An atypical ABC transporter is involved in antifungal resistance and host interactions in the

pathogenic fungus *Cryptococcus neoformans*

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Running Head: A PDR transporter with dual roles in *C. neoformans*

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Word Counts

Abstract: 240

Importance: 147

Text: 6098

ABSTRACT

ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters represent one of the largest protein superfamilies. Functionally diverse, ABC transporters have been implicated in many aspects of microbial physiology. The genome of the human fungal pathogen *Cryptococcus neoformans* encodes 54 putative ABC transporters and the majority of them remain uncharacterized. In a previous genetic screen for fungal regulators of phagocytosis, we identified an uncharacterized gene, CNAG_06909, that modulates host interactions. This gene encodes a half-size ABC transporter of the PDR-type, and phenotypic studies of a strain missing this gene revealed an altered antifungal profile, including hypersensitivity to fluconazole (FLC). This gene, which we have named *PDR6*, localizes to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and plasma membrane (PM), and when absent, less ergosterol was observed in the PM. Additionally, we observed that the *pdr6*Δ strain displays a reduction in secreted polysaccharide capsular material. These changes to the cellular surface may explain the observed increased uptake by macrophages and the reduced intracellular survival. Finally, studies in mice demonstrate that *PDR6* function is required for normal progression of cryptococcal infection. Taken together, this study demonstrates a novel dual role for PDR transporters in *C. neoformans*, which could represent a potential target for antifungal therapeutics. Furthermore, the atypical half-size transporter encoded by *PDR6* is conserved in many fungal pathogens, but absent in non-pathogenic fungal models. Hence, this study provides for the first time, a function for this unique group of fungal half-size PDR transporters that, although conserved, remain largely understudied.

IMPORTANCE

Conserved across all kingdoms of life, ABC transporters comprise one of the largest protein families. They are associated with multidrug resistance, affecting aspects such as resistance to antimicrobials or cancer treatments. Despite their importance, they are understudied in fungal pathogens. In the environmental fungus *Cryptococcus neoformans*, a leading cause of fungal infections, only few ABC transporters have

been studied. Here we characterize an atypical, half-size, ABC transporter of the PDR-type, that affects

both antifungal resistance and host-pathogen interactions. PDR-type transporters are only present in

fungi and plants, and this subgroup of half-size transporters is conserved in fungal pathogens, yet their

function was completely unknown. Because the current treatments for cryptococcal infection are

suboptimal, understanding the mechanisms of antifungal resistance and the host interactions that drive

the infection is critical to improve the management of this disease. Here we provide insights into these

important aspects of cryptococcal pathogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

Present in every living organism, ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters constitute a large

superfamily of integral membrane proteins. Functionally, ABC transporters are responsible for the

transport of diverse substrates across membranes, but have also been implicated in mRNA translation

and peroxisome biogenesis (1, 2). Structurally, ABC transporters contain at least one nucleotide-binding

domain (NBD) and one transmembrane domain (TMD), both of which are evolutionary conserved. Most

ABC transporters have a domain arrangement of TMD1-NBD1-TMD2-NBD2 ([TMD-NBD]$_2$) (3). The

orientation and molecular architecture of these domains is used to organize ABC transporters into

subgroups. The pleiotropic drug resistance (PDR) subgroup, which is present in only fungi and plants, has

a reverse configuration [NBD-TBD]$_2$ (4, 5). Identified and predominantly studied in the non-pathogenic

yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, they remain understudied in pathogenic fungi. This is despite the

abundance of fungal PDR proteins and the fact that fungal infections globally kill close to 1.6 million people

yearly (6, 7). The few that have been studied mostly act as efflux pumps for xenobiotics or antifungal

drugs. Nonetheless, the sheer number and diversity of PDR genes found in fungal genomes suggests a

broad involvement in cellular processes. Moreover, there is a subgroup of half-size PDR transporters

(containing only one NBD and TMD) whose function remains unknown.

Cryptococcus neoformans is an environmental, opportunistic fungal pathogen responsible for

over 180,000 deaths annually in the HIV+ population alone (8, 9). Upon inhalation and subsequent lung

colonization, *C. neoformans* can disseminate to the central nervous system (CNS) resulting in cryptococcal

meningitis, with a mortality rate as high as 81% (9). The high mortality rate is a direct consequence of the

complexities associated with cryptococcal pathogenesis coupled with a paucity of effective antifungals.

Currently, the most effective treatment for cryptococcal meningitis includes a combinatorial regimen of

amphotericin B (AMB) and 5-flucytosine (5-FC). AMB is a fungicidal polyene that targets ergosterol, an

essential lipid in the fungal plasma membrane. The pyrimidine 5-FC disrupts DNA/RNA synthesis (10).

Notwithstanding toxicity associated with these agents, they are also costly, which makes them less

available to resource-poor countries, where the need is highest. Instead, patients in these regions are

treated with the less effective fluconazole (FLC) monotherapy. FLC is a fungistatic azole that inhibits

lanosterol 14α-demethylase, an enzyme in the ergosterol biosynthesis pathway encoded by *ERG11* (11).

FLC monotherapy has not only been implicated in higher relapse rates, but several recent studies have

reported an increase in the incidence of FLC resistance in *C. neoformans*, making the treatment of

cryptococcal meningitis even more challenging (12, 13).

Several FLC resistance mechanisms have been reported in *C. neoformans*. These vary from

mutations in the *ERG11* gene to heteroresistance due to genome plasticity including polyploidy,

aneuploidy, loss of heterozygosity, and copy-number variation (14-17). Additionally, the overexpression

of ABC efflux pumps has been implicated in FLC resistance (18). There are 54 putative ABC transporters in

the *C. neoformans* genome and only a few have been characterized. The roles of *C. neoformans AFR1*,

AFR2, and *MDR1* as azole efflux pumps have been well documented, where *AFR1* functions as the major

pump and *AFR2* and *MDR1* provide additive roles in the management of FLC stress (19-21). It is evident

that the function of most of the ABC transporters encoded in the *C. neoformans* genome remain unknown.

In an earlier report on fungal regulators of phagocytosis, we identified an uncharacterized gene,

CNAG_06909, as a modulator of the fungal-host interaction (22). In the present study, we demonstrate

that CNAG_06909 encodes a half-size PDR-transporter and that disruption of the gene results in

hypersensitivity to FLC. We have designated the gene as pleiotropic drug resistance-6 (*PDR6*) because it

does not have a direct ortholog in the model yeast, *S. cerevisiae* and the molecular architecture is

consistent with the PDR subgroup of ABC transporters. We show that Pdr6 does not function as a FLC

efflux pump but its deletion results in decreased levels of ergosterol in the PM, accompanied by mild

thermosensitivity and decreased secretion of capsular material. These phenotypes are unique to *PDR6* as

they were not observed in the previously characterized ABC transporters. Furthermore, the *pdr6Δ* strain

exhibits diminished intracellular survival *in vitro* and is attenuated in a murine model of infection. When

the gene is expressed in a model yeast, it localizes to the ER and PM, consistent with a role in ergosterol

synthesis/transport. Notably, this study provides for the first time a function for an atypical conserved

half-size PDR transporter, which has remained largely obscure. These studies highlight the importance of

fungal PDR-type transporters and broaden our understanding of the specialization of ABC transporters in

microbial pathogens.

