# Whole RNA-Sequencing and Transcriptome Assembly of *Candida albicans* and *Candida africana* under Chlamydospore-Inducing Conditions

Domenico Giosa<sup>1</sup>, Maria Rosa Felice<sup>2</sup>, Travis J. Lawrence<sup>3,4</sup>, Megha Gulati<sup>3</sup>, Fabio Scordino<sup>1</sup>, Letterio Giuffrè<sup>5</sup>, Carla Lo Passo<sup>2</sup>, Enrico D'Alessandro<sup>5</sup>, Giuseppe Criseo<sup>2</sup>, David H. Ardell<sup>3</sup>, Aaron D. Hernday<sup>3</sup>, Clarissa J. Nobile<sup>3</sup>, and Orazio Romeo<sup>1,2,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>IRCCS Centro Neurolesi "Bonino-Pulejo," Messina, Italy

<sup>2</sup>Department of Chemical, Biological, Pharmaceutical, and Environmental Sciences, University of Messina, Italy

<sup>3</sup>Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California, Merced, CA

<sup>4</sup>Quantitative and System Biology Graduate Program, University of California, Merced, CA

<sup>5</sup>Department of Veterinary Sciences, Division of Animal Production, University of Messina, Italy

\*Corresponding author: E-mail: oromeo@unime.it.

Accepted: July 25, 2017

**Data deposition:** The data sets supporting the conclusions of this article have been deposited in the Transcriptome Shotgun Assembly (TSA) database under accession numbers GEVV02000000 (CBS 11016 strain) and GEVW02000000 (GE1 strain), associated with BioProject IDs PRJNA327731 and PRJNA327736, respectively. The raw reads used for the transcriptome analysis have also been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under the following accession numbers SRR3747616 and SRR3745408.

# Abstract

*Candida albicans* is the most common cause of life-threatening fungal infections in humans, especially in immunocompromised individuals. Crucial to its success as an opportunistic pathogen is the considerable dynamism of its genome, which readily undergoes genetic changes generating new phenotypes and shaping the evolution of new strains. *Candida africana* is an intriguing *C. albicans* biovariant strain that exhibits remarkable genetic and phenotypic differences when compared with standard *C. albicans* isolates. *Candida africana* is well-known for its low degree of virulence compared with *C. albicans* and for its inability to produce chlamydospores that *C. albicans*, characteristically, produces under certain environmental conditions. Chlamydospores are large, spherical structures, whose biological function is still unknown. For this reason, we have sequenced, assembled, and annotated the whole transcriptomes obtained from an efficient *C. albicans* chlamydospore-producing clinical strain (GE1), compared with the natural chlamydospore-negative *C. africana* clinical strain (CBS 11016). The transcriptomes of both *C. albicans* (GE1) and *C. africana* (CBS 11016) clinical strains, grown under chlamydospore-inducing conditions, were sequenced and assembled into 7,442 (GE1 strain) and 8,370 (CBS 11016 strain) high quality transcripts, respectively. The release of the first assembly of the *C. africana* transcriptome will allow future comparative studies to better understand the biology and evolution of this important human fungal pathogen.

Key words: Candida africana, Candida albicans, Chlamydospores, RNA-seq, transcriptome assembly, nTAR.

# Introduction

*Candida albicans* is a diploid commensal fungus that asymptomatically colonizes the gastrointestinal and genitourinary tracts, vagina and skin of healthy humans, and other warmblooded animals (Neville et al. 2015). However, it is also a major opportunistic fungal pathogen capable of causing a

variety of superficial infections in healthy individuals as well as more severe infections, typically in immunocompromised hosts (Papon et al. 2013). Genetically, this yeast is extraordinarily versatile and its population structure is exceptionally heterogeneous, correlating with its prevalence in different clinical samples and the notable pathogenic potential of the

© The Author 2017. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Society for Molecular Biology and Evolution.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com

isolates (McManus and Coleman 2014). Nevertheless, a particular group of strains appears to be better adapted at causing vaginal infections than others and represents an interesting example of divergent evolution in *C. albicans* (Odds 2010). These strains were originally proposed to be a new *Candida* species, *Candida africana* (Tietz et al. 2001), however comparative genetic studies indicated that the differences between *C. albicans* and *C. africana* are insufficient to support its status as a new *Candida* species (Odds et al. 2007; Romeo and Criseo 2011).

