1 **Glycolysis-dependent Sulfur Metabolism Orchestrates Morphological Plasticity**
2 **and Virulence in Fungi**
3

4 **Authors:**
5 Dhrumi Shah[1,2], Adishree M[1], Nikita Rewatkar[1], Siddhi Gupta[1,2], Sudharsan
6 Mathivathanan[1] and Sriram Varahan[1#]
7

8 **Affiliations:**
9 [1]CSIR-Centre for Cellular and Molecular Biology, Uppal Road, Hyderabad 500007, India.
10
11 [2]Academy of Scientific and Innovative Research (AcSIR), Ghaziabad- 201002, India.
12
13
14 #- Corresponding Author
15
16 Email: sriram@ccmb.res.in

Abstract

Fungi exhibit remarkable morphological plasticity, which allows them to undergo reversible transitions between distinct cellular states in response to changes in their environment. This phenomenon, termed fungal morphogenesis, is critical for fungi to survive and colonize diverse ecological niches and establish infections in a variety of hosts. Despite significant advancements in the field with respect to understanding the gene regulatory networks that control these transitions, the metabolic determinants of fungal morphogenesis remain poorly characterized. In this study, we uncover a previously uncharacterized, conserved dependency between central carbon metabolism and *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids that is critical for fungal morphogenesis, in two key fungal species. Using a multidisciplinary approach, we demonstrate that glycolytic flux is crucial to drive fungal morphogenesis and perturbation of this pathway leads to a significant downregulation in the expression of genes involved in *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids. Remarkably, exogenous supplementation of sulfur-containing amino acids (cysteine/methionine) or inorganic sulfate, robustly rescues the morphogenesis defect induced by the perturbation of glycolysis in both *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Candida albicans*, underscoring the pivotal role of *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acid as a downstream effector of morphogenesis. Furthermore, a *C. albicans* mutant lacking the glycolytic enzyme, phosphofructokinase (Pfk1) exhibited significantly reduced survival within *murine* macrophages and attenuated virulence in a *murine* model of systemic candidiasis. Overall, our research elucidates a previously uncharacterized coupling between glycolysis and sulfur metabolism that is critical for driving fungal morphogenesis, contributing to our understanding of this conserved phenomenon.

Key words: Fungal Morphogenesis, Glycolysis, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Candida albicans,* Virulence

                                          Introduction
84

In response to changes in their environment, fungi exhibit remarkable morphological
plasticity, allowing them to reversibly transition between specialized cell states. This
inherent ability to rapidly adapt to the changes in their environment is essential for their
survival and allows them to colonize diverse ecological niches including various host
organisms [1–3]. This conserved phenomenon, of fungal morphogenesis, encompasses a
plethora of morphological forms including pseudohyphae, hyphae and titan cells to name
a few [1]. Importantly, these morphological transitions in various pathogenic fungal
species significantly influence their interaction with the respective host, impacting their
overall ability to cause persistent infections [4,5]. Fungal morphogenesis is conserved
across a plethora of fungal species and has profound implications with respect to fungal
ecology, anti-fungal resistance and pathogenicity across a spectrum of hosts [6–8].
Consequently, it has been a central focus of intense scientific investigation over the last
several years [1,9]. While significant progress has been made in elucidating the intricate
gene regulatory networks that govern these morphological transitions (e.g., Genetic
networks that orchestrate yeast to pseudohyphal differentiation in *Saccharomyces*
cerevisiae and yeast to hyphal differentiation in *Candida albicans* have been well
characterized [10,11]), a critical knowledge gap persists regarding the underlying
metabolic determinants of fungal morphogenesis. Despite the recognized influence of
nutrient availability on fungal morphogenesis [12–14], our understanding of the specific
metabolic networks and their regulatory influence on morphogenetic switching in fungi
remain incompletely characterized.

In this study, we employed *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and the human fungal pathogen,
Candida albicans to dissect the metabolic underpinnings of fungal morphogenesis, under
nitrogen-limiting conditions, a known trigger for morphogenetic switching in these fungi
[15,16]. Our findings reveal a critical role for central carbon metabolism, particularly
glycolysis, in facilitating the yeast-to-pseudohyphal transition in *S. cerevisiae* and the
yeast-to-hyphal transition in *C. albicans*, both of which have been shown to be crucial for
their survival and the ability of *C. albicans* to successfully infect a host [17,18].
Comparative transcriptomic analysis identified a conserved metabolic network crucial for
these morphogenetic switching events under nitrogen-limiting conditions. Importantly, we
observed that perturbations in glycolytic flux using pharmacological and genetic means,
negatively impact the expression of genes involved in sulfur metabolism. Furthermore, our
functional studies demonstrated that supplementation with sulfur-containing amino acids
(cysteine or methionine) or inorganic sulfate, effectively rescued the morphogenetic
defects resulting from glycolytic impairment, establishing a novel metabolic axis linking
glycolysis and sulfur metabolism in the regulation of fungal morphogenesis. Finally, we
investigated the implications of this glycolysis-dependent sulfur metabolism on the
virulence of *C. albicans*. Our data demonstrates that a *C. albicans* mutant lacking genes
that encode for a crucial glycolytic enzyme, phosphofructokinase, exhibits reduced survival
within macrophages and severely attenuated virulence in an *in vivo murine* model of
systemic candidiasis.

Collectively, our research, for the first time, identifies a previously uncharacterized
metabolic axis linking glycolysis and sulfur metabolism under conditions that induce fungal
morphogenesis and underscores the importance of this metabolic network in regulating
fungal morphogenesis across two key fungal species and the ability of the human fungal
pathogen, *C. albicans* to establish infection in a host. These findings address a fundamental

knowledge gap in the field and contributes significantly to our understanding of a broadly
conserved phenomenon that exists across a plethora of fungal species.

135
136   **Results**
137
138   **Quality and Quantity of Carbon Source Influences Fungal Morphogenesis**
139
Nitrogen limitation is essential for yeast to pseudohyphae transition in *S. cerevisiae*
[15,19]. However, the influence of carbon sources on this phenomenon is not completely
understood. In order to determine whether the quality of carbon source influences fungal
morphogenesis in *S. cerevisiae*, we tested the ability of fermentable carbon sources that
contain glucose, such as sucrose, maltose and trehalose, as well as fermentable carbon
sources that do not contain glucose but are metabolized *via* central carbon metabolic
pathways [20], such as fructose, mannose and galactose, and non-fermentable carbon
sources, such as ethanol, glycerol, acetate, and DL-glyceraldehyde, to induce
pseudohyphal differentiation (Fig 1A and 1B). Nitrogen-limiting medium containing glucose
was used as positive control as it has been shown to induce robust pseudohyphal
differentiation [15,19,21]. Sucrose, maltose and trehalose were able to induce
pseudohyphal differentiation similar to glucose, under nitrogen-limiting conditions (Fig
1A). Interestingly, all the non-glucose containing fermentable carbon sources including
fructose, mannose and galactose were also able to induce pseudohyphal differentiation
similar to glucose (Fig 1A). However, non-fermentable carbon sources including ethanol,
glycerol, acetate, and DL-glyceraldehyde were unable to induce fungal morphogenesis
under nitrogen-limiting conditions (Fig 1B). This demonstrates that the presence of
fermentable carbon sources is critical for inducing fungal morphogenesis in *S. cerevisiae*,
under nitrogen limitation. In order to determine if the presence of fermentable carbon
sources is sufficient to induce pseudohyphal differentiation even in conditions that does
not promote this phenomenon (in the presence of non-fermentable carbon sources),
S. cerevisiae wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on nitrogen-limiting medium containing
glucose and either one of the non-fermentable carbon sources. As shown in Fig 1C,
presence of glucose is sufficient to induce fungal morphogenesis even in conditions that
otherwise do not promote pseudohyphal differentiation. These results demonstrate that
the presence of fermentable carbon sources *i.e*, glucose is required to induce
pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions.

We next asked if the quantity of carbon source influences fungal morphogenesis. To
address this question, *S. cerevisiae* wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on nitrogen-limiting
media (SLA) with varying glucose concentrations ranging from 0.1% to 4%. SLA medium
containing 2% glucose was used as a positive control as this condition induces robust
pseudohyphal differentiation (Fig 1A) and SLA medium containing 2% ethanol was used
as a negative control, since this non-fermentable carbon sources fails to induce
pseudohyphal differentiation (Fig 1B). Our data clearly demonstrates that glucose
concentration positively influences pseudohyphal differentiation since nitrogen-limiting
medium with 0.1% glucose exhibited significantly reduced pseudohyphal differentiation
compared to nitrogen-limiting medium containing 2% glucose and nitrogen-limiting
medium containing 4% glucose exhibited significantly increased pseudohyphal
differentiation compared to nitrogen-limiting medium containing 2% (Fig 1D). We then
isolated cells from these colonies and quantified the percentage of pseudohyphal cells

(cells with a length/width ratio of 2 or more [22]) in these colonies. SLA medium with
0.1% glucose had a significantly lower percentage of pseudohyphal cells compared to SLA
medium with 2% glucose and SLA medium with 4% glucose had a significantly higher
percentage of pseudohyphal cells compared to SLA medium with 2% glucose. As expected,
SLA medium containing 2% ethanol had the least amount of pseudohyphal cells, overall
(Fig 1D). Taken together, our results clearly demonstrate that glucose is a critical driver
of fungal morphogenesis under nitrogen-limiting conditions.

Ability of Cells to Metabolize Glucose *via* Glycolysis is Critical for Fungal
Morphogenesis
189
Our data clearly demonstrates that glucose is necessary for pseudohyphal differentiation
under nitrogen-limiting conditions. Crabtree positive organisms like *S. cerevisiae*
metabolize glucose primarily *via* glycolysis to meet their growth and energy demands (Fig
2A) [23,24]. In order to determine whether the ability of *S. cerevisiae* to metabolize
glucose *via* glycolysis is critical for pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting
conditions, we spotted *S. cerevisiae* wild-type Σ1278b on nitrogen-limiting media
containing 2% glucose (SLAD) with and without sub-inhibitory concentrations of 2-Deoxy-
D-Glucose (2DG) and sodium citrate (NaCi), which are well characterized glycolysis
inhibitors [25,26] and monitored pseudohyphal differentiation. Our data demonstrates
that sub-inhibitory concentrations of 2DG and NaCi significantly attenuated the ability of
S. cerevisiae to undergo pseudohyphal differentiation (Fig 2B). We then isolated cells from
these colonies and quantified the percentage of pseudohyphal cells (cells with a
length/width ratio of 2 or more) in these colonies. Addition of 2DG or NaCi resulted in a
significant reduction in pseudohyphal cells (Fig 2C) without compromising the overall
growth of *S. cerevisiae* wild-type Σ1278b (Fig 2D). Another diploid *S. cerevisiae* strain that
is known to undergo pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions is the
prototrophic CEN.PK strain [27]. In order to determine if our observations in Σ1278b can
be recapitulated in CEN.PK, *S. cerevisiae* wild-type CEN.PK was spotted on SLAD with and
without sub-inhibitory concentrations of 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose (2DG) and sodium citrate
(NaCi). Our data clearly demonstrates that 2DG and NaCi strongly inhibit pseudohyphal
differentiation (Fig 2B and 2C) without compromising the overall growth of *S. cerevisiae*
wild-type CEN.PK as well (Fig 2D).
212
Given that, 2DG and NaCi exhibited a strong inhibitory effect on pseudohyphal
differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions in a strain-independent manner, we
wanted to corroborate these observations by using pertinent genetic knockout strains that
are compromised in performing glycolysis, in the presence of glucose [28,29]. In order to
do this, we generated knockout strains which lack the genes that encode for enzymes that
are involved in the glycolysis pathway including *pfk1* (phosphofructokinase-1) and *adh1*
(alcohol dehydrogenase-1) [30,31] (Fig 2E). Our result demonstrates that the deletion of
pfk1 and *adh1* in both the Σ1278b and CEN.PK backgrounds (*ΔΔpfk1* refers to the *pfk1*
knockout strain and *ΔΔadh1* refers to the *adh1* knockout strain) resulted in a significant
reduction in pseudohyphal differentiation, compared to the corresponding wild-type
strains, under nitrogen-limiting conditions (Fig 2F). We then isolated cells from these
colonies and quantified the percentage of pseudohyphal cells in these colonies. Deletion of
pfk1 and *adh1* resulted in a significant reduction in pseudohyphal cells (Fig 2G)
corroborating our data obtained using the glycolytic inhibitors, 2DG and NaCi. In order to
rule out whether the reduction in pseudohyphal differentiation in these mutants, is due to
a general growth defect, we did spot dilution assays wherein serial dilutions of the wild-

type strains and pertinent knockout strains were spotted on SLAD (Fig 2H). Our data suggests that the reduction in pseudohyphal differentiation is not due to general growth defects as the mutants were able to grow similar to the wild-type strains in SLAD (Fig 2H). Taken together, our results clearly demonstrate that the ability of *S. cerevisiae* to efficiently metabolize glucose *via* glycolysis is critical for pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions.

