# MOLECULAR PROFILING AND PHYLOGENETIC ANALYSIS OF THE ERG11 GENE OF FLUCONAZOLE RESISTANT STRAINS OF CANDIDA SPECIES ISOLATED FROM HUMANS AND DOGS OF REPRODUCTIVE AGE 

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## TITLE PAGE

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# A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHOLOSOPHY (Ph.D) IN MOLECULAR BIOLOGY AND GENETICS, UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, NSUKKA 

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## CERTIFICATION

Odiba, Arome Solomon, a postgraduate student of the Department of Biochemistry, University of Nigeria Nsukka, with Registration Number, PG/Ph.D/14/76654, has satisfactorily completed the dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) in Molecular Biology and Genetics. The work embodied in this dissertation is original and has not been submitted in part or full for any other diploma or degree of this or any other university to the best of our knowledge.

Prof. B. C. Nwanguma
(Supervisor)

Prof. I. N. E. Onwurah (Supervisor)

## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all researchers and scientists who are working relentlessly at understanding the language of God hidden in the DNA.

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All the knowledge I have acquired is through the grace of God. He provides life, wisdom and understanding for every step, and I am full of thanks to Him.

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#### Abstract

The clinical resistance of Candida species to antifungal medications, particularly fluconazole, is rising. A major mechanism responsible for this resistance is the alteration in the nucleotide sequence of the gene that codes for the ERG11 protein, a key enzyme in the ergosterol synthesis pathway, which remains the target of fluconazole. This study investigated the distribution of different species of Candida in human and dog vaginal swabs, the susceptibility of the Candida species to fluconazole, the profile of the ERG1l gene, and the phylogenetic relationship of the Candida species based on the nucleotide sequence of the ERG11 gene. A total of 57 human samples and 7 dog samples were screened for the presence of Candida species. Twenty-eight (28) of the human samples were positive (+ve) to yeast growth. A total of 37 Candida isolates were obtained from the 28 human specimens that were positive to yeast growth. Of the 37 isolates, 13 (35\%) were C. albicans, 4 (9\%) C. glabrata, 4 (9\%) C. krusei, 2 (6\%) C. tropicalis, and 14 (38\%) other Candida species. Of the 28 human specimens that were positive to Candida growth, 21 had single species, 5 had two different species and 2 had three different species. Four different species of Candida, including C. albicans, C. tropicalis, C. krusei, and C. glabrata were identified. The antifungal susceptibility test revealed that 33 ( $89.2 \%$ ) of the Candida species were susceptible ( $\geq 19 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole. The most fluconazole-resistant isolate was C. glabrata, while the most fluconazole-susceptible isolate was a C. albicans. Both isolates were obtained from humans. The four (4) isolates whose ERG1l genes were sequenced, were the most resistant, C. glabrata, the susceptible dose-dependent, C. albicans, the most susceptible, C. albicans and the dog isolate, C. krusei. The nucleotide sequence lengths of the ERG11 gene of these isolates varied from 1431 bases (Can Iso-001) to 1668 bases (Can Iso-029). Similarly, the molecular weight varied from 56183.10 Da (Can Iso-001) to 65139.25 Da (Can Iso-029), while the isoelectric point varied from 8.88 pI (Can Iso-029) to 9.60 pI (Can Iso-001). The predicted half-life $\left(t_{1 / 2}\right)$ of these proteins in mammalian cells was 100 hours, and the instability coefficients were $35.70,36.98,44.50$ and 37.69, for Can Iso-001, Can Iso-017, Can Iso-028 and Can Iso-029, respectively. The grand average of hydrophobicity (GRAVY) of these Candida ERG11 proteins were 0.195, 0.478, 0.195 and 0.576 , respectively. The four Candida ERG11 proteins were predicted to be localized in the plasma membrane. The first 12 amino acids in the multiple sequence alignment (MSA) make-up the first major conserved domain, while the second major conserved regions are in positions 331337, 332-338, 330-336 and 330-336, for Can Iso-001, Can Iso-017, Can Iso-028 and Can Iso-029, respectively. The total residues of alpha helix, beta pleated sheets and turns for these proteins varied. The most fluconazole-resistant isolate (Can Iso-001) had the highest percentage of $\alpha$-helix in its ERGll protein, while the most fluconazole-susceptible isolate (Can Iso-028) had the lowest percentage of $\alpha$-helix in its ERG11 protein. There was a low-level similarity between the Can Iso017 and Can Iso-028 ERG11 tertiary structural models. The Tertiary protein structure of the Can Iso-001 ERG11 was not similar to the other isolates. Can Iso-001 ERG11 protein had no single fluconazole-binding site, while Can Iso-017, Can Iso-028 and Can Iso-029 ERG11 proteins had unique binding sites to which the drug can effectively bind. Similarly, Can Iso-001 ERG11 protein possesses 10 antigenicity sites, while the Can Iso-017, Can Iso-028 and Can Iso-029 ERG11 proteins, possess 16, 21 and 15 antigenicity sites, respectively. The amino acids; 2-8: ETVIDGI was identified as a disease-causing region common to all, in addition to other disease-causing regions that were peculiar to each of the isolates. The phylogenetic analysis based on the ERG11 gene showed that, the four isolates were closely related. However, the most resistant isolate (Can Iso-001) and the dog isolate (Can Iso-029), seemed to have originated from a common ancestor, implying an even closer evolutionary relatedness.


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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| ABC | ATP-binding cassette |
| :---: | :---: |
| AgNPs | silver nanoparticles |
| BLAST | Basic Local Alignment Search Tool |
| BLASTn | Nucleotide Basic Local Alignment Search Tool |
| Can Iso | Candida Isolate |
| CDR1 | Candida drug resistance 1 |
| CDR2 | Candida drug resistance 2 |
| CDR1p | Candida drug resistance 1 protein |
| CDR2p | Candida drug resistance 2 protein |
| CFSSP | Chou \& Fasman Secondary Structure Prediction server |
| CLSI | Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute |
| DHVS | Dog High Vaginal Swab |
| EMBOSS | European Molecular Biology Open Software Suite |
| EMEA | European Medicines Agency |
| ERG11 | ERGosterol 11 |
| ERG11-F | Ergosterol 11 Forward Primer |
| ERG11p | ERGosterol 11 protein |
| FDA | Food and Drug Administration |
| GRAVY | Grand Average of Hydropathicity |
| HHVS | Human High Vaginal Swab |
| MCL | Maximum Composite Likelihood |
| MDR1 | Multi-drug resistance 1 |
| MEGA7 | Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis 7 |
| MFS | Major Facilitator Superfamily |


| MSA | Multiple Sequence Alignment |
| :--- | :--- |
| NAC | Non-albicans Candida |
| NCBI | National Center for Biotechnology Information |
| NIH | National Institutes of Health |
| SDA | Sabouraud Dextrose Agar |
| SDD | Susceptible Dose-Dependent |
| TAC1 | Transcriptional activator of CDR genes 1 |
| UPC2 | Uptake control 2 |
| VVC | vulvovaginal candidiasis |
| 5-FC | 5-Fluorocytosine |

## CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

The incidence and prevalence of invasive fungal infections have increased since the 1980s, especially in the large population of immunocompromised patients (Espinel-Ingroff et al., 2009). Candida species are important human fungal pathogens that cause both mucosal and deep tissue infections. Candida species belong to the normal microbiota of an individual's mucosal oral cavity, gastrointestinal tract, the vagina and other endo-mucosal surfaces (Shao et al., 2007), and are responsible for various clinical manifestations from mucocutaneous overgrowth to bloodstream infections (Eggimann et al., 2003). These yeasts are commensal in healthy humans, and, possibly could cause systemic infections in immunocompromised situations. More than 17 different Candida species are known to be aetiological agents of human infection. However, more than $90 \%$ of invasive Candida infections are caused by Candida albicans, Candida glabrata, Candida parapsilosis, Candida tropicalis and Candida krusei (Ortega et al., 2011; Pfaller et al., 2015). Candida albicans and other non-albicans Candida (NAC) species such, as C. glabrata, C. parapsilosis, C. tropicalis, and C. krusei are capable of causing superficial oral, vaginal mucosa, disseminated bloodstream and deep-tissue infections. However, species involvement varies by infection site and by geographical location (Sharifzadeh et al., 2013; Cleveland et al., 2015; Klingspor et al., 2015). C. glabrata is the most common NAC species found to be the causative agent in vulvovaginal candidiasis (VVC) (Vermitsky et al., 2008; Mahmoudi Rad et al., 2012). C. parapsilosis is well known for its threat to the pediatric population, as it is responsible for $17-50 \%$ of all fungemia in infants and neonates (Krcmery et al., 1999). C. parapsilosis is also second to C. albicans in incidence as a cause of Candida endocarditis with mortality rates between $42 \%$ and 65\% (Garzoni et al., 2007). C. tropicalis infections are commonly associated with malignancy, with some studies reporting higher prevalence among patients with hematologic diseases such as acute myeloid leukemia (Tang et al., 2015; Cornely et al., 2015). The mortality rate ranges from $30 \%$ to $70 \%$, with the highest rates commonly observed among the elderly (Cornely et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). C. krusei is the fourth most common NAC species associated with invasive candidiasis and candidemia, accounting for approximately $2.7 \%$ of NAC species isolated in clinical studies (Pfaller et al., 2014). The pathogenicity of Candida species is attributed to certain virulence factors, such as adherence to mucosal surfaces, ability to evade host defenses, biofilm
formation (on host tissue and on medical devices) and the production of tissue-damaging hydrolytic enzymes such as proteases, phospholipases and haemolysin (Verstrepen and Klis, 2006). Biofilms are biological communities of Candida with a high degree of organization residing in carbohydrate polymers, in which microorganisms form structured, coordinated and functional colonies. These biological communities are embedded in a highly organized self-created extracellular matrix, primarily composed of structural carbohydrate polymers. Currently, an increase in the number of Candida species that are resistant to antifungal drugs is recognized worldwide (Ingham et al., 2012). The increase in resistant strains necessitates the search for new molecular targets in the organism, as well as new antifungal agents to replace existing ones. There are numerous classes of compounds used to treat Candida infections. The polyenes, azoles, echinocandins, nucleoside analogs, and allylamines are used with varying efficacy, depending on the type and site of infection, as well as the susceptibility of the Candida species to the agent (Pfaller et al., 2015; Pappas et al., 2015). The most commonly prescribed antifungal agents used for most C. albicans infections is fluconazole; a member of the azole class of antifungals (Pfaller et al., 2010). Azoles inhibit lanosterol 14 alpha-demethylase, encoded by the ERG11 gene, which is an enzyme involved in the biosynthesis of the fungal-specific membrane sterol; ergosterol (Lortholary et al., 2011; Fothergill et al., 2014). Azole antifungals have long provided effective treatment for Candida infections, however, recent epidemiological studies indicated that intrinsic azole resistance in some Candida species, including the onset of high-level azole resistance is a problem of critical importance in clinical settings (Pfaller et al., 2015; Shields et al., 2015). While extensive studies to elucidate the molecular machineries of high-level azole resistance in $C$. albicans has uncovered the role of ergosterol biosynthesis gene (ERG11 gene) mutation and drug efflux pump upregulation as key mediators of azole resistance, there are other factors at play that contribute significantly to such resistance. From previous studies, there exist clear mutations in the ERG11 gene that are found to influence azole resistance in clinical isolates among Candida species (Pfaller et al., 2015; Shields et al., 2015). As azole resistance continues to emerge in these species, a better understanding of the important differences among resistance machineries employed by these species is needed in order to circumvent this crucial clinical problem. Azole antifungals such as fluconazole are often the preferred treatment for many Candida infections due to their efficiency, lower costs, limited toxicity and availability in oral administration. There is an extensive documentation of intrinsic and developed resistance to azole antifungals among
numerous Candida species at different degrees, and in different geographical locations (Vermitsky et al., 2008; Sharifzadeh et al., 2013; Cleveland et al., 2015; Klingspor et al., 2015). As the frequency of azole resistant Candida isolates in the clinical setting increases, it is essential to elucidate the machineries of such resistance in order to both preserve and improve upon the azole class of antifungals for the treatment of Candida infections. Many studies have documented the ability of Candida to develop high-level resistance to azole antifungals (Oxman et al., 2010; Lortholary et al., 2011), therefore, a clear understanding of molecular machineries driving the intrinsic and onset of high-level azole resistance is necessary.

### 1.1 Epidemiology of Candida Infection

Numerous Candida species are commensals and colonize the skin and mucosal surfaces of humans. Critically ill or otherwise immunocompromised patients are more predisposed to developing both superficial and life-threatening Candida infections (Hasan et al., 2009). C. albicans is the predominant cause of invasive fungal infections (Horn et al., 2009), and represents a serious public health challenge with increasing medical and economic importance. This is due to the high mortality rates and increased costs of care (Lai et al., 2012). Although C. albicans is the most prevalent species involved in invasive fungal infections, the incidence of infections due to non-albicans species is increasing. In a recent study, it was found that $28.3 \%$ of patients exhibited invasive fungal infection, with C. albicans as the most frequently isolated (58\%), followed by $C$. tropicalis (17\%) and C. glabrata (15\%) (Yapar, 2014). In Europe, an analysis showed that more than half of the cases of Candidaemia were caused by C. albicans, and the incidence rates for nonalbicans Candidaemia infections were $14 \%$ each for C. glabrata and C. parapsilosis, $7 \%$ for $C$. tropicalis and $2 \%$ for C. krusei (Tortorano et al., 2006). Changes in the epidemiology have also been observed in Latin America. For instance, in Chile, the prevalence of C. albicans has changed, and a progressive increase of non-albicans infection has been observed; C. parapsilosis is the most frequent species, followed by C. tropicalis and C. glabrata. According to the Brazilian Network Candidaemia study, C. albicans accounted for $40.9 \%$ of cases in Brazil, followed by C. tropicalis (20.9\%), C. parapsilosis (20.5\%) and C. glabrata (4.9\%) (Nucci et al., 2010). For Nigeria, however, such a cohort of study is yet to be executed and reported.

### 1.2 Pathogenicity of Candida Species

Candida species are considered important pathogens due to their versatility and ability to survive in various anatomical sites. Candida species are commensal eukaryotic opportunistic pathogens that reside on the mucosa of the gastrointestinal tract, mouth, oesophagus, vagina and other mucosal linings in an asymptomatic manner. While Candida species can infect different anatomical sites of the human host, there are indications that immune protection is site-specific. Cutaneous candidiasis and vaginal candidiasis are more likely to be connected with a phagocytic response involving neutrophils and mononuclear phagocytes (Vidigal and Svidzinski, 2009). It can however, become one of the most significant causes of death if not treated effectively (Wisplinghoff et al., 2006; Vincent et al., 2009). Infection caused by Candida is called candidiasis or candidosis, with a wide spectrum of clinical manifestations. It can be classified as superficial (as with cutaneous and mucosal infections), deep, widespread and of high severity (as is the case of invasive candidiasis). In years past, fungi emerged as major causes of nosocomial infections, mainly affecting immunocompromised patients or those who were hospitalized for long periods as a result of serious underlying diseases (Vidigal and Svidzinski, 2009). Most people usually have a single strain of Candida in different places in the body for a long period, while a comparatively lower number of individuals have more than one strain or species at the same time, as frequently observed among hospitalized patients (Kojic and Darouiche, 2004; Klotz et al., 2007). Virulence in C. albicans comprises of host recognition, which enables the pathogen to bind to host cells and proteins, with degradative enzymes playing special roles in their virulence. Extracellular hydrolytic enzymes appear to play an important part in adherence, tissue penetration, invasion and the damage of host tissues (Silva et al., 2009). Candida pathogenicity is aided by a number of virulence factors, the most important of which are those for adherence to host tissues and medical devices, biofilm formation and secretion of hydrolytic enzymes (e.g. proteases, phospholipases and haemolysins). The primary mechanism in the fungal colonization of human tissues is adherence to host surfaces; a process controlled and induced by numerous cell-signaling cascades in both the fungus and its immediate surrounding environment. The initial attachment of Candida cells is facilitated by non-specific factors (electrostatic forces and hydrophobicity) and promoted by specific adhesins that are present on the surface of fungal cells, and can identify ligands such as proteins (including fibrinogen and fibronectin). Adhesins can unambiguously bind to amino acids and sugars on the surface of other cells (Verstrepen and Klis, 2006). The presence of biofilm
matrix restricts the penetration of drugs, through the formation of a diffusion barrier, causing clinical problems of concern, by increasing resistance to antifungal therapy, since only the superficial layers are in contact with lethal doses of the drug (Kojic and Darouiche, 2004). Recent evidence suggests that many of the diseases produced by C. albicans are associated with biofilm growth (Ramage and López-Ribot, 2005). Biofilms can thrive on any moist biotic or abiotic surface as a form of protection for their proliferation and defense against antifungal treatment, as well as to withstanding competitive pressure from other organisms. This strategy also encourages symbiotic relationships, and allows survival in hostile environments (Davey and O'toole, 2000; Ramage and Lopez-Rib, 2005). In lung infections, the association between C. albicans and Pseudomonas aeruginosa is an instance of an antagonistic interaction between bacteria and fungi, where P. aeruginosa kills yeast hyphae and biofilms of C. albicans (Morales et al., 2010). Generally, the biofilm matrix comprises carbohydrates, proteins, phosphorus and hexosamines; though, environmental circumstances such as medium composition, pH , oxygen concentration and the strain can affect biofilm formation along with matrix composition. For instance, C. parapsilosis biofilms contain large amounts of carbohydrates, and the protein content is lower in comparison with the biofilms of C. glabrata and C. tropicalis (Silva et al., 2009). According to the US National Institutes of Health (NIH), biofilms are the most common form of microbial growth in nature, and cause the majority of infections in humans (Nett et al., 2010). Several studies have shown that a relationship exists between an increase in the activity of extracellular hydrolytic enzymes and an increase in the pathogenic capacity of the yeasts, leading to clinical signs of severe candidiasis (Ingham et al., 2012). The roles of these fungal extracellular lipases include the digestion of lipids for nutrient acquisition, adhesion to host cells and tissues, unspecific initiation of inflammatory processes and self-defense through lysing of any competing microflora (Verstrepen and Klis, 2006). Iron, an inorganic element, is also essential for the survival of microorganisms, including yeasts (Candida), and the capacity to obtain this element is contributory to the on-set of an infectious process (Dongari-Bagtzoglou et al., 2009). Biofilms are hard to diagnose and treat, and have the possibility to serve as infectious reservoirs for a variety of microorganisms that include bacteria (such as Staphylococcus epidermidis, Staphylococcus aureus and Enterococcus species) and fungi (Klotz et al., 2007; Harriott and Noverr, 2011). Biofilms however, thus far, have not been demonstrated in the gastrointestinal tract (Harriott and Noverr, 2011). C. albicans reversibly transforms from unicellular yeast cells to either pseudohyphae or hyphae (filamentous growth
form); a morphogenesis phenomenon. This phenomenon has been observed in C. albicans and C. dubliniensis (Bruder-Nascimento et al., 2010). The growth of hyphae, a virulence mechanism, plays an important role in tissue invasion and resistance to phagocytosis (Jayatilake et al., 2006). The morphological transformation from the yeast to the mycelial form (dimorphic switching) is induced by many environmental factors, such as serum, high temperatures $\left(37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$ and neutral pH (Yi et al., 2011). Genetic analyses show that both yeast cells and hyphae are crucial for biofilm formation, suggesting that each cell type has a unique role in this process (Douglas, 2003).