RESULTS

***C. neoformans PDR6* is a member of a conserved group of half-size PDR transporters**

Present in only fungi and plants, PDR-type ABC transporters represent a unique subset of proteins

primarily implicated in drug resistance and detoxification (4). Although fungal PDR-type transporters

closely resemble mammalian ABCG transporters, which are half-size, only the full-size fungal PDR proteins

have been analyzed and studied (23, 24). Given that *C. neoformans PDR6* is half-size, we performed a

phylogenetic analysis to determine how widespread *PDR6* sequences are in the fungal kingdom (Fig. 1A).

All fungi belonging to the Pezizomycotina subphylum and pathogenic fungi subphyla have a *PDR6*

ortholog, implicating *PDR6* in fungal pathogenesis in many subphyla. Regardless of the presence of a *PDR6*

ortholog, all the PDR-type ABC transporter genes in Figure 1A were used to construct a global phylogenetic

tree (Fig. 1B). Analysis of the fungal PDR genes showed the presence of seven major clades. Clade I is the

largest and includes *S. cerevisiae PDR5*, *PDR10*, *PDR15*, and *C. neoformans AFR2*. Clade II is the smallest

and contains sequences that are homologous to *S. cerevisiae PDR12*, *PDR18* and *SNQ2.* Clade III sequences

are absent in Saccharomycotina, but contain *C. neoformans AFR1*. *S. cerevisiae PDR11* and *AUS1*

represent the genes in clade IV. Clades I, II, III, IV, and VIa all contain full-length *PDR* genes, whereas clades

V and VIb represent atypical groups of PDR genes that only encode one nucleotide-binding domain (NBD)

and one transmembrane domain (TMD). *S. cerevisiae ADP1* is representative of the genes in clade V that

all contain a NBD and TMD with an additional unique sequence (most commonly an EGF domain). *C.*

neoformans PDR6 and the eleven other half-size PDR genes in clade VIb represent a completely

uncharacterized group of fungal genes with no known function. Interestingly, the fungi represented in

clade VIb are all plant or animal pathogens, again suggestive that *PDR6* and its orthologs may be

implicated in fungal virulence. Topology prediction by CAMPS shows that *C. neoformans PDR6* encodes a

626 amino acid half-size transporter, with a single NBD containing characteristic Walker A and ABC motif

features followed by a single TMD, composed of six transmembrane helices (Fig. 1C). These analyses show

that *C. neoformans PDR6* encodes a half-size PDR-type ABC transporter that is evolutionarily conserved,

present in all fungal pathogens that we analyzed, and contains all the features of a functional full-length

ABC transporter.

Deletion of *PDR6* affects resistance to azoles and the drug profile of other antifungals

Given that cryptococcal PDR-type ABC transporters Afr1 and Afr2 have been implicated in the efflux and

resistance of antifungal compounds (20, 21), we hypothesized that Pdr6 would function in a similar

manner. To assess the function/specificity of Pdr6, we used a *C. neoformans* strain lacking the *PDR6* gene

(*pdr6Δ*) and tested its growth on FLC gradient plates and Etest strips (Fig. 2A) and performed broth

microdilution assays to measure the minimal-inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of several related

compounds (Fig. 2B-G and Table 1). Compounds included five azole-class antifungals (fluconazole (FLC),

itraconazole (ITC), voriconazole (VRC), ketoconazole (KTC), and posaconazole (PSC)), one polyene-class

antifungal (amphotericin B (AMB)), one DNA/RNA synthesis inhibitor (5-fluorocytosine (5-FC)), one

protein-synthesis inhibitor (cycloheximide (CHX)), one antineoplastic agent (nocodazole), two other

xenobiotics (berberine (BER), and paraquat (PQ)), one superoxide generator (menadione), and one

echinocandin-class antifungal (caspofungin (CSF)). In addition to the *pdr6Δ* mutant strain, we used the

afr1Δ, *afr1Δ*/*afr2Δ*/*mdr1Δ*, and *erg3Δ* strains as controls, since all have displayed increased FLC

susceptibility (21, 25).

Among the compounds tested, we found that the *pdr6Δ* mutant displayed a hypersensitive

phenotype specifically towards the azole class antifungals, albeit not as drastic as the *afr1Δ*,

afr1Δ/*afr2Δ*/*mdr1Δ*, or *erg3Δ* strains (Fig. 2 and Table 1). The MICs of the non-azole compounds in the

pdr6Δ strain were comparable to those of the H99 WT, suggesting a specific role of Pdr6 in fluconazole

resistance. Additionally, previous studies have shown a relationship between environmental pH and

antifungal efficacy (26), so we performed similar assays at alkaline and acidic conditions (Fig S1).

Regardless of the pH, the MICs of the WT and *pdr6Δ* strains displayed similar trends suggesting that *PDR6*

functions in a pH-independent manner.

Given the increase in azole susceptibility by the *pdr6Δ* mutant, we performed checkerboard assays

with four common antifungals, FLC, AMB, 5-FC, and CSF (Fig. 3). Interestingly, we found that FLC coupled

with CSF functions differently in the *pdr6Δ* strain when compared to the WT. The combination works in a

synergistic manner in the *pdr6Δ* strain and only in an additive manner in the WT. This finding was

unexpected given that CSF is ineffective at treating cryptococcal infections. Additional experimentation is

required to explain the observed finding. Nonetheless, these data show that *PDR6* is involved in azole

resistance, is not affected by pH, and can alter antifungal combinatorial behaviors. All of these results

were confirmed using three independently recreated *pdr6Δ* mutants (Fig. S2 and Materials and Methods).

Deletion of *PDR6* does not affect drug accumulation

The increased azole susceptibility of the *pdr6Δ* mutant led us to hypothesize that Pdr6 could function as

an efflux pump, similar to many of the characterized fungal PDR transporters. Rhodamine 6G (R6G) and

Nile Red (NR) are fluorescent xenobiotics that have been used as generic probes to measure ABC

transporters' efflux activity (27, 28). To determine if Pdr6 functions as an efflux pump, we measured the

intracellular accumulation of R6G and NR by flow cytometry (Fig. 4A). Surprisingly, no difference was

observed in the mean fluorescent intensity (MFI) values of either R6G or NR in the *pdr6Δ* mutant,

compared to the WT. In contrast, the *afr1Δ* and *afr1Δ*/*afr2Δ*/*mdr1Δ* strains accumulated high levels of

these xenobiotics. We reasoned that Pdr6 may not recognize R6G or NR and potentially, Pdr6 is strictly an

azole-specific transporter. To test this, we synthesized a dansyl amide labeled-FLC molecule, termed

Probe 1 (Fig. 4B), that has been used to visualize the intracellular localization of FLC in *Candida albicans*

(29). Although the modification of FLC with dansyl amide affected its antifungal activity, the strains

sensitive to FLC were also sensitive to Probe 1, indicating a similar mechanism of action (Fig. 4B).

