The ER protein translocation channel subunit Sbh1 controls virulence of *Cryptococcus neoformans*

Felipe H. Santiago-Tirado[1,5], Thomas Hurtaux[1], Jennifer Geddes-McAlister[2], Duy Nguyen[3,6], Volkhard Helms[3], Tamara L. Doering[1]*, Karin Römisch[4] *

Department of Molecular Microbiology, Washington University Medical School, St. Louis, Missouri, USA; fsantiago@nd.edu; thomas.hurtaux@wustl.edu; doering@wustl.edu

Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, University of Guelph, Ontario, Canada; jgeddesm@uoguelph.ca

Center for Bioinformatics, Faculty of Natural Sciences and Technology, Saarland University, Saarbruecken, Germany; volkhard.helms@ bioinformatik.uni-saarland.de

Department of Biology, Faculty of Natural Sciences and Technology, Saarland University, Saarbruecken, Germany; k.roemisch@mx.uni-saarland.de

Current address: Department of Biological Sciences, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, IN46556, USA

Current address: DKFZ Heidelberg, Germany; duy.nguyen@dkfz-heidelberg.de

* corresponding authors: k.roemisch@mx.uni-saarland.de
        phone: +49-681-302 2704; ORCID ID 0000-0003-0415-6558

        doering@wustl.edu
        phone +1-314-747-5597; ORCID ID 0000-0002-5179-7393

Running title: Sbh1-dependence of *Cryptococcus neoformans* virulence (48 characters)

- KR was funded by core funding of the Saarland University. Work in the Doering lab was supported by NIH grants AI140979 and AI135012 to TLD. FHS also received support from NIH T32 grant AI007172 and a Postdoctoral Enrichment Program Award from the Burroughs Wellcome Fund. JGM is supported by the Canadian Foundation for Innovation (JELF #38798) and the Canadian Institutes for Health Research (Project Grant).VH was supported by Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft grant He3875/15-1.

- Data available on request from the authors. Proteomics data are deposited in PRIDE.
- The authors declare no conflict of interest.
- All animal studies were reviewed and approved by the Animal Studies Committee of Washington University School of Medicine and conducted according to the National Institutes of Health guidelines for housing and care of laboratory animals.

Abstract

The fungal pathogen *Cryptococcus neoformans* is distinguished by a cell wall-anchored

polysaccharide capsule that is critical for virulence. Biogenesis of both cell wall and capsule

relies on the secretory pathway. Protein secretion begins with polypeptide translocation across

the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane through a highly conserved channel formed by

three proteins: Sec61, Sbh1, and Sss1. Sbh1, the most divergent, contains multiple

phosphorylation sites, which may allow it to regulate entry into the secretory pathway in a

species- and protein-specific manner. Absence of *SBH1* causes a cell-wall defect in both

Saccharomyces cerevisiae and *C. neoformans*, although other phenotypes differ. Proteomic

analysis revealed a set of secretory and transmembrane proteins whose expression under host-

like conditions was upregulated in wild-type cryptococci, but not in Δ*sbh1* mutant cells. The

Sbh1-dependent proteins show specific features of their ER targeting sequences that likely

cause them to transit less efficiently into the secretory pathway. Many also act in cell-wall

biogenesis, while several are known virulence factors; accordingly, the *C. neoformans* Δ*sbh1*

mutant was avirulent in a mouse infection model. We conclude that, in the context of host-like

conditions, Sbh1 controls the entry of virulence factors into the secretory pathway of

Cryptococcus neoformans, and thereby regulates fungal pathogenicity.

Take aways

64   - *SBH1* is essential for virulence of *C. neoformans*

65   - Sbh1 is required for increased expression of specific secretory and transmembrane proteins

66   in infection-like conditions

67   - Sbh1-dependent ER-targeting sequences are suboptimal for entry into the secretory pathway

68   through the Sec61 channel

1 INTRODUCTION

Cryptococcus neoformans is a haploid budding yeast that is ubiquitous in the environment, so that spores or dessicated cells are frequently inhaled (Kwon-Chung et al., 2014; Srikanta et al., 2014). In healthy individuals these infectious particles are generally cleared or establish an asymptomatic latent infection (Montoya et al., 2021). If, however, the host is or becomes severely immunocompromised, the pathogen may grow and disseminate, both within and outside of host cells (Gaylord et al., 2020). Dissemination to the central nervous system results in a devastating meningitis, which causes almost 200,000 deaths each year worldwide (Rajasingham et al., 2017).

Like other fungi, *C. neoformans* is protected by a multilayer cell wall, which is composed of a meshwork of chitin, chitosan, alpha and beta glucans, and mannoproteins (Loza et al., 2021). This flexible and dynamic structure responds to and protects the cell from environmental stresses, while accommodating morphogenesis. An additional role of the cryptococcal wall is to anchor an elaborate polysaccharide capsule that surrounds the cell (Reese et al., 2003; 2007). This structure, which is unique among fungal pathogens, is required for cryptococcal virulence (Kwon-Chung et al., 2014). Capsule polysaccharides are also shed from the cell into the surrounding environment, where they act to perturb the host immune response (Agustinho et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018).

The biogenesis of both cell wall and capsule in *C. neoformans* relies on the secretory pathway, which begins with protein translocation across the ER membrane through the highly conserved Sec61 channel (Voorhees & Hegde, 2016). An N-terminal hydrophobic signal peptide or a transmembrane domain targets proteins to this channel, which is formed by three

proteins: Sec61, Sbh1, and Sss1 in yeast (Fig. 1A) and Sec61α, Sec61ß, and Sec61γ in

mammals (Voorhees & Hegde, 2016; Wu et al., 2019). *SEC61* and *SSS1* are essential in *S.*

cerevisiae (Stirling et al., 1992; Esnault et al., 1993). The 10 transmembrane helices of Sec61

form a protein-conducting channel in the ER membrane, stabilized by Sss1 which clamps

around the Sec61 helix-bundle (Fig. 1A) (Wu et al., 2019; Esnault et al., 1994; Falcone et al.,

2011). *SBH1* and its paralog *SBH2* are not essential, but deletion of both genes leads to

temperature-sensitivity at 37°C in *S. cerevisiae* (Toikkanen et al., 1996; Feng et al., 2007).

Sbh1/Sec61ß is a tail-anchored protein associated peripherally with the Sec61 channel

(Leznicki et al., 2011) (Fig. 1A). Its conserved transmembrane domain is sufficient to rescue

the double mutant growth defect at 37°C, while the role of its divergent cytosolic domain

containing multiple phosphorylation sites is poorly understood (Feng et al., 2007; Leroux et

al., 2008; Soromani et al., 2012). As is common for proteins with intrinsically unstructured

domains, Sbh1/Sec61ß has multiple interactors: it binds to ribosomes and mediates association

of the Sec61 channel with signal peptidase and signal recognition particle receptor (Levy et al.,

2001; Kalies et al., 1998; Antonin et al., 2000; Jiang et al., 2008). In mammalian cells, the

Sbh1 homolog Sec61ß also interacts with the Stimulator of Interferon Genes (STING); this

interaction is required for STING's ability to stimulate interferon expression, thus linking the

Sec61 channel to the innate immune response (Ishikawa & Barber, 2005). Sec61 with Sss1 can

translocate proteins into the ER on its own, but the cytosolic domain of Sec61ß contacts

secretory proteins prior to insertion in the cytosolic vestibule of the Sec61 channel and the

presence of Sec61ß stimulates import (Kalies et al., 1998; Laird and High, 1997; Besemer et

al., 2008). Recently, null mutations in human SEC61B were identified as a cause for

polycystic liver disease (Besse et al., 2017). The mutations led to a complete biogenesis defect

specific for polycystin-1, a large complex transmembrane protein with a weak secretory signal

sequence (Besse et al., 2017). Collectively, these data have led to the view that Sbh1/Sec61ß

mediates interaction of the Sec61 channel with other proteins in the ER membrane and that its

cytosolic domain aids insertion of specific signal peptides or transmembrane domains into the

Sec61 channel.

