

Molecular And Phenotypic Characterization Of Candida Species: Virulence Factors, Antifungal Susceptibility And Resistance Genes In Clinical Isolates

Priya Chauhan, Areena Hoda Siddique, Prashant Gupta, Nashra Afaq, Rubeena Bano, Nadeem Ahmad, Sandeepika Dubey

¹*Ph.D Scholar , Department of Microbiology, Integral Institute of Medical Sciences & Research, Integral University, Lucknow, India.

²Professor and Head, Department of Microbiology, Integral Institute of Medical Sciences & Research, Integral University, Lucknow, India.

³Professor, Department of Microbiology, King George Medical University, Lucknow, India.

⁴Assistant Professor, Department of Microbiology and Central Research Laboratory, Rama Medical College Hospital and Research Centre, Uttar Pradesh, India.

⁵Associate Professor, Department of Physiology.

⁶Associate Professor, Department of Family and Community Medicine and Medical Education College of Medicine.

⁷Tutor, Department of Microbiology, Integral Institute of Medical Sciences & Research, Integral University, Lucknow, India.

Corresponding Author: Priya Chauhan

Email ID: pc8429@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Introduction: The lack of effective diagnostics and treatments, along with rising antifungal resistance, exacerbates the problem. Candida species have emerged as a significant cause of opportunistic infections. Alongside the expression of various virulence factors, the rise of antifungal resistance among Candida species presents a considerable clinical challenge.

Aim and Objective: To study the molecular and phenotypic characterization of candida species its virulence factors, antifungal susceptibility, and resistance genes in clinical isolates

Material and Methods: A prospective observational study was conducted in the department of Microbiology. Candida species collected from patients received the department of Microbiology were processed. Identification was confirmed by standard microbiological techniques. Antifungal susceptibility testing was performed using CLSI guidelines. Phenotypic and Genotypic confirmation was carried. The Molecular characterization of resistance genes, CDR1, CDR2, MDR1 and ERG11 was performed using PCR assays where DNA Qiagen Extraction kit was used .

Results: In the present study the prevalence of the ERG11 gene was detected in 13.2% of 53 Candida albicans isolates, with MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes present in 7.5%, 3.7%, and 1.8% of isolates, respectively. Among non-Candida strains, the ERG11 gene was identified in 10.3% of 58 Candida tropicalis isolates, while MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes were found in 3.4%, 3.4%, and 1.7% of isolates, respectively. In the case of Candida krusei (n = 15), the ERG11 gene was prevalent in 13.3% of isolates, followed by MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes at 13.3%, 0%, and 6.6%, respectively. Lastly, among Candida glabrata isolates (n = 7), the ERG11 gene was identified in 14.3% of isolates, with MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes present in 14.3%, 0%, and 3.3% of isolates, respectively

Conclusion: Precise identification of virulence factors in Candida species is essential for predicting the response to antifungal therapy and identifying emerging strains with increased resistance. The coexistence of life-threatening invasive Candida infections and resistance to antifungal drugs is a global concern, making it crucial to understand the relationship between virulence factors and antifungal susceptibility in Candida. This highlights the need for targeted antifungal therapy and further research into the mechanisms linking virulence factors with drug resistance to improve the management of Candida infections.

KEYWORDS: Molecular, Phenotypic, Characterization, Candida Species, Virulence Factors, Antifungal Susceptibility, Resistance Genes.

How to Cite: Priya Chauhan, Areena Hoda Siddique, Prashant Gupta, Nashra Afaq, Rubeena Bano, Nadeem Ahmad, Sandeepika Dubey., (2025) Molecular And Phenotypic Characterization Of Candida Species: Virulence Factors, Antifungal Susceptibility And Resistance Genes In Clinical Isolates, *Journal of Carcinogenesis*, Vol.24, No.9s, 182-201.

1. INTRODUCTION

Candida species, particularly non-*Candida albicans* species (NCAS), have emerged as significant opportunistic pathogens, especially in immunocompromised patients and hospitalized individuals. *Candida* infections, ranging from superficial mucosal to life-threatening invasive candidiasis, are now considered a global health challenge due to rising antifungal resistance and evolving pathogenic mechanisms [1–3].

Fungal infections, such as candidiasis caused by *Candida*, pose a problem of growing medical concern. In developed countries, the incidence of *Candida* infections is increasing due to the higher survival of susceptible populations, such as immunocompromised patients or the elderly. Existing treatment options are limited to few antifungal drug families with efficacies that vary depending on the infecting species. In this context, the emergence and spread of resistant *Candida* isolates are being increasingly reported [4]. Understanding how resistance can evolve within naturally susceptible species is key to developing novel, more effective treatment strategies. However, in contrast to the situation of antibiotic resistance in bacteria, few studies have focused on the evolutionary mechanisms leading to drug resistance in fungal species.

Currently, there are only four major classes of antifungals in clinical use: azoles, polyenes, echinocandins, and pyrimidine analogs [5]. This situation alarmingly decreases the chances of a successful treatment and increases the possibilities of a fatal outcome if the infecting pathogen is resistant to one or multiple drugs. Limitations in diagnostic methods further enhance the problems of a few therapeutic options, as different species may show diverse resistance profiles. Thus, diagnostics of the infecting agent, along with susceptibility tests, should be used to inform the choice of therapy (discussed below). Over the last years, the intensive use of some antifungal drugs, such as azoles, has promoted a shift in the epidemiology of candidiasis, in which the incidence of *C. albicans* has decreased in favor of other species that are naturally less susceptible to this drug, such as *C. glabrata* [6].

The problem of the intrinsic variation of drug susceptibility among different *Candida*, we need to add the emerging issue of acquired resistance, which refers to the ability of yeasts to evolutionarily develop mechanisms that lower their susceptibility towards a given drug [7,8]. This process generally involves mutations ranging from chromosomal rearrangements to point mutations. These mutations can affect drug resistance in different ways, ranging from directly interfering with the binding of the drug to its target to inducing gene expression changes that promote physiological states that reduce drug susceptibility. In this regard, an enhanced capacity to form biofilms can result in the acquisition of resistance, as these structures promote yeast survival upon exposure to the drug [9,10].

The emergence of resistant strains, including those becoming resistant to multiple drugs, has been increasingly reported in recent years. The azole drugs inhibit the ERG11 gene-derived lanosterol 14- α -demethylase enzyme involved in drug intake. It affects the biosynthesis of ergosterol and functions of drug efflux pumps Mdr1p and Cdr1p/Cdr2p. Echinocandins inhibit glycane synthesis. Polyenes bind with ergosterol and affect the efflux pump. Flucytosine inhibits the activity of DNA/RNA synthesis. Of the four classes of antifungal drugs, as the azole groups are used much, and drug resistance to azole drugs is high. In the case of azole-resistant, *C. albicans* the molecular level changes in drug resistance involve mutation of drug target genes ERG11 and ERG3 and over-expression of ERG11, and up-regulation of drug efflux genes CDR1 and CDR2 [11]. In addition, it has been demonstrated that such resistant phenotypes can develop over the course of an infection, and in response to treatment, which adds yet another threat to patients. [12,13].

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

A prospective observational study was conducted in the department of Microbiology. *Candida* species collected from patients received the department of Microbiology were processed.

Identification was confirmed by standard microbiological techniques. Antifungal susceptibility testing was performed using CLSI guidelines. Phenotypic and Genotypic confirmation was carried.

Study Setting

A total of 1130 clinical samples from various sources (urine, sputum, blood, vaginal swabs, pus, and endotracheal secretions) were included.

Sample Collection and Culture

Samples were processed using standard microbiological techniques. Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (SDA) was used for fungal culture, and incubated at 37°C for 48–72 hours. Identification of *Candida* species was performed using conventional methods (germ tube test, cornmeal agar morphology, sugar assimilation) and confirmed by Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption/Ionization Time-of-Flight Mass Spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS).

Virulence Factor Detection

Biofilm formation was assessed using the tube method, while phospholipase activity was detected using egg yolk agar. Results were interpreted based on standard protocols.

Antifungal Susceptibility Testing

The Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method was used on Mueller-Hinton agar supplemented with 2% glucose and 0.5 µg/mL methylene blue. Drugs tested included fluconazole, itraconazole, voriconazole, amphotericin-B, micafungin, nystatin, and cotrimoxazole.

Molecular Analysis

DNA extraction was done using a standard phenol-chloroform method. PCR was performed to detect ERG11, MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes. Amplified products were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis.

GENOTYPIC METHOD:

DNA Extraction : For the detection of gene, chromosomal DNA from the clinical strains of *Candida species* was extracted. DNA extraction was carried out using a commercial available DNA extraction kit (Qiagen DNA Extraction Kit) as indicated by manufacturer's instructions. The extracted DNA was run in PCR for its extension according to standard method.



Figure No. 1: The DNA Extraction kit

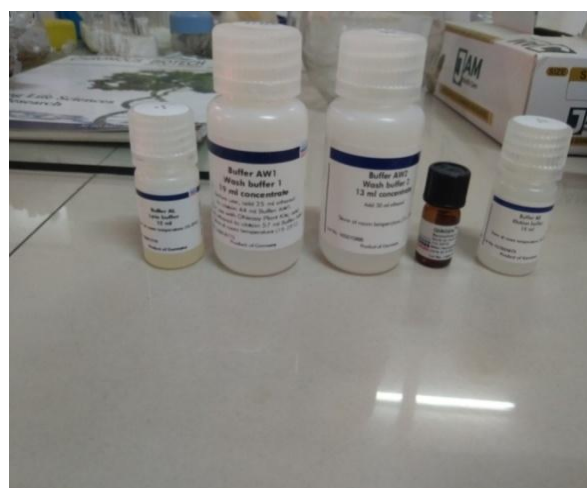


Figure No. 2: The DNA Extraction Reagents

DNA extraction and PCR method

Total genomic DNA was extracted from all fluconazole resistant positive isolates using a DNA extraction kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. Amplification and detection of the considered gene was done by the PCR method using specific primers.

