumarin, 20(S),30(R)-20-acetoxyisopropyl- 30-acetoxy-20,30-dihydroangelicin, were reported [98]
4	Quinones		
4.1		<i>Annona squamosa</i>	A compound, 11-hydroxy-16-hentriacontanone was reported for its antifungal potential [99]
4.2		<i>Kigelia pinnata</i>	The naphthoquinones kigelinone, isopinnatal, dihydro-a-lapachone were reported for antifungal activity [100]
4.3		<i>Rubia tinctorum</i> and <i>Rhamnus frangula</i>	Alizarin and emodin are the major anthraquinone aglycones for antifungal activity [101]
5	Saponoins		
5.1		<i>Phytolacca tetramera</i>	Phytolaccosides B and showed antifungal activities against a panel of human pathogenic opportunistic fungi [102]
5.2		<i>Sansevieria ehrenbergii</i>	Three spirostanol saponins designated sansevierin A, sansevistatin 1, and sansevistatin 2 and three steroidal exhibited antimicrobial activities, particularly against the pathogenic fungi <i>Candida albicans</i> and <i>Candida neoformans</i> [103]
5.3		<i>Smilax medica</i>	Spirostanol steroidal saponins together with the smilagenin 3-O-b-Dglucopyranoside and disporoside A exhibited antifungal activity against the human pathogenic yeasts <i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Candida glabrata</i> , and <i>Candida tropicalis</i> [104]
5.4		<i>Ypsilandra thebetica</i>	Recently, steroidal saponins ypsilandroside B, ypsilandroside A, isoypsilandroside A, isoypsilandroside B, and isoypsilandrogaine were reported for antimicrobial activities [105]
6	Xanthones		
6.1		<i>Calophyllum caledonicum</i>	Caledonixanthone E was reported for strong antifungal activity [106]
6.2		<i>Cudrania fruticosa</i>	Isoprenylated xanthone, cudrafrutixanthone which showed antifungal activity against <i>Candida albicans</i> [107]
6.3		<i>Monnina obtusifolia</i>	1,3,6- Trihydroxy-2,5 dimethoxyxanthone was reported to have the antifungal potential [108]
6.4		<i>Securidaca longepedunculata</i>	The dichloromethane yielded 1,7-dihydroxy- 4-methoxyxanthone, which exhibited antibacterial activity against <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> and antifungal activity against <i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> , and a <i>Penicillium</i> species [109]

(Contd....)

Table 1: (Continued)

S. No.	Bioactive compounds	Plant	The chemical constituent for antifungal activity
7	Alkaloids		
7.1		<i>Aniba panurensis</i>	6,8-didec-(1Z)-enyl-5,7-dimethyl-2,3-dihydro-1H-indolizinium from <i>Aniba panurensis</i> demonstrated the activity against drug-resistant strains of <i>Candida albicans</i> [110]
7.2		<i>Corydalis longipes</i>	The alkaloids N-methylhydrasteine hydroxylactam and 1-methoxyberberine chloride from <i>Corydalis longipes</i> showed high efficacy individually [111]
7.3		<i>Datura metel</i>	Recently, an alkaloid, 2-(3,4-dimethyl-2,5-dihydro-1H-pyrrol-2-yl)-1-methylethyl pentanoate, has been isolated from the plant <i>Datura metel</i> and showed <i>in vitro</i> as well as <i>in vivo</i> activities against <i>Aspergillus</i> and <i>Candida</i> species [112]
7.4		<i>Epinetrum villosum</i>	Coccoline, a bisbenzylisoquinoline alkaloid from the <i>Epinetrum villosum</i> displayed antifungal activities [113]
7.5		<i>Melochia odorata</i>	Frangulanine, a cyclic peptide alkaloid, and waltherione A, a quinolinone alkaloid from leaves of <i>Melochia odorata</i> , were reported to exhibit antifungal activities against a broad spectrum of pathogenic fungi [114]
7.6		<i>Zanthoxylum chiloperone</i> var. <i>angustifolium</i>	Canthin-6-one and 5-methoxy-canthin-6-one of <i>Zanthoxylum chiloperone</i> var. <i>angustifolium</i> exhibited antifungal activity against <i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> and <i>Trichophyton mentagrophytes</i> [115]
8	Terpenoids and essential oil		
8.1		<i>Delphinium denudatum</i>	The roots of yield 8-acetylheterophyllisine, panicutine, and 3-hydroxy-2-methyl-4H-pyran-4-one which have shown antifungal activity against a number of human pathogenic fungi [116]
8.2		<i>Litsea cubeba</i>	The essential oil from the leaves of have α -cis-ocimene, 3,7-dimethyl-1,6-octadien-3-ol and ntransnerolidol had manifest antifungal activities with minimal inhibitory concentration between 0.03 and 0.4 μ L/mL for utilized pathogenic fungi and 1.0–2.0 μ L/mL for molds [117]
8.3		<i>Polyalthia longifolia</i>	The diterpenoids 16ahydroxy-cleroda-3,13 (14)-Z-diene-15,16-olide and 16-oxo-cleroda-3,13 (14)-E-diene-15-oic acid isolated from the hexane extract of the seeds demonstrated significant antifungal activity [118]
8.4		<i>Vernonanthura tweedieana</i>	The afforded one antifungal active sesquiterpene, 6-cinnamoyloxy-1-hydroxyeudesm-4-en-3-one [119]
9	Polypeptides		
9.1		<i>Cicer arietinum</i>	A peptide designated cicerarin showed antifungal activity [120]
9.2		Black pumpkin	A novel antifungal peptide, cucurmoschin, inhibited mycelial growth in the fungi [121]
9.3		<i>Basella rubra</i>	Two novel antifungal peptides, designated alpha- and betabasrubrins, respectively. [122]