Consistently, the intracellular accumulation of Probe 1 was significantly increased in the *afr1Δ* and

afr1Δ/*afr2Δ*/*mdr1Δ* strains (Fig. 4C). However, there was no difference in the intracellular accumulation

of Probe 1 between the *pdr6Δ* strain and WT, suggesting that Pdr6 is not a major efflux pump for FLC and

instead affects azole activity by a different mechanism. We also used light microscopy to assess the

intracellular localization and accumulation/fluorescent intensity of Probe 1 between strains and no

differences in location were observed, while fluorescent intensity values supported the findings above

(data not shown). To provide definitive support that Pdr6 is not acting as a FLC-specific efflux pump, we

directly measured accumulation of FLC using a liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS)-based

FLC accumulation assay (Fig. 4D). We found that the *pdr6Δ* mutant once again displayed levels comparable

to the WT, while the *afr1Δ*/*afr2Δ*/*mdr1Δ* positive control strain accumulated significant amounts of FLC.

Taken together, these data support that Pdr6 is not functioning as a drug-efflux pump and that the

hypersensitivity to azole antifungals in the *pdr6Δ* strain is not due to increased accumulation of these

drugs.

PDR6 is involved in ergosterol trafficking

To mechanistically explain Pdr6's contribution to antifungal resistance, we next considered azoles' mode

of action. It is well documented that the target of azoles is Erg11, an enzyme in the ergosterol biosynthesis

pathway (15, 30). Disruptions to the ergosterol metabolic pathway can result in accumulation of sterols,

which have been implicated in both diminished and increased effectiveness of azole compounds (25, 31).

We, therefore, hypothesized that the azole resistance phenotype might be a result of *PDR6*'s involvement

in ergosterol transport. To quantify ergosterol content in the cryptococcal plasma membrane, we used

filipin, a sterol-binding fluorescent dye (Fig. 5A). We found a significant difference in fluorescence

between the WT and the *pdr6Δ* mutant. Specifically, the deletion of *PDR6* resulted in decreased

fluorescence, suggesting that less sterol is present and that Pdr6 plays a role in either the synthesis of

sterols or their trafficking; ABC transporters have been implicated in the latter (1, 32, 33), supporting a

potential role for Pdr6 in ergosterol transport to the plasma membrane. The quantitative microscopy

results were further supported using a fluorescent plate reader, which confirmed that the *pdr6Δ* mutant

has reduced overall ergosterol, compared to the WT (Fig. 5B). These findings provide context for the

previously observed antifungal phenotype and demonstrate that the *pdr6Δ* strain has an altered plasma

membrane with less ergosterol, consistent with a role of *PDR6* in ergosterol transport/trafficking. Lastly,

an indirect role of *PDR6* in azole resistance is supported by the fact that the presence of FLC does not

affect the expression of *PDR6*, while growth under host-like conditions induce a rapid and sustained

increase in transcript levels (Fig. S3). Ergosterol is essential for thermotolerance and survival inside

mammalian hosts (33), so if *PDR6* is involved in ergosterol transport, then it would be expected to be

overexpressed under host-like conditions.

Pdr6 localizes to the ER and plasma membrane

To better understand the function of Pdr6, we generated a C-terminally tagged Pdr6-GFP integrative

construct under the control of the *PDR5* promoter and introduced it into the *S. cerevisiae* strain ADΔΔ (34,

35). This strain is missing seven major endogenous ABC transporters and expresses a mutant Pdr1

transcription factor, driving overexpression of PDR genes. This strain not only allows for the visualization

of Pdr6 localization, but also a more direct assessment of efflux activity, provided cryptococcal Pdr6 would

be the only major PDR protein in the cell. Visualization of the ADΔΔ+Pdr6-GFP strain revealed clear

perinuclear and peripheral staining, characteristic of the yeast endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (Fig. 6A).

Images also revealed small areas of intense localization or puncta that were present in the ER and/or

plasma membrane as determined through Z stacks (Fig. 6A and S4A). Similarly, a control ADΔΔ strain

expressing Afr1-GFP, a full-length PDR-type transporter, displayed similar localization patterns in the ER

and plasma membrane, although lacking the puncta present in the ADΔΔ+Pdr6-GFP strain (Fig. 6A and

S4B). Using the same set of strains, we measured FLC susceptibility with Etest strips. The strain expressing

Afr1-GFP, a known FLC efflux pump, exhibited an 12-fold increase in MIC (MIC = 0.75 μg/mL) over the

ADΔΔ+empty vector (MIC = 0.064 μg/mL) control (Fig. 6B). In contrast, the ADΔΔ+Pdr6-GFP strain

exhibited a modest increase with a MIC of 0.25 μg/mL, resulting in a 4-fold increase over the control but

a 3-fold decrease compared to the ADΔΔ+Afr1-GFP strain. This small increase in MIC could be due to the

potential role of Pdr6 in ergosterol transport. To test this, we subjected the set of ADΔΔ strains to filipin

staining and analysis as above. Consistently, the ADΔΔ strains with an empty vector or expressing Afr1-

GFP had the lowest plasma membrane fluorescence, while the ADΔΔ+Pdr6-GFP had intermediate

fluorescence, and the wild-type background control had the highest fluorescence (Fig. 6C). Since the ER is

the site of fungal sterol synthesis, taken together, these results suggest that the role of Pdr6 in azole

resistance stems from effects on ergosterol synthesis and/or transport and not from acting as a specific

FLC efflux pump.

PDR6 influences interaction with host macrophages

Alveolar macrophages represent the first line of defense against cryptococcal infections and the complex

fungal-phagocyte interaction ultimately determines the course of infection and patient outcome (36). We

initially identified _PDR6_ in a screen for fungal regulators of phagocytosis (22). We used the same

automated high-content imaging method to quantify the phagocytic index (PI) of the library's _pdr6Δ_ strain

and the recreated strains by a human monocytic cell line (THP-1) (Fig. 7A and S2B). In agreement, the

original and recreated _pdr6Δ_ mutants were all phagocytosed more readily than the WT, providing

evidence that changes in phagocytosis are a direct result of loss of _PDR6_ function. The _pka1Δ_ strain served

as a high-uptake positive control. This observation begs the question of how the deletion of an atypical

PDR-type ABC transporter was affecting the cryptococcal-host interaction. We first tested if the absence

of _PDR6_ affected the cryptococcal capsule. The _pdr6Δ_ mutant was able to generate capsule comparable

to the WT, indicating that _PDR6_ is not involved in capsule formation (Fig. S5A). Next, we assessed if there

were any defects in cell-wall structure by growing _pdr6Δ_, WT, _afr1Δ_, and _afr1Δ_/_afr2Δ_/_mdr1Δ_ strains under

cell-wall-stress conditions (Fig. S5B). All strains grew under the tested conditions, and melanized normally,

suggesting that there are no defects in the cell wall (Fig. S5B, C). Finally, we hypothesized that _PDR6_ was

involved in the secretion/efflux of an immunomodulatory factor and thus influencing host interactions.

