GLUCOSE-6-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE ISOENZYMES

AMONG FIVE SPECIES OF CANDIDA

by

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ABSTRACT

GLUCOSE-6-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE ISOENZYMES AMONG FIVE SPECIES OF CANDIDA

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Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was performed with subsequent chemical staining to elucidate isoenzymes of the common enzyme glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase in five species of <u>Candida</u>. Band differences and scanning densitometric patterns demonstrated reproducible isoenzyme patterns within individual species and variances in patterns among different species. These findings suggest that this characteristic in combination with other morphological and physiological characteristics may be of value in the systematics of the taxonomy among these species.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The genus Candida is most often classified as a yeast. The term yeast has no taxonomic significance and is simply a morphologic form of a fungus. Due to the lack of a perfect form in this genus, it is considered a Deuteromycetes or Fungi Imperfecti (Rippon, 1982).

Morphological investigations are of less importance than physiologicial characteristics in identification of these organisms. Physiological traits which have been emphasized for identification and classification include carbohydrate fermentation and assimilation, nitrogen utilization and production of enzymes (Rippon, 1982).

Although at least 200 species of yeast have been described and probably thousands exist, only a few species have been associated with the production of disease in man. Within these medically important species, frequently, however, the same yeasts are described as new species because of their propensity to infect many different body areas. In order to prevent these misidentifications of clinical isolates, better methods of identification and taxonomy need to be developed (Rippon, 1982).

The concept of species is difficult to apply to asporogenous (imperfect) yeast due to their lack of

natural crossing, however, recent studies have attempted to relate and identify species as well as strains by new methods. (Shepherd, 1985).

The biology of <u>C. albicans</u> shows many similarities to the saprophytic ascosporogenous yeasts such as <u>Saccharomyces cervisiae</u> (Shepherd, 1985). Since a common generic name does not necessarily imply descent from a common ancestor, it is probable that the genus <u>Candida</u> may include a number of species that are imperfect forms of Ascomycetes. As examples, <u>C. pseudotropicalis</u> is possibly related to <u>Kluyveromyces fragilis</u> and <u>C. guilliermondii</u> is probably related to <u>Pichia guilliermondii</u>. This is supported by the fact that there is no coherent relationship in the molecular biology within the species (Riggsby, 1985) (Shepherd, 1985).

Despite the medical importance of yeasts, particularily <u>Candida</u> species, few investigators have studied them biochemically (Montes and Wilborn, 1985) (Shepherd, 1985). Areas which have been recently investigated in order to better classify yeast, emphasize their natural relationships to perfect genera and include cell wall analysis of monosaccharides, DNA homology and immunoelectrophoretic studies of cell antigens (Montrocher and Claisse, 1984) (Riggsby, 1985).

DNA studies have shown homology between <u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u> and <u>Candida</u> stellatoidea with little relationship

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to other species. DNA reassociation studies have established and confirmed perfect forms of several <u>Candida</u> species (Riggsby, 1985).

Antigenically, <u>C.albicans</u>, <u>C. stellatoidea</u> and <u>C. tropicalis</u> show 85-100% similarity while <u>C. parapsilosis</u> and <u>C. guilliermondii</u> show 50-70% similarity and <u>C. krusei</u> shows only 30% similarity (Riggsby, 1985). <u>C. guilliermondii</u> and C. krusei show very distinct antigenic uniqueness according to the current literature (Lyon and Domer, 1985).

Cell wall analysis of levels of monosaccharides, mannose and glucose, reveal the general trend of decreasing similarity in the following order: <u>C. albicans</u>, <u>C. stella-</u> <u>toidea</u>, <u>C. tropicalis</u>, <u>C. parapsilosis</u>, <u>C. guilliermondii</u> and <u>C. krusei</u> (Lyon and Domer, 1985).

DNA homology studies, however, do not always support these relationships. <u>C. albicans</u> and <u>C. tropicalis</u>, which show high antigenic correlations and many physiological similarities, have a low DNA homology (Riggsby, 1985).

The more frequently studied biochemical characteristics, such as production of enzymes, are receiving renewed attention. Current literature provides data and support for the existence of multimolecular forms of various dehydrogenase enzymes of C. albicans and the spectra of these isoenzymes are well defined for each growth phase (Tinsberg Suleinanov and Olifson, 1980).

It has been shown that the most complex isoenzyme spectrum of the dehydrogenases occurs in the logarithmic

growth phase (48 hrs) and that the enzyme glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase has the greatest number of zones of activity since, at log phase, within a growing population of cells, the hexose monophosphate pathway predominates. At log phase, G-6-PDH shows seven zones of activity for <u>C. albicans</u> (Tinsberg, Suleinanov and Olifson, 1980). Earlier studies have identified only two dimers of G-6-PDH (Kato, Sahm, Schuette and Wagner, 1979).

It has also been reported that electrophoretic relative mobilities of G-6-PDH and MDH vary between related species and even strains. Species of <u>Debaryomyces</u> are distinguishable by their electrophoretic patterns of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase and malate dehydrogenase (Nakase and Suzuki, 1985).

The levels of G-6-PDH do not appear to reflect activity alterations based on nitrogen sources supplied, while carbon source variations may affect the levels (Hirai, Shiotani, Tanaka and Fukui, 1976). This seems reasonable in light of the role of G-6-PDH in metabolic pathways concerned with an increase in cellular membranes and conversion of carbon (as carbohydrates) to lipids (Evans and Ratledge, 1983). Not only does the concentration of G-6-PDH increase as the growth curve progresses, but the number of isoenzymes also increases (Evans and Ratledge, 1983) (Tinsberg, Suleinanov and Olifson, 1980). Again this is reasonable due to an increased rate of metabo-

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lism at peak replication times.

As indicated, the enzyme G-6-PDH is involved in the hexose monophosphate shunt and the pathway begins with the oxidation of glucose-6-phosphate to 6-phosphogluconate by glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, a NADP+ linked enzyme. The process ends with production of CO_2 and reduction of NADP+ to NADPH (Dyson, 1979).

The reaction appears as below (Dyson, 1979);

$G-6-P + 12NADP + +7H_2O \longrightarrow 6CO_2 + 12NADPH + 12 H + P_1$ G-6-PDH

The primary purpose of this pathway is to generate NADPH which is used for lipid (fatty acid and steroid) synthesis, to maintain membrane components in their reduced state and presumably to provide additional reducing power for mitochondrial electron transport. An additional function of the pathway is to provide pentoses for DNA replication (Dyson, 1979) (Hirai, Shiotani, Tanaka and Fukui, 1976).

