

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/258248425>

Role of Yeasts in Healthy and Impaired Gut Microbiota: The Gut Mycome

Article in *Current Pharmaceutical Design* · October 2013

DOI: 10.2174/13816128113196660723 · Source: PubMed

CITATIONS

33

READS

772

9 authors, including:



Gianluca Ianiro

Catholic University of the Sacred Heart, "A. Gemelli" University Hospital - Rome, Italy

217 PUBLICATIONS 5,117 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



Giovanni Bruno

Umberto I Policlinico di Roma

42 PUBLICATIONS 634 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



Loris Lopetuso

Catholic University of the Sacred Heart

188 PUBLICATIONS 3,554 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)



Lucrezia Laterza

Catholic University of the Sacred Heart

86 PUBLICATIONS 561 CITATIONS

[SEE PROFILE](#)

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



H. Pylori and extragastric manifestations [View project](#)



Therapy experiences and preferences among patients with anemia: results of a cross-sectional survey among Italian patients with inflammatory bowel disease [View project](#)

Role of Yeasts in Healthy and Impaired Gut Microbiota: The Gut Mycome

Gianluca Ianiro, Giovanni Bruno, Loris Lopetuso, ~~Francesca Bartoli Beghella~~, Lucrezia Laterza, Francesca D'Aversa, Giovanni ~~Giante~~, Giovanni Cammarota and Antonio Gasbarrini*

Gastroenterology Unit, "A. Gemelli" University Hospital, Catholic University of Sacred Heart, Rome, IT-00168, Italy

Abstract: Although several studies have been published on the gut microbiota composition, they are mainly focused on bacteria. Therefore, the world of gut yeasts, the "gut mycome", is still unclear. Over the last years, brand new gut microbiota analysis techniques have been applied to the study of yeasts, with exciting results both in health and in disease. A therapeutic potential for many gastrointestinal and extra-intestinal diseases has been recognized for selected yeast strains, such as *Saccharomyces boulardii*. This narrative review represents an overview of the new evidences regarding the "gut mycome".

Keywords: Gut mycome, gut microbiota, yeasts, *Saccharomyces boulardii*.

INTRODUCTION

After birth the human gut is colonized by many microbial strains, often not cultivable with conventional methods. Dietary and environmental factors influence the development of a 'core native microbiome' that achieves stability during early life. Each individual has its specific gut microbiota that may change during the entire lifespan. The intestinal microbiota plays many fundamental roles, such as the protection of the gut against pathogenic strains, the development of a healthy immune system, the regulation of bowel motility and a great metabolic activity [1].

Gut microbiota composition has not been completely defined. Bacteria are certainly the most represented micro-organisms of the gut microbiota reaching more than 1 kg of weight and more than 1100 species. Bacteroidetes and Firmicutes usually are the predominant phyla in adult people, whereas Actinobacteria, or Proteobacteria are less common [2-3]. Bacteria are also the most studied component of gut microbiota: an electronic search on PubMed using the terms "gut microbiota AND bacteria" will give more than 2340 results (Table 1);

The human microbiota also contains archaea, viruses (mainly bacteriophage), fungi and other Eukarya (as Blastocystis and Amoebozoa) [2], that are less studied than bacteria, as it can be easily seen searching each term on PubMed, as shown in Table 1. However, these populations, yeasts in particular, may reveal a clinical significance, especially when an imbalance of gut microbiota occurs, such as after antibiotic therapies. Some of them, such as *Saccharomyces boulardii*, can also act as a therapeutic weapon in some particular cases.

The aim of this narrative review is to outline the role of yeasts in both healthy and unbalanced gut microbiota, and also to discuss their therapeutic significance.

YEASTS IN HEALTHY GUT MICROBIOTA

Few evidences are available about the real amount of fungi in human gut microbiota. *Candida* strains are detectable in more than 95% of newborns after the first month of life [4]. On the other side, yeasts are detectable in the gut of about 70% of healthy adults [5], at different concentrations for each tract, with a growing gradient from mouth to anus (from 10^2 at best in the stomach to a maximum of 10^6 in the colon).