### 1.3.1 Candida Biofilms and Conventional Antifungals

Different antifungal classes utilize a different means to inhibit the growth of fungal pathogens (Pfaller et al., 2012). The molecular mechanisms of antifungal resistance are categorized as either primary or secondary, and are connected to intrinsic or acquired qualities of the fungal pathogen. This encompasses either interference with the antifungal machineries of the corresponding drug or a reduction in the drug levels. Resistance also surfaces when environmental influences lead to the colonization or replacement of a susceptible species with a resistant species. The antifungal properties of polyene and azole antifungals could be attributed to their actions on the fungal cell membrane, whereas echinocandins act by disrupting the fungal cell wall (Pfaller et al., 2012). The ability of Candida to form drug-resistant biofilms is a vital factor in its influence in human disease. The development of biofilms causes clinical complications of concern because they elevate the resistance to antifungal therapies, and the mechanism of biofilm resistance to antimicrobial agents is currently not completely known. A notable hypothesis to account for this resistance is that, the formation of a diffusion barrier, through the presence of the matrix, restricts the infiltration of drugs (Nett et al., 2011); therefore, only the most superficial layers are in direct contact with lethal doses of antimicrobials. Numerous molecular tools of resistance to antifungal agents in C. albicans have been described. In particular, these include the increased efflux of antifungal agents as a result of the overexpression of the efflux genes, $C D R 1, C D R 2$ and $M D R 1$. The $C D R 1$ and $C D R 2$ are in the family of ABC (ATP-binding cassette) membrane transport proteins (Sardi et al., 2011). CDR1, $C D R 2$ and other genes are often co-regulated, and are overexpressed at the same time (Staib et al., 1999). Amino acid substitutions in the enzyme ERG1lp (lanosterol 14- $\alpha$-demethylase), encoded by the gene ERG11 is also another possible factor that could be responsible (Flowers et al., 2015). Due to the resulting increased fungal infections, two triazoles (voriconazole and posaconazole) and three echinocandins (anidulafungin, caspofungin and micafungin) have been developed and
approved to treat and prevent these infections (Mattiuzzi and Giles, 2005) (Fig. 1). Among these three classes of antifungal agents currently in clinical use, only amphotericin B and the echinocandins, e.g. caspofungin, have validated reliable in vitro activity against C. albicans biofilms (Kuhn et al., 2002). Despite the success of these two agents, Candida biofilm-related infections are awfully difficult to eradicate. The combined use of echinocandins with other drugs that have antifungal activity is becoming an important alternative form of therapy in mycoses resulting from fungi that are resistant to standard antifungal monotherapy in biofilm-associated diseases. In C. albicans biofilms, only a small subcategory of yeast cells are described to be highly resistant to amphotericin B (LaFleur et al., 2006).

### 1.3.2 Candida Biofilm and New Antifungal Strategies

The rising occurrence of drug-resistant pathogens and the side-effects associated with existing antifungal substances has attracted attention in the direction of the antimicrobial action of natural products. The small number of medications available for fungal treatment, most of which are fungistatic, and the developing resistance to antifungal agents encourage the search for more suitable substitute treatments (Sardi et al., 2011). Plants are found to be good options for obtaining a wide diversity of medications used in medicine due to their easy accessibility and application to various pathologies (Sardi et al., 2011). Plants therefore have proven to be an excellent source for substances that are useable in the formulation of new antifungal agents (Holetz et al., 2002). The extracts of some Romanian medicinal plants such as Artemisia absinthium, Arnica montana and Urtica dioica, have significant antimicrobial activities that are preferentially directed against fungi (C. albicans) and bacteria (S. aureus) (Stanciuc et al., 2011). Humans have also been a source of antifungal agents. In a study by Rossignol et al. (2011), the 18-amino acid cationic tryptophanrich ApoEdpL-W peptide, derived from human ApoE apolipoprotein was studied, and showed antifungal activity against pathogenic yeasts of the Candida genus, with the exception of $C$. glabrata. ApoEdpL-W proved to be active against planktonic cells and early-stage biofilms but with less activity against mature biofilms, possibly because of its attraction for extracellular matrix b-glucans (Stanciuc et al., 2011).


Figure 1: Primary targets and mode of action of several antifungal agents (Source; Spampinato and Leonardi, 2013)

Furthermore, ApoEdpL-W partly prevents the development of biofilms on medical devices. In a study by Mandal et al. (2011), in vitro growth inhibition of C. tropicalis and interrupted biofilm development in a concentration-dependent manner with purified Tn-AFP1 (the peptide derived from Trapa natans) was identified. The study also confirmed the downregulation of MDR1 and ERG11 gene expression. It has however, been documented as well that, usnic acid has inhibitory and fungicidal activity against biofilms of C. parapsilosis and C. orthoparapsilosis (Pires et al., 2011).

Other studies have been done using natural products to assess interference with C. albicans biofilms (Taweechaisupapong et al., 2010; Coleman et al., 2010; Furletti et al., 2011). A different antifungal strategy with high prospect is the use of silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) (Percival et al., 2005). Silver has antimicrobial activity and has a viable application in medicine, characterized by a well-tolerated tissue response and a low toxicity profile. Silver has been proven to inhibit the multiplication of microorganisms by interfering with microbial DNA replication within bacteria and fungi (Percival et al., 2005), thereby hindering the production of biofilms. Silver ions also cause protein denaturation and cell death as a result of their reaction with nucleophilic amino acid residues in proteins, and their attachment to amino, imidazole, thiol, phosphate and carboxyl groups of membrane proteins or enzymes (Mastrolorenzo et al., 2000; Percival et al., 2005). Other promising approaches such as the use of nanoparticles, antibodies and photodynamic inactivation for treating fungal infections are being studied (Percival et al., 2005).

### 1.4 Antifungal Drugs Classes in use for the Clinical Treatment of Candida Infections

The antifungal drugs used in clinical treatments are a few group of compounds presently available to treat mucosal or systemic infections with Candida spp. (Kathiravan et al., 2012). The common classes of drugs used in clinical antifungal treatments are discussed.

### 1.4.1 Polyenes: Binding to Ergosterol

Polyenes, including nystatin and amphotericin B (both isolated from Streptomyces spp.) bind to ergosterol and interrupt the major lipidic constituent of the fungal cell membrane, resulting in the production of aqueous pores (Figure 1). As a result, the cellular permeability is changed and leads to the leakage of cytosolic constituents and consequently, the death of the fungi (Sanglard and Odds, 2002). One of the earliest examples of the polyenes is amphotericin B, considered to be the
reference drug for the treatment of most systemic fungal infections. Amphotericin B acts across all Candida spp., some species of Aspergillus, Blastomyces dermatitidis, and other fungi. It is not absorbed by the gastrointestinal tract and must be administered intravenously. Notwithstanding the more than 30 years of the clinical use of this drug, some resistance to amphotericin $B$ has been developed (Sanglard and Odds, 2002). The main problem connected with the prophylactic use of conventional amphotericin B has always been its well-known side-effects and toxicity (LaniadoLabor'ın and Cabrales-Vargas, 2009). Resistance to amphotericin B has a tendency to be species dependent. A significant proportion of C. krusei and C. glabrata isolates resistant to amphotericin B have been reported (Kontoyiannis and Lewis, 2002; Pappas et al., 2004; Krogh-Madsen et al., 2006). C. krusei and C. glabrata are usually considered to be Susceptible Dose-Dependent (SDD) to amphotericin B, even though they show high MICs to polyenes (Kontoyiannis and Lewis, 2002; Pappas et al., 2004; Krogh-Madsen et al., 2006). As a result, higher than normal doses of amphotericin B have been recommended by the Infectious Diseases Society of America for treating candidemia to which C. glabrata and C. krusei are the causal organisms. During acquired resistance to polyenes, a decrease or lack of ergosterol content in cell membranes usually is observed. In effect, membranes of polyene-resistant Candida isolates have relatively low ergosterol composition when compared to those of polyene-susceptible isolates. These deficiencies are probably as a result of the loss of function (mutations) in the ERG3 or ERG6 genes which encode some of the enzymes that are associated with ergosterol biosynthesis (EspinelIngroff, 2009). On the whole, alterations in the steroids of the cell membrane, their phospholipid profile, their defense against oxidative damage, and mutations associated with genes involved in ergosterol biosynthesis (especially in ERG1land ERGO) are connected to resistance in Candida spp. In a study by Vandeputte et al. (2008), it was identified that a specific non-sense mutation (encoding a stop codon) in ERG6 that resulted in a decrease in the ergosterol content of a clinical isolate of C. glabrata resistant to amphotericin B is key to resistance. Similarly, Hull et al. (2012) identified two mutations (T121V and T121I) in ERG2 (substitution of the threonine in the 121st position by valine or isoleucine), in two isolates of C. glabrata with reduced sensitivity to amphotericin B.

### 1.4.2 Echinocandins: Inhibitors of the Glucan Synthesis

The echinocandins (anidulafungin, caspofungin and micafungin) are lipopeptidic antifungal compounds that inhibit the synthesis of fungal wall by noncompetitive blockage of the $(1,3)-\beta$ -

Dglucan synthase (Figure 1). Caspofungin, anidulafungin and micafungin, are proven to be effective in treating candidiasis (Chandrasekar and Sobel, 2006). This enzyme inhibition produces the formation of fungal cell walls with compromised structural integrity, finally leading to cell vulnerability and osmotic lysis (Grover, 2010). All these agents display concentration-dependent fungicidal activity against most species of Candida (Cappelletty and Eiselstein-McKitrick, 2007), and are approved by FDA, for the treatment of esophageal and invasive candidiasis, including candidemia (Ostrosky-Zeichner, et al., 2005). Echinocandins are actually the most recent class of antifungal agent to be introduced in clinical practice for the management of fungal infections, especially those caused by Candida sp (Cappelletty and Eiselstein-Mckitrick, 2007). They inhibit $\beta-(1,3)$-D-glucansynthetase, which is responsible for fungal cell wall production. This effectiveness notwithstanding, reports of echinocandin resistance in patients with infections due to C. albicans, C. tropicalis, C. krusei and C. glabrata, are on the increase. For instance, resistance in C. glabrata rose from $4.9 \%$ to $12.3 \%$ between 2001 and 2010 in a study at Duke University hospital Durham, North Carolina (Shields et al., 2015). Even more, emergence of co-resistance to both echinocandins and azoles in clinical isolates of C. glabrata has also been reported (GarciaEffron et al., 2008). In addition, intrinsic echinocandin resistance of C. orthopsilosis, C. parapsilosis, C. guilliermondii and C. metapsilosis, has been described (Garcia-Effron et al., 2008). Advanced resistance has also been attributed to point mutations in the FKS1 and/or $F K S 2$ genes, which encode the (1, 3)- $\beta$-D-glucan synthase complex (Balashov et al., 2006). These mutations in $F K S 1$ was shown not to alter substrate binding, however, it lowered $V_{\max }$ values (Garcia-Effron et al., 2009). The decrease in sensitivity to echinocandins is discovered to be associated with mutations in the $F K S 1$ p and $F K S 2$ p subunits of the $\beta-1,3$-glucansynthetase complex, which is required for the production of $\beta-1,3$ glucan, an essential constituent of the Candida cell wall (Desnos-Ollivier et al., 2008 ). Precisely, mutations have been found in two regions; the hot spot 1 and hot spot 2 (composed of 9 and 8 amino acids, respectively), which are found in both genes. These mutations in $F K S 1$ and $F K S 2$ result in the inability of the echinocandins to block the production of 1, 3- $\beta$ - glucan. Mutations in hot spot 1 of $F K S 1$ and $F K S 2$ are the most predominant among a variety of fungal species resistant to this group of drugs. Findings by Zimbeck et al. (2010) support associations between mutations in the hot spot1 of both FKS1 and FKS2 in C. glabrata resistant to echinocandins (Naicker et al., 2016). In one of the discovered mutations in the hotspot 1 region of the FKS2 gene, serine was replaced by phenylalanine at
position 663 (S663F). Other mutations, such as the substitution of arginine with lysine at amino acid position 1377 (R1377K) was identified in the FKS2 hotspot 2 region. Shields et al. (2015) found Candida spp. FKS mutations in $5 \%$ of sequenced isolates and $2 \%$ of overall isolates. It is observed that FKS mutations are uncommon among non-C. glabrata species, even with prior echinocandin exposure (Shields et al., 2015).

### 1.4.3 Nucleoside Analogues: The Inhibitors of DNA/RNA Synthesis

Flucytosine (5-fluorocytosine or 5-FC) is a pyrimidine analogue capable of being transported into fungal cells by cytosine permeases. It is then deaminated to 5-fluorouracil, and further phosphorylated to 5-fluorodeoxyuridine monophosphate. This fluorinated nucleotide inhibits thymidylate synthase and thus interferes with DNA synthesis (Vermes et al., 2000). Furthermore, the 5-fluorodeoxyuridine monophosphate can be phosphorylated and incorporated into RNA, thus affecting RNA and protein synthesis (Onishi et al., 2000). These final molecules behave as antimetabolites and impede the normal biosynthesis of nucleic acids and nucleotides vital for fungal growth. This drug is prescribed for infections caused by Candida spp., Cryptococcus neoformans, Aspergillus and Torulopsis spp. (Vermes et al., 2000). Primary resistance to flucytosine is actually low ( $<2 \%$ ). Secondary resistance depends on the inactivation of different enzymes of the pyrimidine pathway as described in the following:
i. Decreased Intracellular Drug Accumulation: under this mechanism, uptake of the drug is affected by point mutations in the FCY2 gene that codes for the cytosine permease.
ii. Counteraction of the Effect of the Drug: under this mechanism, acquired resistance to flucytosine also results from point mutations in the FCY1 gene that codes for the cytosine deaminase or FUR1 gene that codes for the uracil phosphoribosyl transferase. These enzymes catalyze the transformation of 5-fluorocytosine to 5-fluorouracil, and 5fluorouracil to 5- fluorouridine monophosphate, respectively. The most often acquired resistance to flucytosine resides in the point mutations in the FUR1 gene. Several point mutations have been described in C. albicans, C. glabrata, and C. lusitaniae (Vandeputte et al., 2011).

Mutations that lead to a reduction or termination in the drug's import, or its intracellular conversion are often accountable for resistance to pyrimidine analogs. Point mutation that results in the
substitution of arginine with cysteine at the 101 st position of FUR1 has been discovered to be associated with resistance to 5-FC in C. albicans (Vermes et al., 2000). Also, mutation T26C, which results in the amino acid change M19T of the FCY1 gene coding for cytosine deaminase, and responsible for the conversion of 5-FC to 5-fluorouridine monophosphate, has been found to be associated with a C. lusitane isolate resistance to 5-FC (Vermes et al., 2000).

### 1.4.4 Azoles: The Inhibitors of the Lanosterol 14- $\alpha$-Demethylase

Currently, the broadest group of antifungal drugs in clinical use is the azole family, which disrupt the cell membrane by inhibiting the activity of the enzyme lanosterol 14- $\alpha$-demethylase (Pfaller et al., 2014), involved in the biosynthesis of ergosterol (Figure 1). Ergosterol (in fungi), a compound analogous to cholesterol (in animal cells), is the largest sterol constituent of the fungal cell membrane. Ergosterol and cholesterol have sufficient structural differences, and most antifungal agents targeted to ergosterol binding or biosynthesis do not cross-react with host cells. The azole family includes the imidazoles (econazole, miconazole, ketoconazole and clotrimazole), the triazoles (fluconazole, itraconazole, and the latest agents; voriconazole and posaconazole) (Hof, 2006). Voriconazole is a second-generation, synthetic triazole derivative of fluconazole, while posaconazole is a hydroxylated analogue of itraconazole. Many azoles are effective both for topical use as well as for the treatment and prophylaxis of invasive fungal infections (Ribas, 2016). These agents have been approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the European Medicines Agency (EMEA) for clinical use. The azoles have a broad spectrum of action, and are the most commonly used class of drugs for the treatment of diseases caused by fungi, particularly Candida spp. In the ergosterol biosynthetic pathway, acetic acid is converted into ergosterol using a number of enzymes, similar to the processes involved in the biosynthesis of cholesterol in mammals. Fluconazole, itraconazole, voriconazole and posaconazole interfere with a step in the ergosterol biosynthetic pathway through the inhibition of the enzyme lanosterol 14-$\alpha$-demethylase (ERG1lp or $14 D M$ ). The conversion of lanosterol into ergosterol is therefore prevented, thereby increasing both the permeability and the progressive instability of the fungal cell (Vandeputte et al., 2005; Dos-Santos-Silva et al., 2016). Fluconazole and itraconazole have an extensive use for chemoprophylaxis and treatment of systemic fungal infections for up to a decade now due to their favorable oral bioavailability and safety profiles (Livermore, 2004). However, fluconazole clinical resistance has been shown to rise in patients with vaginal
candidiasis and candidemia (Redding et al., 2003; Skiest et al., 2007). Intrinsically decreased susceptibility to fluconazole has been immensely reported for non-albicans species like C. krusei, C. lusitaniae and C. glabrata (Vazquez et al., 2001; Pfaller et al., 2015), and there are numerous molecular mechanisms that could lead to azole resistance (No"el, 2012)
i. Decreased Intracellular Drug Accumulation. This mechanism for reducing the intracellular concentration of azole depends on an upregulation of two principal families of efflux pumps; Candida drug resistance 1 and 2 proteins (CDR1p and CDR2p). There is another pump belonging to the major facilitator superfamily (MFS) of transporters and is encoded by the MDR1 gene in C. albicans. It is a secondary transporter that uses proton gradient as a source of energy, and specific for fluconazole (Coste et al., 2006; Cannon et al., 2009; Spampinato and Leonardi, 2013).
ii. Reduced affinity for the drug. The target of azole antifungals is the lanosterol $14-\alpha-$ demethylase encoded by the ERG11 gene. Several point mutations have been characterized and associated with $E R G 11$ gene, believed to be a mechanism to prevent the action of the azole.
iii. Counteraction of the Drug Effect. Two molecular tools contribute to the counterbalancing of the drug effects. The first involves an upregulation of the ERG11 gene, leading to an intracellular increase of the target protein (ERG11p) (No"el, 2009). The second machinery, involves the modification of the late steps of the biosynthesis of ergosterol via ERG3 inactivation, which leads to the total inactivation of the C 5 sterol desaturase. Consequently, toxic $14-\alpha$-methylated sterols are no longer accumulated, and the yeast produce cell membranes lacking ergosterol, though other sterols may be present. This second mechanism, though very infrequent, has been recognized in several clinical isolates of $C$. albicans (Martel et al., 2010).

### 1.5 Molecular Machineries Responsible for Candida spp Resistance to Azoles

Antifungal resistance could be based on different molecular mechanisms, namely:
(i) Decreased drug intracellular accumulation
(ii) Reduced affinity for the drug, and
(iii) Counteraction of the drug effect.

