Phenotypic characterization of *HAM1*, a novel mating regulator of the fungal pathogen

***Cryptococcus neoformans*.**

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Abstract: 250 words

Cryptococcus neoformans is a fungal pathogen responsible for >200,000 yearly cases with

a mortality as high as 81%. This burden results, in part, from an incomplete understanding

of its pathogenesis and ineffective antifungal treatments, hence there is a pressing need to

understand the biology and host interactions of this yeast to develop improved treatments.

Characterization of genes of unknown function can provide a better understanding of

cryptococcal biology and open possible avenues for more effective treatments. Protein

palmitoylation is important for cryptococcal virulence, and we previously identified the

substrates of its main palmitoyl transferase. One of these substrates was encoded by the

uncharacterized gene CNAG_02129. This gene has a partially characterized homolog in the

filamentous fungus *Neurospora crassa* named *HAM13,* where it plays a role in proper cellular

communication and filament fusion. In *Cryptococcus*, cellular communication is essential

during mating, therefore we hypothesized that CNAG_02129, which we named *HAM1,* may

play a role in mating. We found that *ham1Δ* mutants produce more progeny during mating,

filament more robustly, and exhibit competitive fitness defects under mating and non-mating

conditions. Consistent with previous reports that have linked changes in mating to altered

virulence capacity, we found several differences with the major virulence factor, the

polysaccharide capsule. We observed that *ham1Δ* mutants have decreased capsule

attachment and transfer but exhibit higher amounts of exopolysaccharide shedding and

biofilm production. Understanding the connection between mating and virulence in *C.*

neoformans may open new avenues of investigation into ways to improve the treatment of

this disease.

Importance: 146 words

Fungal mating is a vital part of the lifecycle of the pathogenic yeast *Cryptococcus*

neoformans. More than just ensuring the propagation of the species, mating allows for

genetic diversity as well as the generation of infectious particles that can invade mammalian

hosts. Despite its importance in the biology of this pathogen, we still do not know all of the

major players regulating the mating process and if they are involved or impact its

pathogenesis. Here we identified a novel negative regulator of mating that also affect certain

characteristics know to be important for virulence. This gene, which we call *HAM1*, is widely

conserved across the cryptococcal family as well as in many pathogenic fungal species. This

study will open new avenues of exploration regarding the function of uncharacterized but

conserved genes in a variety of pathogenic fungal species, and specifically in serotype A of

C. neoformans.

1. Introduction:

There are approximately 6 million fungal species worldwide (Fisher et al., 2020), and although most play beneficial roles in their environments, a few hundred are known to be pathogenic to mammalian hosts (Fisher et al. 2020). A common theme in these fungal infections is the importance of morphological transitions for pathogenesis. *Histoplasma capsulatum* grows naturally as a mold in the environment but under host conditions, it grows as a budding yeast which allows for greater dissemination in the bloodstream (Min et al., 2020). Conversely, *Aspergillus fumigatus* conidia are inhaled into the lungs and germinate into hyphal filaments, which can form mycelial networks that are able to invade into host tissues and due to their large size, are unable to be phagocytosed by host immune cells (Min et al., 2020). In the case of *Cryptococcus neoformans*, one such morphological transition happens prior to host invasion, where sexual and asexual reproduction produces spores which are infectious agents inhaled into the lungs to establish infection.

C. neoformans is an opportunistic basidiomycete pathogenic fungus present worldwide (Srikanta D et al, 2014). Because it is in the environment, desiccated yeasts and spores are frequently inhaled into the lungs, causing an infection that in healthy individuals is controlled and remains asymptomatic until cleared. However, in the immunocompromised, the infection quickly overwhelms the immune system in the lungs, resulting in pneumonia and acute respiratory distress syndrome, with subsequent dissemination to the central nervous system causing lethal meningoencephalitis (Maziarz and Perfect, 2016). *C. neoformans* is a leading cause of death in HIV/AIDS, where there are approximately 152,000 cases each year with 112,000 resulting in death (Rajasingham et al., 2022). This staggering mortality rate stems largely from a lack of effective treatment options as well as an incomplete understanding of cryptococcal pathogenesis. This has prompted the World Health Organization to include *C. neoformans* in their highest critical priority group in its recent Fungal Priority Pathogen List (World Health Organization, 2022).

In a previous study investigating fungal factors necessary for phagocyte recognition and internalization (Santiago-Tirado et al., 2015), we identified a gene homologous to *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*'s Protein Fatty Acyltransferase 4 (*PFA4*). We and others showed that cryptococcal *PFA4* was necessary for complete virulence in a mammalian host (Santiago-Tirado et al., 2015, Nichols et al., 2015). Since palmitoyl acyl transferases (PAT)

like Pfa4 act by modifying substrate proteins, we determined its palmitoylome. Using

comparative mass spectrometry between wild-type (WT) and *pfa4Δ* samples to determine

downstream targets, one of the most highly enriched substrates was encoded by the gene

of unknown function CNAG_02129 (Santiago-Tirado et al., 2015).

CNAG_02129 is part of a conserved family of fungal genes of which only one member, from

the filamentous ascomycete *Neurospora crassa*, has been partially characterized (hyphal

anastomosis protein 13 (HAM-13); Dettmann A et al., 2014)(Fig. 1A). In the absence of HAM-

13, only 33% of the *N. crassa* germlings find each other and fuse. This is in stark contrast to

almost 100% of the WT germlings finding each other, undergoing cellular fusion, and mature

into interconnected hyphae to form a mycelium (Fischer et al., 2019). Thus, the authors

concluded that HAM-13 plays a role on cellular communication. In *C. neoformans*, this type

of cellular communication is essential for mating, which can be either unisexual or bisexual

depending on the surrounding environmental pressures such as nutrient limitation or

pheromone secretion. Members of the *C. neoformans* species complex have two mating

types determined by the MAT locus, MATα and MATa. In a bisexual scenario, MATα and

MATa cells find each other through pheromone signaling, which triggers a cell fusion event

resulting in a morphological transition into filamentous hyphae. The nucleus from each parent

travels up these hyphal structures to the apex where a basidia is formed. Within the basidia,

nuclear fusion occurs followed by meiosis and several rounds of mitosis to produce four

chains of haploid basidiospores. These spores then drop from the basidium and mature into

yeast where the process can be started again. In a unisexual scenario, the same events

occur but only in cells containing the MATα loci (Wickes, 2002, Zhao and Lin 2021). Almost

all of these details, however, are from studies using serotype D *C. neoformans* (now called

C. deneoformans), and considerably less is known about *C. neoformans* strains that are

serotype A (*C. neoformans sensu stricto*).

Several studies have shown an inverse relationship between *C. neoformans's* virulence and

its filamentous mating form (Lin 2009). For example, when *ZNF2,* a master regulator of

filamentation in *C. neoformans*, is constitutively overexpressed, the cells are morphologically

hyphal-locked and unable to cause disease in a mouse model (Wang et al., 2012). These

hyphal-locked cells induced a protective TH-1 pro-inflammatory immune response that not

only resulted in full clearance of the initial infection, but also protection from subsequent

challenges (Zhai et al., 2015). This suggests that mating regulators may also play a larger

role in control of virulence mechanisms, such as impacting anyone of the main cryptococcal

virulence factors, its polysaccharide capsule, growth at human body temperature, and

melanization. These and other factors allow for *C. neoformans* to persist within the harsh

environment of a human host. While each of these virulence mechanisms has been

comprehensively studied, not all the regulators have been uncovered.