Phosphorylation is a frequent biological mechanism for regulation of protein activity or

protein-protein interactions and a systematic analysis identifed 63 kinases that play a role in

the pathogenicity of *C. neoformans* (Ubersax and Ferrell, 2007; Lee et al., 2016). One of these,

Protein Kinase A (PKA), regulates the secretion of a subset of virulence factors (Geddes et al.,

2015). Regulation of protein secretion may be important during physiological transitions such

as cell differentiation or development. Indeed Sec61ß - the only subunit of the Sec61 channel

that has been found to be phosphorylated so far - is important for polarization of epithelial

cells, and for development of Drosophila melanogaster embryos (Gruss et al., 1999; Choi et

al., 2012; Washiyama et al., 2014; Valcarcel et al., 1999). Both mammalian Sec61ß and yeast

Sbh1 are phosphorylated at multiple sites in various combinations (Gruss et al., 1999;

Soromani et al., 2012; phosphosite databases). The phosphorylation sites all lie in the

intrinsically unstructured cytosolic domain, and are not positionally conserved, with one

exception: the proline-flanked site at T5 in *S. cerevisiae* is present in mammals and some

birds, although not in lower vertebrates, invertebrates, or other non-pathogenic yeast species.

This suggests that this phosphorylation site evolved at least twice by convergent evolution and

thus likely has an important function (Fig. 1A, asterisk Fig. 1B) (Soromani et al., 2012).

The 63 kinases required for virulence of *C. neoformans* include many proline-directed

kinases (Lee et al., 2016; Kannan & Neuwald, 2004). When we aligned the N-termini of Sbh1

proteins from non-pathogenic and pathogenic yeast, we noticed that - with the exception of

Candida albicans - all pathogen Sbh1 proteins contain one or more potential proline-flanked

phosphorylation site(s) in the N-terminal cytosolic domain, whereas Sbh1 proteins from non-

pathogenic yeast species (*Schizosaccharomyces pombe, Kluyveromyces lactis, Yarrowia*

lipolytica, Pichia pastoris, Hansenula polymorpha) and the *S. cerevisiae* homolog Sbh2 did

not (Fig. 1B, pink). This led us to hypothesize that these phosphorylation sites in Sbh1 might

be connected to virulence of the respective pathogenic species. In *C. neoformans* Sbh1 the

proline-flanked phosphorylation sites are preceded by a potential PKA phosphorylation site

(Fig. 1B, blue) and secretion of a subset of virulence factors in *C. neoformans* depends on

PKA (Geddes et al., 2015). We therefore decided to investigate the role of Sbh1 and its N-

terminal phosphorylation sites in virulence of *C. neoformans*.

We found that, unlike in *S. cerevisiae,* mutations of the N-terminal Sbh1

phosphorylation sites (individually or in combination) do not affect *C. neoformans* growth in

rich medium (YPD), and that even complete deletion of *SBH1* only inhibits growth when

combined with high temperature and or cell wall stressors. We also observed that in infection-

like conditions the deletion mutant fails to properly regulate protein secretion; we have

identified the Sbh1-dependent substrates and identified common characteristics of their ER-

targeting sequences. Notably, the affected proteins include multiple virulence factors and the

mutant is consequently avirulent in a mouse model of infection. Together, our results show

that Sbh1 is critical for secretion of a subset of virulence factors and other proteins during *C.*

neoformans infection, and is therefore essential for its pathogenicity.

2 RESULTS

2.1 Sbh1 is required for cell wall integrity in *S. cerevisiae* and *C. neoformans*

We first looked to the best characterized system, *S. cerevisiae*. In this organism, both genes that encode the Sec61 channel beta subunit (*SBH1* and *SBH2*) are required for growth on YPD at 37°C (Fig. 1C) (Toikkanen et al., 1996; Feng et al., 2007; Soromani et al., 2012). In addition, we found that *S. cerevisiae* lacking *SBH1* and *SBH2* have a cell wall defect resulting in resistance to calcofluor white (Fig. 1D, left), indicating reduced chitin in the cell wall, and increased extractability of proteins from the cell wall by alkaline buffer containing dithiotreitol, suggesting structural defects in the cell wall (Fig. 1D, right). While mutation of the conserved Sbh1 phosphorylation site T5 to A on its own has no effect on *S. cerevisiae* growth or cell wall integrity, mutation of both proline-flanked phophorylation sites to A phenocopied the absence of Sbh1 in *S. cerevisiae*. Mutation of both residues to phosphomimetic E had no effect (Fig. 1D).

The phenotypes we observed in *C. neoformans* cells lacking their sole *SBH1* gene were quite distinct from those of *S. cerevisiae*. Specifically, they showed only modest temperature sensitivity at 37°C on YPD (Fig. 2A, left panel) and no sensitivity to osmotic or cell wall stressors at 30°C (Fig. 2A). At 37°C, however, the mutant cells were hypersensitive to SDS and unable to grow on calcofluor white (Fig. 2B, top two rows); they were also more sensitive than wild-type cells to cell wall digestion by lysing enzymes (Fig. 2C). Of relevance to virulence, the mutant also showed increased sensitivity to oxidative stress (0.1 mM H_2O_2; Fig. 2D, top two rows), which is encountered in the setting of infection. Overall, we conclude that Sbh1 is required for cell wall integrity in both the ascomycete *S. cerevisiae* and the

190 basidiomycete *C. neoformans*, although specific manifestations of this requirement differ (see

191 Discussion).

2.2 Sbh1 N-terminal phosphorylation sites do not affect cell wall

integrity in *C. neoformans*

As discussed above, we hypothesized that the N-terminal phosphorylation sites in

cryptococcal Sbh1 were important for protein function. To test this, we first engineered a

plasmid to express wildtype *SBH1* modified with a C-terminal HA tag. The tagged protein

effectively complemented the sensitivity of *sbh1Δ* mutants to cell wall stressors (CFW and

SDS, Figure 2B). We then modified the expression plasmid such that it would encode Sbh1

that was altered to eliminate either the putative PKA site (Ser8 to Ala), two proline-flanked

phosphorylation sites (Ser9 to Ala and Thr12 to Val), or all three sites. All of these

polypeptides were expressed at similar levels, except for the version with a sole PKA site

mutation, which was slightly less abundant (Supplementary Figure 1). We next tested the

ability of each construct to complement the growth of *sbh1Δ* cells when challenged with cell

wall stressors. Interestingly, each of the modified proteins was as functional as wildtype under

these conditions (Fig. 2B). Each of the engineered strains also completely complemented the

defective growth of the *sbh1Δ* mutant in the presence of oxidative and nitrosative stress (Fig.

2D). These results suggest that, surprisingly, these phosphorylation sites are not required for

Sbh1 protein function in *C. neoformans* under the conditions tested.

2.3 Sbh1-dependent secretory and transmembrane proteins are

induced in host-like conditions

Sbh1 contacts signal peptides in the cytosolic vestibule of the Sec61 channel, so it can both

guide secretory proteins into the channel and control their access to the secretory pathway. To

address whether biogenesis of specific secretory or transmembrane proteins was compromised

in the absence of *C. neoformans* Sbh1, we grew wild-type and *sbh1Δ* cells in either YPD at

30°C or DMEM at 37°C and 5% CO_2 (host-like conditions) and analyzed the proteomes of

both strains. We detected no significant differences between wildtype KN99 and *sbh1Δ* strains

in YPD at 30°C (Fig. 3), suggesting no critical role for Sbh1 in those conditions. Under host-

like conditions, however, we discovered a set of proteins that was specifically induced in wild-

type cells, but not in the *sbh1Δ* mutant (Fig. 3, Supplementary Table 1). This set included 32

proteins without secretory pathway targeting sequences, 21 transmembrane (TM) proteins and

68 proteins with signal peptides (SP) or uncleaved signal anchors (SA) (Supplementary Table

1). When we analyzed their ER-targeting sequences we found that the transmembrane domains

were slightly more hydrophobic than average for proteins in *C. neoformans*; many also had a

strong positively charged patch in close proximity to one side of the TM domain (Fig. 4A;

Supplementary Table 2). Some of the transmembrane domains of the Sbh-dependently induced

proteins also contained a high number of prolines and/or glycines in addition to the polybasic

stretch adjacent to the transmembrane domain (Supplementary Table 2). The Sbh1-dependent

signal peptides were more heterogeneous, but most displayed reduced C-region polarity (Fig.

