A REVIEW OF THE GENUS CANDIDA

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I. INTRODUCTION

This review attempts to cover the literature on the genus Candida which has appeared since an earlier review (180) published 13 years ago. More literature on this genus has been published in the 13 years since 1947 than ever before. The increased interest in these yeastlike fungi has necessitated eliminating from consideration all papers dealing with the important medical aspects of Candida species. Over 500 papers had been examined (and the end was not in sight) when it was decided, early in the preparation of the review, that it would be better to cover the nonmedical aspects reasonably completely than to make a partial covering of the whole field.

In 1952 appeared a very important taxonomic treatise (88), "The Yeasts. A Taxonomic Study," by Lodder and Kreger-van Rij. This solid and indispensable work has, to a very considerable extent, supplemented the three earlier monographic treatises (35, 87, 182) of the Dutch School of zymologists. Actually this book is so well prepared and generally so scholarly in its detail that there is very real danger that scientists may consider it "the authority," and refuse to

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take issue with any of the taxonomic conclusions of the authors.

Wickerham (211) has more recently reviewed the literature concerned with yeast taxonomy, giving coverage to those reports appearing between 1948 and 1952. Included in this review, and indeed the basis for it, is the treatise by Lodder and Kreger-van Rij. Although published in the same year, the latter more effectively covers the literature to 1950. In 1958 an excellent text (33), "The Chemistry and Biology of Yeasts," edited by A. H. Cook, appeared. Here Lodder, Slooff, and Kreger-van Rij have taken the opportunity to extend somewhat but, for the most part, merely summarized their 1952 contribution.

II. NOMENCLATURE AND TAXONOMY

All steps but final approval have been taken to legalize the generic name Candida (164) as a nomen conservandum and this epithet is now almost universally accepted. Syringospora, the name having priority, is used by few writers (118). Quite properly the always incorrect name for yeastlike fungi, Monilia, is now almost universally reserved for only the imperfect stage of certain ascomycetous fungi. Unfortunately, Chemical Abstracts indexes these species of Monilia under Candida, a usage not sanctioned by any other usage, or indeed by any principles of taxonomy.

Although the nomenclature for Candida as a genus seems to be stabilized, the taxonomy is not. It is becoming more and more difficult to make a reasonable distinction between Candida on the one hand and Cryptococcus and Torulopsis (sensibus Lodder and Kreger-van Rij) on the other. Candida has a true or pseudomycelium (46), and the other two genera are supposed to lack the ability to form these structures in all media and under all conditions. Connell and Skinner (31) have shown that many cultures of anascosporogenous yeasts when first isolated were completely devoid of mycelium even in such mycelium-producing media as corn meal agar and beef peptone gelatin, but after a few years cultivation, and with frequent transfers, they became definitely mycelial. In other words, when first isolated they would have to be diagnosed as *Torulopsis* (or *Cryptococcus*), but after cultivation, as Candida. Also many of the cultures studied by Diddens and Lodder (35) previous to 1942 were not mycelial, and were diagnosed as Torulopsis, but these same cultures had to be diagnosed as Candida by Lodder and Kreger-van Rij (88) in 1952. This may be due partly to improved methods of study, but it may well also represent the tendency of many yeasts to become filamentous on continued cultivation (31). Moreover, it has been shown that certain isolated cultures of Torulopsis copulated with haploid cultures of definitely filamentous perfect yeasts and that ascospores were formed. In addition Wickerham and Burton (210, 212) have shown that isolates of *Candida chodati* and C . *guillier*mondii are heterothallic and that when certain of these strains are cultured together the perfect stage can be isolated. They further state that the cultures in various collections from all over the world are capable of producing ascospores when properly mated.

The tendency toward filamentation upon continued cultivation has resulted in transferring such well known species as Torulopsis pulcherrima and T. utilis to Candida. The writers do not agree with this taxonomy and, except for a few citations, will not include in this review papers which refer to these two species. It must be admitted that while we have never considered pseudomycelium a good taxonomic character for yeasts, we still have no suggestion for a better one. It would not be difficult to maintain the thesis that there is no reason other than convenience for the retention of Candida as a genus.

The following new species, listed with their sources, have been described since the Diddens

and Lodder (35) monograph. New combinations are not included. Some of these seem to be definitely different from species already recognized but, in the opinion of the writers, little is gained and much is lost in excessive splitting of species (6). Even the mild lumping tendency by Lodder and Kreger-van Rij (88), who recognize 30 species, might, with benefit, have been carried still further. Candida malicola: apples, Canada (29, 30). C. pseudotumoralis: causative agent of canine "blastomycosis," France (119). This chlamydospore-producing species is probably C. albicans or C. stellatoidea; it has not been properly described and must be considered a nomen nudum. C. silvicola: insects, U. S. A. (177). C. sorbosa: insects, Hawaii (62). C. solani: potato starch factory, the Netherlands (88). C. custerii: wine, Italy (51). C. castellanii: yogurt, Portugal (192). C. bovina: bovine caecum, Portugal (194), apparently closely related to the thermophilic yeast Tortulopsis pentolopesii. C. bovina differs from the latter by its larger cells, formation of pseudomycelium, habitat, and ability to grow at room temperature. Kreger-van Rij (78) considers C. bovina to be the imperfect stage of Saccharomyces tellustris and therefore questions calling it a new species. C. claussenii and C. melibiosi are new species made by the segregating of other species (88) . Wickerham and Burton (212) have challenged the formation of a new species for C . melibiosis, since they have subsequently shown it to be identical with C. guilliermondii, on the basis of assimilation and mating experiments.

