Titan cells formation in *Cryptococcus neoformans* is finely tuned by environmental conditions and modulated by positive and negative genetic regulators

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Abstract

The pathogenic fungus *Cryptococcus neoformans* exhibits morphological changes in

cell size during lung infection, producing both typical size 5 to 7 µm cells and large titan cells

(> 10 µm and up to 100 µm). We found and optimized *in vitro* conditions that produce titan

cells in order to identify the ancestry of titan cells, the environmental determinants, and the

key gene regulators of titan cell formation. Titan cells generated *in vitro* harbor the main

characteristics of titan cells produced *in vivo* including their large cell size (>10 µm), polyploidy

with a single nucleus, large vacuole, dense capsule, and thick cell wall. Here we show titan

cells derived from the enlargement of progenitor cells in the population independent of yeast

growth rate. Change in the incubation medium, hypoxia, nutrient starvation and low pH were

the main factors that trigger titan cell formation, while quorum sensing factors like the initial

inoculum concentration, pantothenic acid, and the quorum sensing peptide Qsp1p also

impacted titan cell formation. Inhibition of ergosterol, protein and nucleic acid biosynthesis

altered titan cell formation, as did serum, phospholipids and anti-capsular antibodies in our

settings. We explored genetic factors important for titan cell formation using three

approaches. Using H99-derivative strains with natural genetic differences, we showed that

titan cell formation was dependent on *LMP1* and *SGF29* genes. By screening a gene deletion

collection, we also confirmed that *GPR4/5-RIM101*, and *CAC1* genes were required to

generate titan cells and that the *PKR1*, *TSP2*, *USV101* genes negatively regulated titan cell

formation. Furthermore, analysis of spontaneous Pkr1 loss-of-function clinical isolates

confirmed the important role of the Pkr1 protein as a negative regulator of titan cell

formation. Through development of a standardized and robust *in vitro* assay, our results

provide new insights into titan cell biogenesis with the identification of multiple important

factors/pathways.

Author Summary:

Cryptococcus neoformans is a yeast that is capable of morphological change upon

interaction with the host. Particularly, in the lungs of infected mice, a subpopulation of yeast

enlarges, producing cells up to 100 μm in cell body diameter – referred to as titan cells. Along

with their large size, the titan cells have other unique characteristics such as thickened cell

wall, dense capsule, polyploidization, large vacuole with peripheral nucleus and cellular

organelles. The generation of a large number of such cells outside the lungs of mice has been

described but was not reproducible nor standardized. Here we report standardized,

reproducible, robust conditions for generation of titan cells and explored the environmental

and genetic factors underlying the genesis of these cells. We showed that titan cells were

generated upon stresses such as change in the incubation medium, nutrient deprivation,

hypoxia and low pH. Using collections of well characterized reference strains and clinical

isolates, we validated with our model that the cAMP/PKA/Rim101 pathway is a major genetic

determinant of titan cell formation. This study opens the way for a more comprehensive

picture of the ontology of morphological changes in *Cryptococcus neoformans* and its impact

on pathobiology of this deadly pathogen.

Introduction

The ubiquitous environmental yeast *Cryptococcus neoformans* is a basidiomycetous yeast that has been estimated to cause over 200,000 new cases of meningoencephalitis with greater than 180,000 deaths per year worldwide [1], occurring mostly in immunocompromised individuals with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) [2]. The natural history of most of the cases of this invasive fungal infection proceeds through 3 stages: (i) primary infection via inhalation of desiccated yeasts or basidiospores, with development of sub-clinical pneumonia and spontaneous resolution via granuloma formation; (ii) latency of dormant yeast cells, as demonstrated epidemiologically [3] and biologically [4] and (iii) reactivation and dissemination upon immunosuppression, with meningoencephalitis as the most severe clinical presentation of disease [5]. From the environment to interactions with hosts, the yeasts experience drastic changes that reflect a capacity to rapidly adapt and survive in host tissues and cause disease [4,6–9]. In hosts, *C. neoformans* is exposed to various stresses including high temperature, nutrient deprivation, low pH, hypoxia and high levels of free radicals [10].

In response to the host environment, morphological changes are required to survive and cause disease [11]. Specifically, *C. neoformans* alters its morphology and produces enlarged cells referred to as giant or "titan cells" [12,13]. This phenomenon has been observed in animal and insect models of cryptococcosis, as well as in human lung and brain infections [12–16]. Titan cells have increased cell body size, ranging from 10 µm up to 100 µm in diameter [13,17–21] as compared to the 5-7 µm size of typical cells. Studies exploring titan cell biology have revealed that these are: (i) uninucleate polyploid cells [12,13,20]; (ii) possess a large single vacuole; (iii) are surrounded by a thick cell wall [22]; and (iv) have a dense and highly crosslinked capsule [13,17,22]. Titan cells also exhibit increased resistance to various stresses

including phagocytosis [21], oxidative and nitrosative stress [20,21], and resistance to the

antifungal drug fluconazole [20]. Importantly, titan cell production also enhances

dissemination, survival and virulence in a mouse model of infection [19]. Titan cell formation

is known to be regulated by the G-protein coupled receptors Gpr5 and Ste3a, that signal

through the Gα subunit protein Gpa1 to trigger the cyclic adenosine monophosphate / protein

kinase A (cAMP/PKA) signaling pathway [15,20,23–26]. The cAMP/PKA pathway is critical for

regulation of other virulence factors in *C. neoformans*, including capsule formation [23,24],

notably through its action on the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway [27]. Pka1 is known to be

negatively regulated by the protein Pkr1, and *pkr1Δ* mutant strains exhibit enlarged capsule

[23]. Further studies show that titan cells formation is increased by high *PKA1* expression or

low Pkr1 activity and is decreased by low *PKA1* expression [6]. Downstream of the PKA

pathway, Rim101, a major transcription factor that again controls production of many

virulence factors, is also necessary for titan cell production [18].

To date, studies of titan cell formation have been hindered by an inability to

consistently and reproducibly generate large quantities of titan cells *in vitro*. Although several

methods have been reported for inducing large cells *in vitro,* there have been persistent

problems in easily and consistently implementing these protocols across laboratories [17],

presumably because the variables that contribute to titan cell inducing conditions are not well

understood.

In this study, we identified robust *in vitro* conditions that generate enlarged cells with

many of the *in vivo* titan cell characteristics and used this protocol to explore environmental

and genetic factors involved in titan cell formation. The genetic determinants of titan cell

formation have been investigated through a genotype-phenotype correlation study in H99-

derivative laboratory reference strains, through analysis of deletion and complementation in

reference strains, and analysis of genetic defects in clinical isolates using whole genome data

and complementation.

Results

Titan cells generated *in vitro* had similar characteristics to *in vivo* titan cells

While growth in minimal medium using standard growth conditions has no effect on cell size, we identified growth conditions that stimulated the production of enlarged yeast cells and optimized this experimental protocol, referred to as our *in vitro* protocol, using the reference strain H99O (S1 Fig). Observation of these *in vitro*-generated large cells by microscopy shows many characteristics of titan cells including increased cell body size (diameter >10 µm), refractive cell wall, large central vacuole, and peripheral cell cytoplasm distribution, similar to *in vivo* titan cells (Fig 1A). Our *in vitro* protocol proved to be reproducible with H99O reference strains generating titan cells in three different laboratories throughout the world, although some variability in the overall proportion of titan cells generated was observed (Fig 1B). Specifically, the proportion of titan cells was 39.4% [interquartile range (IQR), [34.1-40.7] in Lab 1, 21.0% [12.5-26.8] in Lab 2 and 29.9% [23.1-48.5] in Lab 3. The distribution of yeast cell body size from the *in vitro* protocol varied from 3.7 to 16.3 µm (median 10.2 [8.5-11.5]), whereas *in vivo* it varies from 3.6 to 41.8 µm (median 14.8 [11.2-18.45]) with 84% of the yeasts classified as titan cells (Fig 1C).

Titan cells differ from typical cells in various characteristics including capsule size budding rate, DNA content, cell wall and capsule structure, and the extent of melanization [12,13,20,22]. Comparison of *in vitro* titan cells (TC) to typical cells (tC) showed a significant increase in capsule size (median 4.8 µm in titan cells vs 2.7 µm in typical cells, $p<0.001$) similar to that observed *in vivo* (median 10.5 µm in titan cells vs 8.0 in typical cells, $p<0.001$, Fig 1D). The capsule thickness of *in vivo* titan cells was increased compared to the *in vitro* titan cells. The budding rate of *in vitro* titan cells was also significantly increased (median 82.5 m per bud)

compared to typical cells (median 89.0 m per bud) (p=0.018), whereas it was similar for titan

and typical cells produced *in vivo.* Interestingly, overall budding rate was faster *in vivo* than *in*

vitro cells (68 and 65 m per bud, p<0.001)). The budding rate of both in vivo and in vitro titan

cells and typical cells were faster than cells grown in stationary phase (111.5 and 124.5 m per

bud in minimal medium (MM) and YPD, respectively) (Fig 1E, S1 Movie, S2 Movie). To analyze

DNA content, yeasts obtained at the end of the *in vitro* protocol were stained with propidium

iodide (PI) and DNA content of titan (TC, FSC/SSC^{high}) and typical (tC, FSC/SSC^{low}) cells was

compared to haploid (H99O) and diploid (AD7-77) strains grown in Sabouraud medium. DNA

content was higher in titan (FSC/SSC^{high}) than typical (FSC/SSS^{low}) cells (Fig 1F), with an increase

in the proportion of polyploid cells in the titan cell population as observed by a PI fluorescence

greater than the diploid control strain (red arrow, Fig 1G). In contrast, the typical cells had the

same PI fluorescence pattern as the haploid H99O cells. Similarly, a reverse gating strategy

based on PI intensity shows yeasts with the highest PI intensity were large titan cells (red

arrows, S2 Fig).

Calcofluor white (CFW) staining was used to analyze cell wall chitin content. After

multispectral imaging flow cytometry - gating on the titan and typical cell populations under

both *in vitro* and *in vivo* conditions (Fig 2A-B) - CFW fluorescence intensity (Fig 2C-D) showed

significantly increased fluorescence of titan cells compared to typical cells *in vitro* (322539 ±

3072 vs 123062 ± 20727, p<0.0001, Fig 2C) and *in vivo* (144909 ± 38487 vs 27622 ± 7412,

p<0.0001, Fig 2D). Cell sorting based on CFW staining and fluorescence microscopy allowed us

to validate that cells exhibiting the higher CFW intensity were titan cells (FSC/SSC^{high}, S3B Fig).

Measurements of chitin content using fluorescence microscopy also showed significant

increases in titan cells compared to typical cells (fluorescence intensity/pixel/cell 87.9 [71.7-

107.7] vs 66.5 [51.7-79.4], respectively, p<0.0001, S4A Fig). Chitin levels were also assessed by

N-acetylglucosamine (Gluc-NAc) content. Gluc-NAc levels were higher in titan cells (156.3

mM/g [153.7-203.7]) than typical cells (97.7 [87.2-119.3]), (p<0.001, FigS4B). Furthermore,

titan cells exhibited pronounced melanization (S4C Fig), as measured by blackness on the

pictures (Fig S4D), compared to typical cells (S5D Fig), with a median of the (max - mean grey

intensity per pixel) of 20065 [18785-21887] in titan vs 13067 [9660-15998] in typical cells

(p<0.0001).

Finally, capsule structure was also investigated based on the binding pattern of

monoclonal antibodies specific for capsular polysaccharides [28] using multispectral imaging

flow cytometry (Fig 2E-F, S5A Fig) and immunofluorescence (S5B Fig). Based on the

fluorescence pattern of the 2D10 antibody [29], the algorithm modulation and bright details

intensity R7 allowed us to discriminate the distribution of the capsule staining in titan (TC) and

typical (tC) cells and showed with almost no overlap between both population *in vitro* (Fig 2E)

and *in vivo* populations (Fig 2F). Variability of staining was observed for E1 (IgG1) and 13F1

(IgM) antibodies (S5A Fig). No pronounced differences between the capsule structures of titan

and typical cells was observed visually during immunofluorescence staining (S5B Fig).

Titan cells develop from older cells and produce typical sized daughter cells

To examine temporal changes in cell size induced by our protocol, we measured yeast

cell sizes at 0, 4, 8, 16, 24 and 120 h using automated analysis. This automated analysis

correlated with manual size measurements (Interclass correlation=0.99) and titan/typical cell

classification (Kappa test=0.81±0.07). The median cell size increased during the first 24 h of

incubation, starting at 5.7 μm [5.4-6.0] and increasing to 9.7 μm [8.4-11.0] (Fig 3A). The first

titan cells were observed at 8 h with a progressive increase in the proportion of titan cells

overtime, reaching a plateau by 24 h (Fig 3B).