Table No. 1 :Primers used to amplify ERG11 gene fragments.

Fragment	Gene	Primer sequence	Length (bp)
A	ERG11-FA	5'- ATGGCTATTGTTGAAACTGTC-3'	785 bp

	ERG11-RA	5'- CGTTCTCTTCTCAGTTTAATTTTC-3'	
B	ERG11-FB ERG11-RB	5'- GAAGAGAACGTGGTGATATTGATC-3' 5'- CACTGAATCGAAAGAAAGTTGCC-3'	826bp

Table No. 2 :Primers used to amplify CDR1 gene fragments.

Fragment	Gene	Primer sequence	Length (bp)
A	CDR1-FA CDR1-RA	5'CAATCACATTCGTCCTGGTTC-3' 3'-TTGAAAGCCAAGGACATCAC-5'	387bp

Table No. 3 :Primers used to amplify CDR2 gene fragments.

Fragment	Gene	Primer sequence	Length (bp)
A	CDR2-FA CDR2-RA	5'-TGGCAAACAATCCAACAATAC -3' 3'-AATCAAGGGAATAGATGGGTC-5'	455bp

Table No. 4 :Primers used to amplify MDR1 gene fragments.

Fragment	Gene	Primer sequence	Length (bp)
A	MDR1-FA MDR2-RA	5'-ATGTTGGCATTACCCCTTC-3' 3'-GAAAACCTTCTGGGAAAACCTGG-5'	426bp

- The primers for gene for the detection of gene of interest was designed and confirmed by NCBI [14].
- The primers were purchased from “Saha gene” and was reconstituted with sterile double distilled water based on the manufacturer’s instruction.



Figure No. 3:Primers for ERG11 gene

Figure No. 4: The Gel Documentation system

The PCR tubes were transferred to the thermal cycler to start the amplification reaction according to specific program for pair of primers as in tables

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

The amplification of the ERG11 gene sequence was performed using PCR. Due to its length (1587 bp), the sequence was amplified in two fragments (A and B) using the primers shown in Table No. 1. The starters were designed using the Snap Gene program and the OligoAnalyzer tool and were synthesised by Genomed (Warsaw, Poland). The primers were designed to include a sequence of 20 bp downstream and 12 bp upstream (at positions 20 bp ERG11 or +1599 bp ERG11, respectively) to ensure the amplification of the entire ERG11 gene sequence [15].

The PCR cycling conditions

The PCR reactions were carried out in the following reaction mixture where 12.5 µL of the Master Mix (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA), 0.5 µL of each of the 5 µM primers, 2 µL of isolated genomic DNA and 9.5 µL of sterile water (total volume 25 µL). Fragment “A” of the ERG11 gene sequence was amplified using a program called ZL-ERG11A and fragment “B” using the ZL-ERG11B program. The Thermal Cycler (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA) was used to perform the PCR reaction. The PCR cycling conditions have been illustrated below shown in

Step	<u>Program</u>				Cycles
	<u>ZL-ERG11A</u>		<u>ZL-ERG11B</u>		
	<u>Time</u>	<u>Temperature</u>	<u>Time</u>	<u>Temperature</u>	
Initial denaturation	5 min	98 °C	5 min	98°C -	35
Denaturation	30 s	98 °C	28 s	98° C	
Annealing	30 s	51 °C	29 s	55 °C	
Extension	30 s	72° C	30 s	72° C	
Final extension	5 min	72° C	5 min	72° C	
	∞	4°C	∞	4°C	

Table No. 5: The PCR cycling conditions to amplify ERG11 gene fragments.

The PCR cycling conditions to amplify ERG11 gene fragments.

The Agarose Gel Electrophoresis was performed in order to identify the Purified PCR Product which was previously identified by its amplified DNA fragments. The resulting PCR product was subjected to 1 % agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized by Gel Doc™ EZ Gel Documentation System (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc., Hercules, CA, USA). A 1 kb DNA Ladder (Thermo Fisher Scientific™, Waltham, MA, USA) was used as the marker to evaluate the PCR product of the sample [15].

Step	<u>Program</u> <u>CDR1</u> <u>Time</u> <u>Temperature</u>		Cycles
Initial denaturation	5 min	98 °C	35
Denaturation	30 s	98 °C	
Annealing	30 s	51 °C	
Extension	30 s	72° C	
Final extension	5 min	72° C	
	∞	4°C	

Table No. 6: The PCR cycling conditions to amplify CDR1 gene fragments.

The PCR cycling conditions to amplify CDR1 gene fragments.

Step	Program		Cycles
	Time	Temperature	
Initial denaturation	5 min	98 °C	35
Denaturation	30 s	98 °C	
Annealing	30 s	51 °C	
Extension	30 s	72° C	
Final extension	5 min	72° C	
	∞	4°C	

Table No. 7:The PCR cycling conditions to amplify CDR2 gene fragments.

Step	Program		Cycles
	Time	Temperature	
Initial denaturation	5 min	98 °C	35
Denaturation	30 s	98 °C	
Annealing	30 s	51 °C	
Extension	30 s	72° C	
Final extension	5 min	72° C	
	∞	4°C	

Table No. 8:The PCR cycling conditions to amplify MDR1 gene fragments.

Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 25.0. Chi-square tests were used to compare proportions, and a p-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. RESULTS

A total of 1130 subjects with similar demographic characteristics were included in the study, out of which 652 (57.6%) tested positive for culture while 478 (42.3%) tested negative for culture ($X^2=26.7$, $p=0.0001$). Among the culture positive samples ($n=652$), 514 (78.8%) were identified as GNB/GPC while 138 (21.1%) were classified as *Candida* species ($X^2=216.8$, $p=0.0004$).

The identification of *Candida* species in the research involved two methods - the conventional method and the matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight (MULTI-TOF) method. Out of the 138 *Candida* isolates, 38.4% were recognized as *Candida albicans* while the remaining 61.6% were grouped as non-*Candida albicans*. Within the non-*Candida albicans* category, *Candida tropicalis* was predominantly observed with 58 cases (68.2%), followed by *Candida krusei* with 15 cases (17.6%), *Candida glabrata* with 7 cases (8.23%), and an additional 5 cases (5.8%) of unidentified species. Both methods provided similar identification results for all isolates, with the exception of a particular *Candida* species. In the conventional method, it was identified as *Candida parapsilosis*, while in MULTI-TOF, it was labeled as *Candida metapsilosis*.

Further analysis showcases that the highest percentage of *C. albicans* was seen in sputum samples (39.6%) while a higher percentage of non-*Candida albicans* was noted in urine samples (44.7%).

Fungi possess certain factors that increase their ability to cause disease, including biofilm formation and phospholipid enzyme production. These factors help fungi to attach to host tissues, evade the immune response, and access nutrients. Biofilm formation creates a protective barrier that shields fungi from host defenses and antibiotics, aiding in their survival

and persistence in the host. On the other hand, phospholipid enzyme production allows fungi to breach host cell membranes, facilitating their spread within the host.

These virulence mechanisms are crucial for the development of fungal infections and contribute significantly to the overall pathogenicity of fungal pathogens. This study revealed that 53.5% of fungal isolates exhibited biofilm formation, with the majority belonging to *C. tropicalis* (58.03%). In contrast, only 10.04% of the isolates tested positive for Phospholipidase enzyme, with most identified as *C. albicans* (11.6%).

Furthermore, when investigating the susceptibility of *Candida* isolates to antifungal drugs, it was found that Amphotericin-B had the highest sensitivity at 95%, followed by Voriconazole at 85% and itraconazole at 49.2%. Conversely, Micafungin was the least effective among the tested antibiotics.

Researchers across different countries have raised concerns about the increasing prevalence of antifungal-resistant *Candida* species, posing a significant challenge in clinical settings. Various studies conducted globally have revealed the underlying mechanisms of resistance in *Candida* species, including mutations in the ERG11 gene and the overlapping or upregulation of CDR1, CDR2, and MDR1 genes.

In a present study, the prevalence of the ERG11 gene was detected in 13.2% of 53 *Candida albicans* isolates, with MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes present in 7.5%, 3.7%, and 1.8% of isolates, respectively. Among non-*Candida* strains, the ERG11 gene was identified in 10.3% of 58 *Candida tropicalis* isolates, while MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes were found in 3.4%, 3.4%, and 1.7% of isolates, respectively. In the case of *Candida krusei* (n = 15), the ERG11 gene was prevalent in 13.3% of isolates, followed by MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes at 13.3%, 0%, and 6.6%, respectively. Lastly, among *Candida glabrata* isolates (n = 7), the ERG11 gene was identified in 14.3% of isolates, with MDR1, CDR1, and CDR2 genes present in 14.3%, 0%, and 3.3% of isolates, respectively.

