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Selection of Ethanol Tolerant Strains of *Candida albicans* by Repeated Ethanol

Exposure Results in Strains with Reduced Susceptibility to Fluconazole

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Abstract

Candida albicans is a commensal yeast that has important impacts on host metabolism and immune function, and can establish life-threatening infections in immunocompromised individuals. Previously, *C. albicans* colonization has been shown to contribute to the progression and severity of alcoholic liver disease. However, relatively little is known about how *C. albicans* responds to changing environmental conditions in the GI tract of individuals with alcohol use disorder, namely repeated exposure to ethanol. In this study, we repeatedly exposed *C. albicans* to high concentrations (10% vol/vol) of ethanol—a concentration that can be observed in the upper GI tract of humans following consumption of alcohol. Following this repeated exposure protocol, ethanol small colony (Esc) variants of *C. albicans* isolated from these populations exhibited increased ethanol tolerance, altered transcriptional responses to ethanol, and cross-resistance/tolerance to the frontline antifungal fluconazole. These Esc strains exhibited chromosomal copy number variations and carried polymorphisms in genes previously associated with the acquisition of fluconazole resistance during human infection. This study identifies a selective pressure that can result in evolution of fluconazole tolerance and resistance without previous exposure to the drug.

Introduction

Candida albicans is an opportunistic pathogen causing severe morbidity and mortality in immunocompromised patients. *Candida spp* are the second most common cause of nosocomial bloodstream infection in the US, and cause about 70% of all fungal infections [1,2]. The most common species causing these fungal infections is *C. albicans*, the causative agent of oral thrush, vulvovaginitis, and bloodstream infections which result in mortality rates in immunocompromised patients ranging from roughly 30-56% [3–5]. Before *C. albicans* causes

deadly bloodstream infections, it establishes commensalism within the gastrointestinal tract of humans [6,7]. Importantly, rates of antifungal resistance among *C. albicans* isolates have been rising throughout recent years [8], contributing to difficulty in treating bloodstream infections. Therefore, it is important to investigate factors that promote antifungal resistance whether acquired during infection or the preceding commensal state.

C. albicans commensalism has been studied particularly in disease states which predispose individuals to bloodstream infections. However, the environmental conditions in the GI tract and how they contribute to fungal physiology have been less studied. One condition of interest is the GI tract of individuals with alcohol use disorder (AUD). Recently, changes in the gut microbiome of individuals with alcohol use disorder, including a loss of fungal diversity, and blooms of *C. albicans* have been noted [9–11]. *C. albicans* blooms in the alcoholic GI tract promote the progression and increase the severity of alcoholic liver disease. Anti-*Saccharomyces cerevisiae* IgG antibodies (ASCA), which are thought to be broadly induced by fungi, show an inverse correlation with 6-month and 5-year survival rates in patients with alcoholic cirrhosis [9,10]. These findings suggest that fungal colonization can exacerbate diseases associated with alcohol use and abuse. However, there are still many questions surrounding why *C. albicans* relative abundance increases in the alcoholic GI tract and how *C. albicans* responds to environmental changes in the alcoholic GI tract.

One of the most intuitive features of the environment in the alcoholic GI tract is the increased presence of ethanol that members of the microbiota from the mouth through the proximal small intestine would be exposed to during bouts of consumption. Following consumption of one to two standard drinks of ethanol, the percentage of alcohol in the stomach and the small intestine can reach concentrations of roughly 10% ethanol [12,13]. To test how *C. albicans* responds to conditions that mimic this environment, we repeatedly cultured C. albicans in media with increasing amounts of ethanol, up to 10%. Model organisms such as *Escherichia coli* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* have been shown to evolve increased ethanol tolerance as

a result of repeated exposure to ethanol [14,15]. We therefore hypothesized that *C. albicans*

would evolve increased ethanol tolerance following repeated exposure to ethanol.

In this study, we find that populations of *C. albicans* cells repeatedly exposed to ethanol

evolve increased ethanol tolerance. One ethanol tolerant strain showed increased ergosterol

content during exposure to ethanol. We show that increased ergosterol content, whether

induced by chemical stimulation or gain-of-function mutation, resulted in increased ethanol

survival of *C. albicans*. Whole genome sequencing of strains with increased ethanol tolerance

showed that these strains carried various chromosomal aneuploidies, some of which have been

observed in fluconazole resistant and tolerant strains of *C. albicans*, and single nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs). We also showed that the ethanol tolerant strains exhibited increased

resistance and tolerance to azole drugs but not caspofungin or amphotericin B. These results

suggest that *C. albicans* exposed to ethanol in the alcoholic GI tract could exhibit fluconazole

resistance without previously being exposed to the antifungal drug.

92   **Results**

Selection of ethanol tolerant *C. albicans* isolates

The ability of *C. albicans* to evolve an altered response to ethanol exposure was

investigated. To this end, *C. albicans* strain SC5314 was cultured eight times for 4 hrs each in

tissue culture medium with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1X non-essential amino acids (referred

to as medium A) with or without increasing concentrations of ethanol, as described in Materials

and Methods (**Fig. 1A).** This process was repeated with five independent populations of cells.

Figure 1 Isolation of Ethanol Tolerant Strains. A) The repeated ethanol exposure

protocol is illustrated. 10^6 cells of *C. albicans* strain SC5314 from 5 different biological replicate

populations were inoculated into medium A with increasing concentrations of ethanol (1-10%

vol/vol) or medium A diluted with water. Populations were exposed to 8 passages in ethanol or

paired mock-exposed populations exposed to 8 passages in media with water. After each 4

hour ethanol or water exposure step, cells were seeded into YPD for recovery, and cultures

were plated onto YPD-agar for examination of the populations. Recovery cultures were grown to

post-exponential phase, and a glycerol stock was made. Cells from the recovery culture were

then used for the next step. **B)** Relative survival of ethanol small colony (Esc) strains following a

4-hour ethanol exposure relative to WT ethanol survival was measured as described in

Materials and Methods. Symbols show results from biological replicate cultures, bars show

mean with standard deviation. Outliers were removed through ROUT, Q=1%, and statistical

significance calculated by Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA test. Each group represents 16-

18 biological replicate cultures. (*, $p < 0.0170$; **, $p < 0.0037$; ***, $p < 0.0004$) **C)** Fraction of

survivors was measured for 8-16 biological replicate cultures for each point. Timepoints taken

were 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, or 24 hours of incubation time in 10% ethanol. Error bars show

standard error for each timepoint. Horizontal line represents 90% death. Minimum duration of

killing 90% (MDK90) values are plotted as vertical lines with solid black line representing WT

and dashed lines representing Esc strains.

Throughout the repeated-ethanol exposure protocol, populations from each passage

were plated onto YPD agar to monitor population dynamics. An increased number of small-

sized colonies (50% of the size of normal sized colonies or less) was observed with greater

numbers of passages and higher concentrations of ethanol (**Supplemental Fig. S1**). Small-

sized colonies were rare in populations not exposed to ethanol. From these populations, small

and normal sized colonies were isolated to determine their properties.

Normal-sized colonies were isolated from four different populations exposed repeatedly

to ethanol, as well as from populations that were repeatedly exposed to water. Strains from

normal-sized colonies were grown to post-exponential phase and added to medium A containing

10% ethanol or 10% water as described in Materials and Methods. Following the four-hour ethanol

exposure at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere, cells were serially diluted, and plated to determine

CFU and percentage survival. The final CFU of the 10% water and 10% ethanol cultures were

counted and used to determine the final percentage survival of the ethanol cultures. Values were

standardized within each experiment to the survival of SC5314 in 10% ethanol (**Supplemental**

Fig. S2). Strains from normal-sized colonies from ethanol cultures showed no statistically

significant increase in ethanol survival compared to SC5314 survival and were not studied further.