The mechanism of resistance is dependent on the mode of action of the antifungal compounds. Numerous studies have been carried out to elucidate the molecular machineries accountable for the onset of the resistance of clinical isolates of Candida spp to azoles. Deficiency in DNA repair may account for the accelerated development of various genetic variations accountable for the resistance. The contribution of DNA repair in fungal pathogens, especially to the emergence of antifungal resistance, is yet to be discovered in depth (Healey et al., 2016). Healey et al. (2016) established that a mutator phenotype resulting from a mismatch repair defect is prevalent in clinical isolates of C. glabrata. This mechanism enhances the gain of resistance to multiple antifungal drugs, which to some extent explains the elevated rates of azole and multi-drug resistance associated with Candida. One such mechanism involves the efflux pumps that export the antifungal agent from the intracellular environment to the extracellular environment, in order to reduce the intracellular concentration of drugs (Holmes et al., 2006). Studies on Candida with fluconazole have demonstrated that this drug is actively transported into the extracellular environment by fungal cells, via an energy-dependent manner, and the overexpression of genes that encode membrane transport proteins is responsible for most of the antifungal efflux (Holmes et al., 2006). The two notable families of efflux membrane transporters distinguished in yeasts according to the energy source used for this extrusion of substrates are the CDR1 and CDR2 (Candida drug resistance 1 and 2) proteins (Marie and White, 2009). The genes CDR1 and CDR2 encode the ABC-type transport proteins which act as transmembrane efflux pumps, using the hydrolysis of ATP to transport substrates across the membrane. The expression of CDR1 and $C D R 2$ is regulated by $T A C 1$ (Transcriptional activator of $C D R$ genes 1). Hyperactivation of the TAC1 transcription factor is manifest in the gain-of-function mutations that consequently promote the overexpression of CDR1 and CDR2 (Coste et al., 2004). In addition to CDR1 and CDR2, the MDR1 gene (Multi-drug resistance 1; which encodes a permease protein of the MFS (Major facilitator superfamily) is directly involved in fluconazole resistance. This gene acts as a membrane carrier using a proton electrochemical gradient for the transport of substrates. The expression of MDR1 is controlled by at least three transcription factors, including the MRR1 transcription factor (multi-drug resistance regulator 1). The hyperactivation of MRR1 leads to the overexpression of MDR1 (Schubert et al., 2008). Changes associated with ergosterol biosynthesis covers another mechanism of azole resistance. The principle of this mechanism is that it
circumvents the inactivation of the sterol enzyme $\Delta 5,6$-desaturase which is encoded by the gene $E R G 3$. It acts upstream of $14-\alpha$-demethylase in the ergosterol biosynthesis pathway, converting 14- $\alpha$-metilfecoesterol into 14- $\alpha$-methyl-3, 6-diol (Chau et al., 2005). Thus, isolates with such modifications in this enzymatic step will definitely show a selective advantage when subjected to azoles (Akins, 2005). Some other transporter genes (CgCDR1, $C g C D R 2$ and $C g S N Q 2$ ), have been reported to be upregulated in azole-resistant C. glabrata (Torelli et al., 2008). CgCDR2 was formerly named PDH1, and $C g S N Q 2$ is another ABC transporter. This observation has been extended to other species; C. dubliniensis (CdCDR1 and CdCDR2), and C. tropicalis (CDR1homologue) isolates (Lamping et al., 2009; Paul and Moye-Rowley, 2014). In C. glabrata, $C g C D R 1, C g C D R 2$, and $C g S N Q 2$ genes are all regulated by the $C g P D R 1$ transcription factor (Vermitsky et al., 2006). Mutations in the ERG11 gene of Candida spp. are predominantly also involved in resistance of Candida to azoles. ERG11 is positioned on chromosome 5 and shows significant variation in size, from $1,569 \mathrm{bp}$ to $2,669 \mathrm{bp}$, depending on the species and strain. It could also me more or less, depending on the prevailing situations that are particular to the particular strain. Mutations in $E R G 11$ are largely responsible for resistance to azoles, manifested through the reduction in the binding affinity of the drug to the target enzyme (Dos-Santos-Silva et al., 2016). Series of studies have tried comparing ERG1 Igene sequences from isolates of different Candida spp. that are susceptible as well as resistant to azoles, with C. albicans being the most studied species in this respect (De-Almeida et al., 2015). Vandeputte et al. (2005) studied isolates of C. tropicalis that were resistant to fluconazole, and discovered a missense mutation (Y132F) responsible for resistance previously reported in C. albicans by Chau et al. (2004). De-Almeida et al. (2015) also investigated ERG11 mutations in clinical isolates of C. albicans, C. glabrata and C. tropicalis that had been previously evaluated by fluconazole-susceptibility tests, and identified 14 different missense mutations, five of which were not previously described, including a new L321F mutation identified in an isolate of C. albicans. Dos-Santos-Silva et al. (2016) identified three new synonymous mutations in the ERG11 gene in the isolates of C. glabrata (C108G, C423T and A 1581 G ) in addition to two new nonsynonymous mutations in the isolates of C. krusei: A497C (Y166S) and G1570A (G524R). An elevated ERG11 gene expression could also results in resistance to antifungal agents due to an elevated concentration of 14 - $\alpha$-demethylase in the intracellular environment, requiring larger amounts of antifungals to inhibit the enzyme activity. This mechanism has been revealed in various isolates of C. albicans resistant to fluconazole as
studied by Xu et al. (2015). ERG11 gene expression is regulated by the UPC2 (uptake control 2) transcription factor. Gain-of-function mutations in the $U P C 2$ gene leads to hyperactivity. Such hyperactivity leads to the over-activation of $E R G 11$ gene expression. Over-expression of $E R G 11$, in turn, significantly reduces the effect of the antifungal agent in cells, thereby decreasing the cell's sensitivity and susceptibility to the drug (Heilmann et al., 2010).

### 1.6 Species-Specific Azole Antifungal Resistance Machineries

### 1.6.1 Azole Antifungal Resistance Machineries in Candida albicans

Resistance to azole antifungals in Candida albicans has been the most extensively studied. One amongst the many possible mechanisms of resistance identified in this species is the occurrence of point mutations in ERG11. Previous studies have recognized amino acid substitutions to account for the decreased fluconazole susceptibility. In a recent study in which 63 fluconazole-resistant $C$. albicans clinical isolates were examined for mutations within their $E R G 11$ alleles, 55 were found to carry at least one mutation that resulted in amino acid substitutions, with 9 of such predicted amino acid substitutions found to be novel (Flowers et al., 2015). Molecular modeling of the substitutions that resulted in decreased fluconazole susceptibility showed that the mutations clustered in either the predicted catalytic site, the fungus-specific external loop, or on the proximal surface potentially interacting with the loop or near the heme. Furthermore, a study involving sitedirected mutagenesis of wild-type ERG11 in 23 C. albicans clinical isolates, showed nine of these mutations to result in increased fluconazole resistance (Xiang et al., 2013). Five (5) of the amino acid substitutions were predicted to be at or near the active site of the ERG11p. Another notable mechanism of fluconazole resistance in C. albicans is the increased expression of ERG11 gene as a result of the mutations in the gene encoding the zinc-cluster transcriptional regulator $U P C 2 \mathrm{p}$. Initially, $U P C 2$ involvement in fluconazole resistance in C. albicans was demonstrated when $C$. albicans strains were shown to be highly susceptible to azoles as those over-expressing UPC2 had increased fluconazole resistance (MacPherson et al., 2005). Subsequent studies also noted a matched set of fluconazole-susceptible and resistant C. albicans clinical isolates in which fluconazole resistance was not linked with overexpression of drug efflux pumps (Dunkel et al., 2008; Heilmann et al., 2010; Hoot et al., 2011). Three additional matched sets of ERG11overexpressing clinical C. albicans isolates have been described with no sequence differences in $U P C 2$ between the susceptible and resistant isolates, indicating that other possible machineries of

ERG11 upregulation exist. A study involving 63 fluconazole-resistant C. albicans clinical isolates showed 47 of these isolates to overexpress ERG11 by at least 2-fold (Flowers et al., 2015). Twentynine (29) of these ERG11-overexpressing isolates had a missense mutation in UPC2, and eight (8) single amino acid substitutions elucidated from their UPC2 alleles. Seven (7) of these alleles were also found to be associated with increased $E R G 11$ expression, increased ergosterol production, and decreased fluconazole susceptibility. Two other established machineries of fluconazole resistance in C. albicans involve the overexpression of drug efflux pumps MDR1p and $C D R 1$ p/Cdr2p. TAC1 (transcriptional activator of CDR1 genes) is a zinc-cluster transcription factor whose regulon is hallmarked by the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter-encoding genes CDR1 and CDR2 (Coste et al., 2004). Activating the expression of TAC1 regulon is via the binding of TAC1 to the DRE (drug response element) present in the promoter regions of TAC1regulated genes (Coste et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2007; Coste et al., 2007; Selmecki et al., 2008). $M R R 1$, multidrug resistance regulator 1 , is likewise, identified by comparing the transcriptomes of a set of matched isolates in which the fluconazole-resistant isolates overexpressed MDR1. Disruption of MRR1 in these resistant isolates leads to a decrease in fluconazole MIC, while introduction of each of the mutant alleles separately into a wildtype fluconazole-susceptible background in the native MRR1 locus confers fluconazole resistance to constructed strain (Dunkel et al., 2008). A less common mechanism of azole resistance in C. albicans is the inactivation of the $E R G 3$ gene, which encodes the ergosterol biosynthesis enzyme sterol $\Delta 5,6$ desaturase. The $E R G 3$ p catalyzes one of the final steps in the pathway and also converts toxic 14 - $\alpha$-methylated sterol intermediates into the non-toxic sterol 14- $\alpha$-methylergosta-8, 24(28)-dien-3 $3,6 \alpha$-diol, which therefore, averts such toxic sterols from being synthesized (Chau et al., 2005; Martel et al., 2010). Another phenomenon that plays a role in azole resistance in C. albicans as demonstrated by genome hybridization is aneuploidy, involving Chr5 (Selmecki et al., 2006). Similarly, loss of heterozygosity ( LOH ) has also been shown to occur in azole-resistant C. albicans (Coste et al., 2006). Investigation of $T A C 1$ in a matched set of azole-susceptible and resistant C. albicans isolates showed that the susceptible isolate harbored two wildtype alleles of TAC1, while the resistant isolate contained only one of those alleles (Coste et al., 2004).

### 1.6.2 Azole Antifungal Resistance Machineries in Candida parapsilosis

Since azole resistance has been extensively studied in C. albicans, efforts to reveal machineries of azole resistance in C. parapsilosis have involved examining orthologous genes, and has yielded
mixed results. For instance, a study of a sequence of six isolates from a particular patient found that single SNP in MRR1 exists in the two fluconazole-resistant isolates (Zhang et al., 2015; Souza et al., 2015). In addition to the established association between CDR1 and ERG11 as well as fluconazole resistance in C. parapsilosis, this causal link has not been definitively proven. In previous efforts to identify potential machineries of azole resistance on a genome-wide scale in $C$. parapsilosis, fluconazole-, voriconazole-, and posaconazole-resistant strains were developed experimentally by serial passage in liquid culture containing either of these drugs (Silva et al., 2009). It was observed that the fluconazole- and voriconazole-resistant strains were cross-resistant to both fluconazole and voriconazole, and possessed similar transcriptional profiles (Branco et al., 2015). It is also remarkable to note that $E R G 11$ was not differentially expressed in these strains (Branco et al., 2015). Among the genes that were differentially expressed in fluconazole- and voriconazole-resistant C. parapsilosis strains, the stress response gene GRP2, MDR1 and MRR1 are common (Branco et al., 2015). Past studies involving laboratory strains of C. parapsilosis, in which previously determined gain-of-function alleles of $C P M R R 1$ were introduced into the native locus of the strains containing MRR1p with a G583R amino acid substitution from a fluconazoleresistant C. parapsilosis isolate, led to greater resistance to fluconazole and voriconazole when compared to strains harboring the wildtype allele (Branco et al., 2015). Likewise, studies have revealed that while differential expression of efflux pumps is commonly found in azole-resistant C. parapsilosis isolates, the resistant phenotype is not exclusively due to their overexpression, but instead multifactorial, and involves ERGll mutation and/or overexpression as well (Berkow et al., 2015).

### 1.6.3 Azole Antifungal Resistance Machineries in Candida tropicalis

A relatively little information is known about the machineries of azole resistance in C. tropicalis. The average ERG11 expression level is shown to be 4-fold higher among fluconazole-resistant isolates than susceptible isolates (Jiang et al., 2012). Furthermore, ERG11 expression is even higher among a subset of fluconazole-resistant isolates that are also resistant to itraconazole and voriconazole (Choi et al., 2016). The sequence of the UPC2 gene of C. tropicalis had revealed numerous heterozygous and homozygous mutations in resistant strains (MacPherson et al., 2005). Many of these mutations however, have been observed in fluconazole-susceptible isolates that are not found to overexpress $E R G 11$, therefore, characterization of their impact on the regulatory function of UPC2 is required. Molecular characterization of azole-resistant clinical C. tropicalis
isolates has also showed alterations in the ergosterol biosynthetic pathway, similar to that found in the C. albicans (Vandeputte et al., 2005; Eddouzi et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2012; Choi et al., 2016). Some notable ERG11 mutations consist of a deletion of 132 nucleotides resulting in a D275V amino acid substitution and the loss of 44 amino acids near the N-terminus of the ERG1lp (Eddouzi et al., 2013). In addition, ERG11 mutation resulting in decreased fluconazole susceptibility due to the amino acid substitution Y132F that has been well characterized in $C$. albicans has also been recently observed in a fluconazole-resistant C. tropicalis isolate (Barchiesi et al., 2000). It has also been previously observed that all isolates with reduced susceptibility to fluconazole demonstrated increased expression of both C. tropicalis MDR1 and a gene with high homology to C. albicans CDR1. The role of efflux pump overexpression in azole resistance among clinical C. tropicalis isolates has not been so clearly defined (Jiang et al., 2012). Meanwhile, expression of both MDR1 and CDR1 has been observed to be significantly higher among both fluconazole-susceptible and fluconazole-resistant isolates (Wang et al., 2015).

### 1.6.4 Azole Antifungal Resistance Machineries in Candida krusei

Though C. krusei is intrinsically resistant to fluconazole, the precise mechanism is yet to be completely understood. Several studies have attributed C. krusei's innate azole resistance to its efflux pump activity, through the ATP-binding cassette transporter ABCIp, leading to reduced drug accumulation, in combination with reduced azole affinity for ERG11p (Lamping et al., 2009). Alterations in the cell membrane affecting the membrane fluidity possibly may also be implicated in azole resistance, since there is evidence to suggest that intracellular azole accumulation occurs through one or possibly both machineries of passive and facilitated diffusion (Kolaczkowska and Kolaczkowski, 2016). The discovery of a trisomy in the ERG11-containing chromosome in a $C$. krusei strain suggests that aneuploidy possibly may also play a part in the behaviors of this species, though the effects as it relates to azole resistance are not yet fully uncovered (Lamping et al., 2009). Analysis of itraconazole-resistant C. krusei isolates showed that reduced intracellular content of the drug (and not altered affinity for the drug target) possibly drives resistance to itraconazole (Tavakoli et al., 2010). More recently, it has been recommended that overexpression of genes coding for $E R G 11$ p and the efflux pump $A B C 2$ p may possibly play a role with itraconazole resistance (Tavakoli et al., 2010). Resistance to voriconazole has also appeared, and research supports a theory where overexpression of the genes encoding $A B C 2$ (the efflux pump) and ERG11 impart more transient resistance properties. Meanwhile, increased expression of

ABC1p and point mutations in ERG11 prevail as time progresses to yield a stably resistant pathogen in the prolonged presence of voriconazole. ERGIlp amino acid substitutions have also been shown in azole-resistant C. krusei (Dos-Santos-Silva et al., 2016). Newer antifungal agents such as posaconazole and isavuconazole have shown good activity against C. krusei (Rybak et al., 2015), and reports of resistance against these agents are still relatively sparse (Pfaller et al., 2014; Pfaller et al., 2015). The machineries of resistance in C. krusei against these agents remains a strong area to be investigated.

### 1.6.5 Azole Antifungal Resistance Machineries in Candida glabrata

C. glabrata is a unique species among the Candida species outlined so far as it is a haploid yeast. The onset of azole resistance in clinical isolates of C. glabrata has been particularly linked to the incidence of mutations in the zinc cluster transcription factor PDR1 (Vermitsky and Edlind, 2004), leading to differential expression of the downstream targets. Nearly all clinical isolates examined in previous studies have been found to have PDR1 mutations, with such mutations located in the inhibitory domain, middle homology region, activating domain, and the xenobiotic binding region (Healey et al., 2016). The activating mutations display discrete expression patterns of the downstream effector genes, with the exclusion of increased expression of CDR1 and PUP1, and no relationship has been establish between location of the mutation and altered gene expression (Caudle et al., 2011). Amid the genes whose pleiotropic drug response element (PDRE) is directly bound by PDR1 (Paul and Moye-Rowley, 2014), only three; the ABC transporters CDR1, PDH1 (CDR2), and SNQ2 (Torelli et al., 2008), have been connected directly to azole resistance. Contemporary work has shown increased expression of four MFS transporters in clotrimazole resistant isolates compared to clotrimazole susceptible clinical isolates. Interruption of one of these, TPO3, discreetly increased susceptibility to clotrimazole and fluconazole (Coste et al., 2006; Cannon et al., 2009; Spampinato and Leonardi, 2013). This result recommends that MFS transporters possibly will have minor roles in azole resistance in C. glabrata. Remarkably, ERG11 does not seem to play an important role in clinical azole resistance in C. glabrata (Sanguinetti et al., 2005), as opposed to the findings in the other earlier discussed species. However, according to a finding, exceptional elevated expression of $E R G 11$ has been detected in only two clinical isolates of C. glabrata (Redding et al., 2003). The upregulation in one isolate was observed to be as a result of the duplication of the entire chromosome containing $E R G 11$, and the phenotype was lost with subsequent passaging in azole-free media. A particular resistant clinical isolate of C. glabrata has
demonstrated a total absence of nonfunctional 14- $\alpha$-sterol demethylase as a result of a missense mutation in ERG11, leading to the complete absence of ergosterol in the cell membrane (Hull et al., 2012). C. glabrata possesses the capacity of growing with altered cell membrane sterols, which permits for the evasion of azole treatment. C. glabrata is able to take up exogenous sterols (Nakayama et al., 2000), when the ergosterol biosynthesis pathway is obstructed (Bard et al., 2005). AUSlp has also been recognized as the sterol transporter responsible for tolerance to azoles in the presence of exogenous sterols (Nakayama et al., 2007). Comparatively, C. albicans has lately been shown to take up sterols under aerobic conditions while, C. glabrata is more substantial in its capacity to take up sterols and does so in both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. In the presence of serum and fluconazole, it improves on the uptake under aerobic conditions (Zavrel et al., 2013). Azole resistance in C. glabrata has also been ascribed to the development of petite mutants (cells that have lost mitochondrial function, resulting in respiratory deficiency) (Brun et al., 2003). Petite mutants can be produced in the laboratory by treatment with azoles or ethidium bromide (Ferrari et al., 2011), but not common among clinical isolates. Azole resistance in petite mutants has been credited to the upregulation of the ABC transporters CDR1, CDR2, and SNQ2 (Ferrari et al., 2011), exhibiting altered sterol profiles with an inconsistent quantity of ergosterol and very little of ergosterol intermediates; however, no changes in the sequence of ERG11 or its expression have been detected so far (Brun et al., 2003).

### 1.7 Justification for Study

The resistance of Candida species to drugs has become a major problem in clinical practice as many Candida species are becoming increasingly resistant to first-line and second-line antifungal medications. One of the most potent class of drugs against Candida species is a group of compounds called the azoles, of which fluconazole is particularly proven to be outstanding in treating Candida infections. Unfortunately, many Candida species have devised a way of subverting the potency of this drug. A major mechanism responsible for this resistance is the mutation in the DNA nucleotide sequence of the gene that codes for the protein (enzyme), ERG11p; the target of fluconazole. The mutation alters the final structure and conformation of the enzyme lanosterol 14- $\alpha$-demethylase, to prevent the binding of fluconazole, thereby, subverting the inhibitory action of the drug. Profiling the DNA changes in the ERG11 gene, alongside modelling studies, will provide more understanding to the molecular mechanism of this resistance, and the knowledge gained will provide more insight in drug design

### 1.8 Aim of the Study

### 1.8.1 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study was to investigate the distribution of different species of Candida in human and dog vaginal swabs, the susceptibility of the Candida species to fluconazole, a first-line antifungal drug, the profile of the ERG11 gene, and the phylogenetic relationship of the Candida species based on the nucleotide sequence of the $E R G 11$ gene.

### 1.8.2 Specific Objectives of the Study

The aim was achieved through the following specific objectives:
i. Screen collected samples for Candida species using conventional screening methods
ii. Identify Candida species using differential/selective media (Chromogenic Agar)
iii. Carry-out antifungal (fluconazole) susceptibility studies on the Candida species isolated and identified
iv. Profile the ERG11 gene of the different Candida isolates of interest, by direct gene sequencing
v. Carry-out a genetic sequence comparison of the ERG11 gene across nucleotide databases for nucleotide homology and variations, using the nucleotide sequence of the Candida species of interest
vi. Carry-out protein modelling studies on the ERG11 gene sequence to ascertain the relationship between the biological roles of the predicted proteins and the structural basis for drug design.
vii. Investigate the phylogenetic (evolutionary) relationship between the different Candida species using the $E R G 11$ gene sequence

## CHAPTER TWO MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1 Materials

### 2.1.1 Candida Species

Different species of Candida were isolated from samples collected from both humans and animals.

### 2.1.2 Human Samples

Collection of human samples was approved by the authority of the Medical Center, University of Nigeria, Nsukka from women of reproductive age, between the ages of 20 and 35 years, who provided informed consent, and confirmed by a qualified physician to show signs and symptoms of vulvovaginal candidosis.

### 2.1.3 Animal Samples

Collection of samples from female dogs of reproductive age was approved by the authority of the Veterinary Teaching Hospital, University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

### 2.1.4 Chemicals/Reagents

## Chemicals/Reagents

Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA)
Mueller-Hinton agar
Fungal/Bacterial DNA Miniprep Kit (Catalog No. D6005)
Beta-mercaptoethanol
ABI V3.1 Big dye gene sequencing kit
ExoSAP PCR kit

### 2.1.5 Equipment/Instruments

## Equipment

Glass wares
Autoclaved

## Manufacturer

Sigma Aldrich, Germany
Sigma Aldrich, Germany
ZYMO RESEARCH, USA
Sigma Aldrich, Germany
Thermo Fisher Scientific
Thermo Fisher Scientific

## Manufacturer

Pyrex, England
Rodwell, Germany

| Light microscope | Olympus, China |
| :--- | :--- |
| Water bath | Chikkpas, England |
| Refrigeration | Thermocool, Germany |
| Micro-centrifuge | Labaclence, England |
| Thermocycler | Epperndorf, Germany |
| ABI3500XL analysers | Thermo Fisher Scientific |

### 2.2 Methods

### 2.2.1 Experimental Design

High Vaginal Swabs were collected from both women and dogs of reproductive age, and screened for Candida species. The isolates were further characterized using a differential medium (chromogenic agar). The isolates were subjected to susceptibility testing with $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole. The ERG11 gene of the isolates of interest from the susceptibility testing were sequence for possible nucleotide variations. Sequences obtained were analyzed using a series of bioinformatics tools, for sequence homology, predicted protein characteristics, and phylogenetic (evolutionary) relationship between the Candida species based on the ERG11 gene sequence.