Despite the high degree of genetic similarity shared between *C. albicans* and *C. africana*, there is considerable phenotypic diversity differentiating the two pathogens. Unlike *C. albicans*, *C. africana* is relatively limited in its abilities to assimilate distinct carbon sources, shows a low degree of virulence in disseminated infection models in mice, has a reduced growth rate, and exhibits a decreased ability to filament under standard filament-inducing conditions (Romeo et al. 2013; Pagniez et al. 2015; Felice et al. 2016). Another distinct feature of *C. africana* compared with *C. albicans* is its inability to form chlamydospores, large, spherical, thick-walled structures of unknown function that in the past were widely used as a taxonomic criterion to distinguish *C. albicans* from other *Candida* species.

Chlamydospore development in *C. albicans* is not well understood; we, therefore, decided to explore and compare the transcriptomes of *C. albicans* and *C. africana* in response to specific culture conditions that are known to induce chlamydospore formation in *C. albicans*.

In this study we report, for the first time, the wholetranscriptome profiles of *C. albicans* and *C. africana* biovariant strains grown under chlamydospore-inducing conditions.

# **Materials and Methods**

#### Fungal Strains and Culture Conditions

In this study, we examined a typical *C. albicans* clinical strain (named GE1) and the reference clinical strain CBS 11016 also known as *C. africana*, a chlamydospore-negative biovariant of *C. albicans* (Romeo and Criseo 2009). Both *Candida* strains were isolated from vaginal samples of women suffering from vaginitis and were identified using conventional clinical laboratory and molecular methods (Romeo and Criseo 2008). The *C. albicans* GE1 strain shows a strong ability to produce chlamydospores when cultivated on plates containing corn meal agar (CMA) plus 1% tween 80 at 25 °C for 48–72 h, whereas the *C. africana* CBS 11016 strain is unable to form chlamydospores under the same culture conditions (Romeo and Criseo 2009).

To stimulate chlamydospore production and induce the expression of genes associated with their formation, 15 ml of a standard overnight yeast suspension culture (containing  $\sim 10^7$  cells/ml) was used to inoculate a 100 mm diameter Petri

dish containing CMA plus 1% tween 80. The plates were incubated at 25 °C and microscopically monitored until chlamydospores were produced by the positive GE1 strain, which occurred at 48 h, and cells were collected and subjected to total RNA extraction.

## RNA Extraction and Sequencing

A total of 1  $\times$  10<sup>8</sup> yeast cells were used for RNA extraction using the Ribopure Yeast Purification kit (Thermofisher, Italy) following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA quantification was carried out spectrophotometrically at 260 nm and 280 nm and RNA integrity was evaluated with an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer instrument using the RNA 6000 Nano kit (Agilent Technologies, Italy).

Before RNA-Seq, the expression levels of two genes highly expressed specifically during chlamydospore formation, *CSP1* and *CSP2*, were examined by quantitative real time PCR as described previously (Palige et al. 2013). For cDNA synthesis, 2  $\mu$ g of total RNA were digested with DNase I (Sigma-Aldrich, Italy) following manufacturer's instructions and retrotranscribed by RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (Thermofisher, Italy) using oligo(dT) at 42 °C for 1 h followed by a reverse transcriptase denaturation step at 70 °C for 10 min.

The mRNA levels of *CSP1* and *CSP2* were quantified by StepOne Plus Real Time PCR system (Applied Biosystem, Italy) using SYBR Premix Ex Taq II (Takara, Clontech, Italy) and primers listed in table 1. Actin (*ACT1*) was used as housekeeping gene and the  $\Delta\Delta$ Ct was calculated using the Livak and Schmittgen (2001) method. cDNA was also used to confirm the presence of two distinct "novel transcriptionally active regions" (nTARs) (table 2) detected during evaluation of the transcriptome assembly analysis. The sequences of these transcripts were retrieved from our assemblies, aligned with MEGA6 software (Tamura et al. 2013) and used to design specific oligonucleotide primers (table 1).