The purpose of this study is to demonstrate the isoenzyme patterns of G-6-PDH in five species of <u>Candida</u>. The existence of different isoenzyme patterns might be useful for identification purposes, as an adjunct to taxonomic placement and expanding the enzymology of this group.

CHAPTER II

Materials and Methods

Organisms

Five clinically significant species of <u>Candida</u> were used in the isoenzyme separation of G-6-PDH. Subcultures were made of each species on Sabouroud's dextrose agar (Emmon's modification) from stock cultures. After forty-eight hours, species identification was made by API 20C methodology (Ayerst Laboratories, 1982). See Figure 1 for API 20C procedure.

Each species was again subcultured and grown to a standard forty-eight hour growth phase at a constant temperature of 30°C, + 5°C.

Approximately ten colonies of each species were then emulsified in individual 2 ml aliquots of .05M phosphate buffer, pH 7.5. In order to obtain cell lysis sufficient for enzyme analysis, each emulsion was transferred to a mortar containing sterile sand. Yeast emulsion was then ground with a pestle for two minutes and checked microscopically for lysis. If lysis was not sufficient (greater than 50% of the cells), grinding was repeated.

When all samples were adequately lysed, they were centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for ten minutes at 4^oC. The supernatant served as the source of G-6-PDH enzyme.

Electrophoresis

Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was performed on each species in two separate trials to identify isoenzyme bands.

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The medium used was a 7% gel containing 3.41 grams gel, .092 grams BIS, 15 *A*l Temed crosslinker, 49 ml gel buffer and .5 ml ammonium persulfate. Gel buffer was a .37M Tris-HCL, pH 8.9. The tank buffer contained .005M Tris-glycine buffer, pH 8.3.

For each run, six gels were placed in the buffer filled tank and equilibrated at 2 mv/gel for 15 minutes.

Samples were mixed in porcelain plate wells. Twenty drops of each species sample aliquot were mixed with a drop of bromphenol blue and .5M sucrose. A glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase control from <u>Saccharo-</u> <u>myces cervisiae</u> (Sigma Chemical Co.) was reconstituted with buffer and treated the same as the Candida samples.

Once loaded onto the gels, the voltage was set at 12 mv/gel to initiate the run and tighten the bands. Voltage was then increased to 24 mv/gel to complete phoresis. Time of phoresis varied slightly between runs but was always less than one hour.

All sample preparation, loading and phoresis was conducted at $0^{\circ}C$.

Staining

Sixty ml of gel buffer with 150 mg D-glucose-6-

phosphate, 30 mg MTT, 30 mg β -TPN and 20 mg PMS were mixed for the staining process (Beutler and Morrison, 1968) (Shaw and Barto, 1965). Gels were removed from tubes with water, placed into test tubes containing the reaction mixture and incubated at 37°C for ten minutes. Gels were then fixed in a 7% glacial acetic acid, 7% absolute methanol fixative.

Scanning

Gels were analyzed on a Varian Scanning Densitometer. Each gel was placed in a cuvette and scanned at a speed of 5 cm/min with a wavelength of 628 m μ , slit of 0.4.

CHAPTER III

Results

Organism Identification

Table I shows API 20C results on the yeast isolates. The Analytical Profile Index 20C method allows identification of yeast based on biochemical assimilation. Wells on the API 20C incubation tray are inoculated with a suspension of the organism in question. After 72 hours incubation, all wells are compared with a positive and a negative growth well and the turbidity (growth) recorded (Ayerst Laboratories, Inc., 1982).

Assimilation patterns are compared to a computerized data base derived from type and neotype cultures and strains from various collections. Assimilations are compared to expected assimilations for a given organism. The degree of correlation provides assurance of correctness of identification (Ayerst Laboratories, Inc., 1982).

Table I outlines the assimilation patterns obtained and the degree of correlation. Excellent identification is seen with <u>C. albicans</u>, <u>C. parapsilosis</u> and <u>C. tropicalis</u> and indicates that the pattern obtained has a high frequency of occurrence for that organism. The patterns of <u>C. guillier</u>-<u>mondii</u> and C. krusei offer good likelihood with stated fre-

quencies.

PAGE Reaction

The staining results of the runs are seen in Fig. 14 as diagrams of the actual gels. This was done in order to facilitate visualization of the bands. Stain intensities differ and are consistent with varying enzyme activity.

Scan

Figures 2 through 13 show densitometric scans of the control and five species of <u>Candida</u>. A diagram of the bands is included below each graph to enable better comparison. Gain settings were adjusted in order to accommodate different staining intensities of individual gels and to facilitate the inclusion and visualization of all band peaks on the scan.

Saccharomyces cervisiae controls reveal five distinct bands. In trial #1 (Fig. 2) band 2 has three sub bands, a, b, and c, which are not detected in trial #2 (Fig.3). The mobilities of bands 1 and 2 in run #1 are greater, making them more separated from bands 3, 4, and 5 than they are in run #2. In both runs, band 2 is the most intensely staining band.

<u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u> shows the greatest number of bands of the <u>Candida</u> species examined. In run #1 (Fig. 4), the 7th band appears to have three sub bands, a, b, and c. For the same species in a second run (Fig. 5), only six bands are evident with two sub bands, a and b, in band 4 and two sub bands, a and b, in band 5. In both runs, the first band is considerably ahead of and distinct from the others. All band intensities are approximately the same.

<u>Candida parapsilosis</u> has six bands. All bands are close together with band 1 being the broadest and most intensely staining in both runs. Band 6 also stains very intensely. In run #1 (Fig. 6), bands 2 and 3 are very close as are bands 4 and 5. In run #2 (Fig. 7), separations are approximately equal and more distinct. Band 6 is very close to the application point in both runs.

Five bands are observed in <u>Candida guilliermondii</u>. In both runs, band 1 is much more rapid in its mobility, being distinctly separate from the others. In run #1 (Fig. 8) band 2 is also distinctly separated from 3,4, and 5. However, in run #2 (Fig. 9), bands 2 and 3 are close together but clearly separated from bands 4 and 5. In both runs, band 4 and 5 are very broad and band 4 shows an increase in intensity from its most rapidly migrating end to its more slowly migrating end.

<u>Candida</u> <u>krusei</u> also shows five bands. In both runs, (Fig. 10 and 11) band 1 is very broad and has three sub bands, a, b, and c. All bands in this species are very close together.