To test this idea, we performed similar uptake assays as previously described, but used strain-specific

conditioned media (CM) during the cryptococcal-macrophage coincubation. The thought process being

that if _PDR6_ is in fact responsible for the release of an immunomodulatory compound, then the CM from

the *pdr6Δ* strain should influence the uptake of the WT as to increase the PI values, whereas the CM from

the WT should decrease the PI values of the *pdr6Δ* strain. As shown in Fig. 7B, there were significant

differences in phagocytosis dependent on the source of the CM. Specifically, the incubation of the WT

with *pdr6Δ* CM increased uptake 2-fold, while the incubation of the *pdr6Δ* strain with WT CM significantly

decreased uptake back to WT levels. Notably, use of CM from the *afr1Δ* mutant had no significant impact

on the PI values of either WT or *pdr6Δ* strains. This suggests that *PDR6* is involved in the release of an

immunomodulatory factor that is present in the media and significantly impacts phagocytosis of

cryptococcal cells by host phagocytes. Taken together, these data confirm that the *pdr6Δ* mutant is

recognized and phagocytosed more avidly than the WT strain, and that the deletion of *PDR6* alters the

secretion/efflux of fungal immunomodulatory compounds.

***PDR6* is involved in capsular shedding and adherence**

To investigate in more detail how *PDR6* is altering the cryptococcal-phagocyte interaction, we focused on

the polysaccharide capsule. Primarily composed of glucuronoxylomannan (GXM) and

glucuronoxylomannogalactan (GXMGal), the capsule is known to be secreted/shed in a constitutive

manner. This secreted capsule plays a central role in virulence by acting as an antiphagocytic factor,

providing protection against host stressors, and modulating the host immune response (37, 38). We

wondered if the release/secretion of the capsule into the surrounding environment is altered in the *pdr6Δ*

mutant. To test this, we analyzed the amount of shed capsule by electrophoresis and immunoblotting

using anti-GXM antibodies (Fig. 8A) (39). Quantification of the immunoblot showed that the *pdr6Δ* mutant

sheds significantly less capsule compared to the WT in both DMEM and YNB media (Fig. 8A). Notably,

there were no differences in shed capsule between the *afr1Δ* and *afr1Δ*/*afr2Δ*/*mdr1Δ* strains and the WT,

indicating that this phenotype is unique to the Pdr6 transporter. As expected, there was no GXM secreted

from the *cap59Δ* strain. This observed defect in capsule shedding could explain the phagocytosis

phenotype, but to further test if there are functional consequences associated with this defect, we

performed biofilm/adherence assays (Fig. 8B). Previous studies have shown that GXM is essential for the

formation of cryptococcal biofilms (40-42). Consistently, we found a similar trend where the *pdr6Δ* strain

formed weaker/less biofilm structures when compared to the WT, as measured by biomass quantification

using anti-GXM antibody. Identical results were obtained by metabolic quantification using XTT reduction

assays (data not shown). Taken together, these data suggest that *PDR6* is implicated in the shedding of

the polysaccharide capsule, affecting both phagocytosis by host cells and biofilm formation.

PDR6 function is required for *in vitro* and *in vivo* virulence

Given the altered host interactions exhibited by the *pdr6Δ* mutant, its mild thermotolerance (Fig. S5D),

and the decreased capsule shedding, we next assessed its ability to survive within the challenging and

harsh intracellular environment. To test this, we performed *in vitro* survival assays and found that the

pdr6Δ mutant struggled to survive within host macrophages when compared to the WT (Fig. 9A). After 4h

in the presence of naïve human macrophages, ~10% of intracellular WT cells died, whereas ~40% of the

pdr6Δ cells are killed. To expand on this mild *in vitro* defect, we tested the virulence of the *pdr6Δ* mutant

in a murine inhalation model of cryptococcosis, monitoring disease progression by weight loss. Infection

with the WT strain resulted in all animals steadily losing weight by about two weeks, 50% of them dying

in 17 days, and all succumbing to infection by day 19 (Fig. 9B). In contrast, mice infected with the original

pdr6Δ and the recreated *pdr6Δ*-1 strains lived about two weeks longer than the WT-infected mice, with

animals beginning to die at day 34, and all succumbing to infection by day 41, thus showing a significant

increase in survival. Notably, CFUs recovered from these mice at time of death showed similar lung burden

as WT, but significantly less dissemination to brain and spleen (Fig. 9C), supporting an altered progression

or attenuated pathology. Consistently, the *pdr6Δ*-infected mice exhibited respiratory symptoms (rapid

and labored breathing), and their lungs were significantly more inflamed and enlarged than the WT lungs

at time of death. Taken together, these data suggest that *PDR6* function is required for full cryptococcal

pathogenesis, and in its absence, the manifestation of the disease is more consistent with pneumonia

rather than typical meningitis.

DISCUSSION

The H99 genome contains 10 genes encoding PDR-type ABC transporters. Although it has a conserved

representative gene in all clades except clade II, few have been characterized. Here we present an initial

characterization of an atypical, half-size, PDR transporter found in a fungal-host interaction screen. This

gene, which we call *PDR6*, is conserved in the fungal kingdom (clade VIb), but no function has been

reported for that subgroup. Since all the other members of that clade are pathogenic fungi, our work may

have broad implication for medically-important fungi. Given the similarity of *PDR6* to *AFR1* and *AFR2*,

which have been shown to act as efflux pumps for FLC, we tested the hypothesis that *PDR6* might act in a

similar way. However, our data shows that it is unlikely that Pdr6 is an efflux pump for the compounds

tested, including FLC. The *pdr6*Δ mutant accumulates the same level of all these compounds, yet it is

hypersensitive to them.