In this study, we determined that CNAG_02129, which we refer as *HAM1* (Hyphal

anastomosis protein 1), plays a role in cryptococcal mating by acting as a negative regulator

of mating, and has a connection to proper release of the polysaccharide capsule that may

affect virulence. With our *ham1Δ* strains we observed increased cellular fusion with and

without exogenous pheromone, a hyper hyphal response during bisexual mating scenarios,

and reduced competitive fitness under both mating and non-mating conditions. Interestingly,

these effects were specific for *C. neoformans* (serotype A) and were not obvious in *C.*

deneoformans (serotype D), highlighting the known differences in mating regulation between

the sister species. Consistently, we found trends of differences in MATα pheromone loci

expression over time in unilateral and bilateral crosses. Although we do not observe major

defects in capsule generation and other key virulence mechanisms, we found defects in

capsule attachment, an increase in capsule shedding, less effective capsule transfer, and an

increase in biofilm production. These findings suggest a connection between mating and

proper capsule formation and shedding, which can impact the virulence potential of this

organism, as well as contribute to our understanding of mating regulation in this important

fungal pathogen.

2. Results

2.1 Ham1 is a palmitoylated protein conserved across the fungal kingdom

To confirm the results of our previous large scale Pfa4 palmitoylome studies we investigated

the palmitoylation status of Ham1. Using a *HAM1*-FLAG tagged strain (see Methods) we

performed an immunoprecipitation coupled with click-chemistry to determine if the Ham1

protein was palmitoylated. We confirmed that Ham1 is palmitoylated by the presence of a

fluorescent band only in the palmitate fed fraction of our Ham1-FLAG IP that was at the same

size as the accompanying western blot (Fig 1B, C). Next, we wanted to see if the

palmitoylation modification may be conserved across the protein homologs. Using the

palmitoylation predictor software GPS-Palm (Ning et al., 2020), we determined that all of the
homologs investigated had very high confidence predictions for palmitoylation (Fig 1D).

2.2 *ham1Δ* exhibits altered cellular fusion and progeny with a dry colony morphology.

The goal of mating is to produce viable progeny with traits from both parents, generating
better-adapted cells (Fu et al., 2019). This requires that parental strains find each other, fuse,
undergo recombination, and then produce haploid spores. To test if mating was affected,
deletion strains of *HAM1* were generated in both mating types of the KN99 background (WT)
using different resistance markers (G418 or NAT). We then set up mating crosses between
KN99α x KN99a, KN99a x *ham1Δ*α, and KN99α x *ham1Δ*a, and determine the fusion
efficiency from the number of colonies resistant to both antibiotics. Both *ham1Δ* mutant
crosses yielded significantly higher progeny resistant to both antibiotics when compared to
the WT cross, indicating faster, or more efficient, cellular fusion (Fig. 2A, Supplemental 1B).
To explore the impact that pheromone has on cellular fusion we tested if adding synthetic
exogenous pheromone would increase the rate of cell fusion in our *ham1Δ* mutants (Fig. 2A).
Although addition of exogenous pheromone to the WT cross resulted in an increase in the
number of progeny generated, there was no significant difference in the fusion rate
(Supplemental 2A). In contrast, in our *ham1Δ* crosses we saw slight increases in double-
positive progeny that was dose-dependent, reaching statistical significance at 7.5µM
exogenous pheromone and trending towards significance at 5 and 10µM (Supplemental 2B,
C). This suggests that the *ham1Δ* crosses are more sensitive to exogenous pheromone.
Interestingly, when scoring double-resistant progeny, we observed a difference in the colony
morphology. Rather than the typical glossy, round shape colonies of WT strains, the progeny
from the *ham1Δ* crosses had a dry, irregular morphology (Fig. 2B). When resuspending
single colonies from these crosses and staining them with DAPI and CFW to visualize, we
found that these colonies were comprised of the hyphal form of *Cryptococcus,* as the septal
divisions and a bi-nuclear distribution along septa were evident (Fig. 2B). In contrast, the
colonies from the WT crosses only showed budding yeasts. This drastic increase in the ability
to fuse as well as the dry appearance and hyphal state of *ham1Δ* progeny led us to consider
what other facets of the mating cycle could be altered.

2.3 *ham1Δ* mutants have increased hyphal production in bisexual mating scenarios
on V8 medium.

Hyphal growth is a quantitative trait that can be used to measure how well a strain is able to

mate (Fu et al., 2019). We assessed the ability of our *ham1Δ* crosses to form hyphae in a

time course from 5 days to 4 weeks. We observed faster and more robust filamentation in

our *ham1Δ* crosses across all time points (Fig. 3A, Supplemental 1A). When quantifying the

hyphal area, we observed a significant increase in all unilateral mutant crosses at 5 days and

3 weeks, and a significant increase in the hyphal area of the bilateral crosses across all time

points (Fig 3B). This was confirmed using two other independent *ham1Δ* mutants, including

one from the deletion collection available commercially (www.fgsc.net; Supplemental 1).

2.4 *ham1Δα* strain exhibits a fitness disadvantage in both mating and non-mating

scenarios.

Mating is an energy costly process, and may result in a fitness cost when comparing mating

and non-mating conditions. However, this is crucial for survival in the environment where

mating partners are few and far between and the pressures of predators and other stressors

threaten survival. We tested if our *ham1Δ* would display increased fitness compared to a WT

competitor due to its propensity to form more hyphae and increased cellular fusion events.

To test this, we had two MATα or two MATa strains with opposing resistance cassettes (the

competitors) co-incubated with the opposing mating type with no resistance cassette (the

donor) (Fig. 4A). All three strains were plated under mating (V8) or non-mating (YPD)

conditions for 10 days. At that point, each competitive scenario was scraped, resuspended,

and plated on selective media to determine the colony forming units (CFUs) of each

competitor (Fig. 4A). In the mating permissive condition (V8) we expect both competitors to

stop vegetative budding and forage for mating partners while in the non-mating condition

(YPD) we expect both competitors to simply divide. In the WT cross we observed no

difference in competitive fitness in either YPD or V8 media conditions (Fig. 4B). However, in

our *ham1Δα* competition we saw a dramatic reduction in the competitive fitness of the

ham1Δα in both the V8 and YPD conditions (Fig. 4C). Surprisingly, in our *ham1Δa*

competition we observed a slight competitive advantage in YPD and no competitive

difference in V8 (Fig. 4D).

2.5 Transcriptional analysis of MATα, MATa and *HAM1* over time.

To determine if *HAM1* is involved in the pheromone response MAP kinase pathway we

analyzed the transcriptional activity of the MATα/MATa pheromone loci and *HAM1* under

YPD and V8. This type of analysis is typically done in *C. deneoformans* (serotype D), but
when we deleted *HAM1* in this species, mating was unaffected. Since it is known that there
are differences in mating regulation between the two sister species, we decided to continue
and analyze the transcription of these genes in *C. neoformans* (serotype A). To do this for
the pheromone loci, we compared the gene expression of MATα and MATa in mating
conditions normalized to the expression in non-mating conditions to get the relative fold
induction (Son et al., 2019, Viviani et al., 2001). We performed this in a time course of 1, 3,
5 and 7 days to look at changes in expression over time (Fig. 5 A-C). While we observed no
statistically significant differences in pheromone expression in either MATα or MATa, we saw
that the *ham1Δα* unilateral cross trends towards higher MATα pheromone expression at days
1, 3 and 5 and returns to WT levels at day 7. For *HAM1* we looked at fold induction in non-
mating and mating conditions to see how transcription changed over time. We saw that at
day 1 in non-mating conditions *HAM1* had a much higher expression as compared to mating
conditions (Fig. 5C). However, as the mating cycle progressed, we observed higher
expression of *HAM1* in mating conditions relative to non-mating conditions at days 3 and 5
with a final leveling off in both conditions by day 7 (Fig. 5C). These findings suggest that
HAM1 may be acting as an early mating cycle checkpoint.

2.6 *ham1Δ* has no significant defects in major virulence mechanisms.