4B; Supplementary Table 2). In addition, they were suboptimal in various ways which

therefore defied bioinformatic analysis: some had limited hydrophobicity, some contained

high numbers of proline and glycine which interfere with alpha-helix formation, and many had

a charge bias problem (either no charge on either side of the hydrophobic core, or a positive

charge C-terminal instead of N-terminal of the hydrophobic core, or multiple positive charges

at the N-terminus of the mature part of the protein) (Supplementary Table 2). Because signal

peptides insert as alpha-helices into the hydrophobic lateral gate of the Sec61 channel with the

positively charged N-terminus towards the cytosol, any of these features will reduce

translocation efficiency into the ER. We conclude that Sbh1 is required for the biogenesis of

specific secretory and transmembrane proteins under host-like conditions. Because the

targeting sequences of these proteins are suboptimal for Sec61 channel insertion, they rely on

the enhanced insertion efficiency provided by the presence of Sbh1 (Fig. 4C) (Kalies et al.,

1998).

245 2.4 Sbh1 is essential for virulence of *C. neoformans*

The proteome analysis presented above shows that Sbh1 regulates the secretion of proteins

that are induced by a host-like environment. This process is likely important for pathogenesis,

as supported by our observation that *sbh1Δ* cells have a reduced ability to survive within host

macrophages (Supplementary Figure 2). To directly test the role of Sbh1 in virulence, we used

a well-established mouse model for cryptococcal infection. At 14 days after intransal infection

we observed a striking reduction in both lung and brain fungal burden in *sbh1Δ*-infected

animals compared to wild type (Figure 5). Consistent with this finding, mice infected with

wild-type cryptococci succumbed to infection within 18 days, while mutant-infected animals

remained healthy and grew normally for at least 10 weeks (Figure 5 and Supplementary Figure

3). We conclude that *SBH1* is essential for *Cryptococcus neoformans* virulence.

3 DISCUSSION

In this work we sought to identify factors regulating secretion of virulence-relevant proteins in

the human pathogen *C. neoformans*. We specifically investigated the role of the non-essential

ER protein translocation channel subunit Sbh1. Since the Sbh1 cytosolic domain contacts

secretory signal sequences in the cytosolic vestibule of the channel prior to insertion into the

channel it can potentially aid or restrict protein import into the secretory pathway of specific

proteins under specific growth conditions. This may be regulated by phosphorylation as Sbh1

in all species contains multiple phosphorylation sites which are only partially positionally

conserved (Fig. 1A, B).

In *S. cerevisiae*, absence of *SBH1* and its paralog *SBH2* causes temperature sensitivity

(Fig. 1C; Finke et al., 1996; Feng et al., 2007). The reason for this is still unclear, as ER

translocation defects at the restrictive temperature are modest for most substrates investigated

(Finke et al., 1996; Feng et al., 2007). We show here that *S. cerevisiae* Sbh1 is important for

cell wall integrity, and that cell wall integrity specifically requires the two proline-flanked N-

terminal phosphorylation sites at S3 and T5 (Fig. 1D). Proline-flanked phosphorylation sites in

Sbh1 of other yeast species occur primarily in human pathogens (Fig. 1B), which suggested to

us that phosphorylation at these sites may play a regulatory role in virulence. The absence of

SBH1 in *C. neoformans* resulted only in a very modest temperature sensitivity at 37°C (Fig.

1C vs. 2A), although at high temperature *sbh1Δ C. neoformans* also displayed a cell wall

defect (Fig. 2A-C). In contrast to *S. cerevisiae*, however, mutation of the N-terminal proline-

flanked phosphorylation sites of *C. neoformans* Sbh1 individually or in combination did not

phenocopy the cell wall defect (Fig. 2B). As protein kinase A has been shown to be critical for

C. neoformans virulence, and Sbh1 also contains a PKA site in *C. neoformans* (Fig. 1B, blue),

we also mutated this site alone or in combination with the proline-flanked sites, but again saw

no effect on cell wall integrity (Fig. 2B) (Geddes et al., 2015). Taken together, our data

suggest that Sbh1 is important for efficient secretion of one or more enzymes or precursors for

the cell wall in both *S. cerevisiae* and in *C. neoformans*, but that the role of the N-terminal

proline-flanked phosphorylation sites in this process is different in the two organisms.

Alternatively, the differential effect of the phosphorylation site mutations may reflect

differences in the cell wall compositions: whereas the *S. cerevisiae* cell wall is formed by ß-

1,3-glucan, ß-1,6-glucan, chitin, and mannoproteins, in the *C. neoformans* cell wall most

chitin is deacylated to chitosan, and α-1,3-glucan is a major cell wall component (Lessage and

Bussey, 2006; Wang et al., 2018).

We next asked which proteins were affected by absence of *SBH1* in *C. neoformans*.

Using a proteomic approach we identified a set of secretory and transmembrane proteins that

were induced under infection-like conditions (DMEM at 37°C and 5%CO_2) in the wild-type

strain, but not in the *sbh1Δ* mutant (Fig. 3; Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). Many of the

membrane proteins in this set were characterized by a strong polybasic patch adjacent to the

first transmembrane domain (e.g. CNAG_1854, CNAG_5502, CNAG_6416), while the signal

peptides of the secretory proteins were more heterogeneous, and had less polar C-regions than

average (Supplementary Table S2; Fig. 4A, B). This is reminiscent of the ER targeting signals

identified by Ziska and colleagues in mammalian cells whose ER import was dependent on the

Sec61 channel-interacting protein Sec63 and the ER-lumenal Hsp70 chaperone BiP (Ziska et

al., 2019). In *S. cerevisiae* the Sec63 complex composed of Sec63, Sec62, Sec71, and Sec72

promotes posttranslational protein import into the ER through the Sec61 channel by stabilizing

the lateral gate in a partially open conformation (Itskanov and Park, 2019; Wu et al., 2019). It

also plays a role in membrane protein topogenesis in both yeast and mammalian cells (Mades

et al., 2012; Jung et al., 2014). Sec63 is a polytopic membrane protein with an ER-lumenal J-

domain that activates ATP-hydrolysis of the ER-lumenal chaperone BiP (Kar2 in yeast)

(Vembar et al., 2010). Kar2 contributes to protein import into the ER either by directly binding

to the incoming protein or by promoting its folding (Matlack et al., 1999; Allen et al., 2019).

As proteins dependent on Sbh1 in *C. neoformans* and proteins dependent on Sec63/BiP in

mammalian cells have similar characteristics, our data suggest that Sbh1 and the Sec63

complex have overlapping functions in promoting ER import of specific proteins.

Signal peptides generally insert into the Sec61 channel with their N-terminus towards

the cytosol and their N-terminal positive charge (Fig 4B, '+') contributes to this orientation

(Hegde and Bernstein, 2006). Many of the Sbh1-dependent signal peptides we identified in *C.*

neoformans have no charge bias towards the N-terminus; in some, the charge bias is even

reversed (Supp. Table S2). Sbh1 may help orient such signal peptides in the cytosolic

vestibule of the Sec61 channel with the help of its cytosolic domain. The polar C-region of

signal peptides contains the signal peptidase cleavage site (Hegde and Bernstein, 2006). Most

of the Sbh1-dependent signal peptides we identified have a very short C-region (Supp. Table

S2) which may limit signal peptidase access unless the signal peptide is positioned accurately

by Sbh1. In order to efficiently insert into the Sec61 channel the signal peptides of secretory

proteins require an alpha-helical hydrophobic region (Fig 4B, H region, blue) (Hegde and

Bernstein, 2006). Many of the Sbh1-dependent signal peptides of *C. neoformans* contain

multiple helix-breaking P or G residues within their hydrophobic helical core regions, and

some have very short or very long hydrophobic H-regions (Supp. Table 2). These features

would make it difficult for signal peptides to stably insert into the Sec61 channel lateral gate.

Overexpression of an N-terminally truncated Sbh1 lacking most of its cytosolic domain

complements the temperature-sensitivity and at least some of the translocation defect in Δ*sbh1*

Δ*sbh2 S. cerevisae* (Feng et al., 2007). Together with our data, this suggests that the Sbh1

transmembrane domain stabilizes a conformation of the Sec61 lateral gate that favours

insertion of the helical hydrophobic core of signal peptides, even if they are suboptimal.