Ethanol small colony (Esc) variants were purified from different populations and tested as

above to measure their ability to survive in ethanol. Relative survival values of SC5314, Esc6,

Esc7, and Esc8 are shown in **Fig. 1B**. Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8 were isolated from different,

independent populations and all showed significantly higher survival following the 4-hour ethanol

exposure, compared to the parent strain. The growth rates of these strains were measured in

YPD at 30°C; the strains showed increases in doubling times ranging from 1.37 to 2.12X greater

than the doubling time of SC5314 shown in **Supplemental Fig. S3**.

The next experiment asked whether Esc strains had an increased ability to survive longer

exposures to ethanol. SC5314, Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8 were grown overnight and then subcultured

in medium A with 10% ethanol. CFU were determined for cultures at 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, and 24

hours of incubation. Fractions relative to the starting CFU of the cultures are shown in **Fig. 1C**.

The results showed that Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8 outperformed WT *C. albicans* in ethanol survival

from 0-6 hours and Esc7 and 8 were able to maintain higher ethanol survival relative to SC5314

through 24 hours. Esc6 had an early advantage in the first 6 hours compared to SC5314 but

began to die rapidly after 12 hours. A common way to measure tolerance to antibiotics in bacterial

systems is to determine the minimum duration of killing x fraction of the population (MDKx) [16].

We estimated the MDK90 for the strains by extrapolation and found that WT *C. albicans* had an

MDK90 of 10 hrs, Esc6 had an MDK90 of 12 hrs, Esc7 had an MDK90 of 16 hrs, and Esc8 had

an MDK90 of 19 hrs. These results showed that Esc7 and Esc8 had greater ethanol tolerance

than SC5314 and that Esc6 had slightly higher tolerance over the first 12 hours of exposure.

Screen of Deletion Strains Reveals Pathways Important for Ethanol Survival

Very little is known about factors that contribute to ethanol survival in *C. albicans* and

therefore, a screen of transcription factor deletion mutants [17] was conducted. Strains were

tested using the four-hour 10% ethanol exposure followed by plating on YPD-agar as described

above. Strains were selected for analysis if the deleted transcription factor was homologous to an

S. cerevisiae transcription factor with a role in ethanol survival, or if it regulated genes in pathways

with a known or hypothesized role in ethanol survival.

Ethanol survival experiments were performed for 18 different homozygous transcription

factor deletion strains and the wildtype strain, SN152 using six to twelve biological replicate

cultures for each strain. Results are shown in **Fig. 2.** Some of the transcriptional regulators that

are thought to be central to the *S. cerevisiae* ethanol response[18], e.g. *MSN4*, *MNL1 (scMSN2*

analog), and *CAP1* (*scYAP1 analog*) [18,19], were not necessary for ethanol survival in *C.*

albicans. Other deletion strains had an altered ability to survive in 10% ethanol. One strain,

deleted for *NDT80*, had a reduced ability to survive in ethanol, and four deletion strains (mutants

lacking *TYE7, ACE2, YOX1,* or *CRZ1)* had an increased ability to survive in ethanol. *ACE2* and

CRZ1 knockout strains had particularly striking phenotypes with roughly 23 and 58-fold increases

in ethanol survival respectively compared to WT (SN152).

Figure 2: Screen of the Ethanol Survival of Transcription Factor Deletion Strains.

Strains described in Homann, et al [17] were exposed to 10% ethanol for four hours as previously

described. Relative survival was compared to SN152 (WT) as previously described. Relative

survival was log-transformed and graphed. Eighteen homozygous deletion mutants are graphed

with the name on the x-axis representing the deleted gene. Each point shows an individual

biological replicate culture, bars show mean values, and error bars show standard deviation. A

Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA test was performed on log-transformed data to determine

statistical significance; * = $p < 0.0393$; ** = $p < 0.0016$; *** = $p < 0.0005$; **** = $p < 0.0001$.

To identify critical pathways for ethanol survival, we used previous studies to ask whether

pathways important for *S. cerevisiae* ethanol tolerance were regulated by these transcription

factors. It was found that all 5 transcription factors have been implicated in regulation of the

ergosterol pathway, either by co-expression studies, *ERG* promoter binding, or by computational

prediction [19–23]. Additionally, four out of the five transcription factors have putative roles in

biofilm formation, three in filamentous growth, two in cell-cell adhesion, two are involved with cell

wall synthesis/organization, and two with susceptibility to azoles based on results described in

the Candida Genome Database.

***C. albicans* strains with elevated ergosterol levels exhibit increased ethanol tolerance**

In *S. cerevisiae,* increased ergosterol content confers greater ethanol tolerance and in

synthetic bilayers, increased ergosterol leads to lower membrane disruption [18,24–26]. Based

on our findings from the transcription factor deletion mutant screen, we hypothesized that

ergosterol is involved in *C. albicans* ethanol tolerance as well, and that Esc strains had alterations

in ergosterol levels. We therefore analyzed the ergosterol content in the ethanol tolerant strains.

SC5314 cells or Esc6, 7, 8 cells were cultured in medium A with 10% water or 10% ethanol for

four hours and ergosterol was extracted and quantitated as previously described [27,28].

Ergosterol quantity was calculated relative to SC5314 in 10% H2O and is shown in **Fig. 3A** (8

biological replicates from four different experiments). From these data, a statistically significant

increase in ergosterol content was seen in Esc7 in EtOH (p-value <0.0001, 2way ANOVA with

Dunnett's correction, mean = 1.77). Esc6 and Esc8 ergosterol content were not significantly

different from SC5314. These data support the model that higher levels of ergosterol in Esc7

promoted higher ethanol tolerance.

Figure 3: Cells with increased ergosterol content show increased ethanol

tolerance. A) Cells were grown for 4 hours in medium A with 10% ethanol or water and

harvested. Ergosterol was measured as a percentage ergosterol by mass normalized to wet-

pellet weight calculated as previously described [27,29,30] and Materials and Methods).

Relative ergosterol content was calculated by standardizing ergosterol % within each

experiment to SC5314 in 10% H2O. 4 separate experiments with 10 total biological replicate

cultures for each condition are shown. Symbols show individual replicate values relative to

SC5314 within the condition and bars show means with standard deviation (****, p < 0.0001).

Statistical significance calculated with 2way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison, only

significant comparisons are shown. **B)** Ethanol survival was measured after a 4-hr exposure of

SC5314 or SC5314 with a *UPC2* gain of function mutation (G648D) [31]. Relative survival was

standardized to SC5314 survival within each experiment. 11-12 biological replicates total from 3

different experiments are shown. One high outlier was removed from UPC2-G648D by ROUT

(Q=1%). Symbols show individual replicate cultures and bars show mean with standard

deviation (****, p < 0.0001). Statistical significance calculated by unpaired t-test. **C)** Ethanol

survival from SC5314 cells pre-treated for 4 hrs with DMSO or DMSO with 100ug/mL of

Artemisinin was measured. Each condition has 12 biological replicates. Ethanol exposure and

standardization are the same as in B. Symbols show standardized ethanol survival of individual

replicates and bars show median survival with error bars representing 95% confidence intervals.

Statistical significance was tested using a Mann-Whitney test (**, p<0.0053).

We therefore tested whether elevating ergosterol content in *C. albicans* through other

means would confer greater ethanol tolerance. One approach utilized an SC5314 strain with a

homozygous *UPC2* gain of function mutation (G648D; kind gift of J. Morschhauser). *UPC2*$_{G648D}$

results in increased ergosterol synthesis, and increased ergosterol content through upregulation

of *ERG11* [31]. Four hour ethanol survival of the SC5314 WT strain [31] and homozygous

UPC2$_{G648D}$ mutant strain was determined as described previously. Relative survival compared to

SC5314 was calculated. The homozygous *UPC2*$_{G648D}$ mutant strain exhibited a five-fold increase

in ethanol survival (**Fig. 3B**), showing that a mutation that increased ergosterol content [31] also

increased ethanol tolerance.

For a second test of the hypothesis that increased ergosterol content increases ethanol

tolerance, chemical stimulation of ergosterol synthesis with the anti-malarial drug artemisinin was

performed. Incubation of *C. albicans* with 100ug/mL of artemisinin has been shown to increase

ergosterol gene expression and lead to increased content of ergosterol in *C. albicans* cells [32].