Two distinct bands are seen in <u>Candida tropicalis</u>. In both runs (Fig. 12 and 13), band 1 has three sub bands a, b, and c, while band 2 has five sub bands, a, b, c, d, and e. Both bands are close together and migrate little from the point of application. Japi 200 REFERENCE NUMBER PATIENT SEX AGE SOURCE/SITE Stock 1 DATE DEPT./SERVICE PHYSICIAN 6/86 0 GLU GLY 2KG ARA XYL ADO XLT GAL MDG NAG CEL LAC MAL SAC TRE MLZ RAF INO SOR 24 H + + + + + t + -48 H 72 H + + + + Profile Number 2 5 2 7 0 6 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION IDENTIFICATION Excellent identification Candida albicans MICROSCOPIC MORPHOLOGY 00 42 009 12/78/Y-5 REFERENCE NUMBER 9 api 200 PATIENT SEX AGE SOURCE/SITE 2 Stock DATE DEPT./SERVICE PHYSICIAN 6786 0 GLU GLY 2KG ARA XYL ADO XLT GAL INO MDG NAG CEL RAF SOR LAC MAL SAC TRE MLZ 24 H + + + ---+ ----+ -+ + + + + + -48 H + + + + + + + + Ŧ -_ _ + + + --72 H + + + Profile Number **C**• 2 5 5 6 7 1 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION IDENTIFICATION Excellent identification Candida tropicalis MICROSCOPIC MORPHOLOGY 00 42 009 12/78/Y-5 EFERENCE NUMBER PATIENT Qapi 20 AGE SOURCE/SITE SF X 3 Stock DATE DEPT./SERVICE PHYSICIAN 6/86 0 GLU GLY 2KG ARA XYL ADO XLT GAL NO SOR MDG NAG CEL LAC MAL SAC THE MLZ RAP 24 H + + ++ -+ + + + + --+ + + 48 H + + + + + + + + Ŧ F 72 H Profile C- 6 7 7 6 3 7 3 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION **IDENTIFICATION** Good likelihood Freq. 1/1 Candida guilliermondii MICROSCOPIC MORPHOLOGY

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00 42 009 12/78/1-5

Table I

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api 20C™		ATIENT SEX AGE SOURC	tock				
	DATE DEPT./SE	RVICE PHYSICIAN					
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00 42 000 12/78/Y-5							
DATE DEPT./SERVICE PHYSICIAN							
0 GLU GLY 2KG 24 H - + - + 48 H - + + + 72 H Profile Number C-6 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION EXCEILENT	ARA XYL ADO XLT GAL + $+$ $+$ $ ++$ $+$ $+$ $ +7 5identification$	NO SOR MDG NAG CEL LAC MAL SAC - + - + + + - + + + + + 6 . 1					
			00 42 009 12/78/Y-6				

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Table I (cont'd)

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API 20C Clinical Yeast Identification System Procedure

API 20C CLINICAL YEAST SYSTEM

Purpose

API 20C is a microtube method using 19 assimilation tests for the identification of most clinically significant yeasts and yeast-like organisms.

Materials

Sterile wooden applicator sticks Sterile Pasteur pipettes, 5 ml. Squeeze bottle with tap water Incubation tray and lid API 20C strip Basal medium

Storage

The API 20C strips and basal medium should be stored at $2-8^{\circ}$ C until used.

Procedure

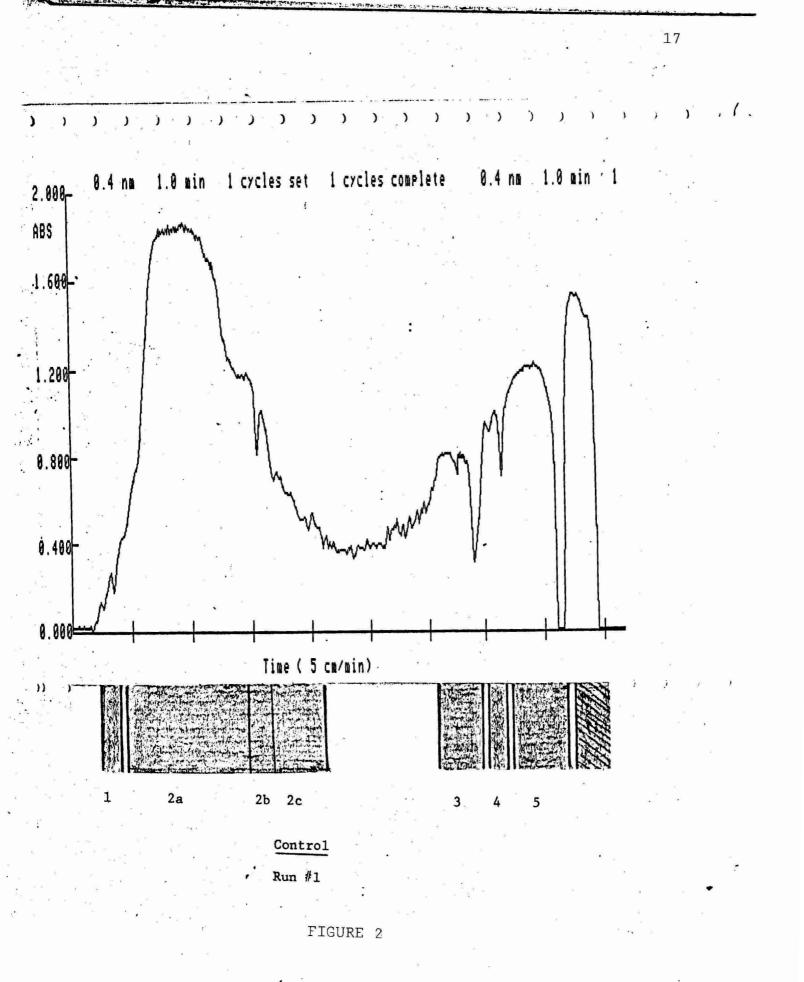
- 1. Preparation of strips
 - a. Set up an incubation tray and lid
 - b. Dispense 10 ml. of water into the
 - incubation tray (use squeeze bottle). c. Place one strip in each incubation
 - tray.
- 2. Preparation of yeast suspension
 - a. Allow the ampule of basal medium to reach room temperature before use.
 - b. Remove the plastic cap and heat the ampule at 100°C. Allow the ampule to remain at that temperature for 5 minutes after the medium appears to melt to assure complete liquefaction.
 - c. Remove ampule from heat and allow to cool for 10-20 minutes.
 - d. Replace the plastic cap on the ampule. Snap the top off by applying thumb pressure at the base of the flattened side of the plastic cap.
 - e. Prepare a yeast suspension in the API Basal Medium from a fresh culture of 48-72 hours

growth from Sabouroud's dextrose agar or tryptic soy agar with 5% sheep blood. The yeast suspension is standardized to a density just below 1+ on a Wickerham Card (lines appear clearly distinguished but have rough edges).