*Address correspondence to this author at the "A. Gemelli" University Hospital, Catholic University of Sacred Heart, Largo A. Gemelli 8, Rome, 00168, Italy; Tel: +39-06-30156018; Fax: +39-06-30157249; E-mail: agasbarrini@rm.unicatt.it

Table 1. The scientific weight, according to PubMed, of bacteria and yeasts linked to gut microbiota, and gut microbiota alone.

Search Terms	PubMedResults
"Gut microbiota" AND "yeasts"	27
"Gut microbiota" AND "bacteria"	2340
"Gut microbiota"	2874

Most of these belong to *Candida* genus. Other yeasts and filamentous fungi can be found in stools, such as *Aspergilli*, *Cryptococci*, *Trichospora*, and other genera. Although some of them may be pathogenic in other organs (*i.e.*, lung), in the gastrointestinal tract they probably act as commensals, and most of them are transient in stools.

This enormous lack of knowledge may have in part a methodological reason: most of the studies have been performed using a culture-based approach, that usually does not own a good sensibility in detecting gut microbes from 60 to 80% of bacteria present in stools are undetectable with this method [6].

In the meantime new technologies have been developed and allowed a deeper, culture-independent analysis of gut microbiota composition. These techniques range from Polymerase-Chain-Reacton (PCR)-based methods, (*i.e.* Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis (DGGE) and Temperature Gradient Gel Electrophoresis (TGGE) procedures), to Fluorescent-In-Situ-Hybridization (FISH)-based methods; up to metagenomic studies, that represent the brand new approach to gut microbiota comprehension [7-8].

Some of these techniques have been applied also in studies regarding Eukarya and yeasts, with interesting results.

A Korean study has recently assessed the eukaryal diversity in human fecal samples by PCR-DGGE analysis of the 16S rRNA and 18S rRNA genes. Regarding eukaryal diversity, 11 of 17 sequences retrieved from the DGGE bands belonged to fungi. All sequences showed more than 97% sequence similarity to previously isolated organisms, *e.g.* *Candida vinaria* JCM 1813, *Candida edaphicus* CE1-01, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* CICC1862^T, *Saccharomyces servazzii* ATCC^T. Briefly, the eukaryotic DGGE patterns revealed that the diversity of this eukaryal community was small (if compared to archaea and bacteria). Authors therefore concluded that the

eukaryotic community (including yeasts) is more host-specific than the archaeal and bacterial ones [9].

Another study from Great Britain performed a qualitative assessment of the eukaryotic diversity of gut microbiota in 17 healthy volunteers, with both culture-dependent and -independent (based on DNA extraction and polymerase chain reaction targeting both the total eukaryotic 18S rRNA genes and fungal internal transcribed regions) methods of analysis. The assessment of the fungal populations highlighted important differences between data from the cultivable fraction, in which *Candida* species prevail, and from culture-independent techniques, where genera *Gloeotinia*/*Paecilomyces* and *Galactomyces* were most frequently retrieved [10].

Overall, these data confirm the power of culture-independent techniques revealing much more information than culture-based approach about gut microbiota composition.

Data about the functional role of fungal microbiota, especially in health, are lacking. Over the years, however, several functions have been hypothesized and analyzed, on the base of already existing evidences about bacteria.

The correlation between dietary patterns and bacterial lineages of gut microbiota has been extensively studied [11]. Recently, a relationship between gut yeasts and human diet has also been proposed: *Candida* genus has been positively associated to a carbohydrate-rich diet, and negatively associated to total saturated fatty acid. Since *Candida* is able to degrade starches, a role for *Candida* to assist in breaking down starch in carbohydrate rich foods has been proposed [12].