Therefore, *C. albicans* cells were pretreated with 100ug/mL of artemisinin in DMSO or DMSO

alone for four hours. Artemisinin or vehicle exposure was continued during the four-hour ethanol

survival experiment. Survival of cells relative to SC5314 with vehicle was calculated (**Fig. 3C**).

Stimulation of ergosterol synthesis with artemisinin led to a 2-fold increased ethanol survival.

Therefore, cells with increased ergosterol content produced in several ways showed increased

ethanol tolerance. Increased ethanol tolerance in Esc7 is likely due, at least in part, to increased

ergosterol content in Esc7 cells.

Altered gene expression in Esc strains

We next investigated gene expression differences between Esc7 and SC5314 during

growth in medium A with ethanol versus medium A with water. SC5314 and Esc7 were cultured

in 10% EtOH medium or 10% water medium for 4 hours and RT-qPCR was used to measure

gene expression. We analyzed expression of genes of the ergosterol biosynthetic pathway that

comprise roughly half of the biosynthetic pathway from lanosterol demethylation through

ergosterol production [33] including *ERG11, ERG2, ERG4, ERG5, ERG6,* and *ERG25.* These

genes were shown to have higher transcript abundance in Esc7 in comparison to SC5314 in 10%

ethanol **(Fig. 4A)**. Many of these genes were repressed in ethanol in SC5314 and less repressed

in Esc7 in ethanol. These results were consistent with the increased concentrations of ergosterol

in Esc7 compared to SC5314 since increased expression of *ERG11* was shown to increase

ergosterol content in *C. albicans* [33].

Figure 4: Differential gene expression in Esc7 versus SC5314 with and without

ethanol. 8 biological replicate cultures were grown for 4 hours in medium A with 10% ethanol or

water. Gene expression was measured by RT-qPCR. Expression was normalized to expression

of *SPL1* (tRNA splicing gene that had unchanged expression in all conditions). Genes are

indicated on the x-axis and Log$_2$-fold change in expression is shown relative to SC5314 in 10%

water on the y-axis. **A)** Genes of the ergosterol pathway. **B)** Genes/pathways implicated in *S.*

cerevisiae ethanol tolerance. **C)** Genes in the ethanol catabolic pathway. Each symbol shows

results from an individual culture, error bars show standard deviation, and statistical significance

for each of the RT-qPCR figures was tested by Fisher's LSD test. Only significant differences

within one variable comparisons are shown. (*, p< 0.455, **, p< 0.0063, ***, p< 0.0004, ****, p<

0.0001)

Ethanol exposure has multiple effects that promote cell death including targeting the

membrane, and producing protein misfolding, mitochondrial stress, and DNA damage [34–36]. In

S. cerevisiae, increased expression of drug transporters and efflux pumps confers increased

ethanol tolerance [37,38] and we confirmed upregulation of *CDR1* in SC5314 and Esc7 during

exposure to ethanol as well as a trend towards greater expression in Esc7 compared to SC5314

(SC5314 vs Esc7 EtOH p-value: 0.2070, Fisher's LSD test, mean value 1.51-fold higher) (**Fig.**

4B). Orthologs of genes involved in trehalose synthesis and ethanol tolerance in *S. cerevisiae,*

TPS1 and *TPS2* [18], were less repressed in Esc7 compared to SC5314 in 10% EtOH (**Fig. 4B**).

Heat shock proteins (HSPs) and molecular chaperones are important for *S. cerevisiae*

ethanol tolerance [39–41]. Interestingly, *HSP90* was significantly repressed in Esc7 in ethanol

and was more repressed than in SC5314 (**Fig. 4B**). HSP90 is critical to many different stress

responses, regulates Upc2 (a transcriptional regulator of ergosterol metabolism), and regulates

antifungal resistance and tolerance [42–48]. Decreased expression of *HSP90* could lead to less

programmed cell death during ethanol stress as has been observed with exposure to hydrogen

peroxide [49].

Another pathway of interest is the ethanol catabolic pathway. This pathway has not been

extensively studied in *C. albicans,* however, and some of the main players in this pathway were

identified based on homology. Adh1 and Adh2 are thought to convert ethanol into acetaldehyde,

Ald4 and Ald5 likely convert acetaldehyde into acetate, and Acs1 and Acs2 likely convert acetate

into acetyl-CoA [50]. Several of the genes, e.g. *ADH2*, *ADH3*, *ADH4*, and *ALD5* were

transcriptionally induced in ethanol in both SC5314 and Esc7 **(Fig. 4C)**. Significant differences in

expression of these genes between Esc7 and SC5314 were not observed by RT-qPCR.

A second approach to detect changes in gene expression that could contribute to ethanol

tolerance, was through RNA-sequencing. Three biological replicates of SC5314 and Esc6, 7 and

8 were cultured in medium A with 10% ethanol or 10% water and harvested. RNA-seq was

performed on RNA extracted from these samples as described in Materials and Methods and

results are presented in **Supplemental Tables S1-S10**. Principal coordinate analysis showed

that all Esc strains exhibited distinct transcriptional profiles in ethanol compared to SC5314 in

ethanol (**Supplemental Fig. S4**). Interestingly, *ACE2* was the most reduced transcript in Esc7

compared to SC5314 in 10% ethanol and was 11.3 and 4.3 fold less abundant in Esc6 and Esc8

in ethanol compared to SC5314 in ethanol respectively, consistent with the elevated ethanol

tolerance of the *ace2* deletion mutant (**Fig. 2**).

To determine what cellular pathways were altered in these strains, GO term analyses

using the Candida Genome Database (CGD) were performed as previously described [51] to

identify enriched categories of genes. Genes that were significantly up-regulated (log2-fold

change >0.5 and adjusted p-value < 0.05) in Esc strains in ethanol compared to SC5314 in

ethanol were analyzed (1700 genes in Esc6, 1334 genes in Esc7, and 1494 genes in Esc8). The

top 20 processes based on corrected p-value identified by GO term process analysis are shown

in **Supplemental Fig. S5**. Organonitrogen compound catabolic process was the only process that

was shared in the top 20 for all strains.

For Esc7, processes involved with ergosterol biosynthesis (red arrows in **Fig. 5**) were

enriched among the top 20 GO term processes, consistent with the analysis above. Esc6 and

Esc8 showed other enriched pathways that could be involved in ethanol tolerance or response to

ethanol exposure. Both Esc6 and Esc8 showed enrichment of genes involved with general

catabolic processes. Both strains showed enrichment of processes pertaining to proteolysis and

protein catabolism which could be involved with the denatured protein response caused by

ethanol exposure. Esc6 also showed an enrichment of genes involved with autophagy, which has

previously been implicated in the ethanol response of *S.* cerevisiae [52]. These findings suggest

that changes to proteasomal degradation/proteolysis and autophagy could contribute to ethanol

tolerance of *C. albicans*.

Figure 5: Differential gene expression in Esc7 versus SC5314 in 10% Ethanol.

Transcripts expressed more highly in Esc7 in 10% ethanol compared to SC5314 were analyzed

using GO term search on Candida Genome Database. Enriched processes are listed. The X

axis shows corrected p-value for the top 20 hits (from most significant at top and descending

statistical significance moving to the bottom) (triangles). Red arrows indicate processes related

to lipid or ergosterol synthesis.

These findings highlight that many pathways are likely involved in ethanol tolerance in *C.*

albicans. Some of the pathways involved in *S. cerevisiae* ethanol tolerance may not play a role in

the strains described here (e.g. HSPs, ethanol catabolic pathway, etc.), although genes that do

not change transcriptionally may also be regulated post-transcriptionally.

Esc strains show chromosome copy number variation and genomic polymorphisms

Whole-genome sequencing of parental SC5314, Esc6, Esc7 and Esc8 was conducted to

identify possible chromosome copy number variation or sequence polymorphisms in the ethanol

tolerant strains. Aneuploidy is a well described mechanism of stress adaptation in *C. albicans*

[53–55]*,* as well as *S. cerevisiae* ethanol tolerance [56]. Genomic DNA from the strains was

isolated and genome sequencing was conducted by Seq-Center (formerly MiGS) using paired-

end Illumina next generation sequencing. Further details on sequencing and analysis workflow

are described in Materials and Methods.