In vitro amplifications of the nTARs were performed separately using the DreamTaq PCR Master Mix (Thermofisher, Italy) plus 1  $\mu$ l of cDNA and 0.5  $\mu$ M of each primer pair (table 1). PCR reactions were carried out in a Bio-Rad T100 thermal cycler with preliminary denaturation at 95 °C for 4 min followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 40 sec, annealing at 56 °C for 40 sec, extension at 72 °C for 45 sec and a final step of 10 min at 72 °C. Amplicons were subjected to 2% agarose gel electrophoresis to confirm the presence of amplified fragments, expected size and the absence of nonspecific products. Subsequently, PCR products were purified using the QIAquik PCR Purification kit (Qiagen, Italy) and sequenced at the Eurofins Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany; www.eurofinsgenomics.eu) using the same primers used for PCR (table 1).

For whole RNA sequencing,  ${\sim}4\,\mu g\,(100\,ng/\mu l)$  of high quality total RNA (OD\_{260/280}  ${\geq}\,2.0;$  RIN value  ${\geq}\,9.6)$  from each

#### Table 1

Oligonucleotide Primers Used in This Study

Primer Name	Sequence (5′→3′)	Target	Amplicon Size (bp)	Reference	
Ca3512_fw1	ACACCACTGCAAGTATCCATATTGTGA	CSP1	270	Palige et al. (2013)	
Ca3512_rev1	ATCTTGTATAACCCTTTGTCGTCAAC				
Ca4170_fw1	GCTACTGGTGAAATTGTTGCTAATC	CSP2	280	Palige et al. (2013)	
Ca4170_rev1	TCATCATCACAGTCATCGCTATC				
ACT1-RT-F	TCCAGAAGCTTTGTTCAGACCAGC	ACT1	170	Felice et al. (2016)	
ACT1-RT-R	TGCATACGTTCAGCAATACCTGGG				
nTAR1_fw	GTTGTTATTGTGATGGTGGTGG	nTAR1	197	This study	
nTAR1_rev	GGTAAGAGAGGGTTCTGCAGC				
nTAR2_fw	GCCAATCTTCGTATATGTGGC	nTAR2	278	This study	
nTAR2_rev	CTGGTGTTCTTCCCCTAGC				

#### Table 2

Genomic Coordinates of the Two nTARs Found in This Study

nTAR Name	CHR	Start	Stop	Overlap with Previous nTAR	Conservation with Other Candida spp.	GenBank
nTAR1	R	2,009,828	2,010,096	—	NO	GEVV02006198
nTAR2	R	1,695,149	1,695,435	TFRW181 <sup>a</sup>	NO	GEVV02005397

Note.—CHR, chromosome. <sup>a</sup>Sellam et al. (2010)

Sellam et al. (2010).

*Candida* strain, were sent to GATC Biotech (Konstanz, Germany) for poly-A filtering, fragmentation, random primed cDNA synthesis and library preparation for Illumina HiSeq single read sequencing (read length:  $1 \times 50$  bp).

# Transcriptome Assembly and Evaluation

Before assembling, raw reads were processed using the programs Scythe (version 0.994 BETA; https://github.com/vsbuf falo/scythe; last accessed July 28, 2017) and Sickle (version 1.33; https://github.com/najoshi/sickle; last accessed July 28, 2017) to remove adapters and sequences with low Phredscores (cutoff:  $\geq$ 20).

For assembling whole transcriptomes, we used two different strategies: a de novo approach using BinPacker version 1.0 (Liu et al. 2016) and a reference based assembly using StringTie version 1.3.0 (Pertea et al. 2015) with two different alignment programs: HISAT2 version 2.0.4 (Kim et al. 2015) and Subjunc version 1.22.3 (Liao et al. 2013). Both HISAT2 and Subjunc short read aligners produced similar results. The reference genome used was that of *C. albicans* SC5314, version A22-s05-m05-r03, retrieved from the *Candida* Genome Database (CGD) (www.candidagenome.org).

To evaluate the completeness of our assemblies, we used BUSCO version 1.22 (Simão et al. 2015), which quantitatively assesses the assembled transcriptomes by comparing them against a database (OrthoDB; www.orthodb.org) of universal single copy orthologs for fungi.

A full description of the command-line programs, including an R script used for Subjunc alignment in the reference based assembly, is provided in the supplementary files S1 and S2, Supplementary Material online, respectively.

Overall statistics of the two *Candida* transcriptomes assembled in this study were calculated using FAST version 1.06 (Lawrence et al. 2015) and SAMtools version 1.3.1 (Li et al. 2009).

# Results

In this study, the *C. albicans* GE1 strain produced abundant chlamydospores after 48 h of incubation on CMA supplemented with 1% tween 80 whereas these structures were not observed in the *C. africana* CBS 11016 culture. To further demonstrate the lack of chlamydospore production in *C. africana*, we examined the induction of two specific genes, *CSP1* and *CSP2*, which were reported to be highly upregulated during chlamydospore development in *C. albicans* (Palige et al. 2013). As expected the expression levels of these two genes were significantly elevated in the GE1 strain compared with CBS 11016 strain (data not shown).

Illumina whole transcriptome sequencing produced over 78 and 61 million raw reads for strains CBS 11016 and GE1, respectively (table 3). After quality filtering and trimming,  $\sim 0.51\%$  (CBS 11016 strain) and 0.76% (GE1 strain) of the total reads were removed, leaving a large data set of high-quality reads for both de novo and reference guided assembling (average Q-score:  $\sim$ 38) (table 3). The number of complete, fragmented, and missing orthologs obtained by BUSCO (Simão et al. 2015) for all transcriptomes is shown in figure 1. Based on this result, it appears that the de novo

approach yielded a more complete transcriptome by a large margin.

To assess whether the transcripts were correctly assembled, an additional quality analysis was performed by mapping back the original reads to the assembled transcriptomes. The data showed that 95% of the reads mapped to both de novo assemblies produced by BinPacker while only 44.7% (*C. africana*) and 54% (*C. albicans*) of the reads mapped to the referencebased transcriptomes assembled by StringTie.

#### Table 3

Transcriptome Assembly Statistics for C. africana and C. albicans

	CBS 11016	GE1
Total raw reads	78,360,457	61,354,627
Number of reads used for assembling <sup>a</sup>	77,957,181	60,885,731
Average read length	50.77	50.74
Total mapped <sup>b</sup>	75,736,643	58,898,936
Uniquely mapped <sup>c</sup>	72,959,571	55,128,869
Multiply mapped <sup>d</sup>	2,777,072	3,770,067
Unaligned	2,623,814	2,455,691
GC content (%)	34.3	34.4
Total assembled contigs	8,370	7,442
Total assembly length (bp)	10,507,121	12,270,608
Number of contigs $\geq$ 500 bp	5,582	6,418
Number of contigs $\geq$ 1000 bp	3,784	4,723
Longest contig (bp)	10,102	10,652
Contig N <sub>50</sub>	2,020	2,252
Number of contigs with ORF <sup>e</sup>	7,051	7,048

<sup>a</sup>Adapters removed using Scythe and sequences trimmed by quality score using Sickle.

<sup>b</sup>Total number of reads aligned on the C. *albicans* reference genome version A22-s05-m05-r03.

 $^{\rm c}\textsc{Total}$  number of reads mapped to uniquely locations in the C. albicans genome.

 $^d$  Total number of reads mapped to multiple locations in the C. albicans genome.  $^e$  Total number of contigs that contain an ORF  $\geq$  60 bp.

The de novo assembled transcriptomes (Genbank accession number: GEVW02000000 for GE1 and GEVV02000000 for CBS 11016) resulted in 7,442 contigs ( $\geq$ 200 bp; largest contig 10,652 bp; total consensus length of 12,270,608 bp) for the *C. albicans* GE1 strain and 8,370 contigs ( $\geq$ 200 bp; largest contig 10,102 bp; total consensus length of 10,507,121 bp) for the *C. africana* CBS 11016 strain, constituting ~43% and ~37%, respectively, of the entire *C. albicans* genome. Overall statistics of the two *Candida* transcriptomes assembled in this study are summarized in table 3. A detailed list of the genes detected, including their annotations, is provided in the supplementary table S1, Supplementary Material online.

From our RNA-seq data we generated over 75 (*C. africana*) and 58 (*C. albicans*) million mappable reads (table 3) and identified two novel transcriptionally active regions (nTARs) that mapped outside of the annotated regions of the *C. albicans* reference genome used in this study (fig. 2). The presence of the two nTARs in our cDNA samples was further verified by standard Sanger sequencing, which indicated that both *C. albicans* and *C. africana* produce these transcripts.

In silico translation (http://web.expasy.org/translate; last accessed July 28, 2017) and BLAST analysis were unable to identify any homologous product currently available in the public databases and therefore our nTARs were classified as long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs). Both lncRNAs, nTAR1 and nTAR2, map to two different unannotated regions of chromosome R (table 2 and fig. 2) between *tD(GUC)7* (encoding a tRNA-Asp) and an uncharacterized ORF (CR\_09460 C\_A) and between *SAP2* (encoding a flavohemoglobin-related protein) (fig. 2).

## **Discussions and Conclusions**

The biological function of chlamydospores is unknown and the reasons why only *C. albicans*, and its closely related species

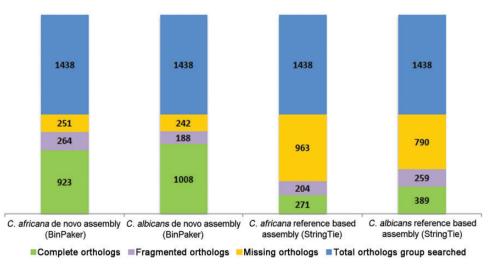


Fig. 1.—Number of complete, fragmented, and missing orthologs obtained by BUSCO analysis (Simão et al. 2015) using both de novo and referenceguided assemblies of *C. africana* and *C. albicans*.

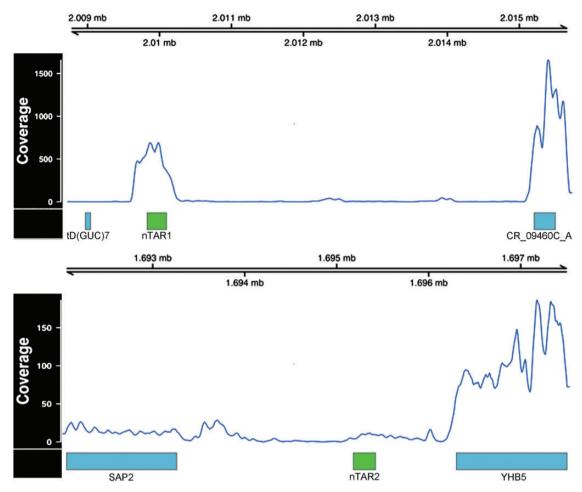


Fig. 2.—Signal tracks of RNA-seq data for the two nTARs found in this study.

*C. dubliniensis*, have retained this phenotype throughout evolution remains a mystery (Palige et al. 2013; Navarathna et al. 2016).

Different hypotheses have been put forth to explain the presence of these characteristic structures in these two *Candida* species, but none have been definitely proven. It was proposed that chlamydospores could allow the survival of the fungus in harsh environmental conditions or, given that *C. albicans* and *C. dubliniensis* are restricted to humans, could facilitate persistence or survival of these species within the mammalian host (Staib and Morschhäuser 2007). However, rarely have chlamydospores been observed in infected tissues (Heineman et al. 1961; Ho and O'Day 1981; Chabasse et al. 1988; Cole et al. 1991) although a recent study documenting their formation in the kidneys of experimentally infected mice suggested a role in pathogenesis (Navarathna et al. 2016).

Evolutionarily, the assumption that chlamydospore production has persisted within *C. albicans* populations is not strictly true since a number of pathogenic strains, such as *C. africana*, have lost the ability to produce chlamydospores (Tietz et al. 2001; Romeo et al. 2013). These strains represent a group of phylogenetically distinct *C. albicans* strains (Odds 2010) and show many distinctive phenotypic traits, including profound changes in nutrient assimilation, reduced filamentation, and a low degree of virulence in insect and mammalian models (Borman et al. 2013; Romeo et al. 2013; Pagniez et al. 2015; Felice et al. 2016). This phenotypic diversity may be the result of a unique genetic background (Felice et al. 2016), however, the genomic sequence of *C. africana* has not yet been determined. For this reason, we decided to sequence the whole transcriptome of *C. africana*, compared with a standard *C. albicans* strain, in order to learn which genes are expressed under chlamydospore-inducing conditions.

In this study both transcriptomes were assembled using two different methods and our data suggested that a de novo assembly approach was advantageous, despite the availability of a closely related reference genome (Huang et al. 2016). The better performance of the de novo approach may be due, in part, to the nature of our sequencing data (consisting of 50 bp single reads), since most reference based transcriptome assemblers are optimized to take advantage of the additional information contained in paired-end data. However, it is also possible that genetic differences among strains could have contributed to the superior performance of the de novo over reference-based transcriptome assemblies that we observed (Huang et al. 2016). In fact, genetically, the population structure of *C. albicans* is remarkably heterogeneous and *C. africana* represents the most evolutionary divergent lineage currently known (Odds et al. 2007; Odds 2010). The greater divergence of *C. africana* CBS 11016 from the reference *C. albicans* genome strain (SC5314) may explain why its reference-based assembly missed more orthologs (fig. 1) and mapped back fewer reads than the referencebased assembly using *C. albicans* GE1.

Another interesting finding of this study relates to the discovery of novel and uncharacterized transcriptionally active regions whose functions are at present unknown, but are believed to be of regulatory importance. One nTAR (nTAR2; table 2), although not obviously evident by RNA-seg read coverage (fig. 2), overlaps exactly the same nTAR (TFRW181) initially described by Sellam et al. (2010) in a C. albicans genome annotation paper using high-resolution tiling arrays, and later reported by Nobile et al. (2012) using RNA-seg to study the transcriptional circuitry controlling C. albicans biofilm formation. This nTAR, as well as the new nTAR1 reported here, was not found in any other sequenced Candida species (Candida glabrata CBS 138, Candida tropicalis MYA-3404, Candida parapsilosis CDC 317, Candida orthopsilosis Co 90-125, Candida lusitaniae ATCC 42720, Candida guilliermondii ATCC 6260 and C. dubliniensis CD 36) accessible through the Candida genome database.

Overall the release of the first assembly of the *C. africana* transcriptome represents an important milestone for *Candida* research because it sets the framework for future genetic studies to determine the transcriptional network underlying chlamydospore development in *C. albicans*, and also provides a platform for future comparative studies between these two closely related strains, whose differences in phenotypic and genetic traits are remarkably vast.

#### **Supplementary Material**

Supplementary data are available at *Genome Biology and Evolution* online.

## Acknowledgments

This study was funded in part by the University of Messina, Ordinary Research Program PRA2008/2009 (ORME097YB2) and by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) grant (R00AI100896 to C.J.N.). High performance computing (HPC) resources were supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF) (ACI-1429783).

#### Literature Cited

Borman AM, et al. 2013. Epidemiology, antifungal susceptibility, and pathogenicity of *Candida africana* isolates from the United Kingdom. J Clin Microbiol. 51(3):967–972.

- Chabasse D, Bouchara JP, de Gentile L, Chennebault JM. 1988. *Candida albicans* chlamydospores observed in vivo in a patient with AIDS. Ann Biol Clin. (Paris) 46:817–818.
- Cole GT, Seshan KR, Phaneuf M, Lynn KT. 1991. Chlamydospore-like cells of *Candida albicans* in the gastrointestinal tract of infected, immunocompromised mice. Can J Microbiol. 37(8):637–646.
- Felice MR, et al. 2016. Molecular characterization of the N-acetylglucosamine catabolic genes in *Candida africana*, a natural N-acetylglucosamine kinase (HXK1) mutant. PLoS One 11(1):0147902.
- Heineman HS, Yunis EJ, Siemienski J, Braude A. 1961. Chlamydospores and dimorphism in *Candida albicans* endocarditis. Observations in a fatal superinfection during treatment of *Staphylococcus* endocarditis. Arch Intern Med. 108(4):570–577.
- Ho PC, O'Day DM. 1981. *Candida* endophthalmitis and infection of costal cartilages. Br J Ophthalmol. 65(5):333–334.
- Huang X, Chen XG, Armbruster PA. 2016. Comparative performance of transcriptome assembly methods for non-model organisms. BMC Genomics 17:523.
- Kim D, Langmead B, Salzberg SL. 2015. HISAT: a fast spliced aligner with low memory requirements. Nat Methods 12(4):357–360.
- Lawrence TJ, et al. 2015. FAST: FAST analysis of sequences toolbox. Front Genet. 6: 172.
- Li H, et al. 2009. The sequence alignment/map format and samtools. Bioinformatics 25(16):2078–2079.
- Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W. 2013. The subread aligner: fast, accurate and scalable read mapping by seed-and-vote. Nucleic Acids Res. 41(10):108.
- Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W. 2014. featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for assigning sequence reads to genomic features. Bioinformatics 30(7):923–930.
- Liu J, et al. 2016. BinPacker: packing-based de novo transcriptome assembly from RNA-seq data. PLoS Comput Biol. 12(2):1004772.
- Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. 2001. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the  $2-\Delta\Delta$ Ct method. Methods 25(4):402–408.
- McManus BA, Coleman DC. 2014. Molecular epidemiology, phylogeny and evolution of *Candida albicans*. Infect Genet Evol. 21:166–178.
- Navarathna DHMLP, Pathirana RU, Lionakis MS, Nickerson KW, Roberts DD, Bassilana M. 2016. *Candida albicans* ISW2 regulates chlamydospore suspensor cell formation and virulence in vivo in a mouse model of disseminated candidiasis. PLoS One 11(10):0164449.
- Neville BA, d'Enfert C, Bougnoux ME. 2015. Candida albicans commensalism in the gastrointestinal tract. FEMS Yeast Res. 15(7). pii: fov081.
- Nobile CJ, et al. 2012. A recently evolved transcriptional network controls biofilm development in *Candida albicans*. Cell 148(1–2):126–138.
- Odds FC. 2010. Molecular phylogenetics and epidemiology of *Candida albicans*. Future Microbiol. 5(1):67–79.
- Odds FC, et al. 2007. Molecular phylogenetics of *Candida albicans*. Eukaryot Cell 6(6):1041–1052.
- Pagniez F, Jimenez-Gil P, Mancia A, Le Pape P. 2015. Étude comparative in vivo de la virulence de *Candida africana* et de *C. albicans* stricto sensu. J Mycol Med. 25(2):107.
- Palige K, et al. 2013. Global transcriptome sequencing identifies chlamydospore specific markers in *Candida albicans* and *Candida dubliniensis*. PLoS One 8(4):61940.
- Papon N, Courdavault V, Clastre M, Bennett RJ, Heitman J. 2013. Emerging and emerged pathogenic *Candida* species: beyond the *Candida albicans* paradigm. PLoS Pathog. 9(9):1003550.
- Pertea M, et al. 2015. StringTie enables improved reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq reads. Nat Biotechnol. 33(3):290–295.
- Romeo O, Criseo G. 2008. First molecular method for discriminating between *Candida africana*, *Candida albicans*, and *Candida dubliniensis* by using hwp1 gene. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis. 62(2):230–233.

- Romeo O, Criseo G. 2011. *Candida africana* and its closest relatives. Mycoses 54(6):475–486.
- Romeo O, Criseo G. 2009. Morphological, biochemical and molecular characterisation of the first Italian *Candida africana* isolate. Mycoses 52(5):454–457.
- Romeo O, Tietz HJ, Criseo G. 2013. *Candida africana*: is it a fungal pathogen? Curr Fungal Infect Rep. 7(3):192–197.
- Sellam A, et al. 2010. Experimental annotation of the human pathogen *Candida albicans* coding and noncoding transcribed regions using high-resolution tiling arrays. Genome Biol. 11(7):71.
- Simão FA, Waterhouse RM, Ioannidis P, Kriventseva EV, Zdobnov EM. 2015. BUSCO: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs. Bioinformatics 31(19): 3210–3212.
- Staib P, Morschhäuser J. 2007. Chlamydospore formation in *Candida albicans* and *Candida dubliniensis*—an enigmatic developmental programme. Mycoses. 50(1):1–12.
- Tamura K, Stecher G, Peterson D, Filipski A, Kumar S. 2013. MEGA6: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis version 6.0. Mol Biol Evol. 30(12):2725–2729.
- Tietz HJ, Hopp M, Schmalreck A, Sterry W, Czaika V. 2001. Candida africana sp. nov., a new human pathogen or a variant of Candida albicans? Mycoses 44(11–12):437–445.

Associate editor: Maria Costantini