Comparative Transcriptomics Identifies Glycolysis-dependent Regulation of Sulfur Metabolism During Fungal Morphogenesis

Our previous data showed that the perturbation of glycolysis using specific inhibitors including 2DG/NaCi or deletion of genes that encode for glycolytic enzymes including *pfk1/adh1* resulted in a significant reduction in pseudohyphal differentiation, under nitrogen-limiting conditions (Fig 2). Given that, glycolysis strongly influences the global transcriptional landscape of *S. cerevisiae* [32,33], we undertook a comprehensive transcriptomic approach to identify the changes in the transcriptional landscape of *S. cerevisiae* colonies, in conditions that perturb glycolysis, resulting in the inhibition of pseudohyphal differentiation. We performed comparative RNA-Seq analysis using RNA isolated from wild-type cells spotted on SLAD in the presence and absence of the glycolysis inhibitor, 2DG (2DG addition was used to perturb glycolysis in our transcriptomics experiments, as it exerted the strongest inhibitory effect on pseudohyphal differentiation as shown in Fig 2B and 2C). The experimental schematic is depicted in Fig 3A. Briefly, comparative RNA-Seq analysis was done using wild-type colonies grown on SLAD in the presence and absence of 2DG isolated on day 5 (D-5) and day 10 (D-10), respectively (Fig 3A). We have used D-5 as an early time point for our experiments, as we have consistently observed the emergence of pseudohyphae in colonies spotted on SLAD at this time-point and D-10 as a late time point wherein colonies exhibit robust pseudohyphal differentiation (S1A Fig). A volcano plot of differential gene expression in 2DG treated cells compared to untreated cells in both D-5 and D-10 is shown in Fig 3B wherein some of the significantly upregulated and downregulated genes are highlighted with blue colour. Previous studies in the field have shown that, under nitrogen-limiting/glucose-replete conditions, glycolytic intermediates provide various precursors needed for the biosynthesis of several amino acids in order to maintain amino acid homeostasis [34,35] and perturbation of glycolysis under these conditions results in the increased transcription of various genes involved in amino acid biosynthesis, as a feedback response (S1B Fig). As expected, the expression of many of the genes involved in amino acid biosynthesis and transport were significantly upregulated in 2DG treated cells compared to untreated cells, in both D-5 and D-10 respectively (S1C Fig) corroborating the observations from the previously mentioned studies [35,36]. Interestingly and rather unexpectedly, the expression of multiple genes specifically involved in the biosynthesis and transport of sulfur-containing amino acids, cysteine and methionine were significantly downregulated in 2DG treated cells compared to untreated cells in both D-5 and D-10 respectively (Fig 3C).

Our RNA-Seq analysis clearly demonstrates that multiple genes involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids, are significantly downregulated in the presence of 2DG, under nitrogen-limiting conditions. In order to determine whether these observed trends are reflected at the protein level, we generated strains wherein various proteins involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids including Met4p (Leucine-zipper transcriptional activator), Met32p (Zinc-finger DNA-binding transcription factor), Met16p (3'-phosphoadenylsulfate reductase), Met10p (Subunit alpha

of assimilatory sulfite reductase)*,* Cys4p (Cystathionine beta-synthase) and Cys3p (Cystathionine gamma-lyase) were epitope-tagged (Fig 3D). These strains were spotted on SLAD in the presence and absence of 2DG following which, cells from colonies were isolated on D-5 and levels of these proteins were assessed by using western blotting (Fig 3E). Our results indicate that the levels of Met4p, Met32p, Met16p, Met10p, Cys4p and Cys3p were significantly reduced in the 2DG treated cells compared to untreated cells, corroborating our transcriptome data (Fig 3E & S2A Fig). This clearly demonstrates that perturbation of glycolysis negatively influences the expression of sulfur metabolism proteins, under nitrogen-limiting conditions. We next asked, if the glycolysis-dependent regulation of sulfur metabolism under nitrogen-limiting conditions (SLAD) is restricted to conditions wherein cells physically attach to solid surfaces (colony growth) or whether it is conserved even in conditions where cells are free-floating (liquid-culture growth). In order to do this, pertinent epitope-tagged strains (wherein Met32p, Met16p, Met10p and Cys3p were HA-tagged) were grown in liquid SLAD in the presence and absence of 2DG for 24 hours after which the expression of the aforesaid proteins were assessed using western blotting (S2B and S2C Fig). Importantly, our results indicate that the levels of Met32p, Met16p, Met10p and Cys3p were significantly reduced in the 2DG treated cells compared to untreated cells (S2B and S2C Fig). Taken together, our data clearly demonstrates that the perturbation of glycolysis under nitrogen-limiting conditions negatively influences sulfur metabolism.

Exogenous Supplementation of Sulfur Sources Rescues Fungal Morphogenesis Defects Caused by the Perturbation of Glycolysis

Our comparative transcriptomics data clearly demonstrates that, under nitrogen-limiting conditions, glycolysis plays a critical role in regulating the expression of genes involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids (Fig 3). Based on our previous data, we hypothesized that under nitrogen-limiting conditions, active glycolysis enables *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids which in turn, is critical for pseudohyphal differentiation and perturbation of active glycolysis using inhibitors like 2DG or disruption of genes involved in glycolysis including *pfk1* or *adh1* negatively affects glycolysis-mediated regulation of sulfur metabolism leading to attenuation of pseudohyphal differentiation (Fig 4A). If the proposed hypothesis holds true, the exogenous supplementation of sulfur-containing compounds should mitigate the fungal morphogenetic defects resulting from the perturbation of glycolysis. In order to test this, we performed sulfur add-back assays wherein *S. cerevisiae* wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on SLAD containing sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG in the presence and absence of either sulfur-containing amino acids (cysteine or methionine) or an inorganic sulfur source like sodium sulfate which is metabolized *via* the sulfur assimilation pathway to synthesize cysteine and methionine (Fig 3D). Remarkably, the exogenous addition of cysteine resulted in a significant rescue of the pseudohyphal differentiation defect observed in nitrogen-limiting medium containing 2DG (Fig 4B). Corroborating this observation, the percentage of pseudohyphal cells in colonies isolated from SLAD containing 2DG and cysteine were significantly higher than the percentage of pseudohyphal cells in colonies isolated from SLAD containing 2DG alone (Fig 4C), Interestingly, the addition of methionine or sodium sulfate failed to rescue the pseudohyphal differentiation defects caused by the perturbation of glycolysis (Fig 4B and 4C).

We next asked if the exogenous addition of sulfur sources rescues the pseudohyphal differentiation defect exhibited by glycolysis defective strains, *ΔΔpfk1* and *ΔΔadh1*. In

order to do this, we performed similar sulfur add-back assays wherein *S. cerevisiae* wild-type Σ1278b along with *ΔΔpfk1* and *ΔΔadh1* strains were spotted on SLAD in the presence and absence of either sulfur-containing amino acids (cysteine or methionine) or sodium sulfate. Remarkably, the exogenous addition of either of these sulfur sources (cysteine or methionine or sodium sulfate) was able to completely rescue the pseudohyphal differentiation defect exhibited by the *ΔΔpfk1* and *ΔΔadh1* strains (Fig 4D). Corroborating this observation, the percentage of pseudohyphal cells in *ΔΔpfk1* and *ΔΔadh1* colonies isolated from SLAD containing cysteine or methionine or sodium sulfate were significantly higher than the percentage of pseudohyphal cells in *ΔΔpfk1* and *ΔΔadh1* colonies isolated from SLAD alone (Fig 4E). Taken together, our results clearly demonstrate that the glycolysis-mediated regulation of sulfur metabolism is critical for pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions.

Sulfur Metabolism is Critical for Fungal Morphogenesis Under Nitrogen-limiting Conditions

Our previous observations strongly suggest a direct role for sulfur metabolism in regulating fungal morphogenesis, under nitrogen-limiting conditions. In order to determine whether glycolysis-dependent sulfur metabolism is critical for pseudohyphal differentiation, under nitrogen-limiting conditions, we generated pertinent knockout strains wherein various genes that are involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids were deleted *via* homologous recombination and we tested the ability of these deletion strains to undergo pseudohyphal differentiation, under nitrogen-limiting conditions. Briefly, we generated strains which lack genes involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids including *met32* (Zinc-finger DNA-binding transcription factor), *met3* (ATP sulfurylase), *met16* (3'-phosphoadenylsulfate reductase), *met5* (Sulfite reductase beta subunit), *met10* (Subunit alpha of assimilatory sulfite reductase), *met17* (O-acetyl homoserine-O-acetyl serine sulfhydrylase), *met2* (L-homoserine-O-acetyltransferase) and *met13* (Major isozyme of methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase) (Fig 3D). Deletion of *met32* and *met3* resulted in a significant reduction in pseudohyphal differentiation. Corroborating this observation, the percentage of pseudohyphal cells in *ΔΔmet32* and *ΔΔmet3* colonies were significantly lower in SLAD, compared to *S. cerevisiae* wild-type Σ1278b colonies (Fig 4F). This suggests that perturbations to sulfur metabolism negatively affects pseudohyphal differentiation. We next tested the ability of *ΔΔmet16, ΔΔmet5, ΔΔmet10, ΔΔmet17, ΔΔmet2* and *ΔΔmet13* strains to undergo pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions. All the strains exhibited substantial defects in their ability to undergo pseudohyphal differentiation and the percentage of pseudohyphal cells were significantly lower in the colonies of all these strains compared to *S. cerevisiae* wild-type Σ1278b colonies (Fig 4G). Notably, *ΔΔmet5, ΔΔmet10, ΔΔmet17, ΔΔmet2* and *ΔΔmet13* strains also exhibited a growth defect in SLAD consistent with what has been reported in the literature [37].

Given that the aforesaid deletion strains are compromised in their ability to synthesize sulfur-containing amino acids [38,39], we wanted to confirm whether the pseudohyphal differentiation defects exhibited by these strains are solely due to this. In order to do this, we performed a simple sulfur add-back assay, wherein *ΔΔmet32*, *ΔΔmet3*, *ΔΔmet16*, *ΔΔmet5*, *ΔΔmet10*, *ΔΔmet17*, *ΔΔmet2* and *ΔΔmet13* strains were spotted on SLAD containing either cysteine, methionine or inorganic sulfur source like sodium sulfate and allowed to undergo pseudohyphal differentiation. Our results show that the addition of cysteine, methionine or sodium sulfate completely rescued the pseudohyphal

differentiation defect exhibited by *ΔΔmet32* strain. The percentage of pseudohyphal cells
were also significantly higher in *ΔΔmet32* colonies growing on SLAD containing cysteine,
methionine or sodium sulfate compared to just SLAD (Fig 4H). Expectedly, only cysteine
and methionine add-back resulted in the complete rescue of pseudohyphal differentiation
defect exhibited by *ΔΔmet3*, *ΔΔmet16*, *ΔΔmet5*, *ΔΔmet10* and *ΔΔmet17* strains and the
percentage of pseudohyphal cells were also significantly higher in *ΔΔmet3*, *ΔΔmet16*,
ΔΔmet5, *ΔΔmet10* and *ΔΔmet17* colonies growing on SLAD containing cysteine and
methionine compared to just SLAD alone. Sodium sulfate was unable to rescue the
pseudohyphal differentiation defect exhibited by these strains, as Met3p, Met16p, Met5p,
Met10p and Met17p are known to be sequentially involved in the incorporation of inorganic
sulfur into the biosynthesis of cysteine and methionine (Met3p catalyses the activation of
inorganic sulfate in an ATP-dependent reaction and forms the products, adenosine-5'-
phosphosulfate (APS) and pyrophosphate (PPi). Met16p reduces 3'-phosphoadenylyl
sulfate to adenosine-3',5'-bisphosphate and releases free sulfite. Met5p and Met10p are
part of sulfite reductase complex which converts sulfite into sulfate and Met17p catalyses
the reaction between O-acetyl-L-homoserine with a thiol to produce homocysteine [37])
(Fig 4H). Finally, only methionine add-back resulted in the complete rescue of
pseudohyphal differentiation defect exhibited by *ΔΔmet2* and *ΔΔmet13* including a
significant increase in the percentage of pseudohyphal cells (Fig 4H), as Met2p (encodes
for homoserine O-acetyltransferase) and Met13p (encodes for methylenetetrahydrofolate
reductase) have been shown to be essential for the synthesis of methionine from cysteine
and inorganic sulfur sources [40,41]. Taken together, our data clearly demonstrates that
the efficient *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids including cysteine and
methionine is critical for pseudohyphal differentiation, under nitrogen-limiting conditions.
403
404 **Glycolysis-dependent Sulfur Metabolism is Critical for Fungal Morphogenesis in**
405 ***Candida albicans***
406
C. albicans is an opportunistic fungal pathogen that exhibits a remarkable degree of fungal
morphogenesis in response to various environmental cues [42]. Yeast to hyphal
differentiation in *C. albicans* is well studied. However, we do not have a complete
understanding of fundamental metabolic drivers that orchestrate this phenomenon. Given
that central carbon metabolic pathways including glycolysis are well conserved across a
plethora of fungal species including *C. albicans* [43] and nitrogen limitation is one of the
key triggers for yeast to hyphal differentiation in *C. albicans* [16], we wanted to determine
if glycolysis-mediated sulfur metabolism plays an important role in this morphogenetic
switching in *C. albicans* as well. First, we wanted to determine if glycolysis is essential for
regulating fungal morphogenesis in *C. albicans*, under nitrogen-limiting conditions. In
order to do this, *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 was spotted on nitrogen-limiting medium
(SLA) containing either glucose or non-fermentable carbon sources including ethanol or
glycerol, and allowed to grow for 7 days at 37 °C. Cells were isolated from these colonies
and imaged using bright-field microscopy. Our data clearly shows that in the presence of
glucose, *C. albicans* exhibits robust hyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting
conditions while hyphal differentiation was significantly reduced in SLA containing non-
fermentable carbon sources including ethanol and glycerol (Fig 5A). We then isolated cells
from these colonies and quantified the percentage of hyphal cells (cells with a length/width
ratio of 4.5 or more [44]) in these colonies. Corroborating our microscopy data, the
percentage of hyphal cells in nitrogen-limiting medium containing ethanol or glycerol was
significantly lower compared to the percentage of hyphal cells in nitrogen-limiting medium
containing glucose (Fig 5A). This data suggests that the presence of glucose is critical for

fungal morphogenesis in *C. albicans*. We next wanted to understand whether the ability of
C. *albicans* cells to metabolize glucose, under nitrogen-limiting conditions is critical for
fungal morphogenesis. In order to do this, *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 was spotted on
SLAD, in the presence and absence of sub-inhibitory concentration of glycolysis inhibitor,
2DG, allowed to grow for 7 days, and cells were isolated and imaged using bright-field
microscopy. Our data clearly demonstrates that sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG
significantly reduced filamentation in *C. albicans* (Fig 5B). We then isolated cells from
these colonies and quantified the percentage of hyphal cells in these colonies.
Corroborating our microscopy data, the percentage of hyphal cells in colonies spotted on
SLAD containing 2DG was significantly lower compared to the percentage of hyphal cells
in colonies spotted on SLAD without 2DG (Fig 5B). Taken together, our results show that
the ability of *C. albicans* to metabolize glucose is critical for fungal morphogenesis.