Martin (109), in an excellent article, described two "strains" of Candida reukaufii which differ in certain rather fundamental physiological characteristics. Strain A characteristically produces a pseudomycelium, its growth on beer wort agar is slimy and shining, with a brown pigment, and it actively ferments glucose. Strain B produces little or no pseudomycelium, is cream colored, produces no slime, and shows only slight glucose fermentation.

Windisch (220) reports the formation of ascospores in Pseudomonilia (Candida) albomargenata (Geiger) under conditions similar to those reported by him for Candida pulcherrima. An excellent discussion of this original work and subsequent research can be found in the Lodder and Kreger-van Rij treatise (88) and the thesis of Van der Walt (195).

One important taxonomic change in the lump-

ing direction was made by Lodder and Kreger-van Rij. The genus Mycoderma has been discarded and all seven species have been relegated to one species, Candida mycoderma. This seems to be a good way to handle this troublesome but economically important group of organisms, all of which form a heavy pellicle on liquid media. It does involve some annoying points in nomenclature. The lumping might possibly have been extended to include the well-known pellicle-forming C. krusei. The differences between C. krusei and C. mycoderma seem to be the amount of fermentation of glucose and degree of filamentation. Mackinnon (98) suggested several years ago that he found it very difficult to differentiate C. krusei from species of Mycoderma, and Ansel and Gauthier (7) have put C. krusei in the genus Mycoderma. Probably neither of these suggestions to put all species in Mycoderma or in Candida as C. mycoderma will obtain immediate and general acceptance, but it is likely that all the filmforming imperfect yeasts will eventually be classified in the same genus, and possibly in the same species. Even the placing of all species of Mycoderma into the one species was not well received (202). And indeed it is evident that if Lodder and Kreger-van Rij had ignored biochemical differences in other species to the extent that they have within this group, the number of species of Candida would be far fewer than are now recognized.

Lodder and Kreger-van Rij have simplified the classification of the important lactose-fermenting yeasts. They have reduced Torulopsis kefyr to synonomy with the only lactose-fermenting species of *Candida*, *C. pseudotropicalis*, since pseudomycelium has been found in their culture after 31 years of cultivation, and have finally placed the important Torula cremoris in the same species. One might also regard C. pseudotropicalis as the filamentous form of Torulopsis sphaerica and both species as imperfect stages of Saccharomyces fragilis (63). All lactosefermenting species could be referred to one of these three species without undue lumping, in the reviewers' opinion.

Support of the taxonomy of Lodder and Kreger-van Rij is offered by the work of Jonsen et al. (72), who have succeeded in the isolation of strains of C. albicans, C. stellatoidea, and C. pseudotropicalis which are identical with the type strains of Lodder and Kreger-van Rij, culturally, morphologically, and serologically.

C. albicans and C. stellatoidea share many common antigens (agglutinogens) and unless hyperimmune sera are used they are indistinguishable. There is little sharing of antigens however between these strains and C. pseudotropicalis.

III. ECOLOGY OF CANDIDA

Since the 1947 review (180) a number of new habitats have been established for several species of Candida. Excellent original papers on the ecology of yeasts (18, 48, 92) and several reviews (93, 123) have given a partial covering of the past literature. It should be emphasized that the common assumption of so many medical writers that the genus Candida is found primarily associated with the animal body is justified by scant evidence. Even less justified is the assumption that all species of Candida are potentially pathogenic. Di Menna (113) has made an excellent comparative study of the nonpathogenic yeasts of human skin and the alimentary tract; her results parallel those of Connell and Skinner (32). Both investigations indicate that human skin surfaces are true habitats for certain yeasts, including Candida spp., and there seems to be a characteristic skin flora. Yeasts seem to live and multiply on the skin and to persist there for some time, and they appear to be as normal there as, for instance, Micrococcus or Staphylococcus spp. In the carefully performed study by di Menna (113), 120 strains of yeasts isolated from human skin and 388 from air and from room surfaces were compared. Like Connell and Skinner (32), she found a quantitative and qualitative difference in the flora, but to a lesser extent. She did not find, however, the high incidence of fermenting species or the low incidence of Rhodotorula spp. reported by Connell and Skinner.

The following new habitats for species of Candida have been recorded during the past 13 years. C. brumptii: soil, New Zealand (112, 114). C. guilliermondii: fruit processing plant, U. S. A. (159); shrimp, U. S. A. (149); soil, Denmark (92); insect, U. S. A. (150, 152) and Denmark (92). C. intermedia: insects, Hawaii (61) and U.S. A. (117) . C. krusei: flowers, mushrooms, dung, Denmark (92); home baked millet bread, Portugal (178); citrus fruit processing plant, U. S. A. (159); insects, U. S. A. (36); garlic bulb, Mexico (168); turbid beer, England (217) . C. lipolytica: soil, New Zealand (114) ; beer, Germany (222) and England (217); air, U. S. A. (32). C. mycoderma: tomato, fermenting coffee, Mexico (167, 169); dried egg yolk, Hungary (225); exudate from trees, dung, soil, Denmark (92); insects (25, 89, 152). C. mesenterica: mushrooms, dung, soil, Denmark (92); insects, U. S. A. (152). C. melibiosi: citrus fruit processing plant, U. S. A. (159). C. monosa: insects, Hawaii (61) ; olive infusion liquor, Italy $(28a)$, C. melinii: citrus processing plant, U. S. A. (159). C. parapsilosis: soil, Denmark (92), New Zealand (114); citrus fruit processing plant, U. S. A. (159); shrimp, U. S. A. (149); flowers, fruit, root crops, dung, mushrooms, exudates from trees, Denmark (92); insects, U. S. A. (25, 89, 152). C. macedoniensis: soil, New Zealand (114). C. pelliculosa: citrus fruit processing plant, U. S. A. (159). C. rugosa: insects, Hawaii (62). C. zeylanoides: insects, Italy (166); fruit, Denmark (92); air, U. S. A. (32). C. reukaufii: insects, Denmark (92). C. catenulata: insects, U. S. A. (36, 152). C. humicola: breeding place of fruit flies, U. S. A. (25, 151). C. mesenterica: insects, U. S. A. (150). C. bovina: bovine caecum, Portugal (194). C. albicans: sapropel from fresh water lakes, U. S. S. R. (115). References to species under the name Mycoderma spp. are not included (56).