Invasive aspergillosis

Aspergillus spp. is ubiquitous, occurring most frequently in soil, water, and decaying vegetation. Most *Aspergillus* infections are acquired through the respiratory tract inhalation and are associated with hospital construction work or contaminated ventilation systems. Infections may also be acquired from plants or certain foods such as pepper. Sign and symptoms include: Unremitting fever and pulmonary infiltrates during antibiotic therapy, chest pain, pleural rub, pleural effusion, and hemoptysis. Computed tomography scan shows characteristic halo and air crescent signs while radiography reveals single or multifocal lesions [46].

Cryptococcus

Cryptococcal infection usually results from the inhalation of *Cryptococcus neoformans*, which is found primarily in soil contaminated by pigeon or chicken excreta. *Cryptococcus* has a particular affinity for the central nervous system, resulting in *Cryptococcal meningitis*, and is one of the most significant life-threatening fungal infections associated with HIV [47]. Cryptococcal infection may also be seen in non-immunocompromised individuals [48] and patients with impaired cell-mediated immunity, for example, that undergoing solid organ transplantation [49].

Zygomycosis

Fungal infections from the class Mucorales (*Mucor*, *Absidia*, and *Rhizopus*) are seen increasingly in immune-compromised hosts [50]. Mucorales infections are typically an airborne disease, initiated in the upper or lower airways and have clinical symptoms similar to those of aspergillosis [51-53].

Other invasive infections

Rarer opportunistic pathogens that have emerged during recent years include *Penicillium marneffeii*, *Fusarium* spp., *Malassezia* spp.,

Trichosporon spp., *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and *Blastoschizomyces capitatus* [54-57]. Invasive infection by *Malassezia furfur*, a commensal yeast normally associated with the superficial fungal infection. *Tinea versicolor* has also increased in frequency in recent years and is associated with parenteral nutrition [58].

Endemic pathogens

Systemic endemic mycoses include a group of dimorphic fungi that are found in distinct geographical regions [59].

Blastomycosis

Blastomycosis is the dimorphic fungi caused by the pathogens *Blastomyces dermatitidis* and *Blastomyces gilchristii*, which are found in humid soil containing decaying vegetation or decomposed wood and are associated with freshwater drainage basins [60]. It is reported mainly in North America and in Africa but occasionally has also been reported in Central and South America, Mexico, India, and the Middle East [61].

Histoplasmosis

Histoplasmosis caused by the dimorphic fungus *Histoplasma capsulatum* is found worldwide, but particularly in North, Central, and South America. Depending on the immune status of the host and the infectious dose, the clinical manifestations vary. In immunocompetent persons, the disease is usually asymptomatic or manifests as an acute respiratory illness that is self-limiting, whereas in immunocompromised persons, it can result in severe illness with progressive pulmonary disease or disseminated infection. Symptoms are usually mild, but due to heavy exposure of fungus in individuals may cause fever, chills, headache, myalgia, anorexia, cough, and chest pain [62-64].

Coccidioidomycosis

It is endemic in the southwestern parts of the USA (California, Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, and Nevada) and parts of Central and South America (Mexico, Brazil, and Argentina) and caused by the dimorphic fungi *Coccidioides immitis* and *Coccidioides posadasii*. The most common clinical manifestations are chest pain, cough, fever, weight loss, and fatigue, often associated with dermatological manifestations including erythema nodosum or erythema multiforme and rheumatological manifestations including myalgia and arthralgia. The disease can also spread from the lungs hematogenously to bones, joints, skin, and the central nervous system [65-71].

Paracoccidioidomycosis

Paracoccidioidomycosis is caused by the dimorphic fungi *Paracoccidioides brasiliensis* and *Paracoccidioides lutzii*. These are found in certain parts of South America, especially not only in Brazil but also in Argentina, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela [72,73].

Penicilliosis

In Southeast Asia, penicilliosis is now the third most frequently occurring opportunistic infection in HIV-infected patients. Isolated cases have also been reported in western countries caused by *P. marneffei* [54].