So far, all the phenotypes of the *ham1Δ* have been mating related, especially in the MATα
background. We wondered if these would also affect virulence, hence we investigated if there
were defects in the main virulence factors of *C. neoformans*: capsule production, ability to
melanize, thermotolerance (37°C), and recognition by phagocytic cells (Fig. 6). We found no
major differences in any of the major virulence mechanisms (Fig. 6, Supplemental 1). Due to
the surface defects observed in the *pfa4Δ* mutant (Ham1's PAT) we wanted to take a closer
look at the cell wall and the capsule of our *ham1Δ* strains as more nuanced differences could
be present besides capsule induction. Finding no apparent defects under different cell wall
and membrane stressors (Supplemental 3), we took a closer look at the polysaccharide
capsule and investigated differences in its attachment and release.

2.7 *ham1Δα* exhibits defects in capsule attachment and transfer.

First, we looked at capsule attachment. After inducing capsule formation, we subjected WT,
ham1Δα and a known capsule mutant (*pbx1Δ*) to sonication (Fig. 7A). We found that our

ham1Δα mutant lost significantly more capsule than WT cells, suggesting a defective

attachment to the cell wall (Fig. 7B, Supplemental 1). The next avenue we investigated was

capsule transfer. We incubated the acapsular mutant *cap59Δ* with conditioned media from

WT, *ham1Δα*, *pbx1Δ* and *cap59Δ* to see how well the capsular material could attach to the

cell wall of *cap59Δ*. As expected, our *cap59Δ* mutant could not transfer capsule at any dilution

tested due to the lack of capsule. Our *pbx1Δ* mutant also was unable to transfer capsule at

dilutions higher than 1:5 which was unsurprising due to its known capsule defects (Liu et al.,

2007, Kumar et al., 2014). However, our *ham1Δα* also struggled to transfer the capsule at

higher dilutions >1:750, whereas the WT capsule had no problem at these dilutions. This

indicates at least a small defect in either structure or reduced release of capsule (Fig. 7C,

Supplemental 1). Defects indicated by sonication and transfer in our *ham1Δα* prompted us

to look at shedding and biofilm production which could further confirm issues with capsular

release (Denham et al., 2018)

2.8 *ham1Δα* has altered capsule shedding in different medias and higher biofilm

production.

To investigate the possibility of defects with capsule release, we assessed the ability of

ham1Δα to shed capsule in different medias by electrophoresis and immunoblotting (Yoneda

and Doering, 2008, Denham et al., 2018) (Fig. 8A). We observed specific differences in the

shed polymer size in nutrient-rich YPD medium with potential differences in size and amount

in the capsule inducing medium DMEM and the minimal growth medium YNB (Fig. 8A). To

get a more quantitative measurement of amounts sheds, we measured GXM concentration

by ELISA (Denham et al., 2018). In YPD we saw a significant increase in the amount of

capsule shed in our *ham1Δα* (Fig. 8B, Supplemental 1). We saw no significant difference in

the amount of capsule material shed in YNB or DMEM relative to WT, although in both there

was a trend towards higher capsule shedding in our *ham1Δα* (Fig 8. B-D, Supplemental 1).

For all medias, our capsule shedding mutant *pbx1Δ* shed less than WT, as expected, and

our a capsular mutant *cap59Δ* did not shed any capsule. Given the association between

capsule and biofilm formation, we next assessed how well *ham1Δα* could produce a biofilm

using the XTT biofilm assay (Pierce, et al., 2008). We found that our *ham1Δα* produced larger

biofilms than our WT as did *pbx1Δ* whereas no biofilm was produced in the acapsular mutant

cap59Δ (Fig. 8E).

2.9 *ham1Δα* shows no difference in virulence capacity in *G. mellonella.*

Lastly, to investigate whether the role of *HAM1* in mating and proper capsule function translates to virulence defects, we performed infections using the invertebrate model system *Galleria mellonella*. We infected G. *mellonella* with 1×10^5 log phase cells/larvae and, surprisingly, saw no significant difference between WT and independent *ham1Δα* mutants (Fig. 9A, Supplemental 1). On the other hand, the *pbx1Δ* mutant showed attenuated virulence which is consistent with previous studies (Liu et al., 2007). We also assessed fungal burden at time of death, but saw no significant difference in the fungal burden of any of the strains (Fig. 9B, Supplemental 1).

3. Discussion

Mating is a vital part of the lifecycle of *C. neoformans.* It allows for increased genetic diversity among progeny and overall propagation of the species. Despite having a well-defined sexual cycle both in unisexual and bisexual scenarios, not all the important regulators of mating are known, especially in serotype A strains. Our results presented here are consistent with *HAM1* acting as a negative regulator of mating specifically in *C. neoformans*, with additional direct or indirect roles pertaining to the capsule. Moreover, mating has been suggested to impact infection in multiple ways, hence understanding how it is regulated may yield novel and more effective ways to prevent, or treat, this disease.

Given the proposed role of HAM-13 in *N. crassa*, we focused on the ability of cryptococcal *ham1Δ* mutants to fuse and produce recombinant progeny. Throughout our investigations, *ham1Δ* mutants consistently outperformed the WT strain in hyphal formation and production of progeny. This suggests that *HAM1*, like its homolog in *N. crassa*, is somehow connected to the filamentation process in fungal mating and cell-to-cell communication. However, these phenotypes were only present in *C. neoformans* and not in *C. deneoformans*, precluding us from interrogating more in depth the potential signaling pathways affected by *HAM1*. Mating studies in *Cryptococcus* have been mostly done in serotype D strains (*C. deneoformans*) rather than in serotype A, as in this study, because of the natural propensity for mating in *C. deneoformans*. Hence, although surprising, it is not unexpected that *HAM1* deletion yields different phenotypes between the sister species. Additionally, we found the *HAM1* effects were exclusively found in the V8 mating inducing medium as there was no significant increase in the amount of filamentation observed in either Musharige-Skoog (MS) or

Filamentation Agar (Supplemental 4). V8 media is considered the "gold standard" for looking

at mating interactions in *C. neoformans*, while the others are mostly used in *C. deneoformans*

(Sun et al., 2019), potentially explaining why we only see phenotypes in V8. Given that mating

in *C. neoformans* is less well understood, and considering the larger epidemiological impact

of serotype A strains which comprise 95% of clinical isolates and have been associated with

higher virulence potential (Lin, 2008, Barchiesi et al., 2005), we chose to remain in the

serotype A strain for these mating assessments.

The potential role of *HAM1* in filamentation was very apparent in our *ham1Δ* cellular fusion

progeny, which exhibited a dry desiccated form which were in fact aggregates of hyphae.

However, when these dry colonies were re-streaked, they returned to a "normal" colony

morphology. The presence of the filamentous form in the absence of any mating pressure

shows that the progeny of our *ham1Δ* strains have an even stronger drive towards the mating

form but that over time, the signaling to return to a normal yeast state is reestablished. This,

however, could impact the fitness of these strains under non-mating conditions. Thus, we

were surprised to find that our *ham1Δα* has a fitness disadvantage in both mating permissive

and non-mating conditions, whereas our *ham1Δa* performed similarly in mating permissive

and slightly better in non-mating conditions. One of the main differences between cellular

competition and other classical mating assays in *C. neoformans* is that in the latter, opposite

mating type partners are in very close proximity which masks issues with searching for mating

partners. In our *ham1Δα* competitions under mating conditions, *ham1Δα* while good at

making hyphae and producing progeny with a close proximity partner, may lack the ability to

effectively forage for mating partners in nonstatic conditions. The disadvantage in non-mating

conditions may be the result of two possibilities. First, *ham1Δα* has a drive to mate that

outweighs the drive to cellularly divide in the presence of an opposite mating partner. Second,

in *S. cerevisiae* prolonged exposure to mating pheromones results in programmed cell death

(Severin, et al., 2002). This same principle may apply to *C. neoformans* in that the presence

of an opposite mating partner and the generation of MATα pheromone may induce inhibition

of cellular growth or death in *ham1Δα* cells. Surprisingly, in our *ham1Δa* competition, we

observed a slight increase in competitive fitness in non-mating conditions and no difference

in mating conditions. These observations may be the result of the differences in the

morphological changes happening to the different mating types. For example, in *C.*

deneoformans the MATα cell responds to pheromone by forming conjugation tubes while the