The comprehension of the relationship between yeasts and immune system is challenging: fungi are harder than bacteria to be distinguished from the self [13]. Yeasts are known to be harmful in individuals with impaired immunity: *Candida albicans* has shown to have a great ability to penetrate and injure immature enterocytes and to elicit IL-8 release [14], to produce amyloid that may inhibit the host neutrophil response [15], and has even been associated to autism [16].

However, a healthy immune system, with a working Th1 response (essentially driven by IL-12) should ensure the defense against yeasts [13].

Moreover, *Candida albicans* has been shown to modify the bacterial microbiota even during nonpathogenic colonization [17].

In mice the interactions between the commensal microflora and the gut immune system are critical for establishing a balance between immunity and tissue health. Fungi are recognized by a number of immune receptors among which Dectin-1 has emerged as key for phagocytosis and killing by myeloid phagocytes. Dectin-1 is a C-type lectin receptor that recognizes β -1,3-glucans found in the cell walls of nearly all fungi. Dectin-1 activates intracellular signals through CARD9 leading to inflammatory cytokine production and induction of T helper 17 (Th17) immune responses [18-21]. Deficiencies in either Dectin-1 or CARD9 result in enhanced susceptibility to pathogenic fungal infections in humans and mice [22-24].

Polymorphic variants in the gene for CARD9 are strongly associated with Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis in humans [25-26]. Furthermore, anti-*Saccharomyces cerevisiae* antibodies (ASCA) against yeast mannan have been strongly associated with Crohn's disease [27-28]. Together, these later findings suggest a possible link between immune responses to commensal fungi and intestinal disease.

Iliev *et al.* showed that the mammalian gut contains a rich fungal community that interacts with the immune system through the innate immune receptor Dectin-1. Mice lacking Dectin-1 exhibited increased susceptibility to chemically-induced colitis, which was the result of altered responses to indigenous fungi. In humans it was identified a polymorphism in the gene for Dectin-1 (CLEC7A) that

is strongly linked to a severe form of ulcerative colitis. Together these findings reveal a novel eukaryotic fungal community in the gut that coexists with bacteria and substantially expands the repertoire of organisms interacting with the intestinal immune system to influence health and disease [29]. Since the idea of probiotics as therapeutic resources has been established, several studies have been developed to investigate the role of selected yeast species, especially those isolated from food, such as *Saccharomyces boulardii*, in the preservation of the gut barrier [30-31].

However, the functional role of yeasts is still not well known. Therefore further researches targeted to this topic are necessary for a better understanding of the "gut mycome".

YEASTS IN GUT MICROBIOTA IMPAIRMENT

The disruption of gut microbiota homeostasis may lead to several diseases. Since gut microbiota plays different roles in the gut, there will be many diseases related to the alteration of these functions. Yeasts have been shown to possess a role in gut microbiota-related diseases, by different points of view.

First, fungi can play a role in several diseases caused by an impairment of healthy gut microbiota, such as during inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs).

Patients with Crohn's diseases and their relatives have shown to be more colonized by *C. albicans* than controls. A correlation of ASCA positivity and yeast colonization in relatives was also demonstrated, maybe resulting from an imbalanced immune response to *C. albicans* [32]. Metagenomics techniques, (18S rDNA-based DGGE, sequencing, clone libraries, and in situ hybridization techniques), have been applied to evaluate the composition of fungal microbiota, with interesting results. Forty-three different operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were found in clone libraries, all belonging to Ascomycota and Basidiomycota. A qualitatively different fungal microbiota was found between IBD patients and controls, and DGGE profiles showed a mean fungal diversity higher than controls in patients with Crohn's disease. However, no fungal species specific for CD and ulcerative colitis group were found. [33].

Furthermore, yeasts have been linked to chronic liver disease, that has recently been recognized to depend partially on gut microbiota imbalance. In particular, yeast could play a role in the natural history of HBV infection. In patients with different degrees of chronic HBV infection it was assessed an higher concentration of *Candida* spp. and *Saccharomyces* spp compared to healthy controls. Moreover, it was established an increased richness of yeast species in the hepatitis B cirrhosis group than in other patients, and the diversity of intestinal yeast microbiota, assessed through both culture-independent and culture-dependent methods, was positively correlated with the disease progression of chronic HBV infection [34].