HERBAL ANTIFUNGAL AGENTS

Medicinal plants are of great importance to the health of individuals and communities, and their importance lies in the chemical substances that produce a definite physiological action on the human body. Many of the pharmaceuticals currently available have a long history of use as herbal remedies including opium, aspirin, digitalis, and quinine while their purification and quantification makes them more predictable and chemical processing can sometimes modify their effects in desirable ways. Herbal remedies tend to have a more complex and subtle mix of chemicals and can sometimes offer access to drugs or combinations of drugs that the pharmaceutical industry has not yet exploited. These natural compounds formed the basis of discovering modern drugs [74-76]. Some of the antifungal drugs most recently introduced in clinical practice are echinocandins and sordarines derived from natural products [77,78]. Therefore, there is a need to develop new antifungal agents providing new mechanisms of action, with a broad spectrum of antifungal activity, fewer dose-limiting side effects, and economic [79,80]. Some of the plants having wide fungal activity are listed in Table 1. Which will be proved beneficial for the pharmaceutical industry when formulated. Herbal formulations always have attracted considerable attention due to their good activity and comparatively lesser side effects when compared to synthetic drugs [81].

MARKETED PREPARATIONS**Himalaya V-gel**

Himalaya V-gel consists of persian rose, triphala, and cardamom. Himalaya V-gel is indicated for vaginal candidiasis (fungal yeast infection), vaginal trichomoniasis (parasitic vaginal infection), and non-specific bacterial vaginitis.

Himalaya hiora mouth wash

Himalaya hiora mouthwash kills germs, tones gums and refreshes mouth. It contains Meswak, Betel and Bibhitaki. Meswak and (Salvadora persica) tree twigs are popular teeth-cleaning agents, prevent tooth decay, and eliminates toothache and bad breath. Betel (Nagavalli) leaf effectively tackles halitosis, and its mild stimulating properties are beneficial for toothaches. *Belleric myrobalan* (Bibhitaki) is an antimicrobial and antifungal agent that keeps infections at bay.

Purifica 1% vaginal gel

Purifica gel contains *Pueraria mirifica* root extract.

Himalaya wellness acne-n-pimple cream

Himalaya acne-n-pimple cream works wonders with the help of natural ingredients such as Lentil, Silk Cotton Tree, Five-leaved Chaste Tree,

Barbados Aloe, and Alum. Lentil's astringent and anti-inflammatory properties help in reducing inflammation associated with acne.

CONCLUSION

Although wide progress has been made in recent decades in medicine, fungal infections are still an unsolved health problem. It is mainly due to the fact that some of the available antifungal drugs cause resistance. The plant kingdom is a rich source of medicinal preparations that offer a wide chemical diversity, making it of huge potential for new drug development. Phytochemistry of various plant species has indicated that the phytochemicals could be a better source of medicine as compared to synthetically produced drugs. Researchers over the last years have developed a variety of chemical structures with antifungal activity based on natural compounds which are in the process of design and development. Thus, the plant kingdom holds a lot of potential which further needs to be explored in depth.

CONTRIBUTION OF AUTHORS

We declare that the work was done by the authors named in the article, and all the liabilities pertaining to claims relating to the content of this article will be borne by the authors. Kusum Kaushik, Shweta Agarwal conceived and designed the study. Kusum Kaushik wrote the manuscript, and all the authors read and approved the manuscript for publication.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

No conflicts of interest associated with this article.