Given that the perturbation of glycolysis under nitrogen-limiting conditions, using 2DG
exhibited a strong inhibitory effect on hyphal differentiation in *C. albicans* (Fig 5B)*,* similar
to what we observed in *S. cerevisiae*, we wanted to determine if the expression of genes
involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids are affected when
glycolysis is perturbed in *C. albicans*, under nitrogen-limiting conditions (similar to what
we observed in *S. cerevisiae*) [45]. In order to determine this, we spotted *C. albicans*
wild-type SC5314 on SLAD, in the presence and absence of 2DG and cells from colonies
were isolated after ~4 days (time point at which, we start to see robust hyphal
differentiation in *C. albicans* (S3A Fig)) for RNA isolation. We then performed comparative
RT-qPCR to check for the relative expression of genes involved in *de novo* biosynthesis of
sulfur-containing amino acids including *met32* (DNA-binding transcription factor), *met3*
(ATP sulfurylase), *met14* (Adenylylsulfate kinase), *met16* (3'-phosphoadenylsulfate
reductase), *met5* (*ecm17*) (Sulfite reductase beta subunit), *met10* (Sulfite reductase),
met17 (*met15*) (O-acetyl homoserine-O-acetyl serine sulfhydrylase) and *cys3*
(Cystathionine gamma-lyase) [45–47], in cells isolated from colonies grown on SLAD
containing 2DG compared to cells isolated from colonies grown on SLAD without 2DG (Fig
5C). Our data clearly shows that all the aforesaid genes involved in *de novo* biosynthesis
of sulfur-containing amino acids pathway including *met32*, *met3*, *met14*, *met16*, *met5*,
met10, *met17* and *cys3* were significantly downregulated in the presence of 2DG (Fig 5D)
suggesting that perturbation of glycolysis negatively impacts sulfur metabolism in *C.*
albicans, under nitrogen-limiting conditions.

To determine if the significant reduction in hyphal differentiation that we observed in the
presence of 2DG can be attributed to the reduced expression of genes involved in the
de novo biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids, we performed sulfur add-back
assays similar to what was done in *S. cerevisiae* (Fig 4B), wherein *C. albicans* wild-type
SC5314 was spotted on SLAD containing 2DG in the presence and absence of cysteine and
methionine (Fig 5E), allowed to grow for 7 days, and cells were isolated and imaged using
bright-field microscopy. Remarkably, the presence of cysteine and methionine significantly
rescued hyphal differentiation defects in the presence of 2DG (Fig 5F and 5G). We then
isolated cells from these colonies and quantified the percentage of hyphal cells.
Corroborating our microscopy data, the percentage of hyphal cells in colonies spotted on
SLAD containing 2DG with cysteine or methionine were significantly higher compared to
the percentage of hyphal cells in colonies spotted on SLAD with 2DG alone (Fig 5F and
5G). Overall, our data suggests that glycolysis-mediated regulation of sulfur metabolism
is critical for hyphal differentiation of *C. albicans*, under nitrogen-limiting conditions

highlighting the remarkable similarities with respect to the regulation of fungal morphogenesis, between *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans*.

Perturbation of Glycolysis Leads to Attenuated Fungal Virulence

Our previous results clearly demonstrate that glycolysis and glycolysis-dependent sulfur metabolism is critical for fungal morphogenesis of *C. albicans*, under nitrogen-limiting conditions. In order to corroborate these observations by using pertinent genetic knockout strains that are compromised in performing glycolysis, we generated a double knockout strain lacking the gene that encodes for the glycolytic enzyme, phosphofructokinase (Pfk1) using the SAT-Flipper method [48]. We then tested the ability of this deletion strain to undergo hyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions. Briefly, *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 and *ΔΔpfk1* were spotted on SLAD, allowed to grow for 7 days, and cells were isolated and imaged using bright-field microscopy. Our result shows that the *ΔΔpfk1* strain exhibits a significant reduction in hyphal differentiation compared to *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314, under nitrogen-limiting conditions (Fig 6A). We then isolated cells from these colonies and quantified the percentage of hyphal cells in these colonies. Corroborating our microscopy data, the percentage of hyphal cells in *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 colonies spotted on SLAD were significantly higher compared to the percentage of hyphal cells in *ΔΔpfk1* colonies (Fig 6A). Our previous results showed that the perturbation of glycolysis in *C. albicans*, under nitrogen-limiting conditions, negatively influences sulfur metabolism and this in turn might be causal for the reduced hyphal differentiation observed in these conditions since the add-back of sulfur-containing amino acids completely reverses this phenotype (Fig 5F and 5G). Given this, we wanted to determine if the hyphal differentiation defect exhibited by *ΔΔpfk1* can be rescued by the addition of sulfur-containing amino acids. In order to do this, we performed sulfur add-back assays wherein *ΔΔpfk1* strain was spotted on SLAD in the presence and absence of cysteine and methionine and allowed to grow for 7 days at 37 °C and imaged using bright field microscopy. Interestingly, our data shows that only cysteine was able rescue the hyphal differentiation defect exhibited by the *ΔΔpfk1* strain (Fig 6B). We then isolated cells from these colonies and quantified the percentage of hyphal cells. Corroborating our microscopy data, the percentage of hyphal cells in *ΔΔpfk1* colonies spotted on SLAD containing cysteine were significantly higher compared to the percentage of hyphal cells in *ΔΔpfk1* colonies spotted on SLAD alone (Fig 6B). Taken together, our results demonstrate that the genetic perturbation of glycolysis *via* the deletion of the *pfk1* gene significantly attenuates fungal morphogenesis under nitrogen-limiting condition and this can be fully rescued by the addition of sulfur-containing amino acid, cysteine, reiterating the importance of glycolysis-mediated regulation of sulfur metabolism in orchestrating fungal morphogenesis in *C. albicans*.

Several studies have established the importance of fungal morphogenesis as a key virulence strategy used by *C. albicans* to establish successful infections in the host [49–51]. Given that *ΔΔpfk1*, displayed a significant attenuation in its ability to undergo hyphal differentiation, we wanted to determine if this deletion strain was compromised in its ability to infect the host. In order to do this, we took a two-pronged approach wherein, we first tested the ability of the *ΔΔpfk1* strain to survive the harsh intracellular environment of the macrophages which *C. albicans* encounters during various stages of host infection [52–54]. We performed an *ex vivo* microbial survival assay wherein *RAW 264.7* macrophages were incubated either with *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 or the *ΔΔpfk1* strain for one hour following which macrophages were lysed and fungi were serially diluted and plated to

determine the viable population of the *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 and the *ΔΔpfk1* strain (Fig 6C). We also calculated the percentage of the wild-type or mutant strain that survived the incubation with the macrophages. Our results demonstrate that the viable population of *ΔΔpfk1* strain was significantly lower compared to the wild-type strain, after incubation with the macrophages (Fig 6C). Similarly, the percentage survival of the *ΔΔpfk1* strain was significantly lower than the wild-type strain as well (Fig 6C). Overall, this data indicates that the *ΔΔpfk1* strain is compromised with respect to macrophage survival.

Given that the *ΔΔpfk1* strain was significantly attenuated in the macrophage survival assay, we next wanted to test the ability of this deletion strain to establish systemic infection in a host. In order to do this, we challenged healthy wild-type C57BL/6 mice intravenously with a dose of 10^7 CFU/ml (lethal dose [55]) of *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 or *ΔΔpfk1* strain *via* lateral tail vein injection. This is an established *murine* model of systemic candidiasis in the field and faithfully mimics the infection that occurs in humans [56]. We then monitored survival of the infected animals for 21 days. Mice challenged with *ΔΔpfk1* strain had significantly increased survival compared to mice challenged with *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 (Fig 6D). *C. albicans* exhibits strong tropism towards kidneys during *murine* infections [57,58] and in order to measure the fungal burden within the host, kidneys from C57BL/6 mice infected with both *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 and *ΔΔpfk1* were harvested ~2 days post infection (when the mice injected with wild-type *C. albicans* SC5314 becomes moribund), homogenized and plated to measure the fungal burden by enumerating the colony forming units (CFU) (Fig 6E). Our data indicates that kidneys isolated from mice challenged with the *ΔΔpfk1* strain had significantly lesser CFU compared to kidneys isolated from mice challenged with the *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 (Fig 6F). We also performed histological analysis on the infected kidneys using GMS staining (Grocott Methenamine Silver staining), to visualize the fungi (stained black) in the tissue. Kidneys isolated from mice challenged with the *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 had higher amounts of fungi compared to kidneys isolated from mice challenged with the *ΔΔpfk1* strain (Fig 6G). Overall, our data indicates that the perturbation of glycolysis significantly attenuates *C. albicans* virulence.

Discussion

Our findings provide compelling evidence for a conserved metabolic network that intricately links central carbon metabolism (particularly glycolysis), sulfur amino acid biosynthesis, and fungal morphogenesis in both *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Candida albicans*. We demonstrate that while nitrogen starvation is a known prerequisite [15,16] for fungal morphogenesis, the availability of a fermentable carbon source, specifically glucose, is equally essential for the yeast-to-pseudohyphae/hyphal transitions. Initially, we established that the quality and quantity of glucose profoundly influence pseudohyphal differentiation in *S. cerevisiae* under nitrogen-limiting conditions. Specifically, fermentable carbon sources, irrespective of whether they contain glucose (sucrose, maltose, trehalose) or not (fructose, mannose, galactose), robustly induce fungal morphogenesis, while non-fermentable carbon sources (ethanol, acetate, glycerol, DL-glyceraldehyde) are unable to do so in spite of their ability to support the regular growth of *S. cerevisiae* [59,60], highlighting the critical requirement for fermentable carbon sources in this process. Additionally, the presence of glucose, was sufficient to induce pseudohyphal differentiation even in the presence of non-fermentable carbon sources, demonstrating its sufficiency in

triggering fungal morphogenesis. We also demonstrated a clear positive correlation between glucose concentration and the extent of pseudohyphal differentiation, with both colony morphology and quantification of pseudohyphal cells showing a dose-dependent response. This emphasizes the quantitative importance of glucose availability in driving fungal morphogenesis in *S. cerevisiae*. Glucose in the extracellular environment can be sensed by *S. cerevisiae* using multiple proteins. One such protein is the well characterized G-protein couple receptor (GPCR), Gpr1p. Binding of glucose to Gpr1p activates a downstream signalling cascade, resulting in the production of cAMP which activates Protein Kinase A (PKA) [61,62]. This glucose-dependent cAMP-PKA pathway has been shown to be essential for pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions [63]. However, the role of glucose as a metabolite in the context of pseudohyphal differentiation is not known. Building upon our data that fermentable carbon sources (glucose containing and non-glucose containing) that are metabolized *via* glycolysis are able to robustly induce fungal morphogenesis, we next asked whether the ability of these cells to undergo active glycolysis is critical for fungal morphogenesis. We took a two-pronged approach which involved pharmacological or genetic perturbation of glycolysis, to address this question. Perturbation of glycolysis using sub-inhibitory concentrations of well-characterized inhibitors [25,26], 2DG or sodium citrate (NaCi) significantly attenuated pseudohyphal differentiation in both *S. cerevisiae* strains (Σ1278b and CEN.PK) that are known to undergo pseudohyphal differentiation, without compromising overall growth. This strain-independent effect was further corroborated by genetic evidence wherein deletion of key glycolytic enzyme-encoding genes, *pfk1* and *adh1*, in both the strain backgrounds (Σ1278b and CEN.PK) also resulted in a significant reduction in pseudohyphal differentiation, without causing general growth defects. These convergent findings strongly support the notion that active glycolytic is essential for fungal morphogenesis under nitrogen-limiting conditions.