 $C.$ albicans is the only species of the genus which is definitely pathogenic although there is evidence that certain ubiquitous species may very rarely be involved in pathological lesions. Although C. albicans is very common on the mucous membranes and in the feces (104) of a considerable percentage of healthy individuals, until recently it had been found only in habitats connected with the animal body. Now it has been isolated from 3 soils (2 of them stockyards) in New Zealand (112, 114), and one in this country (3). It has also been isolated from 5 different vegetable sources in Portugal (193). In all these investigations, C. albicans was adequately identified; in the last, by animal inoculation and in all the others, by demonstration of chlamydospores. It seems most likely that C. albicans when found in nonanimal habitats is a chance invader (112). Support to this thesis is the rarity of its isolation in all the above studies and in work of Nilsby and Nord6n (138), who failed to find it in 600 plates exposed to the air in the open and in homes in an area where it was common in the throats of the inhabitants, although very large numbers of many other species of the genus Candida were found. Further support is given to this viewpoint by the consistently negative results in similar experiments of hundreds of other workers. C. albicans is perhaps the easiest species of the genus to identify, and is the one that interests most workers. If it were present in nonanimal habitats in any abundance, it would have been found. Where it has been specifically sought in any habitat other than the animal body (where it is abundant) it has not been found, or found only very rarely indeed. Persons cited above who found C. albicans in nonanimal habitats seemed inclined to regard this organism as adventitious, which appears most likely.

Akiba and Iwata (5) have reported an interesting, almost unbelievable parasitism involving "Bacterium candidoestruens," a gram-negative rod similar to Serratia marcescens. This serratialike organism has been reported to invade the living cells of C. albicans and C. tropicalis as well as certain species of Saccharomyces, causing rupture of the yeast cells after 48 hr, with release of the "Bacterium." Since the latter organism produces a brilliant red pigment, individual yeast cells and colonies thus parasitized take on a red color. This interesting observation, to the knowledge of the reviewers, is the first reported parasitism of this type and must necessarily await confirmation from other laboratories. Virtanen (198) reports a symbiosis between Candida spp. (C. albicans and C. tropicalis) and Staphylococcus aureus and S. albus, where associated growth of the yeast and bacterium prolongs the viability of the latter. When grown in association with some strains of Lactobacillus bulgaricus, C. krusei will stimulate the production of lactic acid by the former, presumably as a result of the concomitant production of growth factors (183).

Several reports of a similar relationship involving C. albicans and oral lactobacilli have recently appeared. Young et al. (224b), as early as 1951, observed a rise in the incidence of C. albicans in the mouths of healthy young adults. Further, it was shown that 86 per cent of these Candida-positive mouths were also carriers of oral lactobacilli (224a). Studying a possible interaction of the two organisms, Young et al. (224a) demonstrated an inhibitory effect of an oral lactobacillus, similar to Lactobacillus acidophilus, on C. albicans when grown in mixed culture on media capable of supporting good growth of both organisms. These investigators concluded that it was ^a pH effect due to the

production of lactic acid. However, in vitamindeficient media in which single omissions of thiamine, folic acid, riboflavin, and niacin were made, growth of L. acidophilus occurred only in mixed cultures with C. albicans. Wilson and Goaz (218a) have also shown that young active cultures of C. albicans liberate sufficient B vitamins to meet the growth requirements of oral lactobacilli. Moreover, they show that growth of lactobacilli is proportional to the amount of thiamine, riboflavin, calcium pantothenate, and pyridoxamine liberated in such appropriately deficient media when cultured with C. albicans. With the exception of lysine there is no liberation of amino acids by young cultures of C . albicans. However, chemically defined, amino acid deficient media, preconditioned by 6 to 9 day growth of C. albicans, provide all amino acids required by an oral strain of Lactobacillus casei. Bio-assay by single omission techniques indicates liberation of the five essential amino acids, cysteine, glutamic acid, lysine, phenylalanine, and tryptophan. In addition, significant amounts of arginine, isoleucine, leucine, tyrosine, and valine were also liberated. Further, a reduction in the length of the initial stationary phase of growth of L. casei was induced in a mutually adequate medium when preconditioned by 3-day growth of C. albicans. A similar reduction could be affected by addition of an enzymatic digest of casein or saliva, suggesting the presence of a growth stimulating peptide (218b). These investigations suggest that in the normal mouth a counterbalance exists between these organisms, with C. albicans providing growth factors for the oral lactobacilli and the latter controlling the yeast population by lactic acid production (224b).