REFERENCES

1. Wisplinghoff H, Seifert H, Wenzel RP, Edmond MB. Current trends in the epidemiology of nosocomial bloodstream infections in patients with hematological malignancies and solid neoplasms in hospitals in the United States. *Clin Infect Dis* 2003;36:1103-10.
2. Groll AH, Shah PM, Mentzel C, Schneider M, Just-Nuebling G, Huebner K. Trends in the postmortem epidemiology of invasive fungal infections at a university hospital. *J Infect* 1996;33:23-32.
3. Denning DW, Evans EG, Kibbler CC, Richardson MD, Roberts MM, Rogers TR, et al. Guidelines for the investigation of invasive fungal infections in haematological malignancy and solid organ transplantation. *British Society for Medical Mycology. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 1997;16:424-36.
4. Brown GD, Denning DW, Gow NA, Levitz SM, Netea MG, White TC. Hidden killers: Human fungal infections. *Sci Transl Med* 2012;4:165rv13.
5. Fidel PL Jr, Barousse M, Espinosa T, Ficarra M, Sturtevant J, Martin DH, et al. An intravaginal live *Candida* challenge in humans leads to new hypotheses for the immunopathogenesis of vulvovaginal candidiasis. *Infect Immun* 2004;72:2939-46.
6. Byrnes EJ 3rd, Li W, Lewit Y, Ma H, Voelz K, Ren P, et al. Emergence and pathogenicity of highly virulent *Cryptococcus gattii* genotypes in the Northwest United States. *PLoS Pathog* 2010;6:e1000850.
7. Talaviya S, Majmudar F. Recent developments in antifungal agents. *Int J Pharm Pharm Sci* 2012;4 Suppl 4:4-10.
8. Sathyan G, Ritschel WA, Hussain AS. Transdermal delivery of tacrine: I. Identification of a suitable delivery vehicle. *Int J Pharm* 1995;114:75-83.
9. Magdum C, Naikwade N, Shah R. Preparation and evaluation of fluconazole topical microemulsion. *J Pharm Res* 2009;3:557-61.
10. Banerjee M, Ghosh A, Basak S. Comparative evaluation of efficacy and safety of topical fluconazole and clotrimazole in the treatment of tinea corporis. *J Pak Assoc Dermatol* 2012;22:342-9.
11. Gungor S, Erdal M, Aksu B. New formulation strategies in topical antifungal therapy. *J Cosmet Dermatol Sci Appl* 2013;3:56-65.
12. Chen SC, Sorrell TC. Antifungal agents. *Med J Aust* 2007;187:404-9.
13. Gupta AK, Sauder DN, Shear NH. Antifungal agents: An overview. Part I. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1994;30:677-98.
14. Gupta AK, Sauder DN, Shear NH. Antifungal agents: An overview. Part II. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1994;30:911-33.
15. Crawford F, Hollis S. Topical treatments for fungal infections of the skin and nails of the foot. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2007;3:CD001434.
16. Rotta I, Ziegelmann PK, Otuki MF, Riveros BS, Bernardo NL, Correr CJ. Efficacy of topical antifungals in the treatment of