To gain deeper insights underlying the glycolysis-mediated regulation of fungal morphogenesis, we performed comparative transcriptomics on *S. cerevisiae* wild-type cells grown under nitrogen-limiting conditions with and without the glycolysis inhibitor 2DG (which had the strongest inhibitory effect on pseudohyphal differentiation). As anticipated, genes involved in amino acid biosynthesis and transport were upregulated in the 2DG treated cells, consistent with a feedback response that cells exhibits when glycolysis is perturbed under nitrogen-limiting conditions, as various intermediates of glycolysis are known to serve as precursors for the biosynthesis of several amino acids under these conditions [34,35]. Remarkably, we observed a striking and unexpected downregulation of multiple genes specifically involved in the biosynthesis and transport of sulfur-containing amino acids, cysteine and methionine, in the 2DG treated cells at both early and late time points of pseudohyphal development. This transcriptional downregulation was further validated at the protein level for key proteins involved in the sulfur assimilation pathway (Met4p, Met32p, Met16p, Met10p, Cys4p and Cys3p), clearly demonstrating the dependence of sulfur metabolism on active glycolysis during fungal morphogenesis. This unexpected link between central carbon metabolism and sulfur metabolism is not restricted to conditions that induce fungal morphogenesis *i.e.* in surface-attached colonies grown in nitrogen-limiting conditions since even in liquid cultures that have limiting levels of nitrogen, wherein *S. cerevisiae* cells do not undergo pseudohyphal differentiation [64], perturbation of glycolysis with 2DG results in significantly reduced expression of proteins involved in the sulfur assimilation pathway (Met32p, Met16p, Met10p and Cys3p).

Given that multiple genes that encode for proteins involved in *de novo* biosynthesis of
sulfur-containing amino acids were downregulated in the presence of 2DG, which strongly
inhibits fungal morphogenesis, we wanted to explore the possibility that perturbation of
sulfur metabolism is causal for the attenuation of fungal morphogenesis in the presence
of 2DG. We tested the functional relevance of this glycolysis-dependent regulation of sulfur
metabolism in fungal morphogenesis directly through exogenous supplementation of
sulfur sources. The functional significance of glycolysis-dependent regulation of sulfur
metabolism was demonstrated through our sulfur add-back experiments wherein,
exogenous supplementation with cysteine specifically rescued the pseudohyphal
differentiation defect exhibited by *S. cerevisiae* in the presence of 2DG. Interestingly,
methionine alone was unable to rescue the pseudohyphal differentiation defect, in the
presence of 2DG even at various different concentrations (50µM, 100 µM, 200µM and
500µM). Expectedly, addition of inorganic sulfate was unable to rescue the 2DG induced
pseudohyphal differentiation defect since multiple genes that encode for the proteins
involved in the sulfur assimilation pathway (Met3, Met5, Met10 and Met16), were
significantly downregulated in the presence of 2DG. Furthermore, the pseudohyphal
differentiation defects observed in the *ΔΔpfk1* and *ΔΔadh1* strains were completely
rescued by the addition of cysteine, methionine, or sodium sulfate. These findings strongly
implicate that *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids is a critical
downstream effector of glycolytic activity in promoting pseudohyphal differentiation under
nitrogen limitation. To directly assess the role of sulfur metabolism in fungal
morphogenesis, we generated and characterized knockout strains for key genes involved
in the sulfur assimilation pathway (*met32*, *met3*, *met16*, *met5*, *met10*, *met17*, *met2*,
and *met13*). The deletion of each of these genes resulted in substantial defects in
pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions, directly implicating the
role of sulfur metabolism in regulating fungal morphogenesis. Remarkably, our sulfur add-
back experiments demonstrated that the ability of cysteine, methionine, or sodium sulfate
to rescue the morphogenetic defects exhibited by the aforesaid knockout strains was
dependent on the specific gene deleted and its position in the sulfur assimilation pathway,
aligning with the known biochemical functions of these enzymes [65], further solidifying
the direct involvement of sulfur metabolism in this morphogenetic switching process. How
active sulfur metabolism contributes towards fungal morphogenesis is not yet understood
but given its critical requirement during this phenomenon, it would be an important
question to explore and will further our overall understanding of this important biological
phenomenon.
660
It is interesting to note that the expression of Met4p, the principal transcriptional regulator
of the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids in *S. cerevisiae* along with
Met32p one of its cognate DNA-binding cofactors [66], are significantly downregulated
when glycolysis is perturbed. Given the obligate requirement of Met4p interaction with
DNA-binding proteins such as Met28p, Met32p, or Met31p, to elicit transcriptional
activation of the genes involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino
acids [67], the observed downregulation in both Met4p and Met32p levels likely
compromises the overall biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids. This concurrent
downregulation could explain the attenuated expression of downstream genes involved in
the synthesis of methionine and cysteine. This suggests a novel regulatory mechanism
wherein the expression of Met4p/Met32p is coupled to glycolytic activity, under nitrogen-
limiting conditions. Given that sulfur metabolism is coupled to glycolysis in *C. albicans* as
well and contributes towards fungal morphogenesis, it is likely that this conserved
regulatory axis might be critical for fungal morphogenesis in a broad range of fungal

species. We will be exploring the possible mechanisms underlying this novel regulatory
mechanism, in our laboratory.

Intriguingly, our work extended these findings to the pathogenic fungus *C. albicans*,
revealing a conserved role for glycolysis-mediated sulfur metabolism in hyphal
differentiation, a key virulence attribute in this species [49–51]. We demonstrated
that glucose is critical for hyphal differentiation in *C. albicans* under nitrogen-limiting
conditions, with non-fermentable carbon sources like ethanol and glycerol failing to induce
this morphological switch. Similar to our observations in *S. cerevisiae*,
C. albicans exhibited glycolysis-dependent hyphal formation under nitrogen limitation,
which was inhibited by 2DG. Consistent with our findings in *S. cerevisiae*, RT-qPCR
analysis revealed a significant downregulation of genes involved in *de novo* biosynthesis
of sulfur-containing amino acids (*met32*, *met3*, *met14*, *met16*, *met5*
(*ecm17*), *met10*, *met17* (*met15*), and *cys3*) upon 2DG treatment in *C. albicans*.
Importantly, exogenous addition of cysteine and methionine rescued the hyphal
differentiation defects caused by 2DG in *C. albicans*, suggesting a conserved link between
glycolysis and sulfur metabolism in regulating morphogenesis. Furthermore, a
C. albicans strain lacking *pfk1,* displayed attenuated hyphal differentiation, which was
rescued by cysteine supplementation, mirroring our observations in *S. cerevisiae*. These
results clearly demonstrate that *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids is
a critical downstream effector of glycolytic activity in promoting hyphal differentiation
under nitrogen-limiting conditions, in *C. albicans* as well. Given that central carbon
metabolic pathways like glycolysis and sulfur assimilation pathway are broadly conserved
metabolic processes across a plethora of fungal species, it is possible that this novel
regulatory axis might play a crucial role in modulating fungal morphogenesis in multiple
fungal species and further studies are warranted to explore this. Finally, given the
established link between hyphal differentiation and *C. albicans* virulence, we explored the
impact of glycolytic perturbation on the pathogenicity of this fungus. The *ΔΔpfk1* strain
displayed significantly reduced survival within *murine* macrophages and attenuated
virulence in a *murine* model of systemic infection, as evidenced by increased host survival,
lower kidney fungal burden, and reduced tissue colonization. These findings underscore
the critical role of glycolysis, and by extension, the glycolysis-dependent sulfur
metabolism, in the virulence of *C. albicans*.

In conclusion, our study unveils a conserved metabolic network that orchestrates fungal
morphogenesis in response to nutrient availability. We demonstrate that active glycolysis,
fueled by fermentable carbon sources, plays a crucial role in regulating the *de novo*
biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids, which in turn are essential for the
morphological transitions in both *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans* (Fig 7). The attenuation
of *C. albicans* virulence upon disruption of this pathway highlights the potential of
targeting specific fungal metabolic networks as a novel antifungal strategy. Future
research in our laboratory will focus on elucidating the precise molecular mechanisms by
which glycolytic intermediates or downstream signals regulate the expression of sulfur
metabolism pathway and how sulfur-containing amino acids contribute to the cellular
processes underlying fungal morphogenesis.

Materials and Methods

Yeast Strains:

The prototrophic diploid strains, Σ1278b or CEN.PK were used in all the experiments involving *S. cerevisiae*. The prototrophic diploid strain, SC5314 was exclusively used in all the experiments involving *C. albicans*. The yeast strains used in this study are listed in S1 Table.

Generation of *S. cerevisiae* Gene Knockout and Epitope-tagged Strains:

A standard PCR-based technique was used to amplify resistance cassettes (G418, HygB, or NAT) with flanking sequences in order to carry out gene deletions. The target gene was then replaced by homologous recombination using the lithium acetate-based transformation [68]. Similarly, C-terminal epitope-tagged yeast strains were generated using a PCR-based technique. This involved amplifying resistance cassettes, flanked by sequences homologous to the C-terminal region of the target gene, along with the desired epitope tags. The targeted gene was then tagged at its C-terminus through homologous recombination, using the lithium acetate-based transformation method. Primers used for these experiments are listed in S2 Table.

Generation of *C. albicans* Gene Knockout Strains:

The *C. albicans* strains used in this study are listed in S1 Table. The previously established SAT1-flipper method was used with some modifications, for the deletion of the desired genes [48]. To generate the *pfk1* deletion (*ΔΔpfk1*) strain, a DNA fragment carrying the flanking regions of *pfk1* (100 bps homology) and the *SAT1*-flipper cassette was transformed into *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314, using electroporation. Transformants were selected based on their nourseothricin resistance. PCR confirmation was used to validate the transformants. The *SAT1*-flipper cassette was then excised from the *pfk1* locus by growing the cells in YPM medium (10g/l yeast extract, 20g/l peptone, and 2% (w/v) maltose) to induce expression of the *MAL2* promoter-regulated recombinase. To knock out the second allele of *pfk1*, the heterozygous *pfk1* deletion mutants (*Δpfk1/PFK1*) were used for the transformation wherein the DNA fragment carrying the flanking regions of *pfk1* (100 bps homology) and the *SAT1*-flipper cassette was transformed into *C. albicans* *Δpfk1/PFK1* SC5314. Transformants were selected based on their nourseothricin resistance. PCR confirmation was used to validate the transformants. Primers used to generate or confirm the deletion strains are listed in S2 Table.

Media and Growth Conditions:

YPD broth containing 10g/l yeast extract, 20g/l peptone and 2% (w/v) glucose was used for the overnight growth of the cultures. Nitrogen-limiting medium containing 1.7g/l yeast nitrogen base without amino acids or ammonium sulfate, 2% (w/v) glucose (SLAD) or various different fermentable or non-fermentable carbon sources, 50µM ammonium sulfate and 2% (w/v) agar which was extensively washed, to remove excess nitrogen [15] was used for all experiments involving pseudohyphal or hyphal differentiation. Overnight cultures of various strains were grown in YPD broth and incubated at 30 °C with continuous shaking at 200 rotations per minute (RPM). Reagents and tools used in this study are mentioned in S3 Table.

Pseudohyphal Differentiation Assay:

To induce pseudohyphal differentiation in *S. cerevisiae,* overnight cultures of various strains (listed in S1 Table) were spotted on nitrogen-limiting medium (SLA) containing 2% glucose (SLAD). To examine the effect of various fermentable and non-fermentable carbon sources on pseudohyphal differentiation, *S. cerevisiae* wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on SLA (1.7g/l yeast nitrogen base without amino acids or ammonium sulfate, 2% (w/v) washed agar and 50μM ammonium sulfate) containing either 2% (w/v) concentration of glucose, sucrose, maltose, trehalose, fructose, mannose, galactose, ethanol, glycerol or 1% (w/v) concentration of acetate or 1mM DL-glyceraldehyde. In order to check the effect of glycolysis inhibitors, 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose (2DG) and sodium citrate (NaCi), on pseudohyphal differentiation, wild-type was spotted on SLAD containing sub-inhibitory concentrations of 2DG or NaCi. Plates were incubated for 10 days at 30 °C. After 10 days, imaging was done using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and the percentage of pseudohyphal cells was calculated using ImageJ. Cells with a length/width ratio of 2 or more were considered as pseudohyphal cells as described previously [22]. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test. Error bars represent SEM. All the experiments were replicated minimally thrice with technical replicates.