### 2.2.2 Collection of Samples

Human samples were collected by licensed laboratory technologists in the Medical Centre, University of Nigeria, by directly inserting a swab collection stick into the vagina of the women in the direction of the cervix. Similarly, samples were collected from female dogs by qualified veterinary doctors in the veterinary teaching hospital, University of Nigeria, by directly inserting a specially tilted swab collection stick into the vagina in the direction of the cervix.

### 2.2.3 Identification and Characterization of Candida Species

The collected samples were screened for yeast (Candida species) using conventional screening methods that include growth on Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA) and microscopic examinations for morphology. The yeast isolates were then characterized for specific Candida species using differential/selective (Chromogenic Agar) media.

### 2.2.3.1 Conventional Screening on Nutrient Media

The culture medium used in isolating the clinical Candida species was Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA) (40 g/l dextrose, $10 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{l}$ peptone, $20 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{l}$ agar, pH 5.6 ). SDA was prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions. An amount, 65 g of the SDA was dispensed in one litre of purified (distilled) water. Heat with frequent agitation was applied and boiled for one minute to completely dissolve the medium. It was then autoclaved at $121^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 15 minutes. The medium was thereafter cooled to $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, and poured into petri dishes for culture, and Bijou bottles for slants. For processing of specimen, samples were inoculated on the SDA-prepared Petri dishes by direct streaking, using inoculating loop. Plates were incubated at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in an inverted position (agar side up), and monitored for growth for 24-48 hours.

### 2.2.3.2 Identification of Isolates using Microscopy

Isolates were phenotypically identified based on their microscopic and macroscopic characteristics as described by classical methodologies, including colony formation, and production of germinative tubes (Almeida et al., 2013). Identification of Candida isolates was done using the germ tube test. The clinical samples were incubated in normal saline for 3 hours at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Samples were observed on slides under a light microscope and viewed for the, short, slender, tube-like structures (germ tube). Presence of germ tube indicated the presence of Candida spp.

### 2.2.3.3 Characterization of Isolates using Chromogenic Media

Isolated yeasts (Candida spp.) were grown on Chromogenic Candida Agar (CHROMagar ${ }^{\text {® }}$; Paris, France). The identity of all the isolates were confirmed at the species level using the CHROMagar Candida ${ }^{\circledR}$. One liter of the CHROMagar Candida ${ }^{\circledR}$ was prepared according to the manufacturer's manual. To prepare 1 L of the media, 47.7 g of the agar powder was slowly dispersed in 1 L of purified (distilled) water and stirred until the agar was well thickened. It was then heated and brought to boiling $\left(100^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$ while swirling (stirring) regularly. The media was cooled in a water bath to $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, while swirled gently. The media was poured into sterile petri dishes. It was left to solidify and dry. The dishes were protected from light and dehydration by storing in the dark under refrigeration $\left(2 / 8^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$ before use. For inoculation, the agar plates were brought to a temperature of $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ before inoculation, by streaking the sample onto the plates. The plates were incubated in aerobic conditions at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 48 hours.

### 2.2.4 Antifungal Drug Susceptibility Testing

The susceptibility of the Candida isolates to the selected antifungal agent (fluconazole) was carried out on culture plates, following the methods of the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) document M27-A316 (Fothergill, 2012). Suspension of inoculums was prepared in 5 ml of sterile saline $(0.85 \%)$ and the turbidity adjusted to 0.5 McFarland standards. Within 15 minutes of adjusting the turbidity, each isolate was inoculated onto a dried surface of prepared Mueller-Hinton agar plates using sterile cotton swabs. Antimicrobial disks containing $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of fluconazole were dispensed onto the surface of the inoculated agar plate. Each disk was pressed down to ensure its complete contact with the agar surface. The plates were incubated at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and examined after 24 hours and 48 hours of incubation. The zones of inhibition were measured in millimeters and the results were interpreted using validated CLSI interpretive breakpoints for in vitro susceptibility testing of fluconazole. Candida species were reported as susceptible " S " (zone diameter $\geq 19 \mathrm{~mm}$ ); susceptible dose dependent "SDD" ( 15 to 18 mm ) and resistant " $R$ " ( $\leq 14 \mathrm{~mm}$ ).

### 2.2.5 Isolation of DNA

ZYMO RESEARCH Fungal/Bacterial DNA Miniprep Kit with Catalog No. D6005 was used for the isolation of the Candida DNA. Four (4) isolates, comprising three (3) human isolates from the susceptibility testing classifications (Resistant, SDD and Susceptible) and one (1) dog isolate were the isolates of interest. For each of the 4 isolates of interest, beta-mercaptoethanol (user supplied) was added to the Genomic Lysis Buffer to a final dilution of $500 \mu \mathrm{l}$ per 100 ml . Each of the Candida samples of interest was resuspended in $200 \mu$ l of water. An amount, 100 mg (wet weight) of the Candida cells was added into a ZR BashingBead ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Lysis Tubes. Thereafter, $750 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of Lysis Solution was added. This was secured in a bead beater fitted with a 2 ml tube holder assembly and processed at $10,000 \times G$ for 6 minutes. The ZR BashingBead ${ }^{\mathrm{TM}}$ Lysis Tube was centrifuged at $10,000 \times G$ for 1 minute. In the following step, $400 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of the supernatant was transfer to a ZymoSpin ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ IV Spin Filter in a collection tube and centrifuged at $7,000 \times G$ for 1 minute. In a followup step, $1,200 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of Genomic Lysis Buffer was then added to the filtrate in the collection tube. In the next step, $800 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of the mixture was then transferred to a Zymo-Spin ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ IIC Column in a collection tube and centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 1 minute. The flow-through (effluent) from the collection tube was discarded, and the step repeated. Afterwards, $200 \mu$ of DNA Pre-Wash Buffer was then added to the Zymo-Spin ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ IIC Column in a new collection tube and centrifuged at 10,000 $\mathrm{x} g$ for 1 minute. In a further step, $500 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of g -DNA Wash Buffer was then added to the Zymo-

Spin ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ IIC Column and centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 1 minute. The Zymo-Spin ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ IIC Column was transferred to a clean 1.5 ml micro-centrifuge tube and $100 \mu \mathrm{l}$ DNA Elution Buffer added directly to the column matrix. It was centrifuged at $10,000 \times G$ for 30 seconds to elute the DNA. The ultra-pure DNA was stored at $-20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, ready for further use.

### 2.2.6 PCR Amplification

The reaction solution consisted of 2.5 ml of PCR reaction buffer $(50 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 1.5 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl} 2,10$ mM Tris- $\mathrm{HCl}(\mathrm{pH} 8.3), 10 \mathrm{ng}$ of target genomic DNA, 200 mM of dNTPs, 1 mM of each primer, 0.5 U Taq polymerase, and sterilized distilled water to a final volume of 25 ml . PCR was carried out by using primers that span the ERG11 open reading frame: 5'-GTT GAA ACT GTC ATT GAT GG (forward) and $5^{\prime}$ '-TCA GAA CAC TGA ATC GAA AG (reverse). The PCR was performed in a 25 well thermocycler (Epperndorf, Germany). The PCR products were resolved using $2 \%$ agarose gel electrophoresis to assess their quality and integrity. The amplification program for all reactions was as follows: initial denaturation at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $5 \mathrm{~min}, 30$ denaturation cycles at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 s , annealing at $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 40 s , extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 50 s , followed by final extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min .

### 2.2.7 Sequencing of the ERG11 gene

PCR products were cleaned using ExoSAP in accordance with the following protocol. The Exo/SAP master mix was prepared by adding $50.0 \mu$ l Exonuclease I (NEB M0293) 20U/ul and $200.0 \mu \mathrm{l}$ Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase (NEB M0371) 1U/ul to a 0.6 ml micro-centrifuge tube. This was followed by mixing $10.0 \mu 1$ of PCR Mixture and $2.5 \mu 1$ Exo/SAP Mix. It was thereafter mixed well and incubated at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 min . The reaction was stopped by heating the mixture at $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min . Gene sequencing was done with the ABI V3.1 Big dye kit following the instructions stipulated in the manufacturer's manual. The labelled products were cleaned with the Zymo Seq clean-up kit in accordance with the manufacturer's instruction. Thereafter, the cleaned products were injected on the ABI3500XL analysers with a 50 cm array, using POP7.

### 2.2.8 Bioinformatics Studies

The sequence analysis of the ERG11 gene was carried out using the nucleotide sequence of the Candida isolates of interest. The phylogenetic (evolutionary) relationship between the Candida isolates was determined using the ERG11 gene and other related gene families. The sequences
were assembled and aligned using the sequences obtained, and compared to $E R G 11$ sequences in the nucleotide databases using Basic Local Alignment Tool (BLASTn) accessible through the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) server. Genetic comparison of the Candida ERG11 Gene sequences was carried out using the NCBI-BLAST alignment tool (Arnaud et al., 2006). A comprehensive comparison of the evolutionary (phylogenetic) relationship of the ERG11 Gene sequences of the Candida species was done by retrieving sequences of high and topmost homology at the NCBI server (Kumar et al., 2016). Protein modelling studies on the ERG11 gene sequence, to comprehend the relationship between the biological roles of the predicted protein, as well as the structural basis for drug design was also carried out. Proteomic analysis focused on obtaining the amino acids sequences (Primary protein structure), Protein secondary, tertiary and quaternary structure of lanosterol 14- $\alpha$ - demethylase. Analyses such as antigenic sites and ligand binding sites, for more efficient drug design were also carried out.

### 2.7.1 Multiple Sequence Alignment

The genetic comparison of the ERG11 gene of Candida species was done using Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA) for matching the nucleotide and predicted protein sequences, using the NCBIBLAST alignment tool (Arnaud et al., 2006).

### 2.7.2 Translation

The gene sequences were translated using the Biopython library (Stafford, 2014). Biopython includes modules for reading and writing different sequence file formats and multiple sequence alignments, dealing with 3D macro molecular structures, interacting with common tools such as BLAST, ClustalW and EMBOSS, accessing key online databases, as well as providing numerical methods for statistical learning (Stafford, 2014).

### 2.7.3 Physiological-Biochemical Characterization

The Expasy Protparam server was used for the physicochemical characterization and to know the molecular weight, theoretical isoelectric point ( pI ), total number of negative and positive residues, aliphatic index, extinction coefficient, instability index, and grand average hydropathicity (GRAVY) of the predicted protein (Gasteiger et al., 2005; Yu et al., 2010; Artimo et al., 2012).

### 2.7.4 Subcellular Localization

Subcellular localization of the protein was identified by Psort (http://psort.nibb.aC.jp/form2.html) (Gardy et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2005).

### 2.7.5 Secondary Structure Prediction

The Chou and Fasman Secondary Structure Prediction (CFSSP) server (Gardy et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2005) was used to analyze the secondary structure of the ERG11 gene amino acid sequence (Fasman, 2012; Kumar, 2013; Kelley et al., 2015). Secondary structural properties of the protein includes alpha helix, beta pleated sheets, and beta turns.

### 2.7.6 Identification and Comparison of Conserved Domain

The conserved domain was identified using the Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis 7 (MEGA7) offline bioinformatics tool (Yang et al., 2015).

### 2.7.7 3D Structure Prediction

Phyre2, a web-based software (Yang et al., 2015), was used to predict the 3D structure of the proteins (Liu et al., 2016).

### 2.7.8 Active Site Prediction

The Active Site Prediction was done using 3DLigandSite, an automated software that is used to predict ligand binding sites (Wass et al., 2010).

### 2.7.9 Antigenicity Site Prediction

The antigenicity site was predicted using the Immunomedicine group antigenicity prediction online server (Yao et al., 2012). This program predicts those segments from within a protein sequence that are likely to be antigenic; capable of eliciting an antibody response. Predictions are based on a table that reflects the occurrence of amino acid residues in experimentally known segmental epitopes (Linding et al., 2003). Segments are only reported if they have a minimum size of 8 residues. The reported accuracy of method is about $75 \%$.

### 2.7.10 Disease Causing Region Prediction

The Disease Causing Region prediction was done using the globplot online server (Linding et al., 2003). This web service looks for order/globularity or disorder tendency in the query protein based
on a running sum of the propensity for an amino acid to be in ordered or disordered state by searching domain databases and known disorders in proteins.

### 2.7.12 Phylogeny

Sequence retrieval of existing Candida ERG11 gene sequences for phylogenetic analysis was done on NCBI server (Wheeler, 2007). The construction of a phylogenetic tree to depict the evolutional relationship between species and strains of Candida using the ERG11 gene sequence was carried out using Molecular Evolutionary Genetic Analysis Software 7 (Mega7) (Kumar et al., 2016).

### 2.8 Statistical Analysis

The statistical tools used are integrated algorithms in the analytical software employed in this study, including Clustal 2.1 and test of Maximum Likelihood based on the Tamura-Nei model, for the phylogenetic analysis.

## CHAPTER THREE

## RESULTS

### 3.1 Results of the Screening Experiment

A total of 57 human samples (HHVS - Human High Vaginal Swab) and 7 dog samples (DHVSDog High Vaginal Swab) were screened for Candida species. Twenty eight (49\%) of the human samples were positive (+ve) to growth and to germ-tube test. The result is presented in Table 1. Correspondingly, 29 ( $51 \%$ ) of the samples were negative (-ve) to growth on the media, and germtube test. For the dog samples, $4(57 \%)$ samples were positive to growth and to germ-tube test. Complimentarily, 3 ( $43 \%$ ) samples were negative to -ve to growth on the media and germ-tube test. Of the 4 Dog samples, however, after considering the growth characteristics, only one dog sample, DHVS-001 was judge suitable for the next phase of the experiment.

Table 1: $\quad$ Prevalence of Candida Species in the Samples Collected

|  | Frequency of +ve <br> indications | Percentage of +ve <br> indications | Frequency of -ve <br> indications | Percentage of -ve <br> indications |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Human <br> samples | 28 | $49 \%$ | 29 | $51 \%$ |
| Dog <br> samples | 4 | $57 \%$ | 3 | $43 \%$ |

### 3.2 Differential (Chromogenic) Characterization of Yeast Species Isolated

The result revealed the presence of different species of Candida, with C. albicans C. tropicalis, C. krusei, and C. glabrata identified by varying colours as shown on Plates 1 and $2(2 \mathrm{~A}-2 \mathrm{H})$. The growth has the following microorganism typical colony colour appearance interpretations. $C$. albicans $\rightarrow$ green; C. tropicalis $\rightarrow$ metallic blue; $C$. krusei $\rightarrow$ pink - fuzzy; C. glabrata $\rightarrow$ mauvebrown; other species $\rightarrow$ white to mauve. Some showed mixed growth while others showed the growth of a single isolate. Twenty one samples had single species, 5 samples had two different (mixed) species (HHVS-006, HHVS-019, HHVS-038, HHVS-041, HHVS-047) and 2 samples had three different (mixed) species (HHVS-029, HHVS-039). The result also revealed a total of 13 C. albicans, 4 C. glabrata, 5 C. krusei, 2 C. tropicalis, and 14 other Candida species; making a total of 38 isolates. The isolate from the dog is a C. krusei. The summary of findings are presented on Table 2.


Plates 1 and 2: Differential characterization of yeast on Candida-Specific chromogenic media. Plates 1 and 2A - 2D represents both the single and mixed isolates from the samples


Plates 2: $\quad$ Differential characterization of yeast on Candida-Specific chromogenic media. Plates $2 \mathrm{E}-2 \mathrm{H}$ represents both single and mixed isolates from the samples

Table 2: Candida species isolated from the samples

| S/No | High Vaginal Sample (HVS) | Yeast Microscopic Characterization | Isolates | Candida Species |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | HHVS-001 | +VE | Can Iso-001 | C. glabrata |
| 2 | HHVS-002 | +VE | Can Iso-002 | C. krusei |
| 3 | HHVS-006 | +VE | Can Iso-003A | C. glabrata |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-003B | C. krusei |
| 4 | HHVS-007 | +VE | Can Iso-004 | other species |
| 5 | HHVS-010 | +VE | Can Iso-005 | other species |
| 6 | HHVS-011 | +VE | Can Iso-006 | other species |
| 7 | HHVS-017 | +VE | Can Iso-007 | C. tropicalis |
| 8 | HHVS-019 | +VE | Can Iso-008A | other species |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-008B | C. albicans |
| 9 | HHVS-020 | +VE | Can Iso-009 | C. albicans |
| 10 | HHVS-021 | +VE | Can Iso-010 | C. albicans |
| 11 | HHVS-025 | +VE | Can Iso-011 | C. albicans |
| 12 | HHVS-027 | +VE | Can Iso-012 | other species |
| 13 | HHVS-028 | +VE | Can Iso-013 | C. albicans |
| 14 | HHVS-029 | +VE | Can Iso-014A | C. krusei |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-014B | C. glabrata |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-014c | other species |
| 15 | HHVS-033 | +VE | Can Iso-015 | C. albicans |
| 16 | HHVS-035 | +VE | Can Iso-016 | other species |
| 17 | HHVS-036 | +VE | Can Iso-017 | C. albicans |
| 18 | HHVS-037 | +VE | Can Iso-018 | other species |
| 19 | HHVS-038 | +VE | Can Iso-019A | C. krusei |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-019B | C. tropicalis |
| 20 | HHVS-039 | +VE | Can Iso-020A | other species |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-020B | C. albicans |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-020C | C. glabrata |
| 21 | HHVS-040 | +VE | Can Iso-021 | other species |
| 22 | HHVS-041 | +VE | Can Iso-022A | other species |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-022B | C. albicans |
| 23 | HHVS-044 | +VE | Can Iso-023 | C. albicans |
| 24 | HHVS-049 | +VE | Can Iso-024A | C. albicans |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-024B | other species |
| 25 | HHVS-050 | +VE | Can Iso-025 | other species |
| 26 | HHVS-052 | +VE | Can Iso-026 | C. albicans |
| 27 | HHVS-053 | +VE | Can Iso-027 | other species |
| 28 | HHVS-055 | +VE | Can Iso-028 | C. albicans |
| 29 | DHVS-001 | +VE | Can Iso-029 | C. krusei |

Albicans $=13$, glabrata $=4$, krusei $=5$, tropicalis $=2$, others $=14 ;$ Total $=38$ single isolates.

Table 2: Candida species isolated from the samples

| S/No | High Vaginal <br> Sample (HVS) | Yeast Microscopic <br> Characterization | Isolates | Candida <br> Species |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | HHVS-001 | +VE | Can Iso-001 | C. glabrata |
| 2 | HHVS-002 | +VE | Can Iso-002 | C. krusei |
| 3 | HHVS-006 | +VE | Can Iso-003A | Can Iso-003B |
|  |  |  | Cabrata |  |
| 4 | HHVS-007 | +VE | Can Iso-004 | other spei |
| 5 | HHVS-010 | +VE | Can Iso-005 | other species |
| 6 | HHVS-011 | +VE | Can Iso-006 | other species |
| 7 | HHVS-017 | +VE | Can Iso-008A | C. tropicalis |
| 8 | HHVS-019 | +VE | Can Iso-008B | other species |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-009 | C. albicans |
| 9 | HHVS-020 | +VE | Can Iso-010 | C. albicans |
| 10 | HHVS-021 | +VE | Can Iso-011 | C. albicans |
| 11 | HHVS-025 | +VE | Can Iso-012 | Calbicans |
| 12 | HHVS-027 | +VE | Can Iso-013 | C. albicans |
| 13 | HHVS-028 | +VE | Can Iso-014B | C. krusei |
| 14 | HHVS-029 | +VE | Can Iso-014c | C. glabrata |
|  |  |  | Can Iso-016 | other species |
| 15 | HHVS-033 | +VE | Can Iso-017 | C. albicans |
| 16 | HHVS-035 | +VE | Can Iso-018 | other species |
| 17 | HHVS-036 | +VE | Can Iso-019A | other species |
| 18 | HHVS-037 | +VE | Can Iso-019B | C. krusei |
| 19 | HHVS-038 | +VE | Can Iso-020A | C. tropicalis |
| 20 | HHVS-039 | +VE | Can Iso-024B | Can Iso-025 |

[^0]
### 3.3 Susceptibility of Candida Isolates to $\mathbf{2 5} \boldsymbol{\mu}$ g Fluconazole

The antifungal susceptibility testing of the human samples revealed that 33 of the Candida isolates were susceptible ( $\geq 19 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole, 2 were resistant ( $\leq 14 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), 2 were susceptible dose dependent $(15-18 \mathrm{~mm})$, and the isolate from dog was susceptible. Of the 13 species of $C$. albicans tested, only one was resistant to fluconazole, one was susceptible dose dependent, while the remaining 11 were susceptible. HHVS-001(Can Iso-001- C. glabrata) was the most resistant ( 0.00 mm ). HHVS-055 (Can Iso-028 - C. albicans) was the most susceptible. The susceptibility plates (top and bottom views) are presented in plates S1-S38 (where S refers to susceptibility). Table 3 shows that there was no significant difference in the value of zone of inhibition of the Candida Isolates to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole at 24 hours $(\mathrm{M}=25.22, \mathrm{SD}=7.07$ ) and at 48 hours ( $\mathrm{M}=$ 26.87, $\mathrm{SD}=7.64$ ) conditions; $\mathrm{t}(74)=-0.976, p=0.332$. The 24 hours schedule was therefore used.