On the other side, fungi act as saprophytes in the human gut, and the disruption of healthy gut microbiota by extrinsic factors (as immunosuppression, chemotherapy, or prolonged antibiotic treatment) could turn them in pathological entities.

Fungal flora of gastrointestinal tract has always been considered as a main source of infection and development of fungemia in immunocompromised patients [35]. A greater incidence of *Candida* species have been found in stool samples of children with hematological malignancies, in comparison with healthy patients [36].

Finally, gut microbiota impairment often depends on antibiotic overuse, and even yeasts are involved in this game. The normal gut flora can provide a 'natural' resistance to *C. albicans*, but it may be decreased by antibiotic therapy and enhanced by the use of probiotics [37]. Probably, this imbalance does not only affect the bacterial component of gut microbiota, but also the fungal population. Further studies, especially those with culture-independent techniques,

are needed to confirm this feeling, and to identify therapeutic targets.

A THERAPEUTIC ROLE FOR YEASTS? THE CASE OF SACCHAROMYCES BOULARDII

Among the fungi there are some species that have a therapeutic potential. The most known is *Saccharomyces boulardii* (*S. boulardii*), a probiotic yeast which has shown several beneficial effects in humans [38-39]. *S. boulardii* acts as probiotic through different mechanisms of action with an antitoxin effect [40-41], a trophic action on the intestinal epithelium [42], and an antimicrobial activity [43-44], or through interaction with gut microbiota [45-46] or as a regulator of immune response [47-48]. *S. boulardii* was tested in many acute and chronic diseases. Several trials showed the effectiveness of the prophylactic use of *S. boulardii* in preventing antibiotic associated diarrhea [49-52]. In particular, the use of *S. boulardii* is recommended by the last Maastricht Guidelines as an adjuvant in reducing side effects of *Helicobacter pylori* antibiotic therapy [53-54]. A randomized, controlled, double blind trial [55] and a meta-analysis of six randomized controlled trials testing different probiotics showed significant efficacy of *S. boulardii* in preventing relapse of *C. difficile* infection in association with usual antibiotics (metronidazole or vancomycin) [56]. Furthermore, in two randomized controlled trials *S. boulardii* was more effective than placebo in reducing acute diarrhea in adult [57-58]. Another study showed that *S. boulardii* significantly reduced the incidence of traveler's diarrhea in a dose-dependent manner [59].

As other probiotics, *S. boulardii* was also tested in inflammatory bowel disease (IBD). A proof-of-concept study showed that, in a subset of patients unsuitable for steroid therapy with a mild to moderate clinical flare-up of ulcerative colitis, an additional treatment with *S. boulardii* during maintenance treatment with mesalazine achieved clinical remission in 17 of 24 subjects [60]. In Crohn's disease, a randomized controlled trial demonstrated a significant reduction in the mean of evacuation in the group treated with *S. boulardii* compared to placebo [61]. Another study showed the effectiveness of *S. boulardii* in the prevention of Crohn's disease relapses [62].

A randomized controlled trial assessed the efficacy of *S. boulardii* in reducing daily bowel movements in patients with irritable bowel syndrome and diarrhea (IBS-D) [63].

On the basis of these findings, *S. boulardii* can rightly be considered a viable therapeutic weapon for selected indications. Moreover, *S. boulardii* does not develop antibiotic and antifungal resistance [64] and does not persist in the gut more than 3-5 days from the first dose if the ingestion is interrupted [65]. Thanks to these characteristics *S. boulardii* has an excellent safety profile.

However, several cases of *S. boulardii* fungemia have been reported, especially in patients with severe comorbidities and with central venous catheters [66-67]. Hence, *S. boulardii* may result harmful in frail patients, and should not be administered during immunosuppression conditions, concurrence of antifungal therapy, in intensive care units, in severely ill subjects or in patients with a central venous catheters, to prevent the risk of fungemia [68-69].