MATa cells become enlarged (Wickes, 2002). To the best of our knowledge, these pre-
cellular fusion structures have been observed only in *C. deneoformans* and are defined by
their MAT locus (McClelland et al., 2004, Kwon-Chung et al., 2014, Fu and Heitman, 2017).
If this pre-cellular fusion morphology occurs in *C. neoformans*, it's possible that in the mating
permissive competitive scenario with the *ham1Δ*a strain, the WT MATα mating partner is able
to produce conjugation tubes and effectively seek the MATa mutant partner. This would not
happen with the *ham1Δ*α strain seeking the WT MATa partner, explaining the different
results. This also highlights the possibility that *HAM1* may have a greater effect on MATα
strains relative to MATa ones. This would not be a new concept. A previous study looking at
the global transcriptional repressor *TUP1* found mating-type specific phenotypes (Lee et al.,
2005). Disruption of *TUP1* led to different gene expression profiles in MATα vs MATa despite
having very similar cellular fusion and filamentation phenotypes (Lee et al., 2005). This
finding implies that even amongst lab strains there is heterogeneity with respect to
competitive fitness depending on the MAT locus, and that not all WT strains will behave the
same when in a competitive environment.

We wondered if *HAM1* was acting on the pheromone MAP kinase pathway, but we were
unable to obtain clear results from the qRT-PCR. This was not surprising given that serotype
A strains do not respond to mating signaling uniformly or at the same time, hence the RNA
samples represent a mixture of states where mating cells are a minority. Still, we saw a
consistent trend where *HAM1* was repressed on V8 early on, as expected if acting as a
negative regulator of mating. While mating is predominantly controlled by the pheromone
response pathway, previous studies have shown that calcineurin signaling is essential for
mating, haploid fruiting and spore production (Chow et al., 2017, Cruz et al., 2001). Hence,
we tested a potential involvement of *HAM1* in that pathway by assessing sensitivity to calcium
stress. We found no defects with our *ham1Δ* mutants and concluded that *HAM1* is likely not
involved in calcineurin signaling (Supplemental 3).

One of the hallmarks of mating in *C. neoformans* is the morphological transition from yeast
to hyphae. The hyphal form of *C. neoformans* has been shown to be unable to cause disease
in a mammalian host in part because it induces an immune response shift from a disease
permissive TH-2 to a disease protective TH-1 proinflammatory response. When examining
previously published RNA-seq data, we noted that *HAM1* transcripts were some of the
highest induced in cryptococcosis patients (Yu et al., 2021, Chen et al., 2014). This finding

is intriguing for two reasons. First, it lends support to the idea that to prevent a morphological
transition in this low nutrient environment negative regulators of mating would be highly
expressed. Secondly, it may indicate additional roles for *HAM1* directly related to
maintenance of virulence factors providing further evidence of the link between mating and
virulence. However, our initial survey of the key virulence mechanisms did not show any
obvious defects in *ham1Δ* mutants. Still, we decided to take a closer look at the capsule
since, as a downstream target of Pfa4, it's possible that *ham1Δ* may share defects related to
the cell wall or capsule as exhibited by the *pfa4Δ* mutant. Additionally, since one of the major
phenotypes in the *ham1Δ* relates to filamentation, we wanted to investigate if there was a
possible cross over between the cellular circuits governing morphology and capsule
production and maintenance.

Although capsule induction was similar, *ham1Δ* mutants exhibited a defect in capsule
attachment and shedding. This was similar to phenotypes exhibited by *pbx1Δ* and *pbx2Δ*
strains, both mutants with abnormal capsule structure (Liu et al., 2007, Kumar et al., 2014).
This suggested a level of involvement of *HAM1* in proper capsule formation. While defects
were milder than *pbx1Δ,* capsule attachment and transfer were reduced in the *ham1Δ*.
Capsular shedding, however, was increased in YPD, a capsule non-inducing media, and
trended towards higher shedding in capsule inducing medias. Capsule regulation and
structure during mating conditions is a topic that has received little attention. Is reasonable
to envision changes in capsule accompanying the morphological changes present during
mating. Hence, these capsule defects seen in *ham1Δ* mutants might be a consequence of
the abnormal mating signaling occurring in the absence of *HAM1*. Consistently, normal
capsule production is required for biofilm formation. Biofilm production, while not seen as a
virulence factor for *C. neoformans*, was likely developed as a survival tactic against
environmental predation (Martinez et al., 2015). The *ham1Δα* mutants have altered biofilm
formation, again suggesting defects in capsule attachment and altered capsule structure.
With all the similarities in capsule defects shared between *pbx1Δ* and *ham1Δα*, we next
wanted to assess the virulence capabilities of *ham1Δ*.

Deletion of *pbx1Δ* results in attenuated virulence in a mouse model so we expected to see a
similar defect in our *ham1Δα* (Liu et al., 2007). To our surprise, there were no significant
defects in virulence potential using the *G. mellonella* infection model relative to WT (median
death rate: WT, 4 days; *ham1Δα*, 5 days; and *pbx1Δ*, 6 days). Likewise, there were no

differences in fungal burden, even in the *pbx1Δ*-infected worms. This could be attributed to
the fact that they lived longer, as the burden was assessed at time of death. More detailed
virulence assays will be needed to confirm if there are defects in *ham1Δ* mutants affecting
its pathogenesis.

Taking all of these findings together we propose a model where *HAM1* negatively regulates
the mating cycle of *C. neoformans* (Fig. 10). We envision three possible locations for where
it could be acting: first, it could be interacting with the pheromone response pathway; second,
it could act directly on pheromone activated genes; and third, it could be directly involved in
the yeast to hyphal transition. By acting as a negative regulator of the mating cycle we believe
it prevents mating interactions from occurring during pathogenic conditions. This could be a
potential reason for why *HAM1* is so highly expressed in the CSF of cryptococcosis patients.
CSF is a very nutrient limited environment which may provide the right pressures for cells to
undergo a mating interaction, but that would be detrimental for pathogenesis.

By uncovering a role for *HAM1* in *C. neoformans* biology we have shown another intersection
point between virulence and mating. Both processes are vital to the propagation and survival
of the species and the presence of regulators with roles in multiple pathways reflects just
how important these are. Investigation of mating regulators not only improves our knowledge
of how the system works but also opens new avenues of investigation for therapeutic
interventions. Through a better understanding of fungal mating, we may be able to find more
intersection points between virulence and mating pathways to fully understand how these
two processes are connected. We hope this study serves to raise awareness about the
importance of mating for virulence and stirs more investigations into this phenomenon.

4. Methods:

Strains and growth materials:

All serotype A strains were in the KN99 background. All *ham1Δ* strains and *HAM1*-FLAG
tagged strain were generated using biolistic delivery (see methods below). V8 agar medium
was prepared using original recipe V8 juice, bacteriological grade agar and dH20. V8 medium
was adjusted to the appropriate pH (5 for serotype A, 7 for serotype D) using 1M hydrochloric
acid or sodium hydroxide tablets, respectively. 25mM $CuSO_4$ was added after autoclaving
before pouring plates.

Fungal Genomic Manipulation:

We generated all *ham1Δ* mutants using the split marker method to delete the entire *HAM1* coding region. Fragments were delivered to candidate KN99α and KN99a cultures via biolistic delivery (Bio-Rad PDS-1000). Deletion candidates (from at least two independent transformations) were assessed using PCR as well as mating phenotype analysis to confirm deletions. Two of these independent deletion mutants were tested in all mating assays. To perform immunoprecipitations needed for the click chemistry analyses, a FLAG-tag strain was generated using the 4x FLAG-Tag plasmid to tag the C-terminal end of Ham1. This fragment with overlapping homology to the *HAM1* coding sequence was synthesized by Genewiz and again delivered to candidate cells via biolistic delivery. This *HAM1*-FLAG tagged strain was functional as it was indistinguishable from WT in mating and capsule assays.