Plates S1 - S38: Susceptibility of Candida isolates to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole



















Table 3: Zone of Inhibition of the Candida Isolates to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ Fluconazole at 24 hours and 48 hours

| S/N | Candida Isolate | 24 HOURS | 48 HOURS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Can Iso-001 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| 2 | Can Iso-002 | 28.33 | 30.00 |
| 3 | Can Iso-003A | 30.00 | 36.00 |
| 4 | Can Iso-003B | 24.00 | 24.00 |
| 5 | Can Iso-004 | 33.33 | 33.33 |
| 6 | Can Iso-005 | 23.33 | 26.33 |
| 7 | Can Iso-006 | 29.33 | 30.67 |
| 8 | Can Iso-007 | 39.33 | 38.67 |
| 9 | Can Iso-008A | 21.00 | 22.33 |
| 10 | Can Iso-008B | 14.00 | 15.33 |
| 11 | Can Iso-009 | 29.00 | 29.00 |
| 12 | Can Iso-010 | 33.33 | 30.67 |
| 13 | Can Iso-011 | 26.67 | 26.67 |
| 14 | Can Iso-012 | 25.33 | 26.67 |
| 15 | Can Iso-013 | 20.67 | 22.33 |
| 16 | Can Iso-014A | 22.67 | 24.67 |
| 17 | Can Iso-014B | 30.00 | 30.33 |
| 18 | Can Iso-014c | 20.33 | 24.67 |
| 19 | Can Iso-015 | 21.00 | 22.33 |
| 20 | Can Iso-016 | 18.67 | 20.33 |
| 21 | Can Iso-017 | 17.67 | 20.33 |
| 22 | Can Iso-018 | 24.00 | 26.00 |
| 23 | Can Iso-019A | 19.33 | 19.33 |
| 24 | Can Iso-019B | 28.00 | 25.67 |
| 25 | Can Iso-020A | 25.00 | 21.67 |
| 26 | Can Iso-020B | 19.00 | 22.67 |
| 27 | Can Iso-001C | 31.00 | 29.33 |
| 28 | Can Iso-021 | 26.67 | 32.00 |
| 29 | Can Iso-022A | 19.67 | 21.33 |
| 30 | Can Iso-022B | 30.67 | 38.00 |
| 31 | Can Iso-023 | 28.00 | 33.00 |
| 32 | Can Iso-024A | 29.00 | 31.67 |
| 33 | Can Iso-024B | 20.00 | 21.00 |
| 34 | Can Iso-025 | 23.67 | 24.67 |
| 35 | Can Iso-026 | 25.67 | 25.67 |
| 36 | Can Iso-027 | 33.33 | 33.00 |
| 37 | Can Iso-028 | 38.00 | 42.00 |
| 38 | Can Iso-029 (Dog) | 29.67 | 39.67 |

Susceptible $=33$ isolates
Susceptible Dose-Dependent (S-DD) ${ }^{* *}(15-18 \mathrm{~mm})=2$ isolates
Resistant $(\leq 14 \mathrm{~mm})=2$ isolates
Dog (susceptible)

### 3.4 Nucleotide Sequence of the ERG11 Gene of the Candida Isolates of Interest

Four (4) isolates were selected for gene sequencing. The most resistant (Can Iso-001), a dosedependent susceptible (Can Iso-17), the most susceptible (Can Iso-028) and the dog isolate (Can Iso-029). The nucleotide sequences showed the nucleotide compositions of each of the ERG11 genes sequenced to vary. It also shows the nucleotide count. The sequence in FASTA format begins with a single-line description, followed by lines of sequence data. The definition line (defline) is distinguished from the sequence data by a ">" symbol at the beginning. The word following the " $>$ " symbol is the identifier of the sequence. In this case, the identifier was assigned since the sequence is yet to be uploaded on NCBI. The isolates were then assigned a new nomenclature as follows: Can Iso-001 as 01_ERG11-F, Can Iso-17 as 17_ERG11-F, Can Iso-028 as 28_ERG11-F and Can Iso-029 as Dog_ERG11-F. The 01_ERG11-F had 1431 bases, 17_ERG11-F had 1590 bases, 28_ERG11-F had I578 bases, and Dog_ERG11-F had 1668 bases. The sequences are presented as FASTA 1, FASTA 2, FASTA 3, and FASTA 4.

## FASTA 1: ERG11 Gene Nucleotide Sequence for >01_ERG11-F

## >01_ERG11-F

GTTGAAACTGTCATTGATGGCATTAATTATTTTTTGTTGACATATTGTATACGACATATCAGTA TATTATTATTGGTTCCTCTTGTAATCTACTGATTTGTTGTTTTTTCTTTGATTCAGAAATAATT AATCTCCTCATGACAGTTTGACATCCTTGGTTTGGTTCTGCAGCTTCATATGGTCAACAACCTT ATGAATTTTTCGAATCATGTCGTCAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATTTTCATTTATGTTATTAGGGAA AATTATGACGGTTTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATTTGTTTTCAATGCTAAATTATCTGAT GTTTCTGTTGAAGAAGCTTATAAGCATTTAACTACTCCAGTTTTCGGTACAGGGGTTATTTATG ATTGTCCAAATTCTAGATTAATGGAACAAAAAAAACTTGCTAAATTTGCTTTGACTACTGATTC ATTTAAAAGATATGTTCCTAAGATTAGAGAAGAAATTTTGAATTATTTTGTTACTGATGAAAGT TTCAAATTGAAAGAAAAAACTCATGGGGTTGCCAATGTTATGAAAACTCAACCAGAAATTACTA TTTTCACTGCTTCAAGATCTTTATTTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAATTTTTGACCGTTCATTTGC TCAATTATATTCTGATTTAGATAAAGGTTTTACCCCTATTAATTTTGTTTTCCCTAATTTACCT TTACCTCATTATTGGAGACGTGATGCTGCTCAAAAGAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAAGAAA TTAAACTGAGAAGAGAACGTGGTGATATTGATCCAAATCGTGATTTAATTGATTCCTTATTGAT TCATTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCAAGAAATTGCTAATCTTTTAATTGGT ATTCTTATGGGTGGTCAACATACTTCTGCTTCTACTTCTGCTTGGTTCTTGTTACATTTAGGTG AAAAACCTCATTTACAAGATGTATTTATCAAGAAGTTGTTGAATTATTGAAAGAAAAAGGTGTG ATTGAATGATTGACTTATGAGATTACAAAATTACATCAGTCATACACTATAGGAACTCTCAGAT GCATATGCATTACATTCTATTTTTAGAAGTACTACCATTAGGATTCTTGAACATTATATGGTCC AAGGTCATATGTTAAGCTTCTCAGGTAATGCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATATTTTGATAACCCTGA AGATTTTGATCCAACTAGATGGGATACTGCTGCTGCCAAAGCTAATTCTGTTTCATTTAACTCT TCTGATGAAGTTGATTATGGGTTTGGGAAAGTTTCTAAAGGGGTTTCTTCACCTTATTTACCAT TTAGTGGTGGTAGACATAGATGTATTGGGGAACAATTTGCTTATGTTCAATTGGGAACCATTTT AACTACTTTTGTTTATAACTTAA

## Sequence length: 1431b

## FASTA 2: ERG11 Gene Nucleotide sequence for >17_ERG11-F

## >17_ERG11-F

GTTGAAACTGTCATTGATGGCATTAATTATTTTTTGTCCCTTAGTGTACCAACAGATCAGTATA TTATTAGTGGTACCTTTGTATACTACTGATCATGTGTTATTTATATTCATTAAGAAAAGATAGA TCTCCATTATTGTTTTATTGGATTCCTTGGTTTGGTTCTGCAGCTTCATATGGTCAACAACCTT ATGAATTTTTCGAATCATGTCGTCAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATTTTCATTTATGTTATTAGGGAA AATTATGACGGTTTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATTTGTTTTCAATGCTAAATTATCTGAT GTTTCTGTTGAAGAAGCTTATAAGCATTTAACTACTCCAGTTTTCGGTACAGGGGTTATTTATG ATTGTCCAAATTCTAGATTAATGGAACAAAAAAAACTTGCTAAATTTGCTTTGACTACTGATTC ATTTAAAAGATATGTTCCTAAGATTAGAGAAGAAATTTTGAATTATTTTGTTACTGATGAAAGT TTCAAATTGAAAGAAAAAACTCATGGGGTTGCCAATGTTATGAAAACTCAACCAGAAATTACTA TTTTCACTGCTTCAAGATCTTTATTTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAATTTTTGACCGTTCATTTGC TCAATTATATTCTGATTTAGATAAAGGTTTTACCCCTATTAATTTTGTTTTCCCTAATTTACCT TTACCTCATTATTGGAGACGTGATGCTGCTCAAAAGAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAGAAAT TAAACTGAGAAGAGAACGTGGTGATATTGATCCAATCGTGATTTAATTGATTCCTTATTGATTC ATTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCAAGAAATTGCTAATCTTTTAATTGGTAT TCTTATGGGTGGTCAACATACTTCTGCTTCTACTTCTGCTTGGTTCTTGTTACATTTAGGTGAA AAACCTCATTTACAAGATGTATTTATCAGAAGTTGTTGAATTATTGAAAAAAAAAGGTGTGATT TGAATGATTTGACTTATGAAGATTTACAAAATTACCATCAGTCATACACTATAGGAACTCTCAG ATGCATATGCCATTACATTCTATTTTTAGAAGTACTACCATTAGATTCCTGAACATTATATTGA TCCAAGGTCATAATGGATTAAGCTTCTTCCAGGTTATGTGCCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATATTTT GATAACCCTGAAGATTTTGATCCAACTAGATGGGATACTGCTGCTGCCAAAGCTAATTCTGTTT CATTTAACTCTTCTGATGAAGTTGATTATGGGTTTGGGAAAGTTTCTAAAGGGGTTTCTTCACC TTATTTACCATTTGGTGGTGGTAGACATAGATGTATTGGGGAACAATTTGCTTATGTTCAATTG GGAACCATTTTAACTACTTTTGTTTATAACTTAAGATGGACTATTGATGGTTATAAAGTGCCTG ACCCTGATTATAGTTCAATGGTGGTTTTACCTACTGAACCAGCAGAAATCATTTGGGAAAAAAG AGAAACTTGTATGTTTTAATAAAACGGCAACTTTCTTTCGATTCAGTGTTCTGA

## Sequence length: 1590b

## FASTA 3: ERG11 Gene Nucleotide sequence for >28_ERG11-F

## >28_ERG11-F

GTTGAAACTGTCATTGATGGCATTAATTATTTTTTGATGACCATATTATTACACCATATCAGTT ATTATTAATGGTACCTTTGTATCTACTTATCTGTTGTTATTTATATTCTTCAGAAATGATTAAT CTCCTCATGGCTTTATTCGACTTCCTTGGTTTGGTTCTGCAGCTTCATATGGTCAACAACCTTA TGAATTTTTCGAATCATGTCGTCAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATTTTCATTTATGTTATTAGGGAAA ATTATGACGGTTTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATTTGTTTTCAATGCTAAATTATCTGATG TTTCTGCTGAAGAAGCTTATAAACATTTAACTACTCCAGTTTTCGGTACAGGGGTTATTTATGA TTGTCCAAATTCCAGATTAATGGAACAAAAAAAATTTGCTAAATTTGCTTTGACTACTGATTCA TTTAAAAGATATGTTCCTAAGATTAGAGAAGAAATTTTGAATTATTTTGTTACTGATGAAAGTT TCAAATTGAAAGAAAAAACTCATGGGGTTGCCAATGTTATGAAAACTCAACCAGAAATTACTAT TTTCACTGCTTCAAGATCTTTATTTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAATTTTTGACCGTTCATTTGCT CAACTATATTCTGATTTAGATAAAGGTTTTACCCCTATTAATTTTGTTTTCCCTAATTTACCTT TACCTCATTATTGGAGACGTGATGCTGCTCAAAGAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAAGAAATT AAACTGAGAAGAGAACGTGGTGATATTGATCCAAATCGTGATTTAATTGATTCCTTATTGATTC ATTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCAAGAAATTGCTAATCTTTTAATTGGTAT TCTTATGGGTGGTCAACATACTTCTGCTTCTACTTCTGCTTGGTTCTTGTTACATTTAGGTGAA AAACCTCATTTACAAGATGTATTTATCAGAAGTTGTTGAATTATTGAAAGAAAAAGGTGGTGAT TTGAATGATTTGACTTATGAGATTACAAAATACCATCAGTCAATACACTATACGAACTCTCAGA TGCATATGCCATACTCTATTTTTAGAAGTACTATCATAGATCCTGAATCAATTATTGATCCAAA GTCATTATGTTTAGTTCTTCCAGGTTATGCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATATTTTGATAACCCTGAA GATTTTGATCCAACTAGATGGGATACTGCTGCTGCCAAAGCTAATTCTGTTTCATTTAACTCTT CTGATGAAGTTGATTATGGGTTTGGGAAAGTTTCTAAAGGGGTTTCTTCACCTTATTTACCATT TGGTGGTGGTAGACATAGATGTATTGGGGAACAATTTGCTTATGTTCAATTAGGAACCATTTTA ACTACTTTTGTTTATAATTTAAGATGGACTATTGATGGTTATAAAGTGCCTGACCCTGATTATA GTTCAATGGTGGTTTTACCTACTGAACCAGCAGAAATCATTTGGGAAAAAAGAGAAACTTGTAT GTTTTAATAAAACGGCAACTTTCTTTCGATTCAGTGTTCTGA

## Sequence length: I578b

## FASTA 4: ERG11 Gene Nucleotide sequence for >Dog_ERG11-F

## >Dog_ERG11-F

GTTGAAACTGTCATTGATGGCATTAATTATTTTTTGTTTGATAATTGTATACACCATATCAGTA TATTATTATTGGTTCCTCTTGTAATCTACTTATCTGTTGTTTTTTCTTTCTTCAGAAATGATTA ATCTCCTTCATTGACATTATTCGACTTCCTTGGTTTGGTTCTGCAGCTTCATATGGTCAACAAC CTTATGAATTTTTCGAATCATGTCGTCAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATTTTCATTTATGTTATTAGG GAAAATTATGACGGTTTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATTTGTTTTCAATGCTAAATTATCT GATGTTTCTGCTGAAGAAGCTTATAAACATTTAACTACTCCAGTTTTCGGTACAGGGGTTATTT ATGATTGTCCAAATTCCAGATTAATGGAACAAAAAAAATTTGCTAAATTTGCTTTGACTACTGA TTCATTTAAAAGATATGTTCCTAAGATTAGAGAAGAAATTTTGAATTATTTTGTTACTGATGAA AGTTTCAAATTGAAAGAAAAAACTCATGGGGTTGCCAATGTTATGAAAACTCAACCAGAAATTA CTATTTTCACTGCTTCAAGATCTTTATTTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAATTTTTGACCGTTCATT TGCTCAACTATATTCTGATTTAGATAAAGGTTTTACCCCTATTAATTTTGTTTTCCCTAATTTA CCTTTACCTCATTATTGGAGACGTGATGCTGCTCAAAAGAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAAG AAATTAAACTGAGAAGAGAACGTGGTGATATTGATCCAAATCGTGATTTAATTGATTCCTTATT GATTCATTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCAAGAAATTGCTAATCTTTTAATT GGTATTCTTATGGGTGGTCAACATACTTCTGCTTCTACTTCTGCTTGGTTCTTGTTACATTTAG GTGAAAAACCTCATTTACAGATGTTATTTATCAAGAAGTTGTTGAATTATTGAAAAGAAAAAGG TGTGATTTGAATGATTTGACTTATGAAGATTACAAAATACCATCAGTCATACACTATATGAACT CTCAGAATGCATATGCCATACATCCTATTTTAGAAAAGTACTATCATAGATTCCTGAATCAATT ATTTGATCCAAAGTCATTTATGGTTTAGTTTTCTCCCGTTATGCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATATT TTGATAACCCTGAAGATTTTGATCCAACTAGATGGGATACTGCTGCTGCCAAAGCTAATTCTGT TTCATTTAACTCTTCTGATGAAGTTGATTATGGGTTTGGGAAAGTTTCTAAAGGGGTTTCTTCA CCTTATTTACCATTTGGTGGTGGTAGACATAGATGTATTGGGGAACAATTTGCTTATGTTCAAT TAGGAACCATTTTAACTACTTTTGTTTATAATTTAAGATGGACTATTGATGGTTATAAAGTGCC TGACCCTGATTATAGTTCAATGGTGGTTTTACCTACTGAACCAGCAGAAATCATTTGGGAAAAA AGAGAAACTTGTATGTTTTAATAAAACGGCAACTTTCTTTCGATTCAGTGTTCTGATTGTTTTC ATTTTGTTACTTAGTTGGATTAACATATATACACATATACATACAAATATATGATACATATAGA ATAG

## Sequence length: 1668b

### 3.5 Amino Acid Sequence (Primary Protein Structure) of the Translated ERG11 Gene Nucleotide Sequence

Amino acid Sequence (Primary Protein Structure) translated from the ERG11 gene nucleotide sequence of the various isolate showed the amino acid composition to vary. In this case, the identifier was assigned since the sequence is yet to be uploaded on NCBI. 01_ERG11-F had 476 amino acids, 17_ERG11-F had 529 amino acids, 28_ERG11-F had 525 amino acids, and Dog_ERG11-F had 555 amino acids. The amino acid sequences are presented as FASTA 5, FASTA 6, FASTA 7, and FASTA 8.