Changes in chromosome copy number were detected by uploading fastq files to the Yeast

Mapping Analysis Pipeline (YMAP) [57]. YMAP analyzed average read depth across all

chromosomes to give a read-depth based chromosome copy number estimation (**Fig. 6**). These

images also give predictions for loss of heterozygosity (LoH) regions and show which regions are

predicted to be composed of which alleles (A or B, AAB or ABB in trisomic regions) based on

sequence homology to either of these alleles. Results show that Esc strains contain various

aneuploidies, as well as certain LoH regions. Specifically, Esc6 has a trisomy of Chr1, Esc7 has

a trisomy of Chr3, and a loss of the B allele of the short arm of chromosome R. Esc8 has a

monosomy of Chr5 (only A allele) and trisomies of Chr6, 7, and 8. Growth in ethanol may select

for aneuploid strains previously existing in the population or the presence of ethanol or byproducts

of its catabolism may stimulate chromosomal instability.

Figure 6: Chromosome copy numbers in Esc strains. Whole genome sequencing of

SC5314, Esc6, 7, and 8 was conducted as described in Materials and Methods. Copy number

estimates were determined based on read depth and estimated copy number is plotted along

chromosomes using YMAP[57]. C. albicans is diploid so euploid chromosomes show an

average copy number of 2 on the Y-axis as shown for SC5314. Thick black bars denote

aneuploidies, shown by predicted copy number greater than or less than 2. Images from YMAP

[57].

Additionally,   we   observed   single   nucleotide   polymorphisms   (SNPs)   and

insertions/deletions in the genome sequences of Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8 (**supplemental tables**

S11-S13). There were 124 (in 64 different ORFs), 139 (in 83 different ORFs), and 135 (in 72

different ORFs) polymorphisms in protein coding regions in Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8 respectively.

Polymorphisms were comprised mostly of putative heterozygous polymorphisms in all strains

based on the allele depth ratio between the reference and alternate alleles. Heterozygous and

homozygous polymorphisms were classified by creating a histogram of allele depth and

calculating minima of a trimodal fit curve (minima = Esc6:0.1845,**0.8482**; Esc7:0.1753,**0.8716**;

Esc8:0.1761,**0.8628**) (**Supplemental Fig. S6**). Further analysis focused on homozygous

polymorphisms classified as variant calls with an allele depth ratio greater than the highest

minimum value (bolded values above). Only one gene carried a homozygous polymorphism in all

three Esc strains: *C6_02290C*, an uncharacterized gene containing a putative zinc binding

domain. Other genes of interest with homozygous polymorphisms are *C4_04190C* and

C4_04200C which are overlapping ORFs that both contain a putative acetyltransferase domain

and *PDC2* which was polymorphic in two strains. *PDC2* encodes a homeodomain-containing

transcriptional regulator which is involved in glucose metabolism [58]. The role of these genes in

ethanol tolerance is unknown.

Esc strains exhibit reduced susceptibility to fluconazole

Some of the chromosome aneuploidies observed in Esc7 and Esc8 have been previously

observed in strains with altered susceptibility to the frontline antifungal fluconazole. Aneuploidies

of chromosome 3, 5, 6, 7, and R have been implicated in azole resistance and tolerance [59–64].

Further, the ergosterol pathway, more specifically *ERG11,* is the target of azole class antifungals

and increased expression of *ERG11* and *CDR1* confers fluconazole resistance [42,65–67].

We therefore examined the susceptibility of Esc strains to fluconazole and other antifungal

drugs. Broth-microdilution assays were carried out using the standard CLSI protocol [68]. After

24-hour incubations, metabolic activity of the wells was measured with 2,3-bis(2-methoxy-4-nitro-

5-sulfophenyl)-5-[(phenylamino)carbonyl]-2H-tetrazolium hydroxide (XTT) and MIC50 and MIC70

values were calculated as described in Materials and Methods (**Fig. 7A**, **Supplemental Fig. S7)**.

Esc6 and Esc7 both exhibited fluconazole resistance phenotypes with elevated MIC50 values.

Esc8 showed no alterations to MIC50 values but had increased MIC70 and trailing growth,

suggesting altered fluconazole susceptibility. For amphotericin B and caspofungin, MICs were

determined by visual determination of growth and all strains showed no changes in susceptibility

to these antifungals (**Fig. 7C**).

Figure 7: Esc strains exhibit altered fluconazole susceptibility. **A)** Strains were

grown in liquid cultures containing increasing concentrations of fluconazole as described in

Materials and Methods. Growth was detected after a 24 hour incubation using the XTT assay for

metabolic activity. Metabolic activity relative to the 0ug/mL well is shown as a heat map. Yellow

dots show the well that corresponds to MIC70 and green dots show MIC50. Median metabolic

activity values from 6 biological replicates performed in 6 separate experiments are shown. **B)**

Strains were grown to post exponential phase in YPD liquid and then used to seed the disk

diffusion plates. Disk diffusion assays were performed on YPD agar with 10^5 cells/plate with

25ug fluconazole disks incubated for 48 hours at 30ºC. Images were taken using a Syngene

Imager. Representative images from an experiment repeated 4 times are shown. **C)** MIC values

were determined using the same MIC protocol except MICs were determined by eye. The

caspofungin MIC was determined from the mean of 4 biological replicate experiments for each

strain and the amphotericin B MIC was determined from 3 biological replicate experiments.

There were no significant differences between SC5314 and any of the Esc strains (testing for

statistical significance performed on log-transformed data, Kruskal-Wallis test for caspofungin

and One-Way ANOVA for amphotericin B with multiple comparisons for each)

Disk diffusion assays were performed following standard protocols with 25ug-loaded

fluconazole filter disks [69,70]. Esc7 showed no zone of inhibition following a 48-hour incubation,

while Esc8 showed a zone of inhibition with heavy growth within the zone (**Fig. 7B**). These

phenotypes were similar for voriconazole, another azole antifungal drug (**Supplemental Fig. S8**).

Esc7 showed no zone of voriconazole inhibition and Esc8 showed a zone of inhibition with heavy

growth in the zone. These results are consistent with azole resistance and azole tolerance

respectively. Interestingly, Esc6 showed a larger zone of fluconazole inhibition than SC5314 in

the disk-diffusion assay but exhibited an elevated MIC for fluconazole in the broth microdilution

assay. This type of discrepancy has been observed rarely and could suggest a non-canonical

mechanism of reduced fluconazole susceptibility in this strain. In summary, all Esc strains tested

exhibited altered susceptibility to fluconazole, showing that *C. albicans* can evolve fluconazole

resistance and tolerance through ethanol exposure without previous exposure to antifungal drugs.

Due to this cross-tolerance/resistance, we compared the SNPs identified in Esc strains

with SNPs previously identified in strains developing fluconazole resistance. Whole genome

sequencing analysis of strains acquired by sequentially sampling patients during the acquisition

of fluconazole resistance was reported by Ford, et al [69]. In this study, sequential isolates from

patients with *C. albicans* oral candidiasis infections were obtained. In total 43 isolates from 11

patients were whole-genome sequenced. 7 of the 11 patients carried fluconazole resistant strains.

Genome sequences and SNPs of these strains were analyzed throughout the sequential

isolations and compared to SC5314 reference strains. From this study, 240 genes were observed

with persistent polymorphisms, defined as polymorphisms observed in fluconazole resistant

strains from at least 3 of the 7 patients, that were nonsynonymous, were not within a region of the

genome with a loss of heterozygosity event and, after arising, were found in all subsequent

isolates.