That Sbh1-dependent secretion is critical for virulence is illustrated by both the

reduced intracellular fitness of *sbh1Δ C. neoformans* in macrophages and the effects in mice:

in contrast to infection with KN99 wildtype *C. neoformans* which resulted in a high burden in

the lungs and death of all mice by day 18 post infection, all mice infected with *sbh1Δ C.*

neoformans survived for 70 days and even gained weight (Supp Fig 3), indicating that the

mutant strain was avirulent.

We hypothesize that the striking defect in virulence of the *sbh1* mutant reflects

reduced secretion of multiple groups of proteins. For a few examples, these could include

proteins required for fungal growth in the host environment (e.g. metabolic genes or proteins

involved in cell wall synthesis), needed for virulence factor production, or directly involved in

host damage. To explore this idea, we reviewed the polypeptides whose secretion is most

impaired in the absence of Sbh1 (Supplementary Table 1), focusing on proteins with signal or

transmembrane sequences that had been previously implicated in cryptococcal virulence. We

identified eight such proteins, which had exhibited infectivity defects in a large-scale screen

(Liu et al., 2008) and/or been individually studied and shown to contribute to virulence (Table

1). Two proteins in this group (Pbx1(Liu et al., 2007; Kumar et al., 2014) and Skn1 (Gilbert

et al., 2010)) act in cell wall synthesis, so their reduced secretion could contribute to the wall

defects and sensitivity to host-induced stress that we observed in *sbh1* mutant cells. Another

is required for capsule display (Cap60 (Chang et al., 2998)), although its biochemical function

has not been characterized, and two others are proteases (CNAG_00150 and Mpr1 (Vu et al.,

2014)). Many fungal proteases damage host tissues during infection (Monod et al., 2002) and

Mpr1 further acts in cryptococcal crossing of the blood-brain barrier (Vu et al., 2014), which

is required for cryptococcal dissemination to the brain and subsequent lethality. Supporting a

role in infection for this group of proteins, six of the corresponding genes are expressed more

highly in host-like conditions than in rich medium (one other is modestly decreased); this

pattern is particularly striking for *CIG1* and *MPR1*, whose expression levels increase over

100-fold (Table 1) (Maier et al., 2015). Notably, the evidence that these proteins are

important for cryptococcal virulence derives from studies of individual gene deletion strains,

which completely lack one of these target proteins. The situation in the *sbh1* mutant is

different, in that many proteins are secreted less efficiently, but none (besides Sbh1) are

absent. Nonetheless, the impaired secretion of multiple proteins with key roles in virulence,

together with others in the functional groups above, provides abundant reason for the inability

of *sbh1* to cause disease in a mammalian host.

We conclude that *C. neoformans* Sbh1 is important for biogenesis of virulence factors

whose specific ER-targeting sequences make these proteins dependent on Sbh1 for ER import

(Fig. 4C). Recently, Sec61beta has also been shown to be critical for infection by the

important fungal crop pathogen *Magnaporthe oryzae*, suggesting a more general role for

Sbh1/Sec61beta in fungal infection (Wei et al., 2020). Since the intrinsically unstructured N-

terminal part of the Sbh1 cytosolic domain is not conserved between yeast and mammals, *C.*

neoformans Sbh1 may serve as a new specific target for developing drugs against this

important human pathogen.

4 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

4.1. *S. cerevisiae* strains and growth conditions

NY179 (*SBH1 SBH2 MAT* a *leu2-3,112 ura3-52*), H3223 (MAT a *KanMx::sbh1 leu2-3,112 ura3-52 GAL*+), H3203 (MAT a *HphMx::sbh2 leu2-3,112 ura3-52 GAL*+), and H3231 (MAT a *KanMx::sbh1 HphMx::sbh2 leu2-3,112 ura3-52 GAL*+) were gifts from Jussi Jäntti and used to characterize Sbh1p phosphorylation sites (Toikkanen et al., 1996; Feng et al., 2007). *SBH1* cloned into pCR2.1-TOPO plasmid was kindly provided by Jussi Jäntti (Helsinki University, Finland). The QuickChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Stratagene, UK) was used to introduce single or multiple base mutations in *SBH1*. Substitutions were verified by sequencing. Mutated *sbh1* was excised from pCR2.1-TOPO plasmids using EcoRV/BamHI, and subcloned into pRS415. For growth assays cells were grown on YPD or synthetic complete medium without leucine and with or without 10 µg/ml calcofluor white (Sigma) at 30°C or 37°C for 3 days.

4.2 *S. cerevisiae* cell wall extraction

Cells were grown in synthetic complete medium without leucine to early exponential phase and 10 OD_{600} harvested by centrifugation. Cells were resuspended in 100 µl 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 9.4, 10 mM DTT, and incubated for 15 min at 37°C shaking at 800 rpm in a Thermomixer (Eppendorf). Samples were chilled for 1 min on ice, followed by sedimentation of the cells in a refrigerated Eppendorf centrifuge at maximal speed for 1 min. 90 µl of each supernatant were transferred to a new tube, carefully avoiding the pellet, and centrifuged again as above. 80 µl of each supernatant were transferred to a fresh tube and proteins precipitated by adding an equal volume of ice-cold 20 % trichloroacetic acid. Samples were mixed thoroughly and incubated on ice for 30 min. Proteins were sedimented by centrifugation at

402   4°C for 15 min and the pellets washed with ice-cold acetone, dried, and resuspended in 20 µl

403   2x SDS sample buffer by heating for 10 min to 95°C with agitation. Proteins were resolved on

404   4-14% Bis-Tris gels (NuPage) run in MOPS buffer and revealed by Coomassie staining.

4.3 *C. neoformans* strains and growth conditions

All strains used were in the *C. neoformans* serotype A strain KN99α background. The

sbh1Δ deletion in this background used here was obtained from a library of partial gene

deletions (generated by the Madhani group (Liu et al, 2008) and available from the Fungal

Genetics Stock Center at Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS) and confirmed by PCR.

Fungal stocks were maintained at -80°C and grown at 30°C on yeast peptone dextrose

(YPD) media with antibiotics as appropriate (100 µg/mL of nourseothricin (clonNAT,

WERNER BioAgents, Germany) or 100 µg/mL G418 (Geneticin, Life Technologies,

USA)).

4.4 *SBH1* plasmid construction

For plasmid construction, the *SBH1* gene with its promoter and terminator sequences was

amplified and cloned into ApaI/SpeI-digested pIBB103 (Skowyra and Doering, 2012). In

parallel, a similar fragment lacking the terminator sequences and stop codon was amplified

and cloned into ApaI/SpeI-digested pFS5XHA (pIBB103 containing 5 HA epitopes followed

by the *TRP1* terminator; this study). After both versions were confirmed to complement

phenotypic defects, the tagged version was used for all subsequent analyses. This construct

was used as template for mutagenesis of the N-terminal motifs of *SBH1* by using overlapping

primers containing the codon changes and the forward and reverse primers used above. The

resulting product was digested, cloned into pFS5XHA, and the whole insert sequenced to

confirm mutations. These plasmids, together with an empty plasmid control, were

electroporated into KN99α and the *sbh1Δ* strains as detailed below.

429   4.5   Electroporation of *C. neoformans*

Plasmid transformation was done by electroporation as described in (Skowyra and Doering,

2012). In brief, *Cryptococcus* cells patched on YPD agar plates with appropriate antibiotics

were transferred into 5 ml of YPD liquid medium with antibiotic and cells were grown

overnight at 30°C with shaking at 250 rpm. The overnight culture was diluted to an OD_{600} of

0.05 in 50 ml of fresh YPD medium (note that this OD_{600} value was measured in a multiplate

reader and was not corrected for pathlength). After two doubling times the cells were

transferred into conical tubes and sedimented, washed twice with cold dH_2O, and resuspended

thoroughly in 50 ml cold EB buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, and 270 mM

Sucrose) with 4 mM DTT. After incubation on ice for 15 min, the cells were pelleted, washed

with 50 ml EB buffer without DTT, and resuspended in 1 ml EB buffer for counting. Cells

were adjusted to 300 million cells per 100 μl, mixed with at least 1 μg of DNA (in no more

than 1/10 of the total volume) and the mixture transferred into ice-cold 2 mm gap cuvettes. A

Biorad electroporator was used with the following settings: V = 500v, R = infinity ohms, C =

25μF; the time constant should be 15 – 25 ms. Immediately after electroporation, 900 μl YPD

without antibiotics was added and the cell suspension was transferred to a culture tube and

incubated at 30°C for 3-4 h for recovery before various dilutions were spread on YPD plates

with antibiotics to select transformants. Because of the heterogeneity in copy number

associated with plasmids in *C. neoformans*, at least three independent colonies were picked

and tested for each construct. All exhibited the same behaviors.