Temporal changes in cell morphology were determined using light microscopy and live

cell imaging. Cells with the large vacuole characteristic of titan cells appeared between 4 and

8 h (Fig 3C, white arrow). Live cell imaging over 12 h (Fig 3D, S3 Movie) showed that: (i) titan

cells swelled from the progenitor typical sized cells and (ii) titan cells divided to produce typical

sized daughter cells. CFW staining is known to transfer only partially to daughter cells upon

division resulting in lower fluorescence in daughter cells while remaining at a high level in

mother cells [4,30]. Pulsed CFW staining was used to further monitor the ancestry of titan and

typical cell populations over time using flow cytometry (Fig 3E). The initial CFW stained

population (0 h) consisted of typical cells (FSC^{low}) with high CFW fluorescence intensity (black

density lines). At 24 h, two populations were observed. The titan cell population (FSC^{high}) had

high CFW fluorescence intensity (black arrow), indicating these cells were generated by the

swelling of typical sized cells in the original culture. The second population consisted of typical

cells (white arrow, FSC^{low}) with low calcofluor fluorescence, consistent with newly formed

daughter cells (Fig 3E, right panel). Combined, these data show that the titan cells derived

from the initial inoculated cells and daughter cells are typical sized.

Generation of titan cells *in vitro* was influenced by environmental conditions

We tested several parameters affecting steps 2 and 3 of our protocol described in S1

Fig and identified parameters that significantly influence titan cell generation, as measured by

cell size distribution and proportion of titan cells. The first parameter we tested was the

growth medium and transition between different growth media (Fig 4A). Initial culture in YPD

(step 2) then transfer to MM (step 3) resulted in the highest median cell size at 9.1 µm [6.9-

11.1]. Initial culture MM followed by transfer to MM produced fewer titan cells, 25.5%

(118/463) vs 39.5% (182/461), although the titan cells tended to be larger with cell body

diameters over 20 µm. Light exposure during step 3 also increased both median cell size and

proportion of titan cells (Fig 4B). In the light, median cell size was 9.4 µm [7.3-11.4] vs 8.4 µm

[7.1-9.9] in the dark, with a titan cell proportion of 41.6% (983/2362) vs 24.3% (1072/4399),

respectively (Fig 4B). Incubation temperature at 30°C at step 3 increased cell size distribution

compared to 37°C (9.4 µm [7.3-11.4] vs 7.0 µm [6.2-8.2]) as well as the proportion of titan

cells (41.6% (983/2362) vs 8.1% (297/3652)) (Fig 4C). The pH of the minimal medium at step 3

also influenced cell size (Fig 4D), with pH=5.5 producing significantly larger cells and

proportion of titan cells (9.1 µm [6.9-11.2] and 38.6% titan cells), compared to either lower

pH (pH=4: median 5.1 µm [4.4-5.8] (0%)) or higher pH (pH=7: 8.2 µm [7.2-9.4] (16.4%), or

pH=8.5: 6.9µm [5.9-7.9] (0.7%)) (Fig 4D). Finally, hypoxia at step 3 also increased median cell

size compared to normoxia (7.5 µm [5.9-9.7]), with chemically induced hypoxia yielding higher

median cell sizes compared to physically induced hypoxia] (10.1 µm [7.8-12.5] vs 8.9 µm [7.3-

10.9, $p<0.0001$) (Fig 4E). The proportion of titan cells in normoxia (14.5% (732/5050) was

lower than in chemically induced hypoxia or physically induced hypoxia (63.0% (732/1161)

and 38.6% (1264/3004), respectively) ($p<0.0001$).

Generation of titan cells *in vitro* is influenced by host derived cues

We then tested hosts factors that could interact *in vivo* with yeast cells in the lung such as

anticapsular antibodies, serum and phosphatidylcholine. Both serum and phosphatidylcholine

have already been implicated in titan cell formation [13,18,31]. Co-incubation at step 3 with

monoclonal antibodies that bind to different epitopes of the capsule inhibited titan cell

generation, with a decreased cell size of 7.2 µm [6.1-8.3] for E1 mAb, and 6.8 µm [5.9-7.7] for

18B7 mAb compared to the untreated control (8.9 µm [7.1-10.6]) (Fig 5A), and a significantly

smaller proportion of titan cells (3.2% (44/1360) with 18B7, 5.3% (67/1273) with E1 compared

to 33.1% (327/987) for the untreated control). The addition of fetal calf serum (FCS)

significantly decreased median cell size (7.3 μm [6.4-8.1] vs (9.1 μm [7.1-11.1], Fig 5B) and the

proportion of titan cells (2.5% (99/3911) vs 38.2% (1234/3228), p<0.0001) compared to

control, as did the addition of phosphatidylcholine (PC) (8.0 μm [7.0-9.0] vs 9.0 μm [7.1-11.2]

for the median cell size, (Fig 5C) and the proportion of titan cells (14.7% (344/2340) vs 38.2%

(1077/2820), p<0.0001).

To understand if an alteration in yeast metabolism induced by ergosterol, protein or nucleic

acids inhibition affected titan cell formation, we tested the effect of co-incubation of

fluconazole (inhibitor of ergosterol synthesis) and flucytosine (inhibitor of nucleic acids

formation and transcription) and cycloheximide (translation inhibitor) at step 3. Fluconazole

(FLC) exposure resulted in significantly smaller median cell sizes compared to the drug-free

control (7.1 μm [6.2-8.3]) at 1 mg/L, 6.8 μm [5.9-7.8] at 2 mg/L, and 6.5 μm [5.6-7.2] at 4 mg/L

vs 9.4 μm [7.5-11.3] in the control, Fig 5G) and a significantly smaller proportion of titan cells

(5.9% (124/2073) at 1 mg/L, 2.9% (55/1919) at 2 mg/L and 1.0% (19/1877) at 4 mg/L vs 40.9%

(877/2146) in the control, p<0.0001, Fig 5D). Flucytosine exposure significantly decreased the

mean yeast cell size at all concentrations tested (6.5 μm [5.9-6.9] at 1 mg/L, 6.5 μm [6.1-6.9]

at 2.5 mg/L, and 6.4 μm [5.9-6.8] at 5 mg/L compared to control (8.3 μm [6.8-10.3], Fig 5E)

with no titan cells observed upon flucytosine exposure. Cycloheximide exposure at 0.1 μg/mL

also significantly decreased the mean cell size from 9.0 μm [6.3-12.7] to 6.1 μm [5.5-6.9]

(p<0.0001) and the proportion of titan cells from 43.3% (797/1840) to 0.1% (20/1663) (Fig 5F).

Of note, the viability of the cells recovered at step 4 after 5 d of drug exposure was unchanged

for fluconazole but reduced for flucytosine and cycloheximide (p<0.0001 compared to

unexposed, S6 Fig).

We also tested if iterative subcultures with or without the presence of active molecules

(CFW or fluconazole) affected titan cell formation, assuming that the cell wall and the global

metabolism of the sub-cultured progeny would be impaired in the presence of high

concentrations of the cell wall toxic drug (CFW) or fluconazole, respectively. We analyzed the

impact of repeated sub-culture of the cells prior to step 1 on titan cell production (S7 Fig). Sub-

culture on Sabouraud agar eight times (8 Sub) spanning a one-month period significantly

decreased the median cell size (8.60 µm [7.02-10.07]) compared to the initial culture (0 Sub)

(9.17 [6.99-10.90]) (p<0.0001). Addition of CFW to induce cell wall stress during sub-culture

(8Sub+CFW) significantly decreased the median cell size (8.03 µm [6.82-9.46]) compared to

the 8Sub control. Thus, iterative exposure to fluconazole during sub-culture significantly

increased the median yeast cell size to 10.15 µm [8.04-13.23] (8Sub+FLC) compared to the

8Sub control (p<0.001, S7 Fig).

Generation of titan cells *in vitro* is influenced by quorum sensing molecules

Previous studies in a murine pulmonary infection model showed that inoculum

concentration can impact titan cell production [12,13]. To explore this phenomenon further,

we examined cell size changes in response to different initial concentrations of cells at step 3

(Fig 6A). Initial cell concentrations significantly impacted the median cell size of the yeast

population (p<0.0001), with the highest median cell size observed at 10^6 cells/mL (9.2 [7.3-

11.1]) compared to 10^5 cells/mL (6.3 [5.1-8.3]), 10^4 cells/mL (6.2 [5.1-7.9]) and 10^7 cells/mL

(5.9 [5.2-6.5]) (Fig 6A). Similarly, the proportion of titan cells was significantly higher at 10^6

cells/mL (37.6% (896/2382) compared to 10.3% (279/2716) at 10^4 cells/mL, 14.3% (346/2420)

at 10^5 cells/mL and 0% at 10^7 cells/mL (0/2177), p<0.0001. Previous study reported that

pantothenic acid (PA vitamin B5) is involved in quorum sensing and growth rate in *C.*

neoformans [32]. The addition of PA had no effect on median cell size (8.35 μm [6.9-10.2] and

8.3 μm [6.4-10.8], p=0.8011, Fig 6B), but significantly increased the proportion of titan cells

(37.9% (1435/3785) vs 26.9% (983/3650)). In specifically implemented experimental settings,

the proportion of titan cells was influenced by the concentration of PA with a significant

increase in titan cells at 0.125 μM (56.5 [50.6-61.1] and 12.5 μM (47.6 [35.6-50.3])) (Fig 6D). In

parallel, analysis of the growth curves of the yeast showed a significant increase in the

doubling time (slope) at ≥0.125 μM of PA (Fig 6E), suggesting a lack of correlation between

titan cell formation and growth rate because titan cell formation was completely inhibited at

1250 μM of PA while the doubling time increased.

Recent studies in *C. neoformans* also implicate the role of the small Qsp1 peptide in quorum

sensing [33]. Addition of Qsp1 peptide significantly decreased median cell size from 9.1 μm

[7.1-11.2] to 8.5 μm [6.9-10.1] (Fig 6C) and titan cell proportion from 38.4% (1075/2798) to

26.6% (915/3439), p<0.0001. Addition of Qsp1 peptide inhibited the formation of titan cells

in H99O (Fig 6C) and KN99α (Fig 6F). In the *qsp1Δ*, *pqp1Δ* and *opt1Δ* deletion mutants that

cannot produce or import a functional Qsp1 peptide [33], titan cell generation was increased

compared to KN99α, confirming the negative regulation of Qsp1 peptide in titan cell formation

(Fig 6F). When *qsp1Δ*, *pqp1Δ* were complemented with Qsp1 but not with scrambled Qsp1

peptides, titan cell formation was similar (increased titan cell formation) to that of the mutant

alone. The complementation of the *opt1Δ* deletion mutant with Qsp1 or scrambled Qsp1 did

not rescue the parental phenotype suggesting that the import of Qsp1 is crucial for its action

on the yeast cells (Fig 6F).

***In vitro* titan cell generation is dependent upon H99 genetic background and requires**

functional *LMP1, SGF29* and *SREBP* genes.

Previous whole genome sequencing studies identified single-nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs) and insertions/deletions (indels) between H99-derived strains

recovered from various laboratories (Table 1) [34]. To determine whether any of these SNPs

or indels affected titan cell generation, we tested the H99S, H99W, H99 CMO18, H99L, KN99α

strains. H99O produced significantly more titan cells than the other H99-derived strains,

p<0.0001 (Fig 7A, S8A-S9 Fig). These H99 derivative strains were also tested for titan cell

formation in the lungs of infected mice (S8A-S9 Fig). As with *in vitro* titan cell production, all

the H99 derivative strains showed lower levels of titan cell formation *in vivo* when compared

to H99O (p<0.0001), with the exception of KN99α that had equivalent titan cell production to

H99O (Fig 7A, S8A-S9 Fig).

Two genes, *LMP1* and *SGF29*, are dramatically affected by SNPs/indels in the H99 derivatives;

LMP1 has a frameshift deletion (H99W and H99 CMO18) and *SGF29* is deleted (KN99α and

H99L) [35]. To determine if these genes are involved in titan cell production, we analyzed

lmp1Δ and *sgf29Δ* deletion mutants for *in vitro* and *in vivo* titan cell formation (Fig 7 and S8-

S9 Fig, respectively). In vitro, the *sgf29Δ* mutant in the H99O background had half the titan

cell formation of the H99O wild-type strain [8.1% (49/600) to 4.2% (25/600), p<0.0001]. The

sgf29Δ mutant in the hypervirulent H99S also manifested no titan cells generation, as did an

lmp1Δ mutant in this background. Complementation of *LMP1* and *SGF29* in this H99S mutant

restored titan cells generation to that found in the parental strain; 1.2% (13/935) and 1.4%

(7/600), respectively vs H99S 1.6% (25/1540) (Fig 7B). Importantly, the same trend was

observed for *in vivo* titan cell formation*. In vivo,* the *lmp1Δ* H99S mutant produced only 3.5%

(21/600) titan cells compared to 14% for H99S (84/600), p<0.0001, and this decrease in titan

cell production was restored in the *lmp1Δ:LMP1* H99S strains (9.5% (57/600)) (S8B Fig) .The

sgf29Δ mutant in the H99O background reduced titan cell formation *in vivo* from 18.8%

(113/600) to 9.3% (37/400) (p<0.0001). In H99S, complementation of Sgf29 *(sgf29Δ:SGF29)* in

H99S restored titan cell generation to wild-type H99S levels from 5% (30/600) to 19.8%

(237/1200) (Fig 7B, S8B Fig) (p<0.0001).