Hyphal Differentiation Assay:

To induce hyphal differentiation in *C. albicans,* overnight cultures of each strain (listed in S1 Table) were spotted on nitrogen-limiting medium (SLAD). To examine the effect of various carbon sources on hyphal differentiation, *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 was spotted on SLA medium (1.7g/l yeast nitrogen base without amino acids or ammonium sulfate, 2% (w/v) agar and 50μM ammonium sulfate) containing 2% (w/v) concentration of each carbon source (glucose, ethanol and glycerol). To check the effect of glycolysis inhibitor, 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose (2DG) on hyphal differentiation, wild-type was spotted on SLAD containing sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG. All the plates were incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. After 7 days, cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of hyphal cells was calculated using ImageJ. Cells with a length/width ratio of 4.5 or more were considered as hyphal cells as described previously [44]. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test. Error bars represent SEM. All the experiments were replicated minimally thrice with technical replicates.

Spot Dilution Assays:

A spot dilution assay was performed to investigate the effect of the gene deletions or the effect of the glycolysis inhibitors (2DG or NaCi) on the overall growth of specific strains. Respected strains were grown in YPD liquid medium at 30 °C with shaking at 200 rpm, overnight. To monitor the growth of wild-type strains (Σ1278b or CEN.PK) on SLAD, SLAD+2DG and SLAD+NaCi, serial dilutions (U-Undiluted, 10^{-1}-1:10 dilution, 10^{-2}-1:100 dilution, 10^{-3}-1:1000 dilution, 10^{-4}-1:10000 dilution) were prepared and spotted on SLAD, SLAD+2DG and SLAD+NaCi. To monitor the growth of deletion strains (listed in S1 Table) on SLAD, serial dilutions (U-Undiluted, 10^{-1}-1:10 dilution, 10^{-2}-1:100 dilution, 10^{-3}-1:1000 dilution, 10^{-4}-1:10000 dilution) were prepared for each strain along with wild-type strains and spotted on SLAD. The plates were incubated at 30 °C for 48 hours before imaging. All the experiments were replicated minimally thrice.

Sulfur Add-back Assays:

In order to perform sulfur add-back assays, overnight cultures of various strains of *S. cerevisiae* or *C. albicans* (listed in S1 Table) were spotted on SLAD or SLAD containing sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG, in the presence and absence of sulfur-containing compounds including cysteine, methionine or sodium sulfate. Plates were incubated for 10 days at 30 °C to induce pseudohyphal differentiation in *S. cerevisiae*. After 10 days, imaging was done using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. For hyphal differentiation assays in *C. albicans*, plates were incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. After 7 days, cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of hyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test. Error bars represent SEM. All the experiments were replicated minimally thrice with technical replicates.

RNA-Sequencing:

Sample Collection. Overnight culture of *S. cereviae* wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on nitrogen-limiting media containing 2% (w/v) glucose (SLAD) with and without sub-inhibitory concentration of 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose (2DG). The plates were incubated at 30 °C and colonies were isolated on day 5 (D-5) and day 10 (D-10).

RNA-Extraction. Total RNA from the sample was extracted using the protocol mentioned in the Ribopure RNA purification kit (yeast) (cat. #AM1926). Following a DNAse treatment to eliminate any genomic DNA from the sample, the extracted RNA was submitted to the CCMB next-generation sequencing facility for RNA-Seqencing. The NovaSeq 6000 equipment was used to sequence transcriptomes.

RNA-Sequencing Analysis. Raw sequencing reads were obtained in FASTQ format. The reference genome and annotation files for the *S. cerevisiae* strain Σ1278b were downloaded from the Saccharomyces Genome Database (SGD). Quality assessment of the raw reads was performed using FastQC (version 0.12.1). Adapter sequences were trimmed using Cutadapt (version 4.6). The reference genome was indexed with Hisat2 (version 2.2.1), and Samtools (version 1.20) was used to filter out multi-mapped reads and convert SAM files to BAM format. Read counting for uniquely mapped reads was done with FeatureCounts, using gene annotation data from the reference *S. cerevisiae* Σ1278b genome. Normalization and differential gene expression analysis were performed using R (version 4.3.2). Genes with a $\log_2$ fold change of ≥1 were considered to be upregulated, indicating at least a doubling in expression under the given condition, while those with a $\log_2$ fold change of ≤ -1 were considered to be downregulated.

Protein Isolation:

For Western blotting experiments, in order to isolate proteins from liquid cultures, overnight yeast cultures were back-diluted in 10 ml of liquid SLAD in the presence and absence of 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose (2DG). The yeast cells were grown till an OD_{600} of ~1 and cells were harvested by centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature (RT). To isolate proteins from colonies, overnight cultures of pertinent strains were spotted on SLAD with and without sub-inhibitory concentration of 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose (2DG) and colonies were isolated and resuspended in 1ml of 1X PBS (Phosphate Buffered Saline) after 5 days (D-5). Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 14000 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature. Pelleted cells (from liquid cultures and colonies) were resuspended in 300µl of ice cold 10% (w/v) TCA solution and disrupted using bead-beating by addition of 150µl

of glass beads at 4°C. Supernatant was transferred to another tube. Next, proteins were pelleted by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C and supernatant was discarded. Each pellet was resuspended in 400μl of SDS/glycerol buffer (7.3% (w/v) SDS, 29% (v/v) glycerol and 83.3mM tris-base) and boiled at 95°C for 10 minutes with occasional vortexing followed by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature. Supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube and used for protein estimation using BCA protein estimation kit (cat. #23227). Finally, all samples were diluted in SDS-PAGE loading buffer (100mM Tris-Cl, 4% (w/v) SDS, 0.02% (w/v) bromophenol blue, 20% (w/v), glycerol and 7.5% (v/v) β-mercaptoethanol) and heated for 5 minutes at 90°C.

Immunodetection:

Protein samples were separated using SDS-PAGE on polyacrylamide gels and transferred to PVDF membranes with a Mini Trans-Blot Cell module (Bio-Rad). The membranes were blocked for 1 hour at room temperature with 5% (w/v) non-fat dry milk in 1X TBST buffer (20 mM Tris-Base, pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20) with gentle orbital shaking. After blocking, the membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies (1:2000 dilution) in 1X TBST buffer containing 5% (w/v) non-fat dry milk. Following this, the membranes were washed three times for 10 minutes in 1X TBST and then incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (1:4000 dilution) in 1X TBST with 5% (w/v) non-fat dry milk. After three additional washes in 1X TBST, chemiluminescent substrate was added and bands were detected using the SuperSignal West chemiluminescent substrate (cat. #34579, cat. #34094) and visualized using the Bio-Rad ChemiDoc^{TM}MP imaging system.

Antibodies:

HA-Tag (C29F4) Rabbit mAb (cat. #3724), β-actin (8H10D10) Mouse mAb (cat. #3700), Goat anti-Rabbit IgG-HRP conjugate (cat. #7074) and Horse anti-Mouse IgG-HRP conjugate (cat. #7076) were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology. Pgk1 Mouse mAb (cat. #sc-130335) was purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology.

Densitometric Analysis:

Raw images of western blots were analysed using ImageJ to normalize target protein expression with the expression of housekeeping proteins including PGK1 and β-actin in order to make densitometric graphs. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, with error bars representing SEM. All the experiments were replicated minimally thrice.

Quantitative Real Time Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-qPCR) Assay:

Overnight cultures of *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 was spotted on SLAD with and without sub-inhibitory concentration of 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose (2DG) and plates were incubated at 37 °C for 4 days. After 4 days, colonies were isolated and total RNA was extracted using the protocol mentioned in the Ribopure RNA purification kit, yeast (cat. #AM1926). cDNA synthesis was carried out using PrimeScript cDNA synthesis kit (cat. #6110A). Primers used for RT-qPCR were designed using PrimeQuest tool of Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT). RT-qPCR was performed using iTaq Universal SYBR green mastermix (cat. #1725121). Actin was used as housekeeping gene for normalization. The results were analysed using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method [69] and statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, with error bars representing SEM. All the experiments were replicated minimally thrice with technical replicates. Primers used in the RT-qPCR experiments are mentioned in S2 Table.

Ex vivo Microbial Survival Assay:

Ex vivo microbial survival assay in macrophages was conducted as described in previous studies with some modifications [70,71]. *RAW 264.7* macrophages (1×10^6 cells) were cultured in six-well plates with DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS. After 16 hours of incubation, the cells were treated with *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 or *ΔΔpfk1* at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10, for 1 hour in antibiotic-free DMEM containing 10% FBS. The media was then removed, and the cells were washed six times with 1X PBS to eliminate any free, non-phagocytosed fungal cells. Next, the cells were lysed with 350 μl of lysis buffer containing 0.025% SDS in 1X PBS. The lysate volume was adjusted to 1 ml with 1X PBS, and a 100 μl undiluted aliquot was plated on YPD agar plate. Serial dilutions of the lysate were also plated on YPD agar plates. These plates were incubated overnight at 37 °C. The following day, colony-forming units (CFUs) were counted and plotted. The percentage of survival was calculated as the number of CFUs in the presence of macrophages divided by the number of CFUs in the absence of macrophages. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, with error bars representing SEM. All the experiments were replicated minimally thrice.

In vivo Murine Model of Systemic Candidiasis

In vivo infection experiments were performed as previously described [72]. Briefly, *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 and *ΔΔpfk1* were grown overnight in YPD medium at 30 °C. The overnight cultures were back-diluted in 10 ml of YPD liquid medium and allowed to grow till and OD of ~0.6, then washed and resuspended at concentration of 1×10^7 CFU/ml in 1X PBS. C57BL/6 wild-type mice, aged 6 to 8 weeks, were injected intravenously *via* lateral tail vein with *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 or *ΔΔpfk1* at a concentration of 1×10^7 CFU/ml. After infection, mice were monitored for survival and daily for signs of morbidity and mortality were recorded over a period of 21 days. Survival data were analysed using the Log-rank Mantel-Cox test with GraphPad Prism.

Determination of Fungal Burden:

To assess fungal burden, mice injected with *C. albicans* wild-type SC5314 or *ΔΔpfk1* were sacrificed at ~2 days and kidneys were harvested from infected mice. Kidneys were weighed and then homogenized using a sterilized and PBS-washed Dounce homogenizer (cat. #D8938). Kidney suspensions were then diluted in 1 ml of 1X PBS and serially diluted. Then 100μl of dilutions was plated on YPD agar plates and allowed to grow at 37 °C. Colony forming units were calculated by the following formula: (number of colonies × dilution factor × 10)/organ weight in grams (g). Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test. Error bars represent SEM. All the experiments were replicated minimally thrice.

Histopathology:

For histopathological examination, kidneys were collected and fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for about two weeks. After fixation, the kidneys were processed, embedded in paraffin, and sectioned to 4 μm thickness. The tissue sections were then stained using the GMS stain (Grocott Methenamine Silver stain) and the protocol mentioned in the GMS staining kit manual (cat. #AB287884) was followed.

Illustrations:

Figure illustrations were created using Biorender (https://app.biorender.com).

Author Contributions

Dhrumi Shah: Conceptualization; Investigation; Formal analysis; Visualization; Writing-original draft. **Adishree M:** Investigation. **Nikita Rewatkar:** Investigation. **Siddhi Gupta:** Investigation. **Sudharsan Mathivathanan:** Investigation. **Sriram Varahan:** Conceptualization; Supervision; Funding acquisition; Investigation; Formal analysis; Visualization; Writing-original draft; Writing-review and editing.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge the invaluable support and resources offered by CSIR-Centre for Cellular and Molecular Biology (CCMB) central facilities including Advanced Microscopy and Imaging facility (AMIF), Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) facility and Animal House facility. We acknowledge help from T. Avinash Raj (CSIR- CCMB) for preparation of samples for histological analysis. DS thanks University Grants Commission (UGC), India for their research fellowship. SV acknowledges funding from Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) (IIRPSG-2024-01-02717), India; Anusandhan National Research Foundation (ANRF) (SRG/2023/000470), India; Council of Scientific & Industrial Research (CSIR) (FTT070505), India; and DBT-Wellcome Trust India Alliance (IA/E/16/1/502996), India.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

984		**References**

986 1. Lin X, Andrew Alspaugh J, Liu H, Harris S. Fungal morphogenesis. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med. 2015. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a019679

988 2. Gow NAR, Brown AJP, Odds FC. Fungal morphogenesis and host invasion. Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2002. doi:10.1016/S1369-5274(02)00338-7

990 3. Naranjo-Ortiz MA, Gabaldón T. Fungal evolution: major ecological adaptations and evolutionary transitions. Biol Rev. 2019. doi:10.1111/brv.12510

992 4. Wang L, Lin X. Morphogenesis in Fungal Pathogenicity: Shape, Size, and Surface. PLoS Pathog. 2012. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1003027

994 5. Min K, Neiman AM, Konopka JB. Fungal Pathogens: Shape-Shifting Invaders. Trends in Microbiology. 2020. doi:10.1016/j.tim.2020.05.001

996 6. Puumala E, Fallah S, Robbins N, Cowen LE. Advancements and challenges in antifungal therapeutic development. Clinical Microbiology Reviews. 2024. doi:10.1128/cmr.00142-23

998 7. Sexton AC, Howlett BJ. Parallels in fungal pathogenesis on plant and animal hosts. Eukaryotic Cell. 2006. doi:10.1128/EC.00277-06

1000 8. Christensen M. A View of Fungal Ecology. Mycologia. 1989. doi:10.1080/00275514.1989.12025620