Browne $(19a)$ has found that C. albicans may play a role in the ecology of several human pathogens, including Corynebacterium diphtheriae and the β -hemolytic streptococci. Testing the survival of these organisms on cotton swabs dried at room temperature, it was found that neither a strain of the β -hemolytic streptococcus nor of C. diphtheriae survived more than a few days. When broth cultures of these organisms were each mixed with similar cultures of C. albicans and tested under identical conditions, C. diphtheriae and the β -hemolytic streptococci were recovered from swabs left at room temperature for periods of up to 10 weeks. No C. diphtheriae or β -hemolytic streptococci were recovered from

swabs prepared in the same manner when C. albicans was omitted from the mixture. Further, neither 2 per cent yeast extract nor heat-killed suspensions of C. albicans provided conditions for survival of C. diphtheriae over an extended period.

Interesting syntrophic relationships between C. albicans and Mycobacterium tuberculosis have been reported recently (101). Metabolic products of C , albicans appear to stimulate growth of M . tuberculosis. When grown in mixed culture on solid media rough (R) colonies of M . tuberculosis are observed around colonies of the yeast. Mankiewicz, Slackiewicz, and Liivak (102) more recently report on the nature of the growth factor produced by C. albicans. The growthpromoting substance has been demonstrated in the polysaccharide fraction of cell-free extracts of the yeast. In addition, this as yet unidentified substance, as well as the crude cell-free extract, have been reported to be capable of protecting M. tuberculosis against the inhibitory effects of streptomycin and isoniazide. The obvious importance of these observations with regard to the mechanism of antibiotic action has prompted continued research along these lines.

Mixed cultures of C. albicans and M. tuberculosis when cultured in selective dye-containing media such as that of Loewenstein, also show an interesting relationship. In such media the dye would normally be expected to inhibit growth of the yeast; however, Mankiewicz (101) observes that colonies of M. tuberculosis "metabolize" the dye, allowing growth of yeast colonies adjacent to those of M. tuberculosis. Whether the dye has been chemically altered through metabolism of M. tuberculosis or whether its toxicity is neutralized by a product of metabolism was not established. The latter mechanism, however, would appear more likely. Nevertheless, Mankiewicz (lOla) has taken advantage of these observations by the development of a cultural method for the clinical detection of M. tuberculosis.

Several reports of nitrogen fixation by yeasts were cited in the 1947 review (180). None of these has been subsequently confirmed. More recently, a possible symbiotic fixation of nitrogen by larvae of bark beetles, Ips amitanus, I. typographus, and I. chalcographus, has been reported by Peklo and Satava (143). Species of Torulopsis and Candida (unnamed) were isolated from the eggs and larvae, and speculation as to their possible relationship to the fixation of free nitrogen was presented.

IV. METHODS FOR STUDY OF CANDIDA

A. Isolation

The fact that *Candida* spp. are so easily isolated on acidified (pH 4.0 to 4.5) glucose agar, even from materials heavily contaminated with bacteria, has rendered new methods or new media all but useless and practically none has been reported. If, however, the worker is attempting to isolate pathogenic fungi (including Candida spp.) from animal sources a strongly acid medium is not recommended, since many pathogenic fungi are unable to grow in such media. In such cases nonacid ingredients to prevent growth of bacteria are necessary. Thompson (188) in 1945 proposed the use of penicillin and streptomycin to keep down the growth of most bacteria. Numerous modifications (often published without reference to Thompson's paper) have been described. Fleury's (50) and Littman's (83) modifications and the original Thompson medium were used by one of the present authors (C. E. S.) and found to be about equally good. The use of cycloheximide (52, 54) may be helpful in isolating Candida spp. from sources heavily contaminated with molds.

B. Identification

In the past 10 years antagonism on the part of scientists to the use of biochemical methods for identification of species of yeasts has all but disappeared and suggested improvements in these techniques have been numerous. Perhaps Wickerham's (208, 209) method for determination of availability of various sugars and other carbon compounds as sole sources of carbon and of nitrate as sole nitrogen source has been the greatest advance. This method is undoubtedly more accurate than auxanographic methods, but since the auxanographic method is known to work it is preferable because of its simplicity. Shifrine et al. (176) have described an improved technique for the determination of the carbon assimilation patterns of yeasts by use of the replica plate. This method facilitates the simultaneous testing of a large number of yeasts (up to 25 per plate) for their ability to utilize a single carbon compound. Nickerson's (126) suggestion for substitution of tests for nitrate reduction to replace those for nitrate assimilation has not yet been adequately studied and it offers interesting possibilities.

In the authors' opinion, research on better routine tests for carbohydrate fermentation is in order. Lodder and Kreger-van Rij (88) often diagnose species of yeasts or even genera on fermentation of this or that sugar and put organisms showing no, or slight, fermentation in other taxa. Then too; species described by some workers as nonfermentative were found more then once by the present senior author to produce definite though weak evidence of fermentation by the formation of a few bubbles of $CO₂$ anaerobically. It seems reasonable that the difference between no fermentative power and some fermentative power is fundamental, but qualitative differences between degrees of fermentation are likely to be of trivial importance in a natural system and to represent only strain differences.

Most certainly the methods currently used are primitive. At best the Einhorn tube is a crude instrument for demonstration of alcohol fermentation. The Durham tube is also crude, but less so (17). The demonstration of acid production from a disaccharide by a yeast capable of fermenting either of the monosaccharides forming the disaccharide is, at the very least, an indication that the yeast might be expected to ferment the disaccharide under proper conditions. If the enzyme which hydrolyzes the disaccharide is produced so slowly that the carbon dioxide produced in alcoholic fermentation is absorbed by the culture liquid and diffused into the atmosphere, the diagnosis will be "no fermentation." Greater concentration of the disaccharide, covering the medium in the tube with paraffin wax after growth has started, or frequent transfer from one culture to another will often demonstrate that the yeast is indeed capable of anaerobic production of carbon dioxide from the disaccharide.