- dermatophytosis: A mixed-treatment comparison meta-analysis involving 14 treatments. *JAMA Dermatol* 2013;149:341-9.
17. Ozçelik B, Aslan M, Orhan I, Karaoglu T. Antibacterial, antifungal, and antiviral activities of the lipophylic extracts of *Pistacia vera*. *Microbiol Res* 2005;160:159-64.
 18. Detandt M, Nolard N. Fungal contamination of the floors of swimming pools, particularly subtropical swimming paradises. *Mycoses* 1995;38:509-13.
 19. Canavan TN, Elewski BE. Identifying signs of tinea pedis: A key to understanding clinical variables. *J Drugs Dermatol* 2015;14:s42-7.
 20. Evans EG. Tinea pedis: Clinical experience and efficacy of short treatment. *Dermatology* 1997;194 Suppl 1:3-6.
 21. Braun-Falco O, Plewig G, Wolff HH, Winkelmann RK. *Dermatology*. 2nd ed. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Verlag; 1991.
 22. Arnold HL, Odom R, Williams J. *Andrews' Diseases of the Skin*. 8th ed. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders; 1990.
 23. Semel JD, Goldin H. Association of athlete's foot with cellulitis of the lower extremities: Diagnostic value of bacterial cultures of ipsilateral interdigital space samples. *Clin Infect Dis* 1996;23:1162-4.
 24. Fuller LC, Barton RC, Mohd Mustapa MF, Proudfoot LE, Punjabi SP, Higgins EM. British association of dermatologists' guidelines for the management of tinea capitis 2014. *Br J Dermatol* 2014;171:454-63.
 25. Elewski BE. Tinea capitis: A current perspective. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2000;42:1-20.
 26. Tosti A, Piraccini BM, Lorenzi S. Onychomycosis caused by nondermatophytic molds: Clinical features and response to treatment of 59 cases. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2000;42:217-24.
 27. Ellis DH, Watson AB, Marley JE, Williams TG. Non-dermatophytes in onychomycosis of the toenails. *Br J Dermatol* 1997;136:490-3.
 28. Greer DL. Evolving role of nondermatophytes in onychomycosis. *Int J Dermatol* 1995;34:521-4.
 29. Velegraki A, Cafarchia C, Gaitanis G, Iatta R, Boekhout T. *Malassezia* infections in humans and animals: Pathophysiology, detection, and treatment. *PLoS Pathog* 2015;11:e1004523.
 30. Sobel JD. Recurrent vulvovaginal candidiasis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;214:15-21.
 31. Rios-Fabra A, Moreno AR, Istúriz RE. Fungal infection in Latin American countries. *Infect Dis Clin North Am* 1994;8:129-54.
 32. Sharkey-Mathis PK, Kauffman CA, Graybill JR, Stevens DA, Hostetler JS, Cloud G, *et al.* Treatment of sporotrichosis with itraconazole. NIAID mycoses study group. *Am J Med* 1993;95:279-85.
 33. Chapman SW, Daniel CR 3rd. Cutaneous manifestations of fungal infection. *Infect Dis Clin North Am* 1994;8:879-910.
 34. Lilic D, Cant AJ, Abinun M, Calvert JE, Spickett GP. Chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis. I. Altered antigen-stimulated IL-2, IL-4, IL-6 and interferon-gamma (IFN-gamma) production. *Clin Exp Immunol* 1996;105:205-12.
 35. Lilic D, Calvert JE, Cant AJ, Abinun M, Spickett GP. Chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis. II. Class and subclass of specific antibody responses *in vivo* and *in vitro*. *Clin Exp Immunol* 1996;105:213-9.
 36. Paterson DL, Singh N. Invasive aspergillosis in transplant recipients. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 1999;78:123-38.
 37. Pfaller MA, Diekema DJ. Epidemiology of invasive candidiasis: A persistent public health problem. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 2007;20:133-63.
 38. Pfaller MA, Jones RN, Messer SA, Edmond MB, Wenzel RP. National surveillance of nosocomial blood stream infection due to *Candida albicans*: Frequency of occurrence and antifungal susceptibility in the SCOPE program. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 1998;31:327-32.
 39. Pfaller MA, Jones RN, Messer SA, Edmond MB, Wenzel RP. National surveillance of nosocomial blood stream infection due to species of *Candida* other than *Candida albicans*: Frequency of occurrence and antifungal susceptibility in the SCOPE program. SCOPE participant group. Surveillance and control of pathogens of epidemiologic. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 1998;30:121-9.
 40. Bodey GP, Buckley M, Sathe YS, Freireich EJ. Quantitative relationships between circulating leukocytes and infection in patients with acute leukemia. *Ann Intern Med* 1966;64:328-40.
 41. Beck-Sagué C, Jarvis WR. Secular trends in the epidemiology of nosocomial fungal infections in the United States, 1980-1990. National nosocomial infections surveillance system. *J Infect Dis* 1993;167:1247-51.
 42. Rangel-Frausto MS, Wiblin T, Blumberg HM, Saiman L, Patterson J, Rinaldi M, *et al.* National epidemiology of mycoses survey (NEMIS): Variations in rates of bloodstream infections due to *Candida* species in seven surgical intensive care units and six neonatal intensive care units. *Clin Infect Dis* 1999;29:253-8.