1002 1003 9. Riquelme M, Aguirre J, Bartnicki-García S, Braus GH, Feldbrügge M, Fleig U, et al. Fungal Morphogenesis, from the Polarized Growth of Hyphae to Complex Reproduction and Infection Structures. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev. 2018. doi:10.1128/mmbr.00068-17

1005 1006 10. Nantel A, Dignard D, Bachewich C, Harcus D, Marcil A, Bouin AP, et al. Transcription profiling of *Candida albicans* cells undergoing the yeast-to-hyphal transition. Mol Biol Cell. 2002. doi:10.1091/mbc.E02-05-0272

1008 1009 11. Ryan O, Shapiro RS, Kurat CF, Mayhew D, Baryshnikova A, Chin B, et al. Global gene deletion analysis exploring yeast filamentous growth. Science (80-). 2012. doi:10.1126/science.1224339

1011 1012 12. Fleck CB, Schöbel F, Brock M. Nutrient acquisition by pathogenic fungi: Nutrient availability, pathway regulation, and differences in substrate utilization. International Journal of Medical Microbiology. 2011. doi:10.1016/j.ijmm.2011.04.007

1014 1015 13. Kumar A. The Complex Genetic Basis and Multilayered Regulatory Control of Yeast Pseudohyphal Growth. Annual Review of Genetics. 2021. doi:10.1146/annurev-genet-071719-020249

1017 14. Broach JR. Nutritional control of growth and development in yeast. Genetics. 2012. doi:10.1534/genetics.111.135731

1019 1020 15. Gimeno CJ, Ljungdahl PO, Styles CA, Fink GR. Unipolar cell divisions in the yeast *S. cerevisiae* lead to filamentous growth: Regulation by starvation and RAS. Cell. 1992. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(92)90079-R

1022 1023 16. Csank C, Schröppel K, Leberer E, Harcus D, Mohamed O, Meloche S, et al. Roles of the *Candida aibicans* mitogen-activated protein kinase homolog, Cek1p, in hyphal development and systemic candidiasis. Infect Immun. 1998. doi:10.1128/iai.66.6.2713-2721.1998

1025 17. Thompson DS, Carlisle PL, Kadosh D. Coevolution of morphology and virulence in *Candida* species. Eukaryotic Cell. 2011. doi:10.1128/EC.05085-11

1027 18. Palková Z, Váchová L. Life within a community: Benefit to yeast long-term survival. FEMS Microbiology Reviews. 2006. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6976.2006.00034.x

1029 1030 19. Pan X, Harashima T, Heitman J. Signal transduction cascades regulating pseudohyphal differentiation of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2000. doi:10.1016/S1369-5274(00)00142-9

1032 20. Gancedo JM. Yeast Carbon Catabolite Repression. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev. 1998. doi:10.1128/mmbr.62.2.334-361.1998

21. Lorenz MC. Yeast pseudohyphal growth is regulated by GPA2, a G protein alpha homolog.
EMBO J. 1997. doi:10.1093/emboj/16.23.7008

22. Schröder M, Chang JS, Kaufman RJ. The unfolded protein response represses nitrogen-
starvation induced developmental differentiation in yeast. Genes Dev. 2000.
doi:10.1101/gad.852300

23. De Deken RH. The Crabtree effect: a regulatory system in yeast. J Gen Microbiol. 1966.
doi:10.1099/00221287-44-2-149

24. Barford JP, Hall RJ. An examination of the crabtree effect in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: The
role of respiratory adaptation. J Gen Microbiol. 1979. doi:10.1099/00221287-114-2-267

25. Cramer FB, Woodward GE. 2-Desoxy-D-glucose as an antagonist of glucose in yeast
fermentation. J Franklin Inst. 1952. doi:10.1016/0016-0032(52)90852-1

26. Yoshino M, Murakami K. AMP deaminase as a control system of glycolysis in yeast. Mechanism
of the inhibition of glycolysis by fatty acid and citrate. J Biol Chem. 1982. doi:10.1016/s0021-
9258(18)33871-7

27. Laxman S, Tu BP. Multiple TORC1-associated proteins regulate nitrogen starvation-dependent
cellular differentiation in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. PLoS One. 2011.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0026081

28. Heinisch J. Construction and physiological characterization of mutants disrupted in the
phosphofructokinase genes of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Curr Genet. 1986.
doi:10.1007/BF00420611

29. Smith MG, Des Etages SG, Snyder M. Microbial Synergy via an Ethanol-Triggered Pathway.
Mol Cell Biol. 2004. doi:10.1128/mcb.24.9.3874-3884.2004

30. Foy JJ, Bhattacharjee JK. Biosynthesis and regulation of fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase and
phosphofructokinase in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* grown in the presence of glucose and
gluconeogenic carbon sources. J Bacteriol. 1978. doi:10.1128/jb.136.2.647-656.1978

31. Bennetzen JL, Hall BD. The primary structure of the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* gene for
alcohol dehydrogenase. J Biol Chem. 1982. doi:10.1016/s0021-9258(19)81067-0

32. Wu Y, Zhang S, Gong X, Yu Q, Zhang Y, Luo M, et al. Glycolysis regulates gene expression
by promoting the crosstalk between H3K4 trimethylation and H3K14 acetylation in
Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J Genet Genomics. 2019. doi:10.1016/j.jgg.2019.11.007

33. Newcomb LL, Diderich JA, Slattery MG, Heideman W. Glucose regulation of *Saccharomyces
cerevisiae* cell cycle genes. Eukaryot Cell. 2003. doi:10.1128/EC.2.1.143-149.2003

34. Martíez-force E, Benítez T. Changes in yeast amino acid pool with respiratory versus
fermentative metabolism. Biotechnol Bioeng. 1992. doi:10.1002/bit.260400602

35. Dikicioglu D, Karabekmez E, Rash B, Pir P, Kirdar B, Oliver SG. How yeast re-programmes its
transcriptional profile in response to different nutrient impulses. BMC Syst Biol. 2011.
doi:10.1186/1752-0509-5-148

36. Wu J, Zhang N, Hayes A, Panoutsopoulo K, Oliver SG. Global analysis of nutrient control of
gene expression in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* during growth and starvation. Proc Natl Acad
Sci U S A. 2004. doi:10.1073/pnas.0308321100

37. Masselot M, Surdin-Kerjan Y. Methionine biosynthesis in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol Gen
Genet MGG. 1977. doi:10.1007/bf00265572

38. Masselot M, de Robichon-Szulmajster H. Methionine biosynthesis in *Saccharomyces
cerevisiae* - I. Genetical analysis of auxotrophic mutants. MGG Mol Gen Genet. 1975.
doi:10.1007/BF00264692

39. Kinzurik MI, Ly K, David KM, Gardner RC, Fedrizzi B. The GLO1 Gene Is Required for Full
Activity of O-Acetyl Homoserine Sulfhydrylase Encoded by MET17. ACS Chem Biol. 2017.
doi:10.1021/acschembio.6b00815

40. Yamagata S. Partial purification and some properties of homoserine O-acetyltransferase of a

methionine auxotroph of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. J Bacteriol. 1987. doi:10.1128/jb.169.8.3458-3463.1987

41. Raymond RK, Kastanos EK, Appling DR. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* expresses two genes encoding isozymes of methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase. Arch Biochem Biophys. 1999. doi:10.1006/abbi.1999.1498

42. Huang G. Regulation of phenotypic transitions in the fungal pathogen *Candida albicans*. Virulence. 2012. doi:10.4161/viru.20010

43. Askew C, Sellam A, Epp E, Hogues H, Mullick A, Nantel A, et al. Transcriptional regulation of carbohydrate metabolism in the human pathogen *Candida albicans*. PLoS Pathog. 2009. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1000612

44. Su C, Yu J, Sun Q, Liu Q, Lu Y. Hyphal induction under the condition without inoculation in *Candida albicans* is triggered by Brg1-mediated removal of NRG1 inhibition. Mol Microbiol. 2018. doi:10.1111/mmi.13944

45. Chebaro Y, Lorenz M, Fa A, Zheng R, Gustin M. Adaptation of *Candida albicans* to reactive sulfur species. Genetics. 2017. doi:10.1534/genetics.116.199679

46. Shrivastava M, Feng J, Coles M, Clark B, Islam A, Dumeaux V, et al. Modulation of the complex regulatory network for methionine biosynthesis in fungi. Genetics. 2021. doi:10.1093/GENETICS/IYAA049

47. Li DD, Wang Y, Dai B Di, Li XX, Zhao LX, Cao YB, et al. ECM17-dependent methionine/cysteine biosynthesis contributes to biofilm formation in *Candida albicans*. Fungal Genet Biol. 2013. doi:10.1016/j.fgb.2012.11.010

48. Reuß O, Vik Å, Kolter R, Morschhäuser J. The SAT1 flipper, an optimized tool for gene disruption in *Candida albicans*. Gene. 2004. doi:10.1016/j.gene.2004.06.021

49. Gow NAR, Van De Veerdonk FL, Brown AJP, Netea MG. *Candida albicans* morphogenesis and host defence: Discriminating invasion from colonization. Nature Reviews Microbiology. 2012. doi:10.1038/nrmicro2711

50. Moyes DL, Wilson D, Richardson JP, Mogavero S, Tang SX, Wernecke J, et al. Candidalysin is a fungal peptide toxin critical for mucosal infection. Nature. 2016. doi:10.1038/nature17625

51. Wilson D, Naglik JR, Hube B. The Missing Link between *Candida albicans* Hyphal Morphogenesis and Host Cell Damage. PLoS Pathogens. 2016. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1005867

52. Jiménez-López C, Lorenz MC. Fungal Immune Evasion in a Model Host-Pathogen Interaction: *Candida albicans* Versus Macrophages. PLoS Pathog. 2013. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1003741

53. Uwamahoro N, Verma-Gaur J, Shen HH, Qu Y, Lewis R, Lu J, et al. The pathogen *Candida albicans* hijacks pyroptosis for escape from macrophages. MBio. 2014. doi:10.1128/mBio.00003-14

54. May RC, Casadevall A. In fungal intracellular pathogenesis, form determines fate. MBio. 2018. doi:10.1128/mbio.02092-18

55. Hirayama T, Miyazaki T, Ito Y, Wakayama M, Shibuya K, Yamashita K, et al. Virulence assessment of six major pathogenic *Candida* species in the mouse model of invasive candidiasis caused by fungal translocation. Sci Rep. 2020. doi:10.1038/s41598-020-60792-y

56. Segal E, Frenkel M. Experimental in vivo models of Candidiasis. Journal of Fungi. 2018. doi:10.3390/jof4010021

57. Lionakis MS, Lim JK, Lee CCR, Murphy PM. Organ-specific innate immune responses in a mouse model of invasive candidiasis. J Innate Immun. 2011. doi:10.1159/000321157

58. Pappas PG, Lionakis MS, Arendrup MC, Ostrosky-Zeichner L, Kullberg BJ. Invasive candidiasis. Nat Rev Dis Prim. 2018. doi:10.1038/nrdp.2018.26

59. Turcotte B, Liang XB, Robert F, Soontorngun N. Transcriptional regulation of nonfermentable
carbon utilization in budding yeast. FEMS Yeast Research. 2010. doi:10.1111/j.1567-
1364.2009.00555.x

60. Kubota S, Takeo I, Kume K, Kanai M, Shitamukai A, Mizunuma M, et al. Effect of ethanol on
cell growth of budding yeast: Genes that are important for cell growth in the presence of
ethanol. Biosci Biotechnol Biochem. 2004. doi:10.1271/bbb.68.968

61. Kraakman L, Lemaire K, Ma P, Teunlssen AWRH, Donaton MCV, Van Dijck P, et al. A
Saccharomyces cerevisiae G-protein coupled receptor, Gpr1, is specifically required for
glucose activation of the cAMP pathway during the transition to growth on glucose. Mol
Microbiol. 1999. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2958.1999.01413.x

62. Yun CW, Tamaki H, Nakayama R, Yamamoto K, Kumagai H. G-protein coupled receptor from
yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun. 1997.
doi:10.1006/bbrc.1997.7649

63. Lorenz MC, Pan X, Harashima T, Cardenas ME, Xue Y, Hirsch JP, et al. The G protein-coupled
receptor Gpr1 is a nutrient sensor that regulates pseudohyphal differentiation in
Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics. 2000. doi:10.1093/genetics/154.2.609

64. Gancedo JM. Control of pseudohyphae formation in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* . FEMS
Microbiol Rev. 2001. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6976.2001.tb00573.x

65. Thomas D, Surdin-Kerjan Y. Metabolism of sulfur amino acids in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.
Microbiol Mol Biol Rev. 1997. doi:10.1128/mmbr.61.4.503-532.1997

66. Blaiseau P-L, Isnard A-D, Surdin-Kerjan Y, Thomas D. Met31p and Met32p, Two Related Zinc
Finger Proteins, Are Involved in Transcriptional Regulation of Yeast Sulfur Amino Acid
Metabolism. Mol Cell Biol. 1997. doi:10.1128/mcb.17.7.3640

67. Blaiseau PL, Thomas D. Multiple transcriptional activation complexes tether the yeast
activator Met4 to DNA. EMBO J. 1998. doi:10.1093/emboj/17.21.6327

68. Schiestl RH, Gietz RD. High efficiency transformation of intact yeast cells using single
stranded nucleic acids as a carrier. Curr Genet. 1989. doi:10.1007/BF00340712