We determined how many of these 240 genes carried homozygous polymorphisms in

Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8. There were 8 total homozygous SNP-carrying genes in Esc6 and 5 of

these 8 polymorphic genes also carried persistent polymorphisms in strains analyzed by Ford et

al. Of the 6 homozygous polymorphic genes in Esc7, 2 of these also carried persistent

polymorphisms in the Ford, et al strains. Esc8 had 5 homozygous polymorphic genes of which 3

carried persistent polymorphisms in the Ford, et al strains. This overlap in genes was greater than

expected by chance (p-values all < 0.0030; Chi-squared test). Genes that carry SNPs in Esc

strains and Ford strains are shown in **Table 1**. All polymorphisms can be found in **supplemental**

tables S11-S13. These results suggest an overlap in the selective pressures exerted by

fluconazole and ethanol such that these two pressures select for similar mutational landscapes

and aneuploidies. The similarities increase the likelihood that strains selected for higher ethanol

tolerance will exhibit cross-tolerance/resistance to fluconazole.

Table 1*: Polymorphic genes in Esc strains show overlap with genes associated with*
fluconazole resistance*.

Strain	Observed Number of Common Genes[a]	Expected Number of Common Genes[b]	Two-tailed P-value (Chi squared)
Esc6	5	0.3096	<0.0001
Esc7	2	0.2322	0.0029
Esc8	3	0.1935	<0.0001
	Homozygous Polymorphic Genes in Esc Strains		
Esc6	*ALS3, EAP1, GZF3, RFG1, TBF1, C6_04190C, C7_01100C, CR_02930W*		
Esc7	*PDC2, C1_14630C, C1_07690C, C4_04190C, C4_04200C, C6_04190C*		
Esc8	*FMO2, PDC2, PGA55, C6_03520C, C6_04190C*		
	Common Genes with Homozygous Polymorphisms in Esc strains and Persistent Polymorphisms in Ford, 2015		
Esc6	***C6_04190C,*** *TBF1, CR_02930W, ALS3, EAP1*		
Esc7	***C6_04190C,*** *C1_07690C*		
Esc8	***C6_04190C,*** *PGA55, FMO2*		

[a]240 previously identified open reading frames with persistent polymorphisms from Ford, et al,
2015 were compared with homozygous polymorphic open reading frames in Esc6, Esc7, and
Esc8. The number of common open reading frames is listed for each strain.

[b]The frequencies of previously identified open reading frames with persistent polymorphisms
from Ford, et al, 2015 and homozygous polymorphic open reading frames in Esc6, Esc7, and
Esc8 were used to calculate the expected number of genes in common between these 2 gene
sets.

Discussion

In this study, we showed that repeated exposure of *C. albicans* cultures to ethanol

results in selection for *C. albicans* small colony variants. The small colony variants that were

studied exhibited increased ethanol tolerance as measured after a four-hour ethanol exposure

and a longer term 24-hour ethanol exposure. Interestingly, Esc strains appeared to grow during

the initial hours of the ethanol exposure and then lost viability at a similar rate to SC5314. This

observation suggests that the evolved tolerance strategies in Esc strains were optimized for

short ethanol exposures consistent with the four-hour exposures that were used during the

selection. These mechanisms did not appear to provide much advantage during longer

exposure times (i.e. 8-24 hours) as the rate of optical density decay was similar in SC5314 and

all Esc strains in this time frame.

Little is known about how *C. albicans* responds to ethanol. A screen of homozygous

transcription factor deletion strains supported the hypothesis that the ergosterol pathway is an

important pathway that can impact ethanol survival in *C. albicans*. In general, ethanol kills cells

through disruption of the lipid bilayer [71,72], protein denaturation [73], and intracellular

membrane perturbations [74]. There is thinning of the bilayer through direct interdigitation of

ethanol between membrane lipids, and ultimately denaturation of the membrane which will

result in cell death [71,72]. We showed here that increased ergosterol content in *C. albicans* can

confer increased ethanol survival. This is likely due to protection from the impacts of ethanol

perturbation on the plasma membrane. Models of yeast plasma membranes showed that

increased ergosterol content in the membrane reduced ethanol interdigitation and contributed to

resistance against the membrane thinning effect of ethanol [72,75].

We asked whether *UPC2* was involved in the differential expression of *ERG* genes as

Upc2 is a global regulator of ergosterol biosynthesis [76]. However, *UPC2* expression was

decreased in Esc7 in 10% ethanol compared to SC5314 (**supplemental table S3**), and there

were no SNPs in the *UPC2* orf or promoter sequence, suggesting that other novel

transcriptional regulators of ergosterol synthesis are regulating *ERG* gene expression in Esc7.

Additionally, post-transcriptional regulatory mechanisms could lead to greater activation of

Upc2. For example in *S. cerevisiae* and *Candida* species, it has been suggested that HSP90

acts as a pedestal for Upc2 and binds it in an inactive form [77,78]. It is possible that similar

mechanisms are at play in *C. albicans.* In Esc7, there is a higher ratio of *UPC2*/*HSP90*

transcripts in Esc7 in 10% ethanol compared to SC5314 in 10% ethanol based on the RNA-Seq

data (**Supplemental Fig. S9**). Regulation of the *UPC2/HSP90* ratio could lead to a greater

proportion of Upc2 being in its active form, thus leading to greater ergosterol production.

Furthermore, another transcriptional regulator of ergosterol gene expression, *ADR1* [79]*, also

had no polymorphisms in any of the Esc strains.

Multiple mechanisms including lipid metabolism alterations, aneuploidy, increased

production of stress responsive genes, and drug efflux pump expression have all been shown to

confer greater ethanol tolerance in *S. cerevisiae* [18,56,80]. We hypothesized that *C. albicans*

utilizes multiple mechanisms to increase ethanol tolerance and improve survival when exposed

to relatively high concentrations of ethanol. Ethanol affects many different pathways in cells

such as protein folding, lipid bilayer integrity, and mitochondrial and nuclear function [71–74,81].

In *C. albicans* specifically, ethanol also affects filamentation and biofilm formation [82].

Therefore, many different pathways are under selection during repeated exposure to ethanol

and roughly 44% of all genes showed statistically significant alterations in gene expression in

the 10% ethanol comparison of Esc7 and SC5314 (**supplemental table S3**). These large

transcriptomic changes in Esc strains in ethanol indicate that many *C. albicans* pathways are

likely impacted during ethanol exposure. The transcription factor deletion strains with altered

ethanol tolerance affected many pathways and processes including biofilm formation, regulation

of filamentation, cell-cell adhesion, and cell wall synthesis.

The Esc strains showed reduced susceptibility to the antifungal drug fluconazole and

voriconazole but not to other antifungals. These observations suggest that at least part of the

overlap of selective pressures between fluconazole and ethanol revolves around ergosterol. If a

stressor impacts a pathway that an antifungal drug also targets, the stressor could theoretically

select for drug resistant or tolerant strains. Even if there is no overlap in the phenotypic response

to a stimulus and an antifungal, if the resistance mechanism involves aneuploidy, cross-resistance

could arise due to increased dosage of genes. Previously this has been shown in *C. albicans* with

pre-exposure to chemotherapeutic drugs leading to decreased caspofungin susceptibility [64].

We show similar but novel findings—*C. albicans* can evolve fluconazole resistance and higher

tolerance after repeated exposure to a naturally occurring molecule, ethanol.

An unusual fluconazole resistance phenotype was observed for Esc6, defined as a

susceptible disk-diffusion phenotype and a strong resistance phenotype observed by broth-

microdilution. There have been well documented discrepancies between broth-microdilution

assays and disk-diffusions [83]. However, discrepancies to the degree that we observed with Esc6

are uncommon. These observations suggest that Esc6 has developed a noncanonical

mechanism of resistance, or that Esc6 shows an environment-dependent mechanism of

resistance. Recently it has been shown that large discrepancies in susceptibility of vulvovaginal

candidiasis (VVC) isolates to fluconazole can be observed in clinical testing laboratories

depending on the pH of testing media. A pH of 4.5, which more accurately represents the pH of

the vagina, is more likely to identify a VVC strain as resistant than pH 7. Testing at pH 4.5 more

accurately explained treatment recalcitrance than susceptibilities obtained from testing at pH 7

[84]. Further studies of Esc6 will be needed to identify the basis for its fluconazole phenotypes.

