



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Evaluation of *in vitro* antifungal effects of synthetic and herbal mouth rinses on oral *Candida albicans* and *Candida glabrata*

Nordin, R.¹, Roslan, M.A.^{2,3}, Fathilah, A.R.^{4,5}, Ngui, R.^{6*}, Musa, S.^{2,3*}

¹Dental Specialist Clinic, Tuanku Fauziah Hospital 01000 Kangar, Malaysia

²Department of Paediatric Dentistry & Orthodontics, Faculty of Dentistry, Universiti Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

³Office of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Student Affairs), Universiti Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

⁴Department of Oral & Craniofacial Sciences, Faculty of Dentistry, Universiti Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

⁵Faculty of Dental Medicine, Universitas Airlangga, Surabaya, Indonesia

⁶Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Medicine, Universiti Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

*Corresponding author: sabrim@um.edu.my; romano@um.edu.my

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received: 18 March 2022

Revised: 11 May 2022

Accepted: 11 May 2022

Published: 15 August 2022

ABSTRACT

Mouth rinses which function as breath fresheners, medicaments, and antiseptics can also deliver oral therapeutic agents. This study evaluated and compared the antifungal effects of synthetic and herbal mouth rinses on oral *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* via disk diffusion, minimal inhibition concentration (MIC), minimum fungicidal concentration (MFC), time-kill assay, and growth profile tests. The four chemical mouth rinses, namely Brand O (A), Brand M (B), Brand H (C), and Brand B (D) used in the study showed positive antifungal activity in these two species. The average diameter of the inhibition zones obtained from the disk diffusion test was higher in mouth rinse B (*C. albicans* = 12.0 ± 0.9 mm, *C. glabrata* = 13.5 ± 0.8 mm) compared to those in C, A and D. Both *Candida* species exhibited similar MIC and MFC values, ranging from 1.63 ± 0.5 to 18.75 ± 0.0 µg/mL and 6.51 ± 2.01 to 50.00 ± 9.36 µg/mL, respectively. These synthetic mouth rinses had efficient killing activity eliminating 50% of the growing population of both *Candida* spp. following 15 seconds exposure time. Analyses of the growth profile curves showed that mouth rinses B and A resulted in rapid growth depletion of both *Candida* spp. Meanwhile, three herbal mouth rinses, namely Brand S (E), Brand C (F), and Brand P (G), were less effective against *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. Mouth rinses B and A contained cetylpyridinium chloride and chlorhexidine, respectively, and could be an effective alternative for controlling and preventing oral candidiasis.

Keywords: Antifungal effects; synthetic mouth rinses; herbal mouth rinses; *Candida albicans*; *Candida glabrata*.

INTRODUCTION

Oral candidiasis is an opportunistic infection of the oral cavity resulting in various clinical manifestations depending on its type (Rajendra Santosh *et al.*, 2021). Types of oral candidiasis include the acute (pseudomembranous and erythematous) and chronic (pseudomembranous, erythematous, and hyperplastic) forms as well as *Candida*-associated lesions (angular cheilitis, denture-associated erythematous and median rhomboid glossitis) (Garcia-Cuesta *et al.*, 2014). The disease can develop regardless of age, including in infants (Patil *et al.*, 2015), HIV/AIDS-infected individuals (Hosain Pour *et al.*, 2018), cancer patients (Alnuaimi *et al.*, 2015), denture wearing patients (Lakshmi *et al.*, 2015) as well as diabetics (Obradovic *et al.*, 2011).

Oral candidiasis is caused by an overgrowth or infection in the oral cavity by a fungus from the genus *Candida* (Guida, 1988; Aggarwal *et al.*, 2018). *Candida* spp. is predominantly found as a common commensal organism in the oral cavities of 53% of the general population. Of the 150 species of this genus isolated

in the oral cavity, 80% are *Candida albicans*, which remain the most common and essential causative agent of the disease (Coronado-Castellote & Jimenez-Soriano, 2013). *C. albicans* possesses pathogenicity factors that allow for more frequent disease development than other *Candida* species. It has also been identified as the most prevalent human fungal pathogen responsible for mucosal and systemic fungal infections (Tsui *et al.*, 2016). *C. tropicalis*, *C. glabrata*, *C. pseudotropicalis*, *C. guillierimondii*, *C. krusei*, *C. lusitanae*, *C. parapsilosis*, and *C. stellatoidea* are among *Candida* spp. isolated in the oral cavity (Premanathan *et al.*, 2011). Of these species, *C. glabrata* is ranked the second most common *Candida* spp. causing candidiasis after *C. albicans*, depending on the site of infection (Mota *et al.*, 2015).

Patients infected with oral candidiasis could suffer various symptoms such as oral mucosal inflammation that produces uncomfortable feelings, pain, erosion, swallowing problems, taste abnormalities, and hyperplasia of the oral mucosa (Yamamoto, 2010; Vila *et al.*, 2020). Overgrowths of *Candida* spp. in the oral cavity may also spread to other tissues or organs. The application of antifungal

or antimicrobial treatments remains the best option to effectively control and avoid the sequelae of oral candidiasis (de Oliveira Santos *et al.*, 2018). Antifungal medications (i.e., mouth rinses) can deliver therapeutic ingredients to accessible interproximal hard and soft tissues (Akca *et al.*, 2016). It also has a generally lower incidence of adverse events, with little potential for resistance development, and is safe for routine use (Tartaglia *et al.*, 2019).

Mouth rinses (mouthwashes) are solutions used to destroy or eliminate bacteria in the mouth, serve as an astringent, conceal unpleasant smells, relieve infections, and avoid dental caries (Akande *et al.*, 2004; Amit, 2015). Mouth rinses are usually safe and have active ingredients to significantly reduce or remove plaque accumulation (Haydari *et al.*, 2017). Since most individuals do not adequately brush their teeth, mouth rinses can be considered an alternative tool for teeth cleaning and routine application (Pradeep Kumar & Athiban Raj, 2017).

Different mouth rinses have been manufactured to treat or control oral candidiasis. Most of the commercialized mouth rinses available are synthetic-based and contain chlorhexidine gluconate, triclosan, ethanol, dyes, astringent components such as zinc chloride or acetate, and aluminium potassium sulphate (Dar-Odeh *et al.*, 2011; Jeddy *et al.*, 2018). Chlorhexidine is an antiseptic agent that works against bacteria, viruses, and fungi (Brookes *et al.*, 2020) and prevents oral complications such as chronic or opportunistic infections (Lanzos *et al.*, 2010; Ahmad, 2021). Triclosan is a non-phenolic, broad-spectrum antimicrobial and antiplaque agent. It enables the mouth rinse to coat the oral mucosa (Phan & Marquis, 2006). Nevertheless, these chemicals can generate various side effects, ranging from taste disturbances to allergic contact stomatitis (Jeddy *et al.*, 2018).

To overcome these side effects, non-toxic and natural mouth rinses using various plants and herbal extracts have been introduced (Bhat *et al.*, 2013; Jeddy *et al.*, 2018). These mouth rinses are effective against *Candida* spp. In Iran, Talebi *et al.* (2014) tested the effects of herbal ingredients in mouth rinses, such as *Salvadora persica* and *Matricaria chamomilla*, against *C. albicans*. Meanwhile, in India, an *in vitro* study was conducted to evaluate the antifungal effects of mouth rinses comprising seven natural ingredients, specifically *S. persica*, *Terminalia bellerica*, *Piper betle*, *Gossia fragrantissima*, *Elettaria cardamomum*, *Mentha* spp. and *Trachyspermum* against *C. albicans* (Ravikumar *et al.*, 2016). The effectiveness of herbal mouth rinses containing red ginseng extracts in reducing oral bacterial count has also been reported in India (Jeddy *et al.*, 2018). To the best of our knowledge, no study has been conducted in Malaysia on the differences between synthetic and herbal mouth rinses containing antifungal properties for inhibiting the growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. This study thus aimed to evaluate and compare the antifungal effects of synthetic and herbal mouth rinses on oral *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Synthetic and herbal mouth rinses

Seven mouth rinses were tested in this study, four of which namely Brands O, M, H, and B, were synthetic-based while Brands S, C, and P were herbal-based. These mouth rinses are commercially available in local pharmacies. The synthetic- and herbal-based mouth rinses with their respective active ingredients are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The active ingredients of synthetic- and herbal-based mouth rinses used in the study

Mouth rinses		Active ingredients
Commercial names	Designation	
Synthetic-based		
Brand O	A	Chlorhexidine (CHX) at 0.12% (w/v)
Brand M	B	Cetylpyridinium chloride (CPC) at 0.053% (w/w)
Brand H	C	Chlorhexidine + Cetylpyridinium chloride (CHX + CPC) at 0.12% w/v CHX
Brand B	D	Hexetidine (HEX) at 0.1% (w/v)
Herbal-based		
Brand S	E	<i>Piper betle</i> at 100% (w/v)
Brand C	F	<i>Eugenia caryophyllus</i> at 100% (v/v)
Brand P	G	Consist of equal concentration of <i>Calendula officinalis</i> , <i>Plantago major</i> , <i>Fragaria vesca</i> , <i>Matricaria chamomilla</i> , at 100% (v/v)

Preparation of *Candida* spp. suspension

The clinical isolates of *C. albicans* (C467 IMR) and *C. glabrata* (C466 IMR) were obtained as pure cultures from the Institute of Medical Research (IMR), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The stocks were thawed and revived in Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA) broth media (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). An inoculum of the growth suspension was spread on the SDA agar plates and incubated for 18 to 24 hours at 37°C. Several colony-forming units were then transferred and suspended in fresh SDA broth. The optical density (OD) was adjusted to 0.144 using a spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV160A, Kyoto, Japan) and read at 550 nm wavelength. This concentration corresponded visually to the 0.5 of the McFarland standards. At an OD of 0.144, the cell concentration was standardized to 10⁶ CFU/mL (Fathilah et al., 2009).