CONCLUSIONS

Few years ago, the fungal microbiota was a rarely explored field of medical science. Probably this lack of knowledge was due to the difficulty of culturing yeasts and to their lower concentrations in the gut. However, the advent of new, culture-independent technologies has represented a step forward in the study of gut microbiota, mainly for bacteria and then yeasts.

Surely, a good knowledge of the real composition of gut mycota and of its functions in healthy people is needed for the understanding of related diseases and, moreover, of the therapeutic power of yeasts. Therefore, metagenomics studies on gut mycota, and

studies investigating the relationships between bacteria, yeasts, and viruses in the gut lumen are strongly required.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors confirm that this article content has no conflicts of interest.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Declared none.

REFERENCES

- Scarpellini E, Cazzato A, Lauritano C, Gabrielli M, Lupascu A, Gerardino L, Abenavoli L, Petruzzellis C, Gasbarrini G, Gasbarrini A. Probiotics: which and when? *Dig Dis* 2008; 26(2): 175-82.
- Lozupone CA, Stombaugh JJ, Gordon JI, Jansson JK, Knight R. Diversity, stability and resilience of the human gut microbiota. *Nature* 2012; 489(7415): 220-30.
- Qin J, Li R, Raes J, *et al.* A human gut microbial gene catalogue established by metagenomic sequencing. *Nature* 2010; 464(7285): 59-65.
- Kumamoto CA, Vences MD. Alternative candida albicans lifestyle: growth on surfaces. *Annu rev Microbiol* 2005; 59: 113-33.
- Schulze J, Sonnenborn U. Yeasts in the gut: from commensals to infectious agents. *Dtsch Arztebl Int* 2009; 106(51-52): 837-42.
- Scanlan PD, Marchesi JR. Micro-eukaryotic diversity of the human distal gut microbiota: qualitative assessment using culture-dependent and -independent analysis of faeces. *ISME J* 2008; 2(12): 1183-93.
- Young VB. The intestinal microbiota in health and disease. *Curr opin gastroenterol* 2012; 28(1): 63-9.
- Maccaferri S, Biagi E, Brigidi P. Metagenomics: key to human gut microbiota. *Dig dis* 2011; 29(6): 525-30.
- Nam YD, Chang HW, Kim KH, *et al.* Bacterial, archaeal, and eukaryal diversity in the intestines of Korean people. *J Microbiol* 2008; 46(5): 491-501.
- Scanlan PD, Marchesi JR. Micro-eukaryotic diversity of the human distal gut microbiota: qualitative assessment using culture-dependent and -independent analysis of faeces. *ISME J* 2008; 2(12): 1183-93.
- Wu GD, Chen J, Hoffmann C, *et al.* Linking longterm dietary patterns with gut microbial enterotypes. *Science* 2011; 334: 105-8
- Hoffmann C, Dollive S, Grunberg S, *et al.* Archaea and fungi of the human gut microbiome: correlations with diet and bacterial residents. *PLoS One* 2013 Jun 17; 8(6): e66019. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0066019. Print 2013. PMID: 23799070
- Santamaría R, Rizzetto L, Bromley M, *et al.* Systems biology of infectious diseases: a focus on fungal infections. *Immunobiology* 2011; 216(11): 1212-27.
- Falgier C, Kegley S, Podgorski H, *et al.* Candida species differ in their interactions with immature human gastrointestinal epithelial cells. *Pediatr Res* 2011; 69(5 Pt 1): 384-9
- Gilchrist KB, Garcia MC, Sobonya R, Lipke PN, Klotz SA. New features of invasive candidiasis in humans: amyloid formation by fungi and deposition of serum amyloid P component by the host. *J Infect Dis* 2012; 206(9): 1473-8.
- Burrus CJ. A biochemical rationale for the interaction between gastrointestinal yeast and autism. *Med Hypotheses* 2012 Dec; 79(6): 784-5.
- Mason KL, Erb Downward JR, Mason KD, *et al.* Candida albicans and bacterial microbiota interactions in the cecum during recolonization following broad-spectrum antibiotic therapy. *Infect Immun* 2012; 80(10): 3371-80.
- Cheng SC, *et al.* The dectin-1/inflammasome pathway is responsible for the induction of protective T-helper 17 responses that discriminate between yeasts and hyphae of Candida albicans. *J Leukoc Biol* 2011; 90: 357.
- Gringhuis SI, *et al.* Dectin-1 is an extracellular pathogen sensor for the induction and processing of IL-1beta via a noncanonical caspase-8 inflammasome. *Nat Immunol* 2012
- LeibundGut-Landmann S, *et al.* Syk- and CARD9-dependent coupling of innate immunity to the induction of T helper cells that produce interleukin 17. *Nat Immunol* 2007; 8: 630.