Esc7 showed genetic alterations previously identified in fluconazole resistant strains

including Chr3 trisomy [59–61] and higher expression of genes in the ergosterol pathway. These

genetic changes have previously been implicated in fluconazole resistance [57–59]. However,

Esc7 did not show large changes to *CDR1*, *CDR2*, or *MDR1* expression in the conditions we

examined. Previously this was thought to be part of the mechanism of fluconazole resistance in

strains with Chr3 trisomies as *CDR1, CDR2,* and *MRR1* reside on Chr3 [59,85].

Aneuploidies found in Esc8 included a monosomy of Chr5, and trisomies of Chr6, Chr7,

and ChrR.   ChrR trisomy has been found in fluconazole tolerant strains and shown to confer

increased fluconazole tolerance [62–64]. Aneuploidies may contribute to the reduced fluconazole

susceptibility of Esc8.

Aneuploidies, while likely part of the resistance and tolerance mechanisms of these

strains, are not the only interesting genomic changes. Esc strains also carry SNPs in genes that

were altered during the acquisition of fluconazole resistance in clinical isolates [69]. Likely, some

of these SNPs confer a fitness advantage for Esc strains during growth in fluconazole.   One of

these polymorphic genes of interest is *C6_04190C* which encodes an uncharacterized orf with a

putative zinc binding domain. *C6_04190C* was polymorphic in all Esc strains as well as the Ford,

et al strains. Perhaps C6_04190C plays a role in zinc uptake or zinc sequestration, which could

affect zinc-binding transcriptional regulators that are involved with fluconazole resistance such as

Mrr1, Mrr2, Tac1, and Upc2 [86–88]. Modifying the pool of biologically available zinc could affect

the activity of these various proteins and have effects on susceptibility to fluconazole.

In summary, we have shown that *C. albicans* can evolve increased ethanol tolerance

following repeated exposure to ethanol. This is likely due to the involvement of many different

pathways. Repeated ethanol exposure selects for Esc strains that have altered transcriptional

responses to ethanol and altered genomic structure. We also showed that increased ergosterol

content leads to enhanced ethanol survival. The mutational landscape of *C. albicans* Esc strains

resembles the landscape of genes mutated in clinical isolates upon acquisition of fluconazole

resistance. This finding highlights the overlap of selective pressures between the two stressors:

fluconazole and ethanol. Consistent with this overlap, we demonstrated that strains repeatedly

exposed to ethanol acquire fluconazole resistance and tolerance without previous exposure to

antifungal drugs.

<u>Materials and Methods</u>

Strains and Culture Conditions

For the repeated ethanol exposure protocol, individual colonies of *C. albicans* strain SC5314 were inoculated into 10 mL of YPD and grown overnight at 30ºC to post exponential phase (16-20 hours). 5 independent cultures were split into paired cultures to be exposed to media with ethanol or water. After overnight growth, cells were washed with PBS, counted on a hemocytometer and 10^6 cells were inoculated from the overnight YPD cultures into 1 mL of medium A (Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1X non-essential amino acids) with ethanol or water in 2 mL screw cap microcentrifuge tubes. The concentrations of ethanol or water were 1% for the first exposure, 2% for the second exposure, 4% for the third exposure, 6% for the fourth exposure, 8% for the fifth exposure, and 10% for exposures six through eight (volume/volume). Cultures were incubated at 37ºC in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere for four hours to mimic physiological conditions. Following ethanol or water exposure, 10 uL of the medium A cultures were seeded into 10 mL YPD for recovery from the ethanol exposure and grown at 30ºC until post-exponential phases were reached (1 day for passages in 6% ethanol or less or 2 days for passages in 8% and 10% ethanol). 100 uL of each population was plated on YPD agar and incubated for 2 days at 30ºC following each medium A exposure to monitor population dynamics and normal sized and small sized colonies were counted by eye. Small colonies were defined as colonies estimated to be 50% or less in size compared to normal sized colonies.

Ethanol small colony (Esc) strains were isolated from different populations of cells at different time points in the repeated ethanol exposure protocol by picking colonies from the YPD agar plates. Populations 1-4 were populations repeatedly exposed to water and 5-8 were populations repeatedly exposed to ethanol. Esc6 was isolated from population 8 in the 6th passage in ethanol (first exposure to 10% ethanol), Esc7 was isolated from population 6 in the 7th passage in ethanol (second exposure to 10% ethanol), and Esc8 was isolated from the 5th population in

the 8th passage in ethanol (third exposure to 10% ethanol). SC5314-UPC2-G648D was obtained

from Dr. Joachim Morschhauser and has the following genotype: *UPC2-G648D::FRT/UPC2-*

G648D::FRT [31].

For the ethanol screen with strains from the Homann collection [17], strains were obtained

in a 96-well format from the Fungal Genetics Stock Center. Strains were then isolated from the

96 well plates and struck for isolation on YPD-agar plates. Individual colonies were isolated for

each strain, and grown for 20 hours to post-exponential phase before use in the screen. The

screen followed the same four-hour ethanol exposure protocol as described above.

Ethanol Exposure to Test for Ethanol Survival

Strains were grown to post-exponential phase in YPD (16-20 hours) and then counted

using a hemocytometer to seed 10^6 cells in one mL of medium A with 10% H2O or 10% ethanol

(vol/vol) using 95% ethanol in 2 mL screw cap tubes. Cultures were incubated for 4 hours in 37ºC

in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere. Before incubation, 100 uL was sampled from the cultures and serially

diluted onto YPD-agar plates for a starting CFU determination. Following 4 hours, cultures were

sampled and diluted serially in 1X phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and plated on YPD agar for

a final CFU determination for the water and ethanol cultures. YPD-agar plates were incubated for

2 days at 30ºC and counted. The final CFU from the ethanol cultures was divided by the final CFU

from the water cultures to determine percentage survival and then calculated as a survival relative

to SC5314 within each separate experiment. For the screen of transcription factor deletion

mutants, these strains were compared to their parent strain, SN152, for a determination of relative

survival.

For the extended incubation, the same conditions were used as above except cultures

were incubated in 37ºC incubators with ambient CO_2 concentrations. Two separate cultures for

each biological replicate were set up for each individual experiment. The first set of cultures was

sampled at 0, 2, 4, and 6 hours and the second set was sampled at 8, 10, 12, and 24 hours.

Survival was calculated relative to starting CFU obtained at timepoint 0 hours.

RNA isolation, RT-qPCR, and RNA-sequencing

Cultures of SC5314 or Esc strains were grown to post-exponential phase and 10^8 cells for

each were seeded into 1 mL cultures of medium A with 10% H_2O or EtOH and incubated for 4

hours at 37ºC with 5% CO_2. Immediately following the incubation, cells were centrifuged at 6000

rpm for 1 min and supernatant was removed. Cells were then resuspended in 1 mL of RNA-later

(Fisher cat. AM7021) and immediately frozen at -80ºC. Cells were thawed on ice and lysed as

previously described by bead-beating [89]. RNA was isolated using the Invitrogen Purelink RNA

mini kit (Thermo Fisher cat: 12183-025) with the on-column DNase treatment (Thermo Fisher cat:

12185-010). RNA was eluted in 40uL of ultrapure H_2O and RNA yield and purity were assessed

on a Nanodrop.

For RT-qPCR, cDNA was synthesized using SSIII reverse transcriptase (Thermo cat:

18080-085) following manufacturer's protocol with approximately 1 ug starting RNA

concentrations. Oligo-dT primers were used for each cDNA synthesis reaction. Eight biological

replicates for each strain and condition were used. cDNA was diluted 1:5 in ultrapure H_2O and 1

uL was used per reaction for RT-qPCR. SYBR green master mix (Fisher cat: 4334973) was used

and qPCR reactions were run on a Roche Lightcycler 480 II using standard two-step reaction

procedures. Controls without cDNA were run for each primer and all primer pairs either did not

yield product, or yielded Cp values that were at least 10 cycles greater than the sample Cp value.