Table 9: Frequency of culture positive and culture negative samples

	Culture +ve (n,%)	Culture -ve (n,%)	X ² , p value
TOTAL SAMPLE (n=1130)	652 (57.6%)	478 (42.3%)	26.79, 0.0001*
Candida sp	138 (21.1%)		216.8, 0.0004*
GNB/GPC	514 (78.8%)		

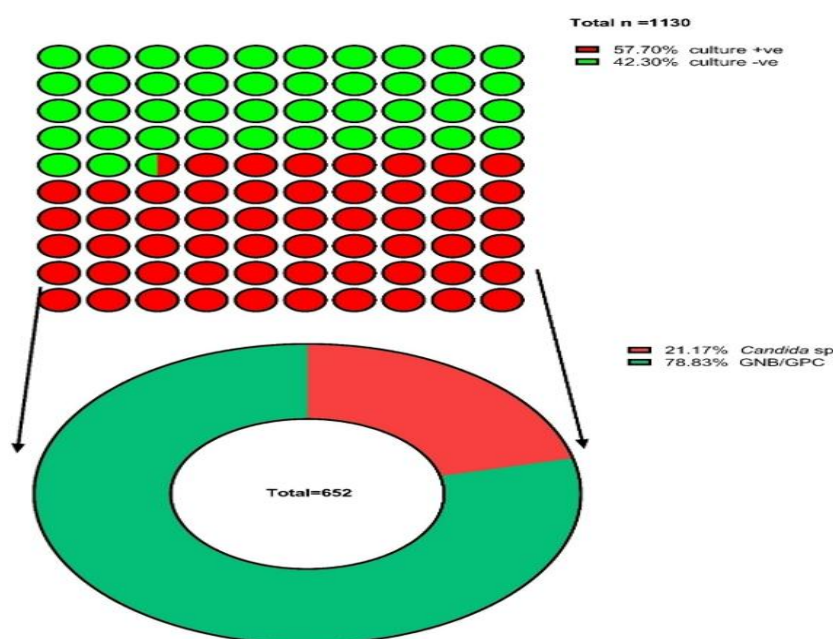


Figure No. 4: Frequency distribution of culture positive and culture negative.

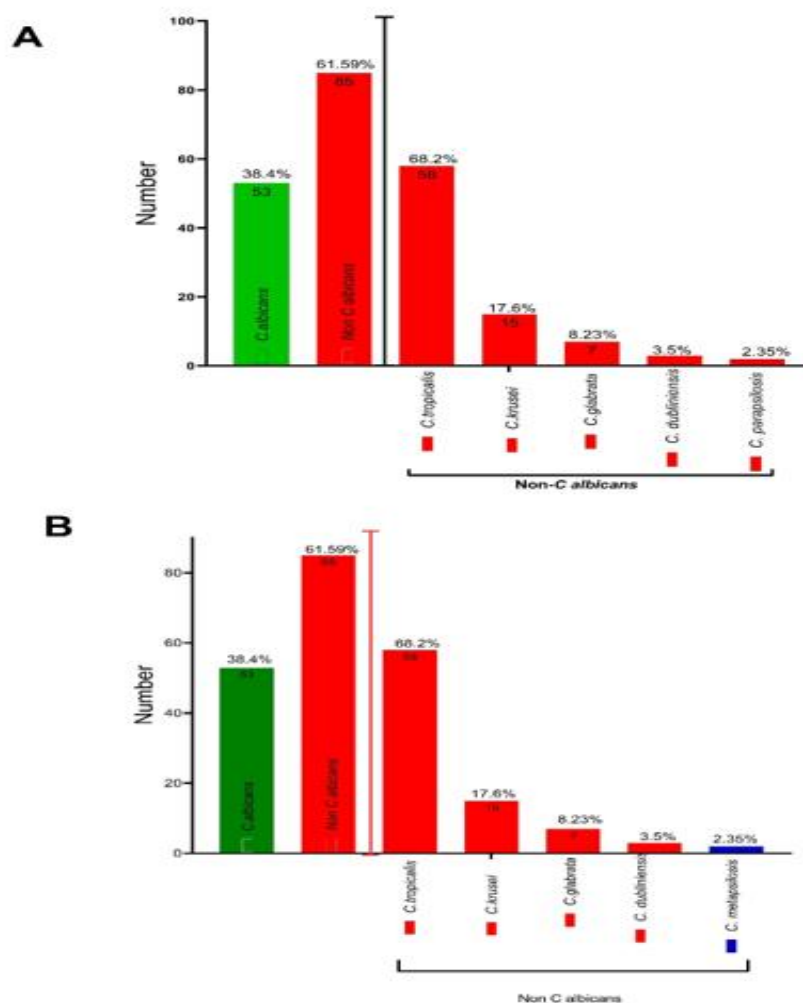


Figure No. 5: Non albicans

2:Breakdown of *Candida* Samples and their respective proportions as determined by conventional (A) and MALDI-TOF (B) analysis.

Table no. 10: Frequency of *C. albicans* & Non-Candida albicans among different samples.

SAMPLE	<i>C. albicans</i> (n=53) (n,%)	Non-Candida albicans (n=85) (n,%)	X^2 , p value
Urine	13 (24.5)	38 (44.7)	9.84, 0.079
Pus	3 (5.6)	4 (7.07)	
Vaginal swab	12 (22.6)	19 (22.3)	
Blood	2 (3.7)	1 (1.17)	

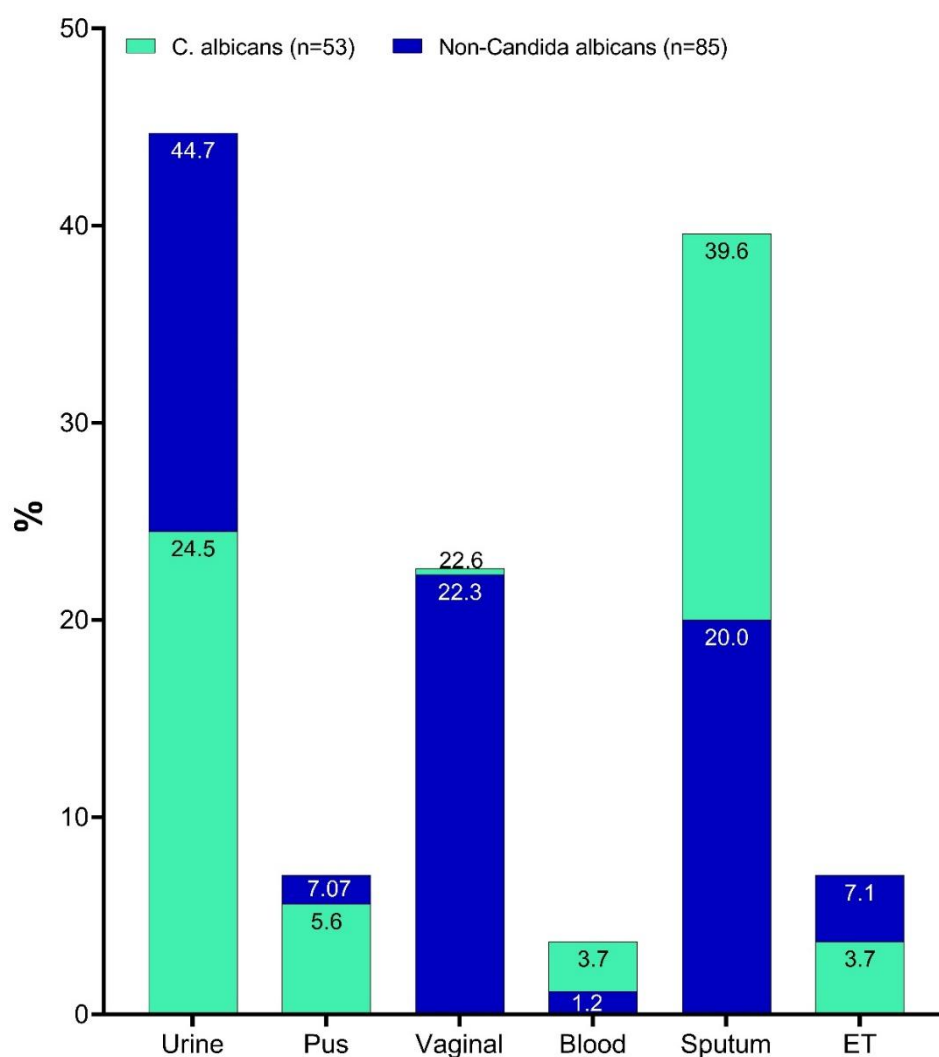


Figure No. 6: Overlapping graph shows the Frequency distribution of *C.albicans* & Non-Candida albicans among different samples.

Table No. 11: Frequency of virulence factors among Various Candida isolates.