- 3. Inoculation of the strip
 - a. With a sterile Pasteur pipette, inoculate each cupule by placing the pipette tip against the side of the cupule. The suspension in the cupule should be level rather than concave or convex to avoid misreading of the test. Place a lid on the incubation tray.
- Incubation of the strips
 a. Incubate the strip at 30°C for 72 hours.
- 5. Reading the strips
 - Reactions are read and recorded at 24,
 48 and 72 hours incubation.
 - b. The O cupule serves as a negative control. Cupules showing turbidity heavier than the O cupule are positive. Positive reactions should compare to the turbidity in the GLU cupule which serves as a positive growth control.
- 6. Identification of the organisms
 - a. Identification of the organisms can be made with the API 20C Analytical Profile Index.
- 7. Disposal
 - All contaminated trays, lids and strips are placed in a biohazard container to be autoclaved.

Reference: Analytabe Products, API 20C Clinical Yeast System, 1982.

Scan Run #1 Control Saccharomyces cervisiae



Scan Run #2 Control Saccharomyces cervisiae

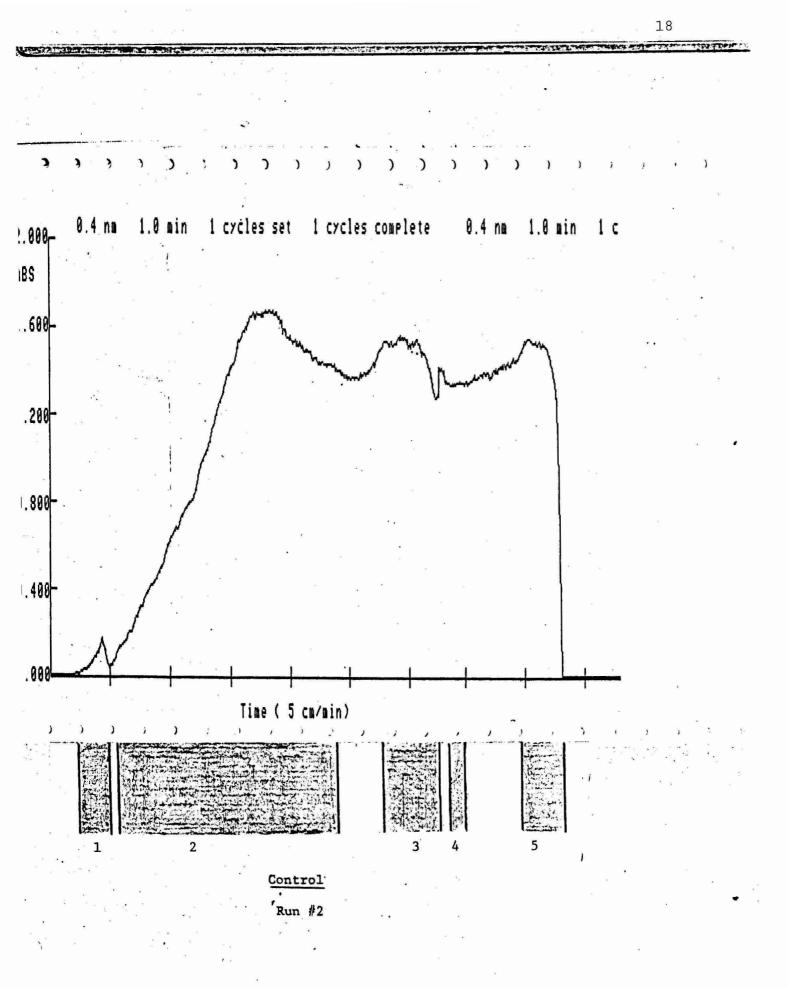
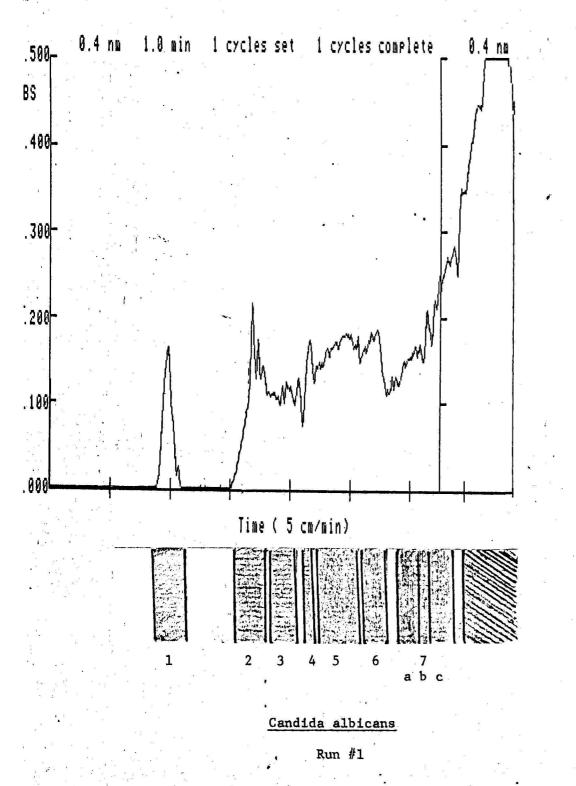


FIGURE 3

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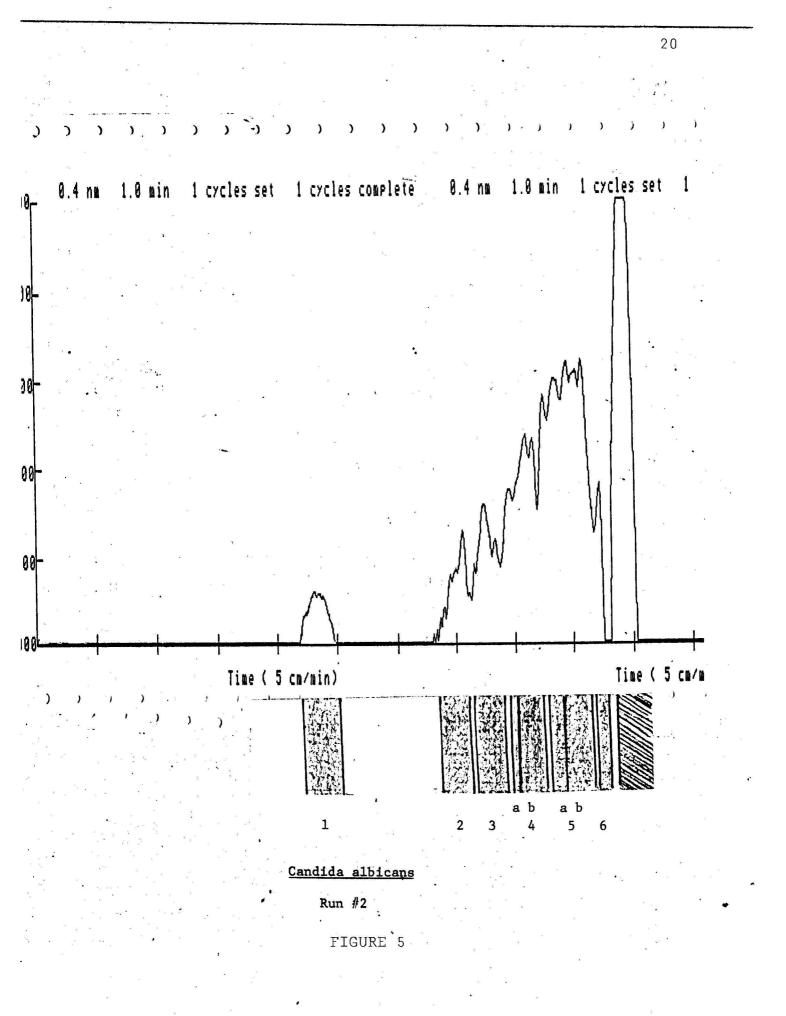
Scan Run #1 Candida albicans