We then focused on ergosterol, the direct or indirect target of most antifungal drugs. Studies in

the model yeast *S. cerevisiae* have documented the ergosterol biosynthetic pathway in detail (43). This

occurs in the ER, yet how ergosterol is trafficked to the plasma membrane is not known, although it is

known that it does not involve vesicular traffic (44). In this yeast, *PDR18* has been implicated in that

process, and indeed, when *PDR6* is compared to the *S. cerevisiae* genome, *PDR18* is the gene closest to it,

although there is no real *PDR6* homolog in *S. cerevisiae*. Moreover, fungal and plant PDR genes are part

of the subfamily G of ABC transporters. In mammals, all ABCG members are half-size, and the mouse

ABCG3 and human ABCG5 and 8 transporters are all involved in cholesterol transport (45). Interestingly,

a BLAST analysis of these ABCG sequences against the *Cryptococcus* genome identifies *PDR6* as the gene

with the highest similarity to ABCG3 and 8. Hence, our finding that Pdr6-GFP localizes to the ER and to the

PM, the biosynthesis site and final destination of ergosterol, respectively, and that the *pdr6Δ* mutant has

decreased ergosterol while the ADΔΔ+Pdr6-GFP increases plasma membrane ergosterol, strongly support

a model were Pdr6 functions as an ergosterol transporter.

It is known that defects in the plasma membrane can affect the cell wall and/or capsule. We did

not find evidence for gross alterations to either of these layers, but the defect in capsule shedding, and

the results of the CM studies, are highly suggestive of Pdr6 having a role in regulated shedding of the

capsule. It has been shown that capsule is shed constitutively, but recent studies have demonstrated that

capsule shedding can also be regulated (38). *PDR6* is highly and rapidly induced under host conditions,

which are conditions known to induce capsule growth and shedding. Notably, it is known that normal

levels of ergosterol are needed for thermotolerance, hence if *PDR6* is involved in ergosterol homeostasis,

it would be expected to be induced upon shift to body temperature. The altered ergosterol levels in the

pdr6Δ mutant could explain both the increased sensitivity to FLC and other azoles, and the mild

thermotolerance (Fig. 10).

Lastly, we show that Pdr6 function is needed for normal progression and disease manifestation in

the mouse inhalational model. This could be explained by the decreased capsular shedding, high

phagocytosis, and lower intracellular survival (Fig. 10). The increased recognition and phagocytosis could

give the host an advantage since the fungus does not survive as well intracellularly. This would affect

dissemination, as there is ample evidence that phagocytes are needed for extrapulmonary dissemination,

a process known as trojan-horse transit (46). However, in order for trojan-horse transit to occur, the

fungus must be able to survive intracellularly, and the *pdr6Δ* mutant is defective in this respect. Moreover,

the decreased capsule shedding from the extracellular fungi would result in a stronger inflammatory

response. The *pdr6Δ* mutant is also capable of inducing production of a large capsule, hence over time,

less cells would be phagocytosed, and free cells in the tissue would accumulate. With the increased fungal

burden, and the stronger inflammatory response, the host advantage is lost, and the animals die exhibiting

different symptoms. Ongoing studies into the immunological response of the animals to *pdr6Δ* infection

will shed more light into this hypothesis.

In conclusion, we have described a new mechanism by which cryptococcal cells can modulate

their susceptibility to azoles: ergosterol transport regulated by Pdr6. Our results with the CM also indicate

a potential new antiphagocytic mechanism: the *pdr6Δ* mutant can still grow a capsule, yet it is recognized

and phagocytosed more avidly. Given that there are *PDR6* homologs in other fungal pathogens, it would

be interesting to see if this function is conserved. Notably, *PDR6* is missing in *C. deneoformans*, but present

in *C. gattii*. *C. deneoformans* is considerably less pathogenic than *C. neoformans,* and *C. gattii* is considered

a primary pathogen, although is more associated with pneumonia than CNS infection. Would absence of

PDR6 in *C. deneoformans* contribute to the virulence differences? Moreover, in addition to *PDR6*, *C.*

neoformans has two additional half-size PDR transporters, which are missing in *C. gattii*. These are not in

clade VIb, but their function is nevertheless unknown. Elucidation of the diverse functions of ABC

transporters, specifically the PDR-type, has the potential to open new lines of investigation for better

treatments for this devastating disease.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Strains, cell lines, growth conditions, and reagents

Strains used were *C. neoformans* serotype A strain H99α and deletions in this background. H99α *afr1Δ*

and H99α *afr1Δ*/*afr2Δ*/*mdr1Δ* were a generous gift from Yun Chang (National Institutes of Health). The *S.*

cerevisiae strain ADΔΔ and the plasmids pABC3 and pABC3-KLmGH were graciously shared by Richard

Cannon (Otago University, New Zealand). Maintenance and growth conditions, as well as media details

can be found in Supplemental Text S1.

The human monocyte cell line THP-1 (ATCC TIB-202) was grown in THP-1 complete media and

differentiated with phorbol 12-myristate 12-acetate (PMA, Sigma) as described in (47). THP-1 cells were

split every 3-4 days and new vials were thawed every month. Details on complete media preparation and

differentiation into macrophages can be found in Supplemental Text S1.

All antifungals, xenobiotics, and other chemicals used were obtained through VWR or from Sigma.

Details on the preparation of stock solutions, including solvent concentrations, as well as their storage

information can be found in Supplemental Text S1.

Fungal genome manipulation

Since complementation strains of the original *pdr6Δ* proved challenging to create, we used the split

marker method (48) to delete *PDR6* (CNAG_06909) in H99α after amplifying NAT resistance split marker

fragments from genomic DNA of strain 1F1 (*pdr6Δ*) from the Madhani deletion collection. Three

independent *pdr6Δ* mutant strains were generated to verify that all observed phenotypes are a direct

result of the loss of *PDR6* (Fig. S2). Additionally, we performed whole genome sequencing on the

generated *pdr6Δ* mutants to confirm proper genetic manipulation (data not shown).

Drug susceptibility assays

The CLSI M27-A3 reference method was used to determine the MIC of each drug (49). Briefly, the

compounds to be tested were prepared at 2X the final concentration from stock solutions in RPMI 1640

medium. These were dispensed in a 96-well plate with 2-fold serial dilutions. 500 cells were then added

to each well. Plates were incubated at 37°C + 5% CO_2 for 48 – 72 hr. Minimal inhibitory concentrations

(MICs) were quantified by measuring the OD_{600} using a microtiter plate reader. For details on the

compounds and concentration ranges tested see Supplemental Text S1.

The MIC of FLC was also determined on RPMI plates with Epsilometer test strips (Etest strips;

Liofilchem Thermo). Approximately 5 X 10^4 cells were plated on RPMI agar plates before application of

the Etest strips. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 48 hr.

Checkerboard assays

Checkerboard assays to assess the fractional inhibitory concentrations (FICs) for combinations of

antifungal drugs was performed as previously described (50). Log-phase cultures were used and mixed

with the antifungal stocks in RPMI 1640. For more details on the procedure, final antifungal

concentrations, and calculations of the FIC index, see Supplemental Text S1. A FIC index value of ≤ 0.5 is

considered synergistic, additive if the value is between 1.0 and 0.5, and antagonistic if the FIC index is ≥

2.0.