In addition to generating deletion mutants via biolistics, we also generated two independent *ham1Δ*a candidates via mating of KN99a with *ham1Δ*α. Strains were grown in 5 mL of YPD for 48 hours, spun down and washed twice in dH20, counted, and normalized to a concentration of 1.5×10^7 cells/mL. Equal cell volumes of each mating pairs were mixed and incubated at RT for an hour. 100-200 uL of this mixture was spotted onto V8 mating plates and incubated in the dark at RT for 7 days. Filaments from each mating interaction were scraped using a sterile toothpick and resuspended in dH20. Spores were plated on YPD with selection agar plates and streaked twice with selection for single colonies. Isolated single colonies were tested for mating type using a mating interaction with known tester strains (JEC20 and JEC21). These *ham1Δ*a mutants behaved similar to the mutants generated by biolistics.

Lastly, because we were unable to generate a complemented strain on the same loci by biolistics, we also tested a commercially available *ham1Δ* deletion which we refer as C07 (the well number on the deletion collection plate). All 3 independent mutants showed the same phenotypes.

Cell preparation and protein extraction of palmitate fed cells:

HAM1-FLAG tagged strains and KN99a strains were grown in 50 mL of YNB medium, pH 7.0. Once an OD of 0.5 was reached, strains were fed with 15uL of 5uM Alkynyl Palmitic Acid

(Click Chemistry Tools #1165) and incubated for 1hr at 30°C with shaking. Cells were

washed twice in cold dH_2O and flash frozen until ready for use. Cells were thawed on ice and

disrupted in lysis buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 0.5% Triton X-100, 150mM NaCl, 13% w/v

glycerol, protease inhibitor tablet, Roche) by bead beating (mini bead beater-16, Biospec

products #607) for 5 cycles 1 minute on 1 minute rest on ice. Cell extracts were spun down

at 13,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4C. Protein concentration of the supernatant was determined

by a detergent compatible Bradford assay (23246, ThermoFisherScientific).

Immunoprecipitation and Click Chemistry:

Based on the methods described in Yount et al., 2011, 1ug of protein lysates from fed and

unfed cell populations were incubated with 100 uL of 50% slurry of anti-FLAG M2 affinity gel

(A2220; Sigma-Aldrich) for 20 minutes on a nutator at 4°C. The protein-bead mixtures were

then loaded onto a gravity column (TALON 2 mL Disposable Gravity Column, Takara

#635606). Lysate was loaded into the column 5 times with gravity flow and then washed in a

1M NaCl buffer 3 times. Beads were then washed twice with 150mM NaCl buffer before

resuspended in Click Chemistry buffer according to the manufacturer's protocol (#1262, Click

Chemistry Tools) apart from the AFDye 680 Azide Plus reporter (Click Chemistry Tools

#1512) which was added at a concentration of 1.25uM. Excess reactants were removed by

spinning down anti-FLAG M2 affinity gel and washing twice in 1x PBS. Beads were then

resuspended in 1x Laemmli Buffer and heated at 70°C for 10 minutes. After SDS-PAGE the

10% polyacrylamide gel was destained in Click Chemistry Destain (40% methanol, 50%

acetic acid, 10% water) overnight and gel visualized on an Odyssey Imaging System (LI-

COR Biosciences).

Cellular Fusion:

Cellular fusion efficiency was assessed using overnight cultures grown in YPD that were

washed twice in dH20. Cultures were normalized to an OD of 0.5 and resuspended in dH20.

Each cross is comprised of cells of opposite mating type and different antibiotic resistance

cassettes to determine the fusion efficiency of each cross. Equal volumes of each strain are

mixed for their respective crosses and spotted in 50uL increments on V8 mating agar. Each

cross is spotted in triplicate and left to dry for 20 minutes. Once all plates were dry, they were

transferred to a mating chamber (DM1, Mycolabs) and left in the dark for 5 days at ambient

room temperature with a relative humidity of 40-50%. After incubation, each cross was

scraped and resuspended in 1 mL of dH20 and normalized via cell count to 1×10^7 cells/mL.

For quantification, 100 uL of undiluted, or 10 and 100-fold dilutions of the 1×10^7 cells/mL

suspension, was plated on both double and single antibiotic YPD resistance plates (NAT and

NEO). Once plates were dry, they were transferred to a 30°C room, incubated for three to

four days, and counted for CFUs.

Hyphal staining:

Single colonies from mutant crosses were scraped and resuspended in dH20. Colonies were

then stained with either 5 ug/mL DAPI or 100 ug/mL Calcofluor White (CFW) and incubated

at 30°C in the dark for 20 minutes. Cells were then washed three times in 1x PBS and

resuspended in 100 uL. Cells were then imaged using a 100x oil immersion objective in a

Zeiss Axio Observer microscope.

Assessment of Bisexual Mating:

Adapted from bisexual mating protocol from Sun et al., 2019. Briefly, strains were grown

overnight in YPD, washed twice in dH20 and normalized to an OD of 1. Cells of opposite

mating type for each cross were mixed in equal amounts in a separate tube and subsequently

spotted in 20 uL amounts onto V8 agar plates. All crosses were spotted in triplicate and left

to dry for 20 minutes. Once all plates were dry, they were transferred to a mating chamber

(DM1, Mycolabs) and left in the dark for up to 4 weeks with a relative humidity of 40-50%.

Cellular Competition Assessment:

Each cross consists of three strains: two of the same mating type but with opposing antibiotic

resistance cassettes (competitor strains), and one of the opposite mating type with no

antibiotic resistance (donor strain). Overnight cultures for each strain were grown in YPD until

log phase. Cultures were then washed twice in dH20, counted, and normalized to a

concentration of 1×10^5 cells/ml. Competitor and recipient strains were mixed in equal

amounts for each cross. 30 uL of each cross was plated in triplicate on V8 and YPD medium

and left to dry for 20 minutes. Once all plates were dry, they were transferred to a mating

chamber and left in the dark for 10 days with a relative humidity of 40-50%. After the 10 days

crosses were scraped and resuspended in dH20. Crosses in YPD were diluted 100,000x and

crosses in V8 were diluted 10,000x. 100 uL of the respective dilutions was plated in single

antibiotic supplemented YPD plates (NAT or G418). Plates were incubated for 2-3 days and

imaged for CFUs counting using a Bio-Rad Gel Doc EZ imager.

RNA isolation from bisexual mating crosses:

Bisexual mating crosses are set up as previously described and allowed to incubate for 1, 3,

5 and 7 days. Cells are then harvested, washed once in dH20, washed with RNA stop

solution and flash frozen and stored at -80°C until ready for extraction. A TRIzol-extraction

(Life Technologies #15596-026) protocol is used followed by an RNA clean up step using the

ZYMO RNA Clean and Concentrator kit (cat # R1019). Up to 1ug of RNA is then converted

into cDNA using the NEB LunaScript® RT Supermix Kit (NEB #E3010) followed by qPCR

using the NEB Luna Universal qPCR Master Mix (NEB #M3003). The $\Delta\Delta_{CT}$ method was used

for quantification of relative transcript level normalized to YPD samples (Livak and

Schmidttgen 2001).