SREBP is a gene involved in response to hypoxia, so we tested titan cell formation in the *sre1Δ*

mutant. The proportion of titan cells was significantly decreased in the *sre1Δ* mutant at 5.1%

(53/920) compared to KN99α [14% (337/2358)] (p<0.0001) (S10 Fig).

***In vitro* titan cell generation requires signaling through the Gpr/PKA/Rim101 pathway and**

is dependent on negative regulators

The signal transduction pathway Gpr/PKA/Rim101 regulates titan cell formation *in vivo* [18].

Briefly, the G-protein coupled receptor 5 and Ste3a pheromone receptor signal through Gpa1

to trigger the cAMP/PKA signaling cascade, ultimately activating the Rim101 transcription

factor. This pathway regulates virulence factors such as capsule or melanin [36,37].

To determine if this same pathway was critical for titan cell generation *in vitro*, we

examined cell enlargement in the *gpr4Δ, gpr5Δ, gpr4Δ/gpr5Δ, rim101Δ*, and *cac1Δ* mutants

and their complemented strains in both the H99 and KN99α genetic backgrounds (Fig 7C-7D,

S9 Fig). In the H99O genetic background, Rim101 function was similar to that observed *in vivo*,

with little titan cell formation in the *rim101Δ* mutant (1.9% (51/2600)) and full restoration of

titan cell production in the complemented strain (9.2% (239/2600) (p<0.0001) (Fig 7C). In

KN99α, the *rim101Δ, gpr4Δ/gpr5Δ,* and *cac1Δ* mutants had no titan cell formation, but

surprisingly both of the single *gpr4Δ* and *gpr5Δ* mutants also lacked titan cell formation (Fig

7D). This is in contract to *in vivo* where titan cell production was rescued by GPR5 alone [18].

Taken together, these data suggest that signaling through both Gpr4 and Gpr5 via the

cAMP/PKA pathway to Rim101 is required for titan cell production *in vitro*.

In vitro titan cell formation is regulated by PKR1 in clinical isolates

To determine whether the Gpr/PKA/Rim101 pathway can impact titan cell formation

in clinical isolates, we also screened a total of 56 clinical isolates for their ability to produce

titan cells. Two isolates (AD2-06a and AD2-02a) produced a more titan cells relative to H99O

(ratio of clinical strain/H99O of 2.6±0.3 and 1.4±0.3, respectively). Three additional isolates

(AD4-37a, AD1-95a, AD4-43a) produced fewer titan cells than H99O (ratio=0.4±0.3, 0.2±0.1,

0.1±0.0, respectively). Titan cell production in the other clinical isolates was close to zero (ratio

between 0.1 and 0.01% for five, less than 0.01% for six, and no titan cells at all for the

remaining 39 isolates) (Fig 8A).

The complete genome sequence was obtained for 41 of the total 68 screened clinical

isolates and a phylogenetic tree of these strains and the H99O reference strain shows high

genetic diversity including VNI, VNII, VNBII isolates (Fig 8B, Table 2). Compared to H99O, the

high titan cells generating strain AD2-06a harbored 31,229 SNPs and was closely related to

AD3-55a (31,171 SNPs) and AD3-41a (28,599 SNPs), which were both unable to produce titan

cells. A total of 19 genes, including CNAG_00570 (*PKR1*), were disrupted in AD2-06a and not

in AD3-55a and AD3-41a (S1 Table). Of note, no common genetic mutation, insertion or

deletion has been observed in the 3 strains that produced a significant (>1%) proportion of

titan cells (H99O, AD2-06a, AD1-95a) as compared to all the other examined isolates.

Duplication of chromosomal regions were observed in the French sequenced clinical isolates

(S2 Table) with AD2-06a harboring a large duplication of chromosome 9 (Chr9, region 465 –

665kb). To assess whether the Chr9 duplicated region could be responsible for titan cell

formation, we explored a larger collection of *C. neoformans* strains with complete genome

sequence [38] and discovered five additional clinical isolates (Ug2459, CCTP20, FFV14, WM-

148, WM-626) harboring partial duplications on chr9 duplication (S11 Fig). We analyzed titan

cell formation in these 5 isolates, but only the Ug2459 strain generated titan cells *in vitro* and

only at a low proportion (S11 Fig), suggesting that genes located within in the AD2-06a Chr9

duplication are not involved by themselves in titan cell formation.

AD2-06a was isolated from the initial cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) sample of an HIV-

infected patient at baseline (diagnosis of cryptococcosis). Another isolate, AD2-07, was

recovered from the CSF of the same patient after 13 d of amphotericin B treatment. Thus,

AD2-06a and AD2-07 are closely related with only 137 different SNPs and 40 indels. AD3-55a

is in the same clade and also very similar with 370 different SNPs and 64 indels, although

recovered from another patient and in another place (Fig 8B-8C). By contrast, these three

isolates differ from H99O by 29,000 SNP and 3,386 indels. AD2-07 and AD3-55a were both

unable to produce titan cells (Fig 8A, 8B, 8E), allowing a more fine-scale analysis of SNPs linked

to titan cell formation in these closely related strains (Fig 8C). Specifically, AD2-07 produced

1.0% (31/3047) titan cells compared to 39.1%, (639/1633) in AD2-06a and 15.2% (304/2001)

in H99O ($p<0.0001$). The median cell size of AD2-07 was significantly decreased compared to

AD2-06a and H99O (5.9 µm [5.2-6.6] for AD2-07, 8.5 µm [7.0-13.0] for AD2-06a, and 7.7 µm

[6.5-9.2] for H99O, $p<0.0001$, S12 Fig).

Comparison of the AD2-06a, AD2-07, and AD3-55a genomes identified four genes with

loss-of-function mutations in AD2-06a but not in AD2-07 or AD3-55a: CNAG_00570 (PKR1) (Fig

8D), CNAG_07475 (hypothetical protein), CNAG_01240 (hypothetical protein) and

CNAG_05335 (hypothetical protein). More precisely, AD2-06a had a frameshift mutation at

glycine 124 in the CNAG_00570 (*PKR1*) leading to a truncated protein of 138 amino acids (Fig

8D). Pkr1 is the cAMP-dependent protein kinase regulatory subunit that interacts with Pka to

regulate the phosphorylation activity of Pka. To further explore *PKR1* in clinical isolates, we

analyzed additional, previously sequenced, clinical isolates (S3 Table) that harbored mutations

leading to Pkr1 truncation (Bt156, Bt58, 8-1, Bt77, Bt117, Ug2462) for titan cell formation [39].

Specifically, a frameshift mutation at amino acid 14 introducing a premature stop codon at

position 96 for Bt156, as well as stop codons introduced at positions 130 for AD2-06a, 258 for

Bt58, 302 for 8-1, 439 for Bt77, 441 for Bt117, and 445 for Ug2462 was observed (Fig 8E, Table

3). We hypothesized that the strains with highly impacted/truncated Pkr1 protein would

produce more titan cells, similar to the AD2-06a isolate. AD2-06a and Bt156, the strains with

the largest truncation, had high levels of titan cell formation with a ratio of 2.8±1.0 for AD2-

06a and 1.3±0.6 for Bt156 compared to H99O (Fig 8E), and titan cell proportions and median

cell sizes of 39.1% (639/1633) (median 8.5µm [7.0-13.0]) and 17.9% (469/2614) (median

7.7µm [6.4-9.4]), respectively (S12 Fig). For the other strains, the ratio, proportion of titan

cells, and median size were decreased compared to H99O: 0.2±0.0, 3.6% (89/2464) and 6.9

µm [6.0-7.8] for 8-1 strain; 0.2±0.1, 2.9% (110/3834) and 6.5 µm [5.8-7.1] for Bt77; 0.1±0.0

0.9% (27/3081) and 6.4 µm [5.7-7.2] for Bt117; and 0.1±0.1, 1.5% (54/3628) 5.4µm [4.7-6.1]

for Ug2462, p<0.0001) (Fig 8E, S12 Fig).

To directly test whether the truncated Pkr1 protein impacted titan cell production in

strain AD2-06a, the functional KN99α allele of the *PKR1* gene was introduced into the strain

(AD2-06a:*PKR1*) and titan cell formation analyzed. Titan cell production was significantly

decreased by complementation (p<0.0001) with 44.9% (574/1279) for AD2-06a:*PKR1* as

compared to 64.6% (700/1083) for AD2-06a and 23.2% (555/2363) for H99O (Fig 8F).

To further explore the function of *PKR1* in titan cell formation, we also tested the ability

of *pkr1Δ* in a KN99α background to generate titan cells compared to KN99α, and found that

pkr1Δ produced more titan cells with a ratio of 4.9±1.6 compared to the parental strain KN99α

(Fig 9). The *pkr1Δ* median cell size (8.1 µm [6.7-9.5]) exceeded that of KN99α (6.4 µm [5.5-

7.2]) p<0.0001) with a significant increase in the proportion of titan cells at 28.5% (695/2436)

for *pkr1Δ* vs 4.6% (121/2614) for KN99α (p<0.0001, Fig 9A). We also analyzed titan cell

production in two additional independent *pkr1Δ* and complemented *pkr1Δ:PKR1* strain in the

H99 background. The *pkr1Δ-1 and* complemented *pkr1Δ:PKR1-1* gave ratios of 2.9±1.5 and

1.8±0.7, respectively, while the *pkr1Δ-2 and* complemented *pkr1Δ:PKR1-2* ratio were 1.9±0.8

and 1.4±0.4, respectively, compared to the H99 parental strains (1.0±0.5) (Fig 9B). In both

strains, complementation significantly reduced the proportion of titan cells generated

(p<0.0001) from 29.8% (685/2493) for *pkr1Δ-1* to 18.8% (593/3217) for *pkr1Δ:PKR1-1*; and

from 19.9% (422/2364) for *pkr1Δ-2* to 13.9% (359/2588) for *pkr1Δ:PKR1-2* with H99 at 10.3%

(357/3674). We also tested the role of *PKA1* and *PKR1* using the galactose-inducible and

glucose-repressible versions of *PKA1* and *PKR1* mutants [6]. In these mutants, when incubated

in galactose minimal medium (Fig 9C), the genes are turned on whereas when incubated in

glucose minimal medium the genes are turned off (Fig 9D). In galactose minimal medium,

P_{GAL7}::PKA1 and P_{GAL7}::PKR1 had titan cell production ratios of 5.6±1.1 and 0.6±0.5 compared

to H99, respectively. The proportion of titan cells was significantly increased upon *PKA1*

induction [46.9% (794/1724)] and reduced by *PKR1* induction [4.7% (222/5031)] compared

with H99 in galactose minimal medium at 14.8% (402/3108) (p<0.0001, Fig 9C). In glucose

minimal medium, P_{GAL7}::*PKA1* and P_{GAL7}::*PKR1* had titan cell production ratios of 0.0±0.0 and

2.4±1.0, respectively. The proportion of titan cells was significantly decreased upon *PKA1*

repression [0.2% (6/4156)] and increased by *PKR1* repression [25.4%(527/2425)] compared

with H99 at 10.3% (357/3674) (p<0.0001, Fig 9D).

At least 2 other genes (*TSP2*, *USV101*) have been linked to titan cells formation *in vivo* although

their role is less clear, so we directly explored their phenotypes in our *in vitro* protocol. To

examine the role of tetraspanin 2 (Tsp2) in titan cell formation *in vitro*, we analyzed three

independent tetraspanin 2 deletion mutants (*tsp2Δ-1, tsp2Δ-2* and *tsp2Δ-3*) and two

complemented mutants (*tsp2Δ-1:TSP2-1* and *tsp2Δ-1:TSP2-2*) for their titan cell formation

compared to the wild-type KN99α. Titan cell production was significantly increased in the

deletion mutants (23.9% (518/2161) for *tsp2Δ-1*, 55.7% (990/1778) for *tsp2Δ-2,* 44.3%

(714/1610) *tsp2Δ-3,* 4.6% (119/2576)) compared to the wild-type and complemented strains

(*tsp2Δ-1:TSP2-1,* 5.8% (228/3877) for *tsp2Δ-1:TSP2-2* and 4.9% (173/3472) for KN99α)

(p<0.0001) (Fig 9E). Similarly, *usv101Δ* median cell size (10.6 µm [8.7-12.7]) was higher than

the parental strain KN99α (7.6µm [6.6-8.8]) and the proportion of titan cells was 62.7%

(1260/2008) for *usv101Δ* vs 10.5% (238/2262) for KN99α (p<0.0001) (S9 Fig).