The statement in the previous review (180) that the author could always reproduce his fermentation results must be retracted. Frequently species of Candida which produced no gaseous fermentation of a disaccharide, but did produce acid, can be induced to give evidence of ^a slight gaseous fermentation. We are convinced that improvements in methods for demonstrating fermentation by yeasts are overdue. If Stelling-Dekker's (182) use of fermentative powers in yeast taxonomy is correct-and it seems to be methods which will clearly differentiate fermentation from nonfermentation would appear to be absolutely necessary for separation of species. Our present methods do not always do this. Some technical improvements have been described recently; these include "the Winge fermentometer" (223), the syringe gasometer of Baird et al. (12), the microfermentation test described by Morris (121), and the improved fermentation tube of Morris and Kirsop (120) and Lindegren (82).

It is to be hoped that in the next 13 years greater improvements in methods of studying fermentation will be made. Perhaps the problem should be taken up by other physiologists who have an interest in yeasts. The papers of Kluyver and Custers (75a), van Niel and Cohen (137), and of Bouthilet et al. (17) should certainly be considered. If the alcoholic fermentation is used as a taxonomic criterion, efforts should be made to find methods that can be depended upon to demonstrate this type of metabolic activity-or the lack of it.

There is one species of *Candida*, namely C. albicans, whose isolation and diagnosis is routinely made in a large number of medical diagnostic laboratories. The most satisfactory method has been to streak and scratch suspected yeast isolates on and into corn (Zea) meal (13) or potato (Solanum) agar plates. The development of a few strands of mycelium with blastospores and with typical terminal chlamydospores is diagnostic for C. albicans or a closely related variety or species, *i.e.*, *C.* stellatoidea. Another satisfactory method is animal inoculation. Several modifications, some of them improvements, have been made. Rice (Oryza) infusion agar (185) was found easier to prepare than corn meal agar. Gordon et al. (58) found yellow corn meal better than the white or dehydrated types. Zein infusion agar (160) was easier to prepare and in the writers' experience produces more chlamydospores than corn meal agar. A soil infusion agar (14) is also an improvement. Regardless of the improvements in techniques, difficulty in the methods of detection of mycelium are reported. Zenitani (227) reports only limited success with stab cultures in rice bran extract agar, potato extract agar, and carrot extract agar. He points out, however, that the adhesion culture technique is best from a practical point of view but that it is unsuitable because of the variability of results.

The most satisfactory of all the newer media in our hands is the polysaccharide medium of Nickerson and Manokowski (132). Even old laboratory strains which had to be revived on blood agar for several transfers before producing chlamydospores in corn meal agar, produced them in large numbers upon the first inoculation in Nickerson's medium. The dehydrated commercial product seems satisfactory. More rapid and almost as productive of chlamydospores, is a buffered alkaline agar without nutrients (85) incubated for 24 hr or less under a cover slip on a slide. Kligman (75) and Wickerham (208) used, instead of scratch agar plates, the Dolmau technique, where a sterile cover slip is pressed on a surface streak on a Petri plate. All gradations between complete aerobiosis and complete anaerobiosis will be found. This method is an improvement over scratch agar plates and makes the mycelium or chlamydospores easier to find. Other methods of identifying C. albicans, applicable in hospital diagnosis, have been described (26, 205, 206). That these methods will be found as satisfactory as previous cultural methods is questionable. Although Lodder et al. (33) consider serological tests unsatisfactory as a means of differentiating species, the use of new techniques has allowed a serological differentiation of two very closely related species, C. albicans and C. stellatoidea (72). Agglutination tests would therefore appear to be reliable in the detection of C. albicans (27), although it is possible by cross agglutination and agglutinin absorption techniques to demonstrate a group antigen common to C. albicans, Saccharomyces cerevisia and Hansenula anomola (158). C. albicans can, however, be readily identified by species-specific agglutinins. Vogel (199) also reports a common antigen between S. cerevisiae and C. albicans and, in addition, demonstrates the presence of many common cellular polysaccharides.

C. Preservation of Cultures

For a more complete summary of this topic, the reader is referred to the discussion by Morris (122) on the preservation of yeast cultures. Yeast cultures, including *Candida* spp., can be preserved by many methods including stab and liquid cultures contained in tightly sealed tubes or bottles and stored at between ¹ to 4 C. Liquid cultures are recommended (122) since fewer spores are formed and therefore the likelihood of change in the culture due to segregation of characters is reduced.

Cultures of Candida spp., including C. albicans,

C. guilliermondii, C. parapsilosis, C. stellatoidea, and C. tropicalis, can be preserved for many months when covered with mineral oil and left at room temperature. Viability of some cultures, which do not survive cold storage, can be maintained by this method (4). A few investigators, including Fennell et al. (49) and Wickerham and Andreason (207), recommend lyophilization as the method of choice for preservation of certain fungi and yeast, especially C. albicans. There have been few reports of physiological changes in yeast preserved by lyophilization (10, 74) and of low viability after storage. As pointed out by Morris (122), there is an unfortunate dearth of information on the use of this technique.