Capsule induction and visualization with India Ink:

Cultures were grown overnight in 5 mL of YPD medium. Cultures were spun down at 3,000

x g for 5 minutes and resuspended in 1 mL of PBS. After cell count, $1x10^7$ cells/ml were

transferred to a new microtube and pelleted. Pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of Dulbelcco's

Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) (Corning; VWR 45000-304). This suspension was diluted

10-fold by adding 500 uL to 4.5 mL of DMEM to a final concentration of $1x10^6$ cells/mL. 1 mL

aliquots of this cell suspension were added into a 24 well culture plate and incubated at 37°C

with 5% CO_2 for 24 hours. After 24-hour incubation, samples were transferred to microtubes

and spun down at 3,000 x g for 5 minutes. Samples were washed in PBS and resuspended

in a final volume of 50 uL. In a separate tube, 10 uL of sample were mix wth India Ink and a

drop of the mixed sample and India ink was pipetted onto a Polylysine-coated slide and

imaged on a Zeiss Axio Observer Microscope.

Capsule Sonication:

Capsule is induced as described above and cells were resuspended in 1 mL of 1x PBS. A

portion of the cells was aliquoted (unsonicated controls) and the rest were subjected to

sonication using a tip sonicator (Branson #SFX250) at 20% power with 0.5 pulse for 20s and

kept on ice. Once all strains had been sonicated, all samples were mixed with India ink as

described above and visualized on a Zeiss Axio Observer Microscope at 100x oil immersion
magnification. The capsule radius was measured using FIJI (Abramhoff et al., 2004).

Capsule Transfer:

Capsule transfer assays were performed as previously described (Kumar et al., 2014).
Capsule donor strains were grown in 5 mL of YPD liquid culture for 5 days prior to the
experiment. On day 4 a *cap59Δ* acceptor culture was grown overnight. Donor cultures were
spun down for 5 minutes at 3,000 x g and the top 1.5 mL was filtered through a 0.22μm filter
(Avantor #76479-024). 1 mL from this filtration step was heated at 70C to create conditioned
media. Acceptor cells were washed twice with 1x PBS and counted on a Bio Rad TC20
automatic cell counter and diluted to final concentration of $5x10^6$ cells/mL in a volume of
400ul. Conditioned media was added in the appropriate dilution to acceptor cells and
incubated for 1hr with gentle rotation. Cells were pelleted at 3000 x g for 5 minutes and
washed twice with 1x PBS. Resuspend cells in a volume of 100 uL and added Cy3
conjugated 3C2 anti GXM antibody to a final concentration of 8ug/ml. Incubated for 1 hour
with gentle rotation. Cells were pelleted at 3000 x g for 5 minutes and washed twice with 1x
PBS. Cells were resuspended in 100 uL and 100 ug/mL concentration of CFW was added
and incubated for 20-30 mins with gentle rotation. Cells were pelleted at 3000 x g for 5
minutes and washed twice with 1x PBS. Cells were resuspended in a final volume of 50 uL
of 1x PBS.

Capsule Shedding via GXM Immunoblotting:

GXM immunoblotting assays were performed as previously described (Yoneda and Doering
2008, Denham et al., 2018). Briefly, cells were inoculated into YPD and allowed to grow for
24 hours. Subsequently dilutions of 1:100 were performed and cells were inoculated into the
desired media of interest with the exception of DMEM where $1x10^6$ cells/mL were added to
5 mL of fresh DMEM. Cells were then incubated in their respective medias for 3 days at 30°C
with shaking at 225 rpm. DMEM cultures were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2 to induce
capsule formation and subsequent shedding. After 3 days, the cultures were quantified on a
cell counter (Bio-Tad TC20), and the whole culture were spun down for 5 minutes at 3000 x
g. The top 1.5 mL was filtered through a 0.22μm filter. 1 mL from this filtration step was
heated at 70°C for 10 minutes to create conditioned media. Subsequent conditioned media
was loaded onto a 0.6% Megabase agarose gel (BioRad #1613108) and run for 8-10 hr at

40V. To normalize the amount of GXM loaded onto the gel, cell counts were taken for each
strain in each media. The amount of GXM loaded was normalized to the lowest cell count in
a total volume of 100 ul. When the dye front was at the bottom of the gel, the electrophoresis
was stopped and the gel used to assemble the immunoblot sandwich. Using a Nylon
membrane, the sandwich was assembled as follows, starting from the bottom: wick, 3 pieces
of thick blotting paper, gel, membrane, 3 pieces of blotting paper, and paper towels (approx.
5 cm in height). The immunoblot sandwich was incubated with a 20x Sodium Citrate buffer
for 10-12 hours or until all the paper towels were saturated. The membrane was blocked for
48 hours in 1× TBS-5% milk and incubated for 1 h in 1×TBST-1% milk with 1 µg/mL of anti-
GXM monoclonal antibodies F12D2 and 1255. The membrane was rinsed three times in 1×
TBST and incubated for 1 h in 1× TBST-1% milk with Odyssey antibody at 1:10,000. The
membrane was rinsed again three times in 1× TBST and imaged on the Odyssey Imaging
System (LI-COR).

Capsule Shedding via ELISA:

GXM ELISA was done as described using a kit by IMMY-Labs (#CRY 101) (Denham et al.,
2018). Conditioned media from cells was obtained as described above for GXM
immunoblots. Conditioned media was diluted by a factor of $1×10^{-4}$ and $1×10^{-6}$ using serial
dilutions due to the sensitivity of the assay. Lyophilized GXM was provided by the Brown Lab
at the University of Utah and diluted to a concentration of 2mg/mL and working stocks were
generated. The highest standard used in the ELISA was 78 ng/ml.

XTT Biofilm Assay:

Assay was performed as previously described (Pierce et al., 2008). Strains were grown
overnight in YPD, cells were then counted (Bio-Rad TC20 automatic cell counter) and diluted
to $1×10^7$ cells/mL in DMEM, and 100uL of all of cell suspension was seeded into wells of a
microtiter plate. Plates were incubated at 37ºC + 5% CO_2 for 48 hr, washed with 1x PBS
using a microtiter plate washer (405LS, Agilent), and 100 µl of XTT/menadione solution
(Sigma) was added to each well. The plates were incubated for 3 hr and 75 µL of the
supernatant was removed and transferred to a new microtiter plate. Plates were read in a
microtiter plate reader at 490 nm.

Uptake Assay:

Uptake assays were performed as previously described (Santiago Tirado et al., 2015). PMA-
differentiated THP-1 cells were incubated with Lucifer Yellow-stained fungal cells that had
been opsonized with 40% Human serum collected from healthy donors (approved by the
Notre Dame Institutional Review Board (IRB) as a non-human subject research procedure).
After incubation for 1 hour at 37°C with 5% CO_2, plates were washed with 1x PBS using a
microplate washer (405LS, Agilent). Cells were then fixed with 4% Formaldehyde and stained
with DAPI (Sigma) and Cell Mask (Invitrogen). NaN_3 in PBS was added to the plates and
imaged on a Zeiss Axio Observer Microscope with an automatic stage. Each well was imaged
using a 3x3 grid set up and resulting images were analyzed using a Cell Profiler pipeline to
determine the Phagocytic Index (PI, # of internal cells per 100 THP-1) values.

Infections with *Galleria mellonella*:

G. mellonella third instar larvae were sorted and weighed as described (Stempinksi et al.,
2022). Larvae weighing 200 mg and above were used in the following infection assay.
Overnight cultures were grown and measured for an OD of 0.5-1. Cells were then washed
twice in 1x PBS and counted using a cell counter. A total inoculum of $1x10^5$ cells/larvae was
used in a total of 5uL. The back larval prolegs were swabbed with 70% Ethanol and 5uL of
culture was injected into the back right proleg using a Hamilton Syringe (Hamilton, #80300).
Syringes were sanitized and cleaned before and after each strain with both 70% Ethanol and
dH_2O. Survival was assessed daily. At time of death, infected *G. mellonella* larvae were
placed in 3 mL of dH_2O in a 15 mL falcon tube. Larvae were then homogenized using a tissue
homogenizer (VWR #10032-336) to break down tissue. Once sufficiently homogenized,
worm slurry was then diluted 10,000 or 20,000x times and plated on YPD plates
supplemented with either Nourseothricin (NAT) and Ampicillin (AMP) or Gentecin (G418) and
Ampicillin (AMP). Plates were left to incubate for 2-3 days and then imaged on the Biorad EZ
Gel Doc imager for CFU quantification.