Morphological characterization of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* colonies and cells

Fifty µL of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* suspension were pipetted and inoculated on SDA plates. After 18 to 24 hours incubation, the morphological colonies of both species were observed and recorded. A Gram-staining procedure was carried out using a single colony and identified under a light microscope at 100X magnification. The characteristics and morphology of the cells were visualized using an image analyzer.

Disk diffusion (Kirby-Bauer) test

Sterile paper disks of 6 mm diameter (Oxoid, Basingstoke, Hampshire, UK) were impregnated with 40 µL of mouth rinse at a neat concentration. A similar disk was impregnated with 40 µL of distilled water as a negative control. As positive control, another disk was impregnated with 40 µL of nystatin (Oxoid, Basingstoke, Hampshire, UK). These disks were placed on Mueller-Hinton agar plates (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA), previously streaked with *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* suspension. After incubating for 24-48 hours at 37°C, the plates were observed for colony growth. The susceptibility of the mouth rinses to such growth was determined by the inhibition growth zones of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* surrounding the disks. The absence of inhibition zones indicated the negative growth inhibition capacity of the mouth rinses towards *Candida* spp. (Smith et al., 1985; Bhattacharjee, 2015). The diameter of the inhibition growth zones was measured in millimeters using a digital caliper.

Minimal inhibition concentration

A broth dilution method was used to determine the MIC of mouth rinses in inhibiting the growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* (Cappuccino & Sherman, 2007). Ten sterile test tubes (T₁ to T₁₀) containing 5 mL of SDA broth were prepared for each mouth rinse. Five mL of mouth rinse with a neat concentration was added to T₁ and T₂ and mixed thoroughly. Subsequently, 5 mL from T₂ was pipetted and transferred into T₃. These steps were serially repeated to T₉ to obtain the descending order of concentration in the tubes (Table 2). Five mL of candida suspension (10⁶ CFU/mL) was added from T₂ to T₁₀. The positive control was T₁, which contained a mix of the SDA broth and the highest concentration of mouth rinse without candida suspension. Meanwhile, the negative control was T₁₀ containing a mix of the SDA broth and the candida suspension without mouth rinse. Similar steps were performed for nystatin as the control group. After 18 to 24 hours incubation at 37°C, the MIC of the mouth rinses on *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* growth was measured by comparing the turbidity levels among all tubes (T₁ to T₁₀) and the control tube (nystatin).

Minimal fungicidal concentration

A 100 µL suspension was aliquoted from three tubes with no visible growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* and subsequently sub-cultured onto three separate SDA plates. The three tubes used to determine the MFC were T₆, T₇, and T₈. Following incubation of 18 to 24 hours at 37°C, the MFC of each mouth rinse was determined based on the absence of growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* colonies on the SDA plates.

Time-kill assay

Each mouth rinse was diluted to 50% using saline. A 100 µL of candida suspension (i.e., *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*) (10⁶ cell/ml) was inoculated into a test tube containing 5 mL of mouth rinse (50% dilution) and mixed thoroughly. Subsequently, 20 µL of the suspension was aliquoted and streaked onto an SDA plate at 15-second intervals (i.e., t₀ to t₁₈₀). In total, 13 plates representing 13 intervals (t₀, t₁₅, t₃₀, t₄₅, t₆₀, t₇₅, t₉₀, t₁₀₅, t₁₂₀, t₁₃₅, t₁₅₀, t₁₆₅ and t₁₈₀) were each incubated for 24 hours at 37°C before the reductions in CFU (colony-forming units) were recorded. The time-kill curves of each mouth rinse were constructed by plotting the percentage reduction in a CFU at each time interval. The killing-efficacy rate for each mouth rinse in this study was based on the following formula:

Table 2. The concentration of active ingredients in a respective mouth rinse used in the study

Mouth rinses	Concentration of active ingredients (ug/mL)									
	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀
Synthetic (w/v)										
A	600.00	300.00	150.00	75.00	37.50	18.75	9.37	4.68	2.34	–
B	250.00	125.00	62.50	31.25	15.62	7.81	3.91	1.95	0.98	–
C	600.00	300.00	150.00	75.00	37.50	18.75	9.37	4.68	2.34	–
D	500.00	250.00	125.00	62.50	31.25	15.62	7.81	3.91	1.95	–
Herbal (v/v)										
E	50.00	25.00	12.50	6.25	3.12	1.56	0.78	0.39	0.19	–
F	50.00	25.00	12.50	6.25	3.12	1.56	0.78	0.39	0.19	–
G	50.00	25.00	12.50	6.25	3.12	1.56	0.78	0.39	0.19	–
Control (v/v)										
N	50.00	25.00	12.50	6.25	3.12	1.56	0.78	0.39	0.19	–

A: Brand O; B: Brand M; C: Brand H, D: Brand B; E: Brand S; F: Brand C; G: Brand P; N: nystatin.

$$\text{Colony count} = \frac{\sum \text{CFU (1-6)}}{6}$$

$$= X \pm \text{SD}$$

$$\text{Killing-efficacy percentage} = 100 - \frac{X \pm \text{SD}}{C_0} \times 100$$

Where C_0 represents CFU at t_0 and $X \pm \text{SD}$ is the mean of six determinations and standard deviation at time intervals.

Growth profile curve study

To determine the average growth profile for both *Candida* species, 1 mL of candida suspension (*C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*) was inoculated in a conical flask containing 100 mL of SDA media and subsequently incubated in a shaking water bath (SWB 27, Marshal Scientific, Hampton, NH, USA) at 37°C. One mL of each mouth rinse at a neat concentration was added to determine the effect of the mouth rinse on the growth profile of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. The growth profile was recorded at the beginning of the log phase (A_0). Both untreated and treated growth profiles of the *Candida* species with mouth rinses were monitored for 24 hours by recording the OD readings. Growth profile curves were generated by plotting the changes in OD against time. Similar protocols were carried out using nystatin as a positive control.

Data analysis

Data were analyzed using Microsoft Excel and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows version 20.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). In this study, the values of the growth inhibition zones in the disk diffusion tests, the MIC and MFC in the susceptibility tests, and percentage reductions in the growth profiles were presented as mean \pm standard deviation (Mean \pm SD).

RESULTS

Morphological characteristics of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* colonies and cells

Similar characteristics of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* colonies and cells were observed on the SDA plates. The colonies of both species were circular, creamy white colored, and had a soft mucoid texture. They were approximately 1 mm in diameter. Both *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* cells reacted positively to the Gram-staining procedure, and large purple and grape-like cells were observed (Figure 1).

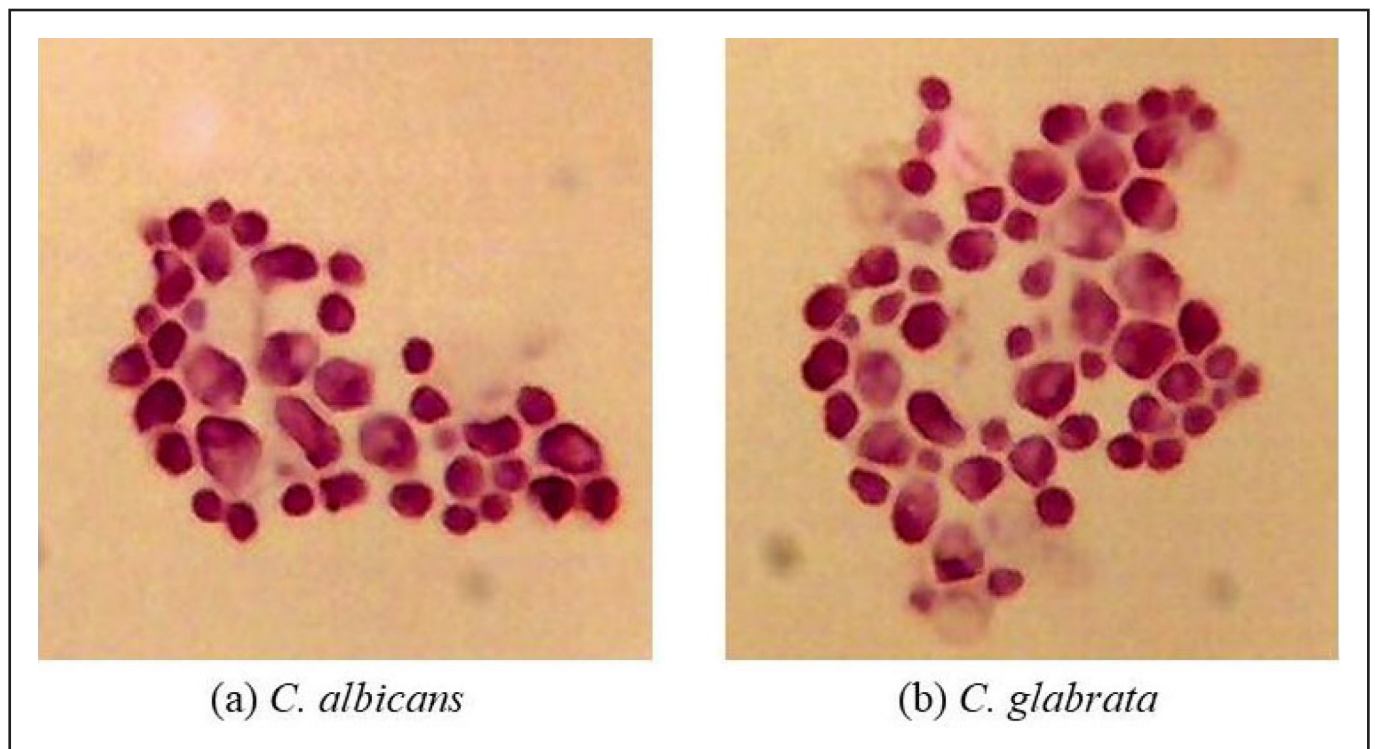


Figure 1. Morphological characteristics of (a) *C. albicans* and (b) *C. glabrata* cells.