Flow cytometry analysis of the efflux of R6G, Nile Red, and Probe 1

Accumulation assays was performed as previously described (21, 29). Briefly, strains were grown

overnight in YPD at 30°C with shaking. Log-phase cultures were incubated with the fluorescent reporters

in PBS for 30 min at 30°C with shaking. The reactions were stopped by cooling on ice, and the mixture was

diluted 40-fold in cold 1X PBS. The accumulation was immediately assessed by flow cytometry. For details

on the concentration of the reporters, the lasers and filters used, and how the data was analyzed see

Supplemental Text S1. Synthesis of Probe 1 was done in the Mobashery lab following published methods

(29). For a detailed synthetic scheme and characterization of the product see Supplemental Text S1.

Liquid Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry (LC/MS)

Log-phase cultures were incubated with FLC as above. A total of 200 µL was removed for CFU

quantification and the rest was processed to make the lysate. The lysate was mixed with same volume of

cold MeOH, vortexed, and spun down. The supernatant was mixed with the same volume of CH_2Cl_2,

vortexed, and spun down. The organic (bottom) phase was transferred into a glass tube, the solvent was

evaporated and the residues was resuspended in MeOH. At this point the samples were further cleaned

by passing through a solid-phase extraction (SPE) column. The elutes from SPE were concentrated by

speedvac, reconstituted in 50:50 water:MeOH, and analyzed using LC/MS. For details on the

instrumentation, columns, buffers, flow rates, software, and mass-spec parameters see Supplemental

Text S1.

Phenotyping

Strains tested were grown overnight in YPD, diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.2, and grown for two doublings. The

cultures were diluted to 1 x 10^7 cells/mL and serially diluted (10-fold) and spotted (5 μL) onto YPD with 1

M NaCl, 0.005% SDS, 0.1% Congo Red, and 0.5 μg/mL caffeine. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 48 – 72

hr.

Uptake Assay

Uptake assays were performed as previously described (22). Briefly, differentiated THP-1 cells were

incubated with Lucifer Yellow-stained fungal cells that had been opsonized with 40% fresh human serum

obtained from healthy donors (approved by the UND IRB committee as a non-human subject research

procedure). Following a 1 hr incubation, the plates were washed using a microplate washer (405LS, Biotek,

Winooski, VT), fixed with 4% formaldehyde, and stained with DAPI (Sigma) and CellMask Deep Red

(Invitrogen). NaN_3 in PBS was added to the plates and images were obtained using a Zeiss Axio Observer

microscope, equipped with an automated stage. Each well was automatically imaged in a 3x3 grid and the

images were analyzed using a Cell Profiler pipeline to determine phagocytic index (PI) values. For more

details on these procedures, including the Cell Profiler pipeline, see Supplemental Text S1.

Conditioned media

454 Conditioned media (CM) was generated as previously described (51). Briefly, overnight cultures were

455 diluted to 1 X 10^5 cells/mL in RPMI 1640 media and incubated for 5 days at 30°C. Cells were removed by

456 centrifugation and the supernatant was filtered through a 0.25-μm filter.

Capsule induction

459 Cells were grown overnight in YPD, washed with DMEM, and 1 X 10^6 cells/mL were added to 24-well tissue

460 culture plates. Plates were incubated at 37°C + 5% CO_2 for 24 hr. Cell suspension was collected and

461 washed, India ink was added, and samples were visualized on a Zeiss microscope. Images were analyzed

462 with ImageJ (NIH) for capsule thickness.

Capsule shedding assay

Capsule shedding assays were performed as previously described (38, 39). Briefly, strains were grown

overnight in YPD at 30°C, washed, and diluted to 1 X 10^6 cells/mL in DMEM. Following a 15 hr incubation

at 37°C + 5% CO_2, the samples were heated to denature enzymes, centrifuged to separate cells and

supernatant, and then stored at 4°C. The samples were loaded on a 0.6% certified megabase agarose (Bio-

Rad) gel and subjected to electrophoresis for 15 hr at 25 V. Gel contents were transferred to a positively

charged membrane using a standard Southern blot protocol with 10X SSC. Following overnight transfer,

the membrane was blocked for 48 hr in 1X TBS-5% milk and incubated for 1 hr in 1X TBST-1% milk with 1

μg/mL of anti-GXM monoclonal antibody. Membrane was rinsed three times in 1X TBST and incubated for

1 hr in 1X TBST-1% milk with Odyssey antibody at 1:10,000. Membrane was rinsed again three times in 1X

TBST and imaged on the Odyssey (Licor).

Biofilm/Adherence assay

Cryptococcal adherence assays were performed in nontreated 96-well plates (CLS3631, Corning). Briefly,

strains were grown overnight in YPD, diluted to 1 X 10^7 cells/mL in DMEM, and 100 μl of cell suspension

was seeded. Plates were incubated at $37^{\circ}C$ + 5% CO_2 for 72 hr, washed with PBS, fixed with 4%

formaldehyde, blocked with 1.5% BSA and 0.1% NaN_3 in PBS, and incubated with anti-GXM primary and

secondary antibodies. Plates were imaged on the Odyssey and quantified using ImageStudio software.

Biofilms were also quantified by the XTT reduction assay, as previously described (52, 53). For details on

this assay see Supplemental Text S1.

Filipin staining

Staining of membrane sterols was performed as previously described (31, 54). Briefly, log-phase cultures

grown in YPD were stained for 5 min with 5 μg/mL of filipin (Sigma) and washed with PBS. After washing

cells were immediately visualized with an inverted Zeiss microscope. Fluorescence was calculated using

Cell Profiler software. Additionally, fluorescent levels were quantified with a fluorescent plate reader (Bio-

Tek). Fluorescence was measured at the range of 360 to 470 nm wavelength and normalized by OD_{600}.

Mouse virulence studies

To test virulence in a murine model, strains were cultured overnight in YPD, collected, washed, and diluted

to 10^6 cells/mL in DPBS. 50 μL of the cell suspension (or DPBS for the mock-infected) was used to

intranasally inoculate groups of five mice (5 to 6-week-old female A/Jcr mice; Jackson Laboratories).

Animals were closely monitored and sacrificed if they lost >20% relative to peak weight or at the end of

the experiment (41 days). Homogenates of lungs, brains, and spleens were plated to determine organ

burden.

500   **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

501   We acknowledge assistance and support for the LC-MS/MS by Dr. Mijoon Lee at the Notre Dame Mass

502   Spectrometry Core. We thank Dr. Richard Cannon for their gift of the ADΔΔ strain and associated

503   plasmids. We acknowledge financial support from the Warren Center for Drug Discovery for a Sean

504   Cocchia Rare Disease Research seed grant. We also thank members of the Santiago-Tirado lab for

505   thoughtful comments and feedback on this work.