VIRULENCE FACTORS	Biofilm production (n,%)	Phospholipidase enzyme (n,%)
<i>C.albians</i>	42 (37.5)	16 (11.6)
<i>C.tropicalis</i>	65 (58.03)	3 (2.17)
<i>C.glabrata</i>	2 (1.78)	2 (1.44)
<i>C.krusei</i>	3 (2.67)	-

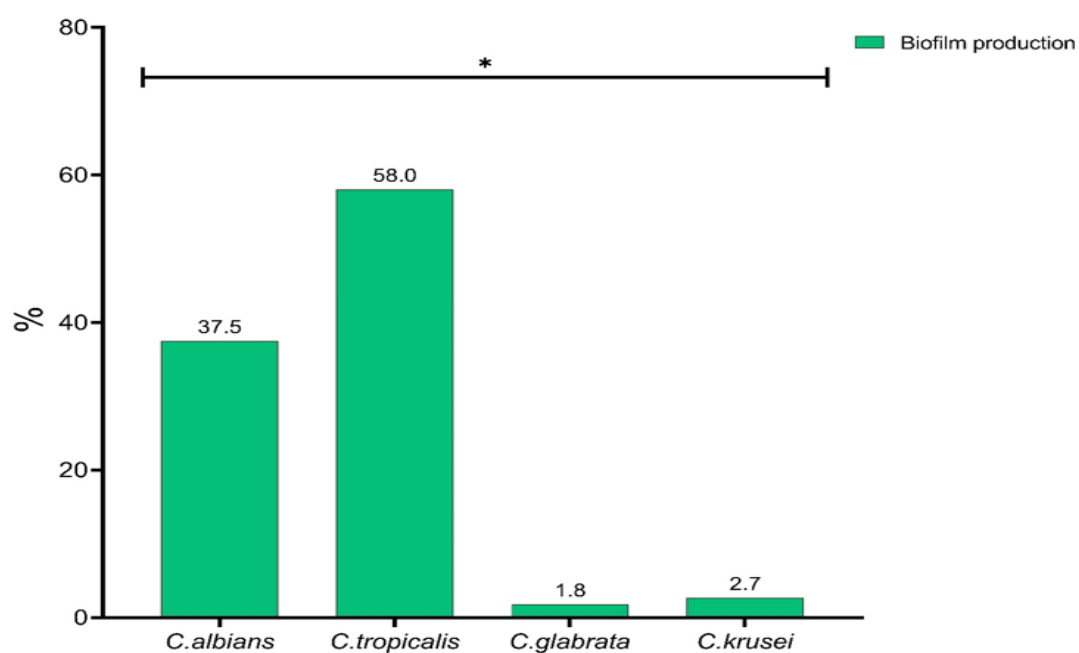


Figure No.7: Incidence of biofilm formation among different Candida strains, expressed as a percentage.

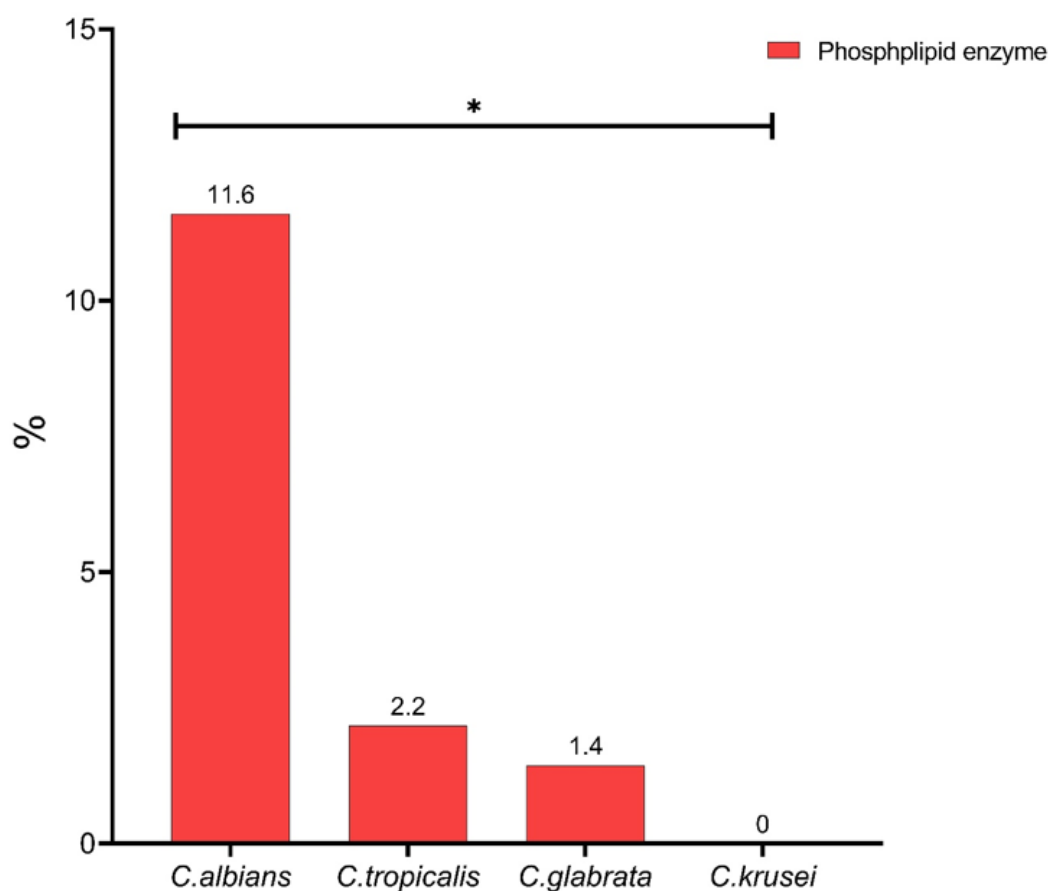


Figure No.8 : Production of phospholipid enzyme among different Candida strains, expressed as a percentage of the total frequency.

Table No. 12 :Antifungal susceptibility of Candida isolates. (Kirby-bauer disk diffusion method)

S: sensitive; R: resistant

species Antifungal Drug	Candida albicans(N=53)		Non-candida albicans(N=85)	
	S	R	S	R
Fluconazole	17(32.07%)	36(67.92%)	28(32.94%)	57(67.05%)
Cotrimoxazole	8(15.09%)	45(84.90%)	13(15.29%)	72(84.70%)
Nystatin	5(9.43%)	48(90.56%)	9(10.58%)	76(89.41%)
Itraconazole	31(58.49%)	22(41.50%)	37(43.52%)	48(56.47%)
Voriconazole	49(92.45%)	4(7.54%)	68(80%)	17(20%)
Micafungin	3(05.66%)	50(94.33%)	5(5.88%)	80(94.11)
Amphotericin-B	51(96.22%)	2(3.77%)	81(95.29%)	4(4.70%)

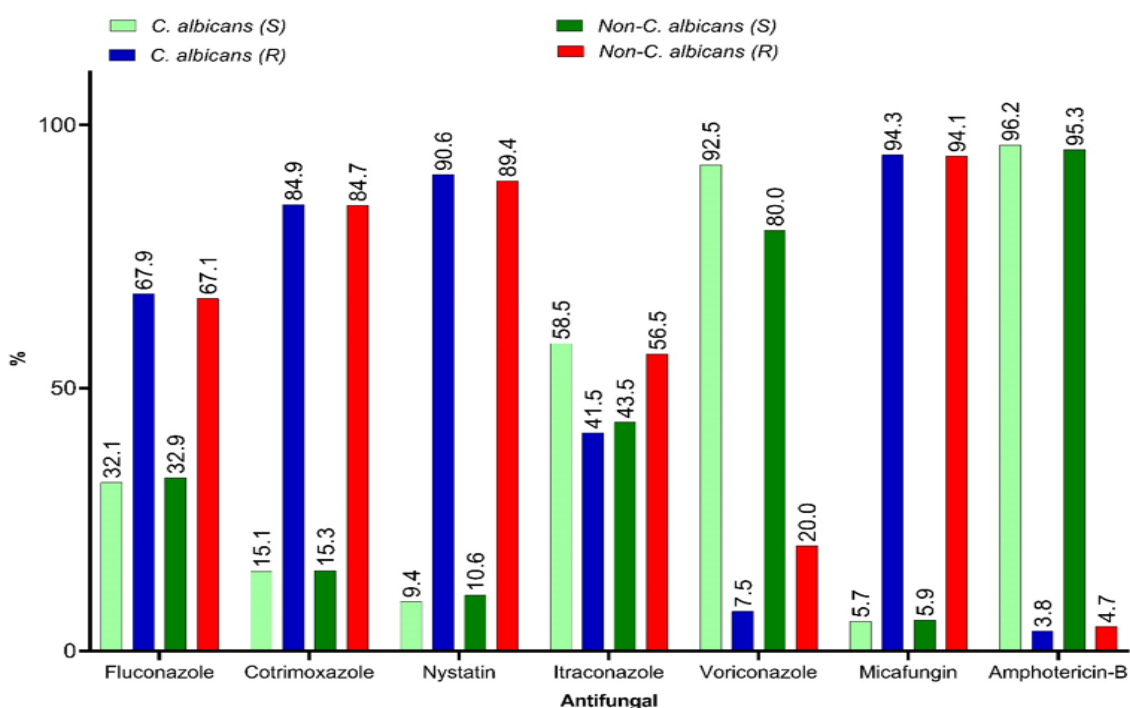


Figure No.9 : Antifungal susceptibility of Candida and non-candida isolates.

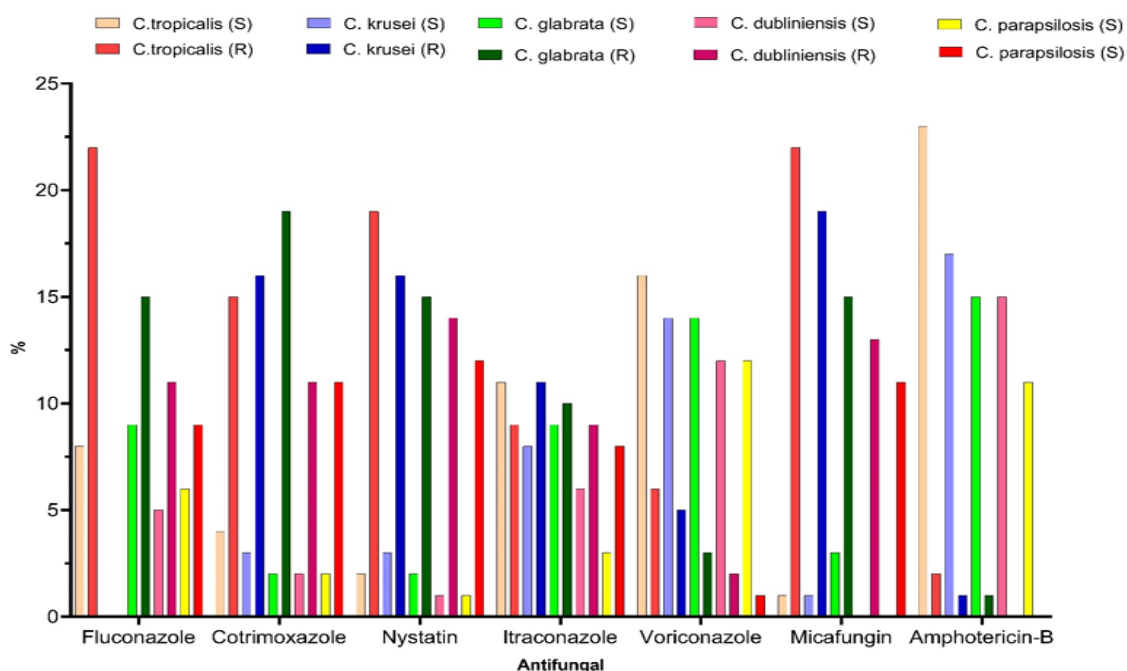


Figure No. 10: Distribution of Antifungal susceptibility of non-candida isolates.