## FASTA 5: Amino Acid Sequence of Translated ERG11 Gene Nucleotide Sequence for 01_ERG11-F

```
>01_ERG11-F
```

```
VETVIDGINYFLLTYCIRHISILLLVPLVIYYFVVFSLIQKKLISSSQFDILGLVLQLHM
VNNLMNFSNHVVKSMVMYFHLCYYGKLLRFIIVQKVMNLFSMLNYLMFLLKKLISIILLQ
FSVQGLFMIVQILDDWNKKNLLNLLLLLIHLKDMFLRLEKKFFIILLLMKVSNNKKKLMG
LPMLLKLNQKLLFSLLQDLYLVMKKEEFLTVHLLNYILIIIKVLPLLILFSLIYLYLIIG
DVMLLKRKSLLLIIKKLNNEENVVILIQIVIILIPYYFIQLIKMVVKKLIKKLLIFFLVF
LWVVNILLLLLLLGSCYIIVKNLIYKMYLSRSCCIIERKRCDDMIDLLDYKITSVIHYRN
SQMHMHYILFLEVLPLGFLNIIWSKVICCASQVMLILVKDILITLKILIQLDGILLLPKL
ILFHLTLLMKLIMGLGKFLKGFLHLIYHLVVVDIDVLGNNLLMFNWEPFFLLLFIT
```


## Sequence length: 484

## FASTA 6: Amino Acid Sequence of Translated ERG11 Gene Nucleotide Sequence for 17_ERG11-F

```
>17_ERG11-F
VETVIDGINYFLSLSVPTDQYIISGTFVYYYSCVIYIHHEKIDLHYCFIGFLGLVLQLHM
VNNLMNFSNHVVKSMVMYFHLCYYGKLLRFIIVQKVMNLFSMLNYLMFLLKKLISIILLQ
FSVQGLFMIVQILDDWNKKNLLNLLLLLIHLKDMFLRLEKKFFIILLLMKVSNNKKKLMG
LPMLLKLNQKLLFSLLQDLYLVMKKEEFLTVHLLNYILIIIKVLPLLILFSLIYLYLIIG
DVMLLKRKSLLLIIRNNTEKRTWWYYSNRDLIDSLLIHSTYKDGVKMTDQEIANLLIGIL
MGGQHTSASTSAWFLLHLGEKPHLQDVFIRSCCIIEKKRCDLNDLTYEDLQNYHQSYTIG
TLRCICHYILFLEVLPLDSSTLYYSKVIMDDASSRLCASYYYKIFFFPPRFFSNNMGYCC
CQSSFCFIILFFFSSLWVWESFFRGFFTLFTIWWWWTTMYWGTICLCSIGNHFNYFCLLL
KMDYYWLLSAAPPLLFNGGFTYYTSRNHLGKKRNLYVLIKRQLSFDSVF
```


## Sequence length: 537

## FASTA 7: Amino Acid Sequence of Translated ERG11 Gene Nucleotide Sequence for 28_ERG11-F

>28_ERG11-F<br>VETVIDGINYFLMTILLHHISYYYWYLCIYLSVVIYILQKKLISSWLYSTSLVWFCSFIW<br>STTLLIFRIMSSKVWWCIFIYVIRENYDGLFRSKRSSICFQCCIIICFCCRSLLTFNYSS<br>FRYRGYLLLSKFQINGTKKICCICFDYYFIIKICSSDDRRNFELFCYYYKFQIERKNSWG<br>CQCYENSTRNYYFHCFKIFIWWWNEKNFFPFICSTIFFFRRRFYPYYFCFPPFTFTSLLE<br>TTCCSKKISATYMKEIKLRRERGDIDPNRDLIDSLLIHSTYKDGVKMTDQEIANLLIGIL<br>MGGQHTSASTSAWFLLHLGEKPHLQDVFIRSCCIIERKRWWFEEFDLLDYKIPSVNTLYE<br>LSDAYAILYFFKYYHRSSINYYSKVIMFSSSRLCSYYYKIFFFPPRFFSNNMGYCCCQSS<br>FCFIILFFFSSLWVWESFFRGFFTLFTIWWWWTMMYWGTICLCSIRNHFNYFCLLFKMDY<br>YWLLSAAPPLLFNGGFTYYTSRNHLGKKRNLYVLIKRQLSFDSVF

## Sequence length: 534

## FASTA 8: Amino Acid Sequence of Translated ERG11 Gene Nucleotide Sequence for Dog_ERG11-F

>dog_ERG11-F<br>VETVIDGINYFLFDNCIHHISILLLVPLVIYLSVVFSFFRNDDSPSLTLFDFLGLVLQLH MVNNLMNFSNHVVKSMVMYFHLCYYGKLLRFIIVQKVMNLFSMLNYLMFLLKKLINIILL QFSVQGLFMIVQIPDDWNKKNLLNLLLLLIHLKDMFLRLEKKFFIILLLMKVSNNKKKLM GLPMLLKLNQKLLFSLLQDLYLVMKKEEFLTVHLLNYILIIIKVLPLLILFSLIYLYLII GDVMLLKRKSLLLIIKKLNNEENVVILIQIVIILIPYYFIQLIKMVVKKLIKKLLIFFLV FLWVVNILLLLLLLGSCYIIVKNLIYRCYLSRSCCIIEKKKVVFEEFDLLRLQNTISHTL YELSECICHTSYFRKVLSSIPESIIISKVIYGLVFSRYAHTSERYFDNPEDFDPTRWDTA AAKANSVSFNSSDEVDYGFGKVSKGVSSPYLPFGGGRHRCIGEQFAYVQLGTILTTFVYN LRWTIDGYKVPDPDYSSMVVLPTEPAEIIWEKRETCMFFFNGNFLSIQCSDCFHFVTTLD DHIYTYTYKYMIHIE

## Sequence length: 565

### 3.6 Physical and Chemical Characteristics/ Subcellular Localization of the Proteins

The amino acid sequence of the predicted Candida ERG11 protein for 01_ERG11-F, 17_ERG11F, 28_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F contains 476, 529, 525, 555 amino acid residues, respectively, with a molecular weight of $56183.10 \mathrm{Da}, 62897.16 \mathrm{Da}, 64159.15 \mathrm{Da}, 65139.25 \mathrm{Da}$ and a predicted $\mathrm{pI}(\mathrm{pH}$ at which protein carries no net electric charge) of $9.60,9.03,9.03$ and 8.88 , respectively. The estimated half-live of the proteins in mammalian cells is 100 hours, and the instability coefficients (stability in the test tube) are $35.70,36.98,44.50$ and 37.69 , respectively. 01_ERG11F, 17_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F are stable enzymes while the $28 \_E R G 11-\mathrm{F}$ is an unstable enzyme. The grand average of hydrophobicity (GRAVY) of the Candida ERG11 protein is 0.195 , $0.478,0.195$ and 0.576 , respectively. All the Candida ERG11 protein were predicted to be localized in the plasma membrane.

### 3.7 Comparative Analysis of the ERG11 gene Nucleotides

Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA) was used to compare the nucleotide sequence variations in the ERG11 gene of the isolates. The sequence alignment in Figures 1a, 1b, 1c and 1d are targeted at revealing the Candida ERG11 protein conserved domains and variable sites in both human and the dog infecting species. The graphical annotation of the MSA of the nucleotide sequences is shown in Figure 2. The red bars denotes significant homology. The Percentage Identity Matrix created by Clustal 2.1, and the sequences significant alignments measured as Max score, Total score, Percentage Query cover, E value, and percentage Ident, are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

CLUSTAL O(1.2.4) multiple sequence alignment

| Sample_17_ErgII-F | GITGAAACTGICAITGATGGCAITAATTATITITTGICCCITAGIGTA--CCAACAGATC | 58 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | GITGAAACTGICAITGATGGCATTAATTATITITTGITGACATATTGTATACGACATATC | 60 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | GITGAAACTGTCATTGATGGCATTAATTATTITTTGATGACCATATTATTACACCATATC | 60 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | GITGAAACTGTCATTGATGGCATTAATTATTTTTTGITTGATAATTGTATACACCATATC | 60 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | AGTATATTATTAGTGGTACCITTGTAT-ACTACTGATCATGIGTTATTTATATTCATTAA | 117 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | AGTATATTATTATTGGTTCCTCTTGIAATCTACTGATTTGITG-TTITTTCTITGATTCA | 119 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | AGTTATTATTAATGGTACCI---TTGIATCTACTTATCTGITG-TTATTTATATTCTICA | 116 |
| Sample_-Dog_ErgII-F | AGTATATTATTATTGGITCCTCITGIAATCTACTTATCTGITG-TITITT-CTITCITCA | 118 |
|  | *** * * * * ***** ** ** * ** ** * |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | GAAAAGATAGATC--TCCATTATTGITTTAITGGATTCCTTGGITTGGITCTGCAGCTIC | 175 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | GAAATAATTAATCTCCTC----ATGACAGTTTGACATCCTTGGTTTGGTTCTGCAGCTIC | 175 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | GAAATGATTAAT--CICCTCATGGCITTATTCGACITCCITGGITTGGITCTGCAGCITC | 174 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | GAAATGATTAATCTCCITCAITGACAITATTCGACITCCITGGITTGGITCIGCAGCITC | 178 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | ATATGGTCAACAACCITATGAATTITTCGAATCATGICGICAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATT | 235 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | ATATGGTCAACAACCTTATGAATTTITCGAATCATGICGTCAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATT | 235 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | ATATGGTCAACAACCTTATGAATTTTTCGAATCATGTCGTCAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATT | 234 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | ATATGGTCAACAACCTTATGAATTTTTCGAATCATGTCGTCAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATT | 238 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | ITCATTTATGITATTAGGGAAAATTATGACGGITTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATT | 295 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | TTCATTTATGTTATTAGGGAAAATTATGACGGTTTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATT | 295 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | TTCATTTATGTTATTAGGGAAAATTATGACGGTTTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATT | 294 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | ITCATTTATGITAITAGGGAAAATTATGACGGITTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATT | 298 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | IGITTTCAATGCTAAATTATCTGATGITTCTGITGAAGAAGCTTATAAGCATTTAACTAC | 355 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | IGITITCAATGCTAAATTATCTGATGITTCTGITGAAGAAGCTTATAAGCATTTAACTAC | 355 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | TGITTTCAATGCTAAATTATCTGATGITTCTGCTGAAGAAGCTTATAAACATTTAACTAC | 354 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | TGITITCAATGCTAAAITATCTGAIGITTCTGCTGAAGAAGCTTATAAACAITTAACTAC | 358 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | ICCAGITTTCGGTACAGGGGITATTTATGAITGTCCAAATTCTAGATTAATGGAACAAAA | 415 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | TCCAGITTTCGGTACAGGGGITATTTATGATIGTCCAAATTCTAGATTAATGGAACAAAA | 415 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | ICCAGITTTCGGTACAGGGGITATTTATGATIGTCCAAATTCCAGATTAATGGAACAAAA | 414 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | TCCAGTTTTCGGTACAGGGGTTATTTATGATTGTCCAAATTCCAGATTAATGGAACAAAA | 418 |
|  |  |  |

Figure 1a: Multiple sequence alignment of the nucleotide sequences (1 to $\sim 400$ ) of the ERG11 gene of the isolates

| Sample_17_ErgII-F | AAAACTIGCTAAATTTGCITTGACTACTGATTCATTTAAAAGATATGITCCTAAGATTAG | 475 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | AAAACTIGCTAAATITGCTITGACTACTGATTCATTTAAAAGATATGITCCTAAGATTAG | 475 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | AAAATITGCTAAAITIGCITTGACTACTGATTCATTTAAAAGATATGITCCTAAGATTAG | 474 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | AAAAITITGCTAAAITTGCITTGACTACTGATTCAITTAAAAGATATGITCCTAAGATTAG | 478 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | AGAAGAAATTTTGAATTATTITGTTACTGATGAAAGITTCAAATTGAAAGAAAAAACTCA | 535 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | AGAAGAAATTTTGAATTATTTTGTTACTGATGAAAGITTCAAATTGAAAGAAAAAACTCA | 535 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | AGAAGAAATITTGAATTATITTGTTACTGATGAAAGITTCAAATTGAAAGAAAAAACTCA | 534 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F |  | 538 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | TGGGGITGCCAATGITATGAAAACTCAACCAGAAATTACTATTTTCACTGCTTCAAGATC | 595 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | IGGGGITGCCAATGITATGAAAACTCAACCAGAAATTACTATITTCACTGCTICAAGATC | 595 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | TGGGGITGCCAATGITATGAAAACTCAACCAGAAATTACTATTTTCACTGCTTCAAGATC | 594 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | IGGGGITGCCAATGITATGAAAACTCAACCAGAAATTACTATITICACTGCTICAAGATC | 598 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | ITTAITTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAATTTTTGACCGITCATTTGCTCAATTATATTCTGA | 655 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | ITTAITTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAATITTTGACCGITCAITTGCTCAATTATATTCTGA | 655 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | ITTATTTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAATTTTTGACCGITCATTTGCTCAACTATAITCTGA | 654 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | ITTAITTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAAITITTGACCGITCAITIGCTCAACTATAITCTGA | 658 |
|  | ************************************************* ***************** |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | ITTAGATAAAGGTITTACCCCTATTAATITTGITTICCCTAATTTACCTITACCTCAITA | 715 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | ITTAGATAAAGGTITTACCCCTATTAATTTTGITTTCCCTAATTTACCTTTACCTCATTA | 715 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | ITTAGATAAAGGTITTACCCCTATTAATITTGITTTCCCTAATTTACCTITACCTCAITA | 714 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | IITAGATAAAGGITITACCCCTAITAAITITGITITCCCTAAITTACCITTACCTCAITA | 718 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | ITGGAGACGIGATGCTGCTCAAAAGAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAGAA-ATTAAACI | 774 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | ITGGAGACGTGATGCTGCTCAAAAGAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAAGAAATTAAACT | 775 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | ITGGAGACGIGATGCTGCTCAAA-GAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAAGAAATTAAACT | 773 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | ITGGAGACGTGATGCTGCTCAAAAGAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAAGAAATTAAACT | 778 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | GAGAAGAGAACGIGGIGATAITGATC-CAATCGIGATTTAATTGATTCCITATTGATTCA | 833 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | GAGAAGAGAACGIGGTGATATTGATCCAAATCGTGATTTAATTGATTCCTTATTGATTCA | 835 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | GAGAAGAGAACGIGGTGATATTGATCCAAATCGIGATTTAATTGATTCCTTATTGATTCA | 833 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | GAGAAGAGAACGIGGIGATATTGATCCAAATCGTGATTTAAITGAITCCTTATTGATTCA | 838 |
|  |  |  |

Figure 1b: Multiple sequence alignment of the nucleotide sequences ( $\sim 470$ to $\sim 800$ ) of the ERG11 gene of the isolates

| Sample_17_ErgII-F | TTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCAAGAAATTGCTAATCTITTAATTGG | 893 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | TTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCAAGAAATTGCTAATCTITTAATTGG | 895 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | TTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCAAGAAATTGCTAATCTTTTAATTGG | 893 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | TTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCAAGAAATTGCTAATCTITTAATTGG <br> *************************************************************** | 898 |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | TATTCTTATGGGTGGTCAACATACTICTGCTTCTACTICTGCTIGGTTCTTGITACATTT | 953 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | TATTCTTAIGGGTGGTCAACATACTICTGCTICTACTICTGCTIGGTTCTIGITACATTT | 955 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | TATTCTTAIGGGTGGTCAACATACTICTGCTTCTACTICTGCTIGGITCTTGITACATTT | 953 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | TAITCTIATGGGTGGTCAACATACTICTGCTICTACTICTGCTIGGTICTIGITACATTI | 958 |
|  |  |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | AGGTGAAAAACCTCATTTACAAGATGTATTTATCAGAAGITGTTGA-ATTATTGAAAAAA | 1012 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | AGGTGAAAAACCTCATTTACAAGATGTATTTATCAAGAAGITGITGAATTATTGAAAGAA | 1015 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | AGGTGAAAAACCTCATTTACAAGATGTATTTATCA-GAAGITGTTGAATTATTGAAAGAA | 1012 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | AGGTGAAAAACCTCATTTACAGATGITATTTATCAAGAAGITGITGAATTATTGAAAAGA | 1018 |
|  | ******************** ******** * * ********** |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | AAAGGTGI-GATTTGAATGATTTGACTTATGAAGATTTACAAAATTACCATCAGTCATAC | 1071 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | AAAGGTGTGATTGAA---TGATTGACTTAT--GAGATTACA-AAATTACATCAGTCATAC | 1069 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | AAAGGTGGTGATTTGAATGATTTGACTTAT--GAGATTACAAAATACCATCAGTCAATAC | 1070 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | AAAAGGTGTGATTTGAATGATTTGACTTAT--GAAGATTACAAAATACCATCAGTCATAC | 1076 |
|  | *** * ********* ** **** |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | ACTATAGGAACTCTCAGATGCATATGCCATTACATTCTATTTTTA-GAAGTACTACCATT | 1130 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | ACTATAGGAACTCTCAGATG-CATATGCATTACATTCTATTTTTA-GAAGTACTACCATT | 1127 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | ACTATACGAACTCTCAGAT-GCATATGCCATACTCTATTITTA---GAAGTACTATCATA | 1126 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | ACTATATGAACTCTCAGAATGCATATGCCATACATCCTATTTTAGAAAAGTACTATCATA | 1136 |
|  | ****** *********** * *** *** ******* *** |  |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | AGATTCCTGAACATTATATTGATCCAAGGTCATAATGGATTAAGCTTCTTCCAGGITATG | 1190 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | AGGATTCTTGAACATTATATGGTCC----AAGGTCATAT----GTTAAGCTICTCAGGTA | 1179 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | GATC-CTGAATCAATTAT-TGATCCA--AAGTCATTATG----TTTAGTTCTTCCAGGIT | 1178 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | GATICCTGAATCAATTATTTGATCCAAAGICATTTATGG----TITAGITITCTCCCGIT | 1192 |
| Sample_17_ErgII-F | TGCCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATAITTTGATAACCCTGAAGATTTTGATCCAACTAGATGGG | 1250 |
| Sample_01_ErgII-F | ATGCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATATTITGATAACCCTGAAGATTITGATCCAACTAGATGGG | 1239 |
| Sample_28_ErgII-F | ATGCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATATTITGATAACCCTGAAGATTITGATCCAACTAGATGGG | 1238 |
| Sample_Dog_ErgII-F | ATGCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATATTTTGATAACCCTGAAGATTTTGATCCAACTAGATGGG | 1252 |

Figure 1c: Multiple sequence alignment of the nucleotide sequences ( $\sim 800$ to $\sim 1200$ ) of the ERGll gene of the isolates


Figure 1d: Multiple sequence alignment of the nucleotide sequences ( $\sim 1300$ to end) of the ERG11 gene of the isolates


Figure 2: Representation of the multiple sequence alignment of the nucleotide sequences of the ERG11 gene of the isolates

Table 4: Percentage nucleotide Identity Matrix of the four isolates

|  | $01 \_$ERG11-F | 017_ERG11-F | 28_ERG11-F | Dog_ERG11-F |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 01_ERG11-F | $100.00 \%$ | $91.56 \%$ | $92.02 \%$ | $93.15 \%$ |
| 17_ERG11-F | $91.56 \%$ | $100.00 \%$ | $91.04 \%$ | $91.47 \%$ |
| 28_ERG11-F | $91.02 \%$ | $92.04 \%$ | $100.00 \%$ | $94.55 \%$ |
| Dog_ERG11-F | $93.15 \%$ | $91.47 \%$ | $94.55 \%$ | $100.00 \%$ |

Table 5: $\quad$ Sequences significance nucleotide alignments, measured by max score, total score, percentage query cover, E value, and percentage Ident

| Description | Max score | Total score | Query cover | E value | Ident | Query <br> Accession |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{0 1} \_E R G 11-\mathrm{F} \\ \downarrow \\ \text { 17_ERG11-F } \end{gathered}$ | 2264 | 2426 | 100\% | 0.0 | 96\% | Query_91717 |
| $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{0 1} \_E R G 11-\mathrm{F} \\ \downarrow \\ \text { 28_ERG11-F } \end{gathered}$ | 2242 | 2408 | 100\% | 0.0 | 95\% | Query_91718 |
|  | 2273 | 2456 | 100\% | 0.0 | 96\% | Query_91719 |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { 17_ERG11-F } \\ \uparrow \\ \text { 28_ERG11-F } \end{gathered}$ | 2515 | 2647 | 100\% | 0.0 | 96\% | Query_122320 |
| $\begin{gathered} \hline 17 \_E R G 11-\mathrm{F} \\ \downarrow \\ \text { Dog_ERG11-F } \end{gathered}$ | 2473 | 2604 | 100\% | 0.0 | 95\% | Query_122321 |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { 28_ERG11-F } \\ \uparrow \\ \text { Dog_ERG11-F } \end{gathered}$ | 2599 | 2733 | 100\% | 0.0 | 97\% | Query_28305 |

### 3.8 Comparative Analysis of the Amino Acid Sequences of the Translated ERG11 Gene Nucleotide Sequences

Amino acid Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA) was used to compare the amino acid sequence variations of the ERG11 gene of the isolates. The sequence alignment shown in Figure 3 are targeted at revealing the Candida ERG11 protein conserved domains and variable sites in both the human- and the dog-infecting Candida species. The amino acid MSA of the four isolates of Candida in this study revealed numerous variable sites with two major conserved domains. The first 12 amino acids in the sequences make up the first major conserved domain. Due to the differential length of each of the Candida ERG11 protein sequences used for this study, the position of the second conserved domain varies in each of the sequences. The amino acid sequence making up the second major conserved region in 01_ERG11-F, 17_ERG11-F, 28_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F are in positions 331-337, 332-338, 330-336 and 330-336, respectively. The graphical annotation of the MSA of the amino acid sequence of the ERG11 gene of the isolates is shown in Figure 4. Red bars express significant homology, while black bars represent nonsignificant homology. The Percentage Identity Matrix - created by Clustal 2.1, and the amino acid sequences significant alignments measured as Max score, Total score, Percentage Query cover, E value, and percentage Ident are shown in Tables 6 and 7.