506

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FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS

FIG 1 *PDR6* contains all the features of a PDR-type ABC transporter and is conserved in a subset of fungal

pathogens. (A) Cladogram showing the fungal distribution of *PDR6* orthologs in the two main phyla. (B)

Global phylogenetic tree showing the evolutionary relationships of PDR-type ABC transporters in 21 fungal

organisms. Gene names are given in NCBI nomenclature. Tree was generated by Maximum Likelihood

Method using MEGA-X and confidence values determined from 500 bootstraps with bootstrap scores

shown at all nodes. The tree shown is the bootstrap consensus tree. Analysis reveals VI major clades with

C. neoformans PDR6 housed in clade VIb. Arrow denotes location of *PDR6.* (C) Topology prediction of Pdr6

protein by Computational Analysis of the Membrane Protein Space (CAMPS) software showing the

domain arrangement of the half-size PDR transporter. The 5 main consensus motifs of the nucleotide

binding domain (NBD) are depicted.

FIG 2 *PDR6* is involved in azole resistance. (A) The *pdr6Δ* mutant shows increased sensitivity to FLC

gradient plates and Etest strips. (Left) 500 cells of the indicated strains were spotted across RPMI-1640

slant plate with peak FLC concentration of 4 μg/mL at the right side of the plate. (Right) FLC Etest strips

were applied to RPMI-1640 plates with 2 x 10^5 cells of indicated strain. The MICs of the H99 and *pdr6Δ*

mutant were 6 and 0.38 μg/mL, respectively. These plates were incubated for 72 hr at 30°C. (B-H)

Quantitative broth microdilution assays were used to compare MICs of several antifungal compounds in

the WT and *pdr6Δ* mutant. The CLSI M27-A3 reference method was repeated three times for each

compound and the bars represent the average of the MICs. The details for each strain's MICs are listed in

Table 1. FLC, fluconazole; VRC, voriconazole; ITC, itraconazole; KTC, ketoconazole; PSC, posaconazole;

CHX, cycloheximide.

Strain	MICs (μg/mL)													
	FLC	ITC	VRC	KTC	PSC	AMB	5-FC	CHX	Nocodazole	BER	PQ	TSA	Menadione (μM)	CSF
H99	2	1	0.0625	0.5	1	4	2	0.25	0.0625	8	12.5	2	16	32
pdr6Δ	0.5	0.5	0.015625	0.0625	0.25	4	4	0.25	0.0625	8	12.5	2	16	64
afr1Δ	0.25	0.5	0.03125	0.0625	0.25	4	2	0.015625	0.0625	8	12.5	0.5	16	64
afr1Δ /afr2Δ /mdr1Δ	0.125	0.125	0.015625	0.015625	0.0625	4	4	0.015625	0.0625	8	12.5	0.5	8	64
erg3Δ	0.125	0.25	0.0078125	0.03125	0.125	4	2	0.0625	0.03125	0.5	3.125	0.5	16	32

701 **Table 1** MICs of antifungals and xenobiotics. Values are representative of three biological replicates. FLC,

702 fluconazole; ITC, itraconazole, KTC, ketoconazole; PSC, posaconazole; AMB, amphotericin B; 5-FC, 5-

703 fluorocytosine; CHX, cycloheximide; BER, berberine; PQ, paraquat; TSA, trichostatin A; CSF, caspofungin.

FIG S1 FLC hypersensitivity in *pdr6Δ* mutant is pH-independent. (A) Plates with FLC Etest strips to assess

the zones of inhibition of H99 WT and *pdr6Δ* mutant cells grown on standard (pH 5.5) or alkaline (pH 7.5)

YNB medium. Regardless of pH, the *pdr6Δ* mutant was 4X more susceptible than WT. The H99 and *pdr6Δ*

mutant displayed FLC MICs of 64 and 16 μg/mL on the 5.5 pH plates and 24 and 6 μg/mL under alkaline

conditions. Plates were imaged after 72 hr of growth at 30°C. (B) MIC of FLC for H99 WT and *pdr6Δ* strains

grown under alkaline conditions as determined by broth microdilution assays after 48 h of growth at 30ºC.

Microdilution assays were repeated three times for each condition and black bars represent the average

MIC respectively.

FIG 3 Combinatorial FLC + CSF function synergistically in *pdr6*Δ mutant. Checkerboard assays assessed

changes in drug combinatorial activity in H99 and *pdr6*Δ strains. The combination of FLC + CSF resulted in

average sums of FIC of 1.083 and 0.625 in the H99 and *pdr6*Δ strain respectively. Calculations indicate a

change from additive to synergistic in the absence of *PDR6*. Checkerboard assays were repeated three

times for each combination and black bars represent the average sum of FIC.

FIG S2 Recreated *pdr6Δ* strains display identical phenotypes to original strain from deletion collection. (A)

Broth microdilution assays were used to compare FLC MICs of three independently recreated *pdr6Δ*

strains to the *pdr6Δ* strain from the deletion collection. Assay was repeated three times and black bars

represent the average MIC. (B) Comparative phagocytic indices of the library and recreated *pdr6Δ* mutants

with the H99 strain. All *pdr6Δ* strains displayed significantly higher phagocytic values than the WT. Values

represent the mean ± SD of a representative experiment from three biological replicates. Statistical

significance determined using one-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons (Welch's corrected), *P<0.05,

**P<0.01.

FIG 4 Deletion of *PDR6* does not affect intracellular accumulation of fluorescent reporters. (A) H99 and

indicated deletion strains were incubated with 10 µM R6G or 7 µM NR for 30 min at 30°C and the cells

were analyzed by flow cytometry. No significant difference in intracellular accumulation was observed

between the WT and *pdr6Δ* mutant. (B) (Left) Chemical structure of Probe 1 with FLC backbone

highlighted. (Right) Broth microdilution assays were performed to compare the MICs of FLC with Probe 1.

Regardless of strain, a 128-fold increase was observed in the MICs of Probe 1 when compared to FLC.

Microdilution assays were repeated three times and shown is a representative figure. (C) Indicated strains

were incubated with 10 µg/mL of Probe 1 as described above and accumulation assessed using flow

750   cytometry. (D) Accumulation of FLC was assessed in H99 and deletion strains using LC-MS/MS. Strains

751   were incubated with 16 µg/mL of FLC for 30 min at 30°C. All values represent the mean ± SEM from three

752   to four independent experiments. Significance was determined using one-way ANOVA compared to H99

753   (Welch's corrected), *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ****P<0.0001.

FIG 5 *pdr6Δ* mutant displays reduced sterol content. (A) Filipin staining was used to assess sterol content

in WT and *pdr6Δ* strains. (Left) The *pdr6Δ* mutant displayed significantly less plasma membrane

fluorescence than the WT. Cells were incubated with 5 µg/mL for 5 min at 30°C and visualized. Scale bar,

5 µm. (Right) Quantification of fluorescence was assessed using a Cell Profiler pipeline. Values represent

the mean ± SEM where n=50. Significance was determined using Student's T-test (Welch's corrected),

****P<0.0001 (B) Total filipin staining was also measured using a fluorescent plate reader. Similarly, less

sterol was observed in the *pdr6Δ* strain when compared to the WT. Values represent the mean ± SEM

from three independent experiments. Significance was determined using one-way ANOVA with multiple

comparisons (Welch's corrected), ****$P<0.0001$.