V. PHYSIOLOGY

A. Metabolic Products and Nutrition

The writer of the 1947 review (180) could find only a few references to biochemical studies on Candida. Today the problem is mainly which papers to cite. Diddens and Lodder (35) made rather thorough studies on the ability of various species of Candida to utilize a few selected carbohydrates. Wickerham (208, 209) has greatly expanded these tests and has studied a larger number of additional carbohydrates, organic acids and alcohols as to their ability to serve as sole carbon sources. Connell and Skinner (31), utilizing this method, could not find any advantage to the use of these compounds as a tool for taxonomy, as far as nonfermenting species were concerned. Indeed Thj6tta and Torheim (187) indicated that acid rather than gas production might be used as a taxonomic factor. In light of van Niel and Cohen's findings (137), it may be more meaningful to determine whether the organism produces acid from a certain carbohydrate than to determine whether it produces sufficient gas to appear in a gas trap.

Most of the studies on the ability of Candida spp. to utilize carbon compounds have been in relation to the possible use of species, especially C. arborea (2, 23, 24, 57, 65, 66, 71, 79-81, 140, 142, 148, 179, 189, 191, 219, 226), as food or fodder yeasts. Particular interest has been shown in the possible utilization of naturally occurring sugars, especially pentoses, by this species. Although several species of Candida will utilize pentoses, Windisch (219) suggests the use of C. tropicalis for the production of fodder yeast from wood product fermentations. Furthermore

he shows that pentose-utilizing species assimilate xylose by preference and that only xyloseassimilating species will assimilate arabinose or rhamnose. The availability of various nitrogen compounds has also been studied (23, 65, 173), as well as the effect on growth and metabolism of various growth-promoting substances (34, 37- 41, 45, 65, 97, 147, 172, 197).

As to products of metabolism, most of the studies have been incidental to studies on applications. There have been many studies on vitamin production by species of Candida, most of them by fodder yeast, especially C. arborea (1, 80) and C. guilliermondii (86, 184), although C. albicans produces as much as 42.6μ g folic acid per gram of cells under certain conditions (110). An excellent review by Pridham (155) on the microbial synthesis of riboflavin appeared in 1952. His very complete report covers most of the industrial or potentially industrial processes involving Candida spp. up to that date. Eddy (44) has summarized vitamin production by yeast, including species of Candida, in his review of 1958. Pyke in the same publication (156) has reviewed much of the information regarding the industrial use of Candida species in his general discussion of the technology of yeast. Excellent and more complete reviews of food yeasts, including the use of C. arborea and C. tropicalis, have been published by Dunn (42, 43), Irvin (67), and Wiley (218). Since these reviews, a revision of a standard text dealing with industrial yeast fermentations has appeared (154). This most recent edition of Prescott and Dunn's Industrial Microbiology reviews yeast technology, but it is more valuable as a source of patent information.

It is worthy of note that species of *Candida* are now considered among the most important technological yeasts. In fact, Windisch (221) lists Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Torulopsis (Candida) utilis, and Candida tropicalis as the most important industrial fermenters.

The manufacture of fodder yeast from waste sulfite liquor using C . tropical is has been described by Yamaguchi et al. (224) . Windisch (219) suggests the use of C. pseudotropicalis in the fermentation of whey. Preliminary attempts to increase the food value of whey by yeast fermentation indicate that C. krusei is not as satisfactory as other yeasts, including Torulopsis cremoris (60). This is understandable since C. krusei does not utilize lactose whereas T. cremoris, which, according to Lodder and Kreger-van Rij (88), is identical with C. pseudotropicalis, is the only lactose-fermenting species of Candida. With a view to the possible use of C. lipolytica for yeast extract production, Joslyn and Vosti (73) have studied autolysis in this species.

Information regarding the esterase activity of several species of *Candida*, especially *C. lipolutica*, has been published in recent years (124, 141, 144-147, 153, 213). Parmalee and Nelson (141) and Peters and Nelson (146) report the use of C. lipolytica in the manufacture of blue cheese from pasteurized milk. Their results show that cultures of C. lipolytica improve flavor and increase volatile acid concentration. The 11 "strains" used varied both in flavor improvement and volatile acid production. There was no flavor improvement, however, with all lipolytic bacteria tested. Peters and Nelson (144, 146, 147) have extensively studied those nutritional and environmental growth factors which influence lipase production by Mycotorula lipolytica (C. lipolytica). In general, those environmental factors which favor the development of short cells and therefore result in rapid growth reduce the lipase activity. Lipase production in a defined synthetic medium is dependent upon the presence of thiamine or pyridoxamine, either of which satisfy the requirement. Biotin, pantothenate, or thiazole will not replace either thiamine or pyridoxamine. Wilcox et al. (213), studying the selective release of volatile acids from butterfat by microbial lipase, found that the lipase of C. lipolytica was not limited to the selective release of certain volatile acids, but that several fatty acids, including butyric, caproic, and caprylic acids, were released.

Several species of Candida are capable of producing relatively large amounts of fat. The most productive of these are C. pulcherrima, C. utilis, and C. reukaufii (154). Good yields of fat have been obtained from sucrose or xylose by fermentation with $C.$ reukaufii (162). An oil similar to olive oil is synthesized in abundance under cultural conditions of abundant vitamins, especially biotin, low nitrogen, intensive aeration, and at a pH above 4.5 to 5.0. Fat synthesis follows protein formation and if the amount of protein formed is low, fat synthesis is increased. An interesting change in morphology is described (162) with intensive aeration: cross walls in the mycelium fail to form and elongated structures

described as "shoot" cells are formed instead. Steiner and Heinemann (181) have reported further on the formation of fat in this species.