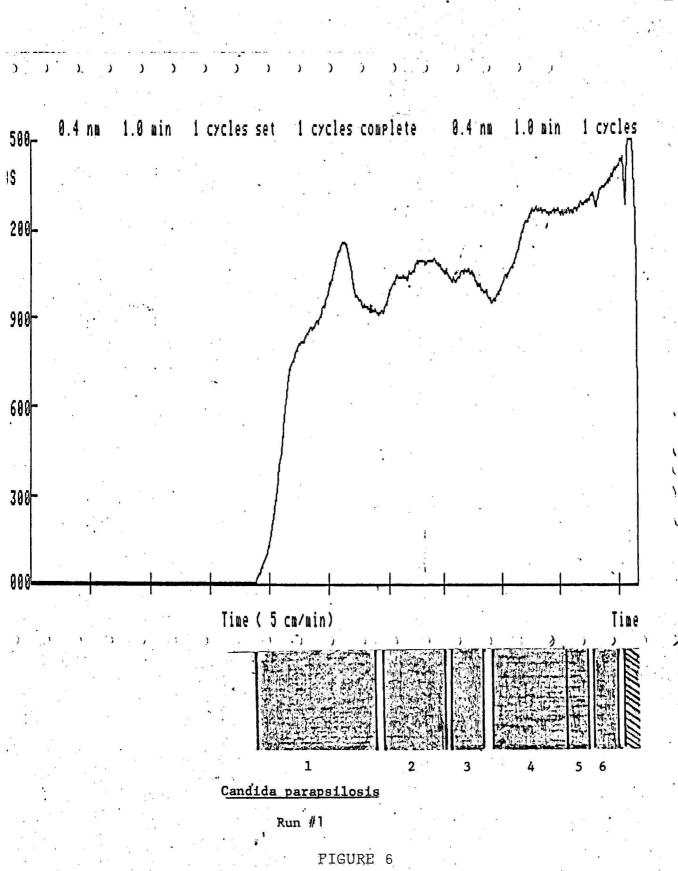
. FIGURE ^L 19

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Scan Run #2 <u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u>