69. Winer J, Jung CKS, Shackel I, Williams PM. Development and validation of real-time
quantitative reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction for monitoring gene expression
in cardiac myocytes in vitro. Anal Biochem. 1999. doi:10.1006/abio.1999.4085

70. Netea MG, Van der Graaf CAA, Vonk AG, Verschueren I, Van der Meet JWM, Kullberg BJ. The
role of toll-like receptor (TLR) 2 and TLR4 in the host defense against disseminated
candidiasis. J Infect Dis. 2002. doi:10.1086/340511

71. Pradhan B, Guha D, Ray P, Das D, Aich P. Comparative Analysis of the Effects of Two Probiotic
Bacterial Strains on Metabolism and Innate Immunity in the RAW 264.7 *Murine* Macrophage
Cell Line. Probiotics Antimicrob Proteins. 2016. doi:10.1007/s12602-016-9211-4

72. Majer O, Bourgeois C, Zwolanek F, Lassnig C, Kerjaschki D, Mack M, et al. Type I interferons
promote fatal immunopathology by regulating inflammatory monocytes and neutrophils
during *Candida* infections. PLoS Pathog. 2012. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1002811

1170

Fig 1. Quality and Quantity of Carbon Source Influences Fungal Morphogenesis

(A) Wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on nitrogen-limiting medium (SLA) containing fermentative carbon sources including glucose, sucrose, maltose, trehalose, fructose, mannose and galactose (each at 2% concentration) and imaged after 10 days of incubation at 30 °C, using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. **(B)** Wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on SLA containing non-fermentable carbon sources (ethanol (2%), glycerol (2%), acetate (1%) and DL-glyceraldehyde(1mM)) and imaged using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope after 10 days of incubation at 30 °C. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. **(C)** Wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on SLA containing 2% glucose (SLAD), in the presence and absence of various non-fermentative carbon sources and imaged after 10 days of incubation at 30 °C, using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. **(D)** Wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on SLA with different concentrations of glucose ranging from 0.1% to 4% and SLA with ethanol (2%) was used as a negative control. After 10 days, imaging was done using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ****(P<0.0001), ***(P<0.001) and **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM.

1194

1195 **Fig 2. Ability of Cells to Metabolize glucose *via* glycolysis is critical for Fungal**
1196 **Morphogenesis**

1197

1198 **(A)** Schematic overview of glycolysis and its inhibition by glycolysis inhibitors (2-Deoxy-D-Glucose
1199 (2DG) and sodium citrate (NaCi)). **(B)** Wild-type Σ1278b or CEN.PK were spotted on nitrogen-
1200 limiting medium containing 2% glucose (SLAD) with and without sub-inhibitory concentrations of
1201 glycolysis inhibitors (2-Deoxy-D-Glucose (2DG) and sodium citrate (NaCi)), incubated for 10 days
1202 at 30 °C. Whole colony imaging was done using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope and single cell

imaging was done using Zeiss Apotome microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images and 5µm for single cell images. **(C)** Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(D)** Spot dilution assay was performed to monitor overall growth of wild-type strains on SLAD, SLAD+2DG and SLAD+NaCi with the following serial dilutions (U-Undiluted, 10^{-1}-1:10 dilution, 10^{-2}-1:100 dilution, 10^{-3}-1:1000 dilution, 10^{-4}-1:10000 dilution). **(E)** Schematic overview of glycolysis showing targeted gene deletions. **(F)** Pertinent knockout strains which lack genes encoding for enzymes involved in glycolysis such as *pfk1* and *adh1* were spotted on SLAD along with wild-type Σ1278b or CEN.PK. Whole colony imaging was done using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope and single cell imaging was done using Zeiss Apotome microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images and 5µm for single cell images. **(G)** Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(H)** Spot dilution assay was performed to monitor overall growth of wild-type and knockout strains on SLAD with the following serial dilutions (U-Undiluted, 10^{-1}-1:10 dilution, 10^{-2}-1:100 dilution, 10^{-3}-1:1000 dilution, 10^{-4}-1:10000 dilution).

1220

Fig 3. Comparative Transcriptomics Identifies the Role of Glycolysis in Regulating Sulfur Metabolism During Fungal Morphogenesis

(A) Schematic overview of steps involved in RNA isolation and RNA-sequencing. **(B)** Volcano plots represent differentially expressed genes in 2DG treated cells compared to untreated cells isolated from D-5 and D-10 colonies, respectively. Genes which are upregulated (Log$_2$ fold change ≥ 1) and downregulated (Log$_2$ fold change ≤ -1) are highlighted in red. Some of the significantly upregulated and downregulated genes involved in the biosynthesis of various amino acids are highlighted in blue. **(C)** Heatmaps represent differential expression of individual genes involved in *de novo* biosynthesis and transport of sulfur-containing amino acids, in 2DG treated cells compared to untreated cells

isolated from D-5 and D-10 colonies, respectively. **(D)** Schematic overview of *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids. **(E)** Schematic overview of steps involved in the Western blotting experiments. Epitope-tagged strains of various proteins involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids including Met4p, Met32p, Met16p, Met10p, Cys4p and Cys3p were spotted on SLAD in the presence and absence of sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG following which, cells from colonies were isolated on D-5 and levels of these proteins were assessed using Western blotting. β-actin was used as loading control.

Fig 4. Glycolysis-mediated Regulation of Sulfur Metabolism is Critical for Fungal Morphogenesis

(A) Schematic overview of the proposed role of glycolysis-dependent sulfur metabolism in regulating pseudohyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions in *S. cerevisiae.* **(B)** Wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on SLAD containing sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG with and without sulfur-containing compounds including cysteine (500µM), methionine (20µM) or sodium sulfate (1000µM), incubated for 10 days at 30 °C. After 10 days, whole colony imaging was done using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. **(C)** Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ***(P<0.001) and ns (non-significant). Error bars represent SEM. **(D)** Pertinent knockout strains which lack genes encoding for enzymes involved in glycolysis such as *pfk1* and *adh1* were spotted on SLAD with and without sulfur-containing compounds including cysteine (200µM), methionine (20µM) or sodium sulfate (1000µM), incubated for 10 days at 30 °C. After 10 days, whole colony imaging was done using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. **(E)** Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ****(P<0.0001), ***(P<0.001) and **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(F)** Pertinent knockout strains which lack genes encoding for enzymes involved in *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids including *met32* and *met3* along with wild-type Σ1278b were spotted on SLAD and imaged after 10 days using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ***(P<0.001). Error bars represent SEM. **(G)** Pertinent knockout strains which lack genes involved in *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids such as *met16*, *met5*, *met10*, *met17*, *met2* and *met13* along with wild-type Σ1278b were spotted on SLAD and imaged after 10 days using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ****(P<0.0001) and ***(P<0.001). Error bars represent SEM. **(H)** Pertinent knockout strains including *ΔΔmet32*, *ΔΔmet3, ΔΔmet16, ΔΔmet5, ΔΔmet10, ΔΔmet17, ΔΔmet2* and *ΔΔmet13* were spotted on SLAD with and without sulfur-containing compounds including cysteine (200µM), methionine (20µM) or sodium sulfate (1000µM), incubated for 10 days at 30 °C. After 10 days, imaging was done using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of pseudohyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ****(P<0.0001), ***(P<0.001), **(P<0.01) and ns (non-significant). Error bars represent SEM.

Fig 5. Glycolysis-dependent Sulfur Metabolism is Critical for Fungal Morphogenesis in *Candida albicans*

(A) Wild-type SC5314 was spotted on SLAD and SLA containing non-fermentative carbon sources including ethanol and glycerol (2%), incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of hyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Scale bar represents 10μm for single cell images. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(B)** Wild-type SC5314 was spotted on SLAD with and without sub-inhibitory concentration of glycolysis inhibitor 2DG, incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of hyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Scale bar represents 10μm for single cell images. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(C)** Schematic overview of *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids. **(D)** Wild-type SC5314 was spotted on SLAD, in the presence and absence of sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG and cells from colonies were isolated after ~4 days, for RNA isolation. We then performed comparative RT-qPCR to check for the relative expression of genes involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids pathway including *met32*,

met3, met14, met16, met5, met10, met17 and cys3. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ***(P<0.001), **(P<0.01) and *(P<0.05). Error bars represent SEM. **(E)** Schematic overview of the proposed role of glycolysis-dependent sulfur metabolism in regulating hyphal differentiation under nitrogen-limiting conditions in *C. albicans*. **(F)** Wild-type SC5314 was spotted on SLAD containing sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG with and without cysteine (100μM) and, incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of hyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Scale bar represents 10μm for single cell images. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(G)** Wild-type SC5314 was spotted on SLAD containing sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG with and without methionine (20μM) and, incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope and percentage of hyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Scale bar represents 10μm for single cell images. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM.

1341

Fig 6. Perturbation of Glycolysis Leads to Attenuated Fungal Virulence

(A) Schematic overview of glycolysis showing targeted gene deletion of *pfk1*. Wild-type SC5314 and pertinent knockout strain which lacks the genes encoding for a glycolytic enzyme, *pfk1* (*ΔΔpfk1*) were spotted on SLAD, incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope (2 representative images are shown for each strain) and percentage of hyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Scale bar represents 10µm for single cell images. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(B)** *ΔΔpfk1* was spotted on SLAD in the presence and absence of cysteine (100µM), incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope (2 representative images are shown for each condition) and percentage of hyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(C)** Schematic overview of *ex vivo* microbial survival assay. *RAW 264.7* macrophages were incubated with the wild-type and *ΔΔpfk1* strain with MOI=10. After 1 hour of incubation, macrophages were lysed and plating was done to enumerate CFU. Percentage of survival was expressed as the number of CFUs in the presence of macrophages divided by the

number of CFUs in the absence of macrophages. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01). Error bars represent SEM. **(D)** 6- 8-week-old C57BL/6 mice were infected intravenously *via* lateral tail vein injection with 1×10^7 CFU/ml of wild-type SC5314 or 1×10^7 CFU/ml of *ΔΔpfk1*. To determine survival rate, mice were monitored for 21 days post-infection for clinical signs of illness or mortality. The results are representative of ten mice per injected strain. Survival percentage were statistically evaluated by the Log-rank Mantel-Cox test, ****(P=0.0001) (n=10). **(E)** Schematic overview of kidney isolation to check fungal burden using CFU counting and histology. **(F)** Fungal burden was measured by CFU counting after kidney isolation from mice injected with either wild-type or *ΔΔpfk1*. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, *(P<0.05). Error bars represent SEM. **(G)** Histopathological analysis of kidney sections using Grocott Methanamine Silver (GMS) staining was done for kidneys isolated from mice injected with either wild-type SC5314 or *ΔΔpfk1*. Fungal cells appear black in colour against the colored background of the kidney tissue. Bright field imaging was done using Axioplan 2 microscope at 40X magnification. Scale bar represents 50 µm.

1408

Fig 7. Glycolysis-dependent Sulfur Metabolism Orchestrates Morphological Transitions and Virulence in Fungi

Active glycolysis plays a key regulatory role in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids by modulating the expression of genes involved in this process (In *S. cerevisiae*, Met transcription complex includes Met4p, Met28p, Cbf1p, Met31p, and Met32p, whereas in *C. albicans*, the characterized components of this complex include Met4p, Cbf1p, and Met32p. Hence, Met28p and Met31p, unique to the Met transcription complex of *S. cerevisiae* are represented with dotted borders). Glycolysis-dependent sulfur metabolism in turn, is critical for fungal morphogenesis in both species and the ability of *C. albicans* to survive within macrophages and cause systemic infection in a *murine* model of candidiasis.

Supporting Information

1437
1438 **S1 Fig. Comparative Transcriptomics Identifies the Transcriptional Landscape of Cells**
1439 **Undergoing Pseudohyphal Differentiation**
1440
(A) Wild-type Σ1278b was spotted on SLAD, incubated for 10 days at 30 °C. Colonies were imaged
every day, for 10 consecutive days (D-1 to D-10), using Olympus MVX10 stereo microscope. Scale
bar represents 1mm for whole colony images. **(B)** Schematic overview of the regulation of amino
acid biosynthesis under nitrogen-limiting condition. **(C)** Heatmaps represent differential expression
of individual genes involved in biosynthesis and transport of various amino acids, in 2DG treated
cells compared to untreated cells isolated from day 5 and day 10 colonies, respectively.

1454

S2 Fig. Expression of Proteins Involved in the *de novo* Biosynthesis of Sulfur-containing Amino Acids in Response to Glycolysis Perturbation

(A) Epitope-tagged strains of various proteins involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids including Met4p, Met32p, Met16p, Met10p, Cys4p and Cys3p were spotted on SLAD in the presence and absence of sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG following which, cells from colonies were isolated at day 5 and levels of these proteins were assessed using Western blotting. Raw images of western blots were analysed using ImageJ to normalize targeted protein expression with the expression of housekeeping protein- β-actin, in order to generate densitometric graphs. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, **(P<0.01) and *(P<0.05). Error bars represent SEM. **(B)** Epitope-tagged strains of various proteins involved in the *de novo* biosynthesis of sulfur-containing amino acids including Met32p, Met16p, Met10p and Cys3p were grown in liquid SLAD and then treated with sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG for 24 hours after which protein expression was checked using Western blotting. Pgk1p was used as loading control. **(C)** Raw images of western blots were analysed using ImageJ to normalize targeted protein expression with the expression of housekeeping protein- Pgk1p, in order to generate densitometric graphs. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ***(P<0.001), **(P<0.01) and *(P<0.05). Error bars represent SEM.