Several of the species of Candida tested have been shown to produce sterols. The yield of sterol varies with the species and the medium in which it is grown. Typical yields reported by Appleton $et \ al.$ (8) are, $C.$ krusei, 0.3 per cent, and $C.$ parapsilosis, 0.06 per cent, respectively. Sterols were not produced by C . albicans or C . tropicalis. Saccharomyces spp. appear to be the largest group of sterol-producing yeasts with yields as high as 9 per cent in some species. Eddy (44) points out that the so-called "fat" yeasts contain no more sterol than those that produce normal amounts of fat.

Salt-tolerant species of Candida have been reported in Japan in "Unishiokara," a Japanese fishery fermentation product (190, 227).

An excellent series of reports on the occurrence of Candida spp. as contaminants of English breweries and brewing yeasts have been published by Wiles and associates (214-217). Species encountered included C. lipolytica, C. krusei, C. guilliermondii, C. pelliculosa, and C. mycoderma. Various Candida and Brettanomyces species cause turbidity in English top fermented beer (214). C. pelliculosa is responsible for fruity flavors and C. krusei as well as Brettanomyces species give strong yeasty odors (216). Thirteen of sixteen film-forming yeasts isolated as contaminants of brewery yeasts were found to be C. mycoderma (Reess) Lodder and Kreger-van Rij (202, 215, 217). The ability of these cultures to use 35 different carbon sources was studied and of these succinic acid, mannitol, and sorbitol were found taxonomically useful in the identification of film-forming yeasts. Certain metabolic aspects of $Mycoderma$ (Candida), specifically the relationship of thiamine concentration to the formation of alcohol, had been previously studied by Walker and Ramatchandran (201). Off flavors and odors in German beer caused by C. krusei and C. mycoderma have been reported (222). C. rugosa has also been reported to be among those yeasts which cause clouding of dry white wines in California (170). According to Teunisson (186) C. krusei and C. tropicalis are among those yeasts important in spoilage of rice stored in a sealed bin.

Messineva and Skadooskii (115) have described a fermentation of fresh water lake sediment by

yeasts, including C. albicans. Compounds isolated from salt water plants are also utilized by Candida species (189). Morris (122) has demonstrated that C. krusei and C. solani adaptively utilize the sea weed constituents fucoidin, fueose, laminarin, and sodium alginate.

The ability of *Candida* and other yeasts to hydrolyze pectin has been studied by Luh and Phaff (90). Of all yeasts tested only Saccharomyces fragilis and its imperfect form, Candida pseudotropicalis, produce an extracellular, nonadaptive polygalacturonase, free from pectin esterase. The polygalacturonase has optimal temperature and pH of ⁵⁵ to ⁶⁰ C and 3.5 to 4.0, respectively. Lukes and Phaff (91) report the best source of the enzyme, trehalase, is $C.$ tropicalis, although it is produced as an adaptive enzyme. Methods of purification and the kinetics of the enzyme are discussed. Those characteristics reported are optimal temperature and pH, which are 48 C and 4.1 to 5.3, respectively.

Although extensive studies on amylase production by Endomycopsis, especially E. fibuliger, have been conducted (105-108), there has not appeared an authenticated report of amylase production by Candida spp. (84). Furthermore, the production of starch does not appear to be a common physiological trait of Candida spp.; of those tested only C. humicola is capable of starch synthesis according to Aschner and Curry (9).

There has been little biochemical study of Candida spp., except for C. albicans, aside from investigations concerned directly with applications to technology, taxonomy, and identification. A few such reports have recently been made but no attempt will be made to give complete coverage to those purely biochemical aspects of the genus. In this regard Bruchmann (20) has demonstrated the presence of aldolase, carboxylase, and glucose dehydrase in C. reukaufii. C. albicans contains an active cystinase (165). Bruyn (22) reportedly shows the first example of the biological oxidation of an unsaturated compound $(R-CH=CH₂)$ giving rise to the corresponding glycol (R-CHOHCH₂OH), using C. lipolytica and with $l(-)$ hexadecene-1 as the substrate.

Use of species of Candida for determining the extent of hydrolysis of various polysaccharides is of interest. Applications of differential fermentation tests have been described by several workers including Meyer and Gonon (116). By using C . monosa and C. chodati, which ferment only glucose and glucose and maltose, respectively, the extent of potato amylose degradation can be quantitatively determined. Auernheimer et al. (11) have taken advantage of the ability of C. guilliermondii (NRRL No. 488) to selectively ferment d-xylose and l-arabinose in their quantitative determination of hemicellulose constituents. C. lypolytica is also used since it ferments only d-xylose and not l-arabinose.

An interesting report (16) shows the significant uptake of the rare earth, lanthanum, by a yeast which appears to be a species of *Candida*. The physiological function, if any, is unknown.

Physical factors, especially pH, have been studied by several investigators. The range of pH over which C. albicans will grow has always been of interest because of this organism's pathogenic ability. In respect to pH it acts more like the saprophytic yeasts and molds. Although it was reported in the 1947 review (180) that the optimal pH was 7, recent reports indicate that best growth is obtained between 5.1 and 6.4, although varying degrees of growth do occur between pH 2.2 and 9.6 (70). Dilute solutions of boric acid have been shown to inhibit growth of Candida species (77). The effect varies among the species, C. robusta being more resistant than C. albicans, C. tropicalis, C. krusei, and C. rugosa. Christophersen and Precht (28) have studied the effect of incubation temperature on cell size of Torulopsis kefyr (Candida pseudotropicalis). Oxygen tolerance, and the effects of temperature and relative humidity on growth of C. pseudotropicalis have been studied by Bottomley et al. (15) in relation to mold growth in stored corn. These results show that growth of C. pseudotropicalis ceases in corn stored at a relative humidity of 80 per cent and all oxygen concentrations tested (0.1 to 21 per cent), suggesting a marked lack of tolerance to low oxygen tensions.