Sensitivity of mouth rinses towards *Candida* spp. growth

Overall, *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* were sensitive to the active ingredients in each synthetic mouth rinse. Based on the diameter of the growth inhibition zone (Table 3), both *Candida* species were most sensitive to mouth rinse B (*C. albicans* = 12.0 ± 0.9, *C. glabrata* = 13.5 ± 0.8), followed by C (*C. albicans* = 11.8 ± 0.9, *C. glabrata* =

11.5 ± 0.5) and A (*C. albicans* = 11.3 ± 0.4, *C. glabrata* = 11.2 ± 0.4) and least sensitive to mouth rinse D (*C. albicans* = 7.3 ± 0.3, *C. glabrata* = 7.3 ± 0.4). The study showed that both *Candida* species were not sensitive (resistant) to all herbal mouth rinses, as no growth inhibition zones were detected from the disk diffusion test.

Table 3. The inhibition growth zones of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* recorded in the disk diffusion test

Mouth rinses	Active ingredient(s)	Diameter of growth inhibition zone (mm)	
		<i>C. albicans</i>	<i>C. glabrata</i>
Synthetic			
A	CHX	11.3 ± 0.4	11.2 ± 0.4
B	CPC	12.0 ± 0.9	13.5 ± 0.8
C	CHX + CPC	11.8 ± 0.9	11.5 ± 0.5
D	HEX	7.3 ± 0.3	7.3 ± 0.4
Herbal			
E	<i>P. betle</i>	resistant	resistant
F	<i>E. caryophyllus</i>	resistant	resistant
G	<i>C. officinalis</i> , <i>P. major</i> , <i>F. vesca</i> , <i>M. chamomilla</i>	resistant	resistant
Control			
N	Nystatin	13.8 ± 0.6	14.7 ± 0.5
D	dH ₂ O	resistant	resistant

A: Brand O; B: Brand M; C: Brand H, D: Brand B; E: Brand S; F: Brand C; G: Brand P; N: nystatin; D: distilled water.

Minimal inhibition concentration and minimal fungicidal concentration

All four synthetic-based mouth rinses showed positive antifungal activity against the growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*, with MIC values ranging between 1.63 ± 0.5 and 18.75 ± 0.0 µg/mL (Table 4). The MIC values for four mouth rinses in inhibiting the growth of both *Candida* species were similar. Mouth rinse B had the lowest MIC (1.63 ± 0.5), followed by mouth rinse A (9.37 ± 0.0), B (15.62 ± 0.0), and C (18.75 ± 0.0). The MIC of the herbal-based mouth rinses

(E and F) in inhibiting growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* were similar (25.00 ± 0.0) except for mouth rinse G, which was not detected. The MFC values of synthetic-based mouth rinses were more than 50% of the MIC values in inhibiting the growth of both *Candida* species. Mouth rinse B (6.51 ± 2.01) had the lowest MFC value followed by mouth rinse A (25.00 ± 9.68), D (31.25 ± 0.0), and C (50.00 ± 9.36). In contrast, no MFC of herbal mouth rinses was detected in the study.

Table 4. The MIC and MFC of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*, when tested by mouth rinses

Mouth rinses	MIC (Mean ± SD)		MFC (Mean ± SD)	
	<i>C. albicans</i>	<i>C. glabrata</i>	<i>C. albicans</i>	<i>C. glabrata</i>
Synthetic				
A	9.37 ± 0.0	9.37 ± 0.0	25.00 ± 9.68	25.00 ± 9.68
B	1.63 ± 0.5	1.63 ± 0.5	6.51 ± 2.01	6.51 ± 2.01
C	18.75 ± 0.0	18.75 ± 0.0	50.00 ± 9.36	50.00 ± 9.36
D	15.62 ± 0.0	15.62 ± 0.0	31.25 ± 0.0	31.25 ± 0.0
Herbal				
E	25.00 ± 0.0	25.00 ± 0.0	not detected	not detected
F	25.00 ± 0.0	25.00 ± 0.0	not detected	not detected
G	not detected	not detected	not detected	not detected
Control				
N	0.195 ± 0.0	0.195 ± 0.0	0.39 ± 0.0	0.32 ± 0.1

A: Brand O; B: Brand M; C: Brand H, D: Brand B; E: Brand S; F: Brand C; G: Brand P; N: nystatin.

Efficacy of mouth rinses as antifungals based on time-kill assay

The synthetic-based mouth rinses showed active fungal activity against *C. albicans* (Figure 2a) and *C. glabrata* (Figure 2b). Mouth rinse A produced the most effective antifungal activity, followed by mouth rinse D, B, and C, registering reductions in growth population of 85%, 65%, 45%, and 38%, respectively following 15-second exposures. At 60-second exposure, all four synthetic-based mouth

rinses had more than 50% reduction in growth populations. The herbal-based mouth rinses were less effective in killing *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* than the synthetic-based one. At 60-second exposure, about 20% of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* populations were reduced. No changes (percentage reduction) were observed throughout the 180-second exposure time (data not shown).

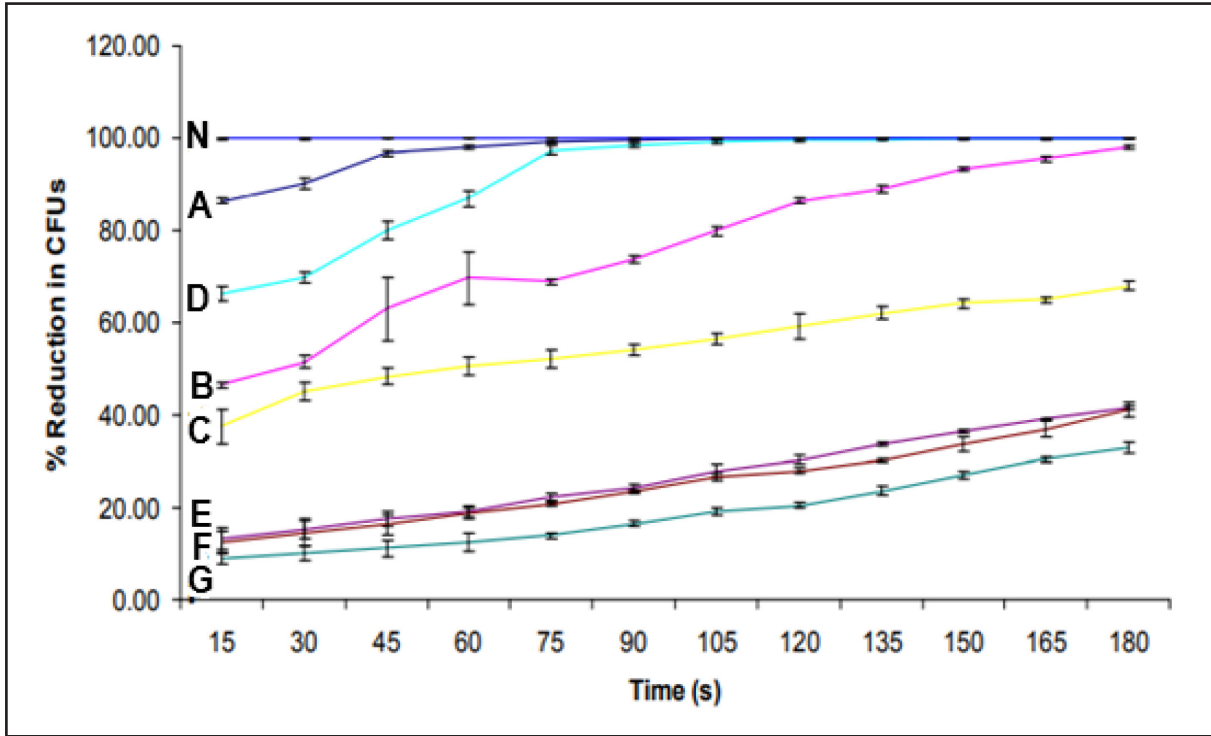


Figure 2a. Time-kill curves showing the percentage reduction in the colony-forming units (CFUs) of *C. albicans* tested by synthetic-based mouth rinses (A: Brand O; B: Brand M; C: Brand H, D: Brand B; E: Brand S; F: Brand C; G: Brand P; N: nystatin).

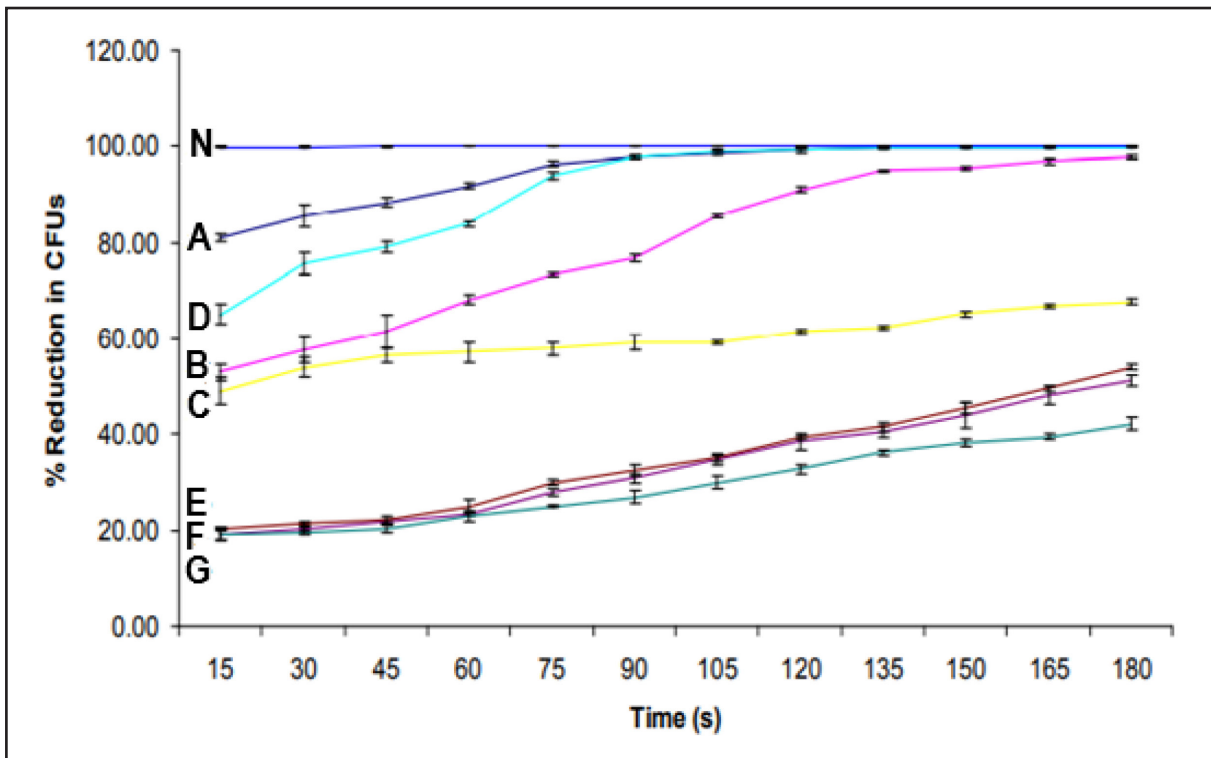


Figure 2b. Time-kill curves showing the percentage reduction in the colony-forming units (CFUs) of *C. glabrata* tested by synthetic-based mouth rinses (A: Brand O; B: Brand M; C: Brand H, D: Brand B; E: Brand S; F: Brand C; G: Brand P; N: nystatin).