1472

1473

S3 Fig. _C. albicans_ Hyphal Differentiation Assay

1475

(A) Wild-type SC5314 was spotted on SLAD with and without sub-inhibitory concentration of 2DG, incubated for ~4 days at 37 °C. Cells from colonies were isolated and single cells were imaged using Zeiss Apotome microscope (2 representative images are shown for each condition) and percentage of hyphal cells were calculated using ImageJ. Scale bar represents 10µm for single cell images. Statistical analysis was done using unpaired t-test, ****($P < 0.0001$). Error bars represent SEM.

1513 **S1 Table. Yeast Strains Used in this Study**

Strain	Genotype
S. cerevisiae Σ1278b	
Wild-type	*MATa/α*
SV18	*Δadh1::G418/Δadh1::HygB MATa/α*
SV21	*Δpfk1::HygB/Δpfk1::G418 MATa/α*
SV270	*Δmet32::NAT/Δmet32::G418 MATa/α*
SV281	*Δmet2::NAT/Δmet2::G418 MATa/α*
SV299	*Δmet17::NAT/Δmet17::G418 MATa/α*
SV305	*Δmet13::G418/Δmet13::NAT MATa/α*
SV311	*Δmet3::NAT/Δmet3::G418 MATa/α*
SV320	*MET32-HA::G418/MET32-HA::NAT MATa/α*
SV350	*Δmet5::NAT/Δmet5::G418 MATa/α*
SV386	*Δmet10::NAT/Δmet10::G418 MATa/α*
SV388	*Δmet16::NAT/Δmet16::G418 MATa/α*
SV394	*CYS3-HA::NAT/CYS3-HA::G418 MATa/α*
SV395	*CYS4-HA::NAT/CYS4-HA::G418 MATa/α*
SV402	*MET10-HA::NAT/MET10-HA::G418 MATa/α*
SV404	*MET16-HA::NAT/MET16-HA::G418 MATa/α*
SV461	*MET4-HA::NAT/MET4-HA::G418 MATa/α*
S. cerevisiae CEN.PK	
Wild-type	*MATa/α*
SV109	*Δadh1::G418/Δadh1::NAT MATa/α*
SV117	*Δpfk1::NAT/Δpfk1::G418 MATa/α*
C. albicans SC5314	
Wild-type	*MATa/α*
SV308	*Δpfk1::FRT/Δpfk1::SAT-FLP MATa/α*

1514

1515

1516 **S2 Table. Oligonucleotides Used in this Study**

Oligonucleotides	Sequence (5' to 3')
Primers for *S. cerevisiae* Gene Editing and Genotyping	
ADH1 KO F1	AGCTATACCAAGCATACAATCAACTATCTCATATACAATGCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
ADH1 R1	ATTTAATAATAAAAATCATAAATCATAAGAAATTCGCTTAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
ADH1 KO Chk	CGTTGTTGTCTCACCATATC
PFK1 KO F1	TTTTATATAAAAAATCTGAAACAAAATCATATCAAAGATGCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
PFK1 R1	CTCCTTTTGCTTAACTTAAACTTTTCATTGCAATCATTCAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
PFK1 KO Chk	AGGATGAGAAAGTGAAATCG
MET32 KO F1	AAGTCAAGAGGTATTATAAATTTCAAAAAAGTACCAAATGCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA

MET32 R1	ATTTTCTTATTTGAGAAGATACACGCTATTTACTCTTTCAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
MET32 KO Chk	GATGGTTTTTCGTCCCTTAC
MET17 KO F1	GATACATAGATACAATTCTATTACCCCCATCCATACAATGCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
MET17 R1	TAGGTTTATACATAATTTTACAACTCATTACGCACACTCAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
MET17 KO Chk	TTTTGCTTTTTCTCTTGAGG
MET13 KO F1	AGAACCACCACAGTTACTACTACAACCACATCGCAATATGCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
MET13 R1	CAATTCTGTTAAAGAACTGTTATCGTTGTCTGTGTTATTAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
MET13 KO Chk	AGGAAAAGTTGGCGATAGAC
MET3 KO F1	GAAAGTATAATAATAACAAGAATAAAGTATAATTAACATGCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
MET3 R1	TTTGCCCTACTTTTGAGATGGGAGCATTTTATGACGATTAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
MET3 KO Chk	CACGTGACCAGAAAAGTCAC
MET2 KO F1	TAATAGAAAAGAAAGAAAAAAAACGTAGTATAAAAGGAATGCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
MET2 R1	ATCTATGTTATGCCTGAGGTATGTGTGGTATCTATCCCTAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
MET2 KO Chk	TTCAGTTTGTCAAGGTTATGC
MET32 C tag F1	TCATCGTCAAGATAACAACCACAATGGTAGCAGTAATGGCCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
MET32 C tag Chk	GATGGTTTTTCGTCCCTTAC
CYS3 C tag F1	TTTGGAAGACATCAAGCAAGCCTTGAAACAAGCCACCAACCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
CYS3 R1	AAAGGTCCGGTCGAAGGCAGAGACGTGGCACTGGCGATTAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
CYS3 C tag Chk	CAGAGGTTTGAAGACTTTGC
Met10 Ctag F1	AGAATTAAAGGAAGCATCAAGATACATTTTAGAAGTCTACCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
Met10 Ctag Chk	TGGTTTAGGTACTGGTTTGG
Met16 Ctag F1	TGAAGCCAGCCGATTCGCGCAATTTTTAAAGCAAGATGCCCGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
Met16 Ctag Chk	AATACGGGGATTTCTTATGG
Met4 Ctag F1	AAGCTTAAAGAAGCAAATTTTTGAGAAGGTTCAGAAAGAACGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
Met4 R1	TATATATATATATAATTAAACTGTATAGTCTGTTATTTTAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
Met4 Ctag Chk	GAGCCAACTTTAAATGCAAG
Cys4 Ctag F1	CCATATCGTTACTAAGATGGATTTACTGAGCTACTTAGCACGGATCCCCGGGTTAATTAA
Cys4 R1	TTCTATGTTTGCTTTTATTTGAAGCGTGGGTTCTTATTTAGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC
Cys4 Ctag Chk	TTAAGGAAACCGCTAAGGTC

Primers for *C. albicans* Gene Editing and Genotyping	
Psfs2a PFK1 F1	ATTTGAATAGCTTTTTCTTATTATTGAATTCTTTAATTTATCGTTTATTGCAAACAATCAATTATTCCTTATTATTTTGGGCAGATAACGAATTAGAAATGAAGTTCCTATACTTTCTAG
Psfs2a PFK1 R1	CAACACATTGAATTACATATATGAGTATAAAAAATCAAACTATACTGGGGACTACAAATCTTACTATTTTACACAACTCCTTATCTTCTGTTCTTCATTTGAAGTTCCTATTCTCTAGAA
Psfs2a SAT-FLP F1	AACATTGGATGCTGAGAACC
Psfs2a SAT-FLP R1	GCACATAATGCTATTTTCTC
PFK1 ApaI UF1	GAGAGGGCCCGTGATGCCTAACTTCTTGGT
PFK1 SacII DR1	CTCTCCGCGGTAGGCTGAATTGCTCGTATG
Pfk1 KO R1 Chk	GTACCAATTGAAGTACCACC
FRT F1	CTTTCTAGAGAATAGGAACT
FRT R1	AGTTCCTATTCTCTAGAAAG
Primers for RT-qPCR	
Candida Act1 F1	TTGGATTCTGGTGATGGTGTTA
Candida Act1 R1	TCAAGTCTCTACCAGCCAAATC
Candida Met32 F1	CACCAACACAACACCATCAAC
Candida Met32 R1	TCCAATTCCACCACCAGTAATC
Candida Met3 F1	GTTCCAACAACAAACCCAACTC
Candida Met3 R1	TCACCATCAGCATTACCAGAAG
Candida Met14 F1	GTTGCTGAACAAAGAGATCCAAA
Candida Met14 R1	CCTGAATGGTTCTTAACGTGTATTT
Candida Met16 F1	GAGTTTCGGCTGTGCTAACT
Candida Met16 R1	TTCCACTTGTTTCCTCGTATTCT
Candida Met5 F1	TTTATGGTGCGTGTTCGTTTAC
Candida Met5 R1	TAGCCCTGGTGGTCAATTTC
Candida Met10 F1	GGGTTGATCCAAAGGGAAGAT
Candida Met10 R1	GACAATGGTGGCAACTTCATAAC
Candida Met17 F1	TCAAGGACATCACCAACACC
Candida Met17 R1	CTTAGAGTCACCCACATTAGCC
Candida Cys3 F1	TCGCCATACCTTTCCAATCC
Candida Cys3 R1	GGTTGCCAAGACTCCCATAA

1517

1518 **S3 Table. List of Reagents and Tools Used in this Study**

Reagents/ Resource	Reference or Source	Identifier or catalog Number
Recombinant DNA		
pFA6a-kanMX	Gift from Dr. Sunil Laxman	Not applicable
pFA6a-Hyg	Gift from Dr. Sunil Laxman	Not applicable
pFA6a-Nat	Gift from Dr. Sunil Laxman	Not applicable
pFA6a-Ctag-HA-G418	Gift from Dr. Sunil Laxman	Not applicable
pFA6a-Ctag-HA-NAT	Gift from Dr. Sunil Laxman	Not applicable

pSFS2a-NAT	Gift from Dr. Kaustuv Sanyal	Not applicable
Antibodies		
Rabbit anti-HA	Cell Signaling Technology	3724S
Mouse anti-β-actin	Cell Signaling Technology	3700
Mouse anti-PGK1	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	sc-130335
Goat anti-Rabbit IgG-HRP conjugate	Cell Signaling Technology	7074S
Horse anti-Mouse IgG-HRP conjugate	Cell Signaling Technology	7076S
Chemicals, enzymes and other reagents		
BD Bacto agar	Becton Dickinson	214010
Agarose	MP Biomedicals	100267
Ammonium sulfate	Sisco Research Laboratories	0149175
Blotto, non-fat dry milk	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	sc-2324
B-mercaptoethanol	Sigma-Aldrich	444203
Diluent	HiMedia	MB228
D-(+)-Glucose anhydrous	HiMedia	GRM016
Lithium acetate	Sigma-Aldrich	517992
Peptone	Thermo Fisher Scientific	211677
RNaseZAP	Sigma-Aldrich	R2020
SDS	G Biosciences	RC1184
Trichloro acetic acid	Sigma-Aldrich	100807
Tris, free base	HiMedia	MB029
Tween 20	Sigma-Aldrich	P7949
Yeast extract	Thermo Fisher Scientific	212750
Yeast nitrogen base w/o amino acids and ammonium sulfate	Becton Dickinson	233520
D-Sucrose	HiMedia	GRM3063
D-Fructose	Sigma-Aldrich	F3510
D-Maltose	Sigma-Aldrich	M5895
D-Mannose	Sigma-Aldrich	63580
D-Trehalose	Sigma-Aldrich	T0167
D-Galactose	Sigma-Aldrich	48260
L-Cysteine	Sigma-Aldrich	30089
L-Methionine	Sigma-Aldrich	64319
DL-Glyceraldehyde	Sigma-Aldrich	G5001
Sodium citrate	Sigma-Aldrich	C8532
Sodium sulfate	HiMedia	GRM1037
Glycerol	HiMedia	MB060
Potassium acetate	MP Biomedicals	191425
2-Deoxy-D-Glucose	Sigma-Aldrich	D8375
NAT	Jena Bioscience	AB-102XL
G418	MP Biomedicals	158782
Ethidium bromide	HiMedia	MB074
Pico-ECL substrate	Thermo Fisher Scientific	34579
Femto-ECL substrate	Thermo Fisher Scientific	34094
TEMED	Sisco Research Laboratories	52145

Hygromycin	Sigma-Aldrich	H0654
Ribopure RNA purification kit-Yeast	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AM1926
BCA Protein Assay kit	Thermo Fisher Scientific	23227
GMS Staining kit	ABcam	AB287884
Softwares		
RStudio v4.3.2	Posit	Not applicable
GraphPad Prism v9	GraphPad software	Not applicable
ImageJ		Not applicable
Other		
Glass beads	HiMedia	GRM2228
MATRIX thermoshaker	IKA	Not applicable
Spectrophotometer	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Not applicable
Proflex PCR systems	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Not applicable
MVX10 Stereo Microscope	OLYMPUS Scientific	Not applicable
Biosafety Cabinet	IGene Labserve	Not applicable
PVDF membrane	Milipore	IPVH00010
Mini Trans-Blot Cell Module	Bio-Rad	Not applicable
ChemiDoc™ MP analyzer	Bio-Rad	Not applicable
QuantStudio Real-Time PCR System	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Not applicable
Apotome widefield fluorescence microscope	Zeiss	Not applicable
Centrifuge 5425R	Eppendorf	Not applicable

1519