FIG S3 *PDR6* is induced by host-like conditions. (A) Data from an RNA-seq experiment to analyze

expression levels of *PDR6* after shifting to host-like conditions. Expression increased about almost 3-fold

in the first 30 min and remained relatively high throughout 24 hr. (B) qRT-PCR measured transcript levels

of *PDR6* in response to FLC exposure. Log phase cells were either untreated (control) or treated with 4

µg/mL of FLC for 2 hr. No significant difference was observed in the presence of the antifungal. Expression

levels were normalized to that of the actin gene. Values represent the mean ± SEM of three biological

replicates.

FIG 6 Pdr6 localizes to the ER and PM in *S. cerevisiae.* (A) Visualization of *S. cerevisiae* ADΔΔ expressing *C. neoformans PDR6* and *AFR1,* or empty vector. GFP-tagged proteins localization is consistent with the ER and PM. Representative images of transformed strains. Arrow denotes an enrichment of Pdr6-GFP on the PM. Scale bar, 10 μm. EV, empty vector. (B) Function of expressed cryptococcal proteins was assessed using FLC Etest strips. Both strains expressing *PDR6* (MIC = 0.25 μg/mL) and *AFR1* (MIC = 0.75 μg/mL) display increased resistance to FLC compared to empty vector control (MIC = 0.064 μg/mL) but the strain expressing *AFR1* was most resistant. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 96 hr and imaged. (C) Quantification of sterol content in transformed strains. The ADΔΔ + *PDR6* displays increased filipin staining

788   compared to the ADΔΔ control and ADΔΔ + *AFR1* but less than the WT BY4741 strain. Log-phase cells were

789   incubated with filipin as previously described and imaged. Values represent the mean ± SEM where n=50.

790   Significance was determined using one-way ANOVA (Brown-Forsythe and Welch's corrected), * P < 0.05.

FIG S4 Pdr6-GFP exhibits small areas of intense localization to membranes of the ER and PM (arrowheads).

These intense puncta are not seen in the Afr1-GFP cells. Scale bar is 5 μm.

FIG 7 *pdr6*Δ mutant conditioned media (CM) increases the phagocytosis of H99 WT by host macrophages.

(A) Uptake assays of WT and deletion strains were performed to determine phagocytic indices of

respective strains. The *pdr6*Δ mutant displayed increased uptake compared to the H99 strain. The *pka1*Δ

cells are used as a positive control. Stained and opsonized log-phase cells were incubated for 1 hr with

THP-1 cells and imaged using automated microscopy. Values represent the mean ± SEM from three

independent experiments. (B) Uptake assay using CM from cryptococcal strains was performed. CM

obtained by centrifugation and filtration of supernatants from 5-day cultures incubated at 37°C + 5% CO_2

in RPMI-1640 media. The *pdr6*Δ CM altered the phagocytic uptake values of the WT strain and vice versa,

whereas the *afr1*Δ CM has no effect. Values represent the mean ± SD from a representative experiment.

Significance was determined using one-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons (Welch's corrected),

*P<0.05; **P<0.01; ***P<0.001.

FIG S5 *pdr6Δ* mutant exhibits a mild defect in thermotolerance but behaves identical to H99 WT in other

virulence factors and stress conditions. (A) Capsule induction assays were performed to determine capsule

thickness in cryptococcal strains. Visualization and quantification of 24 hr cultures revealed that there was

no significant difference in capsule size between the H99 and *pdr6Δ* mutant. Scale bar, 5 μm. Values

represent the mean ± SEM where n=50. (B) Growth on stress plates was assessed to determine potential

membrane or cell wall defects in the indicated cryptococcal strains. No differences were observed in the

pdr6Δ mutant. Mid-log phase cultures were serially diluted on plates with cell wall/PM stressors and

incubated for 72 hr at 30°C. CR, Congo Red. (C) Melanization was assessed by pigmentation on caffeic acid

plates. 5.0×10^3 cells were spotted and incubated as above. (D) Thermotolerance was assessed by spotting

strains on YPD plates and incubating plates at 30°C and 37°C for 72 hr. A mild defect in growth was

observed in the *pdr6Δ* mutant compared to the WT strain.

FIG 8 Deletion of *PDR6* alters capsular secretion and biofilm formation. (A) Capsule shedding assays were
performed to determine amount of GXM secreted from cryptococcal strains. Visualization of released
GXM was observed on immunoblot using fluorescent detection (Odyssey, LiCor). Quantification of signal
revealed that the *pdr6Δ* mutant shed significantly less capsule than the WT strain. Values represent the
mean ± SD from a representative experiment. Significance was determined using one-way ANOVA
compared to H99 (Welch's corrected), *P<0.05; **P<0.01. (B) Biofilm forming assays were performed to
again analyze shed capsule. Nontreated microtiter plates were incubated for 72 hr, washed, and visualized
for biofilms using a fluorescent imaging system. (Odyssey, LiCor). Quantification of signal reveal that all

pdr6Δ mutants form weaker/less adherent biofilms when compared to the WT. Values represent the

mean ± SD from a representative experiment. Significance was determined using one-way ANOVA

compared to H99 (Welch's corrected), ***P<0.001; ****P<0.0001.

FIG 9 *pdr6Δ* mutant displays attenuated virulence *in vitro* and *in vivo.* (A) *In vitro* survival of H99 and *pdr6Δ*

strains. Fungi and THP-1 cells were coincubated for 1 hr at an MOI of 0.1, washed to remove free

cryptococci, and half the samples lysed to determine intracellular fungi and the other half grown for an

additional 3 hr, after which they were also lysed. Shown in % killed, values represent the mean ± SEM

from three independent experiments. Significance was determined using one-way ANOVA compared to

H99 (Friedman corrected), *P<0.05. (B) *In vivo* survival curve of H99 and *pdr6Δ*-infected mice. 5 AJ/Cr mice

per group were infected intranasally with 5 x 10^4 *C. neoformans*, or mock infected with DPBS and

monitored for up to 41 days (experiment terminated when the last infected mouse died). Significance was

determined using Mantel-Cox test, ***P<0.001. (C) Calculated organ burden of H99 and *pdr6Δ* strains at

time of death. Organs were harvested, homogenized, and dilutions were plated on YPD. Plates were

incubated for 48 hr and CFUs counted. Each data point represents a mouse and black bars represent the

mean. Significance was determined using one-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons (Welch's

corrected), *P<0.05.

FIG 10 Model of Pdr6 and relationship to antifungal resistance, host interactions, and virulence. Pdr6 is a

half-size transporter (dark blue), hence it needs to dimerize with itself or another half-size transporter

(light blue) to be functional.