Effect of mouth rinses on *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* evaluated by growth profile curve patterns.

Both *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* produced similar sigmoidal-shaped growth curves under the untreated growth condition. A 7-8 hours lag phase was followed by a stable logarithmic phase from the 12th to 17th hour. Stationary growth occurred about 20 hours after inoculation (Figure 3). The curve patterns deviated when *C. albicans* (Figure 4a) and *C. glabrata* (Figure 4b) were treated with synthetic-based mouth rinses. Meanwhile, there was no deviation in the sigmoidal patterns of the growth profile curves of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* when treated with herbal-based mouth rinses E, F, and G (data not shown). Further analysis showed that mouth rinse B had the highest percentage of reduced growth of *C. albicans* (99.11 ± 0.88) and *C. glabrata* (99.02 ± 0.27) during the A₂ to A₈

of the logarithmic phase (Table 5). The percentage reduction in *C. glabrata* growth (98.84 ± 0.58) was slightly higher compared to *C. albicans* (94.42 ± 3.42) when tested using a mouth rinse A. Likewise, mouth rinses C and D recorded a higher percentage reduction in *C. glabrata* growth ($H = 87.92 \pm 2.08$, $B = 64.43 \pm 6.34$) compared to *C. albicans* ($H = 51.39 \pm 4.65$, $B = 47.70 \pm 9.74$). Meanwhile, the lowest reduced growth percentage of both *Candida* species was tested with all three herbal-based mouth rinses (Table 6). Mouth rinse E recorded a slightly greater reduction in the growth of *C. albicans* (11.09 ± 0.722) than *C. glabrata* (8.61 ± 6.89). A similar pattern was observed with mouth rinses F (*C. albicans* = 8.48 ± 4.06 , *C. glabrata* = 5.73 ± 5.04) and G (*C. albicans* = 5.54 ± 1.84 , *C. glabrata* = 3.17 ± 2.71).

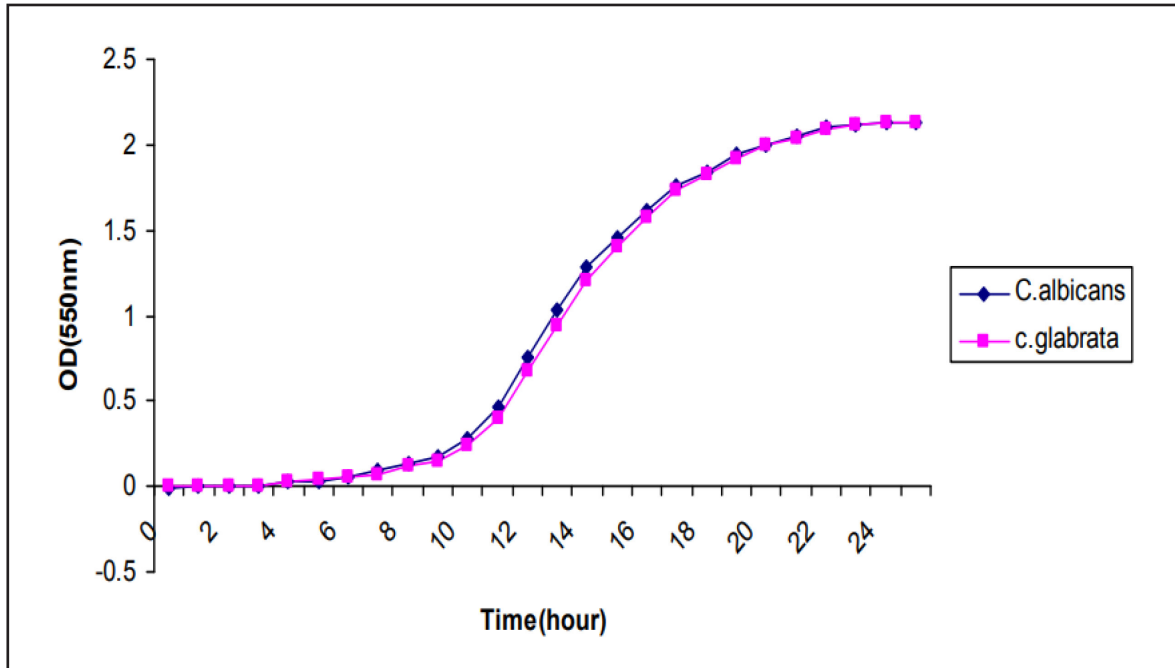


Figure 3. The growth curve pattern of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* was plotted under normal growth conditions.

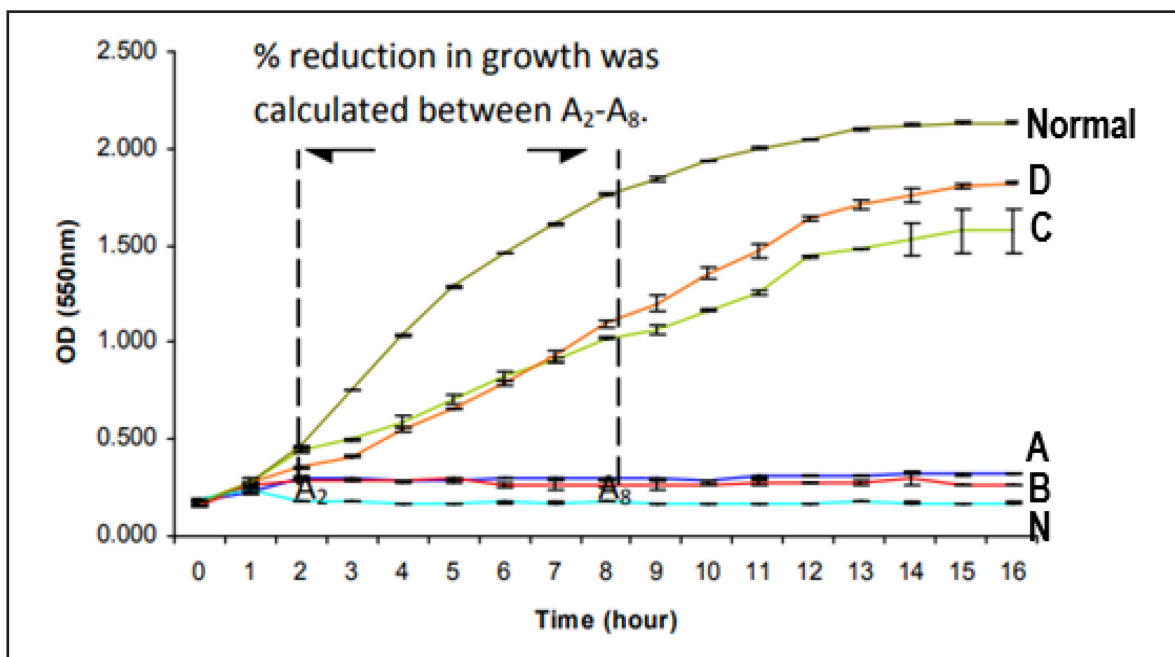


Figure 4a. The growth curve pattern of *C. albicans* plotted under the normal growth condition following treatment by synthetic-based mouth rinses (A: Brand O; B: Brand M; C: Brand H, D: Brand B; N: nystatin).

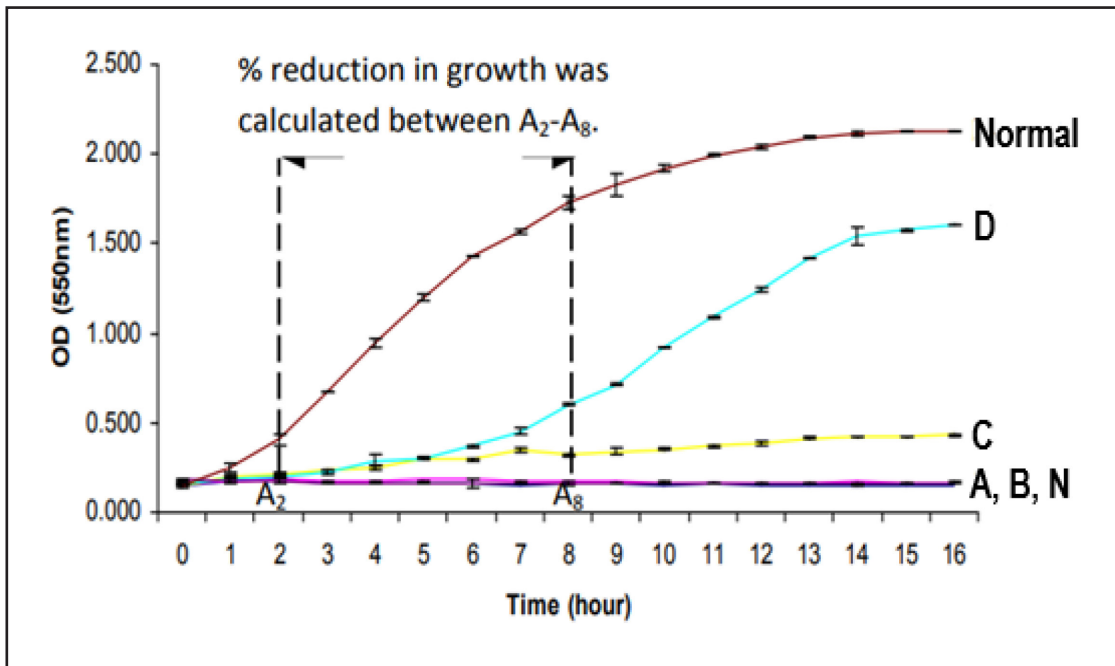


Figure 4b. The growth curve pattern of *C. glabrata* plotted under the normal growth condition following treatment by synthetic-based mouth rinses (A: Brand O; B: Brand M; C: Brand H, D: Brand B; N: nystatin).