We finally selected additional sequenced clinical isolates that harbored mutations leading to

Usv101 or Cac1 truncation. Bt88 showed a truncation of Usv101 and an increased titan cells

formation ratio 0.6±0.4 whereas the other isolates belonging to the VNBII lineage harboring a

CAC1 mutation (Bt133 and Bt31, Bt40, Bt89 and Bt105) did not show increased titan cells

formation (ratio 0.0±0.0) (S13 Fig).

Discussion

We identified and validated a new protocol allowing robust generation of titan cells *in vitro*. This protocol was discovered serendipitously while testing conditions that could induce dormancy in *C. neoformans* [4]. We observed yeast cell enlargement under defined growth conditions, then optimized those conditions for titan cell production. It is important to note that the utility of other published protocols to generate titan cells *in vitro* are hindered by issues with inter-laboratory reproducibility [13,31]. To establish the inter-laboratory transferability of our protocol, we independently tested it in two other laboratories (K. Nielsen and A. Casadevall) and observed that the protocol produced similar results in all laboratories, although slight variations of the materials and equipment used produced subtle variability in the percentage of titan cells generated in the 3 labs. Interestingly, titan cell production *in vitro* was also optimized by Ballou et al. 2017 and Zaragoza et al. 2017, using a different set of growth conditions [40,41]. Exploration of the similarities and differences between these protocols will likely identify the critical environmental conditions that trigger titan cell production *in vivo*.

Titan cells obtained *in vitro* exhibited many of the characteristics of *in vivo* titan cells recovered from the lungs of infected mice [17]. Similar to previous work on *in vivo* titan cells, we defined the *in vitro* titan cells as having a cell body size > 10 μm and typical cells with a cell body size ≤ 10 μm [12,13,18,21]. Titan cells generated with our *in vitro* protocol were also polyploids, as previously shown *in vivo* [12,13]. Melanization was increased in *in vitro* titan compared to typical cells. Capsule size was slightly increased in the *in vitro* titan cells compared to typical cells, but this difference was lower than previously shown *in vivo* [12,13]. We also demonstrated that, regardless of the capsule size differences between *in vitro* and *in vivo* titan cells, the structure of the *in vitro* titan cell capsule was different to that in typical

cells, a phenomenon also observed *in vivo* [13,22]. The cell wall was thicker in *in vitro* titan

cells compared to typical cells, as previously analyzed *in vivo* [22,31,42]. The increased chitin

in the titan cell wall results in a detrimental immune response that exacerbates disease[42].

These findings suggest a fundamental difference in titan and typical surface structure that may

contribute to reduced titan cell phagocytosis [12,13,21]. These cell surface differences also

underscore the complex regulation of these major virulence factors and shows intricate

adaptation of *C. neoformans* to both *in vitro* and *in vivo* conditions.

Titan cell generation *in vitro* allowed a detailed kinetic analysis that revealed titan cells

are formed between 4 and 8 h. Using calcofluor white staining to follow cell fate and cell

division [4,30], we showed that titan cells were exclusively derived from cells present in the

initial inoculum that evolved progressively toward the titan cell phenotype. In contrast, typical

cells were a mixture of cells from the initial inoculum and new cell replication. Titan cell

division produced typical sized haploid cells, as shown previously for *in vivo* titan cells [12,13]

and confirmed in our study. We published *in vivo* data that validate this observation [4]: using

yeasts recovered from the lung of mice at one week after inoculation of *C. neoformans* stained

with calcofluor and multispectral imaging flow cytometry, we showed that the Calcofluor[High]

population was associated with yeast cells harboring high cell size parameters compatible with

titan cells [4]. *In vitro*, titan cell generation coincided with the appearance of a large vacuole

in the yeast cells at 4 and 8 h of incubation. Recent evidence places vacuoles at the center of

networks enabling nutrient resources to be degraded, sorted and redistributed [43]. As the

vacuole volume occupies much of the total volume of the titan cell body, one can imagine that

cell-cycle regulation could be impacted, ultimately leading to polyploidy [42].

The fact that our *in vitro* protocol consistently produced titan cells also allowed us to

test factors that influenced their appearance. In terms of environmental factors, we showed

that titan cell production was influenced by pre-culture medium, initial pH, light exposure,

temperature, type of medium and hypoxia. A metabolic switch between YPD (rich medium)

pre-culture and minimal medium (poor medium) incubation was a key factor to induce titan

cell generation. This switch is a stress that induces many metabolic modifications and has been

studied extensively in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [44]. Hypoxia is another stress factor

encountered by human pathogenic fungi during infection [45], and a strong signal for titan cell

production *in vitro*. Oxygen levels in healthy human tissues are 20–70 mmHg (2.5–9% O_2), but

can be less than 10 mmHg (~1% O_2) in hypoxic or inflamed tissues or inside granulomas [46].

We know from previous work on pulmonary aspergillosis that hypoxia has been observed in

infected lungs of mice [47]. Titan cells have been reported in human pulmonary cryptococcosis

and well-studied in murine pulmonary infection following inhalation [13,17–21], although

they are also observed in mouse lungs after intravenous inoculation of animals [4]. These

observations lead us to hypothesize that low oxygen levels in the lungs could be a signal for

titan cell formation. A major transcriptional regulator of the fungal hypoxia response is the

sterol regulatory element-binding protein (Srebp) [48]. Deletion mutants of the *SREBP* gene

(*sre1Δ*) in *C. neoformans* display defects in adaptation to hypoxia, ergosterol synthesis,

susceptibility to triazole antifungal drugs and cause a reduction of virulence [48]. Importantly,

the *sre1Δ* mutant also showed defects in titan cell production *in vitro*, highlighting the role of

hypoxia in titan cell production.

Interestingly, quorum sensing is also involved in titan cell production. Indeed, the initial

concentration of yeasts in minimal medium dramatically impacted titan cell generation, with

10^6 cells/mL being the optimal cell concentration to generate titan cells *in vitro*. No titan cell

formation was observed with a starting concentration of 10^7 cells/mL, likely due to rapid

consumption of the nutrients preventing metabolic modifications needed to generate titan

cells. Alternatively, addition of the quorum Qsp1 peptide [33,49] to wild type cultures (already

producing Qsp1) decreased titan cell production, suggesting that Qsp1 negatively regulates

titan cell production. Cleavage and internalization of Qsp1 were critical because the *qsp1Δ,*

pqp1Δ, *opt1Δ* mutants all showed increased titan cell production. Pantothenic acid (vitamin

B5) has also been implicated in quorum sensing in *C. neoformans* [29]. Addition of pantothenic

acid dramatically increased titan cell formation at concentrations between 0.125 and 12.5 μM.

These results demonstrate that intercellular communication is important for titan cell

formation and that this sensing process involves cell-cell communication instead of simple

nutrient sensing.

Induction of titan cells due to the presence of host factors such as temperature,

addition of lipids, presence of serum, and antibodies was also tested. The presence of E1 [50]

and 18B7 [51] anti-capsular IgG antibodies decreased titan cell production. This decrease

could be related to changes in yeast metabolism induced directly by anti-capsular antibodies,

as shown previously [52], and provides a new mechanism by which antibodies could alter the

course of infection. One could imagine that specific anti-capsular antibodies may not reach

cryptococcal cells in the alveolar space at sufficient concentration to impair enlargement. The

presence of surfactant protein-D, considered as an opsonin in the lung, could impair antibody

fixation [53], thus inhibiting the inhibitory effect of IgG antibodies and allowing titan cell

formation in the lung. Interestingly, addition of serum (5% FCS) or L-α-phosphatidylcholine

decreased titan cell production, which is different from other protocols for titan cells

generation [40,41]. This difference may be because our protocol induces titan cells through

parallel or independent pathways to those triggered by serum or lipids. Overall, these results

imply the existence of numerous triggers for titan cell formation mediated through

independent signaling pathways. How these pathways ultimately interact, both positively and

negatively, to regulate titan cell production still needs to be explored.

Titan cell production was inhibited by addition of fluconazole, flucytosine and

cycloheximide - even at concentrations that or below the MIC of the drug. Fluconazole is

known to inhibit the 14-alpha-demethylase (Erg11) involved in ergosterol synthesis, leading

to plasma membrane instability and accumulation of toxic precursors [54]. Flucytosine is a

base analogue leading to inhibition of DNA replication and protein synthesis [55].

Cycloheximide is known to impact protein synthesis through inhibition of translation [27].

Thus, titan cell production likely involves an active process requiring protein and nucleic acid

production, as well as plasma membrane integrity (normal ergosterol quantity). Conversely,

serial passage in the presence of fluconazole increased titan cell production, suggesting

compensatory changes in response to fluconazole also impacted titan cell production. These

data have profound implications for *in vivo* titan cell production, as prolonged drug therapy

could prevent or enhance titan cell formation. In previous studies, exposure of titan cells to

fluconazole selected for aneuploidy and drug resistance in the daughter cells [20]. In contrast,

our studies show exposure to cell-wall stress, induced by serial passage on CFW agar,

decreased titan cell production. In these sub-culture experiments, we did not investigate

subsequent genomic or metabolic changes that arise under these stress conditions. Serial sub-

culture could have induced genetic rearrangements (aneuploidy, SNPs, indels) or epigenetic

variation that altered titan cell production.

Our protocol is easy to implement for study of the molecular and genetic mechanisms

underlying titan cell generation. Our *in vitro* assay allowed us to identify host, environmental

and yeast factors that impact titan cell production. By taking advantage of strains harboring

genetic differences and clinically relevant genetic truncations, we were able to assess genetic

factors modulating titan cell production. However, these studies also highlight that variability

in titan cell formation cannot be completely explained by the acquisition of genetic events,

with H99-derivative strains showing diversity in titan cell production that does not fully

correlate with genetic modifications. The observation that titan cell formation in KN99α differs

in vitro (lower than H99O) and *in vivo* (equivalent to H99O) highlights this issue and suggests

further strain adaptation that are yet to be characterized.

We uncovered new genes involved as positive or negative regulators of titan cell

production. Sgf29, is a component of the SAGA complex that binds H3K4me2/3 and recruits

histone deacetylases in *S. cerevisae* [56]. The *LMP1* gene is known to be involved in virulence

in a mouse model and in mating [34]. We showed here that both genes are positive regulators

of titan cell formation, although their mechanism of action remains unclear. We also showed

in vitro the critical role of the Gpr/PKA/Rim101 pathway in titan cell formation, previously

characterized *in vivo* [18]. Gpr5 signals through Gpa1 to trigger the PKA pathway that activates

the transcription factor Rim101 [18,36]. In addition, we identified three genes that are

negative regulators of titan cell formation, including *PKR1* (known to act as a regulatory

subunit in the PKA pathway [23], *TSP2* that encodes a glucose repressor of laccase in *C.*

neoformans [57], and *USV101* that is a pleiotropic transcription factor in *C. neoformans* known

to regulate capsule formation and pathogenesis [58].

In *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, the Pka1/Pkr1 complex is a heterotetramer with 2

catalytic subunits and 2 regulatory units. This complex is dissociated in the presence of cAMP

[59]. Moreover, the architecture of the functional domains of *Pkr1* include one interaction

domain/dimerization at amino acids 2 to 40 and two cAMP binding domains at amino acids

219 to 351 and 353 to 473, based on INTERPRO data (Fig 8D). Consequently, the cAMP binding

domain on Pkr1 is critical for the dissociation of the PKA1/PKR1 complex. Analysis of

differences in titan cell production, combined with complete genome sequencing, allowed us

to identify naturally occurring mutations in the *PKR1* gene that impact titan cell production.

Both *PKR1* mutations have a stop codon (Gly125fs for AD2-06 and Asp14fs for Bt58) that

reduces the protein length. Interestingly, AD2-06a was the incident clinical isolate and a

recurrent isolate recovered after 13 days of amphotericin treatment (AD2-07) did not harbor

this PKR1 mutation. In addition, a *PKR1* mutation leading to intron retention was found in a

relapse isolate [60] and shown to be associated with less virulence than the incident isolate.

Whether the virulence differences observed with the relapse isolates are linked to titan cell

formation needs to be further investigated.

We identified *TSP2* as a negative regulator of titan cell formation based on deletion

mutants and complemented strains. *TSP2* is known to interact with the cAMP/PKA pathway -

tsp2Δ mutant strains phenotype are reversed by the addition of cAMP [57]. These data suggest

that *TSP2* inhibits the cAMP pathway and reinforces the major role of cAMP in titan cell

formation. No natural *TSP2* mutants were observed in our collection of clinical isolates.