CLUSTAL O(1.2.4) multipla aeguence alignmant


Figure 3: Multiple sequence alignment of the translated amino acid sequences (1 to end) of the ERG11 gene of the isolates


Figure 4: Representation of the multiple sequence alignment of the Amino acid sequence of the ERG11 gene of the isolates

Table 6: Amino acid alignment Percentage Identity Matrix of the four isolates

|  | 01_ERG11-F | 17_ERG11-F | 28_ERG11-F | Dog_EG11-F |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 01_ERG11-F | $100.00 \%$ | $61.34 \%$ | $24.32 \%$ | $76.68 \%$ |
| 17_ERG11-F | $61.34 \%$ | $100.00 \%$ | $52.20 \%$ | $54.82 \%$ |
| 28_ERG11-F | $24.32 \%$ | $52.20 \%$ | $100.00 \%$ | $23.78 \%$ |
| Dog_ERG11-F | $76.68 \%$ | $54.82 \%$ | $23.78 \%$ | $100.00 \%$ |

Table 7: Sequences significance amino acid alignments measured by max score, total score, percentage query cover, E value, and percentage Ident

| Description | Max score | Total score | Query cover | E value | Ident | Query <br> Accession |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 01_ERG11-F <br> 17_ERG11-F | 385 | 385 | 81\% | $2 \mathrm{e}-133$ | 65\% | Query_150085 |
|  | 43.5 | 155 | 34\% | $3 \mathrm{e}-08$ | 61\% | Query_150086 |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { 01_ErgII-F } \\ \downarrow \\ \text { Dog_ERG11-F } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | 510 | 530 | 75\% | 0.0 | 93\% | Query_150087 |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { 17_ERG11-F } \\ \uparrow \\ \text { 28_ERG11-F } \end{gathered}$ | 427 | 541 | 58\% | $2 \mathrm{e}-149$ | 83\% | Query_66352 |
| $\begin{gathered} \hline 17 \_E R G 11-\mathrm{F} \\ \downarrow \\ \text { Dog_ERG11-F } \end{gathered}$ | 358 | 358 | 74\% | $5 \mathrm{e}-122$ | 64\% | Query_66353 |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { 28_ERG11-F } \\ \downarrow \\ \text { Dog_ERG11-F } \end{gathered}$ | 44.7 | 98.6 | 14\% | 5e-09 | 62\% | Query_164643 |

### 3.9 Amino Acid Composition of the Translated ERG11 Proteins

All the translated ERG11 amino acid sequences have varying composition in amino acids as shown in Figure 5. The result showed a low concentration of amino acids with hydrophilic side chains in all species of the Candida ERG11 gene sequenced. These amino acids include Arginine, Asparagine, Aspartate, Glutamine, Glutamate, Histidine, Lysine and Serine.


Figure 5: Comparison of the amino acid composition of the $E R G 11$ proteins sequences

### 3.10 Secondary Structure of ERG11 Gene Protein of the Isolates Sequenced

In the result of the secondary structure prediction shown in Figures 6, 7, 8 and 9, the total residues (expressed in percentage) of the ERG11 gene alpha helix, beta pleated sheets, and turns vary. Regions of $\alpha$-helices, $\beta$-sheets, turns and coils are shown in red, green, blue and yellow, respectively.


Total residues:
Helix: 441, Sheet: 442, Turn: 25.
Percentage (\%):
Helix: 92.6, Sheet: 92.9, Turn: 5.3.
Figure 6: Predicted protein secondary structure of ERG11 gene for 01_ERG11-F


Total residues:
Helix: 385, Sheet: 452, Turn: 43.
Percentage (\%):
Helix: 72.8, Sheet: 85.4, Turn: 9.1.
Figure 7: Predicted protein secondary structure of ERG11 gene for 17_ERG11-F


Total residues:
Helix: 347, Sheet: 427, Turn: 48.
Percentage (\%):
Helix: 66.1, Sheet: 81.3, Turn: 9.1.
Figure 8: Predicted protein secondary structure of ERG11 gene for 28_ERG11-F


Total residues:
Helix: 439, Sheet: 457, Turn: 42.
Percentage (\%):
Helix: 79.1, Sheet: 82.3, Turn: 7.6.
Figure 9: Predicted protein secondary structure of $E R G 11$ gene for $\operatorname{Dog}_{-} E R G 11-\mathrm{F}$

### 3.11 Tertiary Structure of the ERG11 Gene Protein of the Four Isolates Sequenced

The tertiary structures were predicted by PHYRE2 using the amino acid residues in each Candida ERG11 gene sequence. Modelling was done with a $100 \%$ confidence by the single highest scoring template. The results shown in Figures 10, 11, 12 and 13 indicated a low level of similarity between the 17_ERG11-F and 28_ERG11-F structural models, while 01_ERG11-F show a significant similarity to none. The models differ widely in complexity and size.


Figure 10: Tertiary Structure of the ERG11 gene protein of 01_ERG11-F


Figure 11: Tertiary structure of the ERG11 gene protein of 17_ERG11-F


Figure 12: Tertiary structure of the ERG11 gene protein of 28_ERG11-F


Figure 13: Tertiary structure of the $E R G 11$ gene protein of $\operatorname{Dog}_{-} E R G 11-\mathrm{F}$

### 3.12 ERG11 Protein Ligand Binding Sites for the Four Isolates Sequenced

The 3D ligand automated software predicted the active sites of Candida ERG11 protein with metallic heterogens to which drugs can bind. The ligand/drug binding sites of the ERG11 proteins, and the associated amino acid sequences are shown in Figures 14, 15, 16, and 17. These sites have been reported with the observation that 01_ERG11-F has no single drug binding site. 17_ERG11F, 28_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F however, exhibit unique binding sites to which drug can effectively bind.

| Submission Details |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Email: | arome.odiba.pg100030@unn.edu.ng |
| Unique Job identifier: | 94ec29ebe4f99726 |
| Description: | ERG1 |
| Date: | Tue May 16 02:51:44 BST 2017 |
| Submission Type: | sequence |
| Query Seq: | VETVIDGINYFLITYCIRHISILILVPLVIYYFVVESLIQKKLISSSQFDILGLVLQLHM VNNLMNESNHVVKSMMYEHLCYYGKLIRFIIVQKVMNLFSMLNYLMFLLKKLISIILIQ FSVQGLFMIVQILDDWNKKNLLNLIILIIHLKDMFLRLEKKEFIILILMKVSNNKKKLMG IPMLIKLNQKLLESLIQDLYLVMKKEEFLTVHLLNYILIIIKVLPLIILFSLIYLYLIIG DVMLIKRKSLILIIKKLNNEENVVILIQIVIILIPYYFIQIIKMVVKKLIKKLLIEFLVE IWVVNILIILILLGSCYIIVKNLIYKMYISRSCCCIIERKRCDDMIDLIDYKIISVIHYRN SQMHMHYILFLEVLPLGFLNIIWSKVICCASQVMLILVKDILITLKILIQIDGILILPKL ILFHLTLIMKLIMGLGKFLKGFLHLIYHLVVVDIDVLGNNLIMFNWEPFFLILFIT |


|  | Structural Model |
| :--- | :---: |
| Phyre2 job: | $\underline{94 e c 29 e b e 4999726}$ |

No prediction made as there were insufficient homologous structures with ligands bound identified

Figure 14: ERG11 Protein ligand binding sites of 01_ERG11-F


| Residue | Amino <br> acid |
| ---: | ---: |
| 298 | GLY |
| 299 | ILE |
| 300 | LEU |$|$

Figure 15: ERG11 Protein ligand binding sites of 17_ERG11-F


| Residue | Amino <br> acid |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 298 | GLY |  |
| 299 | ILE |  |
| 302 | GLY |  |
| 303 | GLY |  |
| 306 | THR |  |
| 307 | SER |  |
| 310 | THR |  |
| 347 | LEU |  |
| 371 | PHE |  |
| 400 | ILE |  |
| 401 | PHE |  |
| 402 | PHE |  |
| 403 | PHE |  |
| 405 | PRO |  |
| 406 | ARG |  |

Figure 16: ERG11 Protein ligand binding sites of 28_ERG11-F


Figure 17: ERG11 Protein ligand binding sites of Dog_ERG11-F

### 3.12 Antigenic Sites of the ERG11 Protein of the Four Isolates Sequenced

The chromatogram of the antigenic sites of the ERG11 protein of 01_ERG11-F, 17_ERG11-F, 28_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F are shown in Figures 18, 19, 20 and 21. Several antigenic sites (determinants) were predicted for each of the isolates. The amino acids in the peaks also accompany the chromatogram. The 01_ERG11-F possesses 10 antigenicity sites (the lowest when compared to others), while 17_ERG11-F, 28_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F, possess 16, 21 and 15 antigenicity sites, respectively.


There are 10 antigenic determinants in your sequence:

| n | Start Position | Sequence | End Position |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 4 | VIDGINYFLLTYCIRHISILLLVPLVIYYFWVFSLQKKLISSSQFDILGLVLQLHM | 60 |
| 2 | 68 | SNHWKSMVMYFHLCYYGKLLRFIIVQKVMNL | 99 |
| 3 | 101 | SMLNYLMFLLKKLISIILLQFSVQGLFMIVQ\| | 132 |
| 4 | 140 | NLLNLLLLLIHLKDMFLRLEKKFFIILLLM | 169 |
| 5 | 178 | LMGLPMLLKLNQKLLFSLLQDLYLVM | 203 |
| 6 | 207 | EFLTVHLLNYILIIIKVLPLLILFSLIYLYLIIGDVMLLKRKSLLLII | 254 |
| 7 | 261 | ENVVILIQIVIILIPYYFIQLIKMVVKKLIKKLLIFFLVFLWWNILLLLLLLGSCYIVKNLIYKMYLSRSCCIIE | 337 |
| 8 | 343 | DMIDLLDYKITSVIHY | 358 |
| 9 | 363 | MHMHYILFLEVLPLGFLNIIWSKVICCASQVMLILVKDILITLKILIQLDGILLLPKLILFHLTLLMKLIM | 433 |
| 10 | 435 | LGKFLKGFLHLIYHLVWDIDVLGN | 459 |

Figure 18: ERGll protein antigenic sites chromatogram of 01_ERG11-F


There are 16 antigenic determinants in your sequence:

| $\mathbf{n}$ | Start Position | Sequence | End Position |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 4 | VIDGINYFLSLSVPTDQYIISGTFVYYYSCVIYIHHEKIDLHYCFIGFLGLVLQLHM | 60 |
| 2 | 68 | SNHVVKSMVMYFHLCYYGKLLRFIIVQKVMNL | 99 |
| 3 | 101 | SMLNYLMFLLKKLISIILLQFSVQGLFMIVQI | 132 |
| 4 | 140 | NLLNLLLLLIHLKDMFLRLEKKFFIILLLM | 169 |
| 5 | 178 | LMGLPMLLKLNQKLLFSLLQDLYLVM | 203 |
| 6 | 207 | EFLTVHLLNYILIIIKVLPLLILFSLIYLYLIIGDVMLLKRKSLLLI | 253 |
| 7 | 271 | LIDSLLIHS | 279 |
| 8 | 292 | IANLLIGI | 299 |
| 9 | 310 | SLQWFLLHLGEKPHLQDVFIRSCCIIEKKR | 339 |
| 10 | 349 | MGYCCCQSSFCFIILFFFSSLWVWE | 389 |
| 11 | 393 | FRGFFTLFT | 409 |
| 12 | 416 | WGTICLCSI | 440 |
| 13 | 443 | FNYFCLLLKMDYYWLLSAAPPLLF | 451 |
| 14 | 461 | RNLYVLIKRQLS | 469 |
| 15 | 473 |  | 496 |
| 16 | 513 |  | 524 |

Figure 19: ERG11 protein antigenic sites chromatogram of 17_ERG11-F


There are 21 antigenic determinants in your sequence:

| $\mathbf{n}$ | Start Position | Sequence | End Position |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 4 | VIDGINYFLMTILLHHISYYYWYLCIYLSWVIYILQKKLISSWLYSTSLVWFCSF | 58 |
| 2 | 60 | WSTTLLIFR | 68 |
| 3 | 73 | KVWWCIFIYVIR | 84 |
| 4 | 95 | RSSICFQCCIIICFCCRSLLTFNYSS | 120 |
| 5 | 122 | RYRGYLLLSK | 131 |
| 6 | 138 | KKICCICFDYYFIIKICS | 155 |
| 7 | 162 | FELFCYYYKF | 171 |
| 8 | 190 | NYYFHCFKIF | 199 |
| 9 | 208 | FFPFICSTIFF | 218 |
| 10 | 220 | RRRFYPYYFCFPPFTFTSLLETTCCSKKISA | 250 |
| 11 | 271 | LANLLIGLLIHS | 279 |
| 12 | 292 | TSAWFLLHLGEKPHLQDVFIRSCCII | 299 |
| 13 | 310 | SFSRLCSYYYKIFFFPP | 335 |
| 14 | 344 | MGYCCCQSSFCFIILFFFSSLWVWE | 387 |
| 15 | 389 | FRGFFTLFT | 405 |
| 16 | 412 | WGTICLCSI | 436 |
| 17 | 439 | FNYFCLLFK | 447 |
| 18 | 457 | DYYWLLSAAPPLLF | 465 |
| 19 | 469 | RNLYVLIKRQLS | 477 |
| 20 | 479 | 509 |  |

Figure 20: ERG11 protein antigenic sites chromatogram of 28_ERG11-F


Tue 6 Jun 2017 at 13:21

There are 15 antigenic determinants in your sequence:

| n | Start Position | Sequence | End Position |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 4 | VIDGINYFLFDNCIHHISILLLVPLVIYLSWFS | 37 |
| 2 | 45 | PSLTLFDFLGLVLQLHM | 61 |
| 3 | 69 | SNHVVKSMVMYFHLCYYGKLLRFIVQKVMNL | 100 |
| 4 | 102 | SMLNYLMFLLKKLINIILLQFSVQGLFMIVQI | 133 |
| 5 | 141 | NLLNLLLLLIHLKDMFLRLEKKFFIILLLM | 170 |
| 6 | 179 | LMGLPMLLKLNQKLLFSLLQDLYLVM | 204 |
| 7 | 208 | EFLTVHLLNYILIIIKVLPLLILFSLIYLYLIIGDVMLLKRKSLLLII | 255 |
| 8 | 262 | ENVVILIQIVIILIPYYFIQLIKMVVKLIKKLLIFFLVFLWVVNILLLLLLLGSCYIIVKNLIYRCYLSRSCCIIEKKKWFEEFDLLRL | 352 |
| 9 | 356 | ISHTLYELSECICHTSYFRKVLSSIPESIIISKVIYGLVFSRY | 398 |
| 10 | 423 | KANSVVF | 429 |
| 11 | 433 | DEVDYGFGKVSKGVSSPYLP | 452 |
| 12 | 457 | RHRCIGEQFAYVQLGTILTTFVYNL | 481 |
| 13 | 486 | DGYKVPDP | 493 |
| 14 | 495 | YSSMVVLPT | 503 |
| 15 | 524 | FLSIQCSDCFHFVTTLDDHIYTYTYKYM | 551 |

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Figure 21: ERG11 protein antigenic sites chromatogram of Dog_ERG11-F

### 3.14 The Disordered/Disease Causing Region of the ERG11 Protein of the Four Isolates Sequenced

The disease causing regions of the ERG11 protein of 01_ERG11-F, 17_ERG11-F, 28_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F are shown in figures 22, 23, 24 and 25. Each figure indicates the amino acid composition of the ERG11 protein disease-causing region for each isolate. The disordered/disease causing region for the isolates are painted blue on the X -axis. The amino acid sequence 2-8: ETVIDGI is common to all.


Figure 22: The disordered/disease causing region of 01_ERG11-F. The amino acids in this region painted in blue ranges from; 2-8: ETVIDGI


Figure 23: The disordered/disease causing region of 17_ERG11-F. The amino acids in this region painted in blue ranges from;
2-8: ETVIDGI
411-417: FFSNNMG
495-505: LFNGGFTYYTS


Figure 24: The disordered/disease causing region of 28_ERG11-F. The amino acids in this region painted in blue ranges from;
2-8: ETVIDGI
407-413: FFSNNMG
491-501: LFNGGFTYYTS