4.6 Dot spotting on stress plates

Strains to be tested were grown overnight in YPD with antibiotic, diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.05 in fresh YPD, and grown for two doublings. The cultures were then adjusted to 2×10^9 cells/ml, serially diluted (10-fold) and 5 µl aliquots were spotted onto the phenotyping plates described in the text. These plates did not include antibiotics because in combination with stressors they inhibit cell growth. Plates were incubated at 30°C and 37°C for 3-4 days.

4.7 Sensitivity to lysing enzyme

The assay for sensitivity to lysing enzymes was adapted from (Gerik et al., 2005). Briefly, overnight cultures of wild type and mutant strains in YPD medium were washed once with PBS and once with citrate buffer (10 mM, pH 6.0). Cells were resuspended in citrate buffer and the OD_{600} was normalized to 1.0/ml with the same buffer. 1 ml aliquots were then subjected to centrifugation and the pellets (one per time point) were resuspended in a solution of lysing enzyme (final concentration 25 mg/ml; Sigma, L-1412) and incubated at 37°C with gentle agitation. At each desired timepoint one aliquot per strain was sedimented and resuspended in the same volume of distilled water (in the absence of lysis the OD_{600} should remain ~1.0). The assay was performed independently three times.

4.8 Mass spectrometry analysis

For total cellular proteome analysis, cells were collected by centrifugation at 3,500 rpm for 10 min and the pellets were washed twice with cold PBS before being subjected to acetone precipitation and enzymatic digestion (Geddes et al., 2016; Ball and Geddes-McAlister, 2019). For secretome analysis, supernatant fractions from *C. neoformans* WT and *sbh1Δ* cell cultures were collected and filtered using 0.22 µM syringe filters and subjected to in-solution

trypsin digestion (Ball and Geddes-McAlister, 2019). Digestion was stopped by the addition

of 10% v/v trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) and the acidified peptides were desalted and purified

according to the standard protocol (Rappsilber et al., 2007). Approximately 50 µg of sample

was loaded onto StageTips and stored at 4°C until LC-MS/MS measurement.

For LC-MS/MS measurement, samples were analyzed by nanoflow liquid

chromatography on an EASY-nLC 1200 system (ThermoFisher Scientific) on-line coupled to

a Q Exactive HF-X quadrupole orbitrap mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific). An in-

line 75 µm x 50 cm PepMap RSLC EASY-Spray column filled with 2 µm C18 beads

(ThermoFisher Scientific) separated peptides using linear gradients from 3% to 20% Buffer B

(80% acetonitrile) over 18 min and from 20% to 35% Buffer B over 31 minutes, followed by

a steep 2 min ramp to 100% Buffer B for 9 min in 0.1% Formic acid at a constant flow

of 250 nl/min.

Raw files were analyzed together using MaxQuant software (version 1.6.0.26) (Cox &

Mann, 2008). The derived peak list was searched with the built-in Andromeda search engine

(Cox et al., 2011) against the reference *C. neoformans* H99 proteome downloaded from

Uniprot (http://www.uniprot.org/) (Aug. 18, 2018; 7,430 sequences). The mass spectrometry

proteomics data have been deposited in the PRIDE partner repository for the

ProteomeXchange Consortium with the data set identifier: PXD013894.

Statistical analysis of the MaxQuant-processed data was performed using the

Perseus software environment (version 1.6.2.2) (Tyanova et al., 2016). A Student's *t*-

test was performed to identify proteins with a significant differential expression (*p-value* <

0.05) ($S_0 = 1$) between samples employing a 5% permutation-based FDR filter.

4.9 In vitro macrophage survival assay

Fungal survival after engulfment by THP-1 (ATCC #TIB-202) cells *in vitro* was assessed as in (Santiago-Tirado et al., 2015) with only minor modifications: First, since the cryptococcal strains were grown in G418 for plasmid maintenance, they were washed extensively with PBS to remove all traces of drug before being opsonized, adjusted to an MOI of 10, and added to the THP-1 cells. Second, for CFU determination, 0.1% Triton-X100 (which had no effect on the cryptococcal cells) was used instead of SDS to lyse the THP-1 cells.

4.10 Infection studies

Strains to be tested were cultured overnight in YPD medium, collected by centrifugation, washed in PBS, and diluted to 10^6 cells/ml in PBS for intranasal inoculation (50 µl) into 4-6 week-old female C57BL/6 mice (National Cancer Institute) that had been anesthetized with a combination of ketaset-HCl and xylazine. Initial inocula were plated to confirm CFUs. To assess long-term survival, infected animals were weighed 1 h post-infection and at least every other day afterwards. Mice were sacrificed if their weight fell below 80% of peak (an outcome which in this protocol precedes any signs of disease) or at the end of the study (10 weeks). To measure organ burden, infected mice were monitored as above for 14 days, at which point lungs and brains were harvested from all mice, homogenized in PBS, and serial dilutions of the homogenate plated on YPD agar for enumeration of CFU.

ETHICS STATEMENT

All animal studies were reviewed and approved by the Animal Studies Committee of Washington University School of Medicine and conducted according to the National Institutes of Health guidelines for housing and care of laboratory animals.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank William Allen, Bristol University, for help with Fig. 1A; Christina Soromani, Andrea Ludes, and Nicole Spitzlberger (all former students of the Römisch lab) for data shown in Fig. 1C; and Jussi Jäntti, VTT Helsinki, for *S. cerevisiae* strains and plasmids.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Proteomics .Raw data files are available in the PRIDE (Proteomics Identification Database):

Project ID: PXD013894

 Username: reviewer78525@ebi.ac.uk

 Password: 8ZiMfbKG

FUNDING

JGM is supported by the Canadian Foundation for Innovation (JELF #38798) and the Canadian Institutes for Health Research (Project Grant). KR is supported by a core grant from the Saarland University. Work in the Doering lab was supported by NIH grants AI140979 and

546   AI135012 to TLD. FHS also received support from NIH T32 grant AI007172 and a

547   Postdoctoral Enrichment Program Award from the Burroughs Wellcome Fund.

REFERENCES

Agustinho DP, Miller LC, Li LX, and Doering TL (2018). Peeling the onion: the outer layers

of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz* 113:e180040.

Allen WJ, Collinson I, Römisch K (2019). Post-translational protein transport by the Sec

complex. Trends Biochem Sci pii:S0968-0004(19)30056-8.

Antonin W, Meyer HA, Hartmann E (2000). Interactions between Spc2 and other components

of the endoplasmic reticulum translocation sites of the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *J*

Biol Chem 275:34068-72.

Ball B, Geddes-McAlister J (2019). Quantitative Proteomic Profiling of *Cryptococcus*

neoformans. *Curr Protocols Microbiology* 55:e94.

Besemer J, Harant H, Wang S, Oberhauser B, Marquardt K, Foster SA, Schreiner EP, de

Vries JE, Dascher-Nadel C, Lindley IJD (2005). Selective inhibition of cotranslational

translocation of vascular cell adhesion molecule 1. *Nature* 436:290-93.

Besse W, Dong K, Choi J, Punia S, Fedeles SV, Choi M, Gallagher AR, Huang EB, Gulati A,

Knight J, ManeS, Tahvanainen E, Tahvanainen P, Sanna-Cherchi S, Lifton RP, Watnick

T, Pei YP, Torres VE, Somlo S (2017). Isolated polycystic liver disease genes define

effectors of polycystin-1 function. *J Clin Invest* 127:1772-85.

Cadieux B, Lian T, Hu G, Wang J, Biondo C, Teti G, Liu V, Murphy M, Creagh, AL, and

Kronstad JW (2013). The Mannoprotein Cig1 supports iron acquisition from heme and

virulence in the pathogenic fungus *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *J Infect Dis* 207:1339-

1347.

Chang YC, Kwon-Chung KJ (1998). Isolation of the third capsule-associated gene, *CAP60*,

required for virulence in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Infect Immun* 66:2230-2236.