Melting curves were analyzed to ensure only one peak was seen and primer dimerization was not

observed in any of the curves analyzed. Cp values were normalized using *SPL1*, encoding a tRNA

splicing enzyme that showed no significant changes in gene expression in all conditions. The fold

change in gene expression relative to SC5314 in 10% H2O was then calculated and graphed by

$2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ values [90]. Primers are shown in **supplemental table S14**. Primer sequences were either

used from previously published work or were designed using NCBI primer blast. Primer design

used the A allele sequence of the target gene, *C. albicans* strain SC5314 reference genome, PCR

product size of 90-250bp, optimized primer length of 28 nucleotides, primer melting temperatures

of 53-63ºC with 56ºC optimized temperature and a max primer pair difference of 5ºC. Purified

PCR products were sequenced to verify target specificity.

For RNA-seq, three biological replicates of SC5314, Esc6, Esc7, or Esc8 following

exposure to medium A with 10% water or 10% EtOH were sent for sequencing. All samples

sequenced had RNA integrity scores of 9.2 or greater. cDNA libraries were made by Genewiz

and RNA-seq was performed by Genewiz as previously described [70] with the following

alterations: gene expression was considered significant only if adjusted-P-value (calculated by

Benjamini-Hochberg test) was less than 0.05 and $\log_2$-fold change was greater than the absolute

value of 0.5. RNA-sequencing was aligned to *Candida albicans* SC5314 (assembly ASM18296v3)

as the reference genome. Gene ontology of significant hits were assessed using Candida

Genome Database Go term finder as has been previously described [51]

(http://candidagenome.org). For gene expression differences, the three biological replicates from

each condition were averaged and significant differences were compared by relative transcript

abundance differences.

Ergosterol Quantitation

Total cellular ergosterol was quantitated as described previously [27,29,30]. 10^8 cells of

SC5314 or Esc strains were incubated for 4 hours at 37ºC with 5% CO_2 in medium A with 10%

ethanol or 10% H_2O. After the four-hour incubation, cells were pelleted and washed twice in sterile

PBS. Following washing, supernatant was removed, and the wet pellet weight of the cells was

measured. 2 mL of alcoholic 25% potassium hydroxide was added to each tube for saponification

and pellets were resuspended by vortexing for 1 min, transferred to borosilicate glass tubes, and

incubated in an 85ºC water bath for 1 hour. Following the incubation, tubes were allowed to cool

for 10 mins at room temperature and 2 mL of spectroscopy grade n-heptane (Sigma 1043660500)

and 667 uL of sterile deionized water were added to each tube and vortexed for 3 mins. The

organic fraction was removed from the mixture and diluted 1:2 in 100% ethanol (Sigma cat:

E7023-1L). Scanning absorbance values were then taken between 230nm and 290nm on a

Nanodrop spectrophotometer. Calculation of the amount of ergosterol and amount of dehydro-

ergosterol (DHE) normalized to wet pellet weight was performed as described previously

[43,82,83]. In summary, the calculation was **equation 1:** % (ergosterol + DHE) = [(A_{282}/290) x

dilution factor] / pellet weight. **Equation 2:** % DHE = [(A_{230}/518) x dilution factor]/pellet weight. %

ergosterol = **Equation 1 – Equation 2**. The dilution factor is the dilution factor used for diluting

the sterol-containing heptane solution with ethanol, 290 = E for ergosterol at 282 nm, and 518 =

E for DHE at 230 nm [27].

Whole-Genome Sequencing

Genomic DNA from SC5314 and Esc strains was extracted and sent to SeqCenter for

next-generation sequencing. SC5314 and Esc6 yielded consistent colony sizes so these strains

were struck out on YPD-agar and isolated colonies were picked, grown to post-exponential phase

and cells were pelleted. Esc7 and Esc8 have more unstable small colony phenotypes, therefore,

cells were plated on a YPD-agar plate grown for 3 days at 30ºC and small colonies were picked

and added to 100uL of sterile PBS. This was then used to seed 4 new plates and performed three

separate times. The plates with the lowest reversion rates were used for genome preps by

collecting small colonies from these plates and adding them to 5 mL of sterile PBS. These tubes

were then vortexed, and cells were pelleted. Genomes were extracted using bead-beating in

phenol chloroform followed by chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation as described

previously [91]. DNA was purified further by the Qiagen DNeasy kit using manufacturer's protocol.

Whole-genome sequencing was performed by SeqCenter by paired end NGS Illumina

sequencing of 151 bp reads. Quality control and adaptor trimming were performed with bcl-

convert [92], and reads were mapped to SC5314 reference genome using bwa [93]. Genome

coverage from the sequencing runs ranged from 66X to 83X based on total number of reads

across the SC5314 reference genome length. GATK's Markduplicates was used to remove

duplicate reads in the alignment and GATK's Haplotype caller was used to call variants in the

alignment [94]. Variants with a QD < 2, or MQ < 40, or MGRankSum < -12.5, or

ReadPosRankSum < -8, or FS > 60.0, or SOR > 3 were filtered out. Sequence variants were

compiled into an excel document by SeqCenter. Due to the large number of sequence variants

obtained, only homozygous sequence variants of Esc strains compared to the parental SC5314

strain sequence were analyzed in depth. Homozygous sequence variants were determined by

constructing a histogram of allele depth and calculating minima of a trimodal fit curve

(**Supplemental Fig. S6**). Homozygous polymorphisms were classified as variant calls with an

allele depth ratio greater than the high minima value. Heterozygous polymorphisms were

classified as those with allele depth ratios between the two minima values. Polymorphisms with

allele depth ratio lower than the high minima and less than a total read depth of 10 were excluded

from analysis. For the remaining putative homozygous polymorphisms, pre-existing heterozygous

polymorphisms in the B allele were excluded by examining the location of the polymorphism in a

multiple sequence alignment of the A and B alleles of the gene.

Chromosome copy number variations were analyzed using the Yeast Mapping Analysis

Pipeline [57]. Fastq files were uploaded to YMAP and YMAP calculated the average read depth

across the chromosomes mapping to SC5314 as the reference genome. YMAP thus generates

chromosome copy number predictions based on the read depth across the genome. These

predictions were graphed as predicted copy number across chromosomes of the individual strains

relative to a ploidy of 2. Changes in ploidy were shown by thick black bars deviating from the

starting ploidy line at 2.

Disk-Diffusion and Broth-Microdilution Assays

For the disk-diffusion assay, cells were grown to post-exponential phase in liquid YPD

medium and 10^5 cells per plate were spread onto YPD-agar. Then 6mm diameter Whatman #1

filter disks impregnated with 25ug of fluconazole or 1ug of voriconazole were placed in the center

of the YPD agar. These plates were incubated for 48 hours at 30ºC to assess the zone of inhibition

and the fraction of growth within the zone. Images of plates following incubation were taken on a

Syngene gel-doc imager using white light, black background, and identical iris, zoom, and focus

settings for each plate. Representative images of each strain are shown. Eight biological

replicates of each strain were tested in four different experiments for fluconazole or 6 biological

replicates in three different experiments for voriconazole.

For the broth-microdilution assay, cells were grown as stated above and 10^4 cells/well

were used for each strain and experiment. Standard CLSI protocol was used for this experiment.