Table 5. The percentage of reduced growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* during the logarithmic phase of A₂ to A₈ when tested with synthetic-based mouth rinses

Mouth rinses	<i>C. albicans</i>			
	Percentage of reduction growth from A ₂ to A ₈			
	A ₂ ± SD	A ₈ ± SD	A ₂ -A ₈ ± SD	% reduction ± SD
A	0.273 ± 0.034	0.350 ± 0.082	0.077 ± 0.054	94.42 ± 3.42
B	0.262 ± 0.005	0.274 ± 0.008	0.012 ± 0.011	99.11 ± 0.88
C	0.338 ± 0.039	0.984 ± 0.096	0.647 ± 0.081	51.39 ± 4.65
D	0.247 ± 0.047	0.948 ± 0.316	0.701 ± 0.272	47.70 ± 9.74
Normal	0.430 ± 0.640	1.765 ± 0.192	1.336 ± 0.156	0.00 ± 0.00
N	0	0	0	100
Mouth rinses	<i>C. glabrata</i>			
	Percentage of reduction growth from A ₂ to A ₈			
	A ₂ ± SD	A ₈ ± SD	A ₂ -A ₈ ± SD	% reduction ± SD
A	0.156 ± 0.005	0.172 ± 0.006	0.016 ± 0.008	98.84 ± 0.58
B	0.167 ± 0.004	0.180 ± 0.004	0.013 ± 0.004	99.02 ± 0.27
C	0.214 ± 0.015	0.377 ± 0.171	0.163 ± 0.167	87.92 ± 2.08
D	0.181 ± 0.067	0.654 ± 0.043	0.472 ± 0.099	64.43 ± 6.34
Normal	0.448 ± 0.050	1.671 ± 0.243	1.223 ± 0.242	0.00 ± 0.00
N	0	0	0	100

A: Brand O; B: Brand M; C: Brand H, D: Brand B; N: nystatin.

Table 6. The percentage of reduced growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* during the logarithmic phase of A₂ to A₈ when tested with herbal-based mouth rinses

Mouth rinses	<i>C. albicans</i>			
	Percentage of reduction growth from A ₂ to A ₈			
	A ₂ ± SD	A ₈ ± SD	A ₂ -A ₈ ± SD	% reduction ± SD
E	0.439 ± 0.076	1.616 ± 0.096	1.177 ± 0.098	11.09 ± 0.722
F	0.419 ± 0.068	1.630 ± 0.112	1.211 ± 0.076	8.48 ± 4.06
G	0.414 ± 0.048	1.664 ± 0.075	1.250 ± 0.056	5.54 ± 1.84
Normal	0.430 ± 0.064	1.765 ± 0.192	1.336 ± 0.156	0.00 ± 0.00
N	0	0	0	100
Mouth rinses	<i>C. glabrata</i>			
	Percentage of reduction growth from A ₂ to A ₈			
	A ₂ ± SD	A ₈ ± SD	A ₂ -A ₈ ± SD	% reduction ± SD
E	0.411 ± 0.041	1.624 ± 0.082	1.213 ± 0.080	8.61 ± 6.89
F	0.403 ± 0.037	1.659 ± 0.106	1.253 ± 0.086	5.73 ± 5.04
G	0.431 ± 0.078	1.735 ± 0.164	1.304 ± 0.124	3.17 ± 2.71
Normal	0.448 ± 0.050	1.671 ± 0.243	1.223 ± 0.242	0.00 ± 0.00
N	0	0	0	100

E: Brand S; F: Brand C; G: Brand P; N: nystatin.

DISCUSSION

Candida species residing in the oral cavity are opportunistic pathogens and perform synergistic and mutual interactions with other components of the oral ecosystem for their survival (Vazquez-Munoz & Dongari-Bagtzoglou, 2021). The species flourish among humans with low immunity levels and when oral ecosystems are disrupted (Akpan & Morgan, 2002; Patil *et al.*, 2015). The increased resistance by pathogenic microorganisms to currently used antibiotics and chemotherapeutics call for alternative prevention and treatment options and health care products. Products such as mouth rinses containing antifungal agents such as CHX and CPC have been more effective in this regard than systemic azole agents like fluconazole and voriconazole (Ramage *et al.*, 2011).

The study sought to determine the antifungal effects of synthetic and herbal mouth rinses on *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* via the designated tests mentioned above. The disk diffusion test results showed that mouth rinse B, which contains CPC as its main active ingredient, was the most effective in inhibiting the growth activities of both *Candida* species. CPC is a cationic surface-active agent with a wide range of antimicrobial properties having immediate antiseptic effects on gram-positive pathogens (Haps *et al.*, 2008). The interaction between CPC and bacteria disrupts membrane function, causing cytoplasmic components leakage and eventually breaking down the intra-cellular equilibrium (Scheie, 1989; Pitten & Kramer, 2001). This mechanism's molecular, biochemical, or physiological events interfere with the cell's respiration process, making it more susceptible to CPC (Fathilah *et al.*, 2012). A similar action mechanism may work on the *Candida* cells despite it not being a bacterium. CPC's effectiveness in inhibiting *Candida* growth relies on the concentration or amounts utilized in the formulation (Franco Neto *et al.*, 2008). For instance, the 0.053% CPC used in this study resulted in a larger average diameter of the inhibition zones of both *Candida* species compared to other active compounds tested. However, a different study found that a higher concentration of CPC (0.07%) recorded smaller average inhibition zone diameters when tested on two oral bacteria, *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (de Sousa *et al.*, 2021). In a separate study by Evans *et al.* (2015), 0.05% CPC produced a larger average diameter of the inhibition zone for *S. mutans* and *S. sanguinis*.

Previous studies reported that a combined formulation of CHX and CPC (0.12% CHX+CPC) as used in mouth rinse C, provides clinical and microbiological benefits (Quirynen *et al.*, 2001; Herrera *et al.*, 2003). Quirynen *et al.* (2001) noted that the efficiency of a combined formulation of CHX+CPC was similar to a formulation of a single active compound CHX to prevent *de novo* plaque formation. Results obtained from disk diffusion show that the average diameter of the inhibition zones of both *Candida* species was slightly higher when tested using mouth rinse C, which contained CPC+CHX, compared with mouth rinse A, which had CHX. However, this finding differs from an earlier study by Abdulrahman *et al.* (2016) which noted a significantly smaller average diameter of the inhibition zone of *C. albicans* for the CHX+CPC-mouth rinse compared to the CHX-mouth rinse. In addition, mouth rinse A, which with its CHX ingredient, showed good antifungal activity against both *Candida* species, as the mean diameter of the inhibition zone was slightly less than for mouth rinses B and C.

The susceptibility test demonstrated that mouth rinse B containing CPC produced more significant antifungal effects than the other mouth rinses. The MIC value recorded by mouth rinse B (1.63 ± 0.5 µg/mL) was sufficient to inhibit the growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* to a minimal population. This finding agrees with several studies that reported the effectiveness of CPC-mouth rinses compared to CHX, CHX+CPC, and HEX-mouth rinses in inhibiting the growth of oral microorganisms. A study in Malaysia by Fathilah *et al.* (2012) reported that CPC-mouth rinses were more efficient against *C. krusei*, recording the lowest MIC value (33.0 ± 0.0 µg/mL) compared to the CHX (150.0 ± 0.0 µg/mL) and CHX+CPC (75.0 ± 0.0 µg/mL) mouth rinses. An earlier investigation in the US reported that CPC-mouth rinse's lowest concentration (MIC) exhibited a more significant antimicrobial activity against several periodontal organisms, including *Campylobacter rectus*, *Prevotella intermedia*, *Actinomyces meyeri*, and *Eikenella corrodens* (Sreenivasan *et al.*, 2013). In Pakistan, Shafiq *et al.* (2018) reported that mouth rinses with CPC exhibited lower MIC values than those with CHX against *S. mutans* and *S. intermedius*.

This study's MFC values for the CPC, CHX, CHX+CPC, and HEX-mouth rinses were 2 to 4-folds higher than their MIC values. In addition, the concentration MFC of 6.51 ± 2.01 µg/mL for the CPC-mouth rinse was adequate to kill all cell populations, followed

by $25.00 \pm 9.68 \mu\text{g/mL}$ and $31.25 \pm 0.0 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for CHX and HEX-mouth rinses, respectively. Surprisingly, the CHX+CPC-mouth rinse produced the slightest antifungal activity effect against both *Candida* species, recording the highest MFC value ($50.00 \pm 9.36 \mu\text{g/mL}$). However, this contradicts a previous finding by Fathilah et al. (2012) who reported that CPC incorporation potentially enhances the effects of CHX on antifungal activity.