Interestingly, all isolates from the VNBII have a mutation in the *CAC1* gene leading to

the functional defect of the Cac1 protein. Out of the six VNBII isolates (S3 Table), only Bt88

that harbored an additional functional abolition of Usv101 was able to produce as much titan

cells as H99O did. Therefore, in Bt88, titan cell formation resulted in the equilibrium between

the abolition of CAC1 (positive regulator) and USV101 (negative regulator).

Altogether, these results show proof of concept that our *in vitro* protocol can be used

to identify and characterize genes required for titan cell production. Our preliminary analysis

only identified a handful of genes involved in titan cell production, but it is likely that many

more are involved in generation of this complex cell morphology. Our data provide new

insights into the genesis of titan cells and the environmental, host and genetic factors that

influence their production. Finally, our data show that this *in vitro* protocol can be used to

reproducibly generate titan cells that have similar characteristics to titan cells generated *in*

vivo. The conditions identified for titan cell formation provide a robust system that could be

invaluable to dissect the molecular mechanisms that underlie titan cell formation and allow

the identification of naturally occurring mutations that regulate titan cell formation. These

studies will enhance our understanding of the impact and mechanisms of yeast morphological

changes on pathobiology.

Material and methods

Ethics statement

Mice (purchased from Jackson Laboratories, Bar Harbor, ME) were handled in accordance with guidelines defined by the University of Minnesota Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC), under approved protocol numbers 1010A91133 and 130830852, and in accordance with the protocols approved by JHSPH IACUC protocol M015H134. All animal experiments were performed in concordance with the Animal Welfare Act, United States federal law, and NIH guidelines.

Strains and culture medium

The strains and clinical isolates of *C. neoformans* used in the study are listed in S4 Table. The study was started with H99 strain called H99O that was kindly provided by J. Heitman (Duke University, Durham, NC) in the late 90's. The reference strain KN99α and strains from the Madhani collection were provided from Kirsten Nielsen's lab and the Fungal Genetic Stock Center [61], respectively.

C. neoformans strains were grown in liquid Yeast Peptone Dextrose (YPD, 1% yeast extract (BD Difco, Le Pont de Claix, France) 2% peptone (BD Difco), 2% D-glucose (Sigma, Saint Louis, Minnesota, USA)) and in minimal medium (MM, 15mM D-glucose (Sigma), 10 mM $MgSO_4$ (Sigma), 29.4mM KH_2PO_4 (Sigma), 13mM Glycine (Sigma) , 3.0 μM Thiamine (Sigma), [32]). Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of H99O for fluconazole (FLC) and flucytosine (5FC) (both purchased from Isachim, Shimadzu Group Company, Illkirch-Graffenstaden, France) were determined by the EUCAST method and were 8 and 4 mg/L, respectively.

***In vitro* protocol for titan cells generation**

C. neoformans strain from stock cultures stored in 20% glycerol at -80°C was cultured on

Sabouraud agar plate at room temperature (step 1). After 2 to 5 d of culture, approximately

10^7 cells were suspended in 10 mL YPD in a T25cm^3 flask and cultured 22 h at 30°C, 150 rpm

with lateral shaking until stationary phase (final concentration=2x10^{8}cells/mL) (step 2). Then,

one mL of the suspension was washed twice with MM. The cell concentration was adjusted to

10^6 cells/mL in MM and the suspension was incubated in a 1.5 mL tube (Eppendorf) with the

cap closed, at 30°C, 800 rpm for 5 d using an Eppendorf Thermomixer (Hamburg, Germany)

(step 3). Cell size was determined as described below. Cells with body size >10 µm were

considered as titan cells as described [12]. Results are expressed as median cell size

[interquartile range, IQR] or as median [IQR] of the proportion of titan cells in a given condition

for H99 or as a ratio compared to the proportion of titan cells obtained with the H99O in

experiments involving other strains (clinical isolates, other H99 strains and mutants). In

specific experiments, 10^4 cells/mL were incubated in 100 well plate (Fischer Scientific) and

incubated at 30°C with agitation in the Bioscreen apparatus (Fischer Scientific).

In specific experiment using P$_{GAL7}$ inducible mutants in H99, MM with galactose at 15mM

(galactose MM) was used in parallel to MM containing glucose (see above).

Capsule size analysis

Yeasts were observed after India ink staining and capsule thickness was determined as the

size of the thickness in pixel of the white area surrounding the cell wall imaged with an

Olympus AX 70 microscope and analyzed using the ImageJ software available at

https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/ and the Multi_measures plugin.

Chitin content and capsule structure quantification

Multispectral flow cytometry was used to quantify chitin content after calcofluor white staining (CFW, fluorescent brightener 28, 0.0001 µg/mL CFW in PBS) and capsule structure after immunostaining of three anti-capsular antibodies (E1 IgG1 monoclonal antibody [50], both 2D10 [29] and 13F1 [29] IgM monoclonal antibody 30 m at 10 µg/mL) and then incubation with FITC coupled anti-IgG or -IgM secondary antibodies (15 m at 1:1000 concentration in PBS). The antibody 18B7 has not been used for this specific experiment because it produces aggregation that prevented ImagestreamX testing. Pictures were taken in flow and analyzed using various existing algorithms. We used ImageStreamX with the INSPIRE software (Amnis Corporation). Cell suspensions were adjusted to 10^7 in 200 µL and 10,000 cells were recorded at 40-fold magnification in 3 different channels including the bright field channel (BF) and 2 fluorescence channels (channel 1: 430-505nm [CALCO]; channel 2: 470-560nm [Anticapsular antibodies]). Data analysis was performed using the IDEAS software (Amnis Corporation) after fluorescence compensation procedures. The first step consists in the definition of a mask that delineates the relevant pixels in each picture. Then, 54 algorithms (calculations made for each event within a defined mask) are available to analyze size, texture, location, shape or signal strength. Using basic algorithms, unfocused events, yeasts aggregates were excluded [4]. First titan cells (TC) and typical cells (tC) were selected based on a dot plot Area/Diameter. We decided to avoid overlap between populations and select well separated population based on their size after control using the bar added on the picture of the yeasts (see Fig 2A-2B). For chitin content, the calcofluor intensity histogram using the Intensity of algorithm in channel 01 have been generated for TC and tC (see Fig 2C-2D). For capsule structure, the algorithms dedicated to structure analysis were tested and Modulation and Bright details intensity R7 algorithms in channel 2 have been found to separate the capsule

structure of titan cells from typical cells populations. For each population of interest, the

geometric mean was calculated using the IDEAS software.

Additional experiments using fluorescence microscopy for chitin content measurement was

performed after calcofluor white staining (CFW, fluorescent brightener 28) adapted from [42].

Briefly, 10^7 *C. neoformans* cells in 10 mL MM were washed once and 500 µL of 3.7%

formaldehyde in PBS was added. Cells were incubated at room temperature for 30-40 m,

inverting the tube every 5 m. Samples were washed twice in PBS, cell concentration was

adjusted to 10^6 cell/mL. The supernatant was removed and 1 mL of 0.0001 µg/mL CFW in PBS

was added, and incubated 5 m at 25°C. Cells were then washed twice in PBS. Results were

expressed as median [IQR] of the mean fluorescence intensity/pixel/cell after picture analysis

as described below.

Capsule immunofluorescence and melanization analysis

Capsule immunofluorescence (IF) of titan cells was done by incubating approximately $5x10^6$

cells/mL with 10µg/mL of murine-derived monoclonal antibodies to the cryptococcal capsule

(IgG1 18B7, IgG1 E1, IgM 12A1, IgM 2D10 [29,50] in blocking solution (1% bovine serum

albumin in PBS). Cells and mAb mixtures were done in 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes at 37 °C

for 1 h under continuous mixing. Next, cells were washed three times with PBS by

centrifugation (5,000 rpm for 5 m at room temperature) and incubated for 1 h at 37 °C with 5

µg/mL fluorescently labelled secondary-mAbs, goat anti-mouse IgG1-FITCs or IgM-TRITCs

(Southern Biotech) in blocking solution and 1 µg/mL of Uvitex2b (Polysciences, Warrington,

PA) solution to visualize the fungal cell wall. Cells were washed three times with PBS by

centrifugation, mounted in glass coverslips and imaged with an Olympus AX 70 microscope

equipped with blue, green and red fluorescent filters using 40x and/or oil immersion 100x

objectives. Capsule immunofluorescence of titan cells preparations performed in two

independent experiments gave consistent results.

Titan cells melanization was induced following step 3. Cells were washed once with minimal

medium, suspended in 1mL of minimal medium supplemented with 1mM of L-DOPA (Sigma

D9628), transferred to a 5mL Erlenmeyer flask (for normal oxygenation) and incubated at 30

°C under continuous mixing at 200 rpms for 3 d. Since melanin is resistant to acid hydrolysis,

a spherical melanin "ghost" remains following incubation of black cells with 12N HCl for 1 h at

100 °C (a reduced and modified version of the procedure in [62]. Acid-resistant melanin

"ghosts" were washed three times in PBS by centrifugation and visualized using light

microscopy.

Melanization was measured using imageJ in Icy software by manually circling each cell and

measuring the mean gray intensity / pixel /cell. Blackness was calculated as the maximum

mean grey intensity minus the mean grey intensity / pixel /cell. Increasing melanin content

will result in higher blackness.

N-acetylglucosamine quantification

H99 cells were grown in MM for 48 h *in vitro*. Cells were centrifuged 2 m at 14,000 rpm and

were then washed twice with sterile water. These cells were exposed to γ-radiation to remove

layers of the capsule polysaccharide [13]. Cells resuspended in sterile water were transferred

to a 24-well flat-bottom plate and irradiated for 45 m: dose 560 Gy (56,000 rad).

titan cells and tyical cells were separated [20]. Washed irradiated cells were filtered using

CellMicroSieves (BioDesign Inc. of New York, Carmel, NY) with a 10 μm pore size. The

CellMicroSieves were rinsed with PBS to remove typical cells from the filter. To recover the

titan cells population, the CellMicroSieves were inverted and the membrane was washed with

PBS. The TCs population was concentrated by centrifugation at 12,000 g for 1 m. To recover

the typical cells population, the filter flow-through was concentrated by centrifugation at

12,000 g for 1 m.

Cellular chitin quantification was adapted from [63]. Purified *in vitro* titan cells and typical cells

were collected by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 2 m and the media were removed. Dry

weights were measured following 2-3 d of evaporation at 37°C. Dried pellets were extracted

with 1 mL 6% KOH at 80°C for 90 m. Samples were centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 20 m. Each

pellet was suspended in 1 mL PBS and spun again. Each pellet was suspended in 0.2 mL of

McIlvaine's Buffer (0.2 M Na2HPO4, 0.1 M citric acid, pH 6.0). Five μL of purified *Streptomyces*

griseus chitinase (5 mg/mL in PBS) was added to hydrolyze chitin to Glu-cNAc and incubated

for 3 d at 37°C. Chitinase-treated samples were spun at 14,000 rpm for 1 m, each 10 μL of

sample supernatant was combined with 10 μL 0.27 M sodium borate, pH 9.0. Samples were

heated to 99.9°C for 10 m. Upon cooling to room temperature, 100 µl of DMAB solution

(Ehrlich's reagent, 10 g p-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde in 12.5 mL concentrated HCl, and 87.5

mL glacial acetic acid) was added, followed by 20 m incubation at 37°C. Hundred μL was

transferred to 96-well plates, and absorbance at 585 nm was recorded. Standard curves were

prepared from stocks of 0.2 to 2.0 mM of Gluc-NAc (Sigma, Saint Louis, Missouri, USA). The

amount of Gluc-NAc was calculated as mmol/g cells (dry weight). Results are expressed as

median [IQR].

DNA content measurement

A 96-well microtiter plate was filled with 200 μL of a 10^6/mL cell suspension in PBS and

centrifuged 5 m at 4000 rpm. The pellet was suspended in 150 μL of ethanol 70% and

incubated in the dark 1 h at 4°C. After discarding the supernatant, a 50 μL mix composed of

44 μL NS (0.01M Tris HCL pH 7.2, 1 mM EDTA, 1mM CaCl2, 0.25 M Sucrose, 2.12 mM $MgCl_2$,

0.1 mM $ZnCl_2$), 5μL RNase A at 10mg/mL and 1.25μL PI at 0.5mg/mL was added in each well

as described [64]. After a 30 m incubation at 30°C in the dark, the plate was sonicated 1 m and

each sample diluted at 1:40 in 50mM Tris HCl. The fluorescence intensity was measured using

the Guava easyCyte 12HT Benchtop Flow Cytometer (Guava, MERCK, Kenilworth, New Jersey).