Cells were diluted in RPMI, 165 mM MOPS, 2% glucose, pH 7.0. Antifungals were serially diluted

2-fold—yielding final concentrations from 64 ug/mL down to 0.125 ug/mL for fluconazole, 2 to

0.015ug/mL for caspofungin or 4 to 0.03ug/mL for amphotericin B. In each row, a no-cell well was

used as a blank and sterility control, and a no-drug control was used to calculate 100% metabolic

activity. Plates were incubated for 24 hours at 35ºC. Growth was determined by visual growth for

amphotericin B and caspofungin or by measurement of metabolic activity for fluconazole. For the

latter measurement, medium was carefully removed from each well and 100 uL of 1 mg/mL of

2,3-bis(2-methoxy-4-nitro-5-sulfophenyl)-5-[(phenylamino)carbonyl]-2H-tetrazolium   hydroxide

(XTT) (Alfa-Aesar) in PBS with 4 uL of menadione per/100 uL was added to each well. The plates

were incubated for one hour at room temperature and then 50 uL of solution from each well was

removed and read at 492 nm to determine metabolic activity of each well. The no-drug well

averaged between the two duplicates was used to calculate the OD492 that indicates a 50%

reduction. The concentration of drug that yielded a reduction in metabolic activity immediately

734 less than 50% of the no-drug well was considered the MIC50. The heat map of the metabolic

735 activity of these wells is shown as the medians of 6 biological replicates for each strain in **Fig. 7**

736 or shown as individual values in **Supplemental Fig. S7**. Heat map was made using GraphPad

737 Prism.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, A.W.D. and C.A.K.; investigation, A.W.D.; writing—original draft preparation,

A.W.D.; writing—review and editing, C.A.K., A.W.D.; funding acquisition, C.A.K. All authors have

read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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Data Availability Statement: Whole-genome sequencing fastq files are available on the NCBI

sequence read archive (project: PRJNA1018434). Gene expression matrices are available on the

Genome Expression Omnibus (GEO project: GSE243757).

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 Supporting Information

Supplemental Figure S1: Quantification of small colony variants throughout passaging of

four separate populations of cells that were exposed repeatedly to increasing

concentrations of ethanol in medium A or repeatedly exposed to water in medium A.

Quantification of small colony variants throughout passage numbers of four separate

populations of cells that were exposed repeatedly to increasing concentrations of ethanol in

media A or repeatedly exposed to water in media A. Green squares were repeatedly exposed to

ethanol and black dots were repeatedly exposed to water. Y-axis shows % small colonies

relative to total number of colonies. Bars represent the mean values of the populations at that

passage number. Small colonies were classified as less than 50% of the size of the normal

sized colonies on a plate by eye.

Supplemental Figure S2: Enc and Wnc survival in 10% ethanol. Enc and Wnc survival in

10% ethanol. Colonies exposed for 4 hours in 10% ethanol or 10% water and plated on YPD-

agar to count final colonies. The percentage of final colonies in 10% ethanol compared to 10%

water were calculated and used to calculate a relative survival compared to SC5314 within each

experiment (y-axis). Normal-sized colonies from ethanol populations (Enc) or water population

(Wnc) were used. One-way ANOVA with Welch's correction was used for statistical testing with

multiple comparisons. Median values with 95% confidence interval are plotted for 8-16 replicate

cultures from 2-4 separate experiments for each strain.

Supplemental Figure S3: Growth curves and doubling times of Esc strains and normal-

sized colony strains in YPD. Isolated colonies were picked and grown for 20 hours to post-

exponential phase and seeded into YPD in 96 well plates at an approximate OD600 of 0.05.

Cells were grown for 48 hours at 30ºC with constant shaking in a Biotek Epoch2 plate reader

with OD600 read every 30 minutes. Three biological replicate cultures from each strain were

used to graph the growth curves. Growth curves show the mean and standard deviation of each

timepoint. The wildtype, background strain: SC5314, a culture from the repeat media-A (with no

ethanol exposure) is shown as RepDMEM-2, and a normal sized colony from a repeat ethanol

exposure population is shown as RepEtOH-8. Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8 are all shown as well.

Timepoints 0-24 hours were used to calculate doubling times by performing a nonlinear

regression in GraphPad Prism with the exponential plateau fit to find the rate constant: k. All R^2

values were above 0.9331. k values were then used to calculate doubling times with the formula

LN(2)/k. These were standardized to the SC5314 doubling times and then plotted in this figure

as standardized doubling times.

Supplemental Figure S4: Principal component analyses for SC5314 vs Esc6, Esc7, or

Esc8 in 10% ethanol from RNA sequencing. Principal component analyses for SC5314 vs

Esc6, Esc7, or Esc8 in 10% ethanol each from RNA sequencing. PC1 variance ranges from

81%-93% and PC2 variance ranges from 4%-9%. SC5314 is shown in red dots in each and Esc

strains are shown in blue. Each dot represents a separate biological replicate culture that was

sequenced.

Supplemental Figure S5: Gene Ontology Terms of the Top 20 Processes of Significantly

Enriched Transcripts in Esc strains exposed to ethanol compared to SC5314 exposed to

ethanol. Gene Ontology Terms of the Top 20 Processes of Significantly Enriched Transcripts in

Esc strains exposed to ethanol compared to SC5314 exposed to ethanol. Transcripts that were

significantly enriched in Esc strains were used to determine GO term process clustering on

Candida Genome Database GO term finder. The top 20 hits from each strain were added to the

graph and shown on y-axis. Esc6 bars are shown in blue, Esc7 bars are shown in black, and

Esc8 bars are shown in orange. X-axis shows the cluster frequency of each of these processes

relative to the total number of genes in the respective sets of enriched transcripts used for the

analysis.

Supplemental Figure S6: Histogram Fit Curve of Esc6 Allele Depth Ratio. Histogram fit

curve of Esc6 allele depth ratio is shown. Esc6 is used as an example of what was done for all

of the strains that were sequenced. Binning was performed by calculating the number of genes

that had allele depth ratios within bins of 0.05. The bin of 0-0.05 was set to an arbitrary number

as this represents homozygous for the reference strain and should not be called in the

sequence variant report. Then a trimodal fit was performed in excel and minima values were

calculated and used for further determination of heterozygous and homozygous polymorphisms.

Supplemental Figure S7: MIC50 values from broth-microdilution experiments of SC5314

and Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8. MIC50 values from broth-microdilution experiments of SC5314 and

Esc6, Esc7, and Esc8. Six separate biological replicate experiments were conducted and

plotted. MIC50 values were determined for each by measuring metabolic activity (XTT) and

determining the well that represented a 50% reduction in metabolic activity. Geometric means

with geometric SD are graphed and ordinary One-way ANOVA was performed for statistical

significance.

Supplemental Figure S8: Voriconazole Disk-Diffusion Images of SC5314 and Esc Strains.

SC5314 and Esc strains (-1 and -2 indicate biological replicate cultures) were grown to post

exponential phase and then seeded onto YPD agar at a concentration of 10^5 cells per plate. A 1

ug disk of voriconazole was placed in the center of the plate. These plates were incubated at

30ºC for 48 hours and then imaged with the same settings and converted to black and white

images.

Supplemental Figure S9: UPC2 to HSP90 Ratio of SC5314 vs Esc7 in different conditions.

UPC2 to HSP90 Ratio of SC5314 vs Esc7 in different conditions. Arbitrary transcript values from

RNA-seq data were used to calculate transcript ratios of UPC2 to HSP90 and were plotted (y-

axis). Ordinary one-way ANOVA used for statistical significance. NS = not significant. * = p-

value of 0.0377.

Supplemental Table S1 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

SC5314 with ethanol vs water medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S2 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc7 with ethanol vs water medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S3 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc7 with ethanol vs SC5314 with ethanol medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S4 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc7 with water vs SC5314 with water medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S5 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc6 with ethanol vs water medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S6 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc8 with ethanol vs water medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S7 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc6 with ethanol vs SC5314 with ethanol medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S8 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc8 with ethanol vs SC5314 with ethanol medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S9 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc6 with water vs SC5314 with water medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S10 Transcripts showing significant changes in abundance between

Esc8 with water vs SC5314 with water medium by RNASeq

Supplemental Table S11 Esc6 Genomic Polymorphisms

Supplemental Table S12 Esc7 Genomic Polymorphisms

Supplemental Table S13 Esc8 Genomic Polymorphisms

Supplemental Table S14: Primers used in this study.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

A

	0 ug/mL	0.25 ug/mL	1 ug/mL	4 ug/mL	16 ug/mL	64 ug/mL
SC5314						
Esc6						
Esc7						
Esc8						

B

SC5314   Esc6

Esc7   Esc8

C

Strain	Caspofungin MIC (median)
SC5314	0.032
Esc6	0.016
Esc7	0.032
Esc8	0.064
	Amphotericin B MIC (mean)
SC5314	0.208
Esc6	0.167
Esc7	0.208
Esc8	0.146