This study shows that all three herbal mouth rinses (E, F, and G) exhibited lower antifungal activity against *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* than chemical mouth rinses based on the disk diffusion and susceptibility tests. The absence of inhibition growth zones for both *Candida* species suggests their resistance to the active ingredients tested. Both species showed no MFC values when tested with herbal mouth rinses. Mouth rinse S contained *P. betle*, or betel vine, as an active ingredient. It is a propitious plant cultivated in Asian countries and used during auspicious functions, ceremonies, and sacred rituals (Rai et al., 2011). Although the *P. betle*-mouth rinses in this study exhibited no or lesser antifungal activity against oral *Candida*, the ethyl-acetate fractionated extract of *P. betle* possessed a potent inhibitory activity against *C. albicans* as reported by Phumat et al. (2017). Their study also noted that this extract produced the highest average diameter of the inhibition zone of *C. albicans* compared to *S. mutants* and *S. gordonii* (Phumat et al., 2017). A significant antifungal effect of *P. betle* against other *Candida* species including *C. glabrata*, *C. krusei*, *C. parapsilosis*, and *C. tropicalis* has also been confirmed in Nanayakkara et al. (2014).

Mouth rinse F contained *E. caryophyllus* or eugenol, an active ingredient naturally found in the clove bud or the scientifically named *S. aromaticum* and clove oil (Pavithra, 2014). Although no or less antifungal activity of *E. caryophyllus* was found in the first two experiments, large spectrums of clove oil and eugenol against *Candida* spp. and other oral bacteria were observed in past research. For example, Himratul-Aznita et al. (2009) reported that a drastic reduction in dental plaque populations was possibly due to the natural extracts of *E. caryophyllus* that killed bacteria such as *Candida* spp., *Streptococcus* spp., *Lactobacillus* spp. as well as *Staphylococcus* spp. Other than that, Pinto et al. (2009) concluded that eugenol from *S. aromaticum* is potentially used as a therapeutic medication against fungi infections. The study also suggested that clove oil might be helpful in the clinical management of candidiasis, especially mucocutaneous candidiasis, which is known for its fungicidal activity and its inhibition of germ tube formation of *Candida* cells (Pinto et al., 2009).

Without exception, mouth rinse G (Brand P) was found to exert no or less antifungal effects on the growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* in all laboratory tests. The mouth rinse G in this study consisted of an equal concentration of four active ingredients, namely *C. officinalis*, *P. major*, *F. vesca*, and *M. chamomilla*. *C. officinalis* is a medicinal plant with yellow to orange flowers found in the Mediterranean region. It contains several active compounds, including sesquiterpenes glycosides, saponins, xanthophylls, triol triterpenes, flavonoids, and volatiles (Gazim et al., 2008). Unlike *C. officinalis*, *P. major* is a perennial herb originating in Europe and Asia. It contains five classes of eleven biologically active compounds, namely benzoic, flavonoids, iridoid glycoside, phenolic, and triterpenes, with the majority of its medicinal properties attributed to iridoid glycoside (aucubin) and flavonoids (baicalein) (Shirley et al., 2017). Compared to them, *F. vesca* generally refers to berries and strawberries that are largely cultivated worldwide. It contains a rich source of biologically active phenolic compounds such as tannins, anthocyanins, flavonoids, and phenolic acids (Ivanov et al., 2015). Another active ingredient of mouth rinse G is *M. chamomilla*, commonly known as chamomile, an annual plant mainly found in Europe and Asia but widely introduced in North America and Australia (Singh et al., 2011).

Many studies and reviews on the health benefits provided by the respective active ingredients of mouth rinse G i.e., *C. officinalis*

(Atai et al., 2007), *P. major* (Sharma et al., 2016), *F. vesca* (Vakil et al., 2019) and *M. chamomilla* (Cairone et al., 2021), underline the effectiveness of antifungal properties against *Candida* spp. Nevertheless, no reports on antifungal activity against *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* have been attributed to mixtures comprising the four active ingredients. Besides, the lower antifungal activity found in herbal mouth rinses might be due to uncertainty on the effectiveness of active ingredients and their properties on two *Candida* species. In addition, it could be assumed that some of the components associated with the active ingredients may present no effects (medical or pharmaceutical) and are used only for marketing purposes (Radzki et al., 2022). Furthermore, there is also a possibility of differences between the declared and actual composition of a product, which may alter the characteristics and functions of the substances in the herbal mouth rinses tested in the study.

TKA showed that all four synthetic mouth rinses efficiently produced antifungal activity on *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. More than 50% of the *C. glabrata* cell populations were killed within 15 seconds of exposure to CHX, HEX, CPC, and CHX+CPC-mouth rinses. A full 100% killing of *C. glabrata* was recorded at 120-second exposure time for mouth rinses A and D. Meanwhile, all synthetic mouth rinses showed 50% killing effects on *C. albicans* at 60-second exposure time, except mouth rinse C containing CHX+CPC. In comparison with *C. glabrata*, a full 100% killing of *C. albicans* for mouth rinses A and D was recorded in the shorter 90-second exposure time, suggesting slightly higher efficacy of both the mouth rinses' antifungal agents in *C. albicans* than *C. glabrata*.

Furthermore, the killing efficiency of mouth rinses B and C on both *Candida* species was less than for A and D, as a longer exposure time (150 seconds) was needed to achieve a 100% of killing effect. Since TKA-associated with bacteria is regularly used to assess the bacterial activity of antibiotics containing a single or combined formulation (Pankey et al., 2014), some researchers believe that this assay is more relevant in a clinical setting (Eliopoulos & Eliopoulos, 1988; Pillai et al., 2005). Nevertheless, Pankey et al. (2014) described TKA as expensive, time-consuming, and requiring specific equipment and expertise. Therefore, it is impractical for most clinical microbiology laboratory settings. Due to the lack of standardized Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines, only a few antifungal time-kill studies have been performed (Pankey et al., 2014).

A typical sigmoidal curve pattern obtained in a growth profile study indicates the generation cycle of an organism with all the cells performing optimal physiological and biochemical activities to grow (Cappuccino & Sherman, 2007). According to researchers, the normal biological functions of oral bacteria cells are affected by the active ingredients in the growth environment, preventing bacteria cells from propagating and increasing their population (Fathilah et al., 2007, 2009). In this study, all four synthetic-based mouth rinses exhibited significant effects on the growth profiles of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. The growth suppression of mouth rinses B and A containing CPC and CHX, respectively was immediately observed, generating no growth curve. This finding is supported by an earlier study by Fathilah et al. (2012), which reported that no growth curves were generated for *C. krusei* and *C. tropicalis* when treated with CHX and CPC-mouth rinses. The log phases of mouth rinses B and A were more linear, with the total cell population attained at a lower optical density indicating the suppression of cell activity affecting the growth of *Candida* cells. In a past investigation, Hellstein et al. (1993) explained that the affected *Candida* could exhibit abnormal colonies and cell morphology under a suppression phase. The presence of uncommon colonies and cells, especially in pathogenic oral bacteria, will increase the frequency of phenotypic switching by cells that cause the survival of *Candida* cells in a stressed growth environment (Fathilah et al., 2012; Balagopal & Arjunker, 2013). On the other hand, the results of this study show that none of the herbal mouth rinses produced antifungal effects on the *Candida*

species. A similar pattern of growth curves was obtained as the those under average conditions.

In summary, mouth rinse B, which contained CPC, was the most effective in all tests, except TKA, compared to mouth rinses A (CHX), C (CHX+CPC), and D (HEX). In most situations, CHX remains the gold standard antiplaque agent, and this active compound can be found in most commercialized mouth rinses worldwide (Balagopal & Arjunkumar, 2013). The long-term use of CHX-mouth rinses can cause teeth and tongue discoloration, parageusia, irritation, and hypersensitivity reactions to the oral mucosa (James et al., 2017). Recent studies suggest that CPC is a better and more effective alternative for CHX as an antiplaque agent (Retamal-Valdes et al., 2017; Nasila et al., 2021). Although CPC is relatively less effective than CHX in controlling dental plaque development, it is more convenient for long-term use due to its less severe side effects. It is also responsible for reducing the bacterial count that causes periodontal disease and in preventing gingivitis and halitosis (Lee et al., 2017).

CONCLUSION

All synthetic mouth rinses tested in this study possessed antifungal properties against *C. albicans* than *C. glabrata*. Mouth rinse B, which contained CPC, was the most effective followed by mouth rinses A, C, and D which had CHX, CHX+CPC, and HEX, respectively. Meanwhile, lesser antifungal activity against both *Candida* species was observed when evaluated using all three herbal mouth rinses. Therefore, further research should investigate antifungal activity on the growth of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* using different concentrations of the active ingredients for mouth rinses E (*P. betle*), F (*E. caryophyllus*) and G (*C. officinalis*, *P. major*, *F. vesca*, *M. chamomilla*).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We acknowledge Universiti Malaya financially supporting this study by allocating grants (Grant No.: P0037/2008A). We also thank the laboratory technologists at the Balai Ungku Aziz Research Laboratory, Faculty of Dentistry, Universiti Malaya, for their support throughout this study.

Conflict of interest

All authors have no conflict of interest concerning the work reported in this paper.

REFERENCES

Abdulrahman, B.M., Holmes, H., Peck, M.T. & Basson, N.J. (2016). *In vitro* antimicrobial comparison of three commercially available chlorhexidine-based oral rinses. *South African Dental Journal* **71**: 304-307.