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Supplemental methods:

Murashige-Skoog and Filamentation agar Preparation:

Murashige-Skoog (MS) media preparation was done as previously described (Sun et al.,
2019). Briefly, 1 foil packet of MS media (Sigma #M5524) was added to 1000 mL of dH_2O
and 16g of Agar (VWR #9002-18-0) after autoclaving 1 mL of 1000x vitamin mix (Sigma
#M7150) was added prior to pouring. Filamentation agar preparation was done as previously
described (Xu et al., 2017). Briefly, YP media was generated (10 g yeast extract, 20 g
peptone, 20 g agar) and added to 900ul of dH_2O and autoclaved. After autoclaving 100mL of
a 20% Glucosamine hydroxamine was added and plates were poured. Bisexual mating
scenarios were generated as previously described for V8 mating.

Phenotyping:

Strains were grown overnight in 5mL of YPD liquid culture diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.2 and left
to grow for 2 doublings. Strains were washed in 1x PBS and counted using a Biorad TC20
automatic cell counter and diluted to final concentration of $1x10^7$ cells/ml. Cells were then
serially diluted by 10-fold to a final concentration of $1x10^3$ cells/ml. 5ul of culture was spotted
onto the following plates: YPD, YNB, YPD with 1M NaCl, 0.5 mg/mL Caffeine, 0.1-0.3%
SDS, 0.35-0.5M $CaCl_2$, 0.5 mg/mL Calcofluor White (CFW) Oxidative (H_2O_2) and Nitrosative
Stress ($NaNO_2$). Plates supplemented with stressors were incubated at 30C for 2-3 days.
Plates that had no stressors were incubated at 30C and 37C to assess temperature defects.
All plates were imaged on the BioRad EZ Gel Doc Imager.

Antifungal assessment via slant plates:

Methods were followed as previously described in Winski et al., 2022. Briefly, for
preparation of FLC gradient plates, 20 mL of RPMI-agar are dispensed with a sterile glass
pipet into petri dishes that are set on an angle such that the agar solution diminishes to
nothing at the raised edge of the plate. The plate is kept inclined until the layer solidifies, at
which point the plate is set on a level surface. At this point antifungals Fluconazole (FLC)
and Amphotericin B (AmpB) are added to the molten RPMI-agar and 20 mL of the agar

media with the FLC or AmpB are dispensed on top of the solidified layer. Once solidified

and dried, 500 cells in 5mL of the indicated strains were spotted across the plate from the

side with no FLC or Amp B to the side of highest FLC concentration.

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828

829 **Figures:**

A

0.20

B

KN99a   Ham1-FLAG

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Western Blot

D

Species Name	Fungi DB Acession Number	Predicted Palmitoyation Sites	Confidence Score
Cryptococcus neoformans H99	CNAG_02129	395 559	0.878 0.775
Cryptococus deneoformans JEC21	CNE_04080	395	0.878
Cryptococcus gatti WM267	CGB_E5350C	395 559	0.878 0.775
Kwoniella bestiolae CBS 1018	I302_06570	391	0.810
Aspergillus fumigatus Af293	Afug12590	41 75	0.741 0.830
Histoplasma capsulatum G217B	I7I48_04263	400	0.809
Paracoccidioides brasiliensis Pb03	PABG_03426	400	0.894
Coccidiodies immitis RS	CIMG_09067	377	0.651
Blastomyces dermatitis ER-3	BDCG_05811	400	0.881
Ustilago maydis 521	UMAG_05325	312 410	0.837 0.819
Neurospora crassa OR74A	NCU06265	38 442	0.682 0.820

Figure 1: **Ham1 is a palmitoylated protein conserved across the fungal kingdom** A)
Phylogenetic tree showing conserved homologs of CNAG_02129 across common fungal
species. The evolutionary history of the sequences was inferred using the Maximum
Likelihood method with MEGAX software (Tamura et al., 2021). The tree with the highest log
likelihood (-10358.64) is shown. 1,000 replicate analyses (bootstraps) were run and the
percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the
branches. B) Immunoprecipitation (IP) pull down of palmitoylated Ham1 using click
chemistry. Cells were either fed or not fed with an analog of palmitate then lysed and
underwent protein extraction. An IP was then performed on fed and unfed fractions coupled
with a Click chemistry experiment highlighting palmitoylated proteins. C) An accompanying
western blot was run on the remaining fraction not used for click chemistry. Ham1-FLAG is
908 aa (~100 KDa) highlighted ladder lanes are 100 and 130 KDa respectively. D) Predicted
palmitoylation scores of homologs found in pathogenic fungal species using GPS-Palm (Ning
et al., 2020) and the partially characterized homolog found in *N. crassa*. Threshold cutoff for
GPS palm was set to low to look at all predicted palmitoylation sites (>0.6484).
846

Figure 2: ***ham1Δ* mutants have higher cellular fusion efficiency and exhibit dry colony**

morphology A) Percent of double antibiotic progeny resulting from bisexual crosses. 2-way

ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of WT fusion to *ham1Δα* and *ham1Δa* in

no pheromone and exogenous pheromone conditions ** p= 0.0012, *** p= 0.0009, ****

p<0.0001 n=3 biological replicates for all crosses and all conditions. B) Representative

images of colony body of all crosses at 2x magnification and 100x magnification of progeny

staining with Calcofluor white (CFW) to highlight septal divisions of hyphal form in mutant

crosses DAPI to show binuclear distribution in mutant crosses. Scale bars represent 50 and

10 microns, respectively.

Figure 3: ***ham1Δ* unilateral and bilateral crosses exhibit increased hyphal production**

on V8 mating medium. A) Representative images of WT and mutant crosses on V8 mating

media. All images taken at 0.63x magnification scale bar represents 1 mm. B) Quantification

of hyphal area for all crosses at all time points. 1-Way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple

comparison test of WT hyphal area compared to all mutant crosses * p=0.0366, ** p=0.0033.

n=3 biological replicates for all timepoints of hyphal area.

Figure 4: **ham1Δα has a reduced competitive fitness when compared to WT.** A) schematic of how cellular competition assay was performed. B) WT competitive fitness presented as a percentage for each cross in either YPD or V8 medium. 1-Way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of KN99α NAT initial with YPD and V8 10-day percentages. C) ham1Δα competitive fitness presented as a percentage for each cross in either YPD or V8 medium. 1-Way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of ham1Δα NAT initial with YPD and V8 10-day percentages **** p<0.0001. D) ham1Δa competitive fitness presented as a percentage for each cross in either YPD or V8 medium. 1-Way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of ham1Δa NAT initial with YPD and V8 10-day percentages * p=0.0238. n=4 biological replicates for all competition assays.

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Figure 5: ***ham1Δ* exhibits similar expression of pheromone genes in mating inducing**
conditions over time. A) Relative transcriptional analysis of MATα (V8 media) conditions
relative to non-mating conditions (YPD media) after incubation for 1, 3, 5, and 7 days on
respective medias. B) Relative transcriptional analysis of MATa in mating (V8
media) conditions relative to non-mating conditions (YPD media) after incubation for 1,3,5
and 7 days on respective medias. C) Quantification of transcript level of *HAM1* in mating and
non-mating conditions after incubation for 1, 3, 5 and 7 days on respective medias. There is
no significant difference between wildtype and mutant expression levels unless otherwise
indicated. n=3 biological replicates for all timepoints and conditions.
894

Figure 6: ***ham1Δ* shows no defects in major virulence mechanisms** A) Representative

images of induced capsule stained with India Ink. Scale bar represents 10um. B)

Measurement of capsule radius after induction, n=25 cells for all strains. C) Melanin induced

on caffeic acid plates *lac1Δ* is a melanin mutant and serves as a negative control. D)

Measurement of uptake by THP-1 phagocytic cells as a function of the number of engulfed

fungi divided by the number of THP-1 cells normalized to the WT condition, *pbx1Δ* is a known

mutant with a higher uptake index and *opt1Δ* is a known low uptake index. A 1-Way ANOVA

test was run on all strains with the MATα background, this includes our positive (*pbx1Δ*) and

negative (*opt1Δ*) controls using a Dunnet's multiple comparison test to KN99α; * p=0.0256,

**** p<0.0001. A Student's t-test using a Gaussian distribution was used to compare

phagocytic indices of KN99a and *ham1Δa* as they are both the MATa background.