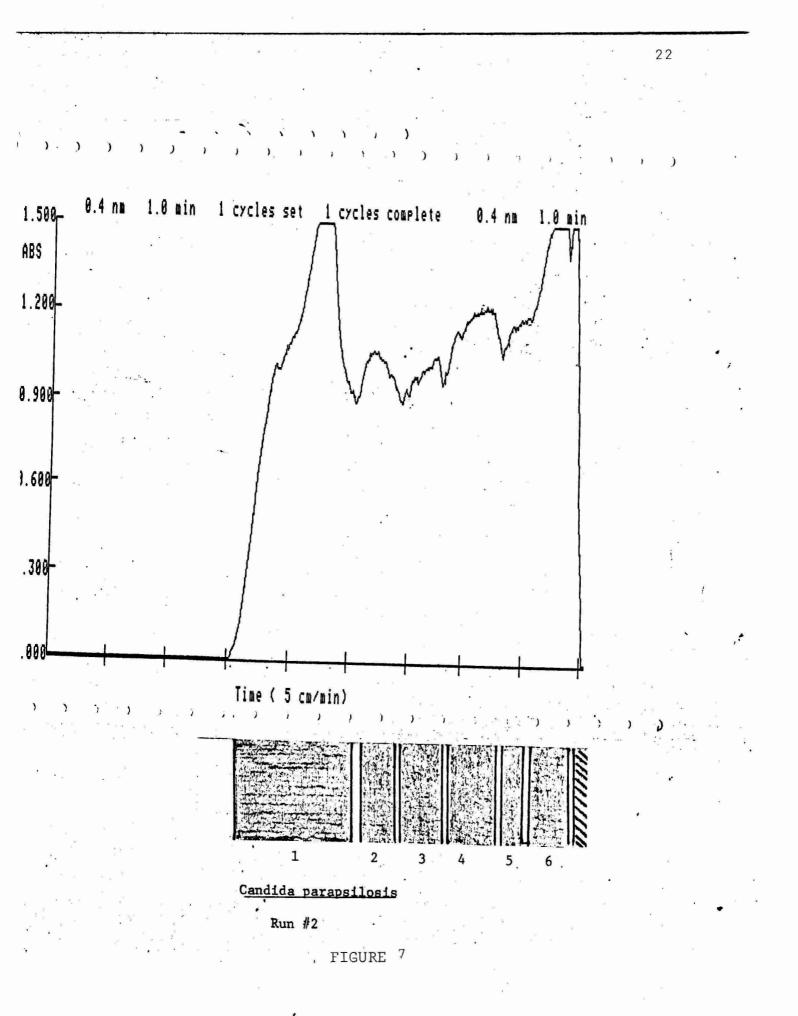


Scan Run #1 <u>Candida parapsilosis</u>

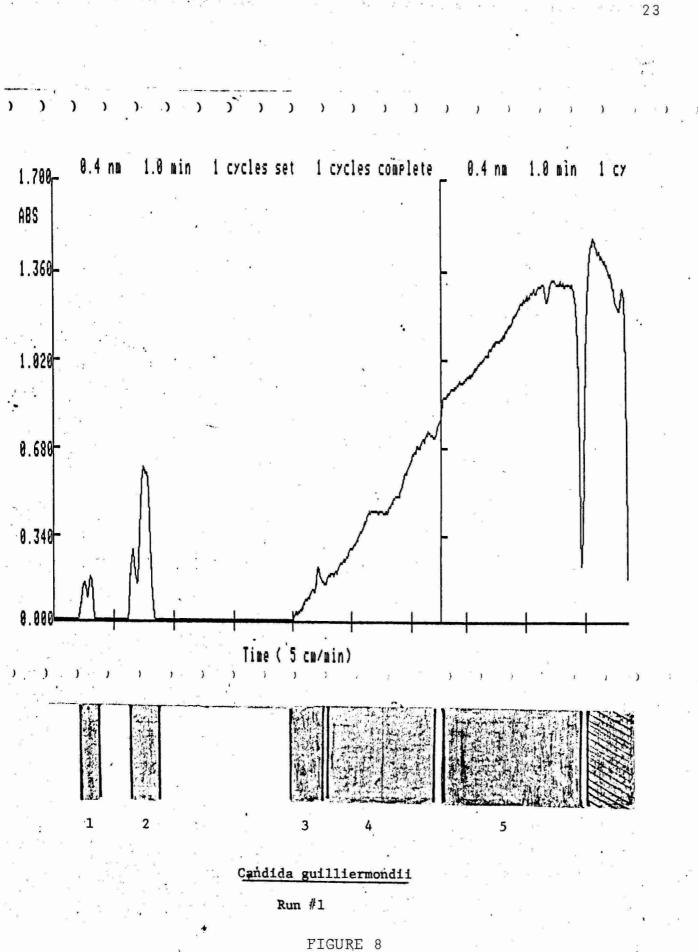


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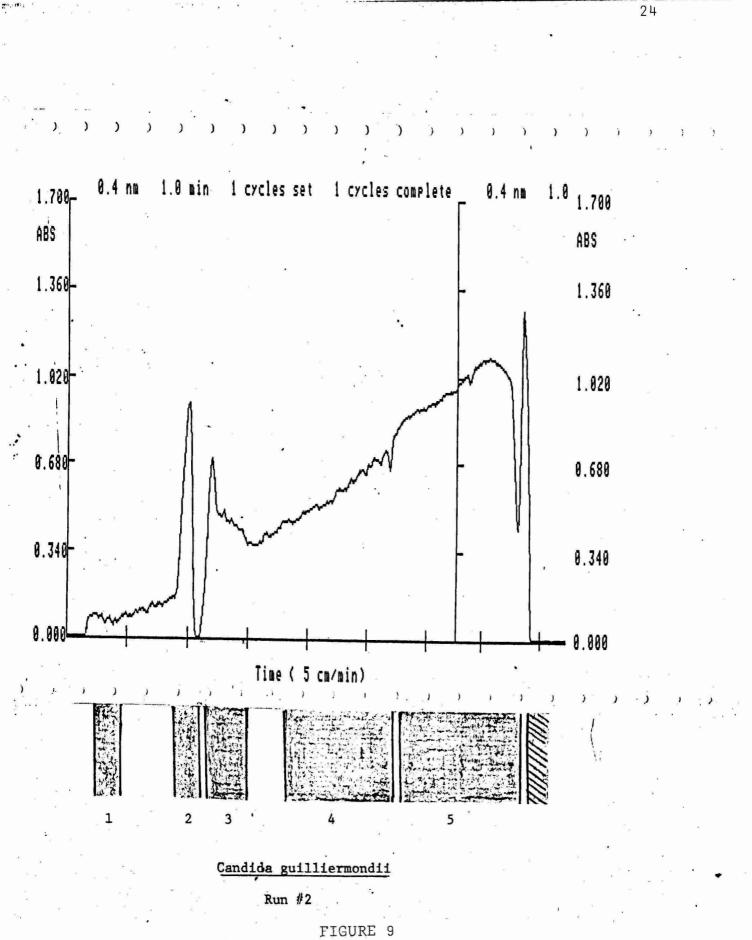
Scan Run #2 <u>Candida parapsilosis</u>