Aggarwal, N., Bhateja, S., Arora, G. & Yasmin, T. (2018). Candidiasis - The most common fungal infection of oral cavity. *Biomedical Journal of Science & Technical Research* **8**: BJSTR.MS.ID.001649. <https://doi.org/10.26717/BJSTR.2018.08.001649>

Ahmad, L. (2021). Impact of gargling on respiratory infections. *All Life* **14**: 147-158. <https://doi.org/10.1080/26895293.2021.1893834>

Akande, O.O., Alada, A.R.A., Aderinokun, G.A. & Ige, A.O. (2004). Efficacy of different brands of mouth rinses on oral bacterial load count in healthy adults. *African Journal of Biomedical Research* **7**: 125-128. <https://doi.org/10.4314/ajbr.v7i3.54160>

Akca, A.E., Akca, G., Topnu, F.T., Macit, E., Pikkoken, L. & Ozgen, I.S. (2016). The comparative evaluation of the antimicrobial effect of propolis with chlorhexidine against oral pathogens: an in vitro study. *Biomed Research International* **2016**: 3627463. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/3627463>

Akpan, A. & Morgan, R. (2022). Oral candidiasis. *Postgraduate Medical Journal* **78**: 455-459. <https://doi.org/10.1136/pmj.78.922.455>

Alnuaimi, A.D., Wiesenfeld, D., O'Brien-Simpson, N.M., Reynolds, E.C. & McCullough, M.J. (2015). Oral *Candida* colonization in oral cancer patients and its relationship with traditional risk factors of oral cancer: a matched case-control study. *Oral Oncology* **51**: 139-145. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oraloncology.2014.11.008>

Amit, P. (2015). Mouthwashes and their use in different oral conditions. *Scholars Journal of Dental Sciences* **2**: 186-191.

Atai, Z., Ansari, M., Ayat Elahi Mousavi, A. & Mirzaei, A. (2007). In-vitro study of antifungal effects of selected herbal extracts on standard and wild strains of *Candida albicans*. *Journal of Islamic Dental Association of Iran* **19**: 91-97.

Balagopal, S. & Arjunkumar, R. (2013). Chlorhexidine: the gold standard antiplaque agent. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research* **5**: 270-274.

Bhat, N., Mitra, R., Reddy, J., Oza, S. & Vinayak, K.M. (2013). Evaluation of efficacy of chlorhexidine and a herbal mouthwash on dental plaque: an in vitro comparative study. *International Journal of Pharma and Bio Sciences* **4**: 625-632.

Bhattacharjee, M. (2015). Better visualization and photo documentation of zone of inhibition by staining cells and background agar differently. *Journal of Antibiotics* **68**: 657-659. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ja.2015.49>

Brookes, Z., Bescos, R., Belfield, L.A., Ali, K. & Roberts, A. (2020). Current uses of chlorhexidine for management of oral disease: a narrative review. *Journal of Dentistry* **103**: 103497. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdent.2020.103497>

Cairone, F., Simonetti, G., Orekhova, A., Casadei, M.A., Zengin, G. & Cesa, S. (2021). Health potential of clery strawberries: enzymatic inhibition and anti-*Candida* activity evaluation. *Molecules* **26**: 1731. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules26061731>

Cappuccino, J.G. & Sherman, N. (2007). *Microbiology: A laboratory manual*. 8th edition. London: Benjamin Cummings Publishing Company.

Coronado-Castellote, L. & Jimenez-Soriano, Y. (2013). Clinical and microbiological diagnosis of oral candidiasis. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental Dentistry* **5**: e279-e286. <https://doi.org/10.4317/jced.51242>

Dar-Odeh, N., Shehabi, A., Al-Bitar, Z., Al-Omari, I., Badran, S., Al-Omari, M., Naser, M., Al-Beyari, M. & Abu-Hammad, O. (2011). Oral *Candida* colonization in patients with fixed orthodontic appliances the importance of some nutritional and salivary factors. *African Journal of Microbiology Research* **5**: 2150-2154. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJMR11.382>

de Oliveira Santos, G.C., Vasconcelos, C.C., Lopes, A., de Sousa Cartagenes, M., Filho, A., do Nascimento, F., Ramos, R.M., Pires, E., de Andrade, M.S., Rocha, F. et al. (2018). *Candida* infections and therapeutic strategies: Mechanisms of action for traditional and alternative agents. *Frontiers in Microbiology* **9**: 1351. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018.01351>

de Sousa, V., Guedes, O.A., de Araujo Estrela, L.R., Ricci Volpato, L.E., Borba, A.M. & de Araujo Estrela, C.R. (2021). Antibacterial effect of mouthwashes against *Streptococcus mutans*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Enterococcus faecalis*. *Revista Sul Brasileira de Odontologia* **18**: 44-51. <https://doi.org/10.21726/rsbo.v18i1.1452>

Eliopoulos, G.M. & Eliopoulos, C.T. (1988). Antibiotic combinations: should they be tested? *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* **1**: 139-156. <https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.1.2.139>

Evans, A., Leishman, S.J., Walsh, L.J. & Seow, W.K. (2015). Inhibitory effects of antiseptic mouthrinses on *Streptococcus mutans*, *Streptococcus sanguinis* and *Lactobacillus acidophilus*. *Australian Dental Journal* **60**: 247-254. <https://doi.org/10.1111/adj.12312>

Fathilah, A.R., Aishah, A. & Zarina, M.Z. (2007). The effect of environmental stress on the growth of plaque bacteria. *Research Journal of Microbiology* **2**: 381-386.

Fathilah, A.R., Himratul-Aznita, W.H., Fatheen, A.R.N. & Suriani, K.R. (2012). The antifungal properties of chlorhexidine digluconate and cetylpyridinium chloride on oral *Candida*. *Journal of Dentistry* **40**: 609-615. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdent.2012.04.003>

Fathilah, A.R., Rahim, Z.H., Othman, Y. & Yusoff, M. (2009). Bacteriostatic effect of *Piper betle* and *Psidium guajava* extracts on dental plaque bacteria. *Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences* **12**: 518-521. <https://doi.org/10.3923/pjbs.2009.518.521>

Franco Neto, C.A., Parolo, C.C., Rosing, C.K. & Maltz, M. (2008). Comparative analysis of the effect of two chlorhexidine mouthrinses on plaque accumulation and gingival bleeding. *Brazilian Oral Research* **22**: 139-144. <https://doi.org/10.1590/s1806-83242008000200008>