Choi SY, Fogelgren B, Zuo, Z, Juang L, McKenna S, Lingappa VR, Lipschutz JH (2012).

Exocyst Sec10 is involved in basolateral protein translation and translocation in the

endoplasmic reticulum. *Nepron Exp Nephrol* 120:e133-e139.

Cox J, Mann M (2008). MaxQuant enables high peptide identification rates, individualized

ppb-range mass accuracies and proteome-wide quantification. *Nature Biotechnol*

26:1367-72.

Cox J, Neuhauser N, Michalski A, Scheltema RA, Olsen JV, Mann M (2011). Andromeda: A

peptide search engine integrated into the MaxQuant environment. J Proteome Res

10:1794-805.

Cox J, Hein MY, Luber CA, Paron I, Nagarj N, Mann M (2014). Accurate proteome-wide

label-free quantitation by delayed normalization and maximal peptide ratio extraction,

termed MaxLFQ. Mol Cell Proteomics 13:2513-26.

Esnault Y, Blondel M, Deshaies R, Schekman R, Képès F (1993). The yeast SSS1 gene is

essential for secretory protein translocation and encodes a conserved protein of the

endoplasmic reticulum. *EMBO J* 12:4083–93.

Esnault, Y, Feldheim, D, Blondel, MO, Schekman, R, and Képès, F (1994). *SSS1* encodes a

stabilizing component of the Sec61 subcomplex of the yeast protein translocation

apparatus. *J Biol Chem* 269:27478–24785.

Falcone D, Henderson MP, Nieuwland H, Coughlan CM, Brodsky JL, Andrews DW (2011).

Stability and function of the Sec61 translocation complex depends on the Sss1p tail-

anchor sequence. *Biochem J* 436:291-303.

Feng D, Zhao X, Soromani C, Toikkanen J, Römisch K, Vembar SS, et al (2007). The

transmembrane domain is sufficient for Sbh1p function, its association with the Sec61

complex, and interaction with Rtn1p. *J Biol Chem* 282:30618-28.

Finke K, Plath K, Panzner S, Prehn S, Rapoport TA, Hartmann E, Sommer T (1996). A

second trimeric complex containing homologs of the Sec61p complex functions in

protein transport across the ER membrane of *S. cerevisiae*. *EMBO J* 15:1482-94.

Gaylord EA, Choy HL, and Doering TL (2020). Dangerous Liaisons: Interactions of

Cryptococcus neoformans with Host Phagocytes. *Pathogens* 9:891-905.

Geddes JMH, Croll D, Caza M, Stoynov N, Foster LJ, Kronstad JW (2015). Secretome

profiling of *Cryptococcus neoformans* reveals regulation of a subset of virulence-

associated proteins and potential biomarkers by protein kinase A. *BMC Microbiology*

15:206.

Geddes JM, Caza M, Croll D, Stoynov N, Foster LJ, Kronstad JW (2016). Analysis of the

protein kinase A-regulated proteome of *C. neoformans* identifies a role for the ubiquitin-

proteasome pathway in capsule formation. MBio 7:e01862-15.

Gerik KJ, Donlin MJ, Soto CE, Banks AM, Banks IR, Maligie MA, Selitrennikoff CP, Lodge

JK (2005). Cell wall integrity is dependent on the *PKC1* signal transduction pathway in

Cryptococcus neoformans. *Mol Microbiol* 58:393–408.

Gilbert NM, Donlin MJ, Gerik KJ, Specht CA, Djordjevic JT, Wilson CF, Sorrell TC, Lodge

JK (2010). *KRE* genes are required for beta-1,6-glucan synthesis, maintenance of capsule

architecture and cell wall protein anchoring in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Mol Microbiol*

76:517-534.

Gruss OJ, Feick P, Frank R, Dobberstein B (1999). Phosphorylation of components of the ER

translocation site. *Eur J Biochem* 260:785-793.

Hegde RS, Bernstein HD (2006). The surprising complexity of signal sequences. *Trends*
Biochem Sci 31:563-571.

Itskanov S, Park E (2019). Structure of the posttranslational Sec protein translocation channel
complex from yeast. *Science* 363:84-87.

Ishikawa H, Barber GN (2005). STING is an endoplasmic reticulum adaptor that facilitates
innate immune signalling. *Nature* 455:674-679.

Jiang Y, Cheng Z, Mandon EC, Gilmore R (2008). An interaction between the SRP receptor
and the translocon is critical during cotranslational protein translocation. *J Cell Biol*
180:1149-1161.

Jung SJ, Kim JE, Reithinger JH, Kim H (2014). The Sec62-Sec63 translocon facilitates
translocation of the C-terminus of membrane proteins. *J Cell Sci* 127:4270-78.

Kalies K-U, Rapoport TA, Hartmann E (1998). The β subunit of the Sec61 complex
facilitates cotranslational protein transport and interacts with signal peptidase during
translocation. *J Cell Biol* 141:887–94.

Kannan N, Neuwald AF (2005). Evolutionary constraints associated with functional
specificity of the CMGC protein kinases MAPK, CDK, GSK, SRPK, DYRK, and
CK2alpha. *Protein Sci* 13:2059-77.

Kumar P, Heiss C, Santiago-Tirado FH, Black I, Azadi P, Doering TL (2014). Pbx proteins in
Cryptococcus neoformans cell wall remodeling and capsule assembly. *Eukaryot Cell*
13:560-571.

Kwon-Chung K, Fraser, JA, Doering TL, Wang Z, Janbon G, Idnurm A, and Bahn YS (2014).
Cryptococcus neoformans and *Cryptococcus gattii,* the etiologic agents of
cryptococcosis. *Cold Spring Harbor perspectives in medicine* 4:a019760.

Laird V, High S (1997). Discrete cross-linking products identified during membrane protein
biosynthesis. *J Biol Chem* 272:1983-1989.

Lee KT, So YS, Yang DH, Jung KW, Chio J, et al. (2016). Systematic functional anallysis of

kinases in the fungal pathogen *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Nature Communications*

7:12766.

Lesage G, Bussey H (2006). Cell wall assembly in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Microbiol Mol

Biol Reviews 70:317-343.

Levy R, Wiedmann M, Kreibich G (2001). *In Vitro* binding of Ribosomes to the ß subunit of

the Sec61p protein translocations complex. *J Biol Chem* 276:2340-2346.

Leznicki P, Warwicker J, High S (2011). A biochemical analysis of the constraints of tail-

anchored protein biogenesis. *Biochem J* 436:719-727.

Liu OW, Kelly MJ, Chow ED, Madhani HD (2007). Parallel beta-helix proteins required for

accurate capsule polysaccharide synthesis and virulence in the yeast *Cryptococcus*

neoformans. *Eukaryot Cell* 6:630-640.

Liu OW, Chun CD, Chow ED, Chen C, Madhani HD, Noble SM (2008). Systematic genetic

analysis of virulence in the fungal pathogen *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Cell 135:174-

188.

Loza L, and Doering TL (2021). Glycans of the pathogenic yeast *Cryptococcus neoformans*

and related opportunities for therapeutic advances. in *Comprehensive Glycoscience*

(Barchi, J. ed.), 2nd Ed., Elsevier.

Mades A, Gotthardt K, Awe K, Stieler J, Döring T, Füser S, Prange R (2012). Role of human

Sec63 in modulating the steady-state levels of multi-spanning membrane proteins. *PLoS*

One 7:e49243.

Maier EJ, Haynes BC, Gish SR, Wang ZA, Skowyra ML, Marulli AL, Doering TL, Brent MR

(2015). Model-driven mapping of transcriptional networks reveals the circuitry and

dynamics of virulence regulation. *Genome Res* 25: 690-700.

Monod M, Capoccia S, Lechenne B, Zaugg C, Holdom M, Jousson O (2002). Secreted

proteases from pathogenic fungi. *Int J Med Microbiol* 292:405-419.

Montoya MC, Magwene PM, and Perfect JR (2021). Associations between Cryptococcus

Genotypes, Phenotypes, and Clinical Parameters of Human Disease: A Review. *J Fungi*

(Basel) 7: 260.

Rajasingham R, Smith RM, Park BJ, Jarvis JN, Govender NP, Chiller TM, Denning DW,

Loyse A, and Boulware DR (2017). Global burden of disease of HIV-associated

cryptococcal meningitis: an updated analysis. *Lancet Infectious Dis* 17:873-881.