Selection of singlets by gating allowed (i) determination of PI intensity on channel YelB

(583/26) in FSC/SSC^{high} (TC) and FSC/SSC^{low} (tC); (ii) determination of the FSC/SSC distribution

in PI^{high} and PI^{low} population. FlowJo software v.10 was used to analyze the data. The graphs

of the number of yeasts were normalized to the mode to depict the data in terms of '% of

max'. The % of max denotes the number of cells in each bin (the numerical ranges for the

parameter on the *x* axis) divided by the number of cells in the bin that contains the largest

number of cells.

Determination of the ancestry of titan cells by flow cytometry

Knowing that CFW staining does not alter *C. neoformans* viability and that daughter cells

harbored lower CFW signal due to partial cell wall transmission from mother to daughter cells

[4,30], we analyzed cell size and CFW fluorescence intensity of the progenies of titan cells and

typical cells following the *in vitro* protocol on 10^6 cells of H99O pre-stained with CFW (channel

BluV 448/50 using Guava).

Dynamic imaging

Budding rates were determined after yeasts (10^5 cells composed of titan cells and typical cells)

previously incubated using our protocol or *in vivo* (see below) were directly deposited in a 35

mm sterile culture dish in minimal medium without agitation and incubated at 30°C. Pictures

were taken every 2 or 5 m by phase microscopy using the Axiovert 200M inverted microscope

with 40X or 20X objectives (Carl Zeiss MicroImaging, NY), used in conjunction with an

AxiocamMR camera.

Cell size evolution over time was assessed for strain AD2-06a by dynamic imaging (Nikon

Biostation). Briefly, 35 mm sterile culture dish (Hi-Q4, Nikon) were coated for 1 m with E1

antibody at 2 mg/L in order to provide anchor for the capsule. Yeasts (10^5 cells) were added

in 1 mL MM and incubated at 32°C for 18 h. Series of 221 images were taken by phase-contrast

microscopy every 5 m at ×100 magnification. Merging was done using ImageJ software in Icy

Software.

Impact of various factors on titan cells generation

To analyze the various factors that could impact titan cells generation, we modified the various

steps of our *in vitro* protocol. For step1, stress was produced by 8 subcultures (twice a week

for one month) on agar medium or on agar supplemented with CFW (20mg/L) or with

fluconazole (32mg/L). For step 2, the pH of MM (normally at 5.5) was set at 4, 7 or 8.5 without

buffering. For step 3, initial cell concentration (from 10^4 to 10^7cells/mL) was tested. Hypoxia

was generated physically by closing the cap of the Eppendorf tube during 5 d or chemically

upon incubation in MM supplemented with 1 nM $CoCl_2$, cap closed, as already described [65].

The production of titan cells was also assessed in the presence of various reagents added at

step 3: (1) Qsp1 peptide (NFGAPGGAYPW, [33]) (Biomatik, Cambridge, Canada) was

resuspended at 10mM in water and stored at -80°C until use at 10 µM final with the scrambled

peptide (AYAPWFGNPG) as a control; (2) pantothenic acid purchased from Sigma (Saint-Louis,

Missouri, USA) used at 125 µM; (3) monoclonal anti-capsular antibodies E1 [50] and 18B7 [51]

used at a final concentration of 166 µg/mL in MM [66]; (4) decomplemented fetal calf serum

(FCS, Invitrogen*,* Carlsbad, CA, USA) at 5 % in MM; (5) L-α-Phosphatidylcholine from egg yolk

(Sigma, Saint-Louis, Missouri, USA) was extemporaneously reconstituted at 5 mM in MM; (6)

antifungal drugs (fluconazole and flucytosine) were tested at the concentrations close to the

MIC (2-fold dilutions) with the diluent (DMSO or water) as control. Results are expressed as

median [IQR]. Growth in the presence or in the absence of antifungal drugs was evaluated by

enumeration of yeast cells concentration at step 4 of our protocol using the Guava cytometer,

starting from 10^6 cells inoculated at step 1.

Production and isolation of titan cells from infected mice

C. neoformans strains were cultured overnight at 30°C in YPD broth medium (BD, Hercules,

Canada). Yeast cells were collected by centrifugation, washed with phosphate buffered saline

PBS and resuspended in sterile saline. For titan cells analysis *in vivo*, groups of 6- to 8-week-

old C57BL/6J mice (Jackson Labs, Bar Harbor, Maine) were anesthetized by

5% isofurane inhalation for 1-5 m, infected intranasally with 2×10^5 cells in a 40 μL volume

and sacrificed at D6. In these experiments, 84% of titan cells were obtained. For mutant

screening, groups of 6- to 8-week-old C57BL/6J mice (Jackson Labs, Bar Harbor, Maine) were

anesthetized by intraperitoneal pentobarbital injection and infected intranasally with $5 \times$

10^6 cells in a 50 μL volume. Infected mice were sacrificed by CO_2 inhalation at 3 d post-

infection. The lungs were harvested, homogenized, and then resuspended in 10 mL PBS

supplemented with collagenase (1 mg/mL) [13]. Cell homogenates were incubated for 1 hour

at 37°C with agitation, and washed several times with double distilled water. The *C.*

neoformans cells were fixed with 3.7 % formaldehyde for 40 m, washed 3 times with sterile

PBS, and then resuspended in sterile PBS. The proportion of titan cells and typical cells were

determined by microscopy. Data presented were from 3 mice per strain, except for strains

sgf29Δ in H99O, H99S that had 2 mice per strain.

Mutant generation

We PCR amplified the *PKR1* and *TPS2* genes using the primer KN99α DNA as substrate and the

following primers (PKR1F: AAGCTTggaatgaagatgaaattagtacgtg; PKR1R:

ACTAGTgtccatcattgctgtaacttggttg; TSP2F: GAGCTCaactccgatgatcatggactcgg; TSP2R:

GAGCTCtgcccaagagactagagtgtaacc). The 2559 bp TPS2 and the 2000 bp PKR1 amplicons were

cloned in the pGEMT easy vector (Clontech) and sequenced. The pNE609 and pNE610

plasmids were then constructed by cloning the *PKR1* and *TPS2* DNA fragments into the

pSDMA57 plasmid [67] using the SpeI/HindIII and SacI cloning sites, respectively.

To create transformants, the plasmids pSDMA57 containing PKR1 amplicon was linearized

with BaeI and biolistically transformed into AD2-06a and Bt156 clinical strains. To complement

the *tsp2Δ* mutant, pSDMA57 plasmid containing *TSP2* gene was linearized with BaeI and

biolistically transformed into the *tsp2Δ* mutant strain. All transformants were selected on YPD

supplemented with neomycin. Genomic DNA was purified from the transformants and PCR

was used to check the presence of *PKR1* and *TSP2* genes in the transformed strains. PCR

reactions contained 1 μl gDNA, 2.5 μl of each of the 10 mM primer stocks (PKR1 forward, PKR1

reverse, TSP2 forward, TSP2 reverse) 5 μl Taq buffer, 4 μl dNTPs, 0.25 μl ExTaq polymerase

(New England Biolabs, USA) and 34.75 μl sterile water. The cycling parameters were 35 cycles

of 94°C for 20 seconds, 54°C for 20 seconds and 72°C for 90 seconds. Products were visualized

using electrophoresis with 0.8% TAE agarose gel. To differentiate between random

integration, single insertion, and tandem insertion into the safe haven, we performed a similar

PCR as above using primers UQ1768, UQ2962, UQ2963, and UQ3348 as previously described

[67].

DNA Sequencing, variant identification, and bioinformatic analysis

Genomic DNA was adapted for Illumina sequencing using Nextera reagents. Libraries were

sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq to generate 101 base reads. most data was previously

described [39,68] and one additional isolate was newly sequenced for this study (AD2-07)

(NCBI SRA accession SRR5989089). Reads were aligned to the *C. neoformans* H99 assembly

(GenBank accession GCA_000149245.2 [34] using BWA-MEM version 0.7.12 [69]. Variants

were then identified using GATK version 3.4 [70], where indels were locally realigned,

haplotypeCaller was invoked in GVCF mode with ploidy = 1, and genotypeGVCFs was used to

predict variants in each strain. All VCFs were then combined and sites were filtered using

variantFiltration with QD < 2.0, FS > 60.0, and MQ < 40.0. Individual genotypes were then

filtered if the minimum genotype quality < 50, percent alternate allele < 0.8, or depth < 5.

Variants were then functionally annotated with SnpEff version 4.2 [71]. For phylogenetic

analysis, the 535,968 sites with an unambiguous SNP in at least one isolate and with ambiguity

in at most 10% of isolates were concatenated; insertions or deletions at these sites were

treated as ambiguous to maintain the alignment. Phylogenetic trees were estimated using

RAxML version 8.2.4 [72] under the GTRCAT model in rapid bootstrapping mode. For

determination of Pkr1 architecture domains, the INTERPRO tool was used

(http://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/protein/J9VH50).

Pictures analysis using Icy software and statistical analysis

To increase the number of events analyzed in each condition tested/each parameter analyzed

(cell size, capsule size and chitin content), pictures of 3-5 fields were taken with an AxioCam

MRm camera (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen) at x40 on interferential contrast microscope (DMLB2

microscope; Leica, Oberkochen). Image were then analyzed (for cell size and chitin content)

using Icy software v.1.9.2.1.[73] (icy.bioimageanalysis.org) and a specific plugin (HK-Means

plugin (http://icy.bioimageanalysis.org/plugin/HK-Means) that allows analysis of multiple

structures from a bright field. Preliminary experiments were done to compare results obtained

with Icy to "manual" measurements by analyzing about 200 cells on the same pictures for 3

independent experiments. In subsequent experiments, results were pooled for a given

condition from 2 to 3 independent experiments after good reproducibility was assessed.

Statistical analysis was performed with STATA software (College Station, Texas, v13.0). To

validate the cell size determination using the Icy software, the intraclass correlation

coefficient was calculated. The ability of the automated method to classify the *C. neoformans*

cells as titan cells or typical cells compared to visual measurement was evaluated using the

Kappa test [74]. To compare titan cells generation in the various conditions, non-parametric

tests were performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test for multiple comparisons or Mann Whitney

test as required. GraphPad Prism software (v.6) was used to generate graphs.

Accession numbers

All sequence data from this study have been submitted to NCBI BioProject

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject) under accession number PRJNA174567.

The AD2-07 sequence is available in the NCBI SRA under the accession number SRR5989089

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/SRR5989089/)

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 Supporting informations

1150

S1 Fig. *In vitro* protocol of titan cells generation. The protocol followed four steps: (1) *C.*

neoformans H99O from a frozen stock culture at -80°C was cultured on Sabouraud agar for 2-

5 d; (2) Approximately 10^7 yeasts were then suspended in 10mL of liquid Yeast Peptone

dextrose (YPD) and incubated under agitation (150 rpm) at 30°C for 22 h (stationary phase);

(3) 1 mL of the culture was then washed twice in minimal medium (MM), then 10^6 yeasts were

resuspended in 1mL of minimal medium (MM) Ph5.5, in a 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube and

incubated at 800 rpm for up to 120 h using an Eppendorf thermomixer; (4) A mixture of typical

cells and of titan cells was ready for analysis.

1159

S2 Fig. Among yeasts recovered at the end of the *in vitro* protocol, those with the highest

DNA content have the biggest cell size.

DNA content was analyzed after propidium iodide (PI) staining of yeast cells obtained at the

end of our protocol (H99O induced), in a control haploid strain (H99O cultured in Sabouraud

agar, H99O-sab) and in a control diploid strain (AD7-77 cultured in Sabouraud agar). Part of

the population of H99O-induced had a higher PI (blue arrow) fluorescence intensity than the

haploid control (upper panel). Gating on the PI intensity showed that the increase in the PI

fluorescence intensity from <20K to >40K corresponded to increase in cell size (FSC) (red

arrows) compared to the diploid (AD7-77) and haploid (H99O Sab) control (lower panel).

1169

1170 **S3 Fig. The FSC^high/CFW^high population of yeasts correspond to titan cells (TC).**

1171 Cells obtained using our *in vitro* protocol were stained with CFW and sorted by flux cytometry

1172 according to size (FSC) and CFW fluorescence intensity (left panel). Sorted yeasts were

observed using bright field and fluorescence microscopy (right panel) (bar=10µm). Typical cells (tC) were FSC^{low}/CFW^{low}.

S4 Fig. Chitin characterization and melanization of titan cells.

(**A**) Chitin was denser in titan cells (TC) than in typical cells (tC) according to CFW fluorescence intensity/pixel/cell measured by Icy software after CFW staining (0.01 µg/mL) at step 4 of the protocol (*p<0.0001). Dots represent individual cells, and boxes median and IQR for 400 cells each (*p<0.001, pooled measurements from 3 independent experiments). (**B**) N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc), the monomer component of chitin, was increased in titan cells (TC) compared to typical cells (tC) *in vitro* (left panel) and *in vivo* (right panel) as measured by a biochemical method after gamma-irradiation of the yeasts to remove the capsule, allowing a better separation of titan cells and typical cells. Each dot represents result from independent experiments (n=7). Results are presented as median and IQR (p<0.001). (**C**) Comparing the blackness of the cell body of titan cells (TC) and typical cells (tC) upon melanization conditions showed that titan cells contained more melanin than typical cells. (Bar=10µm). (**D**) Melanization was more important in titan cells (TC) than typical cells (tC) (*p<0.0001) based on the calculation of the max - mean grey value/pixel of each melanin ghost measured (n=19 for titan cells and n=531 for typical cells) using the ImageJ in Icy software. Each dot represents an individual cells and boxes median and IQR.