- [21] Conti HR, *et al.* Th17 cells and IL-17 receptor signaling are essential for mucosal host defense against oral candidiasis. *J Exp Med* 2009; 206: 299.
- [22] Ferwerda B, *et al.* Human dectin-1 deficiency and mucocutaneous fungal infections. *N Engl J Med* 2009; 361: 1760.
- [23] Glocker EO, *et al.* A homozygous CARD9 mutation in a family with susceptibility to fungal infections. *N Engl J Med* 2009; 361: 1727.
- [24] Taylor PR, *et al.* Dectin-1 is required for beta-glucan recognition and control of fungal infection. *Nat Immunol* 2007; 8: 31.
- [25] Franke A, *et al.* Genome-wide association study for ulcerative colitis identifies risk loci at 7q22 and 22q13 (IL17REL). *Nat Genet* 2010; 42: 292.
- [26] McGovern DP, *et al.* Genome-wide association identifies multiple ulcerative colitis susceptibility loci. *Nat Genet* 2010; 42: 332.
- [27] Seow CH, *et al.* Novel anti-glycan antibodies related to inflammatory bowel disease diagnosis and phenotype. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2009; 104: 1426.
- [28] Joossens S, *et al.* The value of serologic markers in indeterminate colitis: a prospective follow-up study. *Gastroenterology* 2002; 122: 1242.
- [29] Iliyan D, Iliiev *et al.*, Interactions between commensal fungi and the C-type lectin receptor Dectin-1 influence colitis, *Science* 2012; 336(6086): 1314-7.
- [30] Canonici A, Siret C, Pellegrino E, *et al.* Saccharomyces boulardii improves intestinal cell restitution through activation of the $\alpha 2\beta 1$ integrin collagen receptor. *PLoS One* 2011; 6(3): e18427
- [31] Canonici A, Pellegrino E, Siret C, *et al.* Saccharomyces boulardii improves intestinal epithelial cell restitution by inhibiting $\alpha v\beta 5$ integrin activation state. *PLoS One* 2012; 7(9): e45047
- [32] Standaert-Vitse A, Sendid B, Joossens M, *et al.* Candida albicans colonization and ASCA in familial Crohn's disease. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2009; 104(7): 1745-53.
- [33] Ott SJ, Kühbacher T, Musfeldt M, *et al.* Fungi and inflammatory bowel diseases: Alterations of composition and diversity. *Scand J Gastroenterol* 2008; 43: 831-41.
- [34] Chen Y, Chen Z, Guo R, *et al.* Correlation between gastrointestinal fungi and varying degrees of chronic hepatitis B virus infection. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 2011; 70: 492-8.
- [35] Bernhardt H, Knoke M. Mycological aspect of gastrointestinal microflora. *Scand J Gastroenterol Suppl* 1997; 222: 102-6
- [36] Agirbasli H, Ozcan SA, Gedikoğlu G. Fecal fungal flora of pediatric healthy volunteers and immunosuppressed patients. *Mycopathologia* 2005; 159: 515-20
- [37] F Payne S, Gibson G, Wynne A, Hudspeth B, Brostoff J, Tuohy K. *In vitro* studies on colonization resistance of the human gut microbiota to Candida albicans and the effects of tetracycline and Lactobacillus plantarum LPK. *Curr Issues Intest Microbiol* 2003; 4: 1-8.
- [38] MacKenzie DA, Defernez M, Dunn WB, Brown M, Fuller *et al.* Relatedness of medically important strains of Saccharomyces cerevisiae as revealed by phylogenetics and metabolomics. *Yeast* 2008; 25: 501-12.