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Figure 7: ***ham1Δα* exhibits defects in capsule attachment and transfer.** A)
Representative images of wildtype, *ham1Δα* and *pbx1Δ* capsules stained in India Ink before
and after sonication. Scale bar represents 5um. B) Quantification of the percentage of
capsule retained post sonication. 1-Way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test to
WT ** p=0.0041, **** p<0.0001 n=20 cells for all strains. C) Representative images of capsule
transfer capsule visualized by conjugated 3C2 antibody with Alexa488 fluorescent probe and
cell wall stained with Calcaflour white (CFW) scale bar is 10um.

A

YPD   YNB   DMEM

KN99α ham1Δα pbx1Δ cap59Δ   KN99α ham1Δα pbx1Δ   KN99α KN99a ham1Δα ham1Δa cap59Δ

E

B

YPD ELISA

C

YNB ELISA

D

DMEM ELISA

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Figure 8: ***ham1Δα* exhibits increased exopolysaccharide shedding and biofilm production** A) Representative GXM immunoblot of exopolysaccharide shedding in capsule non inducing medias YPD and YNB. B) Representative GXM immunoblot of exopolysaccharide shedding in capsule inducing media DMEM. C) Quantification of shed exopolysaccharide in YPD via Sandwich ELISA as fold change relative to WT. A 1-Way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of WT to *ham1Δ* and *pbx1Δ*. * p=0.0133, 0.01339 respectively. D) Quantification of shed exopolysaccharide in YPD via Sandwich ELISA as fold change relative to wildtype. A 1-Way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of WT to *ham1Δ* and *pbx1Δ*. ** p=0.0064. E) Quantification of shed exopolysaccharide in DMEM via Sandwich ELISA as fold change relative to wildtype. A One-Way ANOVA with a Fisher's LSD test was run on all samples ** p=0.0069. n=3 biological replicates for all ELISAs.

Figure 9: **ham1Δα is as virulent as WT in *G. mellonella* infections.** A) Kaplan-Meier survival curve of KN99α n=107, *ham1*Δα n=108, *pbx1*Δ n=54, and dH$_2$O. One-Way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test ****p<0.0001 B) Fungal burden assessment of infected worms a 1-Way ANOVA was run with a Dunnet's multiple comparisons test of mutants to WT was run. (KN99α n=17, *ham1*Δα n=15, *pbx1*Δ n=6)

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Figure 10: **Proposed model of *HAM1* involvement in *C. neoformans* biology.** Based on
this study we believe that *HAM1* acts as a negative regulator in the mating cycle of *C.*
neoformans. It may be acting on the pheromone response pathway, on the pheromone and
pheromone response genes directly, or somehow inhibiting hyphal formation directly. During
pathogenic conditions, we believe that *HAM1* is highly expressed to prevent mating from
occurring due to the low nutrient environment of a mammalian host. This figure was created
with BioRender.com.

Supplemental 1: **C07 behaves similarly to *ham1Δ* mutants in key mating and virulence**
assays. The most recent addition to the *C. neoformans* deletion collection contained a
deletion mutant of *HAM1* which was well number C07 (https://www.fgsc.net/). We used the
C07 mutant in a variety of assays where we saw phenotypes present in our *ham1Δ* mutants
to provide external validation of the phenotypes we were seeing. A) C07 produces hyphae
at a similar speed and robustness to our *ham1Δ* mutants. B) C07 produces similar amounts
of double resistant progeny to our *ham1Δ* mutants. A one-way ANOVA was run using multiple
comparisons to the WT cross. ** p=0.0014, ***p=0.0003. n=3 biological replicates for all
conditions C) C07 has similar defects in capsule attachment to *ham1Δ* mutants post
sonication. A one-way ANOVA was run using a Dunnett's multiple comparison test of all
mutant crosses to the WT cross ** p=0.0062 (*ham1Δα*) **, p=0.0040 (C07), ***p=0.0004. n=
20 cells for all conditions D) C07 trends towards shedding more capsule in non-capsule
inducing media YPD. A one-way ANOVA was run with a Dunnett's multiple comparisons of
mutants to WT *p=0.0254. E) C07 trends towards shedding more capsule in non-capsule
inducing media YNB. A one-way ANOVA was run with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test
of mutants to WT. F) C07 trends towards shedding more capsule in capsule inducing media
DMEM. A one-way ANOVA with a Fisher's LSD test was run on all samples * p=0.0321. n=3
biological replicates for all ELISAs G) C07 fails to fully transfer capsule at high dilutions
greater than 1:750. Representative images of capsule transfer capsule visualized by
conjugated 3C2 antibody with Alexa488 fluorescent probe and cell wall stained with
calcofluor white (CFW) scale bar is 10um. H) C07 shows no difference in survival compared
to WT. Kaplan-Meier survival curve of mqH$_2$0=10 KN99α n=30, *ham1Δα* n=30 and C07 n=30
A one-way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of all conditions to WT. No
differences were seen in the mutants but the mqH$_2$0 survived significantly longer
****p<0.0001. I) C07 shows no difference in fungal burden. KN99α n=7, *ham1Δα* n=7, C07
n=11. A one-way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of all conditions to WT
was run and showed no significant difference between mutants and WT.
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Supplemental Figure 2: **Cellular fusion comparisons with or without exogenous**
pheromone addition. A) WT cell fusion without and with 5µM, 7.5µM, and 10µM exogenous
pheromone. A one-way ANOVA with an LSD Fisher's test was run on all conditions, none
were statistically significant. B) *ham1Δα* cell fusion without and with 5µM, 7.5µM, and 10µM
exogenous pheromone. A one-way ANOVA with an LSD Fisher's test was run on all
conditions. *, P = 0.0263. C) *ham1Δa* cell fusion without and with 5µM, 7.5µM, and 10µM
exogenous pheromone. A one-way ANOVA with an LSD Fisher's test was run on all
conditions, none were statistically significant but the 7.55µM condition was approaching
significance, hence P value is shown. n= 3 biological replicates per condition for all cell fusion
assays.
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Supplemental 3: ***ham1Δ* shows no sensitivities to various cell wall and membrane**
stressors as well as antifungal treatments. To rule out any issues with calcineurin
signaling, cell membrane, or cell wall, we tested various conditions in YPD solid agar
medium. A) Growth of indicated strains in the presence of calcium ($CaCl_2$) and sodium
dodecyl sulfate (SDS) at 30°C or 37°C. B) Growth of indicated strains under thermal stress
(YPD at 30 and 37C), osmotic stress (NaCl), nutrient stress (YNB), and cell wall stress
signaling (Caffeine). C) Growth of indicated strains under cell wall stress (calcofluor white,
CFW), oxidative stress (H_2O_2) and oxidative stress ($NaNO_3$). D) Growth of indicated strains
in the presence of common antifungals (Amphotericin B and Fluconazole).

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Supplemental 4: ***ham1Δ* shows no significant differences in filament area in other**
mating specific medias. A-C) Filament area of WT and mutant crosses in Murashige-Skoog
media. One-way ANOVA with a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of mutants to WT. D-F)
Filament area of WT and mutant crosses in Filamentation Agar media. One-way ANOVA with
a Dunnet's multiple comparison test of mutants to WT. No significant differences were
observed.