 43. Odds FC. Epidemiological shifts in opportunistic and nosocomial *Candida* infections: Mycological aspects. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 1996;6:141-4.
 44. Abi-Said D, Anaissie E, Uzun O, Raad I, Pinzcowski H, Vartivarian S, *et al.* The epidemiology of hematogenous candidiasis caused by different *Candida* species. *Clin Infect Dis* 1997;24:1122-8.
 45. Wingard JR, Merz WG, Rinaldi MG, Johnson TR, Karp JE, Saral R. Increase in *Candida krusei* infection among patients with bone marrow transplantation and neutropenia treated prophylactically with fluconazole. *N Engl J Med* 1991;325:1274-7.
 46. Walsh TJ, Dixon DM. Nosocomial aspergillosis: Environmental microbiology, hospital epidemiology, diagnosis and treatment. *Eur J Epidemiol* 1989;5:131-42.
 47. Dromer F, Mathoulin S, Dupont B, Laporte A. Epidemiology of cryptococcosis in France: A 9-year survey (1985-1993). French Cryptococcosis Study Group. *Clin Infect Dis* 1996;23:82-90.
 48. Ruggieri M, Polizzi A, Vitaliti MC, Magro G, Musumeci S. Fatal biphasic brainstem and spinal leptomeningitis with *Cryptococcus neoformans* in a non-immunocompromised child. *Acta Paediatr* 1999;88:671-4.
 49. Mitchell DH, Sorrell TC, Allworth AM, Heath CH, McGregor AR, Papanoum K, *et al.* Cryptococcal disease of the CNS in immunocompetent hosts: Influence of cryptococcal variety on clinical manifestations and outcome. *Clin Infect Dis* 1995;20:611-6.
 50. Sugar AM. Mucormycosis. *Clin Infect Dis* 1992;14 Suppl 1:S126-9.
 51. Reingold AL, Lu XD, Plikaytis BD, Ajello L. Systemic mycoses in the United States, 1980-1982. *J Med Vet Mycol* 1986;24:433-6.
 52. Klein BS, Vergeront JM, Davis JP. Epidemiologic aspects of blastomycosis, the enigmatic systemic mycosis. *Semin Respir Infect* 1986;1:29-39.
 53. Kirkland TN, Fierer J. Coccidioidomycosis: A reemerging infectious disease. *Emerg Infect Dis* 1996;2:192-9.
 54. Duong TA. Infection due to *Penicillium marneffei*, an emerging pathogen: Review of 155 reported cases. *Clin Infect Dis* 1996;23:125-30.
 55. Fridkin SK, Jarvis WR. Epidemiology of nosocomial fungal infections. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 1996;9:499-511.
 56. Krcmery V, Krupova I, Denning DW. Invasive yeast infections other than *Candida* spp. in acute leukaemia. *J Hosp Infect* 1999;41:181-94.
 57. Boutati EI, Anaissie EJ. *Fusarium*, a significant emerging pathogen in patients with hematologic malignancy: Ten years' experience at a cancer center and implications for management. *Blood* 1997;90:999-1008.
 58. Marcon MJ, Powell DA. Epidemiology, diagnosis, and management of *Malassezia furfur* systemic infection. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 1987;7:161-75.
 59. Mirsaeidi M, Motahari H, Taghizadeh Khamesi M, Sharifi A, Campos M, Schraufnagel DE. Climate change and respiratory infections. *Ann Am Thorac Soc* 2016;13:1223-30.
 60. McTaggart LR, Brown EM, Richardson SE. Phylogeographic analysis of *Blastomyces dermatitidis* and *Blastomyces gilchristii* reveals an association with North American freshwater drainage basins. *PLoS One* 2016;11:e0159396.
 61. Roy M, Benedict K, Deak E, Kirby MA, McNeil JT, Sickler CJ, *et al.* A large community outbreak of blastomycosis in Wisconsin with geographic and ethnic clustering. *Clin Infect Dis* 2013;57:655-62.
 62. Wheat LJ, Conces D, Allen SD, Blue-Hnidy D, Loyd J. Pulmonary histoplasmosis syndromes: Recognition, diagnosis, and management. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med* 2004;25:129-44.
 63. Benedict K, Derado G, Mody RK. Histoplasmosis-associated hospitalizations in the United States, 2001-2012. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 2016;3:ofv219.
 64. Capone D, Wanke B, Monteiro PC, Lazéra MS, de Noronha Andrade G, do Valle AC, *et al.* Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis in the state of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. *Mycopathologia* 1999;145:75-9.
 65. Galgiani JN, Ampel NM, Blair JE, Catanzaro A, Johnson RH, Stevens DA, *et al.* Infectious diseases society of America: Coccidioidomycosis. *Clin Infect Dis* 2005;41:1217-23.
 66. Nicas M. A point-source outbreak of coccidioidomycosis among a highway construction crew. *J Occup Environ Hyg* 2018;15:57-62.
 67. Crum N, Lamb C, Utz G, Amundson D, Wallace M. Coccidioidomycosis outbreak among united states navy SEALs training in a *Coccidioides immitis*-endemic area—coalanga, California. *J Infect Dis* 2002;186:865-8.
 68. Petersen LR, Marshall SL, Barton-Dickson C, Hajjeh RA, Lindsley MD, Warnock DW, *et al.* Coccidioidomycosis among workers at an archeological site, Northeastern Utah. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2004;10:637-42.
 69. Williams PL, Sable DL, Mendez P, Smyth LT. Symptomatic coccidioidomycosis following a severe natural dust storm. An outbreak at the Naval Air Station, Lemoore, Calif. *Chest* 1979;76:566-70.