Rappsilber J, Mann M, Ishihama Y (2007). Protocol for micro-purification, enrichment, pre-

fractionation and storage of peptides for proteomics using Stage Tips. Nat Protoc 2:1896-

906.

Reese AJ, and Doering TL (2003). Cell wall alpha-1,3-glucan is required to anchor the

Cryptococcus neoformans capsule. *Mol Microbiol* 50:1401-1409.

Reese AJ, Yoneda A, Breger JA, Beauvais A, Liu H, Griffith CL, Bose I, Kim MJ, Skau C,

Yang S, Sefko JA, Osumi M, Latge JP, Mylonakis E, and Doering TL (2007). Loss of

cell wall alpha(1-3) glucan affects *Cryptococcus neoformans* from ultrastructure to

virulence. *Mol Microbiol* 63:1385-1398.

Santiago-Tirado FH, Peng T, Yang M, Hang HC, Doering TL (2015). A single protein S-acyl

transferase acts through diverse substrates to determine cryptococcal morphology, stress

tolerance, and pathogenic outcome. *PLoS Pathog* 11(5):e1004908.

Skowyra ML, Doering TL (2012). RNA interference in *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Methods*

Mol Biol 845:165–86.

Soromani C, Zeng N, Hollemeyer K, Heinzle E, Klein M-C, Tretter T, et al (2012). N-

acetylation and phosphorylation of Sec complex subunits in the ER membrane. *BMC Cell*

Biol 13:34.

Srikanta D, Santiago-Tirado FH, and Doering TL (2014). *Cryptococcus neoformans*:

historical curiosity to modern pathogen. *Yeast* 31:47-60.

Stirling CJ, Rothblatt J, Hosobuchi M, Deshaies R, Schekman R (1992). Protein translocation

mutants defective in the insertion of integral membrane proteins into the endoplasmic

reticulum. *Mol Biol Cell* 3:129–42.

Toikkanen J, Gatti E, Takei K, Saloheimo M, Olkkonen VM, Söderlund H, de Camilli P,

Keränen S (1996). Yeast protein translocation complex: Isolation of two genes SEB1

and SEB2 encoding proteins homologous to the Sec61ß subunit**.** *Yeast* 12:425-438.

Tyanova S, Temu T, Sinitcyn P, Carlson A, Hein MY, Geiger T, Mann M, Cox J (2016). The

Perseus computational platform for comprehensive analysis of proteomics data. Nat

Methods 13:731-40.

Ubersax JA, Ferrell JE jr (2007). Mechanisms of specifity in protein phosphorylation. *Nature*

8:530-542.

Valcarcel R, Weber U, Jackson DB, Benes V, Ansorge W, Bohmann D, Mlodzik M (1999).

Sec61beta, a subunit of the protein translocation cannel, is required during Drosophila

development. *J Cell Sci* 112:4389-96.

Vembar SS, Jonikas MC, Hendershot LM, Weissman JS, Brodsky JL (2010). J domain co-

chaperone specificity defines the role of BiP during protein translocation. J Biol Chem

285:22484-94.

Voorhees R and Hegde RS (2016). Toward a structural understanding of co-translational

protein translocation. *Curr Opin Cell Biol* 41:91-99.

Vu K, Tham R, Uhrig JP, Thompson GR 3rd, Na Pombejra S, Jamklang M, Bautos JM, Gelli

A (2014). Invasion of the central nervous system by *Cryptococcus neoformans*

requires a secreted fungal metalloprotease. *MBio* 5: e01101-01114.

Wang ZA, Li LX, Doering TL (2018). Unravelling synthesis of the cryptococcal cell wall and

capsule. Glycobiology 28:719-730.

Washiyama M, Koizumi N, Fujii M, Watanabe Y (2014). Sec61ß regulates barrier functions

of tight junctions through expression of claudin-4 in MDCK cells. *Biol Pharm Bull*

37:979-986.

Wei YY, Liang S, Zhang YR, Lu JP, Lin FC, Liu XH (2020). MoSec61ß, the beta subunit of

Sec61, is involved in fungal development and pathogenicity, plant immunity, and ER-

phagy in Magnaporthe oryzae. *Virulence* 11:1685-1700.

Werness S, Anderson DJR (2011). Studio User Manual. Computer programs in biomedicine.

doi:10.1007/SpringerReference_28001

Wisniewski JR, Gaugaz FZ (2015). Fast and sensitive total protein and peptide assays for

proteomic analysis. Anal Chem 87:4110-6.

Wu X, *et al.* (2019) Structure of the post-translational protein translocation machinery of the

ER membrane. *Nature* 566:136-139.

Ziska A, Tatzelt J, Dudek J, Paton AW, Paton JC, Zimmermann R, Haßdenteufel S (2019).

The signal peptide plus a cluster of positive charges in prion protein dictate chaperone-

mediated Sec61-channel gating. *Biol Open* 8(3). pii:bio040691.

740 **TABLE 1**

Gene ID	Gene name	Protein function	SP or TM	WT/*sbh1Δ* proteomics [log2-fold]	Virulence citations	24 h/0 h RNA-seq
CNAG_00150		serine endoptidase, cell wall	SP1-23	5.24	Liu 2008	1.68
CNAG_01653	*CIG1*	cytokine-inducing glycoprotein	SP1-19	4.00	Cadieux 2013	385.34
CNAG_01172	*PBX1*	beta-helix containing protein	SP1-18	3.68	Liu 2008; 2007; Kumar 2014	0.78
CNAG_04735	*MPR1*	extracellular metalloproteinase (Mep1)	SP1-19	3.44	Liu 2008; Vu 2014	122.79
CNAG_00897	*SKN1*	glucosidase	TM134-58	3.04	Gilbert 2010	3.43
CNAG_02030		glyoxal oxidase	SP1-21	2.79	Liu 2008	0.97
CNAG_00600	*CAP60*	capsule-associated protein	SP1-33	2.65	Chang 1998	1.97
CNAG_01331			SP1-18	2.62	Liu 2008	13.45

Table 1. Sbh1-dependent proteins involved in cryptococcal virulence.

These proteins meet the following criteria: their expression under host-like conditions was at

least two-fold higher in WT compared to *sbh1Δ* cells; they contain an SP or TM domain; and

they are required for normal *C. neoformans* virulence in mouse infections. Note that this is

likely a subset of such proteins, as most cryptococcal proteins have not been tested for roles in

virulence; other candidates that meet the first two criteria are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Proteomics results are shown as the ratio of expression in WT versus *sbh1Δ* cells under host-

like conditions. RNA-seq results are shown as the ratio of gene expression at 24 h versus 0 h

under host-like conditions (Maier et al., 2015).

FIGURE LEGENDS

FIGURE 1: Sbh1 is required for cell wall integrity in *S. cerevisiae*. A) Structure of the

Sec61 channel of *S. cerevisiae* (modified from Wu et al., 2019; PDB 6ND1). The N-terminal

half of Sec61 is shown in blue, C-terminal half in green, Sss1 in grey, and Sbh1 in magenta.