S5 Fig. Capsule structure of titan cells.

(**A**) Using multispectral flow cytometry and capsule staining using anticapsular monoclonal antibodies (mAb), we discriminated the distribution of titan cells and typical cells with almost no overlap between both population with 2D10 mAb *in vitro* and *in vivo*, based on the

algorithm modulation and Bright details intensity R7. Overlap in the staining characteristics of

titan cells and typical cells were observed for E1 (IgG1) and 13F1 (IgM) antibodies. (**B**)

Immunofluorescence staining with the anti-capsular mAbs 2D10, 12A1, 18B7, and E1 does not

uncover major differences in capsular structures between titan cells (white arrows) and typical

cells (black arrows). Each panel correspond to the same cells observed after staining with (a)

India ink; (b) calcofluor white; (c) one of the Mabs; (d) merge from c and d. (bar=10µm).

1203

S6 Fig. Growth is maintained in the presence of antifungals after our protocol. 10^6 cell/mL

were inoculated at step 1 of our protocol, then cell growth was evaluated by enumerating cell

concentration obtained at step 4 of our protocol using Guava flow cytometer for cell counting.

(**A**) Compared to control, fluconazole did not modify cell growth in MM whereas (**B**)

flucytosine (5FC) reduced it, when used at concentration near the minimum inhibitory

concentration (MIC) for 5 d (*$p < 0.0001$ compared to unexposed control). The fluconazole and

flucytosine MICs for H99O were 8 mg/L and 4 mg/L, respectively. Experiments were done in

triplicates (bars represent mean ± SD). (**C**) Cycloheximide also reduced cell growth at 0.0001

and inhibit cell growth at 0.001 mg/mL (*$p < 0.0001$ compared to unexposed control)

1213

S7 Fig. Test of iterative subcultures affect titan cells formation with or without the presence

of active molecules (CFW or fluconazole)

Step 1 was modified by sub-culturing H99O 8 times over one month on Sabouraud agar alone

(Sub8), or supplemented with 20mg/L CFW (Sub8+CFW) or with 32mg/L fluconazole

(Sub8+FLC). Compared to initial culture (0Sub), 8 sub-cultures (8Sub) decreased significantly

the cell size (** $p < 0.0001$, vs 0Sub control). In addition, iterative subcultures on CFW and FLC

decreased and increased significantly the cell size compared to the 8Sub control, respectively.

Median and IQR are shown in black for each condition (* p<0.0001 vs 8Sub control). The

numbers above each condition represent the proportion of titan cells observed. The

experiments were performed in triplicate and pooled (mean cell counted ± SD = 2455±913).

1224

S8 Fig. **Titan cells generation is dependent on various genes *in vivo*.** (**A**) Strains from the H99

lineage harbored variable abilities to generate titan cells with H99O and KN99α *in vivo*

compared to the other H99 strains (S, L, W, CMO18). (**B**) The *sgf29Δ* and *lmp1Δ* mutant strains

show a decrease in titan cells generation in various H99 backgrounds *in vivo* compared to

H99O and rescued by complementation. Each experiment was done in triplicates. Results are

presented as stacked bar of the proportion of titan cells (titan cells) and regulars cells (typical

cells), * p<0.0001 vs control H99O.

1232

S9 Fig. The proportion of titan cells generated is dependent on various genes and requires

signaling through the Gpr/PKA/Rim101 pathway.

The different H99 strains harbored variable abilities to produce titan cells compared to H99O

in vitro (**A**) and in vivo (**B**). *Sgf29Δ* and *lmp1Δ* deletion mutants show a decrease in titan cells

generation in various H99 backgrounds compared to H99O *in vitro* (**C**) and in vivo (**D**).

Complementation in strains *lmp1Δ:LMP1* and *sgf29Δ:SGF29* in H99S background restored the

phenotype of H99S. (**E**) Rim101 and *GPR4* and *GPR5* and *CAC1* are required for titan cells

generation *in vitro* in H99 and KN99α. The ratio to the value obtained for H99O used as a

calibrator in each experiment was calculated for each strain. Bar represent mean ± SD (mean

cell counted=600). Khi2 test was performed to compare the experimental conditions to H99O,

they were performed in triplicates and pooled (*p<0.0001, **p<0.0001, when the comparison

was done with the parental strain H99S.)

1245

S10 Fig. *USV101* and *SRE1* deletion influenced titan cells formation

(**A**) *usv101Δ* is a repressor of titan cells formation. (**B**) The *sre1Δ* mutant strain decreased

titan cells formation compared to the parental strain KN99α. The ratio to KN99α, used as a

calibrator in each experiment, was calculated for each strain and results expressed as mean

±SD. To compare the experimental conditions to KN99α, Khi2 analysis was performed

(*p<0.0001).

1252

S11 Fig. Chr9 ploidy does not influence titan cells generation. A panel of 7 clinical isolates

with partial Chromosome 9 duplication (left panel) was tested for its ability to generate titan

cells. Only H99O and AD2-06a exhibited increased cell sizes (middle panel). The proportion

of titan cells was 67.9 % (431/667) for AD2-06a, 32.1% (429/1339) for H99O, and 4.2%

(51/1227), for Ug2459 (Khi2 compared to H99O, *p<0.0001) with the ratio of the proportion

of titan cells to that produced in H99O shown in the right panel.

1259

S12 Fig. *PKR1* mutations influence median cell size

Strains with *Pkr1* loss of function mutation showed a variable ability to produce titan cells

depending on the resulting truncated proteins. The clinical isolate AD2-07 which did not

harbor the *PKR1* mutation was recovered from the CSF of an HIV-positive patient on d 13 of

amphotericin B treatment while AD2-06a was recovered from its initial CSF. The median cell

size (5.9 µm [5.2-6.6]) was significantly decreased in AD2-07 and increased in AD2-06a (8.5 µm

[7.0-13.0]) compared to H99O (7.7 µm [6.6-9.2]) (p<0.0001). Except Bt156 (median of 7.7 µm

[6.4-9.4]), the others strains had a significantly decreased median size compared to H99O

(p<0.0001), 6.9 µm [6.0-7.8] for 8-1 strain; 6.5 µm [5.8-7.1] for Bt77, 6.4 µm [5.7-7.2] for

Bt117; and 5.4 µm [4.7-6.1] for Ug2462. Experiments were done in triplicate and pooled.

1270

S13 Fig. Non-synonymous mutation in *USV101* enhances titan cells generation based on

clinical isolates analysis.

Bt88 harbored a truncated Usv101 protein due to a frameshift mutation. The titan cells

generation is negative in Bt31, Bt40, Bt89, Bt105 and Bt133 and increased for Bt88 with a ratio

at 0.6±0.4 and a proportion of titan cells of 21.6% (423/1958) compared to H99O 38.5%

(729/1890). Experiments were done in triplicate and pooled.

1277

1278 **S1 Movie. Time lapse imaging of titan cells and typical cells generated *in vitro* (after 5 d)**

1279 **allowed to grow.** Titan cells produced normal sized daughter cells upon incubation in fresh

1280 MM (at 30°C, one picture every 2min during 24 h).

1281

1282 **S2 Movie. Time lapse imaging of titan cells and typical cells generated *in vivo* (6 d post**

1283 **infection, intranasal route) allowed to grow.** Titan cells produced normal sized daughter cells

1284 upon incubation in fresh MM (at 30°C, one picture every 5 m during 24 h at ×400 magnification

1285 using transmitted light (white bar=10 µm, NC = typical cells)**.**

1286

S3 Movie. Time lapse imaging showing mothers cells increasing in time allowing titan cells

generation first produced between 8 and 12 h of incubation.

Dynamic imaging of yeasts from the AD2-06a *C. neoformans* clinical isolate using the Nikon

Biostation IM. Yeasts were seeded in MM on a culture dish that was previously coated with

E1 at 2 mg/L. Images were taken every 5 m for 24 h at ×100 magnification using transmitted

light (white bar=10 µm)

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1294   **S1 Table.** Gene disrupted in AD2-06a but not in closely related isolated AD3-55a or AD3-41a

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1296   **S2 Table.** Clinical isolates with chromosome 9 ploidy variation

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1298   **S3 Table.** Strains harboring Pkr1 loss-of-function mutations used in this study

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1300   **S4 Table.** Strains used in this study

1301

Figures and Tables

Fig 1. Titan cells generated *in vitro* harbor the typical phenotype of titan cells produced *in vivo*.

(**A**) Specific morphology of titan cells (TC, white arrow) *in vitro* (left panel) and *in vivo* (right panel) was observed: enlarged capsule (a), increased cell body size > 10 μm (b), thickened cell wall, large central vacuole, and peripheral cell cytoplasm distribution) while the size of typical cells (tC, white arrow) is <10 μm. (**B**) Titan cells were reproducibly generated in lab 1 using H99O and in two independent laboratories (lab 2 and lab 3) using their local H99O strain. Cell size was measured manually or by using the Icy software on pictures taken in bright field. Each dot represents an independent experiment (median [interquartile range, IQR] are presented); (**C**) Cell body size is increased *in vivo* compared to *in vitro*. Dots represent individual cells, and boxes median and IQR for 230 cells each (*p<0.0001) (**D**) Capsule size measured after India ink staining was significantly larger in titan cells (TC) than in typical cells (tC) both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, in general, the capsule was larger *in vivo* independently of the cell size (p<0.0001). Dots represent individual cells, and boxes median and IQR for 250 cells each (*p<0.001); (**E**). The budding rate of titan cells was lower compared to that of typical cells upon incubation in minimal medium (MM) after titan cells generation *in vitro* *(p=0.018) but not *in vivo*. *In vivo*, budding rate of titan cells (TC) and typical cells (tC) were equivalent and increased as compared to *in vitro* titan cells and typical cells and controls (**p<0.001).(**F**) The yeasts recovered at step 4 of the protocol and analyzed by dot plots (FSC/SSC) using flow cytometry included two populations FSC/SSC^high and FSC/SSC^low representing titan cells (TC) and typical cells (tC), respectively; (**G**) DNA content analysis after propidium iodide (PI) staining showed that the titan cells (FSC/SSC^high) population harbored increased PI fluorescence intensity from

1326   2C to >4C (red arrow) as compared to the diploid control (AD7-77 cultured in Sabouraud agar)

1327   while the typical cells (FSC/SSC^{low}) population harbored a PI intensity comparable to the

1328   haploid control (H99O cultured in Sabouraud agar).

1329

Fig 2. Titan cells harbor an increased chitin content and a specific capsule structure *in vitro*

and *in vivo* using multispectral imaging flow cytometry.

(**A**) Titan cells (TC) and typical cells (tC) were selected in the corresponding gates based on the

Area/Diameter dot plot. (**B**) Titan cells *in vivo* are bigger than that produced *in vitro*. The chitin

content based on calcofluor white (CFW) fluorescence intensity showed significantly increased

fluorescence of titan cells compared to typical cells *in vitro* (**C**) and *in vivo* (**D**). Based on the

fluorescence pattern of the 2D10 anti-capsular monoclonal antibody, the algorithms

"modulation" and "bright details intensity R7" allowed to discriminate the capsule structure

of titan cells and typical cells with almost no overlap between both population *in vitro* (**E**) and

in vivo (**F**).

1340

Fig 3. **Dynamics of titan cells generation *in vitro*.**

(**A**) Cell body size was measured from samples of H99O culture (step 3 of the protocol)

withdrawn at specific times (H0 to H120) using pictures taken in bright field and measured

with the ICY software (mean number of yeasts counted ± SD = 219 ± 67, representative of

three experiments). Cell size increased starting at H8 with some cells reaching the threshold

of 10 µm (grey dashed line). Each dot represents a single cell and the bars represent median

and IQR; (**B**) Titan cells generation started between H8 and H12 and reached a plateau at H24.