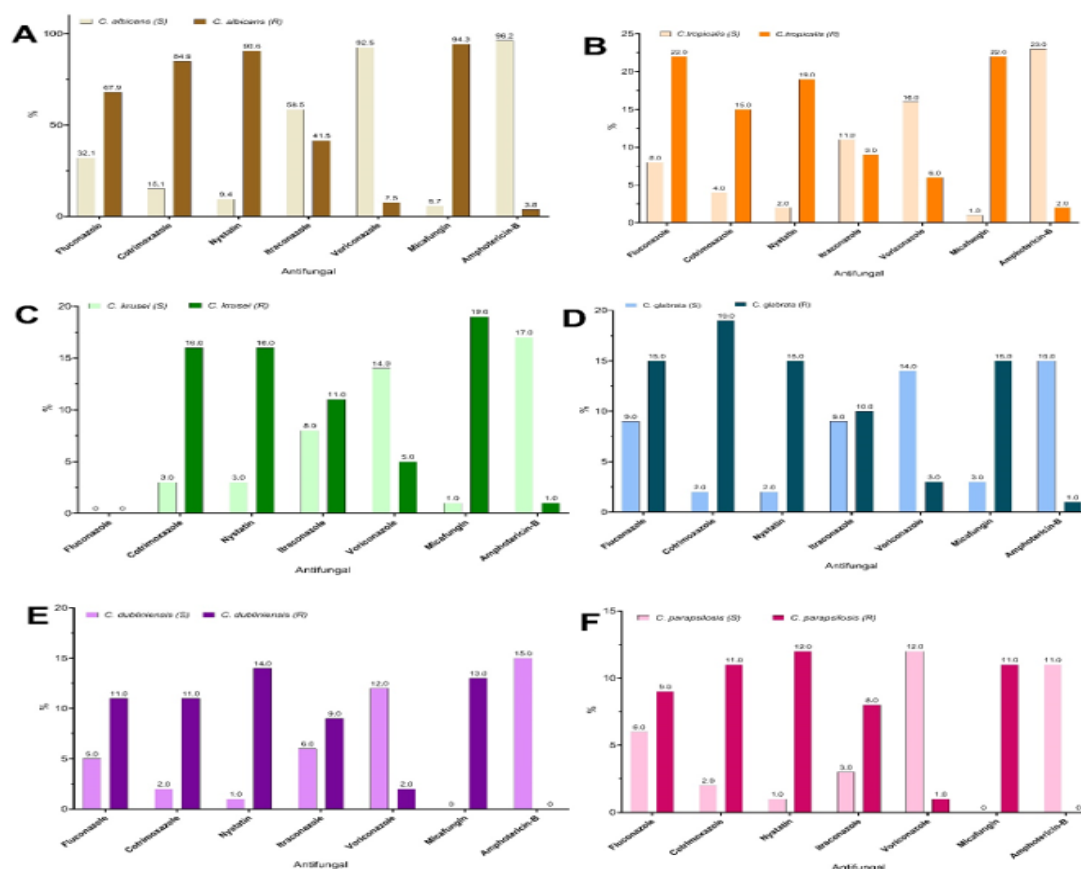


Figure No. 11: Distribution of antifungal susceptibility of Candida and non candida isolates.

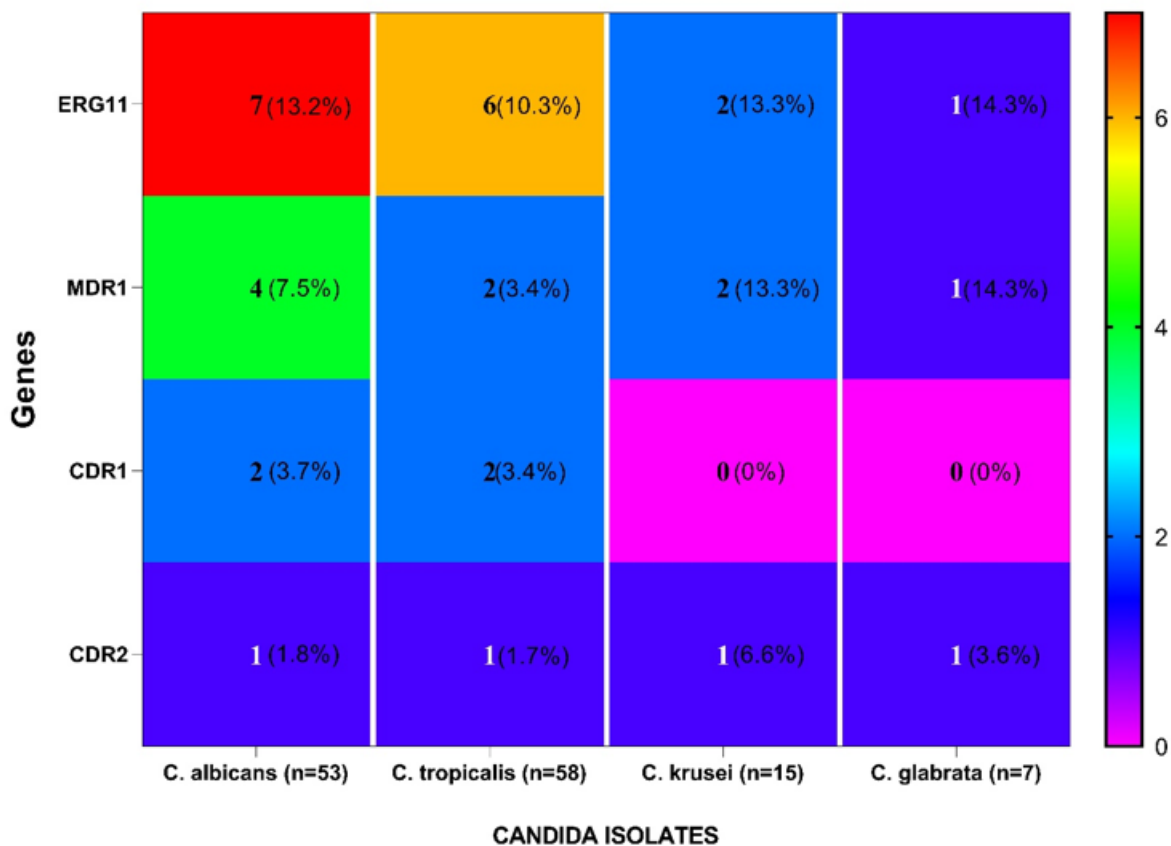


Figure No. 12: Gene distribution of *Candida* and non-*Candida* species: ERG11, MDR1, CDR1, CDR2 AND ACTIN

Table No. 13: Gene distribution of *Candida* and non-*Candida* species: ERG11, MDR1, CDR1, CDR2

SPECIES \ GENE	<i>Candida albicans</i> N=53	<i>Candida tropicalis</i> N=58	<i>Candida krusei</i> N=15	<i>Candida glabrata</i> N=7	Total gene
ERG11	7(13.20%)	6(10.34%)	2(13.33%)	1(14.28%)	16(11.59%)
MDR1	4(7.54%)	2(3.44%)	2(13.33%)	1(14.28)	9(6.52%)
CDR1	2(3.77%)	2(3.44%)	0	0	4(3.62%)
CDR2	1(1.88%)	1(1.72%)	1(6.66%)	1(14.28%)	4(3.62%)