The intrinsically unstructured N-terminal 38 amino acids of Sbh1 that were not visible in the

cryo-EM structure were drawn in by hand. P, phosphorylation sites; dashed lines, position of

the ER membrane; arrow, direction of protein transport. **B)** Alignment of the poorly

conserved N-termini of Sbh1 proteins from *S. cerevisiae* (Sbh1, Sbh2) and the following

pathogenic fungi: Cryn *Cryptococcus neoformans*, Sjap *Schizosaccharomyces japonicus*,

Hcap *Histoplasma capsulatum*, Bder *Blastomyces dermatidis*, Cpos *Coccidioides posadasii*,

Afum *Aspergillus fumigatus*, Anig *Aspergillus niger*, Bfuc *Botryotinia fuckeliana*, Sbra

Sporothrix brasiliensis. Except for Sbh2, only regions containing S or T residues with

flanking prolines (pink) are shown. The conserved proline-flanked T5 in *S. cerevisiae* Sbh1 is

indicated by an asterisk; other confirmed phosphorylation sites in *S. cerevisiae* Sbh1 are

shown in grey; and the PKA site in *C. neoformans* Sbh1 is in blue. *Schizosaccharomyces*

cryophilus, *Schizosaccharomyces octoporus*, *Ceratocystic fimbriana*, *Candida albicans*,

Schizosaccharomyces pombe, *Kluyveromyces lactis*, *Yarrowia lipolytica*, *Pichia pastoris*, and

Hansenula polymorpha Sbh1 proteins were also screened, but do not contained potential

proline-flanked phosphorylation sites. **C)** Wildtype *SBH1 SBH2 S. cerevisiae* and the

indicated mutants were grown on YPD plates at the indicated temperatures for 3 days. **D)**

Left: The Δ*sbh1*Δ*sbh2 S. cerevisiae* strain was transformed with pRS415 without an insert

(Δsbh1/2), wildtype *SBH1*, or the indicated phosphorylation site mutants and grown on SC

without leucine containing 10 μg/ml calcofluor white at 30°C. A Δ*kre6* mutant and its

isogenic wildtype were included as controls. Note that these are in a different strain

background compared to the *SBH1* strain. Right: The indicated strains were grown to early

exponential phase and cell-wall proteins extracted by high pH/DTT, resolved by SDS-PAGE

(size range shown is roughly 10-150 kD), and visualized by Coomassie staining.

FIGURE 2: Sbh1 is required for cell wall integrity at high temperature in *C.neoformans*.

A) Serial 10-fold dilutions of wild-type (KN99) and Δ*sbh1* cells were grown at the

temperatures shown on YPD alone or containing 1 mg/ml calcofluor white (CFW) or 0.02%

SDS (SDS). **B)** Wild type (KN99) or *sbh1*Δ mutant cells were transformed with vector alone

(vec) or plasmids encoding HA-tagged Sbh1 (SBH1), or Sbh1 with mutations in the indicated

phosphorylation sites and then diluted as in panel A and grown at the indicated conditions. **C)**

Cells of the strains indicated were treated with lysing enzymes (see Methods) for the times

shown and then assessed for % lysis with two-way ANOVA with mixed-effects analysis. *

indicates P<0.05, # indicates P=0.25. **D)** The indicated strains were grown as above in the

presence of 1 mM H_2O_2 or 1mM $NaNO_2$ on YNB (pH 5) at 37°C. All experiments are

representative of at least three biological replicate studies.

FIGURE 3: *C. neoformans* Sbh1 is required for the induction of secretory and

transmembrane proteins in host-like conditions. Proteomic analysis of wildtype and *sbh1*Δ

C. neoformans grown in YPD at 30°C or DMEM and 5% CO_2 at 37°C (host-like conditions).

Samples were analyzed in quadruplicates. Gene IDs of known virulence factors are indicated

by asterisks.

FIGURE 4: Secretory and transmembrane proteins that require Sbh1 for induction

contain specific ER-targeting sequences. A) Characterization of Sbh1-dependent

transmembrane domains. Top, schematic of a typical transmembrane domain (TMD) with

features specific for Sbh1-dependent TMDs highlighted in red. Hydrophobicity (left) and

charges within 10 amino acids of TMDs (right) were analyzed for TMDs of Sbh1-

dependently induced proteins (candidates, red) compared to all transmembrane proteins in the

C. neoformans proteome (black). **B**) Characterization of Sbh1-dependent signal peptides. The

schematic on top shows a typical signal peptide (SP) with features specific for Sbh1-

dependent SPs highlighted in red. Black triangle: signal peptidase cleavage site. SPs of Sbh1-

dependently induced secretory proteins (red) were analyzed for N-region charge, H-region

hydrophobicity and length, and C-region polarity and compared to all signal peptides in the *C.*

neoformans proteome (black). The only difference found was in C-region polarity, shown in

the graph. **C)** Model for Sbh1 function in *C. neoformans*. Under rich medium conditions,

proteins with Sbh1-dependent ER targeting sequences (magenta) play only a minor role for

vegetative growth (left), and most proteins imported into the ER have Sbh1-independent

targeting sequences (shaded grey). During infection (right), however, Sbh1-dependent ER

import (magenta) becomes essential.

FIGURE 5: The *C. neoformans sbh1*Δ mutant is avirulent in mouse infection. (A, B)

Total fungal burden at 14 days post-infection with the indicated strains, measured in lung (A)

and brain (B). Each symbol represents colony forming units (CFU) for one mouse; mean and

standard deviation are also shown. Dotted line, original inoculum. (C) Mouse survival after

infection with KN99 wildtype (solid line), *sbh1*Δ (dashed line) or *sbh1*Δ complemented with

wildtype *SBH1* (dotted line). Any mouse that decreased to less than 80% of its initial weight

(see Supplementary Figure 3) was humanely sacrificed and considered not to survive the

infection.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

TABLE S1 (excel file): Protein expression analysis in KN99 wild-type and *sbh1Δ C. neoformans* grown in YPD at 30°C or DMEM at 37°C and 5% CO_2.

Proteins are ordered by degree of Sbh1-dependence. Where present, ER targeting sequences are indicated by amino acid numbers. SP, signal peptides; SA, uncleaved signal anchors; TM, first transmembrane domain. Ambiguous predictions due to limited hydrophobicity (TM) or suboptimal signal peptide parameters (SP) are indicated by '?'.

TABLE S2 (word doc): Signal peptides and transmembrane domains of proteins induced in DMEM in KN99 wildtype *C. neoformans*. Amino acid sequences of TM domains, signal peptides, and signal anchors are shown including the flanking 10 amino acids on either side for TM or the first 10 amino acids of the mature domains for SP. Positively charged amino acid residues are highlighted in red.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 1: Expression of wild type and phosphorylation mutants of Sbh1. Shown is an anti-HA immunoblot of wildtype or *sbh1Δ* cryptococcal cells expressing either vector alone (vec) or the indicated HA-tagged proteins. This blot is representative of two independent experiments.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 2: Growth of *C. neoformans* wild-type and *sbh1Δ* under host-like conditions. (A) Fungi of the indicated strains were incubated in tissue culture medium (5% CO_2, 37 °C) and then plated on YPD for assessment of colony-forming units (CFU) after 1, 18, and 30 h. Results were normalized to the 1 h CFU value. (B) The same strains were incubated for 1 h in the presence of differentiated THP-1 cells (MOI = 1), during which time fungi were engulfed by the host cells. Samples were then vigorously washed to remove free cryptococci and host cells were lysed to

measure CFU either immediately or after 30 h of incubation. % change was calculated as [(Final CFU

– Initial CFU) / (Initial CFU)] x 100. Results shown are mean and SEM values from 4 independent

experiments for (A) and 2 independent experiments for (B). For both panels * indicates $p < 0.05$ for

sbh1Δ compared to KN99.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 3: Weight over time of mice intranasally infected with

$5x10^4$ cells of wild type (blue) or *sbh1Δ* (red) cells. Dashed lines indicate 80% of the average

initial weight for each group, which was used to determine the time of sacrifice.

Figure 1

A

N
P P
P
P P
P P

cytosol

ER lumen

C

B

```
Sbh1    1  MSSP--TPPGGQRTLQKRKQGSSQK-
Sbh2    1  MAAS--VPPGGQRILQKRRQAQSIK-
Cryn    1  MADTKRPSSPS-TP--GQSSSFAVARPHGAN-
Sjap    1  MSSPKSTPSV---
Hcap   65  SSGISGSALNRPSSP--TPPGG---
Bder   21  ASGIAGSSLNRPSSP--TPPGG-
Cpos   26  ASTGSAASLNRPSSP--TPPGG-
Afum   31  AGASATGSVNRPSSP--TPPGG-
Anig   58  TGASAVSSVNRPSSP--TPPGG-
Bfuc    1  MSSPRSASPVNSPVAAVSGRPSSPTPPGG-
Sbra    1  MSSPRAASP--TPAGAASGASINRASSSSP-
```

C

30°C

SBH1
SBH2

SBH1
Δsbh2

Δsbh1
Δsbh2

Δsbh1
SBH2

37°C

SBH1
SBH2

SBH1
Δsbh2

Δsbh1
Δsbh2

Δsbh1
SBH2

D

S3A/T5A
S3E/T5E
SBH1
Δsbh1/2
KRE6
Δkre6

SBH1   Δsbh1/2   vector   S3A/T5A   S3E/T5E

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4