Scan Run #1 Candida guilliermondii

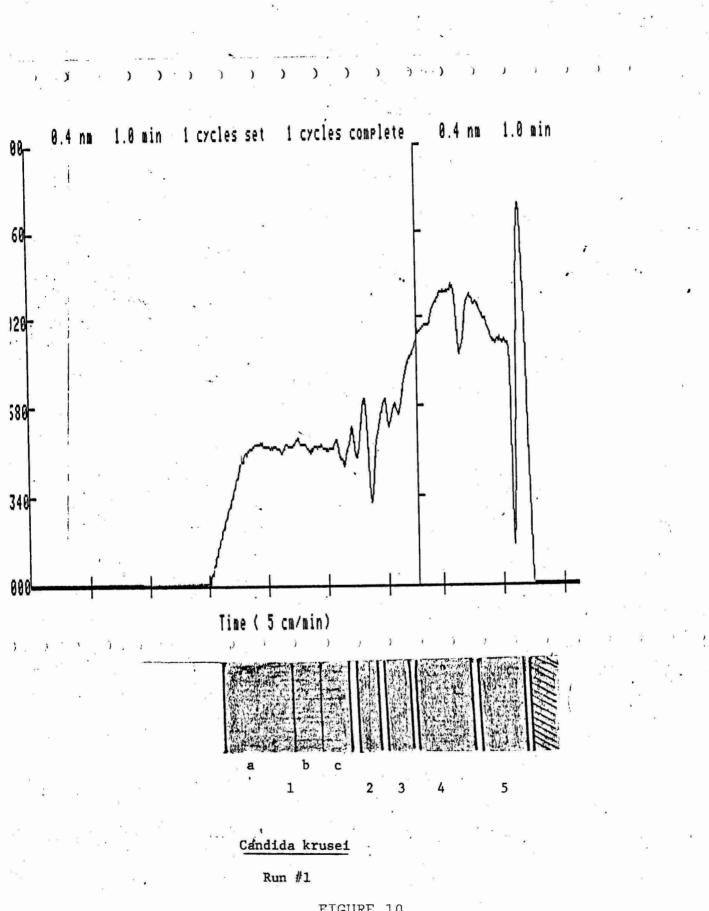


Scan Run #2 Candida guilliermondii



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Scan Run #1 Candida krusei



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FIGURE 10

Scan Run #2 <u>Candida</u> krusei

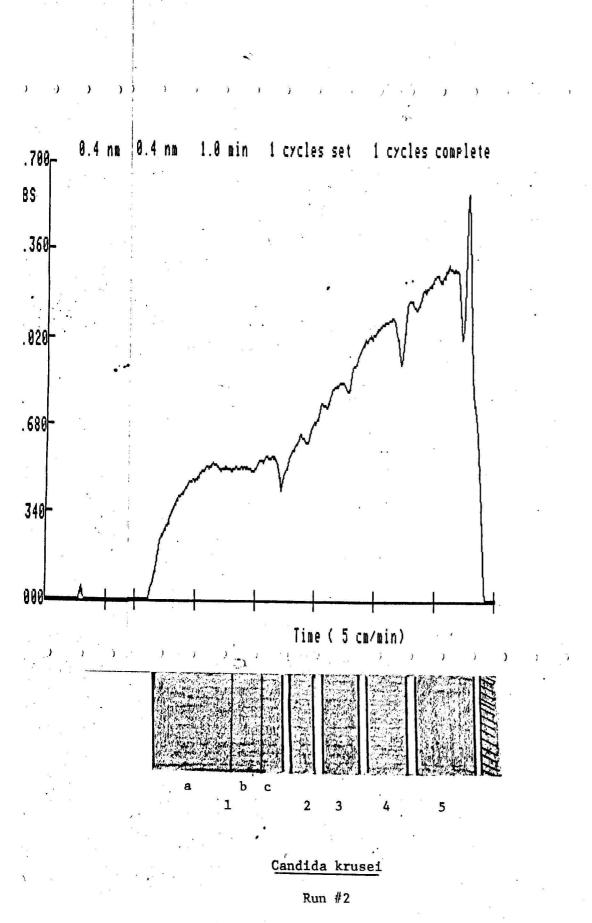
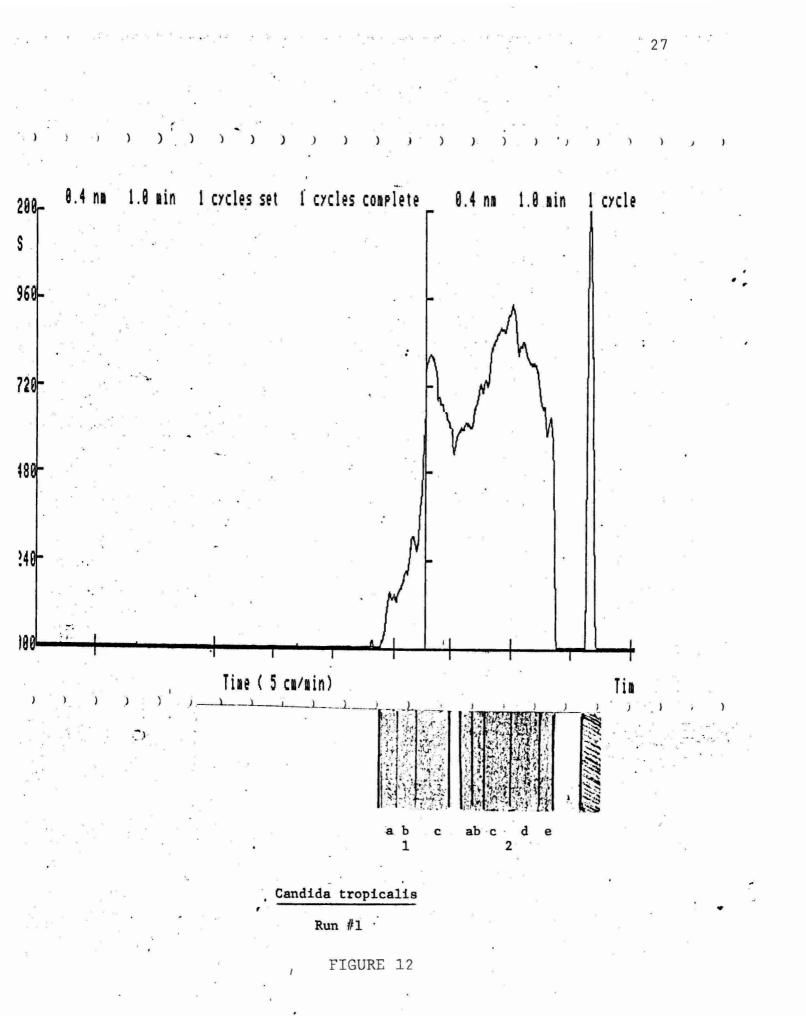
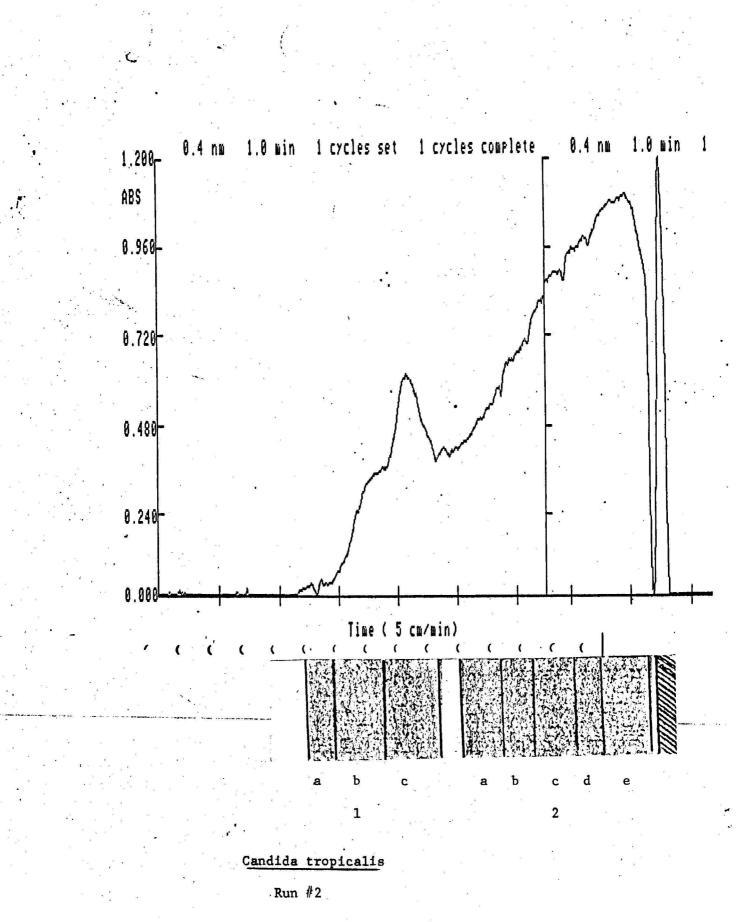