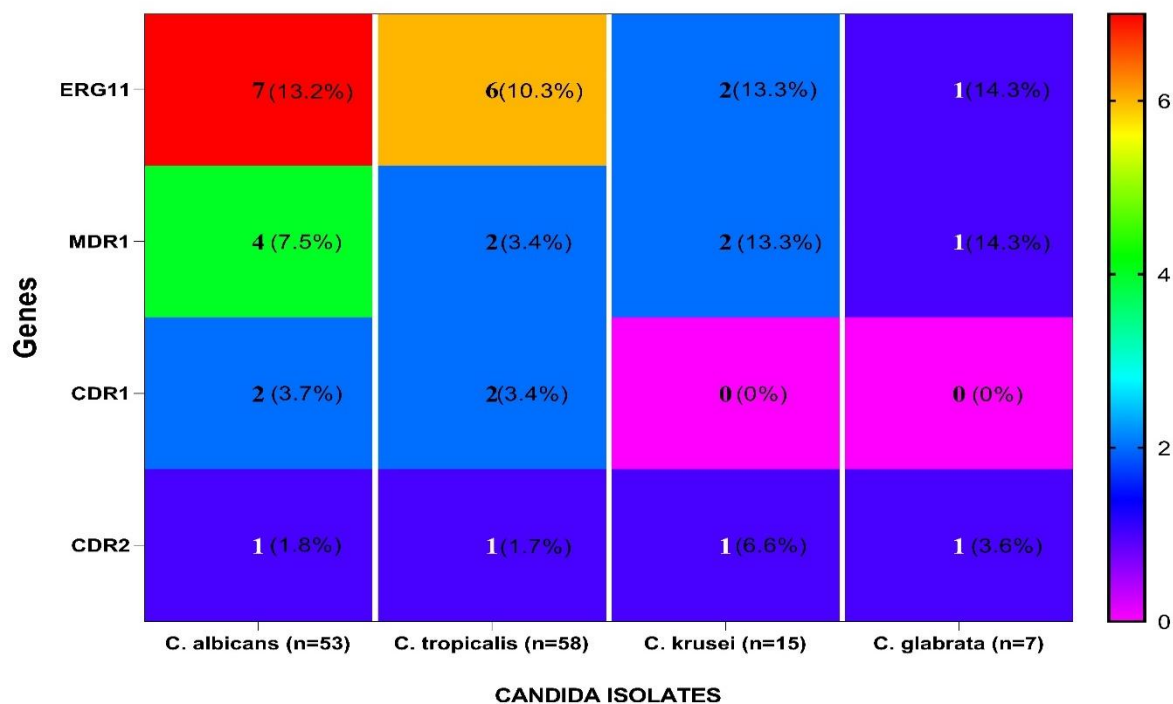
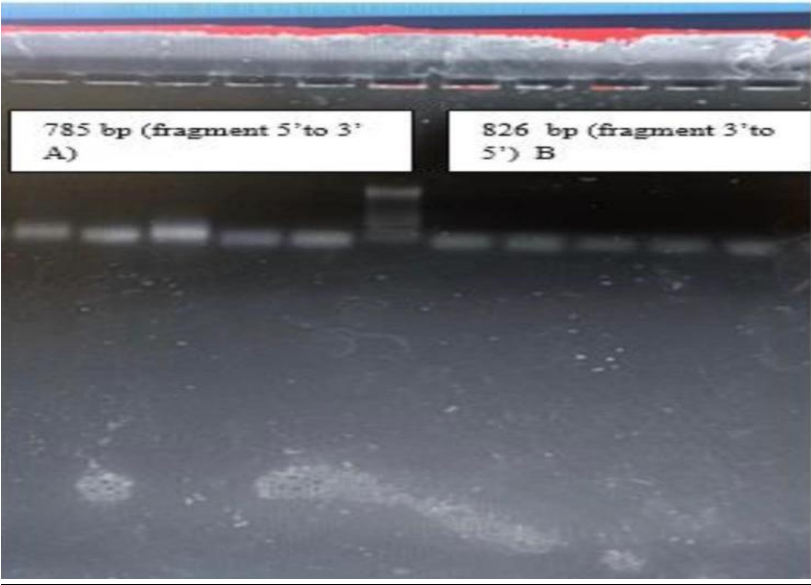
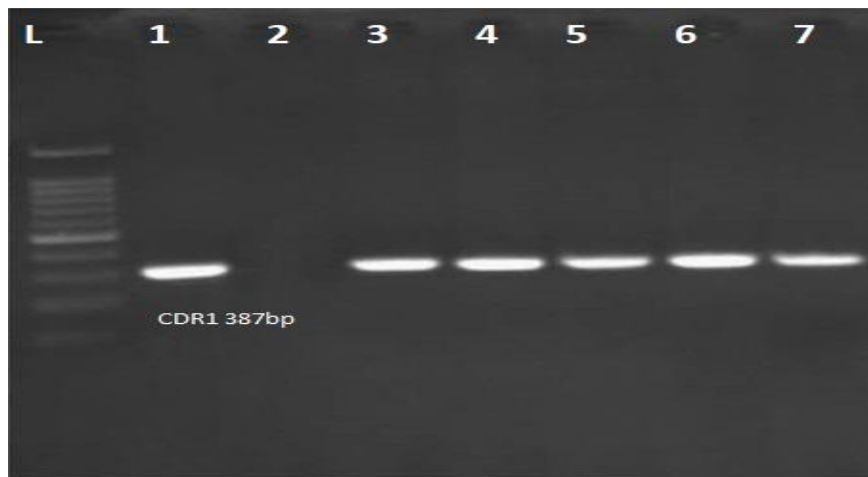


Figure No. 13: Gene distribution of *Candida* and non-*Candida* species: ERG11, MDR1, CDR1, CDR2

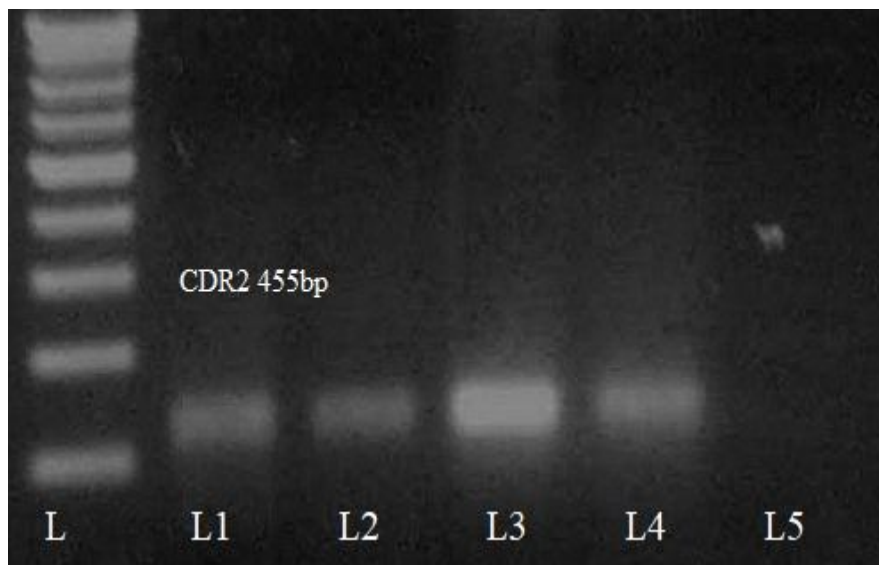
Figure No. 14 Gel pictures of azole resistant genes ERG11, CDR1, CDR2 and MDR1



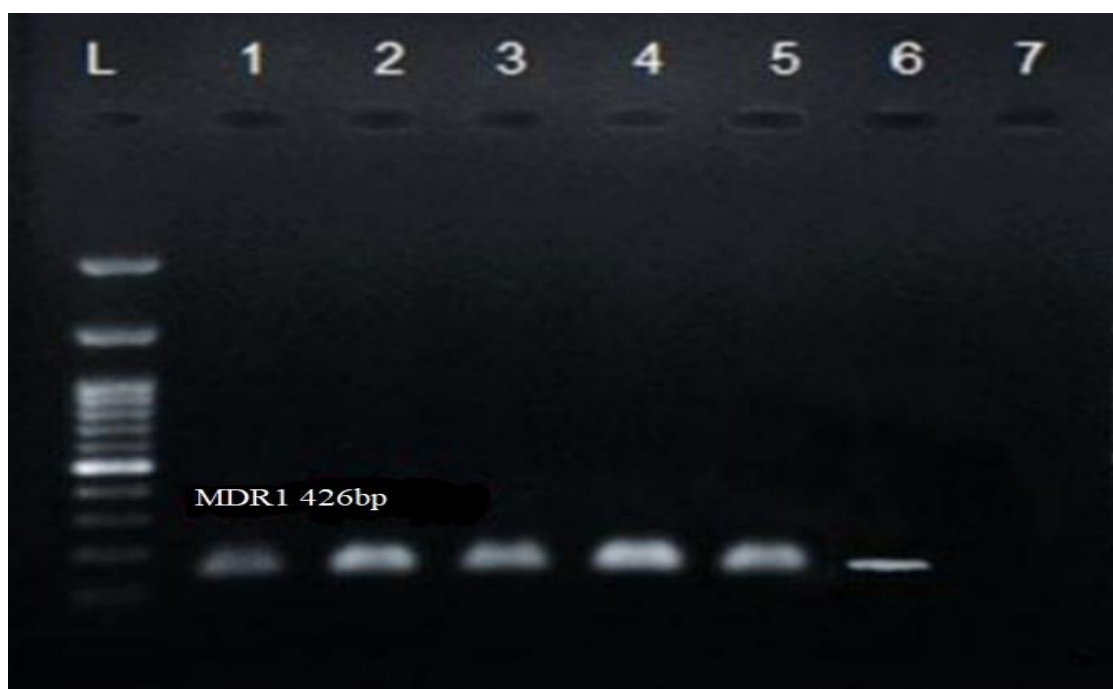
Amplified *erg11* gene in antifungal resistant *candida* species with positive control ATCC 10231. Lane L1,L2,L3,L4,L7,L8,L9,L10 corresponds to the positive control , L6 corresponds to the DNA ladder.