Each dot represents the proportion of titan cells in the corresponding sample (3 independent

experiments); (**C**) Pictures (x400 magnification) taken overtime showing the progressive

increase in cell body size and the appearance of a vacuole typical of titan cells in a large cell at H8 (white arrow) (scale bar 10 μm); (**D**) Time lapse imaging of titan cells generation over 12 h showing that titan cells swelled progressively from a small cell and produced daughter cells after having increased their size. (**E**) Cells stained with calcofluor (CFW) at 0.1 μg/mL prior to incubation using our protocol. CFW fluorescent intensity is analyzed by flow cytometry in the initial (H0) and the resulting FSC/SSC^{high} (titan cells) and FSC/SSC^{low} (typical cells) observed at H24. The initial (H0) (green line) and the H24 FSC/SSC^{high} (blue line) populations harbored a high CFW fluorescence suggesting that they are mother cells, with a higher fluorescence for the FSC/SSC^{high}, while two populations of high and low (black star) CFW fluorescence intensity were observed for the H24 FSC/SSC^{low} cells (Left panel). The right panel shows the size (FSC) and CFW fluorescence intensity of the yeast populations at H0 (black content lines) and H24 (yellow content lines). The initial population (CFW^{high}/FSC^{low}) evolved in two populations, one corresponding to daughter cells (typical cells, CFW^{low}/FSC^{low}, white arrow), and the other one corresponding to titan cells (CFW^{high}/FSC^{high}, black arrow).

Fig 4. Titan cells generation *in vitro* is impacted by various environmental conditions.

(**A**) The sequence of media used at steps 2 and 3 of the protocol was crucial for titan cells generation: yeasts cultured in Yeast Peptone Dextrose (YPD) and transferred to minimal medium (MM) produced significantly more titan cells (cells >10μm, dotted grey line) than yeasts cultured in MM or YPD and transferred in MM or YPD, respectively; (**B**) Exposure to d light at step 3 had a positive impact on titan cells generation compared to incubation in the dark; (**C**) Raising the incubation temperature to 37°C at step 3 decreased titan cells formation compared to 30°C; (**D**) Modification of the initial pH of the MM used at step 3 modifies titan cells formation with pH 5.5 being optimal while a more acidic (pH=4), a neutral (pH=7) or an

alkaline (pH=8.5) pH inhibited titan cells formation; (**E**) The impact of hypoxia was tested by

physical (closed cap) and by chemical ($COCl_2$ in MM at 1 nM) method and compared to

normoxia (21% oxygen). Physically- and chemically-induced hypoxia enhances the production

of titan cells compared to normoxia with a higher proportion of titan cells in chemically-

compared to physically-induced hypoxia. All experiments were performed in triplicate and

pooled (mean cell counted ± SD =2305±1438). Median and IQR are shown in black for each

condition (* $p < 0.0001$ vs reference condition). The percentages above each condition

represents the % of titan cells observed.

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Fig 5. Titan cells generation *in vitro* is influenced *in vitro* by host derived cues and ergosterol,

protein and RNA inhibitors.

(**A**) Monoclonal anti-cryptococcal capsular polysaccharide antibodies E1 and 18B7 (at 166

µg/mL in MM) significantly decreased cell size, as fetal calf serum (FCS, 5%) (**B**) and

phosphatidylcholine at 5mM (**C**) did. (**D**) Fluconazole ; (**E**) flucytosine at concentration below

the MIC (4 mg/L) and (**F**) cycloheximide at 0.1µg/mL drastically impaired titan cells formation

with almost no titan cells produced upon drug exposure.

1390

Fig 6. Generation of titan cells *in vitro* is influenced by cell concentration and quorum sensing

molecules.

(**A**) The cell concentration at onset of step 2 significantly modified titan cells generation with

a maximal titan cells formation using an initial concentration of 10^6 cells/mL, and an abolition

of titan cells formation at 10^7 cells/mL; We then tested several factors at step 3 by adding (**B**)

Pantothenic acid (PA) at 125 µM which had no impact on cell size distribution but significantly

increased the proportion of titan cells produced; (**C**) quorum sensing peptide 1 (Qsp1p, 10µM)

which significantly decreased cell size distribution and the proportion of titan cells produced;

(**D**) The proportion of titan cells generated is influenced by the concentration of PA with a

significant increase of titan cells at 0.125 µM and 12.5 µM (* p<0.001). (**E**) Growth curves were

measured continuously during titan cells generation and showed a significant increase of the

doubling time (slope) from 0.125 µM of PA on. titan cells formation and growth rate is not

correlated since titan cells formation is inhibited at 1250 µM of PA and the doubling time

increased. (**F**) Qsp1 acts as a repressor of titan cells formation as the addition of Qsp1 peptide

inhibited titan cells formation (*p<0.001). A control using scrambled peptide showed no effect

on titan cells formation. The *qsp1Δ* and *pqp1Δ* complemented by addition of Qsp1p showed

an increase in titan cells formation. No effect of the Qsp1p was observed on *opt1Δ*, the

deletion mutant of the Qsp1 transporter Opt1. A specific titan cells inducing conditions was

implemented for D, E, and F to allow induction of titan cells in a 100-well plate and continuous

measurements of growth curves using the Bioscreen apparatus.

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Fig 7. Titan cells generation is dependent on various genes and requires signaling through

the Gpr/PKA/Rim101 pathway *in vitro*.

(**A**) The different H99 strains harbored variable abilities to produce titan cells compared to

H99O (grey bar) with high titan cells producer (H99O, S, L) and low titan cells producer (KN99α,

H99W, H99 CMO18) *in vitro*. (**B**) *Sgf29Δ* and *lmp1Δ* deletion mutants show a decrease in titan

cells generation in various H99 backgrounds *in vitro* compared to H99O. Complementation in

strains *lmp1Δ:LMP1* and *sgf29Δ:SGF29* in H99S background restored the phenotype of H99S.

Rim101 (**C**) and *GPR4* and *GPR5* and *CAC1* (**D**) are required for titan cells generation *in vitro* in

H99 and KN99α. The ratio to the value obtained for H99O used as a calibrator in each

experiment was calculated for each strain. Bar represent mean ± SD (mean cell counted=600).

Khi2 test was performed to compare the experimental conditions to H99O, they were

performed in triplicates and pooled (*p<0.0001, **p<0.0001, when the comparison was done

with the parental strain H99S.)

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Fig 8. Non-synonymous mutation of *PKR1* enhances titan cells generation based on clinical

isolates analysis.

(**A**) The screening of 56 *C. neoformans* serotype A MATα french clinical isolates identified

isolates AD2-06a (ratio=2.6±0.2) and AD2-02a (ratio=1.4±0.2) as titan cells producers

compared to H99O (grey bar); (**B**) Phylogenic tree of the isolates (n=41) for which the whole

sequence was available [38,39] was estimated using RAxML under the GTRCAT model. This

shows that AD2-06a, AD2-07 and AD3-55a are phylogenetically close together. (**C**) Venn

diagram representing the number of common or specific SNPs and Indel between AD2-06a,

AD2-07 and AD3-55a. One of the four AD2-06a specific SNPs is a non-synonymous mutation

in the *PKR1* gene (mutation Gly125fs); (**D**) Alignment of Pkr1 protein sequences from selected

clinical isolates including H99O and AD2-07 that both harbor a wild type sequence. The Pkr1

domain architecture is formed by a dimerization domain in green (amino acids 2 to 40) and

two cAMP binding sites based on INTERPRO model in red (amino acids 219 to 351 and 353 to

473). (**E**) Strains with *PKR1* loss-of-function mutation showed a variable ability to produce titan

cells, as compared to H99O (grey bar). The clinical isolate AD2-07, which produces significantly

less titan cells was recovered from the CSF of an HIV-positive patient on d 13 of amphotericin

B treatment while AD2-06a, which produced the highest proportion of titan cells, was

recovered from the initial CSF sample of the same patient. (**F**) Complementation of *PKR1* gene

(*AD2-06a:PKR1*) in the naturally deficient strain AD2-06a reduced titan cells generation

compared to AD2-06a. The ratio to H99O, used as a calibrator in each experiment, was

calculated for each strain (panel A, E, F) and results expressed as mean ±SD. Experiments A, F

and G were done in triplicate, B twice (screening). To compare the experimental conditions to

H99O, Khi2 analysis was performed (*p<0.0001, **p<0.05). Mean cell counted ± SD =

1165±528.

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Fig 9. *In vitro* titan cells generation is dependent on the negative regulator *PKR1* and *TSP2*.

(A) *PKR1* is a repressor of titan cells formation in KN99α background and (**B**) in H99

background. (**C**) in galactose mimimal medium (galactose MM), GAL7 promoter upstream of

the *PKA1* and *PKR1* genes induced an increased titan cells formation for PKA1 and a decreased

titan cells formation for PKR1 (**D**) In minimal medium with glucose (glucose MM)), GAL7

promoter induced a repression of titan cells formation for PKA1 and an induction of titan cells

formation for PKR1. (**E**) Tetraspanin 2 (*TSP2*) is a repressor of titan cells formation.

Complementation of the deletion mutants restored the phenotype of KN99α. The ratio to H99

or KN99α, used as a calibrator in each experiment, was calculated for each strain (panel A to

E) and results expressed as mean ± SD. Experiments A to G were done in triplicate. To compare

the experimental conditions to H99O, Khi2 analysis was performed (*p<0.0001 vs control H99

or KN99α or appropriate mutants)

 Table 1: Genes affected by SNPs or Indels in the different H99 strains

Strains	Genes affected	Gene function	Genetic event
H99O	*CNAG_07634*	hypothetical	Deletion
	CNAG_04078	hypothetical	Insertion
	CNAG_06456	hypothetical	Insertion
H99S	*CNAG_07595*	hypothetical	Deletion/frameshift
	CNAG_12447	miscRNA	Insertion
	CNAG_12900	miscRNA	Insertion
H99L	CNAG_06392, *SGF29*	transcription factor (binds H3K4me2/3 and recruits histone deacetylation)	Deletion
KN99α	CNAG_06392, *SGF29*	transcription factor (binds H3K4me2/3 and recruits histone deacetylation)	Deletion
H99W	*CNAG_06765, LMP1*	Hypothetical (involved in mating virulence and melanization)	Deletion/frameshift
H99 CMO18	*CNAG_06765, LMP1*	Hypothetical (involved in mating virulence and melanization)	Deletion/frameshift

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1467   **Table 2 – Alignment and SNP statistics of sequenced isolates using H99 as a reference.**

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Strain	MLST genotype	% of Assembly Covered by aligned reads	Alignment depth (X)	SNPs
AD3-55a	unique	100	133	28,070
AD2-06a	unique	100	129	28,202
AD2-07	unique	99	45	27,797
AD3-41a	unique	100	134	25,378
AD4-92a	A3/M3	100	132	11,906
AD4-47a	A4/M1	100	132	10,018
AD3-58	A4/M1	100	123	9,996
AD3-83a	A1/M1	100	166	172
AD2-99a	A1/M1	100	119	180
AD6-55a	related to A1/M1	100	108	12,440
AD6-54a	related to A1/M1	100	131	12,440
AD5-45a	related to A1/M1	100	142	12,417
AD1-95a	related to A1/M1	100	107	12,521
AD1-90a	related to A1/M1	100	122	12,511
AD5-67a	VNII	100	139	277,381
AD3-9a	VNII	100	111	277,417
AD3-11a	VNII	100	125	268,842
AD4-76a	Th	100	112	43,281
AD3-95a	Th	100	141	43,235
AD5-53a	A5/M5	100	130	42,291
AD2-82a	A5/M5	100	133	42,271
AD1-86a	A5/M5	100	105	43,778
AD5-39a	A4/M4	100	108	43,696
AD4-63a	A4/M4	100	129	43,736
AD2-04a	A4/M4	100	137	43,733
AD1-68a	A4/M4	100	132	43,778

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Table 3: Mutations of *PKR1*, *CAC1*, *USV101* in specific clinical isolates

Gene	Strains	Mutations
PKR1	Ug2462	n.1333C>T|p.Arg445*|1333/1449
	Bt117	n.1274_1280dupCTCTCCT|p.Asn428fs|1280/1449
	Bt77	n.1293dupA|p.Arg432fs|1293/1449
	8-1	n.878_911delCCGAGGGGAGCTCGTTTGGGGAGTTAGCGCTGAT|p.Ser293fs|911/1449
	Bt58	n.742G>T|p.Glu248*|742/1449
	AD2-06a	n.375_376delAG|p.Gly125fs|376/1449
	Bt156	n.41dupA|p.Asp14fs|41/1449
CAC1	Bt133	n.41delA|p.His14fs |41/6930
	8-1	n.2_3insA| |p.Met1fs|2/6930 ; n.80G>A|p.Trp27*|80/6930 ; n.81G>A|p.Trp27*|81/6930
	AD3-11a	n.2_3insA| |p.Met1fs|2/6930
	AD3-9a	n.2_3insA| |p.Met1fs|2/6930
	AD5-67a	n.2_3insA| |p.Met1fs|2/6930
	Ug2462	n.2_3insA| |p.Met1fs|2/6930
USV101	Bt88	n.842dupC|p.His282fs

*, stop codon introduced by the SNP

in vitro

in vivo

Cell body size

Chitin content

Capsule structure