- [39] Malgoire JY, Bertout S, Renaud F, Bastide JM, Mallié M. Typing of Saccharomyces cerevisiae clinical strains by using microsatellite sequence polymorphism. *J Clin Microbiol* 2005; 43: 1133-7.
- [40] Pothoulakis C, Kelly CP, Joshi MA, *et al.* Saccharomyces boulardii inhibits Clostridium difficile toxin A binding and enterotoxicity in rat ileum. *Gastroenterology* 1993; 104: 1108-1579.
- [41] Brandao RL, Castro IM, Bambirra EA, *et al.* Intracellular signal triggered by cholera toxin in Saccharomyces boulardii and Saccharomyces cerevisiae. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 1998; 64: 564-8.
- [42] Castagliuolo I, Riegler MF, Valenick L, LaMont JT, Pothoulakis C. Saccharomyces boulardii protease inhibits the effects of Clostridium difficile toxins A and B in human colonic mucosa. *Infect Immun* 1999; 67: 302-7.
- [43] Jahn HU, Ullrich R, Schneider T, *et al.* Immunological and trophic effects of Saccharomyces boulardii on the small intestine in healthy human volunteers. *Digestion* 1996; 57: 95-104.
- [44] Zbinden R, Bonczí E, Altwegg M. Inhibition of Saccharomyces boulardii on cell invasion of Salmonella typhimurium and Yersinia enterocolitica. *Micro Ecol Health Dis* 1999; 11: 158-62.
- [45] Czerucka D, Dahan S, Mograbi B, Rossi B, Rampal P. Saccharomyces boulardii preserves the barrier function and modulates the signal transduction pathway induced in enteropathogenic Escherichia coli-infected T84 cells. *Infect Immun* 2000; 68: 5998-6004.
- [46] Swidsinski A, Loening-Baucke V, Verstraelen H, Osowska S, Doerffel Y. Biostructure of fecal microbiota in healthy subjects and patients with chronic idiopathic diarrhea. *Gastroenterology* 2008; 135: 568-79100.
- [47] Barc MC, Charrin-Sarnel C, Rochet V, *et al.* Molecular analysis of the digestive microbiota in a gnotobiotic mouse model during antibiotic treatment: Influence of Saccharomyces boulardii. *Anaerobe* 2008; 14: 229-33.
- [48] Buts JP. Twenty-five years of research on Saccharomyces boulardii trophic effects: updates and perspectives. *Dig Dis Sci* 2009; 54: 15-8.
- [49] Chen X, Kokkotou EG, Mustafa N, *et al.* Saccharomyces boulardii inhibits ERK1/2 mitogen-activated protein kinase activation both *in vitro* and *in vivo* and protects against Clostridium difficile toxin A-induced enteritis. *J Biol Chem* 2006; 281: 24449-54.
- [50] Lewis SJ, Potts LF, Barry RE. The lack of therapeutic effect of Saccharomyces boulardii in the prevention of antibiotic-related diarrhoea in elderly patients. *J Infect* 1998; 36: 171-4.
- [51] Adam J, Barret C, Barret-Bellet A, *et al.* Controlled double-blind clinical trials of Ultra-Levure: multi centre study by 25 physicians in 388 cases] *Gazette Medicale de France* 1977; 84: 2072-8.
- [52] Zocco MA, Garcovich M, Gasbarrini A. Saccharomyces boulardii and antibiotic-associated diarrhea: effectiveness of prophylactic use. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2012 Sep; 107(9): 1441.
- [53] Malfertheiner P, Megraud F, O'Morain CA, *et al.* Management of Helicobacter pylori infection--the Maastricht IV/ Florence Consensus Report. *Gut*. 2012 May; 61(5): 646-64.