FIGURE 11

Scan Run #1 <u>Candida</u> tropicalis



Scan Run #2 <u>Candida</u> tropicalis





Comparison of scan patterns

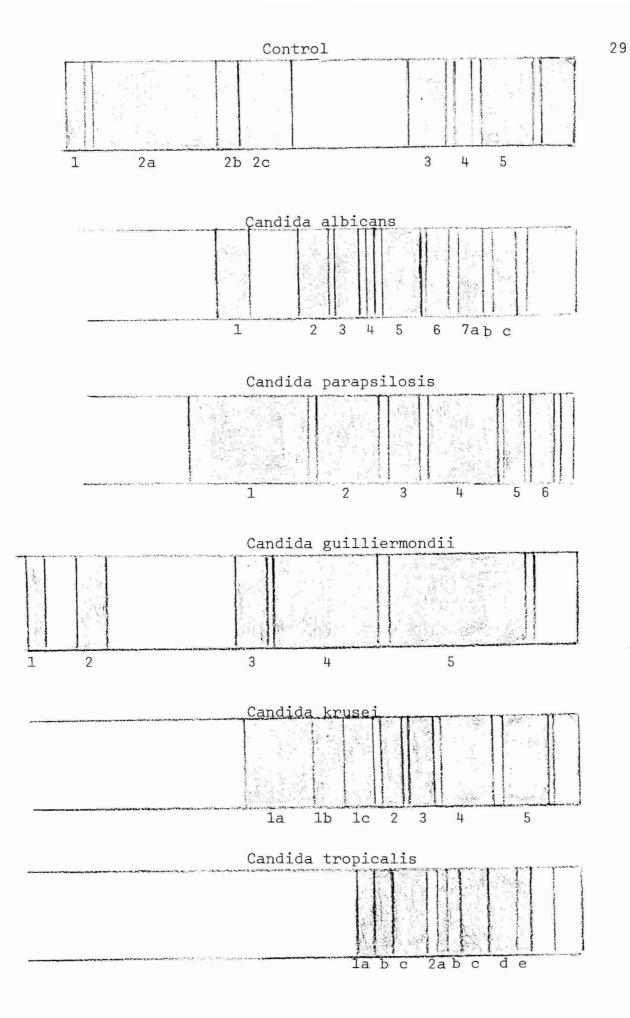


FIGURE 14

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

Tinsberg et al.demonstrated that enzymes utilizing NAD and NADP as coenzymes have well defined isoenzyme spectra for each growth phase. They also described seven multimolecular forms of the enzyme glucose-6phosphate dehydrogenase in <u>Candida albicans</u> at the log phase.

The present study confirms the seven bands of G6PDH for <u>C. albicans</u> at log phase. Additionally, this research has established that in five species of <u>Candida</u>, G6PDH can be separated into species specific isoenzyme patterns by electrical mobilization in polyacrylamide gel.

Although many potential isoenzymes remain to be investigated in <u>Candida</u>, G6PDH was selected for this study because it would logically exhibit very high levels of activity. Its metabolic role in both the glycolytic pathway and the hexose monophosphate shunt characteristic of rapid growth has been confirmed (Dyson, 1979). Therefore, recovery in all species tested was likely. Logically the log phase of growth was the time period selected for analysis.

The evaluation of separate electrophoretic runs of each species demonstrated a high level of reproducibility and established an isoenzyme fingerprint for each individual species studied. Run #2 of <u>C. albicans</u> demonstrated six bands. However, bands 4 and 5 in run #2 showed sub bands while only band 7 showed sub bands in run #1. The difference in bands is probably the result of bridging in band 5 on run #2. This was not a significant factor as all other species, including the control, reproduced their patterns consistently on separate runs.

There is no apparent correlation between the number or location of electrophoretic bands and the API carbohydrate assimilation pattern. In fact, the species with the most nearly similar API profiles, such as <u>C. albicans</u> and <u>C. tropicalis</u>, have the most varied isoenzyme patterns. This would suggest that strains of a species with slightly different assimilation patterns would not necessarily have different isoenzyme patterns. Closely related species could be much better identified by electrophoretic means than by APIs.

All species show five to seven bands at log phase except <u>C. tropicalis</u>. This would imply that it is not diversification of this enzyme which affects pathogenicity. <u>C. albicans and C. tropicalis</u> are the most frequently encountered as human pathogens (Rippon, 1982) but possess seven and two bands respectively. This would suggest that the isoenzyme picture correlates more closely to DNA homology results which indicate C. albicans and C. tropicalis are

most dissimilar. The cell wall analysis and antigenic studies which closely relate these two species, however, would support the role of the cell wall in their pathogenicity.

Densitometric evaluation of all species separations demonstrated minor deflections in the bands and these are designated as sub bands. The sub bands also exhibited good reproducibility for each species. This would indicate that finer resolution techniques, which remain to be developed, would elucidate more bands, and thus result in better speciation. Better speciation could conceivably result in the development of criteria for relative pathogenicity.

The distance between the first two bands and the latter bands in the <u>Saccharomyces</u> control is seen only in the <u>C. guilliermondii</u> pattern. Patterns such as this may also be useful in identifying species interrelationships.

The presence of diverse patterns of isoenzymes for G6PDH would suggest that perhaps other enzymes would also yield specific isoenzyme patterns or similarily interesting results.

In human isoenzyme studies, various multimolecular forms generally indicate varying tissues of origin. The slightly different molecular structures observed are based on different sites of production such as the heart and liver

components of lactic acid dehydrogenase. These variations in structure are felt to be due to differing environments and activities (Kaplan, 1984).

In an organism such as <u>Candida</u>, it is less clear what the origins of these isoenzymes may be, or their significance. The greater genetic load and greater diversity of substrates available to meet metabolic needs undoubtedly contribute to multiple molecular forms of the enzyme. The variances in multimolecular forms is felt to be related to the NADP dependent enzymes' adaptogenic role in the cell (Tinsberg, 1985).

In order to make the data applicable to clinical identification purposes, additional steps such as development of monoclonal antibodies for individual isoenzyme bands are needed.

Monoclonal antibody technology enables a very specific and high affinity antibody to be produced to a certain protein being assayed. Molecules of the protein are injected into mice whose immune system then activates a variety of antibody secreting lymphocytes. Each lymphocyte secretes one molecular configuration of antibody. Using tissue culture techniques, these lymphs can be grown into separate cell colonies, or clones. Each clone then produces a monoclonal antibody of uniform specificity and affinity. The antibody can then be adapted to immunofluorescent assay techniques or slide agglutination proced-

ures. Similarity in band specificity as seen through monoclonal antibodies could then support species relation-ships and taxonomic placement (Hybritech, 1983).

Areas requiring further evaluation include appearance of patterns on different strains of each species. This would particularly apply when slightly different biochemical pictures, i.e., assimilation patterns, occur. Also, further separation of sub bands by higher resolution techniques would be advantageous. And finally, comparisons of other genera of yeast are necessary to evaluate taxonomic potential of this approach.

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