70. Osaki T, Morishita H, Maeda H, Kamei K, Hoshino S, Kijima T, *et al.* Pulmonary coccidioidomycosis that formed a fungus ball with 8-years duration. *Intern Med* 2005;44:141-4.
71. Capone D, Marchiori E, Wanke B, Dantas KE, Cavalcanti MA, Deus Filho A, *et al.* Acute pulmonary coccidioidomycosis: CT findings from 15 patients. *Br J Radiol* 2008;81:721-4.
72. Shikanai-Yasuda MA, Mendes RP, Colombo AL, Queiroz-Telles F, Kono AS, Paniago AM, *et al.* Brazilian guidelines for the clinical management of paracoccidioidomycosis. *Rev Soc Bras Med Trop* 2017;50:715-40.
73. Bethlem EP, Capone D, Maranhao B, Carvalho CR, Wanke B. Paracoccidioidomycosis. *Curr Opin Pulm Med* 1999;5:319-25.
74. Edeoga HO, Okwu DE, Mbaebie BO. Phytochemical constituents of some Nigerian medicinal plants. *Afr J Biotech* 2005;4:685-8.
75. Akinmo-Laudn AC, Ibukun EO, Afor E, Obuotor EM, Farombi EO. Phytochemical constituents and antioxidant activity of extracts from leaves of *O. gratissimum*. *Sci Res Essays* 2007;2:163-6.
76. Rout SP, Choudhary KA, Kar DM, Das L, Jain A. Plants in traditional medicinal system-future source of new drugs. *Int J Pharm Pharm Sci* 2009;1:1-23.
77. Di Santo R. Natural products as antifungal agents against clinically relevant pathogens. *Nat Prod Rep* 2010;27:1084-98.
78. Tomishima M, Ohki H, Yamada A, Maki K, Ikeda F. Novel echinocandin antifungals. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 2008;18:1474-7.
79. Abad MJ, Ansuategui M, Bermejo P. Active antifungal substances from natural sources. *Arkivoc* 2007;7:116-45.
80. Barrett D. From natural products to clinically useful antifungals. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2002;1587:224-33.
81. Taha KF, EL-Hawary SS, EL-Hefnawy HM, Mabrouk MI, Sanad RA, Harriry MY. Formulation and assessment of a herbal hair cream against certain dermatophytes. *Int J Pharm Pharm Sci* 2016;8:167-73.
82. De Leo M, Braca A, De Tommasi N, Norscia I, Morelli I, Battinelli L, *et al.* Phenolic compounds from *Baseonema acuminatum* leaves: Isolation and antimicrobial activity. *Planta Med* 2004;70:841-6.
83. Rubio OC, Cuellar AC, Rojas N, Castro HV, Rastrelli L, Aquino R. A polyisoprenylated benzophenone from *Cuban propolis*. *J Nat Prod* 1999;62:1013-5.
84. Dharmaratne HR, Piyasena KG, Tennakoon SB. A geranylated biphenyl derivative from *Garcinia malvostana*. *Nat Prod Res* 2005;19:239-43.
85. Nkunya MH, Makangara JJ, Jonker SA. Prenylindoles from *Tanzanian monodora* and *Isolona* species. *Nat Prod Res* 2004;18:253-8.
86. Lee DG, Park Y, Kim MR, Jung HJ, Seu YB, Hahm KS, *et al.* Antifungal effects of phenolic amides isolated from the root bark of *Lycium chinense*. *Biotechnol Lett* 2004;26:1125-30.
87. Perry NB, Brennan NJ. Antimicrobial and cytotoxic phenolic glycoside esters from the New Zealand tree *Toronia toru*. *J Nat Prod* 1997;60:623-6.
88. Tan RX, Lu H, Wolfender JL, Yu TT, Zheng WF, Yang L, *et al.* Mono- and sesquiterpenes and antifungal constituents from *Artemisia* species. *Planta Med* 1999;65:64-7.
89. Bylka W, Szafer-Hajdrych M, Matlawska I, Goślińska O. Antimicrobial activity of isocytoside and extracts of *Aquilegia vulgaris* L. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 2004;39:93-7.
90. Rao MS, Duddeck H, Dembinski R. Isolation and structural elucidation of 3,4',5,7-tetraacetyl quercetin from *Adina cordifolia* (Karam Ki Gaach). *Fitoterapia* 2002;73:353-5.
91. Meragelman TL, Tucker KD, McCloud TG, Cardellina JH 2nd, Shoemaker RH. Antifungal flavonoids from *Hildegardia barteri*. *J Nat Prod* 2005;68:1790-2.
92. Hunter MD, Hull LA. Variation in the concentration of phloridzin and phloretin in apple foliage. *Phytochemistry* 1993;34:1251-4.
93. De Campos MP, Cechinel Filho V, Da Silva RZ, Yunes RA, Zacchino S, Juarez S, *et al.* Evaluation of antifungal activity of *Piper solmsianum* C. DC. *Var. solmsianum* (Piperaceae). *Biol Pharm Bull* 2005;28:1527-30.
94. Jung HJ, Sung WS, Yeo SH, Kim HS, Lee IS, Woo ER, *et al.* Antifungal effect of amentoflavone derived from *Selaginella tamariscina*. *Arch Pharm Res* 2006;29:746-51.
95. Sunthitikawinsakul A, Kongkathip N, Kongkathip B, Phonnakhu S, Daly JW, Spande TF, *et al.* Coumarins and carbazoles from *Clausena excavata* exhibited antimycobacterial and antifungal activities. *Planta Med* 2003;69:155-7.
96. Carpinella MC, Ferrayoli CG, Palacios SM. Antifungal synergistic effect of scopoletin, a hydroxycoumarin isolated from *Melia azedarach* L. fruits. *J Agric Food Chem* 2005;53:2922-7.
97. Rahalison L, Benathan M, Monod M, Frenk E, Gupta MP, Solis PN, *et al.* Antifungal principles of *Baccharis pedunculata*. *Planta Med* 1995;61:360-2.