The Gene Extraction CDR1 gene L is the Ladder, L1 corresponds to the Positive Control ATCC CDR1 resistant; L2 corresponds to the Negative control for CDR1; L3- L7 are the sample positive for



The Gene Extraction CDR2 gene:
L corresponds to the DNA Ladder; L1- L2 are the sample positive for CDR2 gene; L3 corresponds to the Positive Control for CDR2 gene; L4 corresponds to the sample positive for CDR2 gene; L5 is the Negative Control gene for CDR2 gene



The Gene Extraction MDR1 gene
L1 is the sample positive for MDR1 gene, L corresponds to the DNA Ladder, L1-L2 is the Positive Control MDR1 resistant; L3, L6 are the sample positive for resistant gene MDR1, L7 negative control

4. DISCUSSION

Targeting different resistance genes and a large sample size of highly resistant strains allows a better determination of the relevance of the different mutations, and to differentiate between causal mutations and polymorphisms.

The pharmacological target of azoles is the enzyme 14- α -demethylase (encoded by *ERG11*), an important enzyme in ergosterol biosynthesis. Acquired resistance to azoles may be caused by several mechanisms [16]. Mutations of the pharmacological target are able to change the enzyme's structure and may result in reduced binding affinity of the azoles to Erg11p [17]. Frequently, efflux pumps reduce the intracellular accumulation of azoles. The increased efflux is based on overexpression of *CDR1/CDR2* (Candida Drug Resistance) and *MDR1* (Multi Drug Resistance). Gain-of-function mutations in the transcription factors *TAC1* and *CgPDR1* can lead to higher gene expression of drug efflux pumps [10]

The purpose of the molecular characterization of *ERG11*, *MDR1*, *CDR1* and *CDR2* gene in the present study was to understand the molecular mechanism of azole resistant in *Candida* species isolated from various clinical samples.

According to Sony Paul et al and Sardari et al, the *ERG11* gene of fluconazole-resistant *C.albicans* was amplified, all the resistant isolates showed mutations in *ERG11* gene, in particular, two sequences exhibited extensive mutations [38,41].

Many similar investigations addressing *ERG11* gene mutation reported different types of point mutations. However, these studies showed only a limited number of mutations, especially missense mutations.

In an Iranian study, researchers examined the up-regulation of *CDR1*, *CDR2*, *MDR1* and *ERG11* genes in two groups of *C.albicans* isolates. One group included isolates that were sensitive to treatment, while the other group consisted of resistant isolates. The findings of the study demonstrated that among these genes, *MDR1* exhibited the most frequent occurrence of overexpression, followed by *CDR1*.

In the present study it was observed that, Prevalence of ERG 11 gene was 7(13.20%) followed by MDR1 9(6.52%) CDR1 4(3.62%) and CDR2 4(3.62%) respectively. which was quite similar with the studies done by Sardari et al, Ikenyi et al and Dovo et al, the prevalence in these studies were 4%, 3.17%, 9.79% respectively.[41,33,10]

Table No. 14: Comparison of Prevalence of ERG 11 Gene among various studies.

Gene	Species	Present Study (2024)	Papon et al. (2013) ^[43]	Ben-Ami et al. (2012) ^[44]	Sardari A et al. 2019[41]	Ikenyi et al (2020)[33]	Dovo et al (2022)[10]
ERG11	<i>C. albicans</i>	13.20%	14.0%	12.0%	4%	3.17%	9.79%
	<i>C. tropicalis</i>	10.34%	-	9.5%	-		
	<i>C. glabrata</i>	14.28%	13.0%	-	-		
	<i>C. krusei</i>	13.33%	-	-	-		

Table No. 15: Comparison of Prevalence of CDR1 Gene among various studies.

Gene	Species	Present Study (2024)	Papon et al. (2013) ^[43]	Ben-Ami et al. (2012) ^[44]	Coste et al. (2007) ^[45]
CDR1	<i>C. albicans</i>	3.77%	8.0%	-	6.0%
	<i>C. tropicalis</i>	3.44%	-	-	-
	<i>C. glabrata</i>	0%	-	-	-
	<i>C. krusei</i>	0%	-	-	-

Table No. 16: Comparison of Prevalence of CDR2 Gene among various studies.

Gene	Species	Present Study (2024)	Coste et al. (2007) ^[45]	Khosravi Rad K et al (2017)[36]
CDR2	<i>C. albicans</i>	1.88%	2.0%	87.5%
	<i>C. tropicalis</i>	1.72%	-	
	<i>C. glabrata</i>	14.28%	-	
	<i>C. krusei</i>	6.66%	-	

Table No. 17: Comparison of MDR1 Gene among various studies.

Gene	Species	Present Study (2024)	Papon et al. (2013) ^[43]	Ben-Ami et al. (2012) ^[44]	Khosravi Rad K et al (2017)[36]
MDR1	<i>C. albicans</i>	7.54%	15.0%	18.0%	80%
	<i>C. tropicalis</i>	3.44%	-	5.0%	-
	<i>C. glabrata</i>	13.28%	12.0%	-	-
	<i>C. krusei</i>	13.33%	-	-	-

The widespread use of azole antifungal drugs has led to the development of drug-resistant isolates. Several molecular mechanisms that contribute to drug resistance have been identified, including increased mRNA levels for two types of

efflux pump genes: the ATP binding cassette transporter CDRs (*CDR1* and *CDR2*) and the major facilitator *MDR1*.

MDR1, *CDR1*, and *CDR2* are expressed early during logarithmic growth, *CDR4* is expressed late during logarithmic growth, and *CDR1* is preferentially expressed in stationary-phase cells. There is a small decrease in expression of these genes when the cells are grown in carbon sources other than glucose. While increased mRNA levels of efflux pump genes are commonly associated with azole resistance, the causes of increased mRNA levels have not yet been resolved. Southern blot analysis demonstrates that the increased mRNA levels in these isolates are not the result of gene amplification. Nuclear run-on assays show that *MDR1* and *CDR* mRNAs are transcriptionally overexpressed in the resistant isolate, suggesting that the antifungal drug resistance in this series is associated with the promoter and *trans*-acting factors of the *CDR1*, *CDR2*, and *MDR1* genes

Elisabete Ricardo et al in 2009 stated that Gene expression was quantified by real-time PCR, with and without ibuprofen, regarding *CDR1*, *CDR2*, *MDR1*, encoding for efflux pumps, and *ERG11*, encoding for azole target protein. A correlation between susceptibility phenotype and resistance gene expression profiles was determined. Ibuprofen and FK506 showed a clear synergistic effect when combined with fluconazole. Resistant isolates reverting to susceptible after incubation with ibuprofen showed *CDR1* and *CDR2* overexpression especially of the latter. Conversely, strains that did not revert displayed a remarkable increase in *ERG11* expression along with *CDR* genes.

5. CONCLUSION

The emergence of resistant strains, including those becoming resistant to multiple drugs, has been increasingly reported in recent years. In addition, it has been demonstrated that such resistant phenotypes can develop over the course of an infection, and in response to treatment, which adds yet another threat to patients. Still, we are far from having a broad understanding of how resistance towards antifungal drugs emerges in the context of infection or commensalism in yeast pathogens. Fortunately, recent developments in sequencing technologies are enabling us to catalog and trace the origins of mutations conferring resistance to antifungal drugs in different species.

The present study revealed the presence of four gene of *Candida* species which is responsible for azole resistant, In this study it was observed that, prevalence of *ERG 11* gene was 7(13.20%), *CDR1* 4(3.62%), *CDR2* 4(3.62%), and *MDR1* 9(6.52%) respectively.

In azole resistant, *ERG11* expression was more predominant than azole resistive isolates in *Candida albicans* followed by *MDR1*, *CDR1* and *CDR2* gene. For the past 20 years, many genes and mutation which promote fluconazole resistant's in clinical isolates especially in *Candida albicans* has been revealed.

The high expression levels of *ERG11*, *MDR-1*, *CDR1* and *CDR2* genes in *C. albicans* isolates in various clinical samples highlights the important role of these genes in developing fluconazole resistance, causing treatment attempts to fail and leading to chronic infections.

Detecting the mechanism of resistance to antifungal compounds and identifying the *Candida* isolates in clinical laboratories are of high importance. Furthermore, the high prevalence of fluconazole-resistant strains of *C. albicans* and non-*Candida albicans* in this particular geographical area in clinical samples indicate the presence of *ERG11* gene.

DECLARATIONS:

Conflicts of interest: There is no any conflict of interest associated with this study

Consent to participate: There is consent to participate.

Consent for publication: There is consent for the publication of this paper.

Authors' contributions: Author equally contributed the work.