Figure 25: The disordered/disease causing region of Dog_ERG11-F. The amino acids in this region painted in blue ranges from;

```
2-8: ETVIDGI
42-46: DDSPS
405-416: YFDNPE DFDPTR
431-458: SSDEVDYGFG KVSKGVSSPY LPFGGGRH
487-498: GYKVPDPDYSSM
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### 3.15 Phylogeny

The percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches as shown in figure 26 and 27. Isolates 01_ERG11-F, 17_ERG11-F, 28_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F are closely related organisms but more specifically, 01_ERG11-F and Dog_ERG11-F (Dog) are shown to have originated from a common ancestor.


Figure 26: Condensed Phylogenetic tree of Candida ERG11


Figure 27: Bootstrap consensus phylogenetic tree of Candida

## CHAPTER FOUR

## DISCUSSION

The resistance of Candida species to drugs is a major problem in clinical practice as many Candida species are becoming increasingly resistant to first-line and second-line antifungal medications. One of the mechanisms responsible for this resistance is the alteration in the DNA sequence of the gene that codes for the protein (enzyme), ERG1l which is the target of fluconazole. This study investigated the distribution of different species of Candida in human and dog vaginal swabs, the susceptibility of the Candida species to fluconazole, a first-line antifungal drug, the profile of the ERG11 gene, and the phylogenetic relationship of the Candida species based on the nucleotide sequence of the ERG11 gene.

A total of 57 human samples (HHVS- Human High Vaginal Swab) and 7 dog samples (DHVSDog High Vaginal Swab) were screened for the presence of Candida species. Twenty-eight (28) of the human samples were positive (+ve) to yeast growth as shown in Table 1. A total of 37 Candida isolates were obtained from the 28 human specimens that were positive to yeast growth as represented in Plates 1 and 2. The different strains of Candida isolated showed different morphological characteristics. Four different species of Candida, including C. albicans, C. tropicalis, C. krusei, and C. glabrata were identified in this study (Table 2). Some samples showed mixed growth, while others showed single isolate growth. Of the 28 human specimens that were positive to Candida growth, 21 had single species, 5 had two species and 2 had three species. Of the 37 isolates, 13 (35\%) were C. albicans, 4 (9\%) C. glabrata, 4 ( $9 \%$ ) C. krusei, 2 ( $6 \%$ ) C. tropicalis, and 14 (38\%) other Candida species. Sundar et al. (2017) recently reported a distribution of $56 \%$ C. albicans, $20 \%$ C. tropicalis, $14 \%$ C. glabrata and $10 \%$ C. krusei. In this study, C. albicans was present in about $57 \%$ of the mixed cultures. This is similar to the findings of Yang et al. (2003), who reported a $60 \%$ occurrence of C. albicans in mixed cultures of Candida. The result confirms that other Candida species are haboured in the vagina of humans and dogs apart from the common C. albicans, C. krusei, C. glabrata, and C. tropicalis. Fears have been expressed that some of the uncommon Candida species such as $C$. dubliniensis could replace $C$. albicans as the predominant species under favorable conditions. C. dubliniensis which has been
reported in Singapore has caused great concern with its inducible fluconazole resistance (Tan et al., 2002).

The antifungal susceptibility tests revealed that $89.2 \%$ of the Candida species were susceptible ( $\geq 19 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole as shown in plates $\mathrm{S} 1-\mathrm{S} 38$. This observation implies that fluconazole remains a very potent antifungal agent for Candida infection in this region. Overall, only $5.4 \%$ of the isolates from humans were resistant to fluconazole ( $\leq 14 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). This low percentage of fluconazole resistance suggests that there may be no pressing need for new antifungal drugs against Candida in the region of this study. The only isolate from dog was also susceptible to the $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole. This implies that fluconazole still supports the treatment of Candida infections in dogs. One of the remarkable findings of this research is the observation of a very resistant strain (a C. glabrata), isolated from humans, with a zone of inhibition of 0.00 mm . This strain may have undergone a series of mutations as well as evolutionary adaptations, such that it circumvents all the possible mechanisms of action of fluconazole (Stephanie et al., 2012). This finding implies that fluconazole will be the wrong option for treating any patient infected with this strain. The most susceptible isolate was a C. albicans species isolated from humans. This study also showed $95.8 \%$ of the non-albicans species to be susceptible to fluconazole. This suggests that the nonalbicans species are not necessarily a resistance threat to fluconazole.

The four (4) isolates whose ERG11 genes were sequenced were Can Iso-001 (a C. glabrata; the most resistant), Can Iso-17 (a C. albicans; a susceptible dose-dependent), Can Iso-028 (a C. albicans; the most susceptible) and Can Iso-029 (a C. krusei; the dog sample). The nucleotide sequence composition of the ERG11 gene of the various isolates varied considerably as reflected in the nucleotide counts. The most fluconazole-resistant isolate (C. glabrata) had 1431 bases. This is shorter than the sequence length of 1602 bases reported by Silva et al. (2009). The susceptible dose-dependent isolate (C. albicans) had 1590 bases, and the most susceptible (C. albicans) had I578 bases. For C. albicans species, the most commonly reported sequence length is 1587 bases (Ying et al., 2013; Flowers et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2015; Rossini et al., 2015; Fakhim et al., 2016), however, Wang et al. (2009) reported a sequence length of 1370 bases. The isolate from dog, a $C$. krusei had 1668 bases. Silva et al. (2016) reported a sequence length of 1587 bases in C. krusei, while, Healey et al. (2016) reported a much higher nucleotide sequence length of 3907 bases for
C. krusei. Nucleotide sequence lengths of the same gene of even the same species have been observed to vary, and this could be attributed to the molecular adaptation in the particular strains (Zimbeck et al., 2010). The differences observed in the sequences of the strains of the same species could be attributed to mutations or single nucleotide polymorphisms (Forche et al., 2004; Gomez et al., 2008). The resistance may also be due to changes resulting from other counter mechanisms against antifungal agents (Sanglard and White, 2006; Coste et al., 2007).

The primary structure of the $E R G 11$ proteins could have effects on electrostatic properties, protein packing, local and global structure, stability, interactions, activity and abundance. Thus, the observed variations in the ERG11 gene may manifest in different ways as observed in the widely different sequence compositions. Many deleterious variations, such as large deletions, protein truncations, amphigoric amino acid insertions, deletions and indels, are easy to explain, while the minor sequence alterations, most often resulting in amino acid substitutions are more difficult to explain. Variations in primary, secondary and tertiary structures of ERG11 proteins are also more difficult to explain than those of the DNA sequence itself (Kircher et al., 2014; Kucukkal et al., 2014; Perniola and Musco 2014). The amino acid sequence (primary structure) translated from the ERG11 nucleotide sequence of the four (4) isolates show the amino acid composition to vary considerably (Wang et al., 2009; Xiang et al., 2013; Silva et al., 2016). Can Iso-001 had 476 amino acids, Can Iso-17 had 529 amino acids, Can Iso-028 had 525 amino acids, and the dog isolate, Can Iso-029, had 555 amino acids. The corresponding proteins of the Candida ERG11 gene have molecular weights of $56,183.10 \mathrm{Da}, 62,897.16 \mathrm{Da}, 64,159.15 \mathrm{Da}$, and $65,139.25 \mathrm{Da}$, respectively. These are proteins with high molecular weights. Debnath and Addya (2014), reported a molecular weight of 60675.4 Da for the ERG11 protein of Candida, which is similar to the findings of this study. The observed differences are due to the changes in nucleotide sequences that may have resulted from mutation. The $E R G 11$ proteins from this study had a predicted pI (isoelectric point) of 9.60, 9.03, 9.03 and 8.88, for Can Iso-001, Can Iso-017, Can Iso-028 and Can Iso-029, respectively. In a solution with a pH that is above the pI of these $E R G 11$ proteins, the surface of the protein is predominantly negatively charged. Likewise, in a solution with a pH that is below the pI of these $E R G 11$ proteins, the surface of the protein is predominantly positively charged. This knowledge would be found useful in the purification of these enzymes for further kinetic studies. The pI of most proteins is in the pH range of 4 to 7 . In a study carried out by Debnath and

Addya (2014), the pI for ERGll protein was 6.69 . The ERG11 proteins in this study, however, had higher pI values. These enzymes are alkaline in nature and are predicted to be localized in the plasma membrane. The predicted half-live $\left(t_{1 / 2}\right)$ of these proteins in mammalian cells is 100 hours, and the instability coefficients are $35.70,36.98,44.50$ and 37.69 , for Can Iso-001, Can Iso-017, Can Iso-028 and Can Iso-029, respectively. A protein with instability index smaller than 40 is predicted as stable (Fang et al., 2011). This instability index also provides an estimate of the stability of a protein in a test tube. The implication of this finding is that in some cases, at some point in the life-cycle of the Candida, the fungi may get ruptured and this protein gets into the host's system. The protein, however, needs to be cleared off the system, and by 100 hours, the amount of this disease-causing protein will be halved (Benson et al., 2009). This information could be important in pharmaceutical drug designs, and dosage studies. Based on this, all the ERG11 proteins of the Candida species that were sequenced for study, could be said to be stable, except the most susceptible (Can Iso-028). This lower stability of the most susceptible isolate could explain its high susceptibility to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole. The grand average of hydrophobicity (GRAVY) of these Candida ERG11 proteins are $0.195,0.478,0.195$ and 0.576 , for Can Iso-001, Can Iso-017, Can Iso-028 and Can Iso-029, respectively. The more positive the value, the more hydrophobic the amino acids located in that region of the protein are (Jaspard et al., 2012). Therefore, in employing water as a therapeutic option, infection with Can Iso-17 and the Can Iso029 are more easily treated than infections with Can Iso-001 and Can Iso-28.

The multiple sequence alignment of both the nucleotide and amino acid sequence of the four Candida isolates sequenced in this study revealed numerous variable sites, with two major conserved domains (Fig. 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d, 2, 3 and 4). The major principle of comparative genomics is that common features of two or more organisms will often be conserved within the DNA (Koonin, and Galperin, 2003). There have been concerns as to whether to use nucleotide sequences or amino acid sequences in the analysis of conserved domains. However, due to the redundancy of the genetic code the more reliable option is the amino acid multiple sequence alignment (Yang et al., 2015). This does not in any way negate the credibility of nucleotide multiple sequence alignment. The Percentage Identity Matrix (PIM) between the four isolates in the nucleotide multiple sequence alignment were all above $90 \%$, and specifically in the range of $91.02 \%$ to 94.55\% (Tables 4 and 5). However, the PIM of the four isolates in the amino acid multiple
sequence alignment were all below $80 \%$, and specifically in the range of $23.78 \%$ to $76.68 \%$ (Table 6 and 7). All the multiple sequence alignment E-values are at the significant levels ( 0.0 for nucleotide multiple sequence alignment, and a range of 0.0 to $5 \mathrm{e}-09$ for amino acid multiple sequence alignment), as E-values below 0.05 are considered significant. The first 12 amino acids in the sequences (as shown by the amino acid multiple sequence alignment) make up the first major conserved domain. Due to the varying length of the Candida ERG11 gene sequences of the four isolates, the position of the second conserved domain varies in each of the sequences. The amino acid sequence making up the second major conserved region in Can Iso-001, Can Iso-017, Can Iso-028 and Can Iso-029 are in positions 331-337, 332-338, 330-336 and 330-336, respectively (fig. 3). These regions are potential target sites for therapeutic agents (Maurice et al., 2014). The subcellular localization prediction confirmed their Candida ERG11 proteins to be a membrane enzyme which catalyzes the ergosterol synthetic pathway (Fothergill et al., 2014). All the ERG11 proteins had varying composition of amino acids as shown in Fig. 5. The result shows a low concentration of amino acids with polar side chains in all four species of Candida ERG11 protein. These amino acids include Arginine, Asparagine, Aspartate, Glutamine, Glutamate, Histidine, Lysine and Serine.

The secondary structure prediction of the ERG11 protein showed a high percentage of $\alpha$-helix and $\beta$-sheet, contributing to the stability and conservation of this enzyme (Fig. 6, 7, 8, and 9). There is a relationship between the $\alpha$-helix content of a protein and its stability. A protein with a higher percentage of $\alpha$-helix appears to be more stable (Deller et al., 2016). This stability reflects in the susceptibility to the action of drugs. In this study, the most resistant strain of Candida had the highest percentage of $\alpha$-helix, while the most susceptible strain had the lowest percentage of $\alpha$ helix (Fig. 6, 7, 8, and 9). From the findings of this study, there appears to also be a relationship between the level of $\beta$-sheets in a protein and its susceptibility to fluconazole, as the most resistant strain of Candida had the highest percentage of $\beta$-sheets, while the most susceptible strain had the lowest percentage of $\beta$-sheets. The tertiary structure comparison of the most resistant, the SDD, the most resistant and the dog isolate gave an insight into the different levels of drug resistance observed between them (Fig. 10, 11, 12 and 13). Apart from the most resistant species, whose ERG11 protein had a strikingly different tertiary structure, all the other three ERG11 proteins had tertiary structures that predictively explain their susceptibility to fluconazole (Shi et al., 2012).

Ligand/drug binding sites were detected in the ERG11 protein of three of the four isolates sequenced. The most resistant isolate was the only exception, which had no single drug binding site (fig. 14, 15, 16, and 17). The absence of a drug-binding site in the ERG11 protein of the resistant isolate may explain why the strain is completely resistant to fluconazole.

Antigenicity of a protein refers to its ability to elicit a specific immune response, and the activation of the immune system by the invading antigen is faster when an organism with a wider range of antigenicity sites is involved (Soria-Guerra et al., 2015). The most resistant strain had 10 antigenicity sites, which appears to be the lowest compared to others. The other 3 isolates sequenced, had 16 (the SDD), 21 (the most resistant) and 15 (the isolate from dog) antigenicity sites, respectively (Fig. 18, 19, 20 and 21). Thus, the lower number of antigenic sites observed in the most resistant strain may be a survival strategy to circumvent detection by the host's immune system (Soria-Guerra et al., 2015). These regions can also be regarded as ideal targets for drugs, which could be considered during the design as well as in the development of vaccines (Lorenzo and Fenton, 2013).

The experiment to identify the disease-causing regions of the ERG11 protein revealed the presence of disease-causing regions in the ERG11 protein of all the four strains of the Candida sequenced. The amino acid sequence of the regions is displayed in Fig. 22, 23, 24 and 25. Amongst the varying disease-causing regions in each of the proteins, it was observed that all these ERG11 proteins have a common disease-causing region. This ranges within the amino acid residues 2-8: ETVIDGI. However, the isolates have other disease-causing regions that are peculiar to each of the strains (Fig. 22, 23, 24 and 25). These disease-causing regions can also serve as a potential target for drugs.

One of the major objectives of this study was to use phylogenetic analysis of the ERG11 to determine the evolutionary relatedness of the isolates to each other, as well as their relatedness to Candida species from some other parts of the world. The result of this investigation revealed that the four isolates were closely related (Fig. 26 and 27). However, the most resistant strain (Can Iso001) and the dog isolate (Can Iso-029), seemed to have originated from a common ancestor, implying an even closer evolutionary relatedness. A further revelation of the phylogenetic analysis is that, the isolates obtained in this study are more closely related to strains isolated in India and

China, than those isolated in USA, Belgium, Italy and France (Tamura et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2016). The closer relationship between the Nigerian isolates to isolates from India and China (both in Asia) may be attributed to the closer similarity between the climates of Africa and Asia. This finding also suggests that, other drugs apart from fluconazole, used in the treatment of Candida infection in India and China may also be effective against Candida in Nigeria.

## Conclusion

This study investigated the distribution of different species of Candida in human and dog vaginal swabs, the susceptibility of the Candida species to fluconazole, a first-line antifungal drug, the profile of the ERG11 gene, and the phylogenetic relationship of the Candida species based on the nucleotide sequence of the ERG11 gene. Different species of Candida were isolated, with C. albicans being the most predominant species. The behaviour of the Candida strains whose ERG11 gene profile were investigated are shown to be strongly connected to the variations in their respective nucleotide and amino acid sequences. These variations could be attributed to mutations, to circumvent the action of fluconazole, as well as evolutionary changes overtime. The susceptibility experiment showed that most of the Candida strains are susceptible to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole, however, one of the isolates was fully resistant to $25 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ fluconazole. The four isolates whose ERG11 genes were sequenced varied in their nucleotide and amino acid sequences, and this was confirmed by multiple sequence alignment, as well as in their physicochemical properties. The predicted primary, secondary and tertiary structure of the ERG1l protein all varied, with a particularly marked difference in the most resistant isolate. All the predicted ERG11 proteins varied in their ligand-binding sites, antigenic sites, and disease causing regions. The phylogenetic analysis based on the ERG11 gene showed that, the four isolates sequenced are closely related in origin, but more specifically, the most resistant isolate and the isolate from the dog are shown to have originated from a common ancestor. The information obtained from this study can be gainfully employed in the design of new drugs and vaccines, which could relief the key challenges originating from Candida in clinical practice.

## Recommendations for Further Studies

- Apart from the ERG11 gene profiling, studies on the $A B C$ transporter genes should also be done alongside ERG11 gene profiling experiments in subsequent studies, since they could also be contributory factors to the response of the Candida to fluconazole.
- A study is needed to determine the prevalence of the C. glabrata because of its absolute resistance to fluconazole.
- Further laboratory and clinical experiments on the design of potential anti-fungal drugs and vaccines that will translate through clinical trial phases are needed. The key knowledge revealed in the conserved domain should be effectively harnessed since it could serve as a root target for all forms of Candida infections, irrespective of species.


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## APPENDICES

## Appendix 1: Sequences Retrieved from NCBI for Phylogenic Analysis

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>X13296.1 USA
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>GU371858.1 India
ATCAATTTTTATATATAAATAGACAAAGAAAGGGAATTCAATCGTTATTCTTTCCATATTACTTGTCTTCTTTTTAT TATATATATAAGTTTCTTTTCAAGAAGATCATAACTCAATATGGCTATTGTTGAAACTGTCATTGATGGCATTAATT ATTTTTTGTCCCTTAGTGTTACACAACAGATCAGTATATTATTAGGGGTTCCATTTGTTTACAACTTAGTATGGCAA TATTTATATTCATTAAGAAAAGATAGAGCTCCATTAGTGTTTTATTGGATTCCTTGGTTTGGTTCTGCAGCTTCATA TGGTCAACAACCTTATGAATTTTTCGAATCATGTCGTCAAAAGTATGGTGATGTATTTTCATTTATGTTATTAGGGA AAATTATGACGGTTTATTTAGGTCCAAAAGGTCATGAATTTGTTTTTAATGCTAAATTATCTGATGTTTCTGCTGAA GATGCTTATAAACATTTAACTACTCCAGTTTTCGGTAAAGGGGTTATTTATGATTGTCCAAATTCCAGATTAATGGA ACAAAAAAAATTTGCTAAATTTGCTTTGACTACTGATTCATTTAAAAGATATGTTCCTAAGATTAGAGAAGAAATTT TGAATTATTTTGTTACTGATGAAAGTTTCAAATTGAAAGAAAAAACTCATGGGGTTGCCAATGTTATGAAAACTCAA CCAGAAATTACTATTTTCACTGCTTCAAGATCTTTATTTGGTGATGAAATGAGAAGAATTTTTGACCGTTCATTTGC TCAACTATATTCTGATTTAGATAAAGGTTTTACCCCTATTAATTTTGTTTTCCCTAATTTACCTTTACCTCATTATT GGAGACGTGATGCTGCTCAAAAGAAAATCTCTGCTACTTATATGAAAGAAATTAAACTGAGAAGAGAACGTGGTGAT ATTGATCCAAATCGTGATTTAATTGATTCCTTATTGATTCATTCAACTTATAAAGATGGTGTGAAAATGACTGATCA AGAAATTGCTAATCTTTTAATTGGTATTCTTATGGGTGGTCAACATACTTCTGCTTCTACTTCTGCTTGGTTCTTGT TACATTTAGGTGAAAAACCTCATTTACAAGATGTTATTTATCAAGAAGTTGTTGAATTATTGAAAGAAAAAGGTGGT GATTTGAATGATTTGACTTATGAAGATTTACAAAAATTACCATCAGTCAATAACACTATTAAGGAAACTCTCAGAAT GCATATGCCATTACATTCTATTTTTAGAAAAGTTACTAACCCATTAAGAATCCCTGAAACCAATTATATTGTTCCAA AAGGTCATTATGTTTTAGTTTCTCCAGGTTATGCTCATACTAGTGAAAGATATTTTGATAACCCTGAAGATTTTGAT CCAACTAGATGGGATACTGCTGCTGCCAAAGCTAATTCTGTTTCATTTAACTCTTCTGATGAAGTTGATTATGGGTT TGGGAAAGTTTCTAAAGGGGTTTCTTCACCTTATTTACCATTTGGTGGTGGTAAACATAGATGTATTGGGGAACAAT TTGCTTATGTTCAATTAGGAACCATTTTAACTACTTTTGTTTATAATTTAAGATGGACTATTGATGGTTATAAAGTG CCTGACCCTGATTATAGTTCAATGGTGGTTTTACCTACTGAACCAGCAGAAATCATTTGGGAAAAAAGAGAAACTTG TATGTTTTAATAAAACGGCAACTTTCTTTCGATTCAGTGTTCTGATTGTTTTCATTTTGTTACTTAGTTGGATTAAC ATATATACACATATACATACAAATATATG
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>GU371850.1 India
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>GU371853.1 India
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>XM_711668.2 USA
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>KM875726.1 USA
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| Appe | Identification methods | acterization of Yeast Samples using Conventional |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S/N | Sample | Media Growth/ Yeast Microscopic Characterization (germ tube test) |
| 1 | HHVS-001 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 2 | HHVS-002 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 3 | HHVS-003 | Growth Absent (-VE) |
| 4 | HHVS-004 | -VE |
| 5 | HHVS-005 | -VE |
| 6 | HHVS-006 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 7 | HHVS-007 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 8 | HHVS-008 | -VE |
| 9 | HHVS-009 | -VE |
| 10 | HHVS-010 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 11 | HHVS-011 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 12 | HHVS-012 | -VE |
| 13 | HHVS-013 | -VE |
| 14 | HHVS-014 | -VE |
| 15 | HHVS-015 | -VE |
| 16 | HHVS-016 | -VE |
| 17 | HHVS-017 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 18 | HHVS-018 | -VE |
| 19 | HHVS-019 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 20 | HHVS-020 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 21 | HHVS-021 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 22 | HHVS-022 | -VE |
| 23 | HHVS-023 | -VE |
| 24 | HHVS-024 | -VE |
| 25 | HHVS-025 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 26 | HHVS-026 | -VE |
| 27 | HHVS-027 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 28 | HHVS-028 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 29 | HHVS-029 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 30 | HHVS-030 | -VE |
| 31 | HHVS-031 | -VE |
| 32 | HHVS-032 | -VE |
| 33 | HHVS-033 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 34 | HHVS-034 | -VE |
| 35 | HHVS-035 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 36 | HHVS-036 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 37 | HHVS-037 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 38 | HHVS-038 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 39 | HHVS-039 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 40 | HHVS-040 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |

## Appendix 2 Cont'd

| S/N | Sample | Media Growth/ Yeast Microscopic <br> Characterization (germ tube test) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 41 | HHVS-041 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 42 | HHVS-042 | -VE |
| 43 | HHVS-043 | -VE |
| 44 | HHVS-044 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 45 | HHVS-045 | -VE |
| 46 | HHVS-046 | -VE |
| 47 | HHVS-047 | -VE |
| 48 | HHVS-048 | -VE |
| 49 | HHVS-049 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 50 | HHVS-050 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 51 | HHVS-051 | -VE |
| 52 | HHVS-052 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 53 | HHVS-053 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 54 | HHVS-054 | -VE |
| 55 | HHVS-055 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 56 | HHVS-056 | -VE |
| 57 | HHVS-058 | -VE |
| 58 | DHVS-001 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 59 | DHVS-002 | -VE |
| 60 | DHVS-003 | -VE |
| 61 | DHVS-004 | -VE |
| 62 | DHVS-005 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 63 | DHVS-006 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |
| 64 | DHVS-007 | +VE (+ve to Germ tube test) |


[^0]:    Albicans $=13$, glabrata $=4$, kruse $=5$, tropicalis $=2$, others $=14$; Total $=38$ single isolates.