98. Kofinas C, Chinou I, Loukis A, Harvala C, Roussakis C, Maillard M, *et al.* Cytotoxic coumarins from the aerial parts of *Tordylium apulum* and their effects on a non-small-cell bronchial carcinoma line. *Planta Med* 1998;64:174-6.
99. Shanker KS, Kanjilal S, Rao BV, Kishore KH, Misra S, Prasad RB. Isolation and antimicrobial evaluation of isomeric hydroxy ketones in leaf cuticular waxes of *Annona squamosa*. *Phytochem Anal* 2007;18:7-12.
100. Binutu OA, Adesogan KE, Okogun JI. Antibacterial and antifungal compounds from *Kigelia pinnata*. *Planta Med* 1996;62:352-3.
101. Manojlovic NT, Solujic S, Sukdolak S, Milosev M. Antifungal activity of *Rubia tinctorum*, *Rhamnus frangula* and *Caloplaca cerina*. *Fitoterapia* 2005;76:244-6.
102. Escalante AM, Santicchia CB, López SN, Gattuso MA, Gutiérrez Ravelo A, Delle Monache F, *et al.* Isolation of antifungal saponins from *Phytolacca tetramera*, an Argentinean species in critic risk. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2002;82:29-34.
103. Du Z, Zhu N, Ze-Ren-Wang-Mu N, Shen Y. Two new antifungal saponins from the Tibetan herbal medicine *Clematis tangutica*. *Planta Med* 2003;69:547-51.
104. Sautour M, Miyamoto T, Lacaille-Dubois MA. Steroidal saponins from *Smilax medica* and their antifungal activity. *J Nat Prod* 2005;68:1489-93.
105. Xie BB, Liu HY, Ni W, Chen CX, Lü Y, Wu L, *et al.* Five new steroidal compounds from *Ypsilandra thibetica*. *Chem Biodivers* 2006;3:1211-8.
106. Larcher G, Morel C, Tronchin G, Landreau A, Séraphin D, Richomme P, *et al.* Investigation of the antifungal activity of caledonixanthone E and other xanthenes against *Aspergillus fumigatus*. *Planta Med* 2004;70:569-71.
107. Joseph CC, Moshi MJ, Sempombe J, Nkunya MH. (4-methoxybenzo[1,3]dioxol-5-yl)-phenylmethanone: An antibacterial benzophenone from *Securidaca longepedunculata*. *Afr J Trad CAM* 2006;3:80-6.
108. Pinto DC, Fuzzati N, Pazmino XC, Hostettmann K. Xanthone and antifungal constituents from *Monnina obtusifolia*. *Phytochemistry* 1994;37:875-8.
109. Wang YH, Hou AJ, Zhu GF, Chen DF, Sun HD. Cytotoxic and antifungal isoprenylated xanthenes and flavonoids from *Cudrania fruticosa*. *Planta Med* 2005;71:273-4.
110. Klausmeyer P, Chmurny GN, McCloud TG, Tucker KD, Shoemaker RH. A novel antimicrobial indolizinium alkaloid from *Aniba panurensis*. *J Nat Prod* 2004;67:1732-5.
111. Singh NV, Azmi S, Maurya S, Singh UP, Jha RN, Pandey VB. Two plant alkaloids isolated from *Corydalis longipes* as potential antifungal agents. *Folia Microbiol (Praha)* 2003;48:605-9.
112. Dabur R, Chhillar AK, Yadav V, Kamal PK, Gupta J, Sharma GL. *In vitro* antifungal activity of 2-(3,4-dimethyl-2,5-dihydro-1H-pyrrol-2-yl)-1-methylethyl pentanoate, a dihydropyrrole derivative. *J Med Microbiol* 2005;54:549-52.
113. Morteza-Semnani K, Amin G, Shidfar MR, Hadizadeh H, Shafiee A. Antifungal activity of the methanolic extract and alkaloids of *Glaucium oxylobum*. *Fitoterapia* 2003;74:493-6.
114. Emile A, Waikredre J, Herrenknecht C, Fournau C, Gantier JC, Hnawia E, *et al.* Bioassay-guided isolation of antifungal alkaloids from *Melochia odorata*. *Phytother Res* 2007;21:398-400.
115. Liu SC, Oguntimein B, Hufford CD, Clark AM. 3-methoxysampangine, a novel antifungal copyrine alkaloid from *Cleistopholis patens*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 1990;34:529-33.
116. Rahman AU, Nasreen A, Akhtar F, Shekhani MS, Clardy J, Parvez M, *et al.* Antifungal diterpenoid alkaloids from *Delphinium denudatum*. *J Nat Prod* 1997;60:472-4.
117. Wang F, Yang D, Ren S, Zhang H, Li R. Chemical composition of essential oil from leaves of *Litsea cubeba* and its antifungal activities. *Zhong Yao Cai* 1999;22:400-2.
118. Marthanda Murthy M, Subramanyam M, Hima Bindu M, Annapurna J. Antimicrobial activity of clerodane diterpenoids from *Polyalthia longifolia* seeds. *Fitoterapia* 2005;76:336-9.
119. Portillo A, Vila R, Freixa B, Ferro E, Parella T, Casanova J, *et al.* Antifungal sesquiterpene from the root of *Vernonanthura tweedieana*. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2005;97:49-52.
120. Ye XY, Ng TB. Purification of angularin, a novel antifungal peptide from adzuki beans. *J Pept Sci* 2002;8:101-6.
121. Ye XY, Ng TB, Rao PF. Cicerin and arietin, novel chickpea peptides with different antifungal potencies. *Peptides* 2002;23:817-22.
122. Taira T, Toma N, Ishihara M. Purification, characterization, and antifungal activity of chitinases from pineapple (*Ananas comosus*) leaf. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem* 2005;69:189-96.