Gormsem (59) has reported an interesting physiological aspect of C. albicans; namely, production post mortem of ethyl alcohol. A blood alcohol content of 0.02 per cent was found post mortem, but ethyl alcohol of a pleural exudate was at a level 10-fold greater (0.23 per cent), due to fermentation by C. albicans.

Thiaminase activity has been reported in C. albicans and certain other fungi, but not in others including *Cryptococcus* neoformans (68). There appears to be an equilibrium established between synthesis and inactivation of thiamine in those thiamine-producing species. The possible relationship between certain nutritional conditions and the presence of C. albicans in the intestinal tract of man and animals is noteworthy. This would seem to be a fruitful area of investigation in view of the numerous reports of C. albicans in the intestine of man and many other animals (112, 113, 180).

B. Cytology

The chemical composition of the cell wall of bacteria, fungi, and yeasts has been extensively studied in the past few years. These results show that in bacteria and certain fungi, differences in chemical composition, especially amino acids and carbohydrates, of the cell wall are important taxonomic aids. Although most of the studies on yeasts have been done with Saccharomyces spp. (139) there have been a few reports dealing with *Candida* spp, especially *C. albicans* (47). The cell wall of most yeasts appears to be composed of at least one or more of the following carbohydrates: mannan, chitin, and yeast glucan. All species of Candida studied contain all three of these compounds (64, 76, 163).

Scherr and Weaver (171) and Morris (122) and more recently Ward (203) and Falcone and Nickerson (47) have reviewed those factors influencing formation of pseudomycelia in yeasts with some emphasis on *Candida*. The most extensive investigations concerned with dimorphism have been conducted by Nickerson and associates. Of those papers by Nickerson appearing since the last review several are important in this respect (69, 127-131, 133-136). On the basis of the evidence presented in these reports, summarized by Morris (122) and Ward (203) and by Falcone and Nickerson (47), pseudomycelium production results from an impaired cell division mechanism resulting from an apparent breakdown of intracellular sulfhydryl maintenance. Nickerson has found all other physiological properties studied essentially unchanged in the filamentous form. George and Plunkett (55) also report that dissociated rough cultures are not altered in their fermentation patterns but that one out of ten lost the ability to form chlamydospores. In contrast, Ranque and Depieds (157) report that the transformation from the yeast phase to filamentation is accompanied

by definite biochemical changes. Using C. albicans, they determined that galactose fermentaton is the most labile characteristic and that fructose and maltose may not be fermented by the rough form. Glucose fermentation however remains constant. Further they conclude that rough variants of C. albicans cannot be depended upon to yield reliable physiological characteristics and urge that only recent isolates be used in taxonomic studies. The results of Luterann and Langeron (95) concerned with pellicle formation in film-forming yeast are similar to those reported by Nickerson.

Speculation as to the physiological function of pseudomycelium formation continues. Magni (100) suggests that filamentation facilitates absorption of dilute essential nutrients. It appears, however, that pseudomycelium formation is a result of the nutritional environment, and that it is associated more with the presence or absence of certain nutritional factors rather than with their concentration. McClary (96) has shown that hyphal development requires the presence of certain assimilable growth factors including potassium, phosphate, and biotin and that it is not dependent upon the presence of fermentable carbohydrate. Glucose prevents filamentation and, in fact, the absence of glucose and cysteine form the nutritional basis of Nickerson's excellent polysaccharide medium for the production of pseudomycelium and chlamydospores (132). Seeliger (174) has described a semisolid medium containing Tween-80 for obtaining rapid filamentation of C. albicans.

Mitochondria can be readily demonstrated in the cytoplasm of mycelial cells of C. albicans and, in fact, they can be demonstrated by staining techniques (triphenyltetrazolium chloride) even in desiccated cells more than a month old (175).

C. Antibiosis

Even partial coverage of the antibiotic literature in relation to Candida spp., especially C. albicans, is beyond the scope and intent of this review. There are, however, a few reports of general interest which we feel should be included (19, 21, 103, 125). It is noteworthy that intestinal, oral, and vaginal moniliasis seem to be on the increase. Several antibiotics have the effect of eliminating most of the bacteria from the intestine, mouth, or the vagina. C. albicans is not generally affected by these antibiotics. It grows in these habitats as a natural and harmless parasite, but not in large numbers under most conditions. Occasionally conditions, for the most part unknown, arise where numbers may become sufficient to cause a condition of moniliasis. Without competition C. albicans may multiply rapidly enough to cause vaginal, oral, or intestinal moniliasis. With cessation of the antibiotic treatment, the flora of these habitats becomes balanced again and the symptoms usually disappear. This represents another example of unexpected results following a disturbance of the balance of nature. Di Menna (111) in 1952 reported on the effect of antibiotics in vivo on dissociation of C. albicans. She has demonstrated repeatedly the presence of a rough variant of C. albicans in the yeast flora of patients treated with antibiotics. More recently Reiersol (161) has shown, by mycological examination of the stools of patients before and after treatment with Bacitracin and Neomycin, that there is an increased yeast population of the intestine during antibiotic therapy. Further, the report shows that the stools from 18 of 20 patients examined contained yeasts, whereas only 37 per cent revealed a yeast flora prior to treatment. Most of the yeasts found were *Candida* species, including C. parapsilosis, C. albicans, C. mycoderma, C. krusei, and C. tropicalis.

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