- Garcia-Cuesta, C., Sarrion-Perez, M.G. & Bagan, J.V. (2014). Current treatment of oral candidiasis: a literature review. *Journal of Clinical Experimental Dentistry* 6: e576-e582. <https://doi.org/10.4317/jced.51798>
- Gazim, Z.C., Rezende, C.M., Fraga, S.R., Svidzinski, T.I. & Cortez, D.A. (2008). Antifungal activity of the essential oil from *Calendula officinalis* L. (asteraceae) growing in Brazil. *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology* 39: 61-63. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1517-838220080001000015>
- Guida, R.A. (1988). Candidiasis of the oropharynx and esophagus. *Ear, Nose and Throat Journal* 67: 832-840.
- Haps, S., Slot, D.E., Berchier, C.E. & Van der Weijden, G.A. (2008). The effect of cetylpyridinium chloride-containing mouth rinses as adjuncts to toothbrushing on plaque and parameters of gingival inflammation: a systematic review. *International Journal of Dental Hygiene* 6: 290-303. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1601-5037.2008.00344.x>
- Haydari, M., Bardakci, A.G., Koldslund, O.C., Aass, A.M., Sandvik, L. & Preus, H.R. (2017). Comparing the effect of 0.06%, 0.12% and 0.2% Chlorhexidine on plaque, bleeding and side effects in an experimental gingivitis model: a parallel group, double masked randomized clinical trial. *BMC Oral Health* 17: 118. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-017-0400-7>
- Hellstein, J., Vawter-Hugart, H., Fotos, P., Schmid, J. & Soll, D.R. (1993). Genetic similarity and phenotypic diversity of commensal and pathogenic strains of *Candida albicans* isolated from the oral cavity. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 31: 3190-3199. <https://doi.org/10.1128/jcm.31.12.3190-3199.1993>
- Herrera, D., Rondan, S., Santacruz, I., Santos, S., Masdevall, M. & Sanz, M. (2003). Differences in antimicrobial activity of four commercial 0.12% chlorhexidine mouthrinse formulations: an in vitro contact test and salivary bacterial counts study. *Journal of Clinical Periodontology* 30: 307-314. <https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-051x.2003.00341.x>
- Himratul-Aznita, W.H., Zainal-Abidin, Z., Aznan, E. & Razi, M.N. (2009). The effectiveness of chlorhexidine, hexetidine and *Eugenia caryophyllus* extracts in commercialized oral rinses to reduce dental plaque microbes. *Research Journal of Biological Sciences* 4: 716-719.
- Hosain Pour, A., Salari, S. & Ghasemi Nejad Almani, P. (2018). Oropharyngeal candidiasis in HIV/AIDS patients and non-HIV subjects in the Southeast of Iran. *Current Medical Mycology* 4: 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.18502/cmm.4.4.379>
- Ivanov, I., Petkova, N., Denev, P. & Pavlov, A. (2015). Polyphenols content and antioxidant activities in infusion and decoction extracts obtained from *Fragaria vesca* L. leaves. *Scientific Bulletin Series F. Biotechnologies* 19: 145-148.
- James, P., Worthington, H.V., Parnell, C., Harding, M., Lamont, T., Cheung, A., Whelton, H. & Riley, P. (2017). Chlorhexidine mouthrinse as an adjunctive treatment for gingival health. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 3: CD008676. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD008676.pub2>
- Jeddy, N., Ravi, S., Radhika, T. & Sai Lakshmi, L. (2018). Comparison of the efficacy of herbal mouth rinse with commercially available mouth rinses: a clinical trial. *Journal of Oral Maxillofacial Pathology* 22: 332-334. https://doi.org/10.4103/jomfp.JOMFP_303_18
- Lakshmi, D., Gnanavel, D., Arunkumar & Karuna, J. (2015). Oral candidiasis in denture wearing patients: a review. *Unique Journal of Medical and Dental Science* 3: 9-11.
- Lanzos, I., Herrera, D., Santos, S., O'Connor, A., Pena, C., Lanzos, E. & Sanz, M. (2010). Mucositis in irradiated cancer patients: effects of an antiseptic mouthrinse. *Medicina Oral, Patologia Oral, Cirugia Bucal* 15: e732-e738. <https://doi.org/10.4317/medoral.15.e732>
- Lee, J.E., Lee, J.M., Lee, Y., Park, J.W., Suh, J.Y., Um, H.S. & Kim, Y.G. (2017). The antiplaque and bleeding control effects of a cetylpyridinium chloride and tranexamic acid mouth rinse in patients with gingivitis. *Journal of Periodontal and Implant Science* 47: 134-142. <https://doi.org/10.5051/jpis.2017.47.3.134>
- Mota, S., Alves, R., Carneiro, C., Silva, S., Brown, A.J., Istel, F., Kuchler, K., Sampaio, P., Casal, M., Henriques, M. et al. (2015). *Candida glabrata* susceptibility to antifungals and phagocytosis is modulated by acetate. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 6: 919. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.00919>
- Nanayakkara, B.S., Abayasekara, C.L., Panagoda, G.J., Dinusha Kumari Kanatiwela, H.M. & Dammantha Senanayake, M.R. (2014). Anti-candidal activity of *Piper betle* (L.), *Vitex negundo* (L.) and *Jasminium grandiflorum* (L.). *African Journal of Microbiology Research* 8: 2307-2314. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJMR2014.6713>
- Nasila, K., Shijith, K.V., Mohammed Shihab, K.K. & Ramya, C. (2021). A review on cetylpyridinium chloride. *International Journal of Research and Review* 8: 439-445. <https://doi.org/10.52403/ijrr.20210453>
- Obradovic, R.R., Kesic, L.G., Pejicic, A.A., Petrovic, M.S., Zivkovic, N.D. & Zivkovic, D.M. (2011). Diabetes mellitus and oral candidiasis. *Acta Stomatologica Naissi* 27: 1025-1034. <https://doi.org/10.5937/asn11630250>
- Pankey, G., Ashcraft, D., Kahn, H. & Ismail, A. (2014). Time-kill assay and Etest evaluation for synergy with polymyxin B and fluconazole against *Candida glabrata*. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* 58: 5795-5800. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.03035-14>
- Patil, S., Rao, R.S., Majumdar, B. & Anil, S. (2015). Clinical appearance of oral *Candida* infection and therapeutic strategies. *Frontier in Microbiology* 6: 1391. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.01391>
- Pavithra, B. (2014). Eugenol - A review. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research* 6: 153-154.
- Phan, T.N. & Marquis, R.E. (2006). Triclosan inhibition of membrane enzymes and glycolysis of *Streptococcus mutans* in suspensions and biofilms. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology* 52: 977-983. <https://doi.org/10.1139/w06-055>
- Phumat, P., Khongkhunthian, S., Wanachantararak, P. & Okonogi, S. (2017). Potential of *Piper betle* extracts on inhibition of oral pathogens. *Drug Discoveries and Therapeutic* 11: 307-315. <https://doi.org/10.5582/ddt.2017.01061>
- Pillai, S.K., Moellering, R.C. & Eliopoulos, G.M. (2005). Antimicrobial combinations. In: *Antibiotics in Laboratory Medicine*, Lorian, V. (editor). Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, pp. 365-405.
- Pinto, E., Vale-Silva, L., Cavaleiro, C. & Salgueiro, L. (2009). Antifungal activity of the clove essential oil from *Syzygium aromaticum* on *Candida*, *Aspergillus* and dermatophyte species. *Journal of Medical Microbiology* 58: 1454-1462. <https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.010538-0>
- Pitten, F.A. & Kramer, A. (2001). Efficacy of cetylpyridinium chloride used as oropharyngeal antiseptic. *Arzneimittel Forschung* 51: 588-595. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0031-1300084>
- Pradeep Kumar, S. & Athiban Raj, J. (2017). Effects of alcohol containing mouthwash on oral tissue: a review. *International Journal of Science and Research* 6: 1584-1587.
- Premanathan, M., Shakurfow, F.A.A., Ismail, A.A., Berfad, M.A., Ebrahim, A.T. & Awaj, M.M. (2011). Treatment of oral candidiasis (thrush) by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *International Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences* 3: 83-86. <https://doi.org/10.5897/IJMM5.9000249>
- Quirynen, M., Avontroodt, P., Peeters, W., Pauwels, M., Coucke, W. & van Steenberghe, D. (2001). Effect of different chlorhexidine formulations in mouthrinses on de novo plaque formation. *Journal of Clinical Periodontology* 28: 1127-1136. <https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-051x.2001.281207.x>
- Radzki, D., Wilhelm-Wąglarz, M., Pruska, K., Kusiak, A. & Ordyniec-Kwanica, I. (2022). A fresh look at mouthwashes - What is inside and what is it for? *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 19: 3926. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19073926>
- Rai, M.P., Thilakchand, K.R., Palatty, P.L., Rao, P., Rao, S., Bhat, H.P. & Baliga, M.S. (2011). *Piper betel* Linn (betel vine), the maligned Southeast Asian medicinal plant possesses cancer preventive effects: time to reconsider the wronged opinion. *Asian Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention* 12: 2149-2156.
- Rajendra Santosh, A.B., Muddana, K. & Bakki, S.R. (2021). Fungal infections of oral cavity: diagnosis, management, and association with COVID-19. *SN Comprehensive Clinical Medicine* 3: 1373-1384. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42399-021-00873-9>
- Ramage, G., Jose, A., Coco, B., Rajendran, R., Rautemaa, R., Murray, C., Lappin, D.F. & Bagg, J. (2011). Commercial mouthwashes are more effective than azole antifungals against *Candida albicans* biofilms *in vitro*. *Oral Surgery, Oral Medicine, Oral Pathology, Oral Radiology and Endodontology* 111: 456-460. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tripleo.2010.10.043>
- Ravikumar, C., Arjunkumar, R. & Prakasam, G. (2016). Comparison of antifungal effects of commercially available herbal mouthwashes and chlorhexidine against *Candida albicans* in diabetic patients: an in vitro study. *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research* 9: 214-216. <https://doi.org/10.22159/ajpcr.2016.v9i5.13275>
- Retamal-Valdes, B., Soares, G.M., Stewart, B., Figueiredo, L.C., Faveri, M., Miller, S., Zhang, Y.P. & Feres, M. (2017). Effectiveness of a pre-procedural mouthwash in reducing bacteria in dental aerosols: randomized clinical trial. *Brazilian Oral Research* 31: e21. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1807-3107BOR-2017.vol31.0021>
- Scheie, A.A. (1989). Modes of action of currently known chemical antiplaque agents other than chlorhexidine. *Journal of Dental Research* 68: 1609-1616.

- Shafiq, H.B., Amin, U. & Nawaz, S. (2018). Comparative analysis of various antimicrobial agents present in locally available mouthwashes against oral pathogens. *Pakistan Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences* **31**: 1881-1887.
- Sharma, H., Yunus, G.Y., Agrawal, R., Kalra, M., Verma, S. & Bhattar, S. (2016). Antifungal efficacy of three medicinal plants *Glycyrrhiza glabra*, *Ficus religiosa*, and *Plantago major* against oral *Candida albicans*: a comparative analysis. *Indian Journal of Dental Research* **27**: 433-436. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0970-9290.191895>
- Shirley, K.P., Windsor, L.J., Eckert, G.J. & Gregory, R.L. (2017). In vitro effects of *Plantago major* extract, aucubin, and baicalein on *Candida albicans* biofilm formation, metabolic activity, and cell surface hydrophobicity. *Journal of Prosthodontics* **26**: 508-515. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jopr.12411>
- Singh, O., Khanam, Z., Misra, N. & Srivastava, M.K. (2011). Chamomile (*Matricaria chamomilla* L.): An overview. *Pharmacognosy Reviews* **5**: 82-95. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-7847.79103>
- Smith, P.K., Krohn, R.I., Hermanson, G.T., Mallia, A.K., Gartner, F.H., Provenzano, M.D., Fujimoto, E.K., Goetze, N.M., Olson, B.J. & Klenk, D.C. (1985). Measurement of protein using bicinchoninic acid. *Analytical Biochemistry* **150**: 76-85. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697\(85\)90442-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697(85)90442-7)
- Sreenivasan, P.K., Haraszthy, V.I. & Zambon, J.J. (2013). Antimicrobial efficacy of 0.05% cetylpyridinium chloride mouthrinses. *Letters in Applied Microbiology* **56**: 14-20. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lam.12008>
- Talebi, S., Sabokbar, A., Riazipour, M. & Saffari, M. (2014). Comparison of the in vitro effect of chemical and herbal mouthwashes on *Candida albicans*. *Jundishapur Journal of Microbiology* **7**: e12563. <https://doi.org/10.5812/jjm.12563>
- Tartaglia, G.M., Tadakamadla, S.K., Connelly, S.T., Sforza, C. & Martin, C. (2019). Adverse events associated with home use of mouthrinses: a systematic review. *Therapeutic Advances in Drug Safety* **10**: 2042098619854881. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2042098619854881>
- Tsui, C., Kong, E.F. & Jabra-Rizk, M.A. (2016). Pathogenesis of *Candida albicans* biofilm. *Pathogen and Disease* **74**: ftw018. <https://doi.org/10.1093/femspd/ftw018>
- Vakil, N., Singh, A., Jad, B. & Kaur, B. (2019). Evaluation of the antimicrobial activity of different concentrations of chamomile extract and chlorhexidine gel against *Candida albicans* and *Enterococcus faecalis*. *International Journal of Applied Dental Sciences* **5**: 218-220.
- Vazquez-Munoz, R. & Dongari-Bagtzoglou, A. (2021). Anticandidal activities by *Lactobacillus* species: an update on mechanisms of action. *Frontiers in Oral Health* **2**: 689382. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2021.689382>
- Vila, T., Sultan, A.S., Montelongo-Jauregui, D. & Jabra-Rizk, M.A. (2020). Oral Candidiasis: A disease of opportunity. *Journal of Fungi* **6**: 15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof6010015>
- Yamamoto, T. (2010). Oral candidiasis: clinical features and control. *The Japanese Journal of Clinical Pathology* **58**: 1027-1034.