REFERENCE

- [1] Zghair A. Enzymatic efficacy of some types of aspergillus fungi isolated from some manuscripts and its effect on some of the physical and chemical properties of the manuscripts. IOP Conf Ser Mater Sci Eng. 2019;571(1):012043
- [2] Miruka HN, Eric OO, Musyoki S, Awuor SO. Incidence, antifungal resistance properties, and virulence traits of *Candida* species isolated from HIV/AIDS patients from the hospital system in Kenya. Microbiology Society. 2023.
- [3] Al-Dabbagh AAH, Ajah HA, Salman JAS. Detection of virulence factors from *Candida* spp. isolated from oral and vaginal candidiasis in Iraqi patients. Arch Razi Inst. 2023;78(1):465–74

- [4] Ismail M, Abd El-Haliem N, Aboelmagd E. Assessment of virulence factors and antifungal susceptibility of Candida species isolated from catheter-associated urinary tract infections. *Al-Azhar Int Med J*. 2020;0(0):0
- [5] Fez F, Salam YA. Hyphal wall protein 1 gene and biofilm formation among Candida albicans isolates from Ain Shams University Hospitals. *Egypt J Med Microbiol*. 2023;32(1):163–8.
- [6] Abdul-Lateef LA, Al-Kafhaji KA, Al-saddam ASK. Genetic identification of some virulence factors of Candida albicans in candidal intertrigo of diabetic patients in Hilla Province/Iraq. *Aust J Basic Appl Sci*. 2015;9(36):66–72.
- [7] Luo G, Samaranayake LP, Cheung BPK, Tang G. Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) detection of *HLP* gene expression in *Candida glabrata* and its possible role in in vitro haemolysin production. *APMIS*. 2004;112(4–5):283–90.
- [8] Abdel-Hamid RM, El-Mahallawy HA, Abdelfattah NE. The impact of increasing non-albicans Candida trends on diagnostics in immunocompromised patients. *Braz J Microbiol*. 2023;54:2879–92.
- [9] Raja NS. Epidemiology, risk factors, treatment and outcome of Candida bloodstream infections because of Candida albicans and Candida non-albicans in two district general hospitals in the United Kingdom. *Int J Clin Pract*. 2021;75(1).
- [10] Ortiz B, Aguilar K, Galindo C, Molina L, Fontecha G. Candida species isolated from clinical samples in a tertiary hospital in Honduras: where is Candida auris? *Curr Med Mycol*. 2022;8(3):1–8.
- [11] Malinová Z, Čonková E, Václav P. Biofilm formation in medically important Candida species. *J Fungi (Basel)*. 2023;9(10):955.
- [12] Boonsilp S, Homkaew A, Phumisantiphong U, Nutalai D, Wongsuk T. Species distribution, antifungal susceptibility, and molecular epidemiology of Candida species causing candidemia in a tertiary care hospital in Bangkok, Thailand. *J Fungi (Basel)*. 2021;7(7):577.
- [13] Nandini D, Manonmoney J, Lavanya J, Leela KV, Sujith S. A study on prevalence and characterization of Candida species in immunocompromised patients. *J Pure Appl Microbiol*. 2021;15(4):2065–72.
- [14] Aboueldahab S, Elsayed A, Shehata A, Bakeir A. Phenotypic identification and antifungal susceptibility patterns of Candida species isolated from various clinical specimens in Suez Canal University Hospitals. *Microbes Infect Dis*. 2023;4(2):617–25.
- [15] Ahmed M, Goher H, Dewedar R, Nassar Y, Nada M, Kotb M. A comparative study between invasive and superficial Candida albicans infections regarding biofilm formation, ALS3 and SAP1-6 genes expression and antifungal drug susceptibility. *Egypt J Med Microbiol*. 2024;33(2):1–9.
- [16] Quindos G. Epidemiology of candidaemia and invasive candidiasis. A changing face. *Rev Iberoam Micol* 2014; 31(1): 42–48.
- [17] Rex JH, Pfaller MA, Walsh TJ, Chaturvedi V, Espinel-Ingroff A, Ghannoum MA, et al. Antifungal susceptibility testing: practical aspects and current challenges. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 2001; 14(4): 643–658.
- [18] Sasso M, Roger C, Sasso M, Poujol H, Saber Barbar S, Lefrant J. Changes in the distribution of colonising and infecting Candida spp. isolates, antifungal drug consumption and susceptibility in a French intensive care unit: A 10- year study. *Mycoses* 2017; 60(12):770–80.
- [19] Khadka S, Sherchand JB, Pokhrel BM, Parajuli K, Mishra SK, Sharma S, et al. Isolation, speciation and antifungal susceptibility testing of Candida isolates from various clinical specimens at a tertiary care hospital, Nepal. *BMC research notes* 2017; 10(1):1–5.
- [20] J. C. O. Sardi, L. Scorzoni, T. Bernardi, A. M. Fusco-Almeida, and M. J. S. Giannini, “Candida species: current epidemiology, pathogenicity, biofilm formation, natural antifungal products and new therapeutic options,” *Journal of Medical Microbiology*. 2013; vol.62, no.1, pp.10–24.
- [21] Suhr.M.J.: Characterization and Investigation of Fungi Inhabiting the Gastrointestinal Tract of Healthy and Diseased Humans: Second Edition, Pearson Education, Sydney; 2007.
- [22] .M.Thangam,S.Smitha,andC.N.Deivanayagam,“PhospholipaseactivityofCandidaisolatesfrompatientswithchronic lung disease,” *Lung India*. 1989; vol.7,no.3,pp.125–126.
- [23] L. P. Samaranayake, J. M. Raeside, and T. W. MacFarlane, “Factors affecting the phospholipase activity of Candida species in vitro,” *Sabouraudia Journal of Medical and Veterinary Mycology*. 1984; vol.22,no.3,pp.201–207.
- [24] Urvah Chongtham , Debna Chan thokpam , ajkar Manojkar Singh.solation, Identification and Antifungal Susceptibility Testing of Candida Species: A Cross-sectional Study from Manipur, India.DOI: 10.7860/JCDR/2022/55695.16248.
- [25] Shweta R. Sharma , Amit Mishra , Sudhir Singh , Prachi Singh. distribution of candida infection in clinical samples and their antifungal susceptibility pattern in hospital of western u.p. *Int J Acad Med Pharm* 2023; 5 (6); 440–443.
- [26] Nusrat Aijaz, Kiranjeet Kaur. Speciation and antifungal susceptibility pattern of Candida isolated from blood and body fluids.Indian journal of Microbiology Research 2023;10(1):18–21.

- [27] Pavneet Kaur, Tania Rawat , Sarabjeet Sharma , Parmeet Kaur. Speciation of candida species isolated in clinical samples in a tertiary health care centre in Northern India. IP International Journal of Medical Microbiology and Tropical Diseases 2021;7(4):262–268.
- [28] D.C Shwetha and D Venkatesha. Identification and Antifungal Susceptibility of *Candida* Species isolated from various clinical samples at a Tertiary care Hospital . Int J.Curr.Microbiol.App.Sci(2021)10(03):527-532.
- [29] Janaina c. o. sardi , Cristiane duque, jos éf. h ö fling & reginaldo b. gon ç alves Genetic and phenotypic evaluation of *Candida albicans* strains isolated from subgingival biofilm of diabetic patients with chronic periodontitis.
- [30] C. J. Seneviratne, L. Jin, and L. P. Samaranayake, “Biofilm lifestyle of *Candida*: a mini review,” Oral Diseases. 2008; vol. 14,no. 7, pp. 582–590.
- [31] M. Singhai, A. Malik, M. Shahid, M. A. Malik, and R. Goyal, “Characterization of fungal biofilm-based catheter-related sepsis,” Chronicles of Young Scientists. 2012; vol.3,no.1,pp.48–52.
- [32] N. Yigit, A. E. Aktas, and A. Ayyildiz, “Detection of coagulase activity in pathogenic *Candida* species,” Journal of International Medical Research. 2008; vol.36,no.6,pp.1378–1382.
- [33] Ghaddar N, Anastasiadis E, Halimeh R, Ghaddar A, Dhar R, AlFouzan W, et al. Prevalence and antifungal susceptibility of *Candida albicans* causing vaginal discharge among pregnant women in Lebanon. BMC infectious diseases 2020; 20(1): 1-9.
- [34] Zeng ZR, Tian G, Ding YH, Yang K, Liu JB, Deng J. Surveillance study of the prevalence, species distribution, antifungal susceptibility, risk factors and mortality of invasive candidiasis in a tertiary teaching hospital in Southwest China. BMC infectious diseases 2019; 19(1):1-12.
- [35] Fothergill AW, Sutton DA, McCarthy DI, Wiederhold NP. Impact of new antifungal breakpoints on antifungal resistance in *Candida* species. J Clin Microbiol 2014; 52(3):994–7.
- [36] Khan S, Imran M, Imran M, Pindari N. Antimicrobial activity of various ethanolic plant extracts against pathogenic multi drug resistant *Candida* spp. Bioinformation . 2017; 13(3): 67-72.
- [37] S. Ying and L. Chunyang, “Correlation between phospholipase of *Candida albicans* and resistance to fluconazole,” Mycoses 2012; ,vol. 55, no. 1, pp. 50–55.
- [38] Sony Paul, Iyanar Kannan, Kalyani Mohanram. Extensive ERG11 mutations associated with fluconazole resistant *Candida albicans* isolated from HIV-infected patients. 2019, 5(3):1-6.
- [39] Davis.D.: Adaptation to environmental pH in *Candida albicans* and its relation to pathogenesis: Cur gene, 2014; 44(1):1- 7.
- [40] Cavalheiro M., Teixeira M.C. *Candida* Biofilms: Threats, challenges, and promising strategies. Front. Med. 2018;5:28.
- [41] Ali Sardari , Hossein Zarrinfar , Rasoul Mohammadi. Detection of ERG11 point mutations in Iranian fluconazoleresistant *Candida albicans* isolates. Curr Med Mycol. 2019; 5(1): 7-14. DOI: 10.18502/cmm.5.1.531.
- [42] Muneeza Anwar, Dr. Sidrah Saleem, Dr. Shah Jahan et al. phenotypic identification of *Candida* species and relative expression of CDR1 gene in fluconazole sensitive and resistant *Candidaalbicans*.J.Univ. DentColl.2023;vol.14(4):693-699..
- [43] Papon N, Noël T, Florent M, et al. ERG11 gene and azole resistance in *Candida* species: a molecular perspective. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2013;57(6):2693–2701.
- [44] Ben-Ami R, Olshtain-Pops K, Krieger M, et al. Resistance mechanisms in *Candida tropicalis*: an emerging challenge. J Clin Microbiol. 2012;50(11):3435–3442.
- [45] Coste A, Selmecki A, Forche A, et al. CDR1 and azole resistance in *Candida albicans*. Eukaryot Cell. 2007;6(4):678–685.