- [54] Cindoruk M, Erkan G, Karakan T, Dursun A, Unal S. Efficacy and safety of Saccharomyces boulardii in the 14-day triple anti-Helicobacter pylori therapy: a prospective randomized placebo-controlled double-blind study. *Helicobacter* 2007; 12: 309-16.
- [55] McFarland LV, Surawicz CM, Greenberg RN, Fekety R, Elmer GW *et al.* A randomized placebo-controlled trial of Saccharomyces boulardii in combination with standard antibiotics for Clostridium difficile disease. *JAMA* 1994; 271: 1913-8.
- [56] McFarland LV. Meta-analysis of probiotics for the prevention of antibiotic associated diarrhea and the treatment of Clostridium difficile disease. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2006; 101: 812-22.
- [57] Mansour-Ghanaei F, Dehbashi N, Yazdanparast K, Shafaghi A. Efficacy of saccharomyces boulardii with antibiotics in acute amoebiasis. *World J Gastroenterol* 2003; 9: 1832-3.
- [58] Hochter W, Chase D, Hagenhoff G. Saccharomyces boulardii in acute adult diarrhea: efficacy and tolerability of treatment. *Munch Med Wschr* 1990; 132: 188-92.
- [59] Kollaritsch H, Holst H, Grobara P, Wiedermann G. Prevention of traveler's diarrhea with Saccharomyces boulardii. Results of a placebo controlled double-blind study. *Fortschr Med* 1993; 111: 152-6.
- [60] Guslandi M, Giollo P, Testoni PA. A pilot trial of Saccharomyces boulardii in ulcerative colitis. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2003; 15: 697-8.
- [61] Plein K, Hotz J. Therapeutic effects of Saccharomyces boulardii on mild residual symptoms in a stable phase of Crohn's disease with special respect to chronic diarrhea--a pilot study. *Z Gastroenterol* 1993; 31: 129-34.
- [62] Guslandi M, Mezzi G, Sorghi M, Testoni PA. Saccharomyces boulardii in maintenance treatment of Crohn's disease. *Dig Dis Sci* 2000; 45: 1462-4.
- [63] Aupas JL, Champemont P, Delforge M. Treatment of irritable bowel syndrome. Double blind trial of Saccharomyces boulardii. *Med Chir Dig* 1983; 12: 77-9.
- [64] Temmerman R, Pot B, Huys G, Swings J. A quality analysis of commercial probiotic products. *Meded Rijksuniv Gent FakLandbouwkd Toegep Biol Wet* 2001; 66: 535, 537-535, 542.
- [65] Klein SM, Elmer GW, McFarland LV, Surawicz CM, Levy RH. Recovery and elimination of the biotherapeutic agent, Saccharomyces boulardii, in healthy human volunteers. *Pharm Res* 1993; 10: 1615-9.
- [66] Boyle RJ, Robins-Browne RM, Tang ML. Probiotic use in clinical practice: what are the risks? *Am J Clin Nutr* 2006; 83: 1256-64; quiz 1446-7.
- [67] Thygesen JB, Glerup H, Tarp B. Saccharomyces boulardii fungemia caused by treatment with a probioticum. *BMJ Case Rep* 2012 Mar 27; 2012. pii: bcr0620114412.
- [68] Elmer GW, Moyer KA, Vega R, *et al.* Evaluation of Saccharomyces boulardii for patients with HIV-related chronic diarrhoea and in

healthy volunteers receiving antifungals. *Microb Ther* 1995; 25: 23-31.

[69] Buts JP. Twenty-five years of research on *Saccharomyces boulardii* trophic effects: updates and perspectives. *Dig Dis Sci* 2009; 54: 15-8.

Received: September 18, 2013

